VEDIC INDEX OF NAMES AND SUBJECTS
WORKS BY THE SAME AUTHORS

I. BY PROF. MACDONELL.


II. BY DR. KEITH.


INDIAN TEXTS SERIES

VEDIC INDEX
OF
NAMES AND SUBJECTS

BY

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VOL. I

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Inception and Progress of the Book.—The origination of the present work was due to Professor T. W. Rhys Davids at the time when, several years ago, he was appointed general editor of the Indian Text Series to be published under the auspices of the Secretary of State for India. He then asked me to contribute a work supplying the historical material, as represented by proper names, to be found in the earliest period of Indian literature antecedent to the rise of Buddhism towards the close of the sixth century B.C. Since the subject came within the range of my special studies and moreover appeared to be one of considerable importance, I agreed to the proposal. But I did so with hesitation, because my leisure for a long time to come was already mortgaged by two works which involved much labour and on which I was already engaged. I soon came to the conclusion that till those works—the Brhaddevatā and the Vedic Grammar—were out of my hands, I could spare no time for the third book, the mere preparation, to say nothing of the publication, of which would thus have to be postponed for several years. Another hindrance would be caused by the tour of study and research in India which I contemplated making at the earliest opportunity. With the prospect of these long delays before me, I was tempted to throw up a task that seemed to have been rashly undertaken. At the same time, I was reluctant either to abandon or to put off indefinitely what I had once begun. It also seemed a pity to relinquish an enterprise which, if properly carried out, promised to be very useful.
Under these circumstances, collaboration appeared the only way out of the difficulty. I bethought myself of Mr. A. B. Keith, who, as Boden Sanskrit scholar, had been my pupil for four years, and who had already assisted me since 1899, not only by reading the proofs of, but by suggesting improvements in, my *History of Sanskrit Literature* and my *Sanskrit Grammar for Beginners*, as well as my edition of the *Brhaddevatā*, then commencing to be printed. I accordingly asked him if he had the time and inclination to collaborate with me in the proposed work by at once beginning to collect material for it. He consented without hesitation, and the Secretary of State for India readily sanctioned this modification of the arrangements already made. There was no other man to whom I could have entrusted with such complete confidence the task of carrying out this preliminary work accurately and rapidly.

In 1909, about a year after my return from India, Mr. Keith supplied me with a considerable part of his collectanea, while my *Vedic Grammar* was still passing through the press. The regular printing did not begin till early in 1910, about the time when that work was published. The interval was taken up with preparing a sufficient amount of 'copy' for the printer, as well as with settling various questions of arrangement and typography.

**Mode of Collaboration.**—Our respective shares in the production of the book are, generally stated, as follows: Dr. Keith has collected the material, while I have acted chiefly as an editor, planning the scope of the work, arranging the distribution of text and notes, selecting the type to be used, cutting out, adding to or modifying the matter, weighing the evidence for different interpretations and conclusions, and deciding as to which view, in case of possible alternatives, should be preferred. Having written up in its final form every article contained in the book, I accept the responsibility for every statement and opinion expressed in it. I do not think that Dr. Keith and I have disagreed upon any material point. When we have differed
on minor questions, he has deferred to my judgment, though his view may have been right just as often as mine. Where erroneous conclusions have been drawn, the reader will be helped to correct them by the method I have pursued of supplying from the original texts the evidence on which such conclusions are based.

Scope of the Work.—At the outset it was proposed, as I have already stated, that the book should furnish the historical material in Vedic literature as represented by proper names. As soon, however, as I began to examine more carefully the historical material thus available, I became convinced that restriction to proper names would result in a harvest too meagre to deserve being gathered in the form of a book. It seemed essential to collect all the historical matter accessible to us in the earliest literary documents of India, and thus to furnish a conspectus of the most ancient phase of Aryan civilization that can be realized by direct evidence. If properly and thoroughly treated this matter would, I felt sure, yield a book of genuine value, a comprehensive work on Vedic antiquities; for it would include all the information that can be extracted from Vedic literature on such topics as agriculture, astronomy, burial, caste, clothing, crime, diseases, economic conditions, food and drink, gambling, kingship, law and justice, marriage, morality, occupations, polyandry and polygamy, the position of women, usury, village communities, war, wedding ceremonies, widow burning, witchcraft, and many others. The proper names would embrace not only persons, tribes, and peoples, but also mountains, rivers, and countries. The geographical distribution of the Vedic population would thus also be presented.

From the historical data amplified in this way I proposed, however, to exclude matter belonging to the domain of religion, which it seemed better to relegate to a separate work. At the same time it soon became clear that certain aspects of religious activity inseparably connected with the social and political life
of the age would have to be admitted, such as the functions of the main priests and some festivals or ritual practices. Again, certain names of perhaps purely mythological figures might have to be mentioned. The evidence is occasionally insufficient to show whether a name represents an actual historical personage: a demon or a mythical hero or priest may be meant. An undoubted demon may even have to be included, such as the one that is supposed to cause eclipses, because he belongs to the domain of primitive astronomy.

**Chronological Limits.**—The period which the book was intended to embrace had been decided at the outset as that of the Vedas and Brāhmaṇas. The upper limit here is the date of the oldest hymns of the Rigveda. That date is uncertain, but my conviction (set forth in my *History of Sanskrit Literature*, pp. 11-12) that it is not much earlier than 1200 B.C. still remains unshaken. It does not appear to me to be in the slightest degree invalidated by Professor Hugo Winckler’s discoveries at Boghaz-köi, in Asia Minor, in the year 1907. That scholar has deciphered, in an inscription of about 1400 B.C. found there, the names of certain deities as *mi-it-ra*, *uru-w-na*, *in-da-ra*, and *na-ša-at-ti-ia*, which correspond to those of the important Vedic gods Mitra, Varuṇa, Indra, and Nāsatya. Three inferences may be drawn from the occurrence of these names. They may have been derived from Vedic India; in that case the Vedic religion must have flourished in India considerably before 1400 B.C., even though the hymns that have come down to us may not have been composed before that date. But that these names should have travelled all the way from India to Asia Minor is a hypothesis so highly improbable that it may be dismissed. Secondly, the names may belong to the early Iranian period after the Iranians had separated from the Indians, but before their language had reached the phonetic stage of the Avesta. This seems the most probable theory, both chronologically and geographically. It implies only that the Indian branch had separated from the Iranian, not that it had already entered
India. Lastly, the names, being common to the Iranian and Indian languages, might be assigned to the Indo-Iranian period when the two branches were still one people living in Iran. This theory would still allow two centuries for separation, migration to India, and the commencement of Vedic literature in the north-west of India.

The lower limit of the Vedic period is the epoch of the rise and spread of Buddhism, or, roughly, 500 B.C. The Brāhmaṇa literature to be exploited was assumed to be undoubtedly anterior to that date. The boundary line would, however, to some extent have to be overstepped by drawing on the Sūtras for evidence where the Vedas and Brāhmaṇa fail. But though the Sūtras are roughly contemporaneous with the first three centuries of Buddhism, they are practically an epitome of the practices of the Brāhmaṇa period, and are thus often of great value in illustration or corroboration of the facts of that period. They are also important as representing the Brahminical evidence for those three centuries, especially as it is somewhat uncertain how far even the earliest Buddhist literary sources go back in an authentic form to the three centuries following the death of Buddha. Names and practices not referred to before the Sūtras were, however, to be mentioned only incidentally if at all: the few cases to the contrary that actually occur are not real exceptions, because they are derived from Vedic verses quoted in Sūtras, or from Brāhmaṇa parts of Sūtras such as Baudhāyana.

Method Pursued.—Such was the scope of the work on which I finally decided before it was begun, and the plan has been adhered to in its execution as regards the contents. The manner in which those contents were to be presented was the next question to be settled and acted upon. Though both Dr. Keith and myself are familiar with the literature of the Vedic period from which the facts collected in these two volumes are drawn, and the mutual check exercised by two workers sifting the same material acts as a safeguard, it is
nevertheless not always possible to exclude the risk of error or unconscious bias in estimating evidence often obscure and doubtful. I have, therefore, throughout attached great importance to stating not only the evidence of the texts themselves from a first-hand knowledge, but also to setting forth fully the opinions of other authorities when the interpretation is uncertain. The Sanskrit scholar will thus be enabled to test without difficulty the correctness of the conclusions drawn directly from the original sources, while others will be protected from having to rely exclusively on what may possibly be one-sided views. Articles have often been illustrated by adducing parallels from the institutions of cognate Aryan nations, as that on 'Caste' (treated under Varna, ii. 427-471). I have further endeavoured to utilize, chiefly in the notes, knowledge gained from a first-hand study of the archaeologica remaine and of the modern conditions of India. Such knowledge, acquired during my tour in 1907-08, I have found to be of great value to me both as a student and as a teacher.

Arrangement.—The matter contained in these volumes is treated not in chapters, but in articles disposed in alphabetical order. That order was practically necessary when proper names only were to be included; when subjects were subsequently added to the plan, it still remained the most convenient method of arrangement. As all articles appear under Sanskrit words, the order which the latter follow is naturally that of the Sanskrit alphabet. This arrangement need, however, occasion no inconvenience to those users of the book who are unfamiliar with Sanskrit, because all the information they want can be found by reference to the full English Index at the end of Vol. ii. The Sanskrit Index, which contains, in addition to the terms representing the subjects treated, all incidental Sanskrit words occurring in the articles, is of course arranged in the Sanskrit order. For the purpose of obviating any possible inconvenience, the sequence of the Sanskrit alphabet is given on the last page of this preface. With the same end in view I
have given translations or explanations of all Sanskrit words and expressions, because the latter, though generally clear to Sanskrit scholars, would be unintelligible to others. Compound Sanskrit words have been divided into their component parts by the use of hyphens. In the case of obscure or irregularly formed Sanskrit words, I have sometimes added etymological explanations, which may be useful even to the Sanskrit scholar.

I have long had a rooted objection to crowding the letter-press of a book with parentheses containing a string of references or incidental explanations, because these distract the attention of the reader and interfere with his grasping the argument rapidly. I have accordingly in the present work (as in several previous ones) cleared the text of such obstructive matter, relegating references and minor explanations, illustrations, or discussions, to the notes. The sole exceptions are short references consisting of figures only, and occurring in articles of two or three lines in length. Thus, in the article 'Kauśārava' (i. 194), the figures (viii. 28) are added in parentheses at the end of the line. To have made a footnote out of these figures alone would have been a pedantic and an absurd application of the general principle.

The notes are placed in two columns, because this arrangement enables the reader to find them more rapidly than any other. They come at the end of, and immediately below, each article. It is only when the article is a long one extending beyond the first page that the notes do not all occupy this position. Those referring to each page are then placed at the foot of that page, and only those referring to the last page come at the end of the article (cf., e.g., i. Aksa).

The headlines are so arranged as to help the reader in finding what he wants quickly, as well as to convey the maximum of information. A glance at the inner corners at the top will show the alphabetical range of the articles occurring in any two pages, the one indicating the first word on the left page, the other the last word on the right page. The rest of the
headline of each page supplies a summary of the contents of that page. I have never been able to find any rational explanation why the title of the book held in one’s hand should be printed at the top of at least half, sometimes of all, the pages it contains. How this practice can possibly assist the reader is hard to understand.

Typographical Details.—Every Sanskrit word used as the title of an article is printed in thick type for the purpose of catching the eye of the reader more readily. Every such word mentioned in another article is on its first occurrence there similarly printed. This is both a simpler and a clearer way of referring to a word used in another place than the employment of parentheses and additional words or abbreviations, like ‘see’ or ‘cf.,’ which tend to distract the attention of the reader (see, e.g., Agastya). Both Sanskrit names (including titles of books) and ordinary Sanskrit terms used as English words are printed in Roman type, but then always with a capital (e.g., Purohita). Italic type is employed for Sanskrit words quoted as such, for expressions from other languages such as Latin or French, for the titles of all except Sanskrit books (e.g., Oldenberg, Buddha), and even of Sanskrit books when a particular edition is intended (thus Roth, Nirukta, but Yāska, Nirukta). English words are italicized only when in long articles the titles of subdivisions are given. All these uses of italics will be found exemplified in the articles 2. Aksa and 3. Aksa.

As regards numerals, Roman figures are employed to indicate the main divisions of a work, the subordinate parts being expressed by Arabic figures. Thus ‘Rigveda, ii. 3, 5,’ means ‘book 2, hymn 3, verse 5.’ The volume, on the other hand, is referred to by an Arabic numeral, the following figure indicating the page. Thus ‘Max Müller, Rgveda, 2, 135’ means ‘volume 2 of Max Müller’s edition of the Rigveda, page 135.’

I have avoided abbreviating the titles of books or journals even when they occur often, or are mentioned in the notes
PREFACE

Only. Contracted titles are as a rule intelligible to the general reader only by reference to an explanatory list appearing at the beginning or the end of a book. When a work is written consecutively, such an abbreviation can be looked up on its first occurrence, and as it is usually met with again at short intervals its explanation will be remembered. But in a book arranged in dictionary form, the occurrence of abridged titles becomes irksome to the reader because he meets them at any part of the book he opens, and often many at the same time; he will probably therefore be continually consulting the explanatory list. Hence I have only admitted the contractions 'Rv.' for Rigveda and 'Av.' for Atharvaveda, as these texts are constantly referred to, often several times in the same article. In some works, such as the *Encyclopaedia of Indo-Āryan Research*, excessively contracted titles, frequently assuming the appearance of algebraic symbols, become necessary owing to the great mass of bibliographical references required. In the present work such economy of space was in no way called for. If, however, the book had been intended for the use of Sanskrit scholars only, I should certainly have shortened many titles here given in full, for there are numerous formulaic abbreviations that are familiar to all specialists.

Transliteration.—The system here followed is that which has been adopted by the Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain and Ireland, and is generally employed elsewhere also. The chief difficulties caused to the non-scholar by this method of reproducing Sanskrit words are due, on the one hand, to the inadequacy of the Roman alphabet, which necessitates the use of diacritical marks, and, on the other, to the conventional use of two consonants in English, in certain cases, to represent a single sound, as *ch, sh, ph*, and *th*. The letter s here is the equivalent of *sh* in 'shun'; s is somewhat thinner in pronunciation, like the ss in 'session'; *n* resembles the n in the French 'bon'; and *b* the German *ch* in 'ach.' The palatal *c* is to be sounded like the initial *ch* in Churchill; *ch* has an
aspirate sound like that of the \( ch \) in the middle of the same word; \( ph \) and \( th \) are also aspirates, as in the English ‘up-hill’ and ‘ant-hill’ respectively. The vowels must all be pronounced as in Italian: short when unmarked (except \( e \) and \( o \), which are always long), long when they have a horizontal stroke above; thus \( i \) is sounded as in ‘pin,’ \( i \) like \( ee \) in ‘seen.’ The vowel \( r \) may be pronounced like \( ri \) in ‘risk.’

The Map.—In order that the reader may be enabled to visualize in a general way the territory known to and occupied by the Vedic tribes, I have prefixed to the first volume a map of Vedic India. Here the home of the Indo-Aryans of the earliest period—that of the Rigveda—is the territory drained by the Indus river system, lying between the 35th and 28th parallel of northern latitude and between 70° and 78° eastern longitude, and corresponding roughly to the North-West Frontier Province and the Panjab of the present day. The eastern limit was probably the Yamunā, though the Ganges was already known. In the subsequent Vedic period—that of the later Vedas and of the Brāhmaṇas—the Indo-Aryan settlers gradually occupied the whole of the Ganges Valley down to the delta of that river. But the home of the fully developed culture of the Brāhmaṇas lay in the territory extending in a south-easterly direction from longitude 74° to 85°, between the confluence of the Sarasvati and Drśadvatī in the west and that of the Sadānirā and Ganges on the east, and embracing roughly the south-eastern portion of the Panjab and the United Provinces of to-day. East of longitude 85° lay, to the north and south of the Ganges, the imperfectly Brahminized country corresponding to the modern Tirhut and Bihār, where Buddhism arose at the end of the Vedic period.

I ought to warn readers against placing too much reliance on the details of this map, because it is largely conjectural owing to the lack of precise geographical statement in the texts. The student, when using it, should always refer to the evidence furnished by the articles under each name that appears
The identification of many of the Vedic rivers with those of modern India is certain; but even here the exact channels in which they flowed in ancient times is doubtful. Thus the Indus, some of the Panjab rivers, and the old Sarasvati have been shown by Raverty, in an article in the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal for 1892, to have changed their courses considerably, even within historical times. It must be remembered that all the rivers of Vedic India traversed the alluvial plains of the north, and were, therefore, unlike the rivers of the Deccan, which flow in rocky beds, liable to constant fluctuations in their channels. Again, the Vedic tribes are nearly always mentioned so vaguely in the texts that they can only be approximately located by the rivers with which they are connected, or by the way in which their names are associated or grouped. Many such names had to be omitted altogether in the map because of the total lack of evidence for their localization. Some help may be obtained from the geographical position in the post-Vedic period of tribes mentioned in Vedic literature. But this evidence is apt to be doubtful, because the Vedic period was largely one of migration, and various tribes may then have occupied localities much farther north or west than those in which they were later permanently settled. The general evidence of the map, however uncertain many of the details may be, leaves no room for doubt as to the route by which the Aryans entered India, or as to the direction of the successive stages of the migration by which they eventually spread their civilization over the whole of the peninsula.

Conclusion.—The first volume was ready for issue more than a year ago, but to publish it without the indexes, which would necessarily have to appear at the end of the second volume, seemed to me to be perfectly useless. I therefore preferred to wait till the whole book could be brought out in a complete form. As both Dr. Keith and myself have each read one proof and nearly always two revises of every sheet before it went to
press, all but trivial errors and misprints ought to have been eliminated. I hope, however, that these two volumes will prove to be not only correct in form, but also valuable in matter, after our joint efforts to bring together and present their contents in a convenient and trustworthy manner.

A. A. MACDONELL.

Oxford,

July 18, 1912.

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Order of the Sanskrit Alphabet.

a ā i ī u ū r ṛ ḷ; e a i o au; k kh g gh, ṇ; c ch j jh ŋ; t th ḷ ḷh ṇ; t th d dh n; p ph b bh m; y r l v; ś ś s h.
VEDIC INDEX OF NAMES AND SUBJECTS.

Amśu.—1. Name of a protégé of the Aśvins in the Rigveda.  
2. Dhānamjayya, pupil of Amāvāsyya Śāṇḍilyāyana, according to the Vamaśa Brāhmaṇa.

Amhasas-pati.—This is the name of the intercalary month in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā (vii. 30; xxii. 31). See Māsa.

Akra.—In several passages of the Rigveda this word means, according to Geldner, 'horse.' Roth suggests that 'riding horse' is the precise sense. Cf. Aśva.

1 i. 143, 7; 189, 7; iii. 1, 12; iv. 6, 3; x. 77, 2.  
2 Vedische Studien, 1, 168, 169.  

1. Aksa, 'axle,' is a part of a chariot often referred to in the Rigveda and later. It was apparently fastened to the body of the chariot (Kośa) by straps (akṣā-nah, lit. 'tied to the axle,' though this word is also rendered 'horse'). The heating of the axle and the danger of its breaking were known. The part of the axle round which the nave of the wheel revolved was called Āni, 'pin.'
2. **Aksa.**—This word occurs frequently, from the Rigveda onwards, both in the singular and plural, meaning 'die' and 'dice.' Dicing, along with horse-racing, was one of the main amusements of the Vedic Indian; but, despite the frequent mention of the game in the literature, there is considerable difficulty in obtaining any clear picture of the mode in which it was played.

(1) **The Material.**—The dice appear normally to have been made of Vibhīḍaka nuts. Such dice are alluded to in both the Rigveda\(^1\) and the Atharvaveda,\(^2\) hence being called 'brown' (babhru), and 'born on a windy spot.'\(^3\) In the ritual game of dice at the Agnyādheya and the Rājasūya ceremonies the material of the dice is not specified, but it is possible that occasionally gold imitations of Vibhīḍaka nuts were used.\(^4\) There is no clear trace in the Vedic literature of the later use of cowries as dice.\(^5\)

(2) **The Number.**—In the Rigveda\(^6\) the dicer is described as 'leader of a great horde' (senānīr mahato gaṇasya), and in another passage\(^7\) the number is given as *tri-pancāsah*, an expression which has been variously interpreted. Ludwig,\(^8\) Weber,\(^9\) and Zimmer\(^10\) render it as fifteen, which is grammatically hardly possible. Roth\(^11\) and Grassmann\(^12\) render it as 'consisting of fifty-three.' Lüders\(^13\) takes it as 'consisting of one hundred and fifty,' but he points out that this may be merely a vague expression for a large number. For a small number Zimmer\(^14\) cites a reference in the Rigveda\(^15\) to one who fears 'him who holds four' (caturas cid dadamāṇāt), but the sense of that passage is dependent on the view taken of the method of playing the game.

(3) **The Method of Play.**—In several passages of the later

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\(^1\) vii. 86, 6; x. 34, 1.
\(^2\) Av. Paipp. xx. 4, 6.
\(^3\) Rv. x. 34. 5; Av. vii. 114, 7; Rv. x. 34, 1.
\(^4\) Sāyaṇa on Taittirīya Saṃhitā, i. 8, 6, 12; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 4, 4, 6.
\(^5\) Sāyaṇa, loc. cit., and on Rv. i. 41, 9; Mahīdhara on Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, x. 28.
\(^6\) x. 34, 12.
\(^7\) x. 34, 8.
\(^8\) See his translation.
\(^9\) Über das Rājasūya, 72.
\(^10\) Altindisches Leben, 284.
\(^11\) Following Sāyaṇa on Rv. x. 34, 8.
\(^12\) In his translation.
\(^13\) Das Würfelspiel im alten Indien, 25.
\(^15\) i. 41, 9.
Saṃhitās and Brāhmaṇas lists are given of expressions connected with dicing. The names are Kṛta, Tretā, Dvāpara, Āskanda, and Abhibhū in the Taittiriya Saṃhitā. In the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, among the victims at the Puruṣamedha, the kitava is offered to the Aksarāja, the ādinava-darśa to the Kṛta, the kalpin to the Tretā, the adhi-kalpin to the Dvāpara, the sabhā-sthānu to the Āskanda. The lists in the parallel version of the Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa are kitava, sabhāvin, ādinava-darśa, bahih-sad, and sabhā-sthānu, and Aksarāja, Kṛta, Tretā, Dvāpara, and Kali. From the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa it appears that another name of Kali was Abhibhū, and the parallel lists in the Taittiriya and Vājasaneyi Saṃhitās suggest that Abhibhū and Aksarāja are identical, though both appear in the late Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa list. The names of some of these throws go back even to the Rigveda and the Atharvaveda. Kali occurs in the latter, and Lüders shows that in a considerable number of passages in the former Kṛta means a ‘throw’ (not ‘a stake’ or ‘what is won’), and this sense is clearly found in the Atharvaveda. Moreover, that there were more throws (ayāḥ) than one is proved by a passage in the Rigveda, when the gods are compared to throws as giving or destroying wealth.

The nature of the throws is obscure. The St. Petersburg Dictionary conjectures that the names given above were applied either to dice marked 4, 3, 2, or 1, or to the sides of the dice so marked, and the latter interpretation is supported by some late commentators. But there is no evidence for the former interpretation, and, as regards the latter, the shape of the Vibhidaka nuts, used as dice, forbids any side being properly on the top. Light is thrown on the expressions by the descri-

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16 iv. 3, 3, 1, 2.
17 xxx. 18.
18 iii. 4, 1, 16. These must be persons conversant with dicing, but the exact sense of the names is unknown.
19 v. 4, 4, 6.
20 vii. 114, 1.
22 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
23 Grassmann's Dictionary, s.v.
24 vii. 52. See Rv. x. 42, 9 (kṛtayu
vinoti); 43, 5; x. 102, 2; v. 60, 1;
ix. 97, 58; i. 132, 1; x. 34, 6; i. 100, 9;
viili. 19, 10.
25 x. 116, 9.
26 Anandagiri on Chāndogya Upani-
śad, iv. 1. 4; Nilakantha on Mahā-
bhārata, iv. 50, 24.
27 Lüders, op. cit., 18.

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tion of a ritual game at the Agnyādheya and at the Rājasūya ceremonies. The details are not certain, but it is clear that the game consisted in securing even numbers of dice, usually a number divisible by four, the Kṛta, the other three throws then being the Tretā, when three remained over after division by four; the Dvāpara, when two was the remainder; and the Kali, when one remained. If five were the dividing number, then the throw which showed no remainder was Kali, the Kṛta was that when four was left, and so on. The dice had no numerals marked on them, the only question being what was the total number of the dice themselves.

There is no reason to doubt that the game as played in the Rigveda was based on the same principle, though the details must remain doubtful. The number of dice used was certainly large, and the reference to throwing fours, and losing by one, points to the use of the Kṛta as the winning throw. The Atharvaveda, on the other hand, possibly knew of the Kali as the winning throw. In one respect the ordinary game must have differed from the ritual game. In the latter the players merely pick out the number of dice required—no doubt to avoid ominous errors, such as must have happened if a real game had been played. In the secular game the dice were thrown, perhaps on the principle suggested by Lüders: the one throwing a certain number on the place of playing, and the other then throwing a number to make up with those already thrown a multiple of four or five. This theory, at any rate, accounts for the later stress laid on the power of computation in a player, as in the Nala.

No board appears to have been used, but a depression on which

28 Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, ii. 8; 9; Āpastamba Śrauta Sūtra, v. 19, 4; 20, 1, with Rudradatta’s note, for the Agnyādheya. Āpastamba, xviii. 18, 16 et seq., describes the Rājasūya game, and cf. Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iv. 4, 6; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 10, 5; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 4, 4, 6; Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 7, 5 et seq. For Kṛta as four, see Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xii. 3, 2, 1; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, i. 5, 29 See Caland, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 62, 123 et seq.
20 Rv. x. 34, 8.
21 Rv. i. 41, 9. In x. 34, 2, the loss is ascribed to aḥasya ekaśarasya, which confirms the explanation of Dvāpara given in Pāṇini, ii. 1, 10.
22 vii. 114, 1.
23 Rv. x. 34, 1. 8, 9; Av. iv. 38, 3.
the dice were thrown (adhi-devana, devana, iriṇa), was made in the ground. No dice box was used, but reference is made to a case for keeping dice in (aksā-vapana). The throw was called graha or earlier grābha. The stake is called vij. Serious losses could be made at dicing: in the Rigveda a dicer laments the loss of all his property, including his wife. Lüders finds a different form of the game referred to in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad.

3. Aksa.—In the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (vii. 3, 1) this word seems to denote the nut of the Vibhidaka (Terminalia bellerica).

Aksata or Aksīta.—In one passage of the Atharvaveda, dealing with the Jāyānya, mention is made of a remedy for sores designated both Aksata and Sukṣata, or, according to the reading of the Kauśika Sūtra, Aksata and Sukṣata, while Sāyaṇa has Aksita and Sukṣita. Bloomfield renders ‘not caused by cutting’ and ‘caused by cutting.’ Formerly he suggested ‘tumour’ or ‘boil.’ Whitney thinks that two varieties of Jāyānya are meant. Ludwig reads with Sāyaṇa aksīta, which he renders by ‘not firmly established’ in the invalid. Zimmer finds in it a disease Kṣata.

1 vii. 76, 4.
2 Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 17, 562.
3 Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, cxvii. et seq.
4 Translation of the Atharvaveda, 442.
5 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 500.
6 Altindisches Leben, 377.
Akṣā-vapana. See Akṣa.

Akṣu.—The word occurs in two passages of the Atharvaveda and one of the Rigveda. Roth renders it by ‘net,’ while Böhtlingk suggests ‘axle of a car.’ Geldner sees in it a stake or pole used with a fishermen’s net (Jāla), the pole of a wagon, and the pole of a house, whether vertical or horizontal, he leaves uncertain (see Vamśa). Bloomfield takes it as a covering of wickerwork stretched across a beam and sloping down to both sides—like a thatched roof, and this best explains the epithet ‘thousand-eyed’ (i.e., with countless holes) ascribed to it. In the other Atharvaveda passage he accepts the sense ‘net,’ and doubts if the word in the Rigveda is not an adjective (a-kṣu) as it is taken by Śāyaṇa. See also Gṛha.

Agasti.—This form of Agastya’s name occurs once in the Atharvaveda, where he appears as a favourite of Mitra and Varuṇa.

Agastya.—This is the name of a sage, of mythical character, who plays a great part in the later literature. He was a Māna, and therefore is called Mānya and son of Māna, and only once is there a reference to the legend prevalent in later times that he was a son of Mitra and Varuṇa.

His greatest feat was the reconciliation of Indra and the Maruts after Indra had been annoyed at his proposing to give the Maruts an offering to the exclusion of Indra. This feat is the subject of three hymns of the Rigveda, and is often referred

1 viii. 8, 18 (akhṣujālābhīyām); ix. 3, 18.
2 i. 180, 5.
3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
4 Dictionary, s.v.
5 Vedische Studien, 1, 136.
6 Av. viii. 8, 18.
7 Av. i. 180, 5.
to in the Brāhmaṇas, though the exact details and significance of the legend are variously treated by Oldenberg,siegf Hertel, and von Schroeder.9

He also appears in a strange dialogue with Lopāmudrā in the Rigveda,10 which appears to show him as an ascetic who finally yields to temptation. Von Schroeder11 regards it as a ritual drama of vegetation magic.

In another passage of the Rigveda12 he appears as helping in the Aśvins' gift of a leg to Viśpalā. Sāyaṇa holds that he was the Purohitā of Khela, and Sieg13 accepts this view, while Pischel14 thinks that Khela is a deity, Vivasvant.

Geldner15 shows from the Rigveda16 that Agastya, as brother of Vasiṣṭha—both being miraculous sons of Mitra and Varuṇa—introduces Vasiṣṭha to the Trītsus. There are two other references to Agastya in the Rigveda, the one17 including him in a long list of persons, the other alluding to his sister's sons (nadbhyah),18 apparently Bandhu, etc. In the Atharvaveda19 he appears as connected with witchcraft, and in a long list of sages.20 In the Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā21 cows, with a peculiar mark on their ears (vīṣṭya-karmyah), are associated with him.

5 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vii. 5, 5, 2; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 7, 11, 1; Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, ii. 1, 8; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, x. 11; Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa, xxi. 4, 5; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, v. 16; Kauṣītakī Brāhmaṇa, xxvi. 9.

6 Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 39, 60 et seq.

7 Die Sagenstofte des Rgveda, 108-119.


9 Mysterium und Minus im Rigveda, 91 et seq.

10 i. 179. Cf. Sieg, op. cit., 120-126; Oldenberg, op. cit., 66-68.


12 i. 117, 11; cf. i. 116, 15.


14 Vedic Studien, 1, 171-173.

15 This rare word is found as 'house' in the Kauṣītakī Upaniṣad.1

16 Vedic Studien, 2, 138, 143.

17 VII, 26. Sieg, 129, suggests that this refers to the Khela legend.

18 X, 60, 6.

19 ii. 32, 3; iii. 37, 1. Perhaps for this reason the Rigveda Anukramaṇī ascribes to him (Rv. i. 191) a magic hymn.

20 xviii. 3, 15.

21 iv. 2, 9.

Agni-dagdha.—This epithet (‘burnt with fire’)\(^1\) applies to the dead who were burned on the funeral pyre. This is one of the two normal methods of disposing of the dead, the other being burial (an-agnidagdhaḥ, ‘not burnt with fire’).\(^2\) The Atharvaveda\(^3\) adds two further modes of disposal to those—viz., casting out (paroptāh), and the exposure of the dead (uddhitāḥ). The exact sense of these expressions is doubtful. Zimmer\(^4\) considers that the former is a parallel to the Iranian practice of casting out the dead to be devoured by beasts, and that the latter refers to the old who are exposed when helpless.\(^5\) Whitney\(^6\) refers to the latter expression to the exposure of the dead body on a raised platform of some sort.

Burial was clearly not rare in the Rigvedic period: a whole hymn\(^7\) describes the ritual attending it. The dead man was buried apparently in full attire, with his bow in his hand, and probably at one time his wife was immolated to accompany him, in accordance with a practice common among savage tribes. But in the Vedic period both customs appear in a modified form: the son takes the bow from the hand of the dead man, and the widow is led away from her dead husband by his brother or other nearest kinsman. A stone is set between the dead and the living to separate them. In the Atharvaveda,\(^8\) but not in the Rigveda, a coffin (vṛkṣa) is alluded to. In both Samhitās\(^9\) occur other allusions to the ‘house of earth’ (bhūmi-grha). To remove the apparent discrepancy between burning and burial, by assuming that the references to burial are to the burial of the burned bones, as does Oldenberg,\(^10\) is unnecessary and improbable, as burning and burial subsisted side by side in Greece for many years.

Burning was, however, equally usual, and it grew steadily in frequency, for in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad\(^11\) the adornment

1 Rv. x. 15, 14; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 1, 1, 7; dagdhaḥ, Av. xviii. 2, 34.
2 Rv., loc. cit.; =nikhātāḥ, Av. xviii. 2, 34.
3 Loc. cit.
4 Altindisches Leben, 402.
5 Rv. viii. 51, 2.
6 Translation of the Atharvaveda, 841.
7 x. 18. The interpretation of v. 8 is a famous crux, see Patni.
8 xviii. 2, 25; 3, 70.
9 Rv. vii. 89, 1; Av. v. 30, 14; xviii. 2, 52.
10 Religion des Veda, 571.
11 viii. 8, 5.
of the body of the dead with curd (Āmikṣā), clothes, and ornaments, in order to win the next world, is referred to as something erroneous and wrong, and in the funeral Mantras of the Vājasaneyi Samhitā only burning seems to be contemplated; the verses which refer to burial here really alluding to the burial of the ashes in the burying-ground (śmaśāna). The body was wrapped in fat, as we learn from the funeral hymn in the Rigveda, a goat being apparently burned with it, to act as a guide on the way to the next world. According to the Atharvaveda a draft-ox was burned presumably for the dead to ride with in the next world. It was expected that the dead would revive with his whole body and all his limbs (sarva-tanūḥ sāṅgaḥ), although it is also said that the eye goes to the sun, the breath to the wind, and so forth.

Before burial or burning, the corpse was washed, a clog (kūdi) being tied to the foot to prevent the deceased returning to earth.

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10 xxxv. Cf. also Kauṣika Sūtra, 80 et seq., which treats the Atharvaveda hymns, xviii. 1-3, as intended for burning only.
11 Av. v. 31, 8; x. i, 18; Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 2, 8, 5; 4, 11, 3.
12 Rv. x. 16, 7.
13 Rv. x. 16, 4. But oja may mean 'the unborn part,' as Weber prefers to take it, Proceedings of the Berlin Academy, 1895, 847.
14 xii. 2, 48.
15 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 6, 1, 1; xi. 2, 6; xii. 3, 31. Cf. Av. xi. 3, 32. This fact probably explains the use of bēṣah in Rv. x. 16, 5. The dead enjoy sexual pleasures in the next world; see Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 5, 307, n. 462.
16 Av. v. 19, 14.
17 Av. v. 19, 12; see Roth, Festgruss an Böhtlingk, 98; Bloomfield, American Journal of Philology, 12, 416.
18 Rv. x. 16, 3.
19 Av. v. 19, 14.
20 Av. v. 19, 12; see Roth, Festgruss an Böhtlingk, 98; Bloomfield, American Journal of Philology, 12, 416. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 401-407; Roth, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 8, 468 et seq.; Siebenzig Lieder, 150 et seq.; Oldenberg, Religion des Veda, 570 et seq.; Caland, Die altindischen Todten- und Bestattungsgebräuche; von Schroeder, Indiens Literatur und Cultur, 40-42; Hillebrandt, Vedicische Mythology, 3, 413-423; Rituallitteratur, 87 et seq.; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, 165, 166; Proceedings of the Berlin Academy, 1895, 815 et seq.

Agni-bhū Kaśyapa is mentioned in the Vaṭa Brāhmaṇa as a pupil of Indrabhū Kaśyapa.

1 Indische Studien, 4, 374.

Agni-śāla.—This term, which designates part of the sacrificial
apparatus,\(^1\) is applied in the Atharvaveda\(^2\) to a part of an ordinary house, presumably the central hall where the fire-place was.

\(^1\) Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xix. 18.  
\(^2\) ix. 3, 7.

Aghā.—In the wedding hymn of the Rigveda\(^1\) it is said that cows are slain in the Aghās, and the wedding takes place at the Arjunis (dual). The Atharvaveda\(^2\) has the ordinary Maghās instead. It is impossible to resist the conclusion that the reading of the Rigveda was deliberately altered because of the connection of the slaughter of kine with sin (aghā)—possibly, too, with a further desire to emphasize the contrast with aghnyā, a name for ‘cow.’ Moreover, in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇā\(^3\) occurs the formula ‘Śvāhā to the Maghās, Svāhā to the Anaghās.’ See also Nakṣatra.

\(^1\) x. 85, 13.  
\(^2\) xiv. 1, 13.  
\(^3\) iii. 1, 4, 8.  
Cf. Weber, Naxatra, 2, 364; Proceedings of the Berlin Academy, 1894, 804; Jacobi, Festgruss an Roth, 69; Winternitz, Das altindische Hochzeits-rituell, 32; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 742; Thibaut, Indian Antiquary, 24, 95.

Aghāśva.—The name of a serpent in the Atharvaveda.

\(^1\) x. 4, 10. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 95.

A-ghnyā.—See Māmsa.

Aṅka.—The Taittirīya Saṃhitā\(^1\) and Brāhmaṇā\(^2\) refer to two Aṅkas and two Nyaṅkas as parts of a chariot. The meaning of these terms is quite obscure. The commentators refer them to the sides or wheels. Zimmer\(^3\) compares the Greek āντυρψες\(^4\) and thinks that the Aṅkau were the upper border of the body of the chariot (kośa, vandhura), and the Nyaṅkau the lower rims for greater security. Oldenberg\(^5\) confesses that the exact sense is impossible to make out, but considers that the terms at once refer to parts of the chariot and to divinities, while Böhtlingk\(^6\) takes the term as referring to divinities alone.

\(^1\) i. 7, 7, 2.  
\(^2\) ii. 7, 8, 1. Cf. Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 5.  
\(^3\) Altindisches Leben, 251, 252.  
\(^6\) Dictionary, s.v.
Aṅgās.—The name occurs only once in the Atharvaveda\(^1\) in connection with the Gandhāris, Mūjavants, and Magadhas, as distinct peoples. They appear also in the Gopatha Brāhmaṇa\(^2\) in the compound name Aṅga-magadhāk. As in later times they were settled on the Sone and Ganges,\(^3\) their earlier seat was presumably there also. See also Vaṅga.

Aṅga Vairocana.—He is included in the list of anointed kings in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa.\(^1\) His Purohita was Udamaya, an Ātreya.

\(^1\) v. 22, 14.
\(^2\) ii. 9.
\(^3\) Cf. Zimmer, *Altindisches Leben*, 35; Bloomfield, *Hymns of the Atharvaveda*, 446, 449; Pargiter, *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society*, 1908, 852, inclines to regard them as a non-Aryan people that came over-sea to Eastern India. There is nothing in the Vedic literature to throw light on this hypothesis.

Aṅgārāvakṣayana.—A word of doubtful meaning found in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.\(^1\) It is rendered 'tongs' by Max Müller and Böhtlingk in their translations. The St. Petersburg Dictionary explains it as 'a vessel in which coals are extinguished,' and Monier-Williams as 'an instrument for extinguishing coals.' The smaller St. Petersburg Dictionary renders the word 'coal-shovel or tongs.' Cf. Ulmukāvakṣayana.

\(^1\) iii. 9, 18.

Aṅgīras.—The Aṅgīras appear in the Rigveda\(^1\) as semi-mythical beings, and no really historical character can be assigned even to those passages\(^2\) which recognize a father of the race, Aṅgiras. Later, however, there were definite families of Aṅgīras, to whose ritual practices (ayana, dvirātra) references are made.\(^3\)

\(^1\) Cf. Hillebrandt, *Vedische Mythologie*, ii. 156-169.
\(^2\) Rv. i. 45, 3; 139, 9; iii. 31, 7, etc.; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, i. 2, 10.
\(^3\) Av. xviii. 4, 8, but this may be mythical; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xx. 11, 1; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vii. 1, 4, 1. Cf. Macdonell, *Vedic Mythology*, 142, 143.

Aṅguṣṭha.—As a measure of size this word appears in the Kāṭhaka Upaniṣad (iv. 12; vi. 17).
A-cyut.—He acted as Pratiharī at the Sattra celebrated by the Vibhindukīyas and described in the Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa.\(^1\)

\(^1\) iii. 233. See *Journal of the American Oriental Society*, 18, 38.

Aja, Ajā.—This is the ordinary name for goat in the Rigveda\(^1\) and the later literature. The goat is also called *Basta, Chāga, Chagala*. Goats and sheep (*ajāvayaḥ*) are very frequently mentioned together.\(^2\) The female goat is spoken of as producing two or three kids,\(^3\) and goat’s milk is well known.\(^4\) The goat as representative of Pūṣan plays an important part in the ritual of burial.\(^5\) The occupation of a goatherd (*ajaḥpāla*) was a recognized one, being distinguished from that of a cowherd and of a shepherd.\(^6\)

\(^1\) *Aja* in Rv. x. 16, 4; i, 162, 2. 4; Av. ix. 5, 1; Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, xxii. 9, etc.; *aja* in Rv. viii. 70, 15; Av. vi. 71, 1; Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, xxiii., 56, etc.

\(^2\) Rv. x. 90, 10; Av. viii. 7, 25; Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, iii. 43, etc.

\(^3\) Taittirīya Saṁhitā, vi. 5, 10, 1.


\(^5\) Rv. x. 16, 4, etc. Cf. p. 9.

\(^6\) Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, xxx. 11; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 9, 1.

Aja.—The Ajas are named in one verse of the Rigveda\(^1\) as having been defeated by the *Tr̄tsus* under Sudās. They are there mentioned with the *Yakṣus* and *Śigrus*, and Zimmer\(^2\) conjectures that they formed part of a confederacy under Bheda against Sudās. The name has been regarded as a sign of totemism,\(^3\) but this is very uncertain, and it is impossible to say if they were or were not Āryans.

\(^1\) vii. 18, 19.


Ajakāva.—This name of a poisonous scorpion occurs once in the Rigveda.\(^1\)


Aja-gara (*‘goat-swallower’*) occurs in the Atharvaveda\(^1\) and in the list of animals at the Asvamedha,\(^2\) or horse sacrifice, as the

\(^1\) xi. 2, 25; xx. 129, 17.

\(^2\) Taittirīya Saṁhitā, v. 5, 14, 1; Maitrāyaṇī Saṁhitā, iii. 14, 19; Vāja-

saneyi Saṁhitā, xxiv. 38.
name of the boa-constrictor. Elsewhere it is called Vāhasa. It denotes a person at the snake feast in the Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa.  

3 Taittiriya Samhitā, v. 5, 13, i; 4 xxv. 15, in the form of Ajagāva, Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 34. with which cf. Ajagāva.

Ajā-midha.—The Ajāmidhas, or descendants of Ajāmidha, are referred to in a hymn of the Rigveda. 1 Ludwig 2 and Oldenberg 3 deduce from the use of this patronymic that Ajāmidha was the seer of that hymn.

1 iv. 44, 6. 2 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 123. 3 Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 215.

135.

Ajā-sṛngī.—This plant (‘goat’s horn’), equated by the commentator with Viṣaṇin (the Odina pinnata), is celebrated as a demon-destroyer in the Atharvaveda. 1 Its other name is Arāṭaki. 2 Weber 3 suggests that it is the Prosopis spicigera or Mimosa suma.


Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 408, 409; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 68; Caland, Altindisches Zauberritual, 89.

Ajāta-satru.—He is mentioned as a King of Kāśi (Kāśya) in the Brhadāraṇyaka 1 and Kauśitaki 2 Upaniṣads, where he instructs the proud Brāhmaṇa Bālāki as to the real nature of the self. He is not to be identified with the Ajātasattu of the Buddhist texts. 3

1 ii. 1, i. 2 iv. 1. 3 Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 213.

Hoernle, Osteology, 166; Keith, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 62, 138.

Ajñāta-yākṣma, the ‘unknown sickness,’ is mentioned in the Rigveda, 1 Atharvaveda, 2 and Kāṭhaka Samhitā. 3 It is referred to in connection with Rāyākṣma. Grohmann 4 thinks that the two are different forms of disease, hypertrophy and atrophy, the purpose of the spell in the Rigveda being thus the removal of all disease. From the Atharvaveda 5 he deduces its identity with Balāsa. Zimmer, 6 however, points out that this

1 x. 161, i = Av. iii. 11, 1. 2 vi. 127, 3. 3 xiii. 16. 4 Indische Studien, 9, 400. 5 vi. 127, 3. 6 Altindisches Leben, 377, 378.

Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 342; Atharvaveda, 60; Jolly, Medicin (in Bühler’s Encyclopædia), 89.
Conclusion is unjustified, leaving the disease unidentified, which seems to accord with its name.

**Ajina.**—This word denotes generally the skin of an animal—e.g., a gazelle,¹ as well as that of a goat (Ajā).² The use of skins as clothing is shown by the adjective 'clothed in skins' (ajina-vāsin) in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,³ and the furrier's trade is mentioned in the Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā.⁴ The Maruts also wear deer-skins,⁵ and the wild ascetics (muni) of a late Rigveda hymn⁶ seem to be clad in skins (Mala).

1 Av. v. 21, 7.  
2 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 2, 1, 21.  
3 iii. 9, 1, 12.  
4 xxx. 15 (ajina-saṃdha); Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 2, 13, 1 (ajina-saṃdha).  
5 RV. i. 166, 10.  

**Ajira.**—He was Subrahmanya priest at the snake festival of the Paṅcavimśa Brāhmaṇa.¹

1 xxv. 15. See Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 35.

**Ajigarta Sauyavasa.**—This is the name given to the father of Śunaḥśepa in the famous legend of the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa,¹ perhaps invented for the occasion, as Weber² suggests.

1 vii. 15; 17. Cf. Śāṅkhāyana Srauta Brāhmaṇa, iii. 9, 1, 12.  
2 Indische Studien, 1, 460; Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

**A-jyeyatā.** See Brāhmaṇa.

**Aṇicin Mauna.**—He is mentioned as an authority on ritual, and contemporary with Jābāla and Citra Gauśṛāyaṇi or Gauśra, in the Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa.¹

1 xxiii. 5.

**Aṇu.**—This is the designation in the Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā¹ and the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad² of a cultivated grain, apparently the Panicum miliaceum.

1 xviii. 12.  
2 vi. 3, 13 (Kāṇva), where see Dviveda's note.

**Atithi ('guest').**—A hymn of the Atharvaveda¹ celebrates in detail the merits of hospitality. The guest should be fed before

1 ix. 6.
Atidhanvan Saunaka] HOSPITALITY—ATITHIGVA

the host eats, water should be offered to him, and so forth. The Taithirîya Upaniṣad also lays stress on hospitality, using the expression 'one whose deity is his guest' (atithi-deva). In the Aitareya Āranyaka it is said that only the good are deemed worthy of receiving hospitality. The guest-offering forms a regular part of the ritual, and cows were regularly slain in honour of guests.

2 i. 11, 2. 3 i. 1, 1. 4 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, vii. 3, 2, 1. 5 Cf. Bloomfield, American Journal of Philology, 17, 426; Hillebrandt, Ritual-litteratur, 79.

Atithigva.—This name occurs frequently in the Rigveda, apparently applying, in nearly all cases, to the same king, otherwise called Divodāsa. The identity of the two persons has been denied by Bergaigne, but is certainly proved by a number of passages, when the two names occur together, in connection with the defeat of Śambara. In other passages Atithigva is said to have assisted Indra in slaying Parnaya and Karanja. Sometimes he is only vaguely referred to, while once he is mentioned as an enemy of Turvāsa and Yadu. Again Atithigva is coupled with Āyu and Kutsa as defeated by Turvayāna.

A different Atithigva appears to be referred to in a Dānastuti ('Praise of Gifts'), where his son, Indrota, is mentioned.

Roth distinguishes three Atithigvas—the Atithigva Divodāsa, the enemy of Parnaya and Karanja, and the enemy of Turvayāna. But the various passages can be reconciled, especially if it is admitted that Atithigva Divodāsa was already an ancient hero in the earliest hymns, and was becoming almost mythical.

1 Religion Védique, 2, 342 et seq. 2 Rv. i. 51, 6; ii. 112, 14; iii. 139, 7; iv. 26, 3; vi. 47, 22. 3 Rv. i. 53, 8; x. 48, 8. 4 Rv. vi. 26, 3. 5 Rv. vii. 19, 8. There is no ground for assuming the reference here to be to a later Atithigva.

Ati-dhanvan Śaunaka.—He is mentioned as a teacher in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad and the Vāmsa Brāhmaṇa.

1 i. 9, 3. 2 Indische Studien, 4, 384.
A-trṇāda.—This term (‘not eating grass’) was applied, according to the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, to a newborn calf.\(^1\)

\(^1\) i. 5, 2. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 268.

1. Atka.—This word occurs frequently in the Rigveda, but its sense is doubtful. Roth, Grassmann, Ludwig, Zimmer,\(^1\) and others render it as ‘garment’ in several passages,\(^2\) when the expressions ‘put on’ (vya or prati muṅc) or ‘put off’ (muṅc) are used of it, and when it is said to be ‘woven’ (vyuta)\(^3\) or ‘well-fitting’ (surabhi).\(^4\) On the other hand, Pischel\(^5\) denies that this sense occurs, and otherwise explains the passages. He takes the term to mean ‘axe’ in four places.\(^6\)

\(^1\) Altindisches Leben, 262.
\(^2\) i. 95, 7; ii. 35, 14; iv. 18, 5; v. 55, 6; 74, 5; vi. 29, 3; viii. 41, 7; ix. 101, 14; 107, 13; Sāmaveda, ii. 1193.
\(^3\) Rv. i. 122, 2.
\(^4\) Rv. vi. 29, 3; x. 123, 7.
\(^5\) Vedische Studien, 2, 193-204.
\(^6\) Rv. v. 55, 6; vi. 33, 3; x. 49, 3; 99, 9.

2. Atka.—In two passages of the Rigveda\(^1\) this word is regarded as a proper name by Roth, Grassmann, and Ludwig. But Zimmer\(^2\) explains it in these passages as the ‘armour of a warrior as a whole,’ and Pischel\(^3\) thinks that in both cases an ‘axe’ is meant.

\(^1\) x. 49, 3; 99, 9.
\(^2\) Altindisches Leben, 262, 297.
\(^3\) Vedische Studien, 2, 195.

Aty-amhas Āruni.—According to the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa (iii. 10, 9, 3-5), this teacher sent a pupil to question Plakṣa Dayyāmpati as to the Sāvitra (a form of Agni). For this impertinence his pupil was severely rebuked.

Aty-arāti Jānam-tapi, though not a prince, was taught the Rājasūya by Vāsiṣṭha Sātyahavya, and thereupon conquered the earth. When Vāsiṣṭha reminded him of his indebtedness, and claimed a great reward, the warrior replied irascibly that he intended to conquer the Uttara Kuruṣ, and that Vāsiṣṭha would then become King of the Earth, Atyarāti himself being his general (senā-pati). Vāsiṣṭha replied that as no mortal man could conquer the Uttara Kuruṣ he was cheated of his reward.
He consequently procured Atyarati’s defeat and death at the hands of Amitratapana Sūṣmīṇa Saibya.1


Atri.—Neither Atri himself nor the Atris can claim any historical reality,1 beyond the fact that Maṇḍala V. of the Rigveda is attributed, no doubt correctly, to the family of the Atris.2 The Atris as a family probably stood in close relations with the Priyamedhas3 and Kaṁvas,4 perhaps also with the Gotamas5 and Kāksīvatas.6 The mention of both the Paruṣṇi and the Yamunā in one hymn7 of the fifth Maṇḍala seems to justify the presumption that the family was spread over a wide extent of territory.

1 For Atri in the Rigveda, see Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, 145. Cf. also Av. ii. 32, 3; iv. 29, 3; Mantra Brāhmaṇa, ii. 7, i; Taittiriya Āranyaka, iv. 36, etc.; Bṛhadāranyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 2, 4.
2 Cf. Rv. v. 39, 5; 67, 5; Kaṇṭakai Brāhmaṇa, xxiv. 3; Aitareya Āranyaka, ii. 2, 7.
3 Cf. Rv. i. 45, 3; 139, 9; viii. 5, 25; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, viii. 22.
4 Cf. Rv. i. 118, 7; v. 41, 4; x. 159, 5.
5 Cf. Rv. i. 183, 5.
6 Cf. Rv. x. 143, 1.

Atharvan.—The name in the singular denotes the head of a semi-divine family of mythical priests,1 of whom nothing historical can be said. In the plural the family as a whole is meant. In a few places an actual family seems to be referred to. Thus, for instance, they are mentioned as recipients of gifts in the Dānastuti2 (‘Praise of Gifts’), of Aśvattha’s DAIVA is characteristically the pupil of Mrtyu.

1 See Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, 141. In the Vamsa of the Bṛhadāranyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 6, 3, Atharvan

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generosity; their use of milk mingled with honey in the ritual is referred to, and a cow that miscarries (ava-tokā) from accident is dedicated to the Atharvans, according to the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa. 4

3 Rv. ix. 11, 2.
4 iiii. 4, ri, i. Cf. Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxx. 15.
Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, xxxv. et seq., who (p. xxxviii) takes avatokā as a woman, and the Atharvans as the hymns; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 2, 174 et seq.

Atharvāṇaḥ.—This expression 1 is used with Aṅgirasah, to denote the Atharvaveda. The compound Atharvāṅgirasah is employed in the same sense.

1 Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 12, 9, 1; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 4, 3, 5 Paṅcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xvi. 10, 10; et seq.

Atharvāṅgirasah.—This is the collective name of the Atharvaveda in several passages 1 of the later Brāhmaṇas. It occurs once in the Atharvaveda itself, 2 while the term Atharvaveda is not found before the Sūtra period. 3 The compound seems, according to Bloomfield, 4 to denote the two elements which make up the Atharvaveda. The former part refers to the auspicious practices of the Veda (bhesajāni); 5 the latter to its hostile witchcraft, the yātu 6 or abhi-cāra.7 This theory is supported by the names of the two mythic personages Ghora Aṅgiras and Bhīṣaj Ātharvāṇa, as well as by the connection of Atharvāṇaḥ and Ātharvaṇāni with healing (bhesaja) in the Paṅcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa. 8 Moreover, the term bhesajā (‘remedies’) designates in the Atharvaveda 9 that Veda itself, while in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa 10 yātu (‘sorcery’) conveys the same meaning. The evidence, however, being by no means convincing, it remains probable that there existed no clear differentiation between the two sages as responsible for the Atharvaveda as a whole.

1 Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 12, 8, 2; Taittirīya Āranyaka, ii. 9; Šatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 5, 6, 7; Brhad-āranyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 4, 10; iv. 1, 2; 5, 11; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iii. 4, 1, 2; Taittirīya Upaniṣad, ii. 3, 1.
2 x. 7, 20.
3 Śāṅkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, xvi. 2, 9, etc.
5 Av. xi. 6, 14.
6 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, x. 5, 2, 20.
7 Kauśikā Sūtra, 3, 19.
8 xii. 9, 10; xvi. 10, 10.
9 x. 6, 14.
10 x. 5, 2, 20.
Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 2, 177.
A-drśta.—‘The unseen’ is a term used in the Rigveda\(^1\) and the Atharvaveda\(^2\) to designate a species of vermin. The sun is also described as ‘the slayer of the unseen’ (adrśta-han),\(^3\) and as a counterpart a ‘seen’ (drśta) is mentioned.\(^4\) In one passage\(^5\) the epithets ‘seen’ and ‘unseen’ are applied to the worm (Krmi), their use being no doubt due to the widespread theory of diseases being due to worms, whether discernable by examination or not.\(^6\)

\(^1\) Rv. i. 191, 4 = Av. vi. 52, 2.  
\(^2\) vi. 52, 3.  
\(^3\) Rv. i. 191, 9 = Av. vi. 52, 1; Av. v. 23, 6.  
\(^4\) Av. ii. 31, 2; viii. 8, 15.  
\(^5\) Av. v. 23, 6. 7.  

Adma-sad.—This expression (lit. ‘sitting at the meal’), found several times in the Rigveda,\(^1\) is usually rendered ‘guest at the feast,’ but Geldner\(^2\) adduces reasons to show that it means ‘a fly,’ so called because of its settling on food.

Adri.—Zimmer\(^1\) deduces from the use of this word (‘rock,’ ‘stone’) in a passage of the Rigveda,\(^2\) that sling-stones were used in Vedic fighting. But the passage is mythical, referring to Indra’s aid, and cannot be used with any certainty as evidence for human war. More probably it merely denotes Indra’s bolt. See also Aśani.

\(^1\) *Altindisches Leben*, 301. Cf. Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.  
\(^2\) i. 51, 3.

Adhi-devana.—The place where the dice were thrown is thus designated in the Atharvaveda\(^1\) and the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,\(^2\) according to Lüders.\(^3\) Roth,\(^4\) followed by Whitney, takes it to mean ‘gambling-board.’ See Akṣa.

\(^1\) v. 31, 6; vi. 70, 1.  
\(^2\) v. 4, 4, 20. 22. 23.  
\(^3\) *Das Würfelspiel im alten Indien*, 11-13.  
\(^4\) St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Adhi-rāja.—The word occurs fairly often throughout the early literature,\(^1\) denoting ‘overlord’ among kings or princes.

\(^1\) Rv. x. 128, 9; Av. vi. 98, 1; ix. 10, 24; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, ii. 4, 14, 2; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iv. 12, 3; Kāthaka.  
\(^2\) Saṃhitā, viii. 17; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 1, 2, 9 (adhirājān); Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 4, 2, 2; Nirukta, vii. 2.
In no passage is it clear that a real over-king is meant, as the word rājan may mean king or merely prince, a person of royal blood. On the whole it seems most probable that the word connotes no more than ‘king’ as opposed to ‘prince.’

Adhi-śavaṇa.—The two Adhiśavaṇas¹ are usually understood, as by Roth² and Zimmer,³ to designate the two boards between which the Soma was pressed. Hillebrandt,⁴ however, shows from the ritual that the boards were not placed one over the other, but were placed one behind the other, the two serving as a foundation upon which the Soma was pressed by a stone. This theory seems to account best for the etymological sense of the name ‘over-press,’ as well as for the use of the word as an adjective (‘used for pressing upon’). But according to the procedure as witnessed by Haug⁵ in the Deccan, the shoots of the plant are first placed on the skin, one of the boards being then laid over them and pounded with a stone. The shoots are then taken out and placed upon the board, the second board being then laid over them.

¹ Vājasaneyi Śaṃhitā, xviii. 21; Av. v. 20, 10; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 9, 4, 1; 5, 3, 22 (adhiśavaṇe phalake); Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 32 (adhiśavaṇe carma, ‘the skin upon which the pressing takes place’; adhiśavaṇe phalake, ‘the boards on which the pressing takes place,’ etc.).
² St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
³ Altindisches Leben, 277.
⁴ Vedische Mythologie, 1, 148 et seq.
⁵ See Haug, Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, 2, p. 488, n. 10.

Adhi-vasa.—This word¹ denotes the ‘upper garment’ of the Vedic Indian. Its exact nature is not described, but as the king in the ritual set forth in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa² puts on first an undergarment, then a garment, and finally an upper garment, it presumably denotes some sort of cloak or mantle.

¹ Rv. i. 140, 9; 162, 16; x. 5, 4; Šatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 3, 5, 22 (prati-muic, ‘put on’); 4, 4, 3 (ā-str, ‘spread out’), etc.
² v. 3, 5, 19 et seq.


Adhyāndā.—This is a plant mentioned with many others in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (xiii. 8, 1, 16).
Adhrí-gu.—This is the name of a man twice referred to in the Rigveda\(^1\) as a protégé of the Āsvins and of Indra respectively.


Adhvaryu.—In one passage of the Rigveda\(^1\) Hillebrandt\(^2\) thinks that the five Adhvaryus who are mentioned do not designate actual priests, but refer to the five planets which move about in the heavens like the Adhvaryu priests on the sacrificial ground. See also Graha.

\(^1\) iii. 7, 7. \(^2\) Vedische Mythologie, 3, 423.

An-agni-dagdha, ‘not burnt with fire.’ See Agni-dagdha, ‘burnt with fire.’

Anad-vāḥ (lit. ‘cart-drawer’).—This is the common\(^1\) name of oxen as employed for drawing carts (Anas). Such oxen were normally castrated,\(^2\) though not always. Female draft cattle were also used (anaḍuhī), but rarely.\(^3\) See also Gō.

\(^1\) Rv. x. 59, 10; 85, 10; iii. 53, 18; Av. iii. 11, 5; iv. 11, 1, etc.; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 14; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 1, 4, 17, etc.
\(^2\) Cf. Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 1, 5 (anaduhi śruṇḍāh).
\(^3\) Av. iv. 17; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 3, 4, 11, 13.

Anas.—This is the term\(^1\) used to designate the draft wagon, as opposed to the chariot (ratha) for war or sport, with which it is sometimes expressly contrasted,\(^2\) though Indra is once said to be ‘seated in a wagon’ (anar-viś)\(^3\) instead of on a chariot. Though Usās, Goddess of Dawn, sometimes rides on a chariot (ratha), the wagon is her characteristic vehicle.\(^4\) Of its construction we know little. The bridal wagon on which Sūryā, the daughter of the Sun, was borne in the marriage hymn in the Rigveda had a covering (Chadis).\(^5\) The axle-box (Kha) is also

\(^1\) Rv. iv. 30, 10; x. 85, 10; 86, 18, etc.; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 2, 5, etc.; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, vii. 15, 1; Kaśītaki Upaniṣad, iii. 8, etc.
\(^2\) Rv. i. 121, 7.
\(^3\) Rv. ii. 15, 6; iv. 30, 11; viii. 91, 7; x. 73, 6; 138, 5.
\(^4\) Rv. x. 85, 10.
mentioned. In the Atharvaveda Vipatha appears to denote a rough vehicle used for bad tracks. The wagon was usually drawn by oxen (Anadvah), as in wedding processions. The wagon of Dawn is described as drawn by ruddy cows or bulls.

6 Rv. vii. 91, 7; Jaiminiya Upanishad Brähmaṇa, i. 3.
7 xv. 2, 1.
8 Rv. x. 85, 11.

Anās. See Dasyu.

Anitabhā in the Rigveda is taken by Max Müller to denote some river.

1 v. 53, 9.
2 Sacred Books of the East, 32, 323; but cf. Rasā.

Anu, Ānava.—Grassmann and Roth see in these words designations of people foreign to the Aryans. But it is clear that they denote a special people, the Anus, who are mentioned with the Yudas, Turvasas, Druhyus, and Pūrus, with the Druhyus, and with the Turvasas, Yadus, and Druhyus. It is also a fair conclusion from their mention in a passage of the Rigveda that they dwelt on the Paruṣṇī. The inference that the Bhrgus were connected with this tribe is much more doubtful, for it rests solely on the fact that in one place the Bhrgus and Druhyus are mentioned together, and not Anus and Druhyus. Ānava is used as an epithet of Agni, but also in the sense of 'Anu prince,' in one case in conjunction with Turvasa.

1 St. Petersburg Dictionary.
2 Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 125.
3 Rv. i. 108, 8.
4 Rv. vii. 18, 14.
5 vii. 10, 5.
6 Rv. vii. 74, 15, compared with vii. 18, 14.
7 Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 221, n.1.
8 Rv. vii. 18, 4.

Anu-kṣattṛ.—This word occurs in the list of victims at the Puruṣamedha, and means, according to Mahīḍhara, 'an attendant on the door-keeper,' and, according to Sāyaṇa, 'an attendant on the charioteer' (sārathi). See also Kṣattṛ.

1 Vājasaneyi Śaṃhitā, xxx. 11; 73; Taittiriya Brähmaṇa, iii. 4, 9, 1.
2 On Vājasaneyi Śaṃhitā, loc. cit.
3 On Taittiriya Brähmaṇa, loc. cit.
Anu-cara.—This is a general expression\(^1\) for an ‘attendant’ (the feminine being Anucari),\(^2\) but it is not often used.

\(^1\) Vājjasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxx. 13; Tait-tirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 7, 1.
\(^2\) Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 5, 4.

Anu-mati. See Māsa.

Anu-rādhā. See Nakṣatra.

Anu-vaktr Satya Sātya-kīrta is mentioned as a teacher in the Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa Upaniṣad (i. 5, 4).

Anuvyā-khyāna is a species of writing referred to in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.\(^1\) Śaṅkara interprets it as ‘explanation of the Mantras.’ As the term, in the plural, follows Sūtras, this interpretation is reasonable. Sieg,\(^2\) however, equates the word with Anvākhyāna, ‘supplementary narrative.’

\(^1\) ii. 4, 40; iv. 1, 2; 5, 11.
\(^2\) Die Sagenstofte des Ṛgveda, 34.

Anu-śāsana in the plural denotes in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (xi. 5, 6, 8) some form of literature; according to Sāyaṇa, the Vedāṅgas.

Anu-śikha is the name of the Poṭr at the snake festival in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.\(^1\)

\(^1\) xxv. 15. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, i, 35.

Ante-vāsin, ‘dwelling near,’ is the epithet of the Brahmacārin who lives in the house of his teacher. The expression does not occur before the late Brāhmaṇa period.\(^1\) Secrecy is often enjoined on others than Antevāsins.\(^2\)

\(^1\) Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. i, 5, 17; Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 3, 7; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iii. 11, 5; iv. 10, 1; Taittirīya Upaniṣad, i. 3, 3; ii. 1.
\(^2\) Aitareya Āraṇyaka, iii. 2, 6; Saṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka, viii. 11.

Andhra is the name of a people, and is mentioned with the Puṇḍras, Śabarās, Pulindas, and Mūtibas, as being the outcasts resulting from the refusal of the fifty eldest sons of Viśvāmitra to accept his adoption of Śunaḥsēpa.\(^1\) It may fairly be deduced that the former is obviously correct. The Saṅkhāyana omits the Pulindas, and has Mucipas.

\(^1\) Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 18; Saṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 26, where instead of udāntyāḥ (‘beyond the borders’) the reading is udāncāḥ (‘nor-
from this statement that these people were recognized as non-Aryan, as the Andhras certainly seem to have been.²

² Vincent Smith, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 56, 657 et seq., who places them originally in Eastern India between the Kṛṣṇa and Godāvari rivers; cf. Rapson, Catalogue of Indian Coins, xv., xvi.; Bhandarkar, Bombay Gazetteer, i. ii. 138.

Anyataḥ-plakṣā (‘with wave-leafed fig-trees on one side only’) is the name of a lake in Kurukṣetra according to the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,¹ where it occurs in the story of Pururavas and Urvaśī. Pischel² places it somewhere in Sirmor.

¹ xi. 5, 1, 4. ² Vedische Studien, 2, 217.

Anya-vāpa (‘sowing for others’).—The cuckoo is so called¹ from its habit of depositing its eggs in the nests of other birds.

¹ Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. 37; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 18.

Anvā-khyāna.—From the literal translation (‘after-story’) the meaning of ‘supplementary narrative’ seems to follow. In two¹ of its three occurrences in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa this sense is hardly felt, the expression being used to indicate a subsequent portion of the book itself. But in the third² passage it is distinguished from the Itihāsa (‘story’) proper, and there must mean ‘supplementary narrative.’ Cf. Anuvyākhyāna.

¹ vi. 5, 2, 22; 6, 4, 7 (the reference is to vi. 6, 4, 8). ² xi. 1, 6, 9. ³ Cf. Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 34.

Apa-cit.—This word occurs several times in the Atharvaveda.¹ It is held by Roth,² Zimmer,³ and others to denote an insect whose sting produced swellings, etc. (glau). But Bloomfield⁴ shows that the disease, scrofulous swellings, is what is really meant, as is shown by the rendering (gaṇḍa-mālā, ‘inflammation of the glands of the neck’) of Keśāva and Sāyāṇa, and by the parallelism of the later disease, aphači, the derivation being from apa and ci, ‘to pick off.’

¹ vi. 25, 1; 83, 1; vii. 75, 1; 77, 1. ² St. Petersberg Dictionary, s.v. ³ Altindisches Leben, 97. So also Ludwig, Translation of the Rgveda, 342, 500. ⁴ American Journal of Philology, xi, 320 et seq.; Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 503, 504. Cf. Jolly, Medicin, 80; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 343.
Apa-śraya. See Upaśraya.

Apa-skambha.—The word occurs only in one passage of the Atharvaveda, where the tip of it is mentioned as poisoned. Roth\(^1\) suggests that the fastening of the arrow-point to the shaft is meant. Whitney\(^2\) inclines to this version, but suggests corruption of text. Zimmer\(^3\) follows Roth. Ludwig\(^4\) renders the word by 'barb.' Bloomfield\(^5\) thinks it means 'tearing (arrow),' a sense deduced from the etymology.

1 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. The passage is Av. iv. 6, 4.
2 Translation of the Atharvaveda, 153.
3 Altindisches Leben, 300.
4 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 512.
5 Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 375.

Aṃcyas.—The kings of the 'Westerners' are referred to in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (viii. 14) in connection with those of the Niṣyas.

Apāna.—The word appears repeatedly in the Atharvaveda,\(^1\) and later as one of the vital breaths (Prāṇa), usually with Prāṇa, and often with one or more of the other three. Its original sense\(^2\) appears to have been 'inspiration.' Its connection with the lower part of the body (nābhi, 'navel'), which is found already in the Aitareya Upaniṣad,\(^3\) is not unnatural.

1 Av. ii. 28, 3; v. 30, 12, etc.; Vāja-saneyi Saṃhitā, xiii. 19; 24, etc.
3 Aitareya Upaniṣad, i. 4, etc.
4 Cf. Deussen, Philosophy of the Upaniṣads, 263 et seq.

Apa-mārga.—A plant (Achyranthes aspera) used frequently\(^1\) in witchcraft practices, and for medical purposes, especially against Kṣetriya. It is described in the Atharvaveda\(^2\) as 'revertive' (punah-sara), either, as Roth\(^3\) and Zimmer\(^4\) think, because of its having reverted leaves (a view also accepted by Whitney\(^5\)),

1 Atharvaveda, iv. 17, 6; 18, 7; 19, 4; vii. 65, 2; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxxv. 11; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, i, 8; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 2, 4, 14; xiii. 8, 4, 4.
2 iv. 17, 2.
3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
4 Altindisches Leben, 67.
5 Translation of the Atharvaveda, 180.
or because, as Bloomfield\(^6\) holds, it wards off a spell by 
causing it to recoil on its user.

\(^6\) *Hymns of the Atharvaveda*, 394. *Cf.* Oriental Society, 15, 160, 161; Weber, 
Bloomfield, *Journal of the American* 

**Apā-lamba.**—By this word\(^1\) is denoted a brake or drag, let 
down (from *lamb*, ‘hang down’) to check the speed of a 
wagon.

\(^1\) Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 3, 4, 13. 
*Cf.* Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, *s.v.*; 
Cf. Caland and Henry, *L'Agnistoma*, 50; 
Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, *s.v.*; 
Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 26, 79.

**Apāśṭha.**—This word occurs twice in the Atharvaveda,\(^1\) 
denoting the barb of an arrow.

\(^1\) iv. 6, 5; v. 18, 7 (*satāpāśṭha*, ‘hun-
dred-barbed’). *Cf.* Zimmer, Altindisches 
Leben, 300; Bloomfield, *Hymns of the* 
Atharvaveda, 375.

**Api-śarvara.** See Ahan.

**Api.**—Ludwig\(^1\) finds an Apī whose sons are described as 
not performing sacrifice (*a-yajña-sāc*) and as breakers of the 
law of Mitra-Varuṇa in the Rigveda.\(^2\) Roth\(^3\) and Grassmann 
take the expression used (*apyah putrāḥ*) as referring to the sons 
of the waters.

\(^1\) Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 158, 159. 
\(^2\) vi. 67, 9. 
\(^3\) St. Petersburg Dictionary, *s.v.*, *apya*.

**Apūpa** is the general word from the Rigveda\(^1\) onwards for a 

*cake*, which might be mixed with ghee (*ghṛtavant*),\(^2\) or be 
made of rice (*vṛhi*),\(^3\) or of barley (*yava*).\(^4\) In the Chāndogya 
Upaniṣad\(^5\) there is a difference of interpretation. Max Müller 
renders it as ‘hive,’ Böhtlingk as ‘honeycomb,’ Little\(^6\) as 
‘cake.’

\(^1\) iii. 52, 7. 
\(^2\) Rv. x. 45, 9. 
\(^3\) Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 2, 3, 12, 13. 
\(^4\) Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 2, 5, 19. 
\(^5\) iii. i, i. 
\(^6\) Grammatical Index, *s.v.*

**Apnavāna** appears only twice in the Rigveda\(^1\) as an ancient 
sage, coupled with the Bhrigus, to whose family Ludwig\(^2\) con-
jectures him to have belonged.

\(^1\) iv. 7, 1; viii. 27, 4. 
\(^2\) Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 128.
**A-prati-ratha** ('he who has no match in fight') is the name of an obviously invented Rṣi, to whom is ascribed by the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa and Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa the composition of a Rigveda hymn celebrating Indra as the invincible warrior.

1 viii. 10. 2 ix. 2, 3, i. 5. 3 x. 103.

**Apvā.**—A disease affecting the stomach, possibly dysentery, as suggested by Zimmer, on the ground that the disease is invoked to confound the enemy. Weber considers that it is diarrhoea induced by fear, as often in the Epic. This view is supported by Bloomfield, and was apparently that of Yāska.

1 Av. ix. 8, 9. 2 Altindisches Leben, 389. 3 Rv. x. 103, 12 = Av. iii. 2, 5 = Śāmaveda, ii. 1211 = Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xvii. 44. 4 Indische Studien, 9, 482; 17, 184. 5 Indische Studien, 17, 184. 6 Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 327. 7 Nirukta, ix. 33.

**Apsas.**—This word usually refers to the body, meaning 'front part.' In one passage of the Rigveda, however, the adjective 'with a long front part' (dirghāpsas) is applied to the chariot (Ratha).

1 See Pischel, Vedische Studien, 1, 308-313; 2, 245, 246. 2 i. 122, 15. Cf. Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

**Abhi-kroṣaka** designates one of the victims in the Puruṣamedha, meaning, perhaps, 'herald.' The commentator Mahīdhara renders it as 'reviler' (nindaka).

1 Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 20. Cf. Anukroṣaka, Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 15, 1.

**Abhi-jit.** See Nakṣatra.

**Abhi-pitva.** See Ahan.

**Abhi-pratārin Kākṣa-seni** is mentioned in the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, the Chāndogya Upaniṣad, and the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa as engaged in discussions on philosophy. The Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa further reports that his sons divided the property amongst themselves while he was yet alive. He was a Kuru and a prince.

1 i. 59, 1; iii. 1, 21; 2, 2, 13. 2 iv. 3, 5. 3 x. 5, 7; xiv. 1, 12, 15. 4 iii. 156 (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 26, 61).
Abhi-praśnin.—This term occurs after Praśnin, and followed by Praśnavivāka in the list of victims for the Puruṣamedha given in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa¹ and the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā.² The commentators, Sāyāṇa and Mahādhara, see in it merely a reference to an inquisitive man. But there can be little doubt that the term must have had a legal reference of some sort—perhaps indicating the defendant as opposed to plaintiff and judge.

¹ iii. 4, 6, 1.

Abhi-śrī (‘admixture’).—This word¹ designates the milk used to mingle with the Soma juice before it was offered.

¹ Rv. ix. 79, 5; 86, 27. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 227; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, i. 211.

Abhi-śavaṇī. — Zimmer¹ renders the expression in the Atharvaveda² as a pressing instrument, but it appears to be merely an adjective, (waters) ‘used in pressing.’³

¹ Altindisches Leben, 277.
² i. ix. 6, 16.
³ Cf. Whitney’s Translation of Av. ix. 6, 16.

Abhi-śeka (‘besprinkling’).—The Vedic king was consecrated after his election with an elaborate ritual, which is fully described in the Taittirīya,¹ Pañcavimśa,² Śatapatha,³ and Aitareya Brāhmaṇas,⁴ and for which the Mantras are given in the Saṃhitās.⁵ The consecration took place by sprinkling with water (abhiśecanīyā āpah).⁶ Only kings could be consecrated, the people not being worthy of it (anabhiśecanīyāh).⁷ The sprinkler (abhiśektr) is mentioned in the list of victims at the Puruṣamedha.⁸ The Abhīṣeka is an essential part of the Rājasūya, or sacrifice of royal inauguration, being the second of its component members.

¹ i. 7, 5.
² xviii. 8 et seq.
³ v. 3, 3 et seq.
⁴ vii. 5 et seq.
⁵ Taittirīya Saṃhitā, i. 8, 11; Kāthaka Saṃhitā, xv. 6; Maitrāyanī Saṃhitā, ii. 6; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, x. 1-4.
⁶ Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 3, 5, 10-15.
⁷ Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 4, 2, 17.
⁸ Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxx. 12; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 8, 1.
Abhiśu is a common Vedic word\(^1\) denoting the ‘reins’ or ‘bridle’ of the chariot horses. The use of the plural is due to the fact that two or four horses, possibly five (\textit{daśābhīśu} ‘ten-bridled’),\(^2\) were yoked to the car.

\(^1\) Rv. i. 38, 12; v. 44, 4; vi. 75, 6; patha Brāhmaṇa, v. 4, 3, 14 (where it viii. 33, 11; Av. vi. 137, 2; viii. 8, 22; Vājasaṇeyi Saṃhitā, xxxiv. 6; Sāta-

Abhy-agni Aītasaṇayana.—This man was, according to the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa,\(^1\) unfortunate enough to quarrel with his father, Aītaśa. The result was that he and his progeny were called the worst of the Aurvās. In the version of the Kausiṭaki Brāhmaṇa,\(^2\) the Aītasaṇayana Ājāneyas take the place of the Abhyagnis and the Bhṛgus of the Aurvās, the latter being probably a branch of the former family.


Abhyā-vartin Cāyamāna appears in a Dānastuti (‘Praise of Gifts’) in the Rigveda,\(^1\) and as conqueror of the Vṛcīvants under the leader Varasikha. It is probable, though not absolutely certain, that he is identical with the Śrījaya Daivavāta, mentioned in the same hymn\(^2\) as having the Turvāsas and Vṛcīvants defeated for him by Indra. In this case he would be prince (\textit{samrāj}) of the Śrījayas. Daivavāta is mentioned elsewhere\(^3\) as a worshipper of Agni.

Abhyāvartin is also referred to as a Pārthava. Ludwig\(^4\) and Hillebrandt\(^5\) maintained that he is thus a Parthian, the latter using the evidence of the two places mentioned in the description\(^6\) of Daivavāta’s victories, Hariyūpiyā and Vavyāvati, as proofs for the western position of Abhyāvartin’s people in Arachosia, in Iran. But Zimmer\(^7\) is probably right in holding that the name Pārthava merely means ‘a descendant of Prthu,’ and that its similarity to the Iranian Parthians is only on a par with the numerous other points of identity between the Indian and Iranian cultures.

\(^1\) vi. 27, 8, 5. \(^2\) vi. 27, 7. \(^3\) iv. 15, 4. \(^4\) Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 198 et seq. \(^5\) \textit{Vedische Mythologie}, 1, 105; 3, 268. \(^6\) Rv. vi. 27, 5, 6. \(^7\) \textit{Altindisches Leben}, 133 et seq., 433; Bergaigne, \textit{Religion Védique}, 2, 362.

A-bhrātārāh (‘brotherless’).—The lot of girls without brothers is referred to in the Rigveda¹ as unsatisfactory—apparently they became prostitutes. The Nirukta² expressly forbids marriage with a brotherless maiden, probably because of the risk of her being made a putrikā (‘adoptive daughter’) by her father—that is, any son of hers being counted as belonging to her father’s, instead of to her husband’s, family. See Ayogū.

¹ i. 124, 7; iv. 5, 5. Cf. Av. 17, 1. ² Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 259; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 328.

Abhri (‘spade’) is a Vedic word¹ of frequent occurrence. Various possible materials and forms are enumerated in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.² It may be made of bamboo or of the wood of Viṅkaṅka or Udumbara. It may be a span or a cubit in size. It is hollow, and either one or both edges are sharp. From this it would appear that the handle was made of some wood, but the head of some metal.

¹ Av. iv. 7, 5, 6 (abhri-khāte is ‘dug out with a spade,’ not ‘prepared ground’ with Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.); x. 4, 14; hiranyā-yābhir abhriḥbih, ‘with golden spades’; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, v. 22; xi. 10; xxxvii. 1; Paṅcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xvi. 6; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 3, 2, 15, etc. ² vi. 3, 1, 30 et seq.

Amatra was a vessel into which the Soma, after being pressed, was poured,¹ and out of which the libation to the god was made.²

¹ Rv. ii. 14, 1; v. 51, 4; vi. 42, 2, etc. ² Rv. x. 29, 7. ¹ Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 278; Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 61.

Amalā.—This plant¹ is probably the Emblica officinalis, or Myrobalan tree; also called Āmalaka, or Āmalakā.²

¹ Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, i. 38, 6. ² The reading in Chāndogya Upani- ¹ Jaiminiya Upaniṣad, vii. 3, 1, is vāmalaṅka, which may give a⁰ or a⁰. ² Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 305.

Amā-jur is an epithet¹ denoting maidens ‘who grow old at home’ without finding husbands, or, as they are elsewhere called, ‘who sit with their father’ (pitr-ṣad). A well-known example of such was Ghoṣā.²

¹ Rv. ii. 17, 7; viii. 21, 15; ² Rv. i. 117, 7. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 305.
Amā-vāsyā Śāndilyāyana is mentioned in the Vaṃśa Brāhmaṇa as the teacher of Aṃśu Dhānamjayya.

1 Indische Studien, iv. 373.

Amitra-tapana Śuṣmini Śaibya is the name of him who killed Atyārāti Jānāṃtapī, according to the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (viii. 23).

A-mūlā (‘without root’) is the name in the Atharvaveda of a plant (Methodonica superba), which was used for poisoning arrows. Bloomfield, however, renders it as ‘movable property.’


2 Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 437.

Ambariṣa is mentioned as a Vārṣāgira in the Rigveda along with Rjraiva, Sahadeva, Surādhas, and Bhayamāna.

1 i. 100, 17. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 140.

Ambaṣṭha. See Āmbaṣṭhya.

Aya. See Akṣa.

Ayas.—The exact metal denoted by this word when used by itself, as always in the Rigveda, is uncertain. As favouring the sense of ‘bronze’ rather than that of ‘iron’ may perhaps be cited with Zimmer the fact that Agni is called ayo-danṣṭra, with teeth of Ayas, with reference to the colour of his flames, and that the car-seat of Mitra and Varuṇa is called ayah-sthūṇa, ‘with pillars of Ayas’ at the setting of the sun. Moreover, in the Vājasaneyi Śāṃhitā, Ayas is enumerated in a list of six metals: gold (hiranya), Ayas, Śyāma, Loha, lead (sīsa), tin (trapu). Here Śyāma (‘swarthy’) and loha (‘red’) must mean ‘iron’ and ‘copper’ respectively; ayas would therefore seem to mean ‘bronze.’ In many passages in the Atharvaveda and
other books, the Ayas is divided into two species—the šyāma ('iron') and the lohita ('copper' or 'bronze'). In the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa a distinction is drawn between Ayas and lohāyasa, which may either be a distinction between iron and copper as understood by Eggeling, or between copper and bronze as held by Schrader. In one passage of the Atharvaveda, the sense of iron seems certain. Possibly, too, the arrow of the Rigveda, which had a tip of Ayas (yasyā ayo mukham), was pointed with iron. Copper, however, is conceivable, and bronze quite likely.

Iron is called šyāma ayas or šyāma alone. See also Kārṣṇāyasa. Copper is Lohāyasa or Lohitāyasa.

The smelting (dhumā 'to blow') of the metal is frequently referred to. The Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa states that if 'well smelted' (bahu-dhumātām) it is like gold, referring evidently to bronze. A heater of Ayas is mentioned in the Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, and bowls of Ayas are also spoken of.

8 v. 4, i, 2.  9 Sacred Books of the East, 41, 90.  10 Prehistoric Antiquities, 189.
11 v. 28, i.  12 v. 75, 15.  13 Av. ix. 5, 4.
14 vi. 1, 3, 5. Cf. vi. 1, 13; v. 1, 2, 14; xii. 7, 1, 7, 2, 10, etc.  15 xxx. 14; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 10, i.
16 Av. viii. 10, 22; Maitrāyaṇi Saṁhitā, iv. 2, 13.

Ayāsthūṇa.—He was Gṛhapati ('householder,' the sacrificer at sacrificial sessions) of those whose Adhvaryu was Śaulvāyana, and taught the latter the proper mode of using certain spoons.

Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 4, 2, 17 et seq.

Ayāśya Āṅgirasa.—This sage appears to be mentioned in two passages of the Rigveda, and the Anukramaṇi ascribes to him several hymns of the Rigveda (ix. 44-46; x. 67; 68). In the Brāhmaṇa tradition he was Udgāt at the Rājasūya or Royal Inauguration Sacrifice, at which Śunahsepa was to have been slain, and his Udghita (Sāmaveda chant) is referred to elsewhere. He is also referred to several times as a ritual

1 x. 67, 1; 108, 8. Perhaps x. 92, 15 also refers to him, but not i. 62, 7; x. 138, 4.
Araṇya | UNCLETIVATED LAND

authority. In the Vaṃśas, or Genealogies of the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, he is named as the pupil of Ābhūti Tvāṣṭra.

4 Pāṇḍavaṇa Brāhmaṇa, xiv. 3, 22; xvi. 12, 4; xi. 8, 10; Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, i. 3, 8. 19. 24; Kauṭākī Brāhmaṇa, xxx. 6. 5 ii. 6, 3; iv. 6, 3 (in both recensions).

Ayogū is a word of quite doubtful meaning, found in the list of victims in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā. It may, like the late āyogava, denote a member of a mixed caste (theoretically a descendant of a Śūdra by a Vaiśya wife). Weber rendered it as 'unchaste woman.' Zimmer thinks it denotes a brotherless maiden who is exposed to the dangers of prostitution (cf. āyogava).

1 xxx. 5; Taithṛiya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 1, 1. 2 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. 3 Indische Streifen, 1, 76, n. b. In the Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 18, 277, he thought it referred to dicings (ayas). Risley, Peoples of India, 250, regards the Āyogavas as a functional caste of carpenters (cf. Manu, x. 48). 4 Altindisches Leben, 328.

Ara. See Ratha.

Araṭu.—A plant (Colosanthes Indica) from the wood of which the axle of a chariot was sometimes made.

1 Av. xx. 131, 17. 2 Rv. viii. 46, 27.

Araṇya.—This term denotes the uncultivated land—not necessarily forest land—beyond the village. It is contrasted with home (ama), and with the plough land (kṛṣi), being spoken of as apart (tira) from men. It is also contrasted with the Grāma, and it is the place where thieves live. The character of the forest is described in a hymn of the Rigveda to the forest spirit (Āraṇyāṇī). The dead are carried there for burial, and hermits live there. Forest fires were common.

1 Rv. vi. 24, 10. 2 Av. ii. 4, 5. 3 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 6, 2, 20. 4 Av. xii. 1, 56; Rv. i. 163, 11; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, iii. 45; xx. 17. 5 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 2, 3, 5; xiii. 2, 4, 4.

VOL. I.
Aratni.—This word, which primarily means ‘elbow,’ occurs frequently from the Rigveda¹ onwards as denoting a measure of length (‘ell’ or ‘cubit’), the distance from the elbow to the tip of the hand. The exact length nowhere appears from the early texts.

¹ Rv. viii. 80, 8; Av. xix. 57, 6; Brāhmaṇa, vi. 3, 1, 33, etc. For Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, viii. 5; Śatapatha Rv. viii. 80, 8, see also Ājī.

A-rājānāḥ, ‘not princes,’ is a term used to describe persons in two passages of the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,¹ and in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa.² Weber³ also finds them mentioned in the Atharvaveda,⁴ and thinks that they—Sūtas (‘charioteers’) and Grāmaṇīs (‘troop-leaders’) there referred to—were called thus because, while not themselves princes, they assisted in the consecration of princes.

¹ iii. 4, 1, 7, 8; xiii. 4, 2, 17. ² viii. 23. ³ Indische Studien, 17, 199. ⁴ iii. 5, 7, where he emends rājānāḥ to a-rājānāḥ (see Whitney’s note on the passage). Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 333; Weber, Über den Rājasūya, 22 et seq.

Arāṭakī is a plant mentioned once in the Atharvaveda,¹ and apparently identical with the Ajaśṛṅgī. Cf. also Araṭu.

¹ iv. 37, 6. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 68; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 408.

Arāḍa Dātreya Śaunaka.—He is mentioned in the Vaṃśa Brāhmaṇa¹ as the pupil of Dṛti Aindrota Śaunaka.

¹ Indische Studien, 4, 384.

Aritra denotes the ‘oar’ by which boats were propelled. The Rigveda¹ and the Vājasaneyi Samhitā² speak of a vessel with a hundred oars, and a boat (nau) is said to be ‘propelled by oars’ (aritra-parāṇa).³ In two passages of the Rigveda⁴ the term, according to the St. Petersburg Dictionary, denotes a part of a chariot. The rower of a boat is called aritr.⁵ See Nau.

¹ i. 116, 5. ² xxi. 7. ³ Rv. x. 101, 2. Cf. Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 2, 5, 10. ⁴ i. 46, 8; ṛṣa-ṛtrita, ii. 18, 1. ⁵ Rv. ii. 42, 1; ix. 95, 2. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 256.
Arundhati [ MEDICINAL PLANT 35

Arim-dama Sana-śrūta is mentioned as a Mahārāja in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 34.

Arim-ejaya is mentioned as one who served as Adhvaryu at the snake feast celebrated in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa. 1

1 xxv. 15. See Weber, Indische Studien, i, 35.

Aruṇa Āta was Achāvāka at the snake feast in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xxv. 15).

Aruṇa Aupavesi Gautama is the full style1 of a teacher, who is repeatedly referred to in the later Samhitās2 and Brāhmaṇas,3 and whose son was the famous Uddālaka Āruṇi. He was a pupil of Upaveśa,4 and a contemporary of the prince Āsvapati, by whom he was instructed. Cf. Āruṇa.

1 Taittiriya Saṃhitā, vi. 1, 9, 2; 4, 5, 1; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, i. 4, 10; iii. 6, 4, 6; 7, 4; 8, 6; 10, 5; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxvi. 10.
2 Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 1, 5, 11; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 2, 2, 20; xi. 4, 1, 4; 5, 3, 2.

1. Arundhati is the name of a plant celebrated in several passages of the Atharvaveda1 as possessing healing properties in case of wounds, as a febrifuge, and as inducing cows to give milk. The plant was a climber which attached itself to trees like the Plakṣa, Āsvattha, Nyagrodha, and Parna.2 It was of golden colour (hiranyā-varṇā), and had a hairy stem (lomaśa-vakṣanā).3 It was also called Silāci, and the Lāksā appears to have been a product of it.4

1 iv. 12, 1; v. 5, 9; vi. 59, 1, 2; viii. 7, 6; xix. 38, 1.
2 Av. v. 5, 5.
3 Av. v. 5, 7; Pischel, Vedische Studien, i, 174; Bloomfield, Zeitschrift für den Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 48, 574.
4 Cf. Whitneys note on Av. iv. 12; Bloomfield, Atharvaveda, 61.

2. Arundhati, as the name of a star, is often referred to in the Śūtra literature, but only once in a late Āraṇyaka.1

1 Taittiriya Āraṇyaka, iii. 9, 2.
Arka, as the name of the tree *Colotropis gigantea*, is perhaps found in one obscure passage of the Atharvaveda.\(^1\)

\(^1\) vi. 72, 1, where see Whitney’s note. *Cf.* St. Petersburg Dictionary, *s.v.*

**Argala.**—The word which is usual later to denote the wooden pin of a door is found in the Śaṅkhāyana Āranyaka (ii. 16) in the compound *argalesike* to denote the pin and bar of the door of a cow-pen. *Cf.* *Iṣīkā*.

**Argala Kāhoḍi** is mentioned in the Kāṭhaka Samhitā (xxv. 7) as a teacher. The name may, however, be Aryala, as suggested in the St. Petersburg Dictionary, *s.v.*, and as read by v. Schroeder in his edition. The Kapiṣṭhala (xxxix. 5) has Ayala. See below.

**Arcant** is possibly, as Ludwig\(^1\) thinks, the name of the author of a hymn of the Rigveda\(^2\); but the word may be merely the ordinary participle ‘praising.’

\(^1\) Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 133. \(^2\) x. 149, 5.

**Arcanānas.—**In one passage of the Rigveda\(^1\) the gods Mitra-Varuṇa are besought to protect Arcanānas. He is also invoked with Śyāvāśva and several other ancestors enumerated in the Atharvaveda.\(^2\) He appears as father of Śyāvāśva in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.\(^3\) The later tradition makes him play a part in the legend of his son’s wedding, which Sieg\(^4\) endeavours to show is known to the Rigveda.

\(^1\) v. 64, 7. \(^2\) xviii. 3, 15. \(^3\) viii. 5, 9. \(^4\) *Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 50 et seq.* *Cf.* Ludwig, *Translation of the Rigveda*, 3, 127; Oldenberg, *Rgveda-Noten*, 1, 354.

**Arcā.** See Brāhmaṇa.

**Arjunī** is, in the Rigveda,\(^1\) the name of the Nakṣatra (‘lunar mansion’), elsewhere\(^2\) called Phalgunī. It occurs in the marriage hymn, with Aghā for Maghā, and, like that word, is apparently a deliberate modification.

\(^1\) x. 85, 13. \(^2\) Av. xiv. 1, 13. *Cf.* Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 1, 11, 2.
Aryamṇaḥ Panthā | ARYAN

Arybuda is mentioned as Grāvastut priest at the snake festival described in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa. 1 He is obviously the same mythical figure as Arybuda Kādraveya, a seer spoken of in the Aitareya 2 and Kauśītaki Brāhmaṇas 3 as a maker of Mantras.

1 xxv. 15.
2 vi. 1.
3 xxix. 1. Cf. Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 4, 3, 9.

Arya.—This word is not common in the older literature, in places where the quantity of the first vowel is fixed as short, except in a mere adjectival sense. Geldner, 4 indeed, contends that no other sense is anywhere needed; but Roth 5 and Zimmer 6 agree in thinking that in several passages of the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā the word has the same sense as Arya, and this appears probable. Whether it is necessary to ascribe this sense to the word in the compound aryapatri 7 applied to the waters set free by Indra, is more doubtful. The commentator, Mahīdhara, 8 suggests that the word means a Vaiśya, not an Ṭrya generally. This view is supported by the explanation in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa 9 of one of the passages of the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā. 10 But though the use of Arya to denote a Vaiśya became common later, it is not clear that it was original.

1 Vedische Studien, 3, 96.
2 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
3 Altindisches Leben, 214, 215.
4 xiv. 30; xx. 17; xxiii. 21; xxvi. 2. Cf. also Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxxviii. 5; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vii. 4, 19, 3. In Atharvaveda, xix. 32, 8, an analogous form occurs, as contrasted with brāhmaṇa, rājanya, and śādra; but even there Whitney renders it as 'Āryan.' Cf. xix. 62, 1; 1 Rv. viii. 94, 1; Pischel, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 40, 125.
5 Rv. vii. 6, 5; x. 43, 8.
6 On Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxiii. 30.
7 Josh. 2, 9, 8. Contrast Śaṅkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, xvi. 4, 4 et seq., where Arya appears to be taken in the wider sense.
8 xxiii. 30. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 212; Weber, Indische Studien, x. 6; Oldenberg, Rigveda-Noten, 1, 126, 363.

Aryamṇaḥ Panthā, ‘Aryaman’s Way,’ an expression which occurs in the Brāhmaṇas, 1 denotes, according to Weber, 2 ‘the milky way,’ but, according to Hillebrandt, 3 ‘the ecliptic.’

1 Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 6, 6; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xxv. 12, 3; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 3, 1, 2.
2 Über den Rājasūya, 48, 2.
3 Vedische Mythologie, 3, 79, 80.
DISEASES—BOTTLE-GOURD

Aryala.—Those at whose snake feast the Gṛhapati was Arunī are mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brähmaṇa (xxiii. 1, 5). See also Argala.

Arvanta. See Āśva.

Arsas is the name of a disease mentioned in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā with consumption and other ailments. It appears to designate ‘hæmorrhoids,’ as in the later medical literature.

1 xii. 98.
Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 398; Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Alaja designates some kind of bird—one of the victims in the Aśvamedha, or Horse Sacrifice.

1 Taittiriya Saṃhitā, v. 4, 11, 1; Kāthaka Saṃhitā, xxi. 4; Vājasaneyi 5, 20, 1; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 18; Saṃhitā, xxiv. 34.

Alaṇḍu.—This is the name of a disease in the Atharvaveda. The later alaṇḍi denotes an eye-disease—a discharge at the junction of the cornea and the sclerotica.


Alamma Pārijānata is mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xiii. 4, 11; 10, 8) as a sage.

Alasālā.—This word occurring only in one passage of the Atharvaveda (vi. 16, 4) is said to denote a grain-creeper.

Alāṇḍu.—This is the reading in the text of the Atharvaveda of the name of a species of worm. Bloomfield shows reason to adopt the reading Algaṇḍu as the correct form of the word.

1 ii. 31, 2.
2 Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 315.

Alābu.—The bottle-gourd (Lagenaria vulgaris). Vessels made of it are referred to in the Atharvaveda.

1 viii. 10, 29, 30; xx. 132, 1, 2. Cf. alāpu in Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iv. 2, 13.

Alāyya is a word occurring in an obscure verse of the Rigveda, and appearing to be a proper name. Hillebrandt, however, amends the text so as to remove the name. The St. Petersburg Dictionary suggests that it refers to Indra. Pischel holds that

1 ix. 67, 20.
it is the name of a person whose axe was stolen, and for whom
the hymn was written as a spell for the recovery of the axe.

Aliklava is a kind of carrion bird mentioned in the Atharvaveda.¹


Alina is the name of a person mentioned once only in the
Rigveda.¹ Roth² thought that the Alinas were allies—possibly
a subdivision—of the Tr̥tsus. Ludwig³ more probably thinks
that they were defeated by Sudās, together with the Pakthas,
Bhalānas, Śivas, and Viṣāṇins, with whom they are mentioned,
at the Paruṣṇi; and Zimmer⁴ suggests that they lived to the
north-east of Kafiristan.

¹ vii. 18, 7. ² Zur Litteratur und Geschichte des Weda, 95; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 126.
mentioned by Hiouen Thsang.

Alikayu Vācas-patya is twice mentioned as an authority in
the Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa (xxvi. 5; xxviii. 4).

Alpa-śayu is a kind of insect mentioned in the Atharvaveda.¹

¹ iv. 36, 9. Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Athar-
vaveda, 408; Whitney, Translation of
the Atharvaveda, 210.

Avakā is an aquatic plant (Blỹxa octandra) frequently re-
ferred to in the Atharvaveda as well as in the later Saṁhitās²
and Brāhmaṇas.³ The Gandharvas are said to eat it.⁴ Its later
name is śaivala, and it is identical with the Śipāla.

¹ viii. 7, 9; 37, 8-10. ² Taśṭtirīya Saṁhitā, iv. 6, 1, 1; v. 4,
2, 1; 4, 3; Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, xvii. 4; xxv. 1; Maitrāyani Saṁhitā, ii. 10, 1.
³ Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, vii. 5, 1, 11;
viii. 3, 2, 5; ix. 1, 2, 20, 22; xiii. 8, 3, 13.
⁴ Av. iv. 37, 8. ⁵ With which it is glossed in Áśval-
āyana Gṛhya Sūtra, ii. 8; iv. 4. Cf. Bloomfield, Proceedings of the American Oriental Society, October, 1890, xli.-xliii.;
American Journal of Philology, 11, 349;
Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 71.

Avata, a word occurring several times in the Rigveda,¹ denotes
a well, artificially made (khan ‘to dig’) in contrast with a spring

¹ i. 55, 8; 85, 10. 11; 116, 9. 22; 62, 6; 72, 10. 12; x. 25, 4; 101,
130, 2; iv. 17, 16; 50, 3; viii. 49, 6; 5. 7. Cf. Nirukta, v. 26.
WELLS—SHEEP

Avatsāra

Avatsāra is mentioned as a seer in the Rigveda, as a priest in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, and as Prāsravāṇa (or Prāśravāṇa), son of Prasravāṇa, in the Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa. A hymn of the Rigveda is incorrectly ascribed to him in the Anukramaṇi.

Avatsāra

A-vedhyatā. See Brāhmaṇa.

Avasa in the adjective an-avasa in the Rigveda may mean ‘drag.’

Avā-skava.—A kind of worm, mentioned along with others in the Atharvaveda.

Avāta. See Vāta.

Avi.—‘Sheep’ are repeatedly mentioned in the Rigveda, and later, often in conjunction with goats (aja). The wolf (vyka) was their great enemy, and they were tended by shepherds.
Sheep as well as kine were captured from the enemy. The Soma sieve was made of sheep's wool, and is repeatedly referred to (avi, meši, avya, avyaya). Considerable herds must have existed, as Rjrāśva is said to have slain one hundred rams, and in a Dānastuti ('Praise of Gifts') a hundred sheep are mentioned as a gift. The (mesa, vrṣni) ram was sometimes castrated (petva). The main use of sheep was their wool; hence the expression 'woolly' (āryāvatī) is employed to designate a sheep. In the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā the ram is described as 'woolly,' and as 'the skin of beasts, quadruped and biped,' with reference to the use of its wool as clothing for men and shelter for animals. Pūsan is said to weave raiment from the wool of sheep. Normally the sheep stayed out at pasture; in an obscure passage of the Rigveda reference appears to be made to rams in stall. Gandhāra ewes were famous for their wool. Pischel considers that the Paruṣṇi was named from its richness in sheep, parus denoting the 'flocks' of wool.

3 Rv. viii. 86, 2. 4 Rv. ix. 109, 16; 36, 4, etc. See Hillebrandt, *Vedische Mythologie*, 1, 203.
5 Rv. i. 116, 17.
6 Rv. viii. 67, 3.
7 Rv. i. 43, 6; 116, 16, etc.
8 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, ii. 3, 7, 4, etc.
9 Rv. vii. 18, 17; Av. iv. 4, 8; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, v. 5, 22, i; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxix. 58; 59.

Aśani.—Zimmer cites this word from the Rigveda as denoting a sling stone, and compares a similar use of Adri. In either case, however, the weapons are mythical, being used in descriptions of Indra's deeds. Schrader also cites aśan in this sense, but no Vedic passage requires this sense.

1 *Altindisches Leben*, 301.
2 vi. 6, 5. Cf. 1, 121, 9.
3 i. 51, 3.
4 *Prehistoric Antiquities*, 221.

Aśma-gandhā ('rock-smell') is a plant mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, probably identical with the late aśvagandhā, 'horse-smell' (*Physalis flexuosa*).

1 xiii. 8, 1, 16, with Eggeling's note in the *Sacred Books of the East*, 44, 427.
HORSE

Aśva is the commonest word for 'horse' in the Vedic literature. The horse is also called 'the runner' (atya), 'the swift' (arvany), 'the strong,' for pulling (vājin), 'the runner' (sātī), and 'the speeding' (haya). The mare is termed aśvā, alyā, arvati, vaḍavā, etc. Horses of various colour were known, dun (harita, hari), ruddy (aruna, aruṣa, piṣaṅga, rohita), dark brown (śyāva), white (sveta), etc. A white horse with black ears is mentioned in the Atharvaveda as of special value.1 Horses were highly prized,2 and were not rare, as Roth3 thought, for as many as four hundred mares are mentioned in one Dānastuti ('Praise of Gifts').4 They were on occasion ornamented with pearls and gold.5

Mares were preferred for drawing chariots because of their swiftness and sureness.6 They were also used for drawing carts, but were not ordinarily so employed.7 No mention is made of riding in battle, but for other purposes it was not unknown.8

Horses were often kept in stalls,9 and fed there.10 But they were also allowed to go out to grass,11 and were then hobbled.12 They were watered to cool them after racing.13 Their attendants

1 Av. v. 17, 15.
2 Rv. i. 83, 1; iv. 32, 17; v. 4, 11; viii. 76, 2, etc.
4 Rv. viii. 55, 3. Cf. v. 33, 8; vi. 47, 22-24; 63, 10; viii. 6, 47, 46, 22, and Hopkins, American Journal of Philology, 15, 157.
5 Rv. x. 68, 11.
6 Pischel, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 35, 712-714; Vedicke Studien, 1, 10, 305. Cf. ratho vaḍhumān, Rv. i. 126, 3; viii. 18, 22, vājinivān, vii. 69, 1.
7 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 5, 4, 35.
8 The Āśvins ride, Rv. vi. 61, 1-3. An aśvā-sāda is referred to in Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, xxx. 13; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 7, 1; and riding is meant in Rv. i. 162, 17; 163, 9. Av. xi. 10, 24. is doubtful. Cf. Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 262; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 221. Zimmer, Althindisches Leben, 230, denies the use; but see p. 295, where it is admitted for ordinary purposes.
9 Cf. the epithet of richness, 'filling the stalls with horses' (aśva-paṣṭya), in Rv. ix. 86, 41, and see Av. vi. 77, 1; xix. 55, 1.
10 Av. loc. cit.
11 Zimmer, op. cit., 232, denies this, but it is the natural sense of the Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, xv. 41.
12 The expression for this is paḍbhīa, Rv. i. 162, 14, 16; Bhāḍārasyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 2, 13; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, v. 1, 12; Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka, ix. 7. Cf. Pischel, Vedicke Studien, 1, 234-236.
13 Rv. ii. 13, 5; 34, 3; Maitrāyaṇī Saṁhitā, i. 11, 6; Pischel, op. cit., 1, 189, 190.
are frequently referred to (aśva-pāla, aśva-pa, aśva-pati). Stallions were frequently castrated (vadhri).

Besides reins (raśmayah), reference is made to halters (aśvābhidhāni), and whips (aśvājani). See also Ratha.

Horses from the Indus were of special value, as also horses from the Sarasvati.

Aśvata-rā, Aśvata-rī are respectively the masculine and feminine name of 'mule.' These animals are mentioned frequently from the Atharvaveda onwards. They were known not to be fruitful, and were probably considered inferior to horses, but a mule-car was quite common.

1. Aśvāttha (‘horse-stand’) is one of India’s greatest trees, the Ficus religiosa, later called pippala (now Peepal). Vessels made of the wood of the Aśvattha are mentioned in the Rigveda, and the tree itself is constantly referred to later. Its hard wood formed the upper of the two pieces of wood used for kindling fire, the lower being of Sami. It planted its roots in shoots of other trees, especially the Khadira, and destroyed them; hence it is called ‘the destroyer’ (vaibādha). Its berries

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14 Śāṅkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, xvi, 4, 5. 15 Vājaśaniyea Saṃhitā, xxx. 11; Šatitirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 9. 1. 18 Vājaśaniyea Saṃhitā, xvi. 24; Kāhaka Saṃhitā, xvii. 13. 17 Rv. vii. 46, 30. 18 Av. iv. 36, 10; v. 14, 6; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vi. 3; Šatapatha Brāhmaṇa, vi. 3, 1, 26; xiii. 1, 2, 1.

19 Rv. v. 62, 7; vi. 75, 13; Vājaśaniyea Saṃhitā, xxix. 50. 20 Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 2, 13; Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka, ix. 7; vājīnīva as epithet of Sindhu, Rv. x. 75, 8, of Sarasvati, i. 3, 10; ii. 41, 18; vi. 61, 4, 4; vii. 96, 3; Pischel, op. cit., i. 10. Cf. Zimmer, op. cit., 230-232.

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1 The word pippala as a neuter occurs once in the Rv. (i. 164, 20) designating the berry of the Peepal-tree.
2 i. 135, 8; x. 97, 5.
3 Atharvaveda, iii. 6, 1; iv. 37, 4, etc.
4 Av. vi. 11, 1; Šatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 5, 1, 13.
5 Av. iii. 6.
are referred to as sweet, and as eaten by birds. The gods are said to sit under it in the third heaven. It and Nyagrodha are styled the ‘crested ones’ (śikhaṇḍin).

2. Aśva-ttha.—This prince is celebrated in a Dānastuti as having given gifts to Pāyu. He is identified with Divodāsa by Griffith, but it is impossible to be certain of this identification.

Aśva-dāvan.—Ludwig finds a prince of this name in a passage of the Rigveda, where a gift of fifty horses is mentioned, but the word appears to be an epithet of Indra (‘bestower of horses’).

Aśva-pati (‘lord of horses’) is a name of a prince of the Kekayās, who instructed Prācīnāśāla and other Brahmins.

Aśva-medha (‘offering a horse-sacrifice’) is a prince mentioned in a hymn of the Rigveda, which contains a Dānastuti (‘Praise of Gifts’) of Tryaruna, and to which three verses have been added in praise of Aśvamedha. See also Aśvamedha.

Aśva-yujau. See Nakṣatra.

Aśvala, the Hotṛ priest of Janaka, King of Videha, appears as an authority in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (iii. 1, 2. 10).

Aśva-vāra, Aśva-vāla (‘hair of a horse’s tail’).—The former form occurs in the Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, the latter in the
Astakarni] NAMES OF MEN

Kāṭhaka² and Kapiṣṭhala Saṃhitās³ and Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,⁴
denoting a species of reed (Saccharum spontaneum).

² xxiv. 8. ³ xxxviii. 1. ⁴ iii. 4, 1, 7. Cf. Von Schroeder's
edition of the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, i., p. xv.

Aśva-sūkti is the name of a seer to whom the Rigveda
Anukramanī ascribes two hymns of the Rigveda.¹ The Paṇca-
vimśa Brāhmaṇa² knows a Sāman of Aśvasūkti.

¹ viii. 14; 15. ² xix. 4, 10. Cf. Oldenberg, Zeit-
Gesellschaft, 42, 230, n. 4.

Aśvinī. See Nakṣatra.

Aśādha Kaiśin is the name of a man referred to in a corrupt
and obscure passage of the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā¹ as connected with
the defeat of the Paṇcālas by the Kuntis.

¹ xxvi. 9; Kapiṣṭhala, xli. 7. See Weber, Indische Studien, 3, 471.

Aśādha Uttara Pārāśarya is mentioned as a teacher in a
Vamsa or Genealogy in the Jaiminīya Upāniṣad Brāhmaṇa
(iii. 41, 1).

Aśādhā. See Nakṣatra.

Aśādhi Sauśromateya was a man who is stated in the
Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (vi. 2, 1, 37) to have died because the
heads for the sacrifice in connection with the laying of the
bricks of the fire-altar had been obtained in an improper
manner.

Aśṭaka is mentioned in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa¹ as one of the
sons of Viśvāmitra.

¹ vii. 17. Also in the Śāṅkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, xv. 26.

Aśṭakā. See Māsa.

Aṣṭa-karni is an expression which occurs in one passage of
the Rigveda,¹ and which Roth² was at first inclined to interpret

¹ x. 62, 7. ² St. Petersburg Dictionary, s. v.
as a proper name. There can, however, be no doubt that it means a cow, not a man, as suggested by Grassmann. The exact reason why a cow should be so described is uncertain. Roth was later inclined to see in it the sense 'having pierced ears,' similar epithets being at a later period known to Pāṇini (bhīnna-karna, chinna-karna). Grassmann's more obvious rendering, 'having the sign for (the number) 8 marked on the ear,' is supported by the similar epithets, 'having the mark of a lute on the ear' (karkari-karṇyaḥ), 'having the mark of a sickle on the ear' (dātra-karṇyaḥ), 'having the mark of a stake on the ear' (sthūnā-karṇyaḥ), 'having the ears bored' (chidra-karṇyaḥ), and viṣṭya-karṇyaḥ, given in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā. The simple meaning, 'with marked ears,' is, however, supported by the same passage of the Maitrāyaṇī, where the verb ākṣ occurs in the sense 'to mark.' In the Atharvaveda the mark used is the Mithuna, no doubt as a magical device to secure fertility.

The marking of ears was apparently a regular practice. It is twice referred to in the Atharvaveda. The mark is termed laksman, and was made with a copper-knife (lohita). The Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā forbids the use of an arrow-shaft (tejana), or of iron, but permits that of a stem of sugar-cane (īkṣu-kāṇḍa) or copper.

Aṣṭā-danṣṭra Vairūpa.—To him the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (viii. 9, 21) ascribes two Sāmans.

Aṣṭra is the plougher's 'goad,' the badge of agriculture. It is mentioned several times in the Rigveda.  

Asamāti Rātha-prauṣṭha.—The story of the quarrel between Asamāti, the Ikṣvāku prince of the Rathaprostha family, and
Asita] \textit{KING ASAMĀTI—KNIFE—RIVER ASIKNī} 47

his priests, the Gaupāyanas, is found only in the later Brāhmaṇas.\footnote{\textit{Rv.} i. 162, 20; \textit{x.} 79, 6; 86, 18; \textit{Av.} iii. 27, 1; \textit{v.} 13, 5, 6; \textit{vi.} 56, 2; \textit{Maitrāyani Samhitā}, iii. 14, 18; perhaps etc.; \textit{Taittiriya Samhitā}, v. 5, 10, 1; \textit{Vājasaneyi Samhitā}, xxiv. 37.} It appears to be based on a misreading of the Rigveda,\footnote{\textit{Av.} vii. 9, 1. \textit{Cf.} Bloomfield, \textit{Hymns of the Atharvaveda}, 499; \textit{Max Müller, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society}, 1866, 426-465; \textit{Böhtlingk's Dictionary}, s.v.; \textit{Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences}, 15, 48, n. 1.} where \textit{asamāti} is merely an adjective. The later story is that the king was induced to abandon his family priests by two Asuras, Kirāta and Ākuli, who by their magic compassed the death of Subandhu, one of the brother priests, and that the others revived him by the use of the hymns (Rigveda, x. 57-60).

1 Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 167 (\textit{Journal of the American Oriental Society}, 18, 41 et seq.); Sātyāyanaka, cited in Sāyaṇa on \textit{Rv.} x. 57, 1; 60, 7; Brhadādevatā, vii. 83 et seq., with Macdonell's notes; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 12, 5.

\textit{Asi} usually denotes the sacrificial knife,\footnote{\textit{Kāṭhaka Samhitā}, xv. 4.} but occasionally appears to mean a knife used in war.\footnote{\textit{Av.} iii. 27, 1; \textit{v.} 13, 5, 6; \textit{vi.} 56, 2; \textit{Maitrāyani Samhitā}, iii. 14, 18; perhaps etc.; \textit{Taittiriya Samhitā}, v. 5, 10, 1; \textit{Vājasaneyi Samhitā}, xxiv. 37.} Mention is made of a sheath (\textit{vavri})\footnote{\textit{Ibid.}; \textit{Maitrāyani Samhitā}, ii. 6, 5.} to which a belt (\textit{vala}) was attached. The word \textit{asi-dhārā}\footnote{\textit{Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa}, iii. 139.} also denotes 'sheath.'


\textit{Asiknī} ('black') is the name in the Rigveda\footnote{\textit{Av.} i. 14, 4; \textit{Av.} vi. 137, 1.} of the river known later as Candra-bhāgā, and to the Greeks as Akesines, now the Chenab in the Punjab.


1. \textit{Asita} is a name of the 'black snake,' referred to in the later Saṃhitās.\footnote{\textit{Av.} vii. 20; \textit{x.} 75, 5; \textit{Nirukta}, ix. 26. \textit{Cf.} Zimmer, \textit{Altindisches Leben}, 12.}

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2. \textit{Asita}.—\textit{(a)} A mythical sage of this name figures as a magician in the Atharvaveda in conjunction with \textit{Gaya} or with \textit{Jamadagni.}  

1 \textit{Av.} iii. 27, 1; \textit{v.} 13, 5, 6; \textit{vi.} 56, 2; \textit{Maitrāyani Saṃhitā}, iii. 14, 18; perhaps etc.; \textit{Taittiriya Samhitā}, v. 5, 10, 1; \textit{Vājasaneyi Samhitā}, xxiv. 37.
Asita Dhānva, and as Daivala or Devala in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa and Kāṭhaka Samhitā.


xiv. 11, 19. Cf. xv. 5, 27.

(b) Asita Vārṣa-gaṇa is a pupil of Harita Kaśyapa according to the Vaṃśa or Genealogy in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.

1 vi. 5, 3 (Kanva = vi. 4, 33, Madhyandina).

Asita-mṛga is the designation in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa of a family of the Kaśyapas who were excluded from a sacrifice by Janamejaya, but who took away the conduct of the offering from the Bhūtavīrs, whom the king employed. In the Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa and the Śañcviṃśa Brāhmaṇa the Asita-mṛgas are called 'sons of the Kaśyapas,' and one is mentioned as Kusurubindu 4 Audālaki.


2 i. 75. 3 i. 4. 4 Variousy read as Asurbinda, Kusurbinda, Kusurbinda.

Asura-vidyā, 'the science of the Asuras,' the term used in the Śāṅkhāyana and Āśvalāyana Śrauta Sūtras as the equivalent of the term māyā employed in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, clearly means 'magic,' as it is rendered by Professor Eggeling.

1 x. 7. 5 xiii. 4, 3. 11. Cf. Śāṅkhāyana 368. Srauta Sūtra, x. 61, 2. 21.

Astr, 'shooter,' is a term frequently used in the Rigveda and Atharvaveda for the archer who fought from the chariot.

1 i. 8, 4; 64, 10; ii. 42, 2, etc.

2 vi. 93, i. 2; xi. 2, 7. Cf. Zimmer, Althindisches Leben, 296.

Ahan, 'day.' Like other peoples, the Indians used night as a general expression of time as well as day, but by no means predominantly.1 Night is also termed the dark (kṛṣṇa), as

1 Rv. iv. 16, 19; viii. 26, 3; i. 70, 4. Cf. Av. x. 7, 42.
opposed to the light (aṇjuna), day.\(^2\) Aho-rātra\(^3\) is a regular term for ‘day and night’ combined.

The day itself is variously divided. In the Atharvaveda\(^4\) a division into ‘the rising sun’ (udyan sūryāḥ), ‘the coming together of the cows’ (sāṃgava), ‘midday’ (madhyām-dīna), ‘afternoon’ ( aparāhna), and ‘sunset’ (astama-yāna) is found. In the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa\(^5\) the same series appears with ‘early’ (prātar) and ‘evening’ (sāyāna) substituted for the first and last members, while a shorter list gives prātar, sāngava, sāyam. In the Maitrāyaṇī Saṁhitā\(^6\) there is the series ‘dawn’ (uṣas), sāngava, madhyāmādīna, and aparāhna.

The morning is also, according to Zimmer, called api-sārvara,\(^7\) as the time when the dark is just past. It is named svasara,\(^8\) as the time when the cows are feeding, before the first milking at the sāngava, or when the birds are awakening.\(^9\) It is also called pra-pitva,\(^10\) according to Zimmer.\(^11\) But Geldner\(^12\) points out that that term refers to the late midday, which also is called api-sārvara, as bordering on the coming night, being the time when day is hastening to its close, as in a race. From another point of view, evening is called abhi-pitva,\(^13\) the time when all come to rest. Or again, morning and evening are denoted as the dawning of the sun (udita sūryasya), or its setting (ni-mruc). The midday is regularly madhyam-ahnām,\(^14\) madhye,\(^15\) or madhyāmādīna. Saṁgava\(^16\) is the forenoon, between the early morning (prātar) and midday (madhyāmādīna).

The divisions of time less than the day are seldom precisely given. In the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,\(^17\) however, a day and

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\(^2\) Rv. vi. 9, 1.
\(^3\) Rv. x. 190, 2; Av. xiii. 3, 8, etc.; Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, xxiii. 41, etc.
\(^4\) iv. 6, 45.
\(^5\) i. 5, 3, 1; 4, 9, 2.
\(^6\) iv. 2, 11.
\(^7\) Rv. iii. 9, 7; cf. Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, i, 230.
\(^8\) Rv. ii. 34, 8; ix. 94, 2.
\(^9\) Rv. ii. 19, 2; 34, 5.
\(^10\) Rv. vii. 41, 4; viii. i, 29. Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 127 et seq., interprets parītiḥmaṇḍām (Rv. i. 116, 15) similarly.
\(^11\) Altindisches Leben, 362.
\(^12\) Vedische Studien, 2, 155-179.
\(^13\) Rv. i. 126, 3; iv. 34, 5.
\(^14\) Rv. vii. 41, 4.
\(^15\) Rv. viii. 27, 20.
\(^16\) Cf. Rv. v. 76, 3 (sāngave, prātar ahno, madhyāmādine); Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 1, 1, 3; Jaiminiya Upanisad Brāhmaṇa, i. 12, 4; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 18, 14; Geldner, Vedische Studien, 3, 112, 113. Zimmer, op. cit., 362, places it too early—before the cows are driven out.
\(^17\) xi. 3, 2, 5. Cf. Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 10, 1, 1 et seq.
night make up 30 muhūrtas; 1 muhūrta = 15 kṣīpa; 1 kṣīpa = 15 etarhī; 1 etarhī = 15 idānī; 1 idānī = 15 breathings; 1 breathing = 1 spiration; 1 spiration = 1 twinkling (nīmesa), etc. In the Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka the series is dhvamsayo, nīmesĀ, kāsthāh, kalāh, kṣanā, muhūrtā, ahorātrāh. A thirtyfold division of day as well as of night is seen in one passage of the Rigveda by Zimmer, who compares the Babylonian sixtyfold division of the day and night. But the expression used—thirty Yojanas—is too vague and obscure—Bergaigne refers it to the firmament to build any theory upon with safety.

The longer divisions of time are regularly 'half month' (ardha-māsa), 'month' (māsa), 'season' (ṛtu), and 'year' (samvatsara), which often occur in this sequence after ahorātrānī ('days and nights').

Ahalyā Maitreyī is practically a mythical name, the existence of the lady whose story is alluded to in several Brāhmaṇas being derived from the epithet of Indra, 'lover of Ahalyā' (ahalyāyai jāra).

Ahi.—This word occurs frequently from the Rigveda onwards to denote 'snake.' Reference is several times made to its casting its slough. Mention is also made of the serpent’s peculiar movement, which earns for it the designation of 'the toothed rope' (datvātī rajjuḥ). The poisonous character

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19 Rv. i. 123, 8.
20 Religion Védique, 3, 283 et seq. Cf. Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. kratu.
21 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vii. i, 15; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 12, 7; Vāja-saneyī Saṃhitā, xxii. 28; Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka, vii. 20; Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 8, 9, etc. Cf. Zimmer, Altindoisches Leben, 361-363.

1 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 3, 4, 18; Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 79; Saḍviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, i. 1.
of its bite is spoken of, as well as the torpidity of the reptile in winter, when it creeps into the earth. The cast skin is used as an amulet against highwaymen. Mention is made of a mythical horse, Paidva, which the Aśvins gave to Pedu as a protection against snakes, and which is invoked as a destroyer of serpents. The ichneumon (nakula) is regarded as their deadly enemy, and as immune against their poison through the use of a healing plant, while men kill them with sticks or strike off their heads.

Many species of snakes are mentioned: see Aghāsva, Ajagara, Asita, Kaṅkaparvan, Karikrata, Kalmāṣagrīva, Kasarnīla, Kumbhīnasa, Tīrāścaraṇī, Taimāta, Darvi, Daśonasi, Puṣkarasāda, Pḍāku, Lohitāhi, Śarkoṭa, Śvitra, Sarpa.

Ahīnā Āśvatthya was a sage (muni) who achieved immortality by knowledge of a certain rite (śāvitram).

The form of the first name is remarkable. The second may be compared with Āsvattha.

Ā.  

Ākuli.—This mythical priest plays, together with Kirāta, a part in the later tale of Asamāti and the Gaupāyanas.

Āktākṣya is mentioned as a teacher who had peculiar views on the fire ritual (agni-citi), which are rejected in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa.

Ā-kramaṇa.—In the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (i. 3) this word is used with the specific sense of ‘steps to climb trees.’
Ākhu.—The exact sense of this word is uncertain. Zimmer renders it ‘mole,’ while Roth prefers ‘mouse’ or ‘rat.’ It is frequently mentioned in the later Saṃhitās, and is known to the Rigveda, where, however, the word is regarded by Pischel as having acquired the secondary sense of ‘thief.’ This is denied by Hillebrandt.

1 Altindisches Leben, 84, 85, followed by Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 142.
3 Taittiriya Saṃhitā, v. 5, 14, 1; Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 7; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, iii. 57; xxiv. 26; 28; Av. vi. 50, 1.

A-khyāna.—In the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa we hear of the Śunahṣeṇa Ākhyāna, ‘the story of Śunahṣeṇa,’ which is told by the Hotṛ priest at the Rājasūya (‘royal inauguration’). The series of stories used at the Āśvamedha (‘horse sacrifice’) during the year while the sacrificial horse is allowed to wander at its will is called the ‘cyclic’ (pari-plavam). The Aitareya Brāhmaṇa mentions also Ākhyāna-vids (‘men versed in tales’), who tell the Sauparna legend, elsewhere known as a Vyākhyāna. Yāska, in the Nirukta, frequently uses the term, sometimes in a pregnant sense as denoting the doctrine of the Aitihāsikas or traditional interpreters of the Rigveda.

1 vii. 18, 10. Cf. Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 27.
2 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 4, 3, 2.
3 iii. 25, 1.
4 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 6, 2, 7.
5 v. 21; vii. 7.
6 xi. 19; 25.

Ā-khyāyika.—This word occurs apparently but once in the Vedic literature, in the late Taittiriya Āraṇyaka, where its significance is doubtful.

1 i. 6, 3. Cf. Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rigveda, 20, n. 1.

Āgastya appears as a teacher in the Aitareya (iii. 1, 1) and Śāṅkhāyana (vii. 2) Āraṇyakas.
Agni-veśi Śatri.—A prince of this name appears to be referred to in a Dānastuti ('Praise of Gifts') in the Rigveda.\(^1\)


Agni-veśya.—Several teachers of this name are mentioned in the Vāṃśas or Genealogies of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad. In the Mādhyandina recension\(^1\) Agniveśya is a pupil of Saitava. In the Kāṇva recension he is a pupil of Śāndilya and Ānabhimlāta in one Vāṃśa,\(^2\) and of Gārgya in the second Vāṃśa.\(^3\)

1 ii. 5, 21; iv. 5, 27. 2 ii. 6, 2. 3 iv. 6, 2.

Ā-ghāṭi is a musical instrument, the 'cymbal,' used to accompany dancing. It is known to the Rigveda\(^1\) and Atharvaveda.\(^2\)


Āṅgirasa is a title denoting a claim to be of the family of Āṅgiras, borne by many sages and teachers, like Kṛṣṇa, Ājīgarti, Cyavana, Ayāśya, Saṅvarta, Sudhanvan, etc.

Āja-keśin is the name of a family in which, according to the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (i. 9, 3), Baka used violence against Indra.

Ājani.—This word is used to denote a 'goad' in the Atharvaveda (iii. 25, 5).

Ājāta-śatrava. See Bhadrasena.

Āji is constantly used in the Rigveda\(^1\) and the later literature to express the sense of 'a race,' and only seldom denotes 'a battle.' Horse-racing was one of the favourite amusements of the Vedic Indian,\(^2\) the other being dicing

1 v. 37, 7; vi. 24, 6, etc. | Geldner, Vedische Studien, 1, 120; 2, 2. 2 Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 291; 1 et seq.
(Akṣa). The racecourse, called Kāṣṭhā⁴ or Āji⁵ itself, appears from the Atharvaveda⁶ to have been a quasi-circular one to a mark (kārṣman⁶) and back again. In the Rigveda the course is described as broad (uvrīt), and the distance as measured out (apāvrktā aratnayah).⁷ Prizes (dhana) were offered (dḥā),⁸ and eagerly competed for. Other words for victory and the prize are kāra⁹ and bhara;¹⁰ and to ‘run a race’ is described by the expressions ājīm aj, i, dḥāv, sr.¹¹ The person who instituted a race is referred to as āji-sṛt,¹² and Indra is called āji-kṛt¹³ (‘race-maker’), and āji-pati¹⁴ (‘lord of the race’).

The swift steeds (vājin, atya) used for the races were often washed and adorned.¹⁵ According to Pischel¹⁶ the name of one swift mare is preserved—viz., Viśpala,¹⁷ whose broken leg was replaced by the Aśvins in a race; but the interpretation is very doubtful. Geldner¹⁸ has also found a comic picture of a horse-chariot race in the Mudgala hymn in the Rigveda, but Bloomfield¹⁹ has shown that that interpretation is unsound. Pischel²⁰ also seeks to show that races were run in honour of gods, but the evidence for the theory is inadequate.²¹

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³ Rv. viii. 80, 8; Av. ii. 14, 6.
⁴ Rv. iv. 24, 8; Av. xiii. 2, 4.
⁵ ii. 14, 6; xiii. 2. 4.
⁶ Rv. ix. 36, i; 74, 8.
⁷ The sense is doubtful in Rv. viii. 80, 8. Zimmer suggests that it may mean ‘the course is straight,’ without twistings, for which idea cf. Geldner, Vedische Studien, 2, 160, quoting the comparison of the courser’s race with a bowstring (Rv. iii. 53, 24). It is also rendered ‘the barriers are removed.’
⁸ Rv. i. 81, 3; 116, 15; vi. 45, 1 et seq.; viii. 80, 8; ix. 53, 2; 109, 10.
⁹ According to Geldner, Vedische Studien, 1, 120, n. 2, dhana is from dhan, ‘start.’ Cf. Pischel, ibid., 171. Cf. dhanasā, Rv. i. 112, 7, 10; ii. 10, 6; viii. 3, 15, etc.
¹⁰ Rv. v. 29, 8; ix. 14, i.
¹¹ Rv. v. 29, 8; ix. 16, 5, etc.
¹² Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 25; iv. 27; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 4, 3, 4; v. 1, 1, 3; 4, 1; vi. 1, 2, 12; vii. 1, 2, 1, etc.
¹³ Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 1, 5, 10. 28; xi. 1, 2, 13.
¹⁴ Rv. viii. 53, 6.
¹⁵ Ibid., 14.
¹⁶ Rv. vii. 34, 3; ix. 109, 10; x. 68, 11.
¹⁸ Rv. i. 116, 15. Pischel finds here a race in honour of Vivasvant, but his equation of Khela and Vivasvant is denied even by Sieg, who accepts his theory of Viśpala.
¹⁹ Vedische Studien, 2, 1 et seq.
²¹ Vedische Studien, 1, 172.
²² Sieg, op. cit., 128.
Adambara  |  SALVE—DRUM  
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A formal race, however, is a feature of the ritual of the Rājasūya or royal consecration.22

22 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, i. 8, 15; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 9; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xv. 8; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, x. 19 et seq.; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 4, 2; 3. Cf. Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, i, 43.

Ājigarti.—See Sunaḥsepa, who bears this patronymic in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa.1 He is called an Āngirasa in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā.2

1 vii. 17. Cf. Śāṅkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, xvi. 11, 2. 2 xix. 11.

Ājya. See Gṛhta.

Āñjana.—A salve frequently referred to in the Atharvaveda,1 which came from Mount Trikakubh2 in the Himālaya, and was used to anoint the eyes.3 The region of the Yamunā4 is also given as a possible place of origin, and the ointment is declared as potent to remove jaundice, Yakṣma, Jayānya, and other diseases.5 A female ointment-maker is mentioned in the list of victims of the Puruṣamedha (‘human sacrifice’).6

1 iv. 9; vi. 102, 3; ix. 6, 11; xix. 44. 2 Av. iv. 9, 9, 10; xix. 44, 6. 3 Cf. Av. iv. 9, 1 (aṅgyam); Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 3. Hence the legend in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vi. 1, 1, 5; cf. i. 2, 1, 2; Maitrāyanī Saṃhitā, iii. 6, 3; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 1, 3, 15; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, iv. 3. 4 Av. iv. 9, 10. 5 Av. xix. 44, 1 et seq. 6 Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxx. 14 (āujani-hāri); Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 10, 1. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 5, 69; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda 381 et seq.; American Journal of Philology, 17, 405, 406; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 159.

Āṭikī is the name of the wife of Uṣasti in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (i. 10, 1).

Āṭṣāra.—Patronymic of Para.

Ādambara was a kind of ‘drum.’ A ‘drummer’ (ādambarā-ghāta) is mentioned in the list of victims at the Puruṣa-medha (‘human sacrifice’) in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā.1

Āṇi.—This word, which is found in the Rigveda, but rarely later, appears to be best taken with Roth and Zimmer as denoting the part of the axle of the chariot which is inserted into the nave of the wheel. Sāyaṇa renders it as lynch-pin, and this sense is accepted by Leumann, being apparently also found in the Nirukta. In one place in the Rigveda the word appears by synecdoche to denote the whole chariot, but the passage is, according to Geldner, completely obscure.

1 i. 35, 6; v. 43, 8.  
2 In a Mantra in the Aitareya Āraṇya-ka, ii. 7. See Keith’s edition, pp. 266, 267, and Vānī.  
3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.  
4 Altindisches Leben, 247.  
5 Etymologisches Wörterbuch, 30.  
6 vi. 32.  
7 i. 63, 3 Cf. Pischel, Vedische Studien, 1, 96.  
8 Geldner, ibid., i, 141, n. 3.

Āṇḍika (‘bearing eggs’) is a term found in the Atharvaveda denoting an edible plant, apparently with fruit or leaves of egg shape (āṇḍa), akin to the lotus.

1 iv. 34, 5; v. 17, 16. In the first passage the Paippalāda version has paṇḍuḷiṇika in its place; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 207. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 70; Weber, Indische Studien, 18, 138.

Ātā.—The framework of the door of a house appears to be denoted by the plural of this word in the Rigveda (though in all passages there it is used only by synecdoche of the doors of the sky), and in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā. Zimmer compares the Latin antae, to which the word etymologically corresponds.

1 i. 56, 5; ii. 113, 14; iii. 43, 6; ix. 5, 5 (ātāiḥ).  
2 xxix. 5 (ātāiḥ). Cf. ātābhīk in Durga on Nirukta, iv. 18.  
3 Altindisches Leben, 154.  
4 Brugmann, Grundriss, 1, 209; 2, 214.

Ātī, an aquatic bird. The Apsarases in the legend of Purūravas and Urvaśī appear to him like Ātis, probably swans. The birds appear also in the list of animals in the Aśvamedha (‘horse sacrifice’), where Mahīdhara renders them as the

1 Rv. x. 95, 9. Cf. Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 5, 1, 4.  
2 Taittiriya Saṃhitā, v. 5, 13, 1;  
3 On Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, loc. cit.
later Āḍī (Turdus ginginianus), and Sāyaṇa quotes a view, according to which the Āti was the Cāṣa, or blue jay (Coracias indica).


Ātithi-gva.—Patronymic of Indrota.

Ātreya is the patronymic of a pupil of Māṇṭi in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad. An Ātreya appears as a Purohita of Aniga in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa. An Ātreya was regularly the priest in certain rites, and an Ātreyi occurs in an obscure passage in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa.

1 ii. 6, 3; iv. 6, 3 (in both versions).
2 viii. 22.
3 Ibid., vii. 7; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 3, 4, 21; Kātyāyana Srauta Sūtra, x. 2, 21 (sadasaḥ purastāt).
4 i. 4, 5, 13. Cf. Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Ātreyi-putra is mentioned as a pupil of Gautamiputra in a Vaṃśa, or Genealogy, in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (vi. 5, 2, in both versions).

Ātharvāṇa, a patronymic formed from the name of the mythic Atharvan, is found normally in the plural neuter as a designation of the hymns of the Atharvans. This use appears in the late nineteenth book of the Atharvaveda, and in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa. In the singular the expression Ātharvāṇa (Veda), though not occurring till the Chāṇḍogya Upaniṣad, is earlier than the term ‘Atharvaveda,’ which is first found in the Sūtras. In the Nidāna Sūtra Ātharvaṇikas, or ‘followers of the Atharvaveda,’ appear.

Specific but mainly mythical Ātharvaṇas are Kabandha, Bṛhaddiva, Bhiṣaj, Dadhyañe, and Vīcārin.

1 xix. 23, 1. 2 xii. 9, 10.
3 vii. 1, 2. 4 ; 2, I ; 7, 1.
4 Śāṅkhaṇyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. 2, 10, etc.
Ā-darśa, 'mirror,' is a term found only in the Upaniṣads\(^1\) and Āranyakas.\(^2\)

\(^1\) Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 1, 9; \(^2\) Aitareya Āranyaka, iii. 2, 4; Sāṅkh-ii. 9, 15; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, viii. 7, 4; Kauśitāki Upaniṣad, iv. 2; ii.

Ādāra was a kind of plant which was prescribed as a substitute for Soma.\(^1\) It is identified in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa\(^2\) with Pūtika.

\(^1\) Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 5, 10, 4; \(^2\) xiv. 1, 2, 12. Cf. Kāṭhaka Saṁ. xxv. 12, 19.


Ānanda-ja Cāndhanāyana is mentioned as a pupil of Śāmba in the Vaṁśa Brāhmaṇa.\(^1\)

\(^1\) Indische Studien, 4, 372.

Ānabhi-mlāta is mentioned in a Vaṁśa, or Genealogy, in the Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad\(^1\) as a pupil of Ānabhimlāta.

\(^1\) ii. 6, 2 (not in the Mādhyandina version).

Ānava. See Anu.

Ānūka.—Geldner\(^1\) thinks that in its solitary occurrence in the Rigveda\(^2\) this word means an ornament. Roth\(^3\) takes it adverbially, and so do Ludwig and Oldenberg.

\(^1\) Vedische Studien, 3, 94. \(^2\) v. 33, 9. \(^3\) St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Āpayā is the name of a river mentioned once only in the Rigveda,\(^1\) when it occurs between the Drṣadvatī and the Sarasvatī. Ludwig\(^2\) was inclined to identify it with the Āpagā as a name for the Ganges, but Zimmer\(^3\) correctly places it near the Sarasvatī, either as the small tributary which flows past Thānesar or the modern Indramatī farther west, while Pischel\(^4\) assigns it to Kurukṣetra, of which the Āpayā is mentioned as a famous river in the Mahābhārata.\(^5\)

\(^1\) iii. 23, 4. \(^2\) Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 200. \(^3\) Altindisches Leben, 18. \(^4\) Vedische Studien, 2, 218. \(^5\) Mahābhārata, iii. 83, 68.


Ámbašṭḥya ] MYROBALAN FRUIT—CURDS 59

Abayu is apparently the name of a plant in the Atharvaveda;¹ the mustard plant² may have been meant, but the sense is quite uncertain.³

1 vi. 16, 1. ² Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 465, following the indication of the use of the hymn in the Kauśika Śūtra.

Abhí-pratārīṇa.—Patronymic of Vṛddhadyumna.

Ā́bhūti Tvāṣṭra is mentioned in two Vamśas, or Genealogies, of the Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad¹ as a pupil of Viśvarūpa Tvāṣṭra, both teachers being no doubt equally mythical.

1 ii. 6, 3; iv. 6, 3 (in both recensions).

Amalaka (neuter), a common word later, is found in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (vii. 3, 1), denoting the Myrobalan fruit. Cf. Amalā.

Āmikṣā designates a mess of clotted curds. It is not known to the Rigveda, but occurs in all the later Saṃhitās,¹ Brāhmaṇas,² etc., and is associated with the Vaiśya in the Taittiriya Ārāṇyaka.³

1 Av. x. 9, 13; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, ii. 5, 5, 4; iii. 3, 9, 2; vi. 2, 5, 3; Maitrāyani Saṃhitā, ii. 1, 9; Vājāsaneyi Saṃhitā, xix. 21; 23, etc. ² Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 8, 1, 7, 9; iii. 3, 3, 2, etc.; Taittirīya Ārāṇyaka, ii. 8, 8; Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 438 (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 19, 99, 101); Chāndogya Upaniṣad, viii. 8, 5, etc. ³ Loc. cit. Cf. Mānava Srauta Sūtra, ii. 2, 40.

Ā́mba denotes in the Taittirīya¹ and Kāṭhaka² Saṃhitās a grain, called Nāmba in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa.³

1 i. 8, 10, 1. ² xv. 5. ³ v. 3, 3, 8.

Āmbašṭḥya is mentioned in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (viii. 21) as a king, whose priest for the Rājasūya, or royal inauguration, was Nārada. Presumably the name is local, meaning 'King of
the Ambaśṭhas,’ as interpreted in the St. Petersburg Dictionary. Later the term Ambaśṭha denotes ‘a man of mingled Brāhmaṇa and Vaiśya parentage by father and mother’ respectively.

Ā-yatana.—The general sense of ‘abode’ or ‘home’ appears to be limited in one passage of the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (vii. 24, 2) to the sense of ‘holy place,’ ‘sanctuary,’ which is found in the epic.

Āyavasa is mentioned apparently as a king in a corrupt and unintelligible verse of the Rigveda.¹

¹ i. 122, 15. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 206; Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Āyu appears in the Rigveda¹ with Kutsa and Atithigva as having been defeated, with Indra’s aid, by Tūrvayāṇa, who is believed by Pischel² to have been King of the Pakthas. Possibly he is elsewhere³ referred to as victorious, by Indra’s aid, over Veśa. Elsewhere he is quite mythical.⁴

¹ i. 53, 10; ii. 14, 7; vi. 18, 13; viii. 53, 2; Bergaigne, Religion Védique, 1, 60.
² Vedische Studien, 1, 71-75.
³ Rv. x. 49, 5; but the word is possibly not a proper name.
⁴ Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, 100, 135, 140.

Āyuta. See Ghṛta.

Ā-yudha, ‘weapon,’ in its widest sense covers the whole of a Kṣatriya’s warlike equipment, which in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa¹ is summed up as horse-chariot (aśva-ratha), bow and arrows (iṣu-dhanva), and corselet (kavaca). As the bow and arrow (iṣu, ḍhanvaṇa) were essential as the main weapons of the Vedic fighter, they are probably meant when Āyudha is used specifically of weapons, as often from the Rigveda² onwards. The battle hymn in the Rigveda³ confirms this view, as it presents to us the warrior armed with bow and arrow on his chariot, and clad in armour (Varman), with a guard (Hastaghna) on the left arm to avoid the friction of the bow-string. The corselet was not a single solid piece of metal, but consisted of many pieces fitted together (syūta);⁴ it may

¹ vii. 19, 2.
² i. 39, 2; 61, 13; 92, 1; ii. 39, 9, etc.; Av. vi. 133, 2, etc.
³ vi. 75.
⁴ Rv. i. 31, 15.
have been made either of metal plates or, as is more likely, of some stiff material plated with metal. In addition the warrior wore a helmet (Śiprā). There is no trace of the use of a shield, nor is there any clear record of the employment of greaves or other guard for the feet. ⁵ Skill in the use of weapons is referred to in the Rigveda. ⁶

It is doubtful whether sling stones (Adri, Asani) were in ordinary use. The hook (aṅkuṣa) ⁷ also is merely a divine weapon, and the axe (svadhiti, vāsi, paraśu) does not occur in mortal combats. For the use of the spear see Rṣṭi, Rambhīṇi, Śakti, Saru; of the sword, Asi, Kṛṭi. Neither weapon can be considered ordinary in warfare, nor was the club (Vajra) used. For the modes of warfare see Samgrāma.


Āyogava.—Marutta Āvi-kṣita, the Āyogava king, is mentioned as a sacrificer in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ¹ where also a Gāthā (‘stanza’) celebrating his sacrifice is cited. Cf. Ayogū.

¹ xiii. 5, 4, 6. Cf. Śāṅkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, xvi. 9, 14-16.

Āraṅgara is one of the names of the bee found in the Rigveda. ¹ Other names are Sarah and Bhṛṅgā.


Ārā, a word later ¹ known as an ‘awl’ or ‘gimlet,’ occurs in the Rigveda ² only to designate a weapon of Pūṣan, with whose pastoral character its later use for piercing leather is consistent. Cf. Vāśi.

¹ Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 3, 365, n. 1. ² vi. 53, 8.

Aruna Aupa-veṣi.—So the manuscripts let us read the former word in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṁhitā, but this is doubtless an error for Aruṇa.

Aruṇi is the patronymic normally referring to Uddālaka, son of Aruṇa Aupaveṣī. Uddālaka is probably also meant by Aruṇi Yaśasvin, who occurs as a teacher of the Subrahmaṇya (a kind of recitation) in the Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa.1 Arunis are referred to both in the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa2 and in the Kāṭhaka Saṁhitā,3 as well as in the Aitareya Āraṇyaka.4

Áruṇeya.—An epithet of Śvetaketu, indicating his descent from Uddālaka Aruṇi and Aruṇa Aupaveṣī. It is apparently confined to the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa1 and Chāndogya Upaniṣad,2 in which Śvetaketu plays a great part.

Arukṣa.—Patronymic of Šrutarvan and of Āsvamedha.

Árjīka1 and Árjīkiyā2 (masc.), Árjīkiyā3 (fem.).—The two masculine forms probably denote the people or land, while the feminine word designates the river of the land. Hillebrandt4 locates the country in or near Kaśmir, as Arrian5 mentions Arsaces, brother of Abhisares, who presumably took his name from his people, and Abhisāra bordered on Kaśmir. Fischel6 accepts Árjīka as designating a country, which he, however, thinks cannot be identified. But neither Roth7 nor Zimmer8 recognizes the word as a proper name. On the other hand, all authorities agree in regarding Árjīkiyā as the name of a

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1 ii. 80.  2 ii. 5.  3 xiii. 12.  4 ii. 4. 1.
1 ii. 3, 4, 1; xi. 2, 7, 12; 5, 4, 18; 6, 2, 1; xii. 2, 1, 9; Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi, 2, 1.
2 v. 3, 1; vi. 1, 1.

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1 Singular: Rv. viii. 7, 29; ix. 113, 2.  
2 Plural: ix. 65, 23.  
3 Rv. viii. 64, 11.  
4 Rv. x. 75, 5.  
5 Vedische Mythologie, 1, 126-137.
6 Anabasis, v. 29, 4.  
7 Vedische Studien, 2, 209, 217.  
8 Altindisches Leben, 12-14.
river. Roth\(^9\) does so in one passage\(^10\) only, elsewhere seeing references to Soma vessels; but it seems necessary to treat the word alike in all passages containing it. Zimmer does not locate the river, and Pischel denies the possibility of its identification. Hillebrandt thinks it may have been the Upper Indus, or the Vitastā (the Jhelum), or some other stream. Grassmann follows Yāska\(^11\) in identifying it with the Vīpāś (Beās), but this is rendered improbable by the position of the name in the hymn in praise of rivers (nadī-stuti).\(^12\) Brunnhofer\(^13\) identifies it with the Arghesan, a tributary of the Arghanab.


Ārjuneya.—In the Rigveda\(^1\) this name occurs as the patronymic of Kautsa.

\(^1\) i. 112, 23; iv. 26, i; vii. 19, 2; viii. 1, 11.

Ārtabhāgī-putra is mentioned as a pupil of Śauṅgī-putra in a Vamsa or Genealogy in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.\(^1\) Ārtabhāga is a patronymic of Jaratkārava in the same Upaniṣad.\(^2\)

\(^1\) vi. 5, 2 (also in the Mādhyandina version). \(^2\) iii. 2, i. 13.

Ārtava.—This expression denotes a portion of the year consisting of more seasons than one. But it does not bear the exact sense of ‘half-year,’ as suggested by Zimmer.\(^1\) This is shown by the fact that it occurs regularly in the plural, not in the dual. In the Atharvaveda it occurs between seasons and years (hāyana),\(^2\) but also in the combinations, ‘seasons, Ārtavas, months, years’;\(^3\) ‘half-months, months, Ārtavas, seasons’;\(^4\)

\(^1\) Altindisches Leben, 374. \(^2\) iii. 10, 9. \(^3\) xii. 20. \(^4\) xi. 7, 20. Cf. xv. 6, 6; 17, 6.
NOTCHED END OF BOW—ARYAN  [Ärtni

'seasons, Ártavas, months, half-months, days and nights, day',5 and in the Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā 'months, seasons, Ártavas, the year,'6 or simply with the seasons.7

Ärtni denotes the end of the bow to which the bow-string (jyā) was attached.1 The string was not normally kept fastened to both ends of the bow, but when an arrow was to be shot it was strung taut.2 On the other hand, the legend of the death of Viṣṇu, told in the later Saṁhitās8 and Brāhmaṇas,4 expressly contemplates his leaning on his strung bow, which cleaves his head by the sudden springing apart of the two ends when the bow-string is gnawed through.

Ärya is the normal designation in the Vedic literature from the Rigveda1 onwards of an Áryan, a member of the three upper classes, Brāhmaṇa, Ksatriya, or Vaiśya, as the formal division is given in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa.2 The Árya stands in opposition to the Dāsa,3 but also to the Śūdra. Sometimes4 the expression is restricted to the Vaiśya caste,

1 Rv. vi. 75, 4; Av. i. 1, 3; Maitrāyaṇi Saṁhitā, ii. 9, 2; Kāṭhaka Saṁhitā, xvii. 11; Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, xvi. 9, etc.
2 Rv. x. 166, 3. Cf. Av. vi. 42, i.
3 Maitrāyaṇi Saṁhitā, iv. 5, 9.
4 Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, vii. 5, 6; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiv. i, 1, 7 et seq.


Whitney's Translation of the Atharvaveda, 948, 1003, quotes his view with approval; but Whitney's version leaves no doubt that he read and understood the text as Árya, the Áryan, not the Vaiśya. For Whitney's view, Av. iv. 20, 4, 8 may be cited; and so Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., takes the passages. In Taittirīya Saṁhitā, iv. 3, 10, 8, Śūdrāryau must mean Śūdra and Vaiśya; but the Padapātha takes it as Árya, and so does Zimmer.
the Brāhmaṇa and the Kṣatriya receiving special designations; but this use is not common, and it is often uncertain also whether Aryan is not meant. The phrase Śūdrāryau\(^5\) is especially ambiguous, but appears to have denoted originally the Śūdra and the Āryan, for in the Mahāvrata ceremony the fight between a Śūdra and an Āryan is represented in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa as one between a Brāhmaṇa and a Śūdra, though the Sūtra treats it as a fight between a Vaiśya and a Śūdra.

The word Ārya (fem. Āryā or Ārī) also occurs frequently used as an adjective to describe the Āryan classes (viṣāḥ),\(^6\) or name (nāma),\(^7\) or caste (varṇa),\(^8\) or dwellings (āhāmaṇ),\(^9\) or again reference is made to the Āryan supremacy (vrata)\(^10\) being extended over the land. Āryan foes (vṛtra)\(^11\) are referred to beside Dāsa foes, and there are many\(^12\) references to war of Āryan versus Āryan, as well as to war of Āryan against Dāsa. From this it can be fairly deduced that even by the time of the Rigveda the Āryan communities had advanced far beyond the stage of simple conquest of the aborigines. In the later Saṃhitās and Brāhmaṇas the wars alluded to seem mainly Āryan wars, no doubt in consequence of the fusion of Ārya and Dāsa into one community.

Weber\(^13\) considers that the five peoples known to the Rigveda were the Āryans and the four peoples of the quarters (diś) of the earth, but this is doubtful. Āryan speech (vāc)\(^14\) is specially referred to in the Aitareya and Śāṅkhāyana Āranyakas.

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\(^5\) See Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vii. 5, 9, 3; with Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xiii. 3; 7. 8; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxxiv. 5; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, v. 5, 17; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 2, 6, 7; Lātyāyana Sūtra, iv. 2, 5; Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvii. 6, 2; Anupada Sūtra, vii. 10.

\(^6\) RV. i. 77, 3; 96, 31; x. 11, 4; 43, 4, etc.

\(^7\) RV. x. 49, 3.

\(^8\) RV. iii. 34, 9. \textit{Cf. Varṇa.}

\(^9\) RV. ix. 63, 14.

\(^10\) RV. x. 65, 11. So Agni and Indra are styled Āryan, as supporters of the Āryan people (RV. vi. 60, 6).

\(^11\) RV. vi. 33, 3; vii. 83, 1; x. 69, 6.

\(^12\) RV. i. 102, 5; iii. 32, 14; vi. 22, 10; 25, 2. 3; viii. 2, 4. 27; x. 38, 3; 83, 1; 102, 3, etc.


\(^14\) Aitareya Āranyaka, iii. 2, 5; Śāṅkhāyana Āranyaka, viii. 9. \textit{Cf.} Keith, \textit{Aitareya Āranyaka}, 196, 255; and Vāc.

Arya. See Mālya.

Arṣṭi-šena.—Patronymic of Devāpi.1

1 Rv. x. 98, 5. 6. 8; Nirukta, ii. 11; Bṛhaddevatā, vii. 155.

Āla appears to mean 'weed' in the Atharvaveda,1 and to form part of three other words,2 denoting, according to Sāyaṇa, grass-creepers (sasya-vallī)—viz., Alasālā, Silanjālā,3 and Nilagalasālā. Whitney,4 however, does not think that the words can be given any determinate sense.

1 Av. vi. 16, 3. But Whitney takes the word as a verb, comparing v. 22, 6. 2 Av. vi. 16, 4. 3 Sāyaṇa reads Salanjālā, and the manuscripts of the Kauśika Sūtra (vi. 16), have Silanjālā. But cf. Silācī. 4 Translation of the Atharvaveda, 292, 293. Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 466.

Ālambāyani-putra is mentioned in a Vaṃsa or Genealogy of the Kāṇva recension of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (vi. 5, 2) as a pupil of Ālambi-putra. In the Mādhyandina recension (vi. 4, 32) the relation is reversed, for there he is teacher of Ālambi-putra and pupil of Jāyanti-putra.

Ālambi-putra is a pupil of Jāyanti-putra according to a Vaṃsa in the Kāṇva recension of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (vi. 5, 2), but of Ālambāyani-putra according to the Mādhyandina (vi. 4, 32).

Āligī is the name of a kind of serpent in the Atharvaveda (v. 13, 7). Cf. Viligī.

Ā-vasatha ('dwelling').—The precise sense1 of this term appears to be a place for the reception of guests, especially Brāhmaṇas and others on the occasion of feasts and sacrifices (somewhat like the modern meaning of Dharma-śālā as a rest-house for pilgrims), a use derived from the more general sense of 'abode.'2

1 Av. ix. 6, 5 (a hymn in praise of entertaining Brāhmaṇas); Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 10, 6; iii. 7, 4, 6; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xii. 4, 4, 6 (where Eggeling renders the word as if meaning 'house' merely); Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iv. 1, 1, etc. Details are given in the Sūtras—e.g., Āpastamba Śrānta Sūtra, v. 9, 3; Dharma Sūtra, ii. 9, 25, 4. 2 E.g., Aitareya Upaniṣad, iii. 12. Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 2, 120, n. 1.
Avika ('coming from the sheep,' avi) is a term for 'wool,' which occurs first in the Brhadâranyaka Upaniṣad (ii. 3, 6).
Cf. Avi.

Āvi-kṣita.—Patronymic of Marutta, the Āyogava.

Ā-śarīka appears to denote a disease in a hymn of the Atharvaveda celebrating the powers of the Jaṅgīda plant. Zimmer thinks that it merely denotes the pain in the limbs accompanying fever. Whitney suggests taking the word as merely an epithet.

Ā-śīr ('admixture') denotes the mixing, and more especially the milk mixed with the juice, of the Soma before it was offered to the gods. In this sense it is not rare from the Rigveda onwards. Not milk alone was employed for this purpose. The epithet 'having three admixtures' applied to Soma is explained by the other epithets, 'mixed with milk' (gavāśīr), 'mixed with curds' (dadhy-āśīr), and 'mixed with grain' (yavāśīr)—all referring to Soma.

Āśi-visa, occurring only in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, is understood by Roth as designating a particular kind of snake, and perhaps means 'having poison (viṣa) in its fangs' (āśī).

Āsu, the 'swift,' is frequently used without Āṣva to denote the chariot steed from the Rigveda onwards.

Avika ('coming from the sheep,' avi) is a term for 'wool,' which occurs first in the Brhadâranyaka Upaniṣad (ii. 3, 6).
Cf. Avi.
Āśum-ga in the Atharvaveda\(^1\) seems to denote some sort of animal. It is qualified by the word ‘young’ (śisuka), and Roth\(^2\) suggests that it may mean a bird (‘swift-flying’), or that the expression denotes ‘a foal going to its dam’ (āsu-ga). Sāyaṇa, however, reads the accompanying word as suṣuka, which he assumes to denote an animal. Bloomfield\(^3\) renders the two words ‘a swift (dsumga) foal (sisuka),’ thus agreeing with one of Roth’s suggestions in sense, though not in the explanation of Āśumga.

1 vi. 14, 3.  
2 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.  
3 Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 464.  

Cf. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 291.

Ā-śrama (‘resting-place’) does not occur in any Upaniṣad which can be regarded as pre-Buddhistic. Its earliest use as denoting the stages of a Hindu’s life is found in the Śvetāśvatara Upaniṣad.\(^1\) In one passage\(^2\) of the Chāndogya Upaniṣad reference is made only to the Brahmacārin and householder, to whom, as a reward for study, the procreation of children, the practice of Yoga, abstention from injury to living creatures, and sacrifices, freedom from transmigration are promised. In another place\(^3\) three states are contemplated, but not as consecutive. The Brahmacārin may either become a householder or become an anchorite, or remain in his teacher’s house all his life. Similarly, reference\(^4\) is made to the death of the anchorite in the forest, or the sacrifice in the village. In contrast with all three\(^5\) is the man who stands fast in Brahman (Brahma-saṃstha). In the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad\(^6\) the knower of the Ātman is contrasted with those who (1) study, or (2) sacrifice and give alms, or (3) are anchorites, and in another place\(^7\) with those who sacrifice and make benefactions, and those who practice asceticism. This position of superiority to, and distinction from, the Āśramas became later a fourth\(^8\) Āśrama,

1 *Atyāśramin*, Śvetāśvatara Upaniṣad, vi. 21; Maitrāyaṇi Upaniṣad, iv. 3, etc.  
2 viii. 5.  
3 ii. 23. 1.  
4 v. 10.  
5 ii. 23. 1.  
6 iv. 2. 22. Cf. iii. 5.  
7 iii. 8. 10.  
the Gr̄hastha, or householder, who was in the second stage, being required to pass not only into the stage of Vānaprastha, but also that of the Sannyāsin (Bhikṣu, Parivrājaka). The first stage, that of the Brahmacārin, was still obligatory, but was no longer allowed to remain a permanent one, as was originally possible.

Cf. Deussen, Philosophy of the Upanishads, 60, 367 et seq.

Ā-śreṣṇa, Ā-śleṣa. See Nakṣatra.

Āśva-gḥna.—This name occurs in one passage of the Rigveda, in a very obscure hymn, where it appears to denote a prince who had made offerings to Indra, and who may, as Ludwig thinks, have been called Vitarana.

1 x. 61, 21.
2 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 165.

Āsvatara Āśvi, or Āsvatarāśvi.—These two expressions are used as patronymics of Buḍila, denoting, according to Śāyaṇa, that he was son of Āśva, and descendant of Aśvatara.

1 The first is found in Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vi. 30; the second in Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 6, 1, 9; x. 6, 1, 1; Bhādāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, iv. 15, 8; Chandogya Upaniṣad, v. 11, 1; 16, 1.
2 On Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, loc. cit.

Āśva-tthya.—Patronymic of Ahīnā.

1 Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 10, 9, 10. Possibly to be read Āśvathya.

Āśva-medha is the patronymic of an unnamed prince, who occurs in a Dānastuti (‘Praise of Gifts’) in the Rigveda (viii. 68, 15, 16).

Āśva-vālā.—From this adjective (‘made of horse-tail grass’), applied to a strew (prastara) in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (iii. 4, 1, 17; 6, 3, 10), follows the existence of the Āśvavāla grass (Saccharum spontaneum).

Āśva-sūkti is mentioned in Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xix. 4, 2, et seq.) as an author of Sāmans (Soma chants) along with Gausūkti.
Asvina, or Asvīna, designates, in the Atharvaveda¹ and two Brahmana,² the length of journey made in a day by a horseman (aśvin). The exact distance is not defined. In the Atharva it appears to exceed five leagues, being mentioned immediately after a distance of three or five Yojanas; in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa the heavenly world is placed at a distance of a thousand Asvinas.

¹ vi. 131, 3. ² Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 17; Pañcatantra in Indische Studien, i, 34.

Aśādhi Sauśromateya.—According to the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,¹ he was ruined because the heads were put on at the Agniciti in a certain manner, and not correctly.

¹ vi. 2, 1. 37. Eggeling has Aśādhi, but as it is a patronymic of Aśādha, the form Aśādhi seems correct.

Aśtra seems in the Kāṭhaka Śaṃhitā (xxxvii. i) to denote the ploughman's goad.

Aṣṭrī.—In the Rigveda¹ the word seems to denote a fire-place. The evil bird is entreated not to settle there on the hearth.

¹ x. 165, 3. Cf. Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 347.

Asaṅga Plāyogi is a king who appears in a Dānastuti ('Praise of Gifts') in the Rigveda¹ as a generous patron. Owing, however, to the addition of a curious phallic verse to the hymn, and its early misunderstanding,² a legend was invented that he lost his manhood and became a woman, but by the intercession of Medhyātithi was transformed into a man, much to the delight of his wife, Śaśvatī, whose existence is based on a misunderstanding of the phrase 'every woman' (śaśvati nārī) in the added verse.³ Another misunderstanding

¹ viii. 1, 32. 33. ² viii. 1, 34. ³ Another misunderstanding

words taken from the Nighaṇṭu, a curious jeu d'esprit. See the extract from the Nītiṇajāīrī given by Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rigveda, 40, 41.

3 viii. 1, 34.
of the Dānastuti\(^4\) gives him a son Svanad-ratha, really a mere epithet, and makes him a descendant of Yadu.


**A-sandi.**—This is a generic term for a seat of some sort, occurring frequently in the later Samhitās\(^1\) and Brāhmaṇas,\(^2\) but not in the Rigveda. In the Atharvaveda\(^3\) the settle brought for the Vṛātya is described at length. It had two feet, lengthwise and cross-pieces, forward and cross-cords, showing that it was made of wood and also cording. It was also covered with a cushion (Āstarana) and a pillow (Upabarhana), had a seat (Āsāda) and a support (Upaśraya). Similar seats are described in the Kauśitaki Upaniṣad\(^4\) and the Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa.\(^5\) The seat for the king at the royal consecration is described in very similar terms in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa,\(^6\) where the height of the feet is placed at a span, and the lengthwise and cross-pieces are each to be a cubit, while the interwoven part (vivayana) is to be of Muñja grass, and the seat of Udumbara wood. In another passage of the Atharvaveda\(^7\) Lāman seems to take the seat meant as a ‘long reclining chair.’ There also a cushion (Upadhāna) and coverlet (Upavāsana) are mentioned. The Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa repeatedly describes the Aśandi in terms showing that it was an elaborate seat. In one place\(^8\) it is said to be made of Khadirā wood, perforated (vi-trnṇā), and joined with straps (vardha-yutā) like that of the Bhāratas. At the Sautrāmaṇi rite\(^9\) (an Indra sacrifice) the seat is of Udumbara wood, is knee-high, and of unlimited width and depth, and is covered with plaited reed-work. The

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\(^1\) Av. xiv. 2, 65; xv. 3, 2 et seq.; Taissirīya Samhitā, vii. 5, 8, 5; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, viii. 56; xix. 16; 86, etc.

\(^2\) Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, viii. 5; 6; 12; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 3, 4, 26; v. 2, i, 22; 4, 4, 1, etc.

\(^3\) xv. 3, 2 et seq.

\(^4\) i. 5. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, i, 397; Keith, Śāṅkhāyana Aranyaka, 19.

\(^5\) ii. 24.

\(^6\) vii. 5; 6; 12.

\(^7\) xiv. 2, 65. See his note in Whitney’s Translation of the Atharvaveda, 765.

\(^8\) v. 4, 4, 1.

\(^9\) xii. 8, 3, 4 et seq.
imperial seat\textsuperscript{10} is to be shoulder-high, of Udumbara wood, and wound all over with cords of Balvaja grass (\textit{Eleusina indica}). Elsewhere\textsuperscript{11} the seat is a span high, a cubit in width and depth, of Udumbara wood, and covered with reed-grass cords, and daubed with clay.

\textsuperscript{10} xiv. i, 3, 8 et seq. \textsuperscript{11} vi. 7, 1, 12 et seq.


\textit{Asandi-vant}, ‘possessing the throne,’ is the title of the royal city of \textit{Janamejaya Pārikṣita}, in which the horse, for his famous \textit{Aśvamedha}, was bound. The authorities both cite a Gāthā for the fact, but they differ as to the priest who celebrated the rite. In the \textit{Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa}\textsuperscript{1} he is stated to have been Indrota Daivāpa Saunaka, but in the Aitareya\textsuperscript{2} \textit{Tura Kāvaśeya}.

\textsuperscript{1} xiii. 5, 4, 2. \textsuperscript{2} vii. 21. \textit{Cf. Śaṅkhāyana Śrauta} | knows the name.

\textit{Ā-sāda}, ‘seat,’ occurs in the Atharvaveda\textsuperscript{1} as a description of part of the settle (\textit{Āsandī}) of the \textit{Vrātya}. It seems best to regard it with Whitney\textsuperscript{2} as the seat proper; Aufrecht,\textsuperscript{3} Zimmer,\textsuperscript{4} and Roth\textsuperscript{5} render it as the ‘cushion for the seat,’ but that is sufficiently described by the word \textit{Āstaraṇa}.

\textsuperscript{1} xv. 3, 8. \textsuperscript{2} Translation of the Atharvaveda, 771. \textsuperscript{3} \textit{Indische Studien}, 1, 131. \textsuperscript{4} \textit{Altindisches Leben}, 155. \textsuperscript{5} St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

\textit{Āsurāyaṇa} is mentioned as a pupil of \textit{Traivāṇi} in the first two \textit{Vamśas}\textsuperscript{1} (lists of teachers) of the \textit{Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad} in both recensions, but as a pupil of \textit{Āsuri} in the third \textit{Vamśa}.\textsuperscript{2}

\textsuperscript{1} ii, 6, 3; iv. 6, 3. \textsuperscript{2} vi. 5, 2. \textit{Cf.} Weber, \textit{Indische Studien}, 1, 434, n.

\textit{Āsuri} occurs in the first two \textit{Vamśas}\textsuperscript{1} (lists of teachers) of the \textit{Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad} as a pupil of \textit{Bhāradvāja} and teacher of \textit{Aupajandhani}, but in the third\textsuperscript{2} as a pupil of \textit{Yājñavalkya} and teacher of \textit{Āsurāyaṇa}. He appears as a

\textsuperscript{1} ii. 6, 3; iv. 6, 3. \textsuperscript{2} vi. 5, 2.
ritual authority in the first four books of the Satapatha Brâhmaṇa, and as an authority on dogmatic, specially noted for his insistence on truth, in the last book.\footnote{3 i. 6, 3, 26; ii. 1, 4, 27; 3, 1, 9; iv. 1, 2; 6, 1, 25, 33; 3, 17; iv. 5, 8, 14.}

\footnote{3 xiv. i, 1, 33, and notes i, 2. Cf. Weber, \textit{Indische Studien}, 1, 430 et seq., whose suggestion of the identity of this teacher and the founder of the Sāmkhya system is not, however, acceptable. See Garbe, \textit{Sāmkhya Philosophie}, 29, 30.}

\textbf{Āsuri-vāsin} is a name of Prāśni-putra in a Vamśa (list of teachers) of the Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad (vi. 5, 2, in both recensions).

\textbf{Ā-secana} designates a vessel to hold liquids, such as meat juice (yūṣan)\footnote{1 Rv. i. 162, 13.} or ghee.\footnote{2 Satapatha Brâhmaṇa, ii. 1, 9, 5. Cf. Zimmer, \textit{Altindisches Leben}, 271.} Of its shape and make we know nothing.

\footnote{1 Av. xv. 3, 7. 2 Aitareya Brâhmaṇa, viii. 5. Cf. Zimmer, \textit{Altindisches Leben}, 155.}

\textbf{Ā-starana} denotes the coverlet of the settle (Āsandī) of the Vrātya. A tiger’s skin serves as the coverlet of the king’s seat in the royal consecration (Rājasūya).\footnote{1 i. 5. Cf. Zimmer, \textit{Altindisches Leben}, 271.} In the Kauśitaki Upaniṣad\footnote{3 So Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 167.} the word used is \textit{Upastarana}.

\footnote{1 x. 171, 3. 2 So Grassmann and Griffith in their translations.}

\textbf{Āstra-budhna} is the name of a man whom Indra is said in the Rigveda\footnote{1 vi. 47, 26. Cf. Zimmer, \textit{Altindisches Leben}, 296.} to have assisted. It is not clear whether Venya, who is mentioned in the same line, was his friend or his enemy, whom Indra saved or defeated for him.

\footnote{1 vi. 47, 26. Cf. Zimmer, \textit{Altindisches Leben}, 296.}
Ā-srāva ('discharge') denotes a disease, thrice referred to in the Atharvaveda,¹ the precise nature of which is uncertain. The Scholiast² in one place interprets it as painful urination (mūtrātisāra), while Lanman³ suggests diabetes. Bloomfield⁴ takes it to be diarrhoea, and Zimmer⁵ argues that as the remedy is called 'wound healer' (arvus-srāṇa), the sense is 'the flux from unhealed wounds.' Whitney⁶ renders it 'flux,' and questions Bloomfield's rendering. Ludwig⁷ translates it vaguely by 'sickness' and 'cold.'

¹ i. 2, 4; ii. 3, 2; vi. 44, 2.
² On Av. i. 2, 4. Cf. on ii. 3, 2.
³ In Whitney's Translation of the Atharvaveda, 3.
⁵ Altindisches Leben, 392.
⁷ Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 507, 509.

Āhanasyā ('unchaste').—This word in the plural ('lascivious verses') denotes a section (xx. 136) of the Kuntāpā hymns of the Atharvaveda, which are of an obscene character.¹


Ā-hāva denotes a pail or bucket, especially in conjunction with a well (Avata).¹

¹ Rv. i. 34, 8; vi. 7, 2; x. 101, 5; 112, 6; Nirukta, v. 26.

Āhneya.—Patronymic of Sauca (Taittirīya Āraṇyaka, ii. 12).

I.

Ikṣu, the generic name for the sugar-cane, is first found in the Atharvaveda¹ and the later Saṃhitās.² Whether it grew wild, or was cultivated, does not appear from the references.

¹ i. 34, 5.
² Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 7, 9; iv. 2, 9 (ikṣu-kāṇḍa). In Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxv. 1; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vii. 3, 16, 1; Kathaka Åsvedha, iii. 8, 'eyelash' is meant. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 72; Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
Ita. — In the Rigveda this name occurs but once,¹ and in a doubtful context. It is clear, however, that it denotes a prince; later interpretations make Asamāti, whose name is read into the hymn, an Iksvāku prince.² In the Atharvaveda³ also the name is found in only one passage, where it is uncertain whether a descendant of Iksvāku, or Iksvāku himself, is referred to; in either case he seems to be regarded as an ancient hero. In the Pañcabīṃśa Brāhmaṇa⁴ mention is made of Tryaruṇa Traidhātva Aikṣvāka, who is identical with the Tryaruṇa Traiṃśa of the Brhaddevatā,⁵ and with Tryaruṇa Trasadasyu in the Rigveda.⁶ The connection of Trasadasyu with the Iksvākus is confirmed by the fact that Purukutsa was an Aikṣvāka, according to the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.⁷ Thus the Iksvāku line was originally a line of princes of the Pūrus. Zimmer⁸ places them on the upper Indus, but they may well have been somewhat further east.⁹ Later Iksvāku is connected with Ayodhyā.

1. Ita. — This word occurs twice in the Atharvaveda. In the first passage¹ it seems to denote a bulrush of the sort that dies in a year; in the second² it refers to the reed work of the house.

2. Ita appears as a Rṣi and a protégé of Indra in one hymn of the Rigveda.¹ Roth,² however, thinks that the word is really part of a verb (it) meaning 'to err, wander' (cp. at), and

¹ vi. 14, 3. Cf. iv. 19, 1; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 464.
² x. 171, 1.
³ v. 14 et seq.
⁵ xiii. 5, 4, 5.
⁷ xiii. 5, 4, 5.
⁸ Altindisches Leben, 104, 130.
⁹ Cf. Pischel, V edische Studien, 2, 218; Geldner, ibid., 3, 152.
that the name is a mere misunderstanding. It is already so regarded in the Anukramaṇī, but not apparently in the Brhaddevatā.  

3 viii. 73. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 133.

Iṣant Kāvyā is the name of a sage, contemporary with Keśin Dārbhya, in the Kausitaki Brāhmaṇa. He is also mentioned as Iḍhant in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.


Itihāsa, as a kind of literature, is repeatedly mentioned along with Purāṇa in the later texts of the Vedic period. The earliest reference to both occurs in the late fifteenth book of the Atharvaveda. Itihāsa then appears in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, the Jaiminīya, Brhadāranyaka, and Chāndogya Upaniṣads. In the latter it is expressly declared with Purāṇa to make up the fifth Veda, while the Śaṅkhāyanī Śrauta Sūtra makes the Itihāsa a Veda and the Purāṇa a Veda. The Itihāsa-veda and the Purāṇa-veda appear also in the Gopatha Brāhmaṇa, while the Śatapatha identifies the Itihāsa as well as the Purāṇa with the Veda. In one passage Anvākhyāna and Itihāsa are distinguished as different classes of works, but the exact point of distinction is obscure; probably the former was supplementary. The Taittirīya Āranyaka mentions Itihāsas and Purāṇas in the plural.

There is nothing to show in the older literature what distinction there was, if any, between Itihāsa and Purāṇa; and the late literature, which has been elaborately examined by Sieg, yields no consistent result. Geldner has conjectured that there existed a single work, the Itihāsa-purāṇa, a collection

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1 xv. 6, 4 et seq.  
2 xiii. 4, 3, 12, 13, and as compounded in xi. 5, 6, 8; 7, 9.  
3 i. 53.  
4 ii. 4, 10; iv. 1, 2; v. 11.  
5 iii. 4, 1; 2; vii. 1, 2; 4; 2, 1; 7, 1.  
6 xvi. 2, 21, 27.  
7 i. 10.  
8 xiii. 4, 3, 12, 13.  
10 ii. 9.  
11 See Śāyaṇa’s Introduction to the Rigveda, p. 12 (ed. Max Müller), and his commentary on Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 5, 6, 8; Śaṅkara on Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 4, 10.  
12 Die Sagenstoffe des Rigveda, 31 et seq.  
of the old legends of all sorts, heroic, cosmogonic, genealogical; but though a work called Itihāsa, and another called Purāṇa, were probably known to Patañjali, the inaccuracy of Geldner's view is proved by the fact that Yāska shows no sign of having known any such work. To him the Itihāsa may be a part of the Mantra literature itself, Aitihāsikas being merely people who interpret the Rigveda by seeing in it legends where others see myths. The fact, however, that the use of the compound form is rare, and that Yāska regularly has Itihāsa, not Itihāsa-purāṇa, is against the theory of there ever having been one work.

The relation of Itihāsa to Ākhyāna is also uncertain. Sieg considers that the words Itihāsa and Purāṇa referred to the great body of mythology, legendary history, and cosmogonic legend available to the Vedic poets, and roughly classed as a fifth Veda, though not definitely and finally fixed. Thus, Anvākhyānas, Anuvyākhyānas, and Vyākhyānas could arise, and separate Ākhyānas could still exist outside the cycle, while an Ākhyāna could also be a part of the Itihāsa-purāṇa. He also suggests that the word Ākhyāna has special reference to the form of the narrative. Oldenberg, following Windisch, and followed by Geldner, Sieg, and others, has found in the Ākhyāna form a mixture of prose and verse, alternating as the narrative was concerned with the mere accessory parts of the tale, or with the chief points, at which the poetic form was naturally produced to correspond with the stress of the emotion. This theory has been severely criticized by Hertel and von Schroeder. These scholars, in accordance with older suggestions of Max Müller and Lévi, see in the

14 Vārttika on Pāñini, iv. 2, 60, and Mahābhāṣya (ed. Kielhorn), 2, 284.
15 Nirukta, iv. 6.
16 Ibid., ii. 16; xii. i.
17 Ibid., ii. 10; 24; iv. 6; x. 26; xii. 10.
19 Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 37, 54 et seq.; 39, 52 et seq. Cf. also Götingische Gelehrte Anzeigen, 1908, 67 et seq.
20 Verhandlungen der dreißigsten Versammlung der Philologen und Schulmänner in Gera (1879), 15 et seq.
21 Vedische Studien, 1, 284; 2, 1 et seq.
23 Mysterium und Minus im Rigveda, 3 et seq.
24 Sacred Books of the East, 32, 183.
so-called Ākhyāna hymns of the Rigveda, in which Oldenberg finds actual specimens of the supposed literary genus, though the prose has been lost, actual remains of ritual dramas. Elsewhere\(^2\) it has been suggested that the hymns in question are merely literary dialogues.


Id-, Idā-, Idu- Vatsara. See Saṃvatsara.

**Indra-gopa** ('protected by Indra'), masc., is a designation of the cochineal insect in the Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad (ii. 3, 6).

**Indra-dyumna Bhāllaveya Vaiyāghra-padya** is mentioned as a teacher who with others was unable to agree as to the nature of Agni Vaiśvānara, and who was instructed by Aśvapati Kālkeya.\(^1\) As Bhāllaveya he is cited several times in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa\(^2\) on ritual points.

\(^1\) Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, x. 6, 1.  \(^2\) i. 6, 1, 19; xiii. 5, 3, 4. Cf. ii. 1, 1 et seq.; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, v. ii, 4, 6.

**Indra-bhū Kāśyapa** is mentioned as a pupil of Mitrabhū Kāśyapa in the Vaṃśa Brāhmaṇa.\(^1\)

\(^1\) *Indische Studien*, 4, 374.

1. **Indrota** is twice mentioned in the Rigveda\(^1\) in a Dānastuti (‘Praise of Liberality’) as a giver of gifts. In the second passage he has the epithet Ātithigva, which shows conclusively that he was a son of Ātithigva, as Ludwig\(^2\) holds, and not of Rkṣa, as Roth\(^3\) states.

\(^1\) viii. 68, 10 et seq. \(^2\) Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 163. \(^3\) St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

2. **Indrota Daivāpa Śaunaka** is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa\(^1\) as the priest who officiated at the horse

\(^1\) xiii. 5, 3, 5; 4, 1; Sāṅkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, xvi. 7, 7; 8, 27.
sacrifice of Janamejaya, although this honour is attributed in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa to Tura Kāvaṣeya. He also appears in the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa as a pupil of Śrūta, and is mentioned in the Vāmsa Brāhmaṇa. He cannot be connected in any way with Devāpi, who occurs in the Rigveda.

Ibha is a word of somewhat doubtful sense and interpretation. It is found only in the Saṃhitās, and especially in the Rigveda. According to Roth and Ludwig the sense is ‘retainer,’ and Zimmer thinks that it includes not only dependants and servants, but also the royal family and the youthful cadets of the chief families. In the opinion of Pischel and Geldner it denotes ‘elephant.’ This view is supported by the authority of the commentators Sāyaṇa and Mahīdhara; the Nirukta, too, gives ‘elephant’ as one of the senses of the word. Megasthenes and Nearchos tell us that elephants were a royal prerogative, and the derivative word Ibhya may thus be naturally explained as denoting merely ‘rich’ (lit., ‘possessor of elephants’).

In one passage of the Rigveda appears certainly to be intended as an abbreviation of the proper name Smadibha.

1 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, i. 2, 14, 1; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xiii. 9.
2 i. 84, 17; iv. 4, 1; ix. 57, 3, and perhaps vi. 20, 8.
3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
4 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 246, 247.
5 Altindisches Leben, 167.
6 Vedische Studien, i, xv, xvi.
7 On Taittirīya Saṃhitā, loc. cit.
8 On Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, loc. cit.
9 vi. 12. It gives also the sense ‘retainer,’ and in Asoka’s Edicts, No. 5, Bühler, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 37, 279, finds a Vaiśya denoted by its Pāli form.
10 Apud Strabo, 704.
11 Ibid., 705.
12 But it may equally well be explained as ‘rich’ from the other sense of the primary word: ‘possessor of (many) retainers.’
Ibhya occurs once in the Rigveda\(^1\) in the plural, when a king is said to devour his Ibhyas as the fire the forest; and twice in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad,\(^2\) in one passage as the first member of a compound, and in the other as either a proper name or an adjective. Roth,\(^3\) Ludwig,\(^4\) and Zimmer\(^5\) interpret the word as 'retainers' in the Rigveda, but in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad Roth thinks it means 'rich.' Pischel and Geldner\(^6\) accept the sense in all passages. Böhtlingk in his translation of the Chāndogya treats the word as simply a proper name, 'Ibhya's village' (ibhya-grāma) and 'Ibhya.'

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1 i. 65, 4.
2 i. 10, i. 2.
3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
4 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 247.
5 Altindisches Leben, 168.
6 Vedische Studien, i, xvi. Cf. Sāyaṇa on Rigveda, loc. cit., dhanināḥ, and Śaṅkara on Chāndogya Upaniṣad, loc. cit., īśvaro hastyāroho vā; Weber, Indische Studien, i, 476. Cf. also Little, Grammatical Index, 35.

Iriṇa (neut.) occurs not rarely in the later Saṃhitās\(^1\) and Brāhmaṇas\(^2\) in the sense of 'a cleft in the ground,' usually natural (sva-kṛta). The same meaning is also, as Pischel\(^3\) shows, to be ascribed to it in three passages of the Rigveda,\(^4\) in one\(^5\) of which the hole is referred to as 'made by water' (apā kṛtam). In another passage of the Rigveda\(^6\) the word refers to the place on which the dice are thrown. Hence Pischel\(^7\) concludes that the dicing-board must have been so called because it contained holes into which the dice had to be thrown if possible. Lüders,\(^8\) however, points out that this assumption is not necessary; the dice (Aksa) were merely thrown on a space dug out, which could be called Iriṇa, as being a hole in the ground, though not a natural one. This view is supported by the commentary of Sāyaṇa,\(^9\) as well as by Durga in his note on the Nirukta.\(^10\)

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1 Av. iv. 15, 12; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, ii. 5, 1, 3; iii. 4, 8, 5; v. 2, 4, 3; Kāthaka Saṃhitā, ix. 16.
2 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 2, 3, 2; vii. 2, i. 8.
3 Vedische Studien, 2, 222-223.
4 i. 186, 9; viii. 4, 3; 87, i. 4.
5 viii. 4, 3.
6 x. 34, i. 9.
8 Das Würfelspiel im alten Indien, 14.
9 On Rv., loc. cit. (ā-sphāra).
10 ix. 8 (āsphuraka-sthāna).
Iṣa Śyāvāśvi is mentioned in a Vaṃśa (‘list of teachers’) of the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iv. 16, 1) as a pupil of Agastya.

Iṣikā, ‘a stalk of reed grass,’ occurs frequently from the Atharvaveda¹ onwards, often as an emblem of fragility. In the Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka² it seems to denote the pin fixed in the bar of a pen to keep cattle in (argalesīke, ‘bolt and pin’). A basket (śūrpa) of Iṣikā is referred to in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.³

Iṣu is the usual name for ‘arrow’ from the Rigveda¹ onwards. Other names are Śarya, Śārī, and Bāṇa. In the hymn of the Rigveda,² which gives a catalogue of armour, two kinds of arrows are distinctly referred to: the one is poisoned (ālāktā), and has a head of horn (ṛuru-śīrṣī); the other is copper-, bronze-, or iron-headed (ayo-mukham). Poisoned (digdhd) arrows are also referred to in the Atharvaveda.³ The arrows were feathered.⁴ The parts of an arrow are enumerated in the Atharvaveda⁵ as the shaft (salya), the feather-socket (parna-dhi), the point (śrīṅga), the neck of the point in which the shaft is fixed (kulmala), and the Apaskambha and Apastha, which are of more doubtful significance. In the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa⁶ the parts of an arrow are given as the point (anīka), the salya, tejana, and the feathers (parṇāni), where salya and tejana must apparently mean the upper and lower parts of the shaft, since it is reasonable to suppose that the arrow is described as a whole consecutively. So in the Atharvaveda⁷ the arrow of Kāma is described as having feathers, a shaft...

¹ Av. vii. 56, 4; xii. 2, 54; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 3, 4, 16, etc.; Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 9; ii. 134; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, v. 24, 3; Kāṭhaka Upaniṣad, ii. 6, 17, etc.; Nirukta, ix. 8. ² ii. 16 (v. l. 6ike). ³ i. 1, 4, 19. ⁴ Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 71; Oertel, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 19, 122, n. 3. ⁵ Av. vii. 4, etc.; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xvi. 3, etc.; Nirukta, ix. 18. ⁶ Av. i. 13, 4, etc.; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xvi. 3, etc.; Nirukta, ix. 18. ⁷ Av. iii. 25, 2.

VOL. I.
ARROW—QUIVER—CAR-POLE  [ Iṣu Tri-kāndā

(ṣalya), and a firm fastening (kulmala). The arrow was shot from the ear, and so is described in the Rigveda as ‘having the ear for its place of birth.’

As a measure of length, the Iṣu was five spans, say three feet. A regular profession of arrow-making existed (iṣu-kṛt, iṣu-kāra).

Iṣu Tri-kāndā is the name given in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa to some constellation, perhaps Orion’s girdle. It is mentioned with Mrga, Mṛgavyādha, and Rohini.

Iṣu-dhi (‘arrow-holder’) is the name of the quiver which was carried by every Bowman. The word is common from the Rigveda onwards. No trace is to be found in Vedic literature of the later practice of carrying two quivers. According to Pischel, the curious expression iṣu-kṛt in the Rigveda means quiver.

Iṣa denotes the ‘pole of a chariot.’ Normally the chariot had one pole (ekēsaḥ), but sometimes two poles are referred to. The word is often compounded with Yuga, ‘yoke,’ into which it was fastened (see Kha), and tied with ropes. Exactly how it was attached to the chariot we do not know. See also Ratha.

1. 33, 3; vi. 75, 5; x. 95, 3; Av. ii. 33, 2; iv. 10, 6, etc.; Nirukta, ix. 13.
4. i. 184, 3.

I. 1. Rv. x. 135, 3; iii. 53, 17; viii. 5, 29; Av. viii. 8, 23. 2. Cf. Av. ii. 8, 4; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 2, 12 (iṣa-yugāni, but in iii. 9, 4, 3 dual); Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, vii. 9, 14, etc. 3. Av., loc. cit., etc. 4. Rv. x. 60, 8. Cf. iii. 6, 6. 5. Vāgī in Rv. i. 119, 5 is taken by Zimmer, Altnindisches Leben, 249, to refer to the front part of the chariot, but it seems simply to be ‘voice.’
Ukṣan. See Go.

Ukṣanyāyana is mentioned in a Dānastuti (‘Praise of Gifts’) in the Rigveda\(^1\) along with Harayāṇa and Suṣāman. Ludwig\(^2\) thinks that all three are identical. Roth\(^3\) finds a reference to Ukṣan himself in the verb ukṣanyati\(^4\) and in the adjective ukṣanyu.\(^5\)

1 viii. 25, 22. 2 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 162. 3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. 4 Rv. viii. 26, 9. 5 Rv. viii. 23, 16.

Ukṣṇo-randhra Kāvya is mentioned as a seer in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xiii. 9, 19).\(^1\)

1 Cf. Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32, 397.

Ukhā is the regular word for a ‘cooking pot,’ usually mentioned in connexion with sacrifice, from the Rigveda\(^1\) onwards. It was made of clay (inṛṣṭ-mayi).\(^3\) See also Stālī.

1 i. 162, 13. 15; iii. 53, 22; Av. xii. 3, 23; Taittiriya Sanhitā, v. 1, 6, 3, etc. 2 Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xi. 59; Taittiriya Sanhitā, iv. 1, 5, 4. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 253, 271.

Ugra in one passage of the Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad\(^4\) seems to have a technical force, denoting ‘man in authority,’ or according to Max Müller’s rendering, ‘policeman.’ Roth\(^2\) compares a passage in the Rigveda,\(^3\) where, however, the word has simply the general sense of ‘mighty man.’ Böhtlingk,\(^4\) in his rendering of the Upaniṣad, treats the word as merely adjectival.

1 iv. 3. 37. 38. 2 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. 3 vii. 38, 6. 4 P. 66 (with pratyenasah).

Ugra-deva is mentioned with Turvaśa and Yadu in the Rigveda\(^1\) apparently as a powerful protector. The name occurs also in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa\(^2\) and the Taittiriya Āranyaka,\(^3\) where he is styled Rājani and called a leper (kīlāsa).

1 i. 36, 18 (Ugra-deva). 2 xiv. 3, 17; xxiii. 16, 11. 3 v. 4, 12. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 147; Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., who suggests that in the Rv. passage the word should be taken adjectively.
Ugra-sena is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (xiii. 5, 4, 3), and in a Gāthā there cited as being, with Bhīmasena and Śrutasena, a Pārīkṣitiya and a brother of Janamejaya. The brothers were cleansed by the horse sacrifice from sin.

Uccaiḥ-śravas Kaupayeya appears in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 29, i-3) as a king of the Kurus and as maternal uncle of Keśīn. His connexion with the Kurus is borne out by the fact that Upamaśravas was son of Kuru-śravaṇa, the names being strikingly similar.

Uc-chirṣaka.—This word, occurring in the description of the couch (paryāṅka) in the Kauśitaki Upaniṣad1 (i. 5), apparently denotes a cushion for the head. See also Āśandi.

Uttara Kuru.—The Uttara Kurus, who play a mythical part in the Epic and later literature, are still a historical people in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa,1 where they are located beyond the Himālaya (pareṇa Himavantam). In another passage,2 however, the country of the Uttara Kurus is stated by Vāsiṣṭha Sātyahavya to be a land of the gods (deva-kṣetra), but Jānampati Atyarati was anxious to conquer it, so that it is still not wholly mythical. It is reasonable to accept Zimmer's view that the northern Kurus were settled in Kaśmīr, especially as Kurukṣetra is the region where tribes advancing from Kaśmīr might naturally be found. Cf. Udicyas.


Uttara Madra is the name of a tribe mentioned with the Uttara Kurus in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa1 as living beyond the Himālaya. Zimmer2 points out that in the Vaṃśa Brāhmaṇa3 Kamboja Aupamanyava is a pupil of Madragāra, and thence

1 viii. 14. 2 Altindisches Leben, 102. 3 Indische Studien, 4, 371.
infers that Kambojas and Madras were not far distant in space. This conclusion is perfectly reasonable in view of the probable position of the Kāmbojas.\footnote{See map in Pargiter, \textit{Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society}, 1908, p. 332. Cf. Weber, \textit{Indische Studien}, 1, 165.}

\textbf{Ut-tāna Āṅgirasa} is mentioned in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa\footnote{ii. 3, 2, 5. \textit{Cf.} ii. 2, 5, 3.} as a quasi-mythical person who received all good things, and yet was not harmed, as he was really a form of the earth, according to Sāyaṇa’s\footnote{On Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 3. \textit{ii. 3, 2, 5.}} explanation. His name occurs also in the Kāṭhaka Saṁhitā,\footnote{i. 8, 11.} the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa,\footnote{iii. 10, 2, 3.} and the Taittirīya Āraṇyaka.\footnote{ix. 9.}

\textbf{Ud-aṅcana.} See Śūrya.

\textbf{Ud-anka Śālbāyana.}—His views on Brahman, which he identified with the vital airs (prāṇa), are mentioned in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (iv. i, 3). He would thus have been a contemporary of Janaka of Videha. He is also mentioned in the Taittirīya Saṁhitā (vii. 5, 4, 2) as holding that the Daśarātra ceremony was the prosperity or best part of the Sattra (‘sacrificial session’).

\textbf{Ud-aṅcana.}—This word, occurring only metaphorically in the Rigveda,\footnote{v. 44, 13 (dhiyām uḍācanaḥ, ‘a very well of prayers’).} means a ‘pail’ or ‘bucket’ in the Brāhmaṇas.\footnote{Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 32; Śata-patha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 3, 5, 21.}

\textbf{Udamaya Ātreya} is mentioned in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (viii. 22) as Purohita, or domestic priest, of Āṅga Vairocanā.

\textbf{Udara Śāṇḍilya} is mentioned as a teacher in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad,\footnote{i. 9, 3.} and as a pupil of Atidhanvan Śaunaka\footnote{\textit{Indische Studien}, 4, 384.} in the Vaṃśa Brāhmaṇa.\footnote{ii. 33} as the seer of a Sāman.
Ud-āja is the word used in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā to denote the share of the booty of war taken by the king after a victory (saṃgrāmaṇa jītvā). This interpretation, which is that of Delbrück, is clearly correct, as against the older version, ‘march out,’ given by von Schroeder and accepted by Böhtlingk. The Udāja thus corresponds precisely with the Homeric γέρας. This sense also suits Nirāja, the variant of both the Kāthaka and the Kapiṣṭhala Saṃhitās.

Udāna is usually the fifth of the vital breaths (Prāṇa) when five are enumerated. Sometimes it appears as the second, coming after Prāṇa, and followed by Vyāna or Samāna. Again, it is found simply opposed to Prāṇa, or it simply follows Prāṇa and Apāṇa. In the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa it is treated as the breath that consumes food, a notion traceable in the later Upaniṣads, while it is also regarded as the wind that rises up by the throat, and leads the spirit forth at death.

Ud-īcyas.—The Brāhmaṇas of the northern parts are referred to in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa as engaging, with Svaidāyana Saunaka as their spokesman, in a dispute with the Kurupancalā Brāhmaṇa Uddālaka Āruṇi, and as vanquishing him. Their relation to the Kurupancalās appears also from the fact that in

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1 E.g., Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 12, 9; Kāthaka Saṃhitā, v. 4; 10; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, ix. 2, 2, 5; xi. 8, 3, 6 (in the order Prāṇa, Vyāna, Apāṇa, Udāna, Samāna); Bhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, i. 5, 3; iii. 4, 1 (Samāna is omitted); iii. 9, 26; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iii. 13, 5; v. 23, 1, 2; Aitareya Āraṇyaka, ii. 3, 3, etc.
2 Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, i. 20; vii. 27; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, ix. 4, 2, 10, etc. (with Vyāna); Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 2 (with Samāna).
3 Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, vi. 20; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 1, 2, 2; ix. 2, 4, 5, etc.
4 Śānkhaṇyā Āraṇyaka, viii. 8; xi. 1.
5 xi. 2, 4, 5.
6 Maitrāyaṇi Upaniṣad, ii. 6.
7 Āryabindu Upaniṣad, 34.
8 Praśna Upaniṣad, iii. 7. Cf. Deusen, Philosophy of the Upaniṣads, 280.

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1 xi. 4, 1, 1. Cf. Gopatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, 6.
the same Brāhmaṇa reference is made to the speech of the north being similar to that of the Kurupaṇcālas. The speech of the Northerners was also celebrated for purity; hence Brāhmaṇas used to go to the north for purposes of study, according to the Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, while in the Buddhist texts the school of Takṣaśilā (in Gandhāra) is famous as a resort of students. Possibly, too, Sanskrit was specially developed in Kaśmīr, as suggested by Franke. See also Kuru.

Udumbara.—This name of the *Ficus glomerata* does not occur in the Rigveda, but is often found from the Atharvaveda onwards. For ritual purposes of all kinds its wood was constantly used. The sacrificial post (*yūpa*) and the sacrificial ladle were made of it, and amulets of Udumbara are mentioned. Its wood, like that of other kinds of figtree—Aśvattha, Nyagrodha, and Plakṣa—was considered suitable for employment at the sacrifice. The sweetness of its fruit is referred to in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, where it is put on the same level as Madhu. It is there also spoken of as ripening three times a year. A forest of Udumbara trees is mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.

Uddālaka Āruṇi.—Uddālaka, son of Aruṇa, is one of the most prominent teachers of the Vedic period. He was a Brāhmaṇa of the Kurupaṇcālas, according to the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa. This statement is confirmed by the fact that he was teacher of Proti Kausurubindi of Kauśāmbi, and that his son
Svetaketu is found disputing among the Pañcālas. He was a pupil of Aruṇa, his father, as well as of Patañcala Kāpya, of Madra, while he was the teacher of the famous Yājñavalkya Vējāsaneya and of Kauśitaki, although the former is represented elsewhere as having silenced him. He overcame in argument Prācinayogya Śauceya, and apparently also Bhadrasena Ājātaśatrava, though the text here seems to read the name as Āraṇi. He was a Gautama, and is often alluded to as such. As an authority on questions of ritual and philosophy, he is repeatedly referred to by his patronymic name Āruṇi in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, the Chāndogya Upaniṣad, and occasionally in the Aitareya, the Kauśitaki, and the Śādviṃśa Brāhmaṇas, as well as the Kauśitaki Upaniṣad. In the Maitrāyanī Saṃhitā he is not mentioned, according to Geldner, but only his father Aruṇa; his name does not occur, according to Weber, in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, but in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā he is, as Āruṇi, known as a contemporary of Divodāsa Bhaimaseni, and in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa he is mentioned as serving Vāsiṣṭha Calkitāneya. In the Taittirīya tradition he seldom appears. There is an allusion in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā to Kusurubinda Ąuddalaki, and according to the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, Nāciketas was a son of Vājaśrayasa Gautama, who

3 Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 1, 1; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, v. 3, 1.
4 Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 4, 33 (in both recensions).
5 Ibid., iii. 7, 1.
6 Ibid., vi. 3, 15; 4, 33.
7 Śāṅkhāyana Aranyaka, xv.
8 Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, iii. 7, 31.
9 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 5, 3, 3 et seq.
10 v. 5, 5, 14. Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 41, 141, has Āraṇi. There is a chronological difficulty in taking Āruṇi as meant, since Ājātaśatrava must presumably have been a descendant of Ājātaśatrva, a contemporary of Janaka (see Kauśitaki Upaniṣad, iv. 1), who again was a patron of Yājñavalkya, a pupil of Āruṇi. But this difficulty is not fatal.

11 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 5, 3, 2; Kauśitaki Upaniṣad, i. 1.
12 i. 1, 2; ii. 2, 1, 34; iii. 3, 4, 19; iv. 4, 8, 9; xi. 2, 6, 12.
13 iii. 5, 1.
14 iii. 11, 4; v. 11, 2; 17, 1; vi. 8, 1.
15 viii. 7.
16 xxvi. 4.
17 i. 6.
18 i. 1 et seq.
19 Vedische Studien, 3, 146.
20 Indian Literature, 69. But cf. xxiii.
22 i. 42, 1.
23 vii. 2, 2, 1 (a late passage).
24 iii. 11, 8, 1 et seq.
is made out to be Uddālaka by Sāyaṇa.²⁵ But the episode of Naciketas, being somewhat unreal, cannot be regarded as of historical value in proving relationship. Aruṇa is known to the Taṅtirīya Saṃhitā. A real son of Uddālaka was the famous Śvetaketu, who is expressly reported by Āpastamba²⁶ to have been in his time an Avaṇa or later authority, a statement of importance for the date of Āruṇi.

²⁵ On Taṅtirīya Brāhmaṇa, loc. cit. Cf. Kāthaka Upaniṣad, i. 11.
²⁶ See Bühler, Sacred Books of the East, 2, xxxviii; Keith, Aitareya Āraṇyaka, 39.

Uddālakāyana is mentioned as a pupil of Jābālāyana in the second Vaṅsa (list of teachers) contained in the Kāṇva recension of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (iv. 6, 2).

Udra is the name of an animal occurring only in the list of sacrificial victims at the Asvamedha given in the Saṃhitās of the Yajurveda.¹ According to Mahīdhara² it was a crab; but as the commentary on the Taṅtirīya Saṃhitā³ calls it a water-cat, there can be no doubt that it was an otter.

¹ Taṅtirīya Saṃhitā, v. 5, 20, i; Maitreyani Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 18; Vāja- saneyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. 37.
² On Vāja- saneyi Saṃhitā, loc. cit.
³ Loc. cit.

Uddhi¹ denotes some part of a chariot, probably the seat,² but, according to Roth,³ the frame resting on the axle.

¹ Av. viii. 8, 22; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xii. 2, 2, 2; Aitareya Āraṇyaka, ii. 3, 8.
² So Whitney's Translation of the Atharvaveda, 506; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 44, 149.
³ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Upa-ketu is the name of a man mentioned in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā (xiii. 1).

Upa-kosala Kāmalāyana is mentioned as a teacher and a pupil of Satyakāma Jābāla in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (iv. 10, 1; 14, 1).
Upa-kvāsa is the name in the Atharvaveda (vi. 50, 2) of a noxious insect injurious to seed. Śāyana, however, reads the word as a plural adjective (*a-pakvasah = a-dagdhdah*), but the Paippalāda recension supports the form *upakvasah*.


Upa-gu Sauṣravasa is mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xiv. 6, 8) as Purohita of *Kutsa Aurava*, by whom he was murdered because of his paying homage to Indra.


Upa-cit occurs in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā as the name of a disease, which Roth renders as 'swelling,' and which Bloomfield identifies with Apacit.

1 xii. 97.  2 *Proceedings of the American Oriental Society*, October, 1887, xviii.

Upa-jihvīka, Upa-jikā, Upa-dikā are all forms of one word denoting a species of ant. To these ants is attributed in the Atharvaveda the power of penetrating to water which possesses curative properties. They were accordingly used in all sorts of spells against poisoning. The belief in their healing qualities was no doubt due to the well-known properties of the earth of ant-heaps which contains their water.

1 *Upajihvika* is the form in Rv. viii. 102, 21; *upajīkā* in Av. ii. 3, 4; vi. 100, 2; but *upacikā* in both passages in the Paippalāda recension; *upadikā* in the Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 3, 4; Taittiriya Āraṇyaka, v. 1, 4; 10, 9; Sata-patha Brāhmaṇa, xiv. 1, 1, 8.  2 vi. 100, 2.  *Cf.* Bloomfield, *American Journal of Philology*, 7, 482 et seq.; *Hymns of the Atharvaveda*, 511; Whitney’s Translation of the Atharvaveda, 47, 354; Bergaigne and Henry, *Manuel Védique*, 153.

Upa-dhāna denotes the 'cushion' of a seat (*Āsandī*) in the Atharvaveda (xiv. 2, 65). It corresponds to the Upabarhāna of other texts.
Upa-dhi occurs once each in the Rigveda\(^1\) and the Atharvaveda,\(^2\) in conjunction with Pradhi, denoting part of the wheel of a chariot. It is impossible to decide exactly what part is meant. Roth,\(^3\) Zimmer\(^4\) and Bloomfield,\(^5\) agree in thinking that the word denotes the spokes collectively. Whitney,\(^6\) considering this improbable, prefers to see in it the designation of a solid wheel, Pradhi being presumably the rim and Upadhi the rest. Other possibilities\(^7\) are that the Upadhi is a rim beneath the felly, or the felly itself as compared with the tire (ordinarily Pavi).

Upa-nişad in the Brāhmaṇas\(^1\) normally denotes the ‘secret sense’ of some word or text, sometimes the ‘secret rule’ of the mendicant. But in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upanişad\(^2\) it is already used in the plural as the designation of a class of writings, no doubt actually existing and similar to the Upaniṣads in the nature of their subject-matter and its treatment. Similarly the sections of the Taittiriya Upanişad end with the words ity upaniṣad. The Aitareya Āraṇyaka\(^3\) commences its third part with the title ‘The Upanişad of the Saṁhitā,’ and the title occurs also in the Śāṅkhâyana Āraṇyaka.\(^4\) The exact primary sense of the expression is doubtful. The natural derivation, adopted by Max Müller\(^5\) and usual ever since, makes the word mean firstly a session of pupils, hence secret doctrine, and secondly the title of a work on secret doctrine. Oldenberg,\(^6\) however, traces the use of the word to the earlier

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\(^1\) St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
\(^2\) Altindisches Leben, 248 (ignoring the Atharvaveda passage).
\(^3\) Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 493.
\(^4\) Translation of the Atharvaveda, 334.
\(^5\) Bloomfield, loc. cit.
\(^6\) Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 50, 457; 54, 70; Die Literatur des alten Indien, 72.

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\(^1\) \(\text{Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, x. 3, 5, 12; 4, 5, 1; 5, 1, 1; xii. 2, 2, 23, etc.; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, i. 1, 10; 13, 4; viii. 8, 4, 5; Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 1, 20; iv. 2, 1; v. 5, 3; Aitareya Āraṇyaka, iii. 1, 6; 2, 5; Kauśitaki Upaniṣad, ii. 1, etc.}
\(^2\) ii. 4, 10; iv. 1, 2; 5, 11.
\(^3\) iii. 1, 1.
\(^4\) vii. 2. Cf. Taittiriya Upaniṣad, i. 3, 1.
\(^5\) Sacred Books of the East, i, xxxiii et seq. Cf. St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.; Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, 204.
\(^6\) Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 50, 457; 54, 70; Die Literatur des alten Indien, 72.
sense of 'worship' (cf. upāsana). Deussen\(^7\) considers the original sense to have been 'secret word,' next 'secret text,' and then 'secret import,' but this order of meaning is improbable. Hopkins\(^8\) suggests that Upaniṣad denotes a subsidiary treatise, but this sense does not account naturally for the common use as 'secret meaning,' which is far more frequent than any other.

\(^7\) Philosophy of the Upaniṣads, 16 et seq.  \(^8\) Religions of India, 218.

**Upa-pati, 'the gallant,'** is mentioned with the Jāra, 'lover,' in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā\(^1\) as a victim in the human sacrifice (puruṣamedha).

1 xxx. 9; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 4, 1.

**Upa-barhana** denotes a 'pillow' or 'cushion,' especially of a seat (āsandi), occurring in the Rigveda,\(^1\) the Atharvaveda,\(^2\) and the Brāhmaṇas.\(^3\) The feminine Upabarhāṇi is found in the Rigveda with the same sense, but used metaphorically of the earth.

1 x. 85, 7.  
2 ix. 5, 28; xii. 2, 19, 20; xv. 3, 7.  
3 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, viii. 12; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 8, 4, 10; Kausī-
taki Upaniṣad, i. 5; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 6, 10; 6, 8, 9; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xxviii. 4, etc.

**Upa-manthani** is used in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad\(^1\) to denote 'churning sticks.' In the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā\(^2\) the 'churner' (upamanthiḥ) is included in the list of victims at the human sacrifice (puruṣamedha), and the verb upa-manth is often used of churning or mixing fluids.\(^3\)

1 vi. 3, 13.  
2 xxx. 12; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 8, 1.  
3 Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, i. 6, 8, 4, 5; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 6, 1, 6; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, v. 2, 4.

**Upa-manyu** is, according to Ludwig,\(^1\) the name of a person in the Rigveda,\(^2\) but is more probably explained by Roth\(^3\) as a mere epithet.

1 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 113.  
2 i. 102, 9.  
3 St. Petersbourg Dictionary, s.v.
Upama-śravas is mentioned in a hymn of the Rigveda as a son of Kurusravāna, and grandson of Medhātithi. The exact force of the reference to him is, however, uncertain. According to the Brhaddevatā, followed by Ludwig, and by Lanman, the poet in the hymn consoles Upamaśravas for the death of his grandfather, Medhātithi. Geldner, on the other hand, thinks that the poet, who was Kavasa Ailūsa, was ill-treated by his patron’s son, Upamaśravas, and cast into a ditch or well, where he uttered his complaint and appeal for mercy. But of this there is no adequate evidence, and the tradition of the Brhaddevatā seems sound.

Upa-mit occurs twice in the Rigveda, and once in the Atharvaveda, as the designation of some part of a house. The passages in the Rigveda leave little doubt that the word means an upright pillar. As it is, in the Atharvaveda, coupled with Parimit and Pratimit, the conclusion is natural that the latter word denotes the beams supporting the Upamit, presumably by leaning against it at an angle, while Parimit denotes the beams connecting the Upamits horizontally. These interpretations, however, can only be conjectural. See also Grha.

Upara, which, according to Pischel, means ‘stone’ in general, is the technical name of the stone on which the Soma plant was laid in order to be pounded for the extraction of the juice by other stones (adri, grāvan). The word is rare, occurring only thrice in the Rigveda, and once in the Atharvaveda.
Upala-prakṣiṇī occurs once in the Rigveda, where it designates the occupation of a woman, as opposed to that of her son, who is a poet (kāru), and to that of his father, who is a physician (bhiṣaj). Yāṣka renders the word by ‘maker of groats’ (saktu-kārikā), and Roth, Grassmann, Zimmer, as well as others, connect it with the operation of grinding corn. Pischel however, who points out that corn was not ground between two stones, but beaten on a stone with a pestle (drṣad), considers that Upala-prakṣiṇī denotes a woman that assisted at the crushing of Soma (cf. Upara). Von Schroeder, who more correctly points out that there is no objection to regarding upala as the mortar in which the corn was placed and then beaten with the pestle, renders the word literally as ‘one who fills the (lower) stone (with corn).’

Upalā in the Brāhmaṇas may denote the upper and smaller ‘stone,’ which was used as a pestle with the Drṣad as the mortar, whereas Upara in the Samhitās denotes rather the mortar, and Drṣad the pestle. But see Drṣad.

Upa-vāka occurs in the Vājasaneyi Samhitā and the Brāhmaṇas as a description of a species of grain, the Wrightia antidysenterica, known later as Indra-yava. The commentator Mahidhara simply glosses it with the more general term Yava.

1 ix. 112, 3. 2 Nirukta, vi. 5. 3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. 4 Ibid., s.v., ‘fitting the upper (to the lower) millstone.’ 5 Alhindisches Leben, 269. Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedachrestomathie, s.v., who, taking prc in the sense of ‘fill,’ explains the compound as ‘filling the upper millstone,’ an interpretation which as it stands is unintelligible.

1 Šatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 22; ii. 1, 14, 17; ii. 2, 2, 1, etc. | 6 Vedische Studien, 1, 308-310. 7 Mysterium und Minus, 412 et seq. Von Schroeder does not accept the view that the mother of the singer is alluded to; but it seems impossible to draw any other conclusion from the language of the passage, and his own explanation of the word as referring to a corn-mother is very improbable; cf. Keith, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1909, 204.

1 xix. 22; 90; xxi. 30 (as ‘healing ’). 2 Šatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xii. 7, 1, 3; 2, 9, etc.
According to the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, it formed the essential element of gruel (*karambha*), and Upavāka groats (*saktavaḥ*) are mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.  


4 xii. 9, 1, 5.

Upa-veśi is mentioned as a pupil of Kuśri in a Vamśa (list of teachers) in the Bhadārānyaka Upaniṣad (vi. 5, 3, in both recensions). See also Aupaveśi.

Upa-śrī, Upa-śraya, are two readings of the same term. The former is found in one recension of the Kauśitaki Upaniṣad, while the latter is probably the reading of the other recension of the Upaniṣad, and certainly the reading in one passage of the Atharvaveda, though the text has *apaśrayaḥ*, which is accepted as possible by Roth. In both cases the term clearly means something connected with a couch (*Āsandī* in the Atharvaveda, *Paryāṅka* in the Kauśitaki Upaniṣad). Aufrecht, Roth, and Max Müller render it as ‘coverlet’ or ‘cushion,’ but Whitney seems evidently right in holding that it must mean a ‘support’ or something similar.

Upa-staraṇa denotes in the description of the couch (*Paryāṅka*) in the Kauśitaki Upaniṣad a ‘coverlet,’ and has this sense, used metaphorically, in the Rigveda also. In the Atharvaveda it seems to have the same meaning. Whitney, however, renders it ‘couch,’ though he translates the parallel word *Āstaraṇa* in another passage by ‘cushion.’

1 i. 5.
2 ii. 69, 5.
3 v. 19, 12.
4 Translation of the Atharvaveda, 254.
5 Indische Studien, 1, 131.
6 S.v. *apaśraya*.
7 Sacred Books of the East, 1, 278.
8 Translation of the Atharvaveda, 777.
Upa-sti denotes both in the Rigveda\(^1\) and the Atharvaveda\(^2\) a 'dependent,' just as later in the Epic\(^3\) the subordination of the Vaiśya to the two superior castes is expressed by the verb upa-sthā, 'stand under,' 'support.' The word also appears, with the same sense, in the form of Sti, but only in the Rigveda.\(^4\) The exact nature of the dependence connoted by the term is quite uncertain. Zimmer\(^5\) conjectures that the 'dependents' were the members of defeated Aryan tribes who became clients of the king, as among the Greeks, Romans, and Germans, the term possibly including persons who had lost their freedom through dicing.\(^6\) The evidence of the Atharvaveda\(^7\) shows that among the Upastis were included the chariot-makers (ratha-kāra), the smiths (takṣan), and the charioteers (sūta), and troop-leaders (grāma-ṇī), while the Rigveda passages negative the possibility of the 'subjects' (sti) being the whole people. It is therefore fair to assume that they were the clients proper of the king, not servile, but attached in a special relation to him as opposed to the ordinary population. They may well have included among them not only the classes suggested by Zimmer, but also higher elements, such as refugees from other clans, as well as ambitious men who sought advancement in the royal service. Indeed, the Sūta and the Grāmaṇī were, as such, officers of the king's household—kingmakers, not themselves kings, as they are described in the Atharvaveda.\(^8\) The use of the word in the Taittirīya Samhitā,\(^9\) the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa,\(^10\) and the Kāṭhaka,\(^11\) is purely metaphorical, as well as in the one passage of the Rigveda in which it occurs. In the Paippālāda recension of the Atharvaveda,\(^12\) Vaiśya, Śūdra, and Ārya are referred to as Upastis, perhaps in the general sense of 'subject.'

\(^1\) x. 97, 23 (Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xii. 101; Av. vi. 15, 1).
\(^2\) iii. 5, 6.
\(^3\) Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 92.
\(^4\) vii. 19, 11; x. 148, 4; sti-pā, vii. 66, 3; x. 69, 4.
\(^5\) Altindisches Leben, 184, 185.
\(^6\) Rv. x. 34.
\(^7\) Av. iii. 5, 6, 7.
\(^8\) iii. 5, 7.
\(^10\) iii. 3, 5, 4.
\(^11\) xxxi. 9.
\(^12\) iii. 5, 7.

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 246; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 92; Weber, Indische Studien, 17, 196 et seq.
Upa-stuta is mentioned several times in the Rigveda, always as a sage of old, and usually in connexion with Kāṇva, who was aided or favoured by Agni, the Aśvins, and other gods. The Upastutas, sons of Vṛṣṭihavya, are mentioned as singers.  

1 i. 36, 10. 17; 112, 15; viii. 5, 25; x. 115, 8.  
2 x. 115, 9.  
3 viii. 103, 8; x. 115, 9.  


Upa-hvara denotes, in one passage of the Rigveda, according to Geldner, the body of a chariot (upa-sīha).

1 i. 87, 2.  
2 Vedische Studien, 3, 46.

Upānasa is in the Atharvaveda opposed to Aksa, and must mean something like ‘the body of the wagon,’ though Sāyaṇa suggests that it signifies either a ‘granary’ or a ‘wagon full of grain.’ In the Rigveda, where the word occurs only once, its sense is doubtful. Pischel explains the form which occurs there not as an adjective, but as an infinitive.

1 ii. 14, 2.  
2 x. 105, 4.  
3 Vedische Studien, 1, 197.

Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 301; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 56.

Upān-nah is the regular word for a ‘sandal’ or ‘shoe’ from the later Saṁhitās onwards. Boarskin is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa as a material of which shoes were made. The combination ‘staff and sandals’ (danda-pānaha) occurs as early as the Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa.

1 Taittirīya Saṁhitā, v. 4, 4, 4; 6, 6, 1, etc.  
2 v. 4, 3, 19.  
3 iii. 3.

Upāvi Jāna-śruteya is mentioned in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (i. 25, 15) as an authority on the Upasads (a kind of Soma ceremony).

Upoditi Gaupāleya is mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xii. 13, 11) as a seer of Sāmans.

Ubbhayā-dant, ‘having incisors in both jaws,’ is an expression employed to distinguish, among domestic animals, the horse, vol. I.
the ass, etc., from the goat, the sheep, and cattle. The 
distinction occurs in a late hymn of the Rigveda, and is several 
times alluded to in the later Saṃhitās and the Brāhmaṇas. In 
one passage of the Taittiriya Saṃhitā man is classed with 
the horse as ubhayā-dant. The opposite is anyato-dant, 'having 
incisors in one jaw only,' a term regularly applied to cattle, 

the eight incisors of which are, in fact, limited to the lower jaw. 
The ass is styled ubhayā-dant in the Atharvaveda. In one 
passage of the Atharvaveda, however, the epithet is applied 
to a ram; but the sense here is that a marvel occurs, just as in 
the Rigveda a ram destroys a lioness. Bloomfield suggests 
in the Atharvaveda passage another reading which would mean 
'horse.' A parallel division of animals is that of the Taittiriya and Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā into 'whole-hoofed' (eka-śapha) and 
'small' (ksudra).

Zimmer seeks to show from the Greek ἀμφώδους and the 
Latin ambidens that the Indo-European was familiar with 
the division of the five sacrificial animals into the two classes 
of man and horse on the one hand, and cattle, sheep, and 
goats on the other. But this supposition is not necessary.

Urā as a name for 'sheep' is confined to the Rigveda. It 
is curious that in one of its two occurrences the wolf should be 
referred to as terrifying sheep, and that the epithet of the wolf, 
urā-mathi, 'killing sheep,' should occur once in the Rigveda, both 
references being in one book of the Saṃhitā, a fact which suggests a dialectical origin of the word urā. See also Avi.

1 x. 90, 10. 2 Taittiriya Saṃhitā, ii. 2, 6, 3; 
v. 1, 2, 6; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, i. 8, 1. 3 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 6, 3, 30 
(ubhayato-dant). 4 ii. 2, 6, 3. 5 Taittiriya Saṃhitā, ii. i, 1, 5; v. 1, 
2, 6; 5, 1, 3. 6 v. 31, 3. 7 v. 19, 2. 8 viii. 18, 17. 9 Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 434. 

Urvara

Urur-kakṣa occurs in only one passage of the Rigveda, where the sense of the word is much disputed. The reading of the text is uruḥ kakṣo na gāṇgyah, which may refer to a man, Urukakṣa, ‘dwelling on the Ganges,’ or to a man, son of Gangā, or to a wood so called, or may simply denote the ‘broad thicket on the Ganges.’


Uru-kṣaya.—A family of Urukṣayas, singers and worshippers of Agni, is referred to in one hymn of the Rigveda (x. 118, 8. 9).


Urunejirā is given in the Nirukta (ix. 26) as one of the names of the river Vipāś (now Beās).

Urvarā is with Kṣetra the regular expression, from the Rigveda onwards, denoting a piece of ‘ploughland’ (āpoupa). Fertile (āpnasvatā) fields are spoken of as well as waste fields (ārtaṇā). Intensive cultivation by means of irrigation is clearly referred to both in the Rigveda and in the Atharva-veda, while allusion is also made to the use of manure. The fields (kṣetra) were carefully measured according to the Rigveda. This fact points clearly to individual ownership in land for the plough, a conclusion supported by the reference of Apālā, in a hymn of the Rigveda, to her father’s field (urvarā), which is put on the same level as his head of hair as a personal possession. Consistent with this are the epithets ‘winning fields’ (urvarā-sā, urvarā-jīt, kṣetra-sā), while ‘lord of fields’ used of a god is presumably a transfer of a human epithet (urvarā-pati). Moreover, fields are spoken of in the same

1 i. 127, 6; iv. 41, 6; v. 33, 4; vi. 25, 4; x. 30, 3; iv. 38, 1, 4; etc.; Av. x. 6, 33; x. 10, 8; xiv. 2, 14, etc.
2 Rv. i. 127, 6.
3 Ibid.
4 vii. 49, 2.
5 i. 6, 4; xix. 2, 2.
6 Av. iii. 14, 3, 4; xix. 31, 3.
7 i. 110, 5.
8 viii. 91, 5.
9 Rv. iv. 38, 1, and vi. 20, 1; ii. 21, 1; iv. 38, 1.
connexion as children, and the conquest of fields (kṣetraṇi saṃ-ji) is often referred to in the Saṃhitās. Very probably, as suggested by Pischel, the ploughland was bounded by grass land (perhaps denoted by Khila, Khilya) which in all likelihood would be joint property on the analogy of property elsewhere. There is no trace in Vedic literature of communal property in the sense of ownership by a community of any sort, nor is there mention of communal cultivation. Individual property in land seems also presumed later on. In the Chāndogya Upaniṣad the things given as examples of wealth include fields and houses (āyatanaṇi). The Greek evidence also points to individual ownership. The precise nature of the ownership is of course not determined by the expression 'individual ownership.' The legal relationship of the head of a family and its members is nowhere explained, and can only be conjectured (see Pīṭṛ). Very often a family may have lived together with undivided shares in the land. The rules about the inheritance of landed property do not occur before the Sūtras. In the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa the giving of land as a fee to priests is mentioned, but with reproof: land was no doubt even then a very special kind of property, not lightly to be given away or parted with.

11 Rv. iv. 41, 6, etc.
12 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, iii. 2, 8, 5; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, v. 2; Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, iv. 12, 3.
13 Vedische Studien, 2, 204-207.
15 vii. 24, 2.
17 Cf. Gautama Dharma Sūtra, xvii. 5 et seq.; Baudhāyana Dharma Sūtra, ii. 2, 3; Āpastamba Dharma Sūtra, ii. 6, 14. Of course, the rules probably go back to the earlier period, but how far it is impossible to say. With the settlement of the country, however, inheritance of land and its partition must have become inevitable.
18 xiii. 6, 2, 18; 7, 1, 13, 15.
19 It is significant that in the famous episode (Taittirīya Saṃhitā, iii. 1, 9, 4) of Manu's division of his property, from which Nābhānediśṭha was excluded, this exclusion is made good by the son's obtaining cattle (paśuvaḥ). It is clear that cattle, not land, was the real foundation of wealth, just as in Ireland, Italy (cf. pecunia), Greece, etc. Cattle could be, and were, used individually, but land was not open to a man's free disposal; no doubt, at any rate, the consent of the family or the community might be required, but we are reduced to reliance on analogy in view of the silence of the texts. Cf. Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 289; Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 94-96; Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, 48 et seq.
On the relation of the owners of land to the king and others see Grāma; on its cultivation see Kṛṣi.

Urvārū, f., Urvāruka, n., 'cucumber.' The former\(^1\) of these words denotes the plant, the latter\(^2\) the fruit, but both are very rare. The passages all seem to refer to the fact that the stem of the plant becomes loosened when the fruit is ripe.\(^3\) The fruit is also called Urvāru in a Brāhmaṇa.\(^4\)


Ula is the name of some unknown wild animal, perhaps, as Whitney\(^1\) suggests, the 'jackal.' It is mentioned in the Atharvaveda\(^2\) and later Saṃhitās,\(^3\) but not definitely identified by the commentators.

1. Translation of the Atharvaveda, 669. 2. xii. 1, 49. 3. Taittirīya Saṃhitā, v. 5, 12, 1 (as ula); Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 13, 12; 14, 2; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. 31. Cf. ulala in Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, ii. 5. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 82.

Ula Vārṣṇī-vṛddha is mentioned as a teacher in the Kauṭītaki Brāhmaṇa (vii. 4).

Ulappa\(^1\) is the name of a species of grass referred to in the Rigveda and the later Saṃhitās.\(^2\)

1. x. 142, 3. 2. Av. vii. 66, 1. Adjectives derived from the word are ulapya (Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xvi. 45, etc.) and upolupa (Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, i. 7, 2).

Ulukya Jāna-śruteya is mentioned as a teacher in the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (i. 6, 3).
Ulūka is the ordinary word for ‘owl’ from the Rigveda onwards. The bird was noted for its cry, and was deemed the harbinger of ill-fortune (nairṛta). Owls were offered at the horse sacrifice to the forest trees, no doubt because they roosted there.

Ulūkhala is the regular expression for ‘mortar’ from the Rigveda onwards, occurring frequently also in the compound Ulūkala-musala, ‘mortar and pestle.’ The exact construction of the vessel is quite unknown till we reach the Sūtra period.

Ulkā regularly denotes a meteor from the Rigveda onwards. In the Brāhmaṇas it also signifies a ‘firebrand.’ The much rarer form Ulkuṣī has both senses.

Ulmuka is the common word in the Brāhmaṇas for ‘firebrand,’ from which a coal (aṅgāra) could be taken.
Usanas Kāvyā—The Uśinara Tribe

Usanas Kāvyā is an ancient seer, already a half-mythical figure in the Rigveda, where he is often mentioned, especially as associated with Kutsa and Indra. Later on he becomes the Purohita of the Asuras in their contests with the gods. A variant of his name is Kavi Usanas. He appears in the Brāhmaṇas as a teacher also.

Usanā occurs in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (iii. 4, 3, 13; iv. 2, 5, 15) as the name of a plant from which Soma was prepared.

Uśinara.—In the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa the Kuru-Pañcālas are mentioned as dwelling together in the ‘Middle Country’ with the Vaśas and the Uśinaras. In the Kauśitaki Upaniṣad also the Uśinaras are associated with the Kuru-Pañcālas and Vaśas, but in the Gopatha Brāhmaṇa the Uśinaras and Vaśas are regarded as northerners. In the Rigveda the people is alluded to in one passage by reference to their queen, Uśinarāṇī. Zimmer thinks that the Uśinaras earlier lived farther to the north-west, but for this there is no clear evidence. His theory is based merely on the fact that the Anukramanī (Index) of the Rigveda ascribes one hymn to Śibi Ausinara, and that the Śibis were known to Alexander’s followers as Σίβοι, living between the Indus and the Akesines (Chenab). But this is in no way conclusive, as the Śibis, at any rate in Epic times, occupied the land to the north of Kurukṣetra, and there is no reason whatever to show that in the Vedic period the Uśinaras were farther west than the ‘Middle Country.’

1 viii. 14.
2 iv. 1. See Keith, Śānkhāyana Aranyaka, 30.
3 ii. 9.
4 x. 59, 10.
5 Altindisches Leben, 130.
6 Rv. x. 179.
7 Diodorus, xvii. 19.
8 See Pargiter’s map, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1908, p. 322.
Uṣa, ‘salt ground,’ occurs as a variant of Īṣa in the Maitrāyaṇi Saṁhitā (i. 6, 3).

Uṣasta Cākrāyaṇa is mentioned as a teacher in the Brhad-āraṇyaka (iii. 3, 1) and Chāndogya (i. 10, 1; 11, 1) Upaniṣads, the name in the latter work appearing as Uṣasti.

Uṣṭi, Uṣṭra.—Both of these words, of which the former is quite rare,¹ must have the same sense. Roth² and Aufrecht³ hold that in the Rigveda⁴ and the Brāhmaṇas⁵ the sense is ‘humped bull’ or ‘buffalo,’ but the former thinks that in the Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā⁶ the sense is doubtful, and ‘camel’ may be meant. Hopkins⁷ is decidedly of opinion that the sense in every case is ‘camel.’ The animal was used as a beast of burden yoked in fours.⁸

Usnīṣa denotes the ‘turban’ worn by Vedic Indians, men and women¹ alike. The Vṛtya’s turban is expressly referred to in the Atharvaveda² and the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.³ A turban was also worn at the Vājapeya⁴ and the Rājasūya⁵ ceremonies by the king as a token of his position.

Uṣyala occurs once in the description of the couch or the bridal car in the Atharvaveda,¹ where it seems to mean the four ‘frame-pieces.’ The form is doubtful: uspala is possible.²

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¹ Perhaps in Rv. x. 106, 2; Tait-tirīya Saṁhitā, v. 6, 21, 1; Kāṭhaka Saṁhitā, xv. 2.
² St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
⁴ i. 138, 2; viii. 5, 37; 6, 48; 46; 22. 31; Av. xx. 127, 2; 132, 13; Vāja-saneyi Saṁhitā, xiii. 50.
⁵ Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, 1, 2, 3, 9, etc.; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 8.
⁶ xxiv. 28. 39.
⁸ Av. xx. 127, 2; Rv. viii. 6, 48.

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¹ Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vi. 1; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 3, 2, 3; iv. 5, 2, 7 (used at the sacrifice to wrap the embryo in); xiv. 2, 1, 8 (Indrānī’s Usnīṣa), etc.; Kāṭhaka Saṁhitā, xiii. 10.
² xv. 2, 1.
³ xvii. 1, 14. Cf. xvi. 6, 13.
⁴ Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 3, 5, 23.
⁵ Maitrāyaṇi Saṁhitā, iv. 4, 3.

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¹ xiv. 1, 60.
² Whitney, Translation of the Athar-vaveda, 385.
Usra, m.; Uṣrā, f.; Uṣrika, m.; Uṣriya, m.; Uṣriya, f. All these words denote a ‘bull’ or a ‘cow,’ occurring frequently in the Rigveda,¹ and sometimes later,² but usually with some reference to the morning light. In some passages the sense is doubtful. See Go.

1 Usra, Rv. vi. 12, 4; uṣrā, i. 3, 8; viii. 75, 8; 96, 8; ix. 58, 2, etc.; usrika, i. 190, 5; usriya, v. 58, 6 (with vṛṣabhaḥ); ix. 74, 3; usriyā, i. 153, 4; 180, 3; ii. 40, 2, etc. In ix. 70, 6, usriyu is applied to a calf; and in ix. 68, 1; 93, 2, usriyā means ‘milk.’

2 Usrau dhūrṣāhau, Vajasaneyi Samhita, iv. 33; uṣrā, Av. xii. 3, 37; usriya, Av. i. 12, 1; usriyā, Av. ix. 4, 1; Vājasaṇeyi Saṃhitā, xxxv. 2. 3. In Av. v. 20, 1; 28, 3, it means ‘cow-hide,’ or perhaps in v. 28, 3, ‘milk.’

Urjanābhi

Urjayant Aupamanyava is mentioned in the Vamsa Brāhmaṇa¹ as a pupil of Bhānumant Aupamanyava.

¹ Indische Studien, 4, 372.

Urjayantī is regarded by Ludwig¹ in one passage of the Rigveda² as the name of a fort, the stronghold of Nārmara. The verse is, however, quite unintelligible.³

¹ Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 152.
² ii. 13, 8.
³ Sāyaṇa makes Urjayantī a Piśāci;

Urjayya, a word occurring only once in the Rigveda,¹ is taken by Ludwig² to be the name of a sacrificer. Roth,³ however, regards the word as an adjective meaning ‘rich in strength,’ and this is the more probable interpretation.

¹ v. 41, 20.
² Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 155.
³ St. Petersbourg Dictionary, s.v.

Urṇa-nābhi,¹ Urṇa-vābhi, Urṇā-vant are all names of the spider in the later Saṃhitās and the Brāhmaṇas in allusion to the insect’s spinning threads of wool, as it were.

¹ Urṇa-nābhi (‘having wool in its navel’), Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 2, 5; Byḍāḍaranyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 1, 23; urṇa-vābhi (‘wool-spinner’), Kaṭāḥaka Samhitā, viii. 1; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiv. 5, 1, 23; urṇā-vant (‘possessing wool’), Kaṇḍitaki Brāhmaṇa, xix. 3 (in a Mantra).
**Urṇā.** ‘wool,’ is very frequently mentioned from the Rigveda\(^1\) onwards. The Paruṣṇi country was famous for its wool,\(^2\) like Gandhāra\(^3\) for its sheep. The term for the separate tufts was *parvan*\(^4\) or *parus*.\(^5\) ‘Soft as wool’ (*ūrṇa*-mradas)\(^6\) is not a rare epithet. The sheep is called ‘woolly’ (*ūrṇāvati*).\(^7\) ‘Woollen thread’ (*ūrṇā-sātra*) is repeatedly referred to in the later Saṃhitās\(^8\) and the Brāhmaṇas.\(^9\) The word *ūrṇā* was not restricted to the sense of sheep’s wool,\(^10\) but might denote goat’s hair also.\(^11\)

\(^1\) iv. 22, 2; v. 52, 9; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xii. 5, 1, 13; 7, 2, 10, etc.; *ūrṇāyu*, ‘woolly,’ Vājasaṇeyi Saṃhitā, xiii. 50; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xii. 11, 10.
\(^3\) Rv. i. 126, 7.
\(^4\) Rv. iv. 22, 10.
\(^5\) Rv. ix. 15, 6.
\(^6\) Rv. v. 5, 4; x. 18, 10; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, ii. 2; iv. 10; xxi. 33, etc.
\(^7\) Rv. viii. 56, 3.
\(^8\) Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, iii. 11, 9; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xxxviii. 3; Vāja- saneyi Saṃhitā, xix. 80, etc. Cf. *ūrṇā-stuhā*, Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 28; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxv. 3.
\(^9\) Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 6, 4; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xii. 7, 2, 11, etc.
\(^10\) Cf. anaiḍakir *ūrṇāḥ* (‘wool not coming from the *śāka,*’ a species of sheep) in Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 5, 2, 15.

**Urṇā-vatī.**—In the hymn of the Rigveda\(^1\) which celebrates the rivers Ludwig\(^2\) finds a reference to an affluent of the Indus called Urṇāvatī. This interpretation, however, seems certainly wrong. Roth\(^3\) renders the word merely as ‘woolly,’ and Zimmer\(^4\) rejects Ludwig’s explanation on the ground that it throws the structure of the hymn into confusion. Pischel\(^5\) makes the word an epithet of the Indus, ‘rich in sheep.’

\(^1\) x. 75, 8.
\(^2\) Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 200.
\(^3\) St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
\(^4\) Altindisches Leben, 429.
\(^5\) Vedische Studien, 2, 210.

**Urdaṇa.**—This word occurs once in the Rigveda,\(^1\) when reference is made to filling Indra with Soma as one fills an

\(^1\) ii. 14, 11.
Rkṣākā] BEAR—CONSTELLATION

Ūrdara with grain (Yava). Sāyaṇa renders it ‘granary,’ but Roth and Zimmer seem more correct in simply making it a measure for holding grain, or ‘garnier.’

2 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. 3 Altindisches Leben, 238.

Ūla is a variant of Ula.

Ūṣa in the later Saṃhitās and Brāhmaṇas denotes salt ground suited for cattle. Cf. Uṣa.

1 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, v. 2, 3, 2, etc. 2 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iv. 27; Sapatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 2, 1, 16, etc.

1. Rkṣa, ‘bear,’ is found only once in the Rigveda, and seldom later, the animal having evidently been scarce in the regions occupied by the Vedic Indians. Not more frequent is the use of the word in the plural to denote the ‘seven bears,’ later called the ‘seven Rṣis,’ the constellation of the ‘Great Bear’ (āṇkotos, urṣa).

1 v. 56, 3; ii. 1, 2, 4; Taittirīya Āraṇyaka, i. 11, 2. 2 Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 3, 422. 3 Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 81. 4 Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 144 (D).

2. Rkṣa is the name of a patron mentioned in one verse of a Dā nastuti (‘Praise of Gifts’) in the Rigveda, his son being referred to in the next verse as Ārkṣa.

1 viii. 68, 15. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 163.

Rkṣākā is a word occurring once in an obscure passage of the Atharvaveda. The sense is quite unknown. Weber thinks it refers to the ‘milky way,’ but his view rests on no evidence. Whitney desairs of the passage.

1 xvii. 2, 31. 2 Festgruss an Roth, 138, n. 2; Berlin | Catalogue, 2, 59, n. ; Proceedings of the Berlin Academy, 1895, 856. 3 Translation of the Atharvaveda, 840.
Rksīkā, a word found in the Atharvaveda, 1 the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, 2 and the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, 3 appears to denote a demon. Harīsvāmin, however, in his commentary on the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, connects the word with Rksa, as meaning ‘bear.’

1 xii. 1, 49.
2 xxx. 8.

Rg-veda, the formal name of the collection of Rcs, first appears in the Brāhmaṇas, 1 and thereafter frequently in the Āraṇyakas 2 and Upaniṣads. 3

1 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 32, and implied in Taṅtirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 12, 9, 1; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, vi. 5, 4, 6; 8, 3; xii. 3, 4, 9.
2 Aitareya Āraṇyaka, iii. 2, 3. 5; Sānkhyāyana Āraṇyaka, viii. 3. 8.
3 Bhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, i. 5, 12; ii. 4, 10; iv. 1, 6; 5, 11; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, i. 3, 7; iii. 1, 2. 3; 15, 7; vii. 1, 2. 4; 2, 1; 7, 1.

Rjīśvan is mentioned several times in the Rigveda, 1 but always in a vague manner, as if very ancient. He assists Indra in fights against demoniac figures like Pipru and the dusky brood (kṛṣṇa-garbhāḥ). According to Ludwig, 2 he was called Ausija’s son, 3 but this is doubtful. He is twice 4 clearly called Vaidathina, or descendant of Vidathin.

1 i. 51. 5; 53, 8; 101, 1; vi. 20, 7; viii. 49, 10; x. 99, 11; 138, 3.
2 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 143, 149.

Rjūnas is mentioned once only in the Rigveda 1 along with six other Soma sacrificers.

1 viii. 52, 2. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 163.

Rjrāśva appears in the Rigveda 1 as one of the Vārṣāgirīs, along with Ambarīṣa, Surādhas, Sahadeva, and Bhayamāna, and as apparently victorious in a race. Elsewhere 2 in the

1 i. 100, 16. 17.
2 i. 116, 17; 117, 16. 17–8
Rigveda he is celebrated as having been blinded by his father for slaying one hundred rams for a she-wolf, and as having been restored to sight by the Aśvins, a legend of quite obscure meaning.


Rṇa, 'debt,' is repeatedly mentioned from the Rigveda onwards, having apparently been a normal condition among the Vedic Indians. Reference is often made to debts contracted at dicing. To pay off a debt was called rṇam saṃ-ni. Allusion is made to debt contracted without intention of payment.

The result of non-payment of a debt might be very serious: the dicer might fall into slavery. Debtors, like other malefactors, such as thieves, were frequently bound by their creditors to posts (dru-ṇāḍa), presumably as a means of putting pressure on them or their friends to pay up the debt.

The amount of interest payable is impossible to make out. In one passage of the Rigveda and Atharvaveda an eighth (śaṇā) and a sixteenth (kaṇā) are mentioned as paid, but it is quite uncertain whether interest or an instalment of the principal is meant. Presumably the interest would be paid in kind.

How far a debt was a heritable interest or obligation does not appear. The Kauśika Sūtra regards three hymns of the

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1 ii. 27, 4, etc., usually in a metaphorical sense.
2 Rv. x. 34, 10; Av. vi. 119, 1.
3 Rv. viii. 47, 17=Av. vi. 46, 3.
4 Av. vi. 119, 1.
5 Rv. x. 34. Cf. Lüders, *Das Würfelspiel im alten Indien*, 61.
6 Rv. x. 34, 4, seems to refer rather to the binding and taking away as a slave, though Pischel, *Vedische Studien*, 1, 228, explains it as the binding of a debtor for non-payment, interpreting the obscure verse i. 169, 7, in the same way. But Av. vi. 115, 2. 3, may refer to debt, and if this is the meaning the allusion to binding to a post as a punishment is clear. See, however, Bloomfield, *Hymns of the Atharvaveda*, 528, n. 1; Whitney, *Translation of the Atharvaveda*, 364, who interprets the hymn as referring only to sin. Rv. i. 24, 13. 15; Av. vi. 63, 3=84, 4; 121, 1 et seq., are general; while Rv. vii. 86, 5; Av. xix. 47, 9; 50, 1, refer to the binding of thieves in the stocks. Cf. *Taskara*.
7 Rv. viii. 47, 17=Av. vi. 46, 3.
Athravaveda\(^9\) as applicable to the occasion of the payment of a debt after the creditor's decease. For the payment of a debt by a relation of the debtor the evidence is still less clear.\(^10\)

Zimmer\(^11\) thinks that payments of debt were made in the presence of witnesses who could be appealed to in case of dispute. This conclusion is, however, very uncertain, resting solely on a vague verse in the Atharvaveda.\(^12\)

\(^9\) vi. 117-119. The name for unpaid debt is in Av. vi. 117, 1, अपामित्यम अप्रादत्तम. In the Taittiriya Samhitā, iii. 3, 8, 1, कुसदम अप्रादत्तम; in the Maitrāyaṇī Samhitā, iv. 14, 17, and Taittiriya Āranyaka, ii. 3, 1, 8, कुसदम अप्रादत्तम; in the Mantra Brāhmaṇa, ii. 3, 20, अप्रादत्तम.

\(^10\) Cf. Rv. iv. 3, 13 (a brother's sin or debt); Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 99, 100.

\(^11\) Altindisches Leben, 181. This suggestion is ignored by Bloomfield, op. cit., 375, and Whitney, op. cit., 304.

\(^12\) vi. 32; =viii. 8, 21. Cf. Śākhāyana Āranyaka, xii. 14, and see Jñāṭa. Cf. Zimmer, op. cit., 181, 182; 259.

**Rṇam-caya**, a prince of the Ruṣamas, is celebrated in a Dānastuti (‘Praise of Gifts’) of the Rigveda (v. 30, 12, 14) for his generosity to a poet named Bahbru.


**Rtu**, ‘season,’ is a term repeatedly mentioned from the Rigveda\(^1\) onwards. Three seasons of the year are often alluded to,\(^2\) but the names are not usually specified. In one passage of the Rigveda\(^3\) spring (vasanta), summer (grīśma), and autumn (śarad) are given. The Rigveda knows also the rainy season (prā-vṛṣ) and the winter (hima, hemanta). A more usual\(^4\) division (not found in the Rigveda) is into five seasons, (=gharma), and in the ritual literature (Āpastamba Śrauta Sūtra, viii. 4, 2) in the threefold division into rta, gharma, and ṣadāh.

1 i. 49, 3; 84, 18, etc.
2 Cf. Rv. i. 164, 2 (tri-nābhī), 48 (triṇī nābhīyaṇī); also perhaps the Ṛbhūs as the genii of the three seasons and the three dawns. Cf. Macdonell, *Vedic Mythology*, p. 133; Hillebrandt, *Vedische Mythologie*, 2, 33 et seq.; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiv. 1, 1, 28, and the cāturmāṣyāṇī, or four-monthly sacrifices performed at the beginning of the seasons in the ritual (Webber, *Nāxatra*, 2, 329 et seq.).
3 x. 90, 6. Hillebrandt, *op. cit.*, 2, 35, finds in Rv. v. 14, 4; ix. 91, 6, reference to three seasons in the triad gāvaḥ (? spring), āphaḥ (rains), svar (=gharma), and in the ritual literature (Āpastamba Śrauta Sūtra, viii. 4, 2) in the threefold division into rta, gharma, and ṣadāh.
4 Av. viii. 2, 22; 9, 15; xiii. 1, 18; Taittiriya Saṃhitā, i. 6, 2, 3; iv. 3, 3, 1, 1; v. 1, 10, 3; 3, 1, 2; 4, 12, 2; 5, 10, 1; 7, 2, 4; vii. 1, 18, 1, 2; Maitrāyaṇī Samhitā, i. 7, 3; iii. 4, 8, 13, 1; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, iv. 14; ix. 16; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, x. 10-14; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, 5, 11; vi. 2, 2, 3, etc.; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 10, 4, 1; 11, 10, 4, etc. Cf. Rv. i. 164, 13. See also Weber, *op. cit.*, 2, 352.
vasanta, grīśma, varṣā, sarad, hemanta-sīsira; but occasionally the five are otherwise divided, varṣā-sarad being made one season. Sometimes six seasons are reckoned, hemanta and sīsira being divided, so that the six seasons can be made parallel to the twelve months of the year. A still more artificial arrangement makes the seasons seven, possibly by reckoning the intercalary month as a season, as Weber and Zimmer hold, or more probably because of the predilection for the number seven, as Roth suggests. Occasionally the word rtu is applied to the months. The last season, according to the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, is hemanta.

The growth of the division of the seasons from three to five is rightly explained by Zimmer as indicating the advance of the Vedic Indians towards the east. It is not Rigvedic, but dominates the later Saṃhitās. Traces of an earlier division of the year into winter and summer do not appear clearly in the Rigveda, where the appropriate words himā and sama are merely general appellations of the year, and where sarad is commoner than either as a designation of the year, because it denotes the harvest, a time of overwhelming importance to a young agricultural people. The division of the year in one passage of the Atharvaveda into two periods of six months is merely formal, and in no way an indication of old tradition.

5 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 6, 1, 10. II.
6 Av. vi. 55, 2; xii. 1, 36; Taittiriya Saṃhitā, v. 1, 5, 2; 7, 3; 2, 6, 1; etc.; Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, i. 7, 3; iii. 11, 12; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, viii. 6; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxi. 23-28; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 2, 21; ii. 4, 2, 24; xii. 8, 2, 34; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 6, 19, etc. Cf. also Rv. i. 23, 15, as interpreted by Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. indu.
7 Av. vi. 61, 2; viii. 9, 18; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, viii. 5, 1, 15; ix. 1, 2, 31; 3, 45; 3, 1, 19; 5, 2, 8; perhaps Av. iv. 11, 9, and cf. Rv. i. 164, 1.
8 Indische Studien, 18, 44; Allindisches Leben, 374.
10 Av. xv. 4; Taittiriya Saṃhitā, iv. 4, 11, 1; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xiii. 25; xiv. 6, 15, 26, 27; xv. 57, etc.
11 i. 5, 3, 13.
Rtu-parṇa appears in a Brāhmaṇa-like passage of the Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra as son of Bhaṅgaśvina and king of Śaphāla. In the Āpastamba Śrauta Sūtra are mentioned Rtu-parṇa-Kayovadhi Bhaṅgaśvinau.

1. xx. 12.
2. xxi. 20, 3.


Rtv-ij is the regular term for 'sacrificial priest,' covering all the different kinds of priests employed at the sacrifice. It appears certain that all the priests were Brāhmaṇas. The number of priests officiating at a sacrifice with different functions was almost certainly seven. The oldest list, occurring in one passage of the Rigveda, enumerates their names as Hotṛ, Potṛ, Neśṭṛ, Agnīdh, Praśāstr, Adhvaryu, Brahman, besides the institutor of the sacrifice. The number of seven probably explains the phrase 'seven Hotṛs' occurring so frequently in the Rigveda, and is most likely connected with that of the mythical 'seven Ṛṣis.' It may be compared with the eight of Iran. The chief of the seven priests was the Hotṛ, who was the singer of the hymns, and in the early times their composer also. The Adhvaryu performed the practical work of the sacrifice, and accompanied his performance with muttered formulas of prayer and depreciation of evil. His chief assistance was derived from the Agnīdh, the two performing the smaller sacrifices without other help in practical matters. The Praśāstr, Upavakṛt, or Maitrāvaruṇa, as he was variously called, appeared only in the greater sacrifices as giving instructions to the Hotṛ, and as entrusted with certain litanies. The Potṛ, Neśṭṛ, and Brahman belonged to the ritual of the Soma sacrifice, the latter being later styled Brāhmaṇācchamsin to distinguish him from the priest who in the later

1 This is assumed throughout the Vedic texts, and is accompanied by the rule that no Kṣatriya can eat of the sacrificial offering (cf. Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 26): no doubt because only the Brāhmaṇas were sufficiently holy to receive the divine essence of the sacrifice into which, by partaking of it, the deity has entered in part.
2 ii. 1, 2. Cf. Oldenberg, Religion des Veda, 383.
3 Darmesteter, Le Zend-Avesta, 1, lxx et seq.
ritual acted as supervisor. Other priests referred to in the Rigveda⁴ are the singers of Sāmans or chants, the Udgātṛ and his assistant the Prastoṭṛ, while the Pratihartṛ, another assistant, though not mentioned, may quite well have been known. Their functions undoubtedly represent a later stage of the ritual, the development of the elaborate series of sacrificial calls on the one hand, and on the other the use of long hymns addressed to the Soma plant. Other priests, such as the Achāvāka,⁵ the Grāvastutṛ, the Unnetaṛ, and the Subrahmaṇya, were known later in the developed ritual of the Brāhmaṇas, making in all sixteen priests, who were technically and artificially classed in four groups⁶: Hotṛ, Maitrāvaruṇa, Achāvāka, and Grāvastutṛ; Udgātṛ, Prastoṭṛ, Pratihartṛ, and Subrahmaṇya; Adhvaryu, Pratisthātṛ, Neṣṭṛ, and Unnetaṛ; Brahman, Brāhmaṇācchaṃsīn, Agnīdhra, and Potṛ.

Apart from all these priests was the Purohita, who was the spiritual adviser of the king in all his religious duties. Geldner⁷ holds that, as a rule, when the Purohita actually took part in one of the great sacrifices he played the part of the Brahman, in the sense of the priest who superintended the whole conduct of the ritual. He sees evidence for this view in a considerable number of passages of the Rigveda⁸ and the later literature,⁹ where Purohita and Brahman were combined or identified. Oldenberg,¹⁰ however, more correctly points out

⁴ Rv. viii. 81, 5.
⁵ Cf., for the Achāvāka, Kauśitakī Brāhmaṇa, xxviii. 4; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vi. 14, 8, etc.; Bergaigne, Recherches sur l'histoire de la liturgie védique, 47; Oldenberg, Religion des Veda, 397, n. 2. The other three occur in the Aitareya and other Brāhmaṇas. See St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
⁶ Āśvalāyana Śravatī Śūtra, iv. 1, 4-6; Śāṅkhāyana Śravatī Śūtras, xiii. 14, 1, etc. In the Rigveda Śūtra the order of the four sets is Hotṛ, Brahman, Udgātṛ, and Adhvaryu. Sometimes a seventeenth priest is mentioned, but he was not usually approved, though the Kauśitakins maintained him as the Sadasya. See Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, x. 4, 1, 19; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 43, 348, n.; Keith, Aitareya Āraṇyaka, 37; Weber, Indische Studien, 9, 375.
⁷ Vedische Studien, 2, 143 et seq.
⁸ Rv. i. 44, 10; 94, 6; vii. 27, 1, etc.
⁹ Bhāsalpati is Purohita of the gods, Rv. ii. 24, 9; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 7, 1, 2; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 17, 2; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 3, 1, 2; but Brahman in Rv. x. 141, 3; Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, vi. 13; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 4, 21. Vasiṣṭha is Purohita, Rv. x. 150, 5, of Sudās Pājavana, Śāṅkhāyana Śravatī Śūtra, xvi. 11, 4; but Brahman of the Sunāḥ-śēpa sacrifice, ibid., xv. 21.
that in the earlier period this was not the case: the Purohita was then normally the Hotṛ, the singer of the most important of the songs; it was only later that the Brahman, who in the capacity of overseer of the rite is not known to the Rigveda, acquired the function of general supervision hitherto exercised by the Purohita, who was ex officio skilled in the use of magic and in guarding the king by spells which could also be applied to guarding the sacrifice from evil demons. With this agrees the fact that Agni, pre-eminently\(^{11}\) the Purohita of men, is also a Hotṛ, and that the two divine Hotṛs of the Āpṛ hymns are called\(^{12}\) the divine Purohitas. On the other hand, the rule is explicitly recognized in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa\(^{13}\) that a Kṣatriya should have a Brahman as a Purohita; and in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā\(^{14}\) the Vasiṣṭha family have a special claim to the office of Brahman-Purohita, perhaps an indication that it was they who first as Purohitas exchanged the function of Hotṛs for that of Brahmans in the sacrificial ritual.

The sacrifices were performed for an individual in the great majority of cases. The Sattra,\(^{15}\) or prolonged sacrificial session, was, however, performed for the common benefit of the priests taking part in it, though its advantageous results could only be secured if all the members actually engaged were consecrated (dīkṣita). Sacrifices for a people as such were unknown. The sacrifice for the king was, it is true, intended to bring about the prosperity of his people also; but it is characteristic that the prayer\(^{16}\) for welfare includes by name only the priest and the king, referring to the people indirectly in connexion with the prosperity of their cattle and agriculture.

\(^{11}\) Agni as Hotṛ and Purohita occurs in Rv. i. i, i; iii. 3, 2; ii. i; v. ii. 2. His Purohitaship is described in terms characteristic of the Hotṛ’s functions in Rv. viii. 27, 1; x. 1, 6. Devāpi is Purohita and Hotṛ, Rv. x. 98.

\(^{12}\) Rv. x. 66, 13; in x. 70, 7, purohitāv rtvijā.

\(^{13}\) vii. 26.

\(^{14}\) iii. 5, 2, i, etc.

\(^{15}\) Oldenberg, 371.

\(^{16}\) Vājasaneyī Saṃhitā, xxii. 22; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vii. 5, 18; Maitrāyanī Saṃhitā, iii. 12, 6; Kāthaka Saṃhitā, v. 5, 14, etc.

### RŚYa

This is the correct spelling of a word that occurs in the Rigveda and the later literature meaning ‘stag,’ the feminine being Rohit. Apparently deer were caught in pits (ṛṣya-da). The procreative power of the stag (āṛṣya vṛṣṇya) was celebrated.

1. Ṛṣabha is the common name of the ‘bull’ from the Rigveda onwards. See also Go.

2. Ṛṣabha, king of the Śviknas, appears in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa with the patronymic Yājñātura, as one of those who performed an Āśvamedha or horse sacrifice. He is also mentioned there as having probably been the source of a saying of Gaurīviti Śāktya's.

3. Ṛṣabha is mentioned in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (vii. 17) as a son of Viśvāmitra.

Ṛṣi, ‘seer,’ is primarily a composer of hymns to the gods. In the Rigveda reference is often made to previous singers and to contemporary poets. Old poems were inherited and refurbished by members of the composer’s family, but the great aim of the singers was to produce new and approved hymns. It is not till the time of the Brāhmaṇas that the

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1. It appears in Av. iv. 4, 7, as Ṛṣa; as Ṛṣya in Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 9, 18.
2. viii. 4, 10.
3. Av. iv. 4, 5, 7; v. 14, 3; i. 18, 4 (ṛṣya-pād); Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. 27, 37; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 33; citation in Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, vii. 25, 8, etc.
4. Av. iv. 4, 7.
5. Rv. x. 39, 8.
6. Av. iv. 4, 5.

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1. vi. 16, 47; 25, 8; x. 91, 14, etc.
2. Av. iii. 6, 4; 23, 4, etc.; Taittiriya Saṃhitā, ii. 1, 3, 2, etc.; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxi. 22, etc.; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 5, 18, etc.
3. vii. 17.
4. Cf. Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. 9, 8-10.
5. xii. 8, 3, 7.
6. xiii. 5, 4, 15.
7. i. 1, 2; 45, 3; viii. 43, 13, etc.
8. i. 89, 3; 96, 2; iii. 39, 2; vii. 6, 11. 43; 76, 6, etc.
9. i. 109, 2; ii. 18, 3; iii. 62, 7; vi. 50, 6; vii. 14, 4; 93, 1; viii. 23, 14, etc.
composition of hymns appears to have fallen into disuse,\(^4\) though poetry was still produced, for example, in the form of \textit{Gāthās}, which the priests were required to compose themselves\(^5\) and sing to the accompaniment of the lute at the sacrifice. The \textit{Ṛṣi} was the most exalted of Brāhmaṇas,\(^6\) and his skill, which is often compared with that of a carpenter,\(^7\) was regarded as heaven-sent.\(^8\) The Purohita, whether as Hotṛ or as Brahman (see \textit{Ṛtvij}), was a singer.\(^9\) No doubt the \textit{Ṛṣis} were normally\(^10\) attached to the houses of the great, the petty kings of Vedic times, or the nobles of the royal household. Nor need it be doubted that occasionally\(^11\) the princes themselves essayed poetry: a Rājanyarṣi, the prototype of the later Rājarṣi or ‘royal seer,’ who appears in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa,\(^12\) though he must be mythical as Oldenberg\(^13\) points out, indicates that kings cultivated poetry\(^14\) just as later they engaged in philosophic disputations.\(^15\) Normally, however, the poetical function is Brahminical, Viśāmitra and others not being kings, but merely Brāhmaṇas, in the Rigveda.

In the later literature the \textit{Ṛṣis} are the poets of the hymns preserved in the Saṃhitās, a \textit{Ṛṣi} being regularly\(^16\) cited when a Vedic Saṃhitā is quoted. Moreover, the \textit{Ṛṣis} become the representatives of a sacred past, and are regarded as holy sages,

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\(^4\) Geldner, \textit{Vedische Studien}, 2, 151.
\(^5\) Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 4, 2, 8; 3, 5.
\(^6\) Rv. ix. 96, 6, etc. \textit{Cf.} Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xii. 4, 4, 6, where pre-eminence is assigned to a Brāhmaṇa descended from a \textit{Ṛṣi}.
\(^7\) Rv. i. 130, 6; v. 2, 11; 29, 15; 73, 10; x. 39, 14. So a poet is a Kāru (if from \textit{kṛ}, ‘make,’ but usually derived from \textit{kṛ}, ‘commemorate’), and makes (\textit{kṛ}, Rv. ii. 39, 8; viii. 62, 4) as well as creations (\textit{jan}, Rv. vii. 15, 4; viii. 88, 4) hymns.
\(^8\) Rv. i. 37, 4; vii. 36, 1, 9; viii. 32, 27; 57, 6, etc.
\(^9\) Rv. i. 151, 7; Geldner, \textit{op. cit.}, 2, 153; Oldenberg, \textit{Religion des Veda}, 380.
\(^10\) Geldner, \textit{op. cit.}, 2, 154, cites the Dānastutis as characteristic of princes in the tradition of the Brhaddevata, etc.
\(^11\) \textit{Ibid.}, 154.
\(^12\) xii. 12, 6, etc.
\(^13\) \textit{Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgen-ländischen Gesellschaft}, 45, 235, n. 3.
\(^14\) Later on it was deemed quite normal and natural. See the story of Rathaviti Dārbhya, or Dālbhya, himself a royal seer, and Taranta and Purumilha, seers and also kings, in Brhaddevata, v. 50 et seq.
\(^16\) Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 25; viii. 26; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 4, 4; ii. 2, 3, 6; 5, 1, 4; vi. i, i, i, etc.; Nirukta, vii. 3, etc.
whose deeds are narrated as if they were the deeds of gods or Asuras. The are typified by a particular group of seven, mentioned four times in the Rigveda, several times in the later Samhitās, and enumerated in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad as Gotama, Bharadvāja, Viśvāmitra, Jamadagni, Vasiṣṭha, Kaśyapa, and Atri. In the Rigveda itself Kutsa, Atri, Rebha, Agastya, the Kuśikas, Vasiṣṭha, Vyaśva, and others appear as Rṣis; and the Atharvaveda contains a long list, including Aṅgiras, Agasti, Jamadagni, Atri, Kaśyapa, Vasiṣṭha, Bharadvāja, Gaviṣṭhira, Viśvāmitra, Kutsa, Kaṅśīvant, Kanva, Medhātithi, Triśoka, Uṣanā Kāvyā, Gotama, and Mudgala.

Competition among the bards appears to have been known. This is one of the sides of the riddle poetry (Brahmodya) that forms a distinctive feature of the Vedic ritual of the Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice. In the Upaniṣad period such competitions were quite frequent. The most famous was that of Yājñavalkya, which was held at the court of Janaka of Videha, as detailed in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, and which was a source of annoyance to Ajātaśatru of Kāśi. According to an analogous practice, a Brāhmaṇa, like Uddālaka Aruṇī, would go about disputing with all he came across, and compete with them for a prize of money.
later. This is probably a secondary use, instead of the seven Rkṣas, brought about by the frequent mention of the seven Rṣis.

2 Av. vi. 40, 1 (where, however, Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 310, merely renders it as 'seven seers,' and appears not to take it in a technical sense); Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 1, 2, 4; xiii. 8, 1, 9; Nirukta, x. 26, etc.


Rṣti is a term frequently employed in the Rigveda to designate a weapon held in the hands of the Maruts, and doubtless meant to indicate lightning. That it denotes a spear in mortal warfare, as Zimmer thinks, is not shown by a single passage. 3

1 Rv. i. 37, 1; 64, 4. 8; 166, 4; v. 52, 6; 54, 11; 57, 6; viii. 20, 11. Indra has a Rṣti in Rv. i. 169, 3 (cf. Av. iv. 37, 8). Cf. Macdonell, *Vedic Mythology*, p. 79.

2 *Alte indisches Leben*, 301.

Rṣti-śena is mentioned in the Nirukta as an explanation of the patronymic Āṛṣṭiśena, but nothing else is known of him.


Rṣya-śṛṅga appears as a teacher, pupil of Kāśyapa, and as bearing the patronymic Kāśyapa in the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa 1 and in the Vamśa Brāhmaṇa. 2 The more correct spelling of the name is Rṣya-śṛṅga. 3

1 iiii. 40, 1 (in a Vamśa, or list of teachers).

2 *Indische Studien*, 4, 374, 385.

3 The later legend connected with the name may contain old elements (see Lüders, *Die Sage von Rṣyaśṛṅga*, 1897; Von Schroder, *Mysterium und Mimus*, 292-301), but it is not known to any Vedic text.

Eka-dyū is mentioned as a poet in one hymn of the Rigveda. 1

1 viii. 80, 10. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 112.

Eka-yāvan Gām-dama is a man mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa 1 and the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa. 2

1 xxi. 14, 20.

2 ii. 7, 11 (Kāṃdama). 4

Eka-rāj, ‘sole ruler,’ ‘monarch,’ seems to mean no more than ‘king.’ In the Rigveda the term is used metaphorically only. But it is found with the literal sense in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, as well as in the Atharvaveda.

Ekāyana denotes some object of study in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad. The St. Petersburg Dictionary renders it ‘doctrine (ayana) of unity’ (eka), ‘monotheism,’ while Max Müller prefers ‘ethics,’ and Monier-Williams in his Dictionary ‘worldly wisdom.’

Ekāṣṭakā.—That Astakā is the eighth day after the full moon appears clearly from the Atharvaveda. Ekāṣṭakā, or ‘sole Astakā,’ must denote not merely any Astakā, but some particular one. Sāyaṇa, in his commentary on the Atharvaveda, in which a whole hymn celebrates the Ekāṣṭakā, fixes the date meant by the term as the eighth day in the dark half of the month of Māgha (January—February). The Ekāṣṭakā is declared in the Taittiriya Samhitā to be the time for the consecration (dīkṣā) of those who are going to perform a year-long sacrifice. See also Māśa.

Ejatka is the name of an insect in the Atharvaveda.

Edaka appears to denote a ‘vicious ram’ in the Śatapatha and Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇas.
Eni denotes the ‘female antelope’ in the later Samhitas, perhaps as the feminine of Eta.

1 Av. v. 14, 11; Taittiriya Samhitā, iii. 14, 17; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. v. 5, 15, 1; Maitrāyaṇī Samhitā, 36; Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 82.

Eta in the plural (etāḥ) denotes the steeds of the Maruts, being a swift species of deer, which are mentioned several times in the Rigveda, and the skins of which are also said to be worn by the Maruts on their shoulders. The epithet prthu-budhaṇa, once applied to them in the Rigveda, and variously interpreted as ‘broad-hoofed,’ ‘broad-chested,’ and ‘broad in the hinder part,’ seems to indicate that they were not gazelles.

1 i. 165, 2; 169, 6, 7; v. 54, 5; x. 77, 2.
2 Rv. i. 166, 10. Cf. Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
3 i. 169, 6.

1. Etaśa is in several passages of the Rigveda, according to Roth the name of a protégé whom Indra helped against the sun-god Sūrya. But in all these passages Etaśa seems merely to designate the horse of the sun.

1 i. 61, 15; iv. 30, 6; v. 29, 5.6/5.9
2 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
3 Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, pp. 149, 150.

2. Etaśa is in the Kausitaki Brāhmaṇa the name of a sage who is said to have cursed his children because they interrupted him in the midst of a rite; hence the Aitaśāyanas (descendants of Etaśa) are declared to be the worst of the Bhūgus. The same story appears in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, where, however, the sage’s name is Aitaśa, and the Aitaśāyanas are described as the worst of the Auras.

1 xxx. 5.

Edidhiṣuḥ-pati is a term occurring only in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, where the commentator Mahiddhara interprets it as
meaning the ‘husband of a younger sister married before the elder sister.’ Though this sense is probably correct, the form is doubtless, as Delbrück\(^2\) points out, corrupt. See Didhiṣūpati.

\(^2\) Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 569, n. 1.

Eraṇḍa, the castor-oil plant (*Ricinus communis*), is first mentioned in the Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka (xii. 8).

Evāvada is regarded by Ludwig\(^1\) in a very obscure passage of the Rigveda\(^2\) as the name of a singer beside Kṣatra, Manasa, and Yajata. The commentator Śāyaṇa also interprets the word as a proper name. Roth\(^3\) however, considers it to be an adjective meaning ‘truthful.’

\(^1\) Translation of the Rigveda, 3.

\(^2\) v. 44, 10.

\(^3\) St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

**AI.**

Aikādaśākṣa Mānu-tantavya appears in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa\(^1\) as a king who observed the rule of sacrificing when the sun had risen (*udita-homin*), and as a contemporary of Nagaran Jana-śruteya.


Aikṣvāka, ‘descendant of Ikṣvāku,’ is the patronymic borne by Purukutsa in the Sātapatha Brāhmaṇa.\(^1\) Another Aikṣvāka is Varsṇi, a teacher mentioned in the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa.\(^2\) A king Hariścandra Vaidhasa Aikṣvāka is known to the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa,\(^3\) and Tryaruna is an Aikṣvāka in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.\(^4\)

\(^1\) xiii. 5, 4, 5.

\(^2\) i. 5, 4.

\(^3\) vii. 13, 16.

\(^4\) xiii. 3, 12.

Aitareya, perhaps a patronymic from Itara, though the commentator Śāyaṇa\(^1\) regards the word as a metronymic from

\(^1\) Cited by Aufrecht, *Aitareya Brāhmaṇa*, 3.
NAMES—LEGENDISTS  [Aitaśa, Aitaśāyana]

Aitaśa, Aitaśāyana. See Ṣitaśa, Ṣitaśāyana. The Aitaśa-pralāpa, or 'Discourse of Aitaśa,' is a part of the Atharvaveda.1


Aiti-hāsika.—This term was applied to the people who explained the Vedic hymns by treating them as legendary history (Itihāsa), as Sieg1 shows by the passages of the Nirukta,2 where their views are opposed to those of the Nairuktas, who relied rather on etymology. Sieg3 also seems right in finding them in the Naiḍānas of the Nirukta:4 it is possible that their textbook was called the Nidāna.

1 Die Sagenstoffe des Ṛgveda, 13 et seq.  
2 ii. 16; xii. 1, etc.  
4 vi. 9; vii. 6.

Aibhāvata, 'descendant of Ibhāvant,' is the patronymic of Pratidarśa.1

1 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xii. 8, 2, 3.

Airāvata, 'son of Irāvant,' is the patronymic of Dhrtarāṣṭra, as a snake demon,1 in the Atharvaveda2 and the Pañcavimsa Brāhmaṇa.3

1 In the later literature Airāvata is the elephant of Indra: perhaps connected with this Vedic snake demon, as nāga means both 'serpent' and 'elephant.'  
2 viii. 10, 29.  
3 xxv. 15, 3.

Ailūṣa, 'descendant of Ilūṣa,' is the patronymic of Kavaśa.

Aiṣa-kṛta. See Śitibāhu.
Aiśā-vīra.—The Satapatha Brāhmaṇa once refers to the Aiśā-vīras as officiating at a sacrifice, with the implication that they were bad sacrificers. Śāyaṇa regards the word as a proper name ('descendants of Eśavīra'), denoting the members of a despised family. But Roth may be right in explaining the word both in the passage mentioned above and elsewhere as meaning 'weak' or 'insignificant man.'

1 xi. 2, 7, 32.
2 In the St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
3 In Böhtlingk’s Dictionary, s.v. ('one who wishes to be a man, but is not'). Cf. Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, ix. 5, 1, 16; Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, where, however, Lindner’s edition reads saiśā vīra ivā. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 228; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 44, 45.

Aiśumata, ‘descendant of Iśumant,’ is the patronymic of Trāta in the Vaṃśa Brāhmaṇa.

1 Indische Studien, 4, 372.

O.

Ogana is a word occurring only once, as a plural, in the Rigveda, where it appears to indicate persons hostile to the seer of the hymn, and apparently opposed to the Āryan religion. Ludwig regards the term as the proper name of a people, but Pischel thinks that it is merely an adjective meaning ‘weak’ (ogana = a-va-gana), as in Pāli.

1 x. 89, 15.
2 Translation of the Rigveda, 5, 209.
3 Vedische Studien, 2, 191, 192.

Otu in Vedic literature denotes the ‘woof’ in weaving, and corresponds to Tantu, ‘the warp,’ the roots vā, ‘to weave,’ and tan, ‘to stretch,’ from which these two terms are derived, being used in parallel senses. In the process of weaving a shuttle (Tasara) was used. The ‘weaver’ is termed váya, and the ‘loom’ veman. A wooden peg (Mayukha) was used to

1 Rv. vi. 9, 2, 3; Av. xiv. 2, 51; Taittiriya Samhitā, vi. 1, 1, 4, etc.
2 Rv. vi. 9, 2, etc.
3 Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xix. 80; Rv. x. 130, 2; Av. x. 7, 43, etc.
4 Rv. x. 26, 6, etc.
5 Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xix. 83.
stretch the web on, while lead was employed as a weight to extend it.\(^6\)

The work of weaving was probably the special care of women.\(^7\) A metaphor in the Atharvaveda\(^8\) personifies Night and Day as two sisters weaving the web of the year, the nights serving as warp, the days as woof.

\[^6\] Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xix. 80.
\[^7\] Av. x. 7, 42; xiv. 2, 51. Cf. Rv. i. 92, 3.
\[^8\] x. 7, 42; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 5. 5. 3. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 254, 255; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 5, 465.

**Odana** is a common expression\(^1\) denoting a mess, usually of grain cooked with milk (*ksīra-pākam odanam*).\(^2\) Special varieties are mentioned, such as the ‘milk-mess’ (*ksiraudana*),\(^3\) the ‘curd-mess’ (*dadhy-odana*),\(^4\) the ‘bean-mess’ (*mudgaudana*),\(^5\) the ‘sesame-mess’ (*tilaudana*),\(^6\) the ‘water-mess’ (*udaudana*),\(^7\) the ‘meat-mess’ (*mamsaudana*),\(^8\) the ‘ghee-mess’ (*ghṛaudana*),\(^9\) etc.

\[^1\] Rv. viii. 69, 14, etc.; Av. iv. 14, 7, etc.
\[^2\] Rv. viii. 77, 10.
\[^3\] Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 5, 3, 4; xi. 4, 13.
\[^4\] Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 4, 14.

**Opasa** is a word of somewhat doubtful sense, occurring in the Rigveda,\(^1\) the Atharvaveda,\(^2\) and occasionally later.\(^3\) It probably means a ‘plait’ as used in dressing the hair, especially of women,\(^4\) but apparently, in earlier times,\(^5\) of men also. The goddess Sīnvāli is called *svaupāsa*,\(^6\) an epithet of doubtful sense, from which Zimmer\(^7\) conjectures that the wearing of

\[^1\] x. 85, 8. Cf. i. 173, 6; viii. 14, 5; ix. 71, 1.
\[^2\] vi. 138, 1. 2; ix. 3. 8, where it is applied metaphorically in describing the roof of a house.
\[^3\] Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa, iv. 1, 1.
\[^4\] Av. vi. 138, 1, 2.
\[^5\] Rv. i. 173, 6; viii. 14, 5.

\[^6\] Taittirīya Saṃhitā, iv. 1, 5, 3; Maitrāyani Saṃhitā, ii. 7, 5; Vāja-saneyi Saṃhitā, xi. 56. The reading is uncertain. Bloomfield (see below) assumes *sv-opasa* to be the correct form (‘having a fair opasa’).
\[^7\] Altindisches Leben, 264.
false plaits of hair was not unknown in Vedic times. What was the difference between the braids referred to in the epithets prthu-stūka,8 ‘having broad braids,’ and viṣita-stūka,9 ‘having loosened braids,’ and the Opaśa cannot be made out from the evidence available. Geldner10 thinks that the original sense was ‘horn,’ and that when the word applies to Indra11 it means ‘diadem.’

Osadhi.—Roughly speaking, the vegetable world is divided in Vedic literature3 between Osadhi or Virudh ‘plants’ and Vana or Vṛkṣa ‘trees.’ Osadhi is employed in opposition to Virudh to denote plants as possessing a healing power or some other quality useful to men, while Virudh is rather a generic term for minor vegetable growths, but sometimes,2 when occurring beside Osadhi, signifies those plants which do not possess medicinal properties.

A list of the minor parts of which a plant is made up is given in the later Saṁhitās.3 It comprises the root (mūla), the panicle (tūla), the stem (kānda), the twig (valśa), the flower (puspā), and the fruit (phala), while trees4 have, in addition, a corona (skandha), branches (śākhā), and leaves (parṇa). The Atharvaveda5 gives an elaborate, though not very intelligible, division of plants into those which expand (pra-strnatiḥ), are bushy (stambiniḥ), have only one sheath (eka-sungdh), are creepers (pra-tanvatih), have many stalks (aṁśumatiḥ), are

8 Rv. x. 86, 8.
9 Rv. i. 167, 5 (of Rodasī).
10 Vedische Studien, i, 131, quoting Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 4, 3, where dvy-opāśāḥ is used of cattle; but the sense may be figurative.
11 Rv. viii. 14, 5.
Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 538, 539; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 348.

1 Rv. x. 97 and passim. Oṣadhi-vanaspati is a frequent compound, from the Ṣapatapatha Brāhmaṇa (vi. 1, 1, 12) onwards. The medicinal properties of plants account for the epithet ‘of manifold powers’ (nāṇā-virya) applied to them in Av. xii. 1, 2.
2 Taittirīya Saṁhitā, ii. 5, 3, 2.
3 Ibid., vii. 3, 19, 1; Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, xxii. 28.
Cf. Rv. i. 32, 5; Av. x. 7, 38.
5 viii. 7, 4, with Whitney’s notes.
PLANT—NAMES

jointed \((kāndiniḥ)\), or have spreading branches \((vi-sākhāh)\). In the Rigveda\(^6\) plants are termed ‘fruitful’ \((phaliniḥ)\), ‘blossoming’ \((puspavatīḥ)\), and ‘having flowers’ \((pra-sūvarīḥ)\).

\(^6\) x. 97. 3. 15. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 57.

AU.

Aukṣa-gandhi (‘having the smell of bull’s grease’) appears in the Atharvaveda\(^1\) as the name of an Apsaras, beside other names, of which Guggulū and Naladī clearly indicate plants. This name, therefore, presumably also denotes some sort of fragrant plant. Aukṣa in the same Saṃhitā\(^2\) means ‘bull’s grease’ (from uksan, ‘bull’).

\(^1\) iv. 37. 3.
\(^2\) ii. 36, 7.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 69; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 324; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 211, 212, and on Aukṣa, ibid., 52, 83.

Augra-sainya, ‘descendant of Ugrasena,’ is the patronymic of King Yuddhamśrausti in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (viii. 21).

Audanya, ‘descendant of Udanya or Odana,’ is the patronymic in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa\(^1\) of Mūndibha, who is credited with inventing an expiation for the crime of slaying a Brahmin. In the Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa\(^2\) the name appears in the form of Audanyava.

\(^1\) xiii. 3, 5, 4.

Audamaya is Weber’s\(^1\) reading of the name of the Ātreya, who was Purohita of Aṅga Vairocana, according to the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa.\(^2\) Aufrecht, however, in his edition more probably takes the correct form of the name to be Udamaya.

\(^1\) Jndische Studien, 1, 228.
Aupamanyava, 'descendant of Upamanyu,' is the patronymic of various persons: see Kāmboja, Prācīnasāla, Mahāśāla. The best known bearer of the name is the grammarian who disagreed with the onomatopoetic theory of the derivation of names, and who is mentioned by Yāska. An Aupamanyavīputra occurs in the Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra as a teacher.

1 i. 1; ii. 6. 11, etc. 2 xxii. 1 et seq.
Aupara, 'descendant of Upara,' is the patronymic of Daṇḍa in the Taittiriya Samhitā (vi. 2, 9, 4).

Aupa-veśi, 'descendant of Upaveśa,' is the patronymic borne by Aruṇa, father of Uddālaka.¹

¹ See Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xxvi. 10, and Aruṇa.

Aupasvati-putra, 'son of a female descendant of Upāsvant' (?), is mentioned as a pupil of Pārāśariputra in a Vamśa (list of teachers) of the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.¹

¹ vi. 5, 1 (only in the Kāṇva recension).

Aupāvi ('descendant of Upāva') Jāna-Āruteya ('descendant of Janaśruti'), appears in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ and the Maitrāyaṇi Samhitā² as a sacrificer who used to offer the Vaijapeya sacrifice and ascend to the other world.

¹ v. 1, 1, 5. 7.

Aupoditi, 'descendant of Upodita,' is the patronymic applied in the Taittirīya Samhitā¹ to Tumiṅja, and in the Baudhāyana Śrauta Śutra² to Gaupālāyana, son of Vyāghrapad, Sthapati ('general') of the Kurus. In the form of Aupoditeya, a metronymic from Upodīta, the name is found in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,³ where the Kāṇva text calls him Tumiṅja Aupoditeya Vyāghrapadaya.

¹ i. 7, 2, 1.
² xx. 25.
³ i. 9, 3, 16.

Cf. Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, 271, n. 2.

Aurṇa-vābha, 'descendant of Ūrṇavābhi.' (1) This is the name of a pupil of Kaundinya mentioned in a Vamśa (list of teachers) of the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.¹ (2) A teacher of this name is frequently referred to in the Nirukta. His explanations in two passages² agree with those of the Nairukta.

¹ iv. 5, 26 (Mādhyāndina recension).
² vii. 15; xii. 19.
or etymological school of interpreters of the Rigveda. In other passages he appears rather to belong to the school of the Aïthâsîkas, who relied on traditional legends. He was thus probably, as Sieg suggests, an eclectic.

Aurva, 'descendant of Uru or Urva,' appears in the Rigveda in close connexion with Bhṛgu, being probably a Bhṛgu himself. As in one passage of the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, the descendants of Aitaśa are called the worst of the Aurvas, while the parallel version of the Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa calls them the worst of the Bhrgus, the Aurvas must have been a branch of the larger family of the Bhrgus. Aurva himself is said in the Taittirīya Samhitā to have received offspring from Atri. In the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa two Aurvas are referred to as authorities. See also Kutsa.

Aulana is a word occurring in a single passage of the Rigveda, where it may possibly be a patronymic of Saṃtanu as a 'descendant of Ula.' Ludwig, however, conjectures that the reading should be 'Kaulana.' Sieg regards Aulana as a later descendant of Saṃtanu, who utilized the story of Devāpi's rain-making as an introduction to his rain hymn.

Aulundya, 'descendant of Uuluṇḍa,' is the patronymic of Supratīta in the Vāṃśa Brāhmaṇa.
Aušija, 'descendant of Usij,' is a patronymic clearly applied to Kakšivan in the Rigveda.\(^1\) It is also applied to Rjişvan,\(^2\) but Ludwig\(^3\) thinks that the correct reading of the passage in question is ausijasyarjiśvā, 'Rjişvan, son of Aušija.' In one verse\(^4\) Aušija and Kakšivan are both mentioned, but in such a way that two different persons must apparently be meant. In other passages where the patronymic occurs alone, it is doubtful who is meant, or whether a proper name at all is intended.\(^5\) Kakšivan Aušija appears also in the Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa\(^6\) and elsewhere.

\(^1\) i. 18, 1.  
\(^2\) x. 99, 11.  
\(^3\) Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 143, 149.  
\(^4\) Rv. i. 112, 11.  
\(^5\) Rv. i. 119, 9; 122, 4; iv. 21, 6, 7;  
\(^6\) xiv. 11, 16. See Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, xv. 56, n., and Kakšivan, n. 15.

Aušrākṣi, 'descendant of Uṣṭrākṣa,' occurs as the patronymic of Sāti in the Vamśa Brāhmaṇa.\(^1\)


K.  

Kamśa, a word denoting a 'pot or vessel of metal,' occurs in the Atharvaveda and elsewhere.\(^1\)

\(^1\) Av. x. 10, 5; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vi. 3, 1, etc.; Nirukta, vii. 23; Śāṅkhāvīi. 10; Bhāḍāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vii. 10; Yāna Arānyaka, xii. 8.

Kakara occurs in the Yajurveda Samhītās\(^1\) as the name of a victim at the horse sacrifice (Aśvamedha). It probably denotes some 'sort of bird,' as rendered by the commentator Mahīdhara.\(^2\)

\(^1\) Maitrāyani Samhītā, iii. 14, 1; Vājasaneyi Samhītā, xx. 24.  

Kakuṭha, a word occurring in the Maitrāyani Samhītā, presumably denotes some kind of animal. According to Böhtlingk,\(^2\) it is identical with Kakkaṭa.

\(^1\) iii. 14, 13.  
\(^2\) Dictionary, s.v.
Kakuha, a word occurring several times in the Rigveda, is understood by Roth to designate part of a chariot, perhaps the seat. Ludwig, again, regards it in one passage as the proper name of a Yadava prince who took spoil from Tirindira, the Parsu, but this view is hardly probable. It is, on the whole, most likely that the word always means ‘chief,’ ‘pre-eminent,’ being applied as an epithet to horses, chariots, princes, etc.

This is the only sense given by Grassmann, and later adopted by Roth.

1 Kakkata denotes the ‘crab’ in the Yajurveda Samhitas, being a Prakritized form of Karkata, which is common in the later literature. Roth, however, takes the word to mean a bird, and compares Kakara. See also Kakutha.

2 Kakaṣa is the name of two men mentioned as teachers in a Vamśa (list of teachers) of the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa. One is Kakaṣa Vārakya, pupil of Proṣṭhapada Vārakya, and the other Kakaṣa Vārāki or Vārakya, pupil of Dakṣa Kātyāyani Atreya. See also Urukakṣa.

3 Kaksivant is the name of a Rṣi mentioned frequently in the Rigveda, and occasionally elsewhere. He appears to have been a descendant of a female slave named Usij. He must have been a Pajra by family, as he bears the epithet Pajriya.
and his descendants are called Pajras. In a hymn of the Rigveda he celebrates the prince Svanaya Bhāvyā, who dwelt on the Sindhu (Indus), as having bestowed magnificent gifts on him; and the list of Nārāsamśas (‘Praises of Heroes’) in the Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra mentions one by Kāśivant Ausjī in honour of Svanaya Bhāvayavya. In his old age he obtained as a wife the maiden Vṛcayā. He appears to have lived to be a hundred, the typical length of life in the Vedas. He seems always to be thought of as belonging to the past, and in a hymn of the fourth book of the Rigveda he is mentioned with the semi-mythical Kutsa and Kavi Uśanas. Later, also, he is a teacher of bygone days.

In Vedic literature he is not connected with Dirghatamas beyond being once mentioned along with him in a hymn of the Rigveda. But in the Bṛhaddevatā he appears as a son of Dirghatamas by a slave woman, Uśij.

Weber considers that Kāśivant was originally a Kṣatriya, not a Brāhmaṇa, quoting in favour of this view the fact that he is mentioned beside kings like Para Āṭnāra, Vīthahavya Śrāyasa, and Trasadasyu Paurukutsya. But that these are all kings is an unnecessary assumption: these persons are mentioned in the passages in question undoubtedly only as famous men of old, to whom are ascribed mythical sacrificial performances, and who thus gained numerous sons.

Kaṅka is the name of a bird, usually taken to mean ‘heron,’ but, at any rate in some passages, rather denoting some bird of prey. It first appears in the Yajurveda Saṃhitā.

1 Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 92.
2 Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. Cf. Sāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka, xii. 13.
3 Taittiriya Saṃhitā, v. 4, 11, 1 (kaṅka-cit, an altar ‘piled in the form of a heron’); Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. 31; Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 12; Śāma-veda, ii. 9, 3, 6, 1.

6 Rv. i. 126, 4.
7 i. 126.
8 xvii. 4, 5.
9 Rv. i. 51, 13.
10 Rv. ix. 74, 8.
11 iv. 26, 1.
12 vii. 9, 10.
13 iv. 11 et seq.
14 Episches im vedischen Ritual, 22-25.
15 Kāthaka Saṃhitā, v. 6, 5, 3; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, i. 21, 6, 7; Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, ii. 6, 11.
16 Av. iv. 29, 5; xviii. 3, 15; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 21, 6, 7; Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, ii. 6, 11.
17 xviii. 3, 15; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 21, 6, 7; Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, ii. 6, 11.
Kaṅkata is the name of an animal mentioned once in the Rigveda. According to Sāyaṇa it is a destructive beast; perhaps, as Grassmann renders it, a 'scorpion.'


Kaṅkatiya is the name of a family said in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa to have learned from Śāndilya the piling up of the sacrificial fire (agni-tayana). In the Āpastamba Śrauta Sūtra a Kaṅkati Brāhmaṇa, no doubt the textbook of the school, is referred to. It may have been identical with the Chāgaleya Brāhmaṇa, cited in the Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra.

¹ ix. 4, 4, 17.
² xiv. 20, 4.
³ xxv. 5. Cf. Caland, Über das rituelle Šutra des Baudhāyana, 40.

Kaṅka-parvan ('heron-jointed?'), a term occurring once in the Atharvaveda, is applied to a snake, meaning perhaps 'scorpion.' As the Paippalāda recension has a different reading (aṅga-parvanaḥ), the passage may be corrupt.

¹ vii. 56, 1. Cf. Zimmer, Allindisches Leben, 94; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 426; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 553; Böhtlingk, Dictionary, s v.

Kata denotes a 'mat,' which was 'made of reeds' (vaitasa). The maker of mats from reeds (bidala-kāri) is mentioned in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, and the process of splitting reeds for the purpose is referred to in the Atharvaveda.

¹ Taittiriya Saṃhitā, v. 3, 12, 2. Cf. Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 3, 1, 3.
² xxx. 8, with Mahidhara's Commentary. Bidala-kāra is read in the Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 5, 1.

Kaṇṭakī-kāri, 'worker in thorns,' is one of the victims at the human sacrifice (Puruṣamedha) in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā. No doubt the thorns were cut up and used to plait mats (Kata) or to stuff cushions.

¹ xxx, 8. The Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, iii.4, 5, 1, has kaṇṭaka-kāra. Cf. Zimmer, Allindisches Leben, 255.
Kaṇva is the name of an ancient Rṣi repeatedly referred to in the Rigveda and later. His sons and descendants, the Kaṇvas, are also often mentioned, especially in the eighth book of the Rigveda, the authorship of that book, as well as of part of the first, being attributed to this family. A descendant of Kaṇva is also denoted by the name in the singular, either alone or accompanied by a patronymic, as Kaṇva Nārṣada and Kaṇva Śrāyasa, besides in the plural the Kaṇvas Sauśrava-sas. The Kaṇva family appears to have been connected with the Atri family, but not to have been of great importance. In one passage of the Atharvaveda they seem to be definitely regarded with hostility.

1 Rv. i. 36, 8, 10, 11, 17, 19; 39, 7, 9; 47, 5; ii. 11, 5; 117, 18; 118, 7; 139, 9; v. 41, 4; vii. 5, 23, 25; 7, 18; 8, 20, 49, 10; 50, 16; x. 71, 11, 115, 5, 150, 5; Av. iv. 37, 1; vii. 15, 1; xviii. 3, 15; Vājasaneyi Śaṁhitā, xvii. 74; Pāṇca-vinśa Brāhmaṇa, vii. 2, 2; ix. 2, 6; Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, xxviii. 8, Kaṇva-vat occurs in Rv. viii. 6, 11; 52, 8; Av. ii. 32, 3; Kaṇva-mant in Rv. viii. 2, 22.

2 As Kaṇvaḥ (in the plural), Rv. i. 14, 2, 5; 37, 1, 14; 44, 8; 46, 9; 47, 2; 4-10; 49, 4; vii. 2, 16; 3, 16; 4, 2, 3; 5, 4; 6, 3, 18, 21, 31, 34, 47; 7, 32; 8, 3, 9, 14; 32, 1; 33, 3; 34, 4; as Kanva-sya śiṇavaḥ, Rv. i. 45, 5; as pūrṇaḥ, viii. 8, 4, 8; as Kānva-yayanaḥ, vii. 55, 4. Kaṇva is found in viii. 1, 8; 2, 40; 4, 20; 7, 19; 9, 3, 9; 10, 2.

3 E.g., Rv. i. 48, 4; viii. 34, 1, and probably elsewhere.

4 Rv. i. 117, 8; Av. iv. 19, 2; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 150.

5 Taittirīya Saṁhitā, v. 4, 7, 5; Kāṭhaka Saṁhitā, xvi. 8; Maitrāyaṇī Saṁhitā, iii. 3, 9.

6 Kāṭhaka Saṁhitā, xiii. 12. There is also Vatsa Kaṇva in Śāṅkhāyaṇa Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. 11, 20.

7 Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 214.


9 Av. ii. 25. Cf. Vārttika on Pāṇini, iii. 1, 14; Bergaigne, Religion Védique, 2, 465; Hillebrandt, op. cit., 1, 207; Oldenberg, Rigveda-Noten, 1, 110.

Kathā.—The later use of this word in the sense of a ‘philosophical discussion’ appears in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad.

1 Colebrooke, Miscellaneous Essays, 1, 293.

2 i. 8, 1: ḫaṭoḍgīth ḫaṭhāṇa vadāṇa, ‘let us begin a discussion regarding the Udgitha.’

Kadrū, a word occurring only once in the Rigveda, is interpreted by Ludwig as the name of a priest, but it more probably means a Soma vessel.

1 viii. 45, 26.

2 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 162.

3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
Kanaknaka, a word occurring once in the Atharvaveda,\(^1\) either denotes a poison or is an adjective qualifying kañḍā-vaśa, a species of poison.

\(^1\) x. 4, 22. Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns | Translation of the Atharvaveda, of the Atharvaveda, 604; Whitney, 578.

Kanā, Kanyā.—Both these words, of which the former is very rare,\(^2\) while the latter is the normal term from the Rigveda\(^3\) onwards, denote 'maidan' or 'young woman.' It is doubtful whether Kanīnakā (accented on the final syllable) has this meaning,\(^4\) or only denotes the pupil of the eye,\(^5\) which is the sense of kanīnakā or kanīnikā (both accented on the antepenultimate) in the later Saṁhitās and the Brāhmaṇas. See also Stī.\(^6\)

\(^1\) RV. x. 61, 5, etc. | neither of the RV. passages is at all clear.
\(^2\) i. 123, 10; 161, 5; ii. 23, 10, etc. | 4 See Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 401; Keith, Atharva-Āraṇyaka, 207. Other rare forms are kanyanā, RV. viii. 35, 5; kanyalā, Av. v. 5. 3; xiv. 2, 52.
\(^3\) Av. i. 14, 2; xi. 5, 18; xii. 1, 25, etc. | Kapanā, from its solitary occurrence in the Rigveda,\(^1\) appears to mean a 'worm' that destroys the leaves of trees, and is so interpreted in the Nirukta.\(^2\)

\(^1\) v. 54, 6. | Leben, 97; Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32, 330.
\(^2\) vi. 4. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches | Kaparda, 'braid,' Kapardin, 'wearing braids.' These words refer to the Vedic custom of wearing the hair in braids or plaits. Thus a maiden is said to have her hair in four plaits (catus-kapardā),\(^1\) and the goddess Sinīvālī is described as 'wearing fair braids' (su-kapardā).\(^2\) Men also wore their hair in this style, for both Rudra\(^3\) and Pūṣan\(^4\) are said to have done so, while the Vasiṣṭhas\(^5\) were distinguished by wearing their hair in a plait on the right (dakṣiṇatās-kaparda). The opposite was to wear one's hair 'plain' (pulasti).\(^6\) See also Opasa.

\(^1\) RV. x. 114, 3. | 5 RV. vii. 33, 1. Cf. 83, 8.
\(^2\) Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, xi. 56. | 6 Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, xvi. 43. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 264, 265; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, v. 462; Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32, 424.
1. Kapi, 'monkey,' occurs only once in the Rigveda with reference to Vṛṣā-kapi, the 'Man-ape,' in the dialogue of Indra and Indrāṇī in the presence of Vṛṣākapi. There the ape is termed the 'tawny' (harita). In the Atharvaveda the monkey is mentioned several times as hairy, and an enemy of dogs. That the ape was tamed appears from its position in the Vṛṣākapi hymn, and from the mention, in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā, of a Mayu as belonging to the forest. See also Mayu, Markaṭa, and Puruṣa Hastin.

2. Kapi is, according to the St. Petersburg Dictionary, another name for Luṣa Khārgali in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā (xxx. 2), but the name appears rather to be Luṣākapi.

Kapiṇjala, the name of the 'francoline partridge' or 'hazel-cock,' is found in all the Yajurveda Saṃhitās, and occasionally later.

Kapila appears in the Śvetāsvatara Upaniṣad as a teacher, according to Weber and Garbe, who think that the expression kapila ṛṣiḥ there refers to the founder of the Sāṅkhya philosophy. But this is doubtful.

East, 2, xli, and Deussen, in his translation (Sechsel Upanishads, 304), do not take the word as a teacher's name. The latter renders kapila ṛṣiḥ, by 'the red sage,' as referring to Hiranyagarbha.
Kapi-vana Bhauvāyana is mentioned as a teacher in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās\(^1\) and the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.\(^2\) A rite called Kapivana’s Dvyaḥa (‘ceremony lasting two days’) is also referred to in the Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra.\(^3\)

Kapota is the name of a bird, probably the ‘pigeon’ (its sense in the later language), occurring from the Rigveda onwards.\(^1\) It is associated in some passages\(^2\) with the owl (Uḻuka) as a messenger of Nirṛti (‘dissolution,’ ‘misfortune’). This aspect of the pigeon as a bird of evil omen is probably based on an ancient belief which is also found beyond the confines of India.\(^3\)

Kabandha Ātharvāṇa is mentioned in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad\(^1\) along with Sudhanvan Āṅgirasa, as a teacher, but is semi-mythical. His son was Vicārin Kābandhi.

Kama-dyu appears once in the Rigveda\(^1\) as the wife of Vimada. She is probably identical with the ‘maiden’ (yosī) of Purumitra, no doubt his daughter. She is elsewhere\(^2\) referred to in connexion with Vimada, who appears to have taken her for his bride against the will of her father.

Kambala denotes in the Atharvaveda\(^1\) a ‘woollen coverlet’ or ‘blanket.’
Kamboja.—Yāska, in the Nirukta,\(^1\) refers to the speech of the Kambojas as differing from that of the other Āryas. The Kambojas were later settled to the north-west of the Indus, and are known as Kambujiya in the old Persian inscriptions. A teacher, Kamboja Aupamanyava, pupil of Madragāra, is mentioned in the Vāṃśa Brāhmaṇa.\(^2\) This points to a possible connexion of the Madras, or more probably the Uttara Madras, with the Kambojas, who probably had Iranian as well as Indian affinities.

\(^1\) ii. 2.
\(^2\) Indische Studien, 4, 372.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 102; Weber, Indische Streifen, 2, 493; 3, 384; Indische Studien, 10, 7; Épîches im vedischen Ritual, 45; Max Müller, Zeit-
schrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 7, 373. On the relation of Indian and Iranian, see also Jacobi, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1909, 721 et seq.; Oldenberg, ibid., 1095 et seq.; Keith, ibid., 1100 et seq.; Kennedy, ibid., 1107 et seq.; and see Parsū.

Karaṇja, a word which in the Sūtras and later denotes the tree \textit{Pongamia glabra}, occurs only twice in the Rigveda\(^1\) as the name of a foe of Indra, but whether a demon or a man\(^2\) is intended remains uncertain.

\(^1\) i. 53, 8; x. 48, 8.
\(^2\) Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 63; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 149; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 3, 292.

Karambha is the name, from the Rigveda onwards,\(^3\) of a kind of porridge made of grain (Yava), which was unhusked, parched slightly, and kneaded.\(^2\) It was the especial sacrificial portion of Pūsaṇ, no doubt in his capacity of an agricultural deity. Karambha was also made of barley (Upavāka)\(^3\) or of sesame (Tīrya).\(^4\)

\(^1\) Rv. i. 187, 16; iii. 52, 7; vi. 56, 1; 57, 2; viii. 102, 2; Av. iv. 7; 2. 3; vi. 16, 1; Taittiriya Saṃhitā, i. 1, 10, 2; vi. 5, 11, 4, etc.
\(^2\) Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 5, 2, 14; iv. 2, 4, 18. Cf. Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 317; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, 395, n. 1.
\(^3\) Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xix. 22.
Karkari] SNAKE—MANURE—JUJUBE—LUTE 139

Karikrata denotes, according to Zimmer, a snake in the Atharvaveda.1

1 Altindisches Leben, 95
2 x. 4, 13. The Paippalāda version has Kanikrada.

Karīra, the name of a leafless shrub, Capparis aphylla, or its fruit, first appears in the Taittirīya Saṁhitā.1

1 ii. 4, 9, 2; Kāṭhaka Saṁhitā, xi. 11; xxxvi. 7; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 5, 2, 11.

Karīṣa denotes ‘dry cow dung’ in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.1 The Atharvaveda2 shows that the value of the natural manure of animals in the fields was appreciated.

1 ii. 1, 7. 2 Av. iii. 14, 3. 4; xix. 31, 3.
Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 236.

1. Karkandhu is the ordinary word for ‘jujube,’ the tree (Zizyphus jujuba) and the fruit, from the Yajurveda Saṁhitās onwards.1 The berry is red (rohita).2 Compare Kuvala and Badara, which denote the fruit.

1 Kāṭhaka Saṁhitā, xii. 10; Maitrayaṇi Saṁhitā, iii. 11, 2; Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, xix. 23, 91; xxii. 16, 1; xxiv. 12; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 5, 4, 10; xii. 7,
2, 9; 9, 1, 5, etc.; Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 156, 5.
2 Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, xxiv. 2.

2. Karkandhu is only the name borne by a protégé of the Aśvins in the Rigveda (i. 112, 6). Its identity with the word for jujube indicates that the latter, though not otherwise mentioned there, was known at the time of the Rigveda.

Karkari, a musical instrument, probably the ‘lute,’ occurs from the Rigveda onwards.1 The Maitrayaṇi Saṁhitā2 mentions cattle branded on the ears with a mark resembling a lute (karkari-karnyah).

1 Rv. ii. 43, 3; Av. iv. 37, 4. Cf. 2 iv. 2, 9. Cf. Delbrück, Gurupujā-
xx. 132, 3. 8.
Karki may denote in one passage of the Atharvaveda a ‘white cow,’ according to the suggestion of Roth.


Karna-śobhana denotes an ‘ornament for the ear’ in the Rigveda, apparently for the use of men. Some deity is called ‘gold-eared’ in another passage of the Rigveda. Hopkins considers the use of ear-rings later than that of necklets and wristlets.

Karna-śravas Āṅgirasa is mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xiii. 11, 14) as a seer of Sāmans or chants, the same tale being told of him as of Dāvasu.

Karmāra, the ‘smith,’ is several times mentioned with approval in the Vedic Saṃhitās. In the Atharvaveda smiths appear with fishermen (dhiṅvānah) and chariot-builders (ratha-kārāḥ), all being classified as clever workers (maniśinah): possibly a quasi-caste of smiths was already developing from the guild organization that probably existed.

Little is known of the smith’s methods of work and of his tools. No doubt he smelted (dhmā) the ore in the fire; hence he is called dhmatr, the ‘smelter.’

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1 Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 144; and Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 92, take the reference to be to ‘skilled chariot-makers’ (dhiṅvāno ratha-kārāḥ) and ‘clever smiths,’ but this is perhaps less likely. The commentator interprets dhiṅvānai as ‘fishermen’ (in the later language dhiṅvāra means both a ‘clever man’ and a ‘fisherman’).

2 iii. 5, 6. The exact sense of the passage is doubtful. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 252; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 144; and Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 92.

3 Cf. Fick, Die sociale Gliederung, 182.

4 Rv. v. 9, 5.
his bellows of birds' feathers. He made metal vessels (gharma ayasmaya) to be put on the fire: even the Soma cup could occasionally be made of hammered metal (ayo-hata).

5 Rv. ix. 112, 2. 6 Rv. v. 30, 15. 7 Rv. ix. 1, 2.

**Karvara,** a word found in one passage of the Atharvaveda, seems to mean some kind of fish caught by a fisherman (paññijistha).

1 x. 4, 19. 2 Zimmer, *Altindisches Leben,* 96; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 578.

**Karṣū,** a rare word found in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, denotes a ‘furrow’ or ‘trench.’

1 i. 8, 1, 3; xiii. 8, 3, 10. Cf. Schrader, *Prehistoric Antiquities,* 283.

**Kalaviṅka,** a name of the ‘sparrow,’ is found in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās, and occasionally later.

1 Taittiriya Saṃhitā, ii. 5, 1, 2; Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 1; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xii. 10; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. 20, 31. 2 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 6, 3, 4.

**Kalasa,** a common word for ‘pot’ or ‘jar,’ probably either formed of a gourd or made of clay (unburnt or baked), as we know that both kinds of pot were in use. The wooden Soma tub (drona-kalaśa) is frequently referred to in the ritual. See also **Kośa.**

1 Rv. i. 117, 12; iii. 32, 15; iv. 27, 5; 32, 19, etc.; Av. iii. 12, 7; ix. 1, 6; 4, 15; xviii. 4, 13, etc. In Rv. x. 32, 9, the word, according to the St. Petersburg Dictionary, is used as a proper name, but the passage is very doubtful. 2 Av. iv. 17, 4; Taittiriya Saṃhitā, i. 1, 8, 1; iv. 1, 5, 4; v. 1, 7, 2; Vāja-

Kalā denotes a fractional part, normally 'one-sixteenth,' in the Rigveda¹ and later.² It is often mentioned in connexion with Sapha, 'one-eighth.'

¹ viii. 47, 17.
² Av. vi. 96, 3; xix. 57, 1; Taittiriya Saṃhitā, vi. 1, 10, 1; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 7, 7; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, vi. 3, 1; xii. 8, 3, 13, etc.; Nirukta, xi. 12. Cf. Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 16, 278; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 259.

1. Kali. See Akṣa.

2. Kali occurs in the Rigveda, twice in the singular¹ as the name of a protégé of the Āśvins, and once in the plural.² The persons meant in the latter passage seem to be different from the former one. The Kalis are once mentioned in the Atharvaveda³ beside the Gandharvas.⁴

¹ i. 112, 15; x. 39, 8.
² viii. 66, 15.
³ x. 10, 13.
⁴ These Kalis may be connected with dicing, as in the Atharvaveda the Apsaras, the wives of the Gandharvas, are fond of dice, and bestow luck at play. See Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 135.

Kalpa in the Taittirīya Āranyaka (ii. 10) seems to denote Kalpa Sūtra.

Kalmāṣa-grīva ('speckled-neck') is the name of a snake in the Atharvaveda.¹

¹ i. 112, 15; x. 39, 8.
² viii. 66, 15.
³ x. 10, 13.

Kalyāṇa is the name, in the Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa,¹ of an Āṅgirasa who saw the Aurñāyava Sāman.

¹ xii. 11, 10. Cf. Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 68, n. 2.
Kavaca denotes a ‘corselet’ or ‘breastplate’ in the Atharvaveda and later. There is nothing to show whether it was made of metal, but that it was so is quite possible (see Varman). The Atharvaveda refers to a ‘corselet-strap’ (kavaca-pāsa), which may point to a linen corselet such as those known to Herodotus.

1 Av. xi. 10, 22 (kavacin).
2 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 2, 2, 7; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 19, 2; Nirukta, v. 25 (kavaca); Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 1, 6, 3; 4, 1, 5; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 48; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xvi. 45 (kavacin).

Kavaśa is mentioned in a hymn of the Rigveda as one of those whom, together with the Druhyu king, Indra overthrew for the Trttsus. The Anukramaṇi (Index) also attributes to him the authorship of several hymns of the Rigveda, including two (x. 32, 33) that deal with a prince Kurūśravaṇa and his descendant Upamaśravas. There seems no reason to doubt this attribution, which is accepted by both Zimmer and Geldner. The former holds that Kavaśa was the Purohita of the joint tribes named Vaikarpa, in whom he sees the Kuru-Krivi (Paucāla) peoples, and that Kavaśa in that capacity is mentioned in the Rigveda as representative of those peoples. He also suggests that the language of Rigveda x. 33, 4 is best explained by the reduced position in which the Kuru-Krivis found themselves on their defeat by the Trttsus. Ludwig, on the other hand, thinks that Kavaśa was the priest of the five peoples. Geldner holds that Kavaśa was the Purohita of Kurūśravaṇa, by whose son, Upamaśravas, he was ill-treated, and that he composed Rigveda x. 33 to deprecate the anger of his royal master. Hopkins thinks that he was a king.

In the Brāhmaṇas of the Rigveda mention is made of

1 vili. 18, 12.
2 Altindisches Leben, 127.
3 Vedische Studien, 2, 150.
4 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 139.
5 Loc. cit.
7 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 19; Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, xii. 1, 3.

Kavaša Ailūśa, who was a Brāhmaṇa born of a female slave, and was reproached on this ground by the other Rṣis. He is possibly identical with the Kavaša of the Rigveda.

Kāśa is the name of an unknown animal mentioned as a victim at the horse sacrifice in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās.¹

¹ Taittirīya Saṃhitā, v. 5, 17, 1; | 38. Cf. Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 7, 18, 1; Vājasaneyī Saṃhitā, xxiv. 26; | Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 84.

Kāśikā is the name of an animal mentioned once in the Rigveda,¹ and interpreted as ‘weasel’ by the commentator Sāyaṇa. Fick² suggests that the meaning is ‘pole - cat.’ Geldner³ takes it as ‘female ichneumon.’


Kāśipu denotes a ‘mat’ or ‘cushion’ made, according to the Atharvaveda,¹ by women from reeds (uṇḍa), which they crushed for the purpose by means of stones. On the other hand, the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa² refers to a mat as made of gold.

¹ vi. 138, 5. ² xiii. 4, 3, 1.

Kāśu is the name of a prince mentioned in the Rigveda with the patronymic Caidya, or descendant of Cedi, as a generous patron of the singer, who praises the liberality of the Cedis. Neither this king nor the Cedis appear again in Vedic literature.


Kāso-jū occurs once in the Rigveda (i. 112, 14) either as a proper name or as an epithet of Divodāsa. The sense of the word is quite uncertain.

Kāśyapa, a word denoting ‘tortoise,’ occurs in the Atharvaveda¹ and often later.²

¹ iv. 20, 7. ² Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 18; Vājasaneyī Saṃhitā, xxiv. 37; Sata-patha Brāhmaṇa, vii. 5, 1, 5; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 6. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 18, 86; Bloomfield, American Journal of Philology, 17, 403.
Kayapa is the name of a sage who is mentioned only once in the Rigveda, but is a common figure in the later Samhitās. He is always of a mythical character, as belonging to the distant past. According to the Aitareya Brähmana, he anointed King Viśvakarman Bhauvana, and in the Upaniṣads he is mentioned as a Rṣi. The Kayapas appear in connexion with Janamejaya in the Aitareya Brähmana.

1. ix. 114, 2. 2. Samaveda, i. 1, 2, 4, 10; 4, 2, 3, 2 (but in these passages the St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., accepts the sense of a divine being, identical with Prajāpatī); Av. i. 14, 4; ii. 33, 7; iv. 20, 7; 29, 3; 37, 1; Maitrāyaṇī Śaṃhitā, iv. 2, 9; Vājasaneyi Śaṃhitā, iii. 62.

Kayapa Naidhruvi is mentioned as a teacher in the last Vamsa (list of teachers) of the Śatapatha Brähmana.

Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 4, 33 (Mādhyaṃdina=vii. 5, 3, Kāṇva).

Kaśkaṇa designates a kind of worm in the Atharvaveda.

Kasarnīla is the name of a kind of snake in the Atharvaveda. It occurs also in the form Kasarnīra, personified as the seer Kasarnīra Kadraveya in the Taittirīya Śaṃhitā.

Ka-stambhī denotes in the Śatapatha Brähmaṇa a piece of wood used as a prop for the end of a wagon-pole to rest on.

Kahoda Kauśitaki or Kauśitakeya is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brähmaṇa, the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, and the Sāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka, as a teacher, contemporary with Yājinavalkya. Cf. Kahodi.

1. Satapatha Brähmaṇa, ii. 4, 3, 1; Sāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka, xv. 2. Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, iii. 5, 1.
Kâkambîra is the name in the Rigveda\(^1\) of a useful tree of some kind.


Kâkṣa-seni is the patronymic (‘son of Kakṣasena’) of Abhipratārīn in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xiv. i, 12).

Kâkṣivata. See Nodhas.

Kāthaka, the name of the recension of the Black Yajurveda belonging to the school of the Kāthas, is mentioned in the Nirukta\(^1\) of Yāska and in the Anupada Sūtra.\(^2\) The Saṃhitā which bears the name has been in part edited by L. v. Schroeder.\(^3\)

\(^1\) x. 4.
\(^2\) iii. 11; vii. 11.

Kāṇṭhe-viddhi (‘descendant of Kāṇṭheviddha’) is mentioned as a teacher in the Vaṃśa Brāhmaṇa.\(^1\)

\(^1\) *Indische Studien*, 4, 382.

Kāṇḍa-viṇā, the name of a musical instrument, a kind of lute made out of joints of reed, which is mentioned as used at the Mahāvrata ceremony in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā.\(^1\)

\(^1\) xxxiv. 5 (*Indische Studien*, 3, 477); Kāṭyāyana Srauta Sūtra, xiii. 3, 16; *Cf*. Lāṭyāyana Srauta Sūtra, iv. 2, 6; Sāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvii. 3, 12.

Kāṇḍviya is mentioned as an Udgātṛ in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 10, 2).

Kāṇva. See Kāṇva: among others, Devātithi, Medhātithi, Vatsa, were prominent members of the Kāṇva family.
Kānvī-putra is mentioned as a pupil of Kapiputra in the last Vamśa (list of teachers) of the Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad.¹

¹ vi. 5, 1 (Kānva recension).

Kānvāyana ('descendant of Kaṇva') and Kānvāyāyana ('descendant of Kaṇvya') are patronymics occurring in the Rigveda¹ and the Śadvimśa Brāhmaṇa² respectively.

¹ viii. 55, 4.
² Indische Studien, 1, 38; Sāyaṇa on RV. i. 51, 1; viii. 2, 40.

Kātyāyani. See Dakṣa.

Kātyāyani is the name of one of the two wives of Yājñavalkya in the Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad.¹

¹ ii. 4, 1; iv. 5, 1. 2. A Kātya appears in the Baudhāyana Śrauta Śutra, ii. 15 et seq. See Weber, Indian Literature, 138.

Kātyāyani-putra, 'son of Kātyāyani,' is mentioned in the last Vamśa (list of teachers) of the Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad¹ as a pupil of Gotamiputra and of Kauśikīputra. A Jātukarnya Kātyāyaniputra is named as a teacher in the Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka.²


Kānāndha is mentioned in the Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra (xxi. 10) as son of Vadhryaśva.

Kānīta is the patronymic ('son of Kanīta') in the Rigveda¹ of Prthuśravas.

¹ viii. 46, 21. 24. Cf. Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. 11, 23.

Kānīna in the Atharvaveda¹ apparently denotes the 'son of a maiden.' See Pati.

Kāṇḍā-viṣa in the Atharvaveda (x. 4, 22) denotes some kind of poison. Cf. Kanaknaka.

Kāpaṭāva Su-nītha is mentioned in the Vāṃśa Brāhmaṇa in the Atharvaveda (x. 4, 22) as a pupil of Sutemanas Śāṇḍilyāyana.

Kāpileya.—The Kāpilyas and the Bābhravas are mentioned in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa as descendants of Devarāta Vaiśvāmitra, the adoptive name of Śunahṣepea.

Kāpi-putra ('son of Kāpi') is mentioned in the last Vāṃśa (list of teachers) of the Kāṇya recension of the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (vi. 5, 1) as a pupil of Ātreyīputra.

Kāpeya ('descendant of Kapi'). The Kāpeyas are mentioned as priests of Citraratha in the Kāṭhaka Śaṃhitā and the Paṅcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa. See also Śaunaka.

Kāpya ('descendant of Kapi') is the patronymic of Sanaka and Navaka, two obviously fictitious persons who served at the Sattrā ('sacrificial session') of the Vibhundikīyas in the Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa. It is also the patronymic of Patañcalā in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad. See also Kāśorya.

Kābandhi ('descendant of Kabandha') is the patronymic of Vicārīn in the Gopatha Brāhmaṇa (i. 2, 9. 18).

Kāma-pri ('descendant of Kāmapra') is the patronymic of Marutta in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (viii. 21). In the St. Petersburg Dictionary it is suggested that the reading in this passage should be kāmapre, 'fulfilling desires,' as an epithet of the sacrifice (yajñē).
Kāmalāyana ('descendant of Kamala') is the patronymic of Upakosala in the Chândogya Upaniṣad (iv. 10, 1).

Kāmpila.—In one passage of the Yajurveda Saṃhitās the epithet Kāmpila-vāsini is applied to a woman, perhaps the king's Mahiṣī or chief wife, whose duty it was to sleep beside the slaughtered animal at the horse sacrifice (Āsvamedha). The exact interpretation of the passage is very uncertain, but both Weber and Zimmer agree in regarding Kāmpila as the name of the town known as Kāmpilya in the later literature, and the capital of Pañcāla in Madhyadeśa.

1 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vii. 4, 19, 1; Maitrāyani Saṃhitā, iii. 12, 20; Kāthaka Saṃhitā, Āsvamedha, iv. 8; Vājyasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxiii. 18; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 9, 6; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 2, 8, 3.

2 Indische Studien, 1, 184; Indian Literature, 114, 115.

Kāmboja ('native of Kamboja') Aupamanyava ('descendant of Upamanyu') is mentioned as a teacher in the Vamśa Brāhmaṇa.¹

1 Weber, Indische Studien, 4, 372; Eposch im vedischen Ritual, 45; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 102.

Kārapacava is the name in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa of a place on the Yamunā.

1 xxv. 10, 23. Cf. Āśvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xii. 6; Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xiii. 29, 25; Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xxiv. 6, 10; Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 34.

Kāraskara is the name of a people mentioned in the Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra¹ and the Āpastamba² and Hiraṇyakesi³ Sūtras.


2 xxii. 6, 18.

Kāri is the name of one of the victims of the human sacrifice (Puruṣamedha) in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, and is there dedicated to 'laughter.' The commentator Mahīdhara interprets the word as 'worker' (karana-sīla), but the St. Petersburg Dictionary suggests that it means a 'jubilant' person (as derived from the root kr, 'to praise').

1 xxx. 6. 20; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa,
2 On Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, loc. cit.

Kārirādi is the name of persons mentioned in the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (ii. 4, 4) as holding a special view of the Udgītha (Sāmaveda Chant).

Kāru, 'poet,' is a word almost confined to the Rigveda. There is evidence that the poet was regarded as a professional man, just as much as the physician (Bhiṣaj). The poets, no doubt, mainly lived at the courts of princes amid their retainers, though they would probably also sing the praises of rich merchants. There was probably no essential connexion between the priest and the poet. Though the priest was often a poet, yet poetry can hardly have been restricted to the priestly caste. Indeed, at the horse sacrifice (Aśvamedha) the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa expressly requires that one of the singers of pangeyrics should be a Rājanya, while the other was a Brāhmaṇa, both singing verses of their own composition. The Anukramanī (Index) in several cases attributes hymns of the Rigveda to princes; and even though this may often be merely the same sort of procedure as has made Śūdraka the author of the Mṛcchakaṭākā, or Harṣa of the Ratnāvalī, and has given us royal teachers of the Brahman doctrine, still the Indian tradition evidently saw nothing odd in the idea of non-Brāhmaṇas as poets. Most of the non-sacred poetry has,

1 i. 148, 2; 165, 12; 177, 5; 178, 3;
ii. 43, 1; iii. 33, 8; 39, 7; v. 33, 7;
vi. 27; 68, 9; 72, 4, etc.; Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, i. 8, 7; Gopatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 2, 21.
2 ix. 112, 3.
3 vii. 73, 1.
4 xiii. 1, 5, 1; 4, 3, 5.
5 E.g., x. 92 is attributed to Śāryāta Mānava.
however, disappeared, for the epic is a product, as it stands, of a later period. See also Ṛṣi.

Kārotara appears to denote in the Rigveda,1 and occasionally later,2 a ‘filter’ or ‘sieve’ for purifying the liquor called Surā.

1 i. 116, 7. 2 Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, xix. 16. 82; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xii. 9, 1, 2;

Kāroṭī is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (ix. 5, 2, 15) as a place, or perhaps a river, where Tura Kāvaṣeyā made a fire-altar—that is, as a seat of the fire-cult par excellence.

Kārśakeyi-putra (‘son of Kārśakeyi’) is the name of a man mentioned in the last Vāṃśa (list of teachers) of the Brāhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad. In the Kāṇya (vi. 5, 2) recension he is a pupil of Prācīnayogīputra; in the Mādhyāmīndina (vi. 4, 33) recension his teacher’s name is Prāśnīputra Āsurīvāsin.

Kārśṇāyasa (‘black metal’), a word found in the Upaniṣads,1 must clearly mean ‘iron.’ See Ayas.

1 Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iv. 17, 7; 2 Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, xix. 16. 82; 3 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xii. 9, 1, 2;
Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xii. 9, 1, 2; Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, ii. 7. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 52.

Kārśman, a word meaning literally ‘furrow,’ and found only in the Rigveda,1 is the designation of the goal in the chariot race. The competitor probably turned round it and came back to the starting-place.2

1 i. 116, 17; ix. 36, 1; 74, 8. 2 Av. ii. 14, 6. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 291, 292.

Kārśmarya is the name of a tree (Gmelina arborea) which is often alluded to in the Taittirīya Saṁhitā,1 the Maitrāyaṇī Saṁhitā,2 and the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.3

1 v. 2, 7, 3, 4; vi. 2, 1, 5. 2 iii. 2, 6; 7, 9. 3 iii. 4, 1, 6; 8, 2, 17; iv. 3, 3, 6; vii. 4, 1, 37. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 62.
**Kāla**

The generic expression for 'time,' first occurs in the Rigveda,\(^1\) where, however, it is used only once, in the late tenth book. It is known to the Atharvaveda,\(^2\) where Kāla has already developed the sense of time as fate. The word is frequent in the Brāhmaṇas,\(^3\) superseding the earlier use of Ṛtu. The more general division of time is into 'past' (bhūta), 'present' (bhavat), and 'future' (bhavisyat).\(^4\) For other divisions see Ahan, Māsa, Saṃvatsara.

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1. vi. 42, 9.  
2. xix. 53–54.  
3. Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 3, 3; etc.  

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**Kālakā**

is the name of one of the victims at the horse sacrifice (Aśvamedha) in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās,\(^1\) variously identified with a bird\(^2\) or a chameleon.\(^3\)

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1. Taittirīya Saṃhītā, v. 5, 15, 1; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhītā, iii. 14, 16; Vāja-

saneyi Saṃhītā, xxiv. 35.  
2. Mahidhara on Vājasaneyi Saṃhītā, 
loc. cit.

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**Kāla-kāṇja.**—In the Atharvaveda\(^1\) mention is made of the Kālakaṇjas as being in the sky. Both Roth\(^2\) and Zimmer\(^3\) hold that some constellation is meant. But as the defeat of the Kālakaṇjas is one of Indra's exploits,\(^4\) it is doubtful whether any stress can be laid on that interpretation of the passage in the Atharvaveda. Whitney\(^5\) suggests that the three stars of Orion are meant, Bloomfield\(^6\) that the galaxy or the stars in general are intended.

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1. vi. 80, 2.  
2. St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.  
3. Altindisches Leben, 353.  
4. Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, viii. 1. Cf. also Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, i. 6, 9; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 2, 4–6; Kauṭītaki Upaniṣad, iii. 1.

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Kāvaśeya ('descendant of Kavaśa') is the constant patronymic of Tura. The Kāvaśeyas are also mentioned as teachers of philosophical points in the Rigveda Ārañyakas.�


Kāvyā ('descendant of Kavi') is the constant¹ patronymic of Usanas. In the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa it is also applied to Iḍhat² and Ukṣpuraṇdhra.³

1 Aitareya Ārañyaka, iii. 2, 6; vi. 20, 11; viii. 23, 17; Av. iv. 29, 6; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, ii. 5, 8, 5, etc. xiv. 9, 16. ³ xiii. 9, 19. Cf. Hopkins, *Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences*, 15, 48, 49.

Kāśa.—Roth¹ finds this word, which denotes a species of grass (*Saccharum spontaneum*) used for mats, etc., in one passage of the Rigveda,² but the reading is uncertain. The word has this sense in the Taittirīya Ārañyaka.³

1 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. 2 x. 100, 10. ³ vi. 9, 1.

Kāśi, Kāsyā.—The name Kāśi denotes (in the plural¹) the people of Kāśi (Benares), and Kāsyā, the king of Kāśi. The Satapatha Brāhmaṇa² tells of Dhṛtarāṣṭra, king of Kāśi, who was defeated by Śatānīka Śatrājita, with the result that the Kāsīs, down to the time of the Brāhmaṇa, gave up the kindling of the sacred fire. Śatrājita was a Bharata. We hear also of Ajātaśatru as a king of Kāśi;³ and no doubt Bhadrasena Ajātaśatrava, a contemporary of Uḍḍālaka, was also a king of Kāśi.

The Kāsīs and Videhas were closely connected, as was natural in view of their geographical position. The compound name Kāśi-Videha occurs in the Kauśitaki Upaniṣad;⁴ in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad⁵ Gārgī describes Ajātaśatru as either a Kāśi or a Videha king. The Šāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra⁶

1 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 5, 4, 19. 21. The plural occurs also in the Paippalāda recension of the Atharvaveda, v. 22, 14. 2 xiii. 5, 4, 19. 3 Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 1, 1; iii. 8, 2; Kauśitaki Upaniṣad, iv. 1. ⁴ Kauśitaki Upaniṣad, loc. cit. ⁵ iii. 8, 2. ⁶ xvi. 29, 5.
mentions one Purohita as acting for the kings of Kāśi, Kosala, and Videha; and the Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra\textsuperscript{7} mentions Kāśi and Videha in close proximity. Weber,\textsuperscript{8} indeed, throws out the suggestion that the Kāsīs and the Videhas together constitute the Uśīnaras, whose name is very rare in Vedic literature.

As Kosala and Videha were in close connexion, Kāśi and Kosala are found combined in the compound name Kāśi-Kauśalyas of the Gopatha Brāhmaṇa.\textsuperscript{9}

Though Kāśi is a late word, it is quite possible that the town is older, as the river Varanavati referred to in the Atharvaveda\textsuperscript{10} may be connected with the later Vārānasī (Benares).

It is significant that while the Kāsīs, Kosalas, and Videhas were united, any relations which the Kuru-Pańcāla peoples may have had with them were hostile. It is a fair conclusion that between these two great groups of peoples there did exist some political conflict as well as probably a difference of culture in some degree. The Satapatha Brāhmaṇa,\textsuperscript{11} in the story of the advance of Āryan civilization over Kosala and Videha, preserves a clear tradition of this time, and a piece of evidence that in the Kuru-Pańcāla country lay the real centre of the Brāhmaṇa culture (see also Kuru-Pańcāla). That the Kosala-Videhas were originally settlers of older date than the Kuru-Pańcālas is reasonably obvious from their geographical position, but the true Brāhmaṇa culture appears to have been brought to them from the Kuru-Pańcāla country. It is very probable that the East was less Āryan than the West, and that it was less completely reduced under Brahmin spiritual supremacy, as the movement of Buddhism was Eastern, and the Buddhist texts\textsuperscript{12} reveal a position in which the Kṣatriyas rank above Brāhmaṇas. With this agrees the fact that the later Vedic texts\textsuperscript{13} display

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\textsuperscript{7} xxi. 13.
\textsuperscript{8} Cf. Weber, \textit{Indische Studien}, 1, 212, 213.
\textsuperscript{9} i. 2, 9.
\textsuperscript{10} iv. 7. i. Cf. Zimmer, \textit{Altindisches Leben}, 20; Bloomfield, \textit{Hymns of the Atharvaveda}, 376.
\textsuperscript{12} See Fick, \textit{Die sociale Gliederung}, chap. iv.
\textsuperscript{13} Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xxii. 4, 22; Lāṭyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, viii. 6, 28. See Weber, \textit{Indische Studien}, 10, 99; Fick, \textit{op. cit.}, 140, n. 1; and cf. Magadha.
towards the people of Magadha a marked antipathy, which may be reasonably explained by that people’s lack of orthodoxy, and which may perhaps be traced as far back as the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā.\textsuperscript{14} It is, of course, possible that the Kosala-Videhas and Kāśis actually were merely offshoots of the tribes later known as the Kuru-Pañcālas, and that they by reason of distance and less complete subjugation of the aborigines lost their Brahminical culture. This hypothesis, however, appears less likely, though it might be supported by a literal interpretation of the legend of the Aryan migration in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.\textsuperscript{15}

\textsuperscript{14} xxx. 5, 22. See Magadha.
\textsuperscript{15} Cf. Eggeling, \textit{loc. cit.}, 104, n. 1. As \textit{Asiatic Society}, 1908, 837, 1143; Keith, \textit{ibid.}, 831, 1138; Oldenberg, \textit{Buḍḍha}, 402 et seq.

Kāśyapa (‘descendant of Kāśyapa’) is a common patronymic,\textsuperscript{1} and is applied specially to Rṣyaśṛṅga, Devataras Śyāvasāyana, Śuṣa Vāhneya.

\textsuperscript{1} Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, vii. 5, 1, 5; Taittiriya Āraṇyaka, ii. 18; x. 1, 8, etc.

Kāśyapī-bālākyā-māṭhari-putra (‘son of Kāśyapī, Bālākyā, and Māṭhari’). This curious name is given in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad\textsuperscript{1} to a teacher, pupil of Kautsīputra.

\textsuperscript{1} vi. 4, 31 (Mādhyāmāṇḍina recension).

Kāśāyaṇa is mentioned in the second Vaṃśa (list of teachers) of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad as a teacher, pupil of Sāyakāyana according to the Kāṇva (iv. 6, 2), of Saukarāyaṇa according to the Mādhyāmāṇḍina recension (iv. 5, 27).

Kāṣṭhā seems to have the sense in the Rigveda\textsuperscript{1} of ‘course’ for a chariot race. It also means in the Rigveda\textsuperscript{2} and later\textsuperscript{3} ‘goal,’ either like the Karsman the turning place, or the final goal (paramā kāṣṭhā).

\textsuperscript{1} i. 37, 10; 65, 3; iv. 58, 7; vi. 46, 1; vii. 93, 3; viii. 80, 8; ix. 21, 7.
\textsuperscript{2} x. 102, 9, is perhaps so to be taken.
\textsuperscript{3} Av. ii. 14, 6; Taittiriya Saṃhitā, i. 6, 9, 3; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, ix. 13; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iv. 7; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 5, 7, 2, etc. Cf. Zimmer, \textit{Altindisches Leben}, 291, 292; Max Müller, \textit{Sacred Books of the East}, 32, 77.
Kās, Kāsā, Kāsikā.—All these four forms\(^1\) of the same word denote 'cough,' which is mentioned in the Atharvaveda as accompanying a headache,\(^2\) as a symptom in fever (Takman),\(^3\) and as an independent disease.\(^4\)

\(^1\) Kās: Av. i. 12, 3; v. 22, 10; Kāsā: Av. v. 22, 11 (probably); Kāsikā: Av. vi. 105, 1 et seq.; Kāsika: Av. v. 22, 12; xi. 2, 22.

\(^2\) Av. i. 12, 3.

\(^3\) v. 22, 10.


Kāhōdi (‘descendant of Kahoda’) is the patronymic of Argała in the Kāṭhaka Samhitā (xxv. 5).

Kimsuka is the name of a tree (Butea frondosa) mentioned in the wedding hymn of the Rigveda,\(^1\) the bridal car being described as adorned with its blossoms (su-kimsuka).

\(^1\) x. 85, 20. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 62. Sāyaṇa thinks the meaning is that the car is made of the wood of the tree.

Kiki-dīvi denotes some kind of bird, perhaps the blue jay.\(^1\) According to the commentator, it means ‘partridge’ (tīttirī) in the Taittirīya Samhitā.\(^2\)

\(^1\) Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. See Rv. x. 97, 13.

\(^2\) v. 6, 22, 1.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 92; Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 251.

Kitava, ‘the gambler,’ is frequently referred to in the Rigveda\(^1\) and later.\(^2\) A father is represented as chastising his son for gambling.\(^3\) The gambler seems at times to have fallen, along with his family, into servitude, presumably by selling himself to pay his debts.\(^4\) Technical names\(^5\) for different sorts of gamblers given in the Yajurveda Samhitās are Ādīnava-darśa, Ādaṇava-darśa, ‘slave for hire,’ of the Mānava Dharma Sāstra, viii. 415; Fick, Die sociale Gliederung, 197.

\(^1\) ii. 29, 5; v. 85, 8; x. 34, 3. 7. 10.

\(^2\) Av. vii. 50, 1; 109, 3; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 8. 18. 22; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 19, etc.

\(^3\) Rv. ii. 29, 5. Cf. Pītṛ.

\(^4\) Rv. x. 34. Cf. perhaps the bhakta-dāsa, ‘slave for hire,’ of the Mānava Dharma Sāstra, viii. 415; Fick, Die sociale Gliederung, 197.

\(^5\) Taittirīya Samhitā, iv. 3, 3, 1 et seq.; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 18.
Kalpin, Adhi-kalpin, and Sabhā-sthānu. None of these can be safely6 explained, though the last has usually7 been taken as a satirical name derived from the gambler’s devotion to the dicing place (Sabhā), ‘pillar of the dicing hall.’ The first literally means ‘seeing ill-luck,’8 and may refer to the quickness of the dicer to note an error on the part of his antagonist, or to his eagerness to see the defeat of his rival.

7 So Mahidhara on Vājasaneyi Sāṃhitā, xxx. 16; Sāyaṇa on Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 16, 1.

Kim-purusa, lit. ‘what sort of man,’ appears in the Brāhmaṇas1 to designate the ‘ape,’ which is a mimic man. Possibly the same sense should be seen in the passage of the Vājasaneyi Sāṃhitā,2 where it occurs, and where Roth3 assumes it to refer to a contemptible man. Max Müller4 renders it ‘savage.

1 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 8; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 2, 3, 9; vii. 5, 2, 32.
2 xxx. 16; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 12, 1.
3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s. v.
4 Ancient Sanskrit Literature, 420.
Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 9, 246; Omina und Portenta, 356; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, 51, n. 3.

Kiyāmbu is the name of one of the water-plants which are to grow, according to a funeral hymn in the Rigveda,1 on the place where the body of the dead was burned. The word seems to mean ‘having some water,’ possibly by popular etymology.2

1 x. 16, 13 = Av. xviii. 3, 6.
2 Cf. Sāyaṇa on Rv., loc. cit., and on Taittirīya Āranyaka, vi. 4, 1, 2, where Kyāmbu is the form.


1 Kirāta is a name applied to a people living in the caves of the mountains, as appears clearly from the dedication of the Kirāta to the caves (guhā) in the Vājasaneyi Sāṃhitā,1 and from the reference in the Atharvaveda2 to a Kirāta girl (kairātika), who digs a remedy on the ridges of the mountains.

1 xxx. 16; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 12, 1.
2 x. 4, 14.
Later\textsuperscript{3} the people called Kirātas were located in Eastern Nepal, but the name seems to have been applied to any hill folk, no doubt aborigines, though the Mānava Dharma Śāstra\textsuperscript{4} regards them as degraded Ksatriyas.

\textsuperscript{3} Lassen, \textit{Indische Alterthumskunde}, \textsuperscript{1} 530, 534.
\textsuperscript{4} Cf. Zimmer, \textit{Altindisches Leben}, \textsuperscript{32}.

\textbf{2. Kirāta.}—In the story of Asamāti there appear, as the two priests who are opposed to the Gaupāyanas, Kirāta and Akuli according to the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa,\textsuperscript{1} or Kilāta and Ākuli according to the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.\textsuperscript{2} No doubt the name is chosen, not as that of a historic person, but as a suitable designation of a hostile priest; for it is probably identical with the name of the mountaineers described in the preceding article.

\textsuperscript{1} xiii. 12, 5 (where the text reads \textit{kirāta-hulyau}). Böhtlingk, Dictionary, \textit{s.v.}, takes the word, with Sāyaṇa, as an adjective, \textit{kirāta-kula}, ‘of the family of Kirātā.’ The reading in the Brāhdevatā (vii. 86) is \textit{kirātākuli}.
\textsuperscript{2} i. 1, 4, 14 (where the text reads \textit{kilātākuli}). Cf. also Sātyāyanaka Brāhmaṇa \textit{āpud} Sāyaṇa on \textit{Rv.} x. 57, i; 60, i; Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 167; \textit{Journal of the American Oriental Society}, \textit{18}, 41 et seq.; Hopkins, \textit{Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences}, \textit{15}, 48, n. i.

\textbf{Kilāta} is the form of the name 2. Kirāta that appears in the Śatapatha, Sātyāyanaka, and Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇas.\textsuperscript{1}

\textsuperscript{1} See note \textsuperscript{2} under the preceding article.

\textbf{Kilāsa} is the name of a disease, ‘white leprosy,’ in the Atharvaveda\textsuperscript{1} and the Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, etc.\textsuperscript{2} It resulted in the appearance of grey (\textit{palita}) and white (\textit{sukla}, \textit{sveta}) spots all over the skin. Haug gave the same sense to \textit{alasa} in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa,\textsuperscript{3} but this is doubtful. The fem. Kilāsī is taken by Max Müller to mean a ‘spotted deer’ in one passage of the Rigveda.\textsuperscript{4}

\textsuperscript{1} i. 23, 24.
\textsuperscript{3} vi. 33, 5.
\textsuperscript{4} v. 53, 1.
Kikaṭa.—The name of this people occurs only in one passage of the Rigveda, where they appear as hostile to the singer and as under the leadership of Pramaganda. Yāska\(^2\) declares that Kikaṭa was the name of a non-Āryan country, and later\(^3\) Kikaṭa is given as a synonym of Magadha. Hence Zimmer\(^4\) concludes that the Kikaṭas were a non-Āryan people living in the country later known as Magadha. Weber\(^5\) holds that this people were located in Magadha, but were Āryan, though at variance with other Āryan tribes, perhaps because of heretical tendencies, for Magadha was later a seat of Buddhism. But the identification is uncertain, and is doubted by Oldenberg\(^6\) and Hillebrandt.\(^7\)

Kīta is the name of a species of worm mentioned in the Atharvaveda,\(^1\) and frequently in the Upaniṣads.\(^2\)

Kinaśa, a name of the ploughman or cultivator of the soil, is found in the Rigveda\(^1\) and the later Samhitās.\(^2\) See Kṛṣi.

Kiri is in the Rigveda\(^1\) a regular designation of the ‘poet.’ Cf. Rśi.

Kirśā, the name of some kind of animal, or perhaps bird, is mentioned in the list of victims for the horse sacrifice (Aśvamedha) in the Taittirīya Samhitā.\(^1\)

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1. iii. 53, 14.
2. Nirukta, vi. 32.
5. Indische Studien, i, 186; Indian Literature, 79, n. *.
6. Buddha, 402, 403; Rgveda-Noten, 1, 253.
7. Vedische Mythologie, 1, 14-18.

1. iv. 4, 16.
2. Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 1, 19; 2, 14; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, vi. 9, 3; Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 98.

1. iv. 57, 8.
2. Av. iv. 11, 10; vi. 30, 1; Vāja-saneyi Samhitā, xxx. 11; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 4, 8, 7.

1. i. 31, 13; ii. 12, 6; v. 52, 12 (kiriṇah; Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32, 317). But see Geldner, Rigveda, Glossar, 46; Pischel, Vedische Studien, 1, 223.

Kilâla, a word denoting a 'sweet drink,' is found in all the later Samhitâs, but not in the Rigveda. As the Surâ-kâra, 'maker of Surâ,' is dedicated in the list of victims in the human sacrifice (Puruṣamedha) to Kilâla, it must have been a drink of somewhat the same nature as the Surâ itself, possibly, as Zimmer suggests, a kind of rum.

1 Av. iv. 11, 10; 26, 6; 27, 5; vi. 69, 1; x. 6, 25; xii. 1, 59; Taittiriya Brâhmaṇa, ii. 6, 12, 13; Maitrâyaṇî Samhitâ, ii. 7, 12; iii. 11, 3. 4; Vâjasaneyi Samhitâ, ii. 34; iii. 43; xx. 65; xxx. 11, etc.
2 Vâjasaneyi Samhitâ, xxx. 11; Taittiriya Brâhmaṇa, iii. 4, 9, 1.
3 Altindisches Leben, 281.

Kîśmîla denotes, according to Böhtlingk, a certain disease in the Paippalâda recension of the Atharvaveda.

1 Dictionary, s.v. 2 xix. 8, 4.

Kîsta in two passages of the Rigveda means 'poet,' like Kiri.

1 i. 127, 7; vi. 67, 10. Cf. Yâska, Nirukta, iii. 15.

Kukkuṭa, 'cock,' occurs in the Yajurveda only.

1 Vâjasaneyi Samhitâ, i. 16. Cf. It is common in the later Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 91. language.

Kuṭaru is, according to the commentator Mahîdhara, synonymous with Kukkuṭa, 'cock.' The word is found in the Yajurveda Samhitâs only.

1 On Vâjasaneyi Samhitâ, xxiv. 23. 4. 20; iv. 1, 6; Vâjasaneyi Samhitâ, xxiv. 23, 39.
2 Taittiriya Samhitâ, v. 5, 17, 1; Maitrâyaṇî Samhitâ, i. 1, 6; iii. 14. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 93.

Kûnda-pâyin ('drinking from a jug') is the name of a teacher mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brâhmaṇa and in the Sûtras.

1 xxv. 4, 4. 6; Kâtyâyana Srauta Sûtra, xxiv. 4, 21.
2 Aśvalâyana Srauta Sûtra, xii. 4.
Kuṇḍa-pāyya (‘descendant of Kuṇḍapāyin’) is a patronymic connected with a man named Śrṅgavrś in one passage of the Rigveda.1


Kuṇḍrṇāci is the name of an animal of unknown character occurring in the lists of victims at the horse sacrifice (Aśvamedha) in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās.1 The word also occurs in one passage of the Rigveda,2 in which a bird would seem to be intended, though Śāyaṇa interprets it as meaning ‘with crooked flight’ (kuṭila-gatya). In his commentary on the Taittiriya Saṃhitā3 he takes the word to denote the house-lizard (grha-godhika).

1 Taittiriya Saṃhitā, v. 5, 16, 1; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 18; Vāja-saneyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. 37.
2 i. 29, 6.
3 v. 5, 16, 1.

Kutsa is the name of a hero frequently mentioned in the Rigveda, which, however, gives practically no information about him, for he was no doubt already a figure of the mythic past. He is several times1 called Ārjuneya, ‘descendant of Arjuna,’ and is usually2 associated with Indra in the exploit of defeating the demon Śuṣṇa and winning the sun. He is said3 to have defeated Smadibha, Tugra, and the Vetasus, but, on the other hand, he is several times4 mentioned with Atithigva and Āyu as being vanquished by Indra, his defeat in one passage5 being attributed to Tārvayāna. Elsewhere6 he appears with Atithigva as a friend of Indra’s. In the later literature he is seldom7 mentioned except in connexion with the myth of his binding Indra, which is found in the Brāhmaṇas,8 and which is based on an obscure verse in the Rigveda.9

1 Rv. iv. 26, 1; vii. 19, 2; viii. 1, 11.
2 Rv. i. 63, 3; 127, 9; 174, 5; 175, 4; iv. 30, 4; v. 29, 15; vi. 20, 5; vii. 19, 2; x. 99, 9.
3 Rv. x. 49, 4.
4 Rv. i. 53, 10; ii. 14, 7; viii. 53, 2. Cf. iv. 26, 1.
5 Rv. i. 53, 10.
6 Rv. i. 51, 6; vi. 26, 3.
7 E.g., Av. iv. 29, 5; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xiv. 11, 26.
8 Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, ix. 2, 22; Śāyāyanaka in Śāyaṇa on Rv. x. 38, 5; Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa, i. 228; Oertel, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 18, 31.
9 x. 38, 5.
The Kutsas, or descendants of Kutsa, are mentioned in one hymn of the Rigveda.  

Kutsa Aurava (‘son of Uru’) is mentioned in the Pañca-vimśa Brāhmaṇa as having murdered his domestic priest (purohita), Upagu Sauśravasa, because the father of the latter insisted on paying homage to Indra. This fact may be compared with the hostility to Indra of Kutsa according to certain passages of the Rigveda.

Kunti.—The Kuntis are referred to in an obscure and corrupt passage of the Kaṭhaka Saṁhitā as having defeated the Pañcalas.

Kubera Vārakya is mentioned in a list of teachers in the Jaiminiya Upaṁśad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 41, 1) as a pupil of Jayanta Vārakya.

Kubhā is the name of a river mentioned twice in the Rigveda and no doubt identical with the modern Kabul river, the Greek Kοβφν.

Kubhra is the name of some animal in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṁhitā (ii. 5, 3).
Kumbhinasa | LOTUS—HAIR ORNAMENT—SPEECH—POT 163

Ku-muda is the name of a plant mentioned with other water plants in one passage of the Atharvaveda. It is no doubt the white water-lily (Nymphaea esculenta), being the name of that plant in post-Vedic Sanskrit also.


Kumba is mentioned with Opaśa and Kurīra as an ornament of women’s hair in the Atharvaveda. Geldner thinks that, like those two words, it originally meant ‘horn,’ but this is very doubtful. Indian tradition simply regards the term as denoting a female adornment connected with the dressing of the hair.


Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 538, 539; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 348; Caland, Über das rituelle Sūtra des Baudhāyana, 59.

Kumbyā or Kumvyā is a word mentioned after Rc, Yajus, Sāman, and Gāthā in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa to denote a form of speech. In the Aitareya Āranyakā it appears as one of the forms of measured speech together with Rc and Gāthā. The precise meaning of the term is unknown. Weber suggests the sense ‘refrain.’

1 xi. 5, 7, 10. 2 i. 3, 6. 3 Indische Studien, 10, 111, n.


Kumbha is a word of frequent occurrence in the Rigveda, as well as later, and denotes a ‘pot.’ Usually no doubt made of clay, it was easily broken. See also Ukhā.

1 i. 116, 7; 117, 6; vii. 33, 13, etc. 2 Av. i. 6, 4; iii. 12, 7, etc.; Vāja-sāneyi Saṁhitā, xix. 87, etc. 3 Rv. x. 89, 7. Cf. Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 367.

Kumbhī-nasa (‘pot-nosed’) is the name of an animal mentioned in the list of victims at the horse sacrifice (Aśvamedha) in the Taittirīya Saṁhitā. Possibly some sort of snake is meant, as in the later literature.

1 v. 5, 14, 1. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 95; St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

II—2
Kuya-vāc ('evil-speaking') appears in one passage of the Rigveda\(^1\) to denote a demon slain by Indra, probably as a personification of the barbarian opponents of the Āryans. The expression *mrdhra-vāc* ('speaking insultingly') is similarly used of barbarians in the Rigveda.\(^2\)

1 i. 174, 7. 2 v. 29, io; 32, 8. See Dasyu.

**Kurīra**, like *Opása* and *Kumba*, denotes some sort of female head ornament in the description of the bride's adornment in the wedding hymn of the Rigveda\(^1\) and in the Atharvaveda.\(^2\) According to the Yajurveda Saṃhitās,\(^3\) the goddess Sinīvāḷī is described by the epithets *su-kapardā, su-kurīra, sv-opasā*, as wearing a beautiful head-dress.

According to Geldner,\(^4\) the word originally meant 'horn'; but this is uncertain, as this sense is not required in any passage in which the term occurs.\(^5\)

\(^1\) x. 85, 8. \(^2\) vi. 138, 3. \(^3\) Taittirīya Saṃhitā, iv. 1, 5, 3; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, ii. 7, 5; Vājasaneyī Saṃhitā, xi. 56. \(^4\) *Vedische Studien*, i, 131, 132. \(^5\) Gopatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, 21 ( = Vaitāna Sūtra, xi. 22), cited by Geldner, is quite vague. Cf. Zimmer, *Altindisches Leben*, 265; Bloomfield, *Hymns of the Atharvaveda*, 539; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 348; Caland, *Über das rituelle Sūtra des Baudhāyana*, 59.

**Kurīrin** ('having a Kurīra') is a word occurring in an ambiguous passage of the Atharvaveda,\(^1\) in which it may be taken either as a noun meaning a 'crested animal,' perhaps as Zimmer\(^2\) suggests the 'peacock,' or as an epithet of the word *Aja, goat,' in which case it might mean 'horned.' But even in the latter alternative a metaphorical application of the word seems sufficient, just as in the Pañcavidya Brāhmaṇa\(^3\) *Opása* is used of the horns of cattle, and thus renders unnecessary the adoption of Geldner's\(^4\) view that the original meaning of Kurīra is 'horn.'

\(^1\) v. 31, 2. \(^2\) *Altindisches Leben*, 91. \(^3\) xiii. 4, 3. \(^4\) *Vedische Studien*, i, 130. 

Kuru.—The Kurus appear as by far the most important people in the Brāhmaṇa literature. There is clear evidence that it was in the country of the Kurus, or the allied Kuru-Paṇcālas, that the great Brāhmaṇas were composed.¹ The Kurus are comparatively seldom mentioned alone, their name being usually coupled with that of the Paṇcālas on account of the intimate connexion of the two peoples. The Kuru-Paṇcālas are often expressly referred to as a united nation.² In the land of the Kuru-Paṇcālas speech is said to have its particular home;³ the mode of sacrifice among the Kuru-Paṇcālas is proclaimed to be the best;⁴ the Kuru-Paṇcāla kings perform the Rājāsūya or royal sacrifice;⁵ their princes march forth on raids in the dewy season, and return in the hot season.⁶ Later on the Kuru-Paṇcāla Brahmins are famous in the Upaniṣads.⁷ Weber⁸ and Grierson⁹ have sought to find traces in Vedic literature of a breach between the two tribes, the latter scholar seeing therein a confirmation of the theory that the Kurus belonged to the later stream of immigrants into India, who were specially Brahminical, as opposed to the Paṇcālas, who were anti-Brahminical. In support of this view, Weber refers to the story in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā¹⁰ of a dispute between Vaka Dālbhya and Dhṛtarāṣṭra Vaicitavrīya, the former being held to be by origin a Paṇcāla, while the latter is held

¹ For the Paṇca-vaṁśa Brāhmaṇa, cf. Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 49, 50, with Weber, Indian Literature, 67, 68; for the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa and the Saṅkhāyana Brāhmaṇa, Weber, loc. cit., 45; for the Aitareya and Saṅkhāyana Āryayakas, Keith, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1908, 387; for the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, Weber, loc. cit., 132, Transactions of the Berlin Academy, 1895, 859. The Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa refers repeatedly to the Kuru-Paṇcālas, whose name also occurs in the late and confused Gopatha Brāhmaṇa. For the Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, see i. 8, 4, 1, 2, and for the Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, iv. 2, 6.

² Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, iii. 7. 6; 8, 7; iv. 7, 2; Kauśitaki Upaniṣad, iv. 1; Gopatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 2, 9; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, x. 6; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xi. 3, 3 (Kāṇya recension).

³ Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 2, 3, 15.

⁴ Ibid., i. 7, 2, 8; cf. Kuru-vājapeya in Saṅkhāyana Śrāuta Sūtra, xv. 3, 15; Lāṭyāyana Śrāuta Sūtra, viii. 11, 18.

⁵ Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 5, 2, 3, 5.

⁶ Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, i. 8, 4, 1, 2.

⁷ Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 78; Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, iii. 30, 6; iv. 6, 2; Bṛhadāranyaka Upaniṣad, iii. 1, 1; 9, 20, etc.

⁸ Indische Studien, 3, 470; Indian Literature, 114.

⁹ Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1908, 602-607; 837-844.

¹⁰ x. 6. Cf. Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, xii, xli.
to be a Kuru. But there is no trace of a quarrel between Kurus and Pañcālas in the passage in question, which merely preserves the record of a dispute on a ritual matter between a priest and a prince: the same passage refers to the Naimiṣīya sacrifice among the Kuru-Pañcālas, and emphasizes the close connexion of the two peoples. Secondly, Weber conjectures in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā that Subhadrikā of Kampīla was the chief queen of the king of a tribe living in the neighbourhood of the clan, for whose king the horse sacrifice described in the Saṃhitā was performed. But the interpretation of this passage by Weber is open to grave doubt; and in the Kāṇva recension of the Saṃhitā a passage used at the Rājasṭiya shows that the Kuru-Pañcālas had actually one king. Moreover, there is the evidence of the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa that the old name of the Pañcālas was Krivi. This word looks very like a variant of Kuru, and Zimmer plausibly conjectures that the Kurus and Krivis formed the Vaikarna of the Rigveda, especially as both peoples are found about the Sindhu and the Asiknī.

The Kurus alone are chiefly mentioned in connexion with the locality which they occupied, Kurukṣetra. We are told, however, of a domestic priest (Purohita) in the service of both the Kurus and the Śrījayas, who must therefore at one time have been closely connected. In the Chandogya Upaniṣad reference is made to the Kurus being saved by a mare (aśvā), and to some disaster which befell them owing to a hailstorm. In the Śūtras, again, a ceremony (Vājapecya) of the Kurus is mentioned. There also a curse, which was pronounced on them and led to their being driven from Kurukṣetra, is alluded to.

12 xxiii. 18.
13 Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 44, 322.
14 xi. 3. 3. Cf. Weber, Indian Literature, 114, note *.
15 xiii. 5, 4, 7.
16 Altindisches Leben, 103.
17 vii. 18, 11.
18 Keith, loc. cit., 835.
19 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 4, 4, 5.
20 Cf. Weber, Indian Literature, 123.
21 iv. 17, 9: for aśvā Bohtlingk in his edition reads ḍṛṣṭa, followed by Little, Grammatical Index, 1.
22 i. 10, 1
23 Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 3, 15.
This possibly adumbrates the misfortunes of the Kauravas in the epic tradition.

In the Rigveda the Kurus do not appear under that name as a people. But mention is made of a prince, Kuruśravaṇa ('Glory of the Kurus'), and of a Pākasthāman Kaurayāṇa. In the Atharvaveda there occurs as a king of the Kurus Parikṣit, whose son, Janamejaya, is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa as one of the great performers of the horse sacrifice.

It is a probable conjecture of Oldenberg's that the Kuru people, as known later, included some of the tribes referred to by other names in the Rigveda. Kuruśravaṇa, shown by his name to be connected with the Kurus, is in the Rigveda called Trāsadasyava, 'descendant of Trasadasyu,' who is well known as a king of the Pūrūs. Moreover, it is likely that the Trtsu-Bharatas, who appear in the Rigveda as enemies of the Pūrūs, later coalesced with them to form the Kuru people. Since the Bharatas appear so prominently in the Brāhmaṇa texts as a great people of the past, while the later literature ignores them in its list of nations, it is difficult to avoid the conclusion that they became merged in some other tribe. Moreover, there is evidence that the Bharatas occupied the territory in which the Kurus were later found. Two of them are spoken of in a hymn of the Rigveda as having kindled fire on the Dṛṣadvati, the Āpayā, and the Sarasvatī—that is to say, in the sacred places of the later Kurukṣetra. Similarly, the goddess Bhāratī ('belonging to the Bharatas') is constantly mentioned in the Āpri ('propitiatory') hymns together with Sarasvatī. Again, according to the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, one Bharata king was victorious over the Kāśis, and another made offerings to Gaṅgā and Yamunā, while raids of the Bharatas against the Satvants are mentioned in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa. Nor is it

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25 Rv. x. 33, 4.  
26 Rv. viii. 3, 21.  
27 xx. 127, 7 et seq.; Khila, v. 10.  
28 xiii. 5, 4.  
29 Buddha, 403, 404.  
30 Ibid., 406-409.  
31 iii. 23.  
32 Cf. Scheftelowitz, Die Apokryphen des Rgveda, 145.  
33 xiii. 5, 4, II.  
34 Ibid., 21.  
35 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 25 (cf. Haug's edition, 2, 128, n. 3); Oldenberg, Buddha, 407, note *.
without importance that the Bharatas appear as a variant for the Kuru-Pañcālas in a passage of the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, and that in the list of the great performers of the horse sacrifice the names of one Kuru and two Bharata princes are given without any mention of the people over which they ruled, while in other cases that information is specifically given.

The territory of the Kuru-Pañcālas is declared in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa to be the middle country (Madhyadēśa). A group of the Kuru people still remained further north—the Uttara Kuru beyond the Himālaya. It appears from a passage of the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa that the speech of the Northerners—that is, presumably, the Northern Kurus—and of the Kuru-Pañcālas was similar, and regarded as specially pure. There seems little doubt that the Brahminical culture was developed in the country of the Kuru-Pañcālas, and that it spread thence east, south, and west. Traces of this are seen in the Vṛātya Stomas (sacrifices for the admission of non-Brahminical Āryans) of the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, and in the fact that in the Śāṅkhāyana Āranyaka it is unusual for a Brahmin to dwell in the territory of Magadha. The repeated mention of Kuru-Pañcāla Brahmins is another indication of their missionary activity.

The geographical position of the Kuru-Pañcālas renders it probable that they were later immigrants into India than the Kosala-Videha or the Kāsis, who must have been pushed

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36 xi. 3, 3. See note 14; Oldenberg, Buddha, 408, 409.
37 Oldenberg, 409, note 4.
39 iii. 2, 3, 15. This is the sense which it appears to bear, as the Kuru-Pañcālas can hardly be reckoned as being northerly (Oldenberg, 395), and the Kauśātaki Brāhmaṇa, vii. 6 (Indische Studien, 2, 309) is independent evidence for the pure speech of the north, Cf. Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, xliii., n.; Weber, Indian Literature, 45; Indische Studien, 1, 191.
40 xvii. 1, 1. See also Av. xv. with Whitney’s and Lanman’s notes; Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 33 et seq.; Indian Literature, 67, 78, 80.
42 See e.g., Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 4, i, 2, and note 6.
43 This is recognized, e.g., by Oldenberg, Buddha, 9, 391, 398, 399; Lanman, Sanskrit Reader, 297, etc. The narrative of the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 4, 1, 10 et seq. (Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 170), rather implies that the Kosala-Videhas are offshoots of the Kuru-Pañcālas, but Oldenberg and Macdonell (Sanskrit Literature, 214) interpret this as referring to the spread of Vedic tradition and culture, not of nationality.
into their more eastward territories by a new wave of Āryan settlers from the west. But there is no evidence in Vedic literature to show in what relation of time the immigration of the latter peoples stood to that of their neighbours on the west. It has, however, been conjectured, mainly on the ground of later linguistic phenomena, which have no cogency for the Vedic period, that the Kurus were later immigrants, who, coming by a new route, thrust themselves between the original Āryan tribes which were already in occupation of the country from east to west. Cf. also Kṛtvā. For other Kuru princes see Kauravya.

44 Cf. Grierson, Languages of India, 52 et seq.; Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1908, 837 et seq. On the other hand, it is probably an error to assume that the Bharatas were originally situated far west of Kurukṣetra, and that the main action of the Rigveda was confined to the Panjab. When Vasistha celebrates the crossing of the Vipās and Śutudrī (Rv. iii. 33), he probably came from the east, as Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 218, points out, and not from the west. Adopting the ordinary view, Hopkins, India, Old and New, 52, finds it necessary to suggest that Yamunā is only another name in the Rv. for the Paruṣṇī. But the necessity for this suggestion, which is not in itself plausible, disappears when it is realized that the Bharatas held a territory roughly corresponding to Kurukṣetra, and bounded on the east by the Yamunā. On the other hand, Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 142, 143, places the Kurus near the Ārjikāyā in Kaśmir, which puts them too far north. So also Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 103, and Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, xlii. It seems probable that the Kurus were at a very early period widely scattered to the north of the Himālaya, in Kurukṣetra, and about the Sindh and Asikī.


Kuru-kṣetra (‘land of the Kurus’) is always regarded in the Brāhmaṇa texts1 as a particularly sacred country. Within its boundaries flowed the rivers Drśadvatī and Sarasvatī, as well as the Āpayā.2 Here, too, was situated Sāryanāvant,3 which

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1 Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xxv. 10; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 1, 5, 13; xi. 5, 1, 4; xiv. 1, 1, 2; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 30; Maitreyaṇi Śaṃhitā, ii. 1, 4; iv. 5, 9; Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 126 (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 11, cxlvii);

Śānkhyāna Śrāuta Sūtra, xv. 16, 11, etc.

2 Cf. Rv. iii. 23; Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 218.

3 See Pischel, loc. cit., and cf. Ārijī-kiyā.
appears to have been a lake, like that known to the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa by the name of Anyataḥ-plakṣā. According to Pischel, there was also in Kurukṣetra a stream called Pastyā, which he sees in certain passages of the Rigveda. The boundaries of Kurukṣetra are given in a passage of the Taittirīya Āranyaka as being Khandava on the south, the Tūrgna on the north, and the Pariṇah on the west. Roughly speaking, it corresponded to the modern Sirhind.

Kuruṅga is mentioned in the Rigveda¹ as a prince and a patron. Ludwig² suggests that he was a king of the Anus, but for this theory there seems no good ground. As the Turvaśās are mentioned in the same verse, he may possibly have been one of their kings. The name suggests a connexion with the Kuruṣ, and it may be noted that in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa³ the Turvaśās are connected with the Pañcālas (Krivis).

Kuru-śravaṇa Trāsasyaya is alluded to as dead in a hymn of the Rigveda,¹ which refers also to his son Upamaśravas, and his father Mitratithi. In another hymn² he is mentioned as still alive. His name connects him on the one hand with the Kuruṣ, and on the other with Trasasyu and the Pūrus.

Kuruṛu, apparently the name of a species of worm, is mentioned twice in the Atharvaveda.¹

¹ viii. 4, 19; Nirukta, vi. 22. ² Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 160. ³ xi. 5, 16. See Oldenberg, Buddha, 404.

Kurkura is an onomatopoeic name for the dog in the Atharvaveda. See also Śvan.


Kula, Kula-pā.—As an uncompounded word, Kula does not occur before the period of the Brāhmaṇas. It denotes the 'home' or 'house of the family,' and by metonymy the family itself, as connected with the home. The Kula-pā (lit. 'house protector'), or chief of the family, is mentioned in the Rigveda as inferior to and attendant on the Vraja-pati in war, the latter being perhaps the leader of the village contingent of the clan. In the Atharvaveda a girl is ironically called Kulapā, because she is left without a husband in the world, and has only Yama (the god of death) for a spouse.

The use of the term Kula points clearly to a system of individual families, each no doubt consisting of several members under the headship of the father or eldest brother, whose Kula the dwelling is. As distinct from Gotra, Kula seems to mean the family in the narrower sense of the members who still live in one house, the undivided family. Cf. Gṛha, Grāma, Jana, Viṣ.

1 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 2, 22; ii. 1, 4, 4; 4, 1, 14; xi. 5, 3, 11; 8, 1, 3; xiii. 4, 2, 17; Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, i. 5, 32; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iii., 13, 6, etc. 2 x. 179, 2.

Kulāla, the word denoting a 'potter,' occurs in the Śatarudriya, or litany to Rudra in the Yajurveda.

1 Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, xvi. 27. Cf. Maitrayani Saṁhitā, i. 8, 3, and kulāla - kṛta, 'made by a potter,' Kaulāla.

Kuliśa, 'axe,' is mentioned in the Rigveda as used for the making of chariots, and also in warfare, while the Atharvaveda refers to its employment in cutting down trees.

1 iii. 2, 1. 2 i. 32, 5. 3 i. 12, 3. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 252.
Kulikaya is the form in the Taittiriya Saṃhitā of the name of an animal, apparently a kind of fish, as explained by Mahīdhara in his commentary, which is called Kulipaya in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, and Purīkaya in the Atharvaveda, variants probably due to the faulty tradition of an unfamiliar name.

1 v. 5, 13, 1.  
2 xxiv. 21. 35.  
3 xi. 2, 25. The commentator reads Pulikaya, as in the Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 2. See Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 624.  

Kulikā is the name of a bird mentioned in the list of victims at the horse sacrifice in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā. The Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā has Pulikā instead.

1 xxiv. 24.  
2 iii. 14, 5.  

Kuluṅga is the name of an animal, perhaps a gazelle, mentioned in the list of victims at the horse sacrifice in the Yajurveda.

1 Taittiriya Saṃhitā, v. 5, 11, 1; Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 9, 13 (with the variant Kulaṅga); Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. 27. 32.  

Kulmala seems, in the Atharvaveda, the Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, and the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, to denote the neck of an arrow in which the shaft is fixed.

1 iv. 6, 5; v. 18, 15.  
2 iii. 8, 1, 2.  
3 iii. 4, 4, 14.

Kumala-barhis is mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xv. 3, 21) as the seer of a Sāman or Chant.

Kumāra Hārīta is mentioned in the first Vamsa (list of teachers) in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad as a pupil of Gālava.

1 ii. 5, 22 (Mādhyaṇḍina = ii. 6, 3, Kāṇva).

Kulmāsa, a word mentioned by the Chāndogya Upaniṣad in the plural, is interpreted by the commentator as ‘bad beans’ (kuṭisiṭa māśāḥ), a version adopted by Bōhtlingk in his

1 i. 10, 2, 7.
Kusika | WATERCOURSE—JUJUBE—SACRED GRASS

Dictionary. Little renders it 'sour gruel' in accordance with the Nirukta.

2 Cf. Bhāgavata Purāṇa, v. 9, 12, where it is glossed 'worm-eaten beans.'

Kulyā in two passages of the Rigveda, possibly refers to artificial watercourses flowing into a reservoir (hrada). See Avata.

1 iii. 45, 3; x. 43, 7.

Kuvaya. See Kvayi.

Kuvala is a name of the jujube fruit (Zizyphus jujuba) occurring frequently in the Yajurveda Samhitās and Brāhmaṇas in connexion with Karkandhu and Badara. See also Kola.

1 Maitrayani Samhitā, iii. 11, 2; Vajasaneyi Samhitā, xix. 22, 89; xxii. 29; Kāthaka Samhitā, xii. 10.

Kuša, a word later denoting the 'sacred grass' (Poa cynosuroides), is taken by the St. Petersburg Dictionary to mean simply 'grass' in the passages of the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa in which it occurs.

1 i. 5, 2, 15; iii. 1, 2, 16; v. 3, 2, 7, etc. Kuśa and Kuśi occur in Maitrayanī Samhitā, iv. 5, 7; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 6, 2, 9; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, i. 5, 10, i. 2. 7, apparently denoting pins of wood or metal, used as a mark in a special mode of recitation.

Ku-śara is mentioned with Śara and other grasses in one hymn of the Rigveda as affording lurking places for serpents.


Kuşika is the probably mythical forefather of the Kušikas, and especially the father of the most important member of that family, Viśvāmitra. The Kušikas are repeatedly referred

1 Nirukta, ii. 25.

2 Rv. iii. 33, 5.
to in the third Maṇḍala of the Rigveda, and figure in the legend of Śunahṣeṇa in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa. They were clearly a family of priests who attached themselves to the service of the princes of the Bharatas. They were especially devoted to the worship of Indra; hence he is styled Kauśika even in the Rigveda.

3 iii. 26, 1; 29, 15; 30, 20; 33, 5; 42, 9; 50, 4; 53, 9. 10.
4 vii. 18; Śāṅkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, xv. 27.
5 i. 10, 11, with Sāyaṇa's note. Cf. Maitrāyaṇi Śamhitā, iv. 5. 7; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 3. 4. 19; Taittirīya Āraṇyaka, i. 12, 4; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, pp. 62, 63. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 38; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 1, 342 et seq.; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 101, 121; Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature., 155; Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 209.

Kuśri Vāja-śravasa appears as a teacher concerned with the lore of the sacred fire in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, and in the last Vaṃśa (list of teachers) of the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad he is mentioned as a pupil of Vāja-śravas. It is not clear whether he is identical with the Kuśri of the last Vaṃśa of the Brhadāraṇyaka in the Kāṇva recension, and of the Vaṃśa in the tenth book of the Satapatha, who is mentioned as a pupil of Yajñavacas Rājastambāyana.

1 x. 5, 5, 1.
2 vi. 4, 33 (Mādhyamāṇḍīna = vi. 5, 3, Kāṇva).
3 vi. 5, 4 (Kāṇva only).
4 x. 6, 5, 9. In the Vaṃśas the name is accented Kuśri, but in x. 5, 5, 1, as Kuśri; no stress can, however, be laid on this. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 70; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, xxxiii.

Ku-ṣanda is mentioned with Śanda as a priest at the snake festival described in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.

1 xxv. 15, 3. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 34; Lātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, x. 20, 10.

1. Kuṣitaka denotes, according to the commentary on the one passage of the Taittirīya Śaṃhitā in which it is found, the sea crow (samudra-kāka).


2. Kuṣitaka Śāma-śravasa is mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa as the Grhapati, or householder at a sacrificial session, of the Kauṣitakis.

Kuṣumbhaka seems in one passage of the Rigveda\(^1\) to mean a poisonous insect, Kuṣumbha in the Atharvaveda\(^2\) clearly having the sense of a poison bag. Sāyana renders it as ‘ichneumon’ (nakula).

1 i. 191, 16. The sense of ‘poison bag’ is possible in i. 191, 15, and is accepted there by Böhtlingk in his Dictionary.


1. Kuṣṭha is the name of a plant (Costus speciosus or arabicus)\(^1\) which is prominent in the Atharvaveda.\(^2\) It grew especially on the mountains, along with the Soma, on the high peaks of the Himālaya (Himavant) where the eagles nest, and was thence brought east to men.\(^3\) Like Soma, it is said to have grown in the third heaven under the famous Aśvattha tree, where the gods were wont to assemble, and thence it was brought in a golden ship.\(^4\) As a remedy, it held the highest place among herbs, being called by the auspicious names Nagha-māra and Naghā-riṣa, and styled the offspring of Jīvala and Jīvalā, the ‘lively’ ones.\(^5\) It cured headache (sīrṣāmaya), diseases of the eyes, bodily affliction,\(^6\) but especially fever—hence called ‘fever-destroyer’ (takma-nāsana)—and consumption (Yaksma). From its general properties it was also named ‘all-healing’ (viśva-bhēṣaja).\(^7\) Its aromatic qualities were apparently known, as it is classed with ‘salve’ (Āñjana) and ‘nard’ (Nalada).\(^8\)

1 Or Saussurea auriculata, Hildebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 65.
2 v. 4; vi. 102; xix. 139.
3 v. 4, i. 2. 8; xix. 39, i.
4 v. 4, 3-6; vi. 75, i. 2; xix. 39, 6-8.
5 v. 4, i; xix. 39, 4.
6 v. 4, 10.
7 xix. 39, 9.
8 vi. 102, 3.

Cf. Grohmann, Indische Studien, 9, 420 et seq.; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 63, 64; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 415, 680; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 227, 228.

2. Kuṣṭha.—In one passage of the Maitrāyaṇī Samhitā\(^1\) there is a series of fractions, Kalā, Kuṣṭha, Sapha, Pad, which appear to denote one-sixteenth, one-twelfth, one-eighth, and one-fourth respectively.

1 iii. 7, 7. Cf. Böhtlingk, Dictionary, s.v.
Kusūdin is a designation of the ‘usurer’ found in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa and the Nirukta, and often in the Sūtras. Jolly, referring doubtless to the expression kusīda apratīṭṭa, a loan not yet repaid, occurring in connexion with an-rṇa, ‘free from debt,’ appears to be right in taking Kusīda to have the sense of ‘loan’ in the Taittirīya Saṁhitā. The rate of interest on loans is not specified before the Sūtra period. Cf. Ṛṇa.

Kusurubinda Auddalaki appears as an authority on ritual matters in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, the Taittirīya Saṁhitā, the Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa, and the Śaḍviṃśa Brāhmaṇa. He may have been the brother of Śvetaketu, as suggested by Weber.

Kūcakra is a word occurring only once in an obscure verse of the Rigveda, where Zimmer suggests that it has the sense of the wheel by which water is raised from a well. Much more probable is the interpretation of Roth, who understands it to mean the female breast.

Kūta, a word found in the Rigveda, the Atharvaveda, and the Brāhmaṇas, is of doubtful signification. On the whole,
the most probable sense is hammer, which suits every passage adequately. The St. Petersburg Dictionary renders it 'horn,' which is the sense accepted by Whitney for the Atharvaveda passage where it occurs. Geldner thinks that it means 'trap.'

4 So Bloomfield, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 48, 546; Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 585.

5 Translation of the Atharvaveda, 505.

Kūdi, written also Kūṭi in the manuscripts, occurs in the Atharvaveda and the Kauśika Sūtra denoting a twig—identified by the scholiast with Badari, the jujube—which was tied to the bodies of the dead to efface their traces, presumably in order to render the return of the spirit to the old home difficult.

1 V. 19, 12.  

Kūpa occurs in the Rigveda and later literature denoting an artificial hollow in the earth, or pit. In some cases they must have been deep, as Trita in the myth is said to have fallen into one from which he could not escape unaided. 3

1 i. 105, 17.  
2 Av. v. 31, 8; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 5, 4, 1; iv. 4, 5, 3; vi. 3, 3, 26, etc.; Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa, i. 184.  
3 Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 67.

Kūbara in the Maitrāyani Śaṁhitā (ii. 1, 11) and Kūbari in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (iv. 6, 9, ii. 12) and the Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa (xxvii. 6) denote the pole of a cart.

Kūrea is found in the Taittiriya Śaṁhitā and later denoting a bundle of grass used as a seat. In one passage of the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa a golden Kūrea is referred to.

1 vii. 5, 8, 5.  
2 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 5, 3, 4, 7.  
3 Jñāna-yāna Upaniṣad, ii. 11, 1; Aitareya Āranyaka, v. 1, 4.

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Kūrma, the ‘tortoise,’ is mentioned frequently in the later Samhítās and Brāhmaṇas, but nothing is said of its characteristics. See also Kaśyapa.

1 Av. ix. 4, 16; Taittirīya Samhitā, ii. 6, 3, 3; v. 2, 8, 4, 5, 7, vi. 1, 12; Maitrāyaṇī Samhitā, iii. 15, 3; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. 34, etc.

2 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 6, 2, 3; vi. 1, 12, etc. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 95; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 153.

Kūśambā Svāyava Lātavya is mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa as a priest. His name apparently means Kūśambā, of the Lātavya clan, son of Svāyu.

1 viii. 6, 8.
2 The form is peculiar, as Kūśambā would be expected.

Kṛkalāsa denotes the ‘chameleon’ mentioned in the list of sacrificial victims at the horse sacrifice in the Yajurveda and later. The female chameleon, Kṛkalāsi, is also referred to in the Brāhmaṇas. See Godhā and Śayandaka.

1 Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 19, 1; Maitrāyaṇī Samhitā, iii. 14, 21; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. 40.
2 Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, i. 5, 22.
3 Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 55, n. 2.

Kṛka-vāku, the ‘cock,’ being named in the Atharvaveda with sheep, goats, and other domesticated animals, was presumably tamed. In the list of victims at the horse sacrifice in the Yajurveda, it appears as dedicated to Savitṛ: Yāska explains this by the fact that it declares the time of day (kālaṅcāda). The commentator Mahīdhara explains the name by tāmra-cūḍā, ‘red-crested.’ It is of course onomatopoetic (‘calling kṛka’). See also Kukkuṭa.

1 v. 31, 2. Cf. x. 136, 10.
2 Cf., however, Sāyaṇa on Taittirīya Samhitā, v. 5, 18, 1, who says that it is a ‘forest’ Kukkuṭa.
3 Taittirīya Samhitā, loc. cit.; Maitrāyaṇī Samhitā, iii. 14, 15; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. 35.

4 Nirukta, xii. 3.
5 On Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, loc. cit.

Krmi | DAGGER—THE KRTVAN TRIBE—WORM 179


Kṛti.—From one passage in the Rigveda,1 where the Maruts are described as having Kṛtis, Zimmer2 concludes that the word means a dagger used in war. But there is no evidence that Kṛti was ever a human weapon. See Asi.

1 i. 168, 3.
2 Altindisches Leben, 301. Cf. Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 221.

Kṛttikās. See Nakṣatra.

Kṛtvan.—In one passage of the Rigveda1 the word Kṛtvan in the plural is mentioned with the Ārjikas and the five peoples. Pischel2 thinks that it means a people, and Sāyaṇa expressly says that the Kṛtvans designate a country.3 The name in that case would point to some connexion with the Kuruś or Krivis. Hillebrandt,4 however, thinks that the word is an adjective which qualifies Ārjikas and designates this people as magicians, being applied to them by an opponent. In favour of this view, he quotes Hiouen Thsang’s statement5 that the neighbouring kings held the base Kaśmirians in such scorn as to refuse all alliance with them, and to give them the name of Ki-li-to, or Kṛyas. He suggests that the Ārjikas settled in Kaśmir in ancient times already had the same evil reputation as their successors in later days.

1 ix. 65, 23.
2 Vedische Studien, 2, 209.
3 Kṛtvāna iti dekābhidhānam.
4 Vedische Mythologie, 1, 136, 137.
5 Cunningham, Ancient Geography of India, 93. Cf. Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Kṛpa is mentioned in the Rigveda,1 along with Ruṣama and Śyāvaka, as a protégé of Indra.

1 viii. 3, 12; 4, 2. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 162.

Krmi, ‘worm.’ In the later Saṃhitās,1 and especially in the Atharvaveda,2 worms play a considerable part. They are

1 Taittiriya Saṃhitā, v. 5, 11, 1; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 11; Vājaśaneyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. 30; Mantra Brahmaṇa, ii. 7; Taittiriya Āraṇyaka, iv. 36;
2 Satapatha Brahmaṇa, v. 4, 1, 2; and cf. Rv. i. 191.
3 ii. 31, 32; v. 23.

12—2
regarded as poisonous, and are spoken of as found in the mountains, in forests, in waters, in plants, and in the human body. In accordance with widespread primitive ideas, they are considered to be the causes of disease in men and animals. The Atharvaveda contains three hymns as charms directed against them. The first of these hymns is of a general character, the second is meant to destroy worms in cattle, and the third is intended to cure children of worms. When found in men, worms are said to have their place in the head and ribs, and to creep into the eyes, nose, and teeth. They are described as dark brown, but white in the fore part of the body, with black ears, and as having three heads. They are given many specific names: *Alaṇḍu, Ejatka, Kaśkaṣa, Kiṭa, Kurūru, Nilaṅgu, Yevāṣa, Vaghā, Vṛkṣasarpī, Šaluna, Šavarta, Šipavitnuka, Stega.*

*Kṛmuka* is the name in the Kāṭhaka Samhitā and the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa of a species of wood used for fuel.

*Kṛṣa* is mentioned with *Saṃvarta* as a pious sacrificer to Indra in one of the Vālakhilya hymns of the Rigveda and in another as a speaker of truth, while a third is traditionally ascribed to his authorship. He seems also to be mentioned with *Śayu* as a protégé of the Aśvins in another hymn of the Rigveda, but here the word may merely denote the 'feeble man.'

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3 *Av. ii. 31, 4.
4 *Av. v. 23, 3.
5 *Av. v. 23, 4 et seq.*


1 xix. 10.
2 vi. 6, 2, 11.

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3 *Ibid.* (Krāmuka as applied to *samidh*).
**Kṛṣṇa, 'pearl.'** In the Rigveda pearls are mentioned as adorning the car of Savitṛ as well as being used for the adornment of a horse. Hence the horse is spoken of as the 'pearled one' (kṛṣanāvant). The Atharvaveda also refers to pearls, and mentions that 'pearl shell' (saṅkhah kṛṣanah) won from the sea was used as an amulet. The Nighantu renders the word as 'gold.'

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**Kṛṣāṇu** appears in the Rigveda as a mythological personage. In one verse, however, Roth sees in this word the name of a bowman, but there seems no reason to dissociate this passage from the rest.

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**Kṛṣi, 'ploughing.'** The cultivation of the soil was no doubt known to the Indians before they separated from the Iranians, as is indicated by the identity of the expressions yavam kṛṣ and sasya in the Rigveda with yao kares and hahya in the Avesta, referring to the ploughing in of the seed and to the grain which resulted. But it is not without significance that the expressions for ploughing occur mainly in the first and tenth books of the Rigveda, and only rarely in the so-called 'family' books (ii.-vii.). In the Atharvaveda Prthi Vайнya is credited with the origination of ploughing, and even in the Rigveda the Asvins are spoken of as concerned with the sowing of grain by means of the plough. In the later Śamhitās and the Brāhmaṇas ploughing is repeatedly referred to.

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2. i. 112, 21.
4. ii. 10, 24.
5. i. 117, 21.
6. Kṛṣi is found, e.g., in Av. ii. 4, 5; viii. 2, 19; 10, 24; x. 6, 12; xii. 2, 27, etc.; Taittirīya Śamhitā, vii. 1, 11, 1, etc.; Maitrāyaṇī Śamhitā, i. 2, 2; iii. 6, 8; Vaijasyeyi Śamhitā, iv. 10; ix. 22; xiv. 19, 21, etc.; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, vii. 2, 2, 7; viii. 6, 2, 2; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 1, 2, 5, etc. In Av. vi. 116, 1, kṛṣṭavya denotes a 'plougher.' See also Kārṣman.
Even in the Rigveda there is clear proof of the importance attached to agriculture. In the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa the Vṛāyas, Hindus without the pale of Brahminism, are described as not cultivating the soil.

The plough land was called Urvarā or Kṣetra; manure (Śakan, Karīṣa) was used, and irrigation was practised (Khāni-trā). The plough (Lāṅgala, Sīra) was drawn by oxen, teams of six, eight, or even twelve being employed. The operations of agriculture are neatly summed up in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa as ‘ploughing, sowing, reaping, and threshing’ (kṛṣantah, vāpantah, tūnantah, mrṇantah). The ripe grain was cut with a sickle (Dātra, Śrīṇī), bound into bundles (Parśa), and beaten out on the floor of the granary (Khala). The grain was then separated from the straw and refuse either by a sieve (Titau) or a winnowing fan (Śūrpa). The winnower was called Dhānyākṛt, and the grain was measured in a vessel called Urdara.

The Rigveda leaves us in doubt as to the kind of grain grown, for Yava is a word of doubtful signification, and Dhānā is also vague. In the later Śaṃhitās things are different. Rice (Vṛīhi) appears, Yava means barley, with a species styled Upavāka. Beans (Mudga, Māsa), sesamum (Tila), and other grains (Aṅu, Khaḷva, Godhūma, Nīvāra, Priyaṅgu, Māśūrā, Śyāmākā) are mentioned, while cucumbers (Urvarū, Urvārūka) were known. It is uncertain whether fruit trees (Vṛksa) were cultivated, or merely grew wild; but frequent mention is made of the jujube (Karkandhu, Kuvala, Badara).

The seasons for agriculture are briefly summed up in a passage of the Taittirīya Śaṃhitā: barley ripened in summer, being no doubt sown, as in modern India, in winter; rice

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8 x, 34, 13; 117, 7. Cf. Hopkins, India, Old and New, 208.
9 xvii. 1.
10 Av. vi. 91, 1; Kāthaka Śaṃhitā, xv. 2. Cf. Rv. viii. 6, 48; x. 101, 4.
11 i. 6, 1, 3.
12 vii. 78, 10; x. 101, 3; 131, 2.
13 Rv. x. 48, 7.
14 Rv. x. 71, 2; Av. xii. 3, 19. The technical terms are tūṣair vi-vic, Av. xi. 1, 12; pālāvān apa-vic, xii. 3, 19.
15 Rv. x. 94, 13.
16 Rv. ii. 14, 11. See also Śthīvi.
17 See Vājasaneyi Śaṃhitā, xviii. 12, for a list.
18 The pulling of ripe fruit is referred to in Rv. iii. 45, 4. Cf. pahuśā ṣākhā, Rv. i. 8, 8; vṛksa pahuśa, Rv. iv. 20, 5; Av. xx. 127, 4. But that does not prove arboriculture.
19 vii. 2, 10, 2.
ripened in autumn, being sown in the beginning of the rains; beans and sesame, planted at the time of the summer rains, ripened in the winter and the cool season. There were two harvests (Sasya) a year according to the Taittirîya Saṁhitā; the winter crop was ripe by the month of Caitra (March-April) according to the Kauśîtaki Brâhmaṇa.

The farmer had plenty of trouble of his own: moles destroyed the seed, birds and various kinds of reptiles (Upakvasa, Jabhya, Tarda, Pataṅga) injured the young shoots, excessive rain or drought might damage the crops. The Atharvaveda contains spells to prevent these evils.

Kṛṣṭi denotes 'people' in general from the Rigveda onwards. Its common and regular use in this sense appears to show that the Āryans, when they invaded India, were already agriculturists, though the employment of the words referring to ploughing mentioned under Kṛṣi indicates that not all of the people devoted themselves equally to that occupation. Indra and Agni are par excellence the lords of men (Kṛṣṭi). Sometimes the word is further defined by the addition of an adjective meaning 'belonging to mankind,' 'of men' (mānuśṭh, mānavah).

Special mention is frequently made of the 'five peoples' (pañca kṛṣṭayāḥ). The exact sense of this expression is doubtful. See Panca Janāsah.

1. Kṛṣṇa ('black') denotes a dark-coloured animal or bird. In some passages, as the context shows, an antelope is certainly

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2. i. 52, 11; 100, 10; 160, 5; 189, 3; iii. 49, 1; iv. 21, 2, etc.; Av. xii. 1, 3, 4.

3. i. 177, 1; iv. 17, 5; vii. 26, 5; viii. 13, 9 (Indra); i. 59, 5; vi. 18, 2; vii. 5, 5 (Agni).

4. i. 59, 5; vi. 18, 2.

5. Av. iii. 24, 3.

6. Av. ii. 2, 10; iii. 53, 16; iv. 38, 10; x. 60, 4; 119, 6; 178, 3; Av. iii. 24, 2; xii. 1, 42.

meant. In a few others a bird of prey seems indicated. See also Kṛṣṇājīna.

2 Rv. x. 94, 5; Av. xi. 2, 2; Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka, xii. 27.

2. Kṛṣṇa appears as the name of a seer in one hymn of the Rigveda.1 Tradition assigns to him or to Viśvaka, son of Kṛṣṇa (Kārṣṇi), the authorship of the following hymn.2 The word Kṛṣṇiya may be a patronymic3 formed from the same name in two other hymns of the Rigveda,4 where the Aśvins are said to have restored Viśnāpū to Viśvaka Kṛṣṇiya. In that case Kṛṣṇa would seem to be the grandfather of Viśnāpū. This Kṛṣṇa may be identical with Kṛṣṇa Āṅgirasa mentioned in the Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa.5

1 viii. 85, 3-4.  
2 viii. 86.  
3 i. 116, 23; 117, 7.  
4 As a patronymic, it would be an isolated formation (cf. however Pāṇiriya), instead of Kārṣṇiya. Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, 228a and 200.  
5 xxx. 9.  

3. Kṛṣṇa Devāki-putra is mentioned in the Chāндogya Upaniṣad1 as a pupil of the mythical Ghora Āṅgirasa. Tradition,2 and several modern writers like Grierson, Garbe, and von Schroeder, recognize in him the hero Kṛṣṇa, who later is deified. In their view he is a Kṣatriya teacher of morals, as opposed to Brahminism.3 This is extremely doubtful. It appears better either to regard the coincidence of name as accidental, or to suppose that the reference is a piece of Euhemerism. To identify this Kṛṣṇa with the preceding, as does the St. Petersberg Dictionary, seems to be quite groundless.

1 iii. 17, 6.  
3 Von Schroeder, Vienna Oriental Journal, 19, 414, 415; Grierson, Encyclo-pedia of Religions, article ‘Bhakti’; Garbe, Bhagavadvītā.  

4. Kṛṣṇa Hārita is mentioned as a teacher in the Aitareya Āraṇyaka.1 The Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka2 has Kṛtsna in the parallel passage.

1 iii. 2, 6.  
2 viii. 10.  
Kṛṣṇa-datta Lauhitya ('descendant of Lohita') is mentioned in a Vāmśa (list of teachers) of the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 42, 1) as a pupil of Śyāmasujayanta Lauhitya.

Kṛṣṇa-dhṛti Sātyaki ('descendant of Satyaka') is mentioned in a Vāmśa (list of teachers) of the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 42, 1) as a pupil of SatyaSravas.

Kṛṣṇa-rāta Lauhitya ('descendant of Lohita') is mentioned in a Vāmśa (list of teachers) of the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 42, 1) as a pupil of Syamajajayanta Lauhitya.

Kṛṣnala denotes the berry of the Abrus precatorius, used as a weight according to the later authorities, one Māṣa ('bean') being equated to four Kṛṣṇalas. In the sense of a weight it occurs in the Taittirīya and other Saṃhitās, and later.

Kṛṣṇājina is the skin (ajina) of the black antelope (Kṛṣṇa.) It is repeatedly referred to in the later Saṃhitās and Brāhmaṇas with regard to its ritual use.

Kṛṣṇāyasa ('black metal'), 'iron,' is referred to in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (vi. 1, 6). See also Ayas and Kāṛṣṇāyasa.

Kṛṣara, a term denoting a mess of rice and sesamum, often mentioned in the Śūtras, occurs in the Śaḍvimsā Brāhmaṇa.

Kekaya is the name of a tribe which in later days, and probably also in Vedic times, was settled in the north-west,
between the Sindhu (Indus) and Vitasta. In the Vedic texts the Kekayas are mentioned indirectly only in the name of their prince Aśvapati Kaikeya.

1. Ketu is a term which Weber understands in the sense of 'meteor' or 'comet' in the late Adbhuta Brāhmaṇa.

2. Ketu Vājya ('descendant of Vāja') is mentioned as a teacher in the Vāṃśa Brāhmaṇa.

Kevarta, Kaivarta are two variant forms denoting 'fisherman' in the Vājaśaneyi Saṁhitā and Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa lists of victims at the Puruṣamedha, or human sacrifice.

Keśa, 'hair of the head,' is repeatedly mentioned in the later Saṁhitās and Brāhmaṇas. The hair was a matter of great care to the Vedic Indian, and several hymns of the Atharvaveda are directed to securing its plentiful growth. Cutting or shaving (vaḍ) the hair is often referred to. For a man to wear long hair was considered effeminate. As to modes of dressing the hair see Opāsa and Kaparda; as to the beard see Śmaśru.

1. Keśin is the name of a people occurring in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, where their king is mentioned as learning from Khaṇḍika the atonement for a bad omen at the sacrifice.
2. Keśin Dārbhya\(^1\) or Dālbhya\(^2\) ('descendant of Darbha') is a somewhat enigmatic figure. According to the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa\(^3\) and the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa\(^4\) he was a king, sister's son of Ucchaiṣṭravas, according to the latter authority. His people were the Pañcālas, of whom the Keśins must therefore have been a branch, and who are said to have been threefold (tryāṇīka).\(^5\) A story is told of his having a ritual dispute with Ṣaṇḍika in the Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā; this appears in another form in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa.\(^6\) He was a contemporary of a fellow sage, Keśin Śātyakāmi, according to the Maitrāyaṇi and Taittiriya\(^8\) Saṃhitās. The Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa\(^9\) attributes to him a Sāman or chant, and the Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa\(^10\) tells how he was taught by a golden bird.

In view of the fact that the early literature always refers to Dārbhya as a sage, it seems doubtful whether the commentator is right in thinking that the Satapatha refers to a king and a people, when a sage alone may well be meant, while the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa is of no great authority. The latter work may have assumed that the reference in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā\(^11\) to the Keśin people signifies kingship, but this is hardly necessary.

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\(^1\) This is the form of the name in the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, the Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, the Taittiriya Saṃhitā, and the Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa; also later in the Brhaddevatā.

\(^2\) This is the form in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā and the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa. It also appears later in the Rigveda Anukramaṇī.

\(^3\) xi. 8, 4, r et seq., as explained by Sāyaṇa.

\(^4\) iii. 29, r et seq.


\(^6\) i. 4, 12 (von Schroeder gives no variant reading; but ṣ and ḫḥ are constantly confused in manuscripts).

\(^7\) i. 6, 5.

\(^8\) ii. 6, 2, 3.

\(^9\) xiii. 10, 8.

\(^10\) vii. 4.


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3. Keśin Śātya-kāmi ('descendant of Satyakāma') is mentioned as a teacher and contemporary of Keśin Dārbhya in the Taittiriya (ii. 6, 2, 3) and Maitrāyaṇi (i. 6, 5) Saṃhitās.
Kesara-prābandhā.—In the list of the crimes of the Vaitahavyas narrated in the Atharvaveda\(^1\) is the cooking of the last she-goat (caramājām) of Kesara-prābandhā, who may presumably be deemed to have been a woman, ‘having braided hair.’\(^2\) Ludwig,\(^3\) followed by Whitney,\(^4\) appears to amend the passage (carama-jām) as meaning ‘the last-born calf’ of Kesara-prābandhā, a cow. But this interpretation does not suit the name so well.

\(^1\) v. 18, xi.  
\(^2\) Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 432, 433.  
\(^3\) Translation of the Rigveda, 2, 447.  
\(^4\) Translation of the Atharvaveda, 252.

Kaikeya, ‘king of the Kekayas,’ is an epithet of Aśvapati.\(^1\)

\(^1\) Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, x. 6, 1, 2; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, v. xi, 4.

Kairāta is the name of a snake in the Atharvaveda\(^1\)—possibly, but not probably, the modern Karait.


Kairāṭikā, a ‘maiden of the Kirāta people,’ is mentioned in the Atharvaveda (x. 4, 14) as digging up roots for medicinal use.

Kairiśi, ‘descendant of Kiriśa,’ is the patronymic of Sutvan in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (viii. 28).

Kaivarta. See Kevarta.

Kaiśinī.—The Kaiśinyah praṭāh, ‘offspring or people\(^1\) of Keśin,’ are mentioned in an obscure passage of the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa\(^2\) either as still existing at the date of the Brāhmaṇa\(^3\) or as extinct.

\(^1\) So Sāyaṇa.  
\(^2\) xi. 8, 4, 6.  
\(^3\) Cf. Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 44, 134.  

Kaiśorya, ‘descendant of Kaiśori,’ is the patronymic of Kāpya in the first two Varṇas (lists of teachers) in the Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad.\(^1\)

\(^1\) ii. 5, 22; iv. 5, 28 (Mādhyamāṇḍina=ii. 6, 3; iv. 6, 3 Kāṇva).
Kośa] CUCKOO—JŪJUBE—BUCKET—BODY OF CAR 189

1. Koka, a word occurring in the Rigveda and the Atharvaveda, seems to denote the ‘cuckoo.’ In all the three passages in which it is found, Sāyana explains it as the Cakravāka. Roth renders it in the Atharvaveda passages as a certain destructive parasitic animal. Cf. Anyāvāpa.

1 vii. 104, 22 (koka-yatu, a ghost in the shape of a cuckoo).
2 v. 23, 4; viii. 6, 2.

2. Koka is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (xiii. 5, 4, 17) as a son of the Pañcāla king, Sātrāsāha.

Kokila, a very frequent word in the Epic and later, denoting the cuckoo, is only inferred for the Vedic period from its being the name of a Rājaputra in the Kāṭhaka Anukramaṇi.1

1 Weber, Indische Studien, 3, 460.

Koṇeya, Kauneya. See Rajana.

Kola, another form of Kuvala, the Zizyphus jujuba, is mentioned in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (vii. 3, 1).

1. Kośa is the name in the Rigveda for the ‘bucket’ used in drawing water by means of a rope from a well (Avata). In the ritual it denotes a large vessel to hold Soma, as opposed to Kalaśa.

1 i. 130, 2; iii. 32, 15; iv. 17, 6. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 156.
2 Rv. ix. 75, 3; Av. xviii. 4, 30, etc. Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 183 et seq.

2. Kośa denotes the body of a chariot.1 Presumably it was fastened to the axles, but it was probably not very secure, as the body of Pūsan’s chariot is said not to fall.2 The ropes used to fasten the Kośa are perhaps referred to in the word aksā-nah.3 By synecdoche this word also denotes the whole chariot.4 See also Vandhura, Ratha.

1 Rv. i. 87, 2; x. 85, 7, etc.
2 Rv. vi. 54, 3.
3 Gāvah, Rv. viii. 48, 5.
4 See under 1. Aksa.
5 Rv. viii. 20, 8; 22, 9.
3. Kośa.—The exact sense of this word in Kośa-kāri, the designation of a female victim at the Puruṣamedha, or human sacrifice,  is uncertain. It may be ‘sheath.’

1 Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxx. 14; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 10, 1.

Kośa.—The Kośas appear as a priestly family in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, where one of them, Suśravas, is mentioned by name. 2

1 x. 5, 5, 8. 2 x. 5, 5, 1.

Kosala is the name of a people not occurring in the earliest Vedic literature. In the story of the spread of Āryan culture told in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, 1 the Kosala-Videhas, as the offspring of Videgha Māthava, appear as falling later than the Kuru-Paṅcālas under the influence of Brahminism. The same passage gives the Sadānīrā as the boundary of the two peoples—Kosala and Videha. Elsewhere 2 the Kausalya, or Kosala king, Para Āṭnāra Hairāṇyanābha, is described as having performed the great Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice. Connexion with Kāśi and Videha appears also from a passage of the Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Śūtra. 3 Weber 4 points out that Āśvalāyana, who was very probably a descendant of Aśvāla, the Hotṛ priest of Videha, is called a Kosala in the Praśna Upaniṣad. 5 The later distinction of North and South Kosala is unknown to both Vedic and Buddhist literature. 6

Kosala lay to the north-east of the Ganges, and corresponded roughly to the modern Oudh.

1 i. 4, 1, 1 et seq. 2 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 5, 4, 4. Cf. Hiraṇya-nābha, a Rājaputra, in Praśna Upaniṣad, iii. 2, and Śāṅkhā- yana Śrauta Śūtra, xvi. 9, 13, as a Kausalya, while ibid., xi, Para is styled Vaideha.

3 xvi. 29, 5. 4 Indische Studien, i, 182, 441.

5 vi. 1. 6 Oldenberg, Buddha, 393, n.

Cf. von Schroeder, Indiens Literatur und Cultur, 167; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, xlii; Weber, Indian Literature, 39, 132 et seq.; Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, 213-215; Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, 25.

Kaukūsta is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa 1 as a giver of a Daksinā, or gift to the priests officiating at a sacrifice. The Kāṇva recension reads the name Kaukūtha. 2

Kauṇeya. See Rajana.

Kauṇṭha-ravya is mentioned as a teacher in the Aitareya and Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyakas.\(^1\)

\(^1\) iii. 2, 2. \(^2\) vii. 14; viii. 2.

Cf. Keith, Aitareya Āraṇyaka, 249.

Kauṇḍinī. See Pārāśarīkauṇḍinīputra.

Kauṇḍinya is mentioned as a pupil of Śāṇḍilya in the first two Vaṃśas (lists of teachers) in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.\(^1\)

See also Vidarbhīkauṇḍinī, and the following.

\(^1\) ii. 5, 20; iv. 5, 26 (Mādhyaṃdina=ii. 6, 1; iv. 6, 1, Kāṇva).

Kauṇḍinyāyana is mentioned in the first Vaṃśa (list of teachers) of the Mādhyaṃdina recension of the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad as a pupil of Kauṇḍinya, pupil of Kauṇḍinya and Āgnivesya; in the second as a pupil of the two Kauṇḍinyas, pupils of Aurnāvābha, pupil of Kauṇḍinya, pupil of Kauṇḍinya, pupil of Kauṇḍinya and Āgnivesya. Neither Vaṃśa is of much value.\(^3\)

\(^1\) ii. 5, 20. \(^2\) iv. 5, 26. \(^3\) Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, xxxiv.

Kautasta, a word occurring once in the dual, is apparently a patronymic of Arimejaya and Janamejaya, two Adhvaryu priests at the snake sacrifice described in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.\(^1\)

\(^1\) xxv. 15, 3. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 35.

Kautsa (‘descendant of Kutsa’) is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa as a pupil of Māhitthi. A Kautsa is also attacked in the Nirukta as denying the value of the Vedas, and there is a strong ritual tradition of hostility to the Kautsas.\(^3\)

\(^1\) x. 6, 5, 9; Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 5, 4 (Kāṇva recension only). \(^2\) i. 15. \(^3\) E.g., Āpastamba Śrauta Sūtra, x. 20, 12; Hillebrandt, Vedicc Mythologie, 3, 285. Cf. Weber, Indian Literature, 77, 140.
Kautsi-putra (‘son of a female descendant of Kutsa’) is mentioned as a pupil of Baudhiputra in the last Vamśa (list of teachers) of the Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad in the Mādhyamāṃḍina recension (vi. 4, 31).

Kaupayeya is the patronymic of Uccaiḥśravas.

Kaumbhya (‘descendant of Kumbhya’) is the patronymic of Babhru.

Kaurama. See Kaurava.

Kaurayāna is apparently a patronymic of Pākasthāman in the Rigveda.1 Hopkins2 suggests that Kaurāyaṇa may be meant.

2 Journal of the American Oriental Society, 17, 90, n. 2.

Kaurava is the reading of the text of the Khilas1 and of some manuscripts of the Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra2 for the Kaurama of the Atharvaveda,3 who appears in a Dānastuti (‘Praise of Gifts’) as a generous donor among the Rūṣamas.

1 v. 8, 1 (Scheftelowitz, Die Apo-

kryphen des Rigveda, 155).
2 xii. 14, 1.
3 xx. 127, 1.

Kauravya (‘belonging to the Kurus’). A man of the Kuru people, is described in the Atharvaveda as enjoying prosperity with his wife under the rule of King Parikṣit.1 Mention is also made of the Kauravya king Balhika Prātipīya in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,2 and in the later legend Ārṣṭiṣena and Devāpi are alleged to have been Kauravyas.3

1 xx. 127, 8; Khila, v. 10, 2; Śāṅkh-

āyana Śrauta Sūtra, xii. 17, 2. Cf. a
Mantra in the Vaitāṇa Sūtra, xxxiv. 9.
2 xii. 9, 3, 3.
3 Nirukta, ii. 10.

Kauravyāyaṇi-putra (‘son of a female descendant of Kuru’) is mentioned as a teacher in the Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad (v. 1, 1).
Karu-paṅcāla, 'belonging to the Kuru-Paṅcālas,' is an epithet of Āruṇi in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (xi. 4, 1, 2), and a practice of those tribes is designated by this word in the same work (i. 7, 2, 8).

Kaulakāvatī are two persons mentioned in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā (ii. 1, 3) as having given advice, in the capacity of priests, to Rathaprotva Dārdbhya.

Kaulāla is a word denoting a hereditary potter ('son of a kulāla or potter') according to the commentator Mahīdhara on the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā. The other Saṃhitās have Kulāla.

Kaulitapa is mentioned in the Rigveda as a Dāsa. Apparently the name is an epithet of Šambara, meaning 'son of Kulitara': this points to Šambara having been a terrestrial foe, and not a mere demon.

Kaulika, like Kulika, is the name of some sort of bird in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice, in the Yajurveda.

Kausāmbeya is the patronymic ('descendant of Kuśāmba') of a teacher Proti in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa according to the St. Petersburg Dictionary: a view supported by the fact that Kūsāmba actually occurs as the name of a man in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa. It is, however, possible that the word means a 'native of the town Kauśāmbī' as understood by Harisvāmin in his commentary on the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.

1 xii. 2, 2, 13; Gopatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 2, 24. 2 viii. 6, 8. The name is also found later (in the Epic) in the form of Kuśāmba.

1 Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. 24; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 5.
**Kauśika** is an epithet of Indra as ‘connected with the Kuśikas,’ and also of Viśvāmitra as ‘son of Kuśika.’¹ A teacher named Kauśika is mentioned as a pupil of Kauṇḍinya in the first two Vamśas (lists of teachers) of the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.²

¹ In a late Khila, Scheftelowitz, *Die Apokryphen des Rgveda*, 104.

² ii. 6, 1; iv. 6, 1 (Kāṇva recension).

**Kauśikāyana** (‘descendant of Kauśika’) is mentioned as a teacher and a pupil of Ghṛtakauśika in the first two Vamśas (lists of teachers) of the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.

¹ ii. 5, 21; iv. 5, 27 (Mādhyaṁdīna = ii. 6, 3; iv. 6, 3, Kāṇva).

**Kauśikī-putra** (‘son of a female descendant of Kuśika’) is mentioned in a Vamśa (list of teachers) in the Kāṇva recension of the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (vi. 5, 1) as a pupil of Ālambiputra and Vaiyāghrapadiputra.

**Kauśreyya** (‘descendant of Kuśri’) is the patronymic of Somadakṣa in the Kāṭhaka Śaṁhitā (xx. 8; xxi. 9).

**Kauṣārava** (‘descendant of Kuṣāru’) is the patronymic of Maitreya in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (viii. 28).

**Kauṣitaki** (‘descendant of Kuṣitaka’) is the patronymic of a teacher, or series of teachers, to whom the doctrines set forth in the Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa¹ and in the Śaṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka,² and the Śrauta and Grhya Sūtras,³ are referred. He is rarely mentioned elsewhere.⁴ The doctrine of Kauṣītaki is called the Kauṣītaka.⁵ The pupils of Kauṣītaki are known as the Kauṣītakis in the Nidāna Sūtra,⁶ and in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa⁷

¹ ii. 9; vii. 4. 10; viii. 8; xi. 5. 7; xiv. 3. 4; xv. 2; xvi. 9; xviii. 5; xxii. 1. 2; xxiii. 1. 4; xxiv. 8. 9; xxv. 8. 10. 14. 15, etc.

² ii. 17; xv. i; Kauṣītaki Upaniṣad, ii. 1. 7.

³ Śaṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, iv. 15, 11; vii. 21, 6; ix. 20, 33; xi. 11, 3, 6, etc.

⁴ Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 4. 3, 1; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, i. 5, 2.

⁵ Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa, iii. 1; xix. 3; Śaṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, iv. 2, 13; xi. 14, 28; Anupada Sūtra, ii. 7; vii. 11; viii. 5, etc.

⁶ vi. 12.

⁷ xvii. 4, 3.
they with Kuśitaka are stated to have been cursed by Luśākapi. Elsewhere they are called Kuśitakins. If the Śaṅkhâyana Āraṇyaka can be trusted, there were among them at least two leading teachers, Kahoda and Sarvajit, the former of whom is mentioned elsewhere.⁰⁰⁸

⁰⁰⁸ Āpastamba Śrauta Sūtra, x. i, 10; Āśvalāyana Grhya Sūtra, i. 23.

⁰⁰⁹ Cf. Keith, Śaṅkhâyana Āraṇyaka, 14, 24, 71.

⁰⁰¹ Saṭapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 4, 3, 1;

Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, iii. 4, 1; Āśvalāyana Grhya Sūtra, iii. 4.

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 259; 2, 289 et seq.; Indian Literature, 44 et seq.; Lindner, Kuśitaki Brāhmaṇa, ix.

Kausya, ‘descendant of Kośa,’ is the patronymic of Suṣravas.

Kausalya, ‘prince of Kosala,’ is the designation of Para Aṭñāra in the Saṭapatha Brāhmaṇa,¹ and of Hiraṇyaniabha in the Śaṅkhâyana Śrāuta Sūtra.² Āśvalāyana is styled Kausalya, as ‘belonging to the Kosala country,’ in the Prāśna Upaniṣad,³ and the Kāśi-Kausalyāḥ, or the ‘Kāśis and people of Kosala,’ are mentioned in the Gopatha Brāhmaṇa.⁴

Kausita appears in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā (ii. 1, 11) in connexion with the demon Kuśitāyin as the name of a lake. The Kaṭhaka Saṃhitā (x. 5) has Kausida instead.

Kausurubindi, ‘descendant of Kusurubinda,’ is the patronymic of Protī Kuṇāmbeya in the Saṭapatha Brāhmaṇa (xii. 2, 2, 13). In the Gopatha Brāhmaṇa (i. 4, 24) the form is Kausuravindu.

Kauṭa, ‘descendant of Kauṭa,’ is the patronymic of a teacher, Mitravinda, mentioned in the Vamsā Brāhmaṇa,¹ as well as of Śravaṇadatta.

¹ Weber, Indische Studien, 4, 372, 382 et seq. A school of Kauṭṭiyas is known in the Gobhila Grhya Sūtra, iii. 4, 34.

Kratu-jit Jānaki (‘descendant of Jānaka’) is mentioned in the Yajurveda¹ as the priest of Rajana Kuṇeyya. See also Kratuvīd.

Kratu-vid Jānaki (‘descendant of Janaka’) is mentioned in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (vii. 34) as having learned a certain doctrine regarding Soma from Agni.

Kraya, ‘sale,’ is a word which does not actually occur in the Rigveda, though the verb krī, from which this noun is derived, is found there. Both noun and verb are common in the later Śaṁhitās. Sale appears to have regularly consisted in barter in the Rigveda: ten cows are regarded as a possible price for an (image of) Indra to be used as a fetish, while elsewhere not a hundred, nor a thousand, nor a myriad are considered as an adequate price (śulka) for the purchase of Indra. The Atharvaveda mentions, as possible objects of commerce, garments (dūrśa), coverlets (pavasta), and goatskins (ajina). The haggling of the market was already familiar in the days of the Rigveda, and a characteristic hymn of the Atharvaveda is directed to procuring success in trade. The ‘price’ was called Vasna, and the ‘merchant’ Vaṁij, his greed being well known.

There is little evidence of a standard of value in currency having been adopted. When no specific mention is made of the standard, the unit was probably the cow. In a considerable number of passages of the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa and elsewhere, however, the expression hiranyam saha-mānam suggests that there must have been some standard other than

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1 iv. 24, 10.
2 Kraya: Taittiriya Samhitā, iii. 1, 2, 1; vi. 1, 3, 3; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, viii. 55; xix. 13; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 3, 2, 10, etc.; krī: Av. iii. 15, 2; Taittiriya Samhitā, vi. 1, 10, 3; vii. 1, 6, 2, etc.; apa-krī: Av. viii. 7, 11; pari-krī: Av. iv. 7, 6, etc.; vi-krī: Vājasaneyi Samhitā, iii. 49, etc.
3 iv. 24, 10.
4 Rv. vii. 1, 5.
5 iv. 7, 6.
7 iii. 15. See Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 352; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 111, 112.
8 Rv. i. 33, 3, and see Paṇī.
9 Cf. Harisvaṁ on Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 4, 2, 1, where he renders sahasaṁrka as equal to ‘worth a thousand cows,’ in which Eggeling follows him; Samkṣiptasāra on Kātyāyana Śrauta Śūtra, xxii. 10, 33.
10 xii. 7, 13; 9, 1, 4; xiii. 1, 1, 4; 2, 3, 2; 4, 1, 13; xiv. 3, 1, 32. Cf. v. 5, 5, 16; xiii. 4, 1, 6.
11 Paṇcaviṁśa Brāhmaṇa, xviii. 3, 2, where a long series of compounds of numerals with -māna occurs; Kāthaka Samhitā, viii. 5; xiv. 8; xxii. 8.
cows, though it might in all these passages be rendered as 'gold worth a hundred cows.' But the use of the $Kṛṣṇalā$ as a measure of weight suggests that the meaning is 'gold weighing a hundred $Kṛṣṇalas,' and this seems the more probable explanation. This unit seems not to be known in the Rigveda, where the meaning of the term $ Mana $, which occurs once, is mysterious, and where necklets ($ Nīski $) seem to have been one of the more portable forms of wealth, like jewellery in modern India, and may perhaps have served as a means of exchange.

12 Cf. Kāṭha Sāṁhitā, xi. 4; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, 6, 7; Anupada Śūtra, ix. 6; Weber, Indische Streifen, i, 99-103.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 255-260. Barter had for the most part passed away by the time of the Jātakas, an illustration of the modern character of the society they represent. See Mrs. Rhys Davids, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1901, 874 et seq.

$ Kravaṇa $, a word occurring only once in the Rigveda, is understood by Ludwig as the name of the Hotṛ priest or the sacrificer. Roth considered it an adjective without at first assigning a sense, but afterwards as meaning 'timid.' Sāyaṇa interprets it as 'worshipping.' Oldenberg considers the meaning uncertain, suggesting as possible 'the slayer of the victim.'

1 v. 44, 9. 2 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 138. 3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. 4 Böhtlingk's Dictionary, s.v. 5 Rgveda-Noten, 1, 342.

$ Kravya $, 'raw flesh,' is never mentioned in Vedic literature as eaten by men. Demons alone are spoken of as consuming it, apart from Agni being called $ kravyād $, 'eating raw flesh,' as consumer of the bodies of the dead. The man who in the Rigveda is compelled by starvation to eat dog's flesh, nevertheless cooks it.

1 Rv. vii. 104, 2; x. 87, 2, 19; 162, 2; Av. iii. 23, 2; iv. 36, 3; v. 29, 10, etc. 2 Rv. x. 16, 9, 10. See Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, pp. 97, 165. 3 iv. 18, 13.


$ Krātu-jāteya $ is a patronymic of $ Rāma Krātu-jāteya Vaiyā-ghrapadya $ in the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 40, 2; iv. 16, 1).

Krimi. See Kṛmi.
Krivi is asserted in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ to have been the older name of the Pañcālas. This statement is supported by the name of the king there mentioned, Kraivyā Pañcāla. The Krivis appear in the Rigveda² as settled on the Sindhu and the Asiknī. It is a plausible conjecture of Zimmer’s³ that with the Kurus they made up the Vaikarna people.⁴ The importance of the Pañcālas, and the insignificance of the Krivis, may be explained in part by the fact that the later Kuru-Pañcāla alliance included the Bharatās. It is also probable, as Oldenberg⁵ suggests, from the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,⁶ that the Turvaśas were included in the Pañcālas, and as the latter name indicates, probably other tribes also. Or, if Hopkins' view⁷ is accepted that Turvaśa was king of the Yadus, the latter may in part have been allied with the Krivis to form the Pañcālas.

¹ xiii. 5, 4, 7.
² viii. 20, 24; 22, 12. Elsewhere Krivi is doubtful in sense. In several passages (i. 30; i.; viii. 87; i; ix. 9, 6, and perhaps i. 166, 6, where krivre-dati is an epithet of lightning) Oldenberg, Rigveda-Noten, i. 166, 341, understands the word to mean ‘horse.’ Elsewhere (ii. 17, 6; 22, 2; viii. 51, 8) he takes it to be a proper name, while in v. 44, 4, he is doubtful. In the passages last cited this view may very well be correct.
³ Altindisches Leben, 103.
⁴ Cf. Kavaśa.
⁵ Buddha, 404.
⁶ xiii. 5, 4, 16.
⁷ Journal of the American Oriental Society, 15, 258 et seq. This view is hardly convincing, while the disappearance of the Turvaśas is easily to be accounted for by their being merged, along with the Krivis, in the Pañcālas. The name of Krivi is lost in the Epic as completely as that of Turvaśa (Pargiter, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1910, 48, notes 4, 5).

Krita Vaita-hotra (‘descendant of Vitahotra’) is mentioned in the Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā (iv. 2, 6) in connexion with the Kurus.

I. Kruṇa,¹ Kruṇca,² Krauṇca,³ are variant forms denoting the ‘curlew’ or ‘snipe.’ To it is attributed in the Yajurveda¹

¹ Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, iii. ii., 6; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxxviii., 1; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xix. 73 et seq.; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, ii, 6, 2, 1-3.
² Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. 22. 31 (in xxv. 6 the sense is quite uncertain); Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 3.
³ Taittirīya Saṃhitā, v. 5, 12, 1.
the faculty, later assigned to the **Hamsa**, of extracting milk from water when the two fluids are mixed.⁴

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### 2. **Kruṅa Āṅgirasa**

is in the **Pāñcavimśa Brāhmaṇa** the name of the seer of a Sāman or Chant called the Kruṅca. It is doubtless invented to explain the name of the Chant on the ordinary principle that Sāmans are called after their authors, though this rule has many exceptions.²

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**Krumu** is the name of a stream mentioned twice in the Rigveda—once in the fifth book¹ and once in the last, in the Nadi-stuti, or ‘praise of rivers.’² There can be little doubt that this river is identical with the modern Kurum, a western tributary of the Indus.³

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³ v. 53, 9. 
² Hopkins, *Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences*, 15, 68.
¹ Taittiriya Śaṁhitā, v. i, 9, 3; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, i. 4, 7, 3.

**Krumuka** as the name of ‘wood’ appears to be a variant form of **Kpmuka**.

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¹ Taittiriya Śaṁhitā, v. i, 9, 3; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, i. 4, 7, 3.

**Kraivya. **Pāñcāla, the king of the **Krīvis**,¹ is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa² as having performed the Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice, on the **Parivakrā**. Eggeling,³ however, takes the word as a proper name, ‘Kraivya, the Pāñcāla king.’

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² xiii. 5, 4, 7.
¹ Oldenberg, *Buddha*, 499, n.

**Kroṣa**, as a measure of distance (lit. ‘a shout,’ as expressing the range of the voice), is found in the **Pāñcavimśa Brāhmaṇa**.¹

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¹ xvi. 13, 12. Cf. Weber, *Indische Studien*, 8, 432 et seq. In the later literature it is equivalent to about two miles. The word still survives in the vernacular form of Kos as the most popular measure of distance in India.
Kroṣṭr (lit. ‘howler’), the ‘jackal,’ is mentioned in the Rigveda as by nature cowardly compared with the wild boar (Varāha). In the Atharvaveda it is spoken of as devouring corpses. The word also occurs in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, where the commentator glosses it with Sṛgāla, another name of the jackal. See also Lopāsa.

1. Krauṇca. See Kruṅc.

2. Krauṇca, as the name of a mountain, occurs only in the latest Vedic literature.  

Krauṇcikī-putra, ‘son of a female descendant of Krauṇca,’ is mentioned as a pupil of Vaiṭṭabhatīputra in the last Vamśa (list of teachers) in the Bṛhadāranyaka Upaniṣad.

Krauṣṭuki, ‘descendant of Kroṣṭuka,’ is mentioned as a grammarian in the Nirukta, the Bṛhaddevatā, and the Chandas, but as an astrologer in a Pariśiṣṭa of the Atharvaveda.

Kvayi is the name of some species of bird in the Yajurveda, occurring in the list of victims at the Aṣvamedha, or horse sacrifice. The form in the Maitrāyani Saṃhitā is Kuvaya.

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1 x. 28, 1. 2 xi. 2, 2. 3 xxiv. 32. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 84.

1 X. xii. 2. 2 vi. 5, 2 (Kṛṣṇa).

1 Vaidabhṛti-putra in the Mādhyaṃ-dina recension, vi. 4, 32.

1 Vaidabhṛti-putra in the Mādhyaṃ-dina recension, vi. 4, 32.

1 Taittirīya Āranyaka, i. 31, 2. See Weber, Indian Literature, 93; Indische Studien, i, 78.

2 Vaidabhṛti-putra in the Mādhyaṃ-dina recension, vi. 4, 32.

3 Weber, Berlin Catalogue of Sanskrit MSS., i, 94. See Bolling and von Negelein, The Pariśiṣṭas of the Atharvaveda, 2, 438 et seq., where in Pariśiṣṭa lxvii (Svapnadhyayah), i. 2; ii. 8, the name appears as Kroṣṭuki.

4 Weber, Jyotiṣa, 12; Indian Literature, 61.

1 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, v. 5, 17, 1; 2 iii. 14, 18.

1 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, v. 5, 17, 1; 2 iii. 14, 18.

1 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, v. 5, 17, 1; 2 iii. 14, 18.

Kvala is a substance, perhaps identical with Kuvala, the fruit of the jujube, used to coagulate milk according to the Taittiriya Sanhvita.¹

1 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Kṣata is regarded by Zimmer¹ as denoting a special disease (a sort of Phthisis pulmonalis) in the Atharvaveda,² but the word is probably only an adjective.³

1 Altindisches Leben, 377.
2 vii. 76, 4 (where the reading is doubtful, the text having āksita. See Aksata).
3 Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 509; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 442.

Kṣattṛ is a word of frequent occurrence in the later Sanhvitas and Brāhmaṇas, denoting a member of the royal entourage, but the sense is somewhat uncertain. In the Rigveda¹ it is used of a god as the ‘distributor’ of good things to his worshippers; the same sense seems to be found in the Atharvaveda,² and elsewhere.³ In one passage of the Vājasaneyi Sanhvita⁴ the interpretation ‘doorkeeper’ is given by the commentator Mahidhara, a sense which seems possible in other passages,⁵ while Sāyana ascribes to it in one passage of the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa⁶ the more dignified meaning of antahpurādhyaṇa, ‘a chamberlain.’ In other passages,⁷ again, the sense of ‘charioteer’ is not unlikely. Later the Kṣattṛ was regarded as a man of mixed caste.⁸

¹ vi. 13, 2.
² ii. 24, 7; v. 17, 4.
³ Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 5, 4, 6; Śāṅkhāyaṇa Śrāuta Sūtra, xvi. 9, 16.
⁴ xxx. 13. Cf. Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 3, 5.
⁵ Taittiriya Sanhvita, iv. 5, 4, 2; Maitreyanā Śāṁhīta, ii. 9, 4; Kāthaka Sanhvīta, xvi. 13; Chāndogya Upaniśad, iv. 1, 5; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xix. 1, 4.
⁶ v. 3, 1, 7. Cf. on xiii. 4, 2, 5 (āyvyayādhyāyaṇa), and Harisvāmin on xiii. 5, 4, 6 (kośādhyāyaṇa). The scholiast on the Kāṭyāyana Śrāuta Sūtra, xv. 3, 9, nas maṇtri dūto vā; on xx. 1, 16, pratihāro dūto vā. Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 41, 61, etc., renders it ‘charioteer.’
⁷ Vājasaneyi Sanhvīta, xvi. 26; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 7, 1, with the scholiast’s note, and ibid., anukṣattṛ, rendered as sārather anucara, ‘the attendant of the charioteer’; Śāṅkhāyana Śrāuta Sūtra, xvi. 1, 20, with the scholiast’s note.
⁸ Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 12, 481.
⁹ Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 2, 36; 17, 290; St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
1. **Kṣatra**, in the general sense of ‘dominion,’ ‘rule,’ ‘power,’ as exercised by gods and men, occurs frequently from the Rigveda¹ onwards. The word is also found in the concrete sense of ‘rulers’ in the Rigveda² and later;³ but in no case does it in the Rigveda certainly⁴ mean what it regularly denotes in the later Saṃhitās,⁵ the ruling class as opposed to the priests (Brahman), the subject people (Viś, Vaiśya), and the servile class (Śūdra). See also **Kṣatriya**. A Kṣatra-pati is several times mentioned⁶ as an equivalent of ‘king.’

1 i. 24, 11; 136, 1, 3; iv. 17, 1; v. 62, 6, etc.; Av. iii. 5, 2; v. 18, 4, etc. So kṣatra-dṛ, Rv. i. 25, 5; vi. 26, 8; kṣatra-bhṛt, ‘bringers of lordship.’ Taittirīya Saṃhitā, ii. 4, 7, 2; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 4, 6, 12; 7, 6, 3; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxvii. 7, etc.

2 Singular: i. 157, 2; viii. 35, 17.

3 Plural: Av. iv. 22, 2; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, x. 17; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 7, 6, 3.

2. **Kṣatra** seems to be the name of a man mentioned with others, including Manasa, Yajata, and Avatsāra, in one quite obscure passage of the Rigveda.¹


Kṣatra-vidyā, ‘the science of the ruling class,’ is mentioned in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad.¹ Śaṅkara glosses the term with dhanur-veda, ‘the science of the bow,’ which is the most probable sense.²

1 vii. 1, 2, 4; 2, 1; 7, 1.


**Kṣatriya**.—As the origin of caste, the relation of the castes, intermarriage, and cognate matters may most conveniently be discussed under **Varna**, this article will be confined to determining, as far as possible, the real character of the class called Kṣatriyas, or collectively **Kṣatra**.

The evidence of the Jātakas¹ points to the word Khattiya

1 See Fick, *Die sociale Gliederung im nordöstlichen Indien zu Buddhas Zeit*, 59 et seq.; Rhys Davids, *Dialogues of the Buddha*, i, 95 et seq.; *Buddhist India*, 52 et seq.
denoting the members of the old Āryan nobility who had led the tribes to conquest, as well as those families of the aborigines who had managed to maintain their princely status in spite of the conquest. In the epic also the term Kṣatriya seems to include these persons, but it has probably a wider signification than Khattiya, and would cover all the royal military vassals and feudal chiefs, expressing, in fact, pretty much the same as the barones of early English history. Neither in the Jātakas nor in the epic is the term co-extensive with all warriors; the army contains many besides the Kṣatriyas, who are the leaders or officers, rather than the rank and file.

In the later Saṃhitās and the Brāhmaṇas the Kṣatriya stands as a definite member of the social body, distinct from the priest, the subject people, and the slaves, Brāhmaṇa, Vaiśya, and Śūdra. It is significant that Rājanya is a variant to Kṣatriya, and an earlier one. Hence it is reasonable to suppose that the Kṣatriya and Rājanya are both of similar origin, being princely or connected with royalty. Moreover, the early use of Kṣatriya in the Rigveda is exclusively connected with royal authority or divine authority.

It is impossible to say exactly what persons would be included in the term Kṣatriya. That it covered the royal house and the various branches of the royal family may be regarded as certain. It, no doubt, also included the nobles and their families: this would explain the occasional opposition of Rājanya and Kṣatriya, as in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, where a Rājanya asks a Kṣatriya for a place for sacrifice (deva-yajana). Thus, when strictly applied, Kṣatriya would have a wider denotation than Rājanya. As a rule, however, the two expressions are identical, and both are used as evidence in what follows. That Kṣatriya ever included the mere fighting

3 Fick, op. cit., 52, n. 2.
4 Hopkins, op. cit., 184 et seq., 190.
5 Av. vi. 76, 3. 4; xii. 5, 5. 44. 46, etc.; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 5, etc. See Varṇa and Rājanya.
6 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 24, etc.; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, 2, 15; iv. 1, 4, 5, 6, etc. See Varṇa.
7 iv. 12, 3; 42, 1; v. 60, 1; vii. 63, 2; viii. 25, 8; 56, 1; x. 109, 3. Cf. Vājasaneyi Samhitā, iv. 19; x. 4; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 4, 7, 7.
8 vii. 20. Cf. Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xxiv. 18, 2; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xx. 1.
man has not been proved: in the Rigveda and later others than Kṣatriyas regularly fought; but possibly if the nobles had retinues as the kings had, Kṣatriya would embrace those retainers who had military functions. The term did not apply to all members of the royal entourage; for example, the Grāmāṇi was usually a Vaiśya.

The connexion of the Kṣatriyas with the Brahmins was very close. The prosperity of the two is repeatedly asserted to be indissolubly associated, especially in the relation of king (Rājan) and domestic priest (Purohitā). Sometimes there was feud between Kṣatriya and Brahmin. His management of the sacrifice then gave the Brahmin power to ruin the Kṣatriya by embroiling him with the people or with other Kṣatriyas.

Towards the common people, on the other hand, the Kṣa-

There are, however, references to occasional feuds between

9 In the following passages there is reference to the people (vīś) fighting: i. 69, 3; 126, 5 (cf., however, Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 121); iv. 24, 4; vi. 26, 1; vii. 79, 2; viii. 18, 18; 96, 15; probably also vii. 33, 6, where the Trṣunāṁ vikā ṣ means ‘the subjects of the Trṣu princes,' as Geldner, Vedische Studien, 2, 136, thinks. In vi. 41, 5, on the other hand, the people and wars (pytmanās) are contrasted, the normal rule of the common folk being peace.

10 In Av. ix. 7, 9, the people are clearly designated as balam, or ‘force,' a regular term later for an armed force. The later law books (e.g., Gautama, vii. 6; Vasiṣṭha, i. 22) allow even Brahmans to maintain themselves by the occupation of Kṣatriyas in case of need. For the Epic, cf. Hopkins, op. cit., 94, 95; 184 et seq.

11 Taittirīya Saṁhitā, v. 1, 10; 3; Maitrāyaṇī Saṁhitā, ii. 2, 3; iii. 1, 9; 2, 3; iv. 3, 9; Kāṭhaka Saṁhitā, xxxix. 10; Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, v. 27; vii. 21; xviii. 14; xix. 5; xxxviii. 14, etc.; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xi. 11, 9; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 22; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 2, 1, 7; iii. 5, 2, 11; 6, 1, 17; vi. 6, 3, 14. The superiority of the Rājana to all other castes is asserted in Taittirīya Saṁhitā, ii. 5, 10, 1, etc. The superiority of the Brahmin to the Kṣatriya is sometimes asserted — e.g., in the Atharvaveda hymns, v. 18, 19; Maitrāyaṇī Saṁhitā, iv. 3, 8; Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, xxi. 21; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 1, 9, 1; 3, 7, 8. So the Rājasūya sacrifice of the king is inferior to the highest sacrifice (the Vāja-peya) of the priest (ibid., v. 1, 1, 12), and though the Brahmin goes after the king, he is yet stronger than he (v. 4, 2, 7, and v. 4, 4, 15). Cf. Hopkins, op. cit., 76.

12 Kāṭhaka Saṁhitā, xxviii. 5; Av. v. 18, 19.

13 E.g., Taittirīya Saṁhitā, ii. 2, 11, 2; Maitrāyaṇī Saṁhitā, i. 6, 5; ii. 1, 9; iii. 3, 10; Kāṭhaka Saṁhitā, xxix. 8, etc.

14 Maitrāyaṇī Saṁhitā, iii. 3, ro, etc.

15 Kāṭhaka Saṁhitā, xvi. 4; xxi. 10; xxii. 9; xxix. 9, 10; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 33; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 2, 7, 15; 16, etc.; Maitrāyaṇī Saṁhitā, iv. 4, 9, 10; 6, 8, etc.
the people and the nobles, in which no doubt the inferior numbers of the latter were compensated by their superior arms and prowess. In the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa the Vaiśya is described as tributary to another (anyasya balī-kṛt), to be devoured by another (anyasyādyā), and to be oppressed at will (yathākāma-jyeya). Probably these epithets apply most strictly to the relation of the king and his people, but the passage shows that the people were greatly at the mercy of the nobles. No doubt the king granted to them the right, which may have been hereditary, to be supported by the common people, whose feudal superiors they thus became. In return for these privileges the Kṣatriyas had probably duties of protection to perform, as well as some judicial functions, to judge from an obscure passage of the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā.

The main duty of the Kṣatriya in the small states of the Vedic period was readiness for war. The bow is thus his special attribute, just as the goad is that of the agriculturist; for the bow is the main weapon of the Veda. Whether the Kṣatriyas paid much attention to mental occupations is uncertain. In the latest stratum of the Brāhmaṇa literature there are references to learned princes like Janaka of Videha, who is said to have become a Brahmin (brahmā), apparently in the sense that he had the full knowledge which a Brahmin possessed. Other learned Kṣatriyas of this period were

16 Cf. note 13; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, v. 4, 6, 7; Maitrāyani Saṃhitā, iv. 6, 7.
18 xxvii. 4 (tasmād rājanyenaḥ dhāraya vaisyaṁ ghnanti, ‘so with a Rājanya as a supervisor [?] they smite a Vaiśya’). It is not clear whether han here means ‘kill’ or ‘beat.’
19 See Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 30, n. 2.
20 Av. xviii. 2, 60; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xviii. 9; xxvii. 1; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 3, 5, 30; Taittirīya Aranyakā, vi. 1, 3. In the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 19, the list is longer—chariot, breastplate (Kavaca), bow and arrow (imū-dhanvan)—and in the prayer for the

prosperity of the Kṣatriya (called, as usual in the older texts, Rājanya), at the Aśvamedha, the Rājanya is to be an archer and a good chariot-fighter; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vii. 5, 18, 1; Maitrāyani Saṃhitā, iii. 12, 6; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, Aśvamedha, v. 14; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxii. 2. So Indra is the god of the Kṣatriyas, Maitrāyani Saṃhitā, ii. 3, 1; iv. 5, 8, etc.
21 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 6, 2, 1.
Cf. Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 1, 3.
Pravāhana Jaivali,22 Aśvapati Kaikeya,23 and Ajātaśatru.24 Garbe,25 Grierson,26 and others believe they are justified in holding the view that the Kṣatriyas developed a special philosophy of their own as opposed to Brahmminism, which appears later as Bhakti, or Faith. On the other hand, there is clear evidence27 that the opinion of Kṣatriyas on such topics were held in little respect, and it must be remembered that to attribute wisdom to a king was a delicate and effective piece of flattery. There are earlier references to royal sages (rājan-yarṣi),28 but it is very doubtful if much stress can be laid on them, and none can be laid on the later tradition of Śāyana.29 Again, the Nirukta30 gives a tradition relating how Devāpi, a king’s son, became the Purohita of his younger brother Śaṁtanu; but it is very doubtful if the story can really be traced with Sieg31 in the Rigveda32 itself. In any case, the stories refer only to a few selected Kṣatriyas of high rank, while there is no evidence that the average Kṣatriya was concerned with intellectual pursuits. Nor is there any reference to Kṣatriyas engaging in agriculture or in trade or commerce. It may be assumed that the duties of administration and war were adequate to absorb his attention. On the other hand, we do hear of a Rājanya

22 Bhādāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 1, 1; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, i. 8; v. 3. 1; Muir, op. cit., 433-435: 515; Weber, Indische Studien, 10, 117; Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 1, lxxv.
23 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, x. 6, 1, 2 et seq.
24 Bhādāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 1, 1; Kaṇḍitaki Upaniṣad, iv. 1.
25 Beiträge zur indischen Kulturgeschichte, 1 et seq. Cf. Deussen, Philosophy of the Upanishads, 17 et seq.; Winteritz, Geschichte der indischen Literatur, 1, 199.
26 Article ‘Bhakti’ in Encyclopaedia of Religion and Ethics; Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1908, 843.
27 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, viii. 1, 4, 10. Cf. Oldenberg, Buddha, 73, n. 1; Keith, Aitareya Aranyaka, 50, 257; Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1908, 868, 883, 1140-1142. Professor Eggeling concurs in the view that the Kṣatriya share in the religious movement was not substantially real.
28 E.g., in Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa, xii. 12, 6; but see on this Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 235, n., and Varṇa.
29 Cited in Muir, op. cit., 12, 265 et seq.
30 ii. 10.
31 Die Sagenstoffe des Ṛgveda, 91 et seq. See Devāpi.
32 x. 98. The case of Viśvāmitra may also be cited; but his royal rank, which is attested by the mention of him as a Rājaputra in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 17, is at most merely a matter of descent, and is of very doubtful authenticity. See under Varṇa.
as a lute player and singer at the Āsvamedha or horse sacrifice.33

Of the training and education of a Kṣatriya we have no record; presumably, as in fact if not in theory later on, he was mainly instructed in the art of war, the science of the bow, and the rudimentary administrative functions which would devolve on him. At this early state of the development of the nobility which appears to be represented in the Rigveda, it was probably not unusual or impossible for a Vaiśya to become a Kṣatriya; at least, this assumption best explains the phrase34 ‘claiming falsely a Kṣatriya’s rank’ (kṣatriyam mithuyā dhārayantam).

The king and the Kṣatriyas must have stood in a particularly close relation. The former being the Kṣatriya par excellence, it is to him rather than to the ordinary Kṣatriya that we must refer passages like that in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,35 where it is said that the Kṣatriya, with the consent of the clansmen, gives a settlement to a man: clearly a parallel to the rule found among many peoples that the chief, but only with the consent of the people, can make a grant of unoccupied land. In the same Brāhmaṇa36 it is said that a Kṣatriya consecrates a Kṣatriya, a clear reference, as the commentator explains, to the practice of the old king consecrating the prince (kumāra) who is to succeed him; and again,37 the Kṣatriya and the Purohita are regarded as alone complete in contrast with other people, the parallel with the Purohita here suggesting that the Kṣatriya par excellence is meant. On the other hand, the king is sometimes contrasted with the Rājanya.38

The Śūtra literature contains elaborate rules39 for the educa-

33 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 4, 3, 5. This mention is proof of the existence of a class of Kṣatriya bards (as opposed to priestly reciters), from whose productions the Epic naturally grew up. Cf. Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 15, 258.
34 vii. 104, 13. Cf. for a similarly false claim to be a Brahmin, x. 71, 8.
35 vii. 1, 1, 8.
36 xii. 8, 3, 19; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 44, 254, n. 1.
37 Cf. Eggeling, ibid., 41, 259.
38 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 4, 2, 17, and see Rājanya.
39 See references in Bühler, Sacred Books of the East, 14, 395, 396.
tion and occupations of Kṣatriyas, but their contents cannot always be traced in the Brāhmaṇa literature, and their value is questionable.

Kṣa-pāvan, 'protector of the earth,' is an epithet of a king, or denotes a king in the Rigveda. The word is significant, as showing the function of the king as the protector of the tribal territory.

1 The word occurs only in the nominative singular as ksapavan, which would be the regular form from a stem ksapavant; but it is probably an irregularity for ksapava. Cf. Oldenberg, Rigveda-Noten, i, 72.

Kṣiti is in the Rigveda a regular word for 'dwelling,' and in particular the kṣitir dhruvā, 'the secure dwelling,' is mentioned in a context that shows it to be equivalent to the Vṛjana or Grāma regarded as a stronghold. From this sense is developed that of the peoples occupying the settlements, and in particular the five peoples (for whom see Pañca Janāsah).

Kṣiptara-syena, 'swift falcon,' is the name of a bird in the Maitrāyaṇī Samhitā (iii. 14, 11) and the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa x. 5, 2, 10).

Kṣīra, 'milk,' also called Go or Payas, played a large part in the economy of the Vedic Indians. It was taken warm (pakva
as it came from the cow, or was used with grain to make a 'mess cooked with milk' (kṣīra-पाकम odanam). It was also used for mixing with Soma (Abhisrī, Āśir). From it butter (Gṛṛta) was made. Milk was also curdled, the Pūtikā and Kvala plants, among others, being used for the purpose. The curdled milk (Dadhī) was undoubtedly used for food; and a kind of cheese is perhaps referred to in one passage of the Rigveda. Goat's milk (aja-kṣīra) is also mentioned.

Kṣīraudana, 'rice cooked with milk,' is mentioned frequently in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (ii. 5, 3, 4; xi. 5, 7, 5, etc.).

Kṣudra-sūktas, 'makers of short hymns,' is the name given in the Aitareya Āranyaka1 to the authors of certain hymns of the Rigveda. Cf. Mahāsūkta.

Kṣumpa is a word occurring only in one passage of the Rigveda, where it seems to mean a 'bush.' The Nirukta2 identifies it with the Ahichatraka, a 'mushroom.'

Kṣura occurs three times in the Rigveda. The word appears to have the general sense of 'blade' in one passage, possibly also in another, where it is said that the hare swallowed a

2 i. 62, 9; 180, 3; iii. 30, 4.
3 Rv. viii. 77, 10; Av. xiii. 2, 20. Cf. kṣīra-śrī, 'milk-mixed,' Taittirīya Saṁhitā, iv. 4, 9, 1; Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, viii. 57, etc.
4 Taittirīya Saṁhitā, ii. 5, 3, 5.
5 vi. 48, 18.
6 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiv. 1, 2, 13; see Aja. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 63, 226, 226, 268.

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2 i. 166, 10 (पुजय kṣurāḥ) on the fellies of the Maruts' car; possibly 'razors' may be meant, as Max Müller says in his note on this passage, Sacred Books of the East, 32, 235, n. 4).
3 x. 28, 9, where Śāyaṇa renders it as meaning 'having claws.' The later tradition ascribes the swallowing to a goat.
Kṣura, and where the sense ‘blade’ is adequate. In the third passage ⁴ there seems to be a reference to the sharpening of a razor on a grindstone⁶ (bhurijos, the dual denoting precisely, as Pischel ⁶ points out, the two sides of the apparatus, between which the stone revolved like the modern grindstone). But Muir,⁷ following another view of Roth,⁸ adopts the sense ‘the edge of scissors,’ which, however, hardly suits the other passage, one in the Atharvaveda,⁹ where a Kṣura is described as moving about on the bhurijos,¹⁰ as the tongue on the lip. The meaning ‘razor’ is perfectly clear in the Atharvaveda,¹¹ where shaving by means of it is mentioned; in many other passages¹² either sense is adequate. A kṣuro bhurjavo occurs in the Yajurveda:¹³ it seems to denote, as Bloomfield¹⁴ suggests, a razor with a strop (in the shape of a small grinding apparatus). Kṣura-dhārā ¹⁵ denotes ‘the edge of a razor,’ like kṣurasya dhārā.¹⁶ In the Upaniṣads¹⁷ a razor-case (Kṣura-dhāna) is mentioned. See also Śmaśru.

⁴ viii. 4, 16 (sām naḥ śiśiki bhurijor iva kṣuram, ‘sharpen us like a razor on a grindstone or stropping apparatus’).
⁵ Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
⁶ Vedische Studien, 1, 243.
⁷ Sanskrit Texts, 5, 466.
⁸ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. bhurij.
⁹ xx. 127, 4.
¹⁰ Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 197, translates bhurijos by ‘on a strop.’
¹¹ vi. 68, 1. 3; viii. 2, 7.
¹² Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 6, 4, 5; iii. 1, 2, 7; kṣura-pavi, Av. xii. 5, 20, 55; Taittiriya Śamhitā, ii. 1, 5, 7; 5, 5, 6; v. 6, 6, 1; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 6, 2, 9, etc.; Maitrāyaṇi Śamhitā, i. 10, 14; Kāthaka Śamhitā, xxxvi. 8; Nirukta, v. 5.
¹³ Taittiriya Śamhitā, iv. 3, 12, 3. Cf. Maitrāyaṇi Śamhitā, ii. 8, 7; Vājasaneyi Śamhitā, xv. 4; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, viii. 5, 2, 4.
¹⁴ American Journal of Philology, 17, 418.
¹⁵ Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, iii. 13, 9.
¹⁶ Bhadārāvyaka Upaniṣad, iii. 3, 2.
¹⁷ Kauśitaki Upaniṣad, iv. 20. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 266; Pischel, Vedische Studien, 1, 239-243; Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 38 et seq.

Kṣetra, ‘field.’ The use of this word in the Rigveda points clearly to the existence of separate fields¹ carefully measured off,² though in some passages the meaning is less definite,
indicating cultivated land generally. In the Atharvaveda and later the sense of a separate field is clearly marked, though the more general use is also found. The deity Kṣetrasya Pati, ‘Lord of the Field,’ should probably be understood as the god presiding over each field, just as Vāstoṣ Pati presides over each dwelling. It is a fair conclusion from the evidence that the system of separate holdings already existed in early Vedic times. See also Urvarā, Khilya.

Kṣetriya is a disease which is mentioned several times in the Atharvaveda, and against which three hymns are specially directed. It is also mentioned in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā and the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa. The commentators on the Atharvaveda agree in taking it to be a hereditary disease. The word may mean ‘organic,’ or possibly ‘produced in the field,’ as a theory of its origin. What disease is really intended is quite uncertain. Weber considered that the aim of the Atharvan hymns was to drive away injury threatening the fields, but this is improbable. Bloomfield suggests ‘scrofula’ or ‘syphilis.’ The remedies mentioned throw no light on the symptoms.

1 ii. 8, 10; iii. 7. Cf. ii. 14, 5; iv. 18, 7.
2 xv. 1.
3 ii. 5, 6, i-3, where the form is Kṣetṛi, explained as a demon causing illness, merely an incorrect version of Av. iii. 10.
4 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
5 Indische Studien, 5, 145; 13, 150 et seq.; Naxatra, 2, 292.
6 Atharvaveda, 60.
Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 286 et seq.; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 48, 49; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 391, 392; Speijer, De ceremonia apud Indos qua jātakarma vocatur, 76-83; Pāṇini, v. 2, 92, with the Kāśikā Vṛtti.
Kṣema-dhṛtvan Paundarika (‘descendant of Puṇḍarīka’) is mentioned in the Pañcatantra Brāhmaṇa¹ as having sacrificed on the bank of the river Sudāman.

¹ xxii. 18, 7. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 32. Later, the name is Kṣema-dhanvan, Harivaṃśa, 824, etc.

Kṣaimi, ‘descendant of Kṣema,’ is the patronymic of Suda-kṣīṇa in the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 6, 3; 7, 1, etc.; 8, 6).

Kṣoni.—This word, when used in the plural, denotes, according to the St. Petersburg Dictionary and Ludwig,¹ in several passages of the Rigveda,² the free retainers of the king. Geldner³ at one time thought it referred to the wives of the king, pointing to polygamy; but later⁴ he concluded that it means certain divine wives.

¹ Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 247. ² i. 57, 4; 173, 7; viii. 3, 10; 13, 17; x. 95, 19. In ii. 34, 13; x. 22, 9, the sense is doubtful. ³ Bezzenberger, Beiträge, 11, 327. ⁴ Vedische Studien, 1, 279, 283.

Kṣauma, ‘a linen garment,’ is mentioned in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā (iii. 6, 7, etc.) and in the Sūtras.

Kṣvīṅkā is mentioned once in the Rigveda¹ as a bird of prey. The word also occurs in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice, in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā,² where the commentary absurdly explains it as ‘a red-mouthed female ape’ (rakta-mukhi vānari).

¹ x. 87, 7. ² v. 5, 15, 1. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 93.
Khadira ] NAVÉ—RHINOCEROS—ACACIA 213

KH.

Kha denotes in the Rigveda and later the hole in the nave of the wheel in which the axle is inserted. There was a difference, it seems, in the size of the hole in the wheel of a cart (Anas) and of a chariot (Ratha). See also 1. Yuga.

Khaṅga. See Khaṅga.

Khaḍga is the reading in the Maitrāyaṇī Śaṁhitā of the name of an animal which, in the text of the Vājasaṇeyi Śaṁhitā, variously appears as Khaṅga and Khaḍga. The rhinoceros seems clearly to be meant. In the Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra a rhinoceros hide is mentioned as the covering of a chariot.

Khaṇḍika Audbhārī (‘descendant of Udbhāra’) is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa as a teacher of Keśin, and in the Maitrāyaṇī Śaṁhitā as having been defeated by Keśin as a sacrificer. A Khaṇḍika appears in the Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra as an enemy of Keśin.

Khadira is mentioned frequently from the Rigveda onwards as a tree with hard wood—the Acacia catechu. The Aśvattha is referred to as engrafting itself upon it in the Atharvaveda.
and from it the climbing plant Arundhati is said to have sprung. The srwva or sacrificial ladle is spoken of as having been made from it, no doubt because of its hardness. It is in the same passage also said to have sprung from the sap (rasa) of the Gāyatrī. There is no clear reference to Catechu having been prepared from its core, as it was later. The core (sāra) was used for making amulets.

Kha-dyota (‘sky-illuminator’), ‘the firefly,’ is mentioned in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (vi. 7, 3. 5).

Khanitra, a ‘shovel’ or ‘spade’ for digging, is mentioned in the Rigveda and later.

Khanitrima, ‘produced by digging,’ as an epithet of āpah, ‘waters,’ clearly refers to artificial water channels used for irrigation, as practised in the times of the Rigveda and the Atharvaveda.

Khara, ‘ass,’ is mentioned in the Aitareya Ārañyaka, where a team of asses is alluded to. Probably the passages in the Šatapatha Brāhmaṇa, where the word is used to denote an earth mound on which the sacrificial vessels were placed, presuppose the sense of ‘ass,’ the mound being shaped in this form.

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5 Av. v. 5, 5.
6 Taittirīya Śāṃhitā, iii. 5, 7, 1.
7 It is called bahu-sāra, ‘of great strength,’ in the Šatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 4, 4, 9.

Śāṅkhāyana Ārañyaka, xii. 8.


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Khāḍava] OWL—THRESHING-FLOOR—PULSE—GRAIN 215

Khargalā is an ‘owl’ or other nocturnal bird mentioned in one passage of the Rigveda.1


Kharjūra is the name of a tree (Phoenix silvestris) which is mentioned in the Yajurveda.1

1 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, ii. 4, 9, 2; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xi. 10; xxxvi. 7. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 63.

Khala, the ‘threshing-floor,’ is mentioned in the Rigveda1 and the Atharvaveda.2 See Kṛṣi.

1 x. 48, 7; Nirukta, iii. 10. 'being on a threshing-floor,' Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, ii. 9, 6. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 238.

2 xi. 3, 9; khaḷa-ja, ‘produced on a threshing-floor,’ viii. 6, 15; khaḷya, Kṛṣa. Kshtra (Dolichos uniflorus).

Khala-kula is a word occurring in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad,1 where Śāyaṇā glosses it by Kulatatha, a kind of pulse (Dolichos uniflorus).


Khalva is some sort of grain or leguminous plant, perhaps, as Weber1 thinks, the Phaseolus radiatus. It is mentioned with other grains of all sorts in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā,2 and as being crushed with the Drṣad in the Atharvaveda.3 It occurs also in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad,4 where Śaṅkara glosses it with nisphāva.


3 ii. 31, 1; v. 23, 8.

Khandava is mentioned in the Taittirīya Āraṇyaka1 as one of the boundaries of Kurukṣetra. There seems no reason to doubt its identity with the famous Khandava forest of the Mahābhārata. The name occurs also in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa2 and the Śātyāyanaka.3

1 v. 1, 1. 2 xxv. 3, 6. 3 Max Müller, Rigveda, iv, ci. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 78.
Khādi occurs frequently in the Rigveda denoting either anklets\(^1\) or armlets,\(^2\) or sometimes rings on the hands.\(^3\) Max Müller\(^4\) considers that the word means quoits, the later Cakra.\(^5\) The rings were sometimes of gold.\(^6\)

\(^1\) v. 54, 11, and perhaps 53, 4.
\(^2\) This is what Khādis on the shoulders must mean, i. 166, 9; vii. 56, 13.
\(^3\) i. 168, 3; khādi-hasta, ‘with rings on the hands,’ 5, 58, 2. So Roth takes Khādin in vi. 16, 40; St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. Khādin occurs also in ii. 34, 2; x. 38, 1.

Khārī designates a measure of Soma in one passage of the Rigveda.\(^1\)


Khārgali, ‘descendant of Khargalā or Khrgala,’ is the metronymic or patronymic of Luṣākapi.\(^1\)

\(^1\) Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xxx. 2; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xvii. 4, 3.

1. Khila,\(^1\) Khilya\(^2\) appear to have the same meaning. According to Roth,\(^3\) these terms denote the waste land lying between cultivated fields; but he admits that this sense does not suit the passage of the Rigveda\(^4\) in which it is said that the god places the worshipper on an unbroken Khilya (abhinne khilye), and he accordingly conjectures the reading akhilya-bhinne, ‘land unbroken by barren strips.’ Pischel\(^5\) thinks that the meaning intended is broad lands, which were used for the pasturing of the cattle of the community, and were not broken up by cultivated fields. Oldenberg,\(^6\) however, points out that the sense is rather the land which lay between cultivated fields, but which need not be deemed to have been unfertile, as Roth thought. This agrees with the fact that in Vedic times separate fields were already known: see Kṣetra.

\(^1\) Av. vii. 115, 4; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, viii. 3, 4, 1.
\(^2\) Rv. vi. 28, 2; x. 142, 3.
\(^3\) St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. So Whitney on Av., loc. cit.
\(^4\) vi. 28, 2.
\(^5\) Vedische Studien, 2, 205.
\(^6\) Rgveda-Noten, 1, 385, 386.

2. **Khila** as a designation of certain hymns appended to the received text of the Rigveda occurs only in the Sūtra period. The term is a metaphorical application of the preceding word, 'a space not filled up,' 'a supplement.'

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**Khrgala,** or, as the Paippalāda recension of the Atharvaveda has it, Khugila, is an obscure expression found in two passages only—one in the Rigveda, and once in the Atharvaveda. In the former the meaning 'crutch' seems required; in the latter Sāyana glosses it by 'armour' (*tanu-trāṇa*), but the sense is quite uncertain.

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**Khela** occurs in one passage of the Rigveda, where Pischel considers that a god, Vivasvant, is meant, and that races were run in his honour, explaining thus the phrase *ājā khelasya,* as 'in the race of Khela.' Roth thinks that a man is meant, and Sieg, following Sāyana, sees in him a king whose Purohita was Agasty. See also Amśū.

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**G.**

Gaṅgā, the modern Ganges, is mentioned directly in the Rigveda only once, in the Nādi-stuti or 'Praise of Rivers.' But it is also referred to in the derivative form *gaṅgyah* as an epithet of Urukakṣa. The name of this river does not occur
in the other Samhitās, but appears in the Śatapathā Brāhmaṇa,\(^4\) where victories of Bharata Dauḥṣanti on both Gaṅgā and Yamunā are referred to, and in the Taittirīya Āraṇyaka\(^5\) especial honour is assigned to those who dwell between the Gaṅgā and the Yamunā, this being, no doubt, the region in which that text originated. The identification of the Gaṅgā with the Apayā\(^6\) made by Ludwig\(^7\) must be rejected: see Āpayā.

\(^4\) xiii. 5, 4, 11. The victory on the Gaṅgā represents the farthest extent of Bharata or Kuru rule. Cf. Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, viii. 23, and a verse in the Vaitāṇa Sūtra, xxxiv. 9, where the Sarasvati is also referred to.

\(^5\) ii. 20.

\(^6\) Rv. iii. 23, 4.


**Gaja**, the common name of the elephant in Epic\(^1\) and later Sanskrit, is only found in the late Adbhuta Brāhmaṇa.\(^2\) See Hastin.


\(^2\) *Indische Studien*, 1, 39.

**Gaṇaka**, ‘an astrologer,’ occurs in the list of victims at the Puruṣamedha, or human sacrifice, in the Yajurveda.\(^1\) See also Nakṣatradarśa.


**Gandharvāyāṇa Bāleya** (‘descendant of Bali’) Āgnivesya is mentioned as a Paṇcāla in the Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra (xx. 25).

**Gandhāra** is a later form of the name of the people called Gandhāri in the Rigveda and Atharvaveda. In the Chandogya Upaniṣad\(^1\) the Gandhāras are referred to as being distant from the writer. See also Gandhāra.

\(^1\) vi. 14, 1. 2. See Oldenberg, *Buddha*, 399, n.; Weber, *Indische Studien*, 1, 219, n. On the other hand, Max Müller, *Sacred Books of the East*, 15, 106, thought the passage meant that the Gandhāras were near the writer.
Gandhāri is the name of a people in the north-west of India. In the Rigveda the good wool of the sheep of the Gandhāris is referred to. The Gandhāris are also mentioned with the Mujavants, Angas, and Magadhas in the Atharvaveda. Gandhāris or Gandhāris are also spoken of in the Śrauta Sūtras. Zimmer considers that they were settled in Vedic times on the south bank of the Kubhā up to its mouth in the Indus, and for some distance down the east side of the Indus itself. They later formed a portion of the Persian empire, and detachments of Gandarians accompanied Xerxes in his expedition against Greece.

Gabhasti denotes, according to Roth, the pole of a chariot in the epithet syūma-gabhasti, 'having reins as a pole,' used of the car of the gods in the Rigveda, and independently in the plural in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa. The meaning is, however, doubtful. Roth himself suggests that syūma-gabhasti may refer to a sort of double reins.

1. Gaya, 'house,' is a common word in the Rigveda, and sometimes occurs later. As its sense includes the inmates as well as their belongings, it is equivalent to 'household.'

2. Gaya Plata ('son of Plati') is referred to in the Rigveda, two hymns of which he clearly claims to have composed, and which are attributed to him in the Sarvānukramaṇi and the
Aitareya Brāhmaṇa. In the Atharvaveda he appears with Asita and Kaśyapa as a half-mythical magician.

2 v. 2.
3 i. 14, 4. Cf. also the Khila after Rv. v. 51, 15; Indische Studien, 3.

1. Gara, ‘poison,’ is referred to in the Atharvaveda in the compound gara-gīrṇa, ‘poisoned.’ In the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa it means simply a ‘fluid.’

v. 18, 13. Cf. gara alone, Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xix. 4, 2 (see Indische Studien, i, 33); Taittiriya Āraṇyaka, i. 9.

gara-gir, ‘poisoned,’ Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xvii. 1, 9; xix. 4, 2. 10.

Garga is the name of a sage who is not mentioned in any of the Saṃhitās, but his descendants, the Gargāḥ Prāvareyāḥ, are referred to in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā. Garga himself does not occur till the Sūtra period.

1 The authorship of Rv. vi. 47 is attributed to Garga Bhāradvāja in the Anukramani.

Gargara, apparently the designation of a musical instrument, is mentioned once in the Rigveda.

Garta in the Rigveda primarily denotes the seat of the chariot on which the archer sat. It seems to have been of considerable


Oriental Society, 13, 238, 239; Geldner, Vedische Studien, 3, 48, and cf. garta-sad, ‘sitting on the car seat,’ in Rv. ii. 33, 11.
size, being described as brhanti, 'large.' The word then comes to denote the chariot itself, either really or metaphorically.

Gardabha, 'the ass,' is mentioned in the Rigveda as inferior to the horse. In the Taittiriya Samhita he again appears as inferior to the horse, but at the same time as the best bearer of burdens (bhara-bhiritama) among animals. The same authority styles the ass dvi-retas, 'having double seed,' in allusion to his breeding with the mare as well as the she-ass. The smallness of the young of the ass, and his capacity for eating, are both referred to. The disagreeable cry of the animal is mentioned in the Atharvaveda, and in allusion to this the term 'ass' is applied opprobriously to a singer in the Rigveda. A hundred asses are spoken of as a gift to a singer in a Vālakhilya hymn. The mule (aṅvatara) is the offspring of an ass and a mare, the latter, like the ass, being called dvi-retas, 'receiving double seed,' for similar reasons. The male ass is often also termed Rāśabha. The female ass, Gardabhi, is mentioned in the Atharvaveda and the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.

Gardabhī-mukha is mentioned as a teacher in the Vamśa Brhaṇmaṇa.
Gardabhí-vipíta, or Gardabhi-vibhíta, is the name of a teacher who was a Bhrāradvāja and a contemporary of Janaka, mentioned in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.

1 iv. 1, 11 (Mādhyaṃdina = iv. 1, 5 Kāṇva).

Garmut is the name of a kind of wild bean mentioned in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā. The Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā² has the form Ganmut, which is probably a false reading. The adjective gārmuta, 'made from the Garmut bean,' is found in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā.³

1 ii. 4, 4. 1. 2. ² x. 11. ³ ii. 2, 4.


Galunta is a word occurring only once in the Atharvaveda,¹ apparently in the sense of 'swelling,'² but Whitney³ translates it by 'neck.'

¹ vi. 83, 3. ² Bloomfield, Proceedings of the American Oriental Society, October, 1887, xvi; Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 505. ³ Translation of the Atharvaveda, 343.

Galūnasa Ārkṣākāyaṇa ('descendant of Ṛkṣāka') is mentioned as a teacher in the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (i. 38, 4).

Gavaya, the name of a species of ox (Bos gavaeus) occurs frequently from the Rigveda¹ onwards.² It is mentioned with Gaura and Mahiṣa in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā,³ where also a wild Gavaya is spoken of.⁴

¹ iv. 21, 8. ² Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 10; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xvi. 17; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. 28; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 8; iii. 34; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 2, 3, 9; Saṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. 3, 14, etc. ³ xxiv. 28. ⁴ xiii. 49; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, iv. 2, 10, 3; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, ii. 7, 17; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xvi. 17.


Gavāṣir, 'mixed with milk,' is a frequent epithet of Soma in the Rigveda.¹

¹ i. 137, 1; 187, 9; ii. 41, 3; iii. 32, 2; 42, 1, 7; viii. 52, 10; 101, 10. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 279.
Gav-istī (lit. 'desire of cows') in several passages of the Rigveda\(^1\) denotes 'conflict' or 'battle,' evidently with reference to cattle raids. Gavā\(^2\) is similarly used.

\(^1\) i. 91, 23; iii. 47, 4; vi. 63, 5; vii. 31, 3; 47, 20; 59, 7; viii. 24, 2; ix. 76, 2. So Av. iv. 24, 5.

\(^2\) Rv. vii. 18, 7.

Gavi-ṣṭhira Ātreyā ('descendant of Atri') is mentioned as a Rṣi, or seer, in the Rigveda\(^1\) and the Atharvaveda.\(^2\)

\(^1\) v. i, 12; x. 150, 5.

\(^2\) iv. 29, 5. See also Āśvalāyana Srauta Sūtra, xii. 14, 1.

Gavidhukā,\(^1\) Gavedhukā,\(^2\) is the name of a species of grass (Coix barbata). It is also referred to in the adjectival forms gavīdhukā\(^3\) and gavedhukā.\(^4\) It was boiled with rice\(^5\) (gavīdhukā-yavāgū) or barley\(^6\) (gavedhukā-saktavah) in preparing gruel.

\(^1\) Taittirīya Saṃhitā, v. 4, 3, 2.

\(^2\) Āitareya Brāhmaṇa, iv. 28; St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

\(^3\) Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 2, 4, 13; 13; 3, 10; xiv. 1, 2, 19.

\(^4\) Taittirīya Saṃhitā, i. 8, 7, 1; v. 2, 4, 13; 13; 3, 10; 3, 7.

\(^5\) Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 2, 4, 13; 3, 1, 10; 3, 7.

\(^6\) Taittirīya Saṃhitā, v. 4, 3, 2.

Gavya. See Gavyūti.

Gavyā. See Gaviṣṭi.

Gavyūti in the Rigveda\(^1\) means, according to Roth,\(^2\) grass land for the pasturing of cattle, in which sense Gavya is also found.\(^3\) Thence it derives the sense of a measure of distance found in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.\(^4\) Geldner, on the other hand, takes the original meaning to be 'road,' real\(^6\) or metaphorical,\(^7\) thence a measure of distance,\(^8\) and finally 'land.'\(^9\)

\(^1\) i. 25, 16; iii. 62, 16; v. 66, 3; vii. 77, 4, etc.

\(^2\) St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

\(^3\) Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iv. 28; St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. 3b.

\(^4\) Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xvi. 13, 12.

\(^5\) Vedische Studien, 2, 290, 291.

\(^6\) Rv. i. 25, 16.

\(^7\) Rv. vi. 47, 20; x. 14, 2.

\(^8\) Rv. viii. 60, 20, and n. 4.

\(^9\) Rv. iii. 62, 16; vii. 62, 5; 65, 4; viii. 5, 6.
Gāngya, 'being on the Ganges,' is the epithet of Urukakṣa\(^1\) or of a thicket\(^2\) in the Rigveda.\(^3\)


Gāngyāyani, 'descendant of Gāngya,' occurs as the patronymic of Citra in the Kauśitaki Upaniṣad.\(^1\)

1 i. 1. There is a v.l. Gārgyāyani. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 395.

Gātu. See Gāthā.

Gāthā in the Rigveda\(^1\) usually means only 'song,' 'verse,' like Gātu.\(^2\) In one passage,\(^3\) however, it already has a more special sense, as it is classed with Nārāśaṁśi and Raibhī, a collocation repeatedly found later.\(^4\) The commentators identify the three terms with certain verses of the Atharvaveda,\(^5\) but Oldenberg\(^6\) has shown that this identification is incorrect for the Rigveda. Gāthās are often mentioned elsewhere,\(^7\) and are referred to as metrical in the Aitareya Āraṇyaka,\(^8\) where the Rc, Kumbyā, and Gāthā are classed as forms of verse. The Aitareya Brāhmaṇa\(^9\) distinguishes between Rc and Gāthā as divine and human respectively. According to the usage of the

\[\text{Nārāśaṁśi} = \text{Av. xx. 127, 1-3; Raibhi} = \text{Av. xx. 127, 4-6; while ibid., 7-10, are known as Pārīkṣṭyaḥ (scil., praṇāḥ).}\]

\[\text{Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 238. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 689 et seq., seems to accept the identification even for the Rigveda.}\]

\[\text{Av. x. 10, 20; xv. 6, 4 (distinct from Nārāśaṁśi); Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. i. 2, 16; xi. 5, 7, 10; xiii. 1, 5, 6; 4, 2, 8; 5, 4, 2; Taittiriya Āraṇyaka, ii. 10 (distinct from Nārāśaṁśi); Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iv. 17, 9, etc.}\]

\[\text{ii. 3, 6, with Keith's note; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 5, 7, 10.}\]

\[\text{vii. 18. The story of Śunahṣeṇa is described as śata-gātham, 'told in a hundred Gāthās.'}\]

\[\text{v. i. 32, 1; 71, 14; 98, 9; ix. 99, 4; gāthā, i. 167, 6; ix. 11, 4; gāthā-patī, 'lord of song,' i. 43, 4; gāthā-ni, 'leading a song,' i. 190, 1; viii. 92, 2; rgjugaṭha, 'singing correctly,' v. 44, 5; gāthīn, 'singer,' i. 7, 1. Cf. Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 17, 65.}\]

\[\text{v. i. 151, 2; ii. 20, 5; iii. 4, 4; iv. 4, 6; v. 87, 8; x. 20, 4; 122, 2.}\]

\[\text{v. 85, 6.}\]

\[\text{v. 11, 4; Kāṭhaṇaka Saṃhitā, Aśvamedha, v. 2; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vi. 32; Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, xxx. 5; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 5, 6, 8, where Raibhi does not occur; Gopatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 6, 12.}\]

\[\text{Viz., Gāthā = Av. xx. 127, 12 et seq.}\]
Brāhmaṇas and the liturgical literature, as stated by the St. Petersburg Dictionary, the Gāthās are, though religious in content, distinguished from Rc, Yajus, and Sāman as non-Vedic—that is, are not Mantras. This view is consistent with the fact that the phrase Yajña-gāthā, meaning a verse summarizing a sacrificial usage, is not rare. The Satapatha Brāhmaṇa\textsuperscript{10} preserves several Gāthās, which generally accord with this description as epitomizing the sacrifices of famous kings, and the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā\textsuperscript{11} states that a Gāthā is sung at a wedding. Sometimes\textsuperscript{12} Gāthā is qualified as Nārāśaṃśī, where it must be a eulogy of a generous donor.

Gāthin is mentioned as the son of Kuśika and father of Viśvāmitra in the Sarvānukramaṇī. It is difficult to say whether this tradition is correct; it derives some support from the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (vii. 18), where reference is made to the divine lore (daiva veda) of the Gāthins, which is said to be shared by Śunāhya as a result of his adoption by Viśvāmitra. See Gāthina.

\textsuperscript{10} xiii. 5, 4, etc., and see xiii. 4, 2, 8, where the Gāthās are plainly Dānaśutus, or ‘praises of gifts,’ just as the Nārāśaṃśī verses are declared to be in the Bṛhaddevatā, iii. 154.

\textsuperscript{11} iii. 7, 3.

\textsuperscript{12} Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, 2, 6. So Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 44, 98, takes Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 5, 6, 8, where Sāyaṇa hesitates between identifying the two and distinguishing them. It seems reasonable to regard Gāthā as the wider term which covers, but is not coextensive with, Nārāśaṃśī. Cf. Sāyaṇa’s example of a Gāthā in his commentary on Aitareya Aranyakā, ii. 3, 6: \textquote{prātah prātār anṛtam te vadanti, ‘they every morning tell an untruth,’ which is clearly not a Nārāśaṃśī.

Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 68\textsuperscript{9} et seq.; Weber, Episches im Vedischen Ritual, 4 et seq.; Max Müller, Ancient Sanskrit Literature, 493.

Gāthina.—The sons of Viśvāmitra are described in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa\textsuperscript{1} as Gāthinas, or descendants of Gāthin, who, according to tradition, was their grandfather;\textsuperscript{2} and Viśvāmitra himself is styled Gāthina in the Sarvānukramaṇī.

\textsuperscript{1} vii. 18. Cf. Āśvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra, vii. 18; Weber, Episches im Vedischen Ritual, 16, n. 3.

Gām-dama is the form in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa¹ of the name of Ekayāvan, which in the Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa² is read as Kāṃdama.


Gāndhāra, 'a king of Gandhāra' named Nagnajit, is mentioned in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa.¹ In the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa² he or some descendant figures as Svarjit Nāgnajita or Nagnajit, and as giving an opinion on the ritual, which is rejected with the observation that the author was merely a princely person (rājanya-bandhu).

1 vii. 34, in the list of teachers who handed down the knowledge of the substitute for Soma.
2 viii. 1, 4, 10.

Gārgī Vācaknavi is referred to in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad¹ as a female contemporary and rival of Yājñavalkya.

1 iii. 6, 1; 8, 1. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 10, 118.

Gārgī-putra, 'son of Gargi,' occurs as the name of three teachers in the last Vaṃśa (list of teachers) in the Mādhyāmdina recension of the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (vi. 4, 30). The earliest of these three was the pupil of Bādeyiputra and the teacher of the second Gārgīputra. The latter was the teacher of Pāraśarikauṇḍinīputra, the teacher of the third Gārgīputra.

Gārgya, 'descendant of Garga,' is the patronymic of Bālāki in the Brhadāraṇyaka¹ and the Kauṣṭaki² Upaniṣads. Two Gārgyas are mentioned in the second Vaṃśa (list of teachers) in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad³: one of them is the pupil of Gārgya, who again is the pupil of Gautama. Others occur in the Taittirīya Āranyaka⁴ and in the Nirukta,⁵ as well as later in the ritual Sūtras. Thus the family was evidently long connected with the development of liturgy and grammar.

1 ii. 1, 1.
2 iv. 1.
3 iv. 6, 2 (Kāṇva).
4 i. 7, 3.
5 i. 3. 12; iii. 13.
Gārgyāyana, 'descendant of Gārgya,' is mentioned as a pupil of Uddālakāyana in the second Vamsā (list of teachers) in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (iv. 6, 2 Kāṇva).

Gārgyāyani, 'descendant of Gārgya,' is a variant reading for Garigyayani as the patronymic of Citra in the Kauśitaki Upaniṣad (i. 1).

Gālava is mentioned as a pupil of Vidarbhikaunḍinya in the first two Vamsas (lists of teachers) in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad. It is possibly the same man that is referred to regarding a point of ritual in the Aitareya Āraṇyaka. A grammarian of this name is mentioned in the Nirukta.

1 ii. 5, 22; iv. 5, 28 (Madhyāndaṇī= 3 iv. 3. Cf. Pāṇini, vi. 3. 61; vii. 1, ii. 6, 3; iv. 6, 3 Kāṇva).
2 v. 3, 3.

Giri, 'mountain' or 'height,' is a word that occurs repeatedly in the Rigveda. Thus reference is made to the trees on the hills, hence called 'tree-haired' (vrksa-kesāḥ), and to the streams proceeding from the hills to the sea (samudra). The term is frequently coupled with the adjectival parvata. The Rigveda mentions the waters from the hills, and the Atharvaveda refers to the snowy mountains. Actual names of mountains, as Mūjavant, Trikakud, Himavant, are very rare. References to Kraunca, Mahāmeru, and Maināga, are confined to the Taittirīya Āraṇyaka, while Nāvaprabhramśana can no longer be considered a proper name.

1 i. 56, 3; 61, 14; 63, 1; iv. 20, 6; vi. 24, 8, etc. 2 Rv. v. 41, 11. 3 Rv. vii. 95, 2. 4 Rv. i. 56, 4; vii. 64, 5; Av. iv. 7, 8; vi. 12, 3; 17, 3; ix. 1, 18, etc.
5 Rv. vi. 66, 11, on which passage, see Oldenberg, Ṛgveda-Noten, i, 411; viii. 32, 4; x. 68, 1, etc.
6 xii. 1, 11. See Himavant.

Giri-kṣit Auccā-manyava, 'descendant of Uccāmanyu,' is mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (x. 5, 7) as a contemporary of Abhiprātārin Kākṣaseni.
Giri-ja Bābhravya, ‘descendant of Babhru,’ is mentioned in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (vii. 1) as having been taught by Śrauta the method of dividing the sacrificial animal (paśor vibhakti).

Guggulu, ‘bdellium,’ is referred to in one passage of the Atharvaveda as produced by the Sindhu and by the sea. The latter source presumably alludes, as Zimmer assumes, to sea-borne trade, bdellium being the gum of a tree, not a product of the sea. It is, however, possible that in this passage some other substance may be meant. The word in this form also occurs elsewhere in the Atharvaveda and later; it is often mentioned in the older form of Gulgulu, between which and Guggulu the manuscripts constantly vary.

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Gugu.—The descendants of Guṅgu are referred to as Guṅgus in a hymn of the Rigveda, apparently as friends of Atithigva. Possibly a people may be meant.

Gupta is the name in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 42) of Vaipaścita Dārḍhajayanti Gupta Lauhitya. All the three other names being patronymics show that he was descended from the families of Vipaścit, Dṛḍhajayanta, and Lohita.

Gulgulu. See Guggulu.

Gṛtsa-mada is the name of a seer to whom the Sarvānu-kramaṇī attributes the authorship of the second Maṇḍala of the Rigveda. This tradition is supported by the Aitareya Brāh-
manā¹ and the Aitareya Āraṇyaka.² The Kaṇṣitaki Brāhmaṇa³ speaks of him as a Bhārgava, 'descendant of Bhṛgu,' with a variant Bābhrava, 'descendant of Babhru,' but the later tradition keeps to the former patronymic.⁴ The Grṣamadas are often mentioned in the second Maṇḍala of the Rigveda,⁵ and are also called Sunahotras,⁶ but never Gārṣamadas or Saunahotras, and Grṣamada himself never occurs there.⁷

Grḍhra, 'the vulture,' is often mentioned from the Rigveda¹ downwards.² The swiftness of its flight³ and its fondness for devouring carrion are especially noticed.⁴ More generally the word is used to designate any bird of prey, the eagle (Śyena) being classed as the chief of the Grḍhras.⁵

Grṣṭi, 'a young cow,' which has only calved once, occurs in the Rigveda¹ and the Atharvaveda,² as well as in the later Sūtra literature.³

Grha is used in the singular,¹ or oftener in the plural,² to denote the 'house' of the Vedic Indian. Dama or Dam has

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¹ v. 2, 4. ² ii. 2, 1. ³ xxii. 4. Cf. Gārṣamadī, xxviii. 2. ⁴ Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 12, 226 et seq. ⁵ ii. 4, 9; 19, 8; 39, 8; 41, 18. ⁶ vii. 14, 16. ⁷ Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 200, 201. ⁸ Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 118; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 3, 287.

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¹ i. 118, 4; ii. 39, 1; vii. 104, 22; x. 123, 8. ² Av. vii. 95, 1; xi. 2, 2; 9, 9; 10, 8, 24; Taśṭirīya Saṃhitā, iv. 4, 7, 1; v. 5, 20, 1; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iv. 9, 19; Taśṭirīya Āraṇyaka, iv. 29; Adhūta Brāhmaṇa in Indische Studien, 1, 40; etc. ³ Kv. ii. 39, 1. ⁴ Av. xi. 10, 8, 24; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, loc. cit. ⁵ Ṛv. i. 39, 1. ⁶ Av. xi. 96, 6. ⁷ Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 88; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 225.

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¹ iv. 18, 10. ² ii. 13, 3; viii. 9, 24; xix. 24, 5. ³ Kauśika Sūtra, 19, 24, etc.
the same sense, while Pastyā and Harmya denote more especially the home with its surroundings, the family settlement. The house held not only the family, which might be of considerable size, but also the cattle and the sheep at night. It was composed of several rooms, as the use of the plural indicates, and it could be securely shut up. The door (Dvāra, Dvāra) is often referred to, and from it the house is called Duroṇa. In every house the fire was kept burning.

Very little is known of the structure of the house. Presumably stone was not used, and houses were, as in Megasthenes' time, built of wood. The hymns of the Atharvaveda give some information about the construction of a house, but the details are extremely obscure, for most of the expressions used do not recur in any context in which their sense is clear. According to Zimmer, four pillars (Upamit) were set up on a good site, and against them beams were leant at an angle as props (Pratimit). The upright pillars were connected by cross beams (Parimit) resting upon them. The roof was formed of ribs of bamboo cane (vanśa), a ridge called Viṣūvant, and a net (Aksu), which may mean a thatched covering over the bamboo ribs. The walls were filled up with grass in bundles (palada), and the whole structure was held together with ties of

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8 Rv. vii. 56, 16; Av. i. 3, 4; ix. 3, 13.
9 Rv. x. 106, 5; Av. iii. 3.
10 Rv. vii. 85, 6.
11 Rv. i. 69, 2. Cf. the Gārhapatya Agni, Av. v. 31, 5; vi. 120, 1; 121, 2; viii. 10; ix. 6, 30; xii. 2, 34; xviii. 4, 8; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, iii. 39; xix. 18; Altareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 6, 12; Kauṣitaki Brāhmaṇa, ii. 1; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 6, 1, 28; vii. 1, 1, 6, etc.
12 Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 153.
13 Muir's view, Sanskrit Texts, 5, 461, that clay was used can only apply to the minor finishing of the walls of a house.
14 Arrian, Indica, x. 2.
15 iii. 12; ix. 3. See Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 343 et seq.; Weber, Indische Studien, 17, 234 et seq.; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 525 et seq.
17 It seems likely that, as the ribs were of bamboo and were probably fixed in the ridge, the roof was wagon-headed, like the huts of the Todas at the present day (see illustrations in Rivers, The Todas, pp. 25, 27, 28, 51), and the rock-cut Chaityas, or Assembly Halls, of the Buddhists in Western India, in some of the earliest of which the wooden ribs of the arched roof are still preserved. See Fergusson, History of Indian Architecture, 2, 135, cf. 126.
18 Av. ix. 3, 8, where Bloomfield, op. cit., 598, thinks of a wickerwork roof; Geldner, Vedische Studien, i, 136, of a pole with countless holes.
various sorts (nahana, prāṇāha, sanidāṇīśa, pāriṣvaṇjalya). In connexion with the house, mention is made of four terms which, though primarily sacrificial in meaning, seem to designate parts of the building: Havirdhāna, ‘oblation-holder’; Agniśāla,14 ‘fire-place’; Patnīnām Sadana, ‘wives’ room’; and Sadas, ‘sitting room.’ Reedwork (iṭa) is spoken of, no doubt as part of the finishing of the walls of the house.16 The sides are called Pakṣa. The door with its framework was named Ātā.

Gṛha-pa1 or Gṛha-pati2 is the regular name, from the Rigveda onwards, of the householder as master of the house. Similarly the mistress is called Gṛha-patnī.3 For the powers and position of the Gṛhapati see Pitr.

1 Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxx. 11.
2 Rv. vi. 53, 2; Av. xiv. 1, 51; xix. 31, 13; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 6, 8, 5; viii. 6, 1, 11, and repeatedly as an epithet of Agni, Rv. i. 12, 6; 36, 5; 60, 4; vi. 48, 8; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, ii. 27; iii. 39; ix. 39; xxiv. 24, etc.
3 Rv. x. 85, 26; Av. iii. 24, 6. Cf. Gārhapatya, Rv. i. 15, 12; vi. 15, 19; x. 85, 27, 36.

Gṛhya denotes the members of the house or family in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.

1 ii. 5, 2, 14; 3, 16; 6, 2, 4; iii. 4, 1, 6; xii. 4, 1, 4. Cf. gṛhāḥ, i. 7, 4, 12.
2 xiii. 12; Weber, Indische Studien, 3, 474. 475.

I. Go (a), ‘ox’ or ‘cow.’1 These were among the chief sources of wealth to the Vedic Indian, and are repeatedly

1 i. 83, 1; 135, 8; ii. 23, 18, etc.; dhenavah, Rv. i. 173, 1; vi. 45, 28; x. 95, 6; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxi. 19, etc.
2 i. 33, 8; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 155, 174.
referred to from the Rigveda onwards. The milk (Kṣīra) was either drunk fresh or made into butter (Ghṛta) or curds (Dadhī), or was mixed with Soma or used for cooking with grain (Kṣīraudana). The cows were milked thrice a day, early (prātar-doha), in the forenoon (Samgava), and in the evening (sāyam-doha). Thrice a day they were driven out to graze, according to the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa (prālah, samgave, sāyam). The first milking was productive, the last two scanty. According to the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, among the Bharatas the herds in the evening are in the Goṣṭha, at midday in the Samgavini. This passage Sāyaṇa expands by saying that the herds go home to the Śālā, or house for animals, at night so far as they consist of animals giving milk, while the others stayed out in the Goṣṭha, or open pasturage; but both were together in the cattle-shed during the heat of the day. The time before the Samgava, when the cows were grazing freely on the pastureland, was called Svasara. When the cows were out feeding they were separated from the calves, which were, however, allowed to join them at the Samgava, and sometimes in the evening.

While grazing the cattle were under the care of a herdsman (Gopā, Gopāla) armed with a goad, but they were liable to all sorts of dangers, such as being lost, falling into pits, breaking limbs,

2 The five sacrificial animals are man, goat, sheep, ox, horse, Sāṅkhāyana Śravāṇa Sūtra, ix. 23, 4; Śata-patha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 4, 3, 13; iii. 1, 2, 13; iv. 5, 5, 10; xiv. 1, 1, 32.
3 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vii. 5, 3, 1.
4 i. 4, 9, 2. The exact sense of this notice is obscure. Strictly speaking, the cows were driven out from the cattle-shed in the morning, spent the heat of the day in the Samgavini, were then driven out during the evening to graze, and finally came or were driven home, as is often mentioned: Rv. i. 66, 5; 49, 4; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xv. 41.
5 iii. 18, 14.
6 Rv. ii. 2, 2; 34, 8; v. 62, 2; viii. 88, 1; ix. 94, 2. The going of the cows to their pasture in the morning is often referred to—e.g., Rv. i. 25, 16; x. 97, 8.
7 Rv. ii. 2, 2; viii. 88, 1; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 1, 1, 3; Śaṅkara on Chāndogya Upaniṣad, ii. 9, 4; Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, i. 12, 4; Nārāyaṇa on Āśvalāyana Śravāṇa Sūtra, iii. 12, 2.
8 Gobhila Gṛhya Sūtra, iii. 8, 7; Rv. ii. 2, 2. See Geldner, Vedicche Studien, 2, 111-114.
9 Pavīravān, Rv. x. 60, 3, is probably so meant. The usual name was Āśṭrā, the significant mark of a Vaśya. Cf. Rv. vii. 33, 6.
10 Rv. i. 120, 8; vi. 54, 5-7. Also Puṣāṇ was the special deity expected to guard cattle, and hence is called ananajapaśu, ‘losing no kine.’ See Rv. x. 17, 2, and Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 36.
and being stolen. The marking of the ears of cattle was repeatedly adopted, no doubt, to indicate ownership.\textsuperscript{11}

Large herds of cattle were well-known, as is shown by the Dānastutis, or 'praises of gifts,' in the Rigveda,\textsuperscript{12} even when allowances are made for the exaggeration of priestly gratitude. The importance attached to the possession of cattle is shown\textsuperscript{13} by the numerous passages in which the gods are asked to prosper them, and by the repeated prayers\textsuperscript{14} for wealth in kine. Hence, too, forays for cattle (Gavisti) were well known; the Bharata host is called the 'horde desiring cows' (gavyan grāmaḥ) in the Rigveda;\textsuperscript{15} and a verbal root gup,\textsuperscript{16} 'to protect,' was evolved as early as the Rigveda from the denominative go-pāya, 'to guard cows.' The Vedic poets\textsuperscript{17} do not hesitate to compare their songs with the lowing of cows, or to liken the choir of the singing Apsarases to cows.\textsuperscript{18}

The cattle of the Vedic period were of many colours: red (rohita), light (ṣukra), dappled (prṣṇi), even black (kṛṣṇa).\textsuperscript{19} Zimmer\textsuperscript{20} sees a reference to cows with blazes on the face in one passage of the Rigveda,\textsuperscript{21} but this is uncertain.

Oxen were regularly used for ploughing or for drawing wagons (anadvāli), in which case they were, it seems, usually castrated.\textsuperscript{22} Cows were not properly used for drawing carts, though they at times did so.\textsuperscript{23} The flesh of both cows and bulls was sometimes eaten (Māmsa). Cattle were certainly the

\textsuperscript{11} Rv. vi. 28, 3; Maitrāyanī Saṃhitā, iv. 2, 9, and cf. Aṣṭakarṣṇi and Svadhīti.

\textsuperscript{12} Rv. vii. 5, 37, etc. Cf. Pañca-vimśa Brāhmaṇa, xvii. 14, 2; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, viii. 21, 23; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 5, 4, 8 et seq.

\textsuperscript{13} Rv. i. 43, 2; 162, 22; v. 4, 11; ix. 9, 9, etc.; Av. i. 31, 4; ii. 26, 4; v. 29, 2; vi. 68, 3; viii. 7, 11; x. 1, 17, 29; xi. 2, 9, 21, etc.; Taittiriya Saṃhitā, iii. 2, 3, 1; v. 5, 5, 1; vi. 5, 10, 1; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, iii. 59.

\textsuperscript{14} Rv. i. 83, 1; iv. 32, 17; v. 4, 11; viii. 89, 2, etc.

\textsuperscript{15} iii. 33, 11.

\textsuperscript{16} Rv. vii. 103, 9; Av. x. 9, 7, 8; xix. 27, 9, 10. Cf. Macdonell, \textit{Vedic Grammar}, p. 358, n. 13.

\textsuperscript{17} Rv. vii. 32, 22; viii. 95, 1; 106, 1; ix. 12, 2, etc.

\textsuperscript{18} Rv. x. 95, 6. It is, however, uncertain whether the names of Apsarases are meant in this passage. Cf. Ludwig, \textit{Translation of the Rigveda}, 5, 517.

\textsuperscript{19} Rv. i. 62, 9. Various other colours are mentioned in the lists of animals at the Aśvamedha, or human sacrifice, in the Yajurveda, but apparently as exceptional.

\textsuperscript{20} \textit{Altindisches Leben}, 226.

\textsuperscript{21} i. 87, 1. It is also rendered as 'the heavens with stars.'

\textsuperscript{22} Av. iii. 9, 2; vi. 138, 2; Taittiriya Saṃhitā, i. 8, 9, 1; Weber, \textit{Indische Studien}, 13, 151, n. See Mahānirāṣṭā.

\textsuperscript{23} Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 2, 4, 13.
objects of individual ownership, and they formed one of the standards of exchange and valuation (see Kraya).

(b) The term Go is often applied to express the products of the cow. It frequently means the milk, but rarely the flesh of the animal. In many passages it designates leather used as the material of various objects, as a bowstring, or a sling, or thongs to fasten part of the chariot, or reins, or the lash of a whip. See also Carman, with which Go is sometimes synonymous.

(c) Gāvah means the stars of heaven in two passages of the Rigveda, according to Roth.

2. Go Āṅgirasa ('descendant of Āṅgiras') is the reputed author of a Sāman or Chant in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa. There is little doubt that he is mythical.

Go-ghāta, 'a cow-killer,' is enumerated in the list of victims at the Puruṣamedha, or human sacrifice, in the Yajurveda. See Māṃsa.

Gotama is mentioned several times in the Rigveda, but never in such a way as to denote personal authorship of any hymn. It seems clear that he was closely connected with the
Angirases, for the Gotamas frequently refer to Angiras. That he bore the patronymic Rāhugāna is rendered probable by one hymn of the Rigveda, and is assumed in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, where he appears as the Purohita, or domestic priest, of Māthava Videgha, and as a bearer of Vedic civilization. He is also mentioned in the same Brāhmaṇa as a contemporary of Janaka of Videha, and Yājñavalkya, and as the author of a Stoma. He occurs, moreover, in two passages of the Atharvaveda.

The Gotamas are mentioned in several passages of the Rigveda, Vāmadeva and Nodhas being specified as sons of Gotama. They include the Vājaśravases. See also Gautama.

Gotamī-putra, ‘son of Gotamī,’ is mentioned as a pupil of Bhrāradvāji-putra in the Kānyā recension of the Bṛhadāranyaka Upaniṣad (vi. 5, 1). See also Gautamī-putra.

Gotra occurs several times in the Rigveda in the account of the mythic exploits of Indra. Roth interprets the word as ‘cowstall,’ while Geldner thinks ‘herd’ is meant. The latter sense seems to explain best the employment which the term shows in the later literature as denoting the ‘family’ or ‘clan,’ and which is found in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad.

In the Gṛhya Śūtras stress is laid on the prohibition of

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1 i. 51, 3; ii. 17, 1; 23, 18; iii. 39, 4; 43, 7; viii. 74, 5; x. 48, 2; 103, 7.
2 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
3 Vedische Studien, 2, 275, 276, where he divides the passages according as real or mythical herds are meant.
4 iv. 4, 1. So Śāṅkhāyana Śruta Śutra, i. 4, 16, etc.; Āśvalāyana Gṛhya Śutra, iv. 4, etc.; Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, xxv. 15.
5 Gobhila Gṛhya Śutra, iii. 4, 4; Āpastamba Dharma Śutra, ii. 5, 11, 15, 16, in Max Müller, Ancient Sanskrit Literature, 387. For saṅhāra, see Gautama Dharma Śutra, xiv. 13; Vasiṣṭha Dharma Śutra, iv. 17-19.
marriage within a Gotra, or with a Sapiṇḍa of the mother of the bridegroom—that is to say, roughly, with agnates and cognates. Senart⁶ has emphasized this fact as a basis of caste, on the ground that marriage within a curia, phratria, or caste (Varnā) was Indo-European, as was marriage outside the circle of agnates and cognates. But there is no evidence at all⁷ to prove that this practice was Indo-European, while in India the Satapatha⁸ expressly recognizes marriage within the third or fourth degree on either side. According to Śāyaṇa, the Kāṇvas accepted marriage in the third degree, the Saurāṣṭras only in the fourth, while the scholiast on the Vajrasūci⁹ adds to the Kāṇvas the Andhras and the Dākṣiṇātyas, and remarks that the Vājasaneyins forbade marriage with the daughter of the mother's brother. All apparently allowed marriage with the daughter of a paternal uncle, which later was quite excluded. Change of Gotra was quite possible, as in the case of Śunāḥ-şepa and Gṛtsamada, who, once an Āṅgirasa, became a Bhārgava.¹⁰

Go-dāna appears to mean 'the whiskers' in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa,¹ where the person, being consecrated, first shaves off the right and then the left 'whisker.' Later on the Godāna-vidhi, or ceremony of shaving the head, is a regular part of the initiation of a youth on the attainment of manhood and on marriage;² but though the ceremony is recognized in the Atharvaveda,³ the name⁴ does not occur there.

¹ iii. 1, 2, 5. 6.
² Āśvalāyana Grhya Sūtra, i. 19; Śāṅkhāyana Grhya Sūtra, i. 28, etc.
⁴ The meaning 'whisker' is a secondary one, derived, doubtless, from the 'gift of a cow' (go-dāna), accompanying the ceremony of shaving the whiskers or hair.

⁷ i. 8, 3, 6.
⁸ See Weber, Indische Studien, 10, 73-76.
⁹ Hillebrandt, Vedicke Mythologie, 2, 157; Festgruss an Roth, 108.
¹⁰ Cf. Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 61 et seq.; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 323.
Godhā.—(a) The sense of ‘bowstring’ seems certain in one passage of the Rigveda, and possible in another. Roth also adopts this meaning in the only passage of the Atharvaveda where the word occurs.

(b) In one passage of the Rigveda the sense of ‘musical instrument’ is recognized by Roth and by Hillebrandt for this word.

(c) Elsewhere an animal seems to be meant, perhaps the ‘crocodile,’ as Ludwig and Weber think; perhaps a large ‘lizard,’ as Roth and Zimmer assume. An animal is probably also meant in the Atharvaveda.

Go-dhūma, ‘wheat,’ is frequently referred to in the plural in the Yajurveda Samhitas and Brāhmaṇas, and is expressly distinguished from ‘rice’ (Vṛīhi) or ‘barley’ (Yava), ‘Groats’ (saktavaḥ) made of this grain are also mentioned. The word occurs in the singular in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.

Go-pati, ‘lord of cows,’ is freely used in the Rigveda to denote any lord or master, a natural usage considering that cattle formed the main species of wealth.
Gopa-vana is the name of a poet of the race of Atri in the Rigveda.\(^1\) See Gaupavana.


Go-pā and Go-pāla, 'protector of cows,' occur in the Rigveda\(^1\) and later, but the former is usually metaphorical in sense, applying to any protector, while the latter has the literal force of 'cow-herd.'

\(^1\) Gopā: Rv. i. 164, 21; ii. 23, 6; iii. 10, 2; v. 12, 4, etc.; Gopāla: Vāja-saneyi Samhita, xxx. 11; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 1, 5, 4. Go-pā, in the sense of 'guardian,' occurs in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xxiv. 18, in a compound. Go-pitha, in the sense of 'protection,' occurs in Rv. v. 65, 6; x. 35, 14, etc. Go-pitr, 'protector,' first occurs in Av. x. 10, 5, and is thereafter common.

Go-bala ('ox-strength') Vārṣṇa ('descendant of Vṛṣṇi') is mentioned as a teacher in the Taittiriya Samhita (iii. 11, 9, 3) and the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (i. 6, 1).

Go-matī, 'possessing cows,' is mentioned as a river in the Nadi-stuti, or 'Praise of Rivers,' in the tenth Maṇḍala of the Rigveda.\(^1\) In that hymn a river flowing into the Indus must be meant, and its identification\(^2\) with the Gomal, a western tributary of the Indus, cannot be doubted. In one other passage of the Rigveda\(^3\) the accentuation of Go-matī shows that a river is meant. It is possible that in a third passage\(^4\) the reading should be changed to gomatīr from gomati. Geldner\(^5\) suggests that in the two last passages the Gumti, or rather its four upper arms (hence the use of the plural) is meant: this accords well with the later use of the name and with the general probability of the river here intended being in Kurukṣetra, as the centre of Vedic civilization.\(^6\)

\(^1\) x. 75, 6.
\(^2\) Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 14; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 200.
\(^3\) viii. 24, 30.
\(^4\) v. 61, 19. See Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, i, 355, 356.
\(^5\) Vedische Studien, 3, 152, n. 2.
Go-māyu, ‘lowing like a cow,’ does not occur as the name of the ‘jackal’ till the late Adbhuta Brāhmaṇa.¹

¹ *Indische Studien*, 1, 40.

Go-mṛga, a species of ox, now called Gayal (*Bos gaurus*), is mentioned in the list of victims at the Āsvamedha, or horse sacrifice, in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās¹ and Brāhmaṇas.² In the Taittirīya Saṃhitā³ it is declared to be neither a wild nor a tame animal; this presumably means that it was semi-domesticated, or perhaps that it was both tamed and found wild. With the name of this animal may be compared the Mṛga Mahiṣa, which is clearly mentioned as wild in the Rigveda.⁴ See also Gayava.

¹ Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 11; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. 1, 30.
² Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 3, 4, 3; 5, 10; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 8, 20, 5.
³ ii. 1, 10, 2.

Golattikā is the name of some unknown animal in the list of victims at the Āsvamedha, or horse sacrifice, in the Yajurveda.¹


Go-vikartana (‘cow-butcher’) designates the ‘huntsman’ in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (v. 3, 1, 10).¹ See Goghāta.

¹ Cf. Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 16, 1; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxx. 18; Weber, *Indische Streifen*, 1, 82.

Go-vyaca. See Vyaca.

Gośarya is the name of a protégé of the Āśvins in the Rigveda (viii. 8, 20; 49, 1; 50, 10).

Go-śru Jābāla is mentioned as a sage in the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 7, 7).

Go-śrutī Vaiyāghrapadya (‘descendant of Vyāghrapad’) is mentioned as a pupil of Satyakāma in the Chandogya Upaniṣad (v. 2, 3). In the Sāṅkhāyana Āranyaka (ix. 7) the name appears as Gośruta.
Go-śādi (‘sitting on a cow’) is the name of a bird in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice, in the Yajurveda.\(^1\)


Go-śūktin is mentioned in the Sarvānukrāmaṇī as the author of Rigveda viii. 14 and 15, and a Sāman or Chant of his seems to be referred to in the Paṇcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xix. 4, 9), under the title of Gauśūkta. But see Gauśūkti.

Go-śṭha, ‘standing-place for cows,’ denotes not so much a ‘cowstall’ as the ‘grazing ground of cows,’ as Geldner\(^1\) shows from a passage of the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa\(^2\) and from a note of Mahīdhara on the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā.\(^3\) This sense suits adequately all the passages of the Rigveda\(^4\) where it occurs, and it greatly improves the interpretation of a hymn of the Atharvaveda,\(^5\) besides being acceptable elsewhere.\(^6\) See also Go.

2. iii. 18, 14.
3. iii. 21.
4. i. 191, 4; vi. 28, 1; viii. 43, 17.
5. iii. 14, 1; 5, 6, where Whitney’s rendering ‘stall’ is very unsatisfactory, and Bloomfield’s ‘stable’ is no better.
6. Av. ii. 26, 2; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, iii. 21; v. 17; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 8, 3, 2, etc.; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, vii. 7; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iv. 2, II.

Gautama, ‘descendant of Gotama,’ is a common patronymic, being applied to Aruṇa,\(^1\) Uddālaka Aruṇi,\(^2\) Kuśri,\(^3\) Sāti,\(^4\) Hāridrumata.\(^5\)

Several Gautamas are mentioned in the Vāṇśas (lists of teachers) in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad as pupils of Āgnivesya,\(^6\) of Saitava and Prācīnayogyay,\(^7\) of Saitava,\(^8\) of Bhārad-
vāja,9 of Gautama,10 and of Vātsyā.11 A Gautama is also referred to elsewhere.

9 Ibid., ii. 6, 2 (Kānva = ii. 5, 22; iv. 5, 27 Mādhyaṃdina).
10 Ibid., ii. 6, 3; iv. 6, 3 (Kānva = ii. 5, 22; iv. 5, 28 Mādhyaṃdina).
11 Ibid., ii. 6, 3; iv. 6, 3 (Kānva = ii. 5, 20. 22; iv. 5, 26 Mādhyaṃdina). The Mādhyaṃdina, ii. 5, 20; iv. 5, 26, knows a Gautama, pupil of Vaijavāpāyana and Vaiṣṭhapureya.

Gautamī-putra (‘son of a female descendant of Gotama’) is mentioned in the Kānva recension of the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (vi. 5, 2) as a pupil of Bhāradvājīputra. In the Mādhyaṃdina (vi. 4, 31) a Gautamīputra is a pupil of Ātreyīputra, pupil of Gautamīputra, pupil of Vātsīputra. See also Gotamīputra.

Gaupa-vana (‘descendant of Gopavana’) is mentioned as a pupil of Pautimāśya in the first two Vamsas (lists of teachers) in the Kānva recension of the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (ii. 6, 1; iv. 6, 1).

Gaupāyana (‘descendant of Gopa’). The Gaupāyanas appear in the legend of Asamāti, Kīrāta, and Akuli, which is first met with in the Brāhmaṇas.1

1 Pañcavimsīṭa Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 12, 5; Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 167 (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 18, 41); Sātyāyanaka in Sāyaṇa on Rv. x. 57 (Max Müller’s edition, 42, c et seq.);
Bṛhaddevatā, vii. 83 et seq., with Macdonell’s notes.

Gaupalāyana (‘descendant of Gopāla’) is the patronymic of Śucivrksa in the Maitrāyaṇi Samhitā.1 It is also the patronymic of Aupoditi, Sthapati of the Kurus, in the Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra,2 and, as Gaupāleya, of Upoditi or Aupoditi in the Pañcavimsīṭa Brāhmaṇa.3

1 iii. 10, 4 (p. 135, line 9). Cf. Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 48, 9, where Aufrecht reads Gaupalāyana.
2 xx. 25.
3 xii. 13, 11, where the edition has Upoditi.

Gaura, a species of ox (Bos gaurus), is frequently mentioned with the Gavaya from the Rigveda1 onwards.2 As the Vājasaneyi Samhitā3 expressly mentions wild (āranya) Gauras, they

1 i. 16, 5; iv. 21, 8; 58, 2; v. 78, 2; vii. 69, 6; 98, 1, etc. Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxiv. 28; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 34, etc.
2 Maitrāyaṇi Samhitā, iii. 14, 10; xiii. 48.
A SEER—TEACHERS

must usually have been tame. The female, Gauri, is also often referred to. The compound term Gaura-mrga ('the Gaura wild beast') is sometimes met with.

Gauri-viti Śaktya ('descendant of Śakti') or Gauriviti, as the name is also spelt, is the Rsi, or Seer, of a hymn of the Rigveda, and is frequently mentioned in the Brāhmaṇas. According to the Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa, he was Prastotṛ at the Sattra, or sacrificial session, celebrated by the Vībhīndukiyas and mentioned in that Brāhmaṇa.

Gauśra ('descendant of Gusri') is the name of a teacher mentioned in the Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa (xvi. 9; xxiii. 5). See Gauśla.

Gauśrāyani ('descendant of Gauśra') is the patronymic of a teacher, Citra, in the Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa (xxiii. 5).

Gauśla, a variant of Gauśra, is the name of a teacher represented as in disagreement with Buḍila Āsvatara Āsvi in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa.

Gau-šūkti is the name of a pupil of Iṣa Śyāvāsvi according to the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa in a Vamsa (list of teachers). It is also the name, in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa,

1 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xii. 8, 3, 7; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xi. 5; xii. 13; xxv. 7.
2 v. 29, 11.
3 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 19; viii. 2; and see n. 1.

1 vi. 30. Cf. Gopatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 6, 9 (Gośla).

1 iv. 16, 1.
of a teacher who appears to have been needlessly invented to explain the Gauṣūkta Śāman (chant), which is really the Śāman of Göṣūktin.

Graha (‘seizing’) is a term applied to the sun in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, most probably not in the later sense of ‘planet,’ but to denote a power exercising magical influence. The sense of ‘planet’ seems first to occur in the later literature, as in the Maitrāyaṇī Upaniṣad. The question whether the planets were known to the Vedic Indians is involved in obscurity. Oldenberg recognizes them in the Ādityas, whose number is, he believes, seven: sun, moon, and the five planets. But this view, though it cannot be said to be impossible or even unlikely, is not susceptible of proof, and has been rejected by Hillebrandt, Pischel, von Schroeder, Macdonell, and Bloomfield, among others. Hillebrandt sees the planets in the five Adhvaryus mentioned in the Rigveda, but this is a mere conjecture. The five bulls (uksāṇah) in another passage of the Rigveda have received a similar interpretation with equal uncertainty, and Durga, in his commentary on the Nīrūkta, even explains the term bhūmiṇa, ‘earth-born,’ which is only mentioned by Yāska, as meaning the planet Mars, who is generally sceptical as to the mention of planets in the Veda, thinks that Brhaspati there refers to Jupiter; but this is extremely improbable, though in the Taittiriya Śaṃhitā Brhaspati is made the regent of Tisya. A reference to the

1 iv. 6, 5, 1.  
2 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 26, 432, n. 2.  
3 vi. 16. See Weber, Indian Literature, 98, n. 4 Religion des Veda, 185 et seq.; Zeit schrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 50, 56 et seq.  
5 Vedische Mythologie, 3, 102 et seq.  
6 Göttingische Gelehrte Anzeigen, 1895, 447.  
7 Vienna Oriental Journal, 9, 109.  
8 Vedic Mythology, p. 44.  
9 Religion of the Veda, 133 et seq.  
10 Vedische Mythologie, 3, 423.  
11 iii. 7, 7.  
12 i. 105, 10. Cf. also i. 105, 16, with Oldenberg’s note.  
14 i. 14.  
15 See Weber, Jyotiṣa, 10, n. 2.  
16 Astronomie, Astrologie, und Mathematik, 6.  
planets is much more probable in the seven suns (saṃta sūryāḥ) of the late Taittirīyā Āraṇyaka. On the other hand, Ludwig's efforts to find the five planets with the sun, the moon, and the twenty-seven Nakṣatras (lunar mansions) in the Rigveda, as corresponding to the number thirty-four used in connexion with light (jyotis) and the ribs of the sacrificial horse, is far-fetched. See also Śukra, Manthin, Vena.

18 i. 7. See on them Weber, Omina und Portenta, 339; Indische Studien, 2, 238; 9, 363; 10, 240, 271; Jyotiṣa, 10; Rāmāyaṇa, 28, n. 2.

Grābha (lit. 'grasping') designates the 'throw' of dice in the Rigveda. See also Glaha.

1 viii. 81, 1; ix. 106, 3. Cf. Lüders, Das Würfelspiel im alten Indien, 49, 50.

Grāma.—The primitive sense of this word, which occurs frequently from the Rigveda onwards, appears to have been 'village.' The Vedic Indians must have dwelt in villages which were scattered over the country, some close together, some far apart, and were connected by roads. The village is regularly contrasted with the forest (aranya), and its animals and plants with those that lived or grew wild in the woods. The villages contained cattle, horses, and other domestic animals, as well as men. Grain was also stored in them. In the evening the cattle regularly returned thither from the forest. The villages were probably open, though perhaps a fort (Pur) might on...
occasion be built inside.\(^8\) Presumably they consisted of detached houses with enclosures, but no details are to be found in Vedic literature. Large villages (mahāgrāmāḥ) were known.\(^9\)

The relation of the villagers is difficult to ascertain with precision. In several passages\(^{10}\) the word occurs with what appears to be the derivative sense of ‘body of men.’ This sense presumably started from the use of the word to denote the ‘village folk,’ as when Śaryāṭa Mānava is said in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa\(^{11}\) to have wandered about with his ‘village’ (grāmena); but, as Zimmer\(^{12}\) observes, this restricted sense nowhere appears clearly in the Rigveda,\(^{13}\) where indeed the ‘folk’ (jana)\(^{14}\) of the Bharatas is in one passage\(^{15}\) called the ‘horde seeking cows’ (gavyan grāmaḥ). Zimmer\(^{16}\) tends to regard the Grāma as a clan, and as standing midway between the family and the tribe (Viś). The Grāma may, however, perhaps be regarded more correctly\(^{17}\) as an aggregate of several families, not necessarily forming a clan, but only part of a clan (Viś), as is often the case at the present day.\(^{18}\)

Vedic literature tells us very little about the social economy of the village. There is nothing to show that the community as such held land. What little evidence there is indicates that individual tenure of land was known (see Urvarā, Kṣetra), but this, in effect though not in law, presumably meant tenure by a family rather than by an individual person. The expression

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\(^{8}\) As nowadays. See Zimmer, Alhindisches Leben, 144, citing Hügel, Kashmir, ii. 13, 4.

\(^{9}\) Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, iii. 13, 4.

\(^{10}\) Rv. i. 100, 10; iii. 33, 11; x. 27, 1; 127, 5; Av. iv. 7, 5; v. 20, 3 (where, however, ‘villages’ is quite probable); Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 1, 5, 2; vi. 7, 4, 9; xii. 4, 1, 3. Cf. n. 1.

\(^{11}\) iv. 1, 5, 2, 7.

\(^{12}\) Alhindisches Leben, 161.

\(^{13}\) See passages cited in n. 10.

\(^{14}\) Av. iii. 53, 12.

\(^{15}\) Av. iii. 33, 11.

\(^{16}\) Op. cit., 159, 160, where, however, his language is not very clear. Cf. Hopkins, Religions of India, 27, who points out that Zimmer is inaccurate in identifying the tribe with Viś. It is the clan, a division below that of the tribe (Jana).

\(^{17}\) A village might contain a whole clan, but probably it contained at most a section of a clan. By family is meant a Hindu joint family; but the extent to which such families existed, and the number of persons included, cannot even be conjectured from the available evidence. Cf. Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 393; Leist, Altindisches Jus Gentium, 34.

\(^{18}\) Cf. Baden Powell, Village Communities in India, 85 et seq.
desirous of a village' (grāma-kāma), which occurs frequently in
the later Saṃhitās, 10 points, however, to the practice of the king’s
granting to his favourites his royal prerogatives over villages so
far as fiscal matters were concerned. Later 20 the idea developed
that the king was owner of all the land, and parallel with that
idea the view that the holders of such grants were landlords.
But of either idea there is no vestige in Vedic literature beyond
the word grāma-kāma, which much more probably refers to the
grant of regalia than to the grant of land, as Teutonic parallels
show. 21 Such grants probably tended to depress the position
of the actual cultivators, and to turn them into tenants, but
they can hardly have had this effect to any appreciable extent
in early times.

The village does not appear to have been a unit for legal
purposes in early days,22 and it can hardly be said to have been
a political unit. The village no doubt, as later, included in its
members various menials, besides the cultivating owners, and
also the Brāhmaṇas and Kṣatriyas who might hold interest in
it by royal grant or usage without actually cultivating land,
such as chariot-makers (Ratha-kāra), carpenters (Takṣan),
smiths (Karmāra), and others, but they did not presumably, in
any sense, form part of the brotherhood. 23 All alike were
politically subject to the king, and bound to render him food or
service or other tribute, unless he had transferred his rights to

19 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, ii. 1, 1, 2; 3, 2; 3, 9, 2; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā,
i. 1, 9; 2, 3; iv. 2, 7, etc.; Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut
Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 32, thinks that grāma here means ‘herd’ (of cattle).
20 Cf. Baden Powell, Indian Village Community, 207 et seq. Whether or not
the idea is already found in Manu, ix. 34, is disputed and uncertain. See
Rājan. The germ of it lies in a differ-
ent sphere—the right of the Kṣatriya,
with the consent of the clan, to apportion
land (Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, vii.
1, 1, 8).
21 Cf. Pollock and Maitland, History
of English Law, 2, 237 et seq.; Baden
Powell, Village Communities in India,
83; Rhys Davids, Buddhist India,
48. It may be mentioned that we have
no Vedic evidence as to the non-sale
of land by the members of a family,
except the indications mentioned under
Uṛvārā. The later evidence is over-
whelming for grāma, meaning ‘village.’
Cf. Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iv. 2, 4; Śāṅkhāyana Grhya Sūtra, i. 14; Kauśika
Sūtra, 94.
22 Cf. Foy, Die königliche Gewalt,
20, n.; Jolly, Recht und Sitt, 93; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental
Society, 13, 78, 128.
23 Cf. Baden Powell, Indian Village
Community, 17, 18.
others of the royal family or household, as was no doubt often the case, either in whole or part. The king's share in a village is referred to as early as the Atharvaveda.\textsuperscript{24}

At the head of the village was the Grāma-ṇī, or 'leader of the village,' who is referred to in the Rigveda,\textsuperscript{25} and often in the later Saṃhitās and in the Brāhmaṇas.\textsuperscript{26} The exact meaning of the title is not certain. By Zimmer\textsuperscript{27} the Grāmaṇī is regarded as having had military functions only, and he is certainly often connected with the Senāni, or 'leader of an army.' But there is no reason so to restrict the sense: presumably the Grāmaṇī was the head of the village both for civil purposes and for military operations. He is ranked in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa\textsuperscript{28} as inferior to the Sūta, or 'charioteer,' with whom, however, he is associated\textsuperscript{29} as one of the Ratnins, the 'jewels' of the royal establishment. The post was especially valuable to a Vaiśya, who, if he attained it, was at the summit of prosperity (gataśrī).\textsuperscript{30} The Grāmaṇī's connexion with the royal person seems to point to his having been a nominee of the king rather than a popularly elected officer. But the post may have been sometimes hereditary, and sometimes nominated or elective: there is no decisive evidence available. The use of the singular presents difficulties: possibly the Grāmaṇī of the village or city where the royal residence was situated was specially honoured and influential.\textsuperscript{31}

\textsuperscript{21} iv. 22, 2. Cf. n. 20.

\textsuperscript{22} x. 62, 11; 107, 5.

\textsuperscript{23} Av. iii. 5, 7; xix. 31, 12; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, ii. 5, 4, 4; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, i. 6, 5 (grāma-nīthya, 'the rank of Grāmaṇī': cf. Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vii. 4, 5, 2); Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, viii. 4; x. 3; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xv. 15; xxx. 20; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 4, 8; 7, 3, 4; ii. 7, 18, 4; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 1, 7; v. 4, 4, 8; viii. 6, 2, 1 (grāma-nīthya); Bhadārāṇyaka Upaniṣad, iv. 3, 37, 38, etc.

\textsuperscript{24} Altindisches Leben, 171.

\textsuperscript{25} Av. 4, 4, 18.

\textsuperscript{26} Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 3, 1, 5.

\textsuperscript{27} Taittirīya Saṃhitā, ii. 5, 4, 4; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, i. 6, 5. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 10, 20, n. 2.

\textsuperscript{28} Presumably, there must have been many Grāmaṇīs in a kingdom, but the texts seem to contemplate only one as in the royal entourage. Cf. also Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 41, 60, n.; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 96; Rhys Davids, op. cit., 48, thinks that he was elected by the village council or a hereditary officer, because the appointment is only claimed for the king in late authorities like Manu, vii. 115. But there is not even so much authority for election or heredity, and we really cannot say how far the power of the early princes extended: it probably varied very much. Cf. Bājan and Citraratha.
Grāmyavādin apparently means a ‘village judge’ in the Yajurveda.1 His Sabhā, ‘court,’ is mentioned in the Maitrāyani Samhitā.

1 Taittiriya Samhitā, ii. 3, 1, 3; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xi. 4; Maitrāyani Samhitā, ii. 2, 1.

Grāha, ‘the seizer,’ is the name of a disease in the Śatapatha Brāhmana.1 In the Atharvaveda2 it perhaps means ‘paralysis’ of the thigh.3

1 iii. 5, 3. 25; 6, 1, 25. 2 xi. 9, 12. 3 If the reading of the commentary āru-grāhaiḥ be adopted; but Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 633, retaining the reading of the text uru-grāhaiḥ, renders the compound as an adjective, ‘wide-gripping.’ Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 635.

Grāhi, ‘the seizer,’ appears in the Rigveda1 and the Atharvaveda2 as a female demon of disease. Her son is sleep (svapna).3

1 x. 161, 1. 2 ii. 9, 1; 10, 6, 8; vii. 112, 1; 113, 1; viii. 2, 12; 3, 18; xvi. 7, 1; 8, 1; xix. 45, 5. 3 xvi. 5, 1; or perhaps ‘dream’ is meant. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 13, 154.

Griṣma. See Ṛtu.

Graivya, in the Atharvaveda,1 appears to denote ‘tumours on the neck’ (grīvāḥ).


Glaha denotes the ‘throw’ at dice, like Grābha, of which it is a later form, occurring in the Atharvaveda.1

1 iv. 28, 1 et seq. Cf. Lüders, Das Würfelspiel im alten Indien, 49.

Glāva Maitreya (‘descendant of Maitri’) is mentioned in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad,1 where he is said to be the same as Vaka Dalbhya. He appears as Pratistotra at the snake festival of the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa,2 and is referred to in the Śaḍviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.3

1 i. 12, 1. 3. Cf. Gopatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 31. 2 xxv. 15, 3. 3 i. 4. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 35, 38.
Glau occurs in the Atharvaveda and in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa as the name of some symptom of a disease, probably, as Bloomfield thinks, 'boils.' In the one passage of the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, where it is found the sense is obscure, some part of the sacrificial victim being perhaps meant. Cf. Galunta.

Gharma denotes in the Rigveda and later the pot used for heating milk, especially for the offering to the Asvins. It hence often denotes the hot milk itself, or some other hot drink.

Ghāsa means 'fodder' in the Atharvaveda and later. In the Rigveda Ghāsi is used of the fodder of the horse victim at the Aśvamedha.

Ghrṇivant is the name of some animal in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice, in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā. In the parallel passage of the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā Ghrṇāvant is the reading. Elsewhere the word is adjectival.
Ghrṭa, the modern Ghee or ‘clarified butter,’ is repeatedly mentioned in the Rigveda\(^1\) and later\(^2\) both as in ordinary use and as a customary form of sacrifice. According to a citation in Sāyaṇa’s commentary on the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa,\(^3\) the distinction between Ghrṭa and Sarpis consisted in the latter being butter fully melted, while the former was butter melted and hardened (ghanī-bhūta), but this distinction cannot be pressed. Because the butter was thrown into the fire, Agni is styled ‘butter-faced’ (ghṛta-pratīka),\(^4\) ‘butter-backed’ (ghṛta-prṣṭha),\(^5\) and ‘propitiated with butter’ (ghṛta-prasatta),\(^6\) and ‘fond of butter’ (ghṛta-pri). Water was used to purify the butter: the waters were therefore called ‘butter-cleansing’ (ghṛta-pū).\(^8\)

In the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa\(^9\) it is said that Ājya, Ghrṭa, Āyuta, and Navanīta pertain to gods, men, Pitṛs, and embryos respectively.

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1 i. 134, 6; ii. 10, 4; iv. 10, 6; 58, 5. 7. 9; v. 12, 1, etc.
2 Vājasaneyi Sāṁhitā, ii. 22, etc.; Av. iii. 13, 5, etc.; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 8, 1, 7 (with Dadhi, Māstu, Amikṣā); ix. 2, 1, 1 (Dadhi, Mādhu, Ghrṭa), etc.
3 i. 3 (p. 240, edition Aufrecht).
4 Rv. i. 143, 7; iii. 1, 18; v. II, 1; x. 21, 7, etc.
5 Rv. i. 164, 1; v. 4, 3; 37, 1; vii. 2, 4, etc.
6 Rv. v. 15, 1.
7 Av. xii. 1, 20; xviii. 4, 41.

Ghrṭa-kauśika is mentioned in the first two Vamśas (lists of teachers) of the Mādhyaṃdina recension of the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad\(^1\) as a pupil of Pārāśaryāyaṇa.


Ghora Āṅgirasa is the name of a mythical teacher in the Kauṣitaki Brāhmaṇa\(^1\) and the Chāndogya Upaniṣad,\(^2\) where he is teacher of the strange Kṛṣṇa Devakīputra. That the name is certainly a mere figment is shown by the fact that this ‘dread descendant of the Āṅgirases’ has a counterpart in Bhīṣaj Ātharvaṇa,\(^3\) ‘the healing descendant of the Atharvans,’ while in the Rigveda Sūtras\(^4\) the Athavāṇo vedāḥ is connected

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\(^1\) xxx. 6. Cf. Āśvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xii. 10.
\(^2\) iii. 17, 6.
\(^4\) Āśvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra, x. 7; Sāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. 2; Journal of the American Oriental Society, 17, 181.
with bhesajam and the Āṅgiraso vedaḥ with ghoram. He is accordingly a personification of the dark side of the practice of the Atharvaveda.5 He is also mentioned in the Āsvamedha section of the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā.6

5 Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, xx, xxii, xxxviii; Atharvaveda, 8, 23; Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, 189, 190; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 2, 160, n. 4.

6 i. 1.

Ghoṣa. See Ghoṣā.

Ghoṣavant. See Svara.

Ghoṣā is mentioned as a protégée of the Āsvins in two passages of the Rigveda,1 probably as the recipient of a husband, who is perhaps referred to in another passage2 as Arjuna, though this is not likely. Śāyaṇa finds a reference there to a skin disease, which is considered in the later tradition of the Brhaddevatā3 to have been the cause of her remaining unwed, but this view is not tenable. According to Śāyaṇa, her son, Suhastya, is alluded to in an obscure verse of the Rigveda4; Oldenberg,5 however, here sees a reference to Ghoṣā herself, while Pischel6 thinks that the form (ghoṣe) is not a noun at all, but verbal.

1 i. 117, 7; x. 40, 5. Cf. x. 39, 3. 6. 2 i. 122, 5. See Oldenberg, Rigveda-Noten, 1, 123.

3 vii. 41-48, with Macdonell’s notes.

4 i. 120, 5.

5 Op. cit., 119. Suhastya is apparently invented from x. 41, 3, probably assisted by the fact that Vadhrimatī was given a son, Hiranyahasta, by the Āsvins (Rv. i. 117, 24).

6 Vedische Studien, 1, 4; 2, 92.

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 143; Über Methode bei Interpretation des Rigveda, 43; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 5, 247; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 52.

Caka is mentioned with Piṣāṅga as one of the two Unnetṛ priests at the snake festival in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.1

1 xxv. 15, 3. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 35, who reads Cakha; 10, 142, n. 3, 144
Cakra, the ‘wheel’ of a chariot or wagon, is repeatedly mentioned from the Rigveda onwards, often in a metaphorical sense. The wheel was fixed on the axle (Aksa) when the chariot was required for use; this required considerable strength, as is shown by a reference in the Rigveda. The wheel consisted normally of spokes (Ara), and a nave (Nābhi), in the opening (Kha) of which the end of the axle (Aṇi) was inserted. An indication of the importance attached to the strength of the wheel is the celebration of the car of the god Pūšan as having a wheel that suffers no damage. The usual number of wheels was two, but in seven passages of the Rigveda a chariot is called ‘three-wheeled,’ in a few others ‘seven-wheeled,’ while in one of the Atharvaveda it is styled ‘eight-wheeled.’ Zimmer argues that these epithets do not refer to real chariots, pointing out that in all the passages where tri-cakra, ‘three-wheeled,’ occurs there is a mythical reference. On the other hand, Weber thinks that there might have been chariots with three wheels, one being in the centre between the two occupants. This is not very conclusive; at any rate, the seven-wheeled and the eight-wheeled chariots can hardly be regarded as indicating the existence of real vehicles with that number of wheels.

In the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa the potter’s wheel (kaulālā-cakra) is referred to.

Cakra-vāka is the name, apparently derived from the nature of its cry, of a species of gander (Anas casarca), the modern Chakwā, as it is called in Hindi, or Brahmany duck in English. It is mentioned in the Rigveda and in the list of victims at the

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1 Griffith, Hymns of the Rigveda, 1, 309, n. 4.  
2 ii. 39. 3.
Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice, in the Yajurveda,
while in the Atharvaveda it already appears as the type of conjugal fidelity, its characteristic in the classical literature.

3 Maitraṇya Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 3; 13; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. 22, 32; 324. 5; Brhadarānyaka, etc.

Caksus, 'eye.' The 'evil eye' (ghoram caksus) was well known in the Atharvaveda, which contains spells to counteract its influence. As remedies against it are mentioned salve from Mount Trikakubh and the Jaṅgida plant. In the wedding ceremony the wife is entreated not to have the evil eye (aghoracaksus).

The structure of the eye, and its division into white (ṣukla), dark (kṛṣṇa), and the pupil (kaninaka) are repeatedly referred to in the later Brāhmaṇas. The disease Alaji appears to have been an affection of the eyes.

1 ii. 7; xix. 45, are so employed in the ritual.
2 Av. iv. 9, 6.
3 Av. xix. 35, 3.
4 Pāraskara Grhya Sūtra, i. 4; Śāṅkhāyana Grhya Sūtra, i. 16.
5 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xii. 8, 2, 26; Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa, i. 254. 324; Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, i. 26. 1; 34, 1; Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 2, 2; Aitareya Aranyaka, ii. 1, 5, etc. So the man (puruṣa) in the eye is repeatedly mentioned: Chāndogya Upaniṣad, i. 7, 5; iv. 15, 1; Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 3, 5; iv. 2, 2; v. 5, 2, 4, etc.; Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, i. 27, 2. The Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 2, 3, adds the water (āpah) in the eye, the upper and the lower lids (wartani), and seven red lines (lohinyo rājayaḥ).

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 13, 149.

Cāndāla, Cāndāla are the variant forms of the name of a despised caste, which in origin was probably a tribal body, but which in the Brahminical theory was the offspring of Śudra fathers and Brahmin mothers. The references to the caste in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās and in the Upaniṣads show clearly that it was a degraded one, but they yield no particulars.

1 Chāndogya Upaniṣad, v. 10, 7; 24. 4; Aśvalāyana Grhya Sūtra, iv. 9; Śāṅkhāyana Grhya Sūtra, ii. 12; vi. 1, etc.
2 Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxx. 21; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 17, 1; Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, iv. 17, 22.
3 Fick, Die sociale Gliederung, 204 et seq.
4 Apparently accepted for the Vedic period by Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 217.
Cf. von Schroeder, Indiens Literatur und Cultur, 433.
Catus-pada, 'quadruped,' is a regular name for animals from the Rigveda onwards, being frequently contrasted with Dvipad, 'biped.' 2 Catus-pāda, as an adjective applying to paśavah, 'animals,' is also found. 3

1. Candra, 1 Candra-mas, 2 are the names of the 'moon,' the latter occurring from the Rigveda onwards, but the former being first used in this sense by the Atharvaveda. Very little is said about the moon in Vedic literature, except as identified with Soma, 3 both alike being described as waxing and waning. Reference is, however, made to the regular changes of the moon, and to its alternation with the sun, 5 to which it, as Soma, is declared in the Rigveda to be married. 6 Mention is also made of its disappearance at the time of new moon, 7 and of its birth from the light of the sun. 8 In the Atharvaveda 9 reference is made to demons eclipsing the moon (grahās candramāsāh).

For the phases of the moon, and the month as a measure of time, see Māsa. For the moon and its mansions, see Nakṣatra.

2. Candra appears to denote 'gold' in a certain number of passages from the Rigveda onwards. 1

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1. Av. ii. 15, 2; ii. 31, 6, etc.; Vājaśaneyi Śaṁhitā, xxii. 28; xxxix. 2; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, vi. 2, 16, etc.
2. RV. i. 105, 1; viii. 8, 2; x. 64, 3; 85, 19; Av. x. 6, 7; Vājaśaneyi Śaṁhitā, i. 28; xxiii. 10. 59, etc.
3. See Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, pp. 112, 113. The identification is clearly found in the later parts of the Rigveda.
4. RV. x. 55, 5. Cf. Av. x. 8, 32.
5. RV. x. 68, 10. Cf. i. 62, 8; 72, 10.
6. x. 85, 18. 19.
7. Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 6, 4, 18; iv. 6, 7, 12; xi. 1, 6, 19; xiv. 4, 2, 13; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, viii. 28, 8; perhaps RV. x. 138, 4.
8. RV. ix. 71, 9; 76, 4; 86, 32; Sāmaveda, ii. 9, 2, 12, 1; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 463 et seq. Cf. Sūrya.
9. xix. 9, 10. Av. vi. 128 is also regarded by the Kauśika Sātra, c. 3, as referring to an eclipse of the moon. See Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 533.

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1. Av. ii. 2, 4; ii. 31, 5; Av. xii. 2, 53; Jāttiriya Śaṁhitā, i. 2, 7, 1; Kāṭhaka Śaṁhitā, ii. 6; Vājaśaneyi Śaṁhitā, iv. 26; xix. 93; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, vi. 6; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 3, 3, 4, etc. Cf. the adjective candrin in Vājaśaneyi Śaṁhitā, xx. 37; xxxi. 31.
Capya is found in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā and the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa as the name of a sacrificial vessel.

Camasa denotes a 'drinking vessel,' usually as employed for holding Soma at the sacrifice. It is frequently mentioned from the Rigveda onwards. It was made of wood (वृक्ष), and is hence called द्रु. According to the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, it was made of Udumbara wood.

Camu is a term of somewhat doubtful sense occurring repeatedly in the Rigveda, and connected with the preparation of Soma. Zimmer considers that in the dual it denotes the two boards between which, in his opinion, the Soma was crushed (cf. Adhiṣāvana). Roth, however, appears to be right in taking the normal sense to designate a vessel into which the Soma was poured from the press, and Hillebrandt shows clearly that when it occurs in the plural it always has this sense, corresponding to the Graha-pātras of the later ritual, and that sometimes it is so used in the singular or dual also. In some cases, however, he recognizes its use as denoting the mortar in which the Soma was pressed: he may be right here, as this mode of preparation was probably Indo-Iranian.

In a derivative sense Camu appears in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa to denote a trough, either of solid stone or consisting of

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1 Altindisches Leben, 277, 278.
3 Vedische Mythologie, i, 164-175.
4 Rv. iii. 48, 5; viii. 2, 8; 82, 7, 8; ix. 20, 6; 62, 16; 63, 2; 92, 2; 93, 3; 97, 21; 37, 46; 99, 6, 8.
5 Rv. ix. 107, 18; x, 91, 15.
6 Rv. ix. 69, 5; 71, 1; 72, 5; 86, 47; 96, 20, 21; 97, 2. 48; 103, 4; 107, 10; 108, 10.
7 Singular: Rv. v. 51, 4; viii. 4, 4; 76, 10; ix, 46, 3; x, 24, 1. Dual: i. 28, 9; iv. 18, 3; vi. 57, 2; ix. 36, 1.
8 Hillebrandt, op. cit., i, 158-164.
9 xiii. 8, 2, 1; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 44, 430, n. 1. In Śāṅkh-āyana Śrauta Sūtra, xiv. 22, 19, the sense is doubtful. Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, pp. 105 et seq.
bricks, used by the Eastern people to protect the body of the dead from contact with the earth, like modern stone-lined graves or vaults.

Caraka primarily denotes a ‘wandering student,’ a sense actually found in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad. More especially it denotes the members of a school of the Black Yajurveda, the practices of which are several times referred to with disapproval in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa. In the Vāja-
saneyi Śāṁhitā the Caraka teacher (Carakācārya) is enumerated among the sacrificial victims at the Puruṣamedha, or human sacrifice. His dedication there to ill-doing is a clear hint of a ritual feud.

1 iii. 3, 1. 2 iii. 8, 2, 24 (where the reference is to Taittirīya Śāṁhitā vi. 3, 9, 6; 10, 2, or some parallel passage); iv. 1, 2, 19; 2, 3, 15; 4, i. 10; vi. 2, 2, i. 10; viii. 1, 3, 7; 7, i. 14. 24. 3 xxx. 18; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 16, 1. Its occurrence in the latter text renders improbable von Schröder’s view, Indiens Literatur und Cultur, 188, that Caraka included all the Black Yajurveda schools.


Caraka-brāhmaṇa is the name of a work from which Śāyaṇa quotes in his commentary on the Rigveda.

Caracara (‘running about ’), a term found classed with Sarīṣpa in the Yajurveda Śāṁhitās, must apparently denote some kind of animal.

Caru designates a ‘kettle’ or ‘pot’ from the Rigveda onwards. It had a lid (āpidhāna) and hooks (aṅka) by which it could be hung over a fire. It was made of iron or bronze.
(ayasmaya). The word is also secondarily used\(^4\) to denote the contents of the pot, the mess of grain which was cooked in it.

\(^4\) Taittirīya Saṃhitā, i. 8, 10, i; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. i; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 4, 7; ii. 5, 3, 4; iii. 2.

Carman, denoting 'hide' in general, is a common expression from the Rigveda onwards.\(^1\) The oxhide was turned to many uses, such as the manufacture of bowstrings, slings, and reins (see Go). It was especially often employed to place above the boards\(^2\) on which the Soma was pressed with the stones.\(^3\) It was possibly also used for making skin bags.\(^4\) Carmanya denotes leather-work generally in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa.\(^5\)

The art of tanning hides (mlā) was known as early as the Rigveda,\(^6\) where also the word for 'tanner' (carmamna) occurs.\(^7\) Details of the process are lacking, but the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa\(^8\) refers to stretching out a hide with pegs (saṅkubhiḥ), and the Rigveda\(^9\) mentions the wetting of the hide.

\(^1\) Rv. i. 85, 5; 110, 8; 161, 7; iii. 60, 2; iv. 13, 4, etc.; Av. v. 8, 13; x. 9, 2; xi. 1, 9, etc.; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, iii. 1, 7, 1; vi. 1, 9, 2, etc. The stem carma, neuter (loc., carme), is found in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 7, 2, 2.

\(^2\) Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, i, 148-150; 181-183.

\(^3\) Rv. x. 94, 9; 116, 4.

\(^4\) Rv. x. 106, 10, is so taken by Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 228, who compares Odyssey, x. 19.

\(^5\) v. 32. Cf. pāvicarmamya, Sānkha-yana Aranyaka, ii. 1.

\(^6\) viii. 55, 3 (a late hymn).

\(^7\) viii. 5, 38; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxx. 15; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 13, 1. For the form, cf. Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, p. 38, n. 1; p. 249, n. 4.

\(^8\) ii. 1, 1, 9.

\(^9\) i. 85, 5.


Carṣāṇi, used in the plural, denotes in the Rigveda\(^1\) 'men' in general or 'people,' conceived either as active beings\(^2\) or as cultivators\(^3\) in opposition to nomads. The expression 'king of men' (rājā carṣāṇiṇām) is frequently found.\(^4\) The 'people' are

\(^1\) Rv. i. 86, 5; 184, 4; iii. 43, 2; iv. 7, 4; v. 23, 1; vi. 2, 2; x. 180, 3, etc.

\(^2\) If derived from car, 'move,' which is probable.

\(^3\) If derived from kṛṣ, 'plough' or 'till.'

\(^4\) Rv. iii. 10, 1; v. 39, 4; vi. 30, 5; viii. 70, 1; x. 139, 1, etc.
also mentioned in connexion with war.\textsuperscript{5} In the Atharvaveda\textsuperscript{6} 'animals' (\textit{paśu}) and 'men' (\textit{cārṣaṇi}) are spoken of together.

For the five \textit{cārṣaṇa\textit{ya}ḥ},\textsuperscript{7} see \textit{Pañca Janaśah}.

\textit{Caśāla}, the mortar-shaped top-piece of the sacrificial post (\textit{Yupa}), is mentioned from the Rigveda onwards.\textsuperscript{1} In one passage of the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa\textsuperscript{2} it is directed to be made of wheaten dough (\textit{gaudhuma}).

\textit{Cākra} is the name of a man, variously styled Revottaras Sthapati Paṭava Cākra\textsuperscript{1} and Revottaras Paṭava Cākra Sthapati,\textsuperscript{2} who is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa only. He is there said to have been expelled by the Śrīnjayas, but to have restored to them their prince \textit{Duṣṭaritu} despite the opposition of the Kauravya king \textit{Balhika Pratipīya}.\textsuperscript{2} He must have been a sage rather than a warrior, as the first passage of the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa\textsuperscript{1} shows him in the capacity of a teacher only. \textit{Cf. Sthapati}.

\textit{Cākṛāyaṇa}, 'descendant of Cakra,' is the patronymic of \textit{Uṣasta} or \textit{Uṣasti}.\textsuperscript{1}

\textit{Cāṇḍāla}. See \textit{Cāṇḍāla}.

\textit{Cāḳṣuṣa}, a word occurring once only in the Atharvaveda,\textsuperscript{1} is, according to the St. Petersburg Dictionary, a patronymic (of Suyāman, a personification). Whitney\textsuperscript{2} treats it as probably a simple adjective ('of sight').

\textsuperscript{1} Vedic Grammar, 185, and especially 122, \textit{za} (from \textit{car}, 'move'); Monier Williams, \textit{Dictionary}, \textit{s.v.} (from \textit{kṛt}, 'plough').

\textsuperscript{5} \textit{Rv. i.} 55, 1; 109, 6; \textit{iv.} 31, 4; 37, 8; \textit{vi.} 31, 1, etc.

\textsuperscript{6} xiii. 1, 38.

\textsuperscript{7} \textit{Rv. v.} 86, 2; \textit{vii.} 15, 2; \textit{ix.} 10, 9.

\textsuperscript{1} \textit{Rv. i.} 162, 6; \textit{Taittirīya Sāmhitā}, vi. 3, 4, 2, 7; Kāthaka Sāmhitā, xxvi. 4, etc.; \textit{Maitrāyaṇī Sāmhitā}, i. 11, 8, etc.

\textsuperscript{2} \textit{Cf. Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East}, 26, 168, n. 1; 41, 31, n. 1.

\textsuperscript{1} \textit{Satapatha Brāhmaṇa}, xii. 8, 1, 17.

\textsuperscript{2} \textit{Ibid.}, xii. 9, 3, 1 et seq.


\textsuperscript{1} \textit{Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad}, iii. 5, 1; \textit{Chāndogya Upaniṣad}, i. 10, 1; ii, 1.

\textsuperscript{1} \textit{xvi.} 7, 7.

\textsuperscript{2} Translation of the Atharvaveda, 800.
Cātur-māsya, ‘four-monthly,’ denotes the festival of the Vedic ritual held at the beginning of the three seasons of four months each, into which the Vedic year was artificially divided. It is clear that the sacrifices commenced with the beginning of each season, and it is certain that the first of them, the Vaiśvadeva, coincided with the Phālgunī full moon, the second, the Varuṇa-praghāsas, with the Āṣāḍhī full moon, and the third, the Sāka-medha, with the Kārttikī full moon. There were, however, two alternative datings: the festivals could also be held in the Caitrī, the Śrāvaṇī, and Āgrahāyaṇī (Mārgaśīrṣa) full moons, or in the Vaiśākhi, Bhādrapadī, and Pauṣṭī full moons. Neither of the later datings is found in a Brāhmaṇa text, but each may well have been known early, since the Taittirīya Saṃhitā and the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa both recognize the full moon in the month Caitra as an alternative to the full moon in the month Phālguna, for the beginning of the year.

Jacobi considers that the commencement of the year with the full moon in the asterism Phalguni, which is supported by other evidence, indicates that the year at one time began with the winter solstice with the moon in Phalguni, corresponding to the summer solstice when the sun was in Phalguni. These astronomical conditions, he believes, existed in the time of the Rigveda, and prevailed in the fourth millennium B.C. The alternative

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1 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, i. 6, 10, 2; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 4, 9, 5; ii. 2, 5, 2; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 6, 3, 36; ii. 5, 2, 48; 6, 4, 1; v. 2, 3, 10; xiii. 2, 5, 2; Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, v. 1, etc.
2 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 6, 3, 36 (cf. xiv. 1, 1, 28); Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, v. 1.
3 In the month Phālguna, or February-March.
4 In the month Āṣāḍhī, or June-July.
5 That is, in the month Kārttika, when the moon is in the asterism Kṛttikā: Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 6, 3, 13; Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, v. 1, etc.
6 Saṅkhāyana Śrāuta Sūtra, iii. 13, 1; 14, 1, 2; 15, 1.
7 Deva’s Paddhati on Kātyāyana Śrāuta Sūtra, pp. 439, 450, 497. These are the full-moon days in the months Caitra (March-April), Śrāvaṇa (July-August), and Mārgaśīrṣa (November-December) respectively.
8 vii. 4, 8, 1.
9 v. 9, 8, 11.
10 Indian Antiquary, 23, 156 et seq.; Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 49, 223 et seq.; 50, 72-81.
11 vii. 103, 9; x. 85, 13. Cf. Festgruss an Rudolf von Roth, 68 et seq.
dates would then indicate periods when the winter solstice coincided with the Caitri or the Vaisakhī full moon. But Oldenberg\textsuperscript{12} and Thibaut\textsuperscript{13} seem clearly right in holding that the coincidence of Phālgunī with the beginning of spring,\textsuperscript{14} which is certain, is fatal to this view, and that there is no difficulty in regarding this date as consistent with the date of the winter solstice in the new moon of Māgha, which is given by the Kauśitakī Brāhmaṇa,\textsuperscript{15} and which forms the basis of the calculations of the Jyotiṣa.\textsuperscript{16} The full moon in Phālguna would be placed about one month and a half after the winter solstice, or, say, in the first week of February, which date, according to Thibaut, may reasonably be deemed to mark the beginning of a new season in India about 800 B.C. At the same time it must be remembered that the date was necessarily artificial, inasmuch as the year was divided into three seasons, each of four months, and the Indian year does not in fact consist of three equal seasons. The variations of the other datings would then not be unnatural if any school wished to defer its spring festival, the Vaiśvadeva, to the time when spring had really manifested itself. See also Samvatsara.

\textsuperscript{12} Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 48, 630 et seq.; 49, 475, 476; 50, 453-457.

\textsuperscript{13} Indian Antiquary, 24, 86 et seq.

\textsuperscript{14} See Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 2, 6, 8; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi.ii. 4, i, 2-4. So the Phālgunī full moon is called 'the mouth of the seasons (ṛtunāṃ muhham) — e.g., Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xxi. 15, 2; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, vii. i; Maitṛāyaṇī Saṃhitā, i. 6, 9; and the first season is always spring: Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 5, 3, 8-14;

\textsuperscript{15} xix. 3.

\textsuperscript{16} Thibaut, Astronomie, Astrologie, und Mathematik, 17, 18.

Cāndhanāyana is the patronymic of Ānandaja in the Vamśa Brāhmaṇa.\textsuperscript{1}

\textsuperscript{1} Indische Studien, 4, 372, 383.

Cāyamāna is the patronymic in the Rigveda (vi. 27, 5. 8) of Abhyāvartin.
Cāsa, the ‘blue woodpecker’ (Coracias indica), is mentioned in the Rigveda, as well as in the list of victims at the Asvamedha, or horse sacrifice, in the Yajurveda.

1 x. 97, 13.
2 Maitrāyana śāhīta, iii. 14, 4; 15, 9; Vājasaneyi śāhīta, xxiv. 23; xxv. 7.

Cicēka is a bird mentioned with the equally unknown Vṛṣārava in one hymn of the Rigveda. It may perhaps be compared with the Cītaka mentioned by Dārila in his commentary on the Kauśika Sūtra.

1 x. 146, 2.
2 xxvi. 20; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 266.

Citra is the name of several persons. (a) The Rigveda contains a Dānastuti (‘Praise of Gifts’) of a prince Citra. The later legend attributes this panegyric to Sobhari, and describes Citra as king of the rats.

1 viii. 21, 18.
2 Brhaddevata, vii. 58 et seq., with Macdonell’s notes.

(b) Citra Gāngyāyani or Gārgyāyaṇi is mentioned in the Kauśitaki Upaniṣad as a contemporary of Ārunī and Śvetaketu.

1 i. 1. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, i. 395; Keith, Sāṅkhāyana Aranyaka, 16, n. i.

(c) Citra Gauśrāyaṇi is mentioned as a teacher in the Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa.


Citra-ratha (‘having a brilliant car’) is the name of two persons.

(a) It designates an Āryan prince, who, with Arṇa, was defeated by Indra for the Turvaśa-Yadus on the Sarayu (perhaps the modern Sarju in Oudh), according to the Rigveda (iv. 30, 18). The locality would accord with the close connexion of Turvaśa and Krivi or Paṅcāla.
(b) Citraratha is also the name of a king for whom the Kāpeyas performed a special kind of sacrifice (dvīrātra), with the result, according to the Paṇcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, that in the Caitrarathī family only one member was a Kṣatra-pati, the rest dependents. Apparently this must mean that the Caitrarathis were distinguished from other families of princes by the fact that the chief of the clan received a markedly higher position than in most cases, in which probably the heads of the family were rather an oligarchy than a monarch and his dependents. See Rājan.


Citrā. See Nakṣatra.

Cilvaṭi is the name of an unknown animal in the Gopatha Brāhmaṇa (i. 2, 7).

Cipudru designates some substance mentioned in a hymn of the Atharvaveda as of use in healing. The commentator Śāyaṇa reads Cipadru, and explains the word as a kind of tree. This interpretation is supported by the fact that the Kauśika Śūtra refers to the employment of splinters of Palāśa wood in the ritual application of this hymn. Whitney suggests that the form of the word should be Cipudu.

1 vi. 127, 2. 2 xxvi. 34. 3 Av. vi. 127. 4 Translation of the Atharvaveda, 376.


Cumuri is the name of an enemy of Dabhiti, for whom he, along with his friend Dhuni, is mentioned in the Rigveda as having been defeated by Indra. Elsewhere the two are spoken of, along with Śambara, Pipru, and Śuṣṇa, as having been crushed by Indra, who destroyed their castles. It is impossible to say whether real men or demons are meant, but in favour of

1 vi. 20, 13; x. 113, 9. In vi. 26, 6, Cumuri alone is mentioned, and Dāsas or Dasyus generally are stated to have been subdued for Dabhiti in iv. 30, 21; ii. 13, 9. See also ii. 15, 9; vii. 19, 4. 2 Rv. vi. 18, 8.
a man being denoted by Cumuri is the form of the name, which seems not to be Āryan.3


Cūda Bhāgavitti ('descendant of Bhagavitta') is mentioned in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad1 as a pupil of Madhuka Paṅgya.

Cūrṇa appears to denote an aromatic powder in the phrase *cūrṇa-hasta*, used of the Apsarases in the Kauśitaki Upaniṣad (i. 4).

Cedi is the name of a people who, with their king Kaśu, the Caidya, are mentioned only in a Dānakuti ('Praise of Gifts'), occurring at the end of one hymn of the Rigveda,1 where their generosity is celebrated as unsurpassed. They occur later in the Epic with the Matsyas, and lived in Bandela Khaṇḍa (Bundelkhand).2 In Vedic times they were probably situated in much the same locality.

1 vi. 3, 9 (Kāṇva = vi. 3, 17. 18 Mādhyaṁḍina). The text of the Kāṇva has, as usual, Cūla.

Celaka Śaṃdilyāyana ('descendant of Śaṃdilya') is mentioned as a teacher in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (x. 4, 5, 3).

Caikitāneya ('descendant of Cekitāna') is mentioned as a teacher in the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa.1 The Caikitāneyas are also referred to there2 in connexion with the Sāman which they worshipped. Brahmadatta Caikitāneya is brought into connexion with the Sāman in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad,3 and Vasistha Caikitāneya is known to the Śādvimśa4 and Vamsa Brāhmaṇas.5 The word is a patronymic, formed from

1 vi. 37, 7; ii. 5, 2.  
2 i. 42, 1.  
3 i. 3, 24.  
4 iv. 1.  
5 *Indische Studien*, 4, 373, 384.
Caikitāna, according to Śaṅkara,⁶ but more probably from Cekitāna,⁷ a name found in the Epic.

⁶ On Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, ⁷ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. loc. cit.

Caikitāyana, 'descendant of Cikitāyana¹ or Cekita,'² is the patronymic of Dālbhya in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad.³

¹ Śaṅkara on Chāndogya Upaniṣad, ² St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. ³ i. 8, 1.

Caitra is the patronymic of Yajñasena in the Kāṭhaka Saṁhitā (xxi. 4).

Caitra-rathi. See Citraratha and Satyādhivāka.

Caitriyāyana is the patronymic or metronymic of the teacher Yajñasena in the Taittirīya Saṁhitā (v. 3, 8, 1).

Caidya. See Cedi.

Callaki, 'descendant of Celaka,' is the patronymic of Jīvala in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (ii. 3, 1, 34).

Cora, 'thief,' is only found in the Taittirīya Āranyaka, a late work, in its last book (x. 65). The Vedic terms are Taskara Tayu, Stena, and Paripanthin.

Cyavatāna Mārutāśva ('descendant of Marutāśva') is apparently the name of a prince in a Dānastuti ('Praise of Gifts'), in the Rigveda.¹ Two distinct persons may, however, be meant.


Cyavana,¹ Cyavāna,² are variant forms of the name of an ancient Rṣi, or seer. The Rigveda³ represents him as an old decrepit man, to whom the Āsvins restored youth and strength, making him acceptable to his wife, and a husband of maidens.

¹ This form is found even in the Nirukta (iv. 19), regularly in all the Vedic texts other than the Rigveda, and in the Epic. ² The Rv. has this form throughout. ³ i. 116, 10; 117, 13; 118, 6; v. 74, 5; vii. 68, 6; 71, 5; x. 39, 4.
The legend is given in another form in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,⁴ where Cyavāna is described as wedding Sukanyā, the daughter of Śaryāta. He is there called a Bhṛgu or Āṅgirasa, and is represented as having been rejuvenated by immersion in a pond—the first occurrence of a motive, later very common in Oriental literature. Another legend about Cyavāna is apparently alluded to in an obscure hymn of the Rigveda,⁶ where he seems to be opposed to the Paktha prince Tūrvayāna, an Indra worshipper, while Cyavāna seems to have been specially connected with the Aśvins. This explanation of the hymn, suggested by Pischel,⁶ is corroborated by the Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa,⁷ which relates that Vidanvant, another son of Bhṛgu, supported Cyavāna against Indra, who was angry with him for sacrificing to the Aśvins; it is also noteworthy that the Aśvins appear in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa⁸ as obtaining a share in the sacrifice on the suggestion of Sukanyā. But a reconciliation of Indra and Cyavāna must have taken place, because the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa⁹ relates the inauguration of Śaryāta by Cyavāna with the great Indra consecration (aindrena mahābhisekena). In the Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa¹⁰ Cyavāna is mentioned as a seer of Sāmans or Chants.

⁴ iv. 1, 5, 1 et seq. ⁵ x. 61, 1-3. ⁶ Vedische Studien, 1, 71-77; accepted by Griffith, Hymns of the Rigveda, 2, 465. ⁷ iii. 121-128; Journal of the American Oriental Society, 11, cxlvii; 26, 43 et seq. ⁸ iv. 1, 5, 13 et seq. ⁹ viii. 21, 4; Pischel, op. cit., 1, 75. ¹⁰ xiii. 5, 12; xix. 3, 6; xiv. 6, 10; xi. 8, 11.


CH.

Chaga is the name of the ‘goat’ in the Taittirīya Saṃhītā (v. 6, 22, 1). Cf. Āja and Chāga.

Chadis is used once in the Rigveda,¹ and not rarely later,² to denote the covering of a wagon or the thatch of a house, or

¹ x. 85, 10 (of Sūryā’s bridal car). ² Taittirīya Saṃhītā, vi. 2, 9, 4; 10, 5, 7; Vājasaneyi Saṃhītā, v. 28; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 29; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 5, 3, 9, etc.
something analogous to these. Weber\(^3\) thinks that in one passage of the Atharvaveda\(^4\) the word designates a constellation, and Whitney,\(^5\) who does not decide whether that interpretation is necessary, suggests that the constellation \(\gamma, \xi, \eta, \pi\) Aquarii may be meant, since the next verse mentions \(\text{Vịṛttau},\) which is the constellation \(\lambda\) and \(\nu\) Scorpionis, and is not far from Aquarius. See also **Chardis**.

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1. **Chandas** in the Rigveda usually denotes a ‘song of praise’ or ‘hymn.’\(^1\) The original sense of the word, as derived from the verb *chand*, ‘to please,’ was probably ‘attractive spell,’ ‘magic hymn,’\(^2\) which prevailed on the gods. In a very late hymn of the Rigveda,\(^3\) as well as in one of the Atharvaveda,\(^4\) the word is mentioned in the plural (*chandāṃsi*), beside \(\text{ṛc}(ρc\text{ḥ}), \text{Sāman (sāmāṇi}), \text{and Yajus},\) and seems to retain its original meaning, not improbably with reference to the magical subject-matter of the Atharvaveda. From denoting a (metrical) hymn it comes to mean ‘metre’ in a very late verse of the Rigveda,\(^5\) in which the ‘Gāyatrī, the Triṣṭubh, and all (\(\text{sa} r\text{vā} \)) the metres (*chandāṃsi*) are mentioned. In the later Samhitās three\(^6\) or seven\(^7\) metres are enumerated, and in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇā\(^8\) eight. By the time of the Rigveda Prātiṣākhya\(^9\) the metres were subjected to a detailed examination, though much earlier references are found to the number of syllables in the several metres.\(^10\) Later the word definitely denotes a Vedic text generally, as in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇā.\(^11\)

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\(^1\) Rv. xi. 85, 8 (an obscure verse); 114, 5; Av. iv. 34, 1; v. 26, 5; vi. 124, 1; xi. 7, 8, etc.
\(^2\) Cf. Roth in St. Petersbug Dictionary, s.v.
\(^3\) Rv. x. 90, 9.
\(^4\) Av. xi. 7, 24.
\(^5\) x. 14, 16.
\(^6\) Av. xviii. 1, 17; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, i. 27, etc.
\(^7\) Av. viii. 9, 17, 19, etc.
\(^8\) viii. 3, 3, 6, etc.
\(^10\) Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xiv. 4; Jāttīrya Saṃhitā, vi. 1, 2, 7.
\(^11\) xi. 5, 7, 3. So Gobhila Grhya Sūtra, iii. 3, 4, 15, etc.
2. Chandas occurs in one passage of the Atharvaveda in the adjectival compound *brhac-chandas*, which is used of a house, and must mean 'having a large roof.' Bloomfield accepts the reading as correct, but Whitney considers emendation to *Chadis* necessary.

Chando-ga, ‘metre-singing,’ is the term applied to reciters of the Sāmans, no doubt because these chants were sung according to their order in the Chandaārcika of the Sāmaveda. It is only found in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, and often in the Sūtras.

Chardis occurs often in the Rigveda, and occasionally later, denoting a secure dwelling-place. The word appears to be incorrectly written, because the metre shows that the first syllable is always short. Roth accordingly suggested that Chadis should be read instead. But Chadis means ‘roof,’ while Chardis never has that sense. Bartholomae is therefore probably right in suggesting some other form, such as Chadis.

Chāga, ‘goat,’ is found in the Rigveda, and not rarely later. See Aja and Chaga.
DOMESTIC ANIMALS—HEALING PLANT—BAT

Jagat, 'moving,' is applied sometimes in the Atharvaveda, and later to the domestic animals in particular, as opposed to wild animals (śvapad). Occasionally the cow is mentioned separately, when the word jagat covers the rest of the domesticated animals.

Jaṅgīḍa is the name of a healing plant mentioned in the hymns of the Atharvaveda. It was used as an amulet against the diseases, or symptoms of disease, Takman, Balāsa, Āśarika, Viṣarika, Prṣṭyāmaya, fevers and rheumatic pains, Viṣkandha and Saṃskandha, Jambha, and so on. But it is also regarded as a specific against all diseases, and as the best of healing powers. It is said to be produced from the juices (rasa) of ploughing (kṛṣi), but this need only mean that it grew in cultivated land, not that it was itself cultivated. What plant the name designates is quite uncertain, for it disappears in the later literature. Caland takes it in the Kuśika Sūtra to be the Terminalia arjuneya.

Jatū, the 'bat,' occurs in the Atharvaveda, and is mentioned as one of the victims at the Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice, in the Yajurveda.
Jana, besides meaning 'man' as an individual, with a tendency to the collective sense, commonly denotes a 'people' or 'tribe' in the Rigveda and later. Thus, the 'five tribes' (Panca Janāḥ or Janāsah) are frequently referred to, and in one hymn of the Rigveda the 'people of Yadu' (yādva jana) and the Yadus (yādvāḥ) are synonymous. Again, the king (rājan) is described as 'protector (gopā) of the people (janasya),’ and there are other references to king and Jana. The people of the Bharatas (bharata jana) is also mentioned; there is no ground to assume with Hopkins that Jana in this case means a clan or horde (Grāma), as distinguished from a people.

It is difficult to say exactly how a people was divided. Zimmer argues from a passage in the Rigveda that a people was divided into cantons (Viś), cantons into joint families or clans, or village communities (Grāma, Vṛjana), and these again into single families. He thinks that the four divisions are reflected in the passage in question by Jana, Viś, Janman, and Putrāḥ, or sons, and argues that each village community was originally founded on relationship. But it is very doubtful whether this precise division of the people can be pressed. The division of the Jana into several Viś may be regarded as probable, for it is supported by the evidence of another passage of the Rigveda, which mentions the Viś as a unit of the fighting men, and thus shows that, as in Homeric times and in ancient Germany, relationship was deemed a good principle of military arrangement. But the subdivision of the Viś into several Grāmas is very doubtful. Zimmer admits that neither Grāma

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1 viii. 6, 46, 48.
2 Rv. iii. 43, 5. So Soma is called gopati janasya, 'protector of the people,' Rv. ix. 35, 5.
3 Rv. v. 58, 4.
4 Rv. iii. 53, 12. See also Bharata. Cf. also x. 174, 5 = Av. i. 29, 6.
5 Religions of India, 26, 27. It is true that the Bharatas are called a gavyan grāmah, 'a horde eager for booty,' in Rv. iii. 33, 11; but Grāma has there merely a general application. See n. 10.
6 Altindisches Leben, 159, 160.
7 ii. 25, 3.
8 x. 84, 4. Viśaḥ may have the same sense in several other passages—iv. 24, 4; v. 61, 1; vi. 26, 1; vii. 79, 2; viii. 12, 29—but it need not necessarily bear this sense. But in x. 91, 2, there is a clear contrast between Viś and Jana.
9 Op. cit., 161. He also relies on Rv. v. 53, 11, where the Maruts are divided into kārtha, vrāta, and gana; but these words are vague.
10 Rv. iii. 33, 11. See n. 5.
nor **Vṛjana**\(^{11}\) has the special sense of a subdivision of the Viṣ when used for war, for both words only denote generally an armed host. He finds other designations of the village host in **Vṛā**\(^{12}\) and in **Vṛāja**,\(^{13}\) but it is sufficient to say that the former passage is of extremely doubtful import,\(^{14}\) and that the latter has no reference to war at all. It is therefore impossible to state in what exact relation the Grāma in Vedic times stood to the Viṣ or to the family (Kula or Gotra). The confusion is increased by the vagueness of the sense of both Grāma and Viṣ. If the latter be regarded as a local division, then no doubt the Grāma must have been a part of a district; but if a Viṣ was a unit of relationship, then a Grāma may have contained families of different Viṣes, or may have sometimes coincided with a Viṣ, or have contained only a part of a Viṣ. But in any case the original state of affairs must have been greatly modified by the rise of the system of caste, and the substitution of a hierarchical for a political point of view. The elements of the people were represented by the family—either as an individual family inhabiting one home (Kula), and consisting often, no doubt, of a joint family of brothers, or as a patriarchal family of sons who still lived with their father—and by the clan, the later **Gotra**, which included all those who claimed a common ancestor. The Gotra may be regarded as roughly corresponding to the Latin *gens* and the Greek *γένος*, and possibly the Viṣ may be the equivalent of the *curia* and *φρίτρη*, and the Jana of the *tribus* and *φύλον* or *φύλη*.\(^{15}\) These three divisions may also be seen in the Viṣ, Zantu, and Daqyu of the Iranian world, where the use of Viṣ suggests that in the Indian Viṣ a relationship based on blood rather than locality is meant—and perhaps even in the *vicus*, *pagus*, and *civitas* of the old German polity described in the Germania\(^{16}\) of Tacitus. The family in some form appears as the third element of the Jana in a passage of the Rigveda,\(^{17}\) where the house (*grha*) is

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11 Rv. vii. 32, 27; x. 42, 10.
12 Rv. i. 126, 5 (vīgā iṣa vrāja).
13 Rv. x. 179, 2 = Av. vii. 72, 2.
15 Cf. *Iliad*, 2, 362.
17 x. 91, 2, where *janam* *janam* and *vīdam* *vīdam* occur, and where a contrast must be meant.
contrasted with the Jana and the Viś. Possibly, too, another passage 18 contrasts the adhvara, or family sacrifice, with that of the Jana or Viś, rather than, as Zimmer 19 thinks, the village with the two larger units. But it is significant of the particularism of the Vedic Indians that while the king maintained a fire which might be regarded as the sacred fire of the tribe, there is no sure trace 20 of any intermediate cult between that of the king and that of the individual householder. The real elements in the state are the Gotra and the Jana, just as ultimately the gens and tribus, the γένος and φῦλον, are alone important. It may be that Viś sometimes represents in the older texts what later was known as the Gotra. See Viś.

This appears clearly when the constitution of society in the Brāhmaṇa period is considered. The tribe or people still exists, and is presupposed, but the division into Viś disappears. The real division is now the separate castes (Varṇa), but the numerous sections into which each of them is divided appear to be based in part on the ancient Gotra.

2. Jana Śärkarākṣya ('descendant of Śärkarākṣa') is mentioned as a teacher in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (x. 6, i, i. et seq.) and the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (v. 11, i; 15, 1). He was a contemporary of Aśvapati Kaikeya, and of Aruṇa Aupaveśi and his son Uddālaka Aruṇi.

Janaka, king of Videha, plays a considerable part in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa 1 and the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, 2 as well as in the Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa 3 and the Kauśitaki Upaniṣad. 4 He was a contemporary of Yājñavalkya Vāja-

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18 Rv. vii. 82, i. 19 Altindisches Leben, 435. 20 Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 2, 126. Cf. Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, 158; von Schroeder, Indiens Literatur und Cultur, 32, 33; Jolly, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 50, 512 et seq.

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1 xi. 3, 1; 4; 3, 20; 6, 2, 1 et seq. 2 iii. 1, 1; iv. 1, 1; 2, 1; 4, 7; v. 14, 8. 3 i. 19, 2 (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 23, 329); ii. 76 (ibid., 15, 238). 4 iv. 1.
saneya,\textsuperscript{5} of Śvetaketu Ārûneya, and of other sages.\textsuperscript{6} He had become famous for his generosity and his interest in the discussion of the nature of Brahman, as ultimate basis of reality, in the life-time of Ajātaśatru of Kāśi.\textsuperscript{7} It is significant that he maintained a close intercourse with the Brahmins of the Kuru-Pañcālas, such as Yājñavalkya and Śvetaketu; for this indicates that the home of the philosophy of the Upaniṣads was in the Kuru-Pañcāla country rather than in the east. There is a statement in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa\textsuperscript{8} that he became a Brahmin (brahmā). This does not, however, signify a change of caste, but merely that in knowledge he became a Brahmin (see Kṣatriya). Janaka is occasionally mentioned in later texts: in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa\textsuperscript{9} he has already become quite mythical; in the Śāṅkhaśyaṇa Śrauta Sūtra\textsuperscript{10} a sapta-rātra or seven nights’ rite is ascribed to him.

It is natural to attempt to date Janaka by his being a contemporary of Ajātaśatru, and by identifying the latter with the Ajātasattu of the Pāli texts\textsuperscript{11}: this would make the end of the sixth century B.C. the approximate date of Janaka.\textsuperscript{12} But it is very doubtful whether this identification can be supported: Ajātaśatru was king of Kāśi, whereas Ajātasattu was king of Magadha, and his only connexion with Kāśi was through his marriage with the daughter of Pasenadi of Kosala.\textsuperscript{13} Moreover, the acceptance of this chronology would be difficult to reconcile with the history of the development of thought; for it would make the rise of Buddhism contemporaneous with the Upaniṣads, whereas it is reasonably certain that the older Upaniṣads preceded Buddhism.\textsuperscript{14} Nor do the Vedic texts know anything of Bimbisāra or Pasenadi, or any of the other princes famed in Buddhist records.

\textsuperscript{5} Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 3, 1, 2; 4, 3, 20; Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad, loc. cit.; Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa, loc. cit.
\textsuperscript{6} Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 6, 2, 1 et seq.
\textsuperscript{7} Kauśitakī Upaniṣad, loc. cit.; Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 1, 1.
\textsuperscript{8} xi. 6, 2, 10.
\textsuperscript{9} iii. 10, 9, 9.
\textsuperscript{10} xvi. 26, 7.
\textsuperscript{11} Vincent Smith, Early History of India, 26 et seq.
\textsuperscript{12} Hoernle, Osteology, 106.
\textsuperscript{13} Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, 3 et seq.
\textsuperscript{14} See e.g., von Schroeder, Indiens Literatur and Cultur, 243; Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, 224; Deussen, Philosophy of the Upaniṣads, 23 et seq.; Keith, Aitareya Āranyaka, 25, 29.
Janamejaya

The identification\(^{15}\) of Janaka of Videha and the father of Sītā is less open to objection, but it cannot be proved, and is somewhat doubtful. In the Sūtras Janaka appears as an ancient king who knew of a time when wisely honour was less respected than later.\(^{16}\)


Janatā, a word frequently found in the later Saṃhitās\(^{1}\) and the Brāhmaṇas,\(^{2}\) denotes the people as a community (cf. Sabhā) or as a religious unit.

1 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, ii. 2, 1, 4; 6, 4; 3, 4, 2; Kāthaka Saṃhitā, ix. 17; Av. v. 18, 12, etc.

2 Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 4, 6, 1; ii. 3, 1, 3; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 9; iii. 31; v. 9, etc.


Jana-pada in the Brāhmaṇas denotes both the ‘people,’ as opposed to the king,\(^{1}\) and the ‘land’ or ‘realm.’\(^{2}\) The ‘subjects’ are also denoted by the adjectival jānapada.\(^{3}\)

1 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, viii. 14 (plural); Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 4, 2, 17.

2 Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 3, 9, 9.

Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 1, 20; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, v. 11, 5; viii. 1, 5.

3 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiv. 5, 1, 20.

i. **Janam-ejaya** (‘man-impelling’) is the name of a king, a Pārīkṣita,\(^{1}\) famous towards the end of the Brāhmaṇa period. He is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa\(^{2}\) as owning horses which when wearied were refreshed with sweet drinks, and as a performer of the Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice.\(^{3}\) His capital, according to a Gāthā quoted in the Śatapatha\(^{4}\) and the Aitareya Brāhmaṇas,\(^{5}\) was Āsandīvant. His brothers Ugrasena, Bhimasena, and Śrutaseṇa are mentioned as having

1 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 5, 4, 1 et seq.; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 34; viii. 11, 21; Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. 8, 27, etc.

2 xi. 5, 5, 13.

3 xiii. 5, 4, 1-3.

4 xiii. 5, 4, 2.

5 vii. 21.
by the horse sacrifice purified themselves from sin. The priest who performed the sacrifice for him was **Indrota Daiväpi Saunaka**. On the other hand the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, which also mentions his Aśvamedha, names **Tura Kāvaśeya** as his priest. It also contains an obscure tale stating that at one sacrifice of his he did not employ the **Kaśyapas**, but the **Bhūtaviras**, being, however, induced by the **Asitamṛgas** to have recourse to the Kaśyapas again.

He was a **Kuru** prince; see **Parikṣīt**. The Gopatha Brāhmaṇa tells an absurd tale about him, evidently as of an ancient hero.

6 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiiii. 5, 4, 1; Śāṅkhāyana Śruta Sūtra, loc. cit.
7 vii. 21. Cf. iv. 27; vii. 34.
8 vii. 27. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 204; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 13, 438, n. 229; Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 43, 345. n.


2. **Janam-eyaya** is in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa the name of a priest who officiated at the snake sacrifice.


**Jana-śruta** (‘famed among men’) **Kāṇḍviya** is the name of a pupil of **Hṛtśvāsaya**, mentioned in a Vāṃśa (list of teachers) in the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 40, 2), and of Vārakya, a pupil of **Jayanta**, referred to in the same Brāhmaṇa (iii. 41, 1; iv. 17, 1). Cf. **Jānaśruti**.

**Jani, Janī.**—These words appear to denote ‘wife,’ usually applying to her in relation to her husband (Pati). The more general sense of ‘woman’ is doubtful; for when Uṣas is called a fair Jāni, ‘wife’ may be meant, and the other passage cited for this sense by Delbrück, which refers to the begetting of children, seems to demand the sense of ‘wives.’ Since the words usually appear in the plural, it is possible they may

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1 *Rv.* iv. 52, 1.
2 v. 61, 3.
3 *Die indogermanischen Verwandschaftsnamen*, 413.
4 i. 85, 1; iv. 5, 5; 19, 5; vii. 18, 2;
5 26, 3; ix. 86, 32; Vājaśaneyi Śaṃhitā, xii. 35; xx. 40, 43, etc. *Cf.* *Rv.* x. 43, 1.
6 In x. 110, 5, the phrase is *patibhyo na janayah*, where both plurals may be generic.
refer not to 'wives' proper, but to Hetairai. This is, however, rendered unlikely because the Rigveda\(^5\) uses the phrase \textit{patyur janitvarn}, denoting 'wifehood to a husband,' as well as the expression \textit{janayo na patniḥ},\(^6\) 'like wives (who are) mistresses,'\(^7\) besides containing passages in which the word has reference to marriage.\(^8\) The singular occurs in the dialogue of Yama and Yami.\(^9\)

\(^5\) x. 18, 8. \textit{Cf. janitvāna} in viii. 2, 42.
\(^6\) i. 62, 10; 186, 7.
\(^7\) The distinction of sense was probably this: \textit{jani} meant 'wife,' as bearing children (from \textit{jan}, 'beget'), while \textit{patnī} was 'wife,' as being 'mistress' of the house (feminine of \textit{pati}, 'lord,' 'husband').
\(^8\) v. 61, 3. So in x. 40, 10, the word seems certainly to refer to marriage.
\(^9\) x. 10, 3.

\textbf{Janitṛ}\(^1\) and \textbf{Janitri}\(^2\) are frequent words, in the Rigveda and later, for 'father' and 'mother' regarded as the 'begetter' and the 'bearer' respectively of the child. See \textbf{Pitṛ, Mātṛ}.

\textbf{Jantu}, besides the general sense of 'man,' has also in a few passages\(^1\) the more restricted sense of 'follower' or 'subject.' The 'followers of \textbf{Śvaitreya}.'\(^2\) may be compared with the 'subjects (\textit{viśah}) of \textbf{Ṭr̥ṇaskanda}.'\(^3\)

\(^1\) Rv. i. 129, 11; 164, 33; iii. i. 10; Rv. iii. 48, 2; 54, 14; Av. vi. 110, 54, 9, etc.; Av. iv. 1, 7; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xix. 87, etc.
\(^2\) Rv. iii. 172, 3.
\(^3\) Rv. i. 172, 3.

\textbf{Janman} appears to have the sense of 'relations' in two passages of the Rigveda,\(^1\) being used collectively in the second of them.

\(^1\) iii. 15, 2; ii. 26, 3 (where \textit{janena}, \textit{viśa}, \textit{janmanā}, \textit{patraiḥ}, is the series). \textit{Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben}, 160, and \textit{Viś}.

\textbf{Janya} has in the Rigveda (iv. 38, 6) and the Atharvaveda (xi. 8, 1) the special sense of 'bridesman.'

\textbf{Jabālā} is the name of the mother of an illegitimate son, \textbf{Satyakāma}, in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (iv. 4, i. 2. 4).
Jabhya, 'snapper,' denotes in the Atharvaveda\(^1\) an insect destructive to grain.

\(^1\) vi. 50, 2. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 237.

Jamad-agni is one of the somewhat mythical sages of the Rigveda, where he is frequently mentioned. In some passages\(^1\) his name occurs in such a way as to indicate that he is the author of the hymn; once\(^2\) he is thus associated with Viśvāmitra. In other passages\(^3\) he is merely referred to, and the Jamadagnis are mentioned once.\(^4\) In the Atharvaveda,\(^5\) as well as the Yajurveda Saṃhitā\(^6\) and the Brāhmaṇas,\(^7\) he is quite a frequent figure. Here he appears as a friend of Viśvāmitra\(^8\) and a rival of Vasiṣṭha.\(^9\) He owed his prosperity to his catū-rātra, or 'four-night' ritual, with which his family were also very successful.\(^10\) In the Atharvaveda\(^11\) Jamadagni is connected with Atri and Kanva, as well as Asita and Vitahavya. He was Adhvaryu priest at the proposed sacrifice of Śunaḥsepa.\(^12\)

1 Rv. iii. 62, 18; viii. 101, 8; ix. 62, 24; 65, 25.
2 Rv. x. 167, 4.
3 Rv. vii. 96, 3; ix. 97, 51.
4 Rv. iii. 53, 15, 16.
5 ii. 32, 3 (cf. Taittirīya Āraṇyaka, iv. 36; Mantra Brāhmaṇa, ii. 7, 1); iv. 29, 3; v. 28, 7; vi. 137, 1; xviii. 3, 15, 16.
6 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, ii. 2, 12, 4; i. 1, 7, 3; 3, 5, 2; v. 2, 10, 5; 4, 11, 3; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, ii. 7, 19; iv. 2, 9; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xvi. 19; xx. 9; Vāja-saneyi Saṃhitā, i. 62; xiii. 56.
7 Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, ix. 4, 14; xiii. 5, 15; xxi. 10, 5-7; xxii. 7, 2; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 16; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 2, 2, 14; Taittirīya Āraṇyaka, i. 9, 7; Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 2, 4; Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, iii. 3, 11; iv. 3, 1, etc.
8 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, iii. 1, 7, 3; v. 4, 11, 3; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 5, 15.
9 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, loc. cit.
10 Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xx. 10, 5-7.
11 i. 32, 3; vi. 137, 1.
12 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 16.
(Cf. Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 53, 54; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 319; Weber, Indische Studien, 10, 95.)

Jambha occurs twice in the Atharvaveda as the name of a disease or a demon of disease. In one passage\(^1\) it is said to be cured by the Jaṅgīda plant; in the other\(^2\) it is described as saṃhanuḥ, 'bringing the jaws together.' Weber\(^3\) argued from

1 ii. 4, 2.
2 viii. 1, 16.
3 Indische Studien, 13, 142.
the Kauśika Sūtra⁴ that it was a child’s ailment, especially ‘teething.’ Bloomfield⁵ considers it to mean ‘convulsions,’ while Caland⁶ thinks it denotes ‘tetanus.’ Whitney⁷ decides for ‘lockjaw’ or ‘convulsions.’

⁻⁴ xxxii. 1.
⁻⁵ Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 283.
⁻⁶ Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 53, 224; Altindisches Zauberritual, 103.

Jambhaka, as the name of a demon, presumably identical with the demon causing Jambha, is mentioned in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā¹ and the Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka.²

¹ xxx. 16.

Jayaka Lauhitya (‘descendant of Lohita’) is mentioned in a Vamśa (list of teachers) of the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 42, 1) as a pupil of Yaśasvin Jayanta Lauhitya.

Jayanta is the name of several teachers in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa:

(a) Jayanta Pārāśarya (‘descendant of Parāśara’) is mentioned as a pupil of Vipaṣcit in a Vamśa (list of teachers).¹

(b) Jayanta Vārakya (‘descendant of Varaka’) appears in the same Vamśa¹ as a pupil of Kubera Vārakya. His grandfather is also mentioned there as a pupil of Kamsa Vārakya.

(c) A Jayanta Vārakya, pupil of Suyajña Śāndilya, perhaps identical with the preceding, is found in another Vamśa.²

(d) Jayanta is a name of Yaśasvin Lauhitya.³

See also Dakṣa Jayanta Lauhitya.

¹ iii. 41, 1.
² iv. 17, 1.
³ iii. 42, 1. Not only is the formation of the name a late one (cf. Whitney, Sanskrit Grammar, 1209d, and Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, 191a), but the Upaniṣad in which it occurs is also a late one.

Jarā-bodha, a word occurring only once in the Rigveda,¹ is of doubtful meaning. It is held by Ludwig² to be the name of

¹ i. 27, 10.
² Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 103.
a seer. Roth\(^3\) regards it as a mere adjective meaning ‘attending to the invocation,’ which is perhaps the most probable interpretation. Oldenburg,\(^4\) however, thinks that the word is a proper name, the literal sense being ‘alert in old age.’

\(^3\) St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. the \textit{ṛṣi bodha-pratibodhau} of Av. v. 30, 10.
\(^4\) \textit{Rgveda-Noten}, 1, 23. He compares...

\textbf{Jarāyu} is found once in the Atharvaveda\(^1\) in the sense of a ‘serpent’s skin.’ Usually\(^2\) it denotes the outer covering (chorion) of the embryo, as opposed to the \textit{ulva}, the inner covering (amnion).

Living things are occasionally classified according to their mode of origin. In the Chāndogya Upāniṣad\(^3\) they are divided into (a) \textit{āṇḍa-ja}, ‘egg-born’; (b) \textit{jīva-ja}, ‘born alive,’ or born from the womb; (c) \textit{udbhij-ja}, ‘propagated by sprouts.’ In the Aitareya Āraṇyaka\(^4\) the division is fourfold: (a) \textit{āṇḍa-ja}; (b) \textit{jāru-ja}, that is, \textit{jarāyu-ja} (found in the Atharvaveda,\(^5\) and needlessly read here by Böhtlingk\(^6\)); (c) \textit{udbhij-ja}; and (d) \textit{sveda-ja}, ‘sweat-born,’ explained as ‘insects.’

\(^1\) i. 27, 1.
\(^2\) Rv. v. 78, 8; Av. i. 11, 4; vi. 49, 1; ix. 4, 4; Taittiriya Saṁhitā, vi. 5, 6; 3; Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, x. 8; xix. 76; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 3; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 2, 1, 11, etc.; Chāndogya Upāniṣad, iii. 19, 2, etc.
\(^3\) vi. 3, 1.
\(^4\) ii. 6.
\(^5\) i. 12, 1.
\(^6\) See \textit{jāru} in Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 430, 6.

\textbf{x. Jaritr.} is the regular term in the Rigveda,\(^1\) and occasionally later,\(^2\) for a singer of hymns of praise or worshipper.

\(^1\) i. 2, 2; 165, 14; ii. 33, 11; iii. 60, 7, etc.
\(^2\) Av. v. 11, 8; xx. 135, 1, etc.

\textbf{2. Jaritr.—According to Sieg,} mention is made in one hymn of the Rigveda\(^2\) of \textit{Jaritr}, one of the Śārgas. That hymn he seeks to bring into connexion with the epic\(^3\) tradition

\(^1\) Die \textit{Sagenstoffe des Rigveda}, 44 et seq.
\(^2\) x. 142.
\(^3\) Mahābhārata, i. 222, 1 et seq.
of the Rṣi Mandapāla, who wedded Jaritā, a female Śāṅgīga bird—apparently a hen sparrow (caṭakā)—and had four sons. These being abandoned by him and exposed to the danger of being consumed by a forest fire, prayed to Agni with the hymn Rigveda x. 142. This interpretation is very doubtful, though Śāyana⁴ appears to have adopted it.

⁴ On Rv. x. 142, 7. 8.

Jarūtha, mentioned in three passages of the Rigveda,¹ appears to denote a demon defeated by Agni.² Ludwig, however, followed by Griffith,³ sees in him a foe slain in a battle in which Vasiṣṭha, the traditional author of the seventh Maṇḍala of the Rigveda, was Purohita, or domestic priest.

¹ vii. i, 7; 9, 6; x. 80, 3.
² Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.; Nirukta, vi. 17.
³ Hymns of the Rigveda, 2, 11, n.

Jarūthā, 'wild sesame,' is mentioned in the Taittirīya Samhitā (v. 4, 3, 2) as an unsuitable sacrificial offering. In the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (ix. i, i, 3) sesame seeds are regarded as combining the qualities of cultivation (viz., edibility) with those of wild growth (because they are produced on unploughed land).

Jarvarā was Grhapati or 'householder' at the snake festival described in the Pañcavimsa Brāhmaṇa.¹


Jala Jātukarnaṁya ('descendant of Jātukarna'), is mentioned in the Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra (xvi. 29, 6) as having obtained the position of Purohita, or domestic priest, of the three peoples or kings of Kāśi, Videha, and Kosala.

Jalaśa-bheṣaja, 'whose remedy is Jalāṣa,' is an epithet of Rudra in the Rigveda¹ and the Atharvaveda.² The word

¹ i. 43, 4; viii. 29, 5. ² ii. 27, 6. It also occurs in the Nilārudra Upaniṣad (a very late work), | ³, and jalāṣa as an adjective is found in Rv. ii. 53, 7; viii. 35, 6.
Jālāśa occurs in a hymn of the Atharvaśeda,³ where it denotes a remedy, perhaps, for a tumour or boil.⁴ The commentator on this passage and the Kauśīka Śūtra⁵ regard Jālāśa as meaning 'urine,' which seems a probable interpretation.⁶ But Geldner⁷ thinks that rain-water, conceived as urine, is meant; and the Naighaṇṭuka⁸ identifies jalāśa and udaka 'water.'

³ vi. 57.
⁴ Bloomfield, American Journal of Philology, ii, 321 et seq.; Hymns of the Atharvaśeda, 489.
⁵ xxxi. 11.
⁶ Bloomfield, American Journal of Philology, 12, 425 et seq.
⁷ Vedische Studien, 3, 139, n. 2.
⁸ i. 12.

**Jaśa** is the name of some aquatic animal or fish in the Atharvaśeda¹ and the Taittirīya Saṃhitā.² The commentary on the latter text explains it by makara, probably meaning 'dolphin.' The word also occurs in the Gopatha Brāhmaṇa.³ ⁴

*Cf. Jhaśa.*

¹ xi. 2, 25. There are various readings: jhaśa, jakha, jagha. ⁵ Cs. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 96; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaśeda, 624.
³ v. 5, 13, 1.
⁴ ii. 2, 5.

**Jahaka, the 'polecat,' is mentioned as a victim at the Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice, in the Yajurveda.¹ Sāyaṇa² thinks it means a jackal living in holes (vīla-vāsī kroṣṭā).** ³

¹ Taittirīya Saṃhitā, v. 5, 18, 1; saneyī Saṃhitā, xxiv. 36. Cs. Zimmer, Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 17; Vāja-Altindisches Leben, 86. ² On Taittirīya Saṃhitā, loc. cit.

**Jahnu** occurs only in the plural in the legend of Śunaḥśeṇa, who is said to have obtained, as Devarāta, both the lordship of the Jahnu and the divine lore of the Gāthins.¹ A Īānava, or descendant of Jahnu, was, according to the Pañcaviṃśa

¹ Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 18 (Jah-nūnām cāḍhitasthire daive vede ca Gāthinām); Āśvalāyana Śrauta Śūtra, xii. 14; Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Śūtra, xv. 27 (p. 195, 1. 21, ed. Hillebrandt, where the reading is different and the sense altered: Jahnūnāṁ cāḍhitasthire daive vede ca Gāthikinaḥ. The two ca's cannot be justified, and the text must be incorrect).
Brāhmaṇa,² Viśvāmitra, who is said, by means of a certain catū-rātra or 'four-night' ritual, to have secured the kingdom for the Jahnus in their conflict with the Vṛćivants. He is here described as a king. Again, in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa,³ Viśvāmitra is addressed as a rāja-putra, 'prince,' and Bharata-rṣabha, 'bull of the Bharatas.' It is therefore clear that the Brāhmaṇas, though not the Saṁhitās, saw in him at once a priest and a prince by origin, though there is no trace whatever of their seeing in him a prince who won Brahmanhood as in the version of the later texts.⁴

A Jahnāvi is mentioned twice in the Rigveda,⁵ being either the wife of Jahnu, or, as Sāyaṇa thinks, the race of Jahnu. The family must clearly once have been a great one, later merged in the Bharatas.


³ vii. 17, 6. 7.

⁴ Muir, Sanskrit Texts, i,² 337 et seq.

⁵ i. 116, 19; iii. 58, 6. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 153.

Jāta Śākāyanya (‘descendant of Śaka’) is mentioned as a ritual authority and contemporary of Śaṅkha in the Kāṭhaka Saṁhitā (xxii. 7).

Jāta-rūpa, ‘possessing native beauty,’ is the name of ‘gold’ in the later Brāhmaṇas¹ and the Sūtras.²

¹ Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, viii. 13 (jāta-rūpa - māya, ‘composed of gold’); Bhādārāṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 4, 25; Naighaṇṭuka, i. 2.

² Cf. Lāṭyāyana Śrāuta Sūtra, i. 6, 24. Cf. viii. 1, 3; Kauśika Sūtra, x. 16; xi. 3, etc.; Sāṅkhāyana Śrāuta Sūtra, iii. 19, 9.

³ Rajata-jātarūpe, ‘silver and gold,’

Jāti, which in the Pāli¹ texts is the word denoting ‘caste,’ does not occur at all in the early Vedic literature; when it is found, as in the Kāṭyāyana Śrāuta Sūtra,² it has only the sense of ‘family’ (for which cf. Kula, Gotra, and Viṣ). For the influence of the family system on the growth of caste, see Varna. To assume that it was the basis of caste, as does

¹ Fick, Die sociale Gliederung, 22, n. 4. ² xv. 4, 14. So jātiya, xx. 2, 11, etc.
Senart, is difficult in face of the late appearance of words for family and of stress on family.

3 Les Castes dans l'Inde (1896).
4 Fick, op. cit., 3; Oldenberg, Zeit- schrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 51, 267 et seq.

Jātū-karnya, 'descendant of Jātūkarna,' is the patronymic of several persons.

(a) A pupil of Āsurāyana and Yāska bears this name in a Vamśa (list of teachers) of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad in the Kāṇva recension. In the Mādhyaṃdina he is a pupil of Bhāradvāja.

(b) A Kāṭyāyanī-putra, 'son of Kāṭyāyanī,' bears this name in the Śāṅkhāyana Āranyaka.

(c) A Jātūkarna mentioned in the Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa as a contemporary of Alikayu Vacaspatya and other sages.

(d) Jātūkarna is in the Sūtras frequently a patronymic of teachers whose identity cannot be determined. The same person or different persons may here be meant.

1 ii. 6, 3; iv. 6, 3.
2 ii. 5, 21; iv. 5, 27.
3 vii. 10.
4 xxvi. 5 (Jātukarna' in Lindner's index, 159, is a misprint).
5 Aitareya Āranyaka, v. 3, 3; Śāṅkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, i. 2, 17; iii. 16, 14, 20, 19; xvi. 29, 6 (Jala); Kāṭyāyanī Srauta Sūtra, iv. 1, 27; xx. 3, 17; xxv. 7, 34, etc.

Jātū-śṭhira occurs in one verse of the Rigveda where Śāyaṇa and Ludwig interpret the word as a proper name. Roth renders it as an adjective meaning 'naturally powerful.'

1 ii. 13, 11.
2 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 152.
3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. (with a wrong reference, ii. 23, 11).
4 Urkraftig. Grassmann, Wörterbuch, similarly explains the word as 'powerful by nature or birth' (jātū).

Jāna, 'descendant of Jana,' is the patronymic of Vṛṣa in the Paṇcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa and apparently in the Śāṭyāyanaka.

1 xiii. 3, 12.
2 In Śāyaṇa on Rv. v. 5. Cf. Bṛhad-devatā, v. 14 et seq., with Macdonell's notes; Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rigveda, 64 et seq.
Jānaka, 'descendant of Janaka,' is the patronymic of Kratuvid in some MSS. of the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa. In the Taittirīya Saṃhitā the name appears instead as Kratujiṭ Jānaki. Jānaka is also, according to some manuscripts of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, the patronymic of Āyasthūṇa, but is here no doubt a misreading of Jānaki.

1 vii. 34. 2 ii. 3, 8, 1; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xi. 1. 3 vi. 3, 10 (Kāṇva).

Jānaki, 'descendant of Janaka,' is the patronymic of Kratujiṭ in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā, of Kratuvid in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, and of Āyasthūṇa in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, where he is mentioned as a pupil of Cūḍa Bhāgavitti, and as teacher of Satyakāma Jābāla.

1 ii. 3, 8, 1; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xi. 1. 2 vii. 34. 3 vi. 3, 10 (Kāṇva = vi. 3, 18. 19, Mādhyaṃdina).

Jānām-tapi, 'descendant of Janāmṛta,' is the patronymic of Atyarāti in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (viii. 23).

Jāna-pada. See Janapada.

Jāna-śruti, 'descendant of Jānaśruta,' is the patronymic of Pautrāyana in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (iv. 1, 1; 2, 1).

Jāna-śruteya, 'descendant of Jānaśruti' or of 'Janaśruta,' is the patronymic or metronymic of several persons—Upāvi, or Aupāvi, Uluṣṭa, Nagarin, and Sāyaka.

1 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 25, 115. 2 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 1, 1, 5. 7; Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, i. 4, 5. 3 Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, i. 6, 3. 4 Ibid., iii. 40, 2. 5 Ibid.

Jābāla, 'descendant of Jābāla,' is the metronymic of Mahāśāla and Satyakāma. Jābāla is also mentioned as a teacher in the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, which refers to the

1 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, x. 3, 3, 1; 6, 1, 1. 2 Ibid., xiii. 5, 3, 1; Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, iv. 1, 14; vi. 3, 19; Chāṇ-
dogyā Upaniṣad, iv. 4, 1, etc.; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, viii. 7. 3 iii. 9, 9.
NAMESSON-IN-LAW—BLOOD RELATION [Jābālāyana

Jābālas⁴ as well. The Jābāla Grhapatis are spoken of in the Kauṣitaki Brāhmaṇa.⁵

⁴ iiii, 7, 2.
⁵ xxiii, 5.


Jābālāyana, 'descendant of Jābāla,' is the patronymic of a teacher, a pupil of Mādhyamānīyana, who is mentioned in the second Vaṃśa (list of teachers) of the Kāṇva recension of the Brhadārāṇyaka Upaniṣad (iv. 6, 2).

Jāmadagniya is the patronymic of two 'descendants of Jamadagni' in the Taśtrīyā Samhitā.¹ It appears from the Paṇcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa² that the Aurvās are meant, and that Jamadagni's descendants were ever prosperous.

¹ vii, 1, 9, 1.
² xxi. 10, 6.


Jāmāтр is a rare word denoting 'son-in-law' in the Rigveda,¹ where also occurs the word Vijāmāтр, denoting an 'unsatisfactory son-in-law,' as one who does not pay a sufficient price, or one who, having other defects, must purchase a bride. Friendly relations between son-in-law and father-in-law are referred to in the Rigveda.²

¹ viii, 2, 20. Vāyu is called the jāmāтр of Tvaṣṭr in viii. 20, 21, 22.

Cf. Delbrück, Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 517; Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 78, 79.

Jāmi, a word which appears originally to have meant 'related in blood,' is not rarely used as an epithet of 'sister' (Svasat), and sometimes even denotes 'sister' itself, the emphasis being on the blood-relationship.¹ So it appears in a passage of the Atharvaveda,² where 'brotherless sisters'

¹ Cf. Delbrück, Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 463, 464. As 'relation,' it occurs, e.g., Rv. i. 31, 10; 75, 3, 4; 100, 11; 124, 6, etc.; as 'sister,' Rv. i. 65, 7; x. 10, 10, etc.; with svasat, i. 123, 5; 185, 5; iii. 1, 11; ix. 65, 1; 89, 4, etc.
² i. 17, 1.
(abhrātara īva jāmayaḥ) are referred to. The word is similarly used in the dispute occurring in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa³ as to the precedence of Rākā, or of the wives of the gods, in a certain rite. One party is there described as holding that the sister should be preferred (jāmyai vai pūrva-peyam)—apparently at a ceremonial family meal—to the wife, presumably as being of one blood with the husband, while the wife is not (being anyodaryā, 'of another womb').⁴ In the neutral⁵ the word means 'relationship,' like jāmi-tva, which also occurs in the Rigveda.⁶

Jāmi-śamsa, the 'imprecation by a sister' or 'relation,' is mentioned in the Atharvaveda,¹ showing that family disputes were not rare. This is also indicated by the word Bhrāṭpyya, which, while properly meaning 'father's brother's son,' regularly denotes simply 'enemy.'

Jāmbila, 'hollow of the knee,'¹ occurs once in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā.² The word also occurs in the form of Jāmbila in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā³ and the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā.⁴ Mahīdhara, in his commentary on the latter text, interprets the word as 'knee-pan,' which he says is so named because of its resemblance to the citron, jāmbira.

Jāyantī-putra, 'son of Jāyanti,' is mentioned in the last Vāṃśa (list of teachers) in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad¹ as a pupil of Māṇḍūkāyanīputra.

Jāyā regularly denotes 'wife,' and, as opposed to Patni, wife as an object of marital affection, the source of the continuance

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³ iii. 37.
⁴ Delbrück, loc. cit.
⁵ Rv. iii. 54, 9; x. 10, 4; jāmi-hṛt, 'making relationship,' Av. iv. 19, 1.
⁶ Cf. Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, loc. cit. i. 105, 9; 166, 13; x. 55, 4; 64, 13.

¹ i. 10, 1 (=Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 5, 6, 3), and personified in ix. 4, 15. Cf. jāmyāḥ sapathaḥ, Av. ii. 7, 2; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 362.

¹ ii. 10, 1 (=Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 5, 6, 3), and personified in ix. 4, 15. Cf. jāmyāḥ sapathaḥ, Av. ii. 7, 2; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 362.

² i. 105, 9; 166, 13; x. 55, 4; 64, 13.

³ ii. 15, 3.
⁴ v. 13, 1.
⁵ xxv. 3.

² ii. 15, 3.
³ v. 13, 1.
⁴ xxv. 3.
of the race.\(^1\) So it is used of the wife of the gambler, and of the wife of the Brāhmaṇa in the Rigveda;\(^2\) it is also frequently combined with Pati, ‘husband,’\(^3\) both there and in the later literature.\(^4\) Patnī, on the other hand, is used to denote the wife as partner in the sacrifice;\(^5\) when no share in it is assigned to her, she is called Jāyā.\(^6\) The distinction is, of course, merely relative; hence one text\(^7\) calls Manu’s wife Jāyā, another\(^8\) Patnī. Later on Jāyā is superseded by Dāra.

\(^1\) Delbrück, *Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen*, 411, 412. Cf. RV. i. 105. 2; 124, 7; iii. 53, 4; iv. 3, 2; 18, 3; ix. 82, 4; x. 10, 7; 17, 1; 71, 4, etc.; Av. iii. 30, 2; vi. 60, 1, etc. 
\(^2\) X. 34, 2; 3, 13, and x. 109. 
\(^3\) RV. iv. 3, 2; x. 149, 4. 
\(^4\) Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 23, 1. Cf. 
\(^5\) Bhattacharyya, **n.** 13, 10; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 6, 7, 9. Cf. Maitrāyaṇī Samhitā, i. 6, 12. 
\(^6\) Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 9, 2, 14. 
\(^7\) Ibd., i. 1, 4, 13. 
\(^8\) Maitrāyaṇī Samhitā, iv. 8, 1.

Jāyāṇya,\(^1\) Jāyenya,\(^2\) are variant forms of the name of a disease mentioned in the Atharvaveda and the Taittirīya Śaṁhitā. In one passage of the former text\(^3\) it is mentioned with jaundice (harinā) and pains in the limbs (aṅga-bhedo visalpakāḥ), Zimmer\(^4\) thinks these are its symptoms, and identifies it with a kind of Yāksma, or disease of the lungs. Bloomfield\(^5\) prefers to identify it with syphilis, in accordance with certain indications in the ritual of the Kauśika Śutra.\(^6\) Roth conjectures ‘gout,’ but Whitney\(^7\) leaves the nature of the disease doubtful.

\(^1\) Av. vii. 76, 3-5; xix. 44, 2. 
\(^2\) I. 3, 5, 2; 5, 6, 5. 
\(^3\) Xix. 44, 2. 
\(^6\) *xxxii. 11*. Cf. also the commentary on Av. vii. 76, and Taittirīya Śaṁhitā, loc. cit. 

Jāra, ‘lover,’ has no sinister sense in the early texts\(^1\) generally, where the word applies to any lover. But it seems probable that the Jāra at the Puruṣamedha, or human sacrifice,\(^2\)

\(^1\) RV. i. 66, 8; 117, 18; 134, 3; 152, 4; ix. 32, 5, etc. The word is often used mythologically, as, e.g., Jāra uṣasām, ‘lover of the dawns,’ vii. 9, 1. Cf. Zimmer, *Altindisches Leben*, 308. 
\(^2\) Vājasaneyi Śaṁhitā, xxx. 9; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 4, 1.
must be regarded as an illegitimate lover; this sense also appears in the Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad, and Indra is styled the lover of Ahalyā, wife of Gautama.

3 vi. 4, ii.
4 Macdonell, *Vedic Mythology*, p. 65.

Jārat-kārava ('descendant of Jaratkāru') Ārtabhāga ('descendant of Rtabhāga') is the name of a teacher mentioned in the Śāṅkhāyana Āranyaka (vii. 20) and the Brhadārānyaka Upaniṣad (iii. 2, 1, in both recensions).

Jāru. See Jarāyu.

Jāla occurs in the Atharvaveda and the Sūtras in the sense of 'net.' Jālaka is used in the Brhadārānyaka Upaniṣad of a reticulated membrane resembling a woven covering.

1 viii. 8, 5. 8 (as used against foes); 2 Kātyāyana Srauta Sūtra, vii. 4, 7, etc.
3 iv. 2, 3.

Jālāṣa. See Jalāṣa, which is read by Sāyaṇa in the Atharvaveda (vi. 57, 2) for Jālāṣa.


Jāśkamada is the name of an unknown animal in the Atharvaveda.


Jāś-pati occurs once in the Rigveda in the sense of the 'head of the family.' The abstract formed from this word, Jāś-patya, apparently denoting 'lordship of children,' is also found there.

1 i. 185, 8.
2 Rv. v. 28, 3; x. 85, 23.

Jāhuṣa is the name in the Rigveda of a protégé of the Aśvins.

1 i. 116, 10; vii. 71, 5. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 199.
Jähnava, ‘descendant of Jahnu,’ is the patronymic of Viśvamitra in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.¹ This fact is of some importance as disproving Aufrecht’s theory² that the Jahnus were the clan of Ajīgarta, the father of Śunaḥsepa.

¹ xxi. 12. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, |necticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 1, 32; Hopkins, Transactions of the Con-
² Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, 424.

Jitvan Šailini is the name of a teacher in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad,¹ a contemporary of Janaka and Yājñavalkya. He held that speech (vāc) was Brahman.

¹ iv. 1, 2 (Kāṇva=iv. 1, 5 Mādhyāṃśa, which has Šailina as the patronymic).

Jihvāvant Bādhyoga is the name, in the last Vaṃśa (list of teachers) of the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad,¹ of a teacher, pupil of Asita Vārsāgaṇa.

¹ vi. 5, 3 (Kāṇva=vi. 4, 33 Mādhyāṃśa).

Jīva-grbha, ‘seizing alive,’ is, according to Roth,¹ the term, for a police official in the Rigveda.² But although this sense is rendered possible by the mention of Madhyamaśi, perhaps ‘arbitrator,’ in the same passage,³ it is neither necessary nor probable.⁴


Jīva-ja. See Jarāyu.

Jīvant appears to denote a certain plant in one passage of the Atharvaveda,¹ where the edition of Roth and Whitney has the unjustified emendation Jīvala.²

Jâvala Cailaki, ‘descendant of Celaka,’ is mentioned in the Satapatha Brâhmana as reproving Takṣan.


Juḥū is the regular name in the Rigveda and later for the tongue-shaped ladle in which butter was offered to the gods.

1 Rv. viii. 44, 5; x. 21, 3; Av. xviii. 4, 5, 6, etc.

Jûrṇī, ‘firebrand,’ is regarded by Zimmer as one of the weapons of the Vedic Indians. But since it is only mentioned in the Rigveda as a weapon used by demons, its employment in normal war cannot be safely assumed.

1 *Altindisches Leben*, 301. 2 i. 129, 8. Cf. Nirukta, vi. 4.

Jûrṇī is one of the names given to serpents in a hymn of the Atharvaveda (ii. 24, 5), perhaps from their habit of casting their slough. See Ahi.

Jetṛ. See Śṇi.

Jâitrâyāṇa Sahojit is apparently in the Kâṭhaka Samhitā the name of a prince who celebrated the Râjasûya, or ‘royal consecration.' Von Schroeder quotes in support of Jâitrâyâṇa as a proper name the derivative Jâitrâyâṇi, ‘descendant of Jaitra,’ formed according to the Gâna karṇâdi, which is referred to by Pâṇini; but it should be noted that in the parallel passage of the Kâpiṣṭhala Samhitā the reading is different, and no proper personal name appears, the subject being Indra, the god. This reading seems much more probable, for the verse should be general, and suit every king performing the rite.

1 xviii. 5. 2 *Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft*, 49, 168. 3 iv. 2, 80.

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Kâṭhaka, i, p. 269.
Jaimini does not appear till the Sūtra period. But a Jaiminiya Saṃhitā of the Sāmaveda is extant, and has been edited and discussed by Caland; and a Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa, of which a special section is the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, is known and has formed the subject of several articles by Oertel.

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1. Áśvalāyana Gṛhyā Sūtra, iii. 4; Śānvāyana Gṛhyā Sūtra, iv. 10; vi. 6, etc. He appears also as a pupil of Vyāsa, Sāmadevāna Brāhmaṇa, ad fin.; Weber, Indische Studien, 4, 377. Cf. his Indian Literature, 56.

2. As part ii. of Hillebrand's Indische Forschungen, Breslau, 1907. See Oldenberg, Göttingische Gelehrte Anzeigen, 1908, 712 et seq.


Jaivantāyana, 'descendant of Jivanta,' is mentioned in the Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad as a teacher, with Sauṇaka and Raibhya, of Rauhiṇāyana.

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1. iv. 5, 26 (Mādhyaṃdina). The name is recognised by Pāṇini, iv. 1, 103.

Jaivala or Jaivali, 'descendant of Jivala,' is the patronymic of Pravāhana in the Brhadāranyaka and Chāndogya Upaniṣads. Jaivali, the king, in the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa is the same person.

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1. vi. 2, 1 (Kāpya—vi. 1, 1 Mādhyaṃdina), where the form is Jaivala.

3. i. 8, 2. 8; v. 3, 1. i. 38, 4.

Jñāṭr occurs in two passages of the Atharvaveda and one of the Śānkhyāna Āraṇyaka with a somewhat obscure sense. Zimmer conjectures not unnaturally that the word is a technical term taken from law, meaning 'witness.' The reference is, perhaps, to a custom of carrying on transactions of business before witnesses as practised in other primitive societies. Roth suggests that the word has the sense of

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1. vi. 32, 3; viii. 8, 21.


4. In Manu, viii. 57, the word is a various reading for sākhin, 'witness.' Cf. Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 140.

5. St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
Jñāti (masc.), a word which originally seems to have meant 'acquaintance,'\(^1\) denotes in the Rigveda\(^2\) and later\(^3\) a 'relation,' apparently one who was connected by blood on the father's side, though the passages do not necessarily require the limitation. But this sense follows naturally enough from the patriarchal basis of Vedic society.\(^4\)

\(^1\) Being in all probability derived from jñā, 'know,' not from jan, 'beget,' as would at first sight seem more likely on account of the sense. Cf. the St. Petersburg Dictionary, \textit{s.v.}

\(^2\) vii. 55, 5, seems to refer to the members of the joint family sleeping in the paternal house; x. 66, 14; 85, 28 (the kinsmen of the bride are meant); 117, 9 (perhaps 'brother and sister' are meant by jñāti here, but 'kinsfolk' will do; cf. Muir, \textit{Sanskrit Texts}, 5, 432).

\(^3\) Av. xii. 5, 44 (where Whitney in his Translation renders the word by 'acquaintances,' which seems too vague and feeble); Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, i. 6, 5, 2; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 6, 4, 3 (jñātibhyāṁ vā sahbhbhyāṁ vā, 'where 'relations' are contrasted with 'friends' or 'companions'); ii. 2, 2, 20; 5, 2, 20; xi. 3, 3, 7, etc.

\(^4\) For the transition from the etymological meaning, \textit{cf.} \textit{γνωτί, γνωστό}, which in Homer designate 'brother' and 'sister'; St. Petersburg Dictionary, \textit{s.v.}

\textbf{Jyā} is the regular word for 'bowstring' in the Rigveda\(^1\) and later.\(^2\) The making of bowstrings was a special craft, as is shown by the occurrence of the Jyā-kāra, or 'maker of bowstrings,' among the victims at the Puruṣamedha, or human sacrifice, in the Yajurveda.\(^3\) The bowstring consisted of a thong of ox-hide.\(^4\) It was not usually kept taut,\(^5\) but was specially tightened when the bow was to be used.\(^6\) The sound of the bowstring (\textit{jyā-ghoṣa}) is referred to in the Atharvaveda.\(^7\) Cf. Ārtnī.

\(^1\) iv. 27, 3; vi. 75, 3; x. 51, 6, etc.

\(^2\) Av. i. 1, 3; v. 13, 6; vi. 42, 1; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xvi. 9; xxix. 51, etc.

\(^3\) Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxx. 7; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 3, 1.

\(^4\) Rv. vi. 75, 3; Av. i. 1, 3. In the Epic the bowstring is made of hemp (\textit{maurū}); Hopkins, \textit{Journal of the American Oriental Society}, 13, 271.

\(^5\) Av. vi. 42, 1.

\(^6\) Rv. x. 166, 3.

\(^7\) v. 21, 9.

Jyākā means 'bowstring,' with a contemptuous sense, in the Rigveda,¹ and in the simple sense in the Atharvaveda.²

1 x. 133, 1, where anyakeśāṁ jyākāḥ is unmistakably contemptuous. Cf. Macdonell, *Vedic Grammar*, p. 137.
2 i. 2, 2.

Jyā-pāṣa means 'bowstring' in the Atharvaveda (xi. 10, 22).

Jyā-hroḍa occurs in the description of the arms of the Vṛātya in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa,¹ and is also mentioned in the Sūtras.² The sense is somewhat obscure, for one Sūtra describes it as a 'bow not meant for use' (ayogyāṁ dhanus),³ while the other speaks of it as a 'bow without an arrow' (dhanuṣka anिशu).⁴ Some sort of a bow, therefore, seems to be meant.

1 xvii. 1, 14 (spelt -hroḍa in text, -hroḍa in comm.).
2 Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xxii. 4, 11 (spelt -hroḍa); Lāṭyāyana Śrāuta Sūtra, viii. 6, 8 (spelt -hroḍa: the editor notes that the Drāṇyāyaṇa Śrātra has the same reading).
3 Kātyāyana, *loc. cit.*
4 Lāṭyāyana, *loc. cit.*


Jyeṣṭha, ordinarily meaning 'greatest,' has further the specific sense of 'eldest'¹ brother in the Rigveda.² It also means the eldest among sons, which is another side of the same sense.³

2 iv. 33, 5; x. ii. 2.
3 Av. xii. 2, 35; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 17; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 5, 3, 8, and cf. Jyaisthineya.

Jyeṣṭha-ghni, 'slaying the eldest,' is the name of a Naksatrap, or lunar mansion, usually called Jyeṣṭhā, in the Atharvaveda¹ and the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa.² It is Antares or Cor Scipionis.

1 vi. 110, 2. Cf. vi. 112, 1.
2 i. 5, 2, 8. Cf. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 361.

Jyeṣṭhā. See Naksatra.
**Jhāṣa**]  
ASTRONOMY—LARGE FISH  

Jyaiśthineya denotes, in combination with Jyeṣṭha, the eldest, a ‘son of the father’s first wife’ (jyeṣṭhā), in the Brāhmaṇas.¹

¹ Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 1, 8, 1 (opposed to kaniṣṭha and kaniṣṭhineya); Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, ii. 1, 2; xx. 5, 2.

Jyotiṣa, ‘astronomy.’ It is important to note that no reference to any work on astronomy occurs in the Sāṃhitās or Brāhmaṇas. The text which claims to represent the astronomical science of the Veda has been edited by Weber,¹ and has frequently been discussed since.² Its date is unknown, but is undoubtedly late, as is shown alike by the contents and form of the work.

¹ Ueber den Vedakalender namens | ² See references in Thibaut, Astronomie, Astrologie und Mathematik, 20, 29.

Jvālāyana, ‘descendant of Jvāla,’ is the name of a man, a pupil of Gauṣūkти, mentioned in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iv. 16, 1), in a list of teachers.

**JH.**

Jhaṣa is mentioned in the story of Manu told in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,¹ where it means a ‘great fish’ (mahā-matsya) according to the commentator. Eggeling² suggests that a horned fish is meant, because in the Taittirīya Sāṃhitā the Idā, or personified libation, is represented as a cow, and this may have brought in the idea of a horned fish in the later form of an old legend. But cf. Jāṣa.

¹ i. 8, 1, 4. ² Sacred Books of the East, 12, 217, n. 3; 26, xxxi.
³ i. 7, 1; ii. 6, 7.
T.

Takavāna appears to be a patronymic from Taku, and to be the name of a seer in the Rigveda, presumably a descendant of Taku Kāksīvant, for his name occurs in a group of hymns composed by the Kāksīvatas.

1 Cf. Bhrigavāna, from Bhrigu; Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. Taku, as an adjective (?), occurs in Rigveda, ix. 97, 52.
2 i. 120, 6.

Takman is a disease repeatedly mentioned in the Atharvaveda, but later not known under this name. It is the subject of five hymns of the Atharvaveda, and is often mentioned elsewhere. Weber first identified it with ‘fever,’ and Grohmann showed that all the symptoms pointed to that ailment. Reference is made to the alternate hot and shivering fits of the patient, to the yellow colour of the jaundice which accompanies the fever, and to its peculiar periodicity. The words used to describe its varieties are anye-dyuḥ, ubhaya-dyuḥ, tryiṣya, vi-tryiṣya, and sadam-di, the exact sense of most of which terms is somewhat uncertain. It is agreed that the first epithet designates the fever known as quotidianus, which recurs each day at the same hour, though the word is curious (lit.

1 i. 25; v. 22; vi. 20; vii. 116; xix. 39 (cf. v. 4).
2 Av. iv. 9, 8; v. 4, 1. 9; 30, 16; ix. 8, 6; x. 2, 22, 26, etc.
3 Indische Studien, 4, 119; Roth, Zur Litteratur und Geschichte des Weda, 39, had, from the use of Kuṣṭha as a remedy, regarded it as denoting ‘leprosy,’ and was followed by Pictet, Kuhn’s Zeitschrift, 5, 337. Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 4, 280, thought ‘consumption’ was meant.
4 Indische Studien, 9, 381 et seq.
5 See also Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 451 et seq.; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 379-385, and compare the jvara (a non-Vedic word) of the classical medicine, Wise, Hindu System of Medicine, 219 et seq.; Jolly, Medicin, 70-72. Dārila and Keśava, the commentators on the Kauśika Sūtra, everywhere equate takman and jvara.
6 Av. i. 25, 2-4; v. 22, 2. 7, 10; vi. 20, 3; vii. 116, 1.
7 Av. i. 25, 2; v. 22, 2; vi. 20, 3.
8 Av. i. 25, 4; vii. 116, 2.
9 Ibid.
10 Av. i. 25, 4; v. 22, 13; xix. 39, 10.
11 Av. v. 22, 13.
12 Av. v. 22, 13; xix. 39, 10.
13 Grohmann, op. cit., 387; Zimmer, op. cit., 382; Bloomfield, op. cit., 274.
‘on the other—i.e., next, day’). The ubhaya-dyuḥ (‘on both days’) variety appears to mean a disease recurring for two successive days, the third being free; this corresponds to the rhythmus quartanus complicatus.\(^\text{14}\) But Sāyaṇa considers that it means a fever recurring on the third day, the ‘tertian.’ The trtiyaka, however, must be the ‘tertian’ fever,\(^\text{15}\) though Zimmer\(^\text{16}\) suggests that it may mean a fever which is fatal at the third paroxysm. Grohmann\(^\text{17}\) regards the vi-trtiyaka as equivalent to the tertiana duplicata, a common form in southern countries, in which the fever occurs daily, but with a correspondence in point of time or severity of attack on alternate days. Bloomfield\(^\text{18}\) suggests that it is identical with the ubhaya-dyuḥ variety. The sadam-di\(^\text{19}\) type appears to be the kind later known as sanātata-jvara (‘continuous fever’), in which there are attacks of several days’ duration, with an interval followed by a fresh period of attack. Fever occurred at different seasons, in the autumn (śārada), in the hot weather (graiṣma), in the rains (vārṣika),\(^\text{20}\) but was especially prevalent in the first, as is indicated by the epithet viśva-śārada, ‘occurring every autumn.’\(^\text{21}\)

The disease is said to arise when Agni enters the waters.\(^\text{22}\) From this Weber\(^\text{23}\) deduced that it was considered to be the result of a chill supervening on heat, or the influence of heat on marshy land. Grohmann\(^\text{24}\) preferred to see in this connexion of the origin of the disease with Agni’s entering the waters\(^\text{25}\) an allusion to the fact that fever arises in the rainy season, the time when Agni, as lightning, descends to earth with the rain. Zimmer,\(^\text{26}\) who accepts this view, further refers to the prevalence

\(^{14}\) Grohmann, 388; Zimmer, 382; Bloomfield, 274. It may conceivably be the form styled Cāturthaka Vipar-yaya (Wise, \textit{op. cit.}, 232), in which the paroxysm occurs every fourth day, and lasts for two days.

\(^{15}\) Sāyaṇa on Av. i. 25, 4; Bloomfield, 451. It is the jvara trtiyaka of Suśruta (2, 404, 7).

\(^{16}\) \textit{Op. cit.}, 383, quoting Hügel, Kashmir, i, 133.

\(^{17}\) \textit{Op. cit.}, 388.


\(^{19}\) Of doubtful derivation: either ‘always cutting’ (cf. Sāyaṇa on Av. xix. 39, 10), or ‘always fastening upon’ (Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.), or ‘belonging to every day’ = sadam-dina (Zimmer, 383, n.; Bloomfield, 452).

\(^{20}\) Av. v. 22, 13.

\(^{21}\) Av. ix. 8, 6; xix. 34, 10.

\(^{22}\) Av. i. 25, i.

\(^{23}\) \textit{Indische Studien}, 4, 119.

\(^{24}\) \textit{Ibid.}, 9, 493.


of fever in the Terai, and interprets *vanya*, an epithet of fever found in the Atharvaveda,\(^{27}\) as meaning ‘sprung from the forest,’ pointing out that fever is mentioned as prevalent among the *Mūjavants* and *Mahāvṛṣas*, two mountain tribes of the western Himalaya.\(^{28}\) There is no trace of fever having been observed to be caused by the bite of the *anopheles* mosquito, which breeds in stagnant water: this theory has without reason been held to be known to classical Indian medicine.\(^{29}\)

Among the symptoms of Takman, or among complications accompanying it, are mentioned ‘itch’ (*Pāman*), ‘headache’ (*sīrṣa-sōka*),\(^{30}\) ‘cough’ (*Kāsikā*), and ‘consumption,’ or perhaps some form of itch (*Balāsa*).

It is perhaps significant that the Takman does not appear until the Atharvaveda. It is quite possible that the Vedic Āryans, when first settled in India, did not know the disease, which would take some generations to become endemic and recognized as dangerous. What remedies they used against it is quite uncertain, for the Atharvaveda mentions only spells and the *Kuṣṭha*, which can hardly have been an effective remedy, though still used in later times. Fever must, even in the Atharvan period, have claimed many victims, or it would not be mentioned so prominently.

\(^{27}\) Av. vi. 20, 4.  
\(^{28}\) Av. v. 22, 5.  
\(^{29}\) Jolly, *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society*, 1906, 222.  
\(^{30}\) Av. xix. 39, 10. For the present position of the disease in India, cf. the Report of the Simla Conference of 1909.

**Takvan,\(^{1}\)** *Takvari,\(^{2}\)* seem in the Rigveda to denote a ‘swift-flying bird.’ Sayana\(^{3}\) explains Takvan as a swift steed.

\(^{1}\) Rv. i. 66, 2. Cf. i. 134, 5, and *Tsārin*.  
\(^{2}\) Ibid., i. 151, 5; x. 91, 2. But in both places the word may be adjectival.  
\(^{3}\) On Rv. i. 66, 2.

**Takṣaka Vaiśāleya** (‘descendant of Vīśālā’) is a mythical figure, mentioned as the son of Virāj in the Atharvaveda,\(^{1}\) and as Brāhmaṇācchāṃsí priest at the snake sacrifice in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.\(^{2}\)

\(^{1}\) vii. 10, 29.  
1. Taksan, 'carpenter,' is mentioned in the Rigveda and often later. He was employed to do all sorts of work in wood, such as the making of chariots (Ratha) and wagons (Anas). Carved work of a finer type seems also to have fallen to his lot. The axe (kuliša, paraśu) is mentioned as one of his tools, and perhaps the Bhurij, a word which is, however, uncertain in sense. In one passage of the Rigveda reference seems to be made to the pains of the carpenter in bending over his work. That the carpenters were a low caste, or formed a separate class of the people, is certainly not true of Vedic times.

2. Taksan is mentioned in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa as a teacher whose view of a certain formula was not accepted by Jīvala Cailaki.

3. Taksan. See Brbu.

śyāmaka-tandula, 'millet grain,' ibid., x. 6, 3, 2; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iii. 14, 3; apāmārga-tandula, 'grain of the Achyranthes aspera,' v. 2, 4, 15, etc.

Śyāmaka-tandula, 'millet grain,' ibid., x. 6, 3, 2; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iii. 14, 3; apāmārga-tandula, 'grain of the Achyranthes aspera,' v. 2, 4, 15, etc.

1 ix. 112, 1.
2 Av. x. 6, 3; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xii. 10; xviii. 13; Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, ii. 9, 5; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xvi. 27; xxx. 6; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 2, 1; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. i. 3, 12; iii. 6, 4, 4, etc.

3 Rv. x. 86, 5; Av. xix. 49, 8. Cf. Rv. i. 161, 9; iii. 60, 2.

4 Rv. iii. 2, 1.
5 Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xii. 10.
6 Rv. i. 105, 18. Cf. Roth, Nirukta, Erläuterungen, 67; Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 100.

2. Taksan is mentioned in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa as a teacher whose view of a certain formula was not accepted by Jīvala Cailaki.

1 ii. 3, 1, 31-35. Cf. Lévi, La Doctrine du Sacrifice, 140.

3. Taksan. See Brbu.
Tata, 'dada,' is the pet name for 'father' in the Rigveda and later. Cf. Tāta and Pitṛ.

Tatāmaha, 'grandfather,' is found in the Atharvaveda.

Tanaya, n., denotes 'offspring,' 'descendants' in the Rigveda, where also it is often used adjectivally with Toka. There seems no ground for the view that toka means 'sons,' 'children,' and tanaya 'grandchildren.'

Tanti occurs in one passage of the Rigveda, where Roth renders the plural of the word by 'files' of calves. But it seems rather to have the sense which it has in the later literature, of 'cords,' here used to fasten the calves.

Tantu appears properly to mean 'thread,' and in particular the 'warp' of a piece of weaving, as opposed to Otu, the 'woof.' Both senses are found in the Atharvaveda. In the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa the 'warp' is called anuchāda, the 'woof' paryāsa, the tantavaḥ being the 'threads.' In the Taittirīya Saṃhitā, the prāṅcaḥ and itiyāṇcaḥ threads or cords of the throne of the Vṛtya [Āsandī].

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1 v. 24, 4.
2 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
3 Nirukta, x. 7; xii. 6.
on the other hand, the ‘warp’ is prāćina-tāna, the ‘woof’ otu. The threads or cords of the throne (Paryāṅka) are referred to in the KauŚitaki Upaniṣad.⁴

In the Rigveda the word is used only metaphorically, and this is its most frequent use even in the Brāhmaṇas.⁵ See also Vāna.

| 4 i. 5; Keith, Śāńkhāyana Āraṇyaka, 20, n. 2. | 5 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. It is applied to the filaments of plants in Rv. x. 134, 5; to the spider’s web in Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 1, 23. |

Tantra means, like Tantu, the ‘warp’ of a piece of weaving, or more generally the ‘web’ itself. It is found in the Rigveda¹ and later.²

¹ x. 71, 9. ² Av. x. 7, 42; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 5, 5, 3; Pańcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, x. 5; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiv. 2, 2, 22. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 254.

Tapas, Tapasya. See Māsa.

Tapo-nitya (‘constant in penance’) Pauru-śiṣṭi (‘descendant of Puruśiṣṭa’) is the name of a teacher in the Taittirīya Upaniṣad (i. 9, 1) who believed in the value of penance (taḥpas).

Tayādara is the name of an animal only mentioned in the adjectival form tāyādara along with Parasvant, ‘wild ass’ (?) in the Atharvaveda.¹

¹ vi. 72, 2. Cf. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 335.

Tarakṣu, the ‘hyaena,’ is mentioned in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice, in the Yajurveda.¹

¹ Taittirīya Šaṁhitā, v. 5, 19, 1, where Sāyaṇa explains the animal to be ‘a kind of tiger with an ass’s appearance’ (vyāghra-viśeṣo gardabha- kāraḥ); Maitrāyaṇi Šaṁhitā, iii. 14, 21; Vājasaneyi Šaṁhitā, xxiv. 40. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 81.
ANCIENT PATRONS—TREE—SPINDLE

Taranta appears, along with Purumidha, as a patron of Śyāvāśva in the Rigveda. In the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa and other Brāhmaṇas he, together with Purumidha, is described as receiving gifts from Dhvasra and Puruṣanti; but since the receipt of gifts was forbidden to Kṣatriyas, they for the nonce became Rṣis, and composed a passage in honour of the donors. He, like Purumidha, was a Vaidadasvi, or son of Vidadaśva.

Taranta, the usual term for ‘tree’ in classical Sanskrit, never occurs in Vedic literature, except perhaps in one passage of the Rigveda, where Sāyaṇa finds it, and where it can be so translated. But the form (tarubhiḥ) is probably to be interpreted otherwise.

Taruksa is the name of a man in the Rigveda who is mentioned along with Balbūtha, the Dāsa, in a Dāna-stuti, or ‘Praise of Gifts.’

Tarku, ‘spindle,’ is known only in Vedic literature from the mention of it in Yāska’s Nirukta (ii. 1) as an example of the transposition of letters, the word being derived, according to him, from the root kart, ‘to spin.’
Tarda, ‘borer,’ occurs in a hymn of the Atharvaveda enumerating insects that injure grain. Whitney suggests that a kind of mouse or rat may be meant. Roth thought a bird was denoted.

Tardman in the Atharvaveda applies to the hole in the yoke (Yuga). In the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa it designates a hole in a skin.

Tarya is, according to Śaṅkara, the name of a man in one passage of the Rigveda. But the verse is hopelessly obscure.

Talāṣa is the name of a tree in the Atharvaveda. Whitney suggests that it may be the same as taliśa (Flacourtia cataphracta).

Talpa is the regular term for ‘bed’ or ‘couch’ from the Rigveda and the Atharvaveda onwards. One made of Udumbara wood is mentioned in the Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa. The violation of the bed of a Guru, or teacher, is already mentioned in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad, while the adjective talpya, ‘born in the nuptial couch,’ denotes ‘legitimate’ in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.
Talava in the list of victims at the Puruṣamedha, or human sacrifice, in the Yajurveda,\(^1\) denotes a ‘musician’ of some kind.

\(^1\) Vājasaneyi Śaṃhitā, xxx. 20; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 15, 1. Cf. Weber, _Indische Streifen_, i, 83, n. 15.

Taṣṭṛ is found in the Rigveda\(^1\) in the sense of ‘carpenter,’ like Takṣan, which is from the same root takṣ, ‘to fashion.’

\(^1\) i. 61, 4; 105, 18; 130, 4; iii. 38, 1; vii. 32, 20; x. 93, 12; 119, 5. Cf. Nirukta, v. 21.

Tasara denotes the weaver’s ‘shuttle’ in the Rigveda\(^1\) and the Yajurveda Śaṃhitās.\(^2\)

\(^1\) x. 130, 2.  
\(^2\) Vājasaneyi Śaṃhitā, xix. 83; Mai-trāyaṇī Śaṃhitā, iii. 11, 9; Kāṭhaka Śaṃhitā, xxxviii. 3; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 6, 4, 2. Cf. Zimmer, _Altindisches Leben_, 254.

Taskara occurs in the Rigveda\(^1\) and frequently later,\(^2\) denoting ‘thief’ or ‘robber.’ It appears to be practically synonymous with Stena, in connexion with which it is often mentioned.\(^3\) The Stena and the Taskara are contrasted in the Vājasaneyi Śaṃhitā\(^4\) with the Malimlu, who is a burglar or house-breaker, while they are highwaymen, or, as the Rigveda\(^5\) puts it, ‘men who haunt the woods and risk their lives’ (*tanu-tyajd vanar-gū*). In another passage of the Rigveda,\(^6\) however, the dog is told to bark at the Taskara or the Stena, which clearly points to an attempt at house-breaking. The thief goes about at night,\(^7\) and knows the paths\(^8\) on which he attacks his victim. In one passage of the Rigveda\(^9\) the use of cords is mentioned, but whether to bind the thieves when captured, or to bind the

\(^1\) i. 191, 5; vi. 27, 3; vii. 55, 3; viii. 29, 6.  
\(^2\) Av. iv. 3, 2; xix. 47, 7; 50, 5; Vājasaneyi Śaṃhitā, xi. 77, 78; xii. 62; xvi. 21, etc.; Nirukta, iii. 14.  
\(^3\) Rv. vii. 55, 3; Av. xix. 47, 7; 50, 5; Vājasaneyi Śaṃhitā, xi. 79; xvi. 21, etc.  
\(^4\) x. 79 (the Malimlu is jānēṇu, ‘among men’; the others vane, ‘in the forest’). Cf. for the Malimlu, Taittirīya Śaṃhitā, vi. 3, 2, 6; Atharvaveda, xix. 49, 10.  
\(^5\) x. 4, 6.  
\(^6\) vii. 55, 3.  
\(^7\) Rv. i. 191, 5.  
\(^8\) Rv. vii. 29, 6.  
\(^9\) x. 4, 6.
victim, is not clear. The Atharvaveda\textsuperscript{11} refers to the Stena
and the Taskara as cattle and horse thieves.\textsuperscript{12}

Tāyu was another name for thief, perhaps of a less
distinguished and more domestic character than the highway-
man, for though he is referred to as a cattle-thief,\textsuperscript{13} he is also
alluded to as a stealer of clothes (\textit{vastra-mathī})\textsuperscript{14} and as a
debtor.\textsuperscript{15} In one passage the Tāyus are said to disappear at
the coming of dawn (which is elsewhere called \textit{yāvayad-dveṣas,}
‘driving away hostile beings,’ and \textit{ṛta-pā,} ‘guardian of order’),
like the stars of heaven (\textit{naksatrā}).\textsuperscript{16}

In the Śatarudriya litany of the Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā\textsuperscript{17} Rudra
is called lord of assailers (\textit{ā-vyādhin}), thieves (\textit{stena}), robbers
(\textit{taskara}), pickpockets (\textit{stāyun}), stealers (\textit{muṣṇant}), and cutters
(\textit{vi-krnta}); and designations of sharpers (\textit{grtsa}) and bands
(\textit{gana, vrāta}), apparently of robbers, are mentioned.\textsuperscript{18} It is
therefore not surprising that the Rigveda\textsuperscript{19} should contain
many prayers for safety at home or on the way, or that the Atharvaveda should devote several hymns to night\textsuperscript{20}
chiefly for protection against the evil doings of thieves and
robbers.

Pischel\textsuperscript{21} suggests that in one passage of the Rigveda\textsuperscript{22}
Vasiṣṭha is represented as a burglar, but he admits that, since
Vasiṣṭha was attacking the house of his father Varuṇa, he was
only seeking to obtain what he may have regarded as his own.
But the interpretation of the hymn is not certain.\textsuperscript{23}

Sāyaṇa’s explanation of one passage of the Rigveda,\textsuperscript{24} as

\begin{footnotesize}
\begin{enumerate}
\item Zimmer, \textit{Altindisches Leben}, 178, n.
\item \textit{xix}. 50, 5. \textit{Cf. Rv.} \textit{x.} 97, 10 (\textit{stena}).
\item Whitney, \textit{Translation of the Athar-
vaveda}, 984.
\item \textit{Rv.} \textit{i.} 65, 1; \textit{vii}. 86, 5.
\item \textit{Rv. iv.} 38, 5.
\item \textit{Rv. vi.} 12, 5. No doubt this theft is
the result of despair at being in debt,
which might lead to loss of liberty (\textit{ṛṣa}).
\item \textit{Rv.} \textit{i.} 50, 2. \textit{Cf.} Macdonell, \textit{Vedic
Mythology}, p. 47.
\item \textit{xvi}. 20, 21. \textit{Cf.} Taittirīya Saṁhitā,
\textit{iv.} 5, 4, 1; \textit{Kāthaka Saṁhitā, xvii.} 13;
Maitrāyaṇī Saṁhitā, \textit{ii.} 9, 4.
\item \textit{xvi.} 25.
\item \textit{i.} 129, 9; \textit{ii.} 23, 16; \textit{vi.} 24, 10;
\textit{Rv.} \textit{xv.} 10, 11; \textit{xi}. 5; \textit{xvi.} 15; \textit{xvi.} 63, 16.
\item \textit{Av.} \textit{xix}. 47-50.
\item \textit{Vedische Studien}, 2, 55, 56. Con-
trast \textit{i}, 106.
\item \textit{Rv. vii.} 55.
\item \textit{Cf.} Aufrecht, \textit{Indische Studien}, 4,
337 et seq.; \textit{Lanman, Sanskrit Reader},
370; Zimmer, \textit{Altindisches Leben}, 308;
Bṛhaddevatā, \textit{vii.} 11 et seq., with Mac-
donell’s notes.
\item \textit{vi.} 54, 1.
\end{enumerate}
\end{footnotesize}
referring to professional cattle-trackers, like the Khojis of the Panjab, seems quite probable.25

The punishment of thieves appears primarily to have been left to the action of the robbed. The practice of binding them in stocks26 seems clearly referred to. But later, at any rate—and in all probability earlier also, as in other countries—a more severe penalty could be exacted, and death inflicted by the king.27 There is no hint in Vedic literature of the mode of conviction; a fire ordeal is not known to the Atharvaveda,28 and the ordeal known to the Chāndogya Upaniṣad29 is not said to be used in the case of theft. No doubt the stolen property was recovered by the person robbed if he could obtain it. Nothing is known as to what happened if the property had passed from the actual thief into the possession of another person.

25 Zimmer, op. cit., 182, 183, citing Elliot, Memoirs, 1, 276; Jolly, Recht und Sittle, 123.
26 Cf. Rv. i, 24, 13; vii. 86, 5; Av. vi. 63, 3=84, 4; 115, 2. 3; 121; xix. 47, 9; 50, 1, all of which passages are cited by Zimmer, 181, 182, to prove this practice. But it must be noted that Rv. vii. 86, 5, alone is not at all conclusive evidence, though Av. xix. 47, 9; 50, 1 (ārupade āhan), probably mean the same thing. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 976, 983, renders the passages as referring to casting a thief into a snare, and Pischel, Vedische Studien, 1, 166, makes Rv. vii. 86, 5, refer to the cattle-thief (paśu-trīḍ) taking away the rope from the calf he means to steal. For Rv. x. 4, 6, see above, n. 10. The German and Slavonic parallels cited by Zimmer, 182, n., support his view. See also for a similar punishment in case of debt, Ṛṣa.
27 Gautama Dharma Sūtra, xii. 43-45; Āpastamba Dharma Sūtra, i. 9, 25, 4. 5; Jolly, op. cit., 124.
28 Av. ii. 12 was so interpreted by Schlagintweit, Die Gottesurtheile der Indier, 9 et seq. (1866); Weber, Indische Studien, 13, 164 et seq.; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 445; Zimmer, 183 et seq.; but see Bloomfield, American Journal of Philology, 11, 330 et seq.; Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 294-296; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 54; Grill, Hundert Lieder, 2, 47, 85; Jolly, op. cit., 146.
29 vi. 16; Jolly, loc. cit.

Tastuva, or Tasruva, as the Paippalāda recension has it, is the name of a remedy against snake poison, and is mentioned along with Tābuva in the Atharvaveda.1

1 v. 13, 10. 11. Cf. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 428; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 244.
Tājad-bhaṅga ('easily broken') is apparently the name of a tree or plant in the Atharvaveda. The Kauśika Sūtra treats it as a compound word, and its commentator makes it out to be the castor-oil plant (eranda). Whitney, however, treats the expression as two separate words, and thinks that the passage means 'may they be broken suddenly (tājat) like hemp (bhaṅga).

Tānda seems to be the name of a sage to whose school belonged the Tānda Brāhmaṇa mentioned in the Lāṭyāyana Śrauta Sūtra.

Tānda-vinda, or Tānda-vindava, is the name of a teacher mentioned in the Śāṅkhāyana Arānyaka.

Tāndi occurs as the name of a pupil of Bādarāyana in the Vamśa (list of teachers) at the end of the Sāmavidhāna Brāhmaṇa.

Tāndya is the name of a teacher in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, quoted on a point bearing on the Agniciti, or piling of the sacred fire. He is also mentioned in the Vamśa Brāhmaṇa. The Tāndya Mahābrāhmaṇa or Paṅcavimśa Brāhmaṇa of the Sāmaveda represents the school of the Tāndins.

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1 viii. 8, 3 (a battle hymn).

Tāta, apparently ‘dada’s boy,’ an affectionate term of address by a father (cf. Tata) to a son, is found in the Brāhmaṇas, occurring in the vocative only. But in the sense of ‘father,’ through confusion with Tata, it occurs also as early as the Aitareya Āraṇyaka.¹

¹ Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 14, 4; Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 1, 6; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iv. 4, 2.
² i. 3, 3, where Tata and Tāta are given as variant forms of the address of the child to the father. Little, Grammatical Index, 75, takes Tāta to mean ‘father’ primarily, but this seems unlikely. Cf. Delbrück, Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 449, 454.

Tāduri is mentioned in a verse of the Atharvaveda together with the female frog (Maṇḍuki). Some similar animal must be meant, but Roth, with the commentator Durga on the Nirukta, regards the word as an adjective describing the frog.

¹ iv. 15, 14.
² Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 175.
³ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., where he suggests tāduri, from the root tād, ‘beat,’ with the sense of ‘splashing.’
⁴ ix. 7.

Tānva in an obscure passage of the Rigveda seems to mean a ‘legitimate son,’ who is said not to leave the heritage (riktha) of his father to his sister (jāmi). The exact meaning is probably unascertainable, but the passage may convey a statement of what was no doubt the fact, that the daughter had no share in the paternal inheritance; her brother had to provide for her during her life if she remained unmarried, but she had no independent portion.³ (See Dāya.)

¹ iii. 31, 2.
² Cf. Griffith, Hymns of the Rigveda, 1, 348; Oldenberg, Rigveda Noten, 1, 240; Geldner, Vедische Studien, 3, 34.
³ Cf. Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 87, for the modern law of the Panjab.

2. Tānva appears to be a patronymic, ‘descendant of Tanva,’ in a verse of the Rigveda. Ludwig² thinks that it is the patronymic of Duḥṣima, who is mentioned in the preceding verse, but this is uncertain.

¹ x. 93, 15.
² Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 166.
1. Tāpasa, ‘ascetic,’ is not found in Vedic literature till the Upaniṣads.  


2. Tāpasa is a name of Datta who was Hotr priest at the snake festival described in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xxv. 15).

Tābuva is the name in the Atharvaveda of a remedy against snake poison. The Paippalāda recension has Tāvuca instead. Weber thinks that the original form was Tāthuva, from the root sthā, ‘stand,’ and that it meant ‘stopping’; but this is hardly probable.

3 Tāyādara, ‘belonging to the Tayādara’ (Av. vi. 72, 2).

Tāyu, ‘thief,’ is mentioned several times in the Rigveda. See Taskara.

1 i. 50, 2; 65, 1; iv. 38, 5; v. 15, 5; ‘cattle - thief,’ see Pischel, Vedische Studien, 1, 106.

Tārakā is found several times in the Atharvaveda denoting a star. The masculine form Tāraka occurs in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa.

1 ii. 8, 1; iii. 7, 4; vi. 121, 3; xix. 49, 8.

2 i. 5, 2, 5.

Tāruksya is the name of a teacher in the Aitareya and Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyakas. In the former passage Tārksya is a variant reading, and in the latter Tārksya is read, but this is probably only due to confusion with Tārksya, the reputed author of a Rigvedic hymn.

1 iii. 1, 6.

2 vii. 19.

3 Aitareya Āraṇyaka, i. 5, 2, with Keith’s note; Śāṅkhāyana Srauta Sūtra xi. 14, 28; xii. 11, 12; Āsvalāyana Srauta Sūtra, ix. 1.

20—2
Tärksya is mentioned in the Rigveda\(^1\) as a divine steed, apparently the sun conceived as a horse.\(^2\) But Foy,\(^3\) judging by the name, apparently a patronymic of Tṛksī, who is known from the Rigveda\(^4\) onwards as a descendant of Trasadasyu, thinks that a real steed, the property of Tṛksī, is meant; but this is not very probable.\(^5\) See also Tāruksya.

Tärpya denotes, in the Atharvaveda\(^1\) and later,\(^2\) a garment made of some material, the nature of which is uncertain. The commentators on the Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra and the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa\(^3\) suggest that a linen garment, or one thrice soaked in ghee, or one made of the trpā or of the triпарна plant, is meant: it is doubtful whether the sense was known even to the author of the Brāhmaṇa himself. Goldstücker's\(^4\) rendering of the word is 'silken garment,' which Eggeling\(^5\) is inclined to accept.\(^6\)

Tārṣṭāgha, a species of tree, is mentioned in the Kauśika Sūtra,\(^1\) while the adjective formed from it, tārṣṭāghi, 'derived from the Tārṣṭāgha tree,' is found in the Atharvaveda.\(^2\) Weber\(^3\) thinks that the sarṣapa, or mustard plant, is meant.

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\(^1\) xviii. 4, 31.
\(^2\) Taittiriya Saṁhitā, ii. 4, 11, 6; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, 7, 1; 7, 6, 4; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xxi. 1; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 3, 5, 20; Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 5, 7 et seq.; Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. 12, 19.
\(^4\) Dictionary, s.v. abhiṣecaniya.
\(^5\) Sacred Books of the East, 41, 85, n. 1.

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\(^1\) xxv. 23.
\(^2\) v. 29, 15. Cf. Whitney's note in his Translation of the Atharvaveda.
\(^3\) Indische Studien, 18, 280.
Titaū¹ is found once in the Rigveda² denoting a 'sieve,' or perhaps 'winnowing fan,' which was used for purifying corn (saktu).

¹ On the peculiar form of this word, cf. Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, 20, 3. ² x. 71, 2.


Tittira, Tittiri, is the name of the partridge in the later Saṃhitās¹ and the Brāhmaṇas,² being presumably an onomatopoetic formation. The bird is described as having variegated plumage (bahu-rūpa). It is usually associated with the Kapiṇ-jala and Kalaviṅka.

¹ Tattīrīya Saṃhitā, ii. 5, 1, 2; v. 5, 16, 1; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, ii. 4, 1; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xii. 10; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. 30, 36. The form Tittira occurs in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 14. ² See Māsa.

¹ Gobhila Grhya Śutra, i. 1, 13; ii. 8, 12. 20; Śāṅkhāyana Grhya Śutra, i. 25; v. 2, etc.

¹ Timirgha Daure-śruta (‘descendant of Dūresruta’) is mentioned as Agnīdh (‘fire-kindling’) priest at the snake sacrifice described in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.¹

¹ xxv. 15. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, i, 35.

¹ Tirasca is read in some manuscripts of the Atharvaveda¹ in the description of the Vṛtya’s throne (Āsandī), meaning ‘the cross-pieces.’ But the reading should be tiraścye, which is adjectival, and is used in the same sense.

¹ xv. 3, 5. Cf. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 776; Keith, Śāṅkh-āyana Aranyaka, 19, n. 3.
Snake—a Seer—a Cross-beam—a Patron

Tirasća-raji, Tirasći-raji, Tirascina-raji are variant forms of a name for 'snake' (lit., 'striped across'), found in the later Samhitās.

1 Taittrīya Samhitā, v. 5, 10, 2; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 94, 95, reports this form from the Av., but the text and Roth (St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.) read tirasi-rājī there.
2 Av. iii. 27, 2; vi. 56, 2; vii. 56, 1; x. 4, 13; xii. 3. 56.
3 Maitrāyaṇī Samhitā, ii. 13, 21; Sānkhyāyana Aranyaka, xii. 27.


Tirasći is, according to the Anukramaṇī, the author of a Rigvedic hymn which he appeals to Indra to hear his call. The Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa adopts this view of the name, and mentions a Tirasći Āṅgirasa. But Roth thinks that the word is not a proper name at all.


Tirasćina-vamsa, 'cross-beam,' is used to denote a 'beehive' in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad. See also Vamsa.

1 iii. 1, 1. Cf. Little, Grammatical Index, 75.

Tirindira is mentioned in a Dānastuti, or 'Praise of Gifts,' in the Rigveda as having, along with Parśu, bestowed gifts on the singer. In the Sānkhyāyana Śrauta Sūtra this statement is represented by a tale that the Kaṇva Vatsa obtained a gift from Tirindira Pāraśavya, Tirindira and Parśu being in this version thus treated as one and the same man. Ludwig sees in the Rigvedic passage a proof that the Yadus had gained a victory over Tirindira, and gave a part of the booty to the singers; but there is no proof whatever of the correctness of this interpretation, which Zimmer shows to be most unlikely. Yadu princes must be meant by Tirindira and

1 viii. 6, 46-48. 2 xvi. 11. 20. 3 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 160, 161; 5, 142. 4 Altindisches Leben, 136, 137.
Paršu, though Weber\(^5\) thinks that the singers were Yadus, not the princes. The latter he holds to have been Iranian (cf. Ῥσβαρος, and see Paršu), and he thinks that in this there is evidence of continual close relations between India and Iran. This is perfectly possible, but the evidence for it is rather slight.

\(^5\) Indische Studien, 4, 356, n.; Indian Literature, 3, 4; Episches im vedischen Ritual, 37, 38.

\(^6\) For the recent controversy as to Iranian names found at Boghaz-kiöi, cf. Jacobi, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1909, 721 et seq.; Oldenberg, ibid., 1105-1106; Sayce, ibid., 1106, 1107; Kennedy, ibid., 1107-1119. Hillebrandt, V edische Mythologie, 1, 94 et seq., argues in favour of an early connexion of Iranians and Indians in Arachosia, where he places part of the action of the Rigveda. Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 17, 16, 277, holds that traces of Iranian connexion are signs of late date; Arnold, ibid., 18, 205 et seq., opposes this view.

**Tirița**\(^1\) is found in the Atharvaveda\(^2\) in the adjectival derivative *tirțin* used of a demon, and presumably meaning ‘adorned with a tiara.’

\(^1\) Meaning, according to later native lexicographers, ‘head-dress’ or ‘diadem.’

**Tirya** occurs in the Atharvaveda\(^1\) as an epithet of Karambha, ‘gruel.’ It is probably equivalent to *tilya*, ‘made of sesamum,’ as rendered by Roth\(^2\) and Whitney,\(^3\) but *tiriya* is read by Roth\(^4\) in the Rāja-nighaṇṭu as a kind of rice.

\(^1\) iv. 7, 3.

\(^2\) St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

\(^3\) Translation of the Atharvaveda, 155.

\(^4\) See Whitney, loc. cit., with Lanman’s additional note. Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 377, construes the adjective with *vīraṇi*, and renders ‘the poison which comes in a horizontal direction’ (cf. Tiryah). Grill, Hundert Lieder,\(^2\) 121, amends to atiriya, ‘overflowing.’

\(^2\) viii. 6, 7. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 265; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 495.

**Tiryañe Ângirasa** is mentioned as a seer of Sāmans, or Chants, in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.\(^1\) The name is doubtless feigned.

\(^1\) xii. 6, 12. Cf. Hillebrandt, V edische Mythologie, 2, 160.
Tila denotes in the Atharvaveda and later the sesame plant, and particularly its grains, from which a rich oil (Taila) was extracted. It is often mentioned in connexion with Māsa, 'kidney bean.' The Taittirīya Saṃhitā attributes the bean and the sesame to the winter (hemanta) and the cool (śisīra) seasons. The stalk of the sesame plant (tila-piṇḍi, til-pinja) was used for fuel, and the seed was boiled in the form of porridge (tilaudana) for food.

1 ii. 8, 3; vi. 140, 2; xviii. 3, 69; 4, 32.
2 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vii. 2, 10, 2; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iv. 3, 2; Vāja-
saneyi Saṃhitā, xviii. 12; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ix. 1, 1, 3, etc.
3 Av. vi. 140, 2; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, loc. cit.; Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 3.

Tilvaka is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa as a tree (Symplocos racemosa), near which it is inauspicious to construct a grave. The adjectival derivative tailvaka, 'made of the wood of the Tilvaka,' is found in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, and is employed to describe the yūpa, or sacrificial post, in the Saṅvīṃśa Brāhmaṇa.

1 xiii. 8, 1, 16. 2 iii. 1, 9. 3 iii. 8.

Tiṣya occurs twice in the Rigveda, apparently as the name of a star, though Sāyaṇa takes it to mean the sun. It is doubtless identical with the Avestan Tistrya. Later it is the name of a lunar mansion: see Nakṣatra.

1 v. 54, 13; x. 64, 8 (with Krṣānu as an archer). 2 Weber, Naxatra, 2, 290; Zimmer, Altdindisches Leben, 355; Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32, 331; Keith, Śāṅkhāyana Āranyaka, 77, n. 1.

Tiṣr-dhanva, 'a bow with three (arrows),' is mentioned as a gift to the priest at the sacrifice in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā and in the Brāhmaṇas.

1 i. 8, 19, 1. 2 Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 8, 3, 4; ii. 7, 9, 2; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 1, 5, 10; xiv. 1, 1, 7.
Tugra appears in the Rigveda\(^1\) as the name of the father of Bhujyu, a protégé of the Aśvins, who is accordingly called Tugrya\(^2\) or Taugrya.\(^3\) A different Tugra seems to be referred to in other passages of the Rigveda\(^4\) as an enemy of Indra.

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\(^1\) i. 116, 3; 117, 14; vi. 62, 6.  
\(^2\) Rv. viii. 3, 23; 74, 14.  
\(^3\) Rv. i. 117, 15; 118, 6; 182, 5, 6; viii. 5, 22; x. 39, 4.  
\(^4\) vi. 20, 8; 26, 4; x. 49, 4.  

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Tugrya occurs in the Rigveda as a patronymic of Bhujyu,\(^1\) but also in a passage\(^2\) in which no reference to Bhujyu appears to be meant, and in which it may mean ‘a man of the house of Tugra.’ A similar sense seems to occur in the locative plural feminine in the Rigveda,\(^3\) where (supplying vikṣu) the meaning must be ‘among the Tugrians.’ This explanation may also apply to the epithet of Indra\(^4\) or Soma,\(^5\) tugryā-vṛdh, ‘rejoicing among the Tugrians.’

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\(^1\) Who is also called Tugasṛya sūnu, Rv. vi. 62, 6.  
\(^2\) viii. 32, 20.  
\(^3\) i. 33, 15.  

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Tunc in the Rigveda\(^1\) occasionally occurs denoting ‘children.’ Tuj occurs rather more often in the same sense.\(^2\) Cf. Tanaya and Toka.

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\(^1\) viii. 18, 18; 27, 14; vi. 48, 9.  
\(^2\) iii. 45, 4; iv. 1, 3; v. 41, 9; viii. 4, 15.

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Tuji is the name in the Rigveda\(^1\) of a protégé of Indra, who in another hymn\(^2\) appears to be called Tūtuli.

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\(^1\) vi. 26, 4; x. 49, 4.  
\(^2\) vi. 20, 8.  

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Tumiņja Aupoditi is mentioned in the Taittiriya Samhitā (i. 7, 2, 1) as a Hotr priest at a Sattra, or ‘sacrificial session,’ and as having been engaged in a discussion with Sūravas.
Tura Kāvaṣeya is mentioned in the Vaṃśa (list of teachers) at the end of the tenth book of the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa as the source of the doctrine set forth in that book, and as separated, in the succession of teachers, from Śāndilya by Yajñavacas and Kuśri. In the same Brāhmaṇa he is quoted by Śāndilya as having erected a fire-altar on the Karotī. In the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa he is quoted by Sandilya as having erected a fire-altar on the Karotī. In the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa he appears as a Purohita, or 'domestic priest,' of Janamejaya Pāriķśita, whom he consecrated king. In the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad he appears as an ancient sage. Oldenberg, no doubt rightly, assigns him to the end of the Vedic period. He is probably identical with Tura, the deva-muni, 'saint of the gods,' who is mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.

Tura-śravas is the name of a seer mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa as having pleased Indra by two Sāmans (Chants) of his composition. Indra in return appears to have given him the oblation of the Pārāvatas on the Yamunā.

Turya-vāh, masc.; Turyauḥi, fem., 'a four-year-old ox or cow,' is mentioned in the later Saṃhitās.

Turva occurs only once in the Rigveda (x. 62, 10), doubtless as a name of the Turvaśa people or king.
Turvaśa occurs frequently in the Rigveda as the name of a man or of a people, usually in connexion with Yadu. The two words usually occur in the singular without any connecting particle, Turvaśa Yadu or Yadu Turvaśa. In a plural form the name Turvaśa occurs once with the Yadus, and once alone in a hymn in which the singular has already been used. In one passage the dual Turvaśā-Yadū actually occurs, and in another Yadus Turvaś ca, 'Yadu and Turva.' In other passages Turvaśa appears alone, while in one Turvaśa and Yadva occur.

From these facts Hopkins deduces the erroneousness of the ordinary view, according to which Turvaśa is the name of a tribe, the singular denoting the king, and regards Turvaśa as the name of the Yadu king. But the evidence for this is not conclusive. Without laying any stress on the argument based on the theory that the 'five peoples' of the Rigveda are the Anus, Druhyus, Turvašas, Yadus, and Pūrus, it is perfectly reasonable to hold that the Turvašas and Yadus were two distinct though closely allied tribes. Such they evidently were to the seers of the hymns which mention in the dual the Turvaśā-Yadū and speak of Yadus Turvaś ca. This explanation also suits best the use of the plural of Turvaśa in two Rigvedic hymns.

In the Rigveda the chief exploit of Turvaśa was his participation in the war against Sudās, by whom he was defeated. Hopkins suggests that he may have been named Turvaśa because of his fleet (tura) escape from the battle. His escape

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1 i. 36, 18; 54, 6; 174, 9; vi. 20, 12; 45, 1; viii. 4, 7; 7, 18; 9, 14; 45, 27; x. 49, 8. In vii. 18, 6, Turvaśa is joined with Yaḵsu, apparently a contemptuous variant of Yadu (Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 15, 261). Cf. Trtsu.
2 v. 31, 8.
3 i. 108, 8.
4 viii. 4, 18; singular with Ānava in viii. 4, 1.
5 iv. 30, 17.
7 i. 4, 77; vi. 27, 7. Cf. viii. 4, 1.
8 vii. 19, 8.
10 Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 122, 124; Oldenberg, Buddha, 404; Ludwig, op. cit., 153; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 64; Sanskrit Literature, 153 et seq., etc.
11 Zimmer, 122, 124; Macdonell, 153, 154.
12 vii. 18, 6.
may have been assisted by Indra, for in some passages\textsuperscript{14} Indra’s aid to Turvaśa (and) Yadu is referred to; it is also significant that the Anu, and apparently the Druhyu, kings are mentioned as having been drowned in the defeat, but not the Turvaśa and Yadu kings, and that Turvaśa appears in the eighth book of the Rigveda as a worshipper of Indra with the Anu prince, the successor, presumably, of the one who was drowned.\textsuperscript{15} Griffith,\textsuperscript{16} however, proposes to refer these passages to a defeat by Turvaśa and Yadu of Arna and Citraratha on the Sarayu;\textsuperscript{17} but the evidence for this is quite inadequate.

Two passages of the Rigveda\textsuperscript{18} seem to refer to an attack by Turvaśa and Yadu on Divodāsa, the father of Sudās. It is reasonable to suppose that this was an attack of the two peoples on Divodāsa, for there is some improbability of the references being to the Turvaśa, who was concerned in the attack on Sudās, the son.

Zimmer\textsuperscript{19} considers that the Turvaśas were also called Vṛcīvants. This view is based on a hymn\textsuperscript{20} in which reference is made to the defeat of the Vṛcīvants on the Yavyāvatī and Hariyūpiyā in aid of Daivarāta, and of Turvaśa in aid of Śrījaya, the latter being elsewhere\textsuperscript{21} clearly the son of Devarāta. But as this evidence for the identification of the Turvaśas with the Vṛcīvants is not clear, it seems sufficient\textsuperscript{22} to assume that they were allies.

Later, in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,\textsuperscript{23} the Turvaśas appear as allies of the Pañcālas, Taurvaśa horses, thirty-three in number, and armed men, to the number of 6,000, being mentioned.\textsuperscript{24} But otherwise the name disappears: this lends

\textsuperscript{14} Rv. i. 174, 9; iv. 30, 17; v. 31, 8; viii. 4, 7.
\textsuperscript{15} Hopkins, 265.
\textsuperscript{16} Hymns of the Rigveda, i, 433, n.
\textsuperscript{17} The hymn is a late one, and the connexion of verse 18, where Arna and Citraratha are mentioned, is obscure. Cf. Hopkins, 259.
\textsuperscript{18} vi. 45, 1; ix. 61, 2 (where Divodāsa is mentioned); vii. 19, 8 (where he appears as Atithigvā).
\textsuperscript{20} vi. 27, 5-7.
\textsuperscript{21} iv. 15, 4.
\textsuperscript{22} Oldenberg, Buddhā, 404, n. Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, i, 105.
\textsuperscript{23} xliii. 5, 4, 16.
\textsuperscript{24} The sense is obscure. The St. Petersburg Dictionary takes it apparently as 6,033 horses (of armed warriors); Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 44, 400, prefers to understand it as 33 horses and 6,000 men; Oldenberg, loc. cit., takes it as 6,033 warriors. Harivāmin’s Commentary, cited by Eggeling, is obscure.
probability to Oldenberg’s conjecture that the Turvasās became merged in the Pañcāla people. Hopkins considers that in the Śatapatha passage the horses were merely named from the family of Turvasa; but this view is less likely, since it ignores the difficulty involved in the reference to the men.

It is impossible to be certain regarding the home of the Turvāsas at the time of their conflict with Sudās. They apparently crossed the Paruṣṇī, but from which side is disputed. The view of Pischel and Geldner, that they advanced from the west towards the east, where the Bharatas were (see Kuru), is the more probable.

Turvīti is mentioned several times in the Rigveda, both in association with Vayya and alone. In three passages reference is made to Indra aiding him over a flood. Ludwig has conjectured that he was king of the Turvasās and Yadus. But there is no sufficient evidence for this view, though presumably he was of the Turvāsa tribe.

Tulā, ‘scales,’ is mentioned in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā. The Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa also speaks of the balance in connexion with the weighing of a man’s good and evil deeds in the next and in this world. This differs very considerably from the later balance ordeal, in which a man was weighed twice, and was pronounced guilty or innocent according as, on the second occasion, he was more or less heavy than on the
first. It is not possible to read the later practice into the earlier.\(^4\)


**Tuṣa**, in the Atharvaveda\(^1\) and later,\(^2\) regularly denotes the ‘husk’ of grain, often used for a fire.\(^3\)

\(^1\) ix. 6, 16; xi. 1, 12. 29; 3, 5; xii. 3, 19.
\(^2\) Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 6, 5, 5; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 7, 9, etc.
\(^3\) *Tuṣa-pahva*, Taittirīya Saṃhitā, v. 2, 4, 2; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 2, 4; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, vii. 2, 1, 7.

**Tūnava** denotes in the later Saṃhitās\(^1\) and the Brāhmaṇas\(^2\) a musical instrument of wood, probably the ‘flute.’ A ‘flute-blower’ is enumerated among the victims of the Puruṣamedha, or ‘human sacrifice.’\(^3\)

\(^1\) Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vi. 1, 4, 1; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 6, 8; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxiii. 4; xxxiv. 5 (*Indische Studien*, 3, 477).
\(^2\) Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa, vi. 5, 13.
\(^3\) Vājasaṇeyi Saṃhitā, xxx. 19. 20; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, *loc. cit.*


**Tūtuji.** See *Tuji*.

**Tūpara,** ‘hornless,’ is a frequent description of animals intended for the sacrifice, especially of the goat, in the Atharvaveda and later.\(^1\)

\(^1\) Av. xi. 9, 22; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, ii. 1, 1, 4, etc.; Vājasaṇeyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. i. 15; xxix. 59, etc.; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 1, 3, 7, etc.

**Tūrghna** is mentioned in the Taittirīya Āraṇyaka (v. 1) as the northern part of Kurukṣetra.\(^1\) Its exact position, however, cannot be ascertained.


**Tūrṇāsa,** in the Rigveda,\(^1\) seems to denote a ‘mountain torrent.’

\(^1\) viii. 32, 4. Cf. Nirukta, v. 16.
Turvayāṇa is the name of a prince mentioned in the Rigveda. He appears by name in two passages, and is clearly alluded to in a third, as an enemy of Atithigva, Āyu, and Kutsa. With this accords the fact that the Pakthas were opposed in the battle of the ten kings to the Tṛtsus, and that Turvayāṇa is shown by another passage of the Rigveda to have been a prince of the Pakthas. He is there represented as having been a protégé of Indra, who aided him against Cyavāna and his guardians, the Maruts. It is not probable that he is identical with Suśravas.

1 i. 53, 10; vi. 18, 13.  
2 ii. 14, 7 (as a comparison of the two preceding passages shows); perhaps also viii. 53, 2. In i. 174, 3, Turvayāṇa seems also to be a proper name, though Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., here regards the word as an adjective.

Tūṣa is found in the later Samhitās and the Brāhmaṇas denoting the ‘fringe’ or ‘trimming’ of a garment.

1 Taittiriya Saṃhitā, i. 8, i, i; ii. 4, 9, i; vi. 1, i, 3; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxiii. i; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, i. 6, i, 8; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xvii. i, 8; etc.  
2 It has been conjectured, but it is not probable, that the steed Tarksya (as ‘belonging to Tṛṣṇi’) was his.

1 viii. 22, 7.  
2 vi. 46, 8. It is not certain that the two persons are identical (cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, i, 113, notes 3, 4), but it is probable.

Tṛṇa, ‘grass,’ is often mentioned in the Rigveda and later. It was used as straw to roof in a house or hut.

1 i. 161, 1; 162, 8. ii.; x. 102, 10, etc.  
2 Av. i. 30, 1; vi. 54, 1, etc.; Aitareyā Brāhmaṇa, iii. 22; viii. 24, etc.  
3 Av. iii. 12, 5; ix. 3, 4. 7.
Tr̥ṇa-jalāyukā, ‘caterpillar,’ is mentioned in the Brhad-āraṇyaka Upaniṣad (iv. 2, 4).

Tr̥ṇa-skanda occurs once in the Rigveda1 as the name of a prince, his subjects (viśaḥ) being referred to.2 The word may originally have meant ‘grasshopper.’3

1 i. 172, 3.
2 Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 159, takes viśaḥ as ‘cantons,’ but see Viś.
3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

Tr̥ṭiyaka, ‘the tertian (fever),’ is mentioned in the Atharvaveda (i. 25, 4; v. 22, 13; xix. 39, 10). See Takman.

Tr̥tsu occurs in the Rigveda, once in the singular1 and several times in the plural,2 as a proper name. The Tr̥tsus were clearly helpers of Sudās in the great battle against the ten kings, Śimyu, the Turvaśa, the Druhyu, Kavaśa, the Pūru, the Anu, Bheda, Śambara, the two Vaikarnas, and perhaps the Yadu, who led with them as allies3 the Matsyas, Pakthas, Bhalānas, Alinas, Viśāṇins, Śivas, Ajas, Śigrus, and perhaps Yakṣu.4 The defeat of the ten kings is celebrated in one

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1 vii. 18, 13.
2 vii. 18, 7. 15. 19; 33, 5. 6; 83, 4. 6. 8.
3 They were regarded as enemies of the kings by Roth, Zur Litteratur und Geschichte des Weda, 95, and by Zimmer, op. cit., 126. The latter, however, altered his view (see pp. 430, 431, which Hopkins, op. cit., 260, has overlooked), and there is no doubt that the later opinion is correct. Cf. also Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 173; Hopkins, 260, 261. Of these tribes the Pakthas, Alinas, Bhalānas, Viśāṇins, and Śivas, were probably settled in the north-west, to the west of the Indus, and around the Kabul River. The Anus, Pūrus, Turvaśas, Yadus, and Druhyus, were probably tribes of the Panjāb; the Ajas, Śigrus, and Yakṣu, tribes of the east, under Bheda; Śambara may also have been a native of the east; Śimyu and Kavaśa are doubtful; and the Vaikarnas probably belonged to the north-west.

4 This is uncertain; the text of the Rigveda, vii. 18, 6, has Yakṣu, and the same word recurs in verse 19. On the other hand, the word Yadu would naturally be expected in verse 6, as Turvaśa is mentioned. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 122, says that Yadu occurs in vii. 18, but on p. 126 he cites Yakṣu in both places, evidently by oversight. Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 15, 261, n., considers that Turvaśa, the Yakṣu, is a sarcastic expression, instead of Turvaśa, the Yadu, making Turvaśa, whom he regards as king of the Yadus, ridiculous as a member of an insignificant people, and alluding to him also as a sacrificial victim (as it were, yaṣṭavesya, ‘to be offered’; cf. puroṣa, ‘cake of sacrifice,’ in verse 6, as a pun on puroṣa, ‘leader’). Whether Yakṣu is used contemptuously for Yadu or not, it seems hard not to believe that the Yadus are referred to.
hymn of the Rigveda, and is evidently alluded to in two others. The great battle took place on the Paruṣṇī, but there was also a fight on the Yamunā with Bheda, the Ajas, Śigrus, and Yakṣus. As the Yamunā and the Paruṣṇī represent opposite ends of the territory of the Trtus (for we cannot with Hopkins safely identify the streams), it is difficult to see exactly how the ten kings could be confederated, but it should be noted that the references to the ten kings occur in the two later hymns, and not in the hymn describing the battle itself; besides, absolute numerical accuracy cannot be insisted upon.

It is difficult exactly to determine the character of the Trtus, especially in their relation to the Bharatas, who under Viśvāmitra’s guidance are represented as prospering and as advancing to the Vipās and Śutudri. Roth ingeniously brought this into connexion with the defeat of his enemies by Sudās, which is celebrated in the seventh book of the Rigveda—a book attributed to the Vasīṣṭha family—and thought that there was a reference in one verse to the defeat of the Bharatas by Sudās. But it seems certain that the verse is mistranslated, and that the Bharatas are really represented as victors with Sudās. Ludwig accordingly identifies the Trtus and the Bharatas. Oldenberg, after accepting this view at first, later expressed the opinion that the Trtus were the priests of the Bharata people, and therefore identical with the Vasīṣṭhas. This view is supported by the fact that in one passage the Trtus are clearly described as wearing their hair in the peculiar manner affected by the Vasīṣṭhas, and would in that passage thus seem to represent the Vasīṣṭhas.

5 vii. 18. 6 vii. 33 and 83. 7 India, Old and New, 52. No such conjecture was made by him in the Journal of the American Oriental Society, 15, 259 et seq. 8 Rv. iii. 33: 53, 9-12. 9 vii. 33. 6 See Roth, op. cit., 90, 121; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 12, 320; Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, 154, 155; von Schroeder, Indiens Literatur und Cultur, 35, 36; Hillebrandt, Vediche Mythologie, i, iii, tri; Bloomfield, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 16, 41.

But Geldner\(^\text{16}\) has suggested with great probability that Trtsu, who is once mentioned in the singular,\(^\text{17}\) means the Trtsu king—that is, Sudās.\(^\text{18}\) This explanation alone justifies the description\(^\text{19}\) of the Bharatas as *Trtsūnām viṣāh,*\(^\text{20}\) ‘subjects of the Trtsus,’ meaning the Trtsu Gotra or family, for the people could not be said to be subjects of a body of priests. The Vasiṣṭhas might be called Trtsus because of their close connexion with the royal house of that people. The reverse process is also quite possible, but is rendered improbable by the fact that the Pratrdāṇā are referred to as receiving Vasiṣṭha.\(^\text{21}\) This name of the Trtsu dynasty is probably older than its connexion with Vasiṣṭha in the time of Sudās, a conclusion supported by the name of Pratardana, who is mentioned later as a descendant of Divodāsa,\(^\text{22}\) an ancestor of Sudās. The Trtsu dynasty could therefore hardly have been referred to as Vasiṣṭhas. For the further history of the dynasty and its relation with Vasiṣṭha and Viśvāmitra, see Sudās.

If the Trtsus and their subjects, the Bharatas, were in the Rigvedic period at war with the tribes on either side of the territory between the Puruṣā and the Yamunā, it is clear\(^\text{23}\) that later on they coalesced with the Pūrus and probably others of those tribes to form the Kuru people. Already in the Rigveda\(^\text{24}\) the Trtsus are allied with the Sṛṇjayas, and in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa\(^\text{25}\) one Purohita serves both Kuru and Sṛṇjayas.

\(^{16}\) *Vedische Studien,* 2, 136; *Rgveda-Glossar,* 74.

\(^{17}\) *Rv.* vii. 18, 13.

\(^{18}\) Cf. *Rv.* vii. 18, 24. The parallelism of verses 13 and 24 is quite beyond question. Moreover, the praise of Sudās and of the Bharatas is found coupled in *Rv.* iii. 53, 9, 12, 24, and in *Rv.* vi. 16, 4, 5. Divodāsa is coupled with the Bharatas in such a way as to suggest irresistibly that Divodāsa was a Bharata.

\(^{19}\) *Rv.* vii. 33, 6.

\(^{20}\) That this is the sense of *viṣāh* is almost certain. See Geldner, *Vedische Studien,* loc. cit. Zimmer, *Altindisches Leben,* 159, and Hillebrandt, *Vedische Mythologie,* i, iii, render it ‘cantons,’ but see Viṣ.

\(^{21}\) *Rv.* vii. 33, 14. Geldner (op. cit., 138, 139) ingeniously suggests that Vasiṣṭha, being miraculously born, needed a Gotra, and so became a Trtsu.

\(^{22}\) Pratardana is mentioned in the Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa, xxvi. 5, as Divodāsī, ‘descendant of Divodāsa.’

\(^{23}\) Cf. Oldenberg, *Buddha,* 406 et seq., and see Kuru.

\(^{24}\) See *Rv.* vi. 47, where Divodāsa and Sārṇjayā are both praised. In vi. 27, 5, the Turvaśas are opposed to the Sṛṇjayas, and in vii. 18, 6; 19, 8, the Trtsus are opposed to the Turvaśas.

\(^{25}\) ii. 4, 4, 5.
Hillebrandt considers that the Trtsus cannot be identified with the Bharatas, but that Sudās and the Bharatas represent an invading body, which, however, became allied with the Trtsus and the Vasiṣṭha priests. He also thinks that the Rigveda reveals a time when Divodāśa, the grandfather or ancestor of Sudās, was living in Arachosia, on the Sarasvatī, and warring against the Pānis, whom he identifies with the Parnians. But this conjecture cannot be regarded as probable. In the Sarasvatī it is not necessary to see any other river than the later Sarasvatī, in the middle country, which flowed within the boundaries of the Trtsus: it is also significant that there are references to contests between Turvaśa Yadu and Atithigva or Divodāśa. Thus there is no reason to doubt that Divodāśa and the Bharatas were in the middle country, and not in Iran.

Trṣṭa is mentioned in the Maitrāyaṇī and Kāṭhaka Saṃhitās as being along with Varutri the priest of the Asuras.

Trṣṭāmā is mentioned as a stream in the Nadi-stuti, or 'praise of rivers,’ in the Rigveda. There seems to be no means of identifying it.

Tejana denotes in the Rigveda a rod or staff of reed used for measuring a field. In the Atharvaveda the sense of ‘bamboo’ is found twice, the bamboo being specified in the
second passage as ‘of the spring’ (vāsantika); more particularly it denotes the shaft of an arrow, a sense often found in later Vedic texts.

3 Av. vi. 49, 1 (Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 317); īṣu eka-tejānā, ‘an arrow with one shaft,’ vi. 57, 1.
4 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 25; iii. 26; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxv. 1 (with śrūga and sālya as the three parts of an arrow; in Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, iii. 8, 1, kulmala takes the place of tejana; cf. ibid., 2). The Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vi. 3, 1, has anīka, sālya, and tejana. Cf. Īṣu.

Tejanī denotes in the later Saṃhitās and Brāhmaṇas a bundle of reeds, and in some cases such a bundle twisted into a rope, for the two ends of the Tejanī are mentioned.

1 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 8, 3, 12; 2 Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxii. 13; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 11, as rendered by Śāyaṇa.

Tejas is regarded by Schrader as having in the Rigveda the specific sense of ‘axe.’ But in all the passages the sense of the ‘bolt’ of the god is adequate.

1 Prehistoric Antiquities, 221. 2 Cf. vi. 3, 5; 8, 5; 15, 19.

Taittirīya is the name of one of the divisions of the Black Yajurveda, which is, however, not found thus described until the Śûtra period. The school is represented by a Saṃhitā, a Brāhmaṇa, and an Āraṇyaka, besides an Upaniṣad, which forms a part of the Āraṇyaka.

1 Anupada Śûtra, ii. 6; vii. 7. 10, etc. See Weber Indian Literature, 87 etc. seq.; Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, 175 et seq.; von Schroeder, Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, i. x et seq.
2 Edited by Weber, Indische Studien, xi, xii, and in the Bibliotheca Indica, 1854-1899.
3 Edited in the Bibliotheca Indica, 1855-1870, and in the Anandārama Series, 1898.
4 Edited in the Bibliotheca Indica, 1864-1872, and in the Anandārama Series, 1898.
5 Edited by Roer, 1850, and in the Anandārama Series, 1889.

Taimāta is twice mentioned as a species of snake in the Atharvaveda.
Toda, 'sesamum oil,' is mentioned in the Atharvaveda, where reference is made to keeping such oil in jars. In the Sāṅkhāyana Āranyaka, reference is made to anointing with sesamum oil.

1 i. 7, 2 (all the manuscripts have taula, which must be wrong; the Paippalāda MS. has tūla: see Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 7).

2 xx. 136, 16.

3 xi. 4.


Toda appears once to denote a 'goad' in the Rigveda, but more often it is an agent noun meaning 'impeller.' Geldner considers that in one passage the sense is 'wielder of the rod of punishment' (later danda-dhara)—that is, 'prince.'
Taugrya, 'descendant of Tugra,' is the patronymic of Bhujyu in the Rigveda.\footnote{1}{i. 117, \textit{if}; ii. 118, 6; 182, 5, 6; viii. 5, 22; x. 39, 4.}

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Taudí in one passage of the Atharvaveda\footnote{1}{x. 4, 24. \textit{Cf. St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 578, leaves the word untranslated. Bloomfield, \textit{Hymns of the Atharvaveda}, 608, suggests that it is a fanciful name, 'the piercer,' since it is associated with \textit{ghṛtāci}, 'dripping with ghee,' which is clearly such a word.} appears to denote a plant.

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\textbf{Taurvaśa.} See Turvaśa.

\textbf{Taula,} the reading of the text of the Atharvaveda (i. 7, 2), and a form which is otherwise unknown and cannot be satisfactorily explained, must doubtless be meant for \textit{Taila}.

\textbf{Tauvilikā,} occurring once in a hymn of the Atharvaveda,\footnote{1}{vi. 16, 3.} is a word of quite uncertain sense. Roth\footnote{2}{St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.} thinks it means some kind of beast; Zimmer\footnote{3}{Altindisches Leben, 72.} and Whitney\footnote{4}{\textit{Translation of the Atharvaveda,} 292.} regard it as a sort of plant; Sāyaṇa explains it as a disease-causing demon, while Bloomfield\footnote{5}{\textit{Hymns of the Atharvaveda,} 30, 466.} leaves the sense doubtful.

\textbf{Trapu} denotes 'tin' in the Atharvaveda\footnote{1}{xi. 3, 8.} and later.\footnote{2}{\textit{Kāṭhaka Saṁhitā,} xviii. 10; Maitrāyaṇī Saṁhitā, ii. 11, 5; Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, xviii. 13 (all in enumerations of metals); Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 12, 6, 5; Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, iii. 17, 3; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iv. 17, 7. In Taittirīya Saṁhitā, iv. 7, 5, 1, the form is \textit{trapus}.} Its quality of being easily smelted, which Roth\footnote{3}{St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.} thinks is indicated by the name (as derived from the root \textit{trāp}, 'be ashamed'), is clearly alluded to in the Atharvaveda passage.

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Trasadasyu, son of Purukutsa, is mentioned in the Rigveda as king of the Pūrus. He was born to Purukutsa by his wife, Purukutsānī, at a time of great distress; this, according to Sāyaṇa, refers to Purukutsa’s captivity: possibly his death is really meant. Trasadasyu was also a descendant of Girikṣīt and Purukutsa was a descendant of Durgaha. The genealogy, therefore, appears to be: Durgaha, Girikṣīt, Purukutsa, Trasadasyu. Trasadasyu was the ancestor of Traksī, and, according to Ludwig, had a son Hirānin. Trasadasyu’s chronological position is determined by the fact that his father, Purukutsa, was a contemporary of Sudās, either as an opponent or as a friend. That Purukutsa was an enemy of Sudās is more probable, because the latter’s predecessor, Divodāsa, was apparently at enmity with the Pūrus, and in the battle of the ten kings Pūrus were ranged against Sudās and the Traksīs. Trasadasyu himself seems to have been an energetic king. His people, the Pūrus, were settled on the Sarasvatī, which was, no doubt, the stream in the middle country, that locality according well with the later union of the Pūrus with the Kuru people, who inhabited that country. This union is exemplified in the person of Kuruskraṇa, who is called Trāsadayava, ‘descendant of Trasadasyu,’ in the Rigveda, whose father was Mitrātithi, and whose son was Upamāsraṇa. The relation of Mitra-tithi to Traksī does not appear.

Another descendant of Trasadasyu was Trayrūṇa Trayvṛṣṇa, who is simply called Trasadasyu in a hymn of the Rigveda.

\[ \text{Puruṣāsvaḍ} \]

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1. Rv. v. 33, 8; vii. 19, 3; viii. 19, 36; iv. 42, 8 et seq.
2. Rv. iv. 38, 1 et seq.; vii. 19, 3. He is merely alluded to in i. 63, 7.
3. Rv. iv. 42, 6 et seq.
4. Rv. v. 33, 8.
5. Rv. vii. 22, 7. He was a Puru king. See vi. 46, 8.
6. Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 155, with reference to Rv. v. 33, 7 et seq.
7. So Ludwig, 3, 174, who alters Sudāsan to Sudāsē, in support of this view, in Rv. i. 63, 7. Cf. Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 204, 205, 219; Rigveda-Noten, 1, 63; Geldner, Vedische Studien, 1, 153; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 112, n. 1. Foy, Kuhn’s Zeitschrift, 34, 242, denies that the word in this passage is a proper name at all.
9. Rv. i. 130, 7; Ludwig, 3, 114; but see Hillebrandt, 1, 113, 114.
10. Rv. vii. 95, 96; Ludwig, 3, 175; Hillebrandt, 1, 115.
12. v. 27.
He was not only a ‘descendant of Trivrṣaṇ,’ but, according to the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, he was also Traiddhātva, ‘descendant of Tridhātu.’ The order of these two predecessors of Tryaruṇa cannot be determined in any way from Vedic literature. According to the later tradition, a prince named Tridhanvan preceded Tryaruṇa in the succession. Vedic tradition further fails to show in what precise relation Trasadasyu stood to Trivrṣan or Tryaruṇa.

Trasadasyu Paurukutsa appears in several Brāhmaṇas as a famous sacrificer of ancient times, together with ParaĀṭnāra, Vitahavya Śrāyasa, and Kakṣīvant Ausija, who in the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa are called ‘ancient great kings’ (pūrve mahārājāḥ).

Trāta Aśumata (‘descendant of Iṣumant’) is mentioned in the Vamśa Brāhmaṇa as a pupil of Nigaḍa Parnāvalki.

Trāyamānā denotes in the Atharvaveda a plant of an unknown species. The word is possibly only an epithet, retaining its participial sense of ‘preserving,’ though this interpretation is not favoured by the accent.

Trāsadasya, ‘descendant of Trasadasyu,’ is the patronymic in the Rigveda of Trkṣi and of Kurusravāna. The
word is also applied to Agni as 'protector of, or worshipped by, Trasadayu' and his line.  

3 viii. 19, 32; Macdonell, *Vedic Mythology*, p. 96.

**Tri-kakud** or **Tri-kakubh**, 'having three peaks,' occurs in the Atharvaveda and later as the name of a mountain in the Himālaya, the modern Trikota. From it came the salve (Ānjana), which tradition made out to be derived from Vṛtra's eye.

1 Av. iv. 9, 8; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 1, 3, 12.

2 Maitrāyaṇi Śaṁhitā, iii. 6, 3; Kāṭhaka Śaṁhitā, xxii. 1; Vājasaneyi Śaṁhitā, xv. 4; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xxii. 14.

3 Hence called Traikakuda, Av. iv. 9, 9, 10; xix. 44, 6, etc.

4 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, loc. cit.; Maitrāyaṇi and Kāṭhaka Saṁhitās, loc. cit.


**Tri-kadruka**, a term used in the plural only, appears to denote three vessels of some kind for holding Soma.

1 i. 32, 3; ii. 11, 17; 15, 1; 22, 1; x. 14, 16.

**Tri-kharva** is the name of a school of priests mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (ii. 8, 3) as practising a special rite with success.

**Trita** is clearly a god in Vedic literature, but Yāska in one passage of the Nirukta already explains the name as that of a Ṛṣi or seer.


2 iv. 6.

**Tri-pura**, 'a threefold stronghold,' is alluded to in the Brāhmaṇas as a secure protection. But as the passages are mythical no stress can be laid on them as evidence for the existence of forts with three concentric walls.

1 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, vi. 3, 3, 25; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 11; Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa in *Indische Studien*, 2, 310. See also *taittireya Saṁhitā*, vi. 2, 3; Kāṭhaka Saṁhitā, xxiv. 10, etc., and Lévi, *La Doctrine du Sacrifice*, 46, n 1.
Tri-plakṣa, masc. plur., ‘the three fig-trees,’ is the name of the place where the Drṣadvatī disappeared, near the Yamunā, according to the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.1

1 xxv. 13, 4. Cf. Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, x. 19, 9; Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xiii. 29, 33; Lāṭyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xxiv. 6, 39.

Triy-avi. See Tryavi.

Tri-yuga, neut., is an expression occurring in the Rigveda1 where it is said that the plants (ośadhi) were born ‘three ages’ before the gods (devabhyaś triyugam purā). The commentator on the Nirukta2 thinks that the ages here meant are the Yugas of the later Indian chronology, the sense of the passage being that the plants were born in the first Yuga. The author of the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa3 understands three seasons—spring, the rains, and autumn—to be meant in the verse, taking the two words triyugam purā separately as ‘formerly, in the three seasons.’ The vague sense ‘three ages’ is quite adequate: the use of ‘three’ in such cases is a favourite feature in folklore. Cf. Yuga.

1 x. 97, 1 = Taittirīya Saṃhitā, iv. 2, 6, 1, and Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā; xii. 75.
2 ix. 28.

Tri-vatsa, ‘three years old,’1 is an expression applied to cattle in the later Saṃhitās and the Brāhmaṇas.2

1 As regards the form and meaning of this compound, cf. Tryavi.
2 Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xiv. 10; xviii. 26; xxviii. 27; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xvi. 13; xviii. 9; xxi. 14, etc. Cf. Lāṭyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, viii. 3, 9 et seq., where one explanation of the word is tri-varṣa.

Tri-vṛt, ‘threelfold,’ is the designation of an amulet in the Atharvaveda (v. 28, 2. 4).

Tri-veda Kṛṣṇa-rāta Lauhitya (‘descendant of Lohita’) is the name of a teacher, a pupil of Śyāmājayanta Lauhitya, according to a Vamsa (list of teachers) in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 42, 1).
Tri-śaṅku is in Vedic literature the name of a sage mentioned as a teacher in the Taittiriya Upaniṣad.¹ There is no trace of the later legend by which he becomes the victim of Vasiṣṭha's curse and the object of Viśvāmitra's solicitude, being eventually fixed in the sky as a constellation.² The confusion of the chronology in the tales of Triśaṅku is a good example of the worthlessness of the supposed epic tradition.

¹ i. 10, 1. ² See Muir, Sanskrit Texts, i ², 362, 375 et seq.

Tri-śoka is the name of an ancient mythical seer who is mentioned both in the Rigveda¹ and the Atharvaveda.² A Śāman, or chant, named after him is referred to in the Paṅcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.³

¹ i. 112, 1²; viii. 45, 30. In x. 29, 2, the word seems merely to be an adjective, meaning 'with triple splendour.' ² iv. 29, 6. ³ viii. 1.


Trai-kakuda. See Trikakud.

Traitana appears in the Rigveda¹ as a Dāsa, an enemy of Dirghatamas, who seems to have engaged him in single combat and defeated him. The St. Petersburg Dictionary suggests that he is rather a supernatural being allied to Trita (cf. the Avestan Thrita and Thraetaona).²

¹ i. 158, 5. ² Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 68.

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 151; Oldenberg, Religion des Veda, 144.

Trai-dhātva ('descendant of Tridhātu,') is the patronymic of Tryaruṇa in the Paṅcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xiii. 3, 12).

Trai-pada, neut., occurs as a measure of distance, 'three-quarters' of a Yojana, in the Paṅcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, where half a Yojana is termed Gavyūti and a quarter Kroṣa.¹

¹ xvi. 13. Cf. Śaṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xiv. 41, 12.
Trai-vrṣṇa, 'descendant of Trivrṣan,' is the patronymic of Trayaraṇa in the Rigveda (v. 27, 1).

Try-aruṇa Trai-vrṣṇa Trasadasyu is the name of a prince whose generosity to a singer is celebrated in a hymn of the Rigveda. In the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa he appears as Tryaruna Traidhātva Aikṣvāka, and is the hero of the following story. He was out in his chariot with his Purohita, or domestic priest, Vṛṣa Jāna, and by excessive speed in driving killed a Brahmin boy. This sin was atoned for by the Purohita's using his Vṛṣa Sāman (chant). The Śātyāyana Brāhmaṇa, cited by Śāyana, elaborates the tale. As Vṛṣa had held the reins, king and priest accused each other of the murder. The Ikṣvākus being consulted threw the responsibility for the crime on Vṛṣa, who thereupon revived the boy by the Vārśa Sāman. In consequence of this unfairness of theirs—being Kṣatriyas they were partial to a Kṣatriya—Agni's glow ceased to burn in their houses. In response to their appeal to restore it, Vṛṣa came to them, saw the Piśācī (demoness), who, in the form of Trasadasyu's wife, had stolen the glow, and succeeded in restoring it to Agni. This version with some variations occurs also in the Brhaddevatā, which connects the story with a hymn of the Rigveda. Sieg's attempt to show that the hymn really refers to this tale is not at all successful.

1 v. 27, 1-3.
2 xiii. 3, 12. Cf. the Tāṇḍaka recension, cited in Sāyana, on Rv. v. 2, where Trasadasyu is given as the king's name.
4 v. 14 et seq., with Macdonell's notes.
5 See also the Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa version in Oertel, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 18, 20.
6 Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 64-76. Cf. Geldner, Festgruss an Roth, 192.
7 See Oldenberg, Sacred Books of the East, 46, 366 et seq.; Rgveda-Noten, 1, 312; Hillebrandt, Göttingische Gelehrte Anzeigen, 1903, 240 et seq.
It is clear that Trasadasyu must here mean ‘descendant of Trasadasyu,’ and not King Trasadasyu himself. The difference of the patronymics, Traivrṣṇa and Traidhātva, by which he is referred to can best be explained by assuming that there were two kings, Trivrṣan and Tridhātu (or possibly Tridhanvan), from whom Tryarūṇa was descended.8 The connexion with the Ikṣvākus is important (see Ikṣvāku).

8 See Sieg, op. cit., 74-76, and Trasadasyu.

Try-avi designates a calf eighteen months old1 in the Rigveda2 and later Saṃhitās.3

Try-āśir, ‘with three admixtures,’ is an epithet of Soma in the Rigveda.1 According to Sāyana this means mixed with curds (Dadhi), meal (Saktu), and milk (Payas). More accurately it would seem2 to denote the milk (gavāśir), the barley (yavāśir), and the curds (dadhyāśir), which were used to mix with the Soma.

Tryac, ‘skin,’ ‘hide,’ (a) denotes specially in the Rigveda1 the hide used in the process of extracting the Soma juice from the plant. The Soma was pounded with stones (adri) upon the skin laid on the pressing boards (adhisavane phalake),2 which, however, are not mentioned in the Rigveda. Or if a pestle and mortar were used, the skin was still placed underneath them to catch the drops of juice, not above, as Pischel3 thought.

1 v. 27, 5. Cf. perhaps vii. 2, 7 (traya Indrasya somāḥ suitāsah, ‘three kinds of Soma pressed for Indra’).

2 Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 209; Oldenberg, Sacred Books of the East, 46, 422.

3 Vedische Studien, 1, 110.
(b) Tvac also denotes the rind of the Soma plant that remains after the juice has been extracted.\(^4\)

(c) Metaphorically the term \(\text{kṛṣṇā tvac,} \) 'the black skins,' is applied to the aboriginal enemies of the invading Aryans.\(^5\)

\(^4\) Rv. ix. 86, 44; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 7, 13, 1; Hillebrandt, \(\text{op. cit.}, 52.\)

\(^5\) Rv. i. 130, 8, and probably ix. 41, 1, for which, however, \(\text{cf.} \) Hillebrandt, \(\text{op. cit.}, 51, \text{n. 2, and see Dāsa.}\)

Tvāṣṭṛ is employed once in the Atharvaveda\(^1\) to denote a 'carpenter,' with a deliberate play on the name of the god Tvāṣṭṛ. He is there mentioned as using an axe (svadhiti) to fashion (from wood) 'a well-made form' (\(\text{ṛūpam sukrtam}\)). See Taṣṭṛ.

\(^1\) xii. 3. 33. \(\text{Cf. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 688; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 651.}\)

Tvāṣṭra, 'descendant of Tvāṣṭṛ,' is the patronymic, in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad,\(^1\) of the mythical teacher Ābhūti.

\(^1\) ii. 6, 3 (\(\text{Kāṇva = ii. 5, 22 Mādhyamīna}\)); iv. 6, 3 (= iv. 5, 28).

Tsaru.—(a) This word seems to denote some sort of crawling animal in one passage of the Rigveda.\(^1\)

\(^1\) vii. 50, 1. \(\text{Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 99.}\)

(b) In the later literature the word means a 'handle,' as of a beaker (Camasa).\(^1\) In this sense also it seems to occur in the description of the plough (Lāṅgala) in the Atharvaveda\(^2\) and the later Saṃhitās.\(^3\)

\(^1\) Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xxv. 4. \(\text{Cf. Lāṭyāyana Srauta Sūtra, x. 12, 12, etc.}\)

\(^2\) iii. 17, 3, where the ordinary text has soma-satsaru (so the Pada text), and the Paippalāda recension has soma-pitsalam.

\(^3\) Taittiriya Saṃhitā, iv. 2, 5, 6, has \(\text{sumati-tsaru;} \) Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, ii. 7, 12; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xvi. 12; Vāja-saneyi Saṃhitā, xii. 71; Vasiṣṭha Dharma Sūtra, ii. 34, have soma-pitsaru, which Vasiṣṭha renders as 'provided with a handle for the drinker of Soma' (i.e., soma-pītsaru). Weber, \(\text{Indische Studien, 17, 255, suggests soma-sa-tsaru, 'with (sa-) strap (\(\text{umān}, \text{a conjectural word) and handle (tsaru).}\) Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 116, prefers to read throughout sumati-tsaru, 'with well-smoothed handle,' from the root seen in māt-\(\text{kr,} \) etc. \(\text{Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 236; Bühler, Sacred Books of the East, 14, 13.}\)
Tsārin denotes, in one passage of the Rigveda, a ‘hunter’ engaged in the chase of the takva (an unknown beast), according to Ludwig and Max Müller. But this explanation is quite conjectural.

1 i. 134, 5.

2 Sacred Books of the East, 32, 448.

D.

Dāṃśa (lit., ‘biter’), ‘gad-fly,’ is mentioned in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (vi. 9, 3; 10, 2).

Damśṭra, denoting a prominent tooth, ‘tusk,’ or ‘fang’ of an animal, occurs often from the Rigveda onwards.1

1 Rv. ii. 13, 4; x. 87, 3; Av. iv. 36, 2; x. 5, 43; xvi. 7, 3, etc.

Dakṣa Kātyāyani Ātreya (‘descendant of Atri’) is mentioned in the Vāṃsas (lists of teachers) of the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 41, 1; iv. 17, 1) as a pupil of Saṅkha Bābhravya.

Dakṣa Jayanta Lauhitya (‘descendant of Lohita’) is mentioned in a Vāṃsa (list of teachers) of the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 42, 1) as a pupil of Kṛṣṇarāta Lauhitya.

Dakṣa Pārvati (‘descendant of Parvata’) is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa1 as having performed a certain rite which his descendants, the Dāksāyaṇas, still maintained, thus enjoying royal dignity down to the time of the Brāhmaṇa itself. He appears in the Kauśītaki Brāhmaṇa2 also.

1 ii. 4, 4, 6.

2 iv. 4.


Dakṣinataskaparda is an epithet of the Vasiṣṭhas in the Rigveda (vii. 33, 1) referring to their mode of ‘wearing the hair in a braid on the right side.’ See Kaparda.


Dakṣiṇā appears repeatedly in the Rigveda and later as the designation of the gift presented to priests at the sacrifice, apparently because a cow—a prolific (dakṣiṇā) one—was the usual 'fee' on such an occasion. The later Dāṇa-stutis, or 'Praises of Gifts,' in the Rigveda immensely exaggerate these donations, and the exaggeration grows in the Brāhmaṇas. It is important to notice that these enumerations of gifts in the main include nothing but articles of personal property, such as kine, horses, buffaloes, or camels (uṣṭra), ornaments, and so forth, but not land. Reference is, however, made in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa to land as a Dakṣiṇā, but with disapproval, probably because the land came to be regarded as inalienable without the consent of the clansmen.

1 A whole hymn, Rv. x. 107, is devoted to its praise. Cf. i. 168; 7; vi. 27; 8; viii. 24; 29; 39; 5; x. 62; 1, etc.
2 Av. iv. 11, 4; v. 7, 11; xi. 7, 9; 8, 22; xiii. 1, 52; xviii. 4, 8, etc.; Taittiriya Saṁhitā, i. 7, 3; 1; 8, 11; Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, iv. 19; 23; xix. 30; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 3; 3 et seq.; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 9, 3; 1 et seq. The verses (gāthā nārāṇam, either as a single expression or as two separate terms) used to win these Dakṣiṇās were notoriously false. See Kāthaka Saṁhitā, xiv. 5; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, 2, 6, 7; Nirukta, i. 7; xi. 2.
3 The transition of meaning is similar in the use of the English word 'fee': 'cattle,' 'money,' 'payment for service' (see Murray's English Dictionary, s.v. 'fee'). Cf. also Go-dāna, n. 4.
4 Cf. the rule that when nothing is specified a cow is the Dakṣiṇā, Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 2, 13; Lāṭyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, viii. 1, 2.
5 So, e.g., Rv. i. 126, 1-4; v. 30, 12-15; viii. 1, 32, 33; 3, 21 et seq.; 4, 19-21; 5, 37-39; 6, 46-48; 55; 56; vii. 18, 21-24, and the full list in Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 273-277. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 10, 49 et seq. Clothes (vāsas) and gold are mentioned as a Dakṣiṇā in Av. ix. 5, 14. The four Dakṣiṇās, according to the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 3, 4, 7, are gold, a cow, clothes, and a horse. This is practically exhaustive if the trappings of the horse and ornaments are included.
6 xiii. 7, 1, 13, with which compare xiii. 6, 2, 18, where the Brāhmaṇin's land is excluded; and see xiii. 7, 1, 15, where the gift of land is disapproved.

Dakṣiṇā-patha (lit., 'the road to the south'), 'the south country,' is found, probably as a designation of the Deccan, as early as the Baudhāyana Dharma Sūtra, coupled with

Surāṣṭra. A similar expression is dakṣīṇā padā, 'with southward foot,' in the Rigveda, referring to the place where the exile (parā-vrj) goes on being expelled. This no doubt simply means 'the south' beyond the limits of the recognized Āryan world, which even as late as the Kauṣītaki Upaniṣad appears as bounded by the Vindhya on the south.

2 x. 61, 8. 3 ii. 13. Davids, Buddhist India, 30; Keith. Śāṅkhāyana Aranyaka, 28, n. I; Aitareya Aranyaka, 200.

Dakṣīṇā-praṣṭi denotes 'the side horse on the right.' It appears from two passages of the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa that there were at times four horses yoked to the chariot, the right and the left horse (dakṣīṇā-yugya, savyā-yugya) in the middle, flanked by one on each side, the two latter of course not being fastened to the yoke at all, but presumably by traces alongside of the yoke horses. See Ratha.

1 v. i, 4, 9; ix. 4, 2, 11 (this passage appears to speak of three horses only, but cf. v. 4, 3, 17). Cf. also Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xvi. 13, 12.

Dakṣīṇāyana. See Śūrya.

Dakṣīṇā-yugya, 'the yoke horse on the right,' is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (v. i, 4, 6; 4, 3, 8; ix. 4, 2, 11). See Ratha.

Daṇḍa, 'staff.' (a) This word is often mentioned in the ordinary sense; for example, when used for driving cattle (go-ajanasah), or as a weapon. A staff was given to a man on consecration for driving away demons, according to the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa. The staff also played a part in the initiation (upanayana) of a youth on attaining manhood. In a modified sense the word is used to denote the handle of a ladle or similar implement.

1 Rv. vii. 33, 6. 2 Av. v. 5, 4. Cf. Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 35; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 5, 4, 6, etc. 3 iii. 2, i, 32. 4 Āśvalāyana Gṛhya Sūtra, i. 19; 22; Sāṅkhāyana Gṛhya Sūtra, ii. 1, 6, 11, etc. 5 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 5; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, vii. 4, i, 36. Of a musical instrument, Śāṅkhāyana Aranyaka, viii. 9; Śrauta Sūtra, xvii. 3, i et seq.
(b) The ‘staff’ as the symbol of temporal power, implying punishment, is applied by the king (rāja-presīto dandah). ¹ The king, in modern phraseology, was the source of criminal law; and he clearly retained this branch of law in his own hands even in later times. ² The punishment of the non-guilty (a-dandya) is given as one of the characteristics of the non-Brahminical Vratyas in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa. ³ See also Dharma.

Danda Aupara (‘descendant of Upara’) is mentioned in the Taittiriya Saṃhitā (vi. 2, 9, 4) and the Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā (iii. 8, 7) as having performed a certain rite.

Dandana occurs in the Atharvaveda ¹ among other names of ‘reed’ or ‘cane.’

Datta Tāpasa was Hotṛ priest at the snake festival described in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.

Dadhi, ‘sour milk,’ is repeatedly mentioned in the Rigveda ¹ and later. ² The Satapatha Brāhmaṇa ³ mentions in order Gṛṇta (‘clarified butter’), Dadhi, Mastu, which Eggeling ⁴ renders ‘whey,’ and Āmikṣā, ‘curds.’ Dadhi often has the meaning of ‘curds’ also. It was used for mixing with Soma. ⁵

Dadhyaṇe Ātharvaṇa is a purely mythical sage. In the Rigveda ¹ he is clearly a divinity of some kind, but in the later

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¹ Pāraskara Gṛhya Sūtra, iii. 15. Cf. Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 4, 4, 7, where the king, being himself exempt from punishment (a-dandya), inflicts judicial punishment (danda-vadha).
² Foy, Die königliche Gewalt, 21 et seq.
³ xvii. r, 9; Weber, Indische Studien, r, 33.
⁴ xvii. 1, 9; Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 35.
⁵ Sacred Books of the East, 12, 218.
⁶ Dadhyāśir, ‘mixed with sour milk,’ is an epithet of Soma in Rv. i. 5, 5; 137, 2; v. 51, 7; vii. 32, 4. Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedic Mythology, 1, 219 et seq. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 227.
Saṃhitās⁵ and the Brāhmaṇas⁶ he is metamorphosed into a teacher. In the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa⁷ he is by oversight called an Āṅgirasa.

³ Taittirīya Saṃhitā, v. 1, 4, 4; 6, 6, 3; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xix. 4.
⁴ Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 1, 5, 18; vi. 4, 2, 3; xiv. 1, 1, 18. 20. 25; 4, 13; Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 5, 22; iv. 5, 28, etc.

Dadhy-āśir. See Dadhi and Soma.

Dant, Danta, 'tooth,' is frequently mentioned from the Rigveda onwards.¹ Cleansing (dhāv) the teeth was an ordinary act, especially in preparation for a sacrifice, and accompanied bathing, shaving of the hair and beard (keśa-smaśru), and the cutting of the nails.² A hymn of the Atharvaveda³ celebrates the appearance of the first two teeth of a child, though its exact interpretation is doubtful.⁴ In the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa⁵ there is a reference to a child's first teeth falling out. The word seems in the Rigveda⁶ once to denote an elephant's tusk. Whether dentistry was practised is doubtful. The occurrence in the Aitareya Āraṇyaka⁷ of Hirṇya-dant, 'gold-toothed,' as the name of a man, is perhaps significant, especially as it is certain that the stopping of teeth with gold was known at Rome as early as the legislation of the Twelve Tables.⁸

¹ Rv. vii. 55, 2; x. 68, 6; Av. v. 23, 3; 29, 4; vi. 56, 3, etc. The more usual form is Danta, Rv. iv. 6, 8; vi. 75, 11; Av. iv. 3, 6, etc.
² Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 6, 2 (not exactly paralleled in Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vi. 1, 1, 2 et seq.).
³ vi. 140.
⁴ Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 321; Weber, Indische Studien, 5, 224; Grill, Hundert Lieder, 176; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 540, 541; Atharva-
veda, 71; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 386.
⁵ vii. 14; Saṅkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, xv. 18.
⁶ iv. 6, 8; Pischel, Védische Studien, 1, 99; Oldenberg, Sacred Books of the East, 46, 341, 342.
⁷ ii. 1, 5.
⁸ Keith, Aitareya Āraṇyaka, 206. See Wordsworth, Fragments and Specimens of Early Latin, 537.

Dabhīti appears several times in the Rigveda as a hero or sage. Indra overcomes on his behalf Cumuri and Dhuni;¹

¹ x. 113, 9; ii. 15, 9; vii. 19, 4.

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he pressed Soma for Indra,2 who rewarded him.3 For him 30,000 Dāsas were sent to sleep,4 and for him the Dasyus were bound without cords.5 Dabhiti also appears, with Turviti, as a protégé of the Aśvins.6 There seems no reason to deny that he was a real person.7

Dama, 'house,' is a word that occurs several times in the Rigveda.1 It denotes, according to Roth,2 the place in which a man wields uncontrolled power (from the root dam, 'control').

Dam-pati denotes 'the master of the house'1 in the Rigveda,2 but is more often used in the dual to designate 'the master and the mistress,'3 an expression that may legitimately be deemed to show the high status of women at the time of the Rigveda. See Strī.

Darbha is the name of a grass in the Rigveda1 and later.2 In the Atharvaveda it is used for the calming of anger (manyu-śamana),3 and as an amulet for protection against the scattering of one's hair or the striking of one's breast.4 It is also said to be 'rich in roots' (bhūri-mūla),5 to possess a thousand leaves (sahasra-parna) and a hundred stalks (śata-kāṇḍa).6

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1 i. 18; 61, 9; 175, 5; 143, 4; ii. 1, 2, etc.; Vājasaneyi Śamhitā, viii. 24.
2 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. But this seems very doubtful in view of the apparent connexion of dēmos and dēmos, 'build,' in Greek.
3 i. 127, 8; ii. 39, 2; v. 22, 4; viii. 69, 16; 84, 7.
4 Av. vi. 43, 2; viii. 7, 20; x. 4, 13; xi. 6, 15; xix. 28, 1, etc.; Taittirīya Śamhitā, i. 5, 1, 4, etc.
5 Av. vi. 43.

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Darvi, or Darvī, properly denotes a 'ladle,' in which sense it is found in the Rigveda\(^1\) and later.\(^2\) But the word also means a serpent's 'hood' in the Atharvaveda,\(^3\) though Zimmer regards it as the name of a serpent.

\(^1\) v. 6, 9; x. 105, 10.
\(^2\) Av. iii. 10, 7; iv. 14, 7; ix. 6, 17, etc.
\(^3\) x. 1, 13. See Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 577; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 153.

Darvidā, the 'woodpecker,' is mentioned as a victim at the Ásvamedha, or horse sacrifice, in the Yajurveda.\(^4\) Cf. Dārvā-ghāta.

\(^4\) Altindisches Leben, 95, where he takes Karikrata also as the name of a snake.

Darśa ('appearance') denotes the new moon day,\(^1\) usually in opposition to the day of full moon (pūrṇa-māsa).\(^2\) Most frequently the word occurs in the compound\(^3\) darśa-pūrna-māsa, 'new and full moon,' the days of special ritual importance.\(^4\) The order of the first two words here is worthy of note, for it distinctly suggests, though it does not conclusively prove, that the month was reckoned from new moon to new moon, not from full moon to full moon. See Māsa.

\(^1\) Av. vii. 81, 3, 4; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, i. 2, 1, 14; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 2, 2, 1.
\(^2\) Taittiriya Saṃhitā, iii. 4, 4, 1, etc.
\(^3\) Ibid., i. 6, 7, 1; 9, 3; ii. 5, 6, 1; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 2, 2, 1; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 1; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, 5, 11, etc.
\(^4\) Hillebrandt, Das altindische Neu- und Vollmondsoffer, Jena, 1880; Ritual-litteratur, iii-114; Oldenberg, Religion des Veda, 439.

Daśa-gva appears in one hymn of the Rigveda\(^1\) as the name of a person who was assisted by Indra. The other references in that work,\(^2\) however, clearly show the mythical character of the Daśagvas, and of any individual among them.

\(^1\) viii. 12, 2.
\(^2\) They are mentioned with the Navagvas in i. 62, 4; iii. 39, 5; iv. 51, 4; v. 29, 12; x. 62, 6, and alone in ii. 34.
\(^12\) See Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 144 (C).
Dāṣatayī in the Nirukta frequently denotes the text of the Rigveda as divided into ten Maṇḍalas.

1 VII. 8. 20; XI. 16; XII. 40.

Dāṣa-dyu appears twice in the Rigveda as the name of a hero, but nothing can be made out regarding him or his relation to Vetasu, who is mentioned in one passage along with him.

1 i. 33, 14; VI. 26, 4. Cf. Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 55, 328.

Dāsan, 'ten,' forms the basis of the numerical system of the Vedic Indians, as it does of the Āryan people generally. But it is characteristic of India that there should be found at a very early period long series of names for very high numerals, whereas the Āryan knowledge did not go beyond 1,000. In the Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā the list is 1; 10; 100; 1,000; 10,000 (ayuta); 100,000 (niyuta); 1,000,000 (prayuta); 10,000,000 (arbuda); 100,000,000 (nyarbuda); 1,000,000,000 (samudra); 10,000,000,000 (madhya); 100,000,000,000 (anta); 1,000,000,000,000 (parārdha). In the Kāṭhaka Saṁhitā the list is the same, but niyuta and prayuta exchange places, and after nyarbuda a new figure (badva) intervenes, thus increasing samudra to 10,000,000,000, and so on. The Taṭṭiriya Saṁhitā has in two places exactly the same list as the Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā. The Maitrāyaṇi Saṁhitā has the list ayuta, prayuta, then ayuta again, arbuda, nyarbuda, samudra, madhya, anta, parārdha. The Paṇcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa has the Vājasaneyi list up to nyarbuda inclusive, then follow nikharvaka, badva, aksīta, and apparently go = 1,000,000,000,000. The Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa list

1 Thibaut, Astronomie, Astrologie und Mathematik, 70.
2 xvii. 2 et seq. Cf. xxii. 34; Sātpatha Brāhmaṇa, ix. 1, 2, 16.
3 xxxix. 6. In xvii. 10 the number badva disappears, and the list corresponds with that of the Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, except for the fact that niyuta and prayuta change places.

4 iv. 4, 11, 4; vii. 2, 20, 1.
5 ii. 8, 14.
6 xvii. 14, 2.
7 i. 10, 28, 29. Cf. Aitareya Āranyaka, v. 3, 2; Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 30, n. 2; Keith, Aitareya Āranyaka, 293, 294.
replaces nikharvaka by nikharva, badva by padma, and ends with aksitir vyomantaḥ. The Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra⁸ continues the series after nyarbuda with nikharvāda, samudra, salila, antya, ananta (= 10 billions).

But beyond ayluta⁹ none of these numbers has any vitality. Badva, indeed, occurs in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa,¹⁰ but it cannot there have any precise numerical sense;¹¹ and later on the names of these high numerals are very much confused.

An arithmetical progression of some interest is found in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa,¹² where occurs a list of sacrificial gifts in which each successive figure doubles the amount of the preceding one. It begins with dvādaśa-mānaṁ hiranyam, ‘gold to the value of 12’ (the unit being uncertain, but probably the Kṛṣṇala¹³), followed by ‘to the value of 24, 48, 96, 192, 384, 768, 1,536, 3,072;’ then dve aṣṭāviṃśati-sata-māne, which must mean 2 x 128 x 24 (the last unit being not a single māna, but a number of 24 mānas) = 6,144, then 12,288, 24,576, 49,152, 98,304, 196,608, 393,216. With these large numbers may be compared the minute theoretical subdivision of time found in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,¹⁴ where a day is divided into 15 muhūrtas—one muhūrta = 15 kṣipras, 1 kṣipra = 15 etarhis, 1 etarhi = 15 idānis, 1 idāni = 15 prānas. The Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra¹⁵ has a decimal division of the day into 15 muhūrtas—one muhūrta = 10 nimeśas, 1 nimesa = 10 dhvaniḥ.

Few fractions are mentioned in Vedic literature. Ardha, pāda, sapha, and kalā denote 1/2, 1/3, 1/10 respectively, but only

⁸ xv. ii. 7.
⁹ Cf. Rv. iii. 6, 15; viii. 1, 5; 2, 41; 21, 18; 34, 15; 46, 22; Av. viii. 2, 21; 8, 7; x. 5, 24; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xix. 13, 6; xxii. 18, 3, etc. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 348, considers that it has not any definite sense in the Rigveda; this cannot be either proved or disproved. The Rv. has the phrase śatā sahasrāṇi several times (iv. 32, 18; viii. 32, 18, etc.) = 100,000; and ayla may easily have been already specialized, though it may also have retained a vague sense.
¹⁰ vii. 21, 23.
¹¹ Weber, Indische Streifen, i, 96.
¹² xvii. 3. Cf. Lāṭyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, viii. 10, 1 et seq.; Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xxii. 9, 1-6.
¹³ Cf. Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xxii. 9, 1; Weber, op. cit., 102, 103.
¹⁴ xii. 3, 2, 1 et seq. Cf. also Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 10, 1, 1, where a series of names of the divisions of the muhūrta is given, apparently as alternatives, not as successive stages (idāni, tadāniḥ, etarhi, kṣipram, aṭiśravam, aśvat (asv), nimeśaḥ, phañah, dravam, atidravam, tvaran, tvarāmāṇyaḥ, aśubh, ātiṣubh, javaṭ). See Weber, op. cit., 92-94.
¹⁵ xiv. 75 et seq. Cf. Śāṅkhāyana Aranyaka, vii. 20.
the first two are common. *Tṛṭīya* denotes the third part.\(^{16}\) In the Rigveda\(^{17}\) Indra and Viṣṇu are said to have divided 1,000 by 3, though how they did so is uncertain. *Tri-pād* denotes ‘three-fourths.’\(^{18}\)

There is no clear evidence that the Indians of the Vedic period had any knowledge of numerical figures, though it is perfectly possible.\(^{19}\)

\(^{16}\) Taittiriya Śaṁhitā, ii. 5, 1, 4; vi. 2, 6, 2; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 6, 1; 7, 1, 2; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 8, 4, 4, etc.

\(^{17}\) vi. 69, 8 = Av. vii. 44, 1 = Taittiriya Śaṁhitā, iii. 2, 11, 2; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vi. 15; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 3, 1, 13.

\(^{18}\) Rv. x. 90, 4.

\(^{19}\) Ḥaṭṭha-karaṇā means in Rv. x. 62, 7, ‘having the figure 8 marked on the ears’ of cattle, then the mention of numerical signs would be certain. Cf. Zimmer, *Altindisches Leben*, 234, 235, 348. But this is doubtful. See Macdonell, *Vedic Grammar*, p. 309, n. 10.


**Dasā-puruṣam-rājya**, occurring in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa,\(^{1}\) doubtless\(^{2}\) means ‘sovereignty inherited through ten ancestors,’ a striking case of hereditary rule. Weber\(^{3}\) once rendered the word as the ‘kingdom\(^{4}\) of Dasapur,’ comparing the Dasapura of Kalidāsa’s *Meghadūta*\(^{5}\) and the Dasārṇa of the ‘middle country.’

\(^{1}\) xii. 9, 3, 1, 3.


\(^{3}\) *Indische Studien*, i, 209. But see 10, 75, n. 1.

\(^{4}\) This would be sāmrājya, which is always spelt with m, not r; cf. Macdonell, *Vedic Grammar*, 75, 3.

\(^{5}\) i. 48.

**Dasā-māṣya**, ‘ten months old,’ describes in the Rigveda\(^{1}\) and later\(^{2}\) the embryo immediately before birth. See Māṣa.

\(^{1}\) v. 78, 7, 8.

\(^{2}\) Av. i. 11, 6; iii. 23, 2. There are several references in Vedic literature.


**Daśāmi** denotes in the Atharvaveda\(^{1}\) and the Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa\(^{2}\) the period of life between 90 and 100 years.
LONGEVITY—A TREE—NAMES—FRINGE

which the Rigveda calls the dasama yuga, 'the tenth stage of life.' Longevity seems not to have been rare among the Vedic Indians, for the desire to live a ‘hundred autumns’ (saradah satam) is constantly expressed. Dirghatamas is said to have lived 100 years, and Mahidasa Aitareya is credited with 130 years, a statement with which corresponds the wish expressed in the Jataka for a life of 120 years. Probably the number was always rather imaginary than real, but the comparative brevity of modern life in India may be accounted for by the cumulative effect of fever, which is hardly known to the Rigveda. See Takman.

Daśa-vrksa is the name of a tree, according to Roth in the Atharvaveda. But Whitney treats the word as a mere adjective meaning ‘of ten trees.’

Daśa-vraka is the name of a protégé of the Āśvins in the Rigveda (viii. 8, 20; 49, 3; 50, 9).

Daśa-śipra is the name of a sacrificer mentioned in the Rigveda.

Daśā denotes the ‘fringe’ or ‘border’ of a garment (vāsah) in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa. The word also occurs in the compound daśa-pavitra, which means ‘a filtering cloth with a fringe.’

Daśā ]
Daśoni appears in one passage of the Rigveda apparently as a favourite of Indra and as opposed to the Panis, who fell in hundreds for his benefit. The view of Ludwig that he is here the priest of the Panis is very improbable. Elsewhere his name is simply mentioned. See also Daśonya.

1 vi. 20, 4. 8.
2 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 156; 5, 107.
3 x. 96, 12, where, however, the word may be merely an epithet of Soma.

Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 92, n. 1; Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 55, 328.

Daśonya is the name of a sacrificer mentioned in the Rigveda along with Daśaśipra and others. Whether he is identical with Daśoni cannot be decided.

1 viii. 52, 2. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 163.

Daśonasi is the name of a kind of snake in the Atharvaveda. The reading of the Paippalāda recension is Naśonaśi.


Dasyave vṛka, ‘wolf to the Dasyu,’ is the name of a man mentioned four times in the Rigveda. In one hymn he is called a Rṣi, but in two others he is clearly a prince victorious over the Dasyus, and a generous patron of the singer. It is hardly necessary to assume different persons, for the term Rṣi is not altogether inconsistent with royalty. He was son of Pūtakratu and Pūtakratā, his wife.

1 viii. 51, 2; 55, 1; 56, 1. 2.
2 viii. 51.
3 viii. 55. 56.
4 Especially as the name occurs only in the small collection of Kāṇya hymns forming the Vālakhilya group in the eighth Maṇḍala.

5 viii. 56, 2, Pautakrata. Cf. viii. 68, 17.
6 viii. 56, 4. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 139, 164; 5, 552.

Dasyave saha is, according to Roth, the name of a man or a clan in the Rigveda. But he admits that the words may

1 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
2 i. 36, 18.
be an epithet of Agni. This is the interpretation given to them by Oldenberg.\(^3\)

\[^3\] Sacred Books of the East, 46, 33.

**Dasyu**, a word of somewhat doubtful origin, is in many passages of the Rigveda\(^1\) clearly applied to superhuman enemies. On the other hand, there are several passages in which human foes, probably the aborigines, are thus designated. This may be regarded as certain in those passages where the Dasyu is opposed to the Aryan, who defeats him with the aid of the gods.\(^2\) The great difference between the Dasyus and the Aryans was their religion: the former are styled ‘not sacrificing,’ ‘devoid of rites,’ ‘addicted to strange vows,’ ‘god-hating,’ and so forth.\(^3\) As compared with the Dāsa, they are less distinctively a people: no clans (viśah) of the Dasyus are mentioned, and while Indra’s dasyu-hatyā, ‘slaughter of the Dasyus,’ is often spoken of, there is no corresponding use of dāsa-hatyā. That the Dasyus were real people is, however, shown by the epithet anās applied to them in one passage of the Rigveda.\(^5\) The sense of this word is not absolutely certain: the Pada text and Śāyana both take it to mean ‘without face’ (an-ās),\(^6\) but the other rendering, ‘noseless’ (a-nās), is quite possible,\(^7\)

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1. i. 34, 7; 100, 18; ii. 13, 9, etc. See Macdonell, *Vedic Mythology*, pp. 157, 158.
2. *Rv.* i. 51, 8; 103, 3; 117, 21; ii. 11, 18; 19; iii. 34, 9; vi. 18, 3; vii. 5, 6; x. 49, 3. Probably also in v. 70, 3; x. 83, 6, people are meant.
3. The Dasyu is called a-karman, ‘rileless,’ x. 22, 8; a-devayu, ‘indifferent to the gods,’ viii. 70, 11; a-brahman, ‘without devotion,’ iv. 16, 9; a-yajvan, ‘not sacrificing,’ vii. 70, 11; a-yajyu, id., vii. 6, 3; a-vrata, ‘lawless,’ i. 51, 8; 175, 3; vi. 14, 3; ix. 41, 2; anyavrata, ‘following strange ordinances,’ vii. 70, 11; deva-piyu, ‘reviling the gods,’ Av. xii. i, 37. It is impossible in all cases to be certain that people are meant.
4. *Rv.* i. 51, 5, 6; 103, 4; x. 95, 7; 99, 7; 105, 11. Cf. dasyu-van, ‘Dasyu-slaying,’ i. 100, 12; vi. 45, 24; viii. 76; 77, 3; x. 47, 4 (all of Indra); vi. 16, 15; viii. 39, 8 (of Agni), etc.
6. This sense allows of two interpretations: ‘misfeatured,’ which seems that of Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., and Grassmann, *Wörterbuch*; or ‘speechless’ (that is, unable to speak the language of the Aryans), which is that of Bollensen, *Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft*, 41, 496.
7. This view is supported by Megasthenes’ report as to natives who were ἀγοροι: see Strabo, p. 711; Pliny, *Nat. Hist.*, vii. 2, 18, cited by Zimmer, *Altindisches Leben*, 430. See also Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 2, 109; 5, 95; Hillebrandt, *Vedische Mythologie*, 3, 277; Knauser, Kuhn’s *Zeitschrift*, 29, 52; Wackernagel, *Altindische Grammatik*, 2, 293 (accent).
and would accord well with the flat-nosed aborigines of the Dravidian type, whose language still persists among the Brahuis, who are found in the north-west. This interpretation would receive some support from Vṛtra's being called 'broken-nosed' if this were a correct explanation of the obscure word ṛujānās.9

The other epithet of the Dasyus is mṛdhra-vāc, which occurs with anās,10 and which has been rendered11 'of stammering, or unintelligible speech.' This version is by no means certain, and since the epithet is elsewhere12 applied to Āryans, its correct meaning is more probably 'of hostile speech.'

Dasyu corresponds with the Iranian daṅhu, dasyu, which denotes a 'province.' Zimmer13 thinks that the original meaning was 'enemy,' whence the Iranians developed the sense of 'hostile country,' 'conquered country,' 'province,' while the Indians, retaining the signification of 'enemy,' extended it to include demon foes. Roth14 considers that the meaning of human enemy is a transfer from the strife of gods

8 The suggestion in the Indian Empire, 1, 390, that the modern Brahui type is the true Dravidian, while the modern Dravidian is the result of fusion with Muṇḍā-speaking tribes, would render this theory improbable. But it seems more probable that the Brahuis in speech preserve the tradition of Dravidian settlements in North India.

9 See Bloomfield, American Journal of Philology, 17, 415 (who takes rujānāh of Rv. i. 32, 8, as = rujāna-nāh); Oldenberg, Ṛgveda-Noten, i, 31, 32 (who suggests as possible the analysis of the word as rujā-anāh). But cf. Lanman, Sanskrit Reader, 361, who suggests the emendation rujānaḥ as nominative singular of the simple participle 'broken'; Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, p. 59, n. 1.

10 Rv. v. 29, 10.

11 Cf. Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 22, 393 et seq.

12 The expression is used of the Āryan Pūrṣ in vii. 18, 13; of the Paṇis in vii. 6, 3; and of hostile persons in i. 174, 2; v. 32, 8; x. 23. 5. Roth, Erläuterungen zum Nirukta, 97, thinks the sense is 'of insulting speech,' and Zimmer, op. cit., 114, 115, strongly supports this view. But Hillebrandt, op. cit., 1, 89, 90, 114, prefers to see in it 'speaking an enemy's speech,' and thinks that the Pūrṣ were dialectically different from the Bharatas—a view which can be supported from the Śātapaṭha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 2, 1, 23. 24, where the Asuras say he 'lavo (=he'rayo, 'ho, enemies,' in Sanskrit). See Muir, op. cit., 22, 114; Davidson, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 37, 23 (the Mahābhāṣya version); Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 26, 31, n. 3. The word could thus apply to the Dasyus also, as the strange speech of the enemy could be either Āryan or aboriginal.


14 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
and demons. Lassen attempted to connect the contrast 

dagyu : dasyu with that of daeva : deva, and to see in it a result of 

the religious differences which, according to Haug’s theory, 

had separated the Iranians and the Indians. The word may 

have originally meant 'ravaged land' as a result of invasion; 

hence 'enemies' country,' then 'hostile people,’ who as human 

foes were more usually called by the cognate name of Dása. 

Individual Dasyus are Cumuri, Śambara, Susāna, etc.

In the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa the word has, as later, the 

sense of uncivilized peoples generally.

15 Indische Alterthumskunde, i, 633 et seq. This theory is now generally dis- 

credited. Cf. Justi, Göttingische Gelehrte Anzeigen, 1866, 1446 et seq.: Geldner, 

Vedische Studien, 1, 142; Oldenberg, Religion des Veda, 162 et seq.; Macdonell, 

Vedic Mythology, p. 156.

16 Both this word and Dása appear to be derived from the root das, which, 

according to Whitney, Roots, means 

'lay waste'; but, according to Roth, 

'suffer want,' 'waste away.'

17 vii, 18, where the descendants of Viśvāmitra are called dasyūnāṁ bhāy-

iṣṭhāḥ; Śāṅkhāyaṇa Śrauta Sūtra, xv, 26, 7.

18 Manu, v. 131; x. 32, 45; Zimmer, op. cit., 118.

Cf. Hillebrandt, op. cit., 3, 276 et seq.; 

Zimmer, op. cit., 101 et seq.

Dākṣāyaṇa, ‘descendant of Dakṣa.’ The Dākṣāyaṇas are 

mentioned in the Atharvaveda and the Yajurveda Saṃhitās as 

having given gold to Saṭānika. In the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa the 

word is actually used to denote 'gold.' The Dākṣāyaṇas 

appear there as a race of princes who, because of performing 

a certain rite, prospered down to the time of the Brāhmaṇa 

itself.

1 Av. i. 35, 1, 2; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxxiv. 51, 52; Kaṭha, cited by 

von Schroeder, Tübinger Kaṭha-Hand- 
schriften, 36; Khila, iv, 7, 7. 8.

2 vi, 7, 4, 2: dākṣāyaṇa-hasta, 'golden- 
handed.' Eggeling, Sacred Books of the 

East, 41, 283, n. 2, seems unnecessarily 
doubtful as to this.

3 ii. 4, 4, 6. Cf. Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, 

iii. 40.

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 224: 

4, 358; Ludwig, Translation of the 

Rigveda, 3, 195; Whitney, Translation 

of the Atharvaveda, 35; Lévi, La 

Doctrine du Sacrifice, 138.

Dātyauha, a ‘gallinule,’ is mentioned in the list of victims 

at the Aśvamedha, or horse sacrifice, in the Yajurveda. The 

1 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, v. 5, 17, 1; 

Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 6; Vāja- 
saneyi Saṃhitā, xxxiv. 25, 39. Pāṇini, 

vii. 3, 1, derives the word from ditya-vah.

word is clearly a variant of dātyūḥa, which occurs in the epics and law books.

**Dātra** (‘cutter’), denoting a ‘sickle,’ is mentioned in the Rigveda.¹ Cows ‘with sickle-shaped marks on their ears’ (dātra-karnyaḥ) are referred to in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā.² Otherwise the expression is only found later, occurring in the Sūtra and epic literature.³ See also Śṛṇī.


**Dātreya** is the patronymic of **Arāda Śaunaka** in the Vamsā Brāhmaṇa.¹ Possibly Dārteya, ‘descendant of Dr̥ti,’ should be read,² but the word may have the same derivation as the latter form with metathesis.

¹ *Indische Studien*, 4, 373. ² *Cf.* St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

**Dādhīca**, ‘descendant of Dadhyane,’ is the patronymic of **Cyavana** in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xiv. 6).

1. **Dāna**, ‘giving,’ ‘gift,’ is a word of frequent occurrence in the Rigveda, especially in the Dāna-stutis¹ (‘Praises of Gifts’) of generous patrons (see Dakṣinā). One of the characteristics of the **Brāhmaṇa** is his right to receive gifts, which it is obligatory on the other castes to present.² The gift of a daughter (kanyāyā dānam) was a form of marriage³ (see Vivāha), because in it the girl was ‘given’ away by her father or brother.

¹ The term seems first to occur in the Bṛhaddevatā, vi. 45. 92, and in similar works. ² Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 5, 7, 1; Weber, *Indische Studien*, 10, 47-61. ³ Nirukta, iii. 4.

2. **Dāna** (‘distribution’)¹ seems in several passages of the Rigveda² to be a designation of the sacrificial feast to which

¹ From dā, ‘divide.’ ² i. 55, 7; 48, 4; 180, 5; viii. 46, 26; 60, 8; 99, 4, etc. *Cf.*, however, Pischel *Vedische Studien*, 1, 100.
the god is invited (cf. δαίς, δαίτη). In one passage\(^3\) Sāyāṇa thinks that it denotes the mada-jalāṇi, ‘drops of water falling from the temples of a rutting elephant,’\(^4\) but this is doubtful. In another passage\(^5\) Roth thinks that ‘pasture land’ is meant.

\(^{3}\) Rv. viii. 33, 8; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 5, 157.

\(^{4}\) Dāna in this sense, so common in the post-Vedic language, is probably derived from dā, ‘divide,’ meaning originally ‘secretion.’

\(^{5}\) ii. 13, 7.

3. **Dāna** is in three passages of the Rigveda\(^1\) held by Roth to designate a chariot horse.

\(^{1}\) v. 27, 5; vii. 18, 23; viii. 46, 24. But in all these cases ‘gifts’ seems an adequate version, ‘horses’ being understood.

**Dāman**, a ‘rope’ or ‘girdle,’\(^1\) is often mentioned in the Rigveda and later.\(^2\) Reference is made to the rope of the sacrificial horse,\(^3\) as well as to the practice of tying calves with ropes.\(^4\) The word occurs in the sense of a ‘band’ of horse hair in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.\(^5\)

\(^{1}\) Originally ‘bond,’ from dā, ‘bind.’

\(^{2}\) Rv. i. 56, 3, etc.; Av. vi. 63, 1; 103, 2; vii. 103, 1. 2; Taittiriya Samhitā, ii. 4, 13, 1, etc.

\(^{3}\) Rv. i. 162, 8.

\(^{4}\) Rv. ii. 28, 7.


**Dāya** occurs in the Rigveda\(^1\) only in the sense of ‘reward’ of exertion (sṛama), but later it means ‘inheritance’—that is, a father’s property which is to be divided among his sons either during his lifetime or after his death. The passages all negative the idea that the property of the family was legally family property: it is clear that it was the property of the head of the house, usually the father, and that the other members of the family only had moral claims upon it which the father could ignore, though he might be coerced by his sons if they were physically stronger.

Thus **Manu** is said in the Taittiriya Samhitā\(^2\) to have divided his property among his sons. He omitted **Nābhāṇediṣṭha**,

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\(^{1}\) x. 114, 10

\(^{2}\) iii. 1, 9, 4 et seq. Cf. Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 12, 191-194; Lévi, La Doctrine du Sacrifice, 67, 68.
whom he afterwards taught how to appease the Aṅgirases, and to procure cows. This is a significant indication that the property he divided was movable property, rather than land (Uṛvarā). In the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa the division is said to have been made during Manu’s lifetime by his sons, who left only their aged father to Nābhānediṣṭha. According to the Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa, again, four sons divided the inheritance while their old father, Abhipratārin, was still alive. It is, of course, possible to regard Dāya as denoting the heritable property of the family, but the developed patria potestas of the father, which was early very marked, as shown by the legend of Sunahśepa, is inconsistent with the view that the sons were legally owners with their father, unless and until they actually insisted on a division of the property. Probably—there is no evidence of any decisive character—land was not divided at first, but no doubt its disposal began to follow the analogy of cattle and other movable property as soon as the available supply of arable land became limited.

As for the method of division, it is clear from the Taittiriya Samhitā that the elder son was usually preferred; perhaps

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3 v. 14.
4 iii. 156 (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 26, 61, 62).
5 The same question has been raised as to the origin of English or Teutonic property in land generally. Against any idea even of family ownership in a strict sense of the word, see Fustel de Coulanges, Recherches sur quelques Problèmes d’Histoire, 322 et seq.; Ashley, in Fustel de Coulanges, Origin of Property in Land, xvi-xxi; Pollock and Maitland, History of English Law, 2, 237 et seq. The older view, which accepted family and communal ownership, represented in different forms by Maine (Village Communities in the East and West), Stubbs, Green, and others, is defended in a new form by Vinogradoff, Villanage in England. See also Keith, Journal of the African Society, 6, 201 et seq. Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 93-96, does not accept the communal ownership of land, but, ibid., 80, is inclined to believe in the joint ownership of a family. He admits that this is inconsistent with the strict rule of patria potestas, which still exists in Bengal; Baden Powell, Village Communities in India, 133 et seq., doubts the existence in early India of such a patria potestas. But the facts seem clearly to show that there was such a power, and that the father owned the property. His sons, as they grew up, came to claim the property, and he might have to divide it; hence the idea naturally developed that every child on birth had a legal share in the property. No doubt also from the first the right to part with land was one which grown-up sons and the rest of the community could object to, once the village had acquired a fixed existence. This would account adequately for the later system. Cf. also pp. 100, n. 19; 336, n. 7, and Rājanya.
6 ii. 5, 2, 7.
this was always the case after death. During the father’s life-
time another might be preferred, as appears from a passage
of the Pañcavimsa Brāhmaṇa.7 Women were excluded from
partition or inheritance, according to the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa8
and the Nirukta.9 They were, no doubt, supported by their
brothers; but if they had none they might be reduced to pro-
stitution.10 Detailed rules of inheritance appear in the Sūtras.11

The heir is called Dāyāda,12 ‘receiver (ā-đa) of inheritance.’

Dāra, ‘wife,’ is found in the Sūtras (usually as a plural
masculine), and once (as a singular) in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka
Upaniśad.1

1 vi. 4, 12 (where dvāreṇa is a varia-
lectio; see St. Petersburg Dictionary,
s.v.). Cf. Delbrück, Die indogermanischen
Verwandtschaftsnamen, 415, 416, who
ignores the Bṛhadāraṇyaka passage.

Dāru, ‘wood,’ is frequently mentioned in the Rigveda and
later,1 denoting amongst other things the pole of a chariot,2
logs as fuel,3 the wooden parts of a car,4 possibly wooden
stocks,5 and so forth.

1 Rv. vi. 3, 4; x. 145, 4, etc.; Av.
x. 4, 3; Taittiriya Saṁhitā, ii. 5, 8, 3,
etc.
2 Rv. x. 102, 8.

Dāṛḍha-jayanti, ‘descendant of Drḍhajayanta,’ is the patro-
nymic of Vaipaścita Gupta Lauhitya and of Vaipaścita
Drḍhajayanta Lauhitya in the Jaiminīya Upaniśad Brāhmaṇa
(iii. 42, 1).

Dāṛteya, ‘descendant of Dṛti.’ The Dārteyas are mentioned
as authorities on sacrificial matters in the Kāṭhaka Saṁhitā1
and the Pañcavimsa Brāhmaṇa.2

1 xxxi. 2 (Indische Studien, 3, 473).
2 xxv. 3, 6.
Darbhya, 'descendant of Darbha,' is mentioned in a verse of the Rigveda. Roth identifies him with Śyāvāśva, but the Brhaddevata with Rathavīti. The same patronymic is frequently connected with Kesin, and is also applied to Rathaprotta. See also Dālbhya.

1 v. 61, 17. 2 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. 3 v. 50. 77. 4 Taittiriya Sanhitā, ii. 6, 2, 3; Maitrāyaṇi Sanhitā, i. 4, 12; 6, 5; Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, vii. 4. Cf. Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rigveda, 62, n. 2. 5 Maitrāyaṇi Sanhitā, ii. 1, 3.

Dārv-āghāta, the 'woodpecker,' is included in the list of sacrificial victims at the Asvamedha, or 'horse sacrifice,' in the Yajurveda. 1


Dārv-āhāra, a 'gatherer of wood,' is included in the list of victims at the Puruṣamedha, or 'human sacrifice,' in the Yajurveda. 1

1 Vājasaneyi Sanhitā, xxx. 12; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 8, 1.

Dālbhi, 'descendant of Dalbha,' is the patronymic of Vaka in the Kāṭhaka Samhitā (x. 6).

Dālbhya, 'descendant of Dalbha,' is a variant of Dārbhya. It is the patronymic of (a) Kesin in the Pančavimśa Brāhmaṇa; (b) Caikitāyana in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad and the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa; (c) Vaka in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad and the Kāṭhaka Samhitā. 5

1 xiii. 10, 8. Cf. the Itihāsa, reported by Śadguruśiṣya (Sarvāṇukramaṇī, ed. Macdonell, 118). The St. Petersburg Dictionary quotes the Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, vii. 4, for Dālbhya (but also for Dārbhya, which is the reading of Lindner's edition). 2 i. 8, 1. 3 i. 38, 1; 56, 3. 4 i. 2, 13; 12, 1, 3. 5 xxx. 2, where Dālbhya is read, not Dālbhi, as stated in the St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. The Kapiṣṭhala Samhitā, xlvi. 5, has Darbhasya. Dālbhi is found, however, in Kāṭhaka Samhitā, x. 6.
Dāva, 'forest fire,' is mentioned in the Atharvaveda and the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa. In the latter work such fires are referred to as occurring in spring. According to Sieg, a hymn of the Rigveda describes a forest fire. Watchers were employed to guard against surprise from such conflagrations (dāva-pha).  

Dāva-su Āṅgirasa, a seer of Sāmans, or chants, is mentioned in the Pāñcavimśa Brāhmaṇa.

Dāsa, 'fisherman,' is mentioned in the list of victims at the Puruṣamedha, or 'human sacrifice,' in the Yajurveda. Cf. Dhaivara.

Dāsataya, 'belonging to the (Rigveda text) divided into ten (books),' is an epithet of Adhyāya, 'section,' in the Nidāna Sūtra. The feminine form of the word is also found in the Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa and later.

Dāsa-rājña is the name in the Rigveda and the Atharvaveda of Sudās' famous 'battle with the ten kings.' It is somewhat difficult to make out exactly who the kings were (see Turvasā), but the number is probably a round one, and cannot be pressed. The actual battle hymn does not contain

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1 vii. 45, 2. 2 xi. 2, 7, 32. 3 Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 44 et seq. 4 x. 142. Sieg's interpretation of this hymn is not at all probable. 5 Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, xxx. 16; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 11, 1.

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1 Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, xxx. 16; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 12, 1. Weber, Indische Streffen, 1, 81, renders the word by Fischerknecht, perhaps regarding it as equivalent to dāsa, 'servant.' Cf. Manu, x. 34; St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. Dāsa, 2. 3.

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1 ii. 11 (Indische Studien, 1, 45). 2 viii. 7. 3 Rgveda Prātiṣākhya, xvi. 54; xvii. 30; Śāukhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xii. 2, 16. 22, etc.; Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xxvi. 13; xxvii. 4, etc.
the word, and the passages in which it is found may reasonably be considered late.  

4 Cf. for the late date of vii. 33; Bergaigne, L’histoire de la Samhita, 38, 72; Oldenberg, Prolegomena, 198, 200; Arnold, Vedic Metre, 309; Geldner, Vedicke Studien, 2, 130, opposes this view, but not convincingly.

Dasarma appears in the Kāṭhaka Samhitā¹ as a teacher and a contemporary of Āruṇī.


Dasa, like Dasyu, sometimes denotes enemies of a demoniac character in the Rigveda,¹ but in many passages² the word refers to human foes of the Āryans. The Dāsas are described as having forts (purah),³ and their clans (visah) are mentioned.⁴ It is possible that the forts, which are called ‘autumnal’ (śaradiḥ),⁵ may be mythical, but it is not essential, for the epithet may allude to their being resorted to in the autumn season. The Dāsa colour (Varna)⁶ is probably an allusion to the black skin of the aborigines, which is also directly mentioned.⁷ The aborigines (as Dasyus) are called anās, ‘noseless’ (?),⁸ and myṛhra-vāc, ‘of hostile speech,’⁹ and are probably meant by the phallus-worshippers (sīṣṇa-devāh, ‘whose deity is a phallus’) of the Rigveda.¹⁰ It is significant that constant

² Cf. Rv. v. 34, 6; vi. 22, 10; 33, 3; 60, 6; vii. 83, 1; x. 38, 3; 69, 6; 83, 1; Av. v. 11, 3.
³ ii. 20, 8 (called āyasāḥ, ‘made of iron’); i. 103, 3; iii. 12, 6; iv. 32, 10. They are called śāradiḥ, ‘autumnal,’ in i. 131, 4; 174, 2; vi. 20, 10. Cf. also dekṣāḥ, ‘ramparts,’ in vi. 47, 2.
⁴ ii. 11, 4; iv. 28, 4; vi. 25, 2.
⁵ Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 60.
⁶ ii. 12, 4; Śāṇkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, viii. 25, 6. Cf. Rv. i. 101, 1; 13, 34, 9; ii. 20, 7; iv. 16, 13; vi. 47, 21; vii. 5, 3. The Aryan colour is mentioned in iii. 34, 9, and the Dasa is contrasted with the Varṇa (of the singers) in i. 104, 2. The ‘white-hued (śvīnaya) friends’ who, in i. 100, 18, aid in the conquest of the Dasyu and Simyu are doubtless Āryans. In the Vājasaneyi Samhita, xxiv. 39, the day and night (ahorātre) are paralleled with the Śūdrāryau—that is, probably with the Āryan and Śūdra (the compound is not to be taken as giving the words in the correct order; cf. Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, 268). See also Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 1, 140; Weber, Indische Studien, 10, 10, 11.
⁷ kṛṣṇā tvac, ‘black skin,’ i. 130, 8; ix. 41, 1.
⁸ Cf. Dasyu, notes 6, 7.
⁹ v. 29, 10. See Dasyu; Geldner, Rigveda, Glossar, 138.
reference is made to the differences in religion between Arya and Dāsa or Dasyu.\textsuperscript{11}

Since the Dāsas were in many cases reduced to slavery, the word Dāsa has the sense of ‘slave’ in several passages of the Rigveda.\textsuperscript{12} Dāsi, the feminine, always has this sense from the Atharvaveda\textsuperscript{13} onwards. Aboriginal women were, no doubt, the usual slaves, for on their husbands being slain in battle they would naturally have been taken as servants. They would sometimes also become concubines; thus Kavaṣa was taunted with being the son of a female slave (dāsyāḥ putraḥ) in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa.\textsuperscript{14}

Ludwig\textsuperscript{15} considers that in some passages\textsuperscript{16} Dāsa is applied, in the sense of ‘enemy,’ to Āryan foes, but this is uncertain. Zimmer\textsuperscript{17} and Meyer\textsuperscript{18} think that Dāsa\textsuperscript{19} originally meant ‘enemy’ in general, later developing in Iran into the name of the Dahae\textsuperscript{20} of the Caspian steppes, and in India into a designation of the aborigines. On the other hand, Hillebrandt\textsuperscript{21} argues that, as the Dāsas and the Paṇis are mentioned together,\textsuperscript{22} they must be deemed to be closely related tribes, identifying

\textsuperscript{11} Rv. i. 33, 4, 5; iv. 16, 9; v. 7, 10; 42, 9; vi. 14, 3; viii. 70, 10; x. 22, 7, 8, etc.
\textsuperscript{12} vii. 86, 7; viii. 56, 3; x. 62, 10. Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., 2, suggests that in viii. 46, 32, the word dāsān, ‘slaves,’ should be read in place of dāse, qualifying Balbītha. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 117, quotes the passage to indicate the admixture of Āryan and Dāsa blood. See also Av. iv. 9, 8; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, vii. 24, 2. It is uncertain whether dāsa-pravarga, as an epithet of rayi, ‘wealth,’ in Rv. i. 92, 8, means ‘consisting of troops of slaves.’ Geldner, Rigveda, Glossar, 82, so takes the expression in i. 158, 5.
\textsuperscript{13} Av. v. 22, 6; xii. 3, 13; 4, 9; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, v. 13, 2; Brhād-āraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 1, 10 (Mādhyān-dina=2, 7 Kānya). Zimmer, 107, sees this sense in vadhū in Rv. viii. 19, 36. See also Vadhūmant.
\textsuperscript{14} ii. 19; Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, xii. 3.
\textsuperscript{15} Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 209.
\textsuperscript{16} See i. 158, 5; ii. 13, 8; iv. 30, 14, 15; vi. 20, 10; vii. 99, 5; x. 49, 6, 7. None of these passages need certainly be so taken.
\textsuperscript{17} Altindisches Leben, 110 et seq.
\textsuperscript{18} Geschichte des Allertums, i, 515.
\textsuperscript{19} If derived from das in the sense of ‘lay waste’ (Whitney, Roots), the original meaning would have been ‘devastator,’ ‘ravager.’
\textsuperscript{20} The Dahae may have been closely allied in race and language with the Iranians, but this is not very clearly proved. Cf. E. Kuhn in Kuhn’s Zeit-schrift, 28, 214; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, i, 95. The possibility or probability of mixture with Mongolian blood is always present. So Zimmer, op. cit., 112, calls the Daoi or Daai of Herodotus, i. 126, a Turanian tribe.
\textsuperscript{21} Op. cit., 1, 94.
\textsuperscript{22} Rv. v. 34, 6; 7; vii. 6, 3 (Dasyu and Paṇi together); Av. v. 11, 6.
the Panis with the Parnians and the Dāsas of the Rigveda with the Dahae. This view, of course, necessitates a transfer of the scenes of the Rigveda, where Dāsas are prominent, and especially those in which Divodāsa—'the heavenly Dāsa'—plays an important part, to the far west. Hillebrandt justifies this by regarding the scene of the sixth book of the Rigveda as quite different from that of the seventh and third, in which Sudās, the Bharatas, Vasiṣṭha, and Viśvāmitra appear. The Sarasvatī of the sixth book he locates in Arachosia, that of the seventh in the 'Middle Country.' It is, however, extremely doubtful whether this theory can be upheld. That Divodāsa should have been a Dāsa, and yet have fought against other Dāsas, is not in itself likely, especially when his son Sudās appears as a protagonist of Aryan civilization. It also seems unreasonable to seek in Arachosia for the river Sarasvatī, which it is natural to locate in the 'Middle Country.'

The wealth of the Dāsas was no doubt considerable, but in civilization there is no reason to suppose that they were ever equal to the invaders. Leading Dāsas were Ilībiśa, Cumuri and Dhuni, Pipru, Varcin, Śambara. For names of aboriginal tribes, see Kirāṭa, Kikaṭa, Candra, Parnaka, Śimyu.

23 Op. cit., i, 96 et seq. He argues that Dāsa occurs only four times in Maṇḍala vii., but eight times in vi., and that similarly Śambara, the Dāsa, is mentioned six times in vi., but only twice in vii. But Divodāsa much more probably means, as Oldenberg interprets the name, 'the servant of heaven.' See his Religion des Veda, 155, n. 1; Bergaigne, Religion Védique, 2, 209; below, p. 363, n. 11.

24 Cf. Rv. i. 176, 4; iv. 30, 13; viii. 40, 6; x. 69, 5; Av. vii. 90, 2.

25 Cf. Rv. ii. 12, 11; iv. 30, 14; vi. 26, 5, whence it appears that the Dāsas were often dwellers in mountains, a natural refuge for beaten tribes.


Dāsavaeśa, occurring only once in the Rigveda, probably designates a Dāsa named Veśa. Sāyaṇa's interpretation of the word as 'destruction of foes' can hardly be correct.

Dāsya occurs once in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (iv. 2, 30 Mādhyāmāndina = 23 Kāṇva) in the sense of 'slavery.'

Ditya-vāh, m.; Dityaūhi, f., 'a two-year-old bull or cow,' is mentioned in the later Saṃhitās and the Brāhmaṇas.1

1 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, iv. 3, 3, 1; xviii. 26; xviii. 25; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xxii. 1, etc.

Didyu, Didyut, both1 denote in the Rigveda 'missile,' 'arrow,' whether divine or human.

1 Didyu: i. 71, 5; iv. 41, 4; vii. 56, 9; 85, 2, etc.; Av. i. 2, 3; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, ii. 20; x. 17, etc. Didyut:

Didhiṣu in the Rigveda denotes a 'wooer.' It is applied1 to the relative, probably brother-in-law,2 who takes the place of the husband at the funeral rite, and who, as in the Hebraic levirate, is to beget a child by the brother's wife if there is no son.3 Hillebrandt4 and Lanman5 consider that the word originally meant only 'wooer,' and applied to the king who, after the chief queen had lain beside the dead victim in the Puruṣamedha or 'human sacrifice,' claimed her again; but this view is hardly plausible.6 The term is also applied to the god Pūṣan7 as the wooer of his mother, apparently Sūryā.8

1 x. 18, 18 = Av. xviii. 3, 2 (where didīṣos is merely a bad reading)= Taittirīya Aranyakā, vi. 1, 3.
2 Āsvālāyana Śrauta Sūtra, iv. 2, 18, where are mentioned the brother-in-law (devṛ), a representative of the husband (there is nothing to show whether he is identical with the preceding or not), a pupil, or an aged servant (jarad-dāsa).
3 Cf. Rv. x. 40, 2; Kaegi, Der Rigveda, n. 51.
4 Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 40, 708 et seq.
5 Sanskrit Reader, 385.
6 See Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 848, 849; Keith, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1907, 946.
7 vi. 55, 5.
8 Cf. Pischel, Vedicche Studien, 1, 21; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 35.
Cf. Geldner, Rigveda, Kommentar, 154.

DidhiṣƯ-pati occurs in the Kāithaka1 and Kapiṣṭhala Saṃhitās,2 as well as in the Āpastamba,3 Gautama,4 and Vasīṣṭha

1 xxxi. 7, quoted in Delbrück, Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 579.
2 xlvii. 7, quoted ibid., 579, 580.
3 ii. 5, 12, 22.
4 xv. 16.
Dharma Sūtras,\(^5\) in lists of people who have committed sin (enas). The traditional rendering\(^6\) is ‘husband of a woman married a second time’; Manu\(^7\) seems to apply the term to the brother-in-law who is ‘married’ to his sister-in-law after his brother’s death for the purpose of begetting a child, if he displays conjugal affection to her (anurajyate kāmataḥ).\(^8\) This sense would be possible, since Didhiṣu denotes a ‘wooer,’ and a widow could be regarded as a ‘wooer’ when able to control her own choice of a spouse. But another tradition\(^9\) holds that Didhiṣu means the elder sister whose younger sister has married before her. This view is supported by a passage in the Vasiṣṭha Dharma Sūtra,\(^10\) and by the use of the word agre-didhiṣu-paii,\(^11\) which must mean the ‘husband of a younger sister married before the elder.’ In this case also Didhiṣu would mean ‘wooer,’ the elder sister being so called because, if her parents do not arrange a marriage for her, she is, according to Viṣṇu,\(^12\) to make her own choice of a husband (kuryāt svayāṇvaram). See also Edidhisuhpati and Daidhiṣavya.

\(^5\) i. 18; xx. 7 et seq.  
\(^6\) St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. didhiṣu, 3.  
\(^7\) iii. 173.  
\(^8\) Cf. Leist, Altarisches Jus Gentium, 106.  
\(^9\) Laugāksi, quoted by Kullūka on Manu, iii. 160; Commentary on Apastamba, loc. cit.  
\(^10\) xx. 7 et seq.  
\(^11\) Cf. agre-didhiṣu, ‘one who woos (a younger sister) before (her elder sister is married),’ in Apastamba, loc. cit.; Gautama, xv. 16; Vasiṣṭha, i. 18; Kāṭhaka, loc. cit.; agre-dadhus, Maitrāyaṇi Śaṃhitā, iv. 1. 9; agre-dadhiṣu, Kapiṣṭhala, loc. cit.; agra-didhiṣu, Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 2, 8, 11.  
\(^12\) Viṣṇu Dharma Sūtra, xxiv. 40. 

Div, ‘sky.’ The world as a whole is regarded as divided into the three domains of ‘earth,’ ‘air’ or ‘atmosphere,’ and ‘heaven’ or ‘sky’ (div),\(^1\) or alternatively into ‘heaven and earth’ (dyāvā-prthivī),\(^2\) which two are then considered as comprising the universe, the atmosphere being included in the sky. Lightning, wind, and rain belong to the atmosphere, solar and

\(^1\) Rv. ii. 40; viii. 6, 15; 10, 6; 90, 6, etc.  
\(^2\) Rv. i. 143, 2; 159, 1; 160, 1; iv. 14, 2, etc.; Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, iii. 8, 3, 9; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, vii. 4, 2; vii. 1, 3. In the Aitareya Āranyaka, iii. 1, 2, and the Śāṅkhyāyana Āranyaka, vii. 3, it is said that when heavy and constant rain falls people say, ‘Heaven and earth have united.’
similar phenomena to the sky. In some passages\(^3\) the vault (nāka) of the sky is added after the usual triad, and before the celestial light (svāra, jyotis).

The threefold division of the universe is reflected in a threefold division of the three elements—earth, air, and sky. Thus a highest (uttama,\(^4\) uttara,\(^5\) pārya\(^6\)) is a middle, and a lowest heaven are specified.\(^4\) In the Atharvaveda\(^7\) the three heavens are distinguished as ‘rich in water’ (udanta), as pilumaṭi (of uncertain meaning), and as the pradyauṣ, where the Fathers sit. Heaven is frequently called vyomāṇ as well as rocana\(^8\) (properly the ‘luminous space’ of heaven), and the dividing firmament which separates the visible upper world from the highest heaven is called, besides nāka, ‘vault,’ sānu, ‘summit,’ viṣṭap, ‘surface,’ and prṣthā, ‘ridge,’ and even ‘ridge of the vault,’\(^9\) or ‘summit of the vault.’\(^10\)

Similarly three atmospheres (rajās), or oftener two, are alluded to,\(^11\) but the division here is merely artificial. In one passage\(^12\) six rajāṃsi, ‘regions,’ are referred to, the heavens and the earths no doubt being meant. The usual name for the atmosphere is antarikṣa.

The three earths are equally artificial, the origin of the triad being probably the use of prthivī in the plural\(^13\) to denote the three divisions of the universe (just as pitarau, ‘two fathers,’ denotes ‘father and mother’).\(^14\) The earth is called ksām, kṣā, gmā, or designated by the epithets mahī, ‘the great,’ prthivī or urvī, ‘the broad,’ uttānā, ‘the extended,’ and is regularly contrasted as idam, ‘this world here,’ with the upper sphere.\(^15\)

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\(^3\) Av. iv. 14, 3 = Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xvii. 67.
\(^4\) Ry. v. 60, 6.
\(^5\) Ry. vi. 26, 6.
\(^6\) Ry. vi. 40, 5. In Ry. v. 4, 3, it is called trīya.
\(^7\) xviii. 2, 48.
\(^8\) Trīṣ or tri rocana, Ry. i. 102, 8; 149, 4; v. 69, 1, etc.
\(^9\) Ry. i. 125, 5. Cf. iii. 2, 12.
\(^10\) Ry. viii. 103, 2. Cf. also ix. 86, 27.
\(^11\) Ry. iv. 53, 5; v. 69, 1. Cf. also the references to the ‘highest’ atmos-

sphere, uttama, ix. 22, 5; pāramā, iii. 30, 2; trīya, ix. 74, 6; x. 45, 3; 123, 8. The ‘lower’ (upara) or ‘terrestrial’ (pārthivasa) is contrasted with the ‘heavenly’ (āṭya) space. See i. 62, 5; iv. 53, 3.
\(^12\) Ry. i. 164, 6. Cf. vii. 87, 5.
\(^13\) Ry. i. 189, 9; ii. 104, 11.
\(^14\) Cf. Delbrück, Altindische Syntax, p. 98; Macdonell, Sanskrit Grammar, 183c (p. 158).
\(^15\) Ry. i. 22, 17; 154, 1. 3; and regularly in the later Saṃhitās and the Brāhmaṇas.
The shape of the earth is compared with a wheel in the Rigveda,16 and is expressly called 'circular' (pari-maṇḍala) in the Śatapatha Brahmaṇa.17 When earth is conjoined with heaven, the two are conceived as great bowls (caṃḍā) turned towards each other.18 In the Aitareya Āraṇyaka19 the two are regarded as halves of an egg. The distance of heaven from the earth is given by the Atharvaveda20 as a thousand days' journey for the sun-bird, by the Aitareya Brahmaṇa,21 as a thousand days' journey for a horse, while the Pañcaviṃśa Brahmaṇa22 whimsically estimates the distance as equivalent to a thousand cows standing one on the top of the other.

According to Zimmer,23 the Vedic poets conceived the atmosphere to be above the earth in its upper division only, but below it in its lower stratum. The evidence,24 however, for the latter assumption is quite insufficient.25 The theory of the Aitareya Brahmaṇa26 is that the sun merely reverses its bright side at night, turning its light on the stars and the moon while it retraverses its course to the east; and it has been shown27 that this is probably the doctrine of the Rigveda also.28 See also Sūrya and Candramās. For the Vedic knowledge of the planets, see Graha.

There is no geographical division of the earth in Vedic literature. The Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brahmaṇa29 states that the centre of the earth is a span north of the Plākṣa Prāsravāṇā, and that the centre of the sky is the constellation of the seven Iṣis, the Great Bear. For the quarters, see Div.

16 x. 89, 4. On the other hand, the earth is regarded as catur-bhṛṣṭi, 'four-cornered,' in Rv. x. 58, 3.
17 Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 9.
18 Rv. iii. 55, 20.
19 iii. 1, 2; Śaṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka, vii. 3.
20 x. 8, 18 = xiii. 2, 38; 3, 14.
21 ii. 17. Cf. Āśvina.
22 xvi. 8, 6; in xxi. 1, 9, with the alternatives of 1,000 days of the journey of a horse, or of the sun, or 1,000 leagues.
23 Altindisches Leben, 357, 358.
24 Rv. v. 81, 4; vi. 9, 1; vii. 80, 1.
25 Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 10.
27 i. 115, 5; x. 37, 3.
Divodāsa Atithigva is one of the leading princes of the early Vedic age. He was a son of Vadhryaśva, and father, or more probably grandfather, of Sudās, the famous king of the Tptsu family, among the Bharatas. Probably Pijavana was the son and Sudās the grandson. Divodāsa was naturally a Bharata, and, like Sudās, was an opponent of the Turvaśas and Yadus. His great enemy was Śambara, the Dāsa, who was apparently chief of a mountain people, and whom he repeatedly defeated. He was also, it seems, like his father Vadhryaśva, an energetic supporter of the fire ritual, for Agni is once called by his name in the Rigveda. On the other hand, he was defeated, with Āyu and Kutsa, by Indra's aid. In several passages he seems closely connected with the singer family, the Bharadvājas.

From one passage, where Divodāsa is said to have fought against the Pañis, the Pārāvatas, and Brṣaya, Hillebrandt has inferred that he was engaged in conflicts with the tribes of Arachosia, and interpreting the name as the 'heavenly Dāsa' conjectures that he was himself a Dāsa. This conclusion is not probable, for the Sarasvatī on which the battle in question took place, and which can hardly be the Hararqaiti of Arachosia, would naturally designate the later Sarasvatī, while the Pārāvatas are mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, as in the east, about the Yamunā. Bergaigne's

2. See Rv. vi. 61, 1.
3. As Atithigva, Rv. vii. 19, 8; as Divodāsa, xi. 61, 2.
5. See Rv. i. 112, 14; 116, 18; 119, 4; 130, 7-10; ii. 19, 6; iv. 26, 3; 30, 20; vi. 26, 3; 5; 43, 1; 47, 21. 22; ix. 61, 2.
7. Daivodāsa, 'worshipped by Divodāsa': viii. 103, 2. Cf. vi. 16, 5; 19; 31, 1. For the defeat by Indra, cf. Rv. i. 53, 10; ji. 14, 7; vi. 18, 13; vii. 68, 1; Hillebrandt, op. cit., 1, 104.
8. Cf. Rv. i. 112, 13, 14; 116, 18; vi. 16, 5; 31, 4; 47, 22 et seq.; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xv. 3, 7; Hillebrandt, op. cit., 1, 97 et seq.
9. Cf. vi. 61, 1 et seq.
10. Cf. cit., 1, 97 et seq.
11. This is very improbable. See Bergaigne, op. cit., 2, 209; Oldenberg, Religion des Veda, 135; Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 49, 175; 51, 272.
opinion\(^{13}\) that Divodāsa and Atithigva were different people cannot be supported in view of the complete parallelism in the acts of the two persons.\(^{14}\) See also Pratardana.

The people of Divodāsa are referred to in a hymn of the Rigveda.\(^{15}\)

\(^{13}\) Op. cit., 2, 342 et seq.

\(^{14}\) Compare, e.g., vii. 19, 8, with ix. 61, 2 (opposed to Turvaśa and Yadu); i. 51, 6; vi. 26, 3, with ii. 19, 6; vi. 31, 4 (defeat of Śambara); and see Hillebrandt, op. cit., 3, 268; Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 210 et seq.; Macdonell, op. cit., p. 161.

\(^{15}\) i. 130, 10 (one of the series attributed to Parucchepa).

### Divo-dāsa Bhaima-seni

('descendant of Bhīmasena') is mentioned in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā\(^{1}\) as a contemporary of Āruṇī.


### Divya, ‘ordeal,’

is a term not found until the later literature, but several references to the practice of ordeals have been seen in Vedic literature. The fire ordeal seen in the Atharvaveda\(^{1}\) by Schlagintweit,\(^{2}\) Weber,\(^{3}\) Ludwig,\(^{4}\) Zimmer,\(^{5}\) and others, has been disproved by Grill,\(^{6}\) Bloomfield,\(^{7}\) and Whitney.\(^{8}\) But such an ordeal appears in the Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa,\(^{9}\) and an ordeal with a glowing axe\(^{10}\) occurs in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad as applied in an accusation of theft. Geldner\(^{11}\) suggests that this usage is referred to even in the Rigveda,\(^{12}\) but this is most improbable.\(^{13}\) Ludwig\(^{14}\) and Griffith\(^{15}\) discover in another

\(^{1}\) ii. 12.

\(^{2}\) Die Gottesurtheile der Indier, 13 et seq.

\(^{3}\) Indische Studien, 13, 168.

\(^{4}\) Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 445.

\(^{5}\) Altindisches Leben, 184.

\(^{6}\) Hundert Lieder, 2, 45, 87.


\(^{8}\) Translation of the Atharvaveda, 54.

\(^{9}\) xiv. 6, 6.

\(^{10}\) Chāndogya Upaniṣad, vi. 16.

\(^{11}\) Vedische Studien, 2, 159.

\(^{12}\) iii. 53, 22.

\(^{13}\) Oldenberg, Rigveda-Noten, 1, 254.

\(^{14}\) Op. cit., 4, 44.

\(^{15}\) Hymns of the Rigveda, 1, 210.
passage of the Rigveda \(^{16}\) references to Dirghatamas’ having been subjected to the fire and water ordeals, but this view cannot be supported. According to Weber, \(^{17}\) the ‘balance’ ordeal is referred to in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, \(^{18}\) but see Tulā.

\(^{16}\) i, 158, 4 et seq.
\(^{17}\) Indische Streifen, 1, 21; 2, 336.
\(^{18}\) xi. 2, 7, 33.

Cf. Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 145; Zeit.

Divya Śvan, the ‘divine dog,’ in one passage of the Atharvaveda \(^{1}\) appears to denote Canis major or Sirius. But Bloomfield \(^{2}\) thinks that the two divine dogs referred to in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā \(^{3}\) and the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa \(^{4}\) are the sun and moon, and that the sun is meant in the Atharvaveda.

\(^{1}\) vi. 80, 1.
\(^{3}\) i. 6, 9.

\(^{4}\) i. 1, 2, 4-6.


Diś, ‘direction,’ is a word very frequently used in the Rigveda and later \(^{1}\) to denote a quarter of the sky. As a general rule, four quarters are mentioned—east, south, west, north. \(^{2}\) But the number of the ‘directions’ is sometimes increased up to ten by the addition to these four of various others. The five points include the zenith (ūrdhvā); \(^{3}\) the six, the zenith and the nadir (ūrdhvā and avācī); \(^{4}\) the seven, the zenith, the ground on which one stands (dhruvā), and the air (antarikṣa) between these two (vyadhvā); \(^{5}\) the eight include the intermediate quarters (S.E., S.W., N.E., N.W.); \(^{6}\) the nine add to these the zenith; \(^{7}\) the ten, zenith and nadir. \(^{8}\) The number

\(^{1}\) Rv. i. 124, 3; 183, 5; iii. 30, 12; Av. iii. 31, 4; xi. 2, 12, etc.
\(^{2}\) Rv. vii. 72, 5; x. 36, 14; 42, 11; Av. xv. 2, 1 et seq., etc.
\(^{3}\) Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vii. 1, 15; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, ii. 8, 9.
\(^{4}\) Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 12, 8; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxii. 24; Brhad-āranyaka Upaniṣad, iv. 2, 4.
\(^{5}\) Rv. ix. 114, 3; Av. iv. 40, 1; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, vii. 4, 1, 20; ix. 5, 2, 8; Taittirīya Āranyaka, i. 7.
\(^{6}\) Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vii. 1, 15; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 8, 1, 40, etc.
\(^{7}\) Sāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. 28, 2.
\(^{8}\) Rv. i. 164, 14; viii. 101, 13; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, vi. 2, 2, 34; viii. 4, 2, 13, etc.
five is sometimes made up by the ground beneath the observer's feet (dhruvā),⁹ and the number six by that point (dhruvā) and the zenith (urdhvā);¹⁰ the 'lofty' (brhati)¹¹ sometimes taking the place of the 'vertical' (urdhvā).

Dirgha-tamas ('long darkness') Māmateya ('son of Mamatā')

Aucathya ('son of Ucatha') is mentioned as a singer in one hymn of the Rigveda,¹ and is referred to in several passages² by his metronymic, Māmateya, alone. He is said, both in the Rigveda¹ and in the Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka,³ to have attained the tenth decade of life. In the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa⁴ he appears as the priest of Bharata. The Brhaddevatā⁵ contains a preposterous legend made up of fragments of the Rigveda,⁶ according to which Dirghatamas was born blind, but recovered his sight; in old age he was thrown into a river by his servants, one of whom, Traitana, attacked him, but killed himself instead. Carried down by the stream, he was cast up in the Āṅga country, where he married Usij, a slave girl, and begot Kāksīvant. The two legends here combined are not even consistent, for the second ignores Dirghatamas' recovery of sight. To attach any historical importance to them, as does Pargiter,⁷ would seem to be unwise.

¹ i. 158, i. 6.
² i. 147, 3; 152, 6; iv. 4, 13. In viii. 9, 10, Dirghatamas is mentioned with Kāksīvant, but not as a relative.
³ ii. 17; Keith, Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka, i. 14.
⁴ viii. 23.
⁵ iv. 11-15; 21-25, with Macdonell's notes.
⁶ From i. 140-164, which hymns are traditionally attributed to Dirghatamas. But see Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 221.
⁷ Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1910, 44.

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 164, 165; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, i. ², 226, 232, 247, 263, 279.
Dirgha-nitha appears to be the proper name of a sacrificer in one hymn of the Rigveda.\textsuperscript{1}

Dirgha-sravas (‘far-famed’) is the name of a royal seer who, according to the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa,\textsuperscript{1} having been banished from his kingdom, and suffering from actual hunger, ‘saw’ a certain Sāman (chant), and thus obtained food. In one passage of the Rigveda\textsuperscript{2} an Ausija,\textsuperscript{3} a merchant (\textit{vanij}), is mentioned as dirgha-sravas, which may be a proper name, as Sāyaṇa holds, or an adjective, as it is understood by Roth.\textsuperscript{4}

Dirghāpsas, used in the Rigveda\textsuperscript{1} as an epithet of a chariot, means, according to Roth,\textsuperscript{2} ‘having a long front part.’

Dirghāyutva, ‘longevity,’ is a constant object of the prayers of the Vedic Indians,\textsuperscript{1} and length of life is never deprecated in the Saṁhitās and Brāhmaṇas, while the Atharvaveda\textsuperscript{2} is full of spells intended to prolong existence (āyuṣyāṇi).

Dirghāranya, ‘wide tract of forest,’ in the Aitareya\textsuperscript{1} and Satapatha\textsuperscript{2} Brāhmaṇas refers to the extensive jungles which

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{1} viii. 50, 10. Cf. Roth, St. Peters-
burg Dictionary, \textit{s.v.} Ludwig under-
stands the word as an adjective, mean-
ing ‘of long duration.’
\item \textsuperscript{2} xv. 3, 25.
\item \textsuperscript{3} A metronymic, ‘descendant of
Usij,’ according to Sāyaṇa; but an
adjective, meaning ‘desirous,’ accord-
ing to Roth, St. Petersburg Dic-
tionary, \textit{s.v.}
\item \textsuperscript{4} St. Petersburg Dictionary, \textit{s.v.}
\item \textsuperscript{1} \textit{Indische Studien}, 1,
312.
\end{itemize}
must clearly then have covered Northern India. In one of the Aitareya passages it is said that in the east the villages are close together and frequent, while in the west there are forests.

Dīva (fem.) in the Rigveda and the Atharvaveda denotes the 'game of dice.' See Akṣa.

Dugha, 'yielding milk,' denotes 'cow' in a few passages in the Samhitas.  

Dundubhi, apparently an onomatopoeic word, means 'drum,' as used in both war and peace. It is often mentioned from the Rigveda onwards. A special sort of drum was the 'earth drum,' made by digging a hole in the ground and covering it with a hide. This was employed in the Mahāvrata, a rite performed at the winter solstice, for the purpose of driving away influences hostile to the return of the sun. A 'drum-beater' is included in the list of sacrificial victims at the Puruṣamedha or 'human sacrifice.'

Dūr is used several times in the Rigveda to denote 'door,' both literally and metaphorically.
Durgaha is used in the Rigveda,¹ and sometimes later,² to denote 'home,' both literally and metaphorically. See Grha.

¹ i. r. 18; r. 25, 5; iv. 13, 1; v. 76, 2 Av. vii. 17, 3; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxxii. 72, etc.

Dur-ga, 'hard to approach,' occurs in the Rigveda as a neuter substantive only, sometimes in the sense of 'fort,' 'stronghold.'¹ Cf. Pur.

¹ v. 34, 7; vii. 25, 2.

Dur-gaha is mentioned in a hymn of the Rigveda,³ where his grandsons are lauded for their generosity, though Sāyaṇa renders the word adjectivally.² In another passage of the Rigveda,³ however, Sāyaṇa sees in the epithet Daurgaha a description of Purukutsa as Durgaha's son, who was either captured by the enemy or slain, and whose wife, Purukutsānī, then obtained a son, Trasadasyu, to restore the line; he also quotes a story, not found in the Brhaddevata,⁴ to support this interpretation. On the other hand, the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa⁵ seems to take Daurgaha as meaning a horse. Sieg⁶ thinks that the same sense should be adopted in the Rigveda passage, which he interprets as referring to the sacrifice of a horse, Daurgaha, by King Purukutsa to gain a son; he also sees in Dadhikravan, with Pischel⁷ and Ludwig,⁸ a real horse, the charger of Trasadasyu. The Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa's interpretation of Daurgaha is, however, doubtful, and cannot be regarded as receiving support from the case of Dadhikrāvan, who was probably a divinity, and not a real horse at all.⁹

¹ viii. 65, 12. ² 'Plunged in distress' (duḥkhamāna). ³ iv. 42, 8. ⁴ As Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., says it is. ⁵ xiii. 5, 4, 5. According to the Naighantuka (i. 14), Daurgaha is a synonym of 'horse.'

DEMON—DWELLING—BOAR—LEPROSY  [ Durñāman

Durñāman, 'of evil name,' is the designation in the Rigveda and the Atharvaveda of a demon causing disease, or the disease itself. The Nirukta explains the words as meaning a 'worm,' an interpretation which accords with the widespread belief in disease-causing worms. Later Durñāman denotes 'hæmorrhoids.'

Dur-mukha, 'ugly-faced,' is the name, in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, of a Pāṇcāla, that is, Pāṇcāla king, who conquered the world, and whose priest was Brhaduktha.

Durya, 'belonging to the door or house,' appears in several passages of the Saṁhitās as a plural substantive denoting the 'door-posts,' or more generally 'dwelling.'

Duryoṇa occurs a few times in the Rigveda in the sense of 'house.'

Dur-varāha probably denotes a 'wild boar.' It is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa and the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa.

Dulā. See Nakṣatra (Kṛttikās).

Duś-carman, 'afflicted with a skin disease,' occurs in the Taittirīya Saṁhitā and Brāhmaṇa. The disease meant is probably leprosy, the usual name of which is Kilāsa.
**Dūta**] **NAMES—DAUGHTER—MESSENGER**

Duh-sasu is possibly a proper name in the Rigveda, and would then denote an enemy of Kuruśravana. Ludwig thinks that he was a Parsu or Persian, but this is most improbable, and the word may simply be an adjective meaning 'malignant.'

1 x. 33, 1.  
2 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 165.

**Duh-sima** is mentioned in the Rigveda as a generous donor, his patronymic perhaps being Tānva.

1 x. 93, 14.  
2 x. 93, 15.  

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 166.

**Duṣ-ṭarītu,** ‘hard to defeat,' is the name of a king of the Sṛṇjayas, who was deposed from a principality that had existed for ten generations, but was re-instated by Cākra Sthapati in spite of the resistance of Balhika Prātipīya, according to the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.

1 xii. 9, 3, 1 et seq. Cf. Weber, *Indische Studien*, 1, 205 207.

**Duḥ-ṣanta.** See Dauḥṣanti.

**Duhitr** is the regular designation of ‘daughter’ from the Rigveda onwards. The word appears to be derived from duh, 'milk,' in the sense of one who nourishes a child, rather than as the ‘milker’ of the primitive family or the suckling. See also Strī, Patī, Pitr, Bhrāṭṛ.

1 Rv. viii. 101, 15; x. 17, 1; 40, 5; 61, 5, 7; Av. ii. 14, 2; vi. 100, 3; vii. 12, 1; x. 1, 25; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 4, 1; 8, 1, 8, etc.  
2 Delbrück, *Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen*, 454.

**Dūta,** ‘messenger’ or ‘envoy,’ is found several times in the Rigveda and later, used metaphorically. The Sūta seems to have performed the duties later assigned to the Dūta.

1 iii. 3, 2; vi. 8, 4; vii. 3, 3; x. 14, 12.  
2 Av. viii. 8, 10, etc.; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 5, 1, 6; Kauśitaki Upaniṣad, ii. 1, etc. The feminine form Dūti is found in Rv. x. 108, 2, 3, in the story of Saramā’s mission to the Pāṇis. Dūtya, ‘mission,’ occurs in Rv. i. 12, 4; 161, 1; iv. 7, 8; 8, 4, etc.
Dūrvā, a species of grass (*Panicum dactylon*), is mentioned frequently from the Rigveda onwards. It grew in damp ground. A simile occurring in the Rigveda seems to indicate that the ears lay horizontal with the stem. Cf. Pākādūrvā.

Dūrsa, denoting some kind of garment, is mentioned twice in the Atharvaveda. Weber thinks that it was worn by the aborigines.

Dūṣīkā, ‘rheum of the eyes,’ is mentioned as a disease in the Atharvaveda and later.

Dṛḍha-cyut Āgasti (‘descendant of Agastya’) is mentioned in the Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa as having been Udgāṭr priest at the Sattrā (‘sacificial session’) of the Vibhindukīyas.

Dṛḍha-jayanta. See Vipaścit and Vaipaścita.

1. Dṛti, a ‘leather bag to hold fluids,’ is frequently mentioned in the Rigveda and later. In one passage it is called dhmāta, ‘inflated,’ the man afflicted with dropsy being compared with such a bag. Milk (Kṣīra) and intoxicating liquor (Surā) are mentioned as kept in bags.
2. **Dṛti Aindrota** (‘descendant of Indrota’) is mentioned in the Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa as a contemporary of Abhipratārīn Kākṣaseni and as a pupil of Indrota Dalivāpa in a Vaṃśa (list of teachers) in the Jaīminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa. Possibly the same Dṛti is meant in the compound Dṛti-Vātavantau, which is found in the Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa. The former is here said to have continued, after the Mahāvrata was over, the sacrificial session in which both had been engaged, with the result that his descendants prospered more than the Vātavatas.

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1 xiv. 1, 12. 15.  
2 iii. 40, 2.  
3 xxv. 3, 6. So a Sattrā of a year’s duration is later called Dṛti-vātavatovāyana, Kātyāyana Śrāuta Sūtra, xxiv. 4, 16; 6, 25; Āśvalāyana Śrāuta Sūtra, xii. 3; Śāňkhāyana Śrāuta Sūtra, xiii. 23, 1; Lātyāyana Śrāuta Sūtra, x. 10, 7.  
Cf. Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 52, 53.

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**Dṛpta-bālāki Gārgya** (‘descendant of Garga’) is the name of a teacher who is mentioned in the Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad (ii. 1, 1) as a contemporary of Ajātaśatru of Kāsī.

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**Dṛbhīka** is the name of a man or a demon, who, according to the Rigveda, was slain by Indra.

1 Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 152, 207, who compares the Derbikes; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 162.  
2 Grassmann, Wörterbuch, s.v.; Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.; Geldner, Rigveda, Glossar, 85.  
3 ii. 14, 3.

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**Dṛśāna Bhārgava** (‘descendant of Bhṛgu’) is mentioned as a seer in the Kāthaka Saṃhitā.


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**Dṛṣad** appears in the Rigveda and Atharvaveda to denote not a millstone, but merely a stone used to pound grain, which was placed on another stone as a support. When used later

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1 vii. 104, 22; viii. 72, 4.  
2 ii. 31, 1; v. 23, 8.  
3 Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 269.  
4 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, i. 6, 8, 3; 9, 3; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 1, 22; ii. 6 1, 9, etc.
in connexion with Upalā, the lower and the upper millstone, or mortar and pestle may be meant; but this is not certain. Eggeling\(^5\) renders them as the large and small millstones. See also Upara and Upalā.

\(^5\) *Sacred Books of the East*, 12, 11 | guished from ‘mortar and pestle,’

(dṛṣad-upale, which are here distin-

| ulūkhala-musale).


Dṛṣadvatī, ‘stony,’ is the name of a river which flows into the Sarasvatī after running for a time parallel to it. It is mentioned in the Rigveda,\(^1\) along with the Sarasvatī and the Āpaya, as the scene of action of the Bharata princes. In the Paṅcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa\(^2\) and later\(^3\) the Dṛṣadvatī and the Sarasvatī are the scene of special sacrifices. In Manu\(^4\) these two rivers form the western boundary of the Middle Country.

\(^1\) iii, 23, 4.  
\(^2\) xxv. 10. 13.  
\(^3\) Katyāyana Srauta Sūtra, xxiv. 6, 6.  
\(^4\) ii. 17.  

Dṛṣṭa. See Adṛṣṭa.

Devaka Mānyamāna (‘descendant of Manyamāna’) appears in the Rigveda\(^1\) as an opponent of the Tṛtsus, and as connected with Śambara. Possibly, however, as Grassmann suggests, the words should be understood as denoting Śambara, ‘who deemed himself a god,’ devaka being used contemptuously.\(^2\)

\(^1\) vii. 18, 20 (devakaye cin mānyamāna).  
\(^2\) Cf. Rv. ii. 11, 2 (amartyam cid dāsam mānam).

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 173.

Devakī-putra, ‘son of Devaki,’ is the metronymic of Kṛṣṇa in the Chāndogya Upāniṣad.\(^1\) According to the Epic,\(^2\) a Devaka was father of Devakī, Kṛṣṇa’s mother; the St. Petersburg Dictionary suggests that he was the ‘king of the Gandharvas’, also referred to in the Epic.\(^3\)

\(^1\) iii. 17, 6.  
\(^2\) Mahābhārata, i. 4480; v. 80, etc.  
\(^3\) Ibid., i. 2704.
Deva-jana-vidyā, 'knowledge of divine beings,' is one of the sciences enumerated in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa\(^1\) and the Chāndogya Upaniṣad.\(^2\)

\(^1\) xiii. 4, 3, 10. Cf. x. 5, 2, 20.  \(^2\) vii. 1, 2, 4; 2, 1; 7, 1.

Deva-taras Śyāvasāyana Kāśyapa ('descendant of Kaśyapa') is mentioned in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa\(^1\) as a pupil of Rṣyaśīṅga. In the Vāṃśa Brāhmaṇa,\(^2\) as Śāvasāyana, he is a pupil of his father Śavas, who again was a pupil of Kāśyapa.

\(^1\) iii. 40, 2.  \(^2\) Indische Studien, 4, 373.

Devatya occurs in the text of the Atharvaveda,\(^1\) where it must, if the reading is correct, denote some animal.\(^2\) But the reading should no doubt be rohini-devatyaś, 'having the red one as deity.'\(^3\)

\(^1\) i. 22, 3.  \(^2\) Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, 500.  \(^3\) Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 23.

Devana is mentioned once in the Rigveda\(^1\) in connexion with dicing. The word must designate the place on which the dice are thrown (elsewhere called Adhidevana), and it is so explained by Durga in his commentary on the Nirukta.\(^2\)

\(^1\) x. 43, 5.  \(^2\) v. 22.  \(^3\) Cf. Lüders, Das Würfelspiel im alten Indien, 14.

Deva-nakṣatra, 'asterism of the gods,' is the name applied in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa\(^1\) to the first fourteen lunar mansions, which are said to be south, while the others are called Yamanaṃkṣatra, 'asterisms of Yama,' and are said to be north. See Nakṣatra.

\(^1\) i. 5, 2, 6, 7. Cf. Weber, Naxatra, 2, 309, 310.

Deva-bhāga Śrautarṣa is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa\(^1\) as the Purohita, or 'domestic priest,' of both the

\(^1\) ii. 4, 4, 5. This passage is misquoted by Sāyaṇa on Rv. i. 81, 3. See Weber, Indische Studien, 2, 9, n.; Geldner, Vedische Studien, 3, 152.
Spñjayas and the Kurus. In the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa² he is said to have taught Girija Bābhrawya the science of the dissection of the sacrificial animal (paśor vibhakti). In the Taittirīyā Brāhmaṇa³ he is an authority on the Sāvitra Agni.

² vii. i.
³ iii. 10, 9, 11.

Deva-malimluc, 'robber of the gods,' is the epithet of Rahasya,¹ who is said in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa² to have slain the pious Vaikhānasas at Munimarana ('saint's death'). He was apparently an Asura, but may have been a real person.

¹ Or Rahasyu.

Deva-muni, 'divine saint,' is the epithet of Tura in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xxv. 14, 5). The name is given in the Anukramaṇi to the author of a hymn of the Rigveda (x. 146).

Deva-rājan apparently denotes a king of Brahminical descent in the phrase 'Sāmans of Devarājans' in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xviii. 10, 5). Cf. Rājanyarsi and Varna.

Deva-rāta ('god-given') Vaiśvāmitra ('descendant of Viśvāmitra') is the name given to Sunahsepa after his adoption by Viśvāmitra in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa.¹

¹ vii. 17. Cf. Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 27.

Devala is mentioned as a Rṣi in the Kāṭhaka Samhitā (xxii. 11). See also Daivala.

Devavant is mentioned in a Dānastuti ('Praise of Gifts') in the Rigveda¹ as the ancestor of Sudās, apparently his grandfather; or if Pijavana be accepted as Sudās' father, and Divodāsa as his grandfather, then his great-great-grandfather, and father of Vadhryaśva. The succession in the latter case would then be Devavant, Vadhryaśva, Divodāsa, Pijavana, Sudās.

Devāpi Ārṣṭiśeṇa | NAMES OF PRINCES AND SEERS 377

Devā-vāta (‘desired of the gods’) is the name of a Bharata prince in the Rigveda,¹ where he is mentioned as sacrificing on the Drṣadvatī, Sarasvatī, and Āpayā.

¹ iii. 23, 2. Cf. Oldenberg, Buddha, 409; Pischel, Vedic Studien, 2, 218.

Deva-vidya, ‘knowledge of the gods,’ is one of the sciences enumerated in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (vii. 1, 2, 4; 2, 1; 7, 1).

Deva-śravas is the name of a Bharata prince who with Devavāta appears as a sacrificer on the Drṣadvatī, Sarasvatī, and Āpayā in the Rigveda.¹

¹ iii. 23, 2. 3. In the Anukramaṇi he is called a son of Yama, and has a hymn, x. 17, ascribed to him.

Devātithi Kāṇva (‘descendant of Kāṇva’) is mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa¹ as the seer of a Sāman (chant) by which he turned pumpkins into cows for himself and his son when they were starving in the desert, whither they had been driven by rivals. He is also the reputed author of a hymn of the Rigveda.²


Devāpi Ārṣṭiśeṇa (‘descendant of Rṣṭiśeṇa’) is mentioned in a hymn of the Rigveda¹ and in the Nirukta.² According to the latter source there were two brothers, Devāpi and Śantānu, princes of the Kuruṣ. The elder was Devāpi, but Śantānu got himself anointed king, whereupon no rain fell for twelve years. The drought being attributed by the Brahmins to his having superseded his elder brother, Śantānu offered the kingdom to Devāpi. The latter, however, refused, but acting as Purohita, or domestic priest, for his brother, obtained rain. The Brhad-devatā³ tells much the same tale, but adds that the reason for Devāpi’s exclusion from the throne was the fact that he suffered from a skin disease. The Epic and later legends further

¹ x. 98. ² ii. 10. ³ vii. 148 et seq., with Macdonell’s notes.
develop the story, presenting two somewhat discrepant accounts. According to the one version, the ground of Devāpi’s being passed over was leprosy, while in the other his devoting himself to asceticism in his youth was the cause of his brother’s taking his place. The Epic, moreover, treats him as a son of Pratīpa, and names as his brothers Bāhlika and Ārṣṭiṣeṇa, who is a new figure developed from the patronymic of Devāpi. Possibly Sieg is right in holding that two stories, those of Devāpi, Pratīpa’s son, and of Devāpi, Rṣṭiṣeṇa’s son, have been confused; but in any case it is impossible to extract history from them.

The Rigvedic hymn certainly appears to represent Devāpi as sacrificing for Śantanu, who seems to be called Aulāna. But there is no trace in it of the brotherhood of the two men, nor is there anything to show that Devāpi was not a Brahmin, but a Kṣatriya. Sieg, who interprets the hymn by the Nirukta, thinks that he was a Kṣatriya, but on this occasion was enabled by the favour of Brhaspati to officiate as priest, and that the hymn shows clear recognition of the unusual character of his action; but this view seems very improbable.

Devṛ is a rare word denoting the wife’s ‘brother-in-law’ (that is, the husband’s brother). He is included with the sisters of the husband among those over whom the wife of the husband—his elder brother—rules; at the same time the wife is to be devoted to him, and friendly to him. After the death

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1 Rv. x. 85, 46. Cf. Pati.
2 Rv. x. 85, 44.
4 Mahābhārata, v. 5054 et seq. (=149, 15 et seq.), where Śantanu is (as also in the Agni, cclxxvii. 34, the Brahma, xiii. 114, 118, and the Viṣṇu Purāṇas) the form of the name; Matsya Purāṇa, l. 39 et seq., in which, as well as in the Bāgavata, ix. 22, 12, 13, and the Vāyu Purāṇa, xcix. 234, 237, the form is Śantanu.
5 Mahābhārata, i. 3751 (=94, 62); ix. 2285 (=40, 1); Vāyu Purāṇa, ii. 37, 230, etc.
6 Mahābhārata, cited in n. 4; Hari-vanśa, 1819.
7 Ibid., cited in n. 5.
8 Die Sagenstoffe des Ṛgveda, 136.
10 Rv. x. 98, 11.
of the husband the Devṛ could perform the duty of begetting a son for him.  

4. No word occurs for the wife's brother corresponding to Devṛ.

Deśa, 'land,' is a word that does not come into use till the time of the Upaniṣads and Sūtras, excepting one occurrence in the latest period of the Brāhmaṇa literature, and one in a much-discussed passage of the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, where the Sarasvatī is mentioned as having five tributaries. This passage militates against the view that Sarasvatī was a name of the Indus, because the use of Deśa here seems to indicate that the seer of the verse placed the Sarasvatī in the Madhya-deśa or 'Middle Country,' to which all the geographical data of the Yajurvedas point.

1 Where its use becomes common: Brhadāraṇya Upaniṣad, iv. 1, 16; 2, 3; Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, iv. 14, 6; Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 4, 17, etc. So the adjective deśīya, 'belonging to a land,' Kātyāyana, xxii. 4, 22; Lāṭyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, viii. 6, 28.

Daidhiśavya is mentioned in a Mantra of the Taittirīya Saṃhitā. Apparently the word (as derived from Didhiśū) denotes the son of a younger sister married before the elder sister, rather than the son of a woman twice married, the explanation of the St. Petersburg Dictionary.

1 iii. 2, 4, 4; Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, 3, 5; 137, 37.  

2 American Journal of Philology, 17, ii. 1, 22; Kauśika Sūtra, 3, 5.

XXXIV. 11.

1 Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 10, who thinks that the word crept into the text, where the Sarasvatī originally meant the Indus, with the five tributaries of the Panjab.

2 Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, 174.
PATRONYMICS—SCIENCE OF PORTENTS [Daiyāmpāti]

Daiyāmpāti, ‘descendant of Dayāmpāta,’ is the name of a teacher of the east, who was instructed by Śāṇḍilyāyana, according to the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa (ix. 5, 1, 4), in the lore of the construction of the fire-altar. The same patronymic is given, in the form of Dayyāmpāti, to Plakṣa, the contemporary of Atyaṁhas in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa (iii. 10, 9, 3-5).

1. Daiva (masc.) appears in the list of sciences in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad,1 where Śaṅkara explains it as utpāta-jñāna, apparently the ‘knowledge of portents.’ The St. Petersburg Dictionary suggests that the word is here used adjectivally, and this view is followed by Little2 and by Böhtlingk in his translation.3

1 vii. 1, 2. 4; 2, 1; 7, 1. 2 Grammarical Index, 83. 3 Though he does not render it (Daiva Nidhi).

2. Daiva is the patronymic of the mythical Atharvan in the first two Vāṃśas (lists of teachers) of the Brāhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.1

1 ii. 5, 22; iv. 5, 28 (Mādhyāndina).

Daivala, ‘descendant of Devala,’ is the patronymic of Asita in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xiv. 11, 18).

Daiva-vāta, ‘descendant of Devavāta,’ is the patronymic of Śṛṇjaya, probably the Śṛṇjaya king, in the Rigveda. He is mentioned1 as a devotee of the fire cult, and as victorious over the Turvāsa king and the VṛṢṇivants.2 According to Zimmer,3 his name was Abhyāvartin Cāyamāna Pārthava (‘descendant of Prthu’), but Hillebrandt4 recognizes this as doubtful, though he none the less places the Śṛṇjayas to the west of the Indus with Divodāsa. What is more important is to note that the name suggests connexion with the Bharata Devavāta, and as Kurus and Śṛṇjayas were closely connected5 this is not immaterial.

1 Rv. iv. 15, 4. 2 Rv. vi. 27, 7. 3 Altindisches Leben, 133, 134. 4 Vedische Mythologie, 1, 105, 106. 5 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 4. 4. 5. Cf. Oldenberg, Buddha, 402, 405; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 153.
Daivāpa, 'descendant of Devāpi,' is the patronymic of Indrota in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa1 and the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa.2 No connexion can be traced with the Devāpi of the Rigveda.3

1 xiii. 5, 4, 1. 2 iii. 40, 1. 3 x. 98. See Oldenberg, Zeitschrift, 42, 240.

Daivāvṛdha, 'descendant of Devāvṛdha,' is the patronymic of Babhru in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (vii. 34).

Daivo-dāsi, 'descendant of Divodāsa,' is the patronymic of Pratardana in the Kaṇḍitaki Brāhmaṇa1 and the Kaṇḍitaki Upaniṣad.2 It is impossible to ascertain whether the famous Divodāsa is meant.

1 xxvi. 5. 2 iii. 1. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 214.

Doṣā, 'evening,' is frequently referred to from the Rigveda1 onwards,2 usually as contrasted with uṣas, 'dawn.' In the Chāndogya Upaniṣad3 the word is contrasted with prātar, 'early.' See also Ahaṇ.

1 i. 34; i. 1; ii. 8, 3; iv. 2, 8; v. 5, 6; 32, 11; vi. 5, 2, etc. 2 Av. vi. 1, 1; Nirukta, iv. 17. 3 vi. 13, 1.

Doha, 'milking,' is a common word in the Atharvaveda1 and later.2 Reference is made in the Sūtras3 to the sāyam-doha, 'evening milking,' and the prātar-doha, 'morning milking.' Dohana has the same sense.4 See also Go.

1 iv. 11, 9. 12; v. 17, 17; viii. 9, 15 (where five milkings are referred to metaphorically). In Rv. x. 42, 2, the literal sense is found. 2 Vājasaneyi Sanshitā, viii. 62; Taittīriya Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 10, 2; ii. 2, 9, 9, etc. 3 Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, iv. 2, 38, etc. 4 Rv. viii. 12, 32; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, ix. 2, 3, 30; Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, iv. 2, 37, etc.

Daure-śravas, 'descendant of Dūreśravas,' is the patronymic of the priest Prthuśravas, who officiated at the snake sacrifice described in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xxv. 15, 3).
PATRONYMICS—DICING—A PRINCE

Daure-śruta, 'descendant of Dūreśruta,' is the patronymic of the priest Timirgha, who officiated at the snake sacrifice described in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xxv. 15, 3).

Daur-gaha. See Durgaha.

Dauḥ-ṣanti ('descendant of Duḥṣanta') is the patronymic of Bharata in the Aitareya (viii. 23) and Śatapatha (xiii. 5, 4, 11) Brāhmaṇas.

Dyutāna Mārata ('descendant of the Maruts') is the name of a divine being invoked in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā¹ and the Taittirīya Saṃhitā,² and also mentioned in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā.³ In the Śatapatha⁴ Brāhmaṇa the name is explained to mean Vāyu, while in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa⁵ he seems to be regarded as the author of a Śāman (chant). He is treated as a Rṣi by the Anukramaṇī, which credits him with the authorship of a hymn of the Rigveda (viii. 96).

¹ v. 27.
² v. 5, 9, 4. Cf. vi. 2, 10, 4.
³ xv. 7.
⁴ iii. 6, 1, 16.

Dyumna, according to Pischel,¹ denotes 'raft' in one passage of the Rigveda.²

¹ Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 35, 720 et seq.
² viii. 19, 14.

Dyūta, 'dicing,' is mentioned in the Atharvaveda¹ and the Śūtras.² See Akṣa.

¹ xii. 3, 46.
² Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 6, 2; etc.

Dyotana is, according to Sāyaṇa, the name of a prince in the Rigveda.¹ This is probably correct, though the word may also² be interpreted as denoting 'glorification'; but it is not clear what relation existed between Dyotana and the other persons mentioned in the same passage, Vetasu, Daśōṇi, Tūtuji, and Tugra.

¹ vi. 20, 8.
² As by Griffith, Hymns of the Rigveda, etc.

Drapsa is a common word from the Rigveda onwards for a 'drop': according to Sāyana, a 'thick drop' as opposed to stoka, a 'small drop.' Hence there frequently occurs the expression dadi-drapsa,' drop of curds.' In the Rigveda the word normally denotes the thick drops of Soma or the Soma itself.

In two passages Roth sees the sense of 'banner,' which is adopted by Oldenberg. Geldner, on the other hand, considers that 'dust' is meant, but this interpretation is not very probable. Max Müller renders the word 'rain-drop' in one of the passages.

Drāpi occurs several times in the Rigveda in the sense of 'mantle' or 'cloak.' Sāyana, however, renders the word by 'coat of mail' (kavaca). This seems needless, but none of the passages are very decisive one way or the other.

Dru denotes a vessel made of wood, and in particular the vessel used at the Soma sacrifice, perhaps, as Hillebrandt suggests, to catch the Soma juice when running through the sieve. In the Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa the word simply means 'wood.'
Dru-ghaṇa is found in the Mudgala hymn of the Rigveda and in the Atharvaveda. The sense is uncertain. Yāska renders it as ‘ghana made of wood,’ probably, as Roth takes it, meaning a ‘club of wood.’ Geldner thinks that it was a wooden bull used by Mudgala as a substitute for a second bull when he wanted to join in a race. But this interpretation of the legend is very improbable.

Whitney translates the word as ‘tree-smiter’ in the Atharvaveda, quoting Sayana, who explains it as a ‘cutting instrument,’ so called because trees are struck with it.

Dru-pada, a ‘wooden pillar’ or ‘post,’ is several times referred to in the Rigveda and later. Śunahṣeṣpa was bound to three posts for sacrifice. Thieves, there is some evidence to show, were tied to posts as a penalty for stealing.

Dru-ma, ‘tree,’ is not found until the later period in the Śādvimśa Brāhmaṇa (v. 11) and the Nirukta (iv. 19; v. 26; ix. 23).

Druvaya, ‘wooden,’ is used in the Atharvaveda as an epithet of the drum.

Dru-han, ‘wood-cutter,’ seems to be meant by the word druḥantaraka in the Rigveda, where it is usually taken as druḥan-tara, ‘fiend-overpowering.’ But as an epithet of paraṣu, ‘axe,’ the other sense (‘mighty wood-cutter’) is more probable.
Druhyu is the name of a people mentioned several times in the Rigveda. In one passage it occurs, in the plural, with the Yadus, Turvaśas, Anus, and Pūrus, suggesting that these are the famous five peoples of the Rigveda. Again, the Druhyu king shared in the defeat of his allies by Śudās, and appears to have perished in the waters. In a second passage Druhyu, Anu, Turvaśa, and Yadu are all mentioned in the singular, while in another Puru and Druhyu occur. From the tribal grouping it is probable that the Druhyus were a north-western people, and the later tradition of the Epic connects Gāndhāra and Druhyu.

1 i. 108, 8. 2 Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 122, 125; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 15, 258 et seq. 3 vii. 18. 4 viii. 10, 5. 5 vi. 46, 8.


Droṇa denotes in the Rigveda a ‘wooden trough,’ and more specifically it designates in the plural vessels used for holding Soma. The great wooden reservoir for Soma is called a Droṇa-kalasa. The altar was sometimes made in the form of a Droṇa.

1 vi. 2, 8; 37, 2; 44, 20; ix. 93, 1; Nirukta, v. 26. 2 ix. 3, 1; 15, 7; 28, 4; 30, 4; 67, 14, etc. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 280.

Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 17. 32. Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 6, 3, 17, etc. 4 Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, iii. 4, 7; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxi. 4; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, vi. 7, 2, 8.

Dronāhāva is used as an epithet of Avata, ‘well,’ in the Rigveda, apparently in the sense of ‘having wooden buckets’ with reference to the drawing up of water.


Dvādaśa, ‘consisting of twelve,’ is used of the year in the Rigveda (vii. 103, 9). See Nakṣatra.

1 Cf. Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 48, 643 et seq.

Dvāpara. See Akṣa and Yuga.
Dvār is frequently used from the Rigveda¹ onwards² to denote the 'door' of a house. The later form, Dvāra, has the same sense.³ Cf. Grha. The 'door-fastener' is called Dvārapidhāna in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.⁴

¹ i. 13, 6. ² Av. viii. 3, 22; xiv. i, 63; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxx. 10; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. i, 1, 2; xiv. 3, 1, 13, etc. ³ Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 6, i, 19; iv. 3, 5, 9; 6, 7, 9; xi. 4, 4, 2, etc. Av. x. 8, 43, has nava-dvāra, 'having nine openings,' of the body. ⁴ xi. i, i. Cf. dvāra-bāhū, 'door-posts,' in Lātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, i. 3, i; ii. 3, 9.

Dvāra-pa, 'door-keeper,' is only found in a metaphorical sense in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (i. 30), where Viṣṇu is called the 'doorkeeper' of the gods, and in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (iii. 13, 6).

Dvi-gat Bhārgava ('descendant of Bhṛgu') is mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa (xiv. 9) as the seer of a Sāman or Chant, by means of which he twice went to the heavenly world.

Dvi-ja, 'twice-born,' as an epithet of the Āryans generally, or of the Brahmins in particular, is not found in Vedic literature except in a quite obscure verse of the Atharvaveda.¹

¹ xix. 71, 1. Cf. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 1008; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 204. Neither dvi-janman nor dvi-jāti occurs early, and the idea is not in this form an early one.

Dvi-pād, 'two-footed,' 'biped,' denotes man, as opposed to quadrupeds, from the Rigveda¹ onwards.²

¹ i. 49, 3; iii. 62, 14; viii. 27, 12; x. 97, 20; 117, 8. ² Av. ii. 34, i; x. 1, 24; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, viii. 30; ix. 31; xiii. 17; xiv. 8, etc.

Dvi-bandhu is in an obscure hymn of the Rigveda,³ according to Roth² and Grassmann,³ the name of a man, while Ludwig⁴ renders it as a simple adjective meaning 'of double kinship.'

¹ x. 61, 17. ² St. Petersburg Dictionary. ³ Wörterbuch, s.v., and Translation of the Rigveda, 2, 475. ⁴ Translation of the Rigveda, 2, 643, and 5, 526.
Dvyopaşa. ] BATTLE—ASS AND MARE—ISLAND—PANTHER 387

Dvi-rāja (neut.), 'conflict between two kings,' or 'battle,' is mentioned in the Atharvaveda (v. 20, 9). Cf. Dāsarājña.

Dvi-retas, 'having double seed,' is an epithet of both the ass¹ and the mare.²

¹ Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iv. 9; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, vi. 3, 1, 23. Cf. Gardabha.  
² Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, vi. 1, 4.

Dvīpa, 'island,' is mentioned in the Rigveda¹ and later.² But there is no reason to imagine that the islands referred to were other than sandbanks in the great rivers, Indus or Ganges.³ Vedic literature knows nothing of the system of geography according to which the earth consists of four, seven, or thirteen Dvipas grouped round Mount Meru.

¹ i. 169, 3.  
² Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xii. 2; Śatasya Śrauta Sūtra, i. 6, 10.  
³ Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 256.

Dvīpin,¹ 'panther' or 'leopard,' is mentioned in the Atharvaveda² and the Maitrāyani Saṃhitā.³

¹ Lit., 'insulated'—i.e., 'spotted.'  
² iv. 8, 7; vi. 38, 2; xix. 49, 4, in every case associated with the tiger.  
³ ii. 1, 9.  

Dvaita-vana, 'descendant of Dvitavana,' is the patronymic of Dhvasan, the king of the Matsyas, whose Aśvamedha, or 'horse sacrifice,' is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (xiii. 5, 4, 9).

Dvy-opaśa. See Opaśa.
Dhana, 'prize,' is often found in the Rigveda,¹ probably the prize in racing rather than the 'booty' in battle. It also denotes² the 'stake' at dicing. In some passages it possibly means the 'contest' itself.³ More generally it denotes 'wealth' or 'gift.'⁴ But it sometimes expresses 'booty,'⁵ probably from the notion of 'wealth' rather than of 'prize.'

¹ Rv. i. 81, 3; vi. 45, 2; viii. 80, 8; ix. 53, 2; 109, 10. Cf. Geldner, Vedicische Studien, 1, 120; Pischel, ibid., 1, 171.
² Rv. x. 34, 10; Av. iv. 38, 3.
³ Rv. i. 31, 6; v. 35, 7; vii. 38, 8; viii. 5, 26; 8, 21; 49, 9; 50, 9; x. 48, 5, etc.
⁴ Rv. i. 42, 6; x. 18, 2; 84, 7; Av. i. 15, 3; ii. 7, 4; iii. 15, 2; v. 19, 9; vi. 81, 1; vii. 81, 4; viii. 5, 16, etc.
⁵ Rv. i. 74, 3; 157, 2, etc.

Dhana-dhānī, a 'treasure house,' is mentioned in the Taittiriya Āraṇyaka (x. 67).

Dhaniṣṭhā ('very rich'), used in the plural, is the later name¹ of the lunar mansion (Nakṣatra) Śravīṣṭhā.

¹ Śāntikalpa, 13; Śāṅkhāyana Gṛhya Sūtra, i. 26.

Dhanu (fem.), 'sandbank,' occurs several times in the Rigveda,² but only metaphorically of the clouds in the atmosphere. Dhanu is found in the Atharvaveda,² where it seems to denote a sandbag used to prevent bleeding.³ Cf. Dhanvan.

¹ i. 33, 4; 144, 5; viii. 3, 19; x. 4, 3; 27, 17.
² i. 17, 4.

Whitney, Translation of the Atharveda, 18; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharveda, 259, 260.

Dhanus, the 'bow,' frequently mentioned in the Rigveda¹ and later,² was the chief weapon of the Vedic Indian.³ The last act of the funeral rite included the removal of the bow from

¹ viii. 72, 4; 77, 11; ix. 99, 1; x. 18, 9; 125, 6.
² Av. iv. 4, 6; 6, 6; v. 18, 8; vii. 50, 9; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xvi. 10; Paṇca-vaṃśa Brāhmaṇa, vii. 5, 6; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 14; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 5, 4, 6; v. 3, 1, 11, etc.
³ Rv. vi. 75, 2. Practically no other weapon plays any substantial part in Vedic warfare.
the right hand of the dead man. The weapon was composed of a stout staff bent into a curved shape (vakra), and of a bow-string (jyā) made of a strip of cowhide which joined the ends. The tips of the bow, when the string was fastened, were called Ārtṇī. Relaxed when not in actual use, the bow was specially strung up when needed for shooting. The stages of the process are given in detail in the Vājasaneyi Samhitā: the stringing (ā-lau) of the bow, the placing (prati-dhā) of the arrow, the bending (ā-yam) of the bow, and the shooting (as). The arrow was discharged from the ear, and is hence called karna-yoni, 'having the ear as its point of origin.' The making of bows was a regular profession (dhanus-kāra, dhanus-krā). For the arrow see Isu, and for the handguard Hastaghna.

1. Dhanvan, 'bow,' is found frequently in the Rigveda and later. It also occurs in the compounds isu-dhanva, 'bow and arrow,' ājya-dhanva, 'having clarified butter for its bow,' adhījya-dhanva, 'bow with string fixed,' etc. Cf. Dhanus.

2. Dhanvan, 'desert,' is repeatedly mentioned in the Rigveda and later. Death from thirst in the desert was not rare, and

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4 Rv. x. 18, 9. 5 Av. iv. 6, 4. 6 Rv. vi. 75, 11; Av. i. 2, 3. 7 Rv. x. 166, 3; Av. vi. 42, 1. 8 xvi. 22. 9 Rv. vi. 75, 2 et seq. So also in the Epic, Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 271. The Homeric method is to draw to the breast—e.g., Iliad, iv. 123. 10 Rv. ii. 24, 8. 11 xxx. 7. 12 xvi. 46. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 298, 299; Hopkins, op. cit., 13, 270 et seq. The Epic bow is about 5½ feet, and the arrow 3 feet in length.

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1 ii. 24, 8; 33, 10; vi. 59, 7; 75, 2; viii. 20, 2; ix. 69, 1; Nirukta, ix. 17. 2 Av. i. 3, 9; iv. 4, 7; xi. 9, 1, etc.; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xvi. 9, etc. 3 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 19; isu-dhanvin, Taittiriya Samhitā, v. 1, 2. 4 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 25. 5 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ix. 1, 1, 6. 6 Av. v. 13, 1; vi. 100, 1; vii. 41, 1, etc. 7 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 19.
the value of a spring in the desert was fully appreciated.\(^4\)
The great desert east of the **Sindhu** (Indus) and the **Śutudri** (Sutlej) is possibly referred to in one hymn of the Rigveda.\(^5\)

\(^4\) Rv. x. 4, 1. Cf. vi. 34. 4, etc.; Av. i. 6, 4; xix. 2, 2.
\(^5\) i. 86, 20.

**Dhamani**, ‘reed,’ appears to denote ‘pipe’ in a passage of the Rigveda\(^1\) and in a citation appearing in the Nirukta.\(^2\) In the Atharvaveda\(^3\) it denotes, perhaps, ‘artery’ or ‘vein,’ or more generally ‘intestinal channel,’ being coupled in some passages\(^4\) with **Hirā**.

\(^1\) ii. 11, 8.
\(^2\) vi. 24.
\(^3\) i. 17, 23; ii. 33, 6; vi. 90, 2; vii. 35, 2. Cf. Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iiii. 19, 2.

**Dharuṇa** in one passage of the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā (viii. 51) denotes a ‘sucking calf.’

**Dharma,\(^1\)** **Dharman,\(^2\)** are the regular words, the latter in the Rigveda,\(^1\) and both later,\(^2\) for ‘law’ or ‘custom.’ But there is very little evidence in the early literature as to the administration of justice or the code of law followed. On the other hand, the Dharma Sūtras\(^3\) contain full particulars.

(1) **Criminal Law.**—The crimes recognized in Vedic literature vary greatly in importance, while there is no distinction adopted in principle between real crimes and what now are regarded as fanciful bodily defects or infringements of merely

\(^1\) i. 22, 18; 164, 43. 50; iii. 3, 1; r7, 1; 60, 6; v. 26, 6; 63, 7; 72, 2, etc.; Av. xiv. 1, 51; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, x. 29, etc. Cf. Geldner, *Rigveda, Glossar*, 90.
\(^2\) Dharma is found in Av. xi. 7, 17; xii. 5, 7; xviii. 3, 1; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, iii. 5, 2, 2; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xv. 6; xx. 9; xxx. 6, etc.
conventional practices. The crimes enumerated include the slaying of an embryo (bhrūṇa), the slaying of a man (vīra), and the slaying of a Brahmin, a much more serious crime. Treachery is mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa as being punishable by death, as it was punished later. But there is no trace of an organized criminal justice vested either in the king or in the people. There still seems to have prevailed the system of wergeld (Vaira), which indicates that criminal justice remained in the hands of those who were wronged. In the Sūtras, on the other hand, the king's peace is recognized as infringed by crimes, a penalty being paid to him, or, according to the Brahminical textbooks, to the Brahmins. It may there-

4 Compare the list in Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iv. 1, 9; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxxi. 7; Kapiṣṭhala Saṃhitā, xlvii. 7; and Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 2, 8, 11 (see Delbrück, Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 579 et seq.), where bodily defects (bad nails and discoloured teeth), marrying a younger daughter when her elder sister was unmarried, are coupled with murder, though not equated with it. See also Chāndogya Upaniṣad, v. 11, 5, where Āsvapati's list of sinners includes a drinker of intoxicating liquor, a thief, and one who does not maintain a sacrificial fire.

5 Taittiriya Saṃhitā, vi. 5, 10, 2; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxvii. 9; xxxi. 7; Kapiṣṭhala Saṃhitā, xli. 7; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iv. 1, 9; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 2, 8, 12; Taittiriya Āraṇyaka, ii. 7, 8; 8, 3; Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, iv. 1, 22; Nirukta, vi. 27; Kauṣṭakī Upaniṣad, iii. 1. Cf. Av. vi. 112. 3; 113, 2; Weber, Indische Studien, 9, 481; 10, 66; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharavaveda, 522; American Journal of Philology, 17, 430.

6 Kāṭhaka, xxxi. 7; Kapiṣṭhala, loc. cit.; Maitrāyaṇī, loc. cit.; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, loc. cit.; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxx. 5, and cf. Vaira. For cases of justifiable homicide, see, e.g., Vasiṣṭha Dharma Sūtra, iii. 15-18. Cf. also the story of Vṛṣa Jāna in Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 3, 12, where the death of a boy by careless driving is mentioned, and the king is reproached for it by his Purohita. They dispute as to the guilt, and, according to one version (see Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 66, 67), the Iktevākus decide that the action was sinful, and required expiation.

7 Taittiriya Saṃhitā, ii. 5, 1, 2; v. 3, 12, 1; vi. 5, 10, 2; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxxi. 7 (where the Kapiṣṭhala has brahma-ṛya, 'oppressor of a Brahmin'); Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 2, 8, 12. The Taittiriya Āraṇyaka, x. 38, declares that the slaying of a Brahmin alone is truly murder, and the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 3, 1, 1 et seq., states that the sin of murdering a Brahmin can be expiated only by the performance of an Āśvamedha, or 'horse sacrifice'—the ne plus ultra of human generosity to Brahmins. See also Nirukta, vi. 27. The later tradition also interprets bhrūṇa as Brahmin (see Śaṅkara, cited in Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 410, n.; Keith, Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka, 30, n. 5; Konow, Śāma-viḍhāṇa Brāhmaṇa, 46, n. 1, and cf. Vasiṣṭha Dharma Sūtra, xx. 23).

8 xiv. 6, 8, the story of Kutasa.

9 Jolly, op. cit., 127.

10 See references in Bühler, Sacred Books of the East, 14, 345.
fore reasonably be conjectured that the royal power of jurisdiction steadily increased; the references in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa to the king as wielding punishment (Danda) confirm this supposition. Whether, as the analogy of other systems suggests, the king was assisted in his judicial duties, as he undoubtedly was later, by assessors, presumably of the Brahmin caste, cannot be made out clearly.\textsuperscript{11}

The procedure adopted in deciding cases is quite uncertain. In the Chāndogya Upaniṣad\textsuperscript{12} the ordeal of the red-hot axe is mentioned as applied in an accusation of theft. It must apparently be understood to have been inflicted by the direction of the king. But no other judicial ordeal is known to Vedic literature (see Divya). The punishment of theft was in some cases at least death, probably when the thief was taken red-handed;\textsuperscript{13} in other cases binding to posts was the penalty,\textsuperscript{14} presumably accompanied by the return of the stolen goods. In the Chāndogya Upaniṣad\textsuperscript{15} the list of sins given as apparently equal in wickedness is stealing gold, drinking spirits, defiling a Guru's bed, and the murder of a Brahmin.

(2) \textit{Civil Law}.—There is little recorded as to civil law in Vedic literature. The relations of the family and the question of family property are dealt with under Urvarā, Kṣetra, Pati; succession and partition of property are treated under Dāya. As regards the transfer of chattels—for land as transferable \textit{inter vivos} is hardly yet recognized, save exceptionally as a sacrificial fee (Daksinā), and then disapproved\textsuperscript{16}—the recognized modes are gift (Dāna) and barter or sale (Kraya), which includes exchange. Original acquisition of land was no doubt brought

\textsuperscript{11} Compare the story of the death of the child killed by Tryaruna, and the decision of the Ikṣvākus referred to in n. 6 above, and the notice in Kāthaka Saṃhitā, xxvii. 4, that a Rājanya is \textit{adhyakṣa}, when a Śūdra is punished (han).

\textsuperscript{12} vi. 16. Cf. Weber, \textit{Indian Literature}, 72, 73.

\textsuperscript{13} Gautama Dharma Sūtra, xii. 43; Āpastamba Dharma Sūtra, i. 9, 25, 4.

\textsuperscript{14} See Av. xix. 47, 9; 50, 1, and Taalkara.

\textsuperscript{15} v. 10, 9. Another list is given in Taittirīya Āranyaka, x. 65, which includes slaying a Brahmin, defiling a Guru’s bed, stealing a cow, drinking Surā, and killing an embryo, along with irregularities in offering a Śrāddha, ‘water offering to the dead.’ Cf. also Nirukta, vi. 27, for a list of seven. Many more appear in the Sāmavidhāna Brāhmaṇa, but that work cannot claim to be a Brāhmaṇa proper.

\textsuperscript{16} Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 7, 1, 13.
about by occupation and apportionment among the tribesmen,\textsuperscript{17} while chattels were acquired by taking possession of them, provided that they were found on one's own land or on unoccupied land, and did not belong to any other person originally. The Śūtras\textsuperscript{18} contain rules for the disposal of lost property, which tend to give it to the king, with the deduction of a percentage for the finder, unless the latter is a Brahmīn, who keeps it all. As for contract, save in regard to money-lending (for which see Ṛṇa), practically nothing is to be gathered from Vedic literature, doubtless because of the primitive conditions prevailing in that early period. Much of the labour, which would in a more developed society have been done by workers for hire, would be performed by slaves (cf. Dāsa, Śūdra), while the technical workers of the village—of whom long lists are given in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā\textsuperscript{19} and the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa\textsuperscript{20}—may have been recompensed not by any sum based on each piece of work done, but by fixed allowances, much as the village servants are in modern times.\textsuperscript{21} But this must remain a matter of conjecture, and it is uncertain what exact status the carpenter or smith held in the village. Similarly it is impossible to trace in the early literature any legal theory or practice as to torts, but rules as to penalties for insults appear in the Śūtras.\textsuperscript{22}

Very little is recorded as to procedure. The list\textsuperscript{23} of victims at the Puruṣamedha, or 'horse sacrifice,' includes a praśnīn, an abhi-praśnīn, and a praśna-vivāka, in whom it is not unreasonable to see the plaintiff, the defendant, and the arbitrator or judge: the terms may refer to what is probably an early

\textsuperscript{17} Cf. Cæsar, Bellum Gallicum, iv. 1; vi. 22; Tacitus, Germania, 26, for Germany; Mommsen, Römisches Staatsrecht, 3, 1, 21, for the Roman hortus; and the Greek ἀνδρός, Lang, Homer and the Epic, 236-241; Ridgeway, Journal of Hellenic Studies, 6, 319 et seq.; Grote, History of Greece, 2, 36, 37. See also Pollock and Maitland, History of English Law, 2, 337 et seq.; Baden Powell, Village Communities in India, 6 et seq.; 131.

\textsuperscript{18} Gautama Dharma Śūtra, x. 36 et seq.

\textsuperscript{19} xxx.

\textsuperscript{20} i. 4. See Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 426 et seq.; Weber, Indische Streifen, 1, 75 et seq.

\textsuperscript{21} Cf. Maine, Village Communities, 127, 175; Baden Powell, op. cit., 124 et seq.; Grote, History of Greece, 2, 36, n. 2.

\textsuperscript{22} Cf. Jolly, op. cit., 126-128.

\textsuperscript{23} Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxx. 10; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 4, 6, 1.
form of judicial procedure, a voluntary arbitration. The same idea may be conveyed by the word madhyama-śi, 'lying in the midst,' which occurs in the Rigveda,24 and which Roth,25 followed by Zimmer,26 understood to mean an arbitrator or judge, the expression being derived from the judge acting with other judicial persons,27 and being surrounded by the assembly of the people. But this interpretation is uncertain; Whitney28 thinks that the word merely alludes to a chief round whom his men encamp. The king is later the chief civil judge, and may presumably have been so earlier, no doubt in conjunction with the elders of the tribe, but for this we are reduced to conjecture.29

The use of witnesses as evidence is uncertain (see Jñātṛ), and the ordeal is not recorded as deciding any civil matter except the dispute between Vatsa and his rival as to the true Brahminical descent of the former, which was settled by his walking unharmed through the flame of a fire.30 But it is probable on analogy that the ordeal may have been used for the purpose of deciding disputes. Whether the oath was so used cannot be certainly shown. It appears, however, that a Brahmin was preferred in legal matters to a non-Brahmin.31

There are very few references to police officials: no doubt the king employed some of his dependents to execute sentences and arrest offenders (see Ugra, Jīvagṛbh).

(3) Morality.—It is convenient to notice under this head

24 x. 97, 12 = Av. iv. 9, 4 = Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, xii. 86. Madhyamāśi, in the Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 408, is of quite doubtful sense.
25 Siebenzig Lieder, 174. This fact renders doubtful Lanman’s view (Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 159) that the St. Petersburg Dictionary, in giving intercessor as the interpretation, did not mean ‘mediator,’ but ‘adversary.’
26 Allindisches Leben, 180.
27 As, apparently, in early Germany. See Cæsar, Bellum Gallicum, vi. 23; Tacitus, Germania, xi. 12; Coulanges, Recherches sur quelques problèmes d’histoire, 361 et seq.
28 See n. 25.
29 Cf. the later Pariṣad, Gautama Dharma Sūtra, xxviii. 48. 49; Bandhāyana Dharma Sūtra, i. 1, 7-16; Vasīṣṭha Dharma Sūtra, xi. 5-7, 20; Jolly, op. cit., 132 et seq. The parallels from other Āryan peoples suggest the use of assessors, as in the Anglo-Saxon courts of the shire and hundred. Cf. Sohm, Altdeutsches Reichs- und Gerichtsverfassung, 6 et seq.
30 Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xiv. 6, 6.
31 Taittiriya Saṁhitā, ii. 5, 11, 9, which seems to refer either to giving evidence for or passing judgment on a case when both a Brahmin and a non-Brahmin are engaged.
several points bearing on the moral condition of the people: (a) the exposure of children; (b) the exposure of the aged; (c) prostitution; (d) adultery; (e) incest.

(a) The exposure of girl infants is asserted by Zimmer\(^{32}\) on the strength of a passage in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā,\(^{33}\) but it seems clear that the passage has been misunderstood,\(^{34}\) and that it refers merely to laying the child aside, not exposing it, while a boy was lifted up. It is, however, true that the birth of a girl was not at all popular, not an unnatural sentiment in an early society, and paralleled among other Āryan peoples.\(^{35}\)

(b) The exposure of the aged is also inferred by Zimmer\(^{36}\) from a passage of the Rigveda,\(^{37}\) and from the mention of persons exposed (ud-hitāḥ) in the Atharvaveda.\(^{38}\) The latter passage may well refer merely to the bodies being exposed after death to the elements (as is done by the Parsīs). The former passage merely refers to the individual case of some person who may have been cast out, and proves absolutely nothing as to a habitual or recognized custom, nor can such a custom be inferred from, e.g., the legend of Cyavāṇa.

(c) That prostitution existed in Rigvedic times is certain, but its extent is disputed. Brotherless girls were frequently reduced to becoming prostitutes;\(^{39}\) the putting away of an illegitimate child is referred to in the Rigveda;\(^{40}\) besides the

\(^{32}\) Allindisches Leben, 319, 320. Cf. also Weber, Indische Studien, 5, 54, 260; Kaegi, Der Rigveda, n. 49; Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 389, 390; Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 6, 142; Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 48.

\(^{33}\) xxvii. 9. Cf. Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vi. 5, 10, 3; Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 17, 12; Nirukta iii. 4.

\(^{34}\) Bühlingk, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 44, 494-496. The traditional rendering of the passages is not that it refers to exposure, but to getting rid of a daughter on her marriage.

\(^{35}\) Av. viii. 6, 25; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 15; Max Müller, Ancient Sanskrit Literature, 409; Zimmer, op. cit., 320; Schrader, op. cit., 390.

\(^{36}\) Op. cit., 327, 328. Strabo, pp. 513, 517, 520, reports the practice as prevailing in Iran, Bactria, and the Massagetae; it prevailed among the Norsemen, Weinhold, Allindisches Leben, 473, and conceivably among the early Romans (deportani senes, Cicero, Pro Roscio, 100; but this and other cases may be really instances of the ritual casting into water of the worn-out vegetation spirit for the purpose of reviving it). See Kaegi, op. cit., n. 50; Schrader, op. cit., 379, n.

\(^{37}\) viii. 51, 2.

\(^{38}\) xviii. 2, 34. See Anagnidagdha.

\(^{39}\) Rv. i. 124, 7; iv. 5, 5; Av. i. 17, 1; and cf. Ayogā.

terms punścati\(^{41}\) and mahānagri\(^{42}\) which undoubtedly mean 'harlot,' there are other clear references to prostitution;\(^{43}\) and expressions like kumārī-putra, 'son of a maiden,'\(^{44}\) and the 'son of an unmarried girl' (agri), spoken of in the Rigveda\(^{45}\) as exposed and attacked by animals, point in the same direction. The Vājjasaneyi Sanāhitā\(^{46}\) seems to recognize prostitution as a profession. Pischel\(^{47}\) see many references to Hetairai in the Rigveda, which as Geldner\(^{48}\) insists reflects in its imagery the court life of Indian princes. But the correctness of the view of these two scholars on this point is not by any means certain.\(^{49}\)

\((d)\) Adultery was generally regarded among Aryan peoples as a serious offence against the husband of the woman affected. We accordingly find in the legal literature of India traces of the rule that an adulterer can be slain with impunity if taken in the act.\(^{50}\) Weber,\(^{51}\) however, has adduced some material indicating an indifference to these matters in Vedic times, and Ludwig\(^{52}\) has adopted the same view. But, as Delbrück\(^{53}\) has clearly shown, the evidence is not convincing; the cited prescriptions\(^{54}\) forbidding connexion with another man's wife during a certain rite do not imply that such connexion would otherwise be allowed: the ritual of the Varuṇa-praghāsas,\(^{55}\) when a wife names her lover or lovers, seems originally to have been a solemn means of banishing the evil brought on a family by a wife's fall; Yājñavalkya's famous saying\(^{56}\) that no one

\(^{41}\) Av. xv, 2, etc.
\(^{42}\) Av. xiv, i, 36; xx. 136, 5 et seq.; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 27. Cf. nāgū in Av. v. 7, 8.
\(^{43}\) Rv. i. 167, 4 (Wilson, Translation of the Rigveda, 2, xvii), can hardly be so interpreted; see Zimmer, op. cit., 332, n. Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32, 277, interprets it as a reference to polyandry, but this is still more doubtful; but see Rv. viii. 17, 7.
\(^{44}\) Vājjasaneyi Sanāhitā, xxx. 6; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 2, 1.
\(^{45}\) Ív. 19, 9; 30, 16. 19; ii. 13, 12; 15, 17; Zimmer, op. cit., 334, 335.
\(^{46}\) Apparently this is meant by the epithets atiśadvatvi (apaskadvatvi in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 11, 1), attitvā, vijarjarā, in the Vājjasaneyi Sanāhitā, xxx. 15.
\(^{47}\) Vedische Studien, 1, xxv; 196, 275, 299, 309, etc.; 2, 120.
\(^{48}\) Ibid., 2, 154.
\(^{49}\) Cf. Winternitz, Geschichte der indischen Litteratur, i, 60; Jolly, op. cit., 48.
\(^{50}\) Leist, Altarisches Jus Gentium, 276 et seq., 309.
\(^{51}\) Indische Studien, 10, 83 et seq.
\(^{53}\) Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 534 et seq.
\(^{54}\) Taittirīya Sanāhitā, v. 6, 8, 3; Maitrāyaṇi Sanāhitā, iii. 4, 7.
\(^{55}\) Maitrāyaṇi Sanāhitā, i. 10, 11; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 5, 2, 20.
\(^{56}\) Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, 1, 21.
cares whether a wife is 'unchaste' (parah-puṣṭa) or not is a mere mistranslation, \(^57\) the expression parah-puṣṭa really meaning 'removed from the male persons.' And the uncertainty asserted in some passages \(^58\) as to origin from a Rṣi is not a sign of doubtful descent, but is due to the fact that Rṣihood was a difficult matter to ascertain. None the less a woman's position was lowered by the prevalence of polygamy, and such stories as that of Ahalyā and Indra \(^59\) are not compatible with a very high standard of morality. A similar conclusion is pointed to by references in the Yajurveda \(^60\) to relations between the Ārya man and the Śūdrā woman, and by a spell given in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad \(^61\) to expiate relations with the wife of a Śrotriya (Brahmin theologian).

(c) Incest was recognized in the marriage of brother and sister as appears from the legend of Yama and Yamī in the Rigveda, \(^62\) which clearly shows that such a marriage was not approved by the feeling of the Vedic age. There is also another hymn \(^63\) in which reference to such intercourse appears to be made. Mention is further made in the Rigveda \(^64\) to the wedlock of Prajāpati and his daughter, which is, however, interpreted mythologically in the Brāhmaṇas, \(^65\) an interpretation which may be correct. That incest, however, actually did take place is clear from the Atharvaveda; \(^66\) but even though the mythological interpretation of the passage were not justiﬁed, no conclusion could be drawn from the hymn as to the normal occurrence of such relations.

\(^57\) So Böhtlingk, Dictionary, s.v.; Delbrück, op. cit., 548.
\(^58\) Maitrāyaṇi Śāṅhitā, i. 4, 11; Gopatha Brāhmaṇa, cited in Ludwig, loc. cit.
\(^59\) Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 65.
\(^60\) Taittiriya Śāṅhitā, vii. 4, 19, 2. 3; Vājasaneyi Śāṅhitā, xxiii. 30. 31.

I. Dhava is the name of a tree (Grislea tormentosa) mentioned, together with the Plakṣa, Aśvattha, and Khādira, in the Atharvaveda. \(^1\)

2. Dhava, ‘man,’ is not found before the Nirukta.¹ The word clearly owes its existence merely to *vidhavā*, ‘widow,’ wrongly interpreted as *vi-dhavā*, ‘without a husband.’

¹ iiii. 15. Cf. Naighantuka, ii. 3.

Dhavitra, occurring in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ and the Taittirīya Āraṇyaka,² denotes a ‘fan’ of hide or leather for blowing the sacrificial fire.

¹ xiv. 1, 3, 30; 3, 1, 21.
² v. 4, 33.

Dhānam-jayya, ‘descendant of Dhanam-jaya,’ is the patronymic of Amśu in the Vamśa Brāhmaṇa.¹

¹ Indische Studien, 4, 373. Under this patronymic he is frequently named by Lāṭyāyana Srauta Sūtra, i. 1, 25; ii. 1, 2; 9, 10, etc. (misread Dhānam-jaya in many manuscripts). Cf. Weber, Indian Literature, 76, 77, 82.

Dhānā, always used in the plural, and frequently referred to in the Rigveda¹ and later,² means ‘grains of corn.’ They were sometimes parched (*bhṛjj*),³ and were regularly mixed with Soma.⁴

¹ i. 16, 2; iii. 35, 3; 52, 5; vi. 29, 4, etc.
² Av. xviii. 3, 69; 4, 32, 34; Vāja- saneyi Saṃhitā, xix. 21. 22; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 5, 11, 2, etc.
³ Rv. iv. 24, 7.
⁴ Rv. iii. 43, 4; 52, 1; viii. 91, 2; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, iii. 1, 10, 2; Sātpatha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 4, 3, 9.

Cf. Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 283.

Dhānya (neut.), a derivative from the preceding word,¹ denotes ‘grain’ in general. It is found in the Rigveda² and later.³ According to the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad,⁴ there are ten cultivated (*grāmyāni*) kinds of grain: rice and barley (*erīhi-yavāḥ*), sesame and beans (*iila-māśāḥ*), Panicum Miliaceum and Italicum (*anu-priyāṅgavah*), maize (*godhāmāḥ*), lentils (*masūrāḥ*), Khalvāḥ and Dolichos uniflorus (*khala-kulāḥ*). The

¹ Primarily as an adjective, ‘consisting of grain.’
² vi. 13, 4.
³ Av. iii. 24, 2, 4; v. 29, 7; vi. 50, 1;
⁴ Kauṭitaki Brāhmaṇa, xi. 8; Śad vimśa Brāhmaṇa, v. 5, etc.

Kauṭitaki Brāhmaṇa, xi. 8; Śad vimśa Brāhmaṇa, v. 5, etc.

Kauṭitaki Brāhmaṇa, xi. 8; Śad vimśa Brāhmaṇa, v. 5, etc.

Av. iii. 24, 2, 4; v. 29, 7; vi. 50, 1; vi. 3, 22 (Mādhyaṃdina=13 Kāṇva).
horse is called ‘corn-eating’ (dhányaḍa) in the Aitareya⁵ and Śatapatha⁶ Brāhmaṇas, and men are mentioned as ‘purifying corn’ (dhánya-kṛt) in the Rigveda.⁸

⁵ viii. 21. ⁶ xii. 5, 4, 2. ⁷ Lit., ‘preparing corn.’ ⁸ x. 94, 13.

Dhánva is the patronymic of Asita in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.¹ In the Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra² the form of the name is Dhānvana.

¹ xiii. 4, 3, 11; Āśvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra, x. 7. ² xvi. 2, 20.

Dhāman denotes in the Rigveda¹ and later² ‘dwelling’ and ‘house,’ or sometimes³ its inmates. The word is also⁴ found in the sense of ‘ordinance,’ ‘law,’ expressing much the same as Dharmān, especially in conjunction⁵ with Rta, ‘eternal order.’ Hillebrandt⁶ sees in one passage⁷ the sense of Nakṣatra.

¹ i. 144, 1; ii. 3, 2; iii. 55, 10; vii. 61, 4; 87, 2; x. 13, 1, etc. ² Av. iv. 25, 7; vii. 68, 1; xii. 1, 52; Vājasaṇeyi Saṃhitā, iv. 34; Taittiriya Āraṇyaka, ii. 7, 2. ³ Av. viii. 101, 6; ix. 63, 14; x. 82, 3; Av. ii. 14, 6. Many of the examples given in the St. Petersburg Dictionary, s. v., C, are doubtful.

¹ Rv. vi. 3, 5; 47, 10. ² Kauśika Sūtra, 44. ³ Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, iii. 3, 2. ⁴ Rv. iv. 55, 2; vi. 21, 3; vii. 63, 3; viii. 41, 10; x. 48, 11. ⁵ Rv. i. 123, 9; iv. 7, 7; vii. 36, 5; x. 124, 3. ⁶ Vedische Mythologie, 1, 446. ⁷ Rv. ix. 66, 2. Cf. Geldner, Rigveda, Glossar, 92, 93.

Dhārā denotes the ‘edge’ of a weapon,¹ as of an axe (svadhiti),² or of a razor (kṣura).³ See also Asi.

¹ Rv. vii. 61, 4; 87, 2; viii. 55, 10; i. 90, 3, 4; 3. 4; iii. 49, 1; iv. 34, 1; 36, 8; viii. 61, 9; ix. 59, 2; x. 17, 12; 30, 6; Vājasaṇeyi Saṃhitā, i. 19; vi. 26, 35, etc.

² Kauśika Sūtra, 44. ³ Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, iii. 3, 2.

Dhiṣanā, according to the St. Petersburg Dictionary, denotes¹ an implement used in preparing the Soma, ‘bowl’ or ‘vat,’ and by metonymy also the Soma draught itself.² The dual, by

¹ Rv. i. 96, 1; 102, 1; 109, 3, 4; iii. 49, 1; iv. 34, 1; 36, 8; viii. 61, 9; ix. 59, 2; x. 17, 12; 30, 6; Vājasaṇeyi Saṃhitā, i. 19; vi. 26, 35, etc. ² Rv. i. 102, 7; iii. 32, 14; 49, 4; vi. 19, 2; vii. 90, 3; viii. 15, 7; x. 96, 10, etc.
a metaphor, also expresses the 'two worlds,' heaven and earth.\(^4\) Hillebrandt,\(^5\) however, thinks that the word properly means earth,\(^6\) in the dual heaven and earth,\(^7\) in the plural the triad, earth, atmosphere, and heaven,\(^8\) while in some passages\(^9\) Dhiṣaṇā denotes the Vedi, the excavated ground used as an altar. This is not, however, certain, while it seems clear that the Vājasaneyi\(^10\) and Taittiriya\(^11\) Saṃhitās understand the Dhiṣaṇās (dual) to be the planks over which the pressing of the Soma took place (adhiṣaṇa-phalake).\(^12\) Pischel\(^13\) sees in Dhiṣaṇā a goddess of wealth akin to Aditi and the earth.

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3 Like Camu.

4 Rv. i. 160, 1; vi. 8, 3; 59, 3; 70, 3; x. 44, 8; in the plural, 'the three worlds,' Rv. v. 69, 2. In other passages, Rv. i. 22, 10; iii. 56, 6; v. 41, 8; vi. 11, 3; x. 35, 7, the sense of 'a genius of prosperity' was assigned to Dhiṣaṇā by Roth.

5 Vedic Mythologie, I, 175-181.

6 Rv. i. 22, 10; 96, 1; 102, 1; iii. 31, 13; 56, 6; vi. 19, 2; vii. 90, 3; viii. 15, 7; x. 30, 6; 35, 7; 96, 10.

7 See n. 3; also Rv. viii. 61, 2; nīvid in Sākhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, viii. 19, 4.

8 Rv. iv. 36, 8; v. 69, 2; ix. 59, 2.

9 Rv. i. 109, 3. 4; iii. 2, 1; 49, 4 (or perhaps 'earth'); iv. 34, 1; v. 41, 8; vi. 11, 3; x. 17, 12.


11 iii. 1, 10, 1.

12 Mahādhara on Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, vii. 26; Śāyaṇa on Taittiriya Saṃhitā, loc. cit.


Dhī, 'thought,' is used several times in the Rigveda\(^1\) to denote the 'prayer' or 'hymn of praise' of the singer. One poet speaks of himself as 'weaving' such a prayer,\(^2\) while another refers to his 'ancient ancestral hymn,' which he refurbishes presumably for use.\(^3\)

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1 i. 3, 5; 135, 5; 151, 6; 185, 8; ii. 3, 8 (where it is connected with Sarasvati); 40, 5, etc.  
2 Rv. ii. 28, 5.  
3 Rv. iii. 39, 2.  

Dhīti has in several passages of the Rigveda\(^1\) practically the same sense as Dhī, 'prayer,' or 'hymn of praise.'

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1 i. 110, 1; iii. 12, 7; 52, 6; v. 25, 3; 35, 11; vi. 15, 9, etc. ; Nirukta, ii. 24.

Dhīra Śāta-parṇeyā ('descendant of Śataparṇa') is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (x. 3, 3, 1) as a pupil of Mahāśāla.
Dhivan occurs in the Atharvaveda, where it may either be taken with Roth, Bloomfield, and Whitney as an epithet of ‘chariot-builders’ (ratha-kārāḥ), meaning ‘clever,’ or be construed with the scholiast as denoting ‘fishermen’ (dhivara). The Paippalāda recension has takṣāṇah, ‘carpenters.’

Dhūṅkṣā is the name of some sort of bird in the list of victims at the Asvamedha, or ‘horse sacrifice,’ in the Yajurveda Samhitās. See also Dhūṅkṣā and Dhvāṅkṣa.

Dhuni is the name of a foe of Indra, normally mentioned along with Cumuri in the Rigveda. He and Cumuri seem to have been opposed to Dabhitī. His name is probably that of an aboriginal chief.

Dhur in the Rigveda and later denotes, according to the St. Petersburg Dictionary, that part of the yoke which is placed on the shoulders of the animals drawing the chariot or cart, whence they are called dhūr-śāh, ‘yoke-bearing,’ in the Vājasaneyi Samhitā. In one passage of the Rigveda the sense is uncertain: Roth takes it to mean the pin at either end of the axle (Aksa) which goes through the nave of the wheel, and would thus be equivalent to Āni, and Oldenberg.


1 ii. 15, 9; vi. 18, 8; 20, 13; vii. 19, 4. 1, xxii; Madonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 162. Cf. Oldenberg, Religion des Veda, 157, 158.

1 iv. 33. Cf. Usra. 2 ii. 18, 7; iii. 35, 2; v. 55, 6; vii. 34, 4, etc. 3 Av. v. 17, 18; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa vi. 18; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 2 10; 4, 4, 13, etc.; Aitareya Āraṇyaka i. 5, 2 (the Dhur is the end), etc.

1 v. 43, 8. 2 St. Petersbursg Dictionary, s.v., 2. 3 Av. v. 17, 18; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa vi. 18; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 2 10; 4, 4, 13, etc.; Aitareya Āraṇyaka i. 5, 2 (the Dhur is the end), etc. 4 Rgveda - Noten, 1, 339; Griffith, Hymns of the Rigveda, 1, 508. The aksa-dhurau are mentioned in the Apastamba Srauta Sūtra, xi. 6, 5; Kātyāyana Srauta Sūtra, viii. 3, 22. Cf. Caland and Henry, L’Agnistoma, 81.

26
A BIRD—DEATH—CAMEL—CHARIOTEER [Dhūṅkṣṇā]

seems to adopt the same view. Monier Williams seems to think that ‘load’ is meant, but this is not probable. It is possible that Dhur has the sense of ‘pole,’ and then more generally still the pole and the axle together regarded as the drawing part of the chariot: this might explain the use in the doubtful passage of the Rigveda.

7 Dictionary, s.v.
8 Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 246.

Later, the word means the ‘end of the pole,’ a sense already found in the Aitareya Āraṇyaka (n. 2). This modification of meaning seems to be due to the fact that the yoke is at the end of the pole. See also Dhūṛṣad.

Dhūṅkṣṇā is the form in the Taittiriya Saṃhitā of the name of the bird elsewhere found as Dhunḳṣā. It is glossed as ‘white crow’ (sveta-kāki).

1 v. 5, 19, 1. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 93, gives the form as Dhūṅkṣṇa, perhaps in error. Cf. also Dhvāṅkṣṇa.

Dhūṁma-ketu, ‘smoke-banneared,’ is an epithet of Mrtyu, ‘death,’ in the Atharvaveda. Zimmer thinks that a comet is meant, but Whitney considers this extremely improbable. Lanman plausibly suggests that the smoke of the funeral pile is referred to.

1 xix. 9, 10. 2 Altindisches Leben, 358.
3 Translation of the Atharvaveda, 914. 4 Ibid.

Dhūṁra in the Taittiriya Saṃhitā (i. 8, 21, 1) denotes ‘camel’ according to Böhtlingk’s Dictionary.

Dhūṛ-ṣad means, according to Roth, ‘standing under the yoke’ and so ‘burden-bearing,’ and thus metaphorically ‘promoting,’ in the passages of the Rigveda where it occurs. More probable, however, is the view that it means ‘sitting on the pole,’ that is, ‘charioteer,’ with reference to the fact that

1 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
to get near his horses the charioteer might well go forward and sit on the pole or even on the yoke.\textsuperscript{4}

\textsuperscript{4} Cf. Mahābhārata, viii. 617: dhuryān dhuryagatān sūtān.

\section*{1. Dhṛta-raśṭra} (‘having his kingdom firmly established’) is the name of a snake demon with the patronymic Airāvata, ‘descendant of Irāvant,’ in the Atharvaveda\textsuperscript{1} and the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.\textsuperscript{2}

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{1} viii. 10, 29.
\end{itemize}

\section*{2. Dhṛtarāṣṭra Vaicitra-vīrya} (‘descendant of Vicitra-vīrya’) is mentioned in a passage of the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā,\textsuperscript{1} which is, unhappily, far from intelligible. But there is no ground for supposing that he was a Kuru-Pañcāla king; he seems rather to have lived at some distance from the Kuru-Pañcālas. There is no good reason to deny his identity\textsuperscript{2} with the Dhṛtarāṣṭra of the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa,\textsuperscript{3} king of Kāśi, who was defeated, when he attempted to offer a horse sacrifice, by Sātrājīta Śatānīka. The fact that the latter was a Bharata also points to Dhṛtarāṣṭra’s not having been a Kuru-Pañcāla at all. In the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā he appears as having a dispute with Vaka Dalbhī; but even assuming that the latter was a Pañcāla, there is nothing to hint that the former was a Kuru or that this dispute is a sign of an early hostility of Kuru and Pañcāla.\textsuperscript{4} It is true that in the Epic Śāntanu and Vicitrāvīrya and Dhṛtarāṣṭra himself are all connected, but this connexion seems to be due, as so often in the Epic, to a confused derangement of great figures of the past.

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{1} x. 6. Cf. Weber, \textit{Indische Studien}, 3, 469 et seq.
\item \textsuperscript{2} As does Weber, \textit{Indian Literature}, 90, 114, 125; \textit{Episches im vedischen Ritual}, 7, 8. Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., treats them as identical.
\item \textsuperscript{3} xiii. 5, 4, 22.
\item \textsuperscript{4} Keith, \textit{Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society}, 1908, 831 et seq. This argument is independent of the identification of the two Dhṛtarāṣṭras, but is confirmed by it.
\end{itemize}

\textbf{Dhrṣṭi}, found in the dual in the Taittirīya Āraṇyaka,\textsuperscript{1} the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa,\textsuperscript{2} and the Sūtras,\textsuperscript{3} seems to denote ‘fire-tongs.’

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{1} v. 9, 8.
\item \textsuperscript{2} xiv. 3, 1, 22.
\item \textsuperscript{3} Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xxvi. 2, 10, etc.
\end{itemize}
Dhenā denotes a ‘milch cow,’\(^{11}\) or in the plural, ‘draughts of milk.’\(^ {12}\) In two passages\(^ {8}\) Roth\(^ {4}\) takes the word to mean ‘mare,’ and in another the ‘team’ of Vāyu’s chariot. Benfey,\(^ {6}\) on the other hand, renders it ‘lips’ in one passage,\(^ {7}\) with Sāyana and with Durgā’s commentary on the Nirukta.\(^ {9}\) Geldner\(^ {9}\) assigns to the word the senses of ‘lips,’\(^ {10}\) ‘speech,’\(^ {11}\) ‘cow,’\(^ {12}\) ‘beloved,’\(^ {13}\) and ‘streams.’\(^ {14}\)

1. Rv. iii. 34, 3 (Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 61); v. 62, 2. Cf. Geldner, Vedische Studien, 3, 114.
2. Rv. iii. 1, 9; iv. 58, 6, etc.
3. i. 101, 10; v. 30, 9.
5. Rv. i. 2, 3.
6. Orient und Occident, 3, 130.
7. Rv. i. 101, 10.

Dhenu in the Rigveda\(^ {1}\) and later\(^ {2}\) means ‘milch cow,’ which is often mentioned with special reference to the production of milk,\(^ {3}\) and is contrasted with the ‘bull’ (vrśabha,\(^ {4}\) pumāns,\(^ {5}\) anadvāḥ).\(^ {6}\) In the plural\(^ {7}\) the word denotes ‘draughts of milk.’ The derivative, dhenukā, means merely ‘female.’\(^ {8}\)

\(^ {1}\) i. 32, 9 (saha-vatsā, ‘with her calf’); 134, 4; ii. 2, 2; 34, 8; vi. 135, 8, etc.
\(^ {2}\) Av. v. 17, 18; vii. 104, 1; Taittiriya Samhitā, ii. 6, 2, 3; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iv. 4, 8; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xvii. 27; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 2, 1, 21, etc.
\(^ {3}\) Rv. vii. 33, 22; viii. 14, 3; Av. iv. 34, 8 (kāma-dughā, ‘milking desires,’ the later ‘cow of plenty’ of the Epic); Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xii. 8, 2, 2.
\(^ {4}\) Rv. x. 5, 7.
\(^ {5}\) Av. xi. 1, 34.
\(^ {6}\) Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xviii. 27; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 1, 2, 21.
\(^ {7}\) Rv. iv. 22, 6; viii. 2, 6; 4, 8; ix. 61, 21; 72, 1, etc.
\(^ {8}\) Av. iii. 23, 4; Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa, xxv. 10, 23; Āśvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xi. 6, 2.

Dhenu-ṣṭarī in the Kāthaka (xiii. 6) and Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā (ii. 5, 4) denotes a cow which has ceased to give milk.

Dhaivara means a ‘fisherman,’ as a member of a caste,\(^ {1}\) in the list of victims at the Puruṣamedha, or ‘human sacrifice,’ in the Yajurveda.\(^ {2}\) Cf. Dhivara.

\(^ {1}\) This seems to be shown by the patronymic form, ‘descendant of a dhivara.’
\(^ {2}\) Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxx. 16; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 15, 1.
Dhmāṭr (lit. ‘blower’) occurs twice in one passage of the
Rigveda in the two forms, dhmāṭā, nom. ‘smelter,’ and
dhmāṭarī, which, according to the Padapātha, stands for
dhmāṭarī, a locative probably meaning ‘in the smelting furnace.’
Geldner, Bartholomae, and Oldenburg regard the latter form
as a locative infinitive, ‘in the smelting.’ Ludwig and Neisser
think dhmāṭarī is a nom. sing. masc. used in the same sense as
dhmāṭā. Smelting is also clearly referred to, and the smelter
is described as using the wings of birds (parṇa śakaunānāṁ) to
fan the flame. That the art was widely applied is shown by
the fact that reference is made to arrows with points of Ayas,
to kettles which were fashioned of the same metal and could be
placed upon a fire, and to Soma cups of beaten Ayas.

Dhrāji in the Rigveda and later denotes the ‘sweep’ of the
wind, referring no doubt to the violent gales which often blow
in India devastating the forests, and which figure in the
descriptions of the Maruts, or storm gods.

Dhrūva in the Sūtras denotes the pole star, being mentioned
in connexion with the marriage ritual, in which the star is
pointed out to the bride as an emblem of constancy. In the

1 v. 9, 5
2 Macdonell, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1893, 446.
3 Vedicische Studien, 1, 146, n. 1.
4 Indogermanische Forschungen, 1, 496, n. 2.
5 Sacred Books of the East, 46, 388.
6 Infinitiv im Veda, 9; Translation of
the Rigveda, 4, 334.
7 Bezzenberger’s Beiträge, 20, 40.
8 Rv. iv. 2, 17. In the Śatapatha
Brāhmaṇa, vi. 1, 3, 5, Ayas is smelted
from the ore (aśman), and gold from
the Ayas.
9 Rv. ix. 112, 2.
10 Cf. 1ṣū.
11 Rv. v. 30, 15.
12 Rv. ix. 1, 2.
Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 252; Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 159.

1 i. 164, 44; x. 97, 13; 136, 2.
2 Av. iii. 1, 5; Maitrāyaṇī Śaṃhitā,
i. 2, 17; iv. 9, 5; Taittiriya Āraṇyaka,
i. 11, 19, etc.
3 Cf. Max Müller, Sacred Books of the
East, xxxii, xxxii et seq.; Macdonell,
Vedic Mythology, p. 79.
Maitrāyaṇī Upaniṣad, a late work, the movement of the Dhrūva (dhruvasya pracalanam) is mentioned, but this can hardly be interpreted as referring to an actual observed motion of the nominal pole star, but rather to an extraordinary event, such as a destruction of the world, as Cowell understood the expression. Jacobi sees in the motion of the Dhrūva the possibility of fixing a date, on the ground that the only star which could have been deemed a pole star, as ‘immovable,’ was one (a Draconis) of the third millennium B.C. But this attempt to extract chronology from the name of the star is of very doubtful validity.

Dhruvā, ‘fixed,’ as an epithet of Dīś, ‘cardinal point,’ denotes the ground under one’s feet.

Dhvaja occurs twice in the Rigveda in the sense of ‘banner’ used in battle. It is characteristic of Vedic fighting that in both passages reference is made to arrows being discharged and falling on the banners.

Dhvanya is apparently the name of a patron, son of Laksmana, in a hymn of the Rigveda.

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2 See Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 15, 289; Weber, Indische Studien, 2, 396.
3 As understood by Weber, Indian Literature, 98, n. 103; Bühler, Indian Antiquity, 23, 245, n. 21; Jacobi, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 49, 228, n. 2.
4 In his edition of the Upaniṣad, p. 244.

1 Av. iii. 27, 5; xii. 3, 59; xv. 6, 1; deśa); Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, iii. 9, Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, viii. 14 (cf. Madhya-

1 vii. 85, 2; x. 103, 11. In Epic warfare banners are of vast importance —e.g., Rāmāyaṇa, ii. 67, 26; they were attached to a pole on the chariot,
Dhvasra is the name in the Satapatha Brähmana of the king of the Matsyas who celebrated an Aśvamedha, or ‘horse sacrifice,’ near the Sarasvati.

Dhvasan Dvaita-vana (‘descendant of Dvitavana’) is the name in the Satapatha Brähmana of the king of the Matsyas who celebrated an Aśvamedha, or ‘horse sacrifice,’ near the Sarasvati.

Dhvasanti is in one passage of the Rigveda mentioned together with Puruṣanti as having been aided by the Aśvins. There can be no doubt that this is the longer form of the name Dhvasra, which is found with Puruṣanti both in the Rigveda and in the Pañcaviṃśa Brähmaṇa.

Dhvasra is named with Puruṣanti in the Pañcaviṃśa Brähmaṇa as giving gifts to Taranta and Purumīḍha. These two, being kings, could not properly accept gifts which Brähmaṇas alone could accept, but by becoming authors of a verse of the Rigveda they qualified themselves to accept them. The verse mentions the names in the dual as Dhvasrayoh Puruṣantyoh, ‘from the two, Dhvasra and Puruṣanti.’ In the Pañcaviṃśa Brähmaṇa the names occur in the dual as Dhvasre Puruṣantti, a reading which is confirmed by the Nidāna Sūtra. The former is necessarily a feminine form, though Sāyaṇa, in his comment on the passage, explains it as really an irregular masculine. According to Roth, the feminine is a corruption based on the dual form in the verse of the Rigveda mentioned above; but the names may be those of women, as Benfey

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2 Cf. Sieg, *Die Sagenstoffe des Rigveda*, 62, 63; Benfey, *Sāmaveda*, 105, 126, who is inclined to think that Dhvasanti and Puruṣanti are names of women.

3 xiii. 7, 12 (where the dual of Dhvasra appears as a feminine Dhvasre).

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1 i. 112, 23.
2 ix. 58. 3 = Sv. ii. 409.
3 xiii. 7, 12.
4 Both words are in the dual, as if they were members of a Dvandva compound. Cf. Macdonell, *Vedic Grammar*, 261.
5 Loc. cit.
6 ix. 9.
7 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. dhvasra.
8 The first would in that case be Dhvasra.
9 *Sāmaveda*, 105, 126, under Dhvasanti and Puruṣanti.
inclines to believe. Weber\textsuperscript{10} suggests that the two were demons, but this is, as Sieg\textsuperscript{11} shows, quite unnecessary. Dhvasra is no doubt identical with Dhvasanti.

\textsuperscript{10} \textit{Episches im vedischen Ritual}, 27, n. 1.

\textsuperscript{11} \textit{Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda}, 62, 63.

\textit{Cf.} Ludwig, Translation of the Rgveda, 3, 139; Oertel, \textit{Journal of the American Oriental Society}, 18, 39; Max Müller, \textit{Sacred Books of the East}, 32, 360, points out that the sense of the Rigveda passage is quite uncertain, and that the two, Taranta and Purum’ilha, as they appear in Rv. v. 61, are rather donors than receivers (see, however, verse 9, \textit{Purum’ilhāya viprīyā}). See also Oldenberg, \textit{Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft}, 42, 232; \textit{Rgveda-Noten}, 1, 354.

\textbf{Dhvāṅkṣa}, 'crow,' is mentioned twice in the Atharvaveda,\textsuperscript{1} and in the Sūtras.\textsuperscript{2} Possibly the same bird is meant by the words Dhuṅkṣā and Dhūṅkṣāpā.

\textsuperscript{1} xi. 9, 9; xii. 4, 8.

\textsuperscript{2} Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra xxv. 6, 9.


\textbf{Dhvāṅta} is the name of some wind in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās\textsuperscript{1} and later.\textsuperscript{2}

\textsuperscript{1} Taittiriya Saṃhitā, i. 7, 7, 2; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxxix. 7.

\textsuperscript{2} Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 7, 16, 1; Taittiriya Āraṇyaka, iv. 24, 1; 25, 1.

\textbf{N.}

\textbf{Nakula}, 'ichneumon,' is mentioned in the Atharvaveda\textsuperscript{1} as being able to cut a snake in two and then join it up again. Its knowledge\textsuperscript{2} of a remedy against snake poison is also mentioned. The animal figures in the list of sacrificial victims at the Asvamedha, or 'horse sacrifice,' in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās.\textsuperscript{3}

\textsuperscript{1} vi. 139, 5.

\textsuperscript{2} Av. viii. 7, 23.

\textsuperscript{3} Taittiriya Saṃhitā, v. 5, 12, 1; 21, 1; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. 26. 2; Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 7.

In the Taittiriya Saṃhitā, vii. 3, 18, 1; \textit{Rgveda Prātiśākhyā}, xvii. 9, \textit{nakula} denotes a colour—no doubt that of the ichneumon.
Nakṣatra, 'night,' is found frequently in the Rigveda,¹ and sometimes later,² usually in the adverbial form naktaṁ, 'by night.'

¹ i. 13, 7; 73. 7; 96, 5; vii. 2, 6; x. 70, 6; adverbially, i. 24, 10; 90, 7; v. 76, 3; vii. 15, 15; 104, 17; viii. 96, 1.
² Chāndogya Upaniṣad, viii. 4, 2; adverbially, Av. vi. 128, 4; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 1, 4, 2; xiii. 1, 5, 5, etc.

Nakṣatra is a word of obscure origin and derivation. The Indian interpreters already show a great divergence of opinion as to its primary meaning. The Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ resolves it into na-kṣatra (‘no power’), explaining it by a legend. The Nirukta² refers it to the root nakṣ, ‘obtain,’ following the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa.³ Aufrecht⁴ and Weber⁵ derived it from nakta-tra, ‘guardian of night,’ and more recently⁶ the derivation from nak-kṣatra, ‘having rule over night,’ seems to be gaining acceptance. The generic meaning of the word therefore seems to be ‘star.’

The Nakṣatras as Stars in the Rigveda and Later.—The sense of 'star' appears to be adequate for all or nearly all the passages in which Nakṣatra occurs in the Rigveda.⁷ The same sense occurs in the later Saṃhitās also: the sun and the Nakṣatras are mentioned together,⁸ or the sun, the moon, and the Nakṣatras,⁹ or the moon and the Nakṣatras,¹⁰ or the Nakṣatras alone;¹¹

¹ ii. 1, 2, 18. 19. Cf. a citation in Nirukta, iii. 20.
³ i. 5, 2, 5. Kuhn’s Zeitschrift, 8, 71, 72. So Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, 288, n. 2.
⁴ Naxatra, 2, 268.
⁵ Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, p. 74, line 8.
⁶ See i. 50, 2; vii. 86, 1; x. 68, 11; III, 7; used of the sun itself, vi. 67, 6 (as masculine); vii. 81, 2; x. 88, 13. The sun is allied with them, iii. 54, 19. Nakṣatra-savas, ‘equalling the multitude of the stars,’ is used as an epithet in x. 21, 10. Even in x. 85, 2, where Soma, on the lap of the Nakṣatras, is mentioned, ‘stars' would do; but, as this hymn refers to two of the later Nakṣatras, 'lunar mansions' may well be meant.
⁷ Av. vi. 10, 3; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxiii. 43; Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa, x. 1, 1; Taittirīya Aranyaka, iv. 10, 12.
⁸ Av. vi. 128, 3; xv. 6, 2; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, i. 8, 13, 3; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxii. 29, etc.
⁹ Av. v. 24, 10; vi. 86, 2; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, iii. 4, 5, 1; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxxv. 15; xxxvii. 12; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxx. 21; xxxix. 2, etc.
¹⁰ Taittirīya Saṃhitā, i. 2, 2, 2; ii. 6, 2, 6, etc.; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxx. 21 etc.; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, Aṣvamedha, v. 5, and very often elsewhere.
but there is no necessity to attribute to the word the sense of ‘lunar mansion’ in these passages.

On the other hand, the names of at least three of the Nakṣatras in the later sense occur in the Rigveda. Tiṣya, however, does not seem to be mentioned as a lunar mansion. With Aghās (plur.) and Arjuni (dual) the case is different: it seems probable that they are the later lunar mansions called Maghās (plur.) and Phalgunī (dual). The names appear to have been deliberately changed in the Rigveda, and it must be remembered that the hymn in which they occur, the wedding hymn of Śūryā, has no claim to great age. Ludwig and Zimmer have seen other references to the Nakṣatras as 27 in the Rigveda, but these seem most improbable. Nor do the adjectives revatī (‘rich’) and punarvasū (‘bringing wealth again’) in another hymn appear to refer to the Nakṣatras.

The Nakṣatras as Lunar Mansions.—In several passages of the later Sāṃhitās the connexion of the moon and the Nakṣatras is conceived of as a marriage union. Thus in the Kāṭhaka and Taittirīya Sāṃhitās it is expressly stated that Soma was wedded to the mansions, but dwelt only with Rohiṇī; the others being angry, he had ultimately to undertake to live with them all equally. Weber hence deduced that the Nakṣatras were regarded as of equal extent, but this is to press the texts unduly, except in the sense of approximate equality. The number of the mansions is not stated as 27 in the story told in the two Sāṃhitās: the Taittirīya has 33, and the Kāṭhaka no

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12 Rv. v. 59, 13; x. 64, 8; Weber, 2, 290.
13 x. 85, 13; Weber, 364-367, and see references under Aghā and Arjuni.
14 Cf. Arnold, Vedic Metre, 322.
15 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 184 et seq.
16 Altindisches Leben, 354. Cf. Tilak, Orion, 158.
17 i. 162, 18 (the 34 ribs of the horse = moon, sun, 5 planets, 27 Nakṣatras); x. 55, 3 (34 lights).
18 x. 19, r.
19 xi. 3 (Indische Studien, 3, 467).
20 ii. 3, 5, 1-3. Cf. also iii. 4, 7, 1; Kāṭhaka Sāṃhitā, xviii. 14; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xviii. 40; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ix. 4, 1, 9; Śāilvīṃśa Brāhmaṇa, iii. 12. The dwelling of the moon in a Nakṣatra is mentioned, Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, x. 5, 4, 17; Nirukta, v. 21; a Mantra in Kauśika Sūtra, 135; Taittirīya Āraṇyaka, i. 11, 6; v. 12, 1, etc.
number; but 27 appears as their number in the list which is found in the Taittiriya Saṃhitā and elsewhere. The number 28 is much less well attested: in one passage of the Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa Abhijit is practically marked as a new comer, though in a later book, in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, and in the Atharvaveda list, it has found acceptance. It is perfectly possible that 28 is the earlier number, and that Abhijit dropped out because it was faint, or too far north, or because 27 was a more mystic \((3 \times 3 \times 3)\) number: it is significant that the Chinese Sieou and the Arabic Manāzil are 28 in number. Weber, however, believes that 27 is the older number in India.

The meaning of the number is easily explained when it is remembered that a periodic month occupies something between 27 and 28 days, more nearly the former number. Such a month is in fact recognized in the Lāṭyāyana and Nidāna Sūtras as consisting of 27 days, 12 months making a year of 324 days, a Nakṣatra year, or with an intercalary month, a year of 351 days. The Nidāna Sūtra makes an attempt to introduce the Nakṣatra reckoning into the civil or solar (sāvana) year of 360 days, for it holds that the sun spends \(13\frac{1}{3}\) days in each Nakṣatra \((13\frac{1}{3} \times 27 = 360)\). But the month of 27 or 28 days plays no part in the chronological calculations of the Veda.

The Names of the Nakṣatras.—In addition to the two mentioned in the Rigveda, the earlier Atharvaveda gives the

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22 [iv. 4, 10, 1-3.]
23 [Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxxix. 13, but Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, ii. 13, 20, has 28; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, i. 5, 1, 1-5, in lists of Nakṣatras. See also Vājasaneśi Saṃhitā, ix. 7; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, x. 5, 4, 5; Paṅcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xxii. 23; Kauṣitaki Brāhmaṇa, v. 1; Śāṅkhāyana Aranyaka, ii. 16; Taittiriya Saṃhitā, vii. 1, 2, 2; Jyotisa, 18. 20 (verse 34 has 28, but it is interpolated); Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xiv. 78, etc.]
24 [i. 5, 2, 3. Cf. Weber, i, 360, n.]
25 [iii. 1, 2, 6.]
26 [ii. 13, 20.]
27 [xix. 7, 1; 8, 1 = Nakṣatrakalpa, 10. 26. So in Śāṅkhāyana Gṛhya Sūtra, i. 26.]
30 [iv. 8, 1 et seq.]
31 [v. 11. 12. See Weber, 2, 281-288.]
32 [Thibaut, Astronomie, Astrologie und Mathematik, 7.]
33 [See Māsa.]
34 [I.e., books i-xvi.]
names of Jyeṣṭhaghñī\textsuperscript{35} (the later Jyeṣṭhā) and Vicṛtau,\textsuperscript{36} which are mentioned as in close connexion, and of Revatīs (plural) and Kṛttikās.\textsuperscript{37} With reference to possible times for the ceremony of the Agnyādhāna, or ‘laying of the sacred fires,’ the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā,\textsuperscript{38} the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā,\textsuperscript{39} and the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa\textsuperscript{40} mention the Nakṣatras called Kṛttikās, Rohīṇī, Phalguniyas, Hasta; the latter Brāhmaṇa adds Punarvasū, and in an additional remark\textsuperscript{41} excludes Pūrve Phalgunī in favour of Uttare Phalgunī. The Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa\textsuperscript{42} adds Mṛgaśirṣa and Citrā as possibilities. On the other hand, Punarvasū is recommended by all authorities\textsuperscript{43} as suitable for the Punarādhaya, ‘relaying of the sacred fires,’ which takes place if the first fire has failed to effect the aim of its existence, the prosperity of the sacrificer.\textsuperscript{44} The Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā,\textsuperscript{45} however, allows Anurādhās also.

In the ceremony of the Agnicayana, or ‘piling of the fire-altar,’ the bricks are assumed to be equal in number to the Nakṣatras. The bricks number 756, and they are equated to 27 Nakṣatras multiplied by 27 secondary Nakṣatras, reckoned as 720 (instead of 729), with the addition of 36 days, the length of an intercalary month. Nothing can be usefully derived from this piece of priestly nonsense.\textsuperscript{46} But in connexion with this ceremony the Yajurveda Saṃhitās\textsuperscript{47} enumerate the 27

\textsuperscript{35} vi. 110, 2. This constellation, ‘the slayer of the oldest,’ was apparently of evil omen. Cf. Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 5, 2, 8. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 361, equates it with Antares or Cor Scorpionis, with or without σ, τ Scorpionis (Jyaiṣṭhaghnī is a misreading in the edition of Whitney and Roth).

\textsuperscript{36} vi. 110, 2. It is also mentioned in ii. 8, 1; iii. 7, 4; vi. 121, 3. It is identified by the commentators with Mūla, ‘the root,’ the two stars, λ and ν Scorpionis, which form the sting of the Scorpion’s tail; Whitney, op. cit., 48.

\textsuperscript{37} ix. 7, 3.

\textsuperscript{38} viii. 1.

\textsuperscript{39} i. 6, 9.

\textsuperscript{40} i. 1, 2, 1-6.

\textsuperscript{41} i. 1, 2, 8.

\textsuperscript{42} ii. 1, 2, 1.

\textsuperscript{43} Taittirīya Saṃhitā, i. 5, 1, 4; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, i. 7, 2; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, viii. 15; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 1, 2, 10; Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, i. 3.

\textsuperscript{44} Hillebrandt, Ritualliteratur, 109.

\textsuperscript{45} viii. 15; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, i. 7, 2.

\textsuperscript{46} Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, x. 5, 4, 5.

See Weber, 2, 298, with whom Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 43, 383, n. 1, concurs. For a wild speculation, see Shamasasraya, Gavām ayana, 122 et seq.

\textsuperscript{47} Taittirīya Saṃhitā, iv. 4, 10, 1-3; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, ii. 13, 20; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxxix. 13.
Nakṣatras, and these lists⁴⁸ may be given *in extenso* as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Kṛttikās (fem., plur.)</td>
<td>Kṛttikās ...</td>
<td>Kṛttikās ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Rohiṇī ...</td>
<td>Rohiṇī ...</td>
<td>Rohiṇī ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Mṛgaśīrṣa (neut.)</td>
<td>Invagā ...</td>
<td>Invagā ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Ārdrā ...</td>
<td>Bāhu ...</td>
<td>Bāhu ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Punarvasū (dual)</td>
<td>Punarvasu (sing.) ...</td>
<td>Punarvasu ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Tiṣya ...</td>
<td>Tiṣya ...</td>
<td>Tiṣya ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Āśreṣās (fem., plur.)</td>
<td>Āśleṣās (plur.; Pada Āśleṣā)</td>
<td>Āśleṣās (or Asleṣās)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Maghās (fem., plur.)</td>
<td>Maghās ...</td>
<td>Maghās ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Phalgunī (fem., dual)</td>
<td>Phalgunīs (plur.) ...</td>
<td>Phalgunīs ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Phalgunī (fem., dual)</td>
<td>Phalgunīs (plur.) ...</td>
<td>Uttarā Phalgunīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Hasta ...</td>
<td>Hasta ...</td>
<td>Hasta (dual) ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Citrā ...</td>
<td>Citrā ...</td>
<td>Citrā ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Svāti ...</td>
<td>Niṣṭya (neut.) ...</td>
<td>Niṣṭya ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Viśākhe (fem., dual)</td>
<td>Viśākha (neut. sing.) ...</td>
<td>Viśākha (fem., sing.) ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Anūrādhās (plur.)</td>
<td>Anūrādhā (Pada Anūrādhā) ...</td>
<td>Anūrādhās (masc. plur.) ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Rohiṇī ...</td>
<td>Jyeṣṭhā ...</td>
<td>Jyeṣṭhā ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Viṣṇu ...</td>
<td>Mūla (neut.) ...</td>
<td>Mūla ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Āśādḥās (fem., plur.)</td>
<td>Āśādḥās ...</td>
<td>Āśādḥās ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Āśādḥās (fem., plur.)</td>
<td>Āśādḥās ...</td>
<td>Uttarā Āśādḥās ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Abhijit ...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Śrōṇā ...</td>
<td>Śrōṇā ...</td>
<td>Śrōṇā ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Śraviṣṭhās (plur.)</td>
<td>Śraviṣṭhās ...</td>
<td>Śraviṣṭhās ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Śatabhiṣaj ...</td>
<td>Śatabhiṣaj ...</td>
<td>Śatabhiṣaj ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Proṣṭhapadās (masc. plur.)</td>
<td>Proṣṭhapadās ...</td>
<td>Proṣṭhapadās ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Proṣṭhapadās (masc. plur.)</td>
<td>Proṣṭhapadās ...</td>
<td>Uttare Proṣṭhapadās ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Revatī ...</td>
<td>Revatī ...</td>
<td>Revatī ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Āśvayujau (dual)</td>
<td>Āśvayujau ...</td>
<td>Āśvayujau ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. Apabharaṇīs (fem., plur.)</td>
<td>Bharaṇīs ...</td>
<td>Apabharaṇīs ...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa⁴⁹ has a list of the Nakṣatras which agrees generally with the list of the Saṃhitās. It runs as follows: Kṛttikās, Rohiṇī, Invagās, Bāhu (dual), Tiṣya, Āśleṣās, Maghās, Pūrve Phalgunī, Uttare Phalgunī, Hasta, Citrā, Niṣṭyā, Viśākhe, Anūrādhās, Rohiṇī, Mūlabarhaṇī, Pūrvā Āśādḥās, Uttarā Āśādḥās, Śrōṇā, Śraviṣṭhās, Śatabhiṣaj, Pūrve Proṣṭhapadās, Uttare Proṣṭhapadās, Revatī, Āśvayujau, Apabharaṇīs. In a later book,⁵⁰ however, the list grows to 28,

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⁴⁸ The forms and genders are given as accepted by Weber, 2, 300. The latter depend on references to the names of the Nakṣatras in other passages in some cases — e.g., Anūrādhēṣu, in Kāṭhaka, viii. 15, shows that the name is a masculine in that Saṃhitā.

⁴⁹ i. 5, 1.

⁵⁰ iii. i, 4, 1 et seq. Cf. iii. i, 1-2.
and the full moon is inserted after number 14, and the new moon after number 28, as an attempt to bring the Nāksatra (lunar) month into accordance with the Sāvana (solar) month of 30 days. The names in this second list are as in the Sāmaḥitās with the following exceptions. The seven stars of the Kṛttikās are named as Ambā, Dulā, Nitānī, Abhrayantī, Meghayantī, Varṣayantī, Cupuṇīkā, names found also in the Taittirīya and Kāṭhaka Sāmaḥitās. Beside Mrgaśīrṣa, Invakās are also mentioned. Then come Āṛdrā, Puṇarvasū, Tiṣya, Āśreṇas, Maghās (beside which Anaghās, Agadās, and Arundhatīs are also mentioned), Phalgunyas (but elsewhere in the dual, Phalgunyau), Phalgunyas, Hasta, Citrā, Niṣṭyā, Viśākhe, Anurādhās, Jyeṣṭhā, Mūla, Aṣādhās, Aṣāḥsās, Abhijit, Śrōṇā, Śraviṣṭhās, Śatabhīṣaj, Proṣṭhapadās, Proṣṭhapadās, Revatī, Aśvayujau, Bharanīyas, but also Apabhāraṇīs. Abhijit, which occurs also in an earlier part of the Brāhmaṇa, is perhaps interpolated. But Weber’s argument that Abhijit is out of place in this list because Brāhmaṇa is here mentioned as the 28th Naksatra, loses some force from the fact (of course unknown to him) that the list in the Maitrāyaṇī Sāmaḥitā contains 28 Nakṣatras, including Abhijit, and adds Brāhmaṇa at the end as another.

In another passage the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa divides the Nakṣatras into two sets, the Deva Nakṣatras and the Yama Nakṣatras, being 1–14 and 15–27 (with the omission of Abhijit) respectively. This division corresponds with one in the third book of the Brāhmaṇa where the days of the light half of the month and those of the dark half are equated with the Nakṣatras. The Brāhmaṇa treats the former series as south, the latter as north; but this has no relation to facts, and can only be regarded as a ritual absurdity.

The late nineteenth book of the Atharvaveda contains a list of the Nakṣatras, including Abhijit. The names here and the former hymn in Whitney’s Translation, 906, 907.

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51 iv. 4, 5, 1. 52 xl. 4.
53 iii. 1, 4, 3. 54 iii. 1, 4, 9.
55 iii. 1, 5, 14. 56 i. 5, 2, 3.
58 ii. 13, 20.
59 i. 5, 2, 7. Cf. Tilak, Orion, 41 et seq.
60 iii. 1, 2. Cf. Kauṣitakī Brāhmaṇa, iv. 12, with Vināyaka’s note.
61 xix. 7, 1 et seq. The number is given as 28 in xix. 7, 1 (as emended) and 8, 2. Cf. Lanman’s introductory note to the former hymn in Whitney’s Translation, 906, 907.
given are: Kṛttikās, Rohinī, Mṛgaśīrṣas, Āḍrā, Punarvasū, Puṣya, Āśleṣās, Maghās, Pūrvā Phalgunyau (sic),62 Hasta, Citrā, Svāti (masc.),63 Viśākhe, Anurādhā,64 Jyeṣṭhā, Mūla, Pūrvā Aṣāḍhās,65 Uttarā Aṣāḍhās, Abhijit, Śravaṇa, Śraviṣṭhās, Śatabhiṣaj, Dvāyā Proṣṭhapadā, Revatī, Aśvayujau, Bharāṇyas.

The Position of the Nakṣatras.—There is nothing definite in Vedic literature regarding the position of most of the Nakṣatras, but the later astronomy precisely locates all of them, and its statements agree on the whole satisfactorily with what is said in the earlier texts, though Weber66 was inclined to doubt this. The determinations adopted below are due to Whitney67 in his notes on the Sūrya Siddhānta.

1. Kṛttikās are unquestionably ṇ Tauri, etc., the Pleiades. The names of the seven stars forming this constellation, and given above from Yajurveda texts,68 include three—abhrayanti, 'forming clouds'; meghayanti, 'making cloudy'; varṣayanti, 'causing rain'—which clearly refer to the rainy Pleiades. The word kṛttikā possibly means 'web,' from the root kṛt, 'spin.'

2. Rohinī, 'ruddy,' is the name of the conspicuously reddish star, a Tauri or Aldebaran, and denotes the group of the Hyades, α θ γ δ ε Tauri. Its identification seems absolutely assured by the legend of Prajāpati in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa.69 He is there represented as pursuing his daughter with incestuous intention, and as having been shot with an arrow (Iṣu Trikāṇḍa, 'the belt of Orion') by the 'huntsman' (Mṛgavāyadha, 'Sirus'). Prajāpati is clearly Orion (Mṛgāśirṣa being the name of the little group of stars in Orion's head).

3. Mṛgāśirṣa or Mṛgaśiras, also called Invaka or Invagā,
seems to be the faint stars λ, ϕ, Orionis. They are called Andhakā, ‘blind,’ in the Śāntikalpa of the Atharvaveda, probably because of their dimness. 70

4. Āḍrā, ‘moist,’ is the name of the brilliant star, α Orionis. But the names by which it is styled, in the plural as Āḍrās in the Śāṅkhāyana Gṛhya Sūtra 71 and the Nakṣatrakalpa, 72 and in the dual as Bāhū, in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, 73 point to a constellation of two or more stars, and it may be noted 74 that the corresponding Chinese Sieou includes the seven brilliant stars composing the shoulders, the belt, and the knees of Orion.

5. Punarvasū, ‘the two that give wealth again,’ denotes the two stars, α and β Geminorum, on the heads of Castor and Pollux. The name is no doubt connected with the beneficent character of the Aśvins, who correspond to the Dioscuri. 75

6. Tiṣya or Puṣya includes the somewhat faint group in the body of the Crab, γ, δ, and θ Cancer. The singular is rather curious, as primarily one star would seem to have been meant, and none of the group is at all prominent. 76

7. Āśreṣās or Āśleṣās, which in some texts 77 is certainly to be read Āśreṣā or Āśleṣās, denotes δ, ε, η, ρ, σ, and perhaps also ζ, Hydræ. The word means ‘embracer,’ a name which admirably fits the constellation.

8. Maghās, the ‘bounties,’ are the Sickle, or α, η, γ, ζ, μ, ε Leonis. The variants Anagḥā, the ‘sinless one,’ etc., clearly refer to the auspicious influence of the constellation.

9. Ṛ. Phalgunī, Phalgunyau, Phalgū, 78 Phalgunīs, Phalg- gunyas, is really a double constellation, divided into Pūrve, ‘former,’ and Uttare, ‘latter.’ The former is δ and θ Leonis, the latter β and 93 Leonis. According to Weber, the word denotes, like Arjunī, the variant of the Rigveda, 79 a ‘bright-coloured’ constellation.

70 Whitney, op. cit., 401. Cf. Tilak, 102 et seq.  
71 i. 26.  
72 i. 10.  
73 i. 5.  
74 Whitney, op. cit., 352, 401, n. 1.  
75 Oldenberg, Religion des Veda, 212; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 53.  
77 Aśreṣās, Śāṅkhāyana Gṛhya Sūtra, i. 26; Śāntikalpa; Nakṣatrakalpa; Āśleṣās, Śāntikalpa, 2; Nakṣatrakalpa, 4. 48.  
78 Kauṭākya Brāhmaṇa, v. i.  
79 x. 85, 13.
11. **Hasta,** ‘hand,’ is made up of the five conspicuous stars (δ, γ, ε, α, β) in Corvus, a number which the word itself suggests. According to Geldner, the ‘five bulls’ of the Rigveda are this constellation.

12. **Citra,** ‘bright,’ is the beautiful star, α Virginis. It is mentioned in a legend of Indra in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, and in that of the ‘two divine dogs’ (divyau śvānau) in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.

13. **Svāti** or **Niṣṭyā** is later clearly the brilliant star Arcturus or α Boo, its place in the north being assured by the notice in the Śāntikalpa, where it is said to be ‘ever traversing the northern way’ (nityam uttara-mārgagam). The Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, however, constructs an asterismal Prajāpati, giving him Citrā (α Virginis) for head, Hasta (Corvus) for hand, the Viśākhe (α and β Librae) for thighs, and the Anurādhās (β, δ, and π Scorpiionis) for standing place, with Niṣṭyā for heart. But Arcturus, being 30° out, spoils this figure, while, on the other hand, the Arabic and Chinese systems have respectively, instead of Arcturus, λ, κ, and λ Virginis and κ Virginis, which would well fit into the Prajāpati figure. But in spite of the force of this argument of Weber’s, Whitney is not certain that Niṣṭyā here must mean a star in Virgo, pointing out that the name Niṣṭyā, ‘outcast,’ suggests the separation of this Nakṣatra from the others in question.

14. **Viśākhe** is the couple of stars α and β Librae. This mansion is later called Rādhā according to the Amarakośa, and it is curious that in the Atharvaveda the expression rādho Viśākhe, ‘the Viśākhe are prosperity,’ should occur. But probably Rādhā is merely an invention due to the name of the next Nakṣatra, Anurādhā, wrongly conceived as meaning ‘that which is after or follows Rādhā.’

15. **Anūrādhās** or **Anurādhā,** ‘propitious,’ is β, δ, and π (perhaps also ρ) Scorpiionis.

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80 Vedische Studien, 3, 177; Rv. i. 105. 10 Cf. below, p. 427, n. 156. 81 Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 2, 4-6. 82 ii. 1, 2, 13-17. 83 3. 84 i. 5, 2. Cf. Tilak, Orion, 204. 85 Op. cit., 2, 397, 308. 86 Op. cit., 409. 87 xix. 7. 88 Lanman in Whitney’s Translation of the Atharvaveda, 908. Cf. Thibaut, Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, 63, 156.
16. **Rohini**, ‘ruddy’; **Jyeṣṭhāṅhī**, ‘slaying the eldest’; or **Jyeṣṭhāḥ**, ‘eldest,’ is the name of the constellation σ, α, and τ Scorpionis, of which the central star, α, is the brilliant reddish Antares (or Cor Scorpionis).

17. **Vieṣṭau**, ‘the two releasers’; **Mūla**, ‘root’; or **Mūlabharhaṇī**, ‘uprooting,’ denote primarily λ and ν at the extremity of the tail of the Scorpion, but including also the nine or eleven stars from ε to ν.

18, 19. **Aṣāḍhās** (‘unconquered’), distinguished as **Pūrvās**, ‘former,’ and **Uttarās**, ‘latter,’ are really two constellations, of which the former is composed of γ, δ, ε, and η Sagittarii, or of δ and ε only, and the latter of θ, σ, τ, and ζ Sagittarii, or of two, σ and ζ, only. It is probable that originally only four stars forming a square were meant as included in the whole constellation—viz., σ and ζ, with δ and ε.

20. **Abhijit** is the brilliant star α Lyrae with its two companions ε and ζ. Its location in 60° north latitude is completely discordant with the position of the corresponding Arabian and Chinese asterisms. This fact is considered by Oldenberg to support the view that it was a later addition to the system; its occurrence, however, as early as the Maitrāyaṇī Samhitā, which he does not note, somewhat invalidates that view. In the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa Abhijit is said to be ‘over Aṣāḍhās, under Śrāṇā,’ which Weber held to refer to its position in space, inferring thence that its Vedic position corresponded to that of the Arab Manāzil and the Chinese Sieou—viz., α, β Capricorni. But Whitney argues effectively that the words ‘over’ and ‘under’ really refer to the place of Abhijit in the list, ‘after’ Aṣāḍhās and ‘before’ Śrāṇā.

21. **Śrāṇā**, ‘lame,’ or **Śrāvana**, ‘ear,’ denotes the bright star α Aquilæ with β below and γ above it. Weber very need-

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89 *Cf.* Thibaut, *Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal*, 63, 156.
90 *Nachrichten der königl. Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften zu Göttingen*, 1909, 551, 552.
91 ii. 13, 20.
92 It is at the same time to be noted that Abhijit is wanting both in the Taittirīya Samhitā and in the Kāthaka Samhitā lists.
93 i. 5. 2, 3.
95 *Journal of the American Oriental Society*, 8, 393.
96 *Op. cit.*, 2, 382; but see Whitney, 404.
lessly thinks that the name Sravana suggested two ears and the head between. It is quite out of correspondence with the Manāzil and the Sieou, and is clearly an Indian invention.97

22. Sraviṣṭhās, 'most famous,' or later Dhanisṭhās,98 'most wealthy,' is the diamond-shaped group, α, β, δ, and γ, in the Dolphin, perhaps also η in the same constellation. Like the preceding Nakṣatra, it is out of harmony with the Manāzil and Sieou.

23. Śatabhiṣaj or Śatabhiṣa,99 'having a hundred physicians,' seems to be λ Aquarii with the others around it vaguely conceived as numbering a hundred.

24, 25. Proṣṭha-padās (fem. plur.), 'feet of a stool,' or later Bhadra-padās,100 'auspicious feet,' a double asterism forming a square, the former (pūrva) consisting of α and β Pegasi, the latter (uttara) of γ Pegasi and α Andromedae.

26. Revati, 'wealthy,' denotes a large number of stars (later 32), of which ζ Piscium, close upon the ecliptic where it was crossed by the equator of about 570 A.D., is given as the southernmost.

27. Aśva-yujau, 'the two horse-harnessers,' denotes the stars β and ζ Arietis. Aśvinyau101 and Aśvinī102 are later names.

28. Apabharanīṣ, Bharaṇīṣ, or Bharaṇyas, 'the bearers,' is the name of the small triangle in the northern part of the Ram known as Musca or 35, 39, and 41 Arietis.

The Nakṣatras and the Months.—In the Brāhmaṇas the Nakṣatra names are regularly used to denote dates. This is done in two ways. The name, if not already a feminine, may be turned into a feminine and compounded with pūrṇa-māsa, 'the full moon,' as in Tiṣyā-pūrṇamāsa, 'the full moon in the Nakṣatra Tiṣya.'103 Much more often, however, it is turned into a derivative adjective, used with paurṇamāsī, 'the full

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97 Oldenberg, loc. cit.
98 Śāṅkhāyana Gṛhya Sūtra, i. 26; Śāntikalpa, 13; Dhanisṭhā, ibid., 5.
99 So probably in Maitrāyani Śaṁhitā, ii. 13, 20, where see von Schroeder's critical note. The Śānti-kalpa, 5, and Nakṣatrakalpa, 2, have Šatabhiṣa, and the latter, i, has Śatabhiṣa (masculine).
100 Śāntikalpa, 5, etc.
101 Śāṅkhāyana Gṛhya Sūtra, i. 26; Nakṣatrakalpa, 9. 30.
102 Nakṣatrakalpa, 4. 45; Śāntikalpa, 5. 11.
103 Taittirīya Śaṁhitā, ii. 2, 10, 1. Cf. vii. 4, 8, 1. 2; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, v. 9, 1.
moon (night),’ or with amāvasyā, ‘the new moon (night),’ as in Phālgunī paurṇamāsti, ‘the full-moon night in the Nakṣatra Phalgunī’; or, as is usual in the Śūtras, the Nakṣatra adjective alone is used to denote the full-moon night. The month itself is called by a name derived from that of a Nakṣatra, but only Phālguna, Caitra, Vaiśākha, Taiṣya, Māgha occur in the Brāhmaṇas, the complete list later being Phālguna, Caitra, Vaiśākha, Jyaiṣṭha,Āśādha,Śrāvaṇa, Prauṣṭhapada,Āśvayuja, Kārṭtika, Mārgaśīrṣa, Taiṣya, Māgha. Strictly speaking, these should be lunar months, but the use of a lunar year was clearly very restricted: we have seen that as early as the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa there was a tendency to equate lunar months with the twelve months of thirty days which made up the solar year (see Māsa).

The Nakṣatras and Chronology.—(1) An endeavour has been made to ascertain from the names of the months the period at which the systematic employment of those names was introduced. Sir William Jones refers to this possibility, and Bentley, by the gratuitous assumption that Śrāvaṇa always marked the summer solstice, concluded that the names of the months did not date before B.C. 1181. Weber considered that there was a possibility of fixing a date by this means, but Whitney has convincingly shown that it is an impossible feat, and Thibaut concurs in this view. Twelve became fixed as the number of the months because of the desire, evident in the Brāhmaṇas, somehow or other to harmonize lunar with solar time; but the selection of twelve Nakṣatras out of twenty-seven as connected with the night of full moon can have no chronological significance, because full moon at

104 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 6, 3, i1 et seq.; vi. 2, 2, 18; xiii. 4, 1, 4; Kauṣītki Brāhmaṇa, i. 3; iv. 4; v. i. See also Caland, Über das rituelle Śūtra des Bauddhāyana, 36, 37, and Māsa.
105 Primarily an adjective, with māsa to be supplied — e.g., Phālguna, ‘(the month) connected with the Nakṣatra Phalguni.’
106 Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, v. 9, 8.
107 Kauṣītki Brāhmaṇa, xix. 3.
108 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 1, 1, 7.
109 Kauṣītki Brāhmaṇa, xix. 2, 3.
110 Ibid.; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 8, 1, 4. For the later list, see Weber, Nakṣatra, 2, 327, 328.
111 Asiatic Researches, 2, 296.
113 Journal of the American Oriental Society, 6, 413; 8, 85 et seq.
114 Astronomie, Astrologie und Mathematik, 16.
no period occurred in those twelve only, but has at all periods occurred in every one of the twenty-seven at regularly recurrent intervals.

(2) All the lists of the Nakṣatras begin with Kṛttikās. It is only fair to suppose that there was some special reason for this fact. Now the later list of the Nakṣatras begins with Aśvinī, and it was unquestionably rearranged because at the time of its adoption the vernal equinox coincided with the star ζ Piscium on the border of Revatī and Aśvinī,115 say in the course of the sixth century A.D. Weber116 has therefore accepted the view that the Kṛttikās were chosen for a similar reason, and the date at which that Nakṣatra coincided with the vernal equinox has been estimated at some period in the third millennium B.C.117 A very grave objection to this view is its assumption that the sun, and not the moon, was then regarded as connected with the Nakṣatras; and both Thibaut118 and Oldenberg119 have pronounced decidedly against the idea of connecting the equinox with the Kṛttikās. Jacobi120 has contended that in the Rigveda121 the commencement of the rains and the summer solstice mark the beginning of the new year and the end of the old, and that further the new year began with the summer solstice in Phalgunī.121 He has also referred to the distinction of the two sets of Deva and Yama Nakṣatras in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa122 as supporting his view of the connexion of the sun and the Nakṣatras. But this view is far from satisfactory: the Rigveda passages cannot yield the sense required except by translating the word dvādaśa123 as 'the twelfth (month)' instead of 'consisting of twelve parts,' that is, 'year,' the accepted

117 Nāxatra, 2, 362-364; Indische Studien, 10, 234; Indian Literature, 2, n. 2, etc.
118 See Weber, loc. cit.; Bühler, Indian Antiquary, 23, 245, n. 20; Tilak, Orion, 40 et seq.
119 Indian Antiquary, 24, 96.
123 i. 5, 2, 8.
124 Rv. vii. 103, 9.
interpretation; and the division of the Nakṣatras is not at all satisfactorily explained by a supposed connexion with the sun. It may further be mentioned that even if the Nakṣatra of Kṛttikās be deemed to have been chosen because of its coincidence with the vernal equinox, both Whitney\(^{124}\) and Thibaut\(^{125}\) are prepared to regard it as no more than a careless variant of the date given by the Jyotiṣa, which puts the winter solstice in Māgha.

(3) The winter solstice in Māgha is assured by a Brāhmaṇa text, for the Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa\(^{126}\) expressly places it in the new moon of Māgha (māghasyāṇāvasayāyām). It is not very important whether we take this with the commentators\(^{127}\) as the new moon in the middle of a month commencing with the day after full moon in Taiṣa, or, which is much more likely, as the new moon beginning the month and preceding full moon in Māgha. The datum gives a certain possibility of fixing an epoch in the following way. If the end of Revatī marked the vernal equinox at one period, then the precession of the equinoxes would enable us to calculate at what point of time the vernal equinox was in a position corresponding to the winter solstice in Māgha, when the solstitial colure cut the ecliptic at the beginning of Śravīṣṭhās. This would be, on the strict theory, in the third quarter of Bhāraṇī, 6\(^{2}\) asterisms removed from Śravīṣṭhās, and the difference between that and the beginning of Āśvinī=

\(^{124}\) Oriental and Linguistic Essays, 2, 383.


\(^{126}\) xix. 3. This was first noticed by Weber, Naxatra, 2, 345 et seq., who pointed out its relation to the datum of the Jyotisā. The same date as that of the Jyotisā is found in a passage of the Baudhāyana Śrauta Sūtra cited by Shamasasṭry, Gavāṁ Ayana, 137 (māghe māse dhanisṭhābhīt utareṇaṣti bhūnamān, avdhūṣṭeṣasya śivāṇyasya daḥṣīṃtanaṃvartate, 'in the month of Māgha the sun goes north with the asterism Dhanisṭhāṣ, in the month of Śrāvaṇa he returns south in the middle of the asterism Āśleṣa'; the sense is clear, though the text is corrupt). The passage is apparently not in Caland’s manuscripts, or he would have mentioned it in his paper, Über das rituelle Sūtra des Baudhāyana, 35, 37. Its date and value are therefore not quite certain.

\(^{127}\) Vināyaka on Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, loc. cit.; Ānartiya on Śaṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xiii. 19, 1; Weber, Naxatra, 2, 345. The assumption of the scholiasts seems to be due to the fact that to their minds a month must end with a new moon (amāṇa) or with full moon (pūrṇimānta). But there is no reason to say that in Vedic times the month may not have commenced with the new moon; the Kauśitaki passage would thus be quite satisfactorily explained.
1\frac{2}{3} \text{ asterisms} = 23\frac{1}{3}^\circ (27 \text{ asterisms being} = 360^\circ)$. Taking the starting-point at 499 A.D., the assured period of Varāha Mihira, Jones\textsuperscript{128} arrived at the date B.C. 1181 for the vernal equinox corresponding to the winter solstice in Māgha—that is, on the basis of $1^\circ = 72$ years as the precession. Pratt\textsuperscript{129} arrived at precisely the same date, taking the same rate of precession and adopting as his basis the ascertained position in the Siddhāntas of the junction star\textsuperscript{130} of Maghā, α Leonis or Regulus. Davis\textsuperscript{131} and Colebrooke\textsuperscript{132} arrived at a different date, B.C. 1391, by taking as the basis of their calculation the junction star of Citrā, which happens to be of uncertain position, varying as much as $3^\circ$ in the different textbooks. But though the twelfth century has received a certain currency as the epoch of the observation in the Jayotisā,\textsuperscript{133} it is of very doubtful value. As Whitney points out, it is impossible to say that the earlier asterisms coincided in position with the later asterisms of $13\frac{1}{3}^\circ$ extent each. They were not chosen as equal divisions, but as groups of stars which stood in conjunction with the moon; and the result of subsequently making them strictly equal divisions was to throw the principal stars of the later groups altogether out of their asterisms.\textsuperscript{134} Nor can we say that the star ζ Piscium early formed the eastern boundary of Revatī; it may possibly not even have been in that asterism at all, for it is far remote from the Chinese and Arabic asterisms corresponding to Revatī. Added to all this, and to the uncertainty of the starting-point—582 A.D., 560 A.D., or 491 A.D. being variants\textsuperscript{135}—is the fact that the place of the equinox is not a matter accurately determinable by mere observation, and that the Hindu astronomers of the Vedic period cannot be deemed to have been very accurate observers, since they made no precise determination of the

\textsuperscript{128} Asiatic Researches, 2, 393.
\textsuperscript{129} Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, 31, 49.
\textsuperscript{130} Cf. Whitney, Oriental and Linguistic Essays, 2, 373.
\textsuperscript{131} Asiatic Researches, 2, 268; 5, 288.
\textsuperscript{133} E.g., Lassen, Indische Alterthums-kunde, 1, 606, 607, 976, and cf. Thibaut, Astronomie, Astrologie und Mathematik, 17, 18; Tilak, Oriou, 38, 39.
\textsuperscript{134} Whitney, op. cit., 2, 375.
number of days of the year, which even in the Jyotiśa they do not determine more precisely than as 366 days, and even the Sūrya Siddhānta\textsuperscript{136} does not know the precession of the equinoxes. It is therefore only fair to allow a thousand years for possible errors,\textsuperscript{137} and the only probable conclusion to be drawn from the datum of the Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa is that it was recording an observation which must have been made some centuries B.C., in itself a result quite in harmony with the probable date of the Brāhmaṇa literature,\textsuperscript{138} say B.C. 800-600.

(4) Another chronological argument has been derived from the fact that there is a considerable amount of evidence for Phālguna having been regarded as the beginning of the year, since the full moon in Phālguna is often described as the 'mouth (mukham) of the year.'\textsuperscript{139} Jacobi\textsuperscript{140} considers that this

\textsuperscript{136} See Whitney's note on Sūrya Siddhānta, iii. 12; \textit{op. cit.}, 2, 369, n. 1; 374, n. 1. \textit{Cf.} Tilak, \textit{Orion}, 18.

\textsuperscript{137} Whitney, 384, followed by Thibaut, \textit{Indian Antiquary}, 24, 98; \textit{Astronomie, Astrologie und Mathematik}, 18. See also Weber, \textit{Indische Studien}, 10, 236; \textit{Indian Literature}, 2, n. 2; Whitney, \textit{Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society}, 1, 313 et seq.; in Colebrooke's \textit{Essays}, 1\textsuperscript{st}, 120 et seq. Max Müller, in his edition of the Rgveda, iv\textsuperscript{th}, xxx et seq., was also inclined to regard the date as very uncertain; only in his popular works (\textit{Chips}, 1, 113, etc.) did he accept 1181 B.C., or rather 1186 B.C., as recalculated by Main from Pratt's calculation. Shamasasya's defence, \textit{Garvām Ayana}, 122 et seq., of the Jyotiśa shows a misunderstanding of the criticisms made. See Keith, \textit{journal of the Royal Asiatic Society}, 1910, 66, n. 5.

\textsuperscript{138} \textit{Cf.} Macdonell, \textit{Sanskrit Literature}, 12, 202; Keith, \textit{Aitareya Aranyaka}, 20 et seq. It has been put earlier: see Thibaut, \textit{Astronomie}, etc., 18; Bühler, \textit{Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft}, 55, 544, and \textit{Cf.} Bühler, \textit{Sacred Books of the East}, 2, x1 et seq.; \textit{Indian Antiquary}, 23, 247; von Schroeder, \textit{Indiens Literatur und Cultur}, 45 et seq. See also Jolly, \textit{Recht und Sitte}, 3; Hillebrandt, \textit{Rituallitteratur}, 31, who are inclined to accept an early date, fourth or fifth century B.C., for the Āpastamba Sūtras, from which a still earlier date for the Brāhmaṇas must be conceded. But Eggeling is more probably correct when he assigns the Āpastamba Sūtras to the third century, B.C. \textit{See Sacred Books of the East}, 12, x1, and it seems unwise unduly to press back the date of Vedic literature. It is noteworthy that in the Epic the solstice is still in Māgha (Mahābhārata, xii. 168, 6. 28). Reference is, however, made (ibid., i. 71, 34) to the Nakṣatras commencing with Śravaṇa, and the first month is Mārgaśīrṣa (see Hopkins, \textit{Journal of the American Oriental Society}, 24, 21 et seq.). \textit{Cf.} also Tilak, \textit{Orion}, 37, 216.

\textsuperscript{139} Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vii. 4, 8, 1; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, v. 9, 9. \textit{Cf.} Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, iv. 4; v. 1; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. i, 2, 8; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, vi. 2, 2, 18; Āsvālayana Śrātra Sūtra, v. 3. 16. According to the Taittirīya and the Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇas, the beginning falls at the middle of the joint asterism.

was due to the fact that the year was reckoned from the winter
solstice, which would coincide with the month of Phālguna
about B.C. 4000. Oldenberg\textsuperscript{141} and Thibaut,\textsuperscript{142} on the other
hand, maintain that the choice of Phālguna as the 'mouth' of
the year was due to its being the first month of spring. This
view is favoured by the fact that there is distinct evidence\textsuperscript{143}
of the correspondence of Phālguna and the beginning of spring:
as we have seen above in the Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, the new
moon in Māgha is placed at the winter solstice,\textsuperscript{144} which puts
the full moon of Phālguna at a month and a half after the
winter solstice, or in the first week of February, a date not in
itself improbable for about B.C. 800, and corresponding with
the February 7 of the \textit{veris initium} in the Roman Calendar.
This fact accords with the only natural division of the year
into three periods of four months, as the rainy season lasts from
June 7-10 to October 7-10, and it is certain that the second set
of four months dates from the beginning of the rains (see
\textit{Caturmāṣya}). Tilak,\textsuperscript{145} on the other hand, holds that
the winter solstice coincided with Māghī full moon at the time of the
Taittiriya Saṃhitā (B.C. 2350), and had coincided with Phālguna
and Caitrī in early periods—viz., B.C. 4000-2500, and B.C. 6000-
4000.

(5) The passages of the Taittiriya Saṃhitā\textsuperscript{146} and the Pañca-
vimśa Brāhmaṇa,\textsuperscript{147} which treat the full moon in Phālguna as
the beginning of the year, give as an alternative the full moon in
Caitrī. Probably the latter month was chosen so as to secure that
the initial day should fall well within the season of
spring,\textsuperscript{148} and was not, as Jacobi believes, a relic of a period

\textsuperscript{141} \textit{Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgen-
ländischen Gesellschaft}, 48, 630 et seq.;
49, 475, 476; 50, 453-457. Cf. Whitney,
\textit{Journal of the American Oriental Society},
16, lxxxvii.

\textsuperscript{142} \textit{Indian Antiquary}, 24, 86 et seq.

\textsuperscript{143} See Weber, \textit{Nakṣatra}, 2, 329 et seq.,
and \textit{cf.} Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 6, 3,
36; Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, v. i.; a Śruti
passage in the commentary on Kātyā-
yana Śrauta Sūtra, i. 2, 13; Baudhā-
yana Dharma Sūtra, ii. 2, 4, 23, and
especially Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 4,
1, 2, 4. So the Phālguna full moon
is called the 'month of the seasons'
(rūnām Mukham) in Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā,
viii. 1; Mālāṭyaṅī Saṃhitā, i. 6, 9.

\textsuperscript{144} xix. 2, 3.

\textsuperscript{145} \textit{Orion}, 53 et seq.; 198 et seq.

\textsuperscript{146} vii. 4, 8, 1.

\textsuperscript{147} v. 9. See Weber, \textit{op. cit.}, 2, 345-
344; Thibaut, \textit{Indian Antiquary}, 24, 85
et seq., for a full discussion of the points
raised by Tilak, \textit{Orion}, 43 et seq.

\textsuperscript{148} Thibaut, \textit{Indian Antiquary}, 24, 93.
On the other side, Tilak, 198 et seq.
when the winter solstice corresponded with Caitra. Another
alternative is the Ekāṣṭakā, interpreted by the commentators as
the eighth day after the full moon in Maghās, a time which
might, as being the last quarter of the waning half of the old
year, well be considered as representing the end of the year.
A fourth alternative is the fourth day before full moon; the full
moon meant must be that of Caitra, as Ālekhana quoted by
Āpastamba held, not of Māgha, as Āśmarathyā, Laugākṣi and
the Mīmāṃsists believed, and as Tilak believes.140

(6) Others, again, according to the Grhya ritual, began the
year with the month Mārgaśiśra, as is shown by its other name
Āgrahāyaṇa150 (‘belonging to the commencement of the year’). Jacobi and Tilak151 think that this one denoted the autumn
equinox in Ṁrgaśiras, corresponding to the winter solstice in
Phalguni. But, as Thibaut152 shows clearly, it was selected as
the beginning of a year that was taken to commence with
autumn, just as some took the spring to commence with Caitra
instead of Phālguna.153

(7) Jacobi has also argued, with the support of Bühler,154
from the terms given for the beginning of Vedic study in the
Grhya Sūtras, on the principle that study commenced with the
rains (as in the Buddhist vassā) which mark the summer
solstice. He concludes that if Bhādrapada appears as the
date of commencing study in some texts, it was fixed thus
because at one time Proṣṭhapadās (the early name of Bhadra-
padās) coincided with the summer solstice, this having been the
case when the winter solstice was in Phālguna. But Whitney155
has pointed out that this argument is utterly illegitimate; we
cannot say that there was any necessary connexion between the
rains and learning—a month like Śrāvaṇa might be preferred

140 Thibaut, op. cit., 94; Tilak, 51 et seq. Cf. also Kāṭyāyaṇa Śrauta
Śūtra, xiii. 1. 8-10; Weber, 2, 343, n. 2, 344.
151 Tilak’s view is given in Orion,
62 et seq. It is based mainly on Amara’s
(i. 2, 23) āgra-hāyaṇa as a synonym of
Mrgaśiras, and on certain myths (chaps.
v.-vii.); he equates (221 et seq.) Āgra-
yana and Orion (I).
153 A corresponding Kārttika year is
not early, Thibaut, op. cit., 96. Cf.
154 Indian Antiquary, 23, 242 et seq.
155 Journal of the American Oriental
Society, 16, lxxxiv et seq.
because of its connexion with the word Śravaṇa, ‘ear’—and in view of the precession of the equinoxes, we must assume that Bhaḍrapada was kept because of its traditional coincidence with the beginning of the rains after it had ceased actually so to coincide.\(^\text{130}\)

The Origin of the Nakṣatras.—As we have seen, there is no evidence showing the process by which the Nakṣatras may

\(^{130}\) Mention should here be made of the following points: (1) Jacobi’s argument from the word Dhrūva, the name of the star pointed out to the bride in the marriage ritual. The word does not occur in the literature anterior to the Gṛhya Sūtras, and it must remain an undecided question whether the practice was or was not old. Jacobi urges that Dhrūva means ‘fixed,’ and that it must originally have referred to a real fixed pole star, and he thinks that such a star could only be found in the third millennium b.c. Whitney and Oldenberg definitely reject this view on the ground that too much must not be made out of a piece of folk-lore, and that the marriage ritual requirements would be satisfied by any star of some magnitude which was approximately polar. This conclusion seems convincing. Cf. Keith, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1909, 1102; 1910, 465; contra, Jacobi, ivd., 1909, 726 et seq.; 1910, 464. (2) The Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 1, 2, 3, asserts that the Kṛṣṭikās do not move from the eastern quarter, which the others do; and stress has been laid (by Jacobi, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1910, 463, 464) upon this assertion as giving a date of the third millennium b.c. for the Satapatha observation. But this notice is quite inadequate to support any such result, and its lack of trustworthiness as a chronological guide is increased by the fact that the Baudhāyana Śrāuta Sūtra, xviii 5, has a similar notice, coupled with another notice, which, according to Barth, would only be true somewhere in or after the sixth century A.D., the equatorial point being placed between Citrā and Svāṭī, which in the early period were both very much north of the equator (see Caland, Über das rituelle Sūtra des Baudhāyana, 37-39). The same passage of the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 1, 2, 2, in the Madhyāmādīṇa recension, states that the number of the Kṛṣṭikās is greater than that of the stars in any of the other Nakṣatras, which consist of one, two, three, or four stars, or which, according to the Kāṇva recension (see Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, 282, n. 2), have four stars. It is not possible to put much faith in this assertion, for Hasta later has five stars, and its name (with reference to the fingers) suggests five (cf. Weber, Nakṣatra, 2, 368, 381), and that number is possibly referred to in the Rīgveda (i. 105, 10). See Geldner, Vedicās Studien, 3, 177. (3) Attempts have been made to regard the names of the Nakṣatras as significant of their position in the list. Thus Bentley, Historical View, 2, thought Viśākhā was so called because the equinoctial colure divided the equator about 1426 B.C.; this is refuted by Tilak, Orion, 57 et seq. Jyeṣṭhāghnī has been interpreted as ‘slaying the eldest’—i.e., as marking the new year by putting an end to the old year. Tilak, 90, suggests that Mīla was so called because its acronymal rising marked the beginning of the year when the vernal equinox was near Mrgaṣiṣṭha. More probable is Whitney’s view, Sūrya Siddhānta, 194, that it was the most southern, and so, as it were, the basis of the asterisms.
have originated in India. They are mentioned only as stars in the earlier parts of the Rigveda, then the names of three of them are found in the latest parts of that Saṃhitā, and finally in the later Atharvaveda and in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās the full list appears. It may also be noted that the Vedic Indians show (see Graha) a remarkably small knowledge of the other astronomical phenomena; the discovery of a series of 27 lunar mansions by them would therefore be rather surprising. On the other hand, the nature of such an operation is not very complicated; it consists merely in selecting a star or a star group with which the moon is in conjunction. It is thus impossible a priori to deny that the Vedic Indians could have invented for themselves a lunar Zodiac.\(^{157}\)

But the question is complicated by the fact that there exist two similar sets of 28 stars or star groups in Arabia and in China, the Manāzil and the Sieou. The use of the Manāzil in Arabia is consistent and effective; the calendar is regulated by them, and the position of the asterisms corresponds best with the positions required for a lunar Zodiac. The Indians might therefore have borrowed the system from Arabia, but that is a mere possibility, because the evidence for the existence of the Manāzil is long posterior to that for the existence of the Nakṣatras, while again the Mazzaroth or Mazzaloth of the Old Testament\(^{158}\) may really be the lunar mansions.\(^{159}\) That the Arabian system is borrowed from India, as Burgess\(^{160}\) held, is, on the other hand, not at all probable.

Biot, the eminent Chinese scholar, in a series of papers published by him between 1839 and 1861,\(^{161}\) attempted to prove

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\(^{157}\) Max Müller, Rigveda, 4\(^{a}\), xlv \textit{et seq.,} maintains the Indian origin of the system. Thibaut, \textit{Astronomie, Astrologie und Mathematik,} 14, 15, admits it to be possible, as does Whitney, \textit{Oriental and Linguistic Essays,} 2, 418.

\(^{158}\) 2 Kings xxiii. 5; Job xxxviii. 32.


\(^{160}\) \textit{Journal of the American Oriental Society,} 8, 309-334. This was Weber's view also, according to Whitney, 413 \textit{et seq.;} but Weber himself disclaimed it (see \textit{Indische Studien,} 9, 425, 426; 10, 246, 247). On the other hand, Sédillot, \textit{Matériaux pour servir à l'histoire comparée des Sciences Mathématiques par les Grecs et les Orientaux} (Paris, 1845-1849), favoured influence from Arabia on India.

\(^{161}\) Summed up in his two works, \textit{Recherches sur l'ancienne astronomie Chinoise,} and \textit{Études sur l'astronomie Indienne et l'astronomie Chinoise.}
the derivation of the Nakṣatra from the Chinese Sieou. The latter he did not regard as being in origin lunar mansions at all. He thought that they were equatorial stars used, as in modern astronomy, as a standard to which planets or other stars observed in the neighbourhood can be referred; they were, as regards twenty-four of them, selected about B.C. 2357 on account of their proximity to the equator, and of their having the same right ascension as certain circumpolar stars which had attracted the attention of Chinese observers. Four more were added in B.C. 1100 in order to mark the equinoxes and solstices of the period. He held that the list of stars commenced with Mao (= Kṛttikā), which was at the vernal equinox in B.C. 2357.

Weber,162 in an elaborate essay of 1860, disputed this theory, and endeavoured to show that the Chinese literary evidence for the Sieou was late, dating not even from before the third century B.C. The last point does not appear163 to be correct, but his objections against the basis of Biot’s theory were reinforced by Whitney,164 who insisted that Biot’s supposition of the Sieou’s not having been ultimately derived from a system of lunar mansions, was untenable. This is admitted by the latest defender of the hypothesis of borrowing from China, Léopold de Saussure,165, but his arguments in favour of a Chinese origin for the Indian lunar mansions have been refuted by Oldenberg,166 who has also pointed out167 that the series does not begin with Mao (= Kṛttikā).

There remains only the possibility that a common source for all the three sets—Nakṣatra, Manāzil, and Sieou—may be found in Babylonia. Hommel168 has endeavoured to show that recent research has established in Babylonia the existence of a lunar zodiac of twenty-four members headed by the

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162 Nakṣatra, 1, 284 et seq. (1860).
165 T’oung Pao, 1909, 121 et seq.; 255 et seq.
166 Nachrichten, 1909, 544–572.
167 Ibid., 548, n. 9.
168 Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgen-ländischen Gesellschaft, 45, 592 et seq.
Pleiades (= Kṛttikās); but Thibaut’s researches\(^{169}\) are not favourable to this claim. On the other hand, Weber,\(^{170}\) Whitney,\(^{171}\) Zimmer,\(^{172}\) and Oldenberg\(^{173}\) all incline to the view that in Babylonia is to be found the origin of the system, and this must for the present be regarded as the most probable view, for there are other traces of Babylonian influence in Vedic literature, such as the legend of the flood, perhaps the Ādityas,\(^{174}\) and possibly the word Manā.

\(^{169}\) *Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal*, 63, 144-163. Cf. *Astronomie, etc.*, 15; Oldenberg, *op. cit.*, 572.

\(^{170}\) *Nakṣatra*, 1, 316 et seq.; *Indische Studien*, 10, 246, and elsewhere. Weber, *Nakṣatra*, 2, 362, 400, laid great stress on the fact that the Jyotiṣa, 8, referred to the difference of the longest and shortest day as being six mukūrtas, which makes the longest day fourteen hours twenty-four minutes; and he compared the Babylonian day of four-teen hours twenty-five minutes, and a Chinese day of fourteen hours twenty-four minutes. But Whitney, *Oriental and Linguistic Essays*, 2, 417, 418, shows that no stress can be laid on this argument, since the correspondence is only approximate, and the latitudes of the Babylonian and Chinese observations are approximately the same.

\(^{171}\) See *op. cit.*, 2, 418-420.

\(^{172}\) *Altindisches Leben*, 356, 357, where he is quite confident of the Semitic origin of the Nakṣatras.


\(^{174}\) For the flood, see Zimmer, *op. cit.*, 101, 357, who is opposed to Weber’s view (Indische Studien, 1, 160; *Indische Streifen*, 1, 11) that the story preserves an old Aryan tradition, and a reminiscence of the home of the Indians beyond the Himalaya (cf. Muir, *Sanskrit Texts*, 1, 190; 2, 323, n. 96; Lassen, *Indische Alterthumskunde*, 1, 638, and cf. Oldenberg, *Religion des Veda*, 276, n. 3). For the Ādityas, see Oldenberg, *Religion des Veda*, 185 et seq.; *Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesell-
schaft*, 50, 43 et seq. His view is not accepted by Macdonell, *Vedic Mythology*, p. 44; Bloomfield, *Religion of the Veda*, 133. Still more doubtful is Zimmer’s view (*Altindisches Leben*, 363, 364) of the division of day and night into thirty parts, which he sees in Rv. i, 123, 8, and which he thinks is based on the Babylonian division of the same period of time into sixtieths. Cf. also V. Smith, *Indian Antiquary*, 34, 230, who argues, but inconclusively, that the use of iron was introduced from Babylonia.

The facts about the Nakṣatras are (with the exception of the data from the Maitrāyaṇī Śamhitā and the Baudhāyana Śrauta Śāstra) collected in Weber’s second essay, *Die vedischen Nachrichten von den Nakṣatra*, 1861. The first essay, 1860, deals with the problem of origins. See also his discussions in *Indische Studien*, 9, 424 et seq.; 10, 213 et seq. Whitney’s work lies partly in his scientific determination (in many places correcting Colebrooke’s discoveries) of the later Nakṣatras in his edition and version of the Sūrya Siddhānta (*Journal of the American Oriental Society*, 6), and partly in his discussions of the question of origin (*Journal of the American Oriental Society*, 8), *Oriental and Linguistic Essays*, 2, 341-421 (with a stellar chart), and of the question of date as against Jacobi and Tilak’s Orion (*Journal of the American Oriental Society*, 16, lxxii et seq.). The views of Max Müller are found in his *Rigveda*, 4, xxxiv et seq. The modern discussion of the dates inferable from the Nakṣatra was in-

Naksatra-darśa (‘gazer at the lunar mansions’), an ‘astrologer,’ is mentioned in the list of victims at the Puruṣamedha, or ‘human sacrifice,’ in the Yajurveda.1 A notice in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa2 indicates that that work regarded the practice of choosing a particular Naksatra under which to set up the sacrificial fires as an idle one, because it decides in favour of choosing the sun as one’s Naksatra.

1 Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxx. 10; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 4, 1.
2 ii. 1, 2, 19, and cf. the Kāṇva text

Naksatra-vidyā, the ‘science of the lunar mansions,’ ‘astronomy,’ is mentioned with other sciences in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (vii. 1, 2. 4; 2, 1; 7, 1).

Nakha denotes either the ‘nail’ of a man,1 or the ‘claw’ of a wild beast, such as a tiger.2 The trimming (nikṛntana)3 of the nails was a regular part of the toilet of the Vedic Indian, especially on occasions of special sanctity, when it accompanied the cleansing of the teeth.4

1 Rv. i. 162, 9; x. 163, 5; Av. ii. 33, 6, etc.
2 Rv. iv. 3, 3. Cf. x. 28, 10, of the eagle’s talon.
3 Chāndogya Upaniṣad, vi. 1, 6.
4 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, ii. 5, 1, 7; Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, iii. 6, 2, etc.; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 1, 3, 4.
Na-ga (‘not moving’), ‘mountain,’ is a word occurring only in a late book of the Atharvaveda (xix. 8, 1), and then in the Sūtras.

Nagara is in early Vedic literature found only in the derivative adjective, used as a proper name, Nagarin, but it appears in the sense of ‘town’ in the Taittiriya Āraṇyaka (i. 11, 18; 31, 4), and frequently in the later language.

Nagarin Jāna-śruteya (‘descendant of Janaśruti’) is mentioned as a priest in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (v. 30), and as Nagarin Janaśruteya Kaṇḍviya in the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 40, 2).

Nagna-jit, King of Gandhāra, is mentioned in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa1 as having been consecrated by Parvata and Nārada. The same king is mentioned with his son Svarjit in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,2 where a remark attributed to one of them on a ritual topic is treated with contempt.

1 vii. 34.

Nagnā. See Dharma.

Nagha-māra and Naghā-riṣa. See i. Kuṣṭha.

Na-ciketas occurs in the well-known legend of the Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa1 (where he is a Gotama, the son of Vājaśravasa), and in the Kaṭha Upaniṣad.2 His historical reality is extremely doubtful: in the Upaniṣad he is called son of Āruṇi Auddalaki or Vājaśravasa, an impossible attribution, and one due only to a desire to give Naciketas a connexion with the famous Āruṇi.

1 iii. 11, 8.
2 i. 1, etc. Cf. Geldner, Vedische Studien, 3, 154, n. 1; Weber, Indian Literature, 157; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 168.
1. Nāḍa, ‘reed,’ is mentioned in the Rigveda\(^1\) as growing in lakes, and in the Atharvaveda\(^2\) is described as vārṣikā, ‘produced in the rains.’ Reeds were used, after being split, for making mats, a work carried out by women.\(^3\) They are frequently mentioned elsewhere.\(^4\) See also Nāda.

\(^1\) viii. 1. 33.  
\(^2\) iv. 19, 1.  
\(^3\) Av. vi. 138, 5.  
\(^4\) Av. vi. 137, 2; xii. 2, i. 19. 50. 54;  

Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxv. 7; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 4, 19; Taittiriya Arāṇyaka, vi. 7, 10.  


2. Nāḍa Naiśadha is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa,\(^1\) where he seems to be\(^2\) a human king who is compared with Yama, the god of death, because of his conquests. Being there identified with the southern sacrificial fire, he was presumably a king of the south, just as Yama is connected with the south.

\(^1\) ii. 2, 2, 1. 2.  
\(^2\) Weber, Indische Studien, i. 225-227, followed by Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, 338, notes 4 and 5. The printed text has Naiśidha by error.

Nāḍvala, a ‘reed bed,’ is mentioned in the Vājasaṇeyi Saṃhitā (xxx. 16) and the Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa (iii. 4, 12, 1).

Nāda is found in several passages of the Rigveda,\(^1\) but its sense is still obscure. It is identified by Pischel\(^2\) with Nāda, being explained by him in one passage\(^3\) as a reed boat, which is split, and over which the waters go; in another\(^4\) as a reed whip, of which the sharp points (karṇa) are used to urge horses on; and in others\(^5\) again as figuratively designating the penis. Roth\(^6\) takes the sense to be ‘bull’ (either literally or meta-

\(^1\) i. 32, 8; 179, 4; ii. 34, 3; viii. 69, 2; x. 11, 2; 105, 4. Cf. Nirukta, v. 2.  
\(^2\) Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 35. 717 et seq.; Vedicische Studien, i. 183 et seq.  
\(^3\) i. 32, 8. Here Caland and Henry, L’Agnistoma, 312, n., would read nālam. See also Wackernagel, Altindische Grammatik, 1, 173.  
\(^4\) ii. 34, 3, followed by Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32. 301 (who, however, does not construe āśubhīṁ, ‘sharp,’ with karṇāṇ rather than Pischel).  

\(^5\) i. 179, 4; viii. 69, 2.  
\(^6\) St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. The sense of ‘bull’ seems imperative in viii. 89, 2; it is admissible in i. 179, 4, where ‘bull’ may denote a man, and in x. 11, 2, and possibly in i. 32, 8, but ‘reed’ there seems far more likely.
phorically) in all passages. Once at least the 'neigher' (from the root *nad*, 'sound') seems to be meant with reference to Indra's horse. In the phrase *nadasya karnaih* the sense is, perhaps, 'through the ears of the (side) horse' (that is, by their being ready to hear the word of command) of their chariot, the Maruts 'hasten on with their swift steeds' (*turayanta āśubhiḥ*).

7 x. 105, 4, and in x. ii, 2. The latter passage suggests that 'river' may, after all, be the sense there.

**Nadi**, 'stream,' is mentioned in the Rigveda and later. Reference is made to shallows (*gāḍha*) in the river's bed, to the opposite bank (*pāra*), and to the bathing of horses in streams. Rivers are also mentioned in close connexion with mountains. The title Nadi-pati, 'lord of rivers,' is once used to express 'ocean' or 'sea-water.'

1 i. 158, 5; ii. 35, 3; iii. 33, 4; v. 46, 6, etc.  
2 Av. iii. 13, 1; xiv. 1, 43.  
3 Rv. vii. 60, 7.  
4 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 1, 6, 6.  
5 Rv. viii. 2, 2.  
6 Rv. v. 55, 7; x. 64, 8.  
7 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 3, 4, 10.

**Nanā** is a familiar name for mother, parallel with *Tata*, for father, with which it is found in a verse of the Rigveda describing the occupations of the parents of the poet.

1 ix. 112, 3. Cf. Nirukta, vi. 6, and see Upala-prakṣiṇī.

**Nanāndṛ** is a word occurring only once in the Rigveda, where it denotes, according to Sāyaṇa, the 'husband's sister,' over whom the wife is to rule. This interpretation is confirmed by the fact that the same position is ascribed to the husband's sister—no doubt while unmarried and living in her brother's care—by the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa.

1 x. 85, 46.  
2 iii. 22.  
Cf. Delbrück, *Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen*, 516. The native lexicographers recognize the word, though its occurrence in the later literature is very rare (it has been noted in the Uttararāmacarita). See the St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
Nabhaka]

GRANDSON—A SEER

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Nabhaka in Vedic literature apparently has both the wider sense of 'descendant,'¹ and the narrower one of 'grandson' in the Samhitās.² In the Brāhmaṇas the word seems hardly to have the sense of 'descendant' at all, while it denotes not only 'grandson,'³ but also 'great-grandson' in the sequence 'sons, grandsons, great-grandsons' (putrān, pautrān, napāṭan).⁴ 'Grandson' is also expressed by Pautra ('son's son') in the Atharvaveda and later,⁵ while the sense of 'great-grandson' is accurately conveyed as early as the Rigveda⁶ by Pra-ṇapāṭ, used beside Napāṭ, 'grandson.' Napī, the feminine, is practically limited to the Samhitās,⁷ and denotes 'daughter.' The use in the Veda throws no light on the original use of the word.⁸

¹ It is equivalent to 'son' in a number of mythological epithets such as apān napāṭ, 'son of waters.'
² Rv. x. 10, 1, clearly 'son'; vi. 20, 11, may be 'grandson.' Most passages, vi. 50, 15; vii. 18, 22; viii. 65, 12; 102, 7; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxi. 61; Kāhaka Saṃhitā, xxii. 2, require 'descendant.'
³ As in Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 48: putra-napāṭān, 'sons and grandsons.' Cf. Nirukta, viii. 5.
⁴ Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 10, 3; Āpastamba Śrauta Sūtra, x. 11, 5.
⁵ Av. ix. 5, 30; xi. 7, 16; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 10, 3; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, ii. i, 8, 3.
⁶ Rv. vii. 17, 13, with napāṭ.
⁷ Rv. iii. 31, 1 (Nirukta, iii. 4); vii. 2, 42. Cf. i. 50, 9; ix. 9, 1; xiv. 5; 69, 3; Av. i. 28, 4; ii. 14, 1; vii. 82, 6.
⁸ Delbrück, Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 403-405; Lanmann, Festgruss an Böhtlingk, 77.

Naptri, as feminine of Napāṭ, is found in the Saṃaveda, Āranya (v. 13).

Nabha(s), Nabhasya. See Māsa.

Nabhāka is the name of a Rṣi who is referred to in the Rigveda¹ and the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa.² The Anukramaṇī (Index) attributes to Nābhāka the composition of several hymns of the Rigveda (viii. 39-42).

¹ vii. 40, 4. 5.
² vi. 24.

Nabhya, the ‘nave’ of the wheel, is mentioned in the Atharvaveda¹ and later.² See also Nabhī.

¹ vi. 70, 3; xii. i, 12.
² Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iv. 15; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 5, 3, 20; Kauśī-
taki Brāhmaṇa, ix. 4; Bṛhadāranyaka Upaniṣad, i. 3, 23, etc.

Nāmi Sāpya is the name of a man in the Rigveda.¹ Weber² thinks that he is mentioned as a priest, but the passages suit a king better, and in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa³ he appears as Nāmi Sāpya, Vaideho rājā, ‘King of Videha.’ In one passage⁴ he is represented as engaged in the contest against Namuci.

¹ vi. 20, 6; x. 48, 9. Simply Nāmi in i. 53, 7.
² Indische Studien, i, 231, 232.
³ xxv. 10, 17.
⁴ Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 149; Macdonell, Vedic Myth-
ology, p. 161; Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 49. Sāpya may be read Sāyya, but Sāyaṇa recognizes the p;
Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 55, 328.

Nara, Nr.—The general name for ‘man’ in the Rigveda¹ and later² is Nr, while Nara³ is found occasionally in the later Saṃhitās and the Brāhmaṇas.⁴

¹ i. 25, 5; 167, 20; 178, 3; ii. 34, 6; iii. x6, 4, etc.
² Av. ii. 9, 2; ix. i, 3; xiv. 2, 9; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 34; vi. 27, 32, etc.
³ This form of the word, common in the post-Vedic language, is secondary, having originated from cases like nar-
am, understood as nara-m; but its origin goes back to the Indo-Iranian period. See Brugmann, Grundriss, 2, 106. Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, 318, a 5.
⁴ Taittiriya Saṃhitā, vii. i, 12, 1; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ix. 3, 1, 3; Nirukta, v. 1, etc.

Narācī occurs once in the Atharvaveda,¹ perhaps meaning a poisonous plant.


Narya (‘manly’) is in two passages of the Rigveda (i. 54, 6; 112, 9) understood by the commentator Sāyaṇa as the proper name of a man. See also Nārya.
Navanita ] NARD—THE NAVAGVAS—BUTTER 437

Nalada, 'nard' (Nardastachys Jatamansi) is a plant mentioned in the Atharvaveda,1 in the Aitareya2 and the Śāṅkhāyana3 Āranyakas (where it is mentioned as used for a garland), as well as in the Sūtras. In the Atharvaveda4 the feminine form of the word, Naladī, occurs as the name of an Apsaras, or celestial nymph.

1 vi. 102, 3.
2 iii. 2, 4.
3 xi. 4.
4 iv. 37, 3.

Navaka is mentioned as having wished for a wife at the Sattra of the Vibhīndukīyas in the Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa.1

1 ii. 233 (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 18, 38).

Nava-gva occurs in several passages of the Rigveda1 as a man, an Āṅgiras in the highest degree (Āṅgirastama),2 apparently being the type of the Navagvas,3 who appear as a mystic race of olden times, coupled with, and conceived probably as related to, the Āṅgirases. They are often associated with the Daśagvas.4

1 iv. 51, 4; ix. 108, 4; x. 62, 6.
2 x. 62, 6.
3 Rv. i. 62, 4; iii. 39, 5; v. 29, 12; 45, 7, 11; vi. 22, 2; x. 14, 6; 61, 10; 108, 8; Av. xiv. 1, 56; xviii. 3, 20, etc.
4 Rv. i. 62, 4; iv. 51, 4; v. 29, 12; x. 62, 6, etc.

Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 165; Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, pp. 144 (B), 170.

Nava-nīta, 'fresh butter,' is mentioned frequently in the later Saṃhitās1 and the Brāhmaṇas.2 According to the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa3 this is the kind of butter which is fitted for anointing an embryo (garbha), while the gods receive Ājya, men fragrant ghee (Ghṛta), and the fathers Āyuta. Elsewhere4 it is contrasted with Ghṛta and Sarpis.

1 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, ii. 3, 10, 1; vi. 1, 1, 5; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xi. 7; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, ii. 3, 4, etc.
2 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 1, 3, 7, 8;
3 v. 3, 2, 6; Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, iii. 5, 3.
4 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, ii. 3, 10, 1, etc.

1 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, ii. 3, 10, 1; vi. 1, 1, 5; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xi. 7; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, ii. 3, 4, etc.
2 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 1, 3, 7, 8;
Nava-vāstva appears in three passages of the Rigveda. In one⁴ he seems to be a protégé of Agni; in another² as perhaps a son of Uśanas and favourite of Indra, but in the last he seems to be defeated, or even slain, by Indra.³ But he may be a mythic figure altogether. Cf. also Bhadratha.

1 i. 36, 18.
2 vi. 20, 11.
3 x. 49, 6.

Nah has been taken by Roth¹ and Grassmann² to be the stem, meaning ‘bond,’ of the dative form naddhyaṇas, which occurs once in the Rigveda,³ and which Sieg⁴ thinks means ‘sister’s sons.’ But the sense of this dative is probably rather ‘to the grandsons.’⁵

1 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
2 Wörterbuch, s.v.
3 x. 60, 6.
⁴ Die Sagenstoffe des Rigveda, 129.
⁵ Macdonell, Vedic Grammar, p. 56, 3b.

Nahuṣ occurs several times in the Rigveda, but the exact sense is not certain. Ludwig¹ sees in the Nahuṣ a tribe on the Sindhu (Indus)² or Sarasvatī,³ rich in horses,⁴ allied with the Bharatas and Śimyus,⁶ connected with Kāśīvant and the Vārṣāgiras,⁶ and having as kings Maśarsāra and Āyavasa.⁷ Roth,⁸ on the other hand, sees in Nahuṣ the general sense of ‘neighbour’ as opposed to a member of one’s own people (Viś); this interpretation is supported by the occurrence of the phrase nahuṣo nahuṣṭara,⁹ ‘closer than a neighbour.’ Nahuṣa has the same sense as Nahuṣ in two passages of the Rigveda,¹⁰ but in

¹ Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 206.
² Rv. i. 31, 11; vi. 22, 10; 46, 7; x. 80, 6.
³ Rv. vii. 95, 2. Cf. ix. 88, 2; 91, 2.
⁴ Rv. viii. 6, 24.
⁵ Rv. i. 100, 18; vii. 18, 5.
⁶ Rv. i. 100, 16, 17.
⁷ Rv. i. 122, 15. Cf. also nahuṣo viśāh, Rv. vii. 6, 5; x. 49, 8; 99, 7, etc.
⁸ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
⁹ Rv. x. 49, 8. Cf. also viii. 8, 3.
¹⁰ i. 31, 11; v. 12, 6.
one it seems to be intended for the proper name of a man.\textsuperscript{11} Possibly Nahus was originally a man like Manu.\textsuperscript{12}

\textsuperscript{11} Rv. viii. 46, 27.
\textsuperscript{12} Oldenberg, \textit{Sacred Books of the East}, 46, 28; Bergaigne, \textit{Religion Védique}, 2, 324. But Nahus, if it was originally the name of a mythic forefather, cannot have been that of a forefather recognized by all the tribes, for there is no passage in which it applies to all men. Geldner, \textit{Rgveda, Glossar}, 92, regards Nahus as a tribe, Nahusā as a king. Zimmer, \textit{Alhindisches Leben}, 128, leaves the question open. Cf. Muir, \textit{Sanskrit Texts}, i\textsuperscript{2}, 165, n. 7; 179 et seq.; 307 et seq.

1. \textit{Nāka} denotes the ‘firmament’ in the \textit{Rigveda}.\textsuperscript{1} and later.\textsuperscript{2} It is often used with the epithet ‘highest’ (\textit{uttama})\textsuperscript{3} or ‘third’ (\textit{tyāya})\textsuperscript{4} referring to the threefold division of heaven, parallel to the threefold division of earth, atmosphere, and sky (\textit{Div}). The \textit{Nāka} is said to be on the third ridge (\textit{prṣṭha}), above the luminous space (\textit{rocana}) of the sky.\textsuperscript{5} Elsewhere\textsuperscript{6} the series earth, atmosphere, sky, and the firmament (\textit{nāka}), heaven (\textit{svan}), the celestial light (\textit{jyotis}), occurs. The word \textit{nāka} is explained in the \textit{Brāhmaṇas}\textsuperscript{7} as derived from \textit{na}, ‘not,’ and \textit{aka}, ‘pain,’ because those who go there are free from sorrow.

\textsuperscript{1} i. 60, 10; 125, 5; iii. 2, 12; iv. 13, 5; vii. 86, 1; 99, 2; viii. 103, 2; ix. 73, 4, etc.
\textsuperscript{2} Av. vii. 18, 1; xviii. 2, 47; xiii. 1, 7; Vājasaneyi \textit{Saṁhitā}, xv. 10; Pañcatīvīpa \textit{Brāhmaṇa}, xvii. 7, 10; \textit{Satapatha Brāhmaṇa}, viii. 5, 3, 4, etc.
\textsuperscript{3} Av. iv. 14, 6; xi. 1, 4; Vājasaneyi \textit{Saṁhitā}, ix. 10; xii. 63.
\textsuperscript{4} Vājasaneyi \textit{Saṁhitā}, xv. 50.
\textsuperscript{5} Av. iv. 14, 3; Vājasaneyi \textit{Saṁhitā}, xvii. 67. In Rv. x. 121, 5, the earth and sky (\textit{dyauh}), and heaven (\textit{svan}), and the firmament (\textit{nāka}), are all mentioned.
\textsuperscript{6} Pañcatīvīpa \textit{Brāhmaṇa}, x. 1, 18; \textit{Satapatha Brāhmaṇa}, viii. 4, 1, 24; Nirukta, ii. 14; and cf. \textit{Chāndogya Upaniṣad}, ii. 10, 5.

2. \textit{Nāka} is the name of a teacher in the \textit{Jaiminiya Upaniṣad} \textit{Brāhmaṇa}.\textsuperscript{1} Presumably he is identical with Nāka Maudgalya (‘descendant of Mudgala’), who is mentioned in the \textit{Satapatha Brāhmaṇa},\textsuperscript{2} the \textit{Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad},\textsuperscript{3} and the \textit{Taittirīya Upaniṣad}.\textsuperscript{4}

\textsuperscript{1} iii. 13, 5.
\textsuperscript{2} xii. 5, 2, 1.
\textsuperscript{3} vi. 4, 4.
\textsuperscript{4} i. 9, 1.
Näkra is the name of an aquatic animal included among the victims at the Aśvamedha, or 'horse sacrifice,' in the Yajurveda Saṁhitās.1 Perhaps the animal meant is the crocodile, which later is called Näkra.²

1 Taittiriya Saṁhitā, v. 5, 13, 1; Maitrāyaṇī Saṁhitā, iii. 14, 2; Vāja- saneyi Saṁhitā, xxiv. 35.
² Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 96, follow ing one version given by Mahi- dhara on Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, loc. cit.; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 3, 21, n. 4.

Nāga appears once in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ in the form mahānāga, where 'great snake' or 'great elephant' may be meant. In the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad,² and in a citation found in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa³ the sense of 'elephant' is clearly intended. In the Śūtras⁴ the mythic Nāga already occurs.

¹ xi. 2, 7, 12.
² i. 3, 24.
³ viii. 22.

Nāga-jīta, ‘descendant of Nāga-jīta,’ is the patronymic of Svarjīta in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (viii. 1, 4, 10).

Nāciketa, ‘connected with Nāciketas,’ is the title of a narrative (upākhyāna) in the Kāṭhaka Upaniṣad.¹ The word is also applied as an epithet to a special fire in that Upaniṣad² and in the Taittiriya Upaniṣad.³

¹ iii. 16.
² i. 18; ii. 10.

Nāḍa-pīṭ occurs in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ as the birthplace of Bharata. The word may, however, be read as Nāḍa-pīti, the name of Bharata’s mother,² but this is less probable.

¹ xii. 5, 4, 13.
1. **Nāḍī** denotes a ‘vein’ or ‘artery’ in the human body in the Atharvaveda and later, a natural extension of the literal sense of ‘reed.’

2. **Nāḍi** means a musical instrument, a ‘reed flute,’ in the Rigveda as well as the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, where in one passage it is mentioned along with the Tūṇava.

3. **Nāḍi** in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās seems to mean the box of the chariot wheel.

**Nāḍikā** occurs once in the Atharvaveda, where the sense seems clearly to be ‘wind-pipe,’ with a reference also to the ‘shaft of an arrow’ made of reed.

**Nāṭha** in Vedic literature appears only as a neuter meaning ‘protection,’ and is of rare occurrence. Generally, too, very little appears in Vedic literature of practices such as those which produced Anglo-Saxon society or the Roman *patronatus*.

**Nāpita,** ‘barber,’ is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa and later. But the older word is Vaptr, a derivative of...
Nābhāka, ‘descendant of Nabhāka,’ is the name of a Rṣi, or seer, in the Rigveda. The Anukramaṇi (Index) ascribes three or four hymns of the Rigveda to him. According to Ludwig, the man was an Āṅgirasa, not a Kanva.

Nābhanedistha (‘nearest in descent’) Mānava (‘descendant of Manu’) is famous in the later Śamhitās and the Brāhmaṇas for the way in which he was treated when his father divided his property among his sons, or they divided it: Nābhanedistha was left out, but was solaced by obtaining, through his father’s advice, cows from the Āṅgirases, a feat which is regarded in the Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra as on a level with the exploits of other seers who celebrated their patrons in hymns, and as giving rise to the hymn, Rigveda x. 62. Nābhanedistha’s hymn is repeatedly mentioned in the Brāhmaṇas, but beyond its authorship nothing is recorded of him. In the Śamhitā itself he seems to be spoken of as a poet in one passage, which is, however, of quite uncertain meaning.

Nābhanedistha is etymologically connected in all probability with Nabānazištā in the Avesta, which refers to the Fravāṣi of the paōiryo-tkaēsha and the Fravāṣi of the Nabānazištā. Lassen saw in the legend a reminiscence of an Indo-Iranian split; but Roth showed conclusively that this was impossible, and that Nābhanedistha meant simply ‘nearest in birth,’ and

1 Taittiriya Śamhitā, iii. i. 9. 4-6; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, v. 14. Cf. Muir, Sanskrit Texts, i, 191 et seq.
2 xvi. ii. 28-30.
3 Kausitaki Brāhmaṇa, xxviii. 4, merely refers to him as connected with the Āṅgirases. See also ibid., xxx. 4 ;

4 x. 142, 4. Cf. i. 65, 4; Av. vi. 68; Max Müller, Sacred Books of the East, 32, 265.  
5 Av. v. 19, 4.

4 The dead were shaved before burial.  
5 Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 266;  

Nabhaka, 'descendant of Nabhaka,' is the name of a Rsi, or seer, in the Rigveda. The Anukramaṇi (Index) ascribes three or four hymns of the Rigveda to him. According to Ludwig, the man was an Āṅgirasa, not a Kanva.

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1 viii. 41, 2; Nirukta, x. 5.  
2 viii. 39-41, and doubtfully 42.  
3 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 107.  
4 viii. 40, 12.

Nabhaka-nedistha ('nearest in descent') Mānava ('descendant of Manu') is famous in the later Śamhitās and the Brāhmaṇas for the way in which he was treated when his father divided his property among his sons, or they divided it: Nabhānedistha was left out, but was solaced by obtaining, through his father's advice, cows from the Āṅgirases, a feat which is regarded in the Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra as on a level with the exploits of other seers who celebrated their patrons in hymns, and as giving rise to the hymn, Rigveda x. 62. Nabhānedistha's hymn is repeatedly mentioned in the Brāhmaṇas, but beyond its authorship nothing is recorded of him. In the Śamhitā itself he seems to be spoken of as a poet in one passage, which is, however, of quite uncertain meaning.

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1 Taittiriya Śamhitā, iii. i. 9. 4-6; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, v. 14. Cf. Muir, Sanskrit Texts, i, 191 et seq.  
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3 Kausitaki Brāhmaṇa, xxviii. 4, merely refers to him as connected with the Āṅgirases. See also ibid., xxx. 4 ; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vi. 30. 31; Paṇcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xx. 9, 4.  
4 x. 61, 18.  
5 Indische Alterthumskunde, 1, 520, and Addenda, p. lxvii.  
6 Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 6, 243 et seq.
Weber\(^7\) admits that the connexion of the words is not one of borrowing on either side, but that in the Avesta it has kept its original sense of ‘nearest relation,’ while in the Rigveda it has become a proper name.

\(^7\) Eptisches im vedischen Ritual, 40-50. Cf. also Dāya.

1. Nābhi develops from the literal sense of ‘navel’ the figurative meaning of ‘relationship,’\(^1\) or, concretely, ‘relation.’\(^2\)

\(^1\) i. 105, 9; 164, 33; ii. 3, 9; 40, 4; etc.; Av. xii. i, 40; Vājāsaneyi Saṃhitā, x. 8; xi. 12; xx. i, etc.  
\(^2\) Rv. i. 163, 12; vi. 47, 28; Vājāsaneyi Saṃhitā, xiii. 42. 44. 50, etc.

2. Nābhi, ‘navel’ of a chariot wheel, is mentioned in the Rigveda\(^1\) and later.\(^2\) See also Ratha, and cf. Nabhya.

\(^1\) v. 43, 8; vi. 39, 4; viii. 41, 6.  
\(^2\) Av. iii. 30, 6; x. 8, 34; xi. 7, 4; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xi. 4; Brhadāraṇyaka

Nāma-dheya, ‘name,’ is found in the Rigveda,\(^1\) and often in the later language.\(^2\) See Nāman.

\(^1\) Upaniṣad, ii. 5, 11; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, vii. 15, 1; Aitareya Aranyaka, iii. 2, 4; Kauśitaki Upaniṣad, iii. 8.  
\(^2\) Av. vii. 109, 6; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, ii. 4, 9, 3; iii. 3, 4, 1; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 1, 6, 1; Brhadāraṇyaka

Nāman, ‘name,’ is a common word from the Rigveda onwards. The Grhya Sūtras\(^1\) give elaborate rules for the formation of the names of children, but more important is the distinction between the secret (guhya) and the ordinary name, though the rules as to the secret name are not at all consistent. The secret name is already recognized in the Rigveda,\(^2\) and is referred to in the Brāhmaṇas,\(^3\) one secret name, that of Arjuna for Indra, being given in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.\(^4\) It is to be noted that the rule as to giving the

\(^1\) Weber, Naxatra, 2, 316 et seq.; Hillebrandt, Ritualliteratur, 46, 47; Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 152.  
\(^2\) Cf. x. 55, 2; 71, 1, as explained in Aitareya Aranyaka, i. 3, 3.  
\(^3\) Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, vi. 1, 3, 9 (the name is given to a child at birth); Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 4, 25.  
\(^4\) ii. 1, 2, 11; v. 4, 3, 7; Weber, 2, 317, n. 3.
SECOND AND THIRD NAMES

Namba

Namba is the name of a kind of grain mentioned in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa. Ámba is the form of the word in the Taittiriya Samhitā and the Kāthaka Samhitā.

6 i. i. 6, 2, 24; v. 3, 3, 14; ix. 4, 3, 3, which directs that the name should be derived from a feast performed by the person in question. See also Kāthaka Samhitā, xxvi. 4; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 17.
7 Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 4, 4, 4.
Cf. vi. 1, 3, 9.
8 Pańcavimśa Brāhmaṇa, xiv. 11, 17.
9 Ibid., xiv. 9, 38.
11 Pańcavimśa Brāhmaṇa, viii. 6, 8.
12 Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, iii. 40, 2.
13 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, vi. 1, 2, 13; Hopkins, Religions of India, 201, n. 2.

Namba is the designation of a Naksatra (lunar asterism) as the secret name or otherwise is not illustrated by a single recorded name of a teacher in the Brāhmaṇas.5

The Satapatha Brāhmaṇa6 several times mentions the adoption of a second name with a view to securing success, and also refers to the adoption of another name for purposes of distinction.7

In actual practice two names are usually found in the Brāhmaṇas, the second being a patronymic or a metronymic, as in Kākṣivant Auṣija8 (if the story of the slave woman Usij as his mother is correct), or Brhaduktha Vāmneya,9 ‘son of Vāmni,’ though the relationship may, of course, be not direct parentage, but more remote descent.10 Three names are less common—for example, Kuśāmba Svāyava Lātavya,11 ‘son of Svāyu, of the Lātavya (son of Latu) family,’ or Devataras Śyāvasāyana Kāśyapa,12 where the patronymic and the Gotra name are both found. In other cases the names probably have a local reference—e.g., Kauśāmbeya and Gaṅgya. Frequently the patronymic only is given, as Bhārgava, Maudgalya, etc., or two patronymics are used. The simple name is often used for the patronymic—e.g., Trasasasyu.13 In a few cases the name of the wife is formed from the husband’s name,14 as Uśinarāṇī, Purukutsāṇī, Mudgalāṇī.
Nārāśaṃsi ] THE SEER NĀRADA—LAUDATORY VERSES 445

Nāya in two passages of the Rigveda¹ is, according to the St. Petersburg Dictionary, probably a proper name. Saiyana takes the word to mean ‘leader,’ while Pischel² considers it a gerund with passive sense.

¹ vi. 24, 10; 46, 11. For other explanations, see Oldenberg, Rigveda-Noten, i, 123, 370.
² Vedische Studien, i, 41.

Nārada is the name of a mythical seer mentioned several times in the Atharvaveda.¹ In the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa he appears in conjunction with Parvata as priest of Hariścandra,² as teaching Somaka Sāhadevya,³ and as anointing Āmbāṣṭhya and Yudhāṁśrausti.⁴ In the Maitrāyaṇī Saṁhitā⁵ he is mentioned as a teacher, and in the Sāmavidhāna Brāhmaṇa⁶ as a pupil of Brhaspati. In the Chāndogya Upaniṣad⁷ he is coupled with Sanatkumāra.

¹ vi. 19, 9; xii. 4, 16. 24. 41. ² vii. 13. Cf. Saṁkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 17. ³ vii. 34. ⁴ viii. 21.
⁵ i. 5, 8. ⁶ iii. 9 (the Vamśa, or ‘list of teachers,’ at the end). ⁷ vii. i, 1.

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, i, 204, n.

Nārāśaṃsi (scil. Rc), ‘(verse) celebrating men,’ is mentioned as early as the Rigveda,¹ and is distinguished from Gāthā in a number of passages in the later literature.² The Kāṭhaka Saṁhitā,³ while distinguishing the two, asserts that both are false (anṛtam). It is hardly probable that the two were absolutely distinct, for the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa⁴ has the phrase ‘a Gāthā celebrating men’ (nārāśaṃsi). What such verses were may be seen from the Saṁkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra,⁵ which enumerates the Nārāśaṃsāni at the Puruṣamedha, or ‘human

¹ x. 85, 6. ² Av. xv. 6, 4; Taittirīya Saṁhitā, vii. 5, 11, 2; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vi. 32; Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, xxx. 5; Kāṭhaka Saṁhitā, v. 5, 2; Taittirīya Aranyaka, ii. 10, etc.; Weber, Indische Studien, 5, 78. The passage, Šatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 5, 6, 8, is uncertain.

See Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 44, 98, n. 5. ³ xiv. 5; Weber, Indische Streifen, i, 98. ⁴ i. 3, 2, 6. ⁵ xvi. 11, 1 et seq.; Weber, Episches im vedischen Ritual, 10 et seq.
sacrifice.' They may legitimately be reckoned as a source of the epic.\(^6\)

The term Nārāṣaṁśi is restricted in some passages\(^7\) to a particular group of three verses of the Atharvaveda,\(^8\) but Oldenberg\(^9\) must be right in holding that the restricted sense is not to be read into the Rigveda.\(^10\) Not even in the Taittirīya Samhitā\(^11\) is the technical sense certain, and the Brāhaddevatā\(^12\) gives the word a general application.

\[^{6}\] Hopkins, *Journal of the American Oriental Society*, 15, 264, n. Bloomfield, *Atharvaveda*, 100 (cf. *Hymns of the Atharvaveda*, 688, 689), lays stress rather on their character as mere eulogies of donors, and that, no doubt, was one of their sides; but the other elements may have been more prominent in reality than the priestly tradition shows.

\[^{7}\] Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vi. 32; Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, xxx. 5. Possibly, in the other passages mentioned in note 2, the reference may be to the Atharvaveda verses, but this is not at all likely.


\[^{9}\] *Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft*, 42, 238.

\[^{10}\] x. 85, 6.

\[^{11}\] vii. 5, 11, 2.

\[^{12}\] iii. 154.


Nārī, 'woman,' occurs in the Rigveda\(^1\) and later.\(^2\) The word seems in the Rigveda\(^3\) to have a distinct reference to a woman as a wife, because it occurs in several passages with distinct reference to matrimonial relations,\(^4\) and in the later Vedic literature, where it is not common, it sometimes\(^5\) has that sense. Delbrück,\(^6\) however, thinks that it does not indicate marital relations, but merely the woman as the sexual complement of the man.

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\[^{1}\] vii. 20, 5; 55, 8; viii. 77, 8; x. 18, 7; 86, 10, 11.

\[^{2}\] Cf. *Hymns of the Atharvaveda*, 688, 689.

\[^{3}\] i. 73, 3 (pāti-juṣṭā, 'dear to her husband'); vii. 20, 5; x. 18, 7 (avidhavāḥ, supatnīḥ, 'not widowed, with noble husbands'), etc.

\[^{4}\] Gautama Dharma Sūtra, ix. 28.

\[^{5}\] *Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen*, 417, 439.

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Nārmara occurs once in a corrupt verse of the Rigveda.\(^1\) Ludwig\(^2\) regards the word as the proper name of the prince of a fort, Urjayanti, but Roth\(^3\) as that of a demon.

\[^{1}\] ii. 13, 8.

\[^{2}\] Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 152.

\[^{3}\] St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
Nārminī is found in the Rigveda as an epithet of Pur, 'fort': it must apparently either be a proper name of the fort, or mean 'belonging to Narmin or Narmina,' some prince.

1 i. 149, 3.
2 Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 204.
3 Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. Possibly the expression may consist of two words—na, 'not' or 'like,' and armīṇī, whatever that may mean. See Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 148; Sacred Books of the East, 46, 177.

Nārya, 'descendant of Nārya,' is the name of a generous donor in the Rigveda.


Nārṣada, 'descendant of Nṛṣad,' is the patronymic of Kaṇva (i.e., a descendant of Kaṇva) in the Atharvaveda, and in one passage of the Rigveda, where probably the same man is referred to in another passage as a protégé of the Aśvins, and perhaps as the husband of Ruṣatī. But in a third passage of the Rigveda the name seems applied to a demon, though this is not certain.

1 iv. 19, 2.
2 x. 31, 11.
3 i. 117, 8.
4 x. 61, 13.


Nāva-prabhramśana, the 'sliding down of the ship,' is read in Whitney and Roth's text of the Atharvaveda, and has been connected by Weber and others with Manor Avasarpaṇa, the name in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa of the northern mountain on which Manu's ship settled on the subsidence of the deluge. But both Bloomfield and Whitney point out that this interpretation is highly improbable, and this view is accepted by

1 xix. 39, 8, where the reading nāva-prabhramśana is a conjectural emendation, the manuscripts of the Saṃhitā text all having two accents, nāvaprabhramśana (one of them reading nāval-).
2 Indische Streifen, 1, 11.
4 i. 8, 1, 6.
5 Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 679.
6 Translation of the Atharvaveda, 961.
Macdonell. The expression is analyzed as na ava-prabhramśana by the Pada text and the commentator alike, and is never found elsewhere with reference to the descent of a boat or ship.8

7 Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1907, 1107, where his acceptance of Weber’s interpretation in his Sanskrit Literature, 144, is withdrawn.
8 The word nau, ship, never occurs as the first member of a compound in the form of nava, while pra-bhramś, ‘fall down,’ is never used of the gliding down of a boat, and would be inappropriately applied in that sense.

Nāvā, ‘ship,’ occurs once in the Rigveda (i. 97, 8). See Nau.

Nāvāja (‘ship-propeller’), a ‘boatman,’ is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (ii. 3, 3, 5).

Nāvyā is found several times in the Rigveda1 and the later literature2 in the sense of a ‘navigable stream.’

1 i. 33, 11; 80, 8; 121, 13. xxii. 6; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, x. 5, 4.
2 Av. viii. 5, 9; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, 14, etc.

Nāhuṣa, like Nahus, means, according to the St. Petersburg Dictionary, in some passages of the Rigveda1 ‘neighbouring’ as an adjective, and once2 as a substantive ‘neighbour.’ If, on the other hand, Nahus is taken as a proper name, then Nāhuṣa no doubt denotes ‘belonging to the Nahus people,’ and, as a substantive, ‘King of the Nahus.’

1 i. 100, 16; v. 73, 3; vi. 22, 10; viii. 6, 24. 2 viii. 95, 2.

Nikothaka Bhāya-jātya (‘descendant of Bhayajāta’) is mentioned in the Vāṃśa Brāhmaṇa1 as a pupil of Pratithi.

1 Indische Studien, 4. 373. Cf. Max Müller, Ancient Sanskrit Literature, 444.

Nigada Pāṇa-valki (‘descendant of Pāṇavalka’) is mentioned in the Vāṃśa Brāhmaṇa1 as a pupil of Giriśarman.

Ni-gut occurs in two passages of the Rigveda,\(^1\) where Sāyana takes it to mean ‘enemy,’ a possible interpretation. Ludwig\(^2\) suggests that non-Āryan foes are meant.

\(^1\) ix. 97, 53, 54; x. 128, 6.  \(^2\) Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 164.

**Nigustha** is a term of unknown meaning applied in the Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra (xvi. 29, 6) to the peoples of Kāsi, Videha, and Kosala.

1. **Ni-tatnī**, ‘striking downwards,’ occurs in the Atharvaveda\(^3\) as the name of an unknown plant which was used as a means of restoring the hair.

\(^3\) vi. 136; probably 137 also refers to this plant. Cf. Kaustabika Sūtra, xxi. 28, with Caland’s note in his translation; Bloomfield, *Atharvaveda*, 61; *Hymns of the Atharvaveda*, 536, 537; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 383.

2. **Ni-tatnī** is the name of one of the seven Kṛttikās in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa (iii. 1, 4, 1). See Nakṣatra.

**Ni-tāna Māruta** is the name of a man in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā (xxv. 10).

**Ni-dāgha** (‘burning down’), ‘summer,’ is the name of one of the seasons in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (xiii. 8, 1, 4). See Naidāgha.

**Ni-dāna** is the name of a Sūtra, which is referred to in the Brhaddevatā\(^1\) apparently as containing a quotation from the Bhāllavi Brāhmaṇa. The quotation cannot be verified in the existing text of the Sūtra.\(^2\)

\(^1\) v. 23, with Macdonell’s note.  \(^2\) Sieg, *Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda*, 65.  
Ni-dhā, 'net,' is mentioned in the Rigveda\(^1\) and later.\(^2\)

1 ix. 83, 4; x. 73, 11; Nirukta, iv. 2.  
2 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 19.

Ni-dhi means primarily 'place of deposit,' 'store,'\(^1\) and then 'treasure' generally.\(^2\) In the Chāndogya Upaniṣad\(^3\) Nidhi denotes some sort of science.

1 Rv. i. 183, 4; v. 43, 8; vii. 67, 7; 69, 3, etc.  
2 Rv. ii. 24, 6; viii. 29, 6; x. 68, 6;  
Av. x. 7, 23, etc.  
3 vii. 1, 2. 4; 2, 1; 7, 1. The St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v., and Böhtlingk in his edition, take daivo nidhiḥ as one expression. See Daiva.  
Sāyaṇa takes each as a separate entity, and renders Nidhi as mahāhālādinidhistāstram, presumably meaning some sort of chronology.  
Cf. for Nidhi as 'treasure,' Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 103, 104.

Ni-nāhyā denotes in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (iii. 9, 2, 8) a 'water jar,' so called, according to the commentator, because it was buried in the ground.\(^1\) Eggeling\(^2\) explains it as 'a vessel or cistern dug into the ground for keeping water cool.'

1 As meaning etymologically 'to be fastened or fixed down.'  
2 Sacred Books of the East, 26, 223, n. 4.

Ninditāśva ('possessing contemptible steeds') is the name of a patron in the Rigveda.\(^1\) The name may suggest connexion with Iran, but such a reference is not at all necessary.\(^2\) Sāyaṇa ingeniously turns the name—probably a nickname—into a compliment by rendering it 'one who puts to shame the horses of his rivals.'

1 viii. 1, 30.  

Ni-pāda in the Rigveda (v. 83, 7) denotes 'low ground,' 'valley,' as opposed to 'hill' (udvat). Cf. Nivat.

Ni-mruc, 'sunset,' is repeatedly mentioned in the Rigveda\(^1\) and later\(^2\) as a division of time.

1 i. 151, 5; 161, 10; viii. 27, 19; x. 151, 5.  
2 Av. xiii. 3, 21; Taittiriya Śaṃhitā, i. 5, 10, 2; Kāṭhaka Śaṃhitā, xxxvii. 10; Taittiriya Āraṇyaka, ii. 5, 2, etc.
Nir-äṣṭa, 'castrated,' is found in some of the later Saṃhitās¹ as applied to oxen, and in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa² to horses.

¹ Taittiriya Saṃhitā, i. 8, 9, 1; 17, 1; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xv. 4. 9.
² xiii. 4, 2, 5.

Nir-āla occurs once in the Atharvaveda,¹ where Sāyaṇa regards it as the name of a disease. Bloomfield,² with the Padapātha, explains it as two words, understanding nir as an elliptical imperative, ' (go) out,' with the vocative āla, a kind of weed. Whitney³ at first took āla to be a verbal form, but finally came to the conclusion that the expression is one word, nirāla, of unknown sense.

¹ vi. 16, 3.
² Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 466.
³ Translation of the Atharvaveda, 292.

Nirukta, 'explanation' of a word or passage, is found in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (viii. 3, 3), but does not appear as the name of a work before the later Upaniṣads. It is, however, probable that Yāṣka's Nirukta is not later than the rise of Buddhism. Cf. Nirvacana.

Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 13, 17; 3, 260 et seq.; Indian Literature, 25, 26, 41, 42, etc.; Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, 269, 270; Keith, Aitareya Āranyaka, 24, 25; Roth, Nirukta, xv. et seq.

Nir-yāsa denotes the 'exudation' of trees. In the Taittiriya Saṃhitā (ii. 1, 5, 4) it is tabooed as food because of its red colour.


¹ i. 6, 3.

Ni-vat denotes 'valley' in the Rigveda¹ and later.²

¹ i. 161, 11; iii. 2, 10; vii. 50, 4; ² Av. vi. 22, 3; Taittiriya Saṃhitā, x. 127, 2; 142, 4.
Nivānya-vatsā and Nivānyā in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa\(^1\) denotes a ‘cow with a calf to which she has to be won over,’ that is, with a calf substituted for one of her own which has died. Nivānyā\(^2\) is a contracted form of the compound term. Similar expressions are abhivānya-vatsā,\(^3\) abhivānyā,\(^4\) vānyā,\(^5\) and api-vānya-vatsā.\(^6\)

Ni-vid denotes a brief invocation of the deity that is invited in a liturgy in honour of the god. The Brāhmaṇas\(^1\) repeatedly mention Nivids as inserted in the Śastras (recitations), and the Khillas of the Rigveda\(^2\) preserve among them a set of Nivids. But it is doubtful\(^3\) whether the habit of using such brief formulas—the Nivid is usually not more than a Pada or quarter-verse in length—is known to the Rigveda, though it has been seen even there,\(^4\) and the word Nivid is several times found in that Saṃhitā,\(^5\) but hardly in the technical sense of the Brāhmaṇas. In the later Saṃhitās\(^6\) the technical sense is common.

\(^1\) Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 33, 34; iii. 10, 11; vi. 33, 35; Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, xiv. 1; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 9, 3, 28; xiii. 5, 1, 9, etc.; Aitareya Aranyaka, i. 5, 2; Śānkhyāna Aran- yaka, i. 3, etc.
\(^2\) See Scheffelowitz, Die Apokryphen des Rigveda, 137-143.
\(^3\) The antiquity of the Nivids was asserted by Haug, Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i, 26 et seq., and often since, e.g., by Tilak, Orion, 206; Scheffelowitz, op. cit., 3. It is shown to be most improbable by Weber, Indische Studien, 9, 265, 355, and Oldenberg, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 242 et seq.; Göttingische Gelehrte Anzeigen, 1907, 232, 233.
\(^4\) I. 86, 4; Bezzenberger’s Beiträge, 9, 192. So Oldenberg, Sacred Books of the East, 46, 119, 122, takes Rv. i. 96, 2, to refer to the Nivids in the technical sense, but not to the Nivids as preserved.
\(^5\) I. 89, 3; 96, 2; 175, 6; ii. 36, 6; iv. 18, 7; vi. 67, 10.
\(^6\) Av. v. 26, 4; xi. 7, 19; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xix. 25, etc. Cf. Hillebrandt, Ritualliteratur, 102; Oldenberg, Religion des Veda, 387, n. 2; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, i\(^2\), 241.

Nivid-dhāna, ‘containing a Nivid,’ is found several times as an epithet of a hymn or verse in the Brāhmaṇas.\(^1\)

\(^1\) Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 17; Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, xxi. 6; xxiv. 4; Śata-patha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 5, 1, 12; Aitareya Aranyaka, i. 2, 2; 5, 3.
Ni-vesana, ‘dwelling,’ occurs in the Rigveda and the Sūtras. In the latter the word is sometimes contrasted with Gṛha as the resting-place of animals.

1 iv. 19, 9; vii. 19, 5. 2 Āśvalāyana Gṛhya Sūtra, iv. 6, etc.

Ni-ṣaṅgathī or Niṣaṅga-dhi is found in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās. If the second form of the word is correct, the sense may be ‘sheath of a sword’ (niṣaṅga), as it is taken by the St. Petersburg Dictionary, but probably the first form is the correct one, the word then having the same meaning as Niśaṅgin.

1 Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xvii. 11; Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, ii. 9, 2.
2 Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xvi. 10.

Ni-ṣaṅgin is found three times in the Rigveda, where, owing to its following in one passage the words sudhanvāna iṣumanto, ‘having good bows and arrows,’ the sense of niṣaṅginaḥ as ‘having quivers’ seems quite certain. In the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā it is taken by the commentator Mahīdhara to mean ‘having a sword,’ a sense which is quite possible both there and in the other passages where it occurs. But the word far more probably means ‘having a quiver,’ for the bow was the Vedic weapon, not the sword (Aśi).

1 iii. 30, 15; v. 57, 2; x. 103, 3. 2 v. 57, 2. 3 xvi. 20. Cf. Kāṭyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xx. 2, 11, with the commentator.
4 Sāmaveda, ii. 1199; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xvii. 12; xxxvii. 11; Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, ii. 9, 3; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, iv. 5, 3, 1; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 4, 2, 5. Cf. Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 274.

Ni-śāda is found in the later Saṃhitās and the Brāhmaṇas. The word does not seem to denote not so much a particular tribe, but to be the general term for the non-Āryan tribes who were not under Āryan control, as the Śūdras were, for Aupamanyava took the five peoples (pañca jānāḥ) to be the four castes (catvāro 1 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, iv. 5, 4, 2; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xvii. 13; Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, ii. 9, 5; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xvi. 27; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, viii. 11; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xvi. 6, 8, etc. 2 In Yāska, Nirukta, iii. 8.
varṇāḥ) and the Niṣādas, and the commentator Mahīdhara explains the word where it occurs in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā as meaning a Bhilla, or Bhil. A village of Niṣādas is mentioned in the Lātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, and a Niṣāda Sthapati, a leader of some kind, is referred to in the Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra and in a Brāhmaṇa cited by the scholiast on that passage. Weber thinks that the Niṣādas were the settled aborigines (from ni, ‘down,’ and sad, ‘settle’), a view supported by the fact that the ritual of the Viśvajit sacrifice requires a temporary residence with Niṣādas; for the Niṣādas who would permit an Āryan to reside temporarily amongst them must have been partially amenable to Āryan influence. But the name might easily be applied to the whole body of aborigines outside the Āryan organization. Von Schroeder thinks that the Niṣādas were most probably identical with the Nysæans, who, according to the Greek account, sent an embassy to Alexander when he was in the territory of the Aśvakas, but this identification is doubtful.

Niṣka is frequently found in the Rigveda denoting a gold ornament worn on the neck, as is shown by the two epithets niṣka-kaṇṭha and niṣka-grīva, having a gold ornament on the neck. A Niṣka of silver is mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa. As early as the Rigveda traces are seen of the

1 ii. 33, 10; viii. 47, 15, etc.
2 Av. v. 14, 3; vii. 99, 1; xx. 131, 8; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iv. 2, 1, 2; v. 13, 2; Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, i. 36, 7, 8; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 4, 1, 7, 11, etc.
3 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, viii. 22.
4 Rv. v. 19, 3; Av. v. 17, 14.
5 xvii. 1, 14, as worn by the Vṛātya.
6 i. 126, 2.
use of Nişkas as a sort of currency, for a singer celebrates the receipt of a hundred Nişkas and a hundred steeds: he could hardly require the Nişkas merely for purposes of personal adornment. Later the use of Nişkas as currency is quite clear.\(^7\)

Cf. also Kṛṣṇala.

**Nişkiriya** is the name of a school of priests who are mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa\(^1\) as holding a Sattra, or 'sacrificial session.'


**Niṣṭya** means in the Rigveda\(^1\) and later\(^2\) an outsider or stranger. Hence the constellation usually known as Svāti (see Naksatra) is named Niṣṭyā in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa,\(^3\) because it occupies a position markedly away from the ecliptic.

\(^1\) vi. 75, 19; viii. 1, 13; x. 133, 5.
\(^2\) Av. iii. 3, 6; Vājasaneyi, v. 23; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 6, 4, 17, etc.
\(^3\) i. 5, 2, 2. 3; iii. 1, 1, 13.

**Nihākā** in the Rigveda\(^1\) and the Taittirīya Saṃhitā\(^2\) appears to denote some phenomenon of a storm, perhaps the 'whirlwind.'

\(^1\) x. 97, 13.
\(^2\) vii. 5, 11, 1 (following nihāra).

**Nīkṣaṇa.** See Nekṣaṇa.

**Nicya** (‘living below’) is a designation of certain nations of the west. The Nicyas are mentioned in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (viii. 14) as distinguished from the people of Madhyadesa, and no doubt mean the inhabitants of the Indus and Panjab regions.
Nitha (‘leading’), neut., means musical ‘mode’ and then ‘hymn of praise.’¹ The feminine form Nithā occurs once in the Rigveda² meaning ‘artifice.’

¹ Rv. iv. 3, 16; vii. 26, 2; x. 92, 3; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 38. Cf. nīthāvid of singers (jaritṛ) in Rv. iii. 12, 5.
² i. 104, 5. Cf. the epithet kāla-nīthā,

Nināha, a word occurring once in the Atharvaveda (xix. 57, 4), seems to denote a ‘girdle’ or something similar, as derived from the verb nah, ‘fasten.’

Nīpāṭithi occurs in the Rigveda¹ as the name of a man to whom a hymn² is ascribed by the Anukramaṇī (Index). A Sāman, or Chant, of his is mentioned in the Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa.³

¹ viii. 49, 9, where he appears as engaged in battle; viii. 51, 1, where he seems to be a sacrificer. Either a king or a seer may be meant.
³ xiv. 10, 4.

Nilaṅgu is the name of a species of ‘worm’ in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās¹ in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha, or ‘horse sacrifice.’


Nila-sīrṣṇī, ‘black-headed,’ is the name of an unknown animal in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha, or ‘horse sacrifice,’ in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā.¹


Nilāgalasāla, or, as the Paippalāda version reads, Nilākala-sālā, is the name, according to the commentator, of a grain-creeper in the Atharvaveda.¹

¹ vi. 16, 4. Cf. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 292, 293; | Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 466.
**Nṛtū** | **WILD RICE—UNDERGARMENT—MIST—DANCER** 457

**Nivāra,** ‘wild rice,’ is mentioned in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās and the Brāhmaṇas.¹

1 Kāthaka Saṃhītā, xii. 4; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhītā, iii. 4, 10; Vājasaneyi Saṃhītā, xviii. 12.

3, 3, 5: Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, 6, 7, etc.


2 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. i, 4, 14;

**Nīvi** is the name of the ‘undergarment,’ probably a simple apron of cloth, worn by both men and women, but especially by the latter.²

1 viii. 2, 16; xiv. 2, 50. *Cf. nīvi-bhārya, ‘to be borne in the apron,’* viii. 6, 20.

Vājasaneyi Saṃhītā, iv. 10; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, 3, 6; iii. 2, 1, 15, etc.


2 Taittirīya Saṃhītā, vi. i, 1, 3;

**Nīhāra,** ‘mist,’ occurs in the Rigveda¹ and later.²

1 x. 82, 7.

2 Taittirīya Saṃhītā, vii. 5, 11, 1; Kāthaka Saṃhītā, xxviii. 4; Vājasaneyi Saṃhītā, xxii. 26; xxv. 9; Av. vi. 113,

Vājasaneyi Saṃhītā, iv. 10; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, 3, 6; iii. 2, 1, 15, etc.


**Nṛ.** See Nara.

**Nṛti** in one passage of the Atharvaveda¹ seems to mean a bag of skin. But though the Paippalāda recension has the same text, it is clear that we must read Dṛti with Roth² and Whitney.³ Ludwig⁴ renders the word ‘dancer,’ which makes no sense in the context.

1 vi. 18, 3. 2 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

235; Bloomfield, *Hymns of the Atharvaveda,* 468.


4 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 514.

**Nṛtū** occurs once in the Rigveda¹ denoting a female ‘dancer.’ In another passage² Nṛtī is found coupled with hāṣa, ‘laughter,’ in the description of the funeral ritual; but though it is clear that a joyful celebration is meant (like the Irish ‘wake’ or the

1 i. 92, 4 (where Usās, Goddess of Dawn, is compared to a dancer).

2 x. 18, 3. *Cf.* 29, 2.
old-fashioned feasting in Scotland after a funeral), it is difficult
to be certain that actual dancing is here meant. Dancing is,
however, often referred to in the Rigveda\(^3\) and later. \(Nṛta-
gīta\), 'dance and song,' are mentioned in the Jaiminīya
Brāhmaṇa\(^4\) as found in the sixth world. See also Śālīṣa.

\(^3\) i. 10, 1; 92, 4, etc. See Weber, \(^4\) i. 42 (Journal of the American Oriental
Indian Literature, 196 et seq.

**Nṛ-\(p\)ati, 'lord of men,' in the Rigveda\(^1\) and later\(^2\) denotes
a 'king' or a man of the ruling class (Ksatriya).

\(^1\) ii. 1, i. 7; iv. 20, i; vii. 69, i; \(^2\) Av. v. 18, i. 15; Taittiriya Āraṇ-
yaka, vi. 3, 3; x. 77, etc.

**Nṛ-\(m\)edha,\(^1\) Nṛ-\(m\)edhas,\(^2\) is the name of a protégé of Agni
in the Rigveda\(^3\), where he also appears with Sumedhas in a
hymn that Griffith\(^4\) with justice declares to be unintelligible.
In the Taittiriya Saṃhitā\(^1\) he is an unsuccessful rival of
Parucchepa, and in the Paṅcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa\(^2\) he is an
Āṅgirasa and a seer of Sāmans (Chants).

\(^1\) Rv. x. 80, 3; 132, 7; Taittiriya Saṃhitā, ii. 5, 8, 3.
\(^2\) Paṅcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, viii. 8, 21
\(^3\) x. 80, 3.

\(^4\) x. 132; Griffith, Hymns of the
Rigveda, 2, 578, n.
Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 2,
160; Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut
Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 61.

**Nṛ-\(s\)ad, 'sitting among men,' is the name of the father of

**Nekṣaṇa occurs once in the Atharvaveda,\(^1\) where a 'spit'
seems to be meant. In the Rigveda\(^2\) Nīkṣaṇa occurs, and
must have the same sense; Oldenberg\(^3\) inclines to think that
this word refers to the 'inspection' of food, to see if it is
ready (as from ni-tks, 'look into').

\(^1\) ix. 6, 17. Cf. Kauśika Śūtra, ii. 11;
lxxvii. 12; Whitney, Translation of
the Atharvaveda, 540.
\(^2\) i. 162, 13.
\(^3\) Rigveda-Noten, 1, 155.
Naidāgha | FELLY—A PRIEST—A PLACE—SUMMER 459

Nemi denotes in the Rigveda¹ and later² the 'felly' of a chariot wheel. It was required to be of good wood (su-drū),³ and was bent into shape.⁴ Cf. Ratha.

| ¹ i. 32, 15; 141, 9; ii. 5, 3; v. 13, 6; vii. 32, 20; viii. 46, 23; 75, 5, etc. | ² Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 4, 2, 15; Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, ii. 5, 15, etc. | ³ Rv. vii. 32, 20. | ⁴ Rv. viii. 75, 5. |
| Neṣṭṛ, the name of one of the chief priests at the Soma sacrifice, occurs in the Rigveda¹ and later. See Rtvij. |
| ¹ i. 15, 3; ii. 5, 5, etc. ² Taittirīya Saṃhitā, i. 8, 18, 1; vi. 5, 8, 5. ⁶ Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vi. 3, 10, etc.; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 8, 2, 1, etc.; Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa, xxv. 15, etc. |
| Naićā-sākha is found in one passage of the Rigveda,¹ where Sāyaṇa renders it as 'of low origin,' but elsewhere² he explains it as the name of a place. The former sense is accepted by Grassmann and Ludwig in their versions, and by Zimmer,³ but Hillebrandt⁴ points out that the reference is rather to the 'low-branched' Soma plant. Cf. Kikaṭa and Pramaganda. |
| ¹ vii. 53, 4. ² See St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. ³ Altindisches Leben, 31. ⁴ Vedische Mythologie, 1, 14-18; 2, 241-245, where he opposes Böhtlingk's view that it is a proper name. |
| Naicu-dāra occurs in the Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa,¹ meaning 'composed of the wood of the Nicudāra.' What tree is meant by the latter name is unknown. |
| ¹ xxv. 13, 1. ² Śaṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xiii. 29, 31; Lāṭyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, x. 19, 13; Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xxiv. 6, 23. |
| Naitandhava is mentioned as a place on the Sarasvatī in the Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa¹ and the Sūtras.² |
| ¹ xxv. 13, 1. ² Śaṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xiii. 29, 31; Lāṭyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, x. 19, 13; Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xxiv. 6, 23. |
| Nai-dāgha is the name of the 'summer' season in the later Saṃhitās and Brāhmaṇas.¹ Cf. Rtu and Nidāgha. |
| ¹ Av. ix. 5, 31; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 8, 4, 2; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 4, 1, 16, etc.; naiḍāghāya, 'belonging to the summer,' Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa, xxiii. 16, 8, etc. |
Nai-dāna is a term applied in the Nirukta to a class of Vedic interpreters. Roth takes the Naidānas to be 'etymologists,' but Sieg thinks they are the same as the Aitihāsikas or 'legendarists.'

1 vi. 9; vii. 12.
3 Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 29.
4 The word seems to mean 'one concerned with the original form' (nidāna).

Nai-dhruvi, 'descendant of Nidhruva,' is the patronymic of Kaśyapa in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.

1 vi. 9; vii. 12.
3 Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 29.
4 The word seems to mean 'one concerned with the original form' (nidāna).

Naimiśi is the epithet of Śitibāhu Aśakṛta in the Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa. It is probably to be taken as an indication that Śitibāhu came from the Naimiṣa forest.

1 i. 363 (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 26, 192).
2 i. 12; vi. 11; xi. 29. 31; xii. 10; xiii. 9.
3 Cf. Weber, Indian Literature, 26, 85; Indische Studien, 2, 39, n.; Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 10-13; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 2², 165 et seq.

Naimiśiya, Naimiśiya denotes the dwellers in the Naimiṣa forest. They are mentioned in the Kaṭhaka Saṁhitā and the Brāhmaṇas, being clearly of special sanctity. Hence in the Epic the Mahābhārata is said to have been recited to the Rṣis dwelling in the Naimiṣa forest.

1 Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xxv. 6, 4; Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa, i. 363 (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 26, 192).
2 Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, xxvi. 5; xxviii. 4; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, i. 2, 13; Naimiśya, Kaṭhaka Saṁhitā, x. 6 (Indische Studien, 3, 469). The cerebral s seems to be universal later.
3 Weber, Indian Literature, 34, 45, 54, 68, 70, 185.

Nair-ukta in the Nirukta denotes a man who knows the true etymology of words, and explains their meaning accordingly. Yāśka's Nirukta is the classic work of this school, and forms a commentary on an earlier Nirukta, the so-called Naighaṇṭuka, a glossary consisting of five collections of Vedic words.

1 'One concerned with etymological explanation' (nir-ukta).
2 i. 12; vi. 11; xi. 29. 31; xii. 10; xiii. 9.
3 Cf. Weber, Indian Literature, 26, 85; Indische Studien, 2, 39, n.; Sieg, Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 10-13; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 2², 165 et seq.
Naiśāda, a ‘man of Niṣāda,’ is mentioned in the Kausitaki Brāhmaṇa (xxv. 15) and the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā (xxx. 8).

Naiśidha is the reading in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (ii. 3, 2, i. 2) of the epithet of Nada, a king of the south. The later form of the name is Naiśadha; the St. Petersburg Dictionary suggests that its original form was Naiḥṣidha.

Nodhas is the name of a poet who is mentioned in the Rigveda,1 and to whom certain of its hymns are ascribed.2 In the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa3 he is called Kāksiivata, a ‘descendant of Kakṣīvant.’ Ludwig4 regards him as contemporaneous with the defeat of Purukutsa. He was a Gotama.5

Nau is the regular word in the Rigveda1 and later2 for a ‘boat’ or ‘ship.’ In the great majority of cases the ship was merely a boat for crossing rivers, though no doubt a large boat was needed for crossing many of the broad rivers of the Panjab as well as the Yamunā and Gaṅgā. Often no doubt the Nau was a mere dug-out canoe (dāru).3 It is certainly against the theory4 of the existence in Vedic times of an extensive sea trade that there is no mention of any of the parts of a ship, such as masts and sails, except the oar (Aritra). Yet there are some allusions indicating a trade more extensive than that implied by boats used for crossing rivers. The Atharvaveda5 compares the ruin of a kingdom where Brahmins are oppressed to the

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1 i. 61, 14; 62, 13; 64, 1, and 124, 4, according to Nirukta, iv. 16.
2 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vi. 18; Rv. i. 58-64 are ascribed to him in the Anukramaṇi (Index).
3 vii. 10, 10; xxi. 9, 12. Cf. Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iv. 27; viii. 12. 17; Av. xv. 2, 4; 4, 4.
4 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 110.
5 Cf. Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 33.
6 Cf. Hopkins, American Journal of Philology, 19, 139. So perhaps the passage, Rv. i. 32, 8, nādām na bhinnam, refers to a ship. See Nāda.
sinking of a ship which is leaking (bhinnā) ; though the language here employed can be made to fit the theory that the ship was only a canoe, it cannot naturally be so interpreted. Moreover, there is mention made in the Rigveda⁶ of men who go to the ocean (Samudra) eager for gain (sanisyavah). It is not altogether satisfactory to restrict such references with Zimmer⁷ to the broad stream of the Indus after the union of that river with the tributaries of the Panjab. In the Rigveda⁸ too it is said that the Aśvins rescued Bhujyu in the ocean with a ship of a hundred oars (śatārītra). It is not easy to refuse to recognize here the existence of larger vessels with many oars used for sea voyages. The Baudhāyana Dharma Sūtra,⁹ at any rate, clearly refers to maritime navigation. See also Samudra.

Nyagrodha, ‘growing downwards,’ is the name of the Ficus indica, a tree remarkable for sending down from its branches fibres which take root and form new stems. Though the tree is not mentioned by name in the Rigveda, it appears to have been known, as Pischel¹ has shown from a hymn² in which its characteristics may be recognized. It is frequently mentioned in the Atharvaveda³ and the later literature.⁴ The sacrificial bowls (Camasa) were made of its wood.⁵ It was doubtless of the greatest importance, as in modern times, to the Vedic village. The sister tree, the Aśvattha (Ficus religiosa), already occurs in the Rigveda.

Ny-aṅka in the dual denotes in the Taittirīya Samhitā¹ and Brāhmaṇa² some part of the chariot, parallel with Aṅka. The Pañcavaniśa Brāhmaṇa³ has Ny-aṅku, the dual of Ny-aṅka.

⁶ Rv. i. 56, 2; iv. 55, 6. ⁷ Altindisches Leben, 22, 23. ⁸ i. 116, 3 et seq. ⁹ i. 2, 4; ii. 2, 2. But it is not of very early date. Cf. Zimmer, op. cit., 255-257.

¹ Vedische Studien, i, 113, 114. ² i. 24, 7, where stūpa seems to denote the crest or crown of the tree above the main trunk. ³ iv. 37, 4; v. 5, 5. ⁴ Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 30. 31; ⁵ Taittirīya Samhitā, vii. 4, 12, 1; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxiii. 13. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 58.
Nyaṅku is the name of an animal in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha, or ‘horse sacrifice,’ in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās.¹ It seems clear that a kind a ‘gazelle’ is meant, but the commentary on the Taittirīya Saṃhitā¹ suggests ‘bear’ (ṛkṣa) as a variant rendering.

¹ Taittirīya Saṃhitā, v. 5, 17, 1; Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 9; Vaijayasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. 27. 32. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 83. The metre nyāṅku-sārīṇī, ‘with a gazelle’s gait,’ is already mentioned in the Rgveda Prātiṣākhya, xvi. 31; Chandas, 5; Nidāna Sūtra, i. 2.

Ny-astikā seems in the Atharvaveda¹ to denote a plant of some kind, identified by the scholiast with the Śaṅkhapuṣpikā (Andropogon aciculatus).

¹ vi. 139, 1. Cf. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 385; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 539, 540.

Ny-oceanī is found in the marriage hymn of the Rigveda (x. 85, 6), where some kind of ornament worn by women seems to be meant. The commentator Śāyaṇa interprets it as ‘female slave.’

P.

Pakti denotes a cooked object, probably a kind of ‘cake,’ in the Saṃhitās.¹ One who cooks food is called Paktp.²

¹ Rv. iv. 24, 5. 7; 25, 6. 7; vi. 29, 4; Vaijayasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxi. 59, etc. xii. 3, 17; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 3, 4, 17; x. 4, 2, 19. ² Av. x. 9, 7. ii. 25; xi. 1, 17;

Paktha is the name of a people in the Rigveda,¹ where they appear as one of the tribes that opposed ² the Trtsu-Bharatas in the Dāsarājña, or ‘battle of the ten kings.’ Zimmer³ compares

¹ vii. 18. 7. ² Roth, Zur Litteratur und Geschichte des Weda, 95, thought that the Pakthas were allies of the Trtsus, but this view is certainly incorrect. Cf. Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 15, 260. ³ Altindisches Leben, 430, 431.
them with the tribe of Πάκτυς and their country Πακτυκή, mentioned as in the north-west of India by Herodotus, and with the modern Pakthūn in Eastern Afghanistan, holding that they were a northern tribe; this is probable, since the Bharatas seem to have occupied the Madhyadesa, or 'Middle Land.' In three passages of the Rigveda a Paktha is referred to as a protégé of the Aśvins. The second connects him with Trasadasyu, whose tribe, the Pūrus, were aided by the Pakthas in their unsuccessful onslaught on Sudās. In the third passage he seems specified as Tūrvāyana, and appears as an opponent of Cyavāna. Probably, therefore, Paktha in all cases denotes the king of the Paktha people.

Pakva, 'cooked,' is used substantively as meaning 'cooked food' or 'cooked milk.' The word is also used of 'baked' bricks.

Pakṣa is, in the Atharvaveda, applied to some part of a house, either the 'side posts,' according to Roth, Zimmer, and Grill, or 'sides,' as understood by Whitney and Bloomfield. The description of the roof (Chadis) in the Atharvaveda as catus-pakṣa, 'four-sided,' tells in favour of the second explanation. In the Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa Pakṣa is used of the sides of a chariot. For Pakṣa as the 'half' of a month, see Masa.

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1. Rv. vi. 63, 9; Av. vi. 119, 2; ii. 40, 2; xii. 3, 55; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 5, 26; ii. 6, 1, 7, etc.
2. Rv. i. 62, 9; i80, 3; ii. 40, 2; iii. 30, 14; vi. 44, 24, etc.
3. Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, vi. 1, 2, 22; vii. 2, 1, 7.

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1 ix. 3, 4.
2 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
3 Altindisches Leben, 153.
4 Hundert Lieder, 188.
5 Translation of the Atharvaveda, 526.
6 Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 597.
7 iii. 7, 3.
8 i. 5, 12, 5.
Pakṣas is found in the Atharvaveda¹ and the Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa² meaning the ‘sides’³ of a chariot. In the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā⁴ and the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa⁵ it is used of the sides of a hut or chamber (Śālā). In the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā⁶ it means the ‘wing’ of a door. In the Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa⁷ the ‘half’ of an army is so named, and in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa⁸ it means the ‘half’ of a month, or ‘fortnight.’ Cf. Pakṣa.

Pakṣin in the Rigveda¹ and later² denotes a ‘winged’ creature, more particularly a ‘bird.’

Paṅkti, originally a ‘set of five,’ denotes as early as the Rigveda¹ a ‘series’ generally. In the Taittirīya Āraṇyaka³ the word is used of the series of a man’s ancestors whom he purifies by certain conduct.

Pacata, like Pakti, denotes ‘cooked food’ in the Rigveda¹ and later.²

Pacana in the Rigveda¹ and the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa² denotes a ‘vessel for cooking’ food.

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¹ viii. 8, 22. ² Av. iv. 34, 4; xi. 5, 21; xii. 1, 51; xiii. 2, 33; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxxiv. 8; ³ Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 506; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 117. ⁴ xxx. 5. ⁵ i. 2, 3, 1. ⁶ xxix. 5. ⁷ ii. 9. ⁸ xxiii. 6, 6.
Pajra is the name of the family from which Kakṣīvant sprang (Pajriya). It is mentioned several times in the Rigveda.¹ According to Pischel,² the epithet *pykṣa-yāma*³ applied to them means 'carrying out brilliant sacrificial performances,' which won for them Śrutaratha's generosity. In two passages⁴ Roth⁵ sees a Pajra called Śāman. This is uncertain, but in any case a Pajra seems clearly alluded to. Elsewhere⁶ it is very doubtful whether the word is a proper name at all. In the Śātyāyana⁷ the Pajras are declared to be Āṅgiras.

1 i. 117, 10; 122, 7, 8; 126, 4, 5.  
2 *Vedische Studien*, 1, 97, 98.  
3 Rv. i. 127, 8, where Roth (St. Petersburg Dictionary, *s.v.*) thinks this compound is probably a proper name.  
4 Rv. viii. 4, 17; 6, 47.  
5 St. Petersburg Dictionary, *s.v.* paja.  
6 Rv. i. 190, 5, where the reference is clearly hostile and contemptuous.  
7 Cited by Śāyaṇa on Rv. i. 51, 4.

Pajrā occurs once in the Rigveda,¹ where Ludwig² sees in the word the name of the wife of the sacrificer, Pajra, while Roth³ takes it to be an epithet ('stout') of the Soma plant. The sense is thus uncertain.

1 ix. 82, 14.  
2 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 110.  
3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, *s.v.* pajra.

Pajriya 'descendant of Pajra,' is the patronymic¹ of Kakṣīvant in the Rigveda.²

1 *Cf. Tugrya*, n. i.  
2 i. 116, 7; 117, 6; 120, 5.

Pañca-janāḥ, the 'five peoples,' are mentioned under various names in Vedic literature.¹ Who are meant by the five is very uncertain. The Aitareya Brāhmaṇa² explains the five to be gods, men, Gandharvas and Apsaras, snakes, and the Fathers.

1 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 31; iv. 27; Taittirīya Saṁhitā, i. 6, 1, 2; Kāthaka Saṁhitā, v. 6; xxxii. 6; Bhādarānyaka Upaniṣad, iv. 2, 9 (*pañca-janāḥ* as a compound). See also *pañca mānasūḥ*, Rv. viii. 9, 2; *mānavāḥ*, Av. iii. 21, 5; 24, 3; xii. 1, 15; *janāḥ*, Rv. iii. 37, 9; 59, 8; vi. 14, 4; vii. 32, 22; ix. 65, 23; 92, 3; x. 45, 6; *kṛṣṭayāḥ*, ii. 2, 10; iii. 53, 16; iv. 38, 10; x. 60, 4; 119, 6; Av. iii. 24, 3; *kṛṣṭayāḥ*, Rv. i. 7, 9; 176, 3; v. 35, 2; vi. 46, 7; vii. 75, 4; 79, 1; *cārpanyāḥ*, Rv. v. 86, 2; vii. 15, 2; ix. 101, 9. See Ludwig, *Translation of the Rigveda*, 3, 204. Every book of the Rigveda has a mention of the five peoples: one such in ii. and iv.; two in i., v., vii., viii.; three in iii. and ix.; four in x.  
2 iii. 31.
Aupamanyava\(^3\) held that the four castes (\textit{Varna}) and the \textit{Niśādas} made up the five, and Sāyaṇa\(^4\) is of the same opinion. Yāśka\(^5\) thinks that the five are the Gandharvas, fathers, gods, Asuras, and Rakṣases. No one of these explanations can be regarded as probable. Roth\(^6\) and Geldner\(^7\) think that all the peoples of the earth are meant: just as there are four quarters (\textit{Diś}), there are peoples at the four quarters (N. E. S. W.), with the Āryan folk in the middle. Zimmer\(^8\) opposes this view on the ground that the inclusion of all peoples in one expression is not in harmony with the distinction so often made between Āryan and Dāsa; that neither \textit{janāsaḥ}, 'men,'\(^9\) nor \textit{mānuṣāḥ}, 'people,'\(^10\) could be used of non-Āryans; that the Soma is referred to as being among the five tribes;\(^11\) that the five tribes are mentioned as on the \textit{Sarasvati},\(^12\) and that Indra is \textit{pāṇca-janya},\(^13\) 'belonging to the five peoples.' He concludes that Āryans alone are meant, and in particular the five tribes of the \textit{Anus, Druhyus, Yadus, Turvaśas}, and \textit{Pūrus}, who are all mentioned together in one or perhaps two hymns of the Rigveda,\(^14\) and four of whom occur in another hymn.\(^15\) But he admits that the expression might easily be used more generally later. Hopkins\(^16\) has combated Zimmer's view, but his own opinion rests mainly on his theory that there was no people named Turvaśa, but only a king of the Yadus called Turvaśa, and that theory is not very probable.

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\(^3\) In Yāśka, Nirukta, iii. 8.
\(^4\) On Rv. i. 7, 9, etc.
\(^5\) Nirukta, \textit{loc. cit.}
\(^6\) St. Petersburg Dictionary, \textit{s.v. kṛṣṭi}; Nirukta, \textit{Erlauterungen}, 28. For his view, Av. iii. 24, 3, can be cited: \textit{pāṇca prādiśo mānaviḥ pāṇca kṛṣṭayaḥ,} 'the five directions, the five races of men.'
\(^7\) Siebenzig \textit{Lieder}, 18. See, however, \textit{Rīgveda, Glossar}, 103, where he recognizes the use of the phrase to denote five tribes, as well as all mankind.
\(^8\) \textit{Altindisches Leben}, 119-123. His view is accepted by Macdonell, \textit{Sanskrit Literature}, 153; Muir, \textit{Sanskrit Texts}, 12, 179, is doubtful.
\(^9\) Cf. its use in Rv. ii. 12, \textit{sa janāsa}
\(^10\) Cf. Rv. viii. 9, 2, and i. 52, 9, with vii. 70, 11; x. 28, 8.
\(^11\) Rv. ix. 65, 23.
\(^12\) Rv. vi. 61, 12 (\textit{pāṇca jātā}). Cf. x. 53, 4.
\(^13\) v. 32, 11. Agni is 'of the five tribes,' Rv. ix. 66, 20. Atri also is so described, Rv. i. 117, 3.
\(^14\) Rv. i. 108, 8. In vii. 18, cited by Zimmer, 122, the five tribes do not occur \textit{eo nomine}, for \textit{Yakṣu} replaces Yadu. But it is probable that Yadu is meant by Yakṣu.
\(^15\) Rv. viii. 10, 5.
In the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa and the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa the five peoples are opposed to the Bharatas, and in the former work seven peoples are alluded to.

Paṇca-daśi, ‘the fifteenth day of the month,’ is already mentioned in the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa (i. 5, 10, 5).

Paṇca-nada, ‘having five streams,’ is not found until the epic period as the name of the Panjāb, which has no designation in the earlier literature. The importance of the Panjāb as the home of the Rigveda has been greatly diminished by recent research, Hopkins, Pischel, and Geldner having on different grounds shown reason for believing that the Rigveda, at least in great part, was composed farther east, in the Madhyadeśa, which admittedly was the home of the later Vedic culture. Hillebrandt considers that the Rigveda belongs in part to the Panjāb, or rather to Arachosia, and in part to the Middle Country. See also Kuru, Tr̥tsu.

1 See, e.g., Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 32 et seq.
3 Vedische Studien, 2, 218.
4 Ibid., 3, 152.
5 Vedische Mythologie, 1, 98 et seq.
6 See Divodāsa. Cf. also Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 189.

Paṇcavimśa Brāhmaṇa. See Tāndya.

Paṇcāla is the later name of the people called Krivi in the Rigveda. The Paṇcālas are rarely referred to except in connexion with the Kurus, and the kings of the Kuru-Paṇcālas are mentioned in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa. In the Kāthaka Samhitā the Paṇcālas appear as the people of Keśin Dālbhya.

1 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 5, 4, 7.
2 viii. 14.
3 xxx. 2 (Indische Studien, 3, 471).
In the Upanisads and later⁴ the Brahmins of the Pañcālas figure as taking part in philosophical and philological discussions. The Saṃhitopaniṣad Brāhmaṇa⁵ makes mention of the Prācya-Pañcālas.

The Pañcālas, no doubt, included other tribes besides the Krivis. The name seems to refer to five tribes, and it has been suggested⁶ that the Pañcālas represent the five tribes of the Rigveda, but the suggestion is not very probable. There is no trace in Vedic literature of the Epic division of the Pañcālas into northern (uttara) and southern (daksīna). The Śatapath Brāhmaṇa⁷ mentions their town Paricakra; other towns to which allusion seems to be made were Kāmpila and Kauśāmbī.⁸ Of their kings and chiefs, as distinguished from kings of the Kuru-Pañcālas, we hear of Kraivya, Durmukha, Pravāhana Jaivali, and Śona.

Pañcāla-canda is the name of a teacher in the Aitareya¹ and the Śānkhaṇa² Aranyakas.

Pañcāvi occurs several times in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā¹ in the sense of 'aged five lamb-periods' (of six months), that is, 'thirty months old.'²

Pañcaudana is an adjective in the Atharvaveda¹ meaning 'prepared with five rice-messes.' The cooking of five rice dishes is referred to in the same Saṃhitā.²

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⁴ Bhādarānyaka Upaniṣad, vi. i, 1 (Mādhyamānta = vi. 2, i Kāṇya); Chāndogya Upaniṣad, v. 3, 1; Rigveda Prātiśākhya, ii. 12, 44; Nidāna Śutra, i. 6; Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Śutra, xii. 13, 6, etc.
⁵ 2. Cf. Indische Studien, 4. 375, n.; 8, 92, n. 1.
⁷ xiii. 5. 4, 7.
⁸ See Kauśāmbeya.

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¹ iii. 1, 6.
² vii. 18.

⁴ Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 391;
Indian Literature, 50, 315, 326.

¹ xviii. 26; xxi. 14; xxiv. 12; xxviii. 26.
² Cf. Tryavi.

¹ iv. 14, 7; ix. 5, 8 et seq.
² ix. 5, 37.
Paṭala as early as the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa\(^1\) denotes ‘section’ of a work, a sense occurring in the Sūtras\(^2\) and later.

\(^1\) i. 21. 22. 
\(^2\) Śāṅkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, xi. 9; Āśvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra, iv. 6. 7.

Paṭharvan appears to be the name of a man in the Rigveda.\(^1\) According to Ludwig,\(^2\) however, the word is Paṭharu, and is the name of a fort which was saved by a rain-storm from being set on fire.

\(^1\) i. 112, 17, with Sāyaṇa’s note. 
\(^2\) Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 204. 
\(^3\) Cf. Griffith, *Hymns of the Rigveda*, 1, 147, 148.

Paḍgrbhi, ‘seizing by the foot,’\(^1\) is the name in the Rigveda\(^2\) of either a man\(^3\) or a demon. See also Paḍbīṣa.

\(^1\) But it may mean ‘seizing with a cord.’ Cf. Macdonell, *Vedic Grammar*, p. 34 (top); Pischel, *Vedische Studien*, 1, 236. 
\(^2\) x. 49. 5. 
\(^3\) Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 165.

Paḍ-bīṣa, the ‘foot-fetter’ of a horse in five passages, two in the Rigveda,\(^1\) and one each in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad,\(^2\) the Chāndogya Upaniṣad,\(^3\) and the Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka.\(^4\) Elsewhere\(^5\) its uses are metaphorical. According to Roth,\(^6\) the literal sense is ‘foot-fastening’ (paḍ being = pad, ‘foot,’ and bīṣa, written viṣa in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, being connected with the Latin vincire, ‘bind’). Pischel\(^7\) objects that the sense of ‘foot-fastening’ involves the absurdity, in the Upaniṣad passages, of a fine horse from the Sindhu (Indus) being spoken of as tearing up the peg to which it is fastened. He suggests instead the meaning of ‘hobble,’ which must be right.\(^8\)

\(^1\) i. 162, 14. 16 = Taittirīya Saṃhitā, iv. 6, 9, 1. 2; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxv. 38. 39. 
\(^2\) vi. 2, 13 (Mādhyaṇḍina). 
\(^3\) v. 1, 12. 
\(^4\) ix. 7; Keith, Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka, 57, n. 3. 
\(^5\) Rv. x. 97, 16; Av. viii. 1, 4; xii. 5, 15; xvi. 8, 27; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 6, 10, 3; Mantra Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, 10. 
\(^6\) St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. 
\(^7\) *Vedische Studien*, 1, 233-236. 
\(^8\) He explains the first part of the word as derived from paḍ, ‘tie.’ Cf. Macdonell, *Vedic Grammar*, p. 34 (top). But the form paḍ may be due to a false analogy, and the sense of ‘foot-fastener’ may express ‘hobble’ quite satisfactorily; it is not confined to a rope tied to a peg in the ground.
BARGAINING—THE PANIS

Panī, with Pratipana, is found in a hymn of the Atharvaveda denoting the process of bargaining and selling. The root pan, from which the word is derived, is employed in the later Samhitās and the Brāhmaṇas, while Panāna in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa denotes 'trafficking.' Cf. Vanij.

Panī in the Rigveda appears to denote a person who is rich, but who does not give offerings to the gods, or bestow Dakṣinās on the priests, and who is therefore an object of intense dislike to the composers of the Saṃhitā. Hence the gods are asked to attack the Panīs, who are also referred to as being defeated with slaughter. The Panī is opposed to the pious sacrificer as a niggard, and is spoken of as a wolf, the symbol of enmity. In some passages the Panīs definitely appear as mythological figures, demons who withhold the cows or waters of heaven, and to whom Saramā goes on a mission from Indra. Among the Panīs Brbu was apparently important. In one passage of the Rigveda they are described as Bekanātas, or 'usurers' (?). In another they are called Dasyus, and styled mydhra-vāc, probably 'of hostile speech,' and grathin, a word of uncertain meaning. Hillebrandt thinks that the latter epithet refers to the continuous flow of a speech which

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1 Rv. i. 33, 3; 83, 2; 151, 9; 180, 7; iv. 28, 7; v. 34, 5-7; 61, 8; vi. 13, 3; 53, 3; viii. 64, 2; 97, 2; x. 60, 6; Av. v. 11, 7; xx. 128, 4; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxxv. i.
2 Rv. i. 83, 4; 184, 2; iii. 58, 2; v. 34, 7; 61, 8; vi. 13, 3; 20, 4; 33, 2; viii. 64, 11.
3 Rv. i. 124, 10; iv. 51, 3; viii. 45, 14 (where the sense is doubtful). Cf. i. 93, 4; v. 61, 1.
4 Rv. vi. 51, 14.
5 Rv. i. 32, 11; ii. 24, 6; iv. 58, 4; vi. 44, 22; vii. 9, 2; x. 67, 6; 92, 3; Av. iv. 23, 5; xiv. 46, 2; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 8, 2, 3. It is impossible definitely to decide in which passages the mythical sense is meant. Cf. Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, p. 157.
6 Rv. x. 108.
7 Rv. viii. 66, 10.
8 Rv. vii. 6, 3.
9 Vedische Mythologie, i, 89.
is not understood, and that *mṛdhra-vāc* means ‘speaking an enemy's speech,’ though not necessarily with reference to non-Āryans.\(^{10}\) In two passages\(^{11}\) the Paṇis appear as Dāsas, and in one\(^{12}\) a Paṇi is mentioned in connexion with *wergeld* (*Vaira*), being apparently regarded as equal to a man merely in the price put on his life, but in other respects as inferior.

It is difficult to be certain exactly who a Paṇi was. Roth\(^{13}\) thinks that the word is derived from *payi*, ‘barter,’ and that the Paṇi is properly the man who will give nothing without return, hence the niggard, who neither worships the gods nor rewards their priests. This view is accepted by Zimmer\(^{14}\) and by Ludwig.\(^{15}\) The latter scholar thinks the apparent references to fights with Paṇis are to be explained by their having been aboriginal traders who went in caravans—as in Arabia and Northern Africa—prepared to fight, if need be, to protect their goods against attacks which the Āryans would naturally deem quite justified. He supports this explanation by the references to the Paṇis as Dasyus and Dāsas. It is, however, hardly necessary to do more than regard the Paṇis generally as non-worshippers of the gods favoured by the singers; the term is wide enough to cover either the aborigines or hostile Āryan tribes, as well as demons. Hillebrandt,\(^{16}\) however, thinks that a real tribe is meant, the Parnians of Strabo, and that they were associated with the Dahae (Dāsa). Moreover, he finds them associated in one passage\(^{17}\) with the Pārāvatas, whom

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\(^{10}\) See Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 2, 1, 23; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 2\(^{a}\), 114; Davidson, *Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft*, 37, 23; Eggeling, *Sacred Books of the East*, 26, 31, n. 3.

\(^{11}\) Rv. v. 34, 5-7; Av. v. 11, 6.

\(^{12}\) Rv. v. 61, 8. Cf. Roth, *Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft*, 41, 673; Max Müller, *Sacred Books of the East*, 32, 361, who thinks that the Paṇi is compared unfavourably with a generous woman, but this is unlikely; Hillebrandt, 1, 92, n. 3.

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he identifies with the Πατώμητα of Ptolemy,\textsuperscript{18} and with Βραψαία, whom he connects with Βαρσαλεύτης of Arrian;\textsuperscript{19} he also considers that the frequent\textsuperscript{20} mention of the Πάνις as opponents of \textit{Divodása} shows that the latter was on the Arachosian Haraqaiti (\textit{Sarasvati}) fighting against the Parnians and Dahae, as well as other Iranian tribes. But the identification of Πάνι and the Parnians is needless, especially as the root \textit{pau}, which is found also in the Greek \textit{πέρανωμι}, shows a satisfactory derivation, while the transfer of \textit{Divodása} to the Haraqaiti is improbable. See also \textit{Divodása} and \textit{Bekanāta}.

\textit{Panañita}, a 'learned man,' is not found until the Upaniṣad period.\textsuperscript{1}

1 Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, iii. 4, 1; vi. 20, 3, 113, 186. 17; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, vi. 4, etc.

1. \textit{Patañga}, 'flying,' denotes a 'winged insect' in the Atharvaveda\textsuperscript{1} and the Upaniṣads.\textsuperscript{2}

1 vi. 50, 1. 2 Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 1, 19 (Mādhyaṁḍīna = vi. 2, 14 Kāṇyā); vi. 9, 3, 10, 2, 14, 9, 1; vii. 2, 1, 7, 8, 1, 10, 2; \textit{Adbhuta Brāhmaṇa}, vi. 5 (\textit{Indische Studien}, 1, 40).

2. \textit{Patañga Prājāpatya} ('descendant of Prajāpati') is credited by the Anukramaṇi (Index) with the authorship of a hymn of the Rigveda\textsuperscript{1} in which Patañga means the 'sun-bird.' He is also mentioned in the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa.\textsuperscript{2}

1 x. 177, 1. 2 iii. 30, 1. Cf. Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, xxv. 8; Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xi. 14, 28.

\textit{Patañcalaka Kāpya} is the name of a sage mentioned twice in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad.\textsuperscript{1} According to Weber,\textsuperscript{2} his

1 iii. 3, 17, 7, 1.
2 \textit{Indische Studien}, 1, 434, 435; \textit{Indian Literature}, 126, 137, 223, 236, 237.
name is reminiscent of Kapila and Patañjali of the Śāṅkhya-Yoga system, but this suggestion may be regarded as quite improbable.  


**Patatrin** denotes a 'flying creature' generally in the Aitareya Upaniṣad,1 or more particularly a 'bird' in the Atharvaveda.  

AUFRECHT, and 37, 340, view in 130 131 102 generally; in 56, vii. xiv. and ix. 38.

**Patākā,** 'banner,' is not found until the Adbhuta Brāhmaṇa. Its Vedic equivalent is Dhvaja.

1 *Indische Studien,* 1, 39, 41 (here erroneously mentioned as patāka, masculine).

**Pati, Patnī.—** Under these words denoting primarily, as the evidence collected in the St. Petersburg Dictionary shows, 'lord' and 'lady,' and so 'husband' and 'wife,' it is convenient to consider the marital relations of the Vedic community.

**Child Marriage.—** Marriage in the early Vedic texts appears essentially as a union of two persons of full development. This is shown by the numerous references1 to unmarried girls who grow old in the house of their fathers (ama-jur), and who adorn themselves in desire of marriage, as well as to the paraphernalia of spells and potions used in the Atharvavedic tradition2 to compel the love of man or woman respectively, while even the Rigveda3 itself seems to present us with a spell by which a

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1 *Cf. Rv. i. 117, 7; ii. 17, 7; x. 39, 340, 5. Ghosā is the chief example of this condition. The Atharvaveda (i. 14) also refers to such a case (see Bloomfield, *Hymns of the Atharvaveda,* 253). The ornaments of maidens, especially at seasons of festival, are referred to in Rv. i. 123, 11; vii. 2, 5; Av. ii. 36, 1; xiv. 2, 59 et seq.

2 *Cf. Av. iii. 18 (= Rv. x. 145); vi. 89; 102; 130; 131; vii. 36; 37; 38. Similarly there are many references to the love of the youth for the maiden, and his seeking her—e.g., Rv. i. 115, 2; Av. ii. 30; iii. 25; vi. 8; 9; 82; to their mutual affection—e.g., Rv. i. 167, 3; ix. 32, 5; 56, 3; x. 34, 5; and to jealousy and love philtres for the purpose of recalling wandering affections—e.g., Av. vi. 18; 42; 43; 94; 139; vii. 45. The gifts of the lover are referred to in Rv. i. 117, 18. Some of these passages may, of course, refer to Hetairai, but not all.

3 *Cf. Rv. i. 134, 3; Aufrecht, *Indische Studien,* 4, 337 et seq. A different view of the passage is taken by Fischel, *Vedische Studien,* 2, 57 et seq.*

The Atharvaveda (iv. 5) shows that the view of Aufrecht was that early adopted in India.
lover seeks to send all the household to sleep when he visits his beloved. Child wives first occur regularly in the Sūtra period, though it is still uncertain to what extent the rule of marriage before puberty there obtained. The marriage ritual also quite clearly presumes that the marriage is a real and not a nominal one: an essential feature is the taking of the bride to her husband’s home, and the ensuing cohabitation.

Limitations on Marriage.—It is difficult to say with certainty within what limits marriage was allowed. The dialogue of Yama and Yami in the Rigveda seems clearly to point to a prohibition of the marriage of brother and sister. It can hardly be said, as Weber thinks, to point to a practice that was once in use and later became antiquated. In the Gobhila Grhya Sūtra and the Dharma Sūtras are found prohibitions against marriage in the Gotra (‘family’) or within six degrees on the mother’s or father’s side, but in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa marriage is allowed in the third or fourth generation, the former being allowed, according to Harisvamin, by the Kāṇvas, and the second by the Saurāstras, while the Dākṣiṇātyyas allowed marriage with the daughter of the mother’s brother or the son of the father’s sister, but presumably not with the daughter of the mother’s sister or the son of the father’s brother. The prohibition of marriage within the Gotra cannot then have existed, though naturally marriages

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4 Cf. Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 59; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 340 et seq.; 23, 356; Risley, People of India, 179 et seq. There is a possible reference to a child-wife in the Chāndogya Upanisad, i. 10, 1. For the Sutra evidence, see Bhandarkar, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 47, 143-156; Jolly, ibid., 46, 413-426; 47, 610-615.

5 Kv. x. 85, especially verse 29 et seq.

6 x. 10.

7 Proceedings of the Berlin Academy, 1895, 822. Cf. also Indische Studien, 5, 427; 10, 76, n.; Pischel, Hermes, 18, 465-468; Max Müller, Science of Language, 2, 507; Herodotus, iii. 19. Crawley’s Mystic Rose gives strong reasons against the early prevalence of such marriages.

8 iii. 4, 5.

9 Āpastamba Dharma Sūtra, ii. 5, 15, 16, etc. Cf. Mānava Dharma Sāstra, iii. 5: Yājñavalkya Dharma Sāstra, i. 52, 53.

10 i. 8, 3, 6.

11 On Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, loc. cit.

outside the Gotra were frequent. Similarity of caste was also not an essential to marriage, as hypergamy was permitted even by the Dharma Sūtras, so that a Brāhmaṇa could marry wives of any lower caste, a Kṣatriya wives of the two lowest castes as well as of his own caste, a Vaiśya a Śūdrā as well as a Vaiśyā, although the Śūdrā marriages were later disapproved in toto. Instances of such intermarriage are common in the Epic, and are viewed as normal in the Brhaddevatā.

It was considered proper that the younger brothers and sisters should not anticipate their elders by marrying before them. The later Saṃhitās and Brāhmaṇas present a series of names expressive of such anticipation, censuring as sinful those who bear them. These terms are the pari-vividāna, or perhaps agre-dadhus, the man who, though a younger brother, marries before his elder brother, the latter being then called the parivitta, the man who weds a younger daughter while her elder sister is still unmarried; and the Didhiṣu-pati, who is the husband of the latter. The passages do not explicitly say that the exact order of birth must always be followed, but the mention of the terms shows that the order was often broken.

Widow Remarriage.—The remarriage of a widow was

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14 Gautama Dharma Sūtra, iv. 16; Baudhāyana Dharma Sūtra, i. 16, 2-5; Vasiṣṭha Dharma Sūtra, i. 24; 25; Pāraskara Gṛhya Sūtra, i. 4, etc.; Risley, People of India, 156 et seq. Cf. Varga.
15 See Hopkins, cited in note 12; Brhaddevatā, v. 79; and Varna.
16 See Delbrück, Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 578 et seq.
17 Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, iv. 1, 9, and Kāṭhaka and Kapiḍhala Saṃhitās, cited by Delbrück, 579, 580; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxx. 9. In Āpastamba Dharma Sūtra, ii. 5, 12, 22, the expression is paryākśita.
18 Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, iv. 1, 9, according to Delbrück, 581. But, as pari-vividāna follows, it seems very doubtful; the reading is probably wrong, especially in view of the Kāṭhaka and Kapiḍhala parallels, which have agre-didhisau and agre-dadhisau.
19 See passages cited in note 17; also Av. vi. 112, 3; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 2, 8, 11. Apastamba Śrauta Sūtra, ix. 12, 11, and Dharma Sūtra, ii. 5, 12, 22, add parivinna to parivitta, but probably the two words should be identical in sense.
20 Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā (see note 17) has agre-didhiṣu; Kapiḍhala, agre-dadhiṣu; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 2, 8, 11, agra-didhiṣu. The Dharma Sūtras adopt agre-didhiṣu.
21 Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā has didhiṣu-pati; Kapiḍhala, dadhiṣu-pati; and so the Dharma Sūtras. Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxx. 9, has the corrupt edidhiṣu-pati.
apparently permitted. This seems originally to have taken the form of the marriage of the widow to the brother or other nearest kinsman of the dead man in order to produce children. At any rate, the ceremony is apparently alluded to in a funeral hymn of the Rigveda;\(^{22}\) for the alternative explanation, which sees in the verse a reference to the ritual of the Puruṣamedha (‘human sacrifice’), although accepted by Hillebrandt\(^{23}\) and Delbrück,\(^{24}\) is not at all probable, while the ordinary view is supported by the Sūtra evidence.\(^{25}\) Moreover, another passage of the Rigveda\(^{26}\) clearly refers to the marriage of the widow and the husband’s brother (devy), which constitutes what the Indians later knew as Niyoga.\(^{27}\) This custom was probably not followed except in cases where no son was already born. This custom was hardly remarriage in the strict sense, since the brother might—so far as appears—be already married himself. In the Atharvaveda,\(^{28}\) a verse refers to a charm which would secure the reunion, in the next world, of a wife and her second husband. Though, as Delbrück\(^{29}\) thinks, this very possibly refers to a case in which the first husband was still alive,\(^{30}\) but was impotent or had lost caste (patita),\(^{31}\) still it is certain that the later Dharma Sūtras\(^{32}\) began to recognize ordinary remarriage in case of the death of the first husband.

\(^{22}\) x. 18, 8.

\(^{23}\) *Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft*, 40, 708.


\(^{26}\) x. 40, 2.


\(^{28}\) x. 5, 27, 28.


\(^{30}\) This is certainly the case in Av. v. 17, 8, which, however, merely exalts the sanctity of the Brāhmaṇa, and does not necessarily imply remarriage at all.

\(^{31}\) E.g., Baudhāyana Dharma Sūtra, ii. 2, 3, 27.

\(^{32}\) Vasiṣṭha Dharma Sūtra, xvii. 19.

\(^{22}\) 20. 72-74; Baudhāyana Dharma Sūtra, iv. 1, 16; Mānavas Dharma Śāstra, ix. 175. Cf. also Muir, *Sanskrit Texts*, 1\(^{2}\), 281; 5, 306.
Pischel finds some evidence in the Rigveda to the effect that a woman could remarry if her husband disappeared and could not be found or heard of.

Polygamy.—A Vedic Indian could have more than one wife. This is proved clearly by many passages in the Rigveda; Manu, according to the Maitrāyani Śamhitā, had ten wives; and the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa explains polygamy by a characteristic legend. Moreover, the king regularly has four wives attributed to him, the Mahiśi, the Parivṛkti, the Vāvata, and the Pālāgali. The Mahiśi appears to be the chief wife, being the first one married according to the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa. The Parivṛkti, ‘the neglected,’ is explained by Weber and Pischel as one that has had no son. The Vāvata is ‘the favourite,’ while the Pālāgali is, according to Weber, the daughter of the last of the court officials. The names are curious, and not very intelligible, but the evidence points to the wife first wedded alone being a wife in the fullest sense. This view is supported by the fact emphasized by

33 Vedische Studien, i, 27. 34 vi.9,3. Cf. Mahābhārata, i. 70, 26. 35 Rv. i. 62, ii; vi. 104, 3; 105, 8; 112, 19; 186, 7; ii. 53, 4; vii. 18, 2; 26, 3; x. 43, i; 101, 11. Cf. Av. iii. 4; Taittiriya Śamhitā, vi. 5, 1, 4, etc. See Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 5, 455 et seq.; Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 387; Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 64; von Schroeder, Indiens Literatur und Cultur, 430, 431; Delbrück, Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 539, 540; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 353; Bloomfield, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 48, 561.

36 i. 5, 8.
37 Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 9, 4, 4; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 3, i. 4; vi. 5, 3, i; vii. 5, 1, i; xii. 2, 6, 4; 4, 1, 8; 5, 2, 5, 9; Paścaviṁśa Brāhmaṇa, xix. 1, 4. Cf. Rv. v. 2, 2; 37, 3; Av. i. 36, 3; Taittiriya Śamhitā, i. 8, 9, i; Weber, Indische Studien, 5, 220.

38 Pari-vṛkti occurs in Rv. x. 102, 11; Av. vii. 113, 2; xx. 128, 10. 11; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 2, 6, 6; 4, 1, 8; 5, 2, 7; pari-vṛkti in Taittiriya Śamhitā, i. 8, 9, i; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 3, 4; ii. 9, 4, 4; Kāthaka Śamhitā, x. 10; xv. 4; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 3, i, 13.

39 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 22; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 3, 3; iii. 9, 4, 4; Av. xx. 128, 10. 11; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 2, 6, 5; 4, 1, 8; 5, 2, 6. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 5, 308, n.; Bloomfield, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 48, 553, 554.

40 Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 3, 3 et seq.; iii. 9, 4, 5; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 4, 1, 8; Śānkhyāna Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. 4, 4, 4.
41 i. 5, 3, 1.
42 iv. 5, 3, 1.
43 Indische Studien, 10, 6.
Delbrück,\(^45\) that in the sacrifice the Patni is usually mentioned in the singular, apparent exceptions being due to some mytho-
logical reason.\(^46\) Zimmer\(^47\) is of opinion that polygamy is
dying out in the Rigvedic period, monogamy being developed
from pologamy; Weber,\(^48\) however, thinks that polygamy is
secondary, a view that is supported by more recent anthro-
pology.\(^49\)

Polyandry.—On the other hand, polyandry is not Vedic.\(^50\)
There is no passage containing any clear reference to such a
custom. The most that can be said is that in the Rigveda\(^51\)
and the Atharvaveda\(^52\) verses are occasionally found in which
husbands are mentioned in relation to a single wife. It is
difficult to be certain of the correct explanation of each separate
instance of this mode of expression; but even if Weber's\(^53\)
view, that the plural is here used majestatis causā, is not
accepted, Delbrück's\(^54\) explanation by mythology is probably
right. In other passages\(^55\) the plural is simply generic.

Marital Relations.—Despite polygamy, however, there is
ample evidence that the marriage tie was not, as Weber\(^56\) has
suggested, lightly regarded as far as the fidelity of the wife
was concerned. There is, however, little trace of the husband's
being expected to be faithful as a matter of morality. Several

\(^{45}\) Indogermanische Verwandtschaftsnamen, 539. Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 325. Yajñavalkya had, however, two
apparently equal wives (Bhad-
āraṇyaka Upaniṣad, iii. i, and cf. Tait-
tirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, 10, 3).

\(^{46}\) E.g., Taittirīya Saṃhitā, ii. 5, 6, 4; Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, iii. 3, 1.

\(^{47}\) Altindisches Leben, 323.

\(^{48}\) Indische Studien, 5, 222. Weber's
theory that sapina cannot be derived from sapatnī is, however, quite un-
tenable.

\(^{49}\) See, e.g., Westermaarck, Origin and
Development of Marriage: Crawley, Mystic Rose.

\(^{50}\) Mayr, Indisches Erbrecht, Wien,
1873, contends in favour of its exist-
ence. But see Weber, Indische Studien,
5, 191, 207; 10, 83, 84; Jolly, Recht
und Sitte, 48; Hopkins, Journal of the

American Oriental Society, 13, 354 et seq.;
von Schroeder, Indiens Literatur und
Cultur, 431, n. 2; Zeitschrift der Deutschen
Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 44, 340-
342; Delbrück, Die indogermanischen
Verwandtschaftsnamen, 541-545.

\(^{51}\) x. 85, 37. 38.

\(^{52}\) Av. xiv. 1, 44. 52. 61; 2, 14. 27.

\(^{53}\) Indische Studien, 5, 191. So Zimmer,
Altindisches Leben, 326, who, however,
suggests that the plural is generic.


\(^{55}\) Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 6, 2, 14.

\(^{56}\) Cf. the plural śvataurāḥ, 'fathers-in-law,' in Kāthaka Saṃhitā, xii. 12. The
Niyoga has, of course, nothing to do
with polyandry.

\(^{57}\) Indische Studien, 10, 83. Cf. Lud-
wig, Translation of the Rigveda, 5, 573,
and cf. Dharma.
passages, indeed, forbid, with reference to ritual abstinence, intercourse with the strī of another. This may imply that adultery on the husband's part was otherwise regarded as venial. But as the word strī includes all the 'womenfolk,' daughters and slaves, as well as wife, the conclusion can hardly be drawn that intercourse with another man's ‘wife’ was normally regarded with indifference. The curious ritual of the Varuṇaprāghāsās, in which the wife of the sacrificer is questioned as to her lovers, is shown by Delbrück to be a part of a rite meant to expiate unchastity on the part of a wife, not as a normal question for a sacrificer to put to his own wife. Again, Yājñavalkya's doctrine in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, which seems to assert that no one cares if a wife is unchaste (parah-pumśā) or not, really means that no one cares if the wife is away from the men who are sacrificing, as the wives of the gods are apart from them during the particular rite in question. Monogamy is also evidently approved, so that some higher idea of morality was in course of formation. On the other hand, no Vedic text gives us the rule well known to other Indo-Germanic peoples that the adulterer taken in the act can be killed with impunity, though the later legal literature has traces of this rule. There is also abundant evidence that the standard of ordinary sexual morality was not high.

Hetairai.—In the Rigveda there are many references to illegitimate love and to the abandonment of the offspring of the theory of doubt as to the parentage of the Vedic Indians.

57 Taittirīya Śaṁhitā, v. 6, 8, 3; Maitrāyaṇi Saṁhitā, iii. 4, 7.
58 Cf. above, p. 396.
59 Maitrāyaṇi Saṁhitā, i. 10, ii.; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 5, 2, 20; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 6, 5, 2.
61 i. 3, 1, 21. Cf. Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 12, 76, n. 2; Böhlingk, Dictionary, s.v. parah-pumśā (cf. above, p. 397). Delbrück, op. cit., 251, shows also that neither the Dīkṣā ('consecration') nor the Pravara ('invitation' to Agni, as described by the names of the mythical ancestors of the invoker) gives any countenance to...
such unions, especially in the case of a protégé of Indra, often mentioned as the parāvrkta or parāvṛj. The ‘son of a maiden’ (kumāri-putra) is already spoken of in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā. Such a person appears with a metronymic in the Upaniṣad period: this custom may be the origin of metronymics such as those which make up a great part of the lists of teachers (Vaṃśas) of the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad. The Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā refers to illicit unions of Śūdra and Ārya, both male and female, besides giving in its list of victims at the Puruṣamedha, or ‘human sacrifice,’ several whose designations apparently mean ‘courtesan’ (ātiśvarī) and ‘procuress of abortion’ (atiskadvarī), while the ‘dyeing woman’ (rajayītri) is dedicated to sensuality. Pischel and Geldner also see many references to Hetairai in other passages of the Rigveda, especially where mention is made of Uṣas, the goddess of Dawn, who in their view is the characteristic Hetaira. At any rate, there is little doubt that the ‘dancer’ (nṛtī) referred to in one passage of the Rigveda was a Hetaira. When women are referred to as going to the Samana, or ‘place of meeting,’ Hetairai are probably also meant. Grave cases of immorality are alluded to in the Rigveda. The love of father and daughter, as shown in the myth of Prajāpati, is evidently censured, but the actual existence of this form of incest is recognized in the Atharvaveda. Girls who had lost their

67 Rv. ii. 13, 12; iv. 19, 9; 30, 16; Zimmer, op. cit., 335. The child, when exposed, was in danger of being consumed by ants (vanrī). Cf. below, p. 493.
68 xxx. 6.
69 Cf. Jāhala Satyakāma.
70 Cf. Pāṇini, iv. 1, 116. But the custom may be due simply to polymamy (Keith, Aitareya Āranyaka, p. 244, n. 2).
71 xxiii. 30, 31; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vii. 4, 19, 2. 3.

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72 xxx. 15.
73 xxx. 15; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 4, 11, 1, has apashkadvarī.
74 xxx. 12; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 7, 1.
75 Cf. Vedische Studien, i, xxv, 196, 275, 299, 309; 2, 120, 154, 179, etc.; Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 48.
76 i. 92, 4.
77 Rv. iv. 58, 8; vi. 75, 4; x. 168, 2. Perhaps also vrā in i. 124, 8; 126, 5.
78 x. 162, 5 (brother and sister: cf. above, p. 397).
79 Rv. x. 61, 5-7; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, viii. 2, 10; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 33; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 4, 1.
80 vii. 6, 7.
natural protectors—father or brother—were apt to be reduced to live by immorality.

*Forms of Marriage.*—The state of society revealed in the Vedic age seems to point to considerable freedom on the part of both man and woman in selecting a wife or a husband. At any rate, it is not clear that either the father or the mother controlled the marriage of son or daughter of mature age, though no doubt the parents or parent often arranged a suitable match. The marriage was frequently arranged through an intermediary, the 'wooer' (*vara*), presumably after those concerned had in effect come to an agreement. The sale of a daughter was not unknown, but a certain amount of discredit would seem to have attached to it, and sons-in-law in such cases were sometimes stingy. On the other hand, dowries were not infrequently given, especially no doubt when damsels suffered from bodily defects. Occasionally marriages by

81 Rv. i. 124, 7. Cf. *Putrikā.*
82 Cf. Delbrück, *op. cit.*, 574. Zimmer, *Altindisches Leben*, 309, asserts that the consent of parent or brother was needed, but no clear evidence of this can be adduced. The later custom is not conclusive, since it is bound up with the usage of child marriage, which deprived both son and daughter of any free choice. Cf. *ibid.*, 315; Kaegi, *Der Rigveda*, 15.

83 This is so natural as not to need express evidence. *Cf.*, e.g., the marriage proposals of Śyāvāśva Ātreya, as detailed in the Brhaddevatā, v. 49 et seq.; Sieg, *Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda*, 51 et seq.
84 Rv. x. 78, 4; 85, 15. 23. Zimmer, *op. cit.*, 310, exalts this into a universal practice, and compares the use of *aryaman*, 'friend,' as 'bride-wooer.' In Śyāvāśva's case, his father acted for him.

86 Rv. i. 109, 2, refers to the gods Indra and Agni as more generous than a *vījāmātr*, 'son-in-law,' or a *syāda*, 'brother-in-law.' The force of *vi* in the former word must be unfavourable, and the sense, as indicated by Fischel, is, no doubt, that a son-in-law who was not in other respects altogether suitable might have to buy his bride at a heavy cost. The *vījāmātr* is, in fact, the *aśīro jāmāta*, the 'ignoble son-in-law,' of Rv. vii. 2, 20. Cf. Yāska, Nirukta, vi. 9; Bloomfield, *Journal of the American Oriental Society*, 15, 255.
87 *Cf.* Rv. vi. 28, 5; x. 27, 12; Av. v. 17, 12. Possibly in Rv. i. 109, 2, there is a reference to a generous brother giving his sister a dowry in order to get her a husband. *Cf.* Hopkins, *Journal of the American Oriental Society*, 13, 345; Muir, *Sanskrit Texts*, 5, 459; Kaegi, *Der Rgveda*, n. 352; Zimmer, *op. cit.*, 310, n. It is doubtful whether *anudeyā* in Rv. x. 85, 6, means 'dowry' or not. See Whitney, *Translation of the Atharvaveda*, 741.
capture may have taken place, but only as knightly feats, as when Vimada carried off Purumitra's daughter against her father's wish, but very possibly with her own consent.\(^{88}\) The later law-books and the Epic describe in much detail various forms of marriage, but they all seem reducible to three types: (a) that which is based on mutual consent, the \(\text{prājāpatya}\) (‘connected with Prajāpati’); (b) that in which a price is paid for the bride, the \(\text{āsura}\) (‘Asura-like’), \(\text{ārṣa}\) (‘connected with the Rṣis’), \(\text{brāhma}\) (‘relating to Brahman’), or \(\text{daiva}\) (‘divine’); (c) those which consist in stealing the bride, the \(\text{kṣātra}\) (‘warrior-like’) or the \(\text{rākṣasa}\) (‘demon-like’) mode, of all of which traces are found in Vedic literature.\(^{89}\) For instance, the gift of a maiden for services rendered or other object is exemplified in the story of \(\text{Cyavana}\) in the Jaiminiya Brāhmaṇa,\(^{90}\) and in that of \(\text{Śyāvāśva}\) in the Brhaddevatā.\(^{91}\)

**Wedding Ceremony.**—In normal marriages the bridal was celebrated by an elaborate ceremony which bears in essentials and details the strongest resemblance to the form observed by other Indo-Germanic as well as non-Indo-Germanic peoples,\(^{92}\) and which was destined to secure the stability and fruitfulness of the union. The ceremony commenced at the bride’s house,\(^{93}\) to which the bridegroom with his friends and relations repaired, and in which he met the friends and relations of the bride.\(^{94}\) A cow or cows were slain for the entertainment of the guests.\(^{95}\) The bridegroom having caused the bride to mount a stone, formally grasped her hand, and led her round the household elaborately traced in the \(\text{Gṛhya Sūtras}\), is set out by Weber and Haas, \text{Indische Studien}, 5, 177-411. See also Leist, \text{Altarisches Jus Gentium}, 144 et seq.; von Schroeder, \text{Die Hochzeitsbräuche der Esten}, Berlin, 1888; Schrader, \text{Prehistoric Antiquities}, 384 et seq.; Hopkins, \text{op. cit.}, 13, 355 et seq.; Winternitz, \text{Das altindische Hochzeitsrituell}, 1892; Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 739 et seq.; Lanman, \text{Sanskrit Reader}, 389 et seq.

\(^{88}\) Cf. Rv. i. 112, 19; 116, 1; 117, 20; x. 39, 7; 65, 12. Sāyaṇa's view that \(\text{Kamadūn}\) was daughter of \(\text{Puru-mitra}\) seems certain, though Zimmer, loc. cit., is doubtful.

\(^{89}\) Hopkins, \text{Journal of the American Oriental Society}, 13, 361, 362; Jolly, \text{Recht und Sitte}, 50 et seq.; Pischel, \text{Vedische Studien}, 1, 29; Schrader, \text{Prehistoric Antiquities}, 383.

\(^{90}\) Iii. 122.

\(^{91}\) v. 49 et seq.

\(^{92}\) The older ritual is described with considerable detail in Rv. x. 85 and Av. xiv. 1 and 2. The later ritual, as

\(^{93}\) x. 17, 1.

\(^{94}\) Rv. iv. 58, 9; Av. vi. 60; xiv. 2, 59.

\(^{95}\) Rv. x. 85, 13.
fire.  This act constituted the marriage, the husband hence being called 'he who takes by the hand' (hasta-grābha). The festivities being over, the bridegroom took the bride to his home on a car in a marriage procession, all to the accompaniment of suitable stanzas. Then followed cohabitation.

**Wife's Property and Status.**—We have very little information as to the legal relations of wife and husband after marriage. It may be assumed that the husband appropriated the wife's dowry, if any, as well as her earnings, if any: even in the Epic the rise of the recognition of women's property as their own (stṛī-dhana) is only slow. That the husband was absolute master of a wife as of a slave is not probable, though he doubtless exercised the same power of correction as was expressly allowed in the eighteenth century by English law. The poetical ideal of the family was decidedly high, and we have no reason to doubt that it was often actually fulfilled. Moreover, the wife on her marriage was at once given an honoured position in the house: she is emphatically mistress in her husband's home, exercising authority over her father-in-law, her husband's brothers, and her unmarried sisters.

No doubt the case contemplated is one in which the eldest son

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66 Cf. Rv. x. 85, 36. 38; Av. xiv. 1, 47. 48. Before the bride mounted the stone, the groom repeated, according to the Gṛhya Sūtras (Āśvalāyana, i, 7; Śāṅkhāyana, i, 13, 4; Pārāśkara, i, 6, 3, etc.), the words, 'I am he, thou art she; I the Śāman, thou the Rc; I the heaven, thou the earth; here will we unite ourselves and produce offspring,' for which see Av. xiv. 2, 71; Kāṭhaka Saṁhitā, xxxv. 16; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 27; Bhādarāṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 4, 19 (Mādhyaṃdina).

97 x. 18, 8. Cf. Av. xiv. 1, 51.

98 Av. xiv. 2, 59 et seq.

99 Rv. x. 85, 7, 8, 10, 24, 25, 26, 27. 42 et seq.; Av. xiv. 1, 60.

100 See for the purification of the bride's garment, Rv. x. 85, 28-30. 35.

101 'They own neither themselves nor an inheritance' (nātmanāṁ ca exście na dāyasya), says the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 4, 2, 13. Cf. Maitrāyaṇī Saṁhitā, iv. 6, 4; Taittiriya Saṁhitā, vi. 5, 8, 2; Nirukta, iii. 4. Cf. for the Epic, Hopkins, *Journal of the American Oriental Society*, 13, 368. For compulsory obedience of the wife, cf. Bhādarāṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 4, 7. In the same Upaniṣad Yājñavalkya, on retiring from the ordinary life, divides his goods between his two wives.

102 Rv. viii. 31, 5-9; x, 34, ii; 85, 18. 19. 42 et seq.; Av. iii. 30; xiv. 2, 32.

103 Rv. x. 85, 46. Cf. as regards the bridegroom's sisters, Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 37. In Av. xiv. 2, 26, the daughter-in-law is to be 'wealthful' (āṁbhāḥ) to her father-in-law, and 'pleasant' (syond) to her mother-in-law, which is correct on either theory of her position as a daughter or a mistress.
of a family has become its head owing to the decrepitude\textsuperscript{104} of the parents, his wife then taking the place of the mistress of the joint family while the brothers and sisters are still unmarried. It is not inconsistent with the great stress elsewhere\textsuperscript{105} laid on the respect due to a father-in-law, who then is probably regarded as still in full possession of his faculties, and controls the house while his son continues to live with him. The respect would no doubt equally apply if the son had set up a separate family of his own.\textsuperscript{106}

Moreover, the wife was a regular participator in the offerings of the husband. In this connexion the term \textit{Patni} regularly applies to her in the Brāhmaṇas,\textsuperscript{107} where Jāyā designates her in her conjugal capacity, not in that of sharer in the sacrifice. In this respect her position gradually deteriorated: thus the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa\textsuperscript{108} describes a certain ceremony in which the wife (jāyā) alone offered the oblation in former times, while later a priest might do so instead. The same Brāhmaṇa shows other traces of a lowering in the position of women, probably due to the growing sense of the importance of ceremonial priority.\textsuperscript{109} So in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā\textsuperscript{110} women generally are classed with dice and drink as three chief evils, and woman is declared to be 'untruth,'\textsuperscript{111} and connected with Nirṛti, 'calamity.'\textsuperscript{112} A woman too, according to the Taittirīya Saṃhitā,\textsuperscript{113} is inferior even to a bad man, and a sarcastic reference is made in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā\textsuperscript{114} to her power of

\textsuperscript{104} Cf. Rv. i. 70, 5, where an old father's goods are divided by his sons, and Zimmer, \textit{Althindisches Leben}, 327. Cf. also the possible case of a father who recovers after giving over all his goods to his son, Kauśitaki Upaniṣad, iv. 15.

\textsuperscript{105} Av. viii. 6, 24; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, ii. 4, 2; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xii. 12 (\textit{Indische Studien}, 5, 260); Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 4, 6, 12; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 22; Delbrück, \textit{Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen}, 514, 515.

\textsuperscript{106} No doubt it might also apply even if the father-in-law were decrepit; but it is hardly likely that, in these circumstances, the strong sense of respect evident in Av. viii. 6, 24, which implies fear, would have developed.

\textsuperscript{107} Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 9, 2, 14; Pāṇini, iv. 1, 33; Delbrück, \textit{op. cit.}, 510, 512.

\textsuperscript{108} i, 1, 4, 13. For the older practice, \textit{cf.} Rv. i. 122, 2; iii. 33, 4-6; viii. 31, 5 et seq.; x. 86, 10, etc.

\textsuperscript{109} E.g., i. 3, i. 9, 12, 13. \textit{Cf.} Lévi, \textit{La doctrine du sacrifice}, 157, 158.

\textsuperscript{110} iii. 6, 3.

\textsuperscript{111} i. 10, 11.

\textsuperscript{112} \textit{Ibid.}

\textsuperscript{113} vi. 5, 8, 2. \textit{Cf.} Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, 1, 9.

\textsuperscript{114} xxxi. i. \textit{Cf.} Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 22.
getting things from her husband by cajolery at night. On the other hand must be set the encomia on woman: a woman is half her husband, and in the Rigveda attacks on women mingle with the general assumption of their good qualities. None the less, the Brāhmaṇas clearly indicate a gradual decline in their position, which is evident from the rule that requires the wife to eat after her husband. Scolds were also known: the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa praises the wife 'who does not answer back' (āpratīvādīnī). Women bore no part in political life: men go to the assembly, not women, the Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā expressly says. On the other hand, with the advance of education, women shared in the intellectual interests of the day, as is exemplified by Yājñavalkya's two wives, of whom one was interested in his philosophical discussions, the other not. Other women are also referred to in the Upaniṣads as teachers, but whether they were married is not certain.

But the main object of a woman's marriage was the production of children, this being repeatedly asserted in the Rigveda and later. The desire for offspring, as was natural in a society which mainly counted relationship through the father, took the form of a wish for a son to perform the necessary funeral rites for the father, and to continue his line. It was no doubt possible to adopt a son, but in the Rigveda this custom is plainly viewed as unsatisfactory. The practice

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115 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 2, r, 10.
116 Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, i. 4, 17.
117 In viii. 33, 17, Indra is credited with a poor opinion of woman's intelligence, and Purūravas in x. 95, 15, frankly calls them hyenas. They are defended in v. 61, 6-8, but only against mean men (Paṇī). Cf. Kaegi, Der Rigveda, n. 351.
118 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 9, 2, 12; x. 5, 2, 9. Cf. Vāśiṣṭha Dharma Sūtra, xii. 13; Bandhāyana Dharma Sūtra, i. 1, 2, 2; Weber, Indische Studien, 5, 330, n.; Hopkins, Journal of the American Oriental Society, 13, 365, n.
121 Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, iii. 4, 1; iv. 5, 1.
122 Cf. the epithet gandhārva-gṛhitā, Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, v. 29; Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, ii. 9; Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, iii. 3, 1; 7, 1; and see Aśvālāyana Gṛhya Sūtra, iii. 4, 4; Śāṅkhāyana Gṛhya Sūtra, iv. 10.
123 Rv. i. 91, 20; 92, 13; iii. 1, 23; x. 85, 25, 41. 42. 45; Av. iii. 23, 2; v. 25, 11; vi. 11, 2, etc.
is recognized, as we have seen above of Niyoga, in the appointment of a brother to beget children with the wife of a dead man, or perhaps of a man who is childless. ‘Sonlessness’ (aviratā) is placed on the same level as lack of property (amati), and Agni is besought to protect from it. The birth of a daughter was certainly not specially welcome: the Atharvaveda in one hymn distinctly invokes the birth of a son, and deprecates that of a daughter, while the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa contains an old verse which says that a daughter is a misery (kṛpanam), while a son is a light in the highest heaven (jyotir ha putrah parame vyomān). But there is no proof that the Vedic Indians practised the exposure of female children. This conclusion, deduced from certain passages in the later Samhitās by Zimmer and Delbrück, has been disproved by Böhtlingk.

Child Life.—No doubt the care of a child was left to the mother, but we learn little from the earlier literature of the life of the young. The length of the period of pregnancy is frequently placed at ten (doubtless lunar) months. On birth the child was first fed with milk or ghee, and then given the breast. On the eighth day after birth

125 x. 18, 8; 40, 2. 126 Rv. iii. 16, 5. 127 vi. 11, 3. Cf. viii. 6, 25. 128 vii. 15. Cf. Max Müller, Ancient Sanskrit Literature, 409. 129 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vi. 5, 10, 3; Maiṭrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iv. 6, 4; 7, 9; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxvii. 9; Nirukta, iii. 4; Śāṅkhāyaṇa Śruta Sūtra, xv. 17, 12.

130 Altiindisches Leben, 319. Cf. Weber, Nasatra, 2, 314, n., who cites Pañca-vinśa Brāhmaṇa, xi. 8, 8, as evidence of the exposure of two boys, but the sense is doubtful.


132 The later literature is full of details of the ceremonies before and after birth (see Delbrück, op. cit., 573 et seq.). Weber, Nasatra, 2, 314, n., gives the Vedic embryology; twins were disliked, Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 9, etc.

133 Rv. v. 78, 9; x. 184, 3; Av. i. 11, 6; iii. 23, 2; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 13, 9; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 5, 2, 4; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, v. 9, 1; Weber, Nasatra, 2, 314, n. There are in the Av. many spells concerned with birth (i. 11, etc.), and miscarriages are mentioned (avatokā, avasī, Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxx. 15; Av. viii. 6, 9, etc.).

134 Brāhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, i. 3, 4 (Mādhyaṃdina = i. 5, 2 Kāṇva). Cf. also vi. 4, 24 et seq.; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 5, 1, 6. After being weaned the child is ati-stana (Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 2).
the infant was washed.\textsuperscript{135} The cutting of the teeth was also a solemn occasion,\textsuperscript{136} and is the subject of a hymn in the Atharvaveda. Reference is also made to children’s learning to speak, which the Taittirîya Samhîtâ\textsuperscript{137} ascribes to the end of the first year of life. The Aitareya Áranyaka\textsuperscript{138} asserts that the words \textit{Tata} and \textit{Tāta}, onomatopoetic words like ‘dada,’\textsuperscript{139} are the first words of a child’s speech, giving therein perhaps an unfair prominence to the father. The Atharvaveda\textsuperscript{140} further contains at least one hymn for the ceremony of the first shaving of the young man’s beard. The giving of a name was also an occasion of importance, a second one being often added.\textsuperscript{141}

\textit{Sati}.—On the death of her husband, in some cases the widow burned herself or was burned by his relations.\textsuperscript{142} This is clearly implied in the reference to this ancient custom in the Atharvaveda.\textsuperscript{143} On the other hand, the Rigveda does not contemplate the custom anywhere, but on the contrary considers the widow as married apparently to the brother of the dead man.\textsuperscript{144} The custom of Suttee would therefore appear during the Vedic age to have been in abeyance, at least as a general rule. At all times the practice seems to have been mainly usual among families of the warrior class, to judge from the other Indo-Germanic parallels.\textsuperscript{145}

\textsuperscript{135} Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xiv. 7, 2 (on Śāmaveda, ii. 525 = Rv. ix. 96, 17). The first ten days were the dangerous period (Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 14; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xxii. 14, 3).

\textsuperscript{136} Av. vi. 140.

\textsuperscript{137} vi. 1, 6, 7. \textit{Cf.} Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, vii. 4, 2, 38; xi. 1, 6, 3·5.

\textsuperscript{138} i. 3, 3.

\textsuperscript{139} \textit{Cf.} Delbrück, \textit{op. cit.}, 449, 596.

\textsuperscript{140} vi. 68. \textit{Cf.} ii. 13, according to Kauśika Sūtra, 53. 54, and \textit{cf.} Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 4, 1, 6.

\textsuperscript{141} \textit{Cf.} Aitareya Áranyaka, i. 3, 3, with Keith’s note; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, vi. 1, 3, 9, and \textit{Nāman}.


\textsuperscript{143} Av. xviii. 3, 1.

\textsuperscript{144} x. 18, 7. 8.

\textsuperscript{145} \textit{Cf.} Herodotos, v. 5 (of the Thracians); iv. 71 (of the Scythians); Procopius, \textit{De Bello Gothico}, ii. 14 (of the Heruli). So in Germany Brynhild and Nanna are instances (\textit{cf.} Weinhold, \textit{Altnordisches Leben}, 476 et seq.). The universality of the custom must not be exaggerated, as Zimmer, 331, is inclined to do. To burn all the wives of a king would, in primitive ages, have been a
the survival of wives was more necessary, and the remarriage of widows, whether prohibited or allowed in the texts, is proof that there were widows who could be remarried.\(^{146}\)

wasteful action; even the chief wife would often have had to be spared on one ground or another. The Rigveda already reveals a state of society in which the actual burning of the wife was avoided by a semblance of it in the funeral ritual of (cf. Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, 126). The reward of a good wife was to go to the world of her husband (pati-loka) after death (cf. Av. xiv. 1, 64; xviii. 3, 1; Rv. x. 85, 43). A Vedic citation in the scholiast on Pāgini, iii. 2, 8, Vārttika, 2, says that a Brahmin woman who drinks Sūrā, an intoxicating liquor, does not go to the world of her husband after death.

\(^{146}\) Cf. perhaps the gartāruh of Rv. i. 124, 7, as explained by Yāska, Nirukta, iii. 5; Geldner, Rigveda, Commentar, 22.

Patti is used in the Atharvaveda (vii. 62, 1) to designate the 'foot soldier' in war as opposed to the Rathin, 'charioteer,' the latter defeating (ji) the former. One of the epithets of Rudra in the Śatarudriya liturgy of the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā (xvi. 19) is 'lord of footmen' (patinām pati).

Pati. See Pati. A part of the house is the Patinām Sadana, mentioned in the Atharvaveda,\(^1\) presumably the women's quarters. The phrase is borrowed from the Patni-śala, 'hut for the wife,' of the Brāhmaṇa\(^2\) ritual.

Pathin Saubhara ('descendant of Sobhari') is mentioned in the first two Vaṃśas (lists of teachers) in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad\(^1\) as the pupil of Ayāsyā Āṅgirasa.

\(^1\) ii. 5, 22 (Mādhyāṃdina = ii. 6, 3 Kāṇva); iv. 5, 28 (Mādhyāṃdina = iv. 6, 3 Kāṇva).

Pathi-kṛt, 'path-maker,' is not a rare epithet in the Rigveda\(^1\) and later,\(^2\) showing clearly the importance naturally attached in primitive times to the finding of roads. The frequency

\(^{1}\) ii. 23, 6; vi. 21, 12; ix. 106, 5; x. 14, 15; iii. 3, etc.

\(^{2}\) Av. xviii. 2, 53; 3, 25, etc.
with which the epithet is applied to Agni suggests that there is here an allusion to fire burning the primæval forest and rendering advance possible. The god Pūsan is pathi-kṛt, as guarding the flocks. The Rṣis, or seers, as ‘path-makers,’ may be compared with the Roman Pontifices.

2 Taittirīya Saṁhitā, ii. 2, 1, 1; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 1, 5, 5; xii. 4, 4, 1; Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, iv. 3, etc.

3 Sāṅkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, iii. 4, 9; xvi. 1, 17. The Sūtra, xvi. 1, 18, explains pathi-kṛt merely as adhikāti, ‘lord;’ but the sense must be more pregnant than that.

4 Rv. x. 14, 15, where the expression refers to their finding the way to the heavenly world; but it is probably a transfer of an epithet of terrestrial application.

Pad in the Atharvaveda (xix. 6, 2) and the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa (xi. 3, 2, 3) denotes a ‘quarter.’ This sense is derived from the primary meaning of ‘foot,’ which as applied to quadrupeds would represent ‘one-fourth.’ Cf. Pāda.

Pada in the sense of ‘quarter of a stanza’ is found as early as the Rigveda and often later. In the Brāhmaṇas it also denotes a ‘word’ as opposed to a ‘letter’ (Varṇa).

Padi is found once in the Rigveda, where, according to the St. Petersburg Dictionary, the word probably designates some kind of animal. Yāska explains it as equivalent to ganū, ‘a moving creature,’ but Durga as meaning ‘bird.’ The passage may refer to catching the Padi in a net (? mukṣījā).

Payas denotes the ‘milk’ of the cow in the Rigveda and later. More generally it has also the sense of ‘sap’ or ‘fluid’
found in plants, and giving them life and strength. In other passages it denotes the ‘water’ of heaven. A vow to live for a time on milk alone occurs in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa.

Payasyā in the later Saṃhitās and Brāhmaṇas denotes curds, said to consist of a mixture of sour milk and hot or cold fresh milk.

Para Ātnāra (‘descendant of Ātnāra’) appears in the later Saṃhitās and the Brāhmaṇas as one of the ancient great kings who won sons by performing a particular sacrifice. In the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa he is styled Hairanyanābha, ‘descendant of Hiraṇyanābha,’ and in the Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra he is called Para Āhlāra Vaideha, a fact testifying to the close connexion of Kosala and Videha. A Yajña-gāthā, or ‘sacrificial verse,’ there cited mentions Hiraṇyanābha Kausalya in connexion with Para.

Parama-jyā, ‘of supreme power,’ is understood by Ludwig in one passage of the Rigveda as the proper name of a great man among the Yadus. But it is doubtful whether the word is more than an epithet.
Paraśu in the Rigveda\(^1\) and later\(^2\) denotes the axe of the woodcutter. Of its form we know nothing. A red-hot axe was used in a form of ordeal (Divya) applied in accusations of theft.\(^3\) See also Paraśu.

\(1\) i. 127, 3; vii. 104, 21; x. 28, 8; 53, 9, etc.  
\(2\) Av. iii. 19, 4; vii. 28, 1; xi. 9, 1; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xii. 10; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 6, 4, 10; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 35; Kauśītaki Brāhmaṇa, x. 1; Kauśītaki Upaniṣad, ii. 11, etc.  
\(3\) Chāṇḍogya Upaniṣad, vi. 16, 1.

Paraśvan. See Parasvan.

Paraśvānt denotes a large wild animal which Roth\(^1\) conjectures to be the wild ass. It is mentioned in the Vṛṣākapi hymn\(^2\) of the Rigveda, twice in the Atharvaveda,\(^3\) and in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha ('horse sacrifice') in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās,\(^4\) in all of which passages the sense of 'wild ass' is satisfactory. More doubtful is the meaning of the word paraśvān(n) in the Kauśītaki Upaniṣad,\(^5\) where the commentary explains it as 'serpent.' It is, of course, quite possible that the word has nothing to do with paraśvānt. Bühler\(^6\) suggests connexion with the Pāli palāśāda, 'rhinoceros.'

\(1\) St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.  
\(2\) x. 86, 18.  
\(3\) vi. 72, 2; xx. 131, 22.  
\(4\) Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 10; Vājaśaneyī Saṃhitā, xxiv. 8; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, v. 5, 21, 1, where the commentator takes it to be the wild buffaloe.  
\(5\) i. 2.  
\(6\) Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 48, 63; Keith, Śāṅkhāyana Aranyaka, 17, n. 1; Aitareya Aranyaka, 377, n. 1.

Parā-vṛj is a term found in four passages of the Rigveda,\(^1\) in all of which it refers to a person in a forlorn condition, while one\(^2\) of them also speaks of him as going south. Sāyana’s\(^3\) view that the word is a proper name is most unlikely, while Grassmann’s\(^4\) explanation of it as ‘cripple’ is still less probable.

\(1\) i. 112, 8; ii. 13, 12; 15, 7; x. 61, 8.  
\(2\) x. 61, 8.  
\(3\) On i. 112, 8, etc., cf. Macdonell, Vedic Mythology, 152.  
\(4\) Translation of the Rigveda, i. 23, and cf. Wörterbuch, s.v.
Roth's\(^5\) interpretation of it as ‘exile’ seems clearly right in the passage which refers to the Parāvṛj as going south. Zimmer\(^6\) accepts Roth's view for this passage, but in the others sees a reference to the child of a maiden exposed by her and in danger of being eaten by insects (vamṛī). This view is supported by the fact that parāvrjta seems to have the same sense,\(^7\) and is accepted by Oldenberg.\(^8\)

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\(\text{Parāśara is mentioned with Śatayātu and Vasiṣṭha in the Rigvedic hymn celebrating Sudās}^{11} \text{ victory over the ten kings. According to the Nirukta}^{2} \text{ he was a son of Vasiṣṭha, but the Epic version makes him a son of Śakti and grandson of Vasiṣṭha. Geldner}^{3} \text{ thinks that he is mentioned in the Rigveda along with Śatayātu, perhaps his uncle, and his grandfather Vasiṣṭha, as the three sages who approached Indra and won his favour for Sudās. He is erroneously credited with the authorship of certain hymns of the Rigveda}^{4} \text{ by the Anukramaṇī (Index).}

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\(\text{Pari-ksit appears in the Atharvaveda}^{1} \text{ as a king in whose realm, that of the Kuru, prosperity and peace abound. The verses in which he is celebrated are later}^{2} \text{ called Pariśityah, and the Brāhmaṇas explain that Agni is \textit{pari-ksit} because he dwells among men. Hence Roth}^{3} \text{ and Bloomfield}^{4} \text{ regard Pariśit in the Atharvaveda not as a human king at all. This may be correct, but it is not certain. Both Zimmer}^{5} \text{ and}

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\(\text{\textit{Parikṣit}}\)
Oldenberg\(^6\) recognize Parikṣit as a real king, a view supported by the fact that in the later Vedic literature King Janamejaya bears the patronymic Parikṣita. If this be so, Parikṣit belonged to the later period, since the Atharvan passage in which his name occurs is certainly late, and none of the other Saṃhitās know Parikṣit at all. The Epic\(^7\) makes him grandfather of Pratiśravas and great-grandfather of Pratīpa, and Zimmer,\(^5\) probably with justice, compares the Prātisutvana and Pratīpa found in another late Atharvan passage.\(^8\) But Devāpi and Śantanu cannot be brought into connexion with Pratīpa.\(^9\)

\(^6\) Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 237; Buddha, 396.
\(^7\) See Zimmer, loc. cit.
\(^8\) xx. 129.
\(^9\) Devāpi is really a Brahmin, son of Rṣiśeṇa, and not connected directly with Śantanu. Yāska, Nirukta, ii. 10, identifies them as brothers and Kurus; but the former part of the identification is, no doubt, wrong.

Pari-gha denotes an iron bolt or bar in the Chāndogya Upanisad (ii. 24, 6. 10. 15) as often later.

Pari-cakrā is according to one reading the name of a Pañcāla town mentioned in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa\(^1\) and identified by Weber\(^2\) with the later Ekacakra, which was near Kāmpila.\(^3\) There is a various reading Parivakrā.\(^4\)

\(^1\) xiii. 5, 4, 7.
\(^2\) Indische Studien, 1, 192.
\(^3\) Mahābhārata, i. 6094.
\(^4\) Accepted by the scholiast and Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 44, 397.

Pari-cara is found in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa\(^1\) in the sense of ‘attendant.’ In the Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa\(^2\) pari-caraṇa has the same sense metaphorically, the other two Vedas (Sāma and Yajur) being said to be subsidiary to the Rigveda.

\(^1\) iv. 3, 5, 9. Cf. pari-caritr, Chāndogya Upanisad, vii. 8, 1.
\(^2\) vi. 11; Max Müller, Ancient Sanskrit Literature, 457.

Pari-carmanya denotes a thong of leather in the Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa (vi. 12) and the Śāṅkhāyana Āranyakā (ii. 1).

Pari-takmyā in a number of passages of the Rigveda\(^1\) denotes ‘night’ according to the St. Petersburg Dictionary.

\(^1\) i. 116, 15; iv. 41, 6; 43, 3; v. 30, 13; 31, 11; vi. 24, 9; vii. 69, 4.
Sieg\(^2\) thinks that in one place\(^8\) at least the word signifies the decisive point of the race, something like the sense of Prapitva. But this is very doubtful.


\(^8\) i. 116, 15.

Pari-dā in a few passages of the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa\(^1\) has the sense of ‘giving oneself up to the mercy or protection of another.’

\(^1\) ii. 4, 11; ix. 2, 1, 17; 4, 2, 17; 4, 5; 5, 1, 53.

Pari-dhāna denotes ‘garment,’ probably ‘under garment,’ in the Atharvaveda (viii. 2, 16) and the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (vi. 1, 10). A garment of saffron is mentioned in the Śāṅkhāyana Āraṇyaka (xi. 4).

Pari-pad seems in the Rigveda\(^1\) to denote a pitfall used to capture lions.

\(^1\) x. 28, 10; metaphorically, viii. 24, 24.

Pari-panthin, ‘besetting the path,’ denotes ‘robber’ in the Rigveda\(^1\) and later.\(^2\)  Cf. Taskara, Tāyu, Stena.

\(^2\) Av. i. 27, 1; iii. 15, 1; xii. 1, 32; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, iv. 34, etc.

Pari-pavana signifies in the Nirukta (iv. 9, 10) an instrument for winnowing grain.

Pari-mit occurs once in the Atharvaveda\(^1\) in the description of a house, meaning perhaps the ‘crossbeams’ connecting the vertical posts.\(^2\)  Cf. Gṛha.

\(^1\) ix. 3, 1.


Pari-moṣa in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā\(^1\) signifies ‘theft,’ and parimosin in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa\(^2\) ‘thief.’

\(^1\) ii. 5, 5, 1; vi. 1, 11, 5.

\(^2\) xi. 6, 3, 11; xiii. 2, 4, 2, etc.
Pari-rathyā occurs once in the Atharvaveda meaning either 'road' or a part of the chariot, perhaps as Ludwig and Whitney render it, the 'rim.'

1 viii. 8, 22.  

Pari-vakrā is the reading accepted in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (xiii. 5, 4, 7) by the scholiast instead of the variant Paricakrā, which is supported by the Epic Ekacakra.

Pari-vatsara denotes in the Rigveda and later a 'full year.' It is often mentioned with other names of year (see Samvatsara), and in the later five year cycle counts as the second year.

1 x. 62, 2.  
2 Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa i. 5, 5, 6; Mahābhārata, i. 3202, etc. So pari-vatsara, as an adjective, 'relating to a full year.' *Rv.* vii. 103, 8; *Av.* iii. 10, 3.

Pari-vāpa in the later Samhitās and Brāhmaṇas denotes 'fried grains of rice.'

1 Taittirīya Samhitā, iii. 1, 10, 1; vi. 5, 11, 4; vii. 2, 10, 4; Kāṭhaka Samhitā, xxxiv. 11; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xix. 21. 22.  
2 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 24; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 5, 11, 2, etc.

Pari-vitta denotes an 'elder brother who is not married when his younger brother is.' The term occurs in the list of sinful persons in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās as well as in the Atharvaveda, where Ludwig needlessly proposes to read parivettā, the 'younger brother who marries before his eldest brother.' The name for the younger brother in the older texts is Parivividāna.

1 Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxxi. 7; Kapiṣṭhala Saṃhitā, xvii. 7; Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, iv. 1, 9; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 2, 8, 11; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxx. 9.  
2 vi. 112, 3.  
3 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 470.  
4 So in the Kāṭhaka, Kapiṣṭhala, Maitrāyaṇi, and Vājasaneyi Saṃhitās, loc. cit.

Pari-vṛktā, Pari-vṛkti, Pari-vṛtti, are variant forms of the name of the rejected one among the royal wives. See Pati.

Pari-vesṭr in the Atharvaveda\(^1\) and later\(^2\) denotes an 'attendant,' more especially one who serves up food, a 'waiter.' The feminine form Parivesṭrī signifies a 'female attendant' or 'handmaid.'\(^3\)

\(^{1}\) ix. 6, 51.
\(^{2}\) Taittiriya Samhitā, vi. 3, 2, 1; Maitrāyaṇī Samhitā, i. 2, 16; Vājasaneyi Samhitā, vi. 13; xxx. 12, 13; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 8, 1; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, viii. 21; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 5, 4, 6; iii. 8, 2, 3; vi. 2, 13, 3, etc.

Pari-vṛājaka (lit., 'wandering about') denotes in the Nirukta (i. 14; ii. 8) a 'mendicant monk.'

Pari-ṣad (lit., 'sitting around') denotes in the Upaniṣads\(^1\) an 'assemblage' of advisers in questions of philosophy, and the Gobhila Grhya Sūtra\(^2\) refers to a teacher with his Pariṣad or 'council.' In the later literature the word denotes a body of advisers on religious topics, but also the assessors of a judge, or the council of ministers of a prince.\(^3\) But in none of these senses is the word found in the early literature, though the institutions indicated by it must have existed at least in embryo.

\(^{1}\) Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 1, 1 (Mādhyaṃdina=vi. 2, 1 Kāṇya); daivo pariṣad, Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, ii. 11, 13, 14.
\(^{2}\) iiii. 2, 40.
\(^{3}\) Cf. Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 136, 137; Foy, Die königliche Gewalt, 16-19; 33-37; 66; Bühler, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 48, 55, 56; Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 2, 124.

Pari-śkanda (lit., 'leaping around') occurs in the Vṛāya hymn of the Atharvaveda (xv. 2, 1 et seg.) denoting, in the dual, the two footmen running beside a chariot.

Pari-śyanda (with water 'flowing around') in two passages of the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (ix. 2, 1, 19; xiv. 3, 1, 14) denotes a sandbank or island in a river.
ISLAND—INTOXICANT—TONGS—A SEER

Pari-sāraka is the name of a place, an island formed by the Sarasvati 'flowing around' it, according to a story in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (ii. 19).

Pari-srum is the name of a drink which is mentioned first in the Atharvaveda,¹ and which was distinct from both Surā and Soma,² but was intoxicating. According to Mahīḍhara,³ the liquor was made from flowers (Puspa). Zimmer⁴ thinks that it was the family drink, and this is supported by the fact that in the Atharvaveda it twice occurs as a household beverage.⁵ Hillebrandt⁶ is of opinion that it was very much the same as Surā.

² Šatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 1, 2, 14. Cf. v. 5, 4, 10; xi. 5, 5, 13; xii. 7, 1, 7; 8, 2, 15; 9, 1, 1.
³ On Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, ii. 34.
⁴ Altindisches Leben, 281, 282.
⁵ Vedische Mythologie, 1, 24, 8.
⁶ See also Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, xix. 15; xx. 59; xxi. 29; Maitrāyaṇī Saṁhitā, iii. ii, 2. Its nature is more elaborately explained in the Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xiv. 1, 14; xv. 10, 11; Weber, Indische Studien, 10, 349, 350.

1. Pari-ṇah appears to denote a ‘box’ or something similar in the Atharvaveda (xix. 48, 1).

2. Pari-ṇah is the name of a place in Kurukṣetra mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa,¹ the Taittirīya Āraṇyaka,² and the Śūtras.³

¹ xxv. 13, 1.
² v. 1, 1.
³ Lātāyāna Śrauta Sūtra, x. 19, 1; Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xxiv. 6, 34; Saṁkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xiii. 29, 32.

Pari-śāsa is the name of an instrument of the nature of tongs, used to lift the sacrificial kettle off the fire.¹

¹ Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiv. 1, 3, 1; 2, 1, 16; 2, 54; 3, 1, 20, etc.

Paruc-chepe is the name of a Rṣi to whom the Anukramaṇi (Index) attributes a series of hymns¹ in the Rigveda, and whose

¹ Rv. i. 127-139.
authorship is asserted in the Aitareya and the Kaushitaki Brähmana, as well as in the Nirukta. In the Taittirīya Samhitā he appears as a rival of Nṛmedhas.

Paruṣa seems to mean 'reed' in the Atharvaveda (viii. 8, 4) and 'arrow' in the Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra (xiv. 22, 20).

Paruṣni is the name of a river which is mentioned in the Nadi-stuti ('Praise of Rivers'), and in the song of Sudās' victory over the ten kings, which seems to have been made decisive by the rise of the river drowning the fugitives. In these passages and one of the eighth book of the Rigveda, where it is called a 'great stream' (mahenadi), the name is certainly that of the river later called Ravi (Irāvati), as recognized by Yāska. Pischel sees a reference to it in two other passages of the Rigveda, where 'wool' (āryā) is connected with the word paruṣni, and the allusion to the river is accepted by Max Müller and Oldenberg, though they are not fully agreed as to the exact sense of the passages in question. Pischel suggests that the name is derived from the 'flocks' (parus) of wool, not from the bends of the river, as understood by the Nirukta, or from its reeds, as Roth suggests.

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1 x. 75, 5.
2 vii. 18, 8, 9.
3 It is impossible to decide precisely what part the river played in the battle. It is usually held that the enemies of Sudās tried to divert the stream, but failed, and were drowned in its current. So Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, ii; Macdonell, Sanskrit Literature, 154; Geldner, Rigveda, Kommentar, 103, holds that Sudās was caught between two opposing armies, and had to escape over the Paruṣni, that his enemies tried to divert it to render him more accessible to their attack, but failed, and were overwhelmed in the river. Hopkins, India, Old and New, 52 et seq., may be right in rejecting in toto the theory of the attempted diversion of the waters, though in the Journal of the American Oriental Society, 15, 261 et seq., he accepted the traditional view.
4 viii. 74, 15.
5 Nirukta, ix. 26.
7 iv. 22, 2; v. 52, 9.
8 Sacred Books of the East, 32, 315, 323.
9 Rgveda-Noten, i, 348.
10 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. 4a.
The mention of the Paruṣṇī and the Yamunā in the hymn celebrating the victory of Sudās has given rise to the conjectures of Hopkins,11 that the Yamunā in that hymn is merely another name for the Paruṣṇī, and of Geldner,12 that the Paruṣṇī there is merely a tributary of the Yamunā (Jumna). But neither interpretation is either essential or even probable. The hymn is a condensed one, and may well be taken as celebrating two great victories of Sudās. There is a doubtful reference to the Paruṣṇī in the Atharvaveda.13

Paruṣṇ means first a ‘limb’ or ‘member’ of the body,1 and is then applied metaphorically to the divisions of the sacrifice2 or of the year3 (cf. Parvan).

1. Parna denotes the ‘wing’ of a bird in the Rigveda1 and later.2 It also means the ‘feather’ of an arrow in a late passage of the Rigveda,3 and more often later;4 and the ‘leaf’ of a tree from the Rigveda onwards.5

2. Parna denotes the tree Butea frondosa, later usually called Palāśa. It occurs in the Rigveda1 in connexion with the Aśvattha, and with that tree as well as the Nyagrodha in the Atharvaveda,2 which mentions both amulets3 and the cover of sacrificial dishes4 as made from its wood. Its use for the

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12 Rgveda, Glossar, 106.

Paruṣṇ means first a ‘limb’ or ‘member’ of the body, and is then applied metaphorically to the divisions of the sacrifice or of the year (cf. Parvan).

1 Rv. i. 162, 18; x. 97, 12; 100, 5; 2 Rv. x. 53, 1; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, Av. i. 12, 3; iv. 12, 2, 3, etc. i. 6, 9, 1. 3 Taittiriya Saṃhitā, ii. 5, 6, 1.

1 i. 116, 15; 182, 7; 183, 1; iv. 27, 4, etc. 2 Av. x. 1, 29; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 6, 3, 5, etc. 3 x. 18, 14. Cf. Lanman, Sanskrit Reader, 386.

4 Av. v. 25, 1; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxv. 1; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 25; iii. 26, etc. 5 Rv. x. 68, 10; Av. viii. 7, 12; Taittiriya Saṃhitā, ii. 5, 1, 7; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xvi. 46, etc.

1 x. 97, 5. 2 v. 5, 5. 3 iii. 5, 4, 8. 4 xvii. 4, 53.
making of sacrificial implements like the ladle (jhu[h]a), or sacrificial posts, or the small ladle called srsva, is mentioned. The Taittirīya Saṃhitā ascribes its origin to the loss of a feather by the Gāyatrī when winning the Soma. The tree is also often mentioned elsewhere. Reference too is sometimes made to its bark (para-valka).10

6 Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xxi. 4, 13.
7 Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xv. 2. Cf. viii. 2; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 3, 11; 7, 1, 9; 8, 7.
9 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 3, 4, 10; vi. 5, 1, 1; xi. 1, 4, 2; 7. 28; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, ix. 5. 4.

Parṇaka is the name of a man included in the list of victims at the Puruṣamedha ('human sacrifice') in the Vājasaṇeṣyī Saṃhitā and the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa. According to Mahīdhara, a Bhilla is meant—i.e., presumably a wild hillman, for he glosses Niśāda in the same way. Sāyana explains the word as meaning ‘one who catches fish by putting over the water a para with poison,’ but this is apparently a mere etymological guess. Weber's rendering of the term as referring to a savage ‘wearing feathers’ is ingenious, but uncertain.

Parṇa-dhi in the Atharvaveda denotes the part of the shaft in which the feather of the arrow is fastened.

Parṇaya is the name in two passages of the Rigveda either of a hero, as Ludwig thinks, or of a demon overcome by Indra.

1 xxx. 16.
2 iii. 4, 12, 1.
3 On Vājasaṇeṣyī Saṃhitā, loc. cit.
4 On Vājasaṇeṣyī Saṃhitā, xvi. 27.
5 On Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, loc. cit.
6 Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 18, 281.


Parṇaya is the name in two passages of the Rigveda either of a hero, as Ludwig thinks, or of a demon overcome by Indra.

1 i. 53, 8; x. 48, 7.
2 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 149.
3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, 59.
Pary-aṅka is the name of the seat of the Brahman in the Kauśitaki Upaniṣad. It seems to correspond to what is elsewhere called Āsandī; as used in the Upaniṣad, it can, however, hardly mean a long seat for reclining on, but rather a throne.

1 i. 5.  
2 Av. xv. 3, 3. Cf. xiv. 2, 65; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, viii. 5. 6. 12.  
3 Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 397.

Pary-āsa is used in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (iii. 1, 2, 18) to denote the wool of cloth, the warp being called anuchāda.

1. Parvata in the Rigveda and the Atharvaveda is conjoined with giri in the sense of ‘hill’ or ‘mountain.’ From the Rigveda onwards it is common in this sense as connected with the waters of rivers which flow in the hills. The legend of the mountains having wings is already found in the Saṃhitās. In the Kauśitaki Upaniṣad are mentioned the southern (dakṣina) and the northern (uttara) mountains, evidently in allusion to the Himālaya and the Vindhya ranges. The plants (osadhi) and aromatic products (aṅjana) of the mountains are referred to in the Atharvaveda, and their mineral treasures in the Rigveda.

1 i. 37, 7; v. 56, 4.  
2 Av. iv. 6, 8; vi. 12, 3; 17, 3; ix. 1, 18; xii. 1, 11.  
3 i. 39, 5; 52, 2; 155, 1; 191, 9; ii. 12, 2, 3; 17, 5, etc.  
4 Av. i. 14, 1; iii. 21, 10; iv. 9, 8; viii. 7, 17; Taittiriya Saṃhitā, iii. 4, 5, 1; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xvii. 1; xviii. 13, etc.  
5 Rv. vii. 34, 23; 35, 8; viii. 18, 16; 31, 10; x. 35, 2; 36, 1, etc.; Pischel, Vedische Studien, i. 80; 2, 66.  
6 Kāthaka Saṃhitā, xxxvi. 9; Mai-trāyāṇi Saṃhitā, i. 10, 13; and Rv. iv. 54, 5, as explained by Pischel, Vedische Studien, 1, 174.  
7 ii. 13; Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 407; Keith, Śāṅkhāyana Aranyaka, 28, n. 1.  
8 xix. 44, 6; 45, 7.  
9 x. 69, 6.

2. Parvata in one passage of the Rigveda denotes, according to Ludwig, a sacrificer whose generosity is praised. But it is probable that the god Parvata, the spirit of the mountain, is meant.

1 vii. 87, 8.  
2 Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 159.  
3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
3. **Parvata** is mentioned several times in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa¹ along with **Nārada**. The Anukramani (Index) attributes to him the authorship of several hymns of the Rigveda.²

1 vii. 13, 34; viii. 21; Śaṅkhayana | 2 viii. 12; ix. 104; 105.

Śrāuta Śūtra, xv. 17, 4.

**Parvan** denotes the knots of the reed or the joints of a plant,¹ and more generally a part or limb of the body.² It also designates a period of time, probably with reference to the breaks in the month at new and full moon.³ In one passage⁴ Geldner⁵ thinks the word indicates a song section of the Sāmaveda.

¹ Av. xii. 3, 31; Taittiriya Saṃhitā, i. 1, 2; 1; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, vii. 3, 4, 1, and cf. Rv. x. 68, 9.
² Rv. i. 61, 12; iv. 19, 9; viii. 48, 5; x. 89, 8; Av. i. 11, 1; 12, 2; ii. 9, 1; vi. 14, 1; xi. 8, 12; xii. 5, 71; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 31; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 6, 3, 35 et seq.; iii. 4, 4, 2; vi. 1, 4, 31; x. 4, 5, 2, etc.
³ Rv. i. 94, 4; Vājasaṃeyi Saṃhitā, xiii. 43; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 6, 3, 35; vi. 2, 2, 34, etc. Cf. Māsa. In the Śutras the days of the four-monthly festivals (cāturmaṣṭya) are so called:

Kātyāyana Śrāuta Śūtra, v. 2, 13; xxii. 7, i. 16, 17; xxiv. 4, 30; Śaṅkha-yāna Śrāuta Śūtra, xiv. 5, 6; 10, 4, 18; Āśvalāyana Śrāuta Śūtra, ix. 2, 3; and more often the periods of the change of moon: Kātyāyana Śrāuta Śūtra, xxiv. 6, 4. 25. 30; Śaṅkha-yāna Śrāuta Śūtra, iii. 2, 1; 3, 1; Lāṭyāyana Śrāuta Śūtra, viii. 8, 46, etc.

⁴ vii. 103, 5.

**Parśāna,** 'hollow,' is mentioned several times in the Rigveda (vii. 104, 5; viii. 7, 34; 45, 41).

1. **Parśu** denotes 'rib' in the Atharvaveda¹ and later.² Cf. Śārīra.

1 ix. 7, 6; x. 9, 20; xi. 3, 12.
2 Taittiriya Saṃhitā, vii. 5, 25, 1; Kāthaka Saṃhitā, xxxi. 1; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, viii. 6, 2, 10; x. 4, 6, 1; xii. 3, 1, 6; Śaḍvyṁśa Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, etc.

2. **Parśu** seems in some passages¹ to denote a 'sickle,' being apparently a variant of **Parśu.**

¹ Av. xii. 3, 31 (Kauśika Śūtra, i. 24, 25; viii. 11; xi. 38, 39); perhaps vii. 28, i = Taittiriya Saṃhitā, iii. 2, 4, 1. See Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 407, 408; Brhad-āraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 4, 26 (where parśu is metrically needed), etc. Cf. Böhltingk, Dictionary, s.v.
3. **Parśu** in the Nirukta\(^1\) is explained in one passage of the Rigveda\(^2\) as meaning the sides of a cistern (*kāpā*).\(^3\) But the sense of ‘ribs’ is quite adequate there.

\(^1\) iv. 6.  
\(^2\) i. 105, 8; x. 33, 2.  
\(^3\) Oldenberg, *Rgveda-Noten*, i, 100; Geldner, *Rigveda, Glossar*, 107.

4. **Parśu** occurs in one passage in a Dānastuti (‘praise of gifts’) in the Rigveda\(^1\) as the name of a man. It is not certain that he is identical with **Tirindira**, but the Śānkhyāna Śrauta Sūtra\(^2\) mentions Tirindira Pāraśāvaya as the patron of **Vatsa Kāṇva**. In another passage occurring in the Vṛṣākapi hymn,\(^3\) Parśu Mānavi occurs, apparently as a woman, daughter of Manu, but who is meant it is quite impossible to say. Excepting these two, there are no other occurrences in which the word has with any probability the value of a proper name in the Rigveda.

Ludwig,\(^4\) however, sees in several other places an allusion to the Parśus. Thus in one passage of the Rigveda\(^5\) he finds a reference to the defeat of **Kuruśravāṇa** by the Parśus; in another\(^6\) he finds a reference to the Prthus and Parśus—*i.e.*, the Parthians and the Persians. He also sees the Parthians in **Pārthava**, a name found in one hymn.\(^7\) The same view is taken by Weber,\(^8\) who holds that historical connexions with the

\(^1\) viii. 6, 46.  
\(^2\) xvi. 11, 20.  
\(^3\) x. 86, 23. Apparently Vārttika 2, on Pāṇini, iv. 1, 177, where Parśu is explained as a feminine, Princess of the Parśus, refers to this passage. On the sense, cf. Geldner, *Vedische Studien*, 2, 42; *Rigveda, Glossar*, 107; and Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 2, 2, 2, where the expression occurs, but where the sense is very dubious.  
\(^4\) Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 196 et seq.  
\(^5\) x. 33, 2. The sense here is, no doubt, ‘ribs.’ See Geldner, *op. cit.*, 2, 184, n. 3; Bergaigne, *Religion Védique*, 2, 362, n.  
\(^6\) vii. 83, 1, *prthu-parśavaḥ*, which really means either ‘with large ribs’—*i.e.*, ‘strong,’ as Roth, with Sāyaṇa, inclines to take it—or ‘with broad axes,’ according to Zimmer.  
\(^7\) vi. 27, 8.  
\(^8\) *Indische Studien*, 4, 379; *Indian Literature*, 4; *Episches im vedischen Ritual*, 36 et seq. He confines his view to the equation of Parśu in Rigveda, viii. 6, 46, and the Persians. Hillebrandt, who is inclined to see relations with Iran in early times (see *Pani, Parvata, Sṛṇjaya*), does not in this connexion quote Parśu at all, and, though he mentions Pārthava, does not regard it as probably referring to a Parthian (*Vedische Mythologie*, 1, 105). Brunnhofer, in his various works (*Iran und Turan*, 1889; *vom Pontus bis zum Indus*, 1890, etc.), finds constant references in the Veda to events in Iran, but his theories must be regarded as definitely unscientific. See also Hopkins, *Journal of the American Oriental Society*, 15, 264, n.
Persians are referred to. But Zimmer\(^9\) points out that this conclusion is not justified; the Paršus were known to Pāṇini\(^10\) as a warrior tribe; the Pāraśavas were a tribe in south-west Madhyadeśa; and the Periplus\(^11\) knows a tribe of Parthoi in north India. At most the only conclusion to be drawn is that the Indians and Iranians were early connected, as was of course the case. Actual historical contact cannot be asserted with any degree of probability.

\(^9\) Altindisches Leben, 134 et seq.; 433. 
Ibid., 434, 435, he refutes conclusively Ludwig's extraordinary view that Prthu and Paršu are dialectical forms of the same word. 
\(^10\) v. 3, 117. 
\(^11\) c. 38.

**Parṣa** occurs in the Rigveda,\(^1\) denoting in the plural 'sheaves' strewn over the threshing floor. *Cf. Khala.*

\(^1\) x. 48, 7; Nirukta, iii. 10. *Cf.* in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 4, 2, 5, Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 238. Perhaps *parsin*, in the compound *iṣu-parsin* means 'having a bundle (of arrows),'

**Palada** occurs twice in one hymn of the Atharvaveda\(^1\) in the description of a house. It seems to mean bundles of straw or reeds used to thatch the house and render the sides wind and weather proof.


**Palasti.** See Palita.

**Palāla** is found with Anu-palāla in the Atharvaveda (viii. 6, 2) as the name of a demon. The meaning of the word is 'straw,' in which sense it occurs in the Kauśika Sūtra (lxxx. 27), while the feminine form, Palāli, is found in the Atharvaveda itself (ii. 8, 3) as the straw of barley (Yava).

**Palāva** is found in the Atharvaveda\(^1\) and the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa\(^2\) in the sense of 'chaff.'

\(^1\) xii. 3, 19, where some manuscripts read *palāvā.*
\(^2\) i 54, 1
Palāśa, like Parna, denotes 'leaf' in the Brāhmaṇas. It also designates the tree Butea frondosa, of which Parna is the early name.

1 Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, x. 2; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 5, 4, 5; v. 2, 1, 17 etc.; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iv. 14, 3.
2 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 1; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 3, 3, 19; ii. 6, 2, 8, etc.


Palita, 'grey-haired,' occurs frequently from the Rigveda onwards. It is the distinctive sign of old age. Those who, like certain descendants of Jamadagni, do not grow old, are said not to become grey-haired, while Bharadvāja is described as having in his old age become thin and grey-haired. The Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa in one passage observes that grey hairs appear first on the head, and elsewhere alludes to the hair on the arms having become grey.

1 i. 144, 4; 164, 1; iii. 55, 9; x. 4, 5, etc.
2 Vājasaneyi Samhitā, xxx. 15, etc.
3 Taittiriya Samhitā, vii. 1, 9, 1; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xxi. 10, 6. Cf. Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 54, and Rv. iii. 53, 16, where palasti seems to mean palita.
4 Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 49.
5 xi. 4, 1. 6. 14.
6 iii. 8, 2, 25.

Palpūlana is found in the Atharvaveda and the Taittiriya Samhitā apparently meaning, properly, 'lye,' or water impregnated with some biting substance for washing clothes. In the Atharvan passage urine seems to be meant. The verb palpūlaya, 'to wash with alkaline water,' occurs in the Taittiriya Samhitā and the Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa; and the Sūtras refer to hides (carman) and garments so washed. Cf. also Vāsaḥ-palpūli.

1 xii. 4, 9. Cf. Kauśika Sūtra, xi. 16.
2 ii. 5, 5. 6.
4 i. 3, 5, 2. 3.
5 Kauśika Sūtra, 67.
6 Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, iii. 8, 12. Cf. Baudhāyana Dharm Sūtra, i. 6, 13, 15; Bōhlīngk, Dictionary, s.v.

Palli-gupta Lauhitya ('descendant of Lohita') is mentioned in a Vamsa ('list of teachers') in the Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (iii. 42, 1) as a pupil of Śyāmājayanta Lauhitya.
The name is obviously a late one, for Palli is not found in the early literature, and the name of the Lauhitya family is otherwise known in post-Vedic works only.

Pavana ('purifier') in the Atharvaveda\(^1\) denotes an instrument for purifying grain from husks, etc.; either a 'sieve' or a 'winnowing basket' may be meant. In the Sūtras\(^2\) it is mentioned as used for cleaning the bones of the dead after cremation.

\(^1\) iv. 34, 2; xviii. 3, 11. Cf. Nirukta, \(^2\) Āśvalāyana Gṛhya Śūtra, iv. 5. 7. vi. 9.

Pavamāna is a term very frequently applied in the Rigveda to the Soma 'purifying itself' by running through the sieve. Later it appears in a few passages\(^1\) in the sense of 'wind' (as a purifier).

\(^1\) Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vii. 5, 20, 1; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, vi. 17; Aitareya-Brāhmaṇa, i. 7.

Pavasta in one passage of the Atharvaveda\(^1\) apparently denotes 'covers.'

\(^1\) iv. 5, 6. Cf. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 156.

Pavi denotes the 'tire' of the wheel of a chariot in the Rigveda\(^1\) and later.\(^2\) Reference is made\(^3\) to the necessity for fastening it on firmly, and the epithet su-pavi, 'having a good tire,' is found in the Atharvaveda\(^4\) with su-nābhi, 'having a good nave,' and su-cakra, 'having a good wheel.' The tires were, of course, of metal,\(^5\) and being sharp,\(^6\) could serve on occasion as weapons.\(^7\) The St. Petersburg Dictionary in one passage of

\(^1\) i. 34, 2; 88, 2; 139, 3; 166, 10, etc.; Nirukta, v. 5.
\(^2\) Sāmaveda, ii. 7, 1, 15, 3, etc.
\(^3\) Rv. vi. 54, 3.
\(^4\) Av. iv. 12, 6.
\(^5\) Of gold in the case of the Aśvins and the Maruts, Rv. i. 64, 11; 180, 1.
\(^6\) Rv. i. 166, 10.
\(^7\) Rv. v. 52, 9. Cf. vi. 8, 5, and x. 180, 2.
the Vājasaṇeyi Saṃhitā takes Pavi to mean a metal rim on the stone for pounding Soma, but this seems improbable, because no such metal attachment is elsewhere alluded to. Hillebrandt seems clearly right in accepting the sense of ‘sharp edge’ in this passage, especially as the stones in the Rigveda are, in allusion to their rolling action, styled ‘rims without horses and without chariots’ (anāsvāsah pavyayo rathāh).

The Nirukta ascribes to Pavi the sense of arrow (salya), but this is very uncertain. The St. Petersburg Dictionary cites for this use two passages of the Rigveda, but in one the secondary sense of sharp-edged weapon with reference to the bolt of Indra is quite likely, and in the other, where the expression vānasya pavi occurs, the sharp-edged pounding-stone of the ‘reed,’ meaning the stalk of the Soma plant, may be meant. Hillebrandt thinks a reference to the shape of the Soma plant is intended. Pavi-nasa, the name of a demon mentioned in the Atharvaveda, seems to throw no light on this point, for while the St. Petersburg Dictionary takes it to mean ‘whose nose is like a spearhead,’ it is translated as ‘rim-nosed’ (presumably in allusion to the curved shape of the nose) by Whitney.

Pavitra denotes in the Rigveda, and later, the sieve used for purifying the Soma, the only mode of purifying it certainly known to the Rigveda. It seems clearly to have been made of...

8 vi. 30. Cf. Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 9, 4, 5. Mahīdhara, on the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, takes pavinā as vajrasadrṣena, ‘like a thunderbolt,’ and Eggeling, Sacred Books of the East, 26, 239, 240, renders pavi by ‘bolt.’
9 v. 31, 5.
10 ix. 50, 1; x. 180, 2.

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1 i. 28, 9; iii. 36, 7; viii. 33, 1; 101, 9, etc.
2 Av. vi. 124, 3; ix. 6, 16; xii. 1, 30; 3, 14. 25, etc.
3 Cf. Hillebrandt, Vedische Mythologie, 1, 239, 240.
4 Cf. the names of it: avya, Rv. 18 i. 16, 2; avyuḥ mesyaḥ, 86, 47; 107, 11; avayaḥ, ii. 36, 1; ix. 86, 11; 91, 2; tvac with avya or avaya, ix. 69, 3; 70, 7; mesyaḥ, ix. 8, 5; ṛiṣṭa avaya, ix. 16, 6; roman, alone or with avaya: vāra, alone or with avaya, etc.
sheep's wool, whether woven or plaited is not certain, for the expressions used are too vague to be decisive, though Zimmer\(^5\) thinks *hvarāṃsi*\(^6\) points to plaiting.

\(^5\) *Altindisches Leben*, 278, n.

\(^6\) ix. 3, 2; 63, 4.

**Pavīra**, according to the Nirukta,\(^1\) denotes a 'lance.' The epithet derived from this word, *pavīravant* or *pavīrava*, which is found in the Atharvaveda\(^2\) and the Yajurveda *Saṃhitās*,\(^3\) is used of the plough, apparently in the sense of 'having a metal share.' The same epithet occurs in the Rigveda\(^4\) applied to a man, in the sense of 'having a goad' or 'having a spear.'

\(^1\) xii. 30. In *Rv.* i. 174, 4, *pavīrava* seems to mean 'thunderbolt.'

\(^2\) iii. 17, 3.

\(^3\) *Pavīravant*, Vājasaneyi *Saṃhitā*, xii. 71; *pavīrava*, Taithtīrīya *Saṃhitā*, 10, 2, 5, 6; Maitrāyaṇī *Saṃhitā*, ii. 7, 12; Kāṭhaka *Saṃhitā*, xvi. 11.

\(^4\) x. 60, 3.


**Pavīru** appears in a hymn of the Rigveda\(^1\) as a *Rūṣama*, being a prince or at least a wealthy noble.

\(^1\) viii. 51, 9 = Vājasaneyi *Saṃhitā*, xxxiii. 82.

**Paśu** means 'animal' generally, including man. There is frequent mention\(^1\) of the five sacrificial animals—the horse, the cow, the sheep, the goat, and man. Seven such domestic animals are spoken of in the Atharvaveda\(^2\) and later;\(^3\) probably, as Whitney\(^4\) observes, merely as a sacred mystic number, not, as the commentator\(^5\) explains, the usual five with the ass and the camel added. Animals are also referred to as *ubhayadandī*.

\(^1\) Taithtīrīya *Saṃhitā*, iv. 2, 10, 1-4; Kāṭhaka *Saṃhitā*, xvi. 17; Maitrāyaṇī *Saṃhitā*, ii. 7, 17; Vājasaneyi *Saṃhitā*, xiii. 47-51. Cf. *Av.* xi. 2, 9; Taithtīrīya *Saṃhitā*, iv. 3, 10, 1-3; v. 5, 1, 1. 2; vi. 5, 10, 1; Vājasaneyi *Saṃhitā*, xiv. 28-31, etc.

\(^2\) *Av.* iii. 10, 6.

\(^3\) *Saṭapatha Brāhmaṇa*, ii. 8, 4, 16; ix. 3, 1, 20; xii. 8, 3, 13 (where they are called *jāgataḥ*, perhaps as number-

\(^4\) Translation of the Atharvaveda, 103.

\(^5\) On *Av.* iii. 10, 6. The St. Petersburg Dictionary suggests 'mule' and 'ass' as the two making up seven (cf. *Mahābhārata*, vi. 165 et seq.). Zimmer's view (*Altindisches Leben*, 76) is that 'goat,' 'sheep,' 'ox,' 'horse,' 'dog,' 'ass,' and 'camel' or 'mule,' are meant.
and anyatodant. They are further classified as those which take hold with the hand (hastādānāḥ), man (puruṣaḥ), elephant (hastin), and ape (markaṭa), and those which grasp by the mouth (mukhādānāḥ). Another division is that of biped (dvipād) and quadruped (catuṣpād). Man is a biped; he is the first (prathama) of the beasts; he alone of animals lives a hundred years (satāyus), and he is king of the animals. He possesses speech (vāc) in conjunction with the other animals. In the Aitareya Āranyaka an elaborate distinction is drawn between vegetables, animals, and man in point of intellect.

Of animals apart from man a threefold division is offered in the Rigveda into those of the air (vāyavya), those of the jungle (āranya), and those of the village (grāmya), or tame animals. The division into āranya and grāmya animals is quite common. In the Yajurveda Saṃhitās is found a division into eka-saṁpha, ‘whole-footed’; ksudra, ‘small’; and āranya, ‘wild,’ the two former classes denoting the tame animals. The horse and the ass are eka-saṁpha; the ksudra are the sheep, the goat, and the ox: this distinction being parallel to that of ubhayadant and anyatodant. Zimmer sees in a passage of the Atharvaveda a division of wild animals (āranya) into five classes: (1) those of the jungle described as the ‘dread beasts

6 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vi. 4, 5, 7; Maitrīrāṇi Saṃhitā, iv. 5, 7 (where puruṣa must be read for parvya).
7 Rv. iii. 62, 14; Av. iii. 34, 1, etc. Zimmer, 73, n., suggests that the division is Indo-European, as the Inguvenic tables make a distinction between ṛupuṣṛs and petuṇuṣṛs.
8 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, iv. 2, 10, 1, 2; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xvii. 47. 48.
9 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, vi. 2, 1, 18; vii. 5, 2, 6.
10 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, iii. 2, 6, 3; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, vii. 2, 5, 17.
12 Rv. viii. 100, 11.
13 ii. 3, 2, with Keith’s note.
14 x. 90, 8.
15 Av. iii. 31, 3. Cf. ii. 34, 1, with Whitney’s note, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 78; xi. 2, 24; Maitrīrāṇi Saṃhitā, iii. 2, 3: 9, 7; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xiii. 12; Taittirīya Āranyaka, iii. 2, 29, 32; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 7, 1, 8; 2, 8. Cf. xi. 8, 3, 2, where there is reference to animals being tied up at night in their stalls.
16 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, iv. 3, 10, 2; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xiv. 30.
17 Zimmer, 74.
18 Cf. Av. v. 31, 3; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, ii. 2, 6, 3, with Taittirīya Saṃhitā, ii. 1, 1, 5; v. 1, 1, 3; 2, 6.
20 xi. 2, 24, 25, compared with xii. 1, 49. 51.
which are in the wood’ (mṛgā bhīmā vane hitāḥ); (2) winged creatures, represented by the Ḥamsa, ‘gander,’ Suparna, ‘eagle,’ Śakuna, ‘bird’; (3) amphibia—Śimśumāra, ‘alligator,’ and Ajagara, ‘crocodile’ (?); (4) ‘fish,’ Purikaya, Jaṣa, and Matsya; (5) insects and worms (described as rajasāh). But this division is more ingenious than probable, and it is ignored by both Bloomfield and Whitney.  

21 Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 631.  
22 Translation of the Atharvaveda, 633, 634.

Paṣu-pa denotes ‘herdsman’ in the Rigveda.  

1 i. 114, 9; 144, 6; iv. 6, 4;  
2 vi. 58, 2. Cf. of Pūṣan and Revati, Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 1, 2, 12.

I. Paṣṭha-vāh occurs in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās meaning an ox, four years old, according to the commentators. This qualification is, however, very doubtful, for Paṣṭhauhi, ‘cow,’ a word occurring quite frequently, is in one passage accompanied by the adjective prathama-garbhdh, ‘having a first calf,’ which disproves the theory of the age adopted by the commentators.

1 Taittiriya Saṃhitā, iv. 3, 5, 2; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xiv. 9; xviii. 27; xxi. 17; xxiv. 13. 28. 29, etc.  
2 Taittiriya Saṃhitā, vii. 1, 6, 3; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xi. 2; xii. 8; Vāja- 
saneyi Saṃhitā, xviii. 27; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 3. 3; 8, 3. 2; ii. 7, 2, 2, etc.  
3 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 6, 1, 11.

2. Paṣṭha-vāh is mentioned as a seer of Sāmans in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.


Paṣtya-sad (‘sitting in the house’) occurs in one passage of the Rigveda, where the sense seems to be ‘inmate,’ ‘companion.’

1 vi. 51, 9. Cf. Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.; Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 211.
Pastyā (fem. pl.) is a word occurring in several passages of the Rigveda.\(^1\) Roth\(^2\) ascribes to it the meaning of 'house' or 'dwelling,' in the wide sense of the term, as well as that of the 'family' living in the house; and this view is accepted by Zimmer.\(^3\) On the other hand, Pischel\(^4\) finds in two of the passages\(^5\) usually referred to Pastyā the neuter Pastya, which appears in Pastyasad and in Pastyā-vant (where the length of the second syllable is not primitive), and which is certainly found in the Rigveda\(^6\) in the metaphorical sense of 'dwelling,' ascribed to it in the Naighanṭuka.\(^7\) In the other passages\(^8\) he thinks the word means 'rivers' or 'waters'; in particular, where Soma in the middle of the Pastyas\(^9\) is spoken of, he sees a reference to Kurukṣetra, with its several rivers,\(^10\) Āpayā, Drṣadvati, and Sarasvati (cf. 2. Pastyāvānt). In some passages\(^11\) he sees in Pastyā the proper name of a stream, just as Sindhu primarily means 'river,' then the 'Indus.'

1. Pastyasvant, explained in the Pada text as Pastya-vant, occurs in several passages of the Rigveda. In two of them\(^1\)

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1 \(\text{i. } 151, 2; \text{ix. } 97, 18; \text{but the latter passage is explained by Pischel as referring to Pastyā, the river, and by Böhlingk, Dictionary, s.v., as 'kept in the stall.'} \)
a rich householder seems meant, and in the two others reference to a 'house' is clear.2

2 Barhis, Rv. ii. 11, 16, 'of the house'; ḫayān pāstyāvataḥ, iv. 54, 5, 'abodes having (fixed) habitations.'
Cf. Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 212.

2. Pastyā-vant occurs in one passage of the Rigveda1 in the locative parallel with Suṣoma, Ṣaryanāvant, and Ārjīka. It must apparently denote a place, as Pischel2 argues, probably corresponding to the locality 'in the middle of the streams' (madhye pāstyānām), elsewhere3 referred to as the home of Soma. Pischel4 suggests that Patiāla is meant, though he does not lay any stress on the similarity of name. In the north of Patiāla there are hills where the Soma might have grown. Roth5 thought that something connected with the Soma press was meant.

Pāmsu in the Atharvaveda1 and later2 denotes 'dust' or 'sand,' usually in the plural. Among the portents enumerated in the Adbhuta Brāhmaṇa3 is a rain of dust or sand (pāmsu-varṣa), a phenomenon not rare in India.4

Pāka-dūrvā is, in a verse of the Rigveda,1 included with Kiyāmbu and Vyalkasā among the plants used for growing on the spot where the corpse of the dead man has been consumed with fire.2 The verse is repeated in the Taittirīya Āranyaka3

1 vii. 109, 2; xii. 1, 26.
2 Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 6, 10, 2; Nirukta, xii. 19, etc.
3 vi. 8 (Indische Studien, 1, 40). Cf. Varāhamihira, Brhat Samhitā, xxii. 6.
4 The adjective pāmsura is found in Rv. i. 22, 17, with a variant, pāmsula, Sāmaveda, i. 3, 1, 3, 9. Cf. Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iv. 5, 1, 9.
with the variant Kyāmbu. In the Atharvaveda the word is read Śāṇḍadūrvā. Pakadūrvā is probably, as Sāyaṇa understands it, paripakva-dūrvā, 'ripe or edible millet.' Śāṇḍadūrvā is explained by the commentator in various ways, as millet 'having egg-shaped roots' (i.e., sāṇḍa, not sāṇḍa), or as 'having long joints,' with the additional remark that it was called byhad-dūrvā, 'large millet.' In the Taittirīya Āranyak, on the other hand, the commentary explains Pakadūrvā as small millet.

Pāka-sthāman Kaurayāṇa is celebrated as a generous donor in a hymn of the Rigveda. Ludwig suggests, without much reason, that he may have been a king of the Anus.

Pākāru is mentioned as a disease, together with Viṣūcikā and Arśas, 'haemorrhoids,' in the Vājasaṇeyi Saṃhitā. Its nature is unknown; the etymology points to the sense of 'developed sores,' 'ulcers.'

Pāṅktra is the name of an animal mentioned in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha, or 'horse-sacrifice,' in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās. The 'field-rat' seems to be meant.

Paṅca-janya, 'relating to the five peoples.' See Paṅcajayānāḥ.

Pāṅcāla means a 'king of the Paṅcāla people,' and is applied to Durmukha in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa and to Śoṇa in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa. The term is also found in the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa. See also Paṅcāla.
Pānta, ‘descendant of Paṅcan,’ is the name of a teacher mentioned with disapproval in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.1

1 i. 2, 5, 9; ii. 1, 4, 27. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 434.

Pātava, ‘descendant of Paṭu,’ is a patronymic of Cākra in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (xii. 8, i, 17; 9, 3, 1).

Pāṭa is mentioned in the Atharvaveda1 and in the Kauśika Sūtra.2 It is assumed by the commentator to be identical with the later Pāthā, the plant Clypea hernandifolia, which was much used medicinally, and is still so used at the present day according to Roth.3 Very possibly the word should be read as Pāthā.

1 iii. 27, 4.
2 xxxvii. 1; xxxviii. 18. Cf. Rgveddhāna, iv. 12, 1.

Pāṇi-ghna, ‘hand-clapper,’ is enumerated among the list of victims at the Puruṣamedha (‘human sacrifice’) in the Yajurveda.1 Presumably a man who drives away birds from the fields by making a noise is intended.

1 Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxx. 20; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 15, 1.

Pāṇḍva in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (v. 3, 5, 21) denotes an uncoloured woollen garment.

Pātalya is found in one passage of the Rigveda1 meaning some part of the chariot. What it was is quite uncertain. Hopkins2 suggests that, as in the Epic, it was possibly a piece of wood on the axle to hold the pole of the car.

1 iii. 53, 17.
**Pātra,** primarily a ‘drinking vessel’ (from pā, ‘to drink’) denotes a vessel generally both in the Rigveda\(^1\) and later.\(^2\) It was made either of wood\(^3\) or clay.\(^4\) In some passages\(^5\) the word is, according to Roth, used to indicate a measure. The feminine Pāṭri occasionally occurs\(^6\) in the sense of ‘vessel.’

1. **Pāda** in the Atharvaveda\(^1\) and later\(^2\) denotes the ‘foot’ of an animal, a bird, and other creatures.

2. **Pāda,** as a measure of length, denotes ‘foot’ in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa.\(^1\) The term is occasionally\(^2\) used to express a measure of weight. As a fraction it means a ‘quarter,’ a sense derived from that of ‘foot’ of a quadruped (just as sapha, the divided hoof, comes to mean an ‘eighth’).

3. **Pāda** is the regular expression for a ‘quarter verse’ in the Brāhmaṇas.\(^1\) This sense is merely a limitation of ‘quarter’= the ‘foot’ of a quadruped.

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\(^{1}\) Av. x. 10, 9; xii. 3, 30; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xii. 4, 1, 5; Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. i, 7, etc.


\(^{4}\) Cf. Āitareya Brāhmaṇa, viii. 17; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 2, 8; ii. 5, 3, 6; 6, 2, 7; Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, v. 8, 2.

\(^{5}\) Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, viii. 4, 2, 4; Max Müller, *Sacred Books of the East,* 32, 153.

\(^{6}\) Av. iv. 17, 4; vi. 142, 1; ix. 6, 17; xii. 3, 25, 36; Taittiriya Saṃhitā, v. 1, 6, 2; vi. 3, 4, 1; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xvi. 62; xix. 86, etc.


\(^{8}\) Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, viii. 5, 12; Kauśitaki Upaniṣad, i. 5.

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\(^{9}\) Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iv. 4; Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, xxvi. 5; Nirukta, vii. 9; xi. 6; Lāṭyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, i. 2, 1; x. 6, 9, etc.
**Pānu** | **DRINK—FOOT-BATH—BAD SEASON—SCAB—GUARD 517**

Pāna, ‘drink,’ occurs in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa\(^1\) and the Upaniṣads.\(^2\)

1 xiii. 4, 2, 17.
2 Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, iv. 1, 43: Chāndogya Upaniṣad, viii. 2, 7, etc.

Pānta occurs several times in the Rigveda,\(^1\) apparently\(^2\) meaning ‘drink,’ ‘beverage’ (cf. Pāna). Geldner,\(^3\) however, thinks that in one passage\(^4\) Pānta is the name of a prince.

1 i. 122, 1; 155, 1; viii. 92, 1; ix. 65, 28 (a very doubtful passage); x. 88, 1.
2 So Nirukta, vii. 25; Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.; Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 122, 123.
3 Vedische Studien, 2, 139; Rigveda, Glossar, 108.

Pān-nejana in the Šatapatha Brāhmaṇa\(^1\) denotes a ‘vessel for washing the feet.’

1 iii. 8, 2, 1; 9, 3, 27; xiii. 5, 2, 1.

Pāpa-yakṣma. See Yakṣma.

Pāpa-sama, a ‘bad season,’ is in the Taittirīya Saṃhitā\(^1\) opposed to Puṇya-sama, a ‘good season.’


Pāman occurs in the Atharvaveda\(^1\) as the name of a skin disease. The derivative adjective, Pāmana, ‘suffering from skin disease,’ is found in the later Saṃhitās and the Brāhmaṇas.\(^2\) Since it is mentioned as an accompaniment of fever, probably a cutaneous eruption or scab consequent on fever is meant.

1 v. 22, 12. Cf. for the reading, Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 261. See also Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iv. 1, 8.
2 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vi. 1, 3, 8; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxiii. 4; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 2, 1, 31.

\(^1\) Cf. Grohmann, Indische Studien, 9, 401 et seq.; Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 388; Schrader, Prehistoric Antiquities, 421, n.; Bloomfield, Hymns of the Atharvaveda, 450, 451; Atharvaveda, 63.

I. Pāyu, meaning ‘guard,’ ‘protector,’ occurs several times in the Rigveda.\(^1\)

1 i. 147, 3; ii. 1, 7; iv. 2, 6; 4, 3, 12; vi. 15, 8; viii. 18, 2; 60, 19; x. 100, 9.
2. Pāyu is found in the Rigveda as the name of a poet, a Bhāradvāja. In the Brhaddevatā he is credited with assisting Abhyāvartīn Cāyamāna and Prastoka Sārṇjaya by consecrating their weapons with a hymn.

2 v. 124 et seq., with Macdonell’s notes.  
3 vi. 75 (the ‘battle’ hymn).

Pāra, in accordance with its derivation (pṛ, ‘bring across’), denotes the ‘farther bank’ of a river or stream, in which sense it occurs in the Rigveda and later.

1 It also often has the generalized sense of ‘extreme limit’ or ‘end,’ as in i. 92, 6 (tamasas, ‘of darkness’); v. 54, 10 (adhvinaḥ, ‘of a road’).  
3 Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vii. 5, 1, 2; Kāthaka Saṃhitā, xxxiii. 5; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 6, 2, 4 (sālīṣya); Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, vii. 21 (pāra-hāma, ‘desiring the farther bank’), etc.

Pāraśavya, ‘descendant of Paraśu,’ is the patronymic of Tirindira in the Śaṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra (xvi. 11, 20). Cf. Parsu.

1 Pāravata occurs in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha (‘horse sacrifice’), in the Yajurveda, meaning ‘turtle-dove.’

1 Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 6; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. 25.

2. Pāravata occurs in several passages of the Rigveda. Roth thinks that in most places it means ‘coming from a distance,’ but in two passages he regards it as the proper name of a people on the Yamunā (Jumna). It is certain that in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa the Pāravatas are a people on that river (cf. Turaśravas). Hillebrandt sees in all the passages the name of a people, comparing the Parvītra of

1 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.  
2 Av. xx. 135, 14; pāravata-ghni of the Sarasvati, Rv. vi. 61, 2.  
3 Rv. viii. 34, 18; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, ix. 4, 11. Cf. Hopkins, Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, 15, 53.  
4 Vedische Mythologie, 1, 97 et seq.; 3, 310, following Brunnhofer, Iran und Turan, 99.  
5 See notes 2 and 3.
Ptolemy,⁶ who apparently were settled on the northern border of Gedrosia, or the Παρασάρα, who were found in Αρεία.⁷ He suggests that they were originally 'mountaineers' (cf. Parvata). Ludwig⁸ holds a similar view, and Geldner⁹ recognizes a people as meant. The mention of the Sarasvati in connexion with the Pārāṣātas² in the Rigveda accords generally with their position on the Yamunā in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.³

Pārāsāri-kaunḍinī-putra is mentioned in the last Vamśa (list of teachers) of the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (vi. 4, 30), in the Mādhyamāṇḍina recension, as a pupil of Gārgīputra.

Pārāsāri-putra, 'son of a female descendant of Parāsara,' is mentioned in the last Vamśa (list of teachers) in the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad as a pupil of Kātyāyanīputra,¹ of Aupasvātiputra,¹ of Vātsīputra,² of Vārkārunīputra,³ and of Gārgīputra.⁴ Different men are no doubt meant.

Pārāśarya, 'descendant of Parāśara,' is mentioned in the first two Vamśas (lists of teachers) of the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad as a pupil of Jātukarṇya¹ or of Bhāradvāja.² A Pārāśarya is also mentioned as a pupil of Bājāvāpāyana,³ and Vyāsa Pārāśarya is the pupil of Viśvaksena according to the Vamśa at the end of the Sāmavidhāna Brāhmaṇa.⁴ See also Aṣādha, Jayanta, Vipaścit, Sudatta.

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⁶ vi. 20, 3. It is suggested by Hillebrandt that the 'Ἀκατάφατα of Herodotus, iii. 91, may be the same.
⁷ Ptolemy, vi. 17.
⁸ Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 162, i97.
⁹ Rigveda, Glossar, 109.
Párasaríyána is mentioned in the first two Vamsás (lists of teachers) in the Brhadárañyaka Upaníṣad\(^1\) as a pupil of Párasarya.

\(^1\) \textit{ii. 5, 21; iv. 5, 27 (Mádhyaṃdina = ii. 6, 3; iv. 6, 3, Káñva).}

Párikutá is an obscure word—probably corrupt—occurring in a verse cited in the Aitareya Bráhmaṇa (viii. 22, 7), and apparently meaning ‘attendant.’

Párikśita, ‘descendant of Parikṣit,’ is the patronymic of Janamejaya in the Aitareya Bráhmaṇa\(^2\) and the Satapatha Bráhmaṇa.\(^3\) The Párikṣitíyas appear in the Satapatha Brahmaṇa\(^4\) and the Sáňkháyana Śrauta Sútra\(^5\) as performers of the horse sacrifice. In a Gáthá there cited they are called Párikśitas. Apparently they were the brothers of Janamejaya, named Ugrasena, Bhímasena, and Śrutasena. In the Brhadárañyaka Upaníṣad\(^6\) the question whither they have gone is made the subject of a philosophical discussion. It is clear that the family had passed away before the time of the Upaníṣad, and it is also clear that there had been some serious scandal mingled with their greatness which they had, in the opinion of the Brahmins, atoned for by their horse sacrifice with its boundless gifts to the priests. Weber\(^6\) sees in this the germ of the Epic stories which are recorded in the Mahábhárata.

The verses relating to Parikṣit in the Atharvaveda\(^7\) are called Párikṣityáḥ in the Bráhmaṇas.\(^8\)

\(^1\) \textit{vii. 27 and 34; viii. 11.}
\(^2\) \textit{xiii. 5, 4, 1. Cf. Gopatha Bráhmaṇa, i. 2, 6; ii. 6, 12.}
\(^3\) \textit{xiii. 5, 4, 3.}
\(^4\) \textit{xvi. 9, 7.}
\(^5\) \textit{iii. 3, 1.}
\(^6\) \textit{Indian Literature, 125, 126; 135, 136.}
\(^7\) \textit{xx. 127, 7-10; Sáňkháyana Śrauta Sútra, xii. 17; Scheftelowitz, \textit{Die Apokryphen des Rgveda, 156, 157.}}
\(^8\) \textit{Aitareya Bráhmaṇa, vi. 32, 10; Kausítaki Bráhmaṇa, xxx. 5; Gopatha Bráhmaṇa, ii. 6, 12; Weber, \textit{op. cit., 136, n. 144.}}

Pári-plava, ‘cyclic,’ is a term applied to the Ákhyána, or ‘tale,’ which is to be recited at the Ásvamedha (‘horse
Parthava | HOUSEHOLD UTENSILS—PATRONYMICS

sacrifice'), and to be repeated at intervals throughout the year. It is mentioned in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa¹ and in the Sūtras.²

¹ xiii. 4, 3, 2, 15. ² Śaṅkhāyana Srauta Sūtra, xvi. 1, 26; Āśvalāyana Srauta Sūtra, x. 6; 2, 36; Lāṭyāyana Srauta Sūtra, ix. 9, 11.

Pārī-ṇahya denotes 'household utensils' in the Taittiriya Saṃhitā,¹ where it is said that the wife (patnī), as mistress of the house, has charge of all these.²

¹ vi. 2, 1, 1. ² variant form of pārī-ṇahya in Manu, ix. 11.

Pārūṣṇa, occurring in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha ('horse sacrifice') in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās,¹ appears to mean some kind of bird.

¹ Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, iii. 14, 4; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxiv. 24.

Pārovarya-vid in the Nirukta (xiii. 12) denotes 'knowers of tradition.'

Pāṇa-valki, 'descendant of Pāṇavalka,' is the patronymic of Nigada in the Vaṃsa Brāhmaṇa.¹

¹ Indische Studien, 4, 372; Max Müller, Ancient Sanskrit Literature, 443.

Parthava, 'descendant of Prthu,' occurs once in the Rigveda,¹ where the Pārthavas are mentioned as generous donors. The passage is somewhat obscure, as there is a reference² to a defeat of the Turvasas and the Vṛćivants by Śrījaya Daivevāta, followed in the next verse by the praise of the bounty to the singer of Abhyāvatīn Cāyamāna, who was clearly a Parthava, and who, in the earlier part of the hymn, has been referred to as victorious over Varasikha. It is uncertain whether, as Zimmer³ suggests, the two princes, Abhyāvatīn

¹ vi. 27, 8. ² vi. 27, 7. ³ Altindisches Leben, 133, 134.
Cāyamāna and Sṛnjaya Daivavāta, are identical or not.\(^4\) That Pārthava has any direct connexion with the Parthians, as held by Brunnhof, is most improbable.\(^5\) **Cf. Parśu.**


\(^5\) Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the

Pārtha- śravasa, ‘descendant of Prthu- śravas,’ is found as the name of a demon in the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa.\(^1\)

\(^1\) ix. 93, 15.

Pārthya, ‘descendant of Prthi,’ is the patronymic of some donor in a hymn of the Rigveda.\(^2\) The form of the name in the Āsvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra\(^2\) is Pārtha.

\(^2\) xii. 10. Cf. the Anukramaṇī on Rv. x. 93.

Pārvati, ‘descendant of Parvata,’ is the patronymic of Daḵša in the Śatapatha (ii. 4, 4, 6) and the Kauṣitaki (iv. 4) Brāhmaṇas.

Pāṛṣada, which first appears in the Nirukta,\(^1\) denotes a textbook recognized by a school of grammarians.


Pāṛṣad-vāṇa, ‘descendant of Pṛṣadvāṇa,’ is mentioned as a wonder-worker in the Rigveda.\(^1\)

\(^1\) viii. 51, 2. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 139.

Pāṛṣpa Śailana is mentioned as a teacher in the Jaiminiya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa (ii. 4, 8).

Pāḷāgala occurs in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa\(^1\) apparently in the sense of ‘messenger,’ or ‘bearer of false news.’

\(^1\) v. 3, 1, 11. Eggeling, *Sacred Books of the East*, 26, 64, renders it ‘courier.’
Pālāgāli is the name of the fourth and least respected wife of the king. See Pati.

Pāvamāṇi means the verses (rcas) in the ninth Maṇḍala of the Rigveda 'relating to Soma Pavamāṇa' ('purifying itself'). The name is found in the Atharvaveda and later, possibly even in one hymn of the Rigveda itself.

Paśa denotes in the Rigveda and later a 'rope' used for fastening or tying up. Rope and knot (granthi) are mentioned together in the Atharvaveda. Pāśa is in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa used of the rope by which Manu's ship was fastened to the mountain. It is often employed metaphorically of the 'fetter' of Varuṇa.

Pāśin, 'having a noose,' denotes a 'hunter' in the Rigveda and in the Atharvaveda.

Pāśa-dyumna Vāyata is the name of a king to whom the Vasiṣṭhas claim to have been preferred by Indra in one hymn of the Rigveda. Apparently he was, as Śāyaṇa says, son of Vayat, who may be compared with the Vyat of another passage of the Rigveda. Ludwig sees in him a priest of the Prthus and Parsus, but this is most improbable.

Pāśya occurs in one passage of the Rigveda with reference to the defeat of Vṛtra, and apparently denotes 'stone bulwarks.'
In another passage\(^2\) the word may mean the stones used for pressing Soma.


**Pika**, the Indian 'cuckoo,' is mentioned in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha ('horse sacrifice') in the Yajurveda Saṁhitās.\(^1\) *Cf.* Anyavāpa, Koka.


**Pīṅgā** is found in one passage of the Rigveda,\(^1\) where it is explained by the St. Petersburg Dictionary with Śāyaṇa as 'bowstring,' but where Hillebrandt\(^2\) thinks that a musical instrument of some kind is meant.

\(^1\) viii. 69, 9. \(^2\) *Vedische Mythologie*, 1, 144, n.

**Pijavana** is the name of the father of Sudās according to the Nirukta.\(^1\) Probably this statement is based on a mere conjecture from the epithet Pajavana used of Sudās in a verse of the Rigveda,\(^2\) but may very well be correct.

\(^1\) ii. 24. \(^2\) vii. 18, 19. *So Aitareya Brāhmaṇa*, viii. 21.

**Pīṅjūla** denotes a 'bundle' of grass or stalks, especially of Darbha. The word is only found in the Brāhmaṇa style.\(^1\)

\(^1\) Kāṭhaka Saṁhitā, xxiii. 1; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 3; Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, xviii. 8. It appears in the form of pīṅjūla in Maitrāyaṇi Saṁhitā, iv. 8, 7; Pāraskara Gṛhya Sūtra, i. 15; of Puṇ-jūla in Taittiriya Saṁhitā, vi. 1, 1, 7; ii. 7, 9, 5.

**Pīthinas** is the name of a man, a friend of Indra, in the Rigveda.\(^1\)


**Pīṇḍa**, denoting specifically a ball of flour offered to the Manes, especially on the evening of new moon, occurs in the Nirukta,\(^1\) and repeatedly in the Sūtras.\(^2\)

\(^1\) iii. 4. \(^2\) Lāṭyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, ii. 10, 4, etc.
Pitā-maha, beside Tatāmaḥa, denotes from the Atharvaveda onwards the 'paternal grandfather,' apparently as a 'father in a higher sense.'

The great-grandfather is Prapitāmaḥa and Pratatāmaḥa. It is significant that there are no corresponding Vedic words for maternal grandparents, and that the words used in the latter language, such as Mātaḥa, are imitations of the terms for paternal relations.

In one passage of the Rigveda Delbrück suggests that mahe pitre means 'grandfather,' a sense which would well suit the napātam, 'grandson,' following, but the sense of the whole passage is uncertain.

We learn very little from the texts of the position of grandparents. No doubt they were entitled to marks of respect similar to those shown to parents, as the epic expressly testifies. A grandfather might easily be the head of the family, or be living with his eldest son, after he ceased to be able to control the family.

The grandmother (Pitāmahī) is not mentioned in the extant Vedic literature.

1 Av. vi. 112, 2; Šatapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 2, 4, 4.
2 Av. vi. 5, 30; xi. 1, 19; xviii. 4, 35; Taittiriya Saṃhitā, i. 8, 5, 1; vii. 2, 7, 3; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xix. 36; Šatapatha Brāhmaṇa, v. 5, 4, 4.
3 Delbrück, Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 474.
4 Av. xviii. 4, 75.
5 Ibid., 473.
6 See Pischel, Vedische Studien, 2, 128, n. 1. Roth, St. Petersburger Wörterbuch, s.v., also doubts the view which is accepted by Delbrück, and denies that in Rv. i. 71, 5, the sense of 'grandfather' can be found.
7 Delbrück, op. cit., 480, citing Mahābhārata, ii. 1634.
Pitu in the Rigveda\(^1\) and later\(^2\) has the general sense of 'nutriment,' whether food or drink.

\(^1\) i. 61, 7; 132, 6; 187, 1; vi. 20, 4, etc.
\(^2\) Av. iv. 6, 3; Taittirîya Saṁhitâ, v. 7, 2, 4; Vājasaneyi Saṁhitâ, ii. 20; xii. 65; Aitareya Brâhmaṇa, i. 13.

Pît̄r, common from the Rigveda onwards, denotes 'father,' not so much as the 'begetter' (janiitr),\(^1\) but rather as the protector of the child, this being probably also the etymological sense of the word.\(^2\) The father in the Rigveda\(^3\) stands for all that is good and kind. Hence Agni is compared with a father,\(^4\) while Indra is even dearer than a father.\(^5\) The father carries his son in his arms,\(^6\) and places him on his lap,\(^7\) while the child pulls his garment to attract attention.\(^8\) In later years the son depends on his father for help in trouble,\(^9\) and greets him with joy.\(^10\)

It is difficult to ascertain precisely how far the son was subject to parental control, and how long such control continued. Reference is made in the Rigveda\(^11\) to a father's chastising his son for gambling, and Rjraśva is said to have been blinded by his father.\(^12\) From the latter statement Zimmer\(^13\) infers the existence of a developed patria potestas, but to lay stress on this isolated and semi-mythical incident would be unwise. It is, however, quite likely that the patria potestas was originally strong, for we have other support for the thesis in the Roman patria potestas. If there is no proof that a father

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\(^1\) Pît̄a janiitâ is used of gods in the Rigveda—e.g., iv. 17, 12.
\(^2\) As derived from pā, 'protect.' But, as Böhtlingk and Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v. Māt̄ar, footnote, suggest, pā and mā were probably the much older original onomatopoetic names for 'father' and 'mother,' which in a later reflective age influenced the formation of pît̄r and māt̄r (which themselves go back to the Indo-European period).
\(^3\) See, e.g., iv. 17, 17; viii. 86, 4.
\(^4\) Rv. x. 7, 3.
\(^5\) Rv. vii. 32, 19; viii. 1, 6.
\(^6\) Rv. i. 38, 1.
\(^7\) Rv. v. 43, 7.
\(^8\) Rv. iii. 53, 2.
\(^9\) In Rv. x. 48, 1, the jantavâḥ possibly are the sons.
\(^10\) Rv. vii. 103, 3. Cf. i. 24, 1.
\(^11\) Rv. ii. 29, 5.
\(^12\) Rv. i. 116, 16; 117, 17. There is also the case of the sale of Sunahṣeṇa, Aitareya Brâhmaṇa, vii. 12-18; and cf. Śatapatha Brâhmaṇa, v. 3, 3, 3.
\(^13\) Altindisches Leben, 316.
legally controlled his son's wedding,¹⁴ and not much that he controlled his daughter's,¹⁵ the fact is in itself not improbable.

There is again no evidence to show whether a son, when grown up, normally continued to stay with his father, his wife becoming a member of the father's household, or whether he set up a house of his own: probably the custom varied. Nor do we know whether the son was granted a special plot of land on marriage or otherwise, or whether he only came into such property after his father's death. But any excessive estimate of the father's powers over a son who was no longer a minor and naturally under his control, must be qualified by the fact that in his old age the sons might divide their father's property,¹⁶ or he might divide it amongst them,¹⁷ and that when the father-in-law became aged he fell under the control of his son's wife.¹⁸ There are also obscure traces that in old age a father might be exposed, though there is no reason to suppose that this was usual in Vedic India.¹⁹

Normally the son was bound to give his father full obedience.²⁰ The later Śūtras show in detail the acts of courtesy which he owed his father, and they allow him to eat the remnants of his father's food.²¹ On the other hand, the father was expected to be kind. The story of Śunahśeṇa in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 12, 2, which is in favour of Zimmer's view. Cf. Kaegi, Der Rigveda, 15, and Pati.²²

¹⁴ Cf. Delbrück, Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 576. Ibid., 582, he quotes Mahābhārata, xii, 6108 et seq., which refers in one line to the control of the marriage of the son by the father, and in the next to a case of free marriage. The fact is, no doubt, that the son could marry freely, unless his father had arranged matters for him when he was too young to object.
¹⁵ Zimmer, op. cit., 300, assumes this as certain, but it is far from proved. See, however, Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, iii. 12, 2, which is in favour of Zimmer's view. Cf. Kaegi, Der Rigveda, 15, and Pati.
¹⁶ Rv. i. 70, 10; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, v. 14; Jaiminīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 156 (Journal of the American Oriental Society, 26, 61, 62).
¹⁷ Taittiriya Śanhitā, iii. 1, 9, 4-6. Cf. the handing over from father to son in the Kauśitaki Upaniṣad, ii. 15. If the father recovered, he lived subject to his son.
¹⁸ Rv. x. 85, 46.
¹⁹ Cf. Rv. viii. 51, 2; Av. xviii. 2, 34. The first passage need not refer to exposure, and the second merely refers to the exposure of a dead body; but Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 326-328, thinks that they prove exposure. Cf. Dharma.
²⁰ Rv. i. 68, 5.
²¹ Āpastamba Dharma Śūtra, i. 1, 4, 11.
manā 22 emphasizes the horror with which the father's heartless treatment of his son was viewed. The Upaniṣads 23 insist on the spiritual succession from father to son. The kissing of a son 24 was a frequent and usual token of affection, even in mature years.

On the failure of natural children, adoption was possible. 25 It was even resorted to when natural children existed, but when it was desired to secure the presence in the family of a person of specially high qualifications, as in Viśvāmitra's adoption of Śunāhṣepa. 26 It is not clear that adoption from one caste into another was possible, for there is no good evidence that Viśvāmitra was, as Weber 27 holds, a Kṣatriya who adopted a Brāhmaṇa. Adoption was also not always in high favour: it may be accidental or not that a hymn of the Vasiṣṭha book of the Rigveda 28 condemns the usage. It was also possible for the father who had a daughter, but no sons, to appoint her to bear a son for him. At any rate the practice appears to be referred to in an obscure verse of the Rigveda 29 as interpreted by Yāska. 30 Moreover, it is possible that the difficulty of a brotherless maiden finding a husband 31 may have been due in part to the possibility of her father desiring to make her a Putrikā, the later technical name for a daughter whose son is to belong to her father's family.

There can be no doubt that in a family the father took precedence of the mother. 32 Delbrück 33 explains away the apparent cases to the contrary. 34 There is no trace of the

22 vii. 12 et seq.; Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xv. 17 et seg.
23 E.g., Kaушitaki Upaniṣad, ii. 15; Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, i. 5, 25 (Mādhyāmdina = i. 5, 17, Kārṇa).
25 Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 318; Mayr, Indisches Erbrecht, 73; Jolly, Die Adoption in Indien (Würzburg, 1910), 7 et seq.
27 Episches im vedischen Ritual, 33, 34.
28 vii. 4, 7. 8.
29 iii. 31, 1.
31 Cf. Brāhrtr.
32 Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 5, 1, 18; a citation in Śāṅkhāyana Grhya Sūtra, i. 9; Chāndogya Upaniṣad vii. 15, 2.
33 Die indogermanischen Verwandtschaftsnamen, 577.
34 Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, iv. 7, 5. Some passages in the Sūtras present difficulties, but they are of no importance for Vedic times proper.
family as a land-owning corporation. The dual form Pitarau regularly means 'father and mother,' 'parents.'

Baden Powell, whose various works (Indian Village Community, 1896; Village Communities in India, 1899, etc.) have done most to combat the view of the village community in India as a land-holding institution, is prepared to recognize the family as a land-owning unit, considering that the patria potestas is a later growth, and not Indian (see, e.g., Village Communities in India, 128 et seq.). Hopkins, India, Old and New, 218 et seq., adopts a theory which allows of individual and joint family ownership side by side, the latter being apparently the earlier but the decadent stage. He expressly considers (p. 222) that the son had an indefeasible right to prevent the father from alienating the hereditary land, which could only be parted with by the consent of the village if it were a case of joint ownership (cf. the verse cited by Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 94). But it must be remembered that, as is very clearly shown in the case of English law by Pollock and Maitland (History of English Law, 2, 337-352), the recognition of the rights of sons may well be, not a sign of original joint or family ownership, but a development from the existence of intestate succession, and as in England, so in India, there is no trace of a corporate joint family in the early books. And, as Jolly (op. cit., 76, 80) shows, there are clear traces, both in old and modern times, of a despotic control of the family by the father even after his sons grew up, provided only that he was physically able to control them. The same state of affairs seems proved for early English law, as it is beyond question for Roman law (see Smith's Dictionary of Antiquities, 2, 351 et seq.). In Greece also, which is sometimes contrasted with Rome, there is the clearest trace of both a real patria potestas, and of the absolute ownership of the land by the father as against the son, especially in the archaic laws of Gortyn (see Gardner and Jevons, Greek Antiquities, 404, 405, 563, 566).

Pitṛ-yāna, the 'way of the fathers,' mentioned in the Rigveda and later, is opposed to the Deva-yāna, or 'way of the gods.' Tilak considers that the Devayāna corresponds with the Uttarāyaṇa, 'northern journey' of the sun, and the Pitṛyāṇa with the Dakṣināyaṇa, its 'southern journey.' He concludes from a passage of the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, where three of the seasons—spring, summer, and the rains—are ascribed to the gods, but the others to the Pitṛs, or Fathers, that the Devayāna began with the vernal equinox, and the Pitṛyāṇa with the autumnal equinox. With this he connects the curious

1 x. 2, 7. Cf. the allusion to it in x. 18, 1, as other than the Devayāṇa, which appears in x. 98, 11.
2 Av. viii. 10, 19; xii. 2, 10, etc.; Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xix. 45; Chandogya Upaniṣad, v. 3, 2, etc.
3 Orion, 22 et seq.
4 ii. 1, 3, 1-3.

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distinction of Deva- and Yama-Nakṣatras in the Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa. These conclusions are, however, very improbable. Cf. Nakṣatra and Sūrya.

5 i. 5, 2, 6.

Pitr-han, ‘parricide,’ is found in the Atharvaveda,1 Paippalāḍa recension.


Pitrīya occurs in the list of sciences given in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad.1 Apparently it is to be taken as the science relating to the cult of the Manes, as explained by Śaṅkara in his commentary. As it is in that list followed by Rāśi, the St. Petersburg Dictionary is inclined to take Pitrīya Rāśi as one expression, but in what exact sense does not appear.

1 vii. 1, 2. 4; 2, 1; 7, 1. Cf. Weber, Indische Studien, 1, 267; Little, Grammatical Index, 98.

Pitva1 or Pitva2 is the name of an animal included in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha (‘horse sacrifice’) in the Yajurveda Samhitās. According to the commentator on the Taittiriya Samhitā it means ‘lion.’ But it may be identical with Petva.

1 Taittiriya Samhitā, v. 5, 17, 1.

Pināka, ‘club,’ is found in the Atharvaveda.1 Later2 it is used to denote the club of Rudra-Śiva.

1 i. 27, 2.
2 Taittiriya Samhitā, i. 8, 6, 2; etc.

Pinvana occurs in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (xiv. 1, 2, 17; 2, 1, 11; 3, 1, 22) as the name of a vessel used in the ritual.

Pipīla, ‘ant,’ is mentioned in the Rigveda (x. 16, 6) as eating the flesh of the dead.
Pipilikā in the Atharvaveda and later denotes an 'ant,' the form of the word referring doubtless not so much to the small species of ant, as it is taken in the later lexicons, but rather to the insect's tiny size, which would naturally be expressed by a diminutive formation of the name. The form Pipilaka is found in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad.

Pippaka is mentioned in the list of victims at the Aśvamedha ('horse sacrifice') in the Yajurveda Sanshitas. Some bird seems to be meant.

Pippala, n., is found in two passages of the Rigveda meaning 'berry,' used with a mystic signification, and in neither case with any certain reference to the berry of the fig-tree. In the Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad the general sense of 'berry' is not necessary, and the special sense of 'berry' of the Peepal is quite possible: the latter meaning is perhaps intended in the Satapatha Brāhmaṇa. In the Atharvaveda the feminine form of the word, Pippali, appears denoting berries used as a remedy for wounds, like Arundhati.

2 Maitrāyaṇī Sanshitā, iii. 6, 7; Pañcavimśa Brāhmaṇa, v. 6, 10; xv. 17, 8; Brhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, i. 4, 9, 29 (Mādhyaṃdina = i. 4, 4, 16 Kāṇva); Nirukta, vii. 13; Aitareya Āraṇyaka, i. 3, 8; ii. 1, 6.
3 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
4 Cf. kanīnaka beside kanīnikā, 'pupil of the eye.'
5 vii. 2, 1; 7, 1; 8, 1; 10, 1.

1 Taittirīya Sanshitā, v. 5, 19, 1; Maitrāyaṇī Sanshitā, iii. 14, 21; Vāja-
**Pippalāda** (‘eater of berries’) is the name of a teacher mentioned in the Praśna Upaniṣad.¹ In the plural the name denotes a school of the Atharvaveda.² Their (Paippalāda) recension of the text of the Saṃhitā has been reproduced in facsimile by Garbe and Bloomfield,³ and in part published.⁴

¹ i. i.
³ Baltimore, 1901.
⁴ The variants of the Paippalāda are given in part in Whitney’s Translation of the Atharvaveda, and the text of books i. and ii. has been edited by Barret in the *Journal of the American Oriental Society*, 26, 197-295; 30, 187 et seq. Cf. also Lanman in Whitney’s Translation, lxxix et seq.

**Pipru** is the name of a foe of Indra in the Rigveda. He was repeatedly defeated by Indra for Ṛjiśvan.¹ Mentioned as possessing forts,² he is called a Dāsa³ as well as an Asura.⁴ He is described as having a black brood,⁵ and as being allied with blacks.⁶ It is uncertain whether he was a demon, according to Roth’s⁷ view, which is favoured by the use of the word Asura, or a human foe, as Ludwig,⁸ Oldenberg,⁹ and Hillebrandt¹⁰ believe. The name may mean ‘resister,’ from the root *pr*.

¹ i. 101, 1. 2; iv. 16, 13; v. 29, 11.
² Rv. i. 51, 5; vi. 20, 7.
³ Rv. viii. 32, 2.
⁴ Rv. x. 138, 3.
⁵ Rv. i. 101, 1.
⁶ iv. 16, 13.
⁷ St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
⁸ Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 149.
⁹ *Religion des Veda*, 155.
¹⁰ *Vedische Mythologie*, 3, 273.

**Piṣa** is found in one passage of the Rigveda,¹ where Sāyaṇa takes it to mean a deer (ruru).


**Piṣaṅga** is the name of one of the two Unnetr priests officiating at the snake festival mentioned in the Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa.¹ Cf. *Caka*.

Piśāca is the name of a class of demon mentioned in the Atharvaveda and later. In the Taittirīya Samhitā they are associated with Raksāsas and Asuras, while opposed to gods, men, and fathers. In the Atharvaveda they are described as *kravyād*, 'eaters of raw flesh,' which may be the etymological sense of the word Piśāca itself. It is possible that the Piśācas were, as suggested by Grierson, really human foes, like the north-western tribes, who even in later times were reputed eaters of raw flesh (not necessarily as cannibals, but rather as eaters of human flesh in ritual). This is, however, not at all likely, the Piśācas having in all probability only meant 'ghouls' originally: when they appear as human tribes, they were presumably thus designated in scorn. A science called Piśāca-veda or Piśāca-vidyā is known in the later Vedic period.

Piśāca in the Atharvaveda and later denotes raw flesh (cf. Piśāca). In one passage of the Atharvaveda the sense seems to be 'small piece,' 'bit,' but the St. Petersburg Dictionary suggests that Piśāta here stands for *piśita*, equivalent to *piśta* (what is 'pounded,' then 'particle').

Piśila is found in the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa as the name of a wooden vessel or dish. In the Lātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra (iv. 2, 4. 5) a Piśila-vinā is mentioned, which seems to have been a kind of guitar, with strings stretched over a body of wood.
Pišuna, ‘traitor,’ is mentioned in the Rigveda¹ and occasionally later.²

¹ vii. 104, 20. ² Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xxx. 13; Chān.

Pišta (‘pounded’), n., ‘meal,’ ‘flour,’ is mentioned in the Brāhmaṇas.¹ In the Atharvaveda² reference is made to pounded beans (māṣāḥ).

¹ Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, ii. 9; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 4, 3; 2, 1, 2; vi. 5, 1, 6, etc. ² xii. 2, 53.

Piṭha, ‘stool,’ does not occur as an uncompounded word before the Sūtras, but the compound pītha-sarpin (‘moving about in a little cart’) is found as the designation of a ‘cripple’ in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā (xxx. 21) and the Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa (iii. 4, 17, 1) in the list of victims at the Puruṣamedha (‘human sacrifice’).

Pitu-dāru is found in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā¹ and later² denoting the Deodar (deva-dāru) tree, or, according to others, the Khadira or Udumbara tree.³ Cf. Pūtadru.

¹ Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xxv. 6. ² Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 5, 2, 15; xiii. 4, 4, 5, 17; Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, xxiv. 13, 5. ³ Mahīdhara on Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, v. 14; Śāyaṇa on Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 28.

Pijuśa is found in the Rigveda¹ and later² in the sense of the first milk of the cow after calving, ‘biestings.’ Usually the term is applied metaphorically to the sap of the Soma plant.³

¹ Cf. ii. 35, 5, where it is applied figuratively to the mothers of Agni. ² Kauśika Sūtra, xix. 15. Cf. Av. viii. 9, 24. ³ Rv. ii. 13, 1; iii. 48, 2; vi. 47, 4; x. 94, 8, etc. Cf. Geldner, Rigveda, Glossar, 110.

Pila occurs once in the Atharvaveda¹ as the name of an Apsaras, being no doubt originally a name of some fragrant

plant, like *Naladī* and *Guggulū*, two other names of Apsarases given in the same verse.

**Pilu** is the name in the Atharvaveda\(^1\) of a tree (*Careya arborea* or *Salvadora persica*) on the fruit of which doves fed.


**Pilumati** is in the Atharvaveda (xviii. 2, 48) the name of the intermediate heaven lying between the *udanvalī*, ‘watery,’ and the *pra-dyauḥ*, ‘farthest heaven.’ It presumably means ‘rich in Pilu.’ *Cf. Div.*

**Pums-calī** (‘running after men’) is found in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā,\(^1\) the Atharvaveda,\(^2\) and later,\(^3\) to denote a ‘wanton woman.’ In the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā\(^4\) also occurs the form *Pumścalū*. See also *Dharma* and *Pati*.

\(^1\) xxx. 22. \(^2\) xv. 2, 1 et seq. \(^3\) Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa, viii. i, 10; Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, xxvii. 1; Lāṭyāyana Srauta Sūtra, iv. 3, 9, 11. \(^4\) xxx. 5. 20; Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 1, 15; Kāṭyāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xiii. 3, 6.

**Pum-savana** (‘male-production’ ceremony) is found in the Atharvaveda\(^1\) in a hymn which is obviously intended to accompany a rite aiming at securing the birth of a male child, and which is so applied in the ritual.\(^2\)

\(^1\) vi. 11, 1. \(^2\) Gobhila Grhya Sūtra, ii. 6, 1 et seq.; Hillebrandt, *Rituallitteratur*, 41.

**Puklaka.** See *Paulkasa*.

**Pūṇji-ṣṭha** is found in the Yajurveda Saṃhitā\(^1\) and later,\(^2\) apparently meaning ‘fisherman,’ though Mahidhara\(^3\) explains it as ‘bird-catcher.’ *Cf. Pūṇjiṣṭha*.

\(^1\) Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xvi. 27; Taittirīya Saṃhitā, iv. 5, 4, 2; Maitrāyaṇi Saṃhitā, ii. 9, 5; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, xvii. 13. \(^2\) Āsvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra, x. 7; Pāṇini, viii. 3, 97. \(^3\) On Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā, xvi. 27.
Puñjila is found in the Taittiriya Śamhitā and the Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa in the sense of a ‘bundle’ of grass, being a variant of Piñjula.

Puṇḍarīka denotes the blossom of the lotus in the Rigveda and later. The Pañcaviṃśa Brāhmaṇa states that the lotus flower is born of the light of the Nakṣatras, and the Atharva-veda compares the human heart to the lotus.

Puṇḍra is the name of a people regarded as outcasts in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa. Their name occurs in the Śūtras also. In the Epic their country corresponds with Bengal and Bihar.

Putra is, with Śunu, the usual name for ‘son’ from the Rigveda onwards. The original sense of the word was apparently ‘small,’ or something analogous. The form Putraka is often used with the distinct intention of an affectionate address to a younger man, not merely a son proper. Reference is frequently made to the desire for a son.
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Putra-sena is the name of a man in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā (iv. 6, 6).

Putrikā in the later literature1 has the technical sense of the daughter of a man without sons, whom he gives in marriage on the express terms that her son shall perform the funeral rites for him, and be counted as his. The thing as well as the name is recognized by Yāska in the Nirukta,2 and traced to the Rigveda.3 But the passages in the Rigveda are of very uncertain meaning,4 and in all probability do not refer to this custom at all.

1 Mānava Dharma Śāstra, ix. 127 et seq.; Gautama Dharma Sūtra, xxviii. 20; Vāsishṭha Dharma Sūtra, xvii. 17.
2 iii. 5 ad fin.
3 i. 124, 7. Cf. iii. 31, 1.
4 Cf. Geldner, Vediche Studien, 3, 34; Rigveda, Kommentar, 48, 49; Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 239 et seq.; Roth, Nirukta, "Erläuterungen, 27; Jolly, Recht und Sitte, 72, 73; Bṛhaddevatā, iv. 110, 111, with Macdonell's note; Keith, Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1910, 924, 925; Jolly, Die Adoption in Indien, 32.

Punar-datta ("given again") is the name of a teacher in the Śānkhayana Āranyaka (viii. 8).

Punar-bhū is found in the Atharvaveda1 meaning a wife who marries again, a rite being mentioned by which she can ensure reunion with her second (not her first) husband in the next world.

1 ix. 5, 28. Cf. Whitney, Translation of the Atharvaveda, 537.

Punar-vasu ("brining goods again"), used in the dual, denotes the fifth in the series of the Vedic Nakṣatras, or 'Lunar Mansions.' Roth1 takes the word to have this sense in its only occurrence in the Rigveda,2 but this must be regarded as decidedly doubtful. The term is, however, found in the ordinary lists of the Nakṣatras in the later Saṃhitās and the Brāhmaṇas.3

1 St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
2 x. 19, 1.
3 Av. xix. 7, 1; Taittiriya Saṃhitā, i. 5, 1; iv. 4, 10, 1; Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, i. 1, 2, 3; Kauśitaki Brāhmaṇa, i. 3; Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā, viii. 15; xxxix. 13; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 1, 2, 10, etc.

Punah-sara, 'recurrent,' is the epithet of the barking dog in the Rigveda,\(^1\) which is told to bark at the thief. It refers, no doubt, to the dog's practice of running to and fro when it barks. It is also applied to a plant, Apāmārga (Achyranthes aspera), in the Atharvaveda,\(^2\) with the sense of 'having revertent leaves.'

\(^1\) vii. 55, 3; Pischel, *Vedische Studien*, 2, 56, n. 1. 

Pumāms denotes in the Rigveda\(^1\) and later\(^2\) man as the 'male.' It has no special reference to marriage like Pati, or to heroism like Nṛ or Nara. In grammar it denotes the masculine gender.\(^3\)

\(^1\) i. 124, 7; 162, 22; iii. 29, 13; iv. 3, 10, etc. 
\(^2\) Av. iii. 6, 1; 23, 3; iv. 4, 4; vi. 11, 2; Vājasaneyi Saṁhitā, viii. 5, 3, etc. 
\(^3\) Nirukta, iii. 8; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, x. 1, 8; 5, 1, 3. *Cf.* iv. 5, 2, 10, and *punāsā nakṣatreyā,* 'a Nākṣatra with a masculine name,' in the Brhad-āraṇyaka Upaniṣad, vi. 3, 1.

Pur is a word of frequent occurrence in the Rigveda\(^1\) and later,\(^2\) meaning 'rampart,' 'fort,' or 'stronghold.' Such fortifications must have been occasionally of considerable size, as one is called 'broad' (prīthvī) and 'wide' (urvī).\(^3\) Elsewhere\(^4\) a fort 'made of stone' (asmamayī) is mentioned. Sometimes strongholds 'of iron' (āyasī) are referred to,\(^5\) but these are probably only metaphorical. A fort 'full of kine' (gomati) is mentioned,\(^6\) showing that strongholds were used to hold cattle. Autummal (śāradī) forts are named, apparently as belonging to the Dāsas: this may refer to the forts in that season being

\(^1\) i. 53, 7; 58, 8; 131, 4; 166, 8; iii. 15, 4; iv. 27, 1, etc. 
\(^2\) Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa, i. 7, 7, 5; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 23; ii. 11; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 4, 3; vi. 3, 3, 25; xi. 1, 1, 2, 3; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, viii. 5, 3, etc. 
\(^3\) i. 189, 2. 
\(^4\) Rv. iv. 30, 20. Perhaps sun-dried bricks are alluded to by āmā (lit. 'raw,' 'unbaked') in Rv. ii. 35, 6. 
\(^5\) Rv. i. 58, 8; ii. 20, 8; iv. 27, 1; vii. 3, 7; 15, 4; 95, 1; x. 101, 8. See Muir, *Sanskrit Texts*, 2\(^*\), 378 et seq. 
\(^6\) Av. vii. 6, 23.
occupied against Áryan attacks or against inundations caused by overflowing rivers. Forts 'with a hundred walls' (satabhujā) are spoken of.⁷

It would probably be a mistake to regard these forts as permanently occupied fortified places like the fortresses of the mediaeval barony. They were probably merely places of refuge against attack, ramparts of hardened earth with palisades and a ditch (cf. Dehī). Pischel and Geldner,⁸ however, think that there were towns with wooden walls and ditches (περιβάλος and τάφρος) like the Indian town of Pātaliputra known to Megas-thenes⁹ and the Pāli texts.¹⁰ This is possible, but hardly susceptible of proof, and it is not without significance that the word Nagara is of late occurrence. On the whole it is hardly likely that in early Vedic times city life was much developed. In the Epic, according to Hopkins,¹¹ there are found the Nagara, 'city'; Grāma, 'village'; and Ghoṣa, 'ranch.' Vedic literature hardly seems to go beyond the village with no doubt with modifications in its later period.

The siege of forts is mentioned in the Saṃhitās and Brāhmaṇas.¹² According to the Rigveda,¹³ fire was used.

⁷ Rv. i. 166, 8; vii. 15, 14.
⁸ Vedische Studien, i, xxii, xxiii, where kṣiti dhruvā, i. 73, 4, is compared.
⁹ Strabo, p. 702; Arrian, Indica, 10.
¹² Taittirīya Saṃhitā, vi. 2, 3, 1; Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, i. 23; Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa, iii. 4, 4, 3-5; Gopatha Brāhmaṇa, ii. 2, 7, etc.
¹³ vii. 5, 3. Possibly, in some cases, the palisade was no more than a hedge of thorn or a row of stakes (cf. Rv. x. 101, 8), as suggested by Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 143, 145; and cf. Rv. viii. 53, 5, as corrected by Roth, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 48, 109.

Cf. Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 142-148, who compares the fact that neither the Germans (Tacitus, Germania, 16) nor the Slavs (Procopius, De bello Gotico, iii. 14) lived in towns, but, like the ancient Indians, were scattered in villages, each consisting of the houses and steadings of the several families living in the village. The evidence seems pretty convincing. It is true that the Greeks, when we first find them, evidently knew castles and fortresses of the mediaeval type; but the Greeks were clearly an invading race, superimposed on an older and in civilization more advanced people (see, e.g., Burrows, Discoveries in Crete). But the Pur may, as Zimmer allows, have sometimes been built within the limits of the village. Whether, as he urges (144), the śārādi pur was a protection against the floods of autumn is uncertain. Cf. Rv. i. 131, 4; 174, 2; vi. 20, 10. In particular, it is not legitimate to connect the mention of those forts with the fact that the Pūrus
lived on either side of the Sindhu (Indus), and to assume that Purukutsa’s attack on the aborigines was directed against the forts in which they normally protected themselves on the rising of the river. No argument for the large size of cities can be drawn from the mention in the Kāthaka Upaniṣad, v. 1, of chāḍātā-vāra as an epithet of Puru (cf. Śvetāsvatara Upaniṣad, iii. 18: nava-vāra pura, ‘the citadel of nine doors’), because it is used meta-

**Puramdhí** occurs in the Rigveda,\(^1\) possibly as the name of a woman, a protégée of the Āsvins, who gave her a son, Hiranya-hasta.


**Puraya** is the name of a patron celebrated in a Dānastuti (‘Praise of Gifts’) in the Rigveda.\(^2\)

\(^{1}\) vi. 63, 9. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 158.

1. **Purāṇa**, denoting a tale ‘of olden times,’ is often found\(^1\) in the combination Itihasa-Purāṇa, which is probably a Dvandva compound meaning ‘Itihasa and Purāṇa.’ It sometimes\(^2\) occurs as a separate word, but beside Itihasa, no doubt with the same sense as in the Dvandva. Sāyaṇa\(^3\) defines a Purāṇa as a tale which deals with the primitive condition of the universe and the creation of the world, but there is no ground for supposing that this view is correct, or for clearly distinguishing Itihasa and Purāṇa. See *Itihasa*.

\(^{1}\) Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xi. 5, 6, 8; Chāndogya Upaniṣad, iii. 4, i. 2; vii. i, 2, 4; 2, 1; 7, 1.
\(^{2}\) Av. xv. 6, 4; Satapatha Brāhmaṇa, xiii. 4, 3, 13; Bhāḍāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, ii 4, 10; iv. 1, 2; 5, 11; Taittiriya Āraṇyaka, ii. 9; Jaiminīya Upaniṣad Brāhmaṇa, i. 53; Purāṇa-veda: Śāṅkhāyana Śrauta Sūtra, xvi. 2, 27; Purāṇa-vidyā: Āśvalāyana Śrauta Sūtra, x. 7, etc.
\(^{3}\) Introduction to Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, cited by St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.

2. **Purāṇa** is the name of a Ṛṣi in the Kāṭhaka Saṃhitā (**xxxix. 7**).
Purikutsa] A WATER ANIMAL—A VICTORIOUS KING 541

Purikaya is the name of a water animal in the Atharvaveda,¹ being clearly a variant of the name that appears as Pulikaya in the Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā,² and as Kulipaya in the Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā,³ and as Kulikaya in the Taittiriya Brāhmaṇa,⁴ What animal is meant is quite unknown.

¹ xi. 2, 25.
² iii. 14. 2. Pulikā, ibid., 5, is a variant of Kulikā.
³ xxiv. 21. 35.
⁴ v. 5, 13, 1.


Purisini is found in a hymn of the Rigveda¹ apparently either as the name of a river,² or much more probably as an epithet of the Sarayu,³ meaning, perhaps, 'abounding in water,' 'swollen,'⁴ or 'carrying rubble.'⁵

¹ v. 53, 9.
² An alternative suggested by Roth, St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
³ Zimmer, Altindisches Leben, 17; Geldner, Rigveda, Glossar, iii.
⁴ Geldner, loc. cit.
⁵ Roth, loc. cit.

Puru-kutsa is the name of a king who is mentioned several times in the Rigveda. In one passage he is mentioned as a contemporary of Sudās, but whether as a foe, according to Ludwig,² or merely as a contemporary, according to Hillebrandt,³ is uncertain. In two other passages⁴ he is mentioned as victorious by divine favour, and in another⁵ he appears as a king of the Pūrus and a conqueror of the Dāsas. His son was Trasadasyu,⁶ who is accordingly called Paurukutsya⁷ or Paurukutsi.⁸ Different conclusions have been drawn from one hymn of the Rigveda⁹ in which the birth of Purukutsa's son,

¹ i. 63, 7.
² Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 174. emending sudāśe in the text to sudāsam, plausibly, but not, of course, convincingly.
⁴ i. 112, 7, 14; 174, 2.
⁵ vi. 20, 10. Cf. i. 63, 7, where Puru also is mentioned. Ludwig suggests reading in vi. 20, 10, saudāśiḥ for dāśiḥ, referring to the forts of Sudās; but this must be regarded as illegitimate. Cf. Oldenberg, Zeitschrift, 53, 330.
⁶ Rv. iv. 42, 8. 9.
⁷ Rv. v. 33, 8; vii. 19, 36.
⁸ Rv. vii. 19, 3.
⁹ Rv. iv. 42, 8. 9, with Sāyaṇa's note; Muir, Sanskrit Texts, 1, 266, 267.
Trasadasyu, is mentioned. The usual interpretation is that Purukutsa was killed in battle or captured, whereupon his wife secured a son to restore the fortunes of the Pürus. But Sieg\(^1\) offers a completely different interpretation. According to him the word daurgahe, which occurs in the hymn, and which in the ordinary view is rendered ‘descendant of Durgaha,’ an ancestor of Purukutsa, is the name of a horse, the hymn recording the success of an Aśvamedha (‘horse sacrifice’) undertaken by Purukutsa for his wife, as by kings in later times, to secure a son. This interpretation is supported by the version of daurgahe given in the Śatapatha,\(^11\) but is by no means certain. Moreover, if Purukutsa was a contemporary of Sudās, the defeat of the Pürus by Sudās in the Dāsarājina\(^12\) might well have been the cause of the troubles from which Purukutsānī, by the birth of Trasadasyu, rescued the family. In the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa\(^13\) Purukutsa is called an Aikṣvākā.

Purukutsānī, ‘wife of Purukutsa,’ is mentioned as the mother of Trasadasyu in one hymn of the Rigveda (iv. 42, 9).

Puru-ñitha Śāta-vaneyā (‘descendant of Śatavani’) is the name of a sacrificer, or perhaps a priest, a Bhāradvāja, in the Rigveda.\(^1\) It is doubtful whether he is also mentioned as a singer in another passage of the Rigveda.\(^2\) In both places Roth\(^3\) sees in Puru-ñitha merely a word meaning ‘choral song.’

Puru-dama occurs in the plural in the Atharvaveda,\(^1\) where, according to Ludwig,\(^2\) it is probably the proper name of the singers, but by Roth\(^3\) and Whitney\(^4\) is understood as merely an adjective meaning ‘possessed of many houses.’

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\(^1\) Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 96-102.
\(^2\) Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 160; Oldenberg, Rgveda-Noten, 1, 60.
\(^3\) St. Petersburg Dictionary, s.v.
\(^4\) Translation of the Atharvaveda, xxv.

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10 Die Sagenstoffe des Rgveda, 96-102. 11 xiii. 5, 4, 5. 12 vii. 18. 13 xiii. 5, 4, 5.
Puru-panthā is mentioned as a generous donor to a Bharadvāja in one hymn of the Rigveda (vi. 63, 10).

Puru-māyya occurs in one hymn of the Rigveda as a protégé of Indra. It is quite possible that he was the father of, or at least connected with, Atithigva, Rkṣa, and Aśvamedha, who are celebrated in the hymn.

Puru-mithra is mentioned twice in the Rigveda (i. 117, 20; x. 39, 7) as the father of a maiden who wedded Vimada, apparently against her father's will.

Puru-milha is mentioned twice in the Rigveda as an ancient sage, in which capacity he appears in the Atharvaveda also. Perhaps the same Purumilha is intended in an obscure hymn in the Rigveda, where, according to the legends reported in the Brhaddevatā and by Saḍguruśīya in his commentary on the Sarvānukramaṇi, and by Sāyaṇa in his commentary on the Rigveda, he as well as Taranta was a son of Vidadāśva, and a patron of the singer Śyāvāśva. The correctness of the legend has been shown to be most improbable by Oldenberg, who points out that the legend misinterprets the Rigveda by making Purumilha a Vaidadaśvi, for he is there only compared in generosity to one.

In another legend found in the Pañcavimsa Brāhmaṇa, and based on a hymn of the Rigveda, Purumilha and Taranta appear as persons who received gifts from Dhvasra and Puruṣanti, and as sons of Vidadāśva. The legend, which also occurs in the Śātyāyanaka, is apparently best explained by

1 viii. 68, 10. Cf. Ludwig, Translation of the Rigveda, 3, 163.
Sieg, who says that as the two were kings they could not under the rules of caste accept gifts, unless for the nonce they became singers. The legend has no claim at all, as Oldenberg shows, to validity.

13 Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, 42, 232, n. 1. He points out, *Rgveda-Noten*, 1, 354, that the legend is not accepted by the *Anukramaṇī* (Index), since its list of authors gives Avatsāra as the Rṣi, not the two Taranta and Purumṛtha.

END OF VOL. I.