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VARŅASAMKARA IN THE DHARMA SŪTRAS: THEORY AND PRACTICE

BY

V. N. JHA (Patna)

The word varnasamkara appears in the Baudhāyana Dharma Sūtra¹) and samkara in the Gautama Dharma Sūtra²). The concept, however, figures prominently in the law-books of Gautama, Baudhāyana and Vasiṣṭha. They are agreed that certain castes originate from miscegenation among the members of the four varnas. They conceive of hypergamous unions, which they term anuloma³, "in accordance with the direction of hair" or in the natural order. They also speak of hypogamous unions called pratiloma⁴), "against the hair" or in the inverse order⁵). Neither anuloma nor pratiloma unions find favour with them, but these two are not treated as on an equal footing.

Anuloma is not entirely disapproved of or prohibited except by Apastamba⁶), who forbids all mixed marriages, condemns sons born of these and other irregular connections and enjoins a man to marry only a virgin of his own varna with rites prescribed by the sāstras. Gautama⁷) and Vasiṣṭha⁸) recommend marriage with a girl of one's own varna but countenance marriage with a girl lower than one's own. Baudhāyana⁹)

¹⁾ Varņasamkarād utpannān vrātyān āhur manīșiņaḥ, 1.9.15.

²⁾ Prasūtirakṣaṇam asamkaro dharmaḥ. VIII. 3.

³⁾ Gaut. Dh. S., IV. 14.

⁴⁾ Ibid., IV. 15; IV. 20; Baudh. Dh. S., 1.8.8; Vas. Dh. S., XIII. 7.

⁵⁾ The explicit use of these terms in the sense of marriage and progeny is found for the first time in the *Dharma Sūtras*, though P. V. Kane infers their use in the sense of marriage in the days of the *Upanişads* and refers to Pāṇini's (IV. 4. 28) formation of words from *anuloma* and *pratiloma* (Hist. of Dh. S., Vol. ii, pt. i. ch. ii. p. 52).

⁶⁾ Ap. Dh. S., II. 6. 13. 1; II. 6. 13. 3-4.

⁷⁾ Gaut. Dh. S., IV. 14.

⁸⁾ Vas. Db. S., I. 24.

⁹⁾ Baudh. Dh. S., I. 8. 6.

even puts forward the general principle that if a male of one varya marries a woman of the varna just below it, the progeny belongs to the varṇa of the father. Accordingly, Baudhāyana1) and Gautama2), as interpreted by Haradatta, state that the offspring of a brāhmaṇa from a Kṣatriya wife is as much a savarṇa and a brāhmaṇa as is a son begotten from a savarņa wife. But certain reservations made by the law-givers considerably restrict the scope of the principle. Thus Gautama³), as interpreted by Haradatta, denies its applicability to issue born of a Kṣatriya male and a vaiśya woman or of a vaiśya male and a śūdra woman; Vasistha4) does not allow Āryas (which term covers vaisyas also) to marry a girl of the śūdra caste and includes⁵) among those unfit for invitation to a śrāddha dinner a brāhmaņa who is a śūdrāpati, husband of a śūdra woman; and Baudhāyana⁶) himself thinks that begetting a son on a śūdra woman is a great sin (mahāpātaka) causing loss of caste. In fact, even in the anuloma category marriage with a śūdra woman is particularly disliked.

Grave anxiety and horror are, however, expressed at pratiloma marriages and it is sought to make them entirely forbidden. Gautama⁷) even says that all pratilomas are dharmahīna, "without virtue", or, as Bühler⁸) translates it, "outside the pale of the sacred law"⁹). Among the pratilomas also, marriage or connection with a śūdra male is viewed with singular concern, Gautama¹⁰) regarding the son of a śūdra from a woman of unequal caste as a patita. In any case the progeny of pratiloma

¹⁾ Ibid., I. 9. 3.

²⁾ Gaut. Db. S., IV. 14.

³⁾ Ibid.

⁴⁾ Vas. Dh. S. I., 25-27.

⁵⁾ Ibid., XV. 18.

⁶⁾ S. C. Banerjee, Dharma Sūtras, A Study in their Origin and Development, ch. IV. p. 97.

⁷⁾ Pratilomās tu dharmahīnāḥ. Gaut. Dh. S., IV. 20.

⁸⁾ SBE, Vol. II. pt. I. p. 199.

⁹⁾ The Mitākṣarā on Yājñavalkya, III, 262 interprets it as meaning that they cannot have upanayana and similar samskāras of dvijas performed for them, though they are entitled to perform vratas and prāyaścittas. Kane, op. cit., ch. II. p. 53.

¹⁰⁾ asamānāyām tu śūdrāt patitavṛttiḥ, Gaut. Dh. S., IV. 22.

unions are considered lower in status than either of the two parents1).

The Dharma Sūtras identify castes in society which, according to them, were produced as a result of interbreeding at different and specific varņa levels. The cross anulomaja and pratilomaja matings, they suggest, give rise to other known castes. The status of each of these so-called mixed castes is said to depend on birth, which thus becomes the main and decisive factor. The maintenance of the purity and integrity of the varņa system from these ominous trends through endogamy is prized beyond measure, and the preventing of confusion of orders or mixture of castes is enjoined as the prime responsibility of the king, of course in alliance with the indispensable brāhmaṇas²). The lawbooks even allow the brāhmaṇas and the vaiśyas to take up arms—an extraordinary provision—in order to realize this objective. The four varṇas have, in their view, already emerged as hereditary castes.

We have to explain the theoretical superiority of the anuloma sons vis-à-vis the pratiloma ones. Hutton³) attributes this to the impact of patrilineal invaders on an indigenous matrilineal population and contends that the matrilineal system was once much more widely distributed than it is now. Kosambi implies substantially the same in his reference to "aboriginal matriarchy"¹) and adds that "non-Aryan Brāhmins are called sons of their mothers by name"⁵). In such a society the issue of a patrilineal father and a matrilineal mother would have status and kinship with both his parents' families and would inherit from both. Even the issue of patrilocal and matrilocal marriages would receive advantages from at least one side⁵). But the offspring of an im-

¹⁾ Kane, op. cit., ch. II. p. 56; A. L. Basham, The Wonder that was India, ch. V. D. 147.

²⁾ Gaut. Dh. S., XI. 9-10; VIII. 1-2; Vas. Dh. S., XIX. 7-8; Kosambi calls brāhmaṇas "professional priests" without parallel in "Aryan tradition elsewhere", who in later India acquired "virtual monopoly of all ritual". An Introduction to the Study of Indian History, ch. IV. p. 94.

³⁾ J. H. Hutton, Caste in India, ch. X. pp. 150-151.

⁴⁾ D. D. Kosambi, The Culture and Civilization of Ancient India in Historical Outline, ch. VII. p. 171.

⁵⁾ An Introduction to . . . ch. IV. p. 97.

⁶⁾ The Dharma Sūtra laws of inheritance providing a share, though unequal, to an

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migrant patrilineal woman by an indigenous matrilineal male would have no place with either of the parents, and with no claims to kinship or inheritance his status would inevitably tend to be degraded. The position of a candāla, born of a śūdra by a brāhmaṇa woman¹) might, however, differ from a pratiloma son born of two patrilineal castes, e.g., of a Kṣatriya and a brāhmaṇa woman, for such sons do not lose status and inheritance completely. This also is supported by the Dharma Sūtra testimony that the son of a man by a wife of a higher caste, if he is obedient, is entitled to maintenance provided the father leaves no other male issue²). The exact causes of the difference between the position of sons of a matrilineal father and a patrilineal mother on the other would, however, be forgotten when both societies adopted the patrilineal system.

A word needs to be said, however, about the position of daughters in the anuloma and pratiloma categories. Theoretically, the social position of the two might be conceived to depend on their origin and be similar, of course within the limitations of a patriarchal framework. However, Apastamba makes a distinction between sons and daughters of mixed unions because he roundly condemns only the sons born of such unions³). But this cannot be taken to imply any superiority of the daughters and perhaps suggests that it was the male who really counted and marital ties largely and finally determined the social status of women.

It would be odd if theoretical works like the *Dharma Sūtras*, obsessed with the *varṇasaṃkara* complex, remained satisfied with envisaging *anuloma* and *pratiloma* marriages and did not also contemplate extramarital sexual relationships among members of unequal castes. In fact their injunctions regarding crime and punishment amply bear out the distinction between the two. That the punishment for irregular *anuloma* connections (whether the term *anuloma* should aptly apply to this case is

anuloma son born of a śūdra wife prove this point beyond doubt. S. C. Banerjee, op. cit., ch. IV. p. 114.

¹⁾ Gaut. Dh. S., IV. 15-16; Vas. Dh. S., XVIII. 1; Baudh. Dh. S., I. 9. 7.

²⁾ S. C. Banerjee, op. cit., ch. IV. p. 114.

³⁾ tatrāpi dosavān putra eva, Ap. Dh. S., II. 6. 13. 4.

doubtful) should be less severe than that for connections of the reverse type is quite understandable and logical. Thus, while banishment is the punishment for a member of one of the three higher castes if he commits adultery with a śūdra woman1), adultery of a śūdra with a woman of the three higher castes under any circumstances is punishable with death²), even the woman concerned not escaping with a lighter punishment³). Pratiloma marriages being forbidden, however, one would like to ask if the pratiloma castes enumerated in the Dhārma Sutras of Gautama, Baudhāyana and Vasistha were considered to comprise only the original progeny of irregular connections in this category (and not of married ones) and their descendants. The implications for the original parents, if legally binding pratiloma marriage were also considered to produce such low castes, would be frightening indeed. But perhaps this would be stretching logic too far, and the varnasamkara concept, with all its obvious limitations, would not be able to stand up under the consequent extra strain and would vanish into the realm of speculative theorizing from which perhaps it largely emanated.

The Dharma Sūtras do not agree about the number, names, classification and details of derivation of the so-called mixed castes. While according to Gautama their number is eleven (twelve, according to the view of some teachers mentioned by him), according to Baudhāyana it is fourteen. Vasiṣṭha mentions six mixed castes and Āpastamba only three. Gautama divides his mixed castes into five anuloma and six pratiloma (six and six according to the view of some teachers)⁴); and Baudhāyana into four anuloma, nine pratiloma, and two doubly mixed castes: vaiṇa⁵) which is placed in both the latter categories; and pāraśava⁶) which is regarded as only another name for niṣāda. Vasiṣṭha mentions only one anuloma and five pratiloma castes, while the three mixed castes of

¹⁾ S. C. Banerjee, op. cit. ch. V. pp. 170-171.

²⁾ Gaut. Dh. S. XII. 2-3; Ap. Dh. S., II. 27. 9; Vas. Dh. S., XXI. 1. 5. Ap. Dh. S., II. 26. 24 and Baudh. Dh. S. II. 3. 49 ff. provide for penances also in this case.

³⁾ S. C. Banerjee, op. cit., ch. IV. p. 98.

⁴⁾ Not one and eight as is the view of some, as stated by Kane, op. cit., ch. II. p. 57.

⁵⁾ Baudh. Dh. S., I. 8. 8; I. 9. 12.

⁶⁾ Ibid., II. 2. 30.

Āpastamba are not the product of miscegenation at all and are derived from sins in past lives¹). The anuloma castes of Gautama²) are ambaṣṭha, ugra, niṣāda, dauṣmanta and pāraśava; of Baudhāyana ambastha³), niṣāda⁴), ugra⁵) and rathakāra⁶); and of Vasiṣṭha niṣāda¹). The anuloma castes according to the view of some teachers mentioned in Gautama⁶) are mūrdhāvasikta, bhrjjyakaṇṭha, māhiṣya, pāraŝava, yavana and karaṇa. On the other hand, the pratiloma castes of Gautama⁶) are sūta, māgadha, āyogava, kṛta, vaidehaka and caṇḍāla; of Baudhāyana¹⁰) āyogava, māgadha, vaiṇa, pulkasa, kukkuṭa, vaidehaka, caṇḍāla¹¹) and sūta¹²); of Vasiṣṭha antyāvasāyin¹³) vaiṇa¹⁴), caṇḍāla¹⁵), pulkasa¹⁶) and sūta¹¹). The two doubly mixed castes of Baudhāyana are vaiṇa¹⁶) and śvapāka.¹९) The pratiloma castes mentioned by Gautama²⁰) as the view of some teachers are sūta, māgadha, caṇḍāla, dhīvara, Pulkasa and vaideha.

Of the mixed castes only the caṇḍāla is common to all the law-books and is listed by Gautama, Baudhāyana and Vasiṣṭha, as a pratiloma born of a śūdra man and a brāhmaṇa woman. Śūta is another pratiloma caste

¹⁾ Āpastamba states that when a brāhmaṇa, kṣatriya or vaiśya is guilty of the theft of gold, (or) of the murder of a brāhmaṇa, he undergoes torments in hell for some time and then is born as a caṇḍāla, paulkasa or vaiṇa, respectively: Āp. Dh. S., II. 1. 2. 6.

²⁾ Gaut. Dh. S., IV. 14.

³⁾ Baudh. Dh. S., I. 9. 3.

⁴⁾ Ibid., II. 2. 29.

⁵⁾ Ibid., I. 9. 5.

⁶⁾ *Ibid.*, I. 9. 6.

⁷⁾ Vas. Db. S., XVIII. 8.

⁸⁾ Bühler, SBE, Vol. II. pt. I. p. 198.

⁹⁾ Gaut. Dh. S., IV. 15.

¹⁰⁾ Baudh. Dh. S., I. 8. 8.

¹¹⁾ Ibid., also I. 9. 7.

¹²⁾ Ibid., also I. 9. 8.

¹³⁾ Vas. Dh. S., XVIII. 3.

¹⁴⁾ Ibid., XVIII. 2.

¹⁵⁾ Ibid., XVIII. I.

¹⁶⁾ Ibid., XVIII. 5.

¹⁷⁾ Ibid., XVIII. 6.

¹⁸⁾ Baudh. Dh. S., I. 9. 12.

¹⁹⁾ *Ibid.*, I. 9. II.

²⁰⁾ Bühler, op. cit., p. 198. Bühler, however, regards the four sūtras (IV. 18-21) mentioning six anuloma and six pratiloma castes along with their derivation as "perhaps spurious".

originating from a kṣatriya male and a brāhmaṇa woman, according to these three law-givers. A niṣāda also is an anuloma according to them, though Baudhāyana and Vasistha derive him from a brāhmaņa man and a śūdra woman, while Gautama as interpreted by Haradatta derives him from a brāhmaṇa man and a vaiśya woman. It is to be noted that no anuloma or pratiloma caste is listed in the reverse category by any of our sources. For the rest, there is a serious divergence concerning the details of the derivation of the particular castes. Thus, among the anulomas, while Gautama (as interpreted by Haradatta) derives the ambastha from a kṣatriya and a vaiśya woman, according to Baudhāyana he springs from the union of a brāhmana and a vaisya woman. An ugra is described by Gautama (as explained by Haradatta) as the offspring of a vaiśya by a śūdra woman; and by Baudhāyana as that of a Kşatriya male and a śūdra woman. Baudhāyana derives the rathakāra (not mentioned by others) from a vaiśya male and a śūdra woman. Unlike Baudhāyana, Gautama distinguishes a pārašava from a niṣāda, though he derives pārašava in the way Baudhāyana does niṣāda, as the son of a brāhmaṇa and a śūdra woman. The dausmanta of Gautama is not mentioned by the others and is ascribed an origin from a kṣatriya male and a vaiśya woman. Among the pratiloma castes, the magadha is derived from a vaisya father and a kṣatriya mother according to Gautama, and from a śūdra father and a vaiśya mother according to Baudhāyana; the ayogava from a śūdra father and a vaiśya mother according to Gautama and from a vaiśya father and a kṣatriya mother according to Baudhāyana; and the vaidehaka from a śūdra father and a kṣatriya mother according to Gautama and from a vaisya father and a kṣatriya mother according to Baudhayana. Vaina and pulkasa are common to Baudhāyana, Vasistha and Apastamba; but while Baudhayana derives the pratiloma vaina from a vaidehaka (pratitoma) father and an ambastha (anuloma) mother (a doubly mixed origin), Vasistha ascribes his birth to a śūdra father and a vaiśya mother. Baudhāyana derives a pulkasa from a niṣāda father and a śūdra mother; Vasistha derives him from a śūdra father and a kṣatriya mother. Antyāvasāyin1) as a caste arising from a śūdra male and a vaiśya

¹⁾ Gautama Dh. S., XX. 1 seems to use the term in a generic sense when it says

woman is mentioned only by Vasiṣṭha; and the śvapāka, according to Baudhāyana, is a doubly mixed caste springing from an ugra (anuloma) male and a kṣatṛ (pratiloma) woman. Gautama derives kṛta from a vaiśya male and a brāhmaṇa woman, while Baudhāyana derives kṣatṛ from a śūdra male and a kṣatriya woman. It is very strange that while Baudhāyana regards the kukkuṭa as a pratiloma caste, he derives it in two anuloma ways, from a śūdra male and a niṣāda woman,¹) and from a vaiśya male and a niṣāda woman²). Such glaring contradictions make a mockery of most theorizing, prove the "arbitrary genesis"³) of the so-called mixed castes, and suggest a formalist interpretation of the state of society, the origins of which were already obscure when these treatises were composed⁴).

Strangely, the *Dharma Sūtras*, which are so punctilious in naming and ascribing particular origins to the so-called mixed castes, give few facts about them. Indeed, there is not even any mention of their occupations; and this in the face of Vasiṣṭha's assertion that since sometimes it is difficult to assign any particular derivation to groups of people, men's subcastes are to be known by their actions and occupations⁵). This much is clear, however, that while the brāhmaṇa stood at the apex of the social hierarchy, a mixture of brāhmaṇa with śūdra blood was regarded as especially polluting, and the mixed castes stood at various levels in the social scale.

That some of the mixed castes were really degraded is incontrovertible. This is only too evident from references to them individually and from the coining and application of such generic terms as antya antaḥ, bāhya, antyaja, antyajoni, etc. Gautama condemns⁶) the antya as the

that a brāhmaņa father who dwells with the antyāvasāyins or cohabits with one of their women should be rejected.

¹⁾ Baudh. Dh. S., I. 9. 14.

²⁾ Ibid., I. 8. 11-12.

³⁾ R. S. Sharma, op. cit., ch. IV. p. 119; Richard Fick, Social Organisation in North-East India in Buddha's time, p. 9.

⁴⁾ J. H. Hutton, op. cit., ch. X. p. 150.

⁵⁾ Vas. Db. S., XVIII. 7.

⁶⁾ antyah pāpisthah, Gaut. Dh. S., IV. 23.

vilest of persons and states1) that he should be given impure garments. Haradatta²) identifies antya with candala, while Kane³) regards antya as a generic appellation for all the lowest castes including the candala. Apastamba⁴) uses antah in relation to the candāla and this indicates⁵) that he lived at the end of the village. Bāhya has the same sense, and Apastamba⁶) suggests that there is a cessation of Vedic study on the day a bāhya enters a village. Haradatta⁷) explains bāhya as ugras and niṣādas. Antyaja also, according to Kane⁸), applies to all the lowest castes. Vasistha⁹) distinguishes between good śūdras and antyayonis, who are to appear as witnesses only in their own cases. Obviously, there were sections in society which were kept at a distance, perhaps segregated and considered much lower in status than the śūdras. Prof. Sharma¹⁰) rightly points out that their segregation does not seem to have been the result of any deliberate policy of expulsion from old Aryan settlements. It seems that the whole population of tribal villages was condemned to the position of untouchables by the brahmanas.

The case of the caṇḍāla, about whom relatively more material is available, is an instance in point. Gautama¹¹) speaks of him in the same breath as he does of dogs and crows, and provides¹²) that if a caṇḍāla defiles the body it should be purified by bathing dressed in clothes. Apastamba's view is no different. He¹³) requires every householder to give food after Vaiśvadeva to all creatures, including caṇḍālas, dogs and crows. Also he¹⁴) holds that to touch and see a caṇḍāla is sinful and states

¹⁾ Ibid., XIV. 40.

²⁾ Ibid., Haradatta's Comm. on IV. 23.

³⁾ Kane, op. cit., ch. II. p. 69.

⁴⁾ antascandālam, Ap. Dh. S., I. 3. 9. 15.

⁵⁾ R. S. Sharma, op. cit., ch. IV. p. 130.

⁶⁾ tadaharāgateşu ca grāmam bāhyeşu, Āp. Dh. S., I. 3. 9. 18.

⁷⁾ Bühler, op. cit., p. 34 fn. 18.

⁸⁾ Kane, op. cit., ch. II. p. 70.

^{9) ...} antyānām antyayonayaḥ. Vas. Dh. S., XVI. 30.

¹⁰⁾ R. S. Sharma, op. cit., ch. IV. pp. 130-131; B. R. Ambedkar, The Untouchables, pp. 26-27.

¹¹⁾ śvacāṇḍālapatitāvekṣaṇe duṣṭam, Gaut. Dh. S., XV. 25.

¹²⁾ Ibid., XIV., 28.

¹³⁾ sarvān vaisvadevabhāginah kurvītah svacāndālebhyah. $ar{A}$ p. Dh. S., II. 4. 9. 5.

¹⁴⁾ Ibid., II. I. 2. 8-9.

that on touching a caṇḍāla one should plunge into water, on talking with him one should converse with a brāhmaṇa (for purification), on seeing him one should look at the luminaries (either the sun or the moon). Food looked at by a dog or by an apapātra, to whose class belong the patita and the caṇḍāla, becomes unfit for eating,¹) and the presence of the caṇḍāla is considered sufficient to stop the recitation of the Veda²). According to Patañjali³), Pāṇini seems to have included the caṇḍāla and the mṛtapā (a person who watches dead bodies) in the list of those śūdras who lived outside towns and villages, and contact with whom permanently defiled the bronze vessels of the brāhmaṇas. Prof. Sharma⁴) regards this as the first unimpeachable reference to untouchables in literature.

References to the candala in earlier brahmanic literature and in contemporary and later Buddhist and Jain literature confirm the statements of the Dharma Sūtras, and the candala appears to be an especially despised caste, quite numerous, widely dispersed and well-recognised. It is difficult to see how a whole people could be the outcome of illicit unions between brāhmaṇa women and śūdra males⁵). Moreover, it would seem unwise to imagine so much brahmana blood in the veins of these hated and backward aboriginals. On the other hand, the theory of varnasamkara, implying the brāhmaṇas' deep concern for preserving the purity of Aryan blood, may have been an afterthought and implicitly based on the known reality about sections of the population like the candalas. This hypothesis becomes more plausible when we note that there appear to have been caṇḍālas "by works as well as by birth," and both permanent and temporary outcastes in the Dharma Sūtras. Also, if the caṇḍālas had been only the mixed progeny of the higher castes as the theory of varnasamkara presupposes, and had been large enough in

¹⁾ Ap. Dh. S., I. 5. 16. 30 with Haradatta's Comm.

²⁾ Ibid., I. 3. 9. 9.

³⁾ sūdrāṇām aniravasitānām, Pā., II. 4-10; Mahābhāsya, I. 475. R. S. Sharma, op. cit. ch. IV. p. 125.

⁴⁾ R. S. Sharma, Social Changes in Early Medieval India, p. 17.

⁵⁾ G. S. Ghurye, Caste, Class and Occupation, Ch. III. p. 51.

⁶⁾ J. H. Hutton, op. cit., ch. X. p. 151.

number, they would not have brooked permanent ostracism; and if society at large had been so conscious and organized, instead of being content with theorizing about the phenomenon, it would not have allowed such unions. Kane's observation¹) that such low castes as the caṇḍālas and the paulkasas had evolved long before the close of the Vedic period cannot be lightly dismissed. Devraj Chanana²) holds the same view. Louis Renou's remark,³) therefore, that there are among the mixed castes some "outcastes", like the caṇḍāla, who are, so to speak, promoted by being included among the "mixed", sounds correct. The paulkasa and śvapāka seem to have been other aboriginal tribes of the level of the caṇḍālas, with whom they are frequently associated in literature.

The niṣādas are a pre-Aryan tribal people, first noticed in the Rudrā-dhyāya of the Yajurveda. The Mahābhārata⁴) describes them as short-limbed, with complexions the colour of charred wood, and with blood-red eyes, and gives a fanciful account of their origin from the pierced thigh of king Veṇa, who proved tyrannical towards the priestly class. Prof. Sharma⁵) suggests that this may indicate the resistance which the niṣādas offered to the process of brāhmaṇization. The Nirukta⁶) explanation of the pañcajanāḥ as the four varṇas and the niṣādas seems, however, to imply that they proved less intractable than the caṇḍālas, paulkasas etc. and were slowly assimilated into the brāhmaṇial society, though, according to N. K. Dutt, as a fifth caste⁷). Their habitat and their kingdom are placed in the region of the lower Sarasvatī and the hills and forests of the Vindhyā ranges⁸). The Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa requires the sacrificer in a particular rite to reside temporarily with the niṣādas⁹),

¹⁾ Kane, op. cit., ch. II. p. 48.

²⁾ D. R. Chanana, Slavery in Ancient India, pp. 176-177.

³⁾ Louis Renou, The Civilization of Ancient India, ch. 1. p. 50.

⁴⁾ Mbh., 59. 99-101.

⁵⁾ R. S. Sharma, Sūdras. . ., ch. IV. pp. 129-130.

⁶⁾ Nir., III. 8.

⁷⁾ N. K. Dutt, Origin and Growth of Caste in India, Vol. I. ch. III. p. 107.

⁸⁾ Ram Gopal, *India of Vedic Kalpasūtras*, ch. VI. p. 116; Cf. N. K. Dutt, op. cit., ch. III. p. 107; The Rāmāyaṇa, II. 50. 30 ff. refers to the niṣāda kingdom with Śṛṅgaverapura as its capital.

⁹⁾ G. S. Ghurye, op. cit., ch. III. p. 52.

and possibly some of the *niṣādas* found their way into the priestly class. The niṣāda gotra reported in the Gaṇapāṭha of Pāṇini1), though not mentioned in any of the standard gotra lists, would not be possible unless some brāhmaņas had been adopted from aboriginal priests or had served the aborigines as priests²). Perhaps we have here an earlier example of the familiar historical phenomenon of the assimilated tribal peoples not always being given the same place in the brāhmaṇical order and the same tribe even breaking up into several varnas and castes. It may also be that the overwhelming majority of the nisādas remained backward and uninducted, and this led the law-givers to place the caste at the lowest anuloma level, though a fall in the status of the whole tribe from what it had enjoyed in the later Vedic society would not be unusual and is in fact a common feature of quite a few other mixed castes. The pārašava's close association, similar derivation and occasional identification with the niṣāda³) prove him either to belong to a section of the nisādas or at best to be of a distinct caste at the nisāda level. The vaina is another aboriginal tribe at a low material level4). One does not know if it too could be connected with King Vena, the traditional progenitor of the nisādas.

Most of these primitive aboriginal tribes, identified as mixed castes in the *Dharma Sūtras*, do not appear to have been a well-knit part of the body-politic, but a marginal one. Living in a food-gathering stage, they seem to have been mainly hunters of various kinds. Kane⁵) refers to a number of words in later Vedic literature denoting the extensive pursuit of the profession of hunting: e.g., *mṛgayu* (hunter), *śvani* (those who lead pack of hounds), *puñjiṣṭa* (fowler), *iṣukṛṭ* or *iṣukāra* (maker of arrows), *dhanvakṛṭ* or *dhanvakāra* (maker of bows), *jyākāra* (maker of bow-strings) etc. It cannot be that those engaged in hunting as a means of livelihood in the half-reclaimed tracts were numerically small. Perhaps

¹⁾ Pān., IV. I. 100.

²⁾ R. S. Sharma, Sūdras. . ., ch. IV. p. 130.

³⁾ A corrupt passage of Vas. Dh. S. (XVIII. 10) explains pārašava as meaning that, though living, he is like one dead (pārašavo neva jīvanneva šavo bhavatītyāhuh).

⁴⁾ R. S. Sharma, *Sūdras* . . ., Ch. 1V. p. 128.

⁵⁾ Kane, op. cit., ch. II. p. 43.

they were forced by their own material needs and the inevitable aggrandisement of the culturally superior settled community to compromise with and accommodate themselves to the latter, and were slowly pushed to the position of untouchables because of their backwardness and repulsive habits. The extent of their induction into the Aryan society seems to have been very limited and the process of mutual acculturation does not appear to have advanced very considerably.

The rathakāra is a clear case of an occupational caste. Forming a part of the Aryan viś in Vedic times, it cannot be regarded as an aboriginal tribe as suggested by Rhys Davids¹), though it is likely that in later times some of the aborigines were assimilated into the ranks of the rathakāras. Its derivation as an anuloma born of a vaiśya male and a śūdra woman is, however, meaningful, and shows how in the material structure of society these two sections were coming together. The process of degradation of the artisan classes to the level of the śūdras had already begun and the relative freedom of the brāhmaṇa caste from manual tasks may have aggravated its pride in itself and coloured its vision towards castes engaged in crafts requiring physical toil and skill. Kane²) speaks of the rathakāra as an intermediate caste before the close of the Vedic period, and the position of a member of this caste does not seem to have deteriorated greatly in the Dharma Sūtras, as Baudhāyana even provides for his upanayana³).

Of the other mixed castes, we have meagre knowledge of the dausmanta, kṛta, kukkuṭa, mūrdhāvasikta, bhṛjjyakanṭha, māhisya, karaṇa and dhīvara. The ambaṣṭha, ugra, sūta, māgadha, āyogava and vaidehaka, however, do not appear in an unfavourable light in earlier literature. Thus the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa⁴) mentions an ambaṣṭha king and the ambaṣṭhas are identified by H. C. Raychaudhuri⁵) with the Ambasṭanoi of Arrian, called Sambasṭai by Diodorus. The habitat of the ambaṣṭhas would thus be in the north-west region of the country. Theoretically an anuloma caste

¹⁾ Rhys Davids, Dialogues of the Buddha, I. 100; R. S. Sharma, op. cit., ch. IV, p. 129.

²⁾ Kane, op. cit., ch. II. p. 48.

³⁾ V. A. Ramaswami Sastri, The Cultural Heritage of India, Vol. II. ch. XIX. p. 303.

⁴⁾ Ait. Br., VIII. 21.

⁵⁾ H. C. Raychaudhuri, Political History of Ancient India, p. 255.

without śūdra blood, the name, according to Louis Renou¹), is that of a clan whose only "fault" was to have lived in a region somewhat remote from the "central country" where the classical dharma prevailed.

Ugra appears in the Taittirīya Brahmaņa²) as the name of a royal officer (rājaputra), and although classified as an anuloma with some mixture of śūdra blood he appears to be materially quite well-off, for Āpastamba³) allows a pupil to bring wealth from an ugra when the teacher is in distress, and states⁴) that a brāhmaṇa may accept gifts of money, corn, such as paddy, the flesh of deer, houses, fields and hay for oxen from an ugra.

Sūta connotes both professional bards and charioteers. Kosambi⁵) thinks that the term applied to the original poets and singers when brāhmaṇism had not separated its priestly class from the other Aryans. In the Taittirīya Samhitā⁶) and the Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa⁷) the sūta appears along with the kṣatṛ among the ratnins at the royal court. N.K. Dutt⁸) suggests that the sūtas earlier accompanied the kings to the battlefield as charioteers and inspired them with songs of heroes and heroic deeds, but later abandoned the military profession and came to be regarded as a caste of lower rank. It is significant that, although regarded as pratiloma, the Dharma Sūtras agree in assigning brāhmaṇa and kṣatriya parentage to them.

Māgadha, as the name suggests, is connected with the region of Magadha⁹). Appearing first in the *Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa*¹⁰), the word earlier meant "bard", and later "trader". Though derived differently, a māgadha is ascribed vaiśya blood along with that of the kṣatriya by the

¹⁾ Louis Renou, op. cit., ch. I. p. 50.

²⁾ Tai. Br., III. 8. 5.

³⁾ Vişamagate tvācārya ugratah sūdrato vāharet, Āp. Dh. S., I. 2. 7. 20.

⁴⁾ Ibid., I. 6. 18. 1.

⁵⁾ D. D. Kosambi, The Culture . . . ch. IV. p. 92.

⁶⁾ Tai, S., I. 8. 9. 1-2.

⁷⁾ Tai. Br., I. 7. 3. 1.

⁸⁾ N. K. Dutt, op. cit., ch. IV. p. 165.

⁹⁾ Kosambi thinks that the tribe of the Māgadhas gave its name to the region. The Culture . . . ch. V. p. 122; Pāṇini derives māgadha from the country Magadha. Kane, op. cit., ch. II. p. 91.

¹⁰⁾ Tai. Br. III. 4. 1.

former and of the śūdra by the latter. The *māgadhas*, according to N. K. Dutt¹), were at first probably those *sūtas* who came from the semi-Aryanised country of Magadha, a breeding-place of mixed and degraded castes.

Vaidehaka (misspelt Vaidehika by Kosambi²)) means 'men of the Videha tribe' and was a class of traders or caravaneers (sārthavāha). Since the Videha tribe had vanished, this nomenclature, says Kosambi, shows the origin of the profession as being a particular tribal guild. Vaiśya blood flows in the vaidehaka according to priestly theory, though he also inherits kṣatriya or śūdra blood.

The āyogava, a pratiloma caste in the Dharma Sūtras, inheriting vaiśya blood together with kṣatriya or śūdra blood, finds previous mention as ayogu (a profession the precise meaning of which is not known) in the Taittīrīya Brāhmaṇa³); and the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa speaks of Marutta Āvikṣita as an āyogava king.

Perhaps these mixed castes were *vrātyas*, a term used by Baudhāyana as a synonym of *varņasamkara*,⁴) and interpreted by Basham⁵) as applying to Aryans by origin who had fallen away from the orthodox norms.

Thus, three categories of people combined to produce the phenomenon of the mixed castes—later the untouchables: (1) less assimilated backward aboriginals; (2) degraded artisans; and (3) groups which, through infringement of caste rules or otherwise (association with a region outside the pale of brāhmaṇism, for example), had lost their Aryan status. Theoretically, the castes were sub-divisions of the four varṇas or orders, the result of miscegenation, but in fact they had an entirely different origin and were much more organic and spontaneous in their growth⁶). The Dharma Sūtras represent the orthodox and ideal point of view and the varṇasamkara theory provides an example of the

¹⁾ N. K. Cutt, op. cit., ch. IV. p. 165.

²⁾ D. D. Kosambi, The Culture . . . ch. V. p. 124.

³⁾ SBE, Vol. 44 p. 397.

⁴⁾ Supra, p. 273.

⁵⁾ A. L. Basham, Aspects of Ancient Indian Culture, p. 7.

⁶⁾ Basham, *Ibid.*, pp. 8-9.

brāhmaṇas' capacity to create categories and carry things to their logical conclusion. The theory flourished on congenial soil. It helped to further the accommodation of the exterior groups into the Aryan order of society, promoted the formation of new castes and was adopted and expanded by future law-givers, Manu himself enumerating 61 mixed castes¹) and the number rising to more than a hundred later on.

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¹⁾ R. S. Sharma, Social Changes . . ., p. 15.