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A Quest for Poison Trees in Indian Literature, Along with Notes on Some Plants and Animals of the Kauṭilīya Arthaśāstra

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I. Poison Trees – An Introduction

The materia medica of Indian medicine is usually characterized as extremely rich. The number of drugs employed is very large and varied indeed. Yet, the pharmacopoeia of classical Āyurveda is restricted. Substances known in Vedic times are absent. The most famous example of these is soma.¹ Numerous plants used in tribal medicine have not been incorporated. Moreover, the commentators on the early texts explicitly declare that they are no longer familiar with the identity of several notorious plants, such as those composing the octad designated as the aṣṭavarga which consists of eight ingredients of important compound medicines. When these commentators are at a loss with regard to the identities of plants or animals, they sometimes refer to tribes, mostly the Kirātas and Śabaras, as still possessing the relevant knowledge and to be consulted on the matter. Examples are the poisonous substances listed in the Carakasamhitā (Ca.) and Suśrutasamhitā (Su.).²

Striking by their apparent absence from early Indian literature in general are two trees that produce extremely potent poisonous substances, which are much employed by hunters in South and Southeast Asia. Their names are Strychnos nux-vomica Linn. and Antiaris toxicaria (Pers.) Lesch.

The initial part of this paper will mainly be devoted to the first of these trees.

¹ soma is only mentioned in chapter 29 of the Cikitsāsthāna (Ci.) of the Suśrutasamhitā and in the Kāśyapasamhitā, in a prescription for a fumigation with soma as one of the ingredients (Kalpasthāna [Ka.] 1.11f.). Suśruta's soma is not related to the Vedic plant of that name.

 $^{^2}$ See Cakrapāṇidatta ad Ca. Ci. 23.11-13 and Palhaṇa ad Su. Ka. 2.5. Compare also Su. Sūtrasthāna (Sū.) 36.10 with the comments by Dalhana.

Strychnos nux-vomica Linn.

Strychnos nux-vomica Linn., the strychnine tree, belongs to the family of the Loganiaceae. The large genus Strychnos Linn., widespread throughout the tropics and subtropics, has nearly twenty representatives in India, some of which are used for medicinal purposes.

The strychnine tree is common in forests of the warmer parts of India and in those of Sri Lanka and Myanmar. In India it occurs from Bihar and West Bengal to all the more southern regions where it grows up to an altitude of about 1,200 metres (4,000 feet). The tree is evergreen in moist ecosystems, but in dry areas it may shed its leaves for a short time. It is medium-sized and can attain a height of fifteen to twenty metres. The trunk is fairly straight. The leaves are opposite, short-stalked, smooth on both sides, and oval in shape, eight to fifteen cm. long and broadly elliptic. The flowers are small, greenish white, in terminal compound cymes. The fruits are globose berries, 2.5 to 5 cm. in diameter, with a smooth hard shell of a beautiful orange to orange-brown colour when ripe. They are filled with a gelatinous pulp in which the seeds are immersed. These seeds are disc-shaped, about 20 to 25 mm. in diameter and 4 mm. thick, slightly depressed on one side and with a prominent, elevated umbilicus on the other; they are hard and leathery, ash- or greenish grey, and covered with numerous shining silky hairs. They are inodorous, but exceedingly bitter.

The seeds, called nux vomica or emetic nut, are very poisonous through the presence of the strongly toxic alkaloids strychnine and brucine, in addition to other minor alkaloidal constituents. These alkaloids occur not only in the seeds but also in the roots, bark and leaves, and, to a minor extent, in the fruit-pulp and fruit-shells.

The seeds are an effective poison for animals and also useful as an insecticide. Many tribals use them in the preparation of arrow- and dart-poisons.

This last point is remarkable and leads to the question whether these seeds and their toxicity have been known in India since early times. It seems improbable that hunters were unacquainted with their usefulness in killing game and that this knowledge was not transmitted to other layers of the community. References to arrows besmeared with a poisonous substance are far from rare in Sanskrit literature.

These *viṣadigdha* arrows and other weapons attest to the knowledge of suitable poisons. One of these may have consisted of a substance made with the seeds of Strychnos nux-vomica. Even more effective is Antiaris

toxicaria (Pers.) Lesch. Its latex is extremely toxic due to the presence of myocardial poisons, called cardenolides, and is well known as an arrow-poison in Southeast Asia, where the tree from which it is derived is called the *upas*. Its advantage is that the quarry can be consumed without any danger.³

Antiaris toxicaria (Pers.) Lesch.

Antiaris toxicaria, belonging to the small genus Antiaris, distributed over tropical Asia, of the family of the Moraceae, is a huge monoecious tree, reaching a height of up to 76 metres, and occurs in the Western Ghats, on the Andaman Islands, in Sri Lanka and in Myanmar. It is also found in Malaysia and Indonesia. The bark is smooth; the leaves are 10 to 20 cm. long, oblong and glossy. The male flowers are crowded on the surface of an orbicular, axillary receptacle, but the female flowers are solitary. The purple fruits resemble small figs and are intensely bitter when young; ripe fruits are reported to be edible. The latex exuding from the pierced trunk is pale vellow when fresh, later becoming dark brown and extremely bitter. In South India, where the plant is frequently met with, the poisonous property of the milky juice seems to be hardly known. The bark, however, when soaked in water and beaten, is suitable for making clothes. Formerly, the tree was well known as the "sacking tree", the felted inner bark being extensively used for making sacks of excellent quality.4

Strangely enough, both trees seem to be completely absent from early Sanskrit literature.

The Appearance of Strychnos nux-vomica in Sanskrit Literature

The secondary literature on Strychnos nux-vomica is intriguing since several important sources assert straight out that it appears late in the texts.

 $^{^3}$ On arrow-poisons and on the Strychnos species, see the publications of N.G. Bisset listed in my "An Annotated Bibliography of Indian Medicine". Search the same website for Antiaris toxicaria, the *upas* or poison tree.

⁴ See Dymock et al. 1890-1893: III/348-355; Watt 1885-1893: I/268. On the medicinal uses of Antiaris toxicaria, see Muthulakshmi 2004.

The original source of this claim has still to be discovered. The earliest author to make the claim I could find is Udoy Chand Dutt in the 1877 edition of his *The Materia Medica of the Hindus*. He remarks:⁵

Nux vomica has been introduced into Hindu medicine at a recent period. There is no generally recognized Sanskrit name for it. In some recent Sanskrit compilations it is mentioned under its vernacular name kucilā, a term which is not to be found in standard Sanskrit dictionaries. Sārangadhara and other writers give some prescriptions containing a drug named visamusti, which is generally interpreted to mean in these places nux vomica seeds: but visamusti according to the Bhāvaprakāśa has an edible fruit and is called kareruā in Hindi. In this work the Sanskrit term kupilu and its synonyms, kulaka, visatinduka, markatatinduka, etc.. are said to be the Sanskrit names for kucilā and this translation is followed in some Hindi medical books, as for example in the treatise on the properties of drugs, compiled by Pandit Keśava Prasāda Dvivedī of the Agra College. This interpretation however is not accepted in Bengal. for neither Wilson nor Sir Rājā Rādhākānta Deva has given kucilā as the vernacular for kupilu, nor does this term or any of its synonyms above mentioned, occur in any Sanskrit medical prescription. In our account of this drug we will according to the practice of our kavirājas in Bengal interpret visamusti as kucilā.

U.Ch. Dutt adds an important remark, quoted by later authors. He says:

Nux vomica seeds produce a sort of intoxication, for which they are habitually taken by some natives as an aphrodisiac. Those who do so gradually become so far accustomed to this poison that they often come to take one seed daily, which is cut into small pieces and chewed with a packet of betel leaf.

R.N. Chopra, R.L. Badhwar and S. Ghosh⁶ add that the powdered seeds mixed with food are also largely given as a tonic to horses; feeding upon the leaves imparts a bitterish taste (characteristic of strychnine) to the milk of cows, and the people of localities where this is a custom, attribute good digestibility and tonic properties to such milk, and not without reason.

Flückiger and Hanbury write in their Pharmacographia:7

Nux vomica, which was unknown to the ancients, is thought to have been introduced into medicine by the Arabians. But the notices in their writings which have been supposed to refer to it, are far from clear and satisfactory. We have no evidence moreover that it was used in India at an

⁵ Dutt 1877: 198; the same text is found in the revised edition (Dutt 1922: 199).

⁶ Chopra et al. 1940: 699.

⁷ Flückiger – Hanbury 1879: 384.

early period. Garcia d'Orta, an observer thoroughly acquainted with the drugs of the west coast of India in the middle of the 16th century, is entirely silent as to nux vomica. Fleming, writing at the beginning of the present century, remarks that nux vomica is seldom, if ever, employed in medicine by the Hindus, but this statement does not hold good now.

The Fleming referred to is John Fleming, the author of "A Catalogue of Indian Medicinal Plants and Drugs, with their Names in the Hindustani and Sanscrit Languages", published in Calcutta in 1812 as part of the Asiatic Researches.⁸

In the year 1893, both George Watt and C.D. Maclean discussed nux vomica. Watt⁹ takes much from U.Ch. Dutt, but qualifies the latter's statement that the drug does not appear to have been used in early Sanskrit medicine by remarking that it is quite possible that some part of the tree may have been used by the aboriginal tribes of India from a very early date, since nowadays we find the wood used as a common tonic over very extensive tracts of country. He also says that the Muhammadans' knowledge of the uses of nux vomica seems to have been derived from the Hindus, as Makhzan-el-Adwiya concludes his description of the drug by saying that much information will be found about the drug in Hindu works. Maclean¹⁰ only remarks that the seeds were first introduced into medicine by the Arabs and that they have not been described by Sanskrit writers.

The assertion that Strychnos nux-vomica appears late in Sanskrit texts seems to have become a cliché in the secondary literature. Even P.V. Sharma claims in his $\bar{A}yuvved~k\bar{a}~vaij\tilde{n}\bar{a}nik~itih\bar{a}s^{11}$ that the tree is absent from the Bṛhattrayī¹² and that its introduction into medicine must therefore be of a later date. He supposes that its use has been promoted by the alchemists ($ras\bar{a}c\bar{a}ryas$).

This claim by an expert like P.V. Sharma is surprising. Actually, the state of affairs in the question we are investigating is different.

⁸ Asiatic Researches 11 (1812) 153-196.

⁹ Watt 1885-1893: VI.3/380.

¹⁰ Maclean 1893: 690.

¹¹ Sharma 1975a: 342.

 $^{^{12}~}$ The Bṛhattrayī consists of the Carakasaṃhitā, the Suśrutasaṃhitā and the Aṣṭāṅgahrdayasamhitā.

II. The Evidence of the Medical Treatises

Perusal of the literature reveals that various Indian scholars have suggested that Strychnos nux-vomica may be referred to in the Carakasaṃhitā. Even K.C. Chunekar, who collaborated with P.V. Sharma as a lecturer at the Department of Dravyaguṇa of the Institute of Medical Sciences of Banaras Hindu University, did so in the Glossary of Vegetable Drugs in Bṛhattrayī, which he wrote together with Thakur Balwant Singh.

In regard to a controversial drug, called $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}n\bar{d}a$, mentioned five times in the Carakasamhitā, these authors write that it is a drug used entirely as an antidote to poisoning and is probably itself poisonous. They add that it has been identified variously with $k\bar{a}katindu$, $mah\bar{a}nimba$, ¹³ etc., and that $k\bar{a}katinduka$ is either Diospyros montana Roxb. known as $visatend\bar{u}$, or Strychnos nux-vomica Linn., also known as $k\bar{a}kap\bar{\imath}lu$, $v\bar{a}yasap\bar{\imath}lu$ or $kup\bar{\imath}lu$.

$v\bar{a}yasap\bar{\imath}luka$

The first to be examined among these names is $v\bar{a}yasap\bar{\imath}luka$, a word found once in the Carakasaṃhitā, in a verse from the chapter on poisons and the treatment of poisoning (Ci. 23.217).

The verse runs:

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kākāndarasasamyukto visānām tandulīyakah | pradhāno barhipittena tadvad vāyasapīlukah ||
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Translation:

 $tandul\bar{\imath}yaka$, together with the juice of $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}nda$, is [one of the] chief [remedies] against poisons, as is $v\bar{a}yasap\bar{\imath}luka$ [together] with the bile of a peacock.

The verse does not specify, in contrast with the preceding verses, against which type of poisoning the two recipes should be employed. It is the first of two verses closing the section on poisoning by various small animals. The following verse also contains an unspecific prescription (called <code>pañcaśirīṣāgada</code>) against all kinds of poisoning. The subsequent couple of verses is on the treatment of poisoning due to the nails and teeth of quadrupeds and bipeds.

¹³ Identifications of mahānimba are: Ailanthus excelsa Roxb., Ailanthus triphysa (Dennst.) Alston, Melia azedarach Linn., Melia dubia Cav., and Murraya koenigii (Linn.) Spreng.

The plant called *tandulīyaka* is mostly identified as Amaranthus spinosus Linn.; other species of Amaranthus are also regarded as *tandulīyaka* and used as pot-herbs and medicinal plants.

The bile of animals, in particular that of a peacock, is not an unusual medicinal substance.¹⁴ The presence of this item points to a medicinal recipe for wealthy people; peacocks were a regular food at the royal table ¹⁵

Let us see what the Sanskrit commentators have to say about $v\bar{a}yasap\bar{\imath}-luka$.

The edition with Jejjata's commentary (Ca. [1941]) has a strange note between brackets that may be an emendation by the editor, as suggested by the title page of Ca. (1941) where the edition is described as pūritajajjatatīkātrutitāmśabhāga. This note fills up a lacuna in the manuscript ending with -ktā and runs: (vāyasī kākamācīty u)ktā. This emendation is not a happy one. $v\bar{a}yas\bar{\imath}$ is absent from Ca. Ci. 23.217 and the preceding verses. The editor obviously borrowed the remark from Cakrapāni's commentary (see below), but misplaced it. Jejjata's own remarks on 23.217 follow and are interesting. They differ entirely from those by Cakra. Jejjata first refers to the plant $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}nda$. Though its identity is usually said to be unknown, Jejjata is of the opinion that it is the same as $k\bar{a}kanand\bar{\imath}$. This rare plant name is, in the form of $k\bar{a}$ kanandikā, found in the Madanādinighantu (6.16), where it is a synonym of $gu\tilde{n}j\bar{a} = krsnak\bar{a}mbojik\bar{a}$. Another name, $k\bar{a}kanant\bar{\imath}$, is a much more frequent synonym of $gu\tilde{n}j\bar{a}$, Abrus precatorius Linn., the seeds of which are poisonous because they contain the toxic protein called abrin, a ribosome-inactivating substance. An important remark follows: saiva vāya $sap\bar{\imath}lukah$. This cannot but mean that both $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}nda$ and $v\bar{a}yasap\bar{\imath}luka$ designate $qu\tilde{n}j\bar{a}$ in Jejjata's eves, though no nighantu or other lexicon can be found to support this. 16 We shall come across other authors who also express as their view that $v\bar{a}yasap\bar{\imath}luka$ is identical with $gu\tilde{n}j\bar{a}$. Jejjata, however, is the earliest of them.

¹⁴ See, for example, Ca. Ci. 7.170 (barhipitta) and Ca. Ci. 23.51 (śikhipitta); Su. Ci. 9.26 (śaikhina pitta); Aṣṭāṅgaḥṛdayasaṃhitā (A.h. [1939]) Ci. 20.12 (śikhipitta); Aṣṭāṅga-saṃgraha (A.s.) Ci. 22.22.

 $^{^{15}\,}$ See the famous rock edict of Aśoka, mentioning the daily killing of two peacocks. See also Chattopadhyay 1967 and 1993b, and Schmidt 1980.

 $^{^{16}\,}$ Abdul Kareem (1997) gives many other names beginning with $k\bar{a}ka$ - as synonyms of $gu\tilde{n}j\bar{a}.$

Cakrapāṇidatta's commentary has only the laconic and at first sight enigmatic remark: $v\bar{a}yas\bar{\imath}\ k\bar{a}kam\bar{a}c\bar{\imath}$. This comment can only be meant to elucidate $v\bar{a}yasap\bar{\imath}luka$. No other plant name of the relevant group of verses has any connection with $v\bar{a}yas\bar{\imath}$, a frequently found synonym of $k\bar{a}kam\bar{a}c\bar{\imath}$, commonly identified as Solanum nigrum Linn., by some authorities as Solanum americanum Mill. = Solanum nigrum auct. non Linn.¹⁷

What is Cakra's intention? Does he suggest that $v\bar{a}yasa$ is the same as $v\bar{a}yas\bar{\imath}$ in this case, thus splitting the compound into $v\bar{a}yasa$ and $p\bar{\imath}-luka$, as some recent commentators do, or does he propose to regard $v\bar{a}yasap\bar{\imath}luka$ as identical with $v\bar{a}yas\bar{\imath}$, a species of Solanum? Whatever he may have meant, it is a strained interpretation. Being a resident of Bengal, the plant called $v\bar{a}yasap\bar{\imath}luka$ may not have been familiar to him. That he may have thought $v\bar{a}yasa$ to be a plant name is hardly imaginable.

The nineteenth-century commentator Gangādhara (Ca. [1927-1933]) interprets the name as a synonym of $k\bar{a}kajangh\bar{a}$, an unidentified plant also called $v\bar{a}yasajangh\bar{a}$ and $pr\bar{a}c\bar{\imath}bala$. These three names are, however, conspicuously absent from the Carakasaṃhitā; they occur in the Suśrutasaṃhitā and Aṣṭāngahṛdayasaṃhitā.

The translations into English of the Carakasamhitā are disappointing and give the impression that their authors are prejudice-ridden and blindly accept earlier opinions.

The translation by Kisari Mohan Ganguli, published by A. Chandra Kaviratna (Ca. [1890-1925]), adds the following remark between brackets to $v\bar{a}yasap\bar{\imath}luka$, which is left untranslated: "otherwise called $k\bar{a}kajangh\bar{a}$ or Leea hirta Roxb. ex Hornem". This is a now invalid synonym of Leea aequata Linn., which is not poisonous at all. In doing so, the translator follows in the wake of Gangādhara.

The Gulabkunverba translators (Ca. [1949]) render the word as "black nightshade and tooth brush tree", i.e., $k\bar{a}kam\bar{a}c\bar{\imath}$ and $p\bar{\imath}luka$, as Cakrapāṇi may have meant.

¹⁷ See, for example, Abdul Kareem 1997, s.v.

 $^{^{18}}$ Four plants used as $k\bar{a}kajangh\bar{a}$ are Peristrophe paniculata (Forsk.) Brummitt = P. bicalyculata Nees, Leea aequate Linn., Vitex peduncularis Wall. ex Schauer, and Abrus precatorius Linn.

R.K. Sharma and Bhagwan Dash (Ca. [1997]) do not translate the term, adding between brackets " $k\bar{a}kam\bar{a}c\bar{\imath}$ ", thus obviously taking $v\bar{a}yasap\bar{\imath}luka$ as a synonym of this plant name.

P.V. Sharma (Ca. [1983a]) renders $v\bar{a}yasap\bar{\imath}luka$ as $k\bar{a}kap\bar{\imath}luka$ and gives in one of his Appendices (p. 724) Diospyros montana Roxb. as the botanical equivalent, a tree with bitter but harmless fruits. No one shares this view with him.

These facts make it clear that no consensus has been reached. Arguments for the identifications are conspicuous by their absence.

The renderings and comments of some of the Hindī translators and commentators are much more illuminating, though the translations by others are as unsatisfactory as those of the translators into English.

Śivaśarman (Ca. [1989] II/1529) renders $v\bar{a}yasap\bar{\imath}luka$ as $k\bar{a}kaja\dot{n}gh\bar{a}$ and $p\bar{\imath}lu$, apparently under the influence of Gangādhara.

Vinaycandra Vāsiṣṭha and Paṇḍit Jaydev Śarmā (Ca. [1954-1962]) are in doubt and comment: " $v\bar{a}yasap\bar{\imath}luka$ is either $k\bar{a}kam\bar{a}c\bar{\imath}$, called makoy in Hindī, or it is $k\bar{a}katinduka$, called $kucil\bar{a}$ in Hindī." This is important because $kucil\bar{a}$ is a Hindī name for Strychnos nux-vomica.

Similar thoughts are expressed by Kāśīnāth Pāṇḍey and Gorakhnāth Caturvedī (Ca. [1962]). They translate $v\bar{a}yasap\bar{\imath}luka$ as $makoy\ ke\ m\bar{\imath}l$, i. e. the roots of $k\bar{a}kam\bar{a}c\bar{\imath}$, but they acknowledge in their comments that the identity of $v\bar{a}yasap\bar{\imath}luka$ is disputed ($viv\bar{a}dgrast$) and are of the opinion that Cakrapāṇi regarded the word as a compound and divided it into $v\bar{a}yasa$ and $p\bar{\imath}luka$. They add that $v\bar{a}yasap\bar{\imath}luka$ is also a name of $kucil\bar{a}$, that it is uncertain which plant Caraka had in mind, and that plants like $gu\tilde{\imath}j\bar{a}$ and $k\bar{a}kajangh\bar{a}$ are known as antidotes.

The most extensive comments are given by Brahmānand Tripāṭhī (Ca. [1983b]), who does not hesitate to regard $v\bar{a}yasap\bar{\imath}luka$ as identical with $kucil\bar{a}$. He interprets Cakra's comment ($v\bar{a}yas\bar{\imath}=k\bar{a}kam\bar{a}c\bar{\imath}$) as an indication that he divided the word into its two components. He proceeds by saying that if $v\bar{a}yasap\bar{\imath}luka$ is taken as one word, as it is reasonable to do, then it must be the same as $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}dan\bar{\imath}$. Though the latter is again a controversial name, he regards it as a synonym of $kucil\bar{a}$, keeping in mind that $k\bar{a}kap\bar{\imath}lu$ is a synonym of $kup\bar{\imath}lu$. The last name is rather generally interpreted as referring to Strychnos nux-vomica. Tripāṭhī

¹⁹ This plant, absent from the Carakasaṃhitā, has not been identified satisfactorily; see Singh – Chunekar (1972) who remark that the roots, which are recommended for use, are probably more or less poisonous.

also draws attention to the fact that, though poisonous itself, $kucil\bar{a}$ is, after proper purification, a drug against poisoning. He further refers to A.s. Uttarasthāna (U.) 43.62.

This verse quotes Ca. Ci. 23.217 (cf. above p. 6) with some variants:

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kākāndayuktah sarvesām visānām tandulīyakah | praśasto barhināndena tadvad vāyasapīlukah ||
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The reading of U. 43.62a is also known from some manuscripts of the Carakasamhitā. 20 praśasta replaces pradhāna, which has no importance. More interesting is that barhipitta has been changed into barhinānḍa (peahen's egg), either a genuine reading or a scribe's error under the influence of $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}nda$ (cf. below p. 15).

Tripāṭhi also quotes Indu's commentary on the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha. Indu remarks: "kākapīlukaḥ kākapīlukaḥahalāni, kākapīluko guñjā". With this interpretation he sides with Jejjaṭa.

In the Suśrutasamhitā and Aṣṭāṅgahṛdayasamhitā references to $v\bar{a}ya$ - $sap\bar{\imath}luka$ are absent.

Summing up, we have seen that $v\bar{a}yasap\bar{\imath}luka$ may be Strychnos nuxvomica $(k\bar{a}kap\bar{\imath}lu)$, but that other identifications have also been proposed: $k\bar{a}kajangh\bar{a}$, $k\bar{a}katinduka$, $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}dan\bar{\imath}$, and $gu\tilde{n}j\bar{a}$.

III. OTHER SOURCES RELEVANT TO THE IDENTIFICATION OF STRYCHNOS NUX-VOMICA

The dictionaries do not contribute to a solution. PW does not mention the word $v\bar{a}yasap\bar{\imath}luka$; MW only says that it is a particular tree, the same as $k\bar{a}kap\bar{\imath}luka$.

PW says about $k\bar{a}kap\bar{\imath}lu$ that it is the name of several plants: (1) = $k\bar{a}katinduka$, (2) = $k\bar{a}katund\bar{\imath}$, (3) a variety of Abrus precatorius (śvetagu $\tilde{\imath}j\bar{a}$);²¹ MW says similarly: "(1) the plant Diospyros tomentosa²² ($k\bar{a}katinduka$), (2) Xanthochymus pictorius²³ ($k\bar{a}katund\bar{\imath}$), (3) a variety of Abrus precatorius (śvetagu $\tilde{\imath}j\bar{a}$)". PW adds under $k\bar{a}kap\bar{\imath}luka$: "= $k\bar{a}katinduka$ ", and MW "the plant Diospyros tomentosa ($k\bar{a}katinduka$)".

²⁰ See the footnote in Ca. (p. 580).

 $^{^{21}}$ $\acute{s}vetagu\~nj\=a$ is an Abrus precatorius with white seeds; normally, they are black and red.

²² The fruits of Diospyros tomentosa Roxb. are edible.

²³ This plant is now called Garcinia xanthochymus Hook.f. ex T. Anderson.

Thus we see that $k\bar{a}katun\bar{d}\bar{i}$ has been joined to the list of names relevant to the identification of Strychnos nux-vomica.²⁴

This resulting list is remarkable because most of the names it contains are absent from the Carakasamhitā: $k\bar{a}kajangh\bar{a}$, $k\bar{a}katinduka$, $k\bar{a}katund\bar{\iota}$, and $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}dan\bar{\iota}$. The only exception is $gu\tilde{n}j\bar{a}$.

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k\bar{a}katindu(ka), visatindu(ka) and k\bar{a}kap\bar{\imath}lu(ka) (= kup\bar{\imath}lu)
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The most important among these names is $k\bar{a}katinduka$. This name is frequent in the *nighantus* and other lexica. PW gives consistently Diospyros tomentosa Roxb. as its botanical equivalent, as does MW.

Consultation of the nighanțus yields many synonyms of $k\bar{a}katindu(ka)$. It will be important to find $k\bar{a}kap\bar{\imath}lu$ (= $kup\bar{\imath}lu$) among them, which would establish that the two are identical. nighanțus that consider the two to be identical are the Rājanighanṭu (RN) (11[$\bar{a}mr\bar{a}divarga$].52), Hemacandra's Nighanṭuśeṣa (NŚ) (114), and the Śāligrāmanighanṭubhūṣana (p. 597-602).

PW and MW remark about $kup\bar{\imath}lu$ that it is a sort of ebony tree (= $k\bar{a}$ -raskara).²⁵

When we look for synonyms we find:

Abhidhānamañjarī of Bhiṣagārya (193): $r\bar{a}j\bar{v}mat = karkaśacchada = kula-ka = r\bar{a}j\bar{v}phala = nalaphala = k\bar{a}katinduka$;

Bhāvaprakāśanighaṇṭu (BhPN) (āmrādiphalavarga 66-68): jaladatinduka = dīrghapatraka = kupīlu = kulaka = kākatinduka = kākendu = viṣatindu = markatatinduka;

Dhanvantarīyanighantu (DhN) (5 [$\bar{a}mr\bar{a}divarga$].41): $dvit\bar{i}ya\ tinduka = k\bar{a}katindu = markatatinduka = k\bar{a}kendu = kupīlu = k\bar{a}katinduka$;

Kaiyadevanighantu (oṣadhivarga 400): $k\bar{a}kenduk\bar{\imath} = k\bar{a}kap\bar{\imath}lu = kup\bar{\imath}lu = sth\bar{u}labinduka$:

Madanapālanighaņţu (6.40): $k\bar{a}kap\bar{\imath}lu = kup\bar{\imath}lu = viṣatinduka$;

NŚ (114): $dvit\bar{\imath}ya\ tinduka = k\bar{a}katindu = markaṭatinduka = k\bar{a}kendu = k\bar{a}kap\bar{\imath}lu = kup\bar{\imath}lu = kulaka;$

 $^{^{24}}$ Garcinia xanthochymus is not poisonous; its fruits have a pleasant acid flavour and are used as a substitute for tamarind.

 $^{^{25}}$ The ebony tree is a Diospyros. Both dictionaries refer to the Bhāvaprakāśa as referred to in the Śabdakalpadruma, where $k\bar{a}raskara$ is said to be a tindukaviśeṣa. The Bhāvaprakāśanighantu, however, does not describe a $k\bar{a}raskara$.

RN (11 $[\bar{a}mr\bar{a}divarga]$.52): $anya tinduka = k\bar{a}kap\bar{\imath}lu = k\bar{a}k\bar{a}nda = k\bar{a}katinduka = k\bar{a}kasph\bar{\imath}rja = k\bar{a}kab\bar{\imath}jaka$;

Śāligrāmanighantubhūṣaṇa (p. 597-602): anya tinduka = jalaja = dīrghapatraka = $k\bar{a}kendu = kup\bar{\iota}lu = k\bar{a}kap\bar{\iota}lu$.

Lingering over this profusion of names is not necessary. Crucial is that $k\bar{a}kap\bar{\imath}lu$, $k\bar{a}katinduka$, visatinduka and $kup\bar{\imath}lu$ are synonyms.

Which are the botanical identifications found in the dictionaries and the secondary literature?

 $k\bar{a}katindu(ka)$: Almost all the sources give Diospyros tomentosa Roxb., Diospyros melanoxylon Roxb., or Diospyros montana Roxb. The first two species yield substitutes for true ebony, which comes from Diospyros ebenum Koenig, but Diospyros montana has no black heartwood. The authorities I could find who identify $k\bar{a}katindu$ as Strychnos nux-vomica are Yādavaśarman, ²⁶ Bāpālāl Vaidya, ²⁷ and K.C. Chunekar and G.S. Pandey in their edition of the Bhāvaprakāśanighaṇṭu. ²⁸

 $k\bar{a}kap\bar{\imath}lu$: see above. See also Madanādinighaṇṭu 6.17: $dvit\bar{\imath}y\bar{a}$ śveta $k\bar{a}mboj\bar{\imath}=durmukh\bar{a}=k\bar{a}kap\bar{\imath}luk\bar{a}$, and Indu ad A.s. Ci. 21.12: $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}dan\bar{\imath}=k\bar{a}kap\bar{\imath}luk\bar{a}$.

 $kup\bar{\imath}lu$: usually a synonym of $k\bar{a}kap\bar{\imath}lu$.

viṣatindu(ka): MW on viṣatindu: "(1) Strychnos nux-vomica, (2) a kind of ebony tree with poisonous fruit, Bhāvaprakāśa"; on viṣatinduka: "a species of poisonous plant, Bhāvaprakāśa". PW (s.v. viṣatindu): "name of two poisonous plants: (1) = $k\bar{a}raskara$, Rājanighaṇṭu, (2) = $kup\bar{\imath}lu$, Bhāvaprakāśa". It is identified as Strychnos nux-vomica by Bāpālāl Vaidya, ²⁹ Nadkarni, ³⁰ and P.V. Sharma. The Bhaiṣajyaratnāvalī of Govindadāsa (55.40) prescribes viṣatinduka against a disorder called sparśavāta with anaesthesia (samsparśanaj̃nānavihīnatā) as its main symptom.

None of these names occurs in the Bṛhattrayī. Another synonym, however, found several times in the Carakasamhitā, is *kulaka*.³² Cakrapāṇi-

²⁶ See his *Dravyagunavijñāna* (Yādavaśarman 1950-1951: II/270).

²⁷ See his Nighantu Ādarśa (Bāpālāl Vaidya 1985: 60-65).

²⁸ BhPN p. 568.

²⁹ See Bāpālāl Vaidya 1985: 60.

³⁰ See Nadkarni 1954: 1175.

³¹ See Sharma 1997, s.v.

 $^{^{32}}$ Ca. Sū. 27.97; Ci. 3.189cd; Ci. 17.97ab; Ci. 23.225cd; Ci. 26.156; Ci. 27.27; Ci. 27.34; Ci. 30.74; Ci. 30.259. kulaka is a vegetable ($\delta \bar{a}ka$), used as such or in a $y\bar{u}sa$.

datta's commentary on the Carakasaṃhitā says that it is the same as $k\bar{a}ravellaka$, 33 but that others regard is as a variety of patola. 34 The Dhanvantarīyanighaṇṭu gives two meanings: patolaka and $k\bar{a}katinduka$, as does the Bhāvaprakāśanighaṇṭu: patola and $kup\bar{\iota}lu$.

Do these works contain other plant names that may refer to Strychnos nux-vomica $^{\ell}$

$k\bar{a}k\bar{a}nda(ka)$ and visamusti(ka)

There are two candidates to be examined. The first one is found in all three classical treatises, the other one is absent from the Carakasamhitā.

The first candidate is $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}n\dot{q}a(ka)$, mentioned four times in the Carakasamhitā in the chapter on poisoning (Ci. 23.49, 52, 53 and 217). A fifth time it occurs in a variant reading of Ci. 3.267. Sackrapāṇi explains $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}nda$ only at Ci. 23.49, where he reads $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}nd\bar{a}$, though the word ends in -a in the text; he remarks that it is the same as a variety of $\dot{s}imb\bar{\imath}$, i.e., a plant with pods. A related plant name is $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}ndol\bar{a}$, found once only in a variant reading of Sū. 27.34; Cakra, who prefers the reading $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}ndom\bar{a}$, regards $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}nda$ as $\dot{s}\bar{a}kara\dot{s}imbi$. Sivadāsasena, whose comments on Sū. 27 are no longer available, but who is nevertheless quoted by Jādavaji Trikamji, who had at his disposal a more complete manuscript, in his edition of the Carakasamhitā (Ca. [1941]), says that it is a pod resembling that of $\dot{s}\bar{a}ka\dot{s}imb\bar{\imath}$; the variant reading of Sū. 27.34 was also known to him.

The identification of $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}nda$ is hampered by the references to its (sva) rasa in three of the passages of the Carakasamhitā where it is found. This excludes the use of its seeds. The juice of the fresh wood of Strychnos nux-vomica, however, is also reported to be a popular remedy.³⁹

³³ Usually identified as Momordica charantia Linn., the bitter gourd.

 $^{^{34}}$ Usually identified as Trichosanthes dioica Roxb. or Trichosanthes cucumerina Linn., used as vegetables.

 $^{^{35}}$ -kāṇḍīrātmaguptākākāṇḍaikeṣīkā- instead of -kāṇḍīrātmajaikeṣīkā-. Cakrapāṇi reads ātmajā and does not mention kākāṇḍa.

³⁶ umā is a name of Linum usitatissimum Linn.

³⁷ See *HIML* IB/302, n. 500.

 $^{^{38}}$ Cakrapāṇi explains the plant name <code>rṣabhī</code> (Ca. Sū. 4.7) as a synonym of śūkaśimbā. P.V. Sharma (1997) regards <code>rṣabhī</code> as identical with <code>kapikacchu</code>, Mucuna pruriens (Linn.) DC., in agreement with Þalhaṇa (ad Su. Ka. 7.16). Mucuna pruriens is a herbaceous plant bearing pods.

 $^{^{39}\,}$ Kirtikar – Basu 1935: III/1646; Chopra et al. 1956: 236; Dastur 1962: 155.

The Suśrutasaṃhitā refers to the fruit (phala) of $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}nda$ once (Sū. 46.36). Cakrapāṇi regards it as a pod (śimbaphala) similar to that of $ś\bar{u}kaśimb\bar{v}$; Þalhaṇa remarks that it is also called aśvaka, that it is a pod (śimba) resembling that of kapikacchu, and that its popular name is $ś\bar{u}karaśimb\bar{v}$. The plant name aśvaka is unknown, except for this passage of Þalhaṇa's commentary; Bāpālāl Vaidya⁴⁰ considers it to be a synonym of aśvakhura, i.e., lucerne, Medicago sativa Linn.⁴¹

The Aṣṭāṅgahṛdayasaṃhitā mentions $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}nda$ once according to Singh – Chunekar 1972, s.v. (A.h. [1939] Ci. 5.20); the name $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}ndak\bar{\iota}$ occurs also once (U. 24.35), ⁴² as well as $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}ndol\bar{a}$ (Sū. 6.22). ⁴³

The Aṣṭāngasaṃgraha mentions $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}nda$ in the verse taken from the Carakasaṃhitā that also prescribes $v\bar{a}yasap\bar{\imath}luka$ (cf. above p. 10). Indu explains it as the eggs of a crow, which is not surprising because in his text the eggs of a peahen also occur. Though $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}nda$ literally can mean "crow's egg", this sense cannot be right here since the Suśrutasaṃhitā once mentions the fruits of $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}nda$.

The secondary literature is not of much assistance in identifying $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}n\bar{d}a$. Various and contradictory opinions are found in it.

The Vaidyaka śabdasindhu mentions two identifications of $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}nda$: (1) = $k\bar{a}katinduka$, (2) = $mah\bar{a}nimba$, two identifications of its fruit: (1) the fruit of $s\bar{u}karasimb\bar{v}$, (2) the fruit of $s\bar{u}katinduka$, and two identifications of $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}nd\bar{a}$ or $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}nd\bar{v}$: (1) $kolasimb\bar{v}$, (2) $mah\bar{a}jyotismat\bar{v}$, while $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}nd\bar{v}$ dolā is regarded as (1) $kolasimb\bar{v}$ or (2) $katabh\bar{v}$. Similar entries are found in the $\bar{A}yuvved\bar{v}ya$ śabdakośa and $\bar{A}yuvved\bar{v}ya$ viśvakośa.

Balwant Singh and Chunekar (1972) remark, rightly so, that the $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}n$ -da of Caraka is a drug used entirely as an antidote to poisoning and is probably itself poisonous; it has been identified with $k\bar{a}katinduka$,

⁴⁰ See Bāpālāl Vaidya 1982: 246.

⁴¹ Lucerne is a leguminous plant with pods that do not resemble those of the Mucuna species. Bāpālāl's choice is not happy since Medicago sativa is a native of Southwest Asia.

⁴² Not explained by Arunadatta.

⁴³ Explained as $katabh\bar{\imath}$ by Aruṇadatta. $katabh\bar{\imath}$ is a very controversial drug; Hemādri regards it as a $kapikacch\bar{\imath}$ without bristles ($\pm ika$) on its pods.

 $^{^{44}}$ Identified as Canavalia gladiata (Jacq.) DC. = Canavalia ensiformis sensu Baker by Śāligrāma in his nighantu.

⁴⁵ mahājyotişmatī is not referred to in the Bṛhattrayī, but jyotişmatī, mentioned in all three classical treatises, is regarded as either Celastrus paniculatus Willd. or Cardiospermum halicacabum Linn.

On $katabh\bar{\imath}$ cf. n. 43 above.

mahānimba and other trees (compare the Vaidyaka śabdasindhu). They add that kākatinduka is either Diospyros montana Roxb. or Strychnos nux-vomica Linn. As the former is not poisonous at all, the latter is the best candidate in my opinion.

P.V. Sharma differs in adducing that, since various commentators say that $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}nda$ resembles $\bar{a}tmagupt\bar{a}$, also called kapikacchu, it must be a related plant.⁴⁷ The common kapikacchu is Mucuna pruriens (Linn.) DC. P.V. Sharma identifies $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}nda$ as Mucuna monosperma DC. ex Wight. He does not explain his reasons for selecting this one among the many species of Mucuna found in India.

The second plant name that may designate Strychnos nux-vomica is visamusti(ka). The name is rare in the Bṛhattrayī, but common in later works, in particular those on rasaśāstra. It is absent from the Carakasaṃhitā, but found once in the Suśrutasaṃhitā, ⁴⁸ the Aṣṭāṅgahṛdayasaṃhitā ⁴⁹ and the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha. ⁵⁰

Cakrapāṇi identifies it with bṛhadalambuṣā and adds that others regard it as parvatanimba (= mahānimba). Palhaṇa comments that it is the same as drekkā, generally known as rājanimba (= mahānimba), and that others claim it to be either bṛhadalambuṣā⁵¹ or karkoṭī. ⁵² Aruṇadatta (A. h. [1939]) and Śrīdāsapaṇḍita (A.h. [1950]), both commentators on the Aṣṭāṅgahṛdayasaṃhitā, interpret it as karkoṭī, remarking that others regard it as mahānimba. Hemādri is silent on the matter. Candranandana equates it with keśamuṣṭi in his commentary on the Aṣṭāṅgahṛdayasaṃhitā (see A.h. [1956-1957]),⁵³ while another commentator on the same work, the Bhāṣyakāra (Vaidya 1936: 526f.), says that it is well known under its own name (svanāmaprasiddha), but that, if not available, kucilā is taken in its place.

It is impossible to delve deeper into this complicated matter now, but I regard it as probable that *viṣamuṣṭi* designates Strychnos nux-vomica.

⁴⁷ See Sharma 1981: 109.

⁴⁸ Sū. 38.18: an item belonging to the surasādigaņa.

 $^{^{49}}$ Sū. 15.30: an item of the same gana.

 $^{^{50}}$ Sū. 16.22: an item of the same gaņa.

⁵¹ Not found in the Bṛhattrayī; *alambuṣā*, often identified as Sphaeranthus indicus Linn., occurs in the Carakasamhitā and Aṣṭāngahṛdayasamhitā.

 $^{^{52}\,}$ Regarded as a synonym of $\it dh\bar{a}m\bar{a}rgava,$ Luffa cylindrica (Linn.) M. Roem.

⁵³ Compare BhPN, gudūcyādivarga 97: mahānimba = keśamusti.

Summarizing again, three Sanskrit plant names from the Brhattrayī may be candidates for Strychnos nux-vomica: $v\bar{a}yasap\bar{\imath}luka$ (or $k\bar{a}kap\bar{\imath}luka$), $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}nda(ka)$, and visamusti(ka).

What has been gained so far?

The allegation that Strychnos nux-vomica is absent from early Sanskrit literature has been invalidated for the medical classics. The assertion that the Arabs were the first to introduce it into medicine is based on imperfect knowledge. Furthermore, it appears to be not impossible that the tree was known under different names, as very commonly happens in Sanskrit literature.

kāraskara, kiṃpāka and viṣadruma – Antiaris toxicaria?

A problematic plant name found in some nighantus and other texts is $k\bar{a}raskara$. It complicates matters in the first place because one of its synonyms is visatindu, which is also regarded as a name for $k\bar{a}kap\bar{\imath}lu$ and $k\bar{a}katinduka$, Strychnos nux-vomica. This embarrassing overlap means that two different trees are designated by the name visatindu. Fortunately, this is the only ambiguity; the other synonyms of $k\bar{a}raskara$ do not encroach upon the territory of $k\bar{a}katinduka$ or $k\bar{a}kap\bar{\imath}lu$.

The tree called $k\bar{a}raskara$ is mentioned in a restricted number of ni-ghantus, which is a remarkable feature in itself:

RN 9.35:

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kāraskaras tu kimpāko visatindur visadrumah | garadrumo ramyaphalah kupākah kālakūṭakah ||
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This verse is repeated in the $\acute{Saligra}$ manighantubhūṣaṇa (p. 600), which adds about the fruits (p. 602):

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asya cāmaphalam grāhi tuvaram vātakrl laghu |
śītalam ca samuddistam tat pakvam viśadam<sup>54</sup> guru ||
pāke ca madhuram proktam kapham vātam pramehakam |
pittam raktavikāram ca nāśayed iti kīrtitam ||
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Abhidhānamañjarī 1106:

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visavrksah kinkirāto visah kāraskaro bhavet |
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Pāṇini (6.1.156) refers to kāraskara as a plant name.

⁵⁴ The text has *visada*, which must be an error.

PW's and MW's only remark about $k\bar{a}raskara$ is that it is a poisonous plant. ⁵⁵ Śāligrāma regards it as Strychnos nux-vomica, while he does not identify the preceding item, $k\bar{a}kap\bar{\imath}luka$ or $kup\bar{\imath}lu$.

The entries of the dictionaries on the synonym $kimp\bar{a}ka$ are confusing. PW and MW describe the plant as cucurbitaceous. MW adds that it is Trichosanthes palmata, which has bad-tasting fruits, and that it is Strychnos nux-vomica according to a lexicon.

The fruits of Trichosanthes tricuspidata Lour. = Trichosanthes palmata Roxb., a member of the Cucurbitaceae, are red when ripe; on breaking them open a black smoky powder comes out.⁵⁶ Their seeds are poisonous and extracts of them show haemagglutinating activity. This plant cannot be the *kimpāka* of the *nighantus* as it is a large climber, not a tree.

The Rāmāyana (2.66.6ab) refers to $kimp\bar{a}ka$ in an intriguing context. The passage runs: na lubdho budhyate dosān $kimp\bar{a}kam$ iva bhaksayan.

Two translations are possible: "Being bewildered, he is not aware of the bad consequences, like someone who eats a $kimp\bar{a}ka$ (fruit)", and "Being greedy, he is not aware of the bad consequences, as someone who gives (someone else) a $kimp\bar{a}ka$ (fruit) to eat".

The commentary by Rāma throws light on the passage and its double interpretation. Rāma himself gives as his opinion that the $kimp\bar{a}ka$ is a fruit of nimba, Azadirachta indica A.Juss., which has an edible pulp (Wealth of $India^2$ I/507). This does not elucidate the sense of the expression. Of more interest is his quotation of the earlier commentator Kataka (p. 258a, 15):

katakas tu: kimpāko viṣabhedas taṃ kopādinā bhakṣayann ātmahatyādoṣaṃ na budhyate tadvad ity artha ity āha. tatra lubdha iti nātyantaṃ samañjasam. dhanalobhādinā parasya viṣabhakṣaṇaṃ kārayan yathā hatyādoṣaṃ na budhyata iti vaktum ucitam.

This means that Kataka considers $kimp\bar{a}ka$ to be a poisonous fruit whose ingestion leads to certain death, which makes it suitable for committing suicide or murder. He prefers the second interpretation, taking bhakṣayati as a causative. Kataka's remarks point to Strychnos nux-vomica as the tree intended and its fruits, not to Antiaris toxicaria and its latex.

 $^{^{55}\} PW$ and MW state that it occurs in the Mahābhārata and Bhāgavatapurāṇa, referring to Bhāgavatapurāṇa 5.14.12.

⁵⁶ Bāpālāl Vaidya 1982: 147f.

Aśvaghoṣa, in his Saundarananda, is also acquainted with the deadly fruits of the $kimp\bar{a}ka$. Verse 9.48 says, in the translation of E.H. Johnston:

Just as eating a *kiṃpāka* fruit leads to death not to nourishment, though its taste, colour and fragrance be good, so application to the objects of the senses leads the man of unbalanced mind to disaster, not to prosperity.⁵⁷

This verse can only refer to the poisonous fruit of Strychnos nux-vomica.

A verse from Vidyākara's Subhāṣitaratnakoṣa (33.1121) refers to particulars of the $kimp\bar{a}ka$:

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When ripe, kimpāka fruit, though bitter and black within, you grow red outside and pleasing to the eye; yet, I know not what you have thereby to please the heart, unless it be the heart of crows.<sup>58</sup>
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The characteristics of this $kimp\bar{a}ka$ are exactly like those of Trichosanthes tricuspidata. Daniel H.H. Ingalls (1965: 545) remarks that this identification is probably correct. He refers to Mārkaṇḍeyapurāṇa 10.31 according to PW V/1296, but erroneously ascribes the following text to it: $kimp\bar{a}kavrkṣasyadhv\bar{a}nkṣ\bar{a}bhakṣantinetare$. In fact, Mārkaṇḍeyapurāṇa 10.31 reads:

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tasmād yāsyāmy aham tāta tyaktvemām duhkhasamtatim | trauīdharmam adharmādhyam kimpākaphalasamnibham ||
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The plant referred to in this verse, whether a tree or a climber, has obviously poisonous fruits, suitable for committing suicide. It would not be Trichosanthes tricuspidata, and is more likely Strychnos nux-vomica or Strychnos colubrina. Ingalls' quotation which states that only crows eat its fruits conflicts with regarding $kimp\bar{a}ka$ as Trichosanthes tricuspidata, the fruits of which are employed to get rid of crows, as Ingalls himself found out. He writes (Ingalls loc. cit.):

Kosambi write (sic) me as follows: The only local $\dot{sastr\bar{s}}$ who knew anything about the $kimp\bar{a}ka$ said that its fruit was the kaundal in Marathi. I then found that Nādkarni's Indian Materia Medica identified this kaundala with Trichosanthes palmata. Nādkarni (who says nothing of $kimp\bar{a}ka$) says that it is mixed with rice to poison crows when these birds get to be a nuisance.⁵⁹

 $^{^{57}}$ Saundarananda 9.48: yathopayuktan rasavarnagandhavad vadhāya kinpākaphalam na puṣṭaye | niṣevyamānā viṣayāś calātmano bhavanty anarthāya tathā na bhūtaye ||.

 $^{^{58}\,}$ Translation by Ingalls (1965: 319).

⁵⁹ See Nadkarni 1954: 1238 (No. 2512).

Ingalls adds that the same fruit (i.e., the fruit of Trichosanthes tricuspidata) is designated in verse 38.1260 as $mah\bar{a}k\bar{a}laphala$.

This verse runs, in Ingalls' translation (1965: 351):

Pleasing outside but black within: – Who is not fooled by the villain as by $kimp\bar{a}ka$ fruit?

This $mah\bar{a}k\bar{a}la$ (rendered as $kimp\bar{a}ka$ here) is undoubtedly Trichosanthes tricuspidata. 60

Of more importance is what the dictionaries have to say about another synonym of $k\bar{a}raskara$ (?), namely, vi; adruma. PW and MW regard it as a kind of poison tree, but MW adds: the upas tree.

This would mean that Antiaris toxicaria, the famous upas tree, was known in India. Will it be possible to confirm this? The other synonyms of $k\bar{a}raskara$ will also have to be taken into consideration.

The name garadruma, absent from PW, is explained as Strychnos nux-vomica in MW, though it is not found among the synonyms of $k\bar{a}kap\bar{\imath}lu$ or $kup\bar{\imath}lu$.

ramyaphala is, according to PW, a particular plant, according to MW, Strychnos nux-vomica, despite its absence among the synonyms of this tree name. The name ramyaphala may refer to the fig-like purple fruits of Antiaris toxicaria which are bitter when unripe, but edible when mature. Very remarkable is that Śāligrāma, who identifies $k\bar{a}raskara$ as Strychnos nux-vomica, does not notice that his information on the fruit is incompatible with this view, but does apply to the fruit of Antiaris toxicaria.

MW considers $kup\bar{a}ka$ to be a name for Strychnos nux-vomica again, to which the same objection as pertains to garadruma applies.

Finally, $k\bar{a}lak\bar{u}ta$ is the name of a famous poison, but whether or not it may be the latex of Antiaris toxicaria has to wait for a closer study.

⁶⁰ Several authors and works mention $mah\bar{a}k\bar{a}la$ as the Sanskrit name for Trichosanthes tricuspidata (Lour.) = T. palmata Roxb. = T. bracteata (Lam.) Voigt. Cf. Bāpālāl Vaidya 1982: 147f.: $mah\bar{a}k\bar{a}la$ as the Marathi name, $kimp\bar{a}ka$ as the Sanskrit name; Dutt 1922: 308; Dymock et al. 1890-1893: II/70; Nadkarni 1954: 1238. The name is rather rarely found in nighantus and similar works. A treatise listing a series of synonyms is the Paryāyaratnamālā (378): $uruk\bar{a}la$, $mah\bar{a}k\bar{a}la$, $kimp\bar{a}ka$, $k\bar{a}kamardaka$; this string is repeated in Haricaraṇasena's Paryāyamuktāvalī (17.24). $mah\bar{a}k\bar{a}la$ is employed in prescriptions expounded in the Kāmaratna (4.79 and 5.81).

Summarizing, the result of this investigation may be that the *upas* tree, Antiaris toxicaria, was known in India, though it rarely appears in texts.

IV. THE PAIPPALĀDASAMHITĀ

An interesting question to which the next part of this paper will be devoted is whether Strychnos nux-vomica may also be designated in some cases and in particular in early or rather early times by the name $p\bar{\imath}lu$, without the specifying $k\bar{a}ka$ - before it.

My interest in this problem was aroused by reading Arlo Griffiths' dissertation, entitled "The Paippalāda Saṃhitā of the Atharvaveda, Kāṇḍas 6 and 7. A New Edition with Translation and Commentary" (Leiden 2004 [Griffiths 2009]). One of the hymns of the seventh $k\bar{a}nda$ attracted my attention. This hymn (7.19) is devoted to the $p\bar{\imath}lu$ tree, identified by Griffiths as Careya arborea Roxb.

It occurred to me that, since the hymn presupposes a large tree whose ripe fruits harbour poisonous seeds, the strychnine tree, which produces fruits of this character, could be meant.

The identification of the $p\bar{\imath}lu$ tree of the Paippalādasaṃhitā as Careya arborea is improbable since, though a large tree, it does not possess the type of seeds stipulated by the hymn.

Paippalādasaṃhitā (PS) 7.19.3 runs:

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yayāhus *tṛṣṭaṃ kaṭukam apagūdhaṃ phale kulam |
tasyai hiranyakeśyai namah kṛnmo arātaye ||
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Griffiths translates:

She by whom, they say, a harsh, sharp pit is hidden away in [its] fruit, to her, the golden-haired Arāti, do we bring homage.

Some comments on this verse are necessary. The $p\bar{\imath}lu$ tree is associated with evil in the form of a demonic being called Arāti, also referred to in PS 7.19.4; this evil being is known from Vedic literature. Another being, egg-eating ($and\bar{a}da$) and fetus-spoiling ($garbhad\bar{u}sana$), called Arāya, is referred to in PS 7.19.5 as a source of evil to be defeated by the $p\bar{\imath}lu$ tree; it, too, is a member of a group of demonic beings like those attested in the Paippalādasaṃhitā.

The pit (kula) is a seed, as is clear from the use of this word in this sense in the Carakasamhitā.⁶¹ The word trsta is more problematic, but commonly, according to Griffiths, associated with poison in Vedic texts.

This indicates that a tree with poisonous seeds is described. This certainly did not escape Griffiths's notice. He therefore took recourse, understandably, to Watt who, in his A Dictionary of the Economic Products of India, 62 remarks, without naming his source, that the seeds of Careya arborea are said to be more or less poisonous. Watt, however, also quotes the Reverend A. Campbell who says that the fruit is eaten by the Santals⁶³ and adds from another source, not named, that they are also consumed in the Punjab. 64 R.B. Mohanty and M.K. Rout (2003) report that the leaves are used as fodder in Orissa and is claimed to enhance the milk production of cattle. The later secondary literature rarely refers to a poisonous character of the seeds. 65 James A. Murray is one of the few who give information on this matter. He remarks in his The Plants and Drugs of Sind that Endlicher says that, although the fruit is eaten, the seeds are suspicious.66 This Endlicher is probably Stephan F.L. Endlicher, a botanist who lived from 1804 to 1849; among the number of books he wrote the quoted remark may be from his Enchiridion botanicum, published in 1841. Several authors mention that the root, bark and leaves are employed to kill fish, but the fruit is only referred to in that context by S.P. Agharkar.⁶⁷ Conclusive investigations on this issue are not known to me.

Careya arborea can thus be discarded rather safely as a possible identification of the $p\bar{\imath}lu$ of the Paippalādasaṃhitā.⁶⁸

It may even be argued that $p\bar{\imath}lu$ rarely designates this tree, despite entries in the authoritative dictionaries. Both PW and MW give as the first identification of $p\bar{\imath}lu$ Careya arborea. It is still enigmatic to me whence this information stems. The tree is almost nowhere called $p\bar{\imath}lu$ in works on the Indian flora and Indian materia medica; the only exception is the

⁶¹ Ca. Ci. 1.1.75: akulaka; Cakrapānidatta: = anasthan.

⁶² Watt 1885-1893: II/157.

⁶³ Bodding 1925-1940, however, does not mention Careya arborea as used by the Santals in their medicine or as a tree with edible fruits.

⁶⁴ McCann (McCann n.d.: No. 8), probably relying on Watt (see his Preface), also mentions that the fruits are eaten in the Punjab and given to cattle.

⁶⁵ McCann, probably relying on Watt again, remarks that the seeds are regarded as poisonous. A similar statement is found in Pandey 2001: 320.

⁶⁶ Murray 1881: 194.

⁶⁷ Agharkar 1953: 245.

⁶⁸ The tree is not mentioned in Chopra et al. 1940.

work of Kirtikar – Basu (1935). The most common name is always $kumbh\bar{\imath}$, an appropriate appellation. The name derives from a peculiar cavity within the fruit, at its apex, which makes it resemble a kumbha, a water-jar. "Belegstellen" where $p\bar{\imath}lu$ must be interpreted as Careya arborea are not easily discovered, but may be found by means of a careful study of the relevant context.

The second identification given in the standard dictionaries is Salvadora persica Linn. This is not a large tree, but more usually a shrub, and has no connection whatsoever with the $p\bar{\imath}lu$ of the Paippalādasaṃhitā. No parts of it are poisonous. It is well known as one of the trees that yield tooth sticks ($dantak\bar{a}siha$), though some Dharmaśāstra works (VS 61.4) forbid the use of this particular tree for the purpose (cf. below p. 39f. and n. 121).

Usually, the $p\bar{\imath}lu$ of Sanskrit literature is a Salvadora species, either Salvadora persica Linn. or Salvadora oleoides Decne. Both resemble each other and can be used for the same purposes. The main difference is the colour of the fruits. Whether one of the two may be the $b\bar{r}hatp\bar{\imath}lu$ distinguished in some of the nighantus cannot be decided; there is no clear-cut difference in the size of the trees themselves, but the dimensions of the fruit may be decisive in this respect.⁶⁹

Careya arborea Roxb. is a large deciduous tree, found throughout a large part of India. The simple and stalked leaves are alternate, oval and dentate, crowded at the end of branches. The sessile, showy flowers with four sepals, four petals and many stamens are large and pinkish or yellowish white, clustered at the end of branches in short spikes; they usually appear in April, generally when the tree is destitute of leaves. The green fruits are ovate berries of the size of an apple (ca. 8 cm.), contain many seeds embedded in fleshy pulp, and have a peculiar and unpleasant smell. They are surmounted by an enlarged mouth having a depressed pit at the vertex within the calyx-teeth and the remains of the style. The thick and exfoliating grey bark with shallow cracks is used by a sect of $s\bar{a}dhus$ to cover their bodies and on account of this the sect is known as Kumbhapaṭiā. The moistened bark gives out a mucilage.

Salvadora persica Linn., on the other hand, is a small, thick-stemmed and soft-wooded evergreen tree or shrub, found in low and arid land. The trunk is generally crooked and the bark deeply cracked. The numerous

⁶⁹ Cf. RN 11.63; anyaś caiva bṛhatpīlur mahāpīlur mahāphalaḥ | rājapīlur mahāvṛkṣo madhupīluḥ ṣaḍāhvayaḥ ||. This pīlu is called mahāphala; the name madhupīlu precludes that it is Careya arborea. Kamat (2006: 13) regards the bṛhatpīlu as Salvadora oleoides.

spreading branches are pendulous at their extremities. The opposite leaves are entire, oval, smooth and shining on both surfaces. The numerous small, greenish yellow flowers appear in terminal compound panicles. The plant is flowering and fruiting nearly all year. The fruits are globose, minute, smooth berries, red when ripe, with an aromatic smell and taste, not unlike garden cress.

Salvadora oleoides Decne. resembles S. persica closely and is found in the same type of ecosystem. Its leaves are linear—lanceolate. Its flowers are greenish white. The fruits are also similar, but yellow when ripe.

The confusion about the identity of $p\bar{\imath}lu$ created by the dictionaries is well illustrated in the etymological Sanskrit dictionaries of Manfred Mayrhofer, who opted for Salvadora persica in the first version (Mayrhofer 1956-1980: II/295f.), but for Careya arborea in the later version (Mayrhofer 1986-2001: II/138f. and III/326).

In summary, we see that the dictionaries and the secondary literature are of no avail in establishing the identity of the Paippalāda $p\bar{\imath}lu$, which must be some other tree.

The identity of the $p\bar{\imath}lu$ is unfortunately not elucidated by the plant called $p\bar{\imath}luparn\bar{\imath}$. The plants adduced in PW and MW do not possess leaves resembling those of Careya or Salvadora. Another species, regarded as $p\bar{\imath}luparn\bar{\imath}$ in the literature, Maerua oblongifolia (Forsk.) A. Rich., has similar leaves, but completely different properties. In general, the ending $-parn\bar{\imath}$ after a plant name does not even unambiguously indicate that the leaves of such a plant are similar to those of the plant designated in the first part of the compound. Balwant Singh and Chunekar give as an example $m\bar{\imath}lakaparn\bar{\imath}$, a synonym of sigru, Moringa oleifera Lam., which does not mean that the leaves of sigru resemble those of $m\bar{\imath}laka$, Raphanus sativus Linn., but that "its root and root-bark are like $m\bar{\imath}laka$... in taste ... and medicinal properties". 71

The word $p\bar{\imath}lu$ is rare in Vedic literature. It is absent from the Rgveda. The adjective $p\bar{\imath}l\acute{u}mat$ is found once in the Śaunakīya recension of the

 $^{^{70}\,}$ PW gives three plants: "(1) Sansevieria zeylanica Willd., (2) Momordica monadelpha Roxb. [an old name for Coccinia grandis (Linn.) Voigt = Cephalandra indica Naud.], (3) ein bestimmtes Heilkraut". MW mentions Momordica monadelpha and adds that it is also a certain drug.

⁷¹ Singh – Chunekar 1972: 398.

Atharvaveda (18.2.48), where it qualifies the middlemost heaven. The second occurrence is at 20.135.12.⁷²

The question to be discussed further is whether or not Strychnos nux-vomica Linn. is a proper candidate for the referent of the word $p\bar{\imath}lu$.

As to its characteristics, it is suitable. Moreover, one would expect it to be mentioned in later Sanskrit literature. Its presence in Vedic literature, however, is more problematic. The Paippalādasaṃhitā is a text that originated in Northwestern India, where the tree does not grow nowadays. I do not know whether this was also the case in Vedic times. Climate changes and/or deforestation may have altered the situation. A very early commercial route between the northern and southern parts of India has to be assumed if the tree was absent from the North. The seeds of Strychnos nux-vomica pose no problem in themselves. They are usually dried and are easily transportable.

The solution of the problem is not possible in the present state of our knowledge.⁷³

V. Various Sanskrit Sources

Other works known to mention $p\bar{\imath}lu$ have been examined by Renate Syed in her thesis "Die Flora Altindiens in Literatur und Kunst" (Syed 1990). She concludes that in all the places she studied a Salvadora is meant. This conclusion may be premature and contestable in a number of cases.

 $p\bar{\imath}lu$ – Salvadora persica or Careya arborea?

The texts examined by Syed are:

(1) Atharvaveda 20.135.12:

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tvám indra kapótāya chinnapakṣấya váñcate |
śyấmākam pakvám pílu ca vấr asmā ákṛṇor bahúḥ ||
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You, o Indra, provided for the staggering pigeon whose wings were clipped much ripe millet and $p\bar{\imath}lu$ -fruit, [and you provided] water for it (transl. Griffiths 2009: 437).

 $^{^{72}}$ See on these passages Griffiths 2009: 435-438. Whitney's translation (1905) of Atharvaveda 18.2.48 is: "Watery is the lowest heaven, full of stars (? $p\bar{\imath}lu$) is called the middlemost; the third is called the fore-heaven, in which the Fathers sit."; for 20.135.2 see below.

⁷³ The interesting fact remains that the seed of $p\bar{\imath}lu$ is called kula in the Paippalāda-samhitā, a term used as a synonym of Strychnos nux-vomica in later Indian literature.

O Indra, der Taube, deren Flügel abgeschnitten waren und die sich schwankend bewegte, hast du reife Hirse⁷⁴, $p\bar{\imath}lu$ und reichlich Wasser gegeben (transl. Syed 1990: 443).

Syed may well be right in regarding this $p\bar{\imath}lu$ as Salvadora persica; its fruits are sweet, edible, and easily procurable in dry regions of India. However, it can also be Salvadora oleoides, whose fruits are also sweet and edible, and sometimes fed to cattle. Salvadora oleoides is found in the arid parts of the Punjab and western India. Less probable is that the fruits of Strychnos nux-vomica are meant, though many birds are said to be fond of their pulp that contains only small amounts of toxic alkaloids. These fruits would not have been easily procurable.

(2) Harṣacarita 3 (p. 95; from the description of the region named Śrīkantha):

pade pade karabhapālibhih ... $(dr\bar{a}ks\bar{a}lat\bar{a}mandapaih \mid)$... $p\bar{\imath}lu^{75}pallava-prasphotitaih$... $(d\bar{a}dim\bar{\imath}n\bar{a}m)$ vanair $(vilobhan\bar{\imath}yopanirgamah)$.

At every step are groups of young camels. (The exits are made attractive by vine-arbours and pomegranate orchards;) arbours, ablaze with $p\bar{\imath}lu$ sprays ... (transl. Cowell – Thomas 1897: 80).

Rundherum waren Wälder, in denen die $p\bar{\imath}lu$ -Schößlinge aufbrachen, versehen mit Kamelgruppen ... (transl. Syed 1990: 443).

The translations of $p\bar{\imath}lupallavaprasphotita$ are not very accurate. The meaning is clearly that these trees have begun to bloom; the flowers are present in loose panicles, but the trees cannot be ablaze with them as their colour is greenish white or greenish yellow. In this case the $p\bar{\imath}lu$ may be Careya arborea, occurring throughout India, a tall tree and not a shrub as Salvadora, ⁷⁶ and with showy flowers (cf. above p. 26). Its leaves are a favourite fodder for camels.

(3) Harṣacarita 8 (p. 235; from the search after the mendicant Divākaramitra):

 $nir bhayabh\bar{u}ribhurundabhujyam\bar{a}nap\bar{a}kakapilap\bar{\imath}lavah \dots ^{77}$

The usual identification of $\pm \sqrt{3}$ $\pm \sqrt{3}$ $\pm \sqrt{3}$ is Echinochloa frumentacea Link = Panicum frumentaceum Roxb. This kind of millet, cooked in water like rice, is consumed mostly by the poorer classes; the grains are also used for feeding cage birds (Wealth of India² HII/125f)

⁷⁵ Commentary: pīlur vrksabhedah.

 $^{^{76}\,}$ Syed regards also this $p\bar{\imath}lu$ as Salvadora persica. Sharma (1975b) thinks that $p\bar{\imath}lu$ designates this tree wherever it is found in Bāṇa's works.

⁷⁷ Commentary: bhuruṇḍāḥ pakṣibhedāḥ; pīluphalam sraṃsīkam. Several nighanṭus mention sraṃsī as a synonym of pīlu: BhPN, āmrādiphalavarga 128; NŚ 139; Kaiyadevanighantu, osadhivarga 452; Sodhalanighantu (SN), nāmasamgraha 575cd.

The *bhurundas* were fearlessly eating the ripe brown-red fruit of the $p\bar{\imath}lu$ trees ... (transl. Cowell – Thomas 1897: 234).

Furchtlos verzehren die zahlreichen bhurunda's die reifen, braunroten $p\bar{\imath}lu(\text{-Früchte})$... (transl. Syed 1990: 443).

The bhurunda / bherunda bird

The *bhuruṇḍa*, also called *bhāraṇḍa*, *bhāruṇḍa* and *bheruṇḍa*,⁷⁸ is mentioned in the Mahābhārata:

MBh 3.170.43cd and 47cd = MBh (B) 3.173.48ab and 52cd:

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śālāvṛkāṇāṃ pretānāṃ bhuruṇdāṇām ca sarvaśaḥ || ... sarvam āsīj jagad vyāptam tasminn astre visarjite ||
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Hyenas, ghosts, *bhurundas* ... filled up all the universe when that weapon was launched (transl. van Buitenen 1975: 551).

MBh 3.198.35a-d \approx MBh (B) 3.207.36a-d:

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urundā<sup>79</sup> vāmanāh kubjāh sthūlaśīrsās tathaiva ca |
klībāś cāndhāś ca jāyante badhirā<sup>80</sup> lambacūcukāh<sup>81</sup> |
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People are born stunted,⁸² dwarfish, hunchbacked, large-headed, impotent, blind, deaf, drooping, and stammering [...] (transl. van Buitenen 1975: 620).

MBh $6.8.11 \approx$ MBh (B) 6.7.12 (from a description of the country of the Uttarakurus):

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bhārundā nāma śakunās tīkṣṇatundā mahābalāḥ |
te nirharanti hi<sup>83</sup> mrtān darīsu praksipanti ca ||
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⁷⁸ See on this bird: Hopkins 1915: 20; Mayrhofer 1956-1980: II/496 and 1986-2001: III/368, s.v. *bhāraṇḍa*; Stache-Rosen 1977. Stache-Rosen (p. 492, n. 34) refers to a monograph and an article in Kannada: Devulu Narasimha Sastri, *Bheruṇḍeśvara*, Mysore Insurance Company (year unknown), and M. Hanumantha Rao, Gaṇḍabheruṇḍa, in: *Savinenapu*. Festschrift for Prof. T.S. Venkannaya, Mysore 1970, p. 651-659. She discusses several images of Gaṇḍabheruṇḍa, coins, inscriptions, etc., in her article. A particular gesture of dancers, called after *bheruṇḍa*, is described in Nandikeśvara's Abhinayadarpana, v. 203.

⁷⁹ MBh (B): bherundā.

⁸⁰ MBh (B): badhirā jāyante.

⁸¹ MBh (B): 'tyuccalocanāh.

 $^{^{82}}$ It is not clear why van Buitenen rendered urunda as "stunted". Nīlakaṇṭha: $bherund\bar{a}h=bhay\bar{a}nak\bar{a}h.$

⁸³ MBh (B): tān nirharantīha.

 $MBh\ 12.91.21cd = MBh\ (B)\ 12.89.22cd$ (see also $MBh\ 12.94.36cd = MBh\ [B]\ 12.93.37cd$):

bhārundasadrśā hy ete nipatanti pramādyatah //84

MBh (B) 12.169.9-10ab (\approx MBh 12.163.9):

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samantato dvijaśresthās tatrākūjanta vai tadā | manuṣyavadanāś cānye bhārundā iti viśrutāḥ || bhūlingaśakunāś<sup>85</sup> cānye sāmudrāh parvatodbhavāh |
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Another work referring to these birds is the Pañcatantra. 86 The Viṣṇusmṛti (VS) is acquainted with Vedic mantras called the Bhāruṇḍas. 87

Further sources mentioned by Valentina Stache-Rosen (1977) are: the Parāśarasmṛti⁸⁸ and the Śatruñjayamāhātmya, ⁸⁹ some other Jain works,

⁸⁴ Commentary by Nīlakantha: $bh\bar{a}runda = grdhra$.

⁸⁵ E. Washburn Hopkins (1915: 20) associates the *bhārundas* with the *bhūlinga* birds of the Mahābhārata who also have a human voice and are reckless, even picking the lion's teeth. The relevant verses (MBh 2.41.19-21; MBh [B] 2.44.28-30; also quoted by Dave 1985: 362) are: bhūlingaśakunir nāma pārśve himavatah pare | bhīṣma tasyāḥ sadā vācaḥ śrūyante 'rthaviqarhitāh || mā sāhasam itīdam sā satatam vāśate kila | sāhasam cātmanātīva carantī nāvabudhyate || sā hi māmsārgalam bhīsma mukhāt simhasya khādatah | dantāntaravilagnam yat tad ādatte 'lpacetanā //. The commentator Nīlakantha calls the bhūlinga a bilaśāyī pakṣiviśeṣaḥ; he explains māṃsārgala as: daṃṣtrāntaralagnasya māṃsasya bahirnirgatabhāgam ullolam. Dave brings forward that simha does not denote a lion here, but a crocodile; he does so because he regards the bhūlinga as the African plover, Pluvianus aegyptius, commonly known as the crocodile bird. This bird owes its name to its frequent association with the Nile crocodile from the body of which it picks out parasites; as the monster is sunning itself on the bank with its mouth agape, the bird boldly enters it to draw out the leeches sticking to the jaws. It also renders another service to the crocodile, in that, being a very wary bird, it flies off with warning cries at the approach of danger; the crocodile taking the warning then slips into the water. It will be readily seen that for Dave the leeches are the $m\bar{a}msa$ and the warning cry of the birds the $m\bar{a}s\bar{a}hasam$ cry of the Mahābhārata story. It is probable, according to Dave, that in former times the plover frequented the Sind coast or the estuary of the Indus river, or else that the ancient Indians heard of the bird's habits from the seafaring merchants of ancient India. However, this suggestion is fanciful and unconvincing. A bird called bhilunga, mentioned in the Paesi-kahānaya, cannot be the same as the $bh\bar{u}linga$, if this is indeed an aquatic bird, but reminds one more of the carnivorous bherunda, according to Bollée 2005: 69f.

⁸⁶ Pañcatantra, aparīkṣitakāraka (5), bhāruṇḍapakṣikathā (13).

⁸⁷ VS 56.3 (13). Jolly (1880: 185) says in a footnote to his translation that Bhāruṇḍa is the name of certain *sāmans*, twenty-one in number, which begin with Rgveda 10.16.6 (see Nandapandita's commentary); cf. MBh (B) 1.70.39, quoted below in n. 103.

⁸⁸ Dave (1985: 397) quotes from Pārāśarasmṛti 6.7: bherundacāṣabhāsāś ca parāvata-kapiñjalau.

⁸⁹ See Weber 1858: 31 (referred to in Stache-Rosen 1977: 491). The bhāranḍas are called khilapakṣiṇaḥ, translated as "Wüstenvögel" by Weber (loc. cit., n. 1).

specifically the Sūtrakṛtāṅga⁹⁰ and the Uttarādhyayana,⁹¹ the Kathāsaritsāgara,⁹² Brahmapurāṇa,⁹³ Brahmāṇḍapurāṇa⁹⁴ and Śivapurāṇa,⁹⁵ and the Yaśastilakacampū,⁹⁶ as well as some lexica: Hemacandra's Anekārthasaṃgraha,⁹⁷ the Viśvaprakāśa⁹⁸ and the Dvirūpakośa.⁹⁹ Left unmentioned by her is the Padmapurāṇa.¹⁰⁰ The Medinīkośa mentions a goddess and a Yakṣiṇī called Bheruṇḍā.¹⁰¹

Additional material on the *bherunda*, in particular in Jain works, is found in a book by Willem B. Bollée; ¹⁰² K.N. Dave in his work on birds in

⁹⁰ Sūtrakṛtānga 2.2.70: "(There are monks) who are always waking like the fabulous bird Bhārunḍa" (transl. Jacobi 1895: 378).

 $^{^{91}}$ Uttarādhyayana 4.6: "Be always watchful like a *bhāruṇḍa* bird" (transl. Jacobi 1895: 19). In a footnote Jacobi adds that each of these birds has two necks and three legs.

⁹² See Tawney 1924-1928: II/219, n. 2, and III/60-63: the "overhearing" motif.

 $^{^{93}}$ Brahmapurāṇa 164.3-37: a story about King Pavamāna's conversation with a ciccika bird named Bheruṇḍa; this bird says that nobody is afraid of it and that it is not afraid of anybody.

⁹⁴ Brahmāndapurāna 3.4.19.4, according to Stache-Rosen 1977: 492, n. 31, and 3.4.24.49: vikarnākhyaś ca daityendraś camūbhartā mahābalah / bherundapatanārūdhah pracandayuddham ātanot //.

⁹⁵ Śivapurāṇa 2.5.49.12 (for the beginning of the sentence, cf. 2.5.49.3cd-4a: maheśvarāt punarjātaḥ śukro vedanidhir munih || dadarśa ...): aghoram ghoradaityaghnam ghoraghosam vanaspatim | bhasmāṇam jatilam śuddham bherundaśatasevitam ||.

Yaśastilakacampū 1.144.4 according to Stache-Rosen 1977: 492, n. 28.

⁹⁷ Anekārthasamgraha 3.188c: bherundau bhīṣaṇakhagau (compare the quotation in Dave 1985: 397).

⁹⁸ Viśvaprakāśa p. 45, v. 32cd: bherundo devatābhede pakṣino bhidi ceṣyate. Dave quotes from the same work: bherundo bhīmadarśanapakṣino bhidi (Dave 1985; 397).

⁹⁹ Stache-Rosen (1977: 493, n. 38) refers to the Dvirūpakośa of Śrīharṣa, ed. Ranganathaswami, Vizagapattam 1896, v. 151.

¹⁰⁰ See Dange 1986: 127 (referring to Ādi 4.2-12).

¹⁰¹ Medinīkośa 13.34cd.

¹⁰² See Bollée 2005: 70 with notes 1-2. Bollée refers to his own book of 1995 (p. 167), to Kapadia 1962, to Haribhadra's Āvassayanijjutti (one pair of the bird has three legs: tesim jugalassa tinni pāyā), to the Paṇṇavaṇāsutta (1.78: the bhāranḍa is called a cammapakkhī), and to Hemacandra's Triṣaṣṭiśalākāpuruṣacarita (10.11.347). The bhāruṇḍas are mentioned in the story about Kumāranandin and Nagila (10.11.333-387): "Embarked with Kumāranandin, after he had gone a long way on the ocean-path, the old man said: 'Look here, please. On the shore of the sea at the foot of a mountain one can see a fig tree. Cling to this when the boat passes underneath. The bhāruṇḍas, three-legged birds, will come here from Pañcaśaila. While they are asleep, bind yourself firmly with a cloth to the middle foot of one of them and hold on with a tight grip. At daylight, you will reach Pañcaśaila by the bhāruṇḍas flying up. Later the boat will perish in the whirlpool and, if you do not cling to the fig tree, you also will perish in the same way, alas!" (transl. Johnson 1962: 286). Kapadia (1962: 81-83: bhāraṇḍa|bhāruṇḍa), in his turn, refers to further passages where the bhāranda is mentioned: Śīlānka Sūri's com-

Sanskrit literature also refers to several additional sources. ¹⁰³ A treatise left unmentioned so far is the Vasudevahindi. ¹⁰⁴

K.N. Dave defends his view that three kinds of *bheruṇḍa* are to be distinguished: (1) the two-faced type, which may be the dodo, ¹⁰⁵ (2) the bearded vulture, Gypaetus barbatus (L.), and (3) the adjutant stork, Leptoptilos dubius (Gmelin 1789). ¹⁰⁶ The fruit-eating *bhuruṇḍas* of Bāna's Harsacarita are out of tune with carnivorous vultures and storks,

mentary on the Sūyagada Nijjutti (v. 108), Mahānisīha 9.693, Nāyādhammakahā 1.5, Oyavāiya s. 27, and Pajjosavanākappa s. 118.

¹⁰³ Additional sources as given by Dave are: Hemacandra's Deśīnāmamālā: bherundo citrakah (this quotation by Dave is not from the Deśīnāmamālā, but from the commentary; the text itself has at 6.108: bherundo dīvī bhoyabhoiyā bhādigāmapavaresu | ahiyārisambale bhollayam ca bhārundayammi bhorudao //, and the commentary runs: bherundo citrakah, bhoo bhātih, bhoio grāmapradhānah, bhollayam prabandhapravrttam pātheyam, bhorudo bhārundapaksī, yathā: anutittham kayabhoyā ekkamuhīhavia bhollayam leha / bhoiyabherundā domuhabhorudayāna pecchaha avāyam //); MBh (B) 1.70.39; bhārundasāmagītābhir atharvaśirasodgataih / yatātmabhih suniyataih śuśubhe sa tadāśramah //; Matsyapurāṇa 6.16f. (on dvimūrdhan śakuni belonging to the progeny of Danu): danuḥ putraśataṃ lebhe kasyapād baladarpitam | vipracittih pradhāno 'bhūd yeṣām madhye mahābalah || dvimūrdhā śakuniś caiva tathā śankuśirodharah | ayomukhah śambaraś ca kapiśo vāmanas tathā //, and 6.35f. (bherunda as a son of Jatāyus): sampātiś ca jatāyuś ca arunasya sutāv ubhau | sampātiputro babhruś ca śīqhragaś cāpi viśrutah || jatāyusah karnikārah śatagāmī ca viśrutau | sāraso rajjuvālaś ca bheruṇḍaś cāpi tatsutāh |/; Nāradapurāṇa 3.77.88: bheruṇdā vāyasā grdhrā hamsādyāh paksijātayah (3.77.85-90: "May these be destroyed: ... all those different types of beings which desire to attack us during twilight, by day or by night"); Nighanturatnākara: galeśunda paksivišesa (I have not been able to find the passage on the qaleśunda although the index called Vaidyakaśāstrāntīla pāribhāsika śabdāmcā kosa for vol. 1 of the Nighanturatnākara [p. 55] says: galeśunda paksiviśesa); Pariśistaparvan of Hemacandra 2.2408: velādharo bhārandah; Ristasamuccaya of Durgadeva 176a: qiddhūlūya bhārayado (qrdhrolūka bhāranda) (translation by Gopani: "[It is not good, if one of these is seen, namely, a vulture, an owl, a bhāranda (a fabulous bird) ..."; Śabdārthacintāmani: bhāranda uttarakurudeśajaśakunapaksin.

This work contains a story called "The journey of Cārudatta", in which a group of merchants is instructed by the caravan leader to kill the goats they have been riding and to slip into their hides so that the *bhārunḍa* birds mistake them for raw meat and carry them off to Ratnadvīpa (see Jagdishchandra Jain's Introduction to his translation p. 48 and his translation p. 290-298). Jagdishchandra Jain refers to Haribhadra's commentary on the Āvassaya, as Bollée does, and gives a summary of the story found there (together with the gist of a similar story by Śaktideva in Kathāsaritsāgara 2.218f.). He also refers to the commentary on the Uttarādhyayana (18.251f.). Finally, he draws attention to comparable stories about the bird Rukh, also called Seemurgh, in the "Arabian Nights". The daring (*dhṛṣṭa*) birds with iron beaks (*ayastunḍa*) of the Buddhacarita (14.14) may be related to the *bheruṇḍas*.

Dave's defense of this improbable suggestion will convince no one.

 $^{^{106}}$ Dave 1985: 397-399. See the descriptions (and the corresponding colour plates) of these birds in Ali – Ripley 1983: 314-316 (no. 188) and 105-107 (no. 67).

and the dodo has never roamed on India's soil, which makes Dave's suggestions inapplicable to the case under discussion.

Dave also suggests that a bird mentioned in the commentary on the Vessantarajātaka, where it is called a *hatthilingasakuna*, may be the adjutant stork because it is characterized as a bird capable of taking away small children. ¹⁰⁷ He argues that this stork readily swallows a leg of mutton or a dead cat entire, and would strike at any living thing it can swallow at a gulp. In the Bakajātaka this bird is said to be ready to attack a lamb or kid. A second argument in support of this identification is, in his view, the 12 to 15 inch pendent pouch of the bird that resembles the trunk as the characteristic mark (*linga*) of the elephant (*hastin*). Dave is in doubt, however, and adds that also the bearded vulture was formerly reputed to carry off small children.

In the context of Harṣacarita 8, the colour of the $p\bar{\imath}lu$ fruits is important: Salvadora persica has red fruits, and those of the closely related Salvadora oleoides are yellow. The colour kapila throws some doubt on Syed's identification because it means reddish brown, monkey-coloured; this also excludes the fruits of Careya arborea and Salvadora oleoides, but not those of Strychnos nux-vomica, which can indeed have this hue.

The second point is the fearlessness of the *bhuruṇḍa* birds. Is there no danger around or are they not afraid of the fruits? The latter would point to the fruits of Strychnos nux-vomica with their poisonous seeds. The large size of *bhuruṇḍa*s is also in favour of Strychnos nux-vomica, the fruits of which are a delicacy to large birds, hornbills for example. An objector might argue that the reference to two completely different $p\bar{\imath}lu$ trees in one and the same literary work is not very attractive, but a poetic mind like that of Bāṇa cannot be expected to describe nature with the accuracy expected of a scientist. The option that nirbhaya is a fixed characteristic of the bheruṇda birds in this instance, as it is actually sometimes observed, appears inappropriate because it is followed and not preceded by the qualification $bh\bar{\imath}ri$.

Let us continue with the survey of the sources adduced by Syed for her identification of $p\bar{\imath}lu$ as a Salvadora.

Jagdishchandra Jain (cf. Vasudevahiṇḍi p. 291) also mentions this huge bird called hatthilinga referred to in the Jātaka commentary and adds that it is described as possessing the strength of five elephants. According to him, a hatthilinga also figures in the Dhammapada commentary where Queen Sāmavatī, wearing a red cloak, is mistaken by this bird for a piece of meat.

 $p\bar{\imath}lu$ – Salvadora Persica or Careya arborea (continued)

(4) MBh 2.47.4 = MBh (B) 2.51.4:

```
aśvāms tittirikalmāśāms triśatam śukanāsikān |
uṣṭravāmīs triśatam ca puṣṭāh pīluśameṅgudaih ||
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(Der König von Kamboja gab als Tribut) 300 papageiennasige Pferde der Tittiri- und der Kalmāśa-Rasse sowie 300 Kamelstuten, wohlgenährt durch $p\bar{\imath}lu$, $\acute{s}am\bar{\imath}$ und \acute{inguda} (transl. Syed 1990: 443).

(The Kāmboja gave as tribute ...) horses, gray and dappled, three hundred of them, with beaklike noses, and three hundred camel mares fed with dates, $\pm \delta am\bar{\iota}$, and $\pm inguda$ nuts (transl. van Buitenen 1975: 116).

The leaves of both Salvadora persica and Salvadora oleoides are still used as camel fodder, but Careya arborea is also a good fodder tree, which makes the identification of this $p\bar{\imath}lu$ difficult. The reason for van Buitenen's rendering $p\bar{\imath}lu$ as "date" is an enigma; this meaning is not recorded in the dictionaries. The leaves of inguda, Balanites aegyptiaca (Linn.) Delile, are not a good fodder for horses because this drought-hardy tree is spiny; they are eaten by cattle, sheep and goats. Its fruits are erroneously called nuts by van Buitenen; they contain a stone-like kernel and their pulp is edible, but they are not used as food for camels. The pods of $\dot{s}am\bar{\imath}$ are used as fodder for livestock (cf. below p. 38f.).

The verse MBh 2.47.4 gives rise to more problems. Horses with noses like those of parrots or beaklike noses may not exist. tittiri and kalmāśa are not names of particular races (kula) of horses, as Syed assumes. A breed called taittila is described in the Śivatattvaratnākara (7.13.34-37) as an upakula of saindhava, not of kāmboja horses; it is also mentioned in Someśvara's Mānasollāsa, and Nakula's Aśvaśāstra calls it taittika. I think, agreeing with van Buitenen on this point, that tittiri and kalmāśa are colour names, not names of breeds. This is confirmed by the commentator Nīlakaṇṭha who explains tittiri as tittiripakṣivac citra, i.e., of a variegated or spotted colour as the tittiri bird, a partridge. kāmboja horses, on the contrary, are well known and usually found at the head of lists of horse breeds. 109

(5) $MBh \ 3.174.23ed = MBh \ (B) \ 3.177.23ed$:

 $bilvengud\bar{a}h\ p\bar{\imath}lu\acute{s}am\bar{\imath}kar\bar{\imath}r\bar{a}h\ sarasvat\bar{\imath}t\bar{\imath}raruh\bar{a}\ babh\bar{u}vuh\ ||$

bilva, inguda, $p\bar{\imath}lu$, $\acute{s}am\bar{\imath}$ and $kar\bar{\imath}ra$ were growing on the banks of the Sarasyatī.

¹⁰⁸ See Wealth of India² III/275.

¹⁰⁹ See on these lists Misra 1982: 185-187.

Both species of Salvadora, S. persica and S. oleoides, do not need much water and are in particular found in the dry and arid regions of India, on saline lands and in coastal regions just above the high-water mark. 110 Aegle marmelos (bilva) is found in dry deciduous forests, Balanites aegyptiaca (Linn.) Delile (inguda) in the drier parts of India. Prosopis cineraria (Linn.) Druce ($śam\overline{\imath}$) also grows in dry and arid regions, as does Capparis decidua (Forsk.) Edgew. ($kar\overline{\imath}ra$). 111 The plant community described in the above verse is typical of arid regions, which makes it unlikely that $p\overline{\imath}lu$ designates Careya arborea here, a tree occurring sporadically throughout the greater part of India except in very dry areas. 112

The presence of the described community of trees on the banks of the Sarasvatī is remarkable. This river, now lost in the sands of the desert, flowed on to the sea in ancient times.¹¹³

(6) MBh $8.30.35-36a \approx MBh$ (B) 8.44.31cd-33a:

```
pañca nadyo vahanty etā yatra pīluvanāny api |
śatadruś ca vipāśā ca tṛtīyerāvatī tathā |
candrabhāgā vitastā ca sindhuṣaṣṭhā bahirgatāḥ ||<sup>114</sup>
ārattā nāma te deśāh ...
```

Dort, wo die fünf Flüsse fliessen, dort gibt es auch $p\bar{\imath}lu$ -Wälder: Śatadru, Vipāśā, als dritte die Irāvatī, Candrabhāgā und Vitastā und als sechstes die Sindhu, hervorgekommen (aus dem Himālaya), dort liegen die Gegenden Āraṭṭā ... (transl. Syed 1990: 444).

Syed's view that these $p\bar{\imath}lu$ forests are composed of Salvadora persica is not convincing in view of the many rivers mentioned in this region. It may well be that Careya arborea is meant, with the proviso that forests of this usually sporadically present tree do exist.

(7) Bṛhatsaṃhitā (BS) 29.11ab:

 $\bar{a}mraih\ kṣemam\ bhall\bar{a}takair\ bhayam\ p\bar{\imath}lubhis\ tath\bar{a}rogyam\ |^{115}$

Mangos point to safety; Semecarpus to danger; walnuts to healthiness (transl. Kern 1913: $\rm I/269$).

One should infer the happiness of mankind from mangoes; danger, from Bhallātaka; health, from Pīlu (transl. Bhat 1981: 284).

Wealth of India IX/193-194.

¹¹¹ Van Buitenen translates karīra as "thorns" (1975: 560).

¹¹² Wealth of India² III/274.

¹¹³ See on the Sarasvatī, for example, Murthy 1980.

¹¹⁴ Variants in MBh (B): uta instead of api, trtīyairāvatī, bahir gireh.

No remark on $p\bar{\imath}lu$ is found in Bhattotpala's commentary.

Kern's rendering of $p\bar{\imath}lu$ as "walnut" is remarkable. He does not mention a source for this identification, but it reminds one of the $p\bar{\imath}lu$ fruits from the North mentioned by Cakrapāṇidatta in his commentary on the Carakasaṃhitā. 116

(8) BS 53.63ab:117

pūrvottarena pīlor yadi valmīko jalam bhavati paścāt /118

If an ant-hill is stationed north-east of a Pīlu-tree, there will be water to the west (transl. Kern 1913: II/32 [54.63ab]).

Ein Ameisenhaufen nordöstlich eines $p\bar{\imath}lu$ deutet auf Wasser westlich davon hin (transl. Syed 1990: 444 [54.63ab]).

If there be an ant-hill to north-east of a Pīlu tree, there would be water ... to the west of the tree (transl. Bhat 1981; 511 [54.63ab]).

(9) BS 53.65:

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pīlor eva prācyām valmīko 'to 'rdhapañcamair hastaih | diśi yāmyāyām toyam vaktavyam saptabhih puruṣaih ||
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Should the ant-hill stand on the eastern side of the Pīlu-tree, then it may be predicted that in a southerly direction there is water, at 7 m. l., at a distance of four cubits and a half (transl. Kern 1913: II/32 [54.65]).

If the ant-hill be to the east of the Pīlu tree, there would be water 4 cubits and a half to the south at a depth of 35 cubits (transl. Bhat 1981: 512 [54.65]).

(10) BS 53.75:

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pīlusametā badarī hastatrayasammite diśi prācyām |
vimśatyā purusānām aśosyam ambho 'tra saksāram ||
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On the east side of a jujube combined with a Pīlu, water will be found, never drying, but brackish, at 20 m. l. (transl. Kern 1913: 32 [54.75]).

If the jujube tree is combined with a Pīlu tree, there will be an inexhaustible supply of brackish water 100 cubits below to the east of the tree at a distance of three cubits (transl. Bhat 1981: 514 [54.75]).

¹¹⁶ See Cakrapāṇidatta ad Ca. Sū. 2.4, 27.145cd-146ab; Ka. 7.20cd; Si. 7.63. The $p\bar{\imath}lu$ fruits from the North may be those of the walnut tree, Juglans regia Linn., called $girip\bar{\imath}lu$ in a number of sources. It has rarely been observed that the $p\bar{\imath}lu$ of the Carakasamhitā may not be the ordinary tree of that name in all instances where it appears. An awkward point remains: the Carakasamhitā and Cakrapāṇi are acquainted with the walnut tree under the name aksota. Cf. further p. 58f. below.

 $^{^{117}\,}$ See Shastri 1969, Appendix IV: "Dakārgala or the art of exploring under-ground water-springs".

Bhaṭṭotpala only makes clear that the $p\bar{\imath}lu$ is a tree; the same applies at 53.65 and 75.

The verses on water veins and the other trees mentioned in the same context point to the $p\bar{\imath}lu$ as a desert tree. It may therefore be a Salvadora. Certainty cannot be reached, for the presence of underground water is not a requirement for this tree. Termites, on the other hand, need water and the presence of their buildings $(valm\bar{\imath}ka)$ indicates its presence under the surface of the soil.

(11) Śārṅgadharapaddhati 205:

karabhadayite yat tat p $\bar{\imath}$ tam sudurlabham ekad \bar{a} madhu vanagatam tasy \bar{a} l \bar{a} -bhe virausi kim utsuk \bar{a} |

kuru paricitai
h pīloh pattrair dhṛtim marugocarair jagati sakale kasyāvāptih sukhasya nirantara
m $\vert\vert$

Weshalb klagst du, Kamelweibchen, voll von Sehnsucht darüber, daß du nicht länger das süsse Wasser, das du im Walde getrunken, erlangen kannst? Gib dich mit den in der Wüstenei allein erreichbaren Blättern des $p\bar{\imath}lu$ zufrieden! Wer in der ganzen Welt kann Glück in ununterbrochener Folge geniessen? (transl. Aufrecht 1873: 88f.).

Here the $p\bar{\imath}lu$ is a tree growing in arid regions, which means that it is a Salvadora.

(12) Subhāsitaratnakosa 17.512cd:

dattvā pīluśamīkarīrakavalān svenāñcalenādarād āmṛṣṭaṃ karabhasya keśarasaṭābhārāvalagnaṃ rajaḥ //

Liebevoll rieb sie (die Gattin) den dick anhaftenden Staub von dem Mähnenhaar des Kamels mit dem Saume ihres eigenen Gewandes ab, nachdem sie ihm einige Händevoll $p\bar{\imath}lu$, $\acute{s}am\bar{\imath}$ and $kar\bar{\imath}ra$ gereicht hatte (transl. Syed 1990: 443).

[Her husband has returned across the trackless desert; the mistress of the household looks upon his face with eyes unsteady from her tears of joy.] She offers to his camel palm and thornleaf and from its mane wipes the heavy dust with the hem of her own garment, tenderly (transl. Ingalls 1965: 187).

Ingalls remarks in his notes (1965: 505): " $p\bar{\imath}lu$: the desert palm; śam $\bar{\imath}$: the thorny Prosopis spicigera; ... $kar\bar{\imath}ra$: the common desert thorn". The śam $\bar{\imath}$, Prosopis cineraria (Linn.) Druce = P. spicigera Linn., is indeed a tree with branches bearing conical spines; it is found in dry and arid regions of India. The $kar\bar{\imath}ra$, Capparis decidua (Forsk.) Edgew., is not thorny; it is a shrub or small tree with scanty small leaves found only on young shoots. It may be that Ingalls had Capparis spinosa Linn. in mind, the leaves of which are relished by sheep and goats. The reasons

for the interpretation of $p\bar{\imath}lu$ as a desert palm are completely obscure to me.

The leaves of $p\bar{\imath}lu$, $\acute{s}am\bar{\imath}$, i.e., Prosopis cineraria (Linn.) Druce = P. spicigera Linn., and $kar\bar{\imath}ra$, i.e., Capparis decidua (Forsk.) Edgew., are suitable as camel fodder. Both Salvadora persica and Careya arborea can be the $p\bar{\imath}lu$ of this verse.

(13) Manusmrti 2.45:

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brāhmano bailvapālāśau kṣatriyo vāṭakhādirau | pailavaudumbarau vaiśyo daṇḍān arhanti dharmatah ||
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The staff of a $vai\acute{s}ya$ Vedic student should be of $p\bar{\imath}lu$ or udumbara wood.

(14) Vāsisthadharmasūtra 11.54:

... audumbaro vā vaišyasya

... and a Vaiśya's [staff should be] of udumbara wood (transl. Olivelle 1999: 279).¹¹⁹

(15) Gautamadharmasūtra 1.22-23:

bailvapālāśau brāhmanadandau. āśvatthapailavau śese.

A Brahmin's staff is made of wood-apple or Palāśa wood, and those of the other two of banyan and Pīlu wood, respectively (transl. Olivelle 1999:79). 120

(16) VS 61.4:

na ca kovidāraśamīpīlupippalengudaguggulujam

(A householder must not use for cleaning his teeth) ... nor (the twigs of) the *kovidāra* (yugapattraka), śamī, pīlu (gudaphala), pippala (holy figtree), inguda, or guggula trees ... (transl. Jolly 1880: 197).¹²¹

The $p\bar{\imath}lu$ is omitted.

¹²⁰ The Āpastambadharmasūtra (1.2.38) does not mention the $p\bar{\imath}lu$, the Baudhāyanadharmasūtra (1.3.15) does not specify any tree. See Bühler's note on his translation of Manusmṛti II.45 (1886: 38) for more parallels.

¹²¹ The rules about trees and other plants suitable for making toothsticks vary. The VS recommends the banyan, asana, arka, khadira, $kara\~nja$, badara, sarja (= $s\~ala$), nimba, arimeda, $ap\~am\~arga$, $m\~alat\~i$, kakubha, and bilva (VS 61.15). Ca. Sū. 5.73cd-74ab recommends $kara\~nja$, $karav\~ra$, arka, $m\~alat\~i$, kakubha, and asana. A.s. Sū. 3.12cd-13ab enumerates as suitable vata, asana, arka, khadira, $kara\~nja$, $karav\~ra$, sarja, arimeda, $ap\~am\~arga$, $m\~alat\~i$, and kakubha.

The ban on the $p\bar{\imath}lu$ has not yet been elucidated and is remarkable because this tree in particular is used for making toothsticks over a very wide area of Asia and Africa. Syed observes:

Das Verbot war nötig, um den Baum zu schützen, wurde er doch für zu wertvoll angesehen, um ihn ständiger Plünderung zu überlassen. 122

She does not explain why the $p\bar{\imath}lu$ was regarded as valuable; it is questionable whether this was actually the case. Syed adds in a footnote:

Auffallend ist, daß die Zweiglein all derjenigen Bäume nicht als Zahnstocher verwendet werden durften, die gutes, zur Herstellung von Möbeln, Götterbildern etc. brauchbares Holz lieferten. Diese wertvollen Bäume sollten unversehrt bleiben, das tägliche Abbrechen von vielen Zweiglein hätte ihnen geschadet.¹²³

VI. THE ARTHAŚĀSTRA: PĪLU AND SOME OTHER PLANTS AND ANIMALS

An important source mentioning $p\bar{\imath}lu$ a number of times in an unusual context has still to be examined in order to investigate which kind of tree may be meant. This treatise is the famous Kauṭilīya Arthaśāstra (AŚ). To that purpose the relevant passages will be studied in detail.

(1) The first passage is AŚ 2.12.8, where $p\bar{\imath}lu$ forms part of a number of plant materials and other substances employed in the extraction of metals from their ores. The identity of this $p\bar{\imath}lu$ is not easy to determine. P. Sensarma regards it is Careya arborea. ¹²⁴ The wood of that tree is said to be a moderately good fuelwood; that of Salvadora oleoides and Salvadora persica is not a good fuel. Another tree may be meant here. The wood of Strychnos nux-vomica is close-grained, hard and heavy.

Gaṇapati Śāstrī remarks in his $Śr\bar{\imath}m\bar{u}l\bar{a}$ (ŚM) that $p\bar{\imath}lu$ is the tree called gudaphala (I/202,2). This name, though absent from the early medical classics, is simply a rather common synonym of Salvadora persica, probably because its fruits are sweet.

(2) The second passage from the same chapter is AŚ 2.12.9, where the ashes $(k s \bar{a} r a)$ of the $p \bar{\imath} l u$ are said to give softness $(m \bar{a} r d a v a)$ to the metal extracted.

¹²² Syed 1990: 446.

¹²³ Syed 1990: 446, n. 2.

¹²⁴ Sensarma 1998: 50.

(3) AŚ 13.1.16:

 $p\bar{\imath}luvikh\bar{a}danena$ karakayoştry \bar{a} gardabh $\bar{\imath}k$ ş $\bar{\imath}r\bar{a}bhimanthaneneti$ dhruvopakārina iti.

ŚM (III/183):

pīlvityādi.dhruvāpakāriņo ye parasya nityāpakartārastān, pīluvikhādanena pīluvṛkṣaviśeṣaphalaṃ tiktarasaṃ tasya vikhādanena bhakṣaṇena — yathā pīlubhakṣaṇam tiktarasatvād udvejakaṃ tadvat parasevanam iti kathanenety arthah, karakayā tiktarasah śākabhedaḥ karakā tayā, uṣṭryā tiktarasa oṣadhibheda uṣṭrī tayā tābhyāṃ saha param udvejakatvena dharmenopamāyety arthaḥ, gardabhīkṣīrābhimanthanena paropasarpaṇasya tatsamānatvakathanenety arthaḥ.

J.J. Meyer (1926: 615):

[...] die, die beständige Dienste erwiesen haben, (sollen aufgestachelt werden) mit dem "Zerkauen der Pīlufrucht", dem "Wasserkrug", dem "weiblichen Kamel" und dem "Buttern der Milch einer Eselin".

Kangle (1972: 476):

(He should stir up) ... those who constantly oblige, by the eating of the $p\bar{\imath}lu$ -fruit, the hail, the female camel and churning of the she-donkey's milk.

Shamasastry (1960: 425):

(They should characterise the enemy) as eating a piece of the wood of pīlu (Careya-Arboreo), or as churning the milk of a she-camel or a she-donkey (for butter) to those who are rendering to him valuable help.

This is a difficult passage from the chapter on "Instigation to Sedition". The word *dhruvopakāriṇaḥ* is an emendation suggested by J.J. Meyer (1926: 615, n. 2) and adopted by Shamasastry and Kangle. The manuscripts have *dhruvāpakāriṇaḥ*, "constantly doing harm", a reading adopted by Gaṇapati Śāstrī. For my part, I am not sure that the correction is necessary.

The $p\bar{\imath}lu$ meant here cannot be Careya arborea or a Salvadora. The fruits of these trees are not bitter; Salvadora fruits are even sweet. They do not constitute a source of trouble and are unsuitable for stirring up people to whatever action. They do not belong to edibles called $kh\bar{a}dya$, which need chewing.

J.J. Meyer remarks in a footnote (loc. cit.):

Die Frucht des $p\bar{\imath}lu$, d.h. der Careyya arborea dient zum Fettmachen von Tieren¹²⁵ und wird, wie es scheint, zerkaut und weggespuckt. Oder dient Pīluholz besonders zur Reinigung der Zähne? Solches Holz wird nach

¹²⁵ See MBh 2.47.4, already dealt with above, p. 35.

dem Gebrauch als magisch gefährlich sorgfältig weggetan. Der Wasserkrug endet als verachteter Scherben, einerlei wie viel des erquickenden Segens er getragen hat, und das Kamel wird nur tüchtig ausgenutzt und schlecht behandelt. Die Butterung der Eselsmilch führt zu keinem Ergebnis, ebensowenig der Dienst bei solch einem Landesherrn.

Kangle explains in a note (Kangle 1972: 476):

 $p\bar{\imath}lu$ is a kind of fruit which apparently provides no nourishment, but is only a source of trouble; so is $upak\bar{a}ra$ conferred on this king.

This interpretation is completely wrong.

The other items are also hard to interpret. Kangle comments (loc. cit.):

karakā "hail" is understood as a kind of bitter vegetable in Cs, as a waterjug by Meyer. A hail-stone may signify harmfulness or uselessness. — uṣṭryā: this also is a kind of bitter plant according to Cs. One may understand the female camel as being useless for purposes of milk. — gardabhī- etc. apparently signifies great effort with no return.

Gaṇapati Śāstrī remarks on $p\bar{\imath}lu$ that the fruit of a particular tree is meant with a bitter taste, without specifying which tree he has in mind. ¹²⁶ Neither Salvadora persica and oleoides nor Careya arborea bear such fruits, which makes Gaṇapati's interpretation hard to understand. The extremely bitter seeds of Strychnos nux-vomica, however, may be intended, which makes this passage of the Arthaśāstra of great significance for a solution of the question raised in this investigation.

Kangle's suggestion about $karak\bar{a}$ as identical with a bitter vegetable mentioned in the Carakasamhitā is unintelligible, for $karak\bar{a}$ as a plant name is absent from that treatise. The word karaka may mean a watervessel, as Meyer takes it, but the dictionaries indicate that it also denotes various plants, while another karaka means tax or tribute. The text, however, does not mention karaka but $karak\bar{a}$, unknown as a plant name.

Kangle's remark about $u \dot{s} t r \bar{\iota}$ as referring to a bitter vegetable mentioned in the Carakasamhitā has no basis. The word is absent from that text in this sense. ¹²⁸ Compounds with $u \dot{s} t r a$ as the first member are not rare at

¹²⁶ Cf. the quotation from the $\acute{S}r\bar{\imath}m\bar{\imath}l\bar{a}$ above, p. 41.

 $^{^{127}\,}$ PW and MW (valid names added): Bauhinia variegata Linn., Butea monosperma (Lam.) Taub. = Butea frondosa Koenig ex Roxb., Capparis decidua (Forsk.) Edgew. = Capparis aphylla Roth, Mimusops elengi Linn., Pongamia pinnata (Linn.) Pierre = Pongamia glabra Vent. = Derris indica (Lam.) Bennet, and Punica granatum Linn.

 $^{^{128}}$ PW does not give uṣṭrī as a plant name. It is a plant name found in a nighaṇṭu according to MW.

all as plant names, but I have not come across an $ustr\bar{i}$ so far. The name $ustrik\bar{a}$, however, as well as $karabh\bar{a}$, are synonyms of $vr\acute{s}cik\bar{a}l\bar{\imath}$, 129 a plant described as bitter and found in all three works forming the Bṛhattrayī. It is variously identified as Pergularia daemia (Forsk.) Choiv. = Pergularia extensa (Jacq.) N.E.Br. = Daemia extensa R.Br. = Asclepias daemia Forsk., Tragia involucrata Linn. and Girardinia diversifolia (Link) Fries = Girardinia heterophylla Decne. = Urtica diversifolia Link.

Shamasastry omits $karak\bar{a}$ in his translation and is of the opinion that $p\bar{\imath}lu$ wood is intended.

(4) AŚ 14.1.15:

 $\pm \bar{a}rik\bar{a}kapotabakabal\bar{a}k\bar{a}lendam ark\bar{a}k \pm ip\bar{\imath}lukasnuhik \pm irapiṣṭam andh\bar{\imath}karanam añjanam udakadūṣanam ca.$

ŚM (III/216):

tatra śārikā gorātī, bakah kahvah, balākā bisakanthikā. arko 'rkaparnākhyausadhih, aksī vṛkṣabhedo vibhītakaprakārah, snuhiḥ samantadugdhā.

J.J. Meyer (1926: 641):

Mist der Predigerkrähe, der Taube, des Reihers und des Kranichs, zusammengeknetet (pishta) mit Calotropis gigantea, akshi, $p\bar{\imath}luka$ und der Milch der Euphorbia antiquorum gibt eine Augensalbe, die blind macht, und ein Mittel, das Wasser zu vergiften.

Kangle (1972: 496):

The dung of the $\dot{s}\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$, the pigeon, the heron and the crane, kneaded with the milk of arka, $ak\dot{s}i$, $p\bar{\imath}luka$ and snuhi plants is a blinding eye-salve and a polluter of water.

Shamasastry (1960: 443):

The ointment prepared by mixing the excretion of śārikā (maina), kapota (pigeon), baka (crane), and balākā (a kind of small crane), with the milk of maṅkāshī (hyperanthera morunga), ¹³⁰ pīluka (a species of careya arborea) and snuhi (euphorbia), causes blindness and poisons water.

The Hindī translation of Vāchaspati Gairola (Gairola 1962: 906-907) has the same as Kangle.

¹²⁹ RN 9.7-9.

¹³⁰ Hyperanthera moringa Vahl is (according to Hooker 1875-1897) a no longer valid name for Moringa oleifera Lam., which has no latex.

Gaṇapati Śāstrī interprets arka as a plant called arkaparṇa or $arkaparṇ\bar{a}$, which names are not recorded. Furthermore, he is obviously of the opinion that ak si is related to the tree called ak sa or $vibh\bar{v}taka$, Terminalia bellirica (Gaertn.) Roxb. (a tree without a latex), but this idiosyncratic view is found nowhere else. The author of the $\acute{S}r\bar{v}m\bar{u}l\bar{a}$ does not identify $p\bar{v}luka$.

J.J. Meyer interprets arka as Calotropis gigantea (Linn.) R.Br. ex Ait.f., but Calotropis procera (Ait.) Ait.f. is also employed as arka.¹³² He connects $k \not \sim \bar{n} ra$ with snuhi only. His identification of this plant as Euphorbia antiquorum Linn. is too specific; several species of Euphorbia possessing a milky sap are used as snuhi.¹³³

Meyer remarks in a footnote (1926: 641, n. 3):

Statt anka setze ich auch hier arka. Für das folgende $aksh\bar{\imath}p\bar{\imath}luka$ möchte man $aksh\bar{\imath}bap\bar{\imath}luka$ vermuten, da ja in dem vorhergehenden Augengiftmittel [see AŚ 14.1.13] $aksh\bar{\imath}ba^{134}$ und $p\bar{\imath}luka$ ebenfalls nebeneinander vorkommen. Aber akshi kehrt dann in den Zeilen 10 und 19 ebenfalls vor $p\bar{\imath}luka$ and 411, 9 vor gulgulu wieder. So wird wahrscheinlich akshi "Auge" der Name einer besonderen Pflanze sein.

Kangle (cf. his translation quoted above) assumes that aksi and $p\bar{\imath}luka$ are plants with a milky sap; whatever aksi may be, $p\bar{\imath}lu(ka)$ (Salvadora sp.) is without a latex. Unfortunately, Kangle gives no footnotes.

Shamasastry is wrong in regarding Careya arborea as a tree with a milky sap. He seems to leave out *arka* in his translation.

The major problem with this passage is the interpretation of $ak sip\bar{\imath}luka$, a word occurring three times in chapter thirteen. The solution of Kangle and Gaṇapati Śāstrī cannot be the right one: a plant called ak si is unknown and $p\bar{\imath}lu$ is not poisonous. Therefore I propose an emendation: da instead of lu; these ak saras resemble each other in the script of the manuscripts of the Arthaśāstra. The correct reading must be $ak sip\bar{\imath}daka$, the name of a plant of disputed identity, found twice in the chapter

 $^{^{131}}$ PW and MW regard arkaparņa and arkapatra as arka or its leaf, and arkapatrā as Aristolochia indica Linn. A plant called arkaparņī, of unknown identity, occurs in the Suśrutasaṃhitā (Ka. 8.106).

 $^{^{132}}$ Meyer obviously follows PW and MW which only mention Calotropis gigantea.

 $^{^{133}\,}$ Used as snuhi are Euphorbia neriifolia Linn., Euphorbia nivulia Buch.-Ham. and Euphorbia royleana Boiss.; see Abdul Kareem 1997: 61f.

¹³⁴ Not identified by J.J. Meyer. The Carakasaṃhitā mentions *akṣīva* twice: Sū. 4.11(15) as a member of the *krimighna* group of ten drugs (Cakrapāṇi remarks: either *abdaka* or *śobhāñjana*) and Ci. 3.267 (not the same as *śobhāñjana*, which is separately mentioned in the same recipe).

concerned with poisoning of the Carakasamhitā (Ci. 23), in the vicinity of $v\bar{a}yasap\bar{\imath}luka$.

This plant is known under a series of related names: akṣapīḍa, 135 akṣapīḍa, 136 akṣipīḍa, 137 akṣipīḍaka, 138 akṣipīḍā, 139 akṣipīḍākhyā, 140 akṣipīḍi-ka, 141 and aksipīdikā. 142

A number of authorities regard $ak sip \bar{\imath} da$ as a synonym of $yavatikt\bar{a}$, ¹⁴³ variously identified as Andrographis paniculata (Burm.f.) Wall. ex Nees, Canscora decussata Schult. et Schult.f., Centaurium roxburghii (G.Don) Druce, and Ipomoea grandiflora Roxb. Several sources consider $yavatikt\bar{a}$ to be a synonym of $\dot{s}a\dot{n}khin\bar{\imath}$ or interpret $ak sip\bar{\imath} da$ as $\dot{s}a\dot{n}khin\bar{\imath}$. ¹⁴⁴ This brings no relief because the identity of $\dot{s}a\dot{n}khin\bar{\imath}$ is very controversial. It is identified as Canscora decussata Schult. et Schult.f., Clitoria ternatea Linn., Ctenolepis cerasiformis Naud., Euphorbia dracunculoides Lam., and Mukia maderaspatana (Linn.) M.Roem.

An unequivocal identification cannot be reached.

arka yields a milky juice, as does $snuh\bar{\imath}$. It may be for that reason that Avadheś Nārāyaṇ Siṃha, in his book on the plants of the Arthaśāstra, identifies $ak \dot{s}i$ as an Euphorbia, namely Euphorbia dracunculoides Linn., though this plant is more commonly called $saptal\bar{a}$ and is not known for its latex, in contradistinction to many kinds of Euphorbia. He remains with the problem that the tree mentioned as $p\bar{\imath}lu$ does not possess a latex.

(5) AŚ 14.1.17:

karavīrākṣipīlukārkamṛgamāraṇīyogo madanakodravakvāthayukto hastikarṇapalāśayukto vā madanayogah.

ŚM (III/217):

 $mrgam\bar{a}rany\ osadhibhedah.$

¹³⁵ Su. Ci. 9.48; Paryāyaratnamālā 113.

¹³⁶ DhN 1.256; RN 3.380f...

¹³⁷ Ca. Ci. 23.216; Tantrasārasaṃgraha 10.16 and 44.

¹³⁸ Ca. Ci. 23.215 and Ka. 11.3.

¹³⁹ NŚ 276cd: $n\bar{a}kul\bar{\iota} = aksip\bar{\iota}d\bar{a}$; SN $n\bar{a}masamgraha$ 259.

¹⁴⁰ Indu *ad* A.s. Ci. 21.21: śańkhinī = aksipīdākhyā.

¹⁴¹ Sadrasanighantu 4.94.

¹⁴² Madanapālanighantu 2.15; Abhidhānamañjarī 51.

 $^{^{143}}$ Cakrapānidatta ad Ca. Ka. 11.3; Dalhaņa ad Su. Ci. 9.48; Ṣaḍrasanighaṇṭu 4.94; SN nāmasamaraha 259; DhN 1.256; RN 3.380f.

¹⁴⁴ Sadrasanighantu 4.94; SN nāmasamgraha 259.

¹⁴⁵ Simha 1989: 3-5.

J.J. Meyer (1926: 642):

[...] eine Mischung von Oleander, akshi, pīluka (Careya arborea), arka (Calotropis gigantea) und mrigamāraṇī ("Wildtöterin", "Gazellentöterin"), gemischt mit einem Absud von madanakodrava oder gemischt mit einem Absud von "Elefantenohr" und Curcuma zedoaria, gibt madanayoga (Betäubungsmixtur).

Kangle (1972: 496):

[...] a mixture of *karavīra*, *akṣi*, *pīluka*, *arka* and *mṛgamāraṇī*, mixed with a decoction of *madana* and *kodrava*, or mixed with a decoction of *hastikarṇa* and *palāśa* is a stupefying preparation.

Shamasastry (1960: 443):

(The mixture of) the powder of karavīra (oleander), akshipīluka (careya arborea), arka plant, and mṛgamāraṇī (?), combined with the decoction of madana and kodrava or with that of hastikarṇa and palāśa, is termed madana mixture (madanayoga).

Sensarma (1998: 87):

When $karav\bar{\imath}ra$ (Nerium indicum Mill.), aksi (Elaeocarpus ganitrus Roxb.?), $p\bar{\imath}luka$ (Careya arborea Roxb.), arka (Calotropis gigantea [L.] R.Br. ex Ait.), and $mrgam\bar{a}ran\bar{\imath}$ (some monocarpic plant) are mixed with the decoction of madana (Xeromphis spinosa [Thunb.] Keay) and kodrava (Paspalum scrobiculatum L.) or with that of hastikarna (Ricinus communis L.) and $pal\bar{a}sa$ (Butea monosperma [Lam.] Kuntz), a type of madanayoga is made. This can cause psychological disorder.

Meyer is right in considering $karav\bar{\imath}ra$ as the oleander, Nerium oleander Linn. Sensarma's Nerium indicum Mill. is an invalid synonym of the same shrub. According to my above suggestion (cf. p. 44) the plant called $ak \sin \bar{\imath} daka$ is mentioned here again, which means that $p\bar{\imath}lu$ is absent.

The identity of the plant called $mrgam\bar{a}ran\bar{\iota}$ is unknown. Its name suggests a poison used by hunters. It would be attractive to see here at last a name for the poison tree, Antiaris toxicaria, but the female form of the word indicates that it probably designates a herb. The remark of Sensarma that a monocarpic plant is meant is only a guess.

Meyer remarks rightly in a footnote on "Elefantenohr" und Curcuma zedoaria (1926: 642, n. 3): "oder hastikarṇapalāça als ein Wort: Butea frondosa, deren Saft den bengalischen Kino liefert".

Sensarma is of the opinion that ak
i a denotes Elaeocarpus sphaericus (Gaertn.) K.Schum. = Elaeocarpus ganitrus Roxb.; however, the stones of the fruits of this tree are commonly called rudr ak
i a, never ak
i a.

It is indeed erroneous to split up hastikarnapalāśa¹⁴⁶ into hastikarṇa and palāśa. A plant called hastikarṇa without a following palāśa is absent from the Arthaśāstra, while hastikarṇapalāśa is found several times in post-classical medical treatises.¹⁴⁷ P.V. Sharma identifies it as Butea superba Roxb., others as Leea macrophylla Roxb. ex Hornem. The plant called hastikarṇa occurs in the classical medical treatises¹⁴⁷ and is also identified as Butea superba by P.V. Sharma and as Leea macrophylla by Balwant Singh and Chunekar. P. Sensarma is the only one to consider hastikarṇa to be a name of Ricinus communis Linn., probably borrowing this identification from Bāpālāl Vaidya's Nighanṭu ādarśa (Bāpālāl Vaidya 1985). Butea monosperma (Lam.) Taub., palāśa, is consistently called Butea monosperma (Lam.) Kuntz. by this author.

Is the described mixture stupefying (a *madanayoga*) indeed? Poisonous ingredients are *karavīra* and *arka*. The seeds of Butea superba are used as a sedative and its roots contain a poisonous substance. Leea macrophylla, on the other hand, is not toxic at all; the leaves and fruits are eaten and the roots are medicinal.

hastikarņapalāśa is also found at AŚ 14.1.9:

śatakardamoccidingakaravīrakatutumbīmatsyadhūmo madanakodravapalālena hastikarņapalāśapalālena vā pravātānuvāte praņīte yāvac carati tāvan mārayati.

J.J. Meyer (1926: 639):

Soweit der Rauch von "Hundertdreck", (dem giftigen Wassertier) uccidinga, dem Oleander, der bitteren Flaschengurke und von Fisch, wenn (sie alle zusammen) mit dem Stroh von madanakodrava oder den Stengeln von "Elefantenrohr (sic)" (N. verschiedener Pflanzen) und Curcuma zedoaria verbrannt (werden), mit dem Luftzug dahinwehend, fortgeführt wird, tötet er (was er trifft).

Kangle (1972: 495):

The smoke of *śatakardama*, *uccidinga*, *karavīra*, the bitter gourd and fish, with the stalks of *madana* and *kodrava* or with the stalks of *hastikarṇa* and *palāśa*, when carried forth in a breeze blowing forward, kills everything to which it blows.

¹⁴⁶ A correct interpretation of the compound is found in Simha 1989: 473-476. See on the plant: Bāpālāl Vaidya 1982: 89-91; Sharma 1985: 354f.; Singh – Singh 1981.

¹⁴⁷ Kāśyapasamhitā Khila 17.90 (interpreted by Hemarāja Śarmā as *bhūpalāśa*); Cakrapāṇidatta's Cikitsāsamgraha (1933), *galagaṇḍa* 2; Vidyāpati's Vaidyarahasya, *gaṇḍa-mālā* 12; Todarānanda's Āyurvedasaukhya 6.15.28.

¹⁴⁸ Su. Sū. 39.9 and 45.115; A.h. (1939) Ci. 17.27.

Shamasastry (1960: 442):

The smoke caused by burning the powder of śatakardama (?), uchchidinga (crab), karavīra (nerium odorum), kaṭutumbi (a kind of bitter gourd), and fish, together with chaff of the grains of madana (?) and kodrava (paspalum scrobiculatum), or with the chaff of the seeds of hastikarṇa (castor oil tree) and palāśa (butea frondosa) destroys animal life as far as it is carried off by the wind.

Sensarma (1998: 90):

The powder of śata (Asparagus racemosus Willd.), kardama, karavīra (Nerium indicum Mill.), kaṭutumbi (a kind of bitter Lagenaria siceraria [Mol.] Standl.), uccidinga (Cancer pagurus), and fish, together with the chaff of the grains of madana (Xeromphis spinosa [Thunb.] Keay) and kodrava (Paspalum scrobiculatum L.), or with the chaff of the seeds of hastikarṇa (Ricinus communis L.) and palāśa (Butea monosperma [Lam.] Kuntz) — this smoke destroys animal life as far as it is carried off by the wind.

Sensarma is the only author to split *śatakardama* into *śata* and *kardama*, groundlessly assuming *śata* to be an abbreviation of *śatāvarī* and not knowing how to interpret kardama. Meyer remarks in a footnote (1926: 639, n. 7) that śatakardama is the name of an animal living in the mud. He regards uccidinga, in agreement with the standard dictionaries, as an aquatic animal. The small invertebrate animal called uccidinga(ka) is also mentioned at AŚ 14.1.4. The symptoms of an uccitinga bite are described in the Carakasamhitā. 149 Caraka regards it as *vāta*-provoking; the treatment for the bite is like that for a scorpion sting. 150 The Gulabkunverba team (Ca. [1941]), as well as R.K. Sharma and Bhagwan Dash (Ca. [1997]), regard it, for whatever reason, as a poisonous crab; Sensarma considers it to be the crab called Cancer pagurus which species is, however, an inhabitant of the North Sea, North Atlantic and Mediterranean. 151 P.V. Sharma (Ca. [1983a]) leaves the word as it stands. The fact that the *uccitinga* appears to be closely related to scorpions in the Carakasamhitā makes it probable that it is a similar animal, not a crab. and not even aquatic at all. The same uccitinga is found in the Suśrutasamhitā, where it is classified as a $v\bar{a}yavya$ type of $k\bar{\imath}ta$ that, as implied by the name of the type, excites $v\bar{a}ta$, 152 but is not associated with water at all. The *uccitinga* is also known to the Astāngasamgraha

¹⁴⁹ Ca. Ci. 23.153.

¹⁵⁰ Ca. Ci. 23.165, 172 and 174.

 $^{^{151}}$ The meaning "crab" is found in PW and MW and based on some indigenous lexica; these dictionaries may be the sources of the interpretation. It is questionable that poisonous crabs occur in India. Wealth of $India^1~({\rm II}/363\text{--}365)$ only records a number of edible crabs.

¹⁵² Su. Ka. 8.5-8ab.

as one of the $v\bar{a}yavya$ $k\bar{\imath}tas$.¹⁵³ This source adds¹⁵⁴ that it bites very painfully (abhyadhikavyatha) with its mouth parts. The commentator Indu (ad A.s. U. 43.36) remarks that the Mañjarī describes it as a thin, long and elevated (ucca) scorpion. The genus and species cannot be determined from this description. The most dreaded poisonous scorpions of India belong to the genera Buthus and Heterometrus, the red and the black scorpions. The poison of Buthus tamulus Fabr. is particularly virulent and sometimes fatal to children.

Kangle refrains from explaining śatakardama and splits two compounds which actually form one item each: madanakodrava and hastikarṇapa-lāśa.

Gaṇapati Śāstrī does the same (ŚM III/214f.): tatra kardamo yakṣakardamaḥ, karavīro hayamārākhya 155 oṣadhibhedaḥ, kaṭutumbī ikṣvāku, 156 madano 157 dhustūraḥ, kodravo dhānyabhedaḥ, hastikarṇaḥ kustumburuḥ, 158 palā-śah kaccoram. 159

Kangle, Gaṇapati Śāstrī and Sensarma split madanakodrava into two items, madana and kodrava. Kangle refrains from identifying madana, while Gaṇapati regards it as $dhust\bar{u}ra$, a species of Datura, a genus of poisonous plants. Sensarma considers it to be Catunaregam spinosa (Thunb.) Tiruv. = Xeromphis spinosa (Thunb.) Keay = Gardenia spinosa Thunb. The second member, kodrava, designates the grass Paspalum scrobiculatum Linn., from which the grain called kodo millet is obtained. The Arthaśāstra refers to kodrava also at 2.15.25 and 34^{160} and 2.24.12. A wild (vanakodrava) and a cultivated form are known. kodrava and its synonym $korad\bar{u}$, are frequently mentioned in medical texts, while

¹⁵³ A.s. U. 43.3f.

¹⁵⁴ A.s. U. 43.36.

¹⁵⁵ hayamāra is indeed one of the synonyms of karavīra, but two other plants are also called thus: Cascabela thevetia (Linn.) Lippold = Thevetia neriifolia Juss. ex Steudel and Wrightia tinctoria (Roxb.) R.Br. (see Abdul Kareem 1997: 31 and 147).

 $^{^{156}}$ These two names belong to Lagenaria siceraria (Molina) Standley = Lagenaria vulgaris Ser.

¹⁵⁷ The most usual identification of *madana* is Catunaregam spinosa (Thunb.) Tirvengadum = Randia dumetorum (Retz.) Poir., a non-toxic plant; its fruit pulp is an excellent emetic.

 $^{^{158}\,}$ This is a name commonly applied to Coriandrum sativum Linn.; this identification of hastikarna is absent from PW and MW.

This plant (kacchora in PW, kacora in MW) is a species of Curcuma (PW) or, more specifically, Curcuma zerumbet Roxb. (MW), an old name for Curcuma zedoaria Roscoe. Gaṇapati's remark that palāśa is the same as kaccora may derive from the Amarakośa (4.155a: karcūro 'pi palāśo 'tha).

¹⁶⁰ Information on the changes in the amount of pounded and boiled kodrava.

 $^{^{161}}$ At AŚ 2.24.12 kodrava belongs to the group of crops to be sown first.

madanakodrava is rather uncommon. The name occurs once in the Suśrutasamhitā (Ci. 17.37). It is interesting to see that Dalhana, though interpreting the word correctly himself, 162 adds that others explain it as meaning madana and kodrava. 163 which makes it less remarkable that this still happens with modern authors. Those doing so are faced with a toxic madana. Ganapati takes it as a synonym of dhustūra in this case. which is unusual but not impossible. dhustūra and dhattūra are names for poisonous Datura species. If Ganapati had taken a look at the Suśruta passage referred to be would have seen that the seeds of dhattūra and madanakodrava are mentioned together. The solution is easy: the grain of Paspalum scrobiculatum is poisonous in general, though nonpoisonous types have also been reported. The toxic principle is located to a great extent in the husk, the outer coat of the grain. After harvesting, the grain is therefore dried in the sun and then husked. It should be stored for six months before being used as food, as immature or newly gathered grains are poisonous. The chief symptoms of poisoning are unconsciousness or delirium, tremors of the voluntary muscles, vomiting, and difficulty in swallowing. 164

The remark that kardama is the same as yakṣakardama and the omission of śata are not helpful. Kangle mentions in a confusing footnote (Kangle 1972: 495, note on AŚ 14.1.9) that the $Śrīm\bar{u}l\bar{a}$ understands śata and kardama as two plants. Actually, yakṣakardama is not a plant, but a fragrant compound; its ingredients are enumerated in the Amarakośa (2.6.133ab), Paryāyaratnamālā (1721-1723), Bhoja's Cārucaryā (p. 293) and the Yogaratnākara (p. 99). The word śatakardama itself is absent from the standard dictionaries. Certainty about its identity with yaksakardama cannot be reached.

Shamasastry is not acquainted with śatakardama. He identifies karavīra as Nerium odorum Sol., an old name of Nerium oleander Linn. He also splits the compound madanakodrava and adds a question mark to madana without giving a botanical equivalent. His identification of hastikarṇa as the castor oil tree, Ricinus communis Linn., agrees with one of the options of the standard dictionaries. 165

 $^{^{162}\} madotp\bar{a}dak\bar{a}\underline{h}\ kodrav\bar{a}\ madanakodrav\bar{a}\underline{h}$ (p. 269a,24).

¹⁶³ anye tu vyākhyānayanti – madanam kodravajam bījam ceti (p. 469a,24f.).

¹⁶⁴ The Rājataranginī (8.2595f.) refers to the eating of *kodrava* as a food that is not without bad consequences: "Even greater misery befell *Lothana* and *Vigraha*[*rāja*] They ate cakes made of oats and Kodrava in husks and the like, and their bodies and clothes became discoloured by dirt" (transl. Stein 1900: II/204).

¹⁶⁵ The DhN (1.295f.) and RN (8.445f.) mention *hastikarna* as one of the names of the red type of Ricinus communis (*raktairanda*), not of the type with green leaves.

(6) AŚ 14.1.23:

 $m\bar{a}trv\bar{a}hak\bar{a}\tilde{n}jalik\bar{a}rapracal\bar{a}kabhek\bar{a}ksip\bar{\imath}lukayogo\ vis\bar{\imath}ucik\bar{a}karah.$

ŚM (III/217):

mātrvāhakah pakṣibhedaḥ, añjalikāra oṣadhibhedaḥ, pracalākabhekākṣipī-lukā vyākhyātāh.

J.J. Meyer (1926: 642):

Eine Mischung von Fledermaus, $a\tilde{n}jalik\bar{a}ra$, dem Giftreptil $pracal\bar{a}ka$, Frosch, akshi und $p\bar{\imath}luka$ (Careya arborea) bewirkt Cholera.

Kangle (1972: 497):

A mixture of $m\bar{a}t\bar{r}v\bar{a}haka$, $a\tilde{n}jalik\bar{a}ra$, $pracal\bar{a}ka$, the frog, $ak\bar{s}i$ and $p\bar{\imath}luka$ causes cholera.

Shamasastry (1960: 444):

The mixture of the powder of mātṛvāhaka (?), jalūka (leech), the tail of a peacock, the eyes of a frog, and pīluka (careya arborea), causes the disease known as vishūchikā.

Gairola's Hindī translation (Gairola 1962: 908) is similar to that of Kangle.

J.J. Meyer remarks in a footnote on añjalikāra (1926: 642, n. 6):

"An der Stirn zusammengelegte Hände machend", etwa: der "Beter", der "Andächtige", wohl Name eines Tierchens. Oder ist es = $a\tilde{n}jalik\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$ Mimosa natans? 166 $M\bar{a}triv\bar{a}hak\bar{a}$ bedeutet wohl dasselbe als $m\bar{a}triv\bar{a}hin\bar{i}$ Fledermaus.

Shamasastry takes $bhek\bar{a}k\dot{s}i$ as one word, meaning the eyes of a frog. Gaṇapati Śāstrī refers to his preceding explanations of $pracal\bar{a}ka$, $ak\dot{s}i$ and $p\bar{\imath}luka$.

Here again akṣipīḍaka (cf. above p. 45) may be mentioned.

The item called $m\bar{a}trv\bar{a}haka$ is a problem to the translators and the commentator. The term is, however, not absent from some medical treatises. Sodhala mentions it in his Gadanigraha, in the chapter on $yonig\bar{a}dh\bar{\iota}karana$ $(kaum\bar{a}ra~9.4).^{167}$ Cakrapāṇidatta's Cikitsāsaṃgraha (1933) refers to a

¹⁶⁶ This may be the plant now called Mimosa pudica Linn.

¹⁶⁷ Gadanigraha 9.4: mātṛvāhakacūrņena bhagam ālepayet sadā / maithunāni niṣeveta punaḥ kanyā bhaviṣyati //. The Hindī translator, Indradeva Tripāṭhī, remarks in a footnote: varṣākāl meṃ jo lambā-lambā (lagbhag ādhā iñc kā) lāl varṇ kā kīṭ hotā hai jo ek dūsre ke ūpar carhā rahtā hai usko mātṛvāhak yā gvālin kahte haim. He explains another insect, called vrsagopa, mentioned at Gadanigraha 9.7, as also indicating a gvālin.

mātṛvāhakakīṭa (galagaṇḍa 37). 168 Ṭoḍara's mātṛmāhukīkīṭa (Āyurveda-saukhya 6.15.71) may have the same meaning. The kīṭa called vāhaka, mentioned in the Suśrutasaṃhitā and the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha as a very dangerous one, of an agni nature, exciting all the three doṣas, and with a life-threatening (prāṇanāśana) bite, is probably related to the mātṛvā-haka. Jain literature is also acquainted with this animal. The Uttarā-dhyayana (36.129) mentions it as māivāhaya in a list of beings with two organs of sense. Jacobi remarks in a footnote to his translation (1895: 219, n. 3) that, according to the description of the "Avakûri" (?), the larvae of the Phryganeae 169 seem intended, and that, according to the Jīvavicāravṛtti, they are called cūdelī in Gujarātī. 170

The item called $a\tilde{n}jalik\bar{a}ra$ is not known as the name of an animal or plant, but $a\tilde{n}jalikarik\bar{a}$ is frequent as a plant name. The secondary literature rather often identifies it as Mimosa pudica Linn., which cannot be correct since this plant is a native of tropical America, naturalized in India after the arrival of the Portuguese. MW regards it as Mimosa natans Roxb., a no longer valid name for Neptunia oleracea Lour. A frequent synonym of $a\tilde{n}jalik\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$ is $lajj\bar{a}lu$. The latter is identified as another sensitive plant, Biophytum sensitivum (Linn.) DC.

The word $pracal\bar{a}ka$ occurs at two other places in the Arthaśāstra: 14.1.14, and 14.3.16. The $\acute{S}r\bar{\imath}m\bar{u}l\bar{a}$ explains it as meaning $may\bar{u}rabarha$ (III/216), the tail-feather(s) of a peacock, as does Shamasastry, while J.J. Meyer regards it as a poisonous reptile. These differences are based on what one finds in the dictionaries.¹⁷¹

The Suśrutasamhitā is acquainted with a kaphanimittaja $k\bar{\imath}ta$ (an insect or some other small invertebrate) called pracalaka (Ka. 8.13) and $pracal\bar{a}ka$ (Ka. 3.5) that possesses a $damstr\bar{a}$ and nakha poison. The $pracal\bar{a}ka$

¹⁶⁸ granthyarbudādijil lepo mātrvāhakakīṭajaḥ. Sivadāsasena explains: sukhāśādibhava-padakīṭa iti khyātaḥ. Niścalakara remarks in his Ratnaprabhā on the Cikitsāsamgraha (1933) (galaganḍa 46): surasādibījabhavaḥ pardakīṭa iti khyātaḥ (variant reading for bīja: vṛkṣa).

¹⁶⁹ The familiy of the caddisflies, the Phryganeidae, belongs to the insect order Trichoptera.

¹⁷⁰ On the Jīvaviyāra of Śāntisūri see Winternitz 1920: 354. The text has been edited, translated and annotated by Guérinot (1902). Verse 15 mentions the *māivāha* as an organism with two sense organs; the commentator Ratna, pupil of Meghanandana, remarks that this animal is well known in Gujarat.

¹⁷¹ PW s.v. pracalaka: a poisonous worm-like animal; s.v. pracalāka: peacock's tail, snake, another poisonous animal. MW s.v. pracalaka: "a venomous reptile"; s.v. pracalāka: "a peacock's tail or crest, a chameleon, a snake or other venomous animal". Kṣīrasvāmin ad Amarakośa 2.5.32: pracalāka = barha; the same at Hemacandra's Abhidhānacintāmaņi 4.386 and Halāyudha's Abhidhānaratnamālā 2.87.

is also known to the Astāngasamgraha (U. 43.8f.) as a saumya $k\bar{\imath}!a$ that excites kapha. It seems probable that the Arthaśāstra employs the word in this sense

So far, there is no trace of a $p\bar{\imath}lu$. However, two passages from the next chapter of the Arthaśāstra refer to the tree in a remarkable context.

(7) AŚ 14.2.22:

 $p\bar{\imath}lutvanmas\bar{\imath}mayah$ pindo haste jvalati.

ŚM (III/224):

pindo bolākhyam bhesajam.

J.J. Meyer (1926: 647):

Ein Ball aus dem Ruß der Rinde des $p\bar{\imath}lu$ (Careya arborea oder Salvadora persica) gemacht, flammt in der Hand.

Kangle (1972: 501):

A lump, consisting of the soot of the bark of $p\bar{\imath}lu$, burns in the hand.

Shamasastry (1960: 448):

The ball prepared from the powder of the charcoal of the bark of pīlu (careya arborea) can be held in hand and burns with fire.

Sensarma (1998: 91f.):

A lump, prepared from the powder of charcoal of the bark of $p\bar{\imath}lu$ (Careya arborea Roxb.), emits fire even without ignition, and the same can be held in hand without being injured.

Ganapati Śāstrī's $\acute{S}r\bar{\imath}m\bar{\imath}l\bar{a}$ has no remark on $p\bar{\imath}lu$.

The interpretation of AŚ 14.2.22 is not easy at all. The term $mas\bar{\imath}$ means soot, lampblack and a substance of the same kind employed as ink. The $\dot{S}r\bar{\imath}m\bar{\imath}l\bar{a}$ leads astray, as clearly a ball (pinda) made of the $mas\bar{\imath}$ of $p\bar{\imath}lu$ bark is intended. Its interpretation of the word as a medicine called bola cannot be correct. This medicine called bola is myrrh, the gum-resin derived from Commiphora myrrha (Nees) Engl. = Balsamodendron myrrha Nees, 172 an inhabitant of the Somali and Arabian littorals of the Red Sea. The earliest medical text mentioning bola is the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha. 173 Meyer's rendering of hastejvalati as 'it flames in the hand' does in

¹⁷² See Martinetz et al. 1988.

¹⁷³ A.s. Ci. 5.87 (5.85-92 is the recipe of a *rasāyana* ascribed to Vasiṣṭha which mentions *bolasthavira*, interpreted as *bolavṛkṣa* by Indu, as an ingredient) and 7.41 (*bolasthavira* again an ingredient in a recipe).

my opinion not convey what is meant; the emission of flames is not intended, but a feeling of burning in the hand as if it is being singed by flames. The author of the $\acute{S}r\bar{\imath}m\bar{\imath}l\bar{a}$, however, thinks otherwise. He remarks (III/224 ad 14.2.19-21): agninā gātraprajvālanam etesv ekaikam gātre 'nuliptam gātrasya pīdām vinaivāgniprajvalanasādhanam ity arthah. The nature of the $p\bar{\imath}lu$ tree is crucial in this case. The view, enunciated by Meyer and Shamasastry, that a ball made with the soot of the bark or the charcoal of Careya arborea is intended does not appeal, as Careya arborea is not a suitable tree for producing charcoal; this also applies to Salvadora. The wood of Strychnos nux-vomica, on the other hand, is hard and durable, and therefore more appropriate. This small detail may be a second indication that the $p\bar{\imath}lu$ of the Arthaśāstra can denote Strychnos nux-vomica Linn.

AŚ 14.2.22 is preceded and followed by a series of similar statements concerning substances which make the body feel as if burning with fire. The next statement (AŚ 14.2.23) says that the ball described, smeared with the muscle fat $(vas\bar{a})$ of a frog, ¹⁷⁴ gives the same or a stronger effect. ¹⁷⁵ The fat of a frog $(mand\bar{u}ka)$ appears to be an essential ingredient in a series of prescriptions of the same kind. ¹⁷⁶

A similar prescription is found at AŚ 14.2.20:

pāribhadrakatvanmaṣī maṇḍūkavasayā yuktā gātraprajvālanam agninā.

J.J. Meyer (1926: 647):

Ruß von der Rinde der Erythrina fulgens, gemischt mit Froschfett, gibt ein Mittel, die Glieder von Feuer flammen zu machen.

Kangle (1972: 500):

The soot of the bark of $p\bar{a}ribhadraka$, mixed with the fat of a frog, is a means of making limbs burn with fire.

Shamasastry (1960: 447f.):

When the body of a man is rubbed over with the powder of the charcoal of the bark of pāribhadraka (erythrina indica) mixed with the serum of the flesh of maṇḍūka (a frog), it can be burnt with fire (without giving hurt).

 $^{^{174}\,}$ Does a frog possess muscle fat? Sensarma (1998: 92) assumes $vas\bar{a}$ to be the serum of the flesh of the animal; he appears to have borrowed this interpretation from Shamasastry.

¹⁷⁵ There may be a difference of degree between *jvalati* and *agninā jvalati*.

 $^{^{176}}$ It is not without importance to realize that poisonous frogs, well known from South America, do not occur in India.

Sensarma (1998: 92)

If the body of a person is rubbed over with the powder of charcoal of $p\bar{a}ribhadraka$ (Erythrina variegata Linn. var. orientalis [L.] Merrill) or nimba (Azadirachta indica Juss.), mixed with the serum of the flesh of $mand\bar{u}ka$ (Rana tigrina or Bufo melanostictus), the body can glow without harming the person.

The Śrīmūlā regards pāribhadraka as a synonym of nimba (Azadirachta indica A.Juss.). The tree called pāribhadraka is commonly identified as an Erythrina species (Erythrina variegata Linn. = Erythrina indica Lam. or Erythrina stricta Roxb.). This identity may help in understanding the choice made in the recipe. Erythrina variegata and E. stricta have both eye-catching flowers of a coral-red colour, which may explain the association with fire. This does unfortunately not apply to $p\bar{\imath}lu$: Salvadora has inconspicuous flowers, while Careya arborea possesses showy flowers, but of a white, yellowish white or pink colour.

(8) AŚ 14.2.34:

pīlumayo manir agnigarbhah suvarcalāmūlagranthih sūtragranthir vā picupariveṣtito mukhād agnidhūmotsargah.

ŚM (III/226):

 $p\bar{\imath}lumayo$ manih $p\bar{\imath}lud\bar{a}runirmitam$ ali $\tilde{n}jaram$, agnigarbho 'ntargat $\bar{a}gnih$, suvarcal $\bar{a}m\bar{u}lagranthih$ kṣum $\bar{a}m\bar{u}lagranthih$, s $\bar{u}tragranthir$ v \bar{a} kṣum $\bar{a}m\bar{u}lagranthir$ v \bar{a} , picupariveṣtito nirasthit $\bar{u}lavestitah$.

J.J. Meyer (1926: 648):

Ein aus $p\bar{\imath}lu$ gemachtes Kügelchen, das Feuer im Innern birgt, in die Wurzeln der $suvarcal\bar{a}$ geknotet oder in Leinfäden geknotet und mit Baumwolle umwickelt ist, bildet ein Mittel, aus dem Munde Feuer und Rauch ausgehen zu lassen.

Kangle (1972: 501):

A ball made of $p\bar{\imath}lu$, with fire in the interior, with a knot of the root of $suvarcal\bar{a}$ or with a knot of thread, encircled by cotton, is (a means of) emitting fire and smoke from the mouth.

Shamasastry (1960: 449):

By keeping in the mouth a ball-like piece of pīlu (careya arborea) or a knot of the root of linseed tree (suvarchala) with fire inserted within the

Both PW and MW mention that $p\bar{a}ribhadraka$ may be a synonym of nimba.

 $^{^{178}\,}$ Meyer referring to PW and MW, has Erythrina fulgens, though both dictionaries give Erythrina indica as the identity of $p\bar{a}ribhadra.$ Erythrina fulgens is probably an old name for E. variegata.

mass of the ball and wound round with threads and cotton (pichu), volumes of smoke and fire can be breathed out.

Sensarma (1998: 93)

By keeping in the mouth a lump of the wood of $p\bar{\imath}lu$ (Careya arborea Roxb.) or a knot of the root of $suvarcal\bar{a}$ (Cassia fistula L.) with fire inserted within, and the same is entwined with threads of cotton, volumes of fire and smoke can be breathed out.

Gairola (1962: 917) does not differ from Kangle in his interpretation.

J.J. Meyer remarks in two footnotes (1926: 648, n. 2f.):

Das wird wohl heißen sollen, daß das im Mund zu haltende Kügelchen aus dem Ruß der verbrannten Rinde von Careya arborea (Salvadora Persica?) gemacht ist; denn pīlumayo maṇiḥ ist sehr ähnlich dem pīlutvanmashīmayaḥ piṇḍaḥ von 414, 7. – [suvarcalā ist] gewöhnlich Ruta graveolens; wächst nach Mahābhārata XII, 272, 4 im Wald und schmeckt bitter. 179 Nach den Lex. bedeutet das Wort auch eine Hanfpflanze.

Meyer adds (1926: 887):

Auch in Vish. 79,17 wird $suvarcal\bar{a}$ unter anderen scharfen Sachen aufgeführt und beim Totenseelenmahl verboten. Der Absud dieser Pflanze, die auch $br\bar{a}hm\bar{\iota}$, die heilige, heißt, dient auch als Sündenabführmittel (Vas. XXVII,11; Vish. XLVI,23). 180

Kangle says in a footnote (1972: 501, note on AŚ 14.2.34):

 $p\bar{\imath}lumayo\ manih$, i.e., a ball made of $p\bar{\imath}lu$ wood, which is hollow inside. It cannot be the lump of the soot of its bark, mentioned in s. 2.22, as Meyer thinks. — granthi refers to the stopper at the mouth of the ball; this granthi encircled by cotton (picu) burns and produces the fire and smoke coming out of the mouth.

Gaṇapati Sāstrī remarks that a small water-jar $(ali\tilde{n}jara)$ made of $p\bar{\imath}lu$ wood is meant. However, an $ali\tilde{n}jara$ is usually an earthen jar, better suited to the purpose of a water-container than a vessel made of wood.

The interpretations of AŚ 14.2.34 raise more problems than they solve. First, it has to be elucidated whether the mani is the same as the pinda

¹⁷⁹ See MBh (B) 12.272.3-4 (≈ MBh 12.264.3-4): rāṣṭre dharmottare śreṣṭhe vidarbheṣv abhavad dvijaḥ | uñchavṛttir ṛṣih kaścid yajñaṃ yaṣṭuṃ samādadhe || śyāmākam aśanaṃ tatra sūryaparṇī suvarcalā | tiktaṃ ca virasaṃ śākaṃ tapasā svādutāṃ gatam ||.

VS 46.23 and Vāsisṭhadharmasūtra 27.11 mention brahmasuvarcalā, which differs from suvarcalā. On brahmasuvarcalā, of unknown identity, see Singh – Chunekar 1972: 279-281. Olivelle (1999: 348) remarks that brahmasuvarcalā refers either to a variety of sunflower (Helianthus) or to Clerodendrum indicum (Linn.) Kuntze = Clerodendron siphonanthus R.Br.

mentioned earlier. Opinions differ on this point. Ganapati's suggestion that it is an amulet of $p\bar{\imath}lu$ wood in the form of a water-jar with a stopper in its mouth and fire in its interior seems fanciful. It hinges on the meaning of mukha, considered to be the mouth of the iar. The meaning of mukha, however, is problematic. Meyer and Kangle see in it the mouth of the person holding the ball (mani). Reaching a decision is difficult and depends on the existence of amulets in the India of the Arthaśāstra which have an opening to put something inside, a sacred text written on palm leaf or some other substance, for example. This again presupposes that AŚ 14.2.34 speaks indeed of a hollow object. Though all the translators assume this to be so, it is not imperative at all to interpret agnigarbha mani as a hollow object with actual fire in it. The term agnigarbha may simply refer to the notion that $p\bar{\imath}lu$ wood, as in AŚ 14.2.22, possesses a fiery essence. Literally, agnigarbha means "pregnant with fire". Particular gems, such as the sūryakānta, supposed to emit solar heat, are called thus. 181 In my opinion it is probable that the object described is employed for performing tricks since it occurs among a series of similar recipes, such as that which makes it possible to walk unscathed on burning charcoal, etc., which usually form part of kautūhala-works and those on *indrajāla* and *satkarman*.

The description is vague as to the threads to be employed and in particular the *granthi*. Has the cotton (*picu*) to be wrapped around the *maṇi* or around the *granthi*? What is the meaning of *granthi* here and where is it located? I do not see a solution that cannot be objected to. Tying a thread around a spherical object and fixing a knot (*sūtragranthi*) is not an easy task. Even more inconceivable is a *granthi* made with the root of *suvarcalā*. In this case, *suvarcalā* should be a plant with thread-like roots.

A much better sense is obtained if we read as follows: ... agnigarbhah, $suvarcal\bar{a}m\bar{u}lagranthih < v\bar{a} > s\bar{u}tragranthir v\bar{a}$, picu- ... "... pregnant with fire or a knotty root of $suvarcal\bar{a}$ or a knot of its threads (fibers?) [wrapped] with cotton ... ".

The identity of $suvarcal\bar{a}$ is much disputed, and actually no satisfactory identification has been proposed. PW: Ruta graveolens = $\bar{a}dityabhakt\bar{a}$, Flachs = $s\bar{u}ryamukh\bar{v}puspa$. The meanings found in MW are Ruta gra-

¹⁸¹ See RN 14.57: atha bhavati — sūryakāntas tapanamaṇis tapanajaś ca ravikāntah | dīptopalo 'gnigarbho jvalanāśmā 'rkopalaś ca vasunāmā ||. The same word is a synonym of agnijāra at DhN 6.21ab: agnijāro 'gniniryāsah so 'gnigarbho 'gnijah smṛtah |. Finally, the plant called $tejasvin\bar{\imath}$ has $agnigarbh\bar{a}$ as one of its names according to RN 3.392.

¹⁸² A granthi denotes the knot made in the end of a string.

veolens, Linum usitatissimum (linseed), and Polanisia icosandra (hemp). Mayrhofer (1956-1980: III/489 and 1986-2001: III/518) adopts Ruta graveolens. Sensarma's opinion that $suvarcal\bar{a}$ denotes Cassia fistula Linn. (cf. above p. 56) appears to be an idiosyncratic view.

Whichever plant species suvarcalā may be, it is not Ruta graveolens Linn., nor Ruta chalepensis Linn., which are both species native to the Mediterranean region and cultivated only in Indian gardens. Polanisia icosandra Wight et Arn. is a no longer valid name for Cleome viscosa Linn., a plant considered as a candidate for the identification of suvarcalā in Kirtikar – Basu (1935: I/185). Balwant Singh and Chunekar (1972: 440f.) are of the opinion that two kinds of suvarcalā have to be distinguished since the Suśrutasaṃhitā classifies it in two different categories of potherbs with different properties. They think that the potherb tilaparṇikā of the Carakasaṃhitā¹⁸³ is the same as the second type of Suśruta and identify it as probably Gynandropsis gynandra Briquet = Gynandropsis pentaphylla Linn. To complicate matters further, Āyurvedic texts are also acquainted with a divine herb called brahmasuvarcalā.

VII FURTHER REFERENCES TO PILL

A special kind of $p\bar{\imath}lu$, mentioned in some lexica, has still to be discussed. This is the $p\bar{\imath}lu$ growing in mountainous regions and therefore called $girip\bar{\imath}lu$.

This tree is mentioned in the following works:

Bhāgavatapurāna 5.14.12:

sa yadā dugdhapūrvasukṛtas tadā kāraskarakākatuṇḍādyapuṇyadrumalatāviṣodapānavad ubhayārthaśūnyadraviṇāñ jīvanmṛtān svayaṃ jīvan mriyamāna upadhāvati.

Amarakoşa, vanauşadhivarga 28:

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p\bar{\imath}lau gudaphalah srams\bar{\imath} tasmims tu girisambhave | aksotakandar\bar{\imath}lau dvau ... ||
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NŚ 139d-140ab:

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(pīlau) ... tasmims tu girisambhave ||
akṣoṭaḥ karparālaś ca phalasneho guhāśrayaḥ |
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 $^{^{183}}$ Ca. Sū. 27.97 ($tilaparņik\bar{a}$), Cakrapāṇi: = $hulahulik\bar{a}$; Ca. Ci. 3.267 ($tilaparṇ\bar{\imath}$), Cakrapāṇi: hulhuliti khyātā.

Kṣīrasvāmin adds to the verse in the Amarakoṣa:

```
kandarāsyāstīti kandarāveṣṭanāt kandarālaḥ, karparāla ity eke. āha ca
akṣoṭaḥ parvatīyaś ca phalasneho guhāśayaḥ |
kīreṣṭaḥ kandarālaś ca svādumajjo mṛducchadaḥ ||
```

DhN 5.60:

```
ākṣodaḥ pārvatīyaś ca phalasneho gudāśrayaḥ | kīreṣṭaḥ karparālaś ca svādumajjā pṛthucchadaḥ ||
```

Similarly RN 11.82:

```
akṣoṭaḥ pārvatīyaś ca phalasneho guḍāśayaḥ |
kīrestah kandarālaś ca madhumajjā brhacchadah ||
```

The $aksota^{184}$ is a tree frequently occurring in the classical medical treatises. It is commonly identified as the walnut tree, Juglans regia Linn. The remarkable fact that Kern rendered the $p\bar{\imath}lu$ of the Brhatsamhitā as walnut (cf. above p. 36f.) may be due to a confusion of this tree with the $girip\bar{\imath}lu$.

VIII. CONCLUDING REMARKS AND RESULTS

The rarity of references to Strychnos nux-vomica Linn. in early Indian literature has not been explained so far. The fact that the tree is not rare at all in India, while the very toxic nature of the seeds cannot have passed unnoticed, raises many questions. The same applies even more strongly to Antiaris toxicaria (Pers.) Lesch., source of a famous arrowpoison of Southeast Asia, but mentioned only a few times in Sanskrit literature. More examples of this intriguing phenomenon can be ad-

¹⁸⁴ Variants are: akṣoḍa, ākṣoṭa, ākṣoḍa.

¹⁸⁵ Cakrapāṇidatta rightly observes that its fruits are found in the North (ad Ca. Sū. 13.10); Dalhaṇa also remarks that its fruit is well known in the North (ad Su. Sū. 45.120). Aruṇadatta mentions snehaphala as a synonym (ad A.h. [1939] Sū. 6.120). Hemādri (ad A.h. [1939] Sū. 6.120) describes its fruit as resembling that of madana and with an elevated line in the middle (madhye kimcid unnatarekha).

¹⁸⁶ PW: "Name einer Pflanze (parvatajapīluvṛkṣa), Croton moluceanum, Aleurites triloba"; MW: "a walnut (pistachio nut?), the tree pīlu, the tree Aleurites triloba"; Mayrhofer (1956-1980: I/16 and 1986-2001: III/3): "walnut". Croton moluceanus Willd. is an old name for Chrozophora plicata A.Juss., a species now subdivided into C. prostrata Dalz. (= C. plicata 3 of Hooker 1875-1897) and C. parvifolia Klotzsch (= C. plicata 2 of Hooker 1875-1897). Aleurites moluceana (Linn.) Willd. = Aleurites triloba J.R. et G.Forst. is an evergreen tree, native to the Indo-Malaysian region; the kernels of the nuts yield an oil, known as Lumbang oil, candlenut oil or Indian walnut oil. This tree is naturalized in India, but found in a wild state in South India and Assam.

Wealth of India² (I/309) records valkala as the Sanskrit name.

duced. One of these is Peganum harmala Linn., a plant regarded as the source of the Vedic soma by some authorities. Another example is Strychnos colubrina Linn., a lofty, woody climber of the Deccan peninsula; its roots, bark, wood and seeds contain, as do the same parts of Strychnos nux-vomica Linn., the alkaloids strychnine and brucine. 188

These plants may be present in the lists of dangerous vegetable (and mineral) poisons (sthāvaravisa) in the classical medical works. Surprises may result from a close inspection of this material that has so far been neglected.

Strychnos nux-vomica Linn. $(k\bar{a}kap\bar{\imath}lu, kup\bar{\imath}lu)$ is mentioned in early Sanskrit literature, though commonly regarded as being absent there and only appearing much later. Two passages from the Kautilīva Arthaśāstra (13.1.16 and 14.2.22) may provide evidence that also the tree called $p\bar{\imath}lu$ can designate Strychnos nux-vomica. The $p\bar{\imath}lu$ of the Paippalādasamhitā (7.19) remains a problem and cannot be regarded as the same tree with certainty. Antiaris toxicaria (Pers.) Lesch., the upas tree, may also be referred to in Sanskrit literature, but rarely.

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Bhis	agāryaviracitā abhidhānamañjarī. astavaidyakulaprabha-
vena	vayaskarāgāranivāsinā nārāyaṇaśarmātmajena śaṅka-
raśai	maṇā, ceppāṭ ka. acyutavaryeṇa ca saṃśodhitā. koṭṭaya-
naga	ryām vaidyasārathimudraņālayādhipatinā svakīye mudra-

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Yogaratnākara

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