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SANSKRIT KāLā- « TIME », DRAVIDIAN KāL « LEG », AND THE MYTHICAL COW OF THE FOUR YUGAS

With some reservation expressed through the word « wohl ». Manfred Mayrhofer in his Concise Etymological Sanskrit Dictionary 1 decides for the Indo-European etymology of the Sanskrit word kālá- m. « time » proposed by F.B.J. Kuiper, referring in support of this view also to the publications of V. Machek and H.W. Bailey. The said explanation derives $k\bar{a}l\acute{a}$ - from the Indo-European root *q"el- « to move », under the hypothesis that «time» was conceived as «turning around»: Old Church Slavonic vrěme « time », which is a derivative of the root *wert- « to turn » is quoted as an analogy, and reference is also made to phrases mentioning the turning of the wheel of time in Indian literature, e.g. kālacakram pravartate in the Mahābhārata (4,1607). In addition to this etymology, Mayrhofer mentions (in smaller print) a number of other explanations which, however, seem to him for one reason or another less preferable. In this paper, I am not going to discuss the Indo-European etymologies in any greater detail, nor to adduce arguments against them other than the general remark that they all suffer from the lack in the other Indo-European languages of cognate works having the meaning « time », as well as from the absence of this word in the old portions of the Rgveda. The word kālá- is namely attested in the Rgveda only once, in the tenth book, which is admittedly much later than the main body of the collection².

Instead, my intention is to present some positive evidence in favour of a Dravidian derivation which was suggested by H. Gundert in a

^{1.} Manfred Mayrhofer, Kurzgefasstes etymologisches Wörterbuch des Sanskrit, I, Heidelberg, 1956, p. 202 f.

^{2.} Cf., e.g., Jacob Wackernagel, Altindische Grammatik: Introduction générale, nouvelle édition du texte paru en 1896, au tome I, par Louis Renou, Göttingen, 1957, p. 4 ff., with the notes a.l.

footnote to his paper entitled « Die dravidischen Elemente im Sanskrit », which was published over a century ago in 1869³. Gundert remarked:

« S. $k\bar{a}la$ schwarz, im Süden immer $k\bar{a}la$ gesprochen, stammt von D. $k\bar{a}\lambda$ "Schwärze", dem Verbalnomen von \sqrt{kar} , schwarz sein. Anders erkläre ich $k\bar{a}la$ Zeit, welches einfach aus D. $k\bar{a}l$ "Fuss, Viertel, Ort, Zeit" ($oruk\bar{a}l$ einmal, je) entlehnt scheint. » (p. 520, n. 1)

Mayrhofer refers to this note with the following words:

« Ansprechend, aber wegen des Alters und der schwerlich entlehnten Bedeutung von $k\bar{a}l\dot{a}$ - kaum vertretbar ist Gunderts Herleitung (ZDMG 23, 520, Anm. 1) aus drav. * $k\bar{a}l$ (kan. $k\bar{a}l$ usw.) "Fuss, Viertel, Zeit"; für dravidische Herkunft von $k\bar{a}l\dot{a}$ - auch M. Collins, Dravidic Studies (Univ. of Madras) 4, 7 » (I, p. 203).

I shall here pass by the major part of Marc Collins' paper mentioned by Mayrhofer, which is entitled On the Octaval System of Reckoning in India (Madras, 1926, Dravidic Studies, I). Collins' suggestions on the etymological connection between a large number of words supposedly derived from Dravidian $k\bar{a}l/kal$ (p. 3-16) in my opinion remain unconvincing; his conclusion that the word $k\bar{a}l(am)$ « time » originally stood for the moon as the great time measurer also differs from my contention.

Some statements by Collins 4 , however, give occasion to remarks concerning the phonetic and morphological shape of the respective Dravidian words $k\bar{a}l$ and $k\bar{a}lam$ meaning « time », which will be listed below. $K\bar{a}l$ is in full agreement with one of the basic types of Proto-

^{3. «} Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft », Bd. 23 (1869), pp. 517-530.

^{4.} Because Collins' study is not so easily accessible, I quote the respective passage here in extenso: (p. 6 f.) « Then there are the words kāl and kālam, meaning 'time'. The first of these is hardly an independent word. It is used either (1) as a particle which, in composition with a preceding verbal form, becomes a substitute for what in an Indo-germanic language would be a conjunction ('when' etc.), or (2) in composition with oru, 'one', with the meaning 'once, sometimes': in Malayalam this last appears also as ori-kkal, with kāl shortened to kal [footnote omitted]. The second, $k\bar{a}lam$, is the ordinary word for 'time', and denotes also 'day-break'. This word, however, unlike $k\bar{a}l$ (kal), which can hardly be regarded as other than purely Dravidic, is ambiguous. The termination -am is, of course, not to be confounded with the similar neuter termination of Sanskrit. It belongs certainly to Tamil and has counterpart in the other Dravidic languages. It forms primary and secondary derivatives such as nil-am 'ground, land, earth', from nil, 'stand'; mar-am, 'evil, sin', by the side of maru, 'spot, blemish'; in-p-am, 'delight', by the side of in-pu, 'delight', from in, 'sweet'; ner-am, 'time' from an early nayir[u], later nayiru, 'sun'. It is also made the distinctive ending of nouns denoting inanimate objects borrowed from Sanskrit, when the Sanskrit noun ended in the nominative singular in -as (in pause -ah) whether they were neuter, as manam, 'mind' [footnote omitted], from Skt. manas, or masculine, as pākam, 'share', from Skt. 'bhāga'. It is clear that kālam might well be a tatsama of Skt. kāla, 'time'. But whether it is a tatsama of this word or not, it cannot, I feel, be separated from kāl, 'time': in other words Skt. kāla (like Skt. kalā) must be regarded as Dravidic in origin ».

Dravidian roots (which may function as both verbs and nouns), namely C∇C, occurring normally free in this particular shape 5. Also all its phonemes are reconstructed for Proto-Dravidian, and can there occur in these very positions 6. These points are most eloquently proved by the entirely homophonous word kāl meaning « leg », which occurs in practically all Dravidian languages and which will be discussed in a moment. With regard to kālam, Collins is certainly right in observing that the ending -am is a genuine Dravidian suffix of non-rational nouns: it can be shown to go back to Proto-Dravidian 7. Normally, « when a derivative vowel is added to [the root of the type] (C) \bar{V} C-, the radical vowel is shortened and the type falls together with (C)VC- », which « can occur free and bound »: «this morphophonemic shortening of long radical vowels occurs in most Dr. languages » 8. Yet there are numerous parallels to show that also kālam in spite of its long vowel can be genuine Dravidian, cf. e.g. kōl « raft, float » and kōlam « id. » (DED 1853) 9, or nān « sense of shame, bashfulness » and nānam « id. » (DED 3014).

The chronological difficulty that restrained Mayrhofer from accepting the possibility of a Dravidian etymology has effectively been set aside in the meanwhile, for it has been proved beyond doubt that the Vedic texts, including the family books of the Rgveda, bear evidence of a Dravidian substratum influence 10. Both textual-linguistic and archaeological evidence suggest that the Aryans who brought the Rgvedic poetry to India were preceded by earlier waves of Aryan immigrants who had arrived at India many centuries earlier. The Dravidisms of the Veda seem to be derived from the speech of these earlier Aryans, who had fused with the North-Dravidian speaking descendants of the Indus civilization: this hybrid tradition of pre-Rgvedic India seems to be represented by the new clements that come to the surface in the second phase of the Vedic literature (i.e. the late books of the Rgveda, the Atharvaveda, and the Brāhmana texts, including the Samhitās of the Yajurveda) as well as the much later fixed Epic texts. These new elements are both ideologically and dialectally different from the old

^{5.} Cf. Kamil Zvelebil, Comparative Dravidian Phonology, The Hague, 1970 (Janua Linguarum, Series practica 80), p. 35, and id., Problèmes fondamentaux de phonologie et morphologie des langues dravidiennes in «Bulletin de l'École française d'Extrême-Orient » 60, 1973, p. 1-48, esp. pp. 25-35 « Les racines dravidiennes monosyllabiques ».

^{6.} Cf. Zvelebil, 1970 (n. 5), p. 35 f., 76 f.

^{7.} Cf. S. V. Shanmugam, *Dravidian nouns (A comparative study*), Annamalainagar, 1971 (Annamalai University, Department of Linguistics, Publication No. 25), p. 244 f

^{8.} Cf. Zvelebil, 1970 (n. 5), p. 35 and 36. Cf. also Zvelebil, 1973 (n. 5), pp. 36-48 « Alternances morphophonemiques dans les bases radicales du dravidien ».

^{9.} DED(S) = T. Burrow and M. B. Emeneau, A. Dravidian Etymological Dictionary, Oxford 1961; id., Supplement, Oxford 1968. Cf. also T. Burrow and M. B. Emeneau, Dravidian Etymological Notes: Supplement to DED, DEDS, and DBIA, Pt. 1-2, in « Journal of American Oriental Society », 92, 1972, pp. 397-418 and 475-491.

^{10.} Cf. particularly F. B. J. Kuiper, *The genesis of a linguistic area*, in «Indo-Iranian Journal», 10: 2/3, 1967, p. 81-102.

Rgveda. I cannot here go further into these questions, but refer the reader to a more extensive discussion published elsewhere 11.

From the phonetical, morphological, and chronological point of view $k\bar{a}l$ and $k\bar{a}lam$ could, hence, be genuine Dravidian words and forms, while the semantic aspect about which Mayrhofer also had qualms will be the chief issue of this paper. However, if one accepts an Indo-European derivation (which has its weaknesses, as noted above), it is possible to consider both forms only as Dravidian adaptations of the borrowed Indo-Aryan word. This is, in fact, the point of view adopted by T. Burrow and M.B. Emeneau, who have excluded the etymon $k\bar{a}l/k\bar{a}lam$ « time » from their *Dravidian Etymological Dictionary* 9, and grouped it separately in the publication entitled *Dravidian Borrowings from Indo-Aryan* 12 as item no. 97. We shall in a moment return to the attestations recorded there from eight Dravidian languages which in addition to the purely Southern group comprise also Tuļu and Telugu; at least the latter is a Central Dravidian language heavily influenced by South Dravidian 13.

On the other hand, the homophone $k\bar{a}l$ « leg, foot, quarter » mentioned in this connection by Gundert, has been recognized by Burrow and Emeneau as a different etymon of genuine Dravidian origin and included in the DED (item no. 1238), which together with its two supplements 9 provides us with the following material:

Tami
l $k\bar{a}l$ leg, foot, base (of tree), quarter, family, relationship Malayā
lam $k\bar{a}l$ leg, foot, stem, pillar, quarter

Kōta kāl leg, foot, base (of tree), quarter

Toda $k\bar{o}l$ leg, foot, quarter, family; $m\bar{e}n$ $g\bar{o}\underline{s}$ shade (lit. foot) of tree; $k\bar{o}lk$ ir- (child) sits on mother's leg to defecate; $k\bar{o}\underline{s}$ excrement

Kannada kāl foot, leg down to the knee, quarter

Kodagu *kāli* leg, foot, quarter Tulu *kāru* leg, foot; *kālu* quarter

Telugu *kālu* leg, foot, quarter; *kālari* foot-soldier ¹⁴

Kölāmī (Kin.) kāl leg, foot

Parjī kēl (pl. kēlul) leg

Gabdā (Oll.) kāl (pl. kālgil) leg

12. DBIA = M. B. EMENEAU AND T. BURROW, Dravidian Burrowings from Indo-Aryan, Berkeley and Los Angeles, 1962 (University of California Publications in Linguistics, Vol. 26).

^{11.} Cf. Asko Parpola, On the protohistory of the Indian languages in the light of archaelogical, linguistic and religious evidence: an attempt at integration, in South Asian Archaeology 1973, ed. by J. E. van Lohuizen-de Leeuw and J. M. M. Ubaghs, Leiden, 1974, pp. 90-100.

^{13.} Both Tulu and Telugu have, until recently, been considered as Central Dravidian languages, though with some reservation in regard to Tulu; cf. e.g. M. B. EMENEAU, The South Dravidian Languages, in Proceedings of the First International Conference Seminar of Tamil Studies, Kuala Lumpur - Malaysia, April 1966, Vol. II, Kuala Lumpur, 1969, pp. 563-571, p. 563. P. S. Subrahmanyam, The Position of Tulu in Dravidian, in « Indian linguistics » 29, 1968, pp. 47-66, however, argues that Tulu is in fact the earliest offshoot of South Dravidian.

14. Cf. also Ta.Ma.Ka. kāl-āļ 'foot-soldier, infantry', and Ta. kālōr 'infantry'.

Gōṇḍī kāl foot, leg Konḍa kāl leg Pēngo kāl leg Manḍa kāl leg Kuī kāḍu leg, foot Kuvi (P.) kālu (pl. kālka) leg

? Brāhūī trikkal tripod of three sticks on which tent its hung.

 $K\bar{a}l$ « leg » is thus known from 18 Dravidian languages representing all the principal branches, which shows beyond any doubt that this word is very ancient in Dravidian. In the Indo-Aryan languages, on the other hand, there is no similar word with these meanings, so that the possibility of a borrowing from Indo-Aryan is in this case totally excluded. This fact is important, for my endeavour in the following is to show that $k\bar{a}l$ (and $k\bar{a}lam$) « time » is a derivative of this word, and hence originally Dravidian.

The meaning «leg», which is attested for all the languages, is obviously the primary one. The meaning «quarter» is clearly also relatively old. In Tamil it occurs already in the Cankam texts composed during the first half of the first millennium AD, cf. e.g. *Paripātal* 3, 77-80:

pāleṇak kāleṇap pākeṇa voṇreṇa iraṇṭeṇa mūṇṛeṇa nāṇkeṇa vainteṇa āṛeṇa vēleṇa veṭṭeṇat toṇṭeṇa nālvakai yūliyen ṇaviṛuñ ciṛappiṇai « O (lit., emptiness), 1/4, 1/2, 1,/2,3,4,5,/6,7,8,9,/: (you, Tirumāl, have) the excellence expressed by the numbers of the ages [Skt. yuga] of four kinds ».

The word $k\bar{a}l$ is commonly used for any sort of quarter, and it is attested in this meaning in all the six purely South Dravidian languages from which the word is known, and in addition in Tulu and Telugu. Since evidence from North Dravidian in particular but also from Central Dravidian, which both consist of tribal languages, is very scanty, it is in my opinion not quite legitimate to draw the conclusion that this semantic development has taken place in South Dravidian only. I think some indirect evidence can be adduced to testify the presence of the meaning « quarter » in early North Dravidian as well. I mean the evidence supplied by what seems to be a calque or translation loan in the second layer of the Vedic literature. Before proceeding to the examination of this evidence, I should like to draw attention to a Dravidian word which the DED (no. 1243) has listed separately, but which appears to be a derivative of $k\bar{a}l$ « leg ». This word, so far attested from Tamil and Malayāļam only, is $k\bar{a}li$, which in Tamil means « cow 15, herd of

^{15.} According to the $TL=Tamil\ Lexicon$ published under the authority of the University of Madras, 6 vols. and supplement, Madras, 1924-1939, attested in $T\bar{e}v\bar{a}-ram$ 745,3.

cows (as being quadrupeds) 16 », and in Malayāļam « cow, cattle, shebuffalo ». Cf. also Tamil $k\bar{a}l$ - $m\bar{a}tu$ « cattle $[=m\bar{a}tu]$ as distinguished from $m\bar{a}tu$ meaning gold » 17 .

It seems obvious to me (as it apparently has seemed to Burrow and Emeneau) that $k\bar{a}l$ « quarter » is derived from $k\bar{a}l$ « leg », and that the semantic connection is provided by cattle and other quadrupeds having four legs. The word catuspad « quadruped » is a regular name for animals in all parts of the Rgveda, where it is often contrasted with dvipad « biped » denoting human beings 18 . In the $Br\bar{a}hman$ texts four-footed cattle is the standard symbol for number four, cf. the following passages:

catuṣpādo vai paśavaḥ, Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā 1,5,10; 3,2,1; 3,7,5 catuṣpādā vai paśavaḥ, Aitareya-Brāhmaṇa 5,3; Aitareya-Āraṇyaka 1,1,2

catuṣpadā vai paśavaḥ, Jaiminīya-Brāhmaṇa 1,160 catuṣpādaḥ paśavaḥ, Taittirīya-Brāhmaṇa 2,1,3,5 catuṣpādāḥ paśavaḥ, Paṇcaviṃśa-Brāhmaṇa 3,8,3; Aitareya-

Brāhmaṇa 2,18; 3,31; 5,17; 5,19; 6,2

atho catuspādah paśavah, Gopatha-Brāhmana 2,1,4; 2,3,16 catustayā vai paśavo 'tha catuspādāh « cattle are fourfold and also

four-footed », Kauṣītaki-Brāhmaṇa 16,3,11; 16,28,10; 16,29,8 tad ye catuṣpādāḥ paśavas, tair..., Satapatha-Brāhmaṇa 6,8,2,7 catuṣpadā ¹⁹ vā aśvās santaś catuśśaphāḥ; te ye catuṣpadāḥ ¹⁹ paśavaś catuśśaphās tān evaitenāvarunddhe... catuṣpadā ¹⁹ vai paśavo vairājāḥ; te ye catuṣpadāḥ ¹⁹ paśavo vairājās

tān..., Jaiminīya-Brāhmaṇa 2,173

somas caturakṣarayā (°reṇa TS) catuṣpadaḥ pasūn udajanat, Kāthaka 14,4; Maitrāyaṇī Saṃhitā 1,11,10; Taittirīya-Saṃhitā 1,7,11,1

catasro diśaś, catuspadāh 20 paśavah, Jaiminīya-Brāhmana 1,131; 2,431 diśah pādāh « the (four cardinal) directions are the feet

(of the cosmic sacrificial horse) », Taittirīya-Samhitā 7,5,25,1

rtubhir iti catus, catuspada eva pasūn prīnāti... rtubhir iti catus, tasmāc catuspādah pasava rtūn upa jīvanti

"For the seasons', four times (he says); verily he delights

17. TL citing S.I.I. II, 2, 49.

20. In 1, 131 the ed. (n. 19) reads $catusp\bar{a}d\bar{a}h$ against o $pad\bar{a}h$ in the MSS. Ya, Va, Sa.

^{16.} Note this explanation given in TL but omitted in DED.

^{18.} Cf. Hermann Grassmann, Wörterbuch zum Rig-Veda, Leipzig, 1873 (-1875), and A. A. Macdonell and A. B. Keith, Vedic Index of Names and Subjects, London, 1912, s.v.

^{19.} Jaiminiya-Brahmana of the Samaveda, complete text critically edited for the first time by Raghu Vira and Lokesh Chandra, Nagpur, 1954 (Sarasvati-Vihara Series, 31), reads catuṣpādā(h) in these cases, but in all except the first of them the MSS. Kha and Ga are recorded to have the reading catuṣpadā(h)

four-footed cattle... 'For the seasons', four times (he says); therefore four- footed cattle depend upon the seasons » (transl. A. B. Keith), $Taittir\bar{\imath}ya$ -Saṃhitā 6,5,3,2.

It is but natural to call cattle or horse «four-footed», and the parallel expressions in other Indo-European languages such as Latin quadrupes m.f. « four-footed animal, esp. horse » and Greek τετράπους « four-footed » (used of cattle and other animals, and as n. subst. « quadruped, beast ») make it likely that Vedic catuspad is an old inherited word. It is, on the other hand, interesting and significant to note that Latin pes « foot (of men and animals) » and Greek πούς « id. » do not have the meaning « quarter » 21, which Sanskrit pad-, pada- and pāda- « foot » have, and which is first attested in the late books of the Rgveda. Here (1,164,23) as usually in the later Veda, these words are used in the restricted meaning of a « quarter of a verse » 22. This seems to stay in relation to the fact that the Indo-European cognates (Lat. pes, Gr. πούς, etc.) do have the meaning of « prosodical or metrical foot » and « foot » as a measure of length. Already in the famous purusa hymn (Rgveda-Samhitā 10,90,3-4: Atharvaveda-Samhitā 19,6,3.2), however, « foot » clearly means « quarter » in general: pādo 'sya viśvā bhūtāni, tripād asyāmŕtam diví « a foot of him is all beings; three feet of him are what is immortal in the sky » (transl. W.D. Whitney). Similarly, in Satapatha-Brāhmana 11,3,3,3, it is said of a Brāhmana entering on a Brahmacārin's life: caturdhā bhutāni praviśati: agnim padā mṛtyum padācāryam padātmany evāsya caturthah pādah parisisyate « He enters beings in four parts: with one fourth part (he enters) the fire, with another part death, with another part his religious teacher; and his fourth part remains in his own self » (transl. Eggeling). There are plenty of further references, but I would like to quote just two more from the Veda. One is Yāska's Nirukta, where we are expressly told that the word pādah also signifies a quarter of division and that from the analogy of a quadruped: paśupādaprakrtih prabhāgapādah (2,7).

Another very interesting reference is the bargain for soma in the course of the soma sacrifice 23 , where the « monetary » unit is a cow. The respective passage of the *Satapatha-Brāhmaṇa* (3,3,3,1 ff.) reads in Eggeling's translation as follows:

«1. He bargains for the king (Soma)... He says, 'Soma-seller, is thy king Soma for sale?' — 'He is for sale', says the Soma-seller. — 'I will buy him of thee!'. — 'Buy him!' says the Soma-seller. — 'I

^{21.} Cf. e.g. Hermann Menge, Menge-Gühtling: Enzyklopädisches Wörterbuch der lateinischen und deutschen Sprache I, 11. Aufl., Berlin, 1959, and H. G. Liddell and R. Scott, A Greek-English Lexicon, new ed. by Jones and R. McKenzie, Oxford, 1940, s.v.

^{22.} References in O. Böhtlingk and R. Roth, Sanskrit-Wörterbuch, 4. Theil, St. Petersburg, 1865, s.vv.

^{23.} Cf. W. CALAND and V. HENRY, L'agnistoma, Paris, 1906-07, § 33.

will buy him of thee for one-sixteenth (of the cow)'. — King Soma, surely, is worth more than that!', says the Soma-seller. — 'Yea, King Soma is worth more than that; but great, surely, is the greatness of the cow', says the Adhvaryu.

- 2. 'From the cow (comes) fresh milk, from her boiled milk, from her cream, from her sour curds, from her sour cream, from her curdled milk, from her butter, from her ghee, from her clotted curds, from her whey'.
- 3. 'I will buy him of thee for one hoof!'. King Soma, surely, is worth more than that!' says the Soma-seller. 'Yea, King Soma is worth more than that, but great, surely, is the greatness of the cow', replies the Adhvaryu; and having (each time) enumerated the same ten virtues, he says, 'I will buy him of thee for one foot' 'for half (the cow)' 'for the cow!'. King Soma has been bought!' says the Soma-seller...
- 4. And as to his bargaining five times: the sacrifice being of equal measure with the year, and there being five seasons in the year, he thus obtains it (the Sacrifice, Soma) in five (divisions), and therefore he bargains five times ».

Kātyāna's $Srautas\bar{u}tra$ (7,8,6-10), of course, records the same series: 1/16 ($kal\bar{a}$), 1/8 (sapha), 1/4 (pad), 1/2 (ardha), 1/1 (gauh). The $Taittir\bar{i}ya$ $S\bar{u}tras$ (e.g. $\bar{A}pastamba$ 10,25,4-9) have a slightly different practice: 1/16 ($kal\bar{a}$), 1/12 ($ku\bar{s}th\bar{a}$), 1/8 (sapha), 1/4 (pad), and 1/1.

The above evidence clearly proves the intimate relationship between the meaning « quarter » and « \log » or « foot », especially cow's foot. But let us now turn to the Dravidian attestations of the words $k\bar{a}l$ and $k\bar{a}lam$ « time » collected by Emeneau and Burrow (DBIA no. 97) ²⁴:

Tami<u>l</u> *kālam*, *kālai* time, season, opportune moment; *kāl* time; bloom, freshness, beauty; turn

Malayālam kālam time, season, year; kāl time

Kōta kālm (obl. kālt-) time, opportunity

Toda kölm (obl. költ-) time; mun göstk in ancient times

Kannada $k\bar{a}la$ time, year, season; $k\bar{a}l$ time, opportunity

Koḍagu kāla year

Tulu kāla time, season

Telugu kālamu time, season, opportunity.

It may be noted that $k\bar{a}l$ « time » is known in Tamil from the earliest lexicographer Pingala (latter part of the first millennium AD), but in the sense of « Kāla, Yama » already from the Cankam texts ($Ainkurun\bar{u}ru$ 116,4); in modern Tamil $k\bar{a}l$ normally occurs only as an ending of the

^{24.} There are no additions in the supplement of JAOS 92 (n. 9).

verbal participle, meaning « if, provided, while, when » 25 (cf. Pāli tassa $\bar{a}gatak\bar{a}le$, the well known example of a non-Indo-Aryan construction, which has been compared with Tamil avan vanta polutu 26 : but for polutu it seems more appropriate to say $k\bar{a}l!$) and in the idiomatic compound with numeral one, oru-(k- $)k\bar{a}l$ « once, sometimes, perhaps » 27 . The word $k\bar{a}lam$ is attested from the Old Tamil text $Cilappatik\bar{a}ram$ (16, 167 and 184).

I place much importance on the fact that out of the eight Dravidian languages from which the word $k\bar{a}l/k\bar{a}lam$ « time » is known, five at least use it also in the specific meaning « season ». Compare further the following Tamil expressions ²⁸:

kāla-k-kuri « seasonal indications, signs of weather »;

kālattāl adv. « seasonably, in proper time » (Kuraļ 686);

kālam « wet-season, crop, opposite to kōṭai » (local usage);

 $k\bar{a}la$ -p-payir « lit., seasonal crop, wet-season crop, opp. to $k\bar{o}$ tai-p-payir;

kāla-pōkam « crop of grain, fruit, etc., proper to a season »;

kālam-pār « to look out for a suitable time, watch for an opportunity » (Kampa-Rāmāyaṇa);

kālam-pera adv. « at the right time; early in the morning »;

kāla-mayakku « (gramm.) deviation in the use of tenses sanctioned by usage; (akap.) theme of a confidante convincing the heroine that the winter season when her lord should return has not arrived, though it is actually otherwise »;

kālam-allā-k-kālam « unseasonable, improper time »;

kāla-maļai « seasonal rain »;

 $k\bar{a}la$ -v- $\bar{a}ku$ -peyar « (gramm.) noun literally signifying time or season used figuratively to denote anything connected therewith, as the month $k\bar{a}rttikai$ for a plant which blossoms in that month ».

The meaning « season » figures fairly prominently also in Indo-Aryan. In the Neo-Indo-Aryan languages, meanings of $k\bar{a}l(a)$ which have a large distribution are « time, year, season, famine, death », and of these the meaning « season » is recorded for Kasmiri, Nepali, Assamese and Bengali ²⁹. In the following I quote all the meanings of Sanskrit $k\bar{a}l\acute{a}h$ « time » given by Monier-Williams's Sanskrit-English Dictionary (2 ed., Oxford, 1899), leaving out only some constructions, examples and references:

^{25.} TL s.v. $k\bar{a}l^5$: 2, citing Nālaṭiyār 123; cf. also Collins, quoted above, n. 4.

^{26.} Kuiper, 1967 (n. 10), p. 83.
27. Several Tamilians known to me consistently make the mistake of saying «sometimes» (= orukāl) in English when they mean «perhaps».

^{28.} Cited from the TL.
29. Cf. R. L. Turner, A Comparative Dictionary of the Indo-Aryan Languages, London, 1966, no. 3084.

« a fixed or right point of time, a space of time, time (in general), AV. xix, 53 & 54; SBr. & c.;

the proper time or season for (...) SBr.; MBh. & c.;

occasion, circumstance, MBh. xii, 2950; Mrcch.;

season, R. & c.;

meal time;

hour;

a period of time, time of the world (=yuga), Rājat.;

measure of time, prosody, Prāt., Pān;

a section, part, VPrāt.;

the end, ChUp.;

death by age, Suśr.;

time (as leading to events, the causes of which are imperceptible to mind of man), destiny, fate, MBh.; R., & c.;

time (as destroying all things), death, time of death (often personified and represented with the attributes of Yama, regent of the dead, or even identified with him) ».

Compare further the following compounds and derivatives:

kāla-jña- adj. « knowing the fixed times or seasons », Mn. vii, 217; Ragh. xii, 33;

 $k\bar{a}la$ - $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ - n. « knowledge of the fixed times or seasons », Jyot.; VP.;

kāla-dharma- m. « the law or operation of time, death, dying, MBh.; Hariv.; R.; line of conduct suitable to any time or season; influence of time, seasonableness; effects suited to the time or season »;

kāla-prabhāta- n. « the dawning of the best season, i.e. the two months following the rainy season, autumn », L.;

kāla-vidvas- « knowing the season, a maker of calendars », Var. BṛS.;

kāle-ja- « born or produced in due season », Pāņ. vi, 3,15;

kālotpādita- « produced in due season »;

kālopta- « sown in due season », Mn. ix, 39;

 $k\bar{a}lika$ - « relating to or connected with or depending on time », $Bh\bar{a}s\bar{a}p$.; « fit for any particular season, seasonable », MBh. iii, 868; lasting a long time, $P\bar{a}n$. v, 1,108;

kālya- « timely, seasonable », Pān. v, 1,107; « being in a particular period », Gaṇap.; n. « day-break », acc. loc. ind. « at day-break », R.; Suśr.

As already pointed out in the beginning, there is only one single Rgvedic occurrence, in the late 10th book, a fact that strongly suggests that this word $k\bar{a}l\dot{a}$ - has intruded into the language of the Rgvedic poetry only after its introduction into India. The context in the first

half of the verse 10,42,9 which with slight variants recurs in the Atharvaveda (7.50.6), is the dice-playing: utá prahům atidivya jayāti kṛtáṃ yác chvaghnt vicinóti kālé (AS utá prahám atidīvā jayati krtám iva śvaghni vicinóti kāle). Even if there are differences of opinion regarding the detailed interpretation of this verse, largely conditioned by the difficulties encountered in understanding the Vedic game of dice 30, the meaning of kālé seems to be here either «in time» or «at proper time », or « when it is his (the gambler's) turn ». In the Atharvaveda-Samhitā, the word kālá- is found in addition to the variant of this verse otherwise in two hymns only. One is the famous Kālasūkta, AS 19,53-54, which praises Time as the highest divinity; the word is attested here 41 times. The other is AS 13,2,39, in which the sun as the ruddy one (róhita-) is said to have become Time (kālá-) and Prajāpati in the beginning, etc. In the Brāhmana texts, kālá- becomes a commonly used word, as it still is in the Indo-Aryan languages. Böhtling and Roth in their Sanskrit-Wörterbuch 31 point out that the older term which kālá- thereby replaces is rtu « season, proper time ».

The meaning « season », which is well attested, could well have been the primary one, developing first to denote any « particular (period of) time » or « proper time », and then « time » in general 32 . The specialized meaning « season », moreover, makes it possible to trace the word further back to Dravidian $k\bar{a}l$ « leg > quarter », for its original meaning seems to have been « quarter of the year ».

It is true that the Vedic texts divide the year into three, five, six or oven, but not four seasons. Particularly the division into three seasons is well in agreement with the actual climatic conditions in India (hot season, rainy season, and cool season), and it is also reflected in the Vedic ritual in the *cāturmāsya* sacrifices performed at four months intervals. The most common division into six seasons, again, is apparently only a later development which integrates in itself also the division of the year into 12 months ³³.

Even though the Vedic year did not consist of exactly four seasons, the length of one season, be it 1/3 or 1/5 or 1/6 of the year, very nearly agrees with that of 1/4 of the year. A semantic shift from « quarter of the year » into « season », therefore, does not seem at all unreasonable to me, provided, of course, that the concept of a « quarter of the year » is otherwise justified. And it is, for the year is quite naturally divided into four equal parts (quarters) by the turning points of the sun, the

^{30.} Cf. the works listed in J. C. Heesterman, The Ancient Indian Royal Consecration, s-Gravenhage, 1957 (Disputationes Rheno-Trajectinae, 2) p. 143 n. 16.

^{31. 2.} Theil, St. Petersburg, 1858, col. 248, 1. 27.
32. Cf. especially the compounds cited above from Tamil. Prof. Hermann Berger has kindly drawn my attention to the fact that i.a. in the Burušaski language words originally denoting a particular limited time are used in the general sense of 'time'

^{33.} Cf. e.g. Macdonell and Keith, 1912 (n. 18), I, p. 110 f., and G. Thibaut, 1899 (Grundiss der Indo-Arischen Philologie und Altertumskunde III: 9), pp. 10 f.

solstices and equinoxes. Even peoples at a relatively low cultural level, but especially sedentary peoples, have observed that at the time of the equinoxe the sun rises from due east, while during one half of the year it rises more and more towards the north from due east, returning backwards again after the solstice, while during the other half of the year it similarly rises south of due east 34. We have a direct statement in the late Rgveda according to which 360 days of the turning wheel of the year were in fact divided into four quarters of 90 days each: RS 1,155,6 ab catúrbhih sākám navatím ca nāmabhis cakrám ná vrttám vvátīnr avīvinat « with four times ninety names has he made the pairs (?) to move like a rolling wheel »: thus according to Geldner, who comments: « Die 360 Tage, bez. Tage und Nächte, wenn der Sinn von vyáti richtig vemutet ist. Jeder Tag hat seinen "Namen" (1,123,4)... » 35. The round year of 360 days (12 months of 30 days each) is very frequently referred to in the Vedic texts, starting with the late books of the Rgveda, cf. particularly RS 1,164,11-15 and 48 36. The last mentioned hymn also speaks in connection with the year of «720 sons in pairs» (verse 11), which clearly refers to 360 days and 360 nights 37. These passages show that the quarter of the year played some role in the reckonings of the ancient Indian calendar. On the other hand, passages such as Kauṣītaki-Brāhmana 19,3 quoted below in A.B. Keith's translation 38 prove for certain that the turning points of the sun were observed in Vedic times, and that they played an important role in the sacrificial calender:

« ... He (the sun) goes north for six months; him they follow with six-day periods in forward arrangement. Having gone north for six months he stands still, being about to turn southwards; these also rest, being about to sacrifice with the Viṣuvant day; ... He goes south for six months; him they follow with six-day periods in reverse order. Having gone south for six months he stands still, being about to turn north; these also rest, being about to sacrifice with the Mahāvrata day... ».

In this connection it is appropriate to point out that the four turning points of the sun were apparently related to the four cardinal directions. According to the Satapatha-Brāhmaṇa (14,3,1,17), the sun is

^{34.} Cf. F. K. Ginzel, Handbuch der mathematischen und technischen Chronologie, I, Leipzig, 1906, p. 67. For the observation of the solstices and equinoxes among various peoples cf. Martin P. Nilsson, Primitive time-reckoning, Lund, 1920, pl 311 ff.

^{35.} K. F. Geldner, Der Rig-Veda aus dem Sanskrit übersetzt, I, Cambridge, Mass., 1951 (Harvard Oriental Series 33), p. 214.

^{36.} Cf. Albrecht Weber, *Die vedischen Nachrichten von den* naxatra (*Mondstationem*), *Zweiter Theil*, in «Abhandlungen der Königlichen Akademie der Wissenschaften zu Berlin», Aus dem Jahre 1861, Berlin 1862, p. 288, n.

^{37.} Cf. e.g. Geldner (n. 35) a.l.

^{38.} A. B. Keith, *Rigveda Brahmanas*, Cambridge, Mass., 1920 (Harvard Oriental Series 25), p. 452.

quadrangular (catuhsrakti), the four directions being specified as his corners. While the connection of the solstices with north and south is clear from the above quotations, Satapatha-Brāhmaṇa 2,1,2,3 seems to connect the vernal equinox in particular with the east. It is said here of the krttikās, the stars of the Pleiades, that « they do not move away from the eastern quarter, whilst the other asterisms do move from the eastern quarter » (Eggeling's transl.). Compare also Kāthaka 8,1, where the krttikās are said to have made the eastern direction agreeable to Agni, while before that the directions had not been fixed nor recognized: diśo vai nākalpanta na prājñāyanta, tata etām agnaye prācīm diśam arocayan yat krttikāh. As noted above, the sun rises due east at the time of the vernal equinox, which e.g. in Mesopotamia since about 2000 BC has marked the starting point of the yearly calendar ³⁹. The sun is also daily «born » in the east. In the present instance, we are particularly interested in the sun's yearly «birth », which undoubtedly lies behind the myth of Skanda's birth, and its connection with the krttikās. The newly born Skanda, also called Kārttikeya because he was nursed/born by the krttikās, is directly compared with the rising sun shining in the red clouds (Mahābhārata 3,224,14318 lohitābbhre sumahati bhāti sūrya ivoditah). The asterism of the Pleiades occupies the first place in the oldest list of lunar mansions in the Atharvaveda and other Vedic texts, which indicates that it marked originally the beginning of the year. The sun, i.e. Agni « fire » who figures also in the myth of Skanda's birth, was in the asterism of the Pleiades (which « are doubtless Agni's asterism », \$B 2,1,2,1) at the vernal equinox in 2260 BC. Moreover, the stars of the Indian and the related Chinese lunar zodiac agree more closely with the celestial equator of the 24th century BC than with that of any later time. These and other reasons suggest that the naksatra calendar was compiled around 2400 BC 41. This date and the need for a solar calendar imposed by the urbanization process (which is absent in China at this time) in their turn imply that the creators of this calendar most probably were the Indus people 42.

There is also some linguistic evidence pointing to a North-Dravidian origin of the *nakṣatra* calendar. The word *bhekuri*, *bekuri* or *vekuri* is said to be the name of the asterisms as the damsels of the moon in *Vājasaneyi-Saṃhitā* 18,40, *Taittirīya-Saṃhitā* 3,4,7,1, and *Kāṭhaka* 18,14,

^{39.} Cf. A. Jeremias, *Handbuch der altorientalischen Geisteskultur*, 2 Aufl., Berlin und Leipzig, 1929, p. 186; Ginzel, 1906 (n. 34), I p. 125.

^{40.} Cf. e.g. Wendy Doniger O'Flaherty, Asceticism and Eroticism in the Mythology of Siva, London, 1973, pp. 94 ff.

^{41.} Cf. Joseph Needham, Science and Civilization in China, Vol. III, Cambridge, 1959, pp. 246, 250.

^{42.} Cf. A. Parpola, Harappan Roots of Ancient Indian Astronomy and Cosmic Speculation, to appear in the Proceedings of the XXIXth International Congress of Orientalists (cf. Abstracts of Papers, Paris, 1973, Sections 6-7, p. 76).

while Pañcavimśa Brāhmana 1,3,1 provides the variant bekurā 43. A good etymology to this mythical and apparently very ancient name of the naksatras, which has long remained unexplained 44, seems to be supplied by the Dravidian root vaiku = North Dravidian *beku « to stay, pass the nigth, to protract till dawn, to dawn » (DED 4570), from which Tamil vaikurumīn « morning star » (Akam 17), Gondī viyā sukum « morning star » and Kuī vēgam boduri « morning star » are derived. In Tamil at least, the root also means « to cohabit » (Cīvaka. 586), a meaning suiting the myth of the naksatras as the moon's mistresses. Compare also the meanings of the root uru or urai, which according to the Tamil Lexicon makes the latter part of the word vaikuru « dawn »: « to be, exist, stay, dwell, abide, be close together, be joined, come in contact with, to have sexual intercourse with » (DED 608). This root fits excellently the « conjunctions » of the moon with the asterisms. The changes b < vand *ey < *ay which are reflected in the Sanskrit forms are characteristic to North Dravidian 45.

It is well known that similarly pronounced words with different meanings have often led archaic and primitive peoples to invent actiological stories in order to explain the mystical identity of the concepts concerned. In the Finnish folk songs of Kalevala (50,1-350) describing Jesus' birth, virgin Mary (Marjatta) is told to have become pregnant from a berry which jumped into her mouth in the forest. This version, which is in striking contrast with the original story well known to us, finds a natural explanation in the similarity of Mary's name Maria and the Finnish word marja « berry ». The pictographic script based on the rebus principle may have given the Indus priests a special reason to cultivate such a «punning» mythology. In any case it seems quite probable to me that the quasi-etymological speculations of the Brāhmana-texts may ultimately be descended from Indus traditions, which in a number of cases seem to have been preserved more prominently in the Epic and Puranic text 46. Thus the well known myth of Kṛṣṇa's rasa-līlā, the nocturnal circular dance which this «full» incarnation of

^{43.} Cf. Weber, 1862 (n. 36), p. 274.

^{44.} Cf. Mayrhofer, (n. 1) II, Heidelberg, 1963, pp. 448 f. for previous explanations: the present one has been briefly indicated i.a. in the papers cited in notes 11 and 42.

^{45.} Cf. M. B. EMENEAU, *Brahui and Dravidian Comparative Grammar*, Berkeley and Los Angeles, 1962 (University of California Publications in Linguistics 27), pp. 62 (§ 5.2), 15 ff. (§ 2.19 & 21). The latter change is not restricted to North Dravidian.

^{46.} The epic tradition goes back to the *vrātya* people of the Vedic times (cf. Paul Horsch, *Die vedische gāthā- und śloka-Literatur*, Bern, 1966), who seem to be descendents of Aryans who came to India before those Aryans who brought there the Rgvedic poetry (cf. A. Parpola, *Arguments for an Aryan origin of the South Indian megaliths*, Madras, 1973).

Viṣṇu 47 performs with beautiful cowherdesses on the banks of the river Yamunā 48 , may perpetuate an originally Harappan myth preversed in a simpler form in the above Vedic references to the full moon as the lover of the asterisms as heavenly damsels (ap-saras, literally « waterpond »), who bathe (cf. the myth of the $Krtik\bar{a}s$ and that of Krsinas stealing the cloths of the bathing $gop\bar{\imath}s$) in the heavenly river, Sarasvatī « full of ponds », which according to the $Pa\bar{n}cavimsa$ - $Br\bar{a}hmana$ is « Bekurā by name » 49 .

One Hindu myth is of particular interest to us in this connection because it seems to support the above suggested etymology of the word $k\bar{a}la$ « time, season ». Manu, who in another place (8,16) mentions *Dharma* (righteousness) as an ox (vrsa), includes the following verses in his account of the creation:

- 1,81. In the Krta age Dharma is four-footed $[catusp\bar{a}d]$ and entire, and (so is) truth; nor does any gain accrue to men by unrighteousness.
- 82. In the other (three ages), by reason of (unjust) gains ($\bar{a}gama$), *Dharma* is deprived successively of one foot, and through (the prevalence of) theft, falsehood, and fraud merit (gained by men) is diminished by one fourth (in each) » 50 .

It seems to me that we have here an old Dravidian aetiological myth which had been invented to account for the identity of the words $k\bar{a}l$ « quarter (of the cycle), season, age » and $k\bar{a}l$ « leg ». This linguistic association is not found in Sanskrit, into which the myth was translated when the language spoken in North India shifted, through a period of bilingualism, from Dravidian to Indo-Aryan. The first word was bor-

^{47.} In a forthcoming book on the religion of the Indus civilization, I intend to present more arguments for considering the «full» incarnation (pūrnāvatāra) of Viṣṇu, Kṛṣṇa, as representing the full moon, or the dark half month (kṛṣṇapakṣa), while his elder brother, the white Balarāma, would represent the crescent moon and the light half-month (śuklapakṣa). Moreover, these two aspects of the moon seem to be represented by the green planet Mercury and the white planet Venus respectively. Of course, these deities are complex figures, and this astral explanation explains only part of their character.

^{48.} Cf. Vișnu-Purāna 5,13 and H. H. Wilson's translation (3 ed., Calcutta, 1961), pp. 425 f.

^{50.} Transl. G. Bühler, The Laws of Manu, Oxford, 1886, (Sacred Books of the East, 25), pp. 22 f. — With regard to the four feet of Dharma compare also the legal concept of the four-footed process (Nārada, Introd., 1,10 dharmas ca vyavahāras ca caritram rājasāsanam / catuṣpād vyavahāro 'yam uttaraḥ pūrvabādhakaḥ /; also in Kauṭilya's Arthasāstra 3,1,39, and elsewhere) which is discussed in detail by R. Lingat, Les quatre pieds du procès, in « Journal Asiatique », 250, 1962, pp. 489-503. Compare also Gopatha-Brāhmaṇa 2,2,5, where the sacrifice as based on the four Vedas (i.e., including the semi-orthodox Atharvaveda) is said to be « four-footed (and hence) complete » (catuṣpāt sakalo yajñas...). This statement is found in a śloka (cf. Horsch, 1966 [n. 46], p. 148) and is thus related to the vrātya traditions (cf. n. 46).

rowed into Sanskrit as $k\bar{a}l\dot{a}$ - « time, season », but not the basic word for « leg, foot », for which there was such a well known counterpart in pad- etc. For this reason the original « meaning » of the myth was forgotten, as happened in the case of the biblical myth of Eve's creation from Adam's rib, based on a Sumerian « pun » that could not be preserved when the myth was translated into Hebrew, an entirely different language 51 . Many other « odd » myths of the Indian religions can probably be explained in this way.

The myth of the four ages is, however, known from relatively recent sources only, and therefore it is necessary to demonstrate that it can really go back to pre-Vedic times. Within the limits of this paper, however, certain topics can be only cursorily touched. The same myth is told also for example in the account of the four world ages by Hanuman in the 149th chapter of the Vanaparvan in the Mahabharata (3,11234 ff.), where each age is, moreover, correlated with a particular colour assumed by Visnu: he is white in the krtayuga, red in the tretāyuga, greenish-yellow in the dvāparayuga, and black in the kaliyuga. These same colours are elsewhere associated with the four social classes, the brāhmanas, ksatriyas, vaiśyas and śūdras 52. Out of these, the first three classes are correlated in the Veda with the spring, the summer, and rainy season respectively 53. I shall not go here further into the matter of this classificatory system, which comprised also the directions of space (with their guardian deities) 54 which in the classical Hindu cosmology had the same symbolic colours 55. In a previous paper I have already put forward the suggestion that the cross of the four directions formed a conceptual frame for the ancient Indian cosmic speculation, and that a sort of primitive Sāmkhya philosophy involving the theory of elements was created by the Harappans operating with systematic correlations of this kind 56. Here I would only like to draw attention to the parallelism between the fourfold division of the mahāyuga with its colours and the fourfold solar cycle. The four sandhyās, morning, noon, evening and midnight play an integral part in the Hindu ritual 57. This diurnal cycle has a parallel in the four « quarters » of the year. The symbolic colours seem to be derived from both of these two solar cycles: thus red is the colour of fire, ie. hot noon and summer, green is the colour of water and the rainy season (producing greenness), and black the colour of the darkness of the midnight corresponding to winter, while

^{51.} Cf. S. N. Kramer, The Sumerians, Chicago, 1963, p. 149.

^{52.} Cf. A. Weber, Collectanea über die Kastenverhältnisse in den Brāhmana und Sūtra, Indische Studien 10, 1868, pp. 10-24.

^{53.} Cf. ibid., p. 20.

^{54.} Cf. W. Kirfel, Die Kosmographie der Inder, Bonn und Leipzig, 1920, pp. 7 f., 10.

^{55.} Cf. ibid., p. 93 (the four sides of Mt. Meru).

^{56.} Cf. the paper cited in n. 42. I shall try to substantiate this hypothesis in a more comprehensive work in preparation (cf. n. 47).

^{57.} Cf. e.g. C.G. Diehl, Instrument and purpose, Lund, 1956 (thesis), p. 80.

white is left to the light of morning, the counterpart of spring which starts the yearly cycle.

There is no certain reference to the four yugas in the sense of « world ages » in the older Vedic literature; a doubtful one is Atharvaveda-Samhitā 8,2,21 ab śatám te 'yútam hāyanān dvé yugé trīni catvāri krnmah « A hundred, a myriad years, two periods (yugá), three, four, we make for thee » 58. According to the *Purānas*, the total length of the great cycle of the four yugas (which are not of equal length but have the ratio 4:3:2:1) is 4.320.000 years or 12.000 divine years (*divyavarsa*) 59. Also these figures support the hypothesis that the great cycle was originally the year, which according to the Satapatha-Brāhmana (10.4.2.2 ff.) has 432,000 moments (muhūrta), and consists of 12 months. The world ages of the classical texts would, then, have developed out of the four quarters of the year, « seasons », defined by the solstitial and equinoctial points.

Although the four ages as such do not figure in the early Vedic texts, their names do occur there, but as those of the four throws of dice, krta being the best and kali the worst 60. Many dice have been found in the excavations of the Harappan sites 61. My intention is to discuss in another paper in detail their relation to the later Indian game of dice, but the connection with four yugas makes it necessary to go briefly into this matter here also. The oblong type of Harappan dice with only four (!) marked sides has survived to the present day in India and the Indianized parts of Asia, while it seems to be unknown elsewhere in the world; in Indo-Aryan it is called pāsa(ka) in Pāli and pāśa(ka) in (classical) Sanskrit 62. Heinrich Lüders 63 has suggested that the much later attested prāsaka (Hemacandra & Bower-Ms.) preserves a trace of the etymology, the root pra-as-, which Karl Hoffmann has shown to have the meaning of «laying a wager» (amśam pra-as- in PB 14,3,13 and amśa-prāsá- in MS 1,6,12) 64; this explanation is accepted by

^{58.} The translation is W.D. WHITNEY'S (Atharva-Veda-Samhitā translated into English, edited by Ch. R. Lanman, Cambridge, Mass., 1905, Harvard Oriental Series 7-8), who comments: "The 'periods' here are not at all likely to be those of the later chronology, though the commentator naturally thinks them so ».

^{59.} Cf. Kirfel, 1920 (n. 54), p. 334.
60. Cf. the literature cited in n. 30 especially H. Lüders, Das Würfelspiel im alten Indien, Berlin, 1907 (Abhandlungen des Königlichen Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften zu Göttingen, Phil. -hist. Kl., NF 9:2).

^{61.} Cf. George F. Dales, Of Dice and Men, in JAOS, 88, 1968, pp. 14-23; Dales's study is limited to the cubical dice of the Indus civilization. For examples of the Harappan oblong dice cf. particularly E. Mackay, Further Excavations at Mohenjodaro, Delhi, 1938, II pl. CXXXVIII: 41, 43, 48 and pl. CXLIII: 41, 43, 47, 51.

62. Cf. Lüders, 1907 (n. 60), p. 16 f. and W. Norman Brown, The Indian Games

of Pachisi, Chaupar and Chausar, in Studies in Indian Linguistics (Prof. M. B. Emeneau Şaştipürti Volume), ed. Bh. Krishnamurti, Poona and Annamalainagar, 1968, pp. 46-53, pp. 50 f.

^{63.} LÜDERS, 1907 (n. 60), p. 16.

^{64.} K. Hoffmann, Märtända und Gayomart, in «Münchener Studien zur Sprachwissenschaft » 11, 1957, pp. 85-103, pp. 88 f, and n, 12,

Mayrhofer, too 65. Rather than taking pāsa(ka) and pāśa(ka) as Prakrit forms (the latter hypersanscritized) of prāsa(ka), I would like to derive these words from the Dravidian root $p\bar{a}y$ « to spring, to leap, to jump over », from which we have in Tamil the derivatives pāyccu and pāyttu « spring, leap, throw (as of dice) » (DED 3362). From the Vidhurapanditajātaka 66 and Atharvaveda 4,38 67 we know that these oblong dice were thrown up into the air here they were « dancing » with the apsarases. In the Vedic ritual there are two occasions for a ceremonial game of dice, one at the establishment of the sacred fires (agnyādheya) 68 and another at the royal consecration $(r\bar{a}jas\bar{u}ya)^{69}$. It is interesting to observe that in both cases there are four players — according to Maitrāyanī Samhitā 4,4,6 a brāhmana, a rājanya, a vaisya, and a sūdra —, and that they play for (the parts of) a four-year old cow. Held 70 has already related the game of dice with a system of classification of the kind discussed above. The stake, a cow, reminds us of the divisions of the cow in the bargaining of the soma. In the later dice game the two playing parts had to submit before the game 5 stakes each, and a kali throw gave 1, a dvāpara 3, a tretā 6, and a krta 10 stakes 71. The sum of the different throws is also 10 (4+3+2+1), as is the number of Visnu's avatāras in the various yugas in the Puranic mythology n. It remains to note that since there are four players, the word kālá- « time » in its first, Rgvedic, occurrence might well have been «turn», from the basic sense of « quarter of the round or cycle ».

^{65.} Mayrhofer (n. 1 & 44), II, p. 265.

^{66.} Cf. Lüders, 1907 (n. 60), p. 6.

^{67.} Cf. ibid., p. 8.

^{68.} W. CALAND, Über das rituelle Sūtra des Baudhāyana, Leipzig. 1903 (Abhandlungen für die Kunde des Morgenlandes 12:1), p. 17; G. J. Held, The Mahābhārata, Amsterdam, 1935 (thesis Leiden), pp. 266 ff.
69. Cf. Heesterman, 1957 (n. 30), pp. 143 ff. and also SB 5,4,4,6 ff.

^{70.} Cf. Held, 1935 (n. 68), pp. 248 f., 253, 265 ff.

^{71.} Cf. Lüders, 1907 (n. 60), p. 61.

^{72.} Cf. also the Paripāţal passage cited above, p. 365.