Chinese Dragon Names

Michael Carr¹
Otaru University of Commerce

Borrowings/loans of Asian dragon names are an unsolved "Chinese puzzle" in comparative linguistics. Despite consensus that 'dragon' loanwords are widespread, debate continues over transfer dates and directions. Chinese is crucially important because it has one of the oldest and largest 'dragon' lexical fields in any language. The purpose of this paper is collating Chinese dragon names in order to create a data base for future etymological studies.

1 INTRODUCTION

This section introduces the scope §1.1, sources §1.2, and linguistics §1.3 of the present study.² The major part analyzes over one hundred Chinese draconyms divided into seven sections: Rain-Dragons §2, Flying-Dragons §3, Snake-

^{1.} The author's sincere appreciation goes to Tollef As, Lew Ballard, Paul Benedict, Jim Chamberlain, South Coblin, John Emelin, Lothar von Falkenhausen, Christoph Harbsmeier, Jane Hazen, Axel Schuessler, Shimomura Isao, Wada Kan, and Yan Yunxiang for suggesting improvements upon earlier versions of this paper.

^{2.} N.B.: The following abbreviations are used: '' = semantic meanings, "" = literal meanings (or quotes), \rightarrow and \leftarrow = semantic changes, \rightarrow and \leftarrow = phonological changes, \sim = alternate names, pronunciations, or graphs. Two special terms are employed: the neologism draconym 'dragon name' and Brown's (1979) portmanteau wug (< worm + bug) meaning the class of 'insects, worms, spiders, and smaller reptiles'. Wug is used as the English name for the Chinese logographic radical \pm (Carr 1983) found in many 'dragon' (e.g., 蛟 § 6.1) graphs.

Dragons §4, Wug-Dragons §5, Crocodile-Dragons §6, Hill-Dragons §7, and Miscellaneous Dragons §8. These arbitrary groupings were made for presentational reasons, and other taxonomies (cf. Diény 1987) are possible; for instance, zhūpólóng 豬婆龍 "pig woman dragon" 'gavial' §6.4 is listed as a crocodile-dragon zoologically, but is considered a rain-dragon mythologically. Subsections are organized by similarities, e.g., §3.5-.7 have 飛 'flying' names; and some, e.g., §8.9, include several synonyms or related words. Section 9 summarizes the Chinese 'dragon' lexical field, discusses universalities of draconym borrowings, and gives examples for utilizing the Sinitic data.

\$1.1 Scope has been narrowed to draconyms attested in Han dynasty texts (v. \$1.2) dating from the beginning of the Common Era. The original intent was to compile an exhaustive wordlist of Chinese dragon names that would be useful for comparativists; something on the order of the INDEX. However, an unexpectedly large semantic field was discovered, and the paper grew to more than twice its present length. "There are numerous dragons," Ball (1903:220) warned, "too numerous to enter even into a succinct account of them in the space of a short article."

For purposes of brevity, the range of this study generally excludes three sets: descriptive compounds not referring to mythic creatures (e.g., qiánlóng 潜龍 "submerged/hidden dragon" \rightarrow 'concealed talent'), names for different colored dragons (e.g., $q\bar{l}nglóng$ 青龍 "blue-green dragon," $c\bar{l}nglóng$ 蒼龍 "green dragon," etc.), and later foreign importations. Even though such figurative,

^{3.} For instance, the (c. AD 1590) Wuzazu 五雜相 (Visser 1913:101) lists nine ornamental dragons peculiar to Buddhist art:

The [púláo 蒲牢 "cattail pen"], dragons which like to cry, are represented on the tops of bells, serving as handles. The [sìniú 四牛 "four cows"], which like music, are used to adorn musical instruments. The [chīwen 蚩吻 "sneer lips"], which like swallowing, are placed on both ends of the ridgepoles of roofs (to swallow all evil influences). The [zhāofēng 嘲風 "ridiculous wind"], lion-like beasts which like precipices [cf. §5.4], are placed on the four corners of roofs. The [yáhūa 睚 o "corner of eye movement"],

chromatic, and imported draconyms are subsumed within the Chinese 'dragon' lexical field; for present purposes, they are excluded.

Finding Chinese dragon etymons involved several steps. First, the literature in the field (esp. works by Li, Yan, Hino, Mori, de Visser, Schiffeler, and Diény) was surveyed for prominent names. These draconyms were researched in dictionaries (e.g., Table 1), which led to additional synonyms. And when loci classici were checked, their indexes and commentaries revealed even more dragon names.

Yan (1988) divides previous studies into five fields, Chinese dragons as: foreign loanwords, dinosaurs, spirits, water gods, and totems. This paper will facilitate the first, presenting a linguistic digest of names. It presumes no knowledge of Chinese, explains terms, cites translations (including the contextual terminus a quo for each draconym), and notes additional references. For those who can read Chinese, logographs and original sources are given.⁴

which like to kill, serve as ornaments of sword-grips. The [bìxì 贔屓], which have the shape of the [chīlóng 寓龍 §7.1], and are fond of literature, are represented on the sides of grave-monuments. The [bìhān τv], which like litigation, are placed over prison gates (in order to keep guard). The [suānni ϕ 霓], which like to sit down, are represented upon the bases of Buddhist idols (under the Buddhas' or Bodhisattvas' feet). The [bàxià 霸下 "hegemon below"], finally, big tortoises which like to carry heavy objects, are placed under grave-monuments.

A few salient draconyms from these excepted groups are listed, e.g., hēilóng 黑人 "black dragon" \$2.2 or Nàgā \$4.7.

4. The initial citation of a Chinese text gives dates, logographs, and edition used (chosen in correspondence with standard sinological indexes). Classical sources are cited by title, and depending upon the edition, either page or juan 巻 "chapter; section" ($A = \bot$ 1st and $B = \top$ 2nd parts) and page (a = recto and b = verso) or line. Reference to a commentary is cited by author, juan, and page. Modern sources (listed under REFERENCES) are cited by author, year, and page.

\$1.2 Sources for early Chinese dragon names are primarily Han dynasty (206 BC-AD 220) texts rather than Zhou dynasty (1050?-221 BC) classics. This is true not only for dragons, but for mythical creatures in general. Pre-Han sources mention a few draconyms (e.g., 龍 §2.1), but for most early Chinese mythology, "All that we have are casual references and tantalizing fragments," explains Bodde (1961:376), "widely scattered among texts of diverse date and ideological orientation." The following three Han sources are especially relevant to dragons.

The Chuci 楚辭 "Elegies [from the State] of Chu" is an anthology of southern poems, the oldest of which are attributed to ("the father of Chinese poetry" Liu 1966:24) Qu Yuan (340?-278? BC). Liu Xiang (77-6 BC) edited this text and Wang Yi (AD 89?-158) wrote its first commentary. Many Chuci dragon descriptions are fabulously poetic, e.g.:

They lined [T (cf. §7.1)蟲象] water monsters up to join them in the dance: How their bodies [$\Psi\lambda$ §8.2] coiled and writhed in undulating motion! Gracefully the [EP §2.2] woman-rainbow made circles round them; Phoenixes soared up and hovered overhead. (四部備要ed. 5/10a, Hawkes 1985:198)

The Huainanzi 淮南子 is a philosophical miscellany compiled by Liu An (179?-122 BC), Prince of Huainan.⁵ Xu Shen (AD 55-144, also the editor of the Shuowenjiezi, v. Table 1) and Gao Yu (fl. AD 205) wrote the earliest extant Huainanzi commentaries. The Huainanzi frequently mentions several draconyms together, e.g., Fuxi and Nügua §8.9:

...rode the [雷車 cf. \$2.4] thunder chariot, using [應 \$2.4] winged dragons as the inner pair and [青 δ \$ 8.2] green dragons as the outer pair. ... preceded by [白 T \$7.1] white serpents and followed by [奔蛇 \$3.1] speeding snakes. (四部叢刊 ed. 6/7a, Le Blanc 1985:161-2)

^{5.} Since the southern state of Chu 楚 is associated with the Chuci and Huainanzi, it would be worthwhile to study the linguistic/cultural geo-history of dragon borrowings (cf. Chamberlain's work on Tai reptilian names); e.g., crocodiles \$6.3 are native to South China.

The Shanhaijing 山海經 "Classic of Mountains and Seas" (疏集 ed.) is a heterogeneous record of Chinese geographic myths and legends (Mänchen-Helfen 1924). Liu Xin (c. 46 BC-AD 23) edited this text and Guo Pu (AD 276-324) wrote the first commentary to it. Karlgren mentions that many names (e.g., three draconyms in \$2.7) are hapax legomena in the Shanhaijing:

The first five books give an enumeration of a long series of mountains and hills all over the "China" known to the Han people, and almost every such hill has some supernatural animal or tree or plant... In the said five books there are no less than 186 such weird animals and 48 magic trees or plants. 99 percent of them never occur in a single pre-Han text. To a certain extent these chapters undoubtedly contain Han-time folk-lore, but the critical reader cannot seriously accept it all as a bona fide representation of beliefs that were really current among the people. (1946:204-5, cf. Bodde 1961:379)

The Shanhaijing is a valuable source for early Chinese legends (Yuan 1960:21-4), and its unique mythical creatures cannot be considered mala fide simply because they do not occur in other texts-on the contrary, their names are possibly foreign importations.

These three texts provide a window on Chinese dragon mythology and terminology of two thousand years ago.

§1.3 Linguistic aspects of draconyms include pronunciations, logographs, etymologies, and meanings.

Pronunciations in Modern Standard Chinese (pǔtōnghuà 普

^{6.} Guo was an extremely erudite scholar, and wrote the first commentary on the *Erya*. Comparing dragons in Guo's commentaries with those in his prose-poem "Jiang Fu 江賦, Rhapsody on the Yangzi [Yangtze] River" (tr. Obi 1974, Knechtges 1987) is another means of elucidating draconyms.

^{7.} A later wealth of information about reptiles, snakes, and dragons is the 鳞部 'scaly' animals chapter (43, 國學 ed. 1336-59, tr. Read 1934) of the (AD 1596) Bencaogangmu 本草綱目 "Outline of Roots and Plants" by Li Shizhen 李時珍 (AD 1518-1593), cited from the 國學名著珍 ed.

通話, "Mandarin") are romanized in Pinyin, with diacritics depicting the tones; viz., first (high, level) tone = \bar{a} , second (high, rising) tone = \hat{a} , third (low, falling-rising) tone = \check{a} , and fourth (high, falling) tone = \grave{a} . Karlgren's (1957) reconstructions are given for (c. 7th cent. BC) Old/Archaic Chinese, and (c. AD 7th cent.) Middle/Ancient Chinese (n.b.: in terms of usual phonetic symbols, Karlgren's $ng = \eta$ and $\dot{}= \dot{}^2$). Middle tones are indicated as follows: 上聲 "rising" tone = $\dot{}$, 去聲 "departing" tone = $\dot{}$, 入聲 "entering" tone = $\dot{}$, $\dot{}$, and $\dot{}$ "level/even" tone unmarked. Proto-Tai tones A, B, C, and D are shown in superscript.

Chinese characters are referred to as logographs, and their component elements are described in the usual terms of radicals and phonetics. For example, the bā 巴 'giant snake' §4.3 phonetic is semantically differentiated with radicals in this phonetic series: bā 'a bamboo; fence' 笆 ('bamboo' radical); bà 'harrow' ~ pá 'rake' 耙 ('plow' radical); pá 'rake' 쿈 ('wood; tree' radical, cf. pípa 枇杷 'loquat'); pá 'crawl, creep' 爮 ('claw' radical, cf. páchóng 爬虫 'reptile'); bǎ 'hold; grasp; control' ~ bà 'grip; handle' 祌 (with the 'hand' radical); pá 琶 ('jade; valuable' radical) in pípa 琵琶 'a stringed instrument'; and bā 芭 ('plant' radical) in bājiāo 芭蕉 'banana'. Pictograph and ideograph are limited in reference to logographs which picture things (e.g., 日 'sun' or 月 'moon') or which represent ideas (e.g., 上 'up' or 下 'down'), respectively. Chinese logographs not included within the JIS computer font are represented with Greek and Cyrillic graphs, as shown in the APPENDIX.

Etymological proposals are cited from two disparate sources: traditional Chinese philology and modern comparative linguistics. Many of the former "etymologies" are little more than guesswork, e.g., alleged $ji\bar{a}o$ 蛟 dragon $\S6.1$ derivations from $ji\bar{a}o$ 交 meaning 'join' (head and tail to capture prey), 'twisting' movement, or 'united' eyebrows. The latter are more reliable, but are occasionally contradictory, e.g., Table 2.

Meanings of dragon names are linguistically difficult because they are often vague or contradictory (Diény 1987:ix). When polysemy exists, different meanings are labeled (1), (2), (3), etc. Semantic uncertainties, as

dragon

shown in Table 1, exemplify what Smith (1919:97) calls "those remarkable contradictions that one meets at every step in pursuing the dragon."8

DICTIONARY **DEFINITIONS** T(龍) る(龍) [date c.] 蛟(龍) Λ 應龍 yellow or hornless flying hornless Shuowen [AD 1001 hornless snake dragon dragon dragon Guangya scaled hornless horned winged [AD 230] dragon dragon dragon dragon Guangyun a dragon yellow or hornless divine [AD 1010] alligator? hornless dragon snake or dragon big frog hornless Piva horned aquatic winged

Table 1--Early Dragon Definitions

The (AD 100-122) Shuowen(jiezi) 説文(解字)(上海古籍ed. 13A/54a-55b) has the first Chinese dragon definitions: but why would any language encode two/three names for 'hornless' and none for 'horned dragon'? The (AD 227-232)

dragon

dragon

[AD 1080]

dragon or

dragoness

^{8.} Many names were switched between mythical and actual creatures. For instance, Han texts use fēishǔ < *piwərśio 飛鼠 "flying rat" in two different ways: the Shanhaijing (3/14b, Schiffeler 1978:39) says *piwərśio 飛鼠 is a legendary beast resembling a rabbit with a rat's head, and able to fly by means of the hair on its back; while the Fangyan 方言 (Centre franco-chinois ed. 8/10) lists it as an eastern dialectal 'bat' name. In modern Chinese terminology, fēishǔ 飛鼠 means a giant 'flying squirrel, Petaurista leucogenys' (mythologically associated with the 雷公 thunder god §2.6, Hino 1979:240-2).

^{9.} Some commentators changed these definitions. One of the most widely quoted is the interpretation of Zhu Junsheng (AD 1788-1858) that male 龍 dragons are horned while females are

Guangya 廣雅 (畿輔 ed. 1409-10) lists a more predictable lexicalization of different kinds of 龍 'dragons', yet this is explicable by the -lóng 龍 suffixation (e.g., Guangya 蛟 龍 vs. Shuowenjiezi 蛟, etc.). The (AD 1007-1011) Guangyun 廣韻 (古音大字典 ed. 1015, 25, 916, 277) follows the Shuowenjiezi definitions—except for defining 蛟 as "a kind of dragon," probably 'alligator' because it cites the Hanshu $\S 6.1$ that one was caught in the Yangzi, and graphically distinguishing B 'divine snake' from Λ 'giant snake-eating frog'. And the (AD 1078-1085) Piya ω 雅 (五雅 ed. 1-4) follows the Guangya definitions—except for describing 蛟 as 'an aquatic dragon resembling a four-legged snake' and adding a 'dragoness' definition.

In the final analysis, some Chinese names can only be glossed as meaning 'a dragon'. Kroll (1989:327) warns that ultimately the Chinese dragon (Diény's 1987:205-51 "symbol of universal dynamism"), "cannot be explained, defined, or delimited in unequivocal, explicit fashion, once for all."

2 RAIN-DRAGONS

The first, and largest, group of draconyms are associated with rainfall: $l\acute{o}ng$ 龍 'dragon' $\mathfrak{L}.1$, $h\acute{o}ng$ 虹 'rainbow' $\mathfrak{L}.2$, $l\acute{u}n \sim l$ i Λ 'black rain-dragon' $\mathfrak{L}.3$, yinglóng 應龍 'winged rain-dragon' $\mathfrak{L}.4$, $f\acute{e}iyi$ 肥遺 'raindragon' $\mathfrak{L}.5$, $l\acute{e}ish\acute{e}n$ 雷神 'thunder god' $\mathfrak{L}.6$, $ti\acute{a}oy\acute{o}ng$ ε ζ 'drought dragon' $\mathfrak{L}.7$, mingshé 鳴蛇 'drought dragon' and huàshé 化蛇 'flood dragon' $\mathfrak{L}.8$, and $tu\acute{a}n$ 'drought dragon' $\mathfrak{L}.9$. These water creatures were believed to cause rain when they flew up into the clouds, or to cause drought when they flew away (Smith 1920, Shiratori 1934, Cohen 1978). Wu (1934) proposed the dragon's status as a water god was the original reason for Chinese dragon worship. Due to similar descriptions, some flying-dragons in \mathfrak{L} 0 could be rain-dragons as well, but they are not specifically said to control rainfall.

\$2.1 Lóng < *ljung n is the primary and most salient Sinitic draconym, in effect, "the Chinese dragon."

not, and for young male dragons, 蛟 means 'one horned', δ 'two horned', and T 'hornless'.

Early graphs for *liung 龍 (Zhang 1978) pictured a menagerie of dragons with serpentine bodies, many with horns/ears/hair? on the head, and some with legs. 10 Creel (1937:237-8) reasons that since 龍 graphs on Shang oracle bones were "unmistakable reptilian, if not snakelike," the dragon partially originated from some aquatic animal. Oracle and bronze dragon pictographs were transformed almost beyond recognition into 龍 combining: 立 ('stand') for the original 'head', 月 'moon' (= 內 'meat; flesh') for the 'body', and a lineated sheather; hair' for the wings'. This graphically cumbersome sixteen-stroke 龍 was abbreviated (sometime prior to the Tang dynasty, Tollef As. p.c. of 89/8/21) into the ten-stroke 竜 (with a 電 'lightning' tail) which is favored in modern Japanese, and simplified into the modern Chinese five-stroke Д.

The original pronunciation of lóng 龍 was more manifold than *ljung.¹¹ Karlgren (1957, no. 1193) conservatively reconstructed most words in the 龍 phonetic series with a simple *l- initial, e.g., lóng < *ljung 瀧 (with the 'water' radical) 'falling rain; moisten; rapids' or lóng < *ljung ~ *lung 龍 (with 'plant') 'prince's feather; Polygonum orientale'. However, the necessity for some velar/labial consonantal cluster is shown by the 龍 reading máng < *mlung 'variegated; dappled' interchangeable with máng < *mung long 'shaggy dog; motley; dappled' (both 龍 and long have 'feather; hair'), the alternate 瀧 pronunciations shuāng < *sjang ~ liāng < *gljang 'river names', and two special words in the 龍 phonetic series: páng < *b'ang I (with the 'shelter' radical) 'great; thriving' and chŏng < *t'ljung 龍

^{10.} Shima's (1971) concordance of Shang oracle inscriptions lists over two hundred occurrences of differing 龍 pictographs. Their wide variations (Zhang 1978:8-11 identifies over 120 metamorphoses) has led some scholars (Shima 1958:277-9, Li 1965:3477-84) to see 鰒 $\S7.1$ and δ \S 8.2 dragons as well.

^{11.} There are a few binomes with this phonetic: e.g., linglong 玲瓏 (with the 玉 'jade' radical) 'exquisite; elegant' (jade dragons were especially used in rain magic, Na 1978, Diény 1987:43). 龍 is sometimes used as a radical, e.g., $k\bar{a}n < *k' \rightarrow m$ (with a *g' $\rightarrow m$ 合 'hold in the mouth' phonetic) 'young dragon? (cf. §7.1); victory; shrine; contain'.

(with 'roof') 'favor; esteem' (esp. 'heavenly benediction' Diény 1987:177, cf. §3.2). Compare Karlgren's *ljung with these Old Chinese $\hat{\mathbf{m}}$ reconstructions: *KLung (Boodberg), *ljung (Li), *bljung (Benedict), *(b)-rong (Bodman), and *mrjung (Schuessler).

Lóng < *ljung 龍 'dragon' is etymologically related (Hopkins 1931b:793) with 'lofty; being/rising aloft' (cf. Japanese tatsu 竜 'dragon' <? tatsu 起つ 'rise up'). There are semantic connections with rain-dragons 'flying up' in the clouds, and social symbolism with the ruler being the "lofty/exalted one." This Old Chinese 'lofty' word family includes: *ljung 龍 'dragon', lóng < *ljung 壟 ~ 隴 (with 'earth' ~ 'mound' radicals) 'high land; edifice; ridge', lóng < *ljung 隆 'high; exalted', 13 and jiàng < *kông 降 'go/send down (esp. from heaven, Carr 1987:56-7)'.

Divergent borrowings/loans of $l\acute{o}ng < *liung iii$ have been proffered by comparativists. Lietard (1909) made the earliest: Lolo lo 'dragon' as a loanword from Chinese $l\acute{o}ng$ iii. Other proposals are mentioned in §8.1: Coedès (1935) thought Cambodian $ro\dot{n} \sim ro\dot{n}$ and Siamese mahro $\dot{n} \sim m \check{a}rong$ were imported from Chinese, but Benedict (1967) reversed the direction of the loan. Norman and Mei (1970) suggested additional iii lendings to Siamese maroon, Muong $hong \sim ro\dot{n}$, and Vietnamese rong.

Sino-Tibetan origins are the most common notion.

^{12.} See Benedict (1976a:73, 98; 1986:43.) There is possible evidence of *d'l- in the Shuowenjiezi (11B/31a) statement that the upper left of the 館 graph pictures an abbreviated $t\acute{o}ng < *d'ung$ 童 'child; bare' (cf. 竜). Two other phonetically irregular words written with 館 are $t\grave{a} < *d'op$ M (with two 'dragons', Carr 1986a:82-3) 'dragon's flight' and xi < *dzjop 馥 (with 'clothing') 'double garment; lining; hereditary; raid'; but their *-p rather than *-ng finals came from a different phonetic series mistakenly written with 龍.

^{13.} Cf. 隆隆 'sound of thunder' and 豊隆 'thunder dragon' § 2.6. Benedict (1986:31) thinks *ljun < *gljôn 隆 is a loan from Proto-Tibeto-Burman *grun 'thunder', comparable with Tamang mu-gurun 'thunder'.

Laufer (1916:33-6) hypothesized lóng < *ljung 龍 into a Sino-Tibetan *lu ~ *ru 'dragon, thunder; wug' family with numerous Tibeto-Burman cognates, e.g., Tibetan sbrul 'snake', a-bu-rin 'snake', k-lu 'cobra; serpent-demon', and abrug 'dragon; thunder'; Xi Xia mòlǔ 沒魯 'wug' and wéi 鬼 (with 山 'mountain' and 鬼 'demon', cf. §7 hill-dragons) 'dragon'; Balti blug 'dragon; thunder'; Moso lu 'worm'; Manyak bru 'snake'; and Burmese k'rū 'serpent'. He conceives:

...Chinese $lu\eta$ "dragon" as $lu-\eta$, that is, stem lu+1 affix η ; this opinion, from the viewpoint of Chinese is confirmed by the form loo for $lu-\eta$ in the dialect of Wen-chou. $(1916:34-5)^{14}$

Boodberg (1935, 1979:165-7) proposed a Sino-Tibetan *s-brong "insect; reptile" (i.e., 'wug') root based upon words like Chinese *ljung-t'lia 龍魈 'dragon' \$7.1, *g'ung 虹 'rainbow' \$2.2, and *t'a 它 ~ *d'ja 蛇 'serpent'; Tibetan sbrang 'worm', brug 'dragon', and k'lu 'Naga' \$4.7; and Tangut molu 'reptile' and mang 'serpent'.

Benedict switched from Sino-Tibetan to Austro-Tai 龍 origins, first (1976a:73; 1976b:189) positing *ljung < *bljun 龍 'dragon' and Tibetan 'brug 'thunder; dragon' as derivations from Proto-Sino-Tibetan *'brun < *(a-)brun. This *b- prefix could come from Proto-Tibeto-Burman *bew 'snake' affixed to *ruŋ, while the Northern Tai root *bro(o)n* (cf. Dioi śon! 'rainbow') seemed to be an early back-loan from Chinese. However, he admitted doubts about this root because the "possibility of an ancient loan into these two languages really cannot be excluded." Instead of being borrowed from Chinese *ljung 龍, Benedict (1967:321) thought Coedes' Proto-Muong *ron 'dragon' §8.1 was the probable source for *ljung < *bljun 龍; and later (1975:274) added $*g'ung < *g'[r]un \sim *k[r]un$ 'rainbow' as a transfer from an Austro-Tai *run 'dragon; rainbow' root with two branches: Proto-Miao-Yao *ron* 'dragon' (cf. Chiengrai Yao cun 'dragon; rainbow') and Proto-Tai *run 'rainbow; sky dragon' (cf. Khamti hun kin nam "dragon drink water" 'sky dragon'). 15 Bodman (1980:84, 1985:154) reconstructs *rjong

^{14.} Lew Ballard (p.c. of 88/6/26) notes a similar situation in Wu dialects that regularly lose nasal finals.

^{15.} Benedict (p.c. of 88/9/10) thinks the basic *ruŋ 'dragon' root was not of Sino-Tibetan origin, and the velar

< *b-rong 龍 'dragon' and compares Vietnamese rong, Sino-Vietnamese long, Khmer rong, Thai piimarong 'year of the dragon' (< pii 'year'), and Proto-Yao *rong² 'dragon'. Schuessler (p.c. of 89/8/17) suggests a Chinese borrowing from Austro-Asiatic *rjon or the like.</p>

Table 2--Proposed *Ljung 龍 Derivations

PROTO-SINO-TIBETAN

*lun ~ *run 'wug; dragon' (Laufer)

*s-brong 'wug; dragon' (Boodberg)

*(a-)brun 'dragon; thunder' (Benedict)

PROTO-AUSTRO-TAI

*run 'dragon; rainbow' (Benedict)

Lóng < *ljung iii is connected with 'wug', 'dragon', and 'rainbow' words in many Asian languages (cf. Tables 3 and 6), and its borrowings are more widespread than previously imagined; e.g., Okinawan $duu \sim ruu$ 'dragon' (Kokuritsu Kokugo Kenkyūjo 1969:449).

*Ljung 龍 had three meanings attested in ancient texts and inscriptions: (1) 'dragon', (2) 'king', and (3) 'a name'. This relatively limited semantic development for such a common word was conceivably owing to either imperial taboo for (2) or early dragon totemism (Wen 1956:32-3). A zoological sense (4) developed through draconic 'wug' and 'dinosaur' names, e.g., lóngxiā 龍蝦 "dragon shrimp" 'lobster'.

(1) Lông < *ljung 龍 originally meant the revered 'dragon' believed to live underwater and bring rain when it flew into the sky. In the earliest (c. 1000-800? BC) stratum of the Yijing 易經 (e.g., 1, Whincup 1986:23-4) 龍 symbolizes good fortune. From this and other ancient Chinese texts, Visser concludes:

He was in those days, just like now, the god of water, thunder, clouds and rain, the harbinger of blessings,

cluster may relate with the widespread $*qa \sim *ka$ prefix for animal names, suggesting a possible long medial vowel (cf. 1976b, fn. 11) comparable with Proto-Sino-Tibetan $*(a)bru-\eta$ 'sky'.

and the symbol of holy men. As the Emperors are the holy beings on earth, the idea of the dragon being the symbol of Imperial power is based upon this ancient conception. (1913:42)

This idea led to the second sense.

(2) With dragons representing Chinese rulers §8.9, 龍 symbolized 'king; emperor' in art (Li 1978) and 'royal; imperial' in language (e.g., lóngyán 龍顔 "dragon's face" 'imperial countenance'). This symbolism dates back to two of the oldest (c. 1000-600 BC) Chinese texts: the Shujing 書經 (5/4) mentions 龍 "dragon" > 'royal' figures on robes, and the Shijing 詩經 refers to "dragon(-figured)" banners (283/1, 300/3, 303/3) and shields (128/2). These show dragons to have been powerful images during the early Zhou period. Paper explains:

At the end of the [Zhou] period, among the titles given the "First Emperor" was [Zulong] 祖龍 "Original" or "Ancestral Dragon." By the early Han at least, the [long] was among the symbols of the emperor. (1978:29) In addition, dragons were a political symbol (Diény 1987:167-72), and stories about sightings were common before a dynastic change.

- (3) Long < *Liung 龍 was an ancient proper name recorded on Shang oracles and Zhou bronzes (Zhang 1978:20-2). The personal name (cf. the Miao clan name, Eberhard 1968:233-4) textually dates back to Shun's legendary Communications Minister *Liung mentioned in the Shujing (2/23, 25; along with the "dragon" Music Director *G'iwər ⊕ \$7.6). Long 龍 was frequently used in place names, e.g., Longmen 龍門 "Dragon Gate" where myths (§4.6 and §7.3) said fish transformed into dragons.
- (4) Lóng 龍 is employed in Chinese zoological nomenclature in much the same way that English dragon is used in dragonfly or dragonfish. First, lóng names lifeforms thought to resemble dragons, e.g., dìlóngzi 地龍子 "earth dragon child" 'earthworm', hǎilóng 海龍 "sea dragon"

^{16.} 龍 is also used in botanical nomenclature, e.g., 龍 above; lóngdǎn 龍膽 "dragon gall bladder" 'gentian', lóngshélán 龍舌蘭 "dragon tongue orchid" 'century plant', or lóngyǎn 龍眼 "dragon eye" (loaned into English) 'longan'.

'sea otter; pipefish', or lóngluòzi 龍落子 "dragon fall child" 'sea horse'. These are not actually 'dragons', but are classified within the lónglèi 龍類 "dragon class" 'wugs; reptiles; etc.'. Second, lóng 龍 is closely associated with dinosaurs (Xu 1940, Yan 1988:100). The Chinese pharmacopoeia includes "dragon" medicines (Visser 1913:90-8, Read 1934:302-5) such as lóngnão 龍脳 "dragon brain" 'a limestone; Borneo camphor', lóngxián 龍挺 "dragon saliva" 'ambergris' (cf. §8.6), and lóngchǐ 龍樹 "dragon tooth" 'fossilized teeth'. Fossils affiliated Chinese dragons with dinosaurs, lónggǔ 龍骨 "dragon bone" was an early name for 'oracle bone' inscriptions. Although English dragon has no zoological meaning (other than Draco lizards, §9.2.), Read (1934:297) suggests lóng 龍 referred to a definite entity: "animals which yielded large fossilized bones." The modern Chinese 'dinosaur' term is kŏnglóng 恐龍 "fearful dragon," a calque from dinosaur < Greek deinos 'fearful; monstrous' + sauros 'lizard'.

Many dragons (e.g., yúnlóng < *giwənljung 雲龍 "cloud dragon" 'rain-dragon' in the AD 320 Baopuzi 抱朴子, 平津 ed. 13/1b, Ware 1966:213) are named with lóng 龍 compounds and a few (e.g., §5.1-.3) with lóng v (虫 'wug' radical and 龍 'dragon' phonetic). These draconic names could be related with the myth, first recorded by Wang Fu (76-157 AD), that the lóng 龍 bore likenesses to nine different animals (Ball 1903:219, Visser 1913:70, Doré 1917:681) having: a camel's head, deer's horns, hare's eyes, bull's ears, snake's neck, [蚕 §8.1] clam's belly, carp's scales, eagle's claws, and tiger's paws. 17 Mythological hybrids are a common aspect of Chinese tradition (Loewe 1978). Hornblower (1933:80) supposes "composite animals were pictured to represent concretely the special qualities attributed to each of them" and thus symbolized divine powers.

^{17.} Compare ile 's physical composition with the Greek chimera (lion's head, goat's body, and serpent's tail) or manticore (human head, lion's body, and dragon's/scorpion's tail). Smith (1919:81) suggests this Chinese myth about the long being blended from fierce animals was influenced by Middle/Near Eastern legends (cf. §9.2), because: "An association of anatomical features of so unnatural and arbitrary a nature can only mean that all dragons have the same ultimate ancestors."

The origins of *liung $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ 'dragon' are clearly linked with *g'ung \sim *kŭng $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ 'sky dragon' below.

§2.2 Hóng < *g'ung ¶ 'rainbow' has always represented a dragon to the Chinese, from Shang oracle pictographs of dicephalous sky-serpents (Diény 1987:180-2) to the modern ¶ graph with the 'wug' radical. From this ideography, Hopkins infers:

...the early Chinese must have seen in the Rainbow one avatar of the wonder-working Dragon as conceived by their animistic mentality. That would likewise explain why to the arching bow seen with their bodily eyes they added the Dragon heads beheld only by the eye of faith. (1931a:606)

Although many ancient cultures believed rainbows were good omens, 18 the Chinese saw them as meteorological disasters. Unlike the auspicious 龍 dragon symbolizing forthcoming rain, the two-headed rainbow 虹 dragon was inauspicious because it appeared after a rain shower. Rainbows and comets were sometimes seen as heavenly warnings (e.g., Huainanzi 3/2b, Schindler 1923:322).

The Chinese rainbow combines two legends: rainbow-serpents and double(-headed) snakes symbolizing rain-dragons (Eberhard 1968:385, Yuan 1978:42-3, cf. §2.5). The Bencaogangmu (43/2, Visser 1913:71, Read 1934:301) quotes the Buddhist Shidian 釋典 that "in mating, dragons change themselves into two small snakes." Loewenstein (1961) discusses similar rainbow-serpent legends throughout Southeast Asia, the Pacific, Australia, Africa, and South America; and concludes:

Myths of a giant rainbow-serpent are common among primitive tribes inhabiting the tropics. Outside the tropical belt the rainbow-serpent concept is hardly to be found. This points to the fact that the myth must

^{18.} For the Greeks and Romans, the rainbow was the sign of messenger of the gods; for the Hebrews, it was a fivine mercy (e.g., Genesis 9.13); and for the a gift from the sun god. Clerke (1887:98-9) analogous British myth: the rainbow was the eld of King Arthur Pendragon (< "chief/head")

be intimately connected with the occurrence and geographic distribution of a particular family of snakes, the Boidae, which includes the largest specimens in existence, namely the Pythons and the Boas. (1961:37)

This 'boa' \rightarrow 'rainbow' hypothesis suggests the ancient Chinese adopted the idea from some southern culture, but linguistic evidence is lacking, unless *g'ung \mathfrak{U} is related with *mwang \mathfrak{B} 'python' $\S4.5$.

- (I) Hóng < *g'ung ~ jiàng < *kŭng 虹 'rainbow' combines a *kung 工 'work' phonetic (Chen 1936:523 compares *g'jungkung 共工 \$8.9) with the 虫 'wug' radical. The probable terminus a quo for 虹 is the (c. 3rd cent. BC) Erya 開雅 (Harvard-Yenching ed. 8/7) definition of *tiadtung E Z being called yú < *gjwo II 'rain sacrifice' and meaning *g'ung 虹 'rainbow', and *ngiat P 'rainbow' being called qièèr < *k'iatńjer 智貳 "lift two." Guo notes *gjwo was used for 'rainbow' in Jiangdong (present day Jiangsu and Zhejiang), gives a colloquialism of měirén < *mjerńjen 美人'beautiful person', and cites the name *k'iatńjer 智貳 from the Shizi 尸子. However, the present Shizi text (湖海 ed. 2/1b) has xīyǐ < *siek'iər 析翳 "split cover/screen" instead of *k'iatńjer, which could indicate some *k- protoform (cf. Table 8).
- (II) Didong < *tiadtung</code> (cf. *tiats-, Schuessler 1987:123) O Z ~ E Z is a second ancient 'rainbow' name written with the 虫 'wug' radical. The logographs O (with a *tâd 帯 'girdle; sash' phonetic) and Z (with *tung 東 'east') were only used to write *tiadtung 'rainbow', while zhuě < *tiwat E 'spider' (with a *tiwat 'connect' phonetic picturing four 又 'hands') was a graphic loan for *tiad-'rain-[bow]'. The earliest E Z is a bad omen in the Shijing:

The rainbow is in the east; nobody dares to point to it; when a girl makes her journey, she goes far away from father and mother and brothers. (51/1, Karlgren 1950a:33)

Waley (1937a:61, 328; 1937b:12) translates E Z as "girdle," taking * t_{jwat} E 'spider' as a loan for * t_{iad} O = * t_{iad} # 'girdle' because of cross-cultural parallels for 'girdle' (of a pregnant woman) \rightarrow 'rainbow'. This Chinese superstition that pointing at easterly rainbows is unlucky has persisted to the present.

(III) Niè < *ngiat or ni ~ yi < *ngieg can be written 霓 (with the 雨 'rain' radical) or P (with 虫 'wug', also meaning 'a cicada; Meimura opalifera'). The earliest textual usage of *ngiat 霓 is found in the (3rd cent. BC) Mengzi 孟子 (十三經注疏 ed. 1B/8a, Legge 1895:171); people looked up to the legendary Tang "as we look in a time of great drought to the clouds and rainbows."

Yin/Yang 陰陽 cosmology dichotomized between *ngiat ~ *ngieg 霓 'Yin/female rainbow'19 and *g'ung ~ *kŭng 虹 'Yang/male rainbow'. Both terms meant originally meant 'rainbow', but were specialized to distinguish the Yin 霓 'secondary/supernumerary/outer rainbow' versus the Yang 虹 'primary/inner rainbow'. Since Yin and Yang are necessarily 50/50, rainbows were theoretically limited to half the year; the 月令 "Monthly Ordinances" in the (1st cent. BC) Liji 禮記 (十三經注疏 ed. 15/10a, 17/9b; Legge 1885:I:263, 297) claims 虹 rainbows only appear from the last month of spring to the first month of winter [when 晨 §9.1 transform]. Granet (1929:272-7, 1939:181-2) interpreted the rainbow as a sexual symbol of Yin-Yang union, and a duel between male and female river gods/dragons.

Like rainbows, dragons were explained as Yin/Yang combinations (Gieseler 1917:117-20, Diény 1987:174-7, 217-39). Rain-dragons had Yin powers since they controlled water.

In China, dragon essence is woman essence. The connection is through the mysterious powers of fertilizing rain, and its extensions in running streams, lakes, and marshes. In common belief as in literature, the dark, wet side of nature showed itself alternately in women and in dragons. The great water deities of Chinese antiquity were therefore snake queens and dragon ladies: they were avatars of dragons precisely because they were equally spirits of the meres and mists and nimbus clouds. (Schafer 1973:28-9)

^{19.} Cf. another female dragon, ni < *ngieg 觀 (with the 魚 'fish' radical) 'giant salamander; female whale §8.6'. Instead of $ni \sim \acute{e}r < *\acute{n}i\check{e}g$ 兒, the Shuowenjiezi (11B/15b) notes 霓 had a phonetic of *siĕn 申 'stretch', i.e., diàn < *d'ien 電 'lightning' (cf. * \acute{a} 'iĕn 神 'god' §7.1).

Besides Yin, the dragon, as the symbol of powerful rulers (Visser 1913:44), was Yang (cf. 燭陰 \$8.5), because (Werner 1922:208) "He controls the rain, and so holds in his power prosperity and peace."

The Chuci has more *ngiat occurrences (ten 霓 and five P) than any other early text.²⁰ It occasionally specifies *ngiat as the 雌 'female' rainbow (e.g., 4/24b, Hawkes 1985:182 "woman rainbow"), and frequently uses it with other dragons, for instance:

To hang at my girdle the coiling [蒼龍] Green Dragon, To wear at my belt the sinuous [虹] rainbow serpent... A great [霓] rainbow flag like an awning above me, And pennants dyed in the hues of the sunset. (16/12b, Hawkes 1985:290)

This mythical 蒼龍 "Green Dragon" ruling the eastern sky and the 朱雀 "Scarlet Bird" ruling the southern sky both reoccur in the *Chuci* with 白霓 "white (Yin-)rainbows" (e.g., 8/14b, Hawkes 1985:217 "Bright rainbows"). "White rainbow" may seem contradictory since the spectrum is a refraction of white light, but $b\acute{a}i \sim b\acute{o} < *b'\check{a}k \, \dot{\Box}$ 'white' can mean either 'bright; clear' or 'light; pale' rainbows. Wang glosses $\dot{\Box}$ P (3/13a, Hawkes 1985:130 "halo of white light") as a 'rainbow colored cloud shaped like a dragon'. 21

^{20.} The Chuci graphically interchanges 霓 and P (e.g., both are used with 白 'white' rainbows), except 霓 (with the 'cloud' radical) is exclusively used with 雲 'clouds' in 雲霓 'clouds and rainbows': 1/22b, 1/24a, 17/9a, 17/15a; Hawkes 1985:73, 77, 313, 318.

^{21.} This 白 'white' (cf. 白蛇 $\S3.6$) \rightarrow 'bright' was applied to 虹 'rainbows' in other texts. A "白虹貫日 bright rainbow piercing the sun" is a portent of military defeat in the Zhanguoce 戰國策 (土禮居 ed. 297, Crump 1979:454) "a white halo pierced the sun." The reason why jade is highly valued, according to the Liji (48/11, Legge 1885:II:464), is because it "...is like good faith; bright as a [白虹] brilliant rainbow."

Table 3--Proposed * $G'ung \sim *Kung$ Derivations

PROTO-SINO-TIBETAN
*s-brong 'wug; dragon' (Boodberg)

PROTO-AUSTRO-TAI
**run 'dragon' painbow' (Bondict)

*run 'dragon; rainbow' (Benedict)
*g'[1]un 'red; rainbow' (Benedict)

The etymology of *g'ung ~ *kŭng 虹 'rainbow' is related with *ljung 龍 'dragon' (Table 2). Boodberg (1935, 1979:167) thought *g'ung < *glung 虹 'rainbow (dragon)' and *ljung-t'lia 龍虹 'dragon' descended from a Proto-Sino-Tibetan *s-brong 'wug' root \$2.1. Benedict originally (1967, 1975:274) saw *ljung 龍 and *g'ung 虹 as early Chinese borrowings from Proto-Austro-Tai *run 'dragon; rainbow'; but later (1976a:73, 1986:58) realized *g'ung < *g'[l]un ~ *k[l]un 虹 'rainbow' (and *tiadtung < *tiad-[skl]ung E Z 'rainbow' with a *tung 東 'east' phonetic → 'red part of the sky') was semantically specialized from *g'ung < *g'lun 紅 'red'. His *g'lun 'red' → 'rainbow' hypothesis is supported by three 'dragon'-'rainbow' data: the *lung 龍 "dragon plant" 'prince's feather' \$2.1 was called *g'ung 紅 'red' or *lungko 龍古 (Erya 13/78, 96); 虹's alternate jiàng pronunciation is identical with jiàng 絳'dark red'; and 'rainbow' had a *g'ungg'iog 紅橋 'red bridge' literary name.

§2.3 Lún < *liwen B or lì < *lied ~ *lier Λ was a 'dark rain-dragon' also meaning a 'snake-eating bullfrog'. B (虫 'wug' radical and *liwen \widehat{m} phonetic) is defined in the Shuowenjiezi (13A/54a) as 'a kind of black and yellow snake that hides in the [神淵] divine depths, and can cause rain by rising up into the clouds'; and it notes the Huainanzi (below) variant Λ (虫 'wug' radical and *lied ~ *liet \overline{R} phonetic). The Guangyun (277) glosses lì < *lier (cf. Table 8) for Λ 'a large frog/toad' and adds lún < *liwen for B 'divine snake; large frog/toad which eats

liest A occurrence is hēilún < *Xməkliwən 黒A n-dragon' in the Huainanzi (11/3a, Wallacker "The red hair of a victim ox is fitting in temple sacrifice; for bringing rain it is not as good as a black snake." Gao paraphrases the Shuowenjiezi (13A/55a), defining 黑A as "a [神蛇 §4.6] 'divine snake' which hides in the divine depths and can fly up into the rain clouds." This hēilī 黑A 'black rain-dragon' was sometimes used in poetry, e.g., (維詩 by Zhang Xie, AD 3rd cent.) "the 'black lī dragon' leaps about in the depths, the shāngyáng 商羊 'one-legged rain-bird' [Eberhard 1968:65] dances in the fields."

This dark * $liwen \sim *lied \sim *lier$ meteorologically compares with the $h\bar{e}il\acute{o}ng < *Xmekliung ## "black dragon" which was killed to stop rain (Huainanzi 6/6b, Le Blanc 1985:159; Mozi 47/48, 52, Mei 1929:228-9).$

Guo's "Yangzi Rhapsody" has *liwen Λ 'rain-dragon; frog' as a name (l. 123, Knechtges 1987:331 "bullfrogs"), and cleverly uses shénlún < *d'iěnliwen 神 Λ 'divine raindragon' with *liwen B in a wordplay on * iwen B in yúnyún < * iwen iwen B B 'wriggling; twisting'22 (l. 147 神 Λ B B, Knechtges 1987:337 "Divine serpents, twisting and twining, dive and frolic"). Knechtges follows Zhu Jian's commentary that these two Λ 's should be different, but Obi (1974:145, 147) translates them the same.

\$2.4 Yinglóng < * iengliung 應龍 was a 'winged raindragon' mentioned in several early texts. 23 Since 應 is distinguished between fourth tone ying 'respond; answer; comply' ~ first tone ying 'proper; suitable; necessary', 應 龍 could mean either "responsive dragon" or "proper dragon." The former is surely correct (Diény 1987:213, 216 "le dragon-écho"), and Lothar von Falkenhausen (p.c. of 88/9/28) notes bronze motifs with two symmetrical dragons intertwined (like Fuxi and Nügua §8.9), and suggests a possible ritual connotation like the 應鐘 'responding bell'.

^{22.} The (AD 1067) Jiyun 集韻 (上聲5) lists a B pronunciation of wěnwěn < * $jw\epsilon n$ $jw\epsilon n$, and the Guangyun (354) additionally defines it as wò < * $jw\epsilon n$ 'a wug which eats the brains of corpses'.

^{23.} Based upon Shang oracle inscriptions, Chen (1936:517-20, cf. 句龍 §8.9) hypothesizes the 應龍 was originally associated with the $niqi\bar{u} < *nierts'i\hat{o}g$ 泥館 'mud loach'.

The Shanhaijing (17/5a-6b [cf. §7.6]; Schiffeler 1978:124, Yuan 1960:116) records a legend that the Yellow Emperor 黄帝 ordered a yinglong 應龍 dragon to kill the rebel Chi You 蚩尤, and then banished it to the South Pole, causing a drought. A repetition (14/7b, Karlgren 1946:284, cf. 土龍 §6.2) refers to sympathetic rain magic, and says when a drought occurs, fashioning a 應龍 image will cause rain (Shiratori 1934:110-3). In reference to the mythical Yu §8.9 working to control floods, the Chuci (3/5b, Hawkes 1985:128) asks, "What did the winged dragon trace on the ground?"; and Wang comments it traced lines to show where channels should be dug (Bodde 1961:400).

Yinglong 應龍 'winged dragon' occurs three times in the Huainanzi. First, (4/10a, Visser 1913:65) an explanation of animal evolution alleges the máodú < *mogd'uk 毛犢 "hairy calf" (Eberhard 1968:351 suggests 'water buffalo') gave birth to the yinglong, and it subsequently gave birth to all other quadrupeds. Second, (6/7a [cf. §1.2], Le Blanc 1985:161-2) Fuxi and Nügua §8.9 are depicted riding in a # 車 "thunder chariot" pulled by 應龍 'winged dragons' and 青 δ 'green dragons' §8.2, and accompanied by 白 T 'white dragons' §7.1 and 奔蛇 'speeding snakes' §3.1. Gao's commentary says \mathbb{Z} is a 'winged' and δ a 'hornless dragon'. Third, (9/5b, Ames 1981:176, cf. 74) yinglong is contrasted with téngshé A 蛇 'flying-dragon' §3.1: "The [teng] snake springs up into the mists; the flying ying dragon ascends into the sky mounting the clouds." (1978:186-7) notes the yinglong 應龍 is usually pictured with four wings (cf. its role as the quadruped ancestor), like the next dragon.

\$2.5 Féiyí < *b'iwergiwcd 肥遺 "fertile/rich remains" was a rain-dragon (Tan 1976) with contradictory Shanhaijing descriptions. Two mountains have féiyi 肥遺 snake-dragons foreboding severe droughts, described as having: six feet and four wings (2/2a, Schiffeler 1978:123) or one head and two bodies (3/8a, Schiffeler 1978:101).24 And a third

^{24.} Guo compares *b'iwərgiwed 肥遺 with wēiyi < * iwǎrdia 逶蛇 "winding snake" 'meandering; compliant' (Karlgren 1964, no. 401). Four-winged dragons are mentioned in \$2.8 and \$3.8, and two bodies were seen for Yin/Yang rainbows in \$2.2. Read (1934:347) and Yuan (1978:39-41) discuss two-headed

Shanhaijing mountain (2/4a) describes a féiyi 肥遺 creature that appears like a 鶉 'quail; eagle' with a yellow body and a red beak. Hao Yixing (AD 1757-1825) believed these three féiyi 肥遺's were identical despite their different descriptions and habitats.

The féi < *b'jwer 肥 'fat; fertile; rich' in *b'jwergjwed 肥遺 could signify 'rich; prosperous' crops ← 'abundant' rainfall, or could be cognate with fei < *pjwer 飛 'flying' dragons. Both 肥 and 遺 in *b'jwergjwed have variant writings with the 虫 'wug' radical, comparable with fei < *b'jwer 蜚 'roach' which was a graphic loan for fei < *pjwer 飛 'fly'; e.g., 飛龍 "flying-dragon" §3.5 is written 蜚龍 in the (c. AD 90) Lunheng 論衡 (四部叢刊 ed. 6/13a). In addition, there was a feilián < *pjwergljam 蜚廉 ~ 飛廉 'wind god' (Maspero 1924:56, Karlgren 1946:317-9) said to have a deer's body, bird's head, and snake's tail. Féi < *b'jwer 蜚 names a Shanhaijing (4/11a, Schiffeler 1978:38) drought demon resembling a white-headed ox with one eye and a snake's tail. Yuan (1960:91) characterizes *b'jwer 蜚 and *b'jwergjwed 肥遺 as typical disaster demons.25

\$2.6 Léishén < *lwerd'iĕn 雷神 "thunder god/spirit" was a deification of the rain-dragon's association with lightning and thunder (Yuan 1978:42-3). Léishén is reported in the Shanhaijing (13/2a, Schiffeler 1978:125) to live in a 雷澤 "thunder mere/marsh," and have a dragon's body, human's head, and drum-like (cf. §7.2) stomach. Guo compares a shénlóng < *â'iĕnljung 神龍 "divine dragon" (cf. 神蛇 §4.6) which the Huainanzi (4/9a) says has a human's head, a drum-like stomach, and lives in this same 雷澤 (Ikeda 1953). The (AD 426) HouHanshu 後漢書 (同文 ed. 79/6b, Diény 1987:21) mentions *d'engâja A 蛇 §3.1 losing scales and *â'iĕnljung 神龍 losing horns.

snakes.

^{25.} Compare the four-winged $f\bar{e}izh\ddot{i}$ < *b'jwertjet 餐蛭 "roach/flying leech" (cf. *ljungtjet ν 蛭 \S 5.1), mentioned in the Shanhaijing (17/2a) with the qinchóng < *g'jemd'jông 零蟲 "harp wug," a creature with a beast's head and snake's body. These could be dragons, but nothing is known besides their names.

This Chinese Thor *lword'iĕn 雷神 "thunder god" has also been depicted (Eberhard 1968:255-6, 290, Hino 1979:240-8) as a winged and clawed creature resembling a pig, ape, monkey, or raven. 6 Moreover, it has names of léigōng < *lworkung 雷公 "thunder lord" in the Huainanzi (2/8a, Morgan 1934:45, Werner 1922:199-200), or léishī < *lworsjor 雷師 "thunder master" (cf. 兩師 §8.7) and fēnglóng < *p'iônggliông 豊隆 "abundant thundering" in the Chuci (1/22b, 24b; Hawkes 1985:73, 74; Maspero 1924:56-7).

§2.7 Tiáoyóng < *d'iôgdjung & \$\cup\$ is a 'drought dragon' written with the 虫 'wug' radical plus phonetics of *diôg 攸 and *djung 庸. The Shanhaijing describes it similarly with the huáyú η 魚 'flying fish' which was graphically confused with wèiyú θ 魚 'snake fish' because η and θ have similar 骨 and 胃 phonetics.

The Shanhaijing (4/3a, Schiffeler 1978:114) says the tiáoyóng is a drought-demon that looks like a yellow snake (cf. A \$3.1) with fish's \(\mathbb{Z}\) "wings" ('fins'?), and claims that "出入有光 when entering and leaving [the water] it gives off light." This same luminous 出入有光 description is given for two other Shanhaijing fish, the *d'ar α \\$6.2 and the huáyú < *g'wεtngio η魚. This *g'wεtngio η魚 is a drought-demon (4/10b, Schiffeler 1978:122) said to resemble a fish with bird's wings, and to call like a Mandarin duck-also said of the *kog 蛟 \$6.1 and the Shanhaijing's (2/34b) luoyú < *lwangio 月魚 "wasp/shell fish," a flood-demon with a fish's body and bird's wings. $*G'wEt \eta$ (魚 'fish' radical and *kwet 骨 'bone' phonetic) was interpreted as a miscopy of the Shanhaijing's (2/23a, Schiffeler 1978:118) $*giwed \theta$ (魚 'fish' radical and *giwed 胃 'stomach' phonetic) which is described as a fish-eating creature like a snake with four feet. Despite graphic and phonetic similarities, descriptions of the creatures are quite different, *g'wetngjo η \triangleq is a luminous flying-dragon §3 and *giwcdngjo θ 魚 some kind of crocodile-dragon 56. Guo's "Yangzi Rhapsody" (ls. 107 and 146 [followed by A \$2.3]) lists η and ε ζ , translated (Knechtges 1987:329, 337) as "Bonefish"27 and "Luminous snakes."

^{26.} Cf. 猪婆龍 "pig woman dragon" \$6.4 and a non-poisonous snake called léigōngmă 雷公馬 "thunder lord horse."

This *d'iôgdjung ε \$\times \text{'drought dragon' has a probable yongyong < *djungdjung \text{\text{!! } \text{!! } \t

- \$2.8 Mingshé < *miĕngã'ia 鳴蛇 "singing/calling fish" is a drought dragon portrayed (like 酸與 §3.8) in the Shanhaijing (5/4b cf. §5.1, Schiffeler 1978:113 "Hissing snakes") as a four-winged snake which makes a sound like a "musical stone". This context (5/5b-6a, Schiffeler 1978:117) contrasts the *miĕngâ'ia 鳴蛇 with the huàshé < *Xwaâ'ja 化蛇 "transforming snake," described as a flood portent with a human's face, wolf's body, bird's wings (cf. §3.7 and §7.4), and making serpentine movements.
- §2.9 $Tu\acute{an}$ < * $d'w\^{an}$ π (魚 'fish' radical and * t_{iwan} 專 phonetic) is a mythical 'drought dragon' described in the Shanhaijing (1/12a) as resembling a 鮒 'crucian carp'? with pig bristles, and squealing like a piglet. These porcine associations and the drought symbolism denote a rain-dragon. When pronounced $zhu\~{an}$ < * t_{iwan} , π means some kind of 'carp'? in the (early Han) Yili 儀禮 (四部叢刊 ed. 12/14a, Steele 1917:62 "pike").

Other rain/drought demons could be considered dragons. For instance, the $b\acute{o}y\acute{u} < *b'\hat{a}kngjo$ 薄魚 "despise fish" is mentioned in the Shanhaijing (4/10a, Schiffeler 1978:110) as a drought demon (cf. $b\acute{a} < *b'w\^{a}t$ 魃 'drought demon', Diény 1987:104-5) that looks like a sturgeon with one eye, and makes a sound like vomiting. Gieseler (1917) thought sturgeons were the prototype for Chinese dragons, and $*b'\^{a}k$ is pronounced similarly with the $*p'\^{j}ok$ 蝮 snake §4.5 and the $*p\^{o}k$ 駁 beast noted in §6.1.

3 FLYING-DRAGONS

Besides the above creatures supposed to cause rain when they flew in clouds, Chinese lexicalizes other flying

^{27.} Noting (1987:328) "I have invented the name bonefish for it (not to be confused with *Albula vulpes* bonefish, ladyfish)."

dragons: téng A \$3.1, pánlóng 蟠龍 \$3.2, bānlóng 班龍 \$3.3, lóngyú 龍魚 \$3.4, fēilóng 飛龍 \$3.5, fēishé 飛蛇 \$3.6, and fēiyú 飛魚 \$3.7 (the last three are literally fēi < *pjwer飛 "flying," cf. \$2.5). There are numerous myths (Diény 1987:126-35) about gods riding and/or harnessing flying dragons.

- \$3.1 Téng < *d'eng A means 'flying-dragon' or (2) 'locust' when pronounced tè < *d'ek. The téng A dragon had a semantically more transparent name of téngshé < *d'engd'ja cemains snake."28 *D'eng A (with the 虫'wug' radical) and *d'eng 體 (with 馬 'horse') 'rise: ascend' are etymologically identical with téng < *d'eng 酸 (with 水 'water') 'gush up'. The Shuowenjiezi (13A/41b) glosses the pronunciation of A 'divine snake' with its phonetic *d'jem ~ *d'jen 肤 'I; omen', while the Guangyun (1132) glosses it as téng < *d'eng 'flying snake; locust' or tè < *d'ek ~ zhěn < *d'jem 'flying snake'.
- (1) The (c. 4th cent. BC) Xunzi 荀子 (Harvard-Yenching ed. 1/23, Dubs 1928:35) refers to *d'engdia A蛇 as a footless dragon which is able to fly because it concentrates. The Erya (16/40) defines *d'eng A as téngshé < *d'eng@ja A蛇 "*d'eng snake" rather than 體蛇 "ascending snake," and Guo glosses "a [飛龍 \$3.5] flying-dragon that drifts in the clouds and mist, called mangshé < *mwangd'ia 蟒蛇 'python; boa' [§4.5] in the Huainanzi." This is a misquote (or miscopy of 蠎 for 蟒 in the following [16/40] *mwang 蟒 'giant snake' definition). The Huainanzi (6/7a [with 應載 S2.4], Ames 1981:176, Le Blanc 1985:162 "speeding snakes") describes a bēnshé < *pwend'ja 奔蛇 (not 蟒蛇) "rushing snake,"29 and Gao circularly glosses *pwend'ia 奔蛇 as *d'eng@ja A蛇. The (3rd cent. BC) Hanfeizi 韓非子(世界 ed. 44, Liao 1939:77 "rising serpents," Wen 1956:19) similarly uses *d'engaja in describing the Yellow Emperor riding in a carriage drawn by i dragons.

^{28.} A 蛇 ~ 騰蛇 'flying-dragon/-snake' has three specialized senses: 'an asterism of twenty-two stars' (associated with lightning, a.k.a. 天蛇 "heavenly snake"), 'a battle formation', and (in physiognomy) 'lines circling the mouth'.

^{29.} The Huainanzi (9/5b, 17/1b, 20/2b) has A蛇 and (15/7a) lóngténg < *ljungd'əng 龍騰 'dragon ascending'.

A meaning of 'scaled dragon' is implied by the HouHanshu \(\)2.6 reference to the *d'engdia A蛇 losing its scales; and Eberhard (1968:385-6) suspects A蛇 "rising snake" was a substitute for the imperially tabooed lóng 能'dragon' \(\)2.1 because "one can hardly speak of scales in the case of a real snake, but a dragon was believed to be scaly."

- (2) The earliest A usage means tè < *d'ek (cf. Schuessler 1987:603 *glak) 'locust; grasshopper' along with ming < *mieng 妈 'an insect that damages grain; caterpillar' in the Shijing (212/2, Karlgren 1950a:166) "we remove the [與A] noxious insects from the ears and leaves." The Erya (15/53) defines (graphic variants of) *d'ek A as 'an insect that eats leaves of plants' and *mieng 妈 as 'one that eats the core'. The (c. AD 10) Fangyan 方言 (11/7) lists (an additional graphic variant of) A and měng < *měng 蟒 (usually měng < *mwêng 蟒 'giant snake' §4.5) as southern dialectal words for *g'wêng 蝗 'locust; grasshopper'.
- \$3.2 Pánlóng < *b'wânljung 蟠龍 "coiled/curled dragon"³⁰ is defined in the Fangyan (12/105, Diény 1987:67) as 未陸天龍謂之蟠龍 "a dragon which has not ascended to heaven." Since pán < *b'wân 蟠 (with the 虫 'wug' radical) 'curl; coil; wind' is graphically used for pán < *b'wân 盤 (with Ⅲ 'tray') 'basin, dish' (cf. 盤古 §8.5), 蟠龍 has a graphic 盤龍 variant. This 蟠 logograph has an alternate fán < *b'jwǎn 蟠 'wood-louse' reading,³¹ and dragon names typically have 'wug' meanings \$5, cf. the 地龍 'centipede' below. The (AD 2nd cent.) Shangshu dazhuan 尚書大傳 (古經

^{30.} The reverse of 蟠龍 'coiled dragon' is lóngpán < *ljungb'wân 龍蟠 'dragon coiled/coiling'. The (AD 1st cent.) Fayan 法言 (4/1a, 漢魏 ed. 13) immortalized lóngpán 龍蟠 as a literary expression for 'person of unrecognized talent' in saying: "a dragon coiled in the mud will be insulted by a newt," meaning 'a sage will be ridiculed by a fool'.

^{31.} Owing to the 'wood-louse' names of shǔfù 鼠婦 "rat's wife" and shǔfù 鼠負 "rat's shoulder/responsibility," the Shuowenjiezi (10A/37a) writes *b'jwǎn 'wood-louse' with the 鼠 'rat' radical instead of the 'wug'.

ed. 1/28) says "the 蟠龍 'coiled dragon' was greatly trusted in its lair, the 鮫魚 'dragon; crocodile' [§6.1] leaped in its pool." Pánlóng 蟠龍 'Coiled Dragon' was the proper name of: a bronze decorative style (e.g., Huainanzi 8/9a [with 山龍], Morgan 1934:95), mountains (e.g., in Honan, Jiangxi, Hunan, and Sichuan), 32 and people (e.g., the nom de plume of Huan Xuan, AD 369-404).

This Fangyan definition mentions tiānlóng < *t'ienljung 天龍 "heavenly dragon," a draconym with five meanings: (1) literally "celestial dragon" guarding the heavenly mansions of the gods (Doré 1914:683), and opposed to the dilóng < *d'ialjung 地龍 "earth dragon" (cf. 地龍子 'earthworm' §2.1 and 土龍 'alligator' §6.2) that was first recorded in the (early AD 7th cent.) Nanshi 南史; (2) a name for the constellation Draco "Dragon," which (Read 1934:306-7) "has the appearance of guarding and encircling the northern pole which is the centre of the movement of the fixed stars"; (3) an alternate name for wúgóng 蜈蚣 'centipede'; (4) a mountain in Shanxi (cf. 蟠龍); and (5) 'heaven's favor' with *ljung 龍 as a graphic loan (e.g., Shijing 304/5; Karlgren 1964, no. 1137) for *t'ljung 龍 'favor; esteem'.

§3.3 Bānlóng < *pwanljung 斑龍 "dappled/mottled dragon" is cognate with *mlǔng < *?blung 尥 'dappled; variegated' § 2.1 and perhaps with the above *b'wânljung 蟠龍 'flying-dragon'.

The Baopuzi (20/5a, Ware 1966:325) mentions bānlóng 斑 in a story about shepherding a herd of dragons: "A dappled, variegated one was the best and the one which Lao Tan normally rides." In the Bencaogangmu (51/17, Read 1931,

^{32. &}quot;Coiled Dragon" place-names could simply be descriptive, or could be owing to dragons symbolizing water in Chinese geomancy (Visser 1913:59-61), e.g., lóngmài 龍脈 "dragon pulse" 'geomantic influence; geomagnetic currents'. Dragons and tigers symbolize water and fire in geomancy, e.g., lóngtán-hǔxué 龍潭虎穴 "dragon's pool and tiger's den" 'dangerous spot'. The Huainanzi (15/8b, Morgan 1934:199) lists a 龍蛇蜡 "dragon snake coiling" 'serpentine defile' as a good place for an ambush. Tollef As (p.c. of 89/8/21) notes place names (e.g., Longquanguan 龍泉関) with historical (military), and not geomantic, explanations.

- no. 364), bānlóng 斑龍 is listed as an alternate name for lù 庭 'deer', supposedly because dragons have deer-like horns and enjoy playing with deer. Smith (1919:130-4) chronicles deer/dragon associations across Africa, Egypt, Babylonia, America, and India.
- \$3.4 Lóngyú < *ljungngjo 龍魚 "dragon fish" is a 'flying-dragon' identified with the bàngyú < *b'ǔngngjo H魚 "clam fish."

In the Shanhaijing (7/4b), the *liungngjo 龍魚 "dragon fish"33 is noted to "resemble a 瞿 'wildcat' [Hao Yixing emends 貍 to 鲤 'carp'] and is ridden everywhere by a divine shaman." Guo describes *liungngjo as resembling "[鲤] carp with one horn" and cites the Huainanzi's (4/8a) assertion that bàngyú < *b'ŭngngjo H魚 "clam fish" is found in the south. Gao's Huainanzi commentary rewords the Shanhaijing; H魚 "resemble 鯉 'carp', and is ridden everywhere by a divine 聖 'sage' [rather than 巫 'shaman']." This bàng < *b'ŭng H (石 'stone' radical and *mlung 尨 'dappled' §2.1 phonetic) is a graphic variant of bàng < *b'ŭng 蚌 'mussel; giant clam (i.e., 蚕 §8.1)'. The Shanhaijing (2/4a [cf. § 2.5], Schiffeler 1978:108) writes *b'ŭng with a 魚 'fish' radical variant, says it looks like a turtle and bleats like a goat. These *ljungngjo and *b'ŭngngjo variants suggest some original *b'ljung? 'flying dragon' (cf. Table 7).

Guo's "Yangzi Rhapsody" (l. 141 龍鯉一角, Knechtges 1987:335 "One-horned dragon-carps") mentions a lónglǐ < *liunglieg 龍鯉 "dragon-carp," identified by commentators as this lóngyú 龍魚 "dragon-fish" or the linglǐ x魚 'pangolin' \$7.3. The (AD 1607) Sancaituhui 三才圖會 defines 龍魚 as 'a delicious boneless fish that looks like a dragon with whiskers'.

§3.5 Fēilóng < *pjwərljung 飛龍 "flying dragon" was first mentioned in the Yijing (1, Whincup 1986:24, cf. § 2.1): "The dragon flies in the sky." The Hanfeizi (297, Fung 1952:318) contrasts *pjwərljung 飛龍 with *d'əngðja A

^{33.} The text has *ljung 龍 variants of xiá < *g'à 鰕 'giant salamander' and aó < *ngog 铊 'turtle' (oddly glossed by Guo as wăng < * 'wâng). In the Liji (31/24, cf. %6.2) 龍魚 is a coordinate compound meaning 'dragons and fish'.

蛇 "ascending snake" §3.1: "A flying dragon rides on the clouds, and a floating snake travels on the mist." The Huainanzi (4/10a, cf. §2.4; Visser 1913:65) gives an "evolutionary" explanation for why dragons have wings: The yūjiā < *giwoka 羽嘉 "winged excellence" gave birth to the *piwərljung 飛龍 'flying-dragon', which gave birth to phoenixes, which subsequently gave birth to all birds. Zhang Heng (AD 78-139) poetically (西京賦) used 飛龍 as the name of a mythical bird; also called lóngquè < *ljungtsjok 龍雀 "dragon sparrow." Jiao Hong (AD 1541-1620) describes (筆乘) the 飛龍 as having a dragon's head, phoenix's tail, and multicolored patterns; and equates it with the *piwərgliam 飛簾 'wind god' §2.5.

According to Wang's Chuci (1/33b, Hawkes 1985:77 "winged dragons") commentary, *pjwərljung 飛龍 symbolized 'enlightened wisdom'. This probably refers to the (3rd-2nd cents. BC) Zhuangzi 莊子 (Harvard-Yenching ed. 1/29, Watson 1968:33) description of a 仙人 'transcendent; holy person' who: "climbs up on the clouds and mist, rides a flying dragon, and wanders beyond the four seas."

Fei Long 飛龍 "Flying Dragon" was the name of a legendary music master. The (3rd? cent. BC) Lüshi Chunqiu 呂氏春秋 (四部叢刊 ed., Fauvel 1879:13) mentions King Zhuan Xu (25th? cent. BC) commanding Fei Long to construct a ceremonial mouth organ, and when Fei first played it, a tuó N 'alligator' §6.2 "which was near the place kept measure with the melody by striking his tail against his body." The Baopuzi uses feilóng 飛龍 in its basic meaning (6/2a, Ware 1966:111 "flying dragon"), and as a graphic variant for the feifei < *piwərpiwər 飛飛 "fly fly" mountain spirit (17/6a, Ware 1966:287; with draconic music master Kui ② §7.6) "like a dragon, variegated in color and with red horns."

§3.6 Fēishé 〈*piwərd'ia 飛蛇 'flying snake' is mentioned in context with 白蛇 'white snake' in the Shanhaijing (5/53a), Guo glosses 飛蛇 as A蛇 'flying-dragon/snake' §3.1.34 Swinhoe (1870:240, quoted by

^{34.} In a further Shanhaijing (2/9b) context, he glosses 白蛇 "white snake" as 水蛇 "water snake." Baishe 白蛇 "White Snake" is the heroine of a popular folktale (Eberhard 1986:269) about a serpent that turns itself into a beautiful woman.

Chamberlain 1977:76) mentions the feishé "called Fei-shay, or 'flying snake'," on Hainan Island. Chinese feishé 飛蛇 "flying snake" 'dragon' contrasts with Western Draco volans < "flying-dragon" 'lizard'.

- §3.7 Fēiyú < *piworngio 飛魚 "flying fish" is said (Shanhaijing 5/9a, Schiffeler 1978:119) to look like a suckling pig with red stripes, the meat of which is claimed to cure fear of thunder; or (5/3b) to look like a 鲋 'crucian carp'?, the meat of which will cure hemorrhoids and dysentery. This *piworngio</code> combines draconic elements of pigs §6.4 and thunder §2.6. Another Shanhaijing (2/19a, Schiffeler 1978:98) 'flying fish' called wényáo < *miwondiog 文 κ supposedly resembles a 饉 'carp' (cf. §7.3) with a fish's body, bird's wings, grey-green stripes, white head, and red snout.
- \$3.8 Suānyú < *swânzio 酸與 "sour gift/help" is a final 'flying-dragon' calamity demon. The Shanhaijing (3/16b, Schiffeler 1978:91) describes 酸與 as a fearsome bird that looks like a snake with four wings [cf. 鳴蛇 \$2.8], six eyes, and three feet. Guo notes the *swânzio name imitates the cry of this beast, and that eating its meat would prevent drunkenness, but nothing else is known about it. These serpentine *swânzio 酸與 and *piwərâ'ia 飛蛇 \$3.6 are related to the following reptilian draconyms.

4 SNAKE-DRAGONS

The "Snake-Dragon" taxonomy includes two "long snakes" xiūshé 惰蛇 §4.1 and chángshé 長蛇 §4.2; three giant serpents bā巴 §4.3, rán ψ §4.4, and măng 蠎 §4.5; and two snake gods shénshé 神蛇 §4.6 and nàgā 那伽 §4.7. Legends about these great serpents are frequently analogous, and Eberhard (1968:84) remarks they "were typical for the South."

Various scholars (Johnston 1910:386, Shiratori 1934:117-9, Wen 1956:26-7, Wu 1978:189-91) posit snakes to be the mythic prototype for Chinese dragons. 35 Doré

^{35.} Similar beliefs are found in other cultures; Read (1934:297) says "The Greek word drakon [§9.2] was originally used of any large serpent, so that the dragons of mythology were essentially snakes." The Hanfeizi (22, Liao 1939:232-

(1914:690) claims "The religious mind of China has never made a scientific distinction between snake and dragon." Their nomenclature was likewise interrelated; e.g., shétui 蛇蚁 'snake slough' has synonyms of lóngtui 龍腿 "dragon leg," lóngzīyī 龍子 "dragon child coat," and lóngzīpí 龍子 皮 "dragon child skin."

\$4.1 Xiūshé < *siôgd'ja 脩蛇 "long/adorned snake" is synonymous with chángshé < *diangd'ja 長蛇 "long snake" below. 36 Both are combined in a "big-pig giant-snake" metaphor meaning 'voracious, insatiable'; two texts similarly quote Shen Baoxu (fl. 500 BC) from Chu criticizing his rival state Wu as: 封豕長蛇 "a great pig and a long snake" (c. 300 BC Zuozhuan 定公 4, Legge 1872:757) or 封以脩蛇 "a great boar or mighty snake" (Huainanzi 19/10a, Morgan 1934:236; cf. §6.4).37

³⁾ parable about a 大蛇 "big snake" (cf. § 4.2 and §9.3) and a 小蛇 "small snake" reveals this ancient Chinese notion. In order to protect themselves from being killed, these snakes held each other's mouths as they crawled together, and people who saw them said in fear: "It's the ruler of spirits." Snakes were the quintessential "creepy-crawly" wug, and according to the Shanhaijing (6/1b, Read 1934:349): "the people to the Southwest beyond the seas consider [蟲'wugs'] worms to be [蛇] snakes, and real snakes are called [魚] fish."

^{36.} Since $xi\bar{u}$ < $*sj\hat{o}g$ 脩 (with the 月 'meat' radical) 'dried out; dried meat; long' was a variant of $xi\bar{u}$ < $*si\hat{o}g$ 修 (with $\not>$ 'feather; hair', cf. the "hairy" 巴 §4.3) 'adorn; arrange; elaborate', 修蛇 could mean 'adorned snake" (Eberhard 1968:83 translates "the speckled snake").

^{37.} 脩蛇 is used with fengxī < *pjungXjər 封 Ч "big pig" and 長蛇 with fengshǐ < *pjungśjeg 封豕 "big pig" (Kui's son § 7.6). Both porcine names use feng < *pjung 封 'mound; bank; boundary' as a loan for feng < *p'jông 豊 'great, large'. The Fangyan (8/5) says Ч was a Southern Chu dialect word for 豕 'pig, swine'. "Big Pig" 封 Ч ~ 封豕 is a name for the constellation Kui 奎 "crotch; stride" in Andromeda and Pisces. Werner (1922:106-7) discusses confusion between the 奎 and dǒu 斗 constellations §8.2.

*Siôgâ'ja 脩蛇 "long snake" and *pjungkjər 封Ч "big pig" are mentioned in the Huainanzi (8/5a-b, Morgan 1934:88 'great boars and pythons", Werner 1922:181 "a serpent, a thousand feet long... wild boars of enormous size") in connection with yayŭ < * atziu & o (Morgan, ibid., "ferocious dragon-like beasts"). This * atziu, 38 written with the 豸 'wild animal' (or 穴 'hole' ~ 犬 'dog') radical and *k' iad $\sim *k'$ iat \mathfrak{P} and *d ju \mathfrak{R} phonetics, is defined in the Erya (18/1) as 'a man-eating beast that runs fast, like a lynx with tiger's claws'. The Shanhaijing gives three different * 'atzju descriptions (Karlgren 1946:269): a maneating beast that cries like a child, and looks like a red ox with a human's face and horse's hooves (3/7a; with 長蛇 §4.2); a man-eating beast with a dragon's head, and that lives in fresh water (10/4b with 巴蛇 §4.3); and a beast with a dragon's head and snake's body (11/6a [cf. 1a], Yuan 1960:107). Gao's Huainanzi commentary follows the second and glosses * atziu as "a man-eating, western beast with a dragon's head." Yuan (1960:181) attempts to reconcile these contradictory descriptions by claiming the & o could transform into different beasts. Eberhard cites the (AD 6th cent.) Shuyiji 述異記 depiction of the yàyǔ as:

...the biggest of all animals with the head of a dragon, tail of a horse, claws of a tiger. It was 400 feet long and ate men. (龍威 ed. 1/4b, 1968:84; cf. § 8.3)

The second syllable of * 'atziu ξ o reappears in the Shanhaijing (4/10a) name $h\acute{e}y\breve{u} < *g' \ni pziu \\cappe o$ "join defective"; a flood-demon said to look like a yellow pig with a red tail and human face, and which cries like a child, and eats both people and wugs.

§4.2 Chángshé 〈 *djangd'ja 長蛇 "long snake," equivalent to the above *siôgd'ja 惭蛇, is the name of a Shanhaijing mythic beast (3/6a, Schiffeler 1978:109 "Long Snake") that has hair like a pig's bristles and makes a drumming sound. Hao notes the chángshé "grows up to [百晷] 100 meters long, has bristles in between stripes, flies in groups, is extremely poisonous, but cannot swallow when

^{38.} Guo glosses yayu < * atziu & o as yayu < * atdiu, but *z/diu? o has also been reconstructed with a *-g final.

rubbed." The 長蛇's bristles compare with the ψ 's §4.4 whiskers, and its (thunder?) drumming correlates with Gu 鼓 "drum" §7.2 and Kui Θ §7.6 dragons.

The descriptive/nomenclative *diangâ'ia 長蛇 "long snake" is similar with *d'âdâ'ia 大蛇 "big snake." While dashé < *d'âdâ'ia 大蛇 "big snake" is frequently used as a general description in the Shanhaijing (e.g., 4/5b, 6a, 8a), in one context (3/26a) *d'âdâ'ia 大蛇 is the proper name (cf. 大蛇 orochi §9.3) of a red-headed, white drought demon that moos like a cow.

§4.3 $B\bar{a}$ < * $p\bar{a}$ 巴 was a legendary giant snake that ate elephants. 巴 is simplified from an original pictograph of a snake. The Shanhaijing (10/5a-b, Schiffeler 1978:97) states the $b\bar{a}sh\acute{e}$ < * $p\hat{a}d'ja$ 巴蛇 eats elephants, taking three years to disgorge the bones; and describes it as either a colorful snake with motley azure, yellow, red, and black colors, or as a black snake with an azure head. Its meat was said to cure, through sympathetic magic, stomach disorders. Guo notes the $b\bar{a}$ 巴 was akin with the $r\acute{a}n$ ψ below, and (cf. above) could grow up to [百号] one hundred meters.

The Chuci (3/9a, Hawkes 1985:128) asks "How does the snake that can swallow an elephant digest its bones?" Instead of bāshé 巴蛇, the standard text has 一蛇 "one snake," or a graphic variant of lingshé < *liengà'ia 靈蛇 "divine snake." Wang's commentary quotes the Shanhaijing, but with 一蛇 (used 8/2a with 相柳 \$8.9) instead of 巴蛇.

§4.4 Rán 〈 *ńiam �� (虫 'wug' radical and a *ńiam 冉 'gradual' phonetic) is the 'python; Python molurus; P. reticulatus'. 40 With legends saying *ńiam �� grew up to one hundred feet long, there are two possibilities: stories about pythons were exaggerated, or a mythical rán 〈 *ńiam

^{39.} $B\bar{a}$ < * $p\bar{a}$ was an ancient place name (Yuan 1960:51-2) located in present day Sichuan. $B\bar{a}$ \square is the phonetic in $p\acute{a}$ 爬 (with the 爪 'claw' radical) 'crawl, creep', esp. used in the term $p\acute{a}$ chóng 爬虫 'reptiles'.

^{40.} Python bivittatus (Read 1934:333) is usually called linshé 鱗蛇 "scaled snake" or jùmăng 巨蠎 "great python."

name was applied to the southern snake.

Since early 冉 logographs pictured hair hanging down, a graphic etymology was that ψ depicted a snake 'hanging' from a tree. Two phonetic etymologies for $r\acute{a}n$ are a snake that crawls $r \acute{a}n$ 冉 'gradually, slowly' or has $r \acute{a}n$ 髯 'whiskered; hairy' scales. $R \acute{a}n$ 髯 'whiskers' are characteristic of Chinese dragons (esp. 龍 and δ).

Compare the pronunciations of this rán < *ńiam ψ 'snake-dragon' and the féiyí < *b'iwərgiwɛd 肥遺 'rain-dragon' \$2.5 with a creature named rányí < *ńiamgiwɛd 冉遺 "gradual remains." The Shanhaijing (2/33b [with 神 M §7.5], Schiffeler 1978:112) depicts the *ńiamgiwɛd as having six feet, a fish's body, a snake's head, and eyes like horse's ears.

The Huainanzi (7/12a, Morgan 1934:77 "python") has the earliest *ńjamα'ja ψ蛇 reference, written 髯蛇 "whiskered snake," saying that the people of Yue 越 (present day Vietnam and Guangxi), but not the Chinese, valued this serpent as a delicacy. Gao reports the 聲蛇 to be a giant snake several dozen feet long, but Read (1934:332) notes maximum lengths of ten feet for P. molurus or twenty for P. reticulatus. The (AD 9th cent.) Luyiji 録異記 (秘冊 ed. 5/8a, Read 1934:331) describes the ránshé v 蛇 as growing up to sixty feet long and five feet wide, having skin mottled like old embroidery (cf. Japanese nishiki-hebi 錦蛇 "embroidered snake" 'python'), and preying upon deer which it takes one year to digest. This myth about the ránshé ψ 蛇 eating one deer every year was connected with the constipated bāshé 巴蛇 eating one elephant every three years. Guo classifies this deer-eating * ήμαπα' ja ψ 🕏 'giant snake' with the Shanhaijing's (15/1b) stag-eating yuánshé < *ngjwand'ja 元虹 "head/primary snake" ~ xuánshé < *g'iwend'ia 玄蛇 "dark snake" graphic variant (*ng- rather than $*\dot{n}$ -?).

The Bencaogangmu (43/13, Read 1934, no. 112) identifies the ránshé ψ 蛇 as the măng 蠎 'python' below, and lists synonyms of nánshé 南蛇 "southern snake" and máitóushé 埋頭蛇 "bury [its] head snake."

§4.5 Măng < *mwâng 蟒 'python; boa?' was considered a dragon. This could be seen from the măngpáo 蟒树 ~ măngvī

蟒衣 official's robe embroidered with dragons.

This 蟒 logograph combines the 虫 'wug' radical with a phonetic of *mwâng⁴¹ 莽 (犬 'dog' within 廾 'grass' →) 'weeds; jungle', graphically signifying 'jungle' snake. 蟒 is sometimes written 蟒 with a *pwən 奔 (simplified < three 牛 'cows') 'run away' phonetic, cf. the *pwəndia 奔蛇 "speeding snake" §3.1.

The earliest *mwang 蟒 usage is an Erya definition (16/40) as wangshé < *giwangd'ia 王蛇 "king snake." Guo explains the apt "king" means the 'biggest' of snakes; cf. English king snake and king cobra. *Giwangd'ia 王蛇 has a "king snake" synonym of wanghuǐ < *giwangXiwər 王Φ in the Chuci (10/2b, cf. §8.5, Hawkes 1985:233 "python"). This same Erya definition describes fûhuǐ < *p'iokXiwər 蝮Φ'viper; python' as "a snake three inches thick, with a head as big as a person's wrist." In modern usage, fûshé 蝮蛇 is the 'pit viper'; but rather than an Old Chinese *p'iokXiwər 蝮Φ compound, there could have been a dialectal distinction. Erya commentators assert *p'iok 蝮 was a southern 'snake' word and *Xiwər Φ a northern one.

Huǐ < *Xiwər (cf. Table 8) Φ (虫 'wug' radical and *ngwət 兀 'cut the feet' phonetic⁴²) 'python; viper' was recorded long before *mwâng 蟒 'boa'. The Shijing (189/6) uses *Xiwər Φ with *â'ia 蛇 'snake'; Karlgren (1950a:131 "there are snake-brood and snakes") follows Wei Zhao's (AD

^{41.} The Fangyan (11/7 cf. §3.1) lists a different 蟒 pronunciation in the Southern Chu term zhèměng < *tjǎgmǎng μ 蟒 for huāng < *g'wang 蝗 'locust'.

^{42.} The gap between *Xiwər and *ngwət has never been adequately explained. Could it have been a 'footless wug' \rightarrow 'snake' ideograph? Schuessler (1987:252) reconstructs Φ as possibly *hjuəj?, *hŋjuəj?, *hmjuəl?, or *hmjuəj?. One hypothesis takes this odd Π phonetic as a mistake for yuán < *ngiwan Π 'head', but that can not explain *Xiwər either. Guo's Shanhaijing (1/2b [cf. 6b]) commentary glosses 蝮虫 with a Π phonetic, taken to be a miscopy of Φ . The Shuowenjiezi (13A/42b, with Φ) notes huì < *g'wəd b (虫'wug' radical and *kiwər 鬼 'ghost' phonetic) 'chrysalis' (Erya 15/34) to be an old graphic variant of *Xiwər Φ .

204-73) Guoyu 國語 (Research Aids ed. 13395) commentary that **Xiwor is a 'small snake', but since it refers to the giant 'python', another contrast (e.g., 'poisonous') with the usual 蛇 'snake' word is more likely (cf. Waley 1937a:283 "Snakes and serpents").43 The Chuci (9/3a [with 蝮蛇], Hawkes 1985:224) mentions a mythical xiónghuǐ < *giǔngXiwor雄 Φ "male [cf. 雌 "female" rainbows \$2.2] hui": "And the great nine-headed serpent, who darts swiftly this way and that, And swallows men as a sweet relish."44

*Mwang 蟒, *Xiwer k, and *p'iok 蝮 were all large snakes, but it remains uncertain whether their original referents were 'python', 'boa', or 'viper'.

§4.6 Shénshé < * â'jěnâ'ja 神蛇 "divine snake" is the Guangyun's definition of B 'dark rain-dragon' §2.3 and the Shuowenjiezi's of A 'flying-dragon' §3.1 (Table 1). Two early texts mention * â'jěnâ'ja 神蛇 with divinatory 包 'tortoises': (Huainanzi 16/2b) "The divine snake can magically separate and reassemble itself, but cannot prevent people from chopping it up"; (Mozi 墨子 Harvard-Yenching ed. 1/12, Mei 1929:3) "the snakes that show more magic power are more sacrificed."

The reverse of 神蛇 "divine snake" is *shéshén <* **â'iaâ'iĕn* 蛇神 "snake god,"⁴⁵ the spirit of Mt. Longmen 龍

^{43.} Huǐshé < *Xiwərd'ia Φ蛇 occurs in the Chuci (17/10b, Hawkes 1985:314 "serpents") and the Huainanzi (8/5a, Morgan 1934:88 "viper"). Three other Shijing usages are: *Xiwərdiĕk Φ蜆 (192/6) 'snake and lizard' (Legge 1871:317 "cobras and efts") ~ 'lizard' (Karlgren 1950a:136 "lizards" [the Shuowenjiezi (13A/42b) defines Φ as a 鳴 'speaking' lizard, cf. 鳴蛇 ②.8]); *XiwərXiwər ΦΦ 'roar of thunder' (30/4; some bronze graphs for Φ pictured 田 = 冨 'thunder', cf. §2.6); and (3/2, cf. Erya 1B/18) Φ is pronounced huī < *Xwər in the binome *Xwərd'wər Φ頏 'exhausted, weary' (esp. horses, e.g., Chuci 17/2b).

^{44.} In the "Heavenly Questions" (3/8b), Hawkes (1985:128) translates this same phrase differently: "Where is the great serpent with nine heads and where is the Shu Hu ['sudden; lightning demon' (Carr 1986b:102)]?"

^{45.} The Japanese dashin 蛇神 'snake god' is mythologically

ff "dragon gate" in Honan §2.1 who gave jade tablets to the fabled Yu §8.9. Later stories (Visser 1913:86, Gieseler 1917:112-5) concern fishes (esp. carp) that can swim upstream through the Dragon-gate and transform themselves into dragons.

§4.7 Naga 那個 'a water-snake demigod' aptly illustrates the pervasiveness of dragon myths (Visser 1913, Przyluski 1938, Yan 1987c). The origins of Naga ophiolatry are said (Read 1934:306) to go back to "Egyptian, Babylonian and Vedic cults," and the Naga image has been hypothetically identified (Smith 1919:85) in Mayan and Aztec art.

The name Nāga (< Sanskrit 'serpent; cobra') originally referred to a serpentine god of rain (cf. §2) and water (cf. §6) in Hindu myths. Buddhists developed tales (Werner 1922:210-1) about Nāgārāja 'Naga kings' who lived in splendid underwater castles and were the guardian angels of Buddhism (cf. Isa. 13:22 "dragons in their pleasant palaces"). In Chinese texts, Nāga is transcribed as nàgā 那個, but in stories, is usually translated with lóng 'dragon' §2.1 compounds such as lóngwáng 龍王 "dragon kings" and lónggōng 龍宮 "dragon palaces." Lóngwángbīng 龍王兵 "dragon king's soldiers" was a taboo name for 'fish'. Hirth (1908:88) adopted Chavannes' idea that Chinese 龍 representations were imported from Western legends, and "the dragon itself could well be related to the nagas of India."

Cults along Chinese rivers worshipped Naga 龍王 "Dragon King" rain-gods. Eberhard (1968:239) contrasts the benevolent lóng 龍 dragon providing rain (and thus fertility) with the naga originally representing an evil crocodile-dragon jiao 蛟 \$6.1. The Naga dragon is a clear example of Sinitic borrowing and subsequent loaning to Japanese (Ideishi 1934:146-8), v. \$9.2.

There are numerous other supernatural Chinese snakes, but they are without clear dragon associations; for example, the two-headed shuairán < *sliwəthian 率然 "hastily" snake (AD 3rd? cent. Bowuzhi 博物志 指海 ed. 3/3a), or the gōushé < *kud'ja 鉤蛇 "hook snake."46

more important (Yoshino 1979, Abe 1981) than the Chinese shéshén 蛇神。

5 WUG-DRAGONS

The smallest class of Chinese draconyms are wugs (

worm + bug, n. 2): lóngzhì ν 蛭 'a beast' §5.1, wālóng 鮭 ν 'a demon' §5.2, juélóng Ξ ν 'a sea-dragon' §5.3, and

diāoshé Γ Ж 'cicada; dragon?' §5.4. In the same manner

that lóng 龍 is frequently suffixed (e.g., §3.2) and

occasionally prefixed (e.g., §3.4), the first three 'wug'

draconyms use lóng < *liung ν (虫 'wug' radical and 龍

phonetic).47 The dragon was the boss wug; the Shuowenjiezi

§2.1 defines lóng 龍 as the "鳞矗之長 chief of the scaly

wugs." Many draconyms had 'wug' meanings, e.g., ni P

'rainbow; cicada' §2.2, pánlóng 蟠龍 'coiled dragon' and fán

蟠 'wood-louse' §3.2, or măng 蟒 'giant snake' \sim měng 蟒

'cicada' §4.5.

\$5.1 Lóngzhì < *ljungd'iět v 蛭 "wug-dragon niece" and/or lóngzhì < *ljungtjět v 蛭 "wug-dragon leech" are/is mentioned in the Shanhaijing (cf. *b'jwərtjět 髮髮 §2.5). The "Eastern Mountains" section (4/6b, Schiffeler 1978:61, 1980:56) describes *ljungd'jět v 蛭 (with 'niece; nephew') as a man-eating beast that resembles a fox with nine tails, nine heads (cf. §8.9 and §4.5), tiger's claws, and makes a sound like an infant crying. The "Central Mountains" (5/6a) describes *ljungtjět v 蛭 (with 'leech') as resembling a horned pig that makes a sound like a person crying. Owing to the different pronunciations, Guo doubts v 姪 and v 蛭 are the same creature. Even though the descriptions (cf. § 2.6) are dissimilar, except for crying like humans, most commentators take them to be identical. The Guangyun (852)

^{46.} The *kuâ'ja 鉤蛇 is described in Guo's Shanhaijing (5/35b [cf. §7.6]) commentary as a water-snake several meters long, able to divide itself in two, and use its hook to pull cattle and horses into a river in order to eat them (cf. his "Yangzi Rhapsody" 1. 123 [with §6.1], Knechtges 1987:330 "hook-snakes").

^{47.} Lóng "wug-dragon" was used in a few uncommon 'wug' names: ν 丁 'an ant' (Erya and Shuowenjiezi), 苦 ν 'a frog' and ψ ν 'a lizard' (Guangya), and ν ψ 'a wasp' (Bencaogangmu).

defines lóngzhì ν 姪 as lóngzhì ν 蛭 and notes reversibility as zhìlóng 蛭 ν .

- §5.2 Wālóng < * 'wagliung 鮭 ν "porpoise/frog wugdragon" is a rare name for a demon. This $gu\bar{\imath}$ < *kiweg 鮭 (with 魚 'fish') 'porpoise' was a graphic loan for wā < * 'wag ~ huā < *g'wăg ~ xié < *g'eg 蛙 (with 虫 'wug') 'frog'. 48 In a discussion about whether 鬼 'ghosts; demons' exist, the Zhuangzi (19/42 [in context with Θ §7.6], Graham 1981:191) lists: "Under the north-east corner [Beia 倍阿] and [Walong 鮭 ν] go hopping about." The commentary of Sima Xiangru (c. 179-117 BC) specifies 鮭 ν as "a demon with a voice like a child, one foot four inches tall, with black robes, a red crown, a sword, and a lance."
- 第5.3 Juélóng < *kiwetljung ミッ, according to the (91 BC) Shiji 史記 (中華 ed. 108/16, Diény 1987:68, 142-5), is a sea-dragon which hides the 明月珠 "moon-bright pearl" in oysters. The logograph ミ combines the 虫 'wug' radical with a *kiwet 夬 phonetic. Since the usual legend (Laufer 1915:55-63, Schafer 1963:237-8, Eberhard 1968:382) alleges these luminous "moon-bright pearls" were found in the brains of dragons (cf. lóngnão 龍脳 シ.1), later commentaries discounted *kiwetljung 三龍 as a miscopy of *kogljung 蛟龍 %6.1.
- §5.4 Diāoshé < *tiogd'jat Γ Ж is an obscure draconym associated with dialectal 'cicada' names. Γ and K combine the $\mathfrak L$ 'wug' radical with *tog $\mathfrak D$ 'knife' and *tâ 多 'much' phonetics. Γ is similar with the Guangya (Table 1) graphic variant (combining 多 and 它) for Γ §7.1; and the pronunciation of shé < *d'jat K is not unlike shé < *d'ja K 'snake'. The Fangyan (11/1) lists diāoliáo < *tiogliòg Γ And shé jué < *d'jatkiwat K Γ (cf. Γ Γ above) as dialectal 'cicada; mole-cricket' terms.

In the (c. AD 1490) Shuyuanzaji 菽園雜記 (墨海 ed. 60) and later dictionaries, the Bowuzhi (cf. §4.7) is quoted to

^{48.} Cf. $w\bar{a} < * weg 蛙 'frog' (蛙 \nu is a textual variant for this 鮭 \nu) and <math>w\bar{a} < * wag \sim hu\bar{a} < *g'wag 围 'frog'.$ Based upon some Shang oracle inscriptions, Chen (1936:522-5, cf. §2.4) proposes dragons (esp. the 句龍 §8.9) were anciently associated with $h\acute{a}m\acute{a} < *g'am\check{a}g 蛝蟆 'frogs'.$

say $*tiog \hat{a}'$ jat Γ K "resembles a small dragon, and likes narrow places," but this line is not found in the present Bowuzhi text. Because this $*tiog \hat{a}'$ jat is an unattested "dictionary word," it might have originally been a 'cicada' rather than a 'dragon' name.

6 CROCODILE-DRAGONS

Crocodilians were viewed as Chinese "dragons": jiāo 蛟 'aquatic dragon; crocodile; etc.' §6.1, tuó N 'alligator' §6.2, è 鹧 'crocodile' §6.3, zhūpólóng 猪婆龍 "pig woman dragon" 'gavial' §6.4, and yánlóng 塩龍 "salt dragon" 'monitor lizard?' §6.5. "The dragon in China," says Clerke (1887:117), "in a form probably originally suggested by the crocodile, is not only the Imperial cognizance, but the allpervading motive of every branch of decorative art."

§6.1 Jiāo 〈 *kŏg 蛟 is defined with more meanings than any other Chinese draconym: (1) 'aquatic dragon', (2) 'crocodile; alligator', (3) 'hornless dragon', (4) 'dragoness', (5) 'scaled dragon', (6) 'shark' [= 鮫], and (7) 'mermaid'.

Most etymologies for $ji\bar{a}o$ < $*k\check{o}g$ 蛟 are unsupported speculations upon meanings of its phonetic $*k\check{o}g$ 交 'cross; mix with; contact', e.g., the $*k\check{o}g$ 蛟 dragon can $*k\check{o}g$ 交 'join' its head and tail in order to capture prey, or moves in a $*k\check{o}g$ 交 'twisting' manner, or has $*k\check{o}g$ 交 'continuous' eyebrows. The only corroborated hypothesis takes $*k\check{o}g$ 交

^{50.} 蛟's phonetic is combined with the 馬 'horse' radical to write the fabled animal called $b\acute{o} < *p\check{o}k$ 駁 \sim 駁, described in the Shanhaijing (2/33b, 8/5b Schiffeler 1978:34) as resembling a horse with a white body, black tail, one horn, tiger's teeth and claws, and making a sound comparable to

'breed with' to mean *kŏg 蛟 indicates a dragon 'crossbreed; mixture'. Eberhard (1968:378) notes from an early time, 蛟 was considered an embodiment of the fish, snake, and rhinoceros; or (like 龍 \$2.1) the tiger--cf. 虎蛟 below. Wen (1956:18-9) notes 交龍 'crossed dragons' were an early emblem of Fuxi and Nügua §8.9; and Diény (1987:22, 191) mentions early texts using 交龍 as a 蛟龍 graphic variant.

(1) 'Aquatic dragon' \leftarrow ? 'crocodile' is a 蛟 meaning first found in Guo's Shanhaijing commentary. This text (1/10b, Visser 1913:76) mentions an aquatic beast called hūjiāo $\langle *Xokŏg$ 虎蛟 "tiger jiao" that has a fish's body, a snake's tail, and makes a sound like a Mandarin duck (cf. η 魚 \$2.7); and Guo glosses 蛟 as "a [龍] dragon resembling a four-legged snake." In a different Shanhaijing section (5/40a [cf. 44a, 44b, 46a]) mentioning jiāo living in the Han River, Guo repeats his 虎蛟 gloss and adds that the 蛟 "has a small head, narrow neck, white scales, 53 is

that of a drum. Although the description is not draconic, dragons are associated with making drum (thunder) sounds, cf. §7.2.

^{51.} Commentators contrast 蛟 'large aquatic snake' vs. 蟒 'large terrestrial snake' §4.5, cf. Wang's interpretation in (5) below.

^{52.} Guo's "Yangzi Rhapsody" mentions this *Xokŏg 虎蛟 (1. 123 虎蛟约蛇A [cf. §2.3 and §5.1], Knechtges 1987:331 "Tiger-krakens, hook-snakes, bullfrogs"), and Hao Yixing identifies it as the jiāocù < *kŏgts'āk 蛟錯 "dragon mix" 'shark; dragon?', cf. (6). Kroll (1989:328) discusses this "kraken" 'giant sea dragon' translation popularized by Schafer (1973), but suggests "lamia" 'serpentine monster with the head and breast of a woman' would be a better choice because, like the 蛟, it was "a shape-changer with the ability to take on alluring feminine form in order to beguile young men." In addition, he notes lamia is the name given to a genus of sharks (as well as a family of beetles).

^{53.} 要 'infant' is taken as a graphic loan for 'scales', 'rub', or 櫻 'tassel; necklace'. Cf. the expression 要鳞 "rub the scales (of the dragon the wrong way)" \rightarrow 'offend the emperor' (coming from Hanfeizi 66, Liao 1939:112).

Old Chinese *-r, rather than *-n, final is $tu\acuteo < *d'ar$ 脚 'black horse flecked with white spots' \leftarrow ? like 'alligator scales'. A 'winding; twisting; serpentine' etymology has been advanced for $tu\acuteo < *d'ar$ N 'Chinese alligator', $tu\~o < *t'a</code> 它 'snake; another' <math>\sim sh\acutee < *\~a'ia 蛇 'snake', tu\acuteo < *d'a 铊 'flow; river', and <math>tu\acuteo < *d'a$ 铊 'hunchback; camel'.

The tuó 'alligator', mythologically associated (Fauvel 1879:3) with the lóng 龍 '(rain-) dragon' §2.1, has two synonyms of tuólóng < *d'arljung N龍 "alligator dragon" and tülóng < *t'oljung 土龍 "earth/dirt/clay dragon" 'rain fetish' (used in sympathetic rain-magic §2.4, Diény 1987:40-1; cf. Japanese mogura 土龍 'mole'). The tuó inherited the lóng's rain-making abilities, and Read (1934:317) quotes Chen Cangqi (AD 7th cent.) that the tuó: "is shaped like a dragon, making a fearful noise, it grows up to ten feet long, it can give out clouds which descend like rain." Tuó mythology (Eberhard 1968:364) includes the tradition that their eggs hatched into snakes, turtles, tortoises, fish, and jiāo 蛟 dragons §6.1.

Chamberlain (1977:66-7) proposes a Proto-Tai *da: A3 'giant water beetle, Belostome' root branching into Chinese $tu\acuteo < da < *d'\^ar$ N \sim Cantonese $t'o < t'\~an$ N 'alligator' and Tai names for 'giant water beetle; aquatic wugs': Black Tai and Muang Vat Tai $me\eta^{A4}$ $da:^{A2}$, Lao and Siamese $me:\eta^{A4}$ $da:^{A2}$, and Ahom klang $n\bar{a}$ 'aquatic insect'; Western Nung $ti:^{A2}$ $da:^{A2}$ and Nung tu \bar{da} 'lucane'; Yay $ne\eta^{A4}$ $da:^{A2}$ and Dioi souap¹ ta:1 'aquatic insect'; and perhaps Tay tu meng \bar{da} 'Hydrophile'. Even though $tu\acuteo$ N 'Alligator sinensis' and $\grave e$ meng 'Crocodylus porosus' were confused in Chinese, he (1977:65) comments "the distinctions remained clear in Tai languages that had either borrowed them from or donated them to Chinese at an early date." This Tai female/Belostome association correlates with the Chinese Yin/rainbow-dragon $\mathfrak{Z}.2$ (cf. lóngshī meng "dragon louse" 'predacious diving beetle; Cybister japonicum').

For possible contact words with $tu\acute{o}$ N 'alligator', Chamberlain (1977:67) cites: Mon $k \not= na^2 \sim kana^2$ 'lizard with protuberant eyes' and $k \not= na^2 \sim khana \sim sna$ 'earth lizard'; Vietnamese $k \not= na^2$ 'Varanus salvator' (cf. §6.5), Souei tpaa and Chrau dapa 'soft-shell turtle'; Day $d\bar{a}$ 'toad'; and perhaps (1977:71, 95) Thô tua ca $t\bar{a}n$ 'crocodile'. The -n(a) finals indicate some early t'a 'alligator' term, and

oviparous, can grow up to ten meters long, and eats people." The (AD 11th cent.) Mokehuixi 黑客揮犀 (Read 1934:315) gives a most detailed description of the 蛟 as a man-eating creature shaped like a snake, with a tiger's head, reaching several meters in length, bellowing like a cow, and lurking in rivers and pools. Jiāo 蛟 is sometimes translated as "flood dragon" (cf. §2.8); the (c. AD 1105) Yuhu qinghua 玉童清話 (Visser 1913:79) says people in Wu (present day Jiangsu and Zhejiang) called it fāhóng < *piwātg'ung 敬洪 "start flood" because they believed flooding resulted when jiāo hatched. A variant of shuījiāo < *śiwərkög 水蛟 "water jiao" (Diény 1987:22, 246) is mentioned in the Chuci (13/16a, Hawkes 1985:255) "Henceforth the water-serpents must be my companions, And [神龍 §2.6] dragon-spirits lie with me when I would rest."

- (2) Jiäo 蛟 anciently designated a four-legged water creature, 'crocodile'?, and not a mythical dragon. "Monthly Commands" (Liji 6/56, Legge 1885:I:277; cf. Huainanzi 5/7a and Lüshi chunqiu 6/1b) says at the end of summer, orders should be given "to attack the [蛟] alligator, to take the [N] gavial, to present the $[\rlapab a]$ tortoise, and to take the [X] great turtle." From this N 'alligator' §6.2--not 'gavial' §6.4--contrast, 蛟 probably meant 'crocodile'. This is consistent with Eberhard's (1968:257, 379) hypothesis that jião myths were typical of the coastal cultures in southern and eastern China, and is confirmed by early historical descriptions. The (c. 78 AD) Hanshu 漢書 (同文 ed. 6/196, quoted in §1.3) records a jiāo 蛟 being caught in 106 BC (interpreted by Williams 1838:252 as the Indian cerastes or "horned snake"). Visser (1913:79) cites the (AD 4th cent.) Shiyiji 拾遺記 that one was caught in 86 BC which was: "three chang [ten meters] long, which resembled a big snake, but had no scaly armour.... Its flesh was purple, its bones were blue, and its taste was very savoury and pleasant."
- (3) 'Hornless dragon' is the Shuowenjiezi (Table 1) definition of 蛟, described as "the leader of the 3600 kinds of aquatic wugs, it chases fish away, and is able to fly (cf. §3)." Wang's Chuci (17/14b) commentary, cf. his 'small dragon' in (5), repeats this 'hornless dragon' interpretation.

The pronunciation similarity between jiāo < *kog 蛟 and

- jiǎo ~ jué < * kuk 角 'horn' (cf. 角龍 "horned dragon" §8.3) seems to indicate this particular dragon was 'horned' not 'hornless'. 54 蛟龍 has this meaning in the Baopuzi (10/4a, Ware 1966:170) "the horned dragon can no longer find a place to swim."
- (4) 'Dragon mother; female dragon, dragoness' is the least attested meaning. The (c. AD 810) Buddhist dictionary Yiqie jingyinyi 一切經音義 (海山 ed. 5/9b) defines 蛟 as "a fish with a snake's tail," notes a Sanskrit name of guānpiluó 官毘羅, and misquotes? (copied in the Piya 19) the Baopuzi to say 蛟 means 'dragon mother, dragoness' and δ § 8.2 'dragon child, dragonet'. None of the nine Baopuzi 蛟龍 usages (e.g., 17/10b, 2a; Ware 1966:294 "crocodiles and dragons") in the Harvard-Yenching index has this meaning.
- (5) 'Scaled dragon' is the Guangya (Table 1) definition of jiāolóng < *kŏgljung 蛟龍. Jiāolóng 蛟龍 can morphologically be parsed as either 'jiao and long dragons' or 'jiao dragon', but the difference is not always clear (Diény 1987:xi; cf. 1987:91 lóngshé < *ljungà'ja 龍蛇 "dragon snake" meaning 'dragons and snakes' → 'reptiles'). For instance, in the Chuci (1/35a), Wang glosses 蛟龍 as two kinds of dragons: 蛟 'small' vs. 龍 'large', but Hawkes (e.g., 1985:78) translates 蛟龍 as one kind: "waterdragons." The former 蛟龍 meaning of 'jiao dragons and long dragons' is clear from contrastive contexts; e.g., Zhuangzi (17/63,55 Watson 1968:185): "the sea serpent or the dragon," paralleled by "the rhinoceros or the tiger." And the latter 'jiao dragon' is evident from 蛟龍 usages such as Guanzi 管子 (國學基本叢書 ed. 1/4, Visser 1913:77) "If a [jiaolong] gets water,56 his soul [神 'divinity', cf. Diény 1987:28]

^{54.} The Bencaogangmu (43/3) lists lóngjué 龍角 "dragon horn" (identified by Read 1934:305 as "horns of the Chalicotherium sinense") as a cure for fevers.

^{55.} Yan (1987a:132) compares this *Zhuangzi* passage with the *Xunzi* (1/17 [cf. §3.1], Dubs 1928:34) "by gathering water and making a pool, the [蛟龍] crocodile and dragon are brought forth."

^{56.} This expression 蛟龍得水 "jiao dragon gets water" is a literary metaphor for 'bold person getting a good opportunity'.

can be in full vigour."

- (6) 'Shark' is a jiāo < *kŏg 蛟 meaning now written 鮫 (with the 魚 'fish', rather than 虫 'wug', radical). 蛟 and 鮫 were anciently interchangeable (cf. §3.2), and 蛟革 means 'sharkskin' rather than 'dragonskin' in the Huainanzi (15/5b, Morgan 1934:192). Knechtges (1987:330) cites the Bowuzhi (3/4a) mentioning a jiāocù < *kŏgts'âk 蛟錯 'shark; dragon' noted above in (1).
- (7) 'Mermaid' is the final $ji\bar{a}o < *k\check{o}g$ 蛟 \sim 鮫 sense. Later stories (Eberhard 1968:378) centered around a mythical $ji\bar{a}or\acute{e}n$ 鮫人 'south seas mermaid who spins silk underwater, and sheds pearls for tears', comparable with the 人魚 §7.3. Hino (1979:12) thinks Naga myths §4.7 affected the snakelike 蛟 dragon or fish-like 鮫人 mermaid.
- §6.2 $Tu\acute{o} < *d'\^{a}r$ N 'Chinese alligator, Alligator sinensis' is a small crocodilian native to the rivers and lakes of central China. Based upon some Zhou carvings, Hopkins (1913) suggests alligators were the prototype for Chinese water-dragons.

The modern logograph N combines the 电 'turtle; frog' radical with a *dan 單 phonetic, but its early forms were alligator/dragon pictographs. 57 *D'ar α (combining this *dan 單 phonetic with two 虫 'wugs') is used in the Shanhaijing (5/30a, Schiffeler 1978:137) spirit name tuówéi < *d'argiwər said to have a human's face, goat's horns, tiger's claws, and to give off light (cf. §2.7) when it swims. Guo glosses α as a α N "fish ['actual'? not 'mythical'] alligator."

Owing to N's * $d\hat{a}n$ 單 phonetic, * $d'\hat{a}r$ N is sometimes glossed with an alternate $t\hat{a}n < *d'\hat{a}n$ pronunciation. Schuessler (1987:620) reconstructs * $dal > *daj \sim *dar > *dan$. One other word in the * $d\hat{a}n$ 單 phonetic series with an

^{57.} These resemble early 單 pictographs showing antenna (of a chán < * \hat{a} ian 蝉 'cicada'?) and the two □ 'mouths' in è 鰐 'crocodile' §6.3. N has a graphic variant with the 魚 'fish' radical and the * \hat{a} an 單 phonetic, but that properly specifies shàn < * \hat{a} ian 'eel' (usually written with a * \hat{a} an \hat{g} phonetic).

Chamberlain concludes:

Assuming our connection of [Proto-Tai] * ?da: A3 'Belostome' with [Middle Chinese] [*daA] 'Alligator sinensis' is correct, the ancestor of [Proto-Tai] and [Proto-Kam-Sui] must have inhabited the valley of the lower Yangtze, as the alligator is a Palearctic animal, not recorded south of the Yangtze. (1977:189-90)

The present habitat of A. sinensis is indeed limited to the Yangzi basin and Taihu Lake (30-31° N.L.), but excavations from the Wangyin neolithic site in Shandong (Zhou 1982:257-8) prove that around 6000 years ago, alligators were found in the Huang-Huai Plain (36° N.L).

As mentioned by Chamberlain (cf. Schafer 1962:198-203, Zhang 1979), there is a long-standing confusion between the two Chinese crocodilians: fresh-water tuó < *d'ar N 'Chinese alligator, Alligator sinensis' of the Yangzi basin and salt-water è < *ngak 鰐 'estuarine crocodile, Crocodylus porosus' (below) of the South China coast. dictionaries confuse them, and in modern usage éyú 鰐魚 generally means 'crocodilians; crocodile; alligator' and yángzie 揚子鰐 "Yangzi crocodile" means the tuó 'alligator'. Translations of "tuó[-skin] drum"58 N 鼓 in the Shijing (242/4) illustrate the semantic jumbling: "lizard-skin drums" (Legge 1871:457), "drums of iguana-hide" (Jennings 1891:290), "tambour de peau de crocodile" (Couvreur 1896:342), "fish-skin drums" (Waley 1937a:260), and "alligator-skin drums" (Karlgren 1950a:197). Even Fauvel (1879), who coined the Alligator sinensis nomenclature, interchanged tuó 'alligator' and è 'crocodile'.

§6.3 E < *ngâk 諤 'crocodile' (魚 'fish' radical and *ngâk 咢 'beat a drum' phonetic) has possible 'drum' or 'fear' etymologies. First, *ngâk 鍔 'crocodile' could

^{58.} Although most commentators interpret this as a drumhead made from tuó skin, the Piya (30) says N 鼓 refers to the cry of the crocodile. Cf. tuó N and tuò 标 'watchman's clapper' with N 更 'strike watches with a drum'. Zhou (1982:258-9) notes these alligator drums were found in 1934 excavations at Anyang, and Lothar von Falkenhausen (p.c. of 88/9/28) mentions them at recently excavated late Neolithic sites at Taosi in Southern Shanxi.

literally mean $*ng\^{a}k$ 写 'sound of a drum' because drumming was mythically associated with thunder and dragons, e.g., 鼓 \$7.2 or Θ §7.6. Second, the two \Box 'mouths' in $*ng\^{a}k$ 鍔's phonetic 写 may have signified 'shout' \leftarrow 'scared (by a crocodile)'.59

The Shuowenjiezi (13A/59a) has the earliest known *ngak 鰐 usage (written with 虫 'wug' radical and the *ngiak phonetic in 逆), defined as "an [水巖] aquatic wug/animal [cf. Japanese mizumushi 水巖 'athlete's foot'] resembling a lizard, more than ten feet long, which eats people, and comes from Southeast Asia."60 Han Yu (AD 768-824) immortalized the è 鰐 in Chinese literature. During his exile as governor of Chaozhou, he wrote an elegant "Proclamation to the Crocodile" poem (Fauvel 1897:10, Rideout 1965:253-5).

Schafer (1962:202) cites the (AD 8th cent.) Xiawenji 治聞記 record of crocodiles in Bnam (present day southern Cambodia) transcribed hūléi < Xuətluâi [< *Xmwətlwər] 忽雷 "sudden thunder" ~ gǔléi < kuətluâi [< *kwətlwər] 骨雷 "bone thunder,"61 and suggests these names could be related with Ceramese huwai 'crocodile'. Chamberlain (1977:70) thinks "the most likely cognate" for Xuətluâi ~ kuətluâi is Northern Khmer tku:t (~ Mon həkot, etc.) 'monitor lizard' (cf. §6.5); and mentions other possible contacts of: Khmer krəpa: and Souei həbəə 'crocodile', Amoy boàh-á and bàh

^{59.} Probable cognates include: e < *ngak 愕 (with the 心 'heart' radical) 'scared; stunned', e < *ngak β (four \Box 'mouths' inside Ξ , an old variant phonetic for β 'shocking, upsetting', and e < *ak 悪 'evil; bad' $\sim wu < *ag$ 悪 'hate'.

^{60.} Contrast the Shuowenjiezi (13B/11b) definition of N as "an aquatic animal resembling a lizard, more than ten feet long."

^{61.} According to Eberhard (1968:365): "As this is the transcription of a non-Chinese word, the concept 'thunder' surely came into this word by accident." However, since thunder was associated with dragons (Eberhard 1968:253-8, cf. 雷神 \$2.6), $lu\hat{a}i < *lwar$ 電 'thunder' presumably had semantic significance.

'crocodile; alligator'. From Lung Ming Tai tuu^{A4} ηoo^{A4} γii^{A4} 'crocodile', Chinese *ngâk 妈 'crocodile', Cantonese ngok, and Amoy gók-hî, he (1977:70) reconstructs a Proto-Tai * ηwak^{DL} 'mythical water creature' root.

Table 4--Proposed *Ngak # Derivations

PROTO-AUSTRO-TAI
*(m)baniwak 'shark; crocodile' (Benedict)

PROTO-TAI

*nwak 'mythical water creature' (Chamberlain)

\$6.4 Zhūpólóng < *tiob'waljung 豬婆龍 "pig old-woman dragon" 'gavial, Gavialis gangeticus' is a large crocodile inhabiting India and Burma. While the crocodile-dragon association is obvious, there are differing interpretations for this name's "pig" and "old woman."

 $Zh\bar{u}$ 豬 'pig' can be explained by the artistic (Sun and Guo 1984:15-6) and mythical (Smith 1919:216-21) associations between swine and dragons. 62 For example, 富公 $\S 2.6$ and ν

^{62.} Sun and Guo discuss a jade dragon figurine with a pig's head, discovered in 1971, from the (6th millennium BC) Hongshan culture, and Diény (1987:iii) suggests Chinese dragon myths were originally associated with pigs. Compare the porcine 'porpoise' names of jiāngtún < *kŭngd'wən 江豚 "Yangzi/river piglet" and haixī < *XməgXjər 海 Ч "sea pig" used in Guo's "Yangzi Rhapsody" (1. 106, Knechtges 1987:329

蛭 3.2 are described as "pig-headed" (not necessarily pigheaded) dragons (cf. 4.1). 'Swine' and 'dragon' can be semantically opposed \rightarrow 'low and high animals'; Han Yu (cf. 6.3) poetically used zhūlóng 豬龍 "pig [and] dragon" as a 'fool and sage' metaphor. Expanding the 龍 'dragon' \rightarrow 'emperor' 2.1 meaning, the (AD 11th cent.) Yangtaizhen waizhuan 楊太真外傳 (顧氏 ed. 2/4a) employed 豬龍 "piggish dragon" to mean 'drunken incompetent' in criticizing the foreign rebel An Lushan who overthrew the Tang emperor in AD 755. Another possibility is a graphic "pig" = "pool" lending; since $2h\bar{u} < *tio$ 豬 was a loan character (e.g. Shujing 6/30) for $2h\bar{u} < *tio$ 豬 'marsh, pool; drain', the 豬 was name could have referred to the gavial's habitat.

Pó 婆 '(old) woman; mother-in-law' in zhūpólóng is employed in wug names such as shépó 蛇婆 "snake woman" 'seasnake' and zhūpóshé 豬婆蛇 "pig woman snake" 'lizard'. Chinese dragons were typically represented as females \$2.2, and the 龍女 "Dragon Woman" was a mysterious Shang goddess (Creel 1937:180, Mori 1976:152-6).

Eberhard discusses two southern myths about the zhūpólóng 豬婆龍 'gavial'. The former (1968:241-2) legend is typical for a lóng 龍 dragon \$2.1, and the latter (1968:257) one about gavial meat only being eaten by the Chen and Ke families sounds like a variation of the story about the Dong and Liu dragon-tamers \$8.9.

§6.5 Yánlóng 鹽龍 "salt dragon" is noted in the Bencaogangmu (43/11), tentatively identified by Read (1934:328) as 'monitor lizard; Varanus salvator', a large lizard inhabiting bodies of fresh water throughout Southeast Asia. It cites the (early AD 12th cent.) Chunqiu jiwen 春秋 紀聞 account of General Xiao Zhu capturing a yánlóng 鹽龍 on an expedition south of China:

These animals were over a foot long, which when put in a silver dish with a jade drinking cup and fed seasalt with a pair of jade chopsticks, from each scale there was a salty exudation which people collected and used as an approdisiac. (Read, ibid.)

Li Shizhen notes the 鹽龍 "was not native to China and even as brought in by southern tribes it was quite rare." Since

[&]quot;River pig, sea swine").

stories about draconic beasts are usually exaggerated \$9.2, this description of "over a foot" seems too small for a monitor lizard which can reach nine feet in length. Chamberlain (1977:95) remarks, "a large salvator would certainly attract more attention than it is given here," and instead compares yánlóng with Ahom Khring and Nung khing gi'crocodile'.

In modern Chinese, 'monitor lizard, V. salvator' is called zhìxī 巨蜥 "giant lizard," but this designation is not recorded in early sources. Big lizards are called "dragons" in many languages, for instance, the Indonesian Varanus komodoensis is Komodo Dragon in English. This association is evident in zoological terminology; Draco and Basiliscus genera were named after Greek 'dragons'.

Chamberlain (1977:59) says: "Lizards have traditionally been considered as transformations of dragons in East and Southeast Asia." The general Chinese term for 'lizards' is shilóngzǐ石龍子 "rock dragon child," so named because (Read 1934:322) "it lives in hill valleys, can spit out hail stones, and is used to petition rain." Some lexical examples are: shānlóngzǐ山龍子 "mountain dragon child" ~ quánlóng 泉龍 "fountain dragon" 'Sauria lizards' and shilóng 石龍 "rock dragon" 'skink'. Eberhard (1968:149) notes "The lizard occasionally replaced the dragon"; and a mythic south seas nuòlóng < *nâkljung 諾龍 (<? *t'nâkljwong Serruys 1952:492) "consenting dragon" supposedly resembled a lizard.

7 HILL-DRAGONS

In contrast with the mainstream sky and water dragons above, others were said to live on elevations: $ch\bar{\imath}$ 憾 'mountain demon; a dragon' §7.1, $g\bar{\imath}$ 哉 "drum" 'mountain dragon' §7.2, $lingl\bar{\imath}$ χ 鯉 "hill-fish carp" 'pangolin' §7.3, $l\bar{\imath}$ γ "land-fish" 'a dragon' §7.4, $sh\bar{a}nxi\bar{a}o$ 山 3 'mountain demon' §7.5, and Kui Θ 'a one-legged dragon' §7.6. Mythic mountain gods were often said to resemble dragons (Diény 1987:156), especially in Naxi 納西 legends (Yan 1986:8-10).

87.1 $Ch\bar{\imath}$ < *t'lia? ~ *xlia ~ *xliĕg means (1) 'a maneating demon' or (2) 'a hornless dragon'. The first is especially written ! (with the 鬼 'ghost; demon' radical and Σ 'mountain demon' radical) and the second T (with 虫'wug' and the same radical). The Shuowenjiezi (14B/17b)

defines *t'lia? Σ as a 'mountain spirit resembling a wild beast', and says the graph pictures its head, legs, and tail (cf. §7.6). On the other hand, it (13A/54a-b) defines *t'lia? T as either 'a northern wug like a dragon and yellow' called dīlóu < *d'iuglu 地雙 "earth cricket," or 'a hornless dragon' (Table 1).63 *D'iuglu 地鳠 was synonymous with the tǔlóu < *t'oglu 土螻 "earth cricket," described in the Shanhaijing (2/21b, Schiffeler 1978:52) as a man-eating beast resembling a goat with four horns. Guo notes this ± 螻, like the 山 3 §7.5, laughs at itself.

(1) *T'lia? 'mountain demon' only occurs in chīmei < *t'liamier 魑魅 'man-eating mountain hobgoblin'64 which is coupled with wāngliāng < *miwangliang 魍魎 'aquatic demon' into *t'liamier-miwangliang 魑魅魍魎 meaning 'demons, monsters' generally or 'mountain and water demons' separately. The Zuozhuan has the earliest textual usages of 魑魅 (昭公 9, 文公 18; Legge 1872:283, 625) "sprites and (other) evil things";65 and of 魑魅魍魎 (宣公 3, Legge 1872:293) "the injurious things, and the hill-sprites, monstrous things, and water-sprites." Since the Hanshu commentary of Wei Zhao portrays 魑魅 as a 'demon resembling a tiger with scales', this could explain the Shuowenjiezi's 'like a dragon and yellow' definition, perhaps denoting some kind of "tiger-dragon" like Xokŏg 虎蛟 §6.1.

It seems unlikely that T meant 'yellow dragon' because early texts describe it in other colors (Wu 1978:189). The Chuci (5/10a, 4/8a; Hawkes 1985:275, 160) mentions 玄 T "black dragons" and 白 T "white serpents"; and Sima Xiangru's (cf. §5.2) "The Shanglin Park" (Watson 1965:143)

^{63.} Some commentators think 'hornless dragon' is an interpolation since the *Shuowenjiezi* (13A/54a-b, cf. Table 1) gives the same definition for the preceding $\mathfrak Q$ and the following δ .

^{64.} The second term mèi < *mjər 魅 '(sc. old?/mischievous) demon' is used separately from the binome, e.g., mèilï 魅力 "demon power" 'enchantment; charm'.

^{65.} The Lunheng (22/15b, Diény 1987:175-6) quotes this Zuozhuan passage and says 憓 are definitely a dragon and 魅 sort of a dragon.

lists "[蛟龍 %6.1] horned dragons and [赤 T] red hornless dragons."

(2) The *t'lia? T 'hornless dragon' Shuowenjiezi definition is interpreted by later dictionaries in two ways: 'young dragon' or 'female dragon' (cf. %5.1). Chīshǒu T首 "hornless dragon head" was a style of traditional (esp. palace/temple) roof adornment. Owing to this decoration, Kroll (1989:329) translates chī as wyvern(e), "a footed winged dragon with a serpent's tail, becoming in medieval times an oft-pictured heraldic beast."

The Old pronunciation of $T \sim$ was mistakenly reconstructed as *t'lia. Following the Guangyun (25, cf. Table 1) pronunciation gloss of "呂支切," Karlgren (1957, no. 23) reconstructed li < ljie < *lia for every word in the Σ phonetic series (e.g., 離 'separated', 籬 'hedge', 漓 'drip'), except chī 〈 t'ie 〈 *t'lia for T ~ 順. However. the earliest sources (Shuowen, jiezi 13A/54a; Wang's Chuci commentary 2/18b, 5/10a), as well as the Guangyun itself. all gloss T∼ 慽 as being pronounced "丑知切" which would be chī < t'ie < *t'njeg in Karlgren's system. Instead of deriving from Old Chinese *t'n-, Middle t'- ~ t'- initials have been analyzed (Bodman 1980:49-71, Benedict 1986:44-53) as coming from prefixed *sl- or perhaps (Bodman 1985:161-4) from *k-1 clusters. According to Benedict (p.c. of 88/9/10), Karlgren's $t' - \langle *t' | - \text{reconstruction}$ is a mistake and should be $t- \langle *xl \langle *s-l \langle Proto-Sino-Tibetan *s-r \sim$ In addition, he thinks the *-ia and *-ieg rimes represent two different roots, and with *-ia regularly corresponding to Proto-Tibeto-Burman *-i, it conforms to his *s-ri + the -n 'collective plural suffix' (1972:157) etymology below. The two pronunciations could have distinguished two demons; perhaps *xlieg T 'a dragon' and *xlia ! 'hill demon', with *-ia related to (or a dialectal variant of?) *d'iuglu 地螻 ~ *t'oglu 土螻 names.

Table 5--Proposed **★ Xlia** Derivations

```
PROTO-SINO-TIBETAN

*bri 'female dragon' (Boodberg)

*sri(-n) 'demon; wug' (Benedict)

*s-ri 'to be' ~ *s-ri-n 'demon' (Matisoff)
```

Boodberg (1935, 1979:165-7) propounded the doubtful idea that *t'lia m 'hornless dragon' meant 'female dragon' contrasting with *liung m 'male dragon' 2.1 < *brong-bri' male and female wugs'. But unlike the male and female rainbows 2.2, there are no texts, other than dictionaries, which use m as 'female dragon'.

Benedict (1976b:190) reconstructs a Proto-Tibeto-Burman *sri(-n) 'demon' from Chinese *xlia 鱣, Tibetan sri 'devil; demon; vampire', $srin-po \sim srin-mo$ 'demons', and Lushai hri (< *sri) 'sickness demon'. He hypothesized that the phonetic *xlia Σ < *s-l was further suffixed into $sh\acute{e}n$ < * \ddot{a} ' \sline{a} '

Matisoff (1985:63) split Benedict's *sri(-n)'demon' root into *s-ri'to be' and *s-ri-n'demon'. *S-ri (> \mathbf{M} , sri, and hri) was linked with the *s-ri-t copula (cf. Benedict's 1972:62 *s-ri), comparable with Tibetan srid-pa'existence' and sri-ba 'retain', and Burmese hri 'to be'. *S-ri-n (> $srin-po \sim srin-mo$ and *a'ien a) was expanded to include Tibetan a0'i0° goblins and demons' (< a0° i0° goblin; demon; evil spirit' (*a0° i0° i

§7.2 Gǔ 〈 *ko 鼓 "drum" was a 'hill-dragon' (Diény 1987:235) said to live on the same Shanhaijing (2/18a, Schiffeler 1978:129, Yuan 1960:106-7) mountain (Zhong Shan 鍾山 "Mt. Bell") as the 燭陰 "Torch Dragon" §8.5. Gu is depicted as having a human's face and a dragon's body, and able to transform into a giant. This 鼓 "drum" name corresponds with Kui ⊖ §7.6 and thunder dragons §2. Guo compares *ko 鼓 with the gǔzào 〈 *kodz'ôg 鼓造 "drum maker" spirit which the Huainanzi (17/4b) reports opposed war. Little is known about the *kodz'ôg myth, and it has been

^{66.} Boodberg suggests a possible 'black' 題 connection with $li < *lieg \sim *lieg 國$ 'black (esp. horse)'. The Zhuangzi (32/44, Watson 1968:360) mentions a lilong < *liegljung 國龍 "black dragon" with a priceless pearl under its chin. 題 has a graphic variant (Diény 1987:96) written with *lieg 麗 and *sem? 彡 'hair; feather' (cf. 龍 ②.1).

identified (Eberhard 1968:162, 203) as either an owl (cf. *kiôg 曼 'owl') or a frog (cf. §2.3 and §5.2).

§7.3 Lingli < *lienglieg χ 鯉 "hill-fish carp" is the Chinese name for the Southeast Asian 'pangolin; scaly anteater; Manis dalmanni', but it has been confused with the ancient lingyú < *liengngio χ 魚 \sim 陵魚 "hill fish" 'merman, mermaid' and the modern lingyú χ 魚 'dace'.

In lingli, ling χ (魚 'fish' radical and *lieng 陵 'hill, mound' phonetic) refers to the pangolin's habitat and li 鯉 'carp' refers to its scales (cf. the English scaly antester name). The Bencaogangmu describes the lingli as:

Shaped like a small [N] alligator, with a back like a very broad carp, head like a toothless rat, the belly is hairy without scales, tongue long in a tapered snout, the tail is as long as the body, the scales on the tail are thick and triangular in shape. (43/6, Read 1934:319)

Besides Fukien lali and Annamese Vay-con-tè-tè, Read cites three lingli χ 健 synonyms: lóngli 龍健 "dragon carp" §3.4 is associated with the myth (Hornblower 1933:86, Yuan 1960:218, Xia 1977) about carp which succeed in climbing the rapids at Longmen 龍門 "Dragon Gate" §4.6 and transform into dragons, $chu\bar{a}nsh\bar{a}nji\bar{a}$ 穿山甲 "penetrate mountain scale" refers to folk-medicinal usages (Read 1934:318-21) of pangolin scales, and shilingli 石 χ 健 "stone hill carp" distinguishes 'pangolin' from $lingy\acute{u}$ χ \hbar below. 67

The lingyú < *liengngio "hill fish" 'merman, mermaid' (compared with 鮫人 %6.1 by Yuan 1960:61) is written x魚 in the Chuci and 陵魚 in the Shanhaijing. The Chuci (3/9b, Hawkes 1985:129) asks, "Where does the man-fish live?" And the Shanhaijing (12/6a, Schiffeler 1978:96) answers that it lives in the sea (commentators say near the mythical Penglai 蓬莱 Island), has a fish's body, with a human's face, arms, and legs. Wang identifies this lingyú x魚 as a lingli x 鯉

^{67.} Doré (1914:693-4) lists legends about people being rewarded for setting free a carp that was in reality a 龍王 dragon-king §4.7, and Gieseler (1917:151-5) discusses the carp-dragon as a variant of the sturgeon. Pangolin scales are said to be 'rhomboid' like the *ling* 菱 (same phonetic) 'water chestnut'.

'pangolin', but Hao reasons that since the pangolin is not mythical, the *Chuci* refers to the *rényú* < *ńiĕnngio 人魚 "person fish" 'merman, mermaid' described in the *Shanhaijing* (3/13b [on Mt. 龍侯 "Dragon Lord"], Schiffeler 1978:95 "Man fish") as resembling a fish with four feet, and crying like an infant (cf. \$5.1).

In modern Chinese usage, rényú 人魚 "person fish" means the ni 觊 'giant salamander, Cryptobranchus japonicus' (~'female whale' §8.6); and lingyú χ 魚 names the foreign 'dace'.

87.4 Lù < *liôk y (魚 'fish' radical and the phonetic in lù < *liôk 陸 'dry land'; cf. Japanese mutsu y 'bluefish') was a mythic "land-fish" graphically resembling the χ above. The Shanhaijing (1/3b, Schiffeler 1978:104) claims the *liôk y looks something like an ox, with a snake's tail, wings (cf. 肥遺 窓.5), and feathers beneath its ribs; and says it "dies" [hibernates] in the wintertime and "lives" in the summertime. Guo's commentary notes *liôk y refers to *liôk 陸 'land' where it dwells, and mentions a variant name of yúniú < *ngiongiúg 魚牛 "fish ox/cow" (cf. Θ \$7.6). His "Yangzi Rhapsody" uses χ and γ together (1. 199, Knechtges 1987:341) "Pangolins and fish-oxen hop and hobble on margin and bank." Yuan's Shanhaijing (4/1a) commentary for *djungdjung III III \$\simes 2.7\$ compares the *ngjongjúg \mathred{A}\theta' 'land fish' \$7.4\$ with the mythical yúyú < *ngjungju \mathred{B}\$ \mathrea{B}\$ (cf. yǔ < *gjwo \mathrea{B}\$ \simes 9), which Guo describes as a kind of yellow and black fish with hair.

§7.5 Shānxiāo 〈 *sǎnsiog 山 3 was a mythical monopode "mountain demon" usually written with 3 (鬼 'ghost' radical and siog 肖 phonetic). 68 This short *sǎnsiog was said to resemble a monkey, and Eberhard (1968:57) describes it as "more like an imp or good-natured goblin than truly malicious." In modern zoological usage, shānxiāo 山 3 denotes the African 'mandrill'.

^{68.} Cf. this same phonetic and 虫 'wug' in $xi\bar{a}o < *s\check{o}g$ 蛸 'spider'. This *siog 'hill-dragon' is sometimes written with $xi\bar{a}o < *si\hat{o}g$ 蕭 'artemesia' as a graphic loan, or with graphs combining the 月 'flesh' \sim 犬 'dog' radicals and the phonetic in *sog 燥.

Two huī < ***Xiwər mountain demons are described in the Shanhaijing similarly with **siog 3 above. The monkey-like shānhuī < **sănXiwər 山 y (犬 'dog' radical and **kiwən 軍 phonetic) is said (3/7b, Schiffeler 1978:28) to have a human's face, a dog's body, be skillful at throwing, and to laugh (cf. 土螻 §7.1.) when it sees people. The musical shénhuī < **d'jěnXiwər 神 N --with **d'jěn 神 'divine' instead of **săn 山 'mountain' and N combining the 鬼 'demon' radical and **kwâng 光 'light' phonetic, cf. 暉 'light' below--is said (2/33a, Schiffeler 1978:143) to have a human's face, a beast's body, one leg, one arm, and to make a 欽 'clanging' [amended by Hao to 吟 'humming'] sound. These one-legged **Xiwər N ~ Y 'hill demons' were confused with the similarly pronounced **G'jwər \(\Theta\) below. 69

§7.6 Kuí < *G'iwər Θ was a one-legged dragon drum master. The pictograph Θ depicts Kui with: a 首 'head; ghost-mask' (~ 頁 'head' with # 'horns'), 止 and 已 representing his 'arms; hands' (or a 'drum'?) on the sides, and 久 ('walk slowly' cf. χ) 'one leg'. Both Θ and Θ 龍 were common on Zhou dynasty bronzes (Zhang 1978:24-5, Yuan 1978:48-50).

The Shujing (5/23-4, Karlgren 1950b:7)⁷⁰ says Kui was appointed Shun's Music Minister (along with Communication Minister Long 龍 "Dragon" S2.1) because of his mystic music which brought spirits and humans into harmony and caused animals to dance. The Zuozhuan (昭公 28, Legge 1872:726-7) records a story about Kui's raven-haired wife 玄婁 "Dark Consort" and their swinish son 封豕 "Big Pig" (§4.1).

Since Confucianists were disgusted with the tradition

^{69.} The Shuowenjiezi (9A/40b) commentary of Duan Yucai (1735-1815) says chi < *tieg (~ shi < *śiět?) \ni (鬼'ghost' radical and *śiět 失 phonetic) 'destructive ghost' (cf. \bowtie below) is a variant of \bowtie See 山鬼 "The Mountain Spirit" poem (Chuci 2/19b-22a, Hawkes 1985:115).

^{70.} Cf. the (5/10, Karlgren 1950b:12) repetition. A Zhou bronze inscription (Schuessler 1987:357) uses Θ to mean 'be reverently fearful', and a forged Shujing section (3/21, Legge 1865:66) has *g'iwerg'iwer Θ meaning 'grave, dignified' in appearance.

that Music Master Kui was a dragon monopode, they discussed it away. Karlgren (1946:258, cf. Bodde 1961:374) gives an "amusing illustration" of their revisionism: because $z\dot{u} < *tsiu \not\equiv$ 'foot' means 'enough, sufficient', the Hanfeizi and L'ushi chunqiu phrase $\Theta - \not\equiv$ "Kui [had] one foot" was read as "Kui, one [person like him], was enough."

This ancient Kui myth developed differing descriptions (Nakano 1982:9 compares Θ with Φ §4.5 and 舊 §7.1). In the Shuowenjiezi (5B/37a), it is defined as a kind of anthropoid monkey. The Zhuangzi (19/43 [with 鮭 ν §5.2], Watson 1968:203) describes Kui as a hill demon, and (17/53, Watson 1968:183) metaphorically as a one-legged creature which "envies the millipede." In the Guoyu (魯 2, Visser 1913:110, Schindler 1923:323), Confucius says 铚 'wondrous beings; demons' in the water are called lóng 龍 §2.1 or wăngxiàng 罔象, while those in trees and rocks are called kui Θ or wǎngliǎng 魍魎; and Θ is glossed as having "one leg, a human's face, a monkey's body, and able to speak." The word $x\bar{u} < *Xio$ Θ (鬼 'ghost' radical and *Xio 虚 phonetic) 'destructive ghost' (cf. Θ above) is used in the compound kuix $\bar{u} < *g'jwerXio} <math>\Theta$ Θ 'mountain demons'.

The Shanhaijing (14/8a [cf. §2.4], Schiffeler 1978:47, Karlgren 1946:282) says Kui resembles a hornless ox⁷² with a dark green body, one leg, is accompanied by wind and rain, and makes a sound like thunder. Its skin is noted to be usable for making drum-heads and its bones (cf. 富神 §2.6) for drumsticks. This "dark green body" depiction can be interpreted as a §6 crocodile-dragon with its tail seen as "one leg." Kui's resemblance to a drum, according to Granet (1930:507) is owing to drumming in music and dancing.

^{71.} Cf. the Xunzi (21/59, Fung 1952:367) replacing — 'one' with the (esp. anti-forgery) graphic variant 壹 'one': "Many liked music, but only [Kui] could hand it down, because of his singleness."

^{72.} Guo's Shanhaijing commentary (5/34b) mentions kuǐniú 〈
*g'iwərngiǔg ④牛 (cf. *ngiongiǔg 魚牛 "fish cow" §7.4) as a
large ox found in Shu; cf. his "Yangzi Rhapsody" (1. 203,
Knechtges 1987:341 "Yak calves"). Read (1931, no. 356)
identifies it as the Tibetan Yak.

In the Baopusi (17/6a [followed by 飛飛 §3.5], Ware 1966:287, Yuan 1960:117), kui Θ is described as a mountain spirit with one foot, shaped like a drum, and colored red, with a variant name $hu\bar{\imath} < *X_{\underline{i}}w\Theta r$ $\overline{\imath}$ 'light, brightness' ($\sim hu\bar{\imath} < *X_{\underline{i}}w\Theta r$ $\overline{\imath}$ 'shake; wave' in some texts). Eberhard (1968:57-8) said $hu\bar{\imath}$ is "without doubt phonetically related" to kui, and proposes there were two series of names for one-legged mountain imps (i.e., 'hill-dragons'): $xi\bar{\imath}ao < *siog 3$ §7.5 "which is called chao" in the southeastern languages of Yue and Yao, and $kui < *g'iw\Theta r \Theta \sim hu\bar{\imath} < *X_{\underline{i}}w\Theta r \Xi \sim \sharp$ in some western language.

The early pronunciation of kui Θ is uncertain. Karlgren (1957, no. 1237s) gives Middle Chinese g'jwi and avoids reconstructing Old but it would be *g'jwar according to the Guangyun (288). An initial *X- (*Xjwar?) instead of *g'- is suggested by the alternate name $hu\bar{i}$ (*Xjwar) and Θ 's graphic variant Θ above with a *Xjo \mathbb{R} phonetic.

8 MISCELLANEOUS DRAGONS

Some remaining Chinese draconyms do not clearly fit into previous categories of Rain-, Flying-, Snake-, Wug-, Crocodile-, or Hill-Dragons. These include: chén 辰 'dragon star; (calendrical) five; sea-serpent; shellfish' §8.1, qiú & 'horned?/hornless? dragon' §8.2, jiǎolóng 角龍 "horned dragon" §8.3, lóngmǎ 龍馬 "dragon horse" §8.4, zhúyīn 煬陰 "illuminate darkness" §8.5, jidiao 吉弔 'whale' §8.6, rùshōu 蓐收 §8.7 and jīméng 計蔵 §8.8 'dragon spirits', and what can be called "dragon people" §8.9.

\$8.1 Chén < *dien 辰 has a complex semantic history meaning: (1) 'the "dragon" star, an asterism in Antares and Scorpio' ~ 展 with the 日 'sun; star' radical, (2) 'five (in the duodenary cycle); dragon (in the "year/hour of the dragon")', (3) 'a sea-serpent', and (4) 'a shellfish'. The latter two marine names are pronounced shen and esp. written 蚕 (with the 虫 'wug' radical).

- radical) 'imperial (palace)'. The latter *t- 'thunder' (cf. §2.6) is seen in zhèn < *tien 震 (with 雨 'cloud') 'thunder; shake; excite', zhèn < *tien 振 (with 手 'hand') 'shake; rouse; scare', and perhaps (Boodberg 1935, 1979:169) tíng < *d'ieng 霆 'thunderbolt'.73
- (1) Chén < *djen 辰 ~ 晨 is "the Dragon Star," an Oriental constellation with its 心 "Heart" and 尾 "Tail" equivalent to the Occidental Antares and (the tail of) Scorpio. 74 Chinese dragons were closely identified with rainfall \$2, and thus with heaven/god (Diény 1987:221-4). Eberhard (1968:243) explains "When the dragon star appeared in the sky it was customary to make a sacrifice supplicating for rain." This 辰 constellation was distinguished from the duodenary 辰 '5; dragon' with the (日 'stellar') graph 晨 or with the names dachén 大辰 "Big Dragon" and chénxing 辰星 "Dragon Star." Wang Yi described the *đjen 辰 as "an
- 73. In Yin/Yang theory \$2.2, the third month of the lunar calendar was called the 辰月 "chén month," and the Shuowenjiezi (14B/30a) defines *âjən 辰 as *tjən 震 'thunderclap; excite' meaning animals get all 'excited' in the third month. Boodberg connects (cf. \$2.1) pīlī < *brekbrek 霹靂 'thunder-bolt/-clap' and Tibetan 'brug 'dragon; thunder'. Lothar von Falkenhausen (p.c. of 88/9/28) says in the background of Boodberg's hypothesis, there is a relationship with *â'jěn 神 'spirit; god' and *d'ien 電 'lightning'.
- 74. The twenty-eight (chénxiù 辰宿) houses/mansions of the Chinese zodiac have animal correspondences. The fifth and sixth houses, 心 "Heart" and 尾 "Tail" (of the 展 dragon, Diény 1987:61-3) are correlated with the 狐 "Fox" and the 虎 "Tiger"; while the first and second, 亢 "High" and 角 "Horn" [cf. 角龍 §8.3] (in Spica and Virgo) correspond with the 龍 "Dragon" §2.1 (Gieseler 1917:115-7) and the 蛟 "Aquatic Dragon" and §6.1.
- 75. 大辰 first appears in the Erya (8/8). Fu Yue 傳說, the patron saint of shamans, was supposedly a minister of Shang king Wu Ding (14th? cent. BC), who transformed into the "Dragon Star" after his death. Cf. Chuci (5/2b, Hawkes 1985:194) "Fu Yue lived on in [辰星] a star" and Huainanzi (6/4b, Le Blanc 1985:121, cf. 129-30) "This is how Fu [Yue] straddled the [Chen 辰] and [尾] Wei constellations."

easterly star, called the Heart and Tail, which is shaped like a 蒼龍 Green Dragon" (associated with the eastern sky \$2.2, and thus 'early morning' below).

The *dien 辰 "Dragon Star" was extended out to mean 'stars; planets; constellations' (e.g., Shujing 24/8); 'timely; seasonal' (e.g., Shijing 256/2); 'morning star; early morning; time' (e.g., Shijing 182/3). A hypothetical semantic development is: 'a star' \rightarrow 'stars; heavenly bodies' \rightarrow 'timely; seasonal' \rightarrow 'a point in time'. The temporal chénshī 辰時 "morning time" '7:00-9:00 A.M.', i.e., the 'fifth of Twelve Hours' resulted from using the Twelve Branches as horary characters in (2).

Since the earliest \boxtimes graphs bear some resemblance to dragons, \boxtimes probably pictured the (1) "Dragon Star" before being used to write (2) * \overrightarrow{ajen} '5; dragon'. Hopkins puts forward an etymography that the Γ in \boxtimes was a contracted dragon head (Antares), and concluded:

This seems a more likely explanation than the inverse one, that the ancient Chinese having already an appropriate character figuring a Dragon, saw, as it were, its counterpart in the sky, and made the mundane picture the namesake of a stellar group. (1932:97)

(2) 'Cyclical 5' is the oldest meaning of 辰, frequently seen on oracle and bronze inscriptions, the fifth of the twelve dizhī 地支 "earthly branches" in the sexagenary cycle used, along with the ten tiāngān 天干 "heavenly stems," to enumerate days and years within the traditional Chinese calendar.

Since the duodenary cycle probably has non-Chinese origins, chén 辰 has drawn more interest as a loanword than any other draconym. The Twelve Branches were correlated with the Twelve Animals, including *dj en $end{correct}$ '5; dragon' and *dzj en $end{correct}$ '6; snake'. The fact that the cyclical terms are so different from the usual Chinese animal names (cf. *tsj en

^{76.} Hopkins (1932) calls this a "star of reference" or "Beacon-star." The "Dragon Star" was associated with the North Star, and běichén 北辰 "north chén" (e.g., Chuci 16/29a, Hawkes 1985:301) was an additional name for the 'Big Dipper', cf. 天龍 §3.2.

子 '1; rat' and *śio 鼠 'rat', or *dien 寅 '3; tiger' and *Xo 虎 'tiger')⁷⁷ demonstrates the Shang adapted some foreign calendrical system. The inherent advantage of studying dizhī borrowings, Li (1945:334) explains, is that definitely "being a series of terms, they are homogenous in regard to the date of the loan."

Hypothetical sources for the duodenary cycle names include: Proto-Muong (Coedès 1935), Chinese (Li 1945), Austro-Tai (Benedict 1967), Austroasiatic (Norman and Mei 1970), and even Semitic (Pulleyblank 1979).⁷⁸

Coedès analyzed early Southeast Asian calendrical inscriptions, and proposed the duodenary cycle originated in Cambodia. From Ahom shi, Laotian si^1 , Shan $hsi \sim si$, and Dioi chi^2 , he (1935:317) reconstructed an "Old Muong" * $s\bar{s}$ for \bar{g} '5'. While Chinese $ch\acute{e}n < *\acute{d}i\acute{e}n$ \bar{g} bears no resemblance to * $s\bar{s}$, he noted (1935:320) lóng \bar{g} resembled Cambodian $ron \sim r\hat{o}n$ and Siamese mahron \sim marong (maroon) 'dragon' names. Benedict explains:

The entirely unanticipated finding by Coedès was that the Cambodians had borrowed this set of terms from the lowly Muong, the unsophisticated "country cousins" of the Vietnamese! (1967:321)

Li (1945) sought to establish the Tai cyclical names as early loanwords from Chinese. He added Lü si^1 to Ahom shi and Dioi chi^2 calendrical 辰 terms, but could not find any phonological link with $ch\acute{e}n$ < Middle \acute{z} i en < Old * \acute{d} i en 辰. Li (1945:339) admitted the Tai initials "do not seem to tally well" with the Chinese; and in trying to explain the lost final -n, (1945:341) had to "assume an alternate reading" of Middle $\acute{z}i$ < Old * \acute{d} i er "although such a reading is not recorded in ancient dictionaries." And lacking any correspondence to Modern rising second tone $ch\acute{e}n$ < Middle "level" tone (平聲) \acute{z} i en, admitted (1945:337) "辰 with a

^{77.} One phonetic similarity is between *t'njog 丑 '2; ox' and niú < *ngjŭg 牛 'ox; cow'. The oracle graphs for 辰 '5' and 亥 '12' vaguely resemble the corresponding dragon and pig.

^{78.} Pulleyblank (1979:34) suggests an original fricative γ^j initial for 辰, from Early Middle Chinese *dźin*, but failed to find any connection with the Phoenician alphabet.

voiced initial in Chinese should be A2 in LU as well as in Dioi, but is A1 in LU."

As discussed in §2.1, Benedict (1967:320-1) reinterpreted Coedès' "Proto-Muong" *ron 'dragon' as being not imported from--but rather to--Chinese, "more likely the source of the regular Chinese term: liun 'dragon'." He (p.c. of 88/9/10 and 89/8/4) reconstructs * $\tilde{a}ien$ < * $\tilde{s}gien$ \tilde{E} with a palatalized * $\tilde{s}g-i$ initial, comparing (with the 'collective' plural $-r \sim -n$) its 'dragon' meaning to qi <*g'ien Δ 'dragon banner/flag' (Diény 1987:190-1) and its 'time; season' with jian < *ken Ξ 'distress' as a loan for jin < *g'ien 'time; season'.79

Norman (1985, cf. Norman and Mei 1970:20-8)80 found similarities between some of the Twelve Branches and Austroasiatic names for the animals which they represent. To the 辰 terms cited by Coedès and Li above, he added cyclical Pu-yi ti^2 , Sino-Vietnamese thin and modern Muong sin; plus 'dragon' names of Muong hong \sim ron and Vietnamese rong. While *aion e0 does not resemble the Vietnamese or Muong 'dragon' words, Norman suggests:

We should, however, consider the possibility that this originally represented the name of a real animal. And indeed, Austroasiatic provides us with a good candidate, namely the word for 'python'. The pertinent forms are the following: [Vietnamese] trăn, Mon (Written) klan (Spoken) klon, Chrau klan. These all clearly point to a velar plus liquid cluster; since the Chinese initial is voiced, we can assume that the word at the time of borrowing had an initial *gl-. (1985:88, cf. 1970:25)

He cites the Shuowenjiezi's (14B/30a) *Xân Γ pronunciation gloss for *địơn 辰 (cf. *ńiam ψ 'giant snake' §4.4), and asserts shen < *địơn 蚕 'aquatic dragon' "which seems to

^{79.} Benedict additionally thinks *sgien 辰 may be connected with a different cyclical character: $yin < *djen \sim *djer < *sgjen \sim *sgjer 寅 '3; tiger'.$

^{80.} Since the possibility of Austroasiatic origins for the cycle seemed too speculative, it was omitted from the published version (1976) of their paper, but Norman subsequently revised (1985) the deleted section.

preserve the original meaning," indicates "a solid ancient connection between 辰 and a serpent"; but this seems unlikely in light of Benedict's śgi-.

Table 6--Proposed *Dien 辰 Derivations

PROTO-AUSTROASIATIC
*gl-'python' (Norman and Mei)

OLD-MUONG *sī 'dragon' (Coedès)

PROTO-AUSTRO-TAI *sg-jen 'dragon' (Benedict)

The Sino-Vietnamese and Muong borrowings of 辰 with -n finals are more phonologically explicable than the Ahom, Laotian, Shan, Dioi, Lü, or Pu-yi which were the basis for the "Proto-Muong" *si. However, these could be loans from *xlia 頗 §7.1.

(3) The *dien 蚕 'sea serpent; aquatic dragon' miraculously transformed from a bird (Hino 1979:440-4 lists many cross-cultural parallels). The "Monthly Commands" (Liji 6/98; Legge 1885:I:297) claims that in the first month of winter, "[爵] Pheasants enter the great water and become [蚕] large mollusks. [虹] Rainbows are hidden and do not appear." Comparing similar myths, Eberhard (1968:293) concludes shen 蚕 can "be equated with" the jiāo 蛟 dragon \$6.1. Many dictionaries define shen as jiāoshen 蛟蚕, described in the Bencaogangmu as:

A kind of crocodile shaped like a huge serpent. Horned like a dragon, with a red mane. Below the middle of the back it has scales inversely arranged. It lives on swallows. (43/5, Read 1934:315 [with 唇

^{81.} Cf. the Liji (6/84, Legge 1885:I:292) parallel saying that in the last month of autumn, "[姓] Small birds enter the great water and become [始] mollusks." This developed into a legend that dragons like to eat the flesh of swallows, and (Read 1934:301) "Hence if people eat swallow's flesh they should not go out and cross a river (dragons will eat them if they do)."

- instead of 蜃])
- Owing to its magically changeable shape, the 蚕 dragon was associated with 'waterspouts; mirages'; e.g., shènqǐlóu 蚕氣 樓 "sea-dragon breath pavilion" (Schafer's [1985] "clam castles") and shènjǐng 蚕景 "sea-dragon scenery" mean 'mirage'.82
- (4) The * \hat{d} ion Ξ was a 'large shellfish', identified as 'oyster', 'mussel', or 'great Chama, giant clam'. Since the earliest dictionaries (Erya and Shuowenjiezi) define Ξ as a large $g\acute{e} < *k \theta p \Leftrightarrow$ 'shellfish', * \hat{d} ion may have been a general term for 'shellfish; bivalves' rather than the name of a particular one. 83

The ancient economic importance of these "dragon" shellfish is evident from the official called 掌蚕'Manager/Prefect of Shen' who is mentioned in the (early Han) Zhouli 周禮 (四部叢刊 ed. 4/38b-39a, Biot 1881:I:382). Shèn 蚕 was a food (e.g., Zuozhuan 昭公 20, Legge 1872:683 "cockles"), and its shells were used to make hoes (Huainanzi 3/39) or charred into shèntàn 蚕炭 'a kind of lime'. "Shèn lime" was especially used to mortar mausoleum walls; first recorded in the Zuozhuan (成公 2 [589 BC], Legge 1872:347 "mortar made of (burnt) frogs [sic]"). The traditional explanation that 蚕炭 prevented moisture in tombs has been verified by recent archaeological excavations (Pokora

^{82.} Compare the "dragons" seen in *lóngjuăn* 龍巻 "dragon roll" 'waterspout' and *lóngjuănfēng* 龍巻風 "dragon roll wind" 'tornado'. Hornblower (1933:86) says: "In Northern Persia waterspouts are also termed dragons, but with a sense of lively terror, the opposite of the welcome given them in China."

^{83.} Schafer proposes 蚕 in Pre-Han literature designated "a large bivalve mollusc," and,

Beginning as an unassuming marine invertebrate, the ch'en was later imagined as a gaping, pearl-producing clam, possibly to be identified with the giant clams of tropical seas, for instance Tridacna. Finally, by early medieval times, it had become a monster lurking in submarine grottoes, and was sometimes endowed with the attributes of a dragon--or, more likely, under influence, a nāga. (1989:395)

1985:352 calls it "white clay" mortar and cites Ecsedy's "oyster-lime"). In a different vein, Eberhard (1968:292-3) connects shentan 查岗 with sacrifices to earth/fertility gods because of the cognate shen < *âjen T (with the 肉'meat' radical) 'sacrificial meat' (e.g., Zuozhuan 閏公 2, Legge 1872:130). His hypothesis is confirmed by the Zhouli (5/28a, Biot 1881:I:469) shen 蚕 name for a 'lacquered wine barrel' (with a dragon figure?) used in sacrifices to earth spirits.84

Early *dien 蚕 references are often ambiguous between 'dragon' and 'shell'. For example, a 'royal hearse' called the 蚕車 "shèn carriage" has been interpreted to mean 'shaped like a dragon/shell', 'painted with dragons', 'decorated with shells', or 'big-wheeled'.85 The first 蚕車 sense of 'dragon-shaped' correlates with the imperial 龍舟 "dragon boat" mentioned in the Huainanzi (8/8b, Morgan 1934:94) and with the modern Dragon Boat Festival (Chao 1943, Eberhard 1968:394-7).

§8.2 $Qi\acute{u} < *g'j\acute{o}g \sim ji\acute{u} < *kj\acute{o}g \delta$ is contradictorily defined as (1) 'hornless dragon' and (2) 'horned dragon', and it means (3) 'wriggling; twisting' in the binomial * $j\acute{o}gg'j\acute{o}g$.

* $G'j\check{o}g \sim *kj\check{o}g$ is written $\delta \sim \lambda$ with the 虫 'wug' radical and the same alternate phonetics as $ji\bar{u} < *kj\check{o}g$ 糾 \sim 糺 (with the 糸 'silk' radical) 'twist; entangle; unite'. These two allofams are part of a 'twist; coil; wrap' word family (cf. Boa constrictor §4.5) which includes: * $mlj\check{o}g$ 糉 'bind up/round' $\sim *klj\check{o}g$ 糉 'twist', *ljog 緞 'wrap;

^{84.} The Zhouli (10/9a, Biot 1881:II:390) additionally describes shentan being used to keep insects out of walls; and (4/39a, 11/32b; Biot 1881:I:383, II:518) using shen 蚕 (lime?/powder?) for whitening silk and sacrificial objects.

^{85.} Biot translates the Zhouli (4/27a, I:348) as "la char aux grandes roue" following Guo Po's Erya (16/38) commentary that a 大貝 'large shell' resembles a 車渠 'cartwheel rim' (cf. his "Yangzi Rhapsody" [l. 132, Knechtges 1987:333 "Purple cowries like wheel rims"). Compare the Zhouli (4/38b, 1881:I:382) shènqì 蜃器 'shell/dragon (decorated?) objects'.

- entangle', *gljôg \sim *gljôk 勠 'join forces', *klôg 膠 'glue; unite', *gljôg \sim *kljŏg 摎 'tie around; strangle', and *kljŏg 摎 'curved branch'. This 'twisting; coiling' etymology explains meaning (3) 'wriggling' and perhaps (2) 'horned dragon' \leftarrow 'twisted horn'.
- (1) 'Hornless dragon' is first cited for δ in the Shuowenjiezi (Table 1), usually interpreted as 'young dragon' (Wu 1978:187). Wang's Chuci commentary (1/20a, 3/8a; Hawkes 1985:73, 128) contrasts δ 'hornless dragon' with \Re §2.1 'horned dragon'; as does Gao's Huainanzi (6/7a) commentary (cf. §2.4).
- (2) 'Horned dragon' is the Guangya (1409) definition of qiú δ (written with a 題 'frog' radical variant) in qiúlóng < *g'iŏgliung δ 龍. *6 Excepting dictionaries copying the Guangya, there is no textual attestation for δ meaning 'horned dragon'. But as a 'twist' allofam, *g'iŏg ~ *kiŏg δ could be cognate with a Shijing word: $ji\bar{u} < *kiŏg ~ qi\dot{u} < *g'iŏg'$ 'horn-shaped; long and curved', written with the β 'horn' radicals and the same phonetic as δ (odes 215, 292, 299), or with the 'horn' ~ \neq 'hand' radicals and a *g'iŏg \rangle phonetic (203, 291).
- (3) 'Wriggling; writhing; twisting; coiling' is a reduplicative meaning of *g'jŏg ~ *kjŏg δ .87 The earliest examples are Chuci compounds with yoū < * jŭg Ψ and yoū < * jŏg Ω . Yoūjiū < * jugkjŭg Ψ δ describes T dragons §7.1 (5/10a, Hawkes 1985:198 "How their bodies coiled and writhed in undulating motion!"), and yōuqiū < * jŏgg'jŏg Ω δ refers to a 蒼龍 §2.1 (11/2a, 16/12b; Hawkes 1985:240, 290 "the coiling Green Dragon"). Since these are the sole Chuci occurrences of * jŭg Ψ and * jŏg Ω , it seems *g'jŏg ~ *kjŏg δ only meant 'wriggling; writhing' in * jŏgg'jŏg (<? the *k-/g-ljŏg 'twist; coil' word family above).88

^{86.} Some Shuowenjiezi commentators accept the Guangya and change the δ (1) definition of 龍無角者 'dragon without horns' to read 龍子有角者 'young dragon with horns'.

^{87.} Written in the Shuowenjiezi (13A/57a) with the 'wug' radical 虫 and an * jõg 幽 phonetic. δ frequently means 'curled' in poetic expressions such as qiúrán δ 얼 'curly whiskers' or qiúxū δ 赞 'curly beard'.

Dǒuniǔ < *tungiǔg 斗牛 "ladle [and] cow" means the 'Big Dipper' and 'Altair', the eight and ninth houses of the Chinese zodiac (cf. §8.1; Visser 1913:129-30 discusses myths about cows transforming into dragons). During the Ming dynasty (AD 1368-1644), dǒuniǔ 斗牛 became the name of a qiú $\sim jiú\delta$ dragon decoration on official clothing (cf. §4.5). Even though the earliest known dǒuniǔ reference in the 'dragon' sense is the (c. 1770) Chenyuanshilu 宸垣藏略, Wu (1978:189) suggests *tungiǔg 斗牛 was anciently considered a dragon.

§8.3 Jiǎolóng < *kŭkljung 角龍 "horned dragon" is akin with $*g'jŏg \sim *kjŏg \delta$ above meaning (2) 'horned dragon'. Jiǎolóng first occurs in a Shuyiji "evolutionary" cycle (cf. §4.1):

A water snake [shuǐhuǐ < *śiwərXiwər 水Φ, cf. §4.5] after five hundred years changes into a jiāo 蛟 ['aquatic dragon' §6.1], a jiāo after a thousand years changes into a lóng 龍 ['rain-dragon' §2.1], a lóng after five hundred years changes into a jiǎolóng 角龍 'horned dragon', and after a thousand years into a yinglóng 應龍 ['flying-dragon' §2.4]. (adapted from Visser 1913:72)

Most dictionaries do not gloss the horny jiǎolóng 角龍.89

^{88.} This binome was later specialized to the 'wriggling; coiling' locomotion of dragons and snakes; e.g., a poem (臺 查光殿賦) by Wang Yanshou (fl. AD 124-148) mentions a * 'jog 'jug ΩΨ' wriggling' A蛇' flying-dragon' §3.1.

^{89.} Besides meaning jiǎo 角 'horn', jué 角 is one of the 五音 Five Tones (宮, 商, 角, 徵, 羽), and juélóng 角龍 one of five do-re-mi-type draconyms. Like Yin and Yang dragon-rainbows §2.2, the 五行 Five Phases/Elements (cf. §8.7) correspond with 五龍 "Five Dragons." These Five Dragons are usually said to represent the Five Colors or Five Directions, but the Wenxuan (四部叢書 ed. 21/2b, Diény 1987:57) commentary quotes a Dunjia kaishantu 适甲開山圖 list of five mythical draconic brothers with human faces and dragon bodies representing the Five Tones [and thus not included in the final INDEX]: juélóng < *kŭkljung 角龍 the god of Wood, zhīlóng < *tjegljung 微龍 of Fire, shānglóng < *sjangljung 商龍 of Metal, yǔlóng < *gjwoljung 羽龍 of Water, and gōnglóng < *kiôngljung 宮龍 of Earth.

\$8.4 Lóngma < *liungma 龍馬 "dragon horse" was part of the legendary 河圖 "[Yellow] River Plan" which inspired Fuxi \$8.9 with the idea of Eight Trigrams for the Book of Changes (Wilhelm 1968:309, 320). Gieseler hypothesizes Chinese dragons originated with sturgeons, and says (1917:132) lóngma 龍馬 was a giant sturgeon. In addition to legends about celestial horses (Diény 1987:116-7, 199-203), dragons were thought to have horse's heads (Wu 1931), and wonderful horses were considered (Schafer 1963:59) "avatars of dragons." 90

The first *liungma occurrence (Zhouli 8/23b, Biot 1881:II:261-2) means 'outstanding horse; huge (esp. over 8 ft. tall) horse'. 91 Later 龍馬 occurrences were in association with the "Yellow River Plan" myth. Commentaries to the Shujing (42/19, Karlgren 1950b:71 河圖 "drawing-tablet of the River") and the Liji (9/36, Legge 1885:I:392-3 馬圖 "the horse with the map [on his back]") described the lóngma 龍馬 as having a horned dragon's head, a scaly horse's body, wings, and the River Plan marked on its back/side (Visser 1913:56-9, cf. §9.3). The Bamboo Books 竹書紀年—supposedly 3rd cent. BC, but clearly (Creel 1970:483-5) a later forgery—give two different 龍馬 descriptions (Legge 1865:113, 117): "a dragon—horse" and "a tall man, with a white face and fish's body."

\$8.5 Zhúyīn < *tiuk jem 燭陰 "illuminate darkness" ~ zhúlóng < *tiukljung 燭龍 "torch dragon" embodied light

^{90.} Cf. hémă 河馬 "river horse" 'hippopotamus', hǎimǎ 海馬 "sea horse" 'sea-horse', and mǎjiāo 馬 鮫 "horse dragon/shark" 'mackerel'. Note the similarity to Hippocampus, one of Neptune's horses, with two front legs and the hind quarter of a dragon/fish.

^{91.} 龍馬 euphemistically means 'aged but vigorous', cf. lóng jū 龍胸 "dragon colt" 'excellent colt; talented young scholar'. The Zhouli (8/21a, Biot 1881:II:256) mentions a spring sacrifice to the 馬祖 "Horse Ancestor" which is glossed as an asterism in Scorpio, a.k.a. 龍馬.

(Diény 1987:88-90). Since dragons were believed to have Yang powers §2.2, zhú 燭 'torch' means 'illuminate; brighten' the yīn 陰 'darkness'. Yuan (1960:33) suggests *tiuk jom developed along with the creation myth of Pángǔ <*B'wânko 盤古 (cf. 盤龍 §3.2), legendary creator of the universe, who, according to later legends (Werner 1922:76-8, Diény 1987:214), had a dragon's head and a snake's body.

The Shanhaijing (8/1a-1b, Schiffeler 1978:126; Visser 1913:62-3 "Enlightener of the Darkness") locates the 獨陰 on Mt. Zhong along with the Gu 鼓 "drum" dragon §7.2, and portrays it as having a human's face, red snake's body, and being 1000 li [approx. 500 km.] long. Day and night were supposedly caused by the opening and closing of its eyes, and the seasons by its wind-like breathing. Guo glosses 獨陰 as "a [龍] dragon named on account of brightening the darkness at the nine points of the compass," and quotes the Huainanzi (4/9a [with H魚 §3.4], Wu 1978:187) that the *tiuk jom 獨陰 is a legless god with a human face and a dragon's body, who lives on an eternally dark northern mountain.

This *tiuk jem 傷陰 is called zhúlóng < *tiukljung 傷龍 "torch dragon" in the Shanhaijing (17/9a) and the Chuci (3/7a, Hawkes 1985:128): "What land does the sun not shine on and how does the Torch Dragon light it?" This *tiukljung is equated with zhuōlóng < *t'ŏkljung 卓龍 "distant [~ with the 'motion' radical] dragon" which is also mentioned in the Chuci (10/3a, Hawkes 1985:234): "In the north are the Frozen Mountain, and the Torch Dragon, glaring red."

\$8.6 Jidiào 吉弔 'whale' was considered to be a kind of sea-dragon with a turtle's body and a serpent's head. "Whales were akin to dragons," explains Schafer (1963:174-5) "since both were great sea spirits." For instance, 'ambergris' is called lóngxián 龍祗 "dragon drool/saliva."

The usual Chinese 'whale' name jing < *g'liang 鯨 dates back to the Zuozhuan (宣公 12, Legge 1872:321) metaphor

^{92.} Chang (1962:59, 82) thinks *tiuk jəm 燭陰 and *tiukljung 燭龍 represent the Eastern Zhou "Transformation Thesis" in which natural elements transform out of the bodily parts of mythical creatures.

 $jingni < *g'ljang-ngieg 餘旣 "whales; giant fish" <math>^{93} \rightarrow '$ big states which swallow little ones'. The Huainanzi (6/2b, Le Blanc 1985:117-8; cf. Bowuzhi 2) records a myth that "When a whale dies, [彗星] brush-stars (comets) appear," using the suffixed name of jingyú < *g'ljangngjo 餘魚 "whale fish."

Jidiào 吉用 "lucky grief/condolence" ~ diào 弔 "grief; mourn; condolence" is a rare term for 'whales', and Smith (1871:89) proposes it "is singularly like the Greek name [hydra §9.2] for a sea-monster." There are two reasons why jidiào 吉弔 appears to be a loanword: "lucky condolence" hardly describes whales, and it was not recorded for more than a thousand years after the common word jīng 鯨 'whale' above. Jidiào 吉弔 first occurs in the (AD 10th cent.) Beimengsuoyan 北夢瑣言 fishermen's tale that "the sea-dragon lays three eggs, one of which hatches into the whale." In reference to medicinal uses of diaozhī 弔脂 "whale fat" 'cetaceum', Su Song (AD 1020-1101) said diào 弔 were born from dragons.94

§8.7 Rùshōu < *ńiukśiôg 薄軟 "ample catch/harvest" was a western dragon spirit mentioned in several early texts (Yuan 1960:78-9). The Zuozhuan (昭公 29, Legge 1872:731) dragon-tamer story §8.9 lists hereditary officials corresponding to the Five Phases/Elements, including Rushou 蓐收 \sim 尋收 "the chief officer of metal." It explains the reason dragons were no longer (in 513 BC) caught was because: "The dragon is a creature of the water; there is no longer an officer of the water, and therefore it is not got alive." The "Monthly Commands" (Liji 6/63, Legge 1885:I:286-7) gives spiritual correlations for the second month of autumn: "Its divine ruler is [Shaohao 少旱] and the (attending) spirit is [Rushou]." A Chuci poem (5/7b, Hawkes

^{93.} Although ni < *ngieg 旣 (cf. *ngieg 霓 'Yin/female rainbow' §2.2) is glossed as 'female whale' (~ 'giant salamander' Erya 16/41, §7.3), *g'liangngieg 鯨旣 could be a binomial. Smith (1919:89) compares the Mayan itzam-kab-ain 'female whale with alligator-feet'.

^{94.} Li Shizhen says the 弔 graph was miscopied as $y\check{u} < *dio$ 予 'give' (cf. $y\grave{u}$ 豫 'big elephant'). Read (1934:312) suspects that "Apparently in transcribing the books about dragons various errors crept in, particularly concerning this one."

1985:197) says "Then we met Ru Shou in the western heaven," and Wang glosses 蓐收 as the "Tutelary spirit of the west. He has a human shape, white hair, and tiger's claws and holds an axe in his hand." The Shanhaijing mentions *ńiukśiôg 蓐收 living on a western mountain (2/28a); and describes him (7/6a cf. §3.4, Schiffeler 1978:127) as "the spirit of the west, he has a snake in his left ear, and rides upon two dragons." The Shanhaijing (2/25b) mentions *ńiukśiôg 蓐收 living with another spirit called hóngguāng < *g'ungkwâng 紅光 "crimson light." *G'ungkwâng is similar with names in Table 7 (e.g., *g'jungkung 共工 §8.9), but nothing is known about it.

- \$8.8 Jīméng < *kiedmung 計數 "calculated ignorance" was a dragon spirit who supposedly caused wind (cf. §8.5) and rain (cf. §2). The Shanhaijing (5/31a, Schiffeler 1978:139) depicts it as having a human's body and a dragon's head. No other information is given by commentators, but this *kiedmung 計數 name could derive from *k'ljung (Table 7). These *ńjukśjôg 蓐收 and *kiedmung 計數 dragons are said to have "human" shapes, and are thus related with the final draconym taxonomy.
- \$8.9 Dragon People include legendary personages said either to be dragons or to administer them (esp. in flood-control, Diény 1987:149-52): (I) Minister of Works Gonggong 共工 and (II) his nine-headed dragon magnate Xiangliu 相柳, (III) Xia dynastic founder Yu 禹, and (IV) the Dong 董 and Liu 劉 dragon-tamers.

Several dragon-people have been previously discussed: Shun's legendary Communications Director Long 龍 'dragon' § 2.1 with his one-legged dragon Music Master Kui Θ §7.6, and King Wu Ding's (14th? cent. BC) minister Fu Yue 傳說 who purportedly transformed into the 辰星 "dragon star" §8.1. Many dragons are said to have human faces: *Xwad'ia 化蛇 § 2.8, * *atziu ξ o §4.1, *d'âr α §6.2, *ko 鼓 §7.2

^{95.} This "乗兩龍 rides two dragons" occurs five other times (e.g., 6/7a), and Wen (1956:24) interprets double dragons as sexual symbolism. The $ji\bar{e} < *ts'jap$ 妾 'concubine, consort' of the yūshī < *gjwosjər 雨師 "rain master" is similarly described in the Shanhaijing (9/4b, Schiffeler 1978:132) as a black personage holding snakes and turtles.

- *ljengngjo 陵魚 \$7.1 *sănXjwər 山У and *d'jěnXjwər 神 N § 7.5, (sometimes) *G'jwər §7.6, and *tiuk jəm 燭陰 \$8.5. A few others have human heads (*lwərd'jěn 雷神 and *d'jěnljung 神龍 §2.6; Wen 1956:13-7) or bodies (*ńjukśjôg 蓐收 §8.7 and *kiedmung 計載 §8.8).
- (I) Gònggōng < *G'iungkung 共工 "work together; Minister of Works" was a rain-dragon potentate with multifaceted myths (Maspero 1924:54-5, Yuan 1960:55-7, Sun 1960, Bodde 1961:387). He supposedly had a son (Karlgren 1946:240) named Gòulóng < *Kiuliung 句龍 "curved dragon," and was served by a nine-headed dragon called Xiāngliǔ < *Siangliôg 相柳 (II). Gòulóng is first mentioned in the Zuozhuan:

[Gonggong] had a son called [Goulong], who became the [Houtu 后土 'earth god'; cf. Shanhaijing 18/10a]. ... From the Shang dynasty downwards, they have sacrificed to him. (昭公 29 [after the dragon tamers (IV) story], Legge 1872:731)

His name *G'jungkung 共工 resembles Gònggǔ < *G'jungko 共鼓 "together drum" (cf. §7.2), the legendary inventor of ships and transportation (Eberhard 1968:397). *G'jungkung 共工 (cf. *g'ungkwâng 紅光 §8.7), *kjuliung 句龍, and *g'jungko 共鼓 could all derive from *g-/k-ljung 龍 'dragon' (Table 7).96

The Shujing has the earliest *G'jungkung 共工 references, but they are ambivalent between a proper name "Gonggong" or an official title "Minister of Works." And when the mythic Yao wants to appoint someone to manage his 采 'regulations?; measures?' (Karlgren 1970, no. 1217), Huāndōu < *Xwântug 驩兜 "joyous helmet" 7 recommends

^{96.} Yuan (1978:50) sees a similarity between *g'jungko 共鼓 and *kjung K (graphically combining 龍 and 共)'respectful'. Based upon some Shang oracle inscriptions, Chen (1936:522-5, cf. §2.4) associates *Kjuljung 句龍 with the hámá < *g'āmāg 蝦蟆 'frog' (cf. §5.2).

^{97.} Although Huāndōu < *Xwântug 瞎兜 is not described as a dragon, 賠頭 is a variant (Karlgren 1946:253) for Huāntou < *Xwând'u 謹頭 "cheer head," a mythical personage who the Shanhaijing (6/2a, Schiffeler 1978:8) depicts as having a human's face, wings, a bird's beak, and liking to eat fish.

*G'jungkung 共工, but the emperor complains:

Alas, he (quietly =) smoothly speaks but his actions are perverse. He is in appearance respectful, but he [滔天] swells up to Heaven. (1/10, Karlgren 1950b:3)98 When Yao's successor Shun is appointing ministers, including "dragons" Long 龍 \$2.1 and Kui \(\text{O}\) \$7.6, he asks who should take care of his \(\text{L}\) 'work', and,

All said: "[Chui < *Dwia 垂]!" The emperor said: "Yes. Oh, you [Chui], you shall be Master of [W]orks." (2/21, Karlgren 1950b:7)

From the 汝 pronoun in this 汝共工 phrase 'you [be] Master of Works!', *g'jungkung is definitely used as a title. Commentators tried to explain the Shujing inconsistencies by reading *g'jungkung 共工 as a personal name during Yao's reign which was made into a title during Shun's. Another possibility is that *g'jungkung originally meant *g'ljung 龍'(work?) dragon' and was subsequently demythologized into a (typical Confucianist) bureaucrat.

Several Huainanzi chapters refer to an official called the *g'jungkung 共工 (e.g., 19/1b, Morgan 1934:221 "Superintendent of works"), but in one passage (4/10a describing 共工 being produced from a 景風 'gentle breeze', cf. §3.5, Karlgren 1946:233, 253), Gao notes Gonggong was a "[天神] heavenly spirit with a human face and a snake's body." "Heavenly" could mean a divine 'rain-dragon' §2 or the 天龍 §3.2.

(II) The Shanhaijing (Karlgren 1946:309, Schiffeler 1978:128) elaborates the Gonggong 共工 legend with two versions of a story about his minister called Xiāngliǔ < *Siangliôg 相柳 "mutual willow" (8/2a) ~ Xiāngyao < *Siangdiog 相; "mutual abundance" (17/5a-b) who fought Yu (below) in deluge myths. It describes Xiāngliǔ as having a blue snake's body and nine heads (cf. §4.5 and §5.1).

^{98.} Karlgren assumes (1970, no. 1236) textual corruption, and figuratively translates 滔天 'overflowing heaven' as "[but he] swells up to Heaven." Legge's (1865:24) literal translation "See! the floods assail the heavens" makes more sense because the following context concerns flood-control and commentaries say Gonggong was appointed 水官 "Water Official." Yao subsequently (1/10, Karlgren 1950b:5) banished both ministers.

Various interpretations of the nonacephalous Xiāngliŭ have been proposed: Yuan (1960:23-4) thinks "nine heads" means 'nine people'; Eberhard (1968:350) guesses either the nine dragons myth of southern cultures or (following Sun 1960:15-9) eels in the flood tales of Formosan aborigines.

- (III) Yǔ < *Giwo 禹 was the legendary founder of the Xia dynasty (22nd?-18th? cents. BC). Kominami (1985:17) says Yu was originally a snake-fish combination, and the lower graphic element of 禹 pictures a wug's tail, comparable with those in chī < *t'lia? 魊 'dragon' §7.1, qín < *g'iəm 禽 'bird; animal', and yú < *ngiu 禹 'monkey' (cf. 禺禹 §7.4). Both Yu and his father Gǔn < *Kwən 縣 "giant fish" (also described as a tortoise or bear, Granet 1930:207-8) were assisted at flood-control by mythological animals. A yinglóng < * iengliung 應龍 'winged rain-dragon' §2.4 showed Yu where to dig canals, and a chīgūi < *t'iərkiwəg 玛龜 "owl turtle" showed Gun where to build dams. Yu is said to have received gifts from dragons: jade tablets from the shéshén 蛇神 "snake god" §4.6 and the "River Chart" from the lóngmă 龍馬 'dragon horse' §8.4. There are two versions (Huainanzi 7/7a, Morgan 1934:69; Bamboo Books, Legge 1865:118) of a legend about Yu not fearing yellow dragons in the Yangzi River.
- (IV) The Zuozhuan (昭公 29, Legge 1872:731, Visser 1913:82-3, Granet 1930:181, Yan 1987a:133-4) records a myth about two families of hereditary dragon-tamers: Huanlong 蒙龍 "dragon rearer" and Yulong 御龍 "dragon ruler." Dong Fu 壹父 tamed dragons for legendary Emperor Shun (23rd? cent. BC), who gave him the clan-name of Huanlong 蒙龍. Liu Lei 劉累, who learned the art of rearing dragons from the Huanlong family, took care of two pairs of dragons belonging to King Kong Jia 孔甲 (19th? cent. BC), who gave him the Yulong clan-name. When one of them died, Liu presented pickled dragon mincemeat to the king who "greatly enjoyed" it (cf. the "savoury and pleasant" taste of 蛟 §6.1).99

^{99.} A slightly different version of the dragon-tamers story is retold in the Shiji (2B/21b, Visser 1913:50-1), and an abbreviated one in the Bamboo Books (Legge 1865:124). The Zuozhuan version says Kong Jia was given the dragons because he was "obedient and acceptable to God," while the Shiji says he loved spiritualism, "and was disorderly (in his behavior, i.e. he disturbed the Tao)."

Both the dragon-tamer myth and its names have been interpreted as foreign borrowings. The Chinese story has been connected with Indian Brahmans (Clerke 1887:107) as well as the lions of Gilgamesh (Hornblower 1933:85). There is a close parallel with the Chen 陣 and Ke 柯 families who tamed and ate zhūpólóng 豬婆龍 'gavials' \$6.4. The terms in the myth are of interest as draconyms. Huaniong < *G'wanliung 蒙龍 "dragon rearer" and Yulong < *Ngioliung 御龍 "dragon ruler" families are named from their occupations; Dong and Liu (in Dŏng Fù < *Tung B'iwo 董父 and Liu Léi < *Liôg Liwer 劉栗) are common present-day surnames (esp. in South China, Eberhard 1968:240).

Owing to 'dragon; king' associations of the primary lóng 龍 \$2.1, this last category of dragon-people could be extended to include many of China's legendary rulers. The prehistoric sage-kings Fuxi, Yellow Emperor, Yao, and Shun (above) all have dragon legends (Diény 1987:188). Fuxi 伏羲 Baoxi 庖犧 (associated with the 龍馬 \$8.4) and his sister/wife Nügua 女 p are central to Chinese (Karlgren 1946:229-32) and Miao (Wen 1956) creation myths, some (Yuan 1960:40-4) involving the thunder god 富公 \$2.6. During the Zhou dynasty (Yuan 1978:34-9), Fuxi and Nügua were depicted as having human heads and intertwined snake/dragon bodies. According to the Bamboo Books (cf. \$8.4, Legge 1865:108, 114), the Yellow Emperor's 黄帝 "countenance was dragon-like," and Yao 尭 and Shun 舜 were conceived after their mothers "saw" (had intercourse with) divine dragons. 100

^{100.} Cf. the similar legend (Visser 1913:123) about Emperor Gaozu (r. 206-195 BC), the founder of the Han dynasty, whose mother dreamed about a 蛟龍 S6.1. The Shiji (Visser 1913:122) tells a story about Yellow Emperor and seventy ministers ascending to heaven on a dragon. The remaining lower ministers tried unsuccessfully to fly with some fallen dragon whiskers, and lóngxū 龍須 "dragon's whiskers" is a name for 'rush, Juncus batticus'. Cf. 聲蛇 "whisker snake" §4.4. The Hanshu (22/1059, Diény 1987:201) asks "Why does the zihuáng < *tsiǎrg'wâng 告黃 "alas [~ with 言 'speech' rather than □ 'mouth' radical] yellow" no longer descend to earth?"; Ying Shao notes *tsiǎrg'wâng or chénghuáng < *đ'iəngg'wâng 乘黄 "ride yellow" was a flying-horse with dragon wings, was ridden into heaven by the Yellow Emperor.

These apocryphal legends about dragons, kings, and dragon-kings are not corroborated by early textual or linguistic evidence, like the dragon-people above.

9 SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

Chinese dragon names are linguistically synopsized in §9.1, general patterns of draconym borrowings are discussed in §9.2, and some comparative examples are given in §9.3.

§9.1 Summary. The Chinese 'dragon' lexical field is remarkable for its size and antiquity. The final INDEX lists 155 draconyms (including variants) and draconic names, most of which (shown with * Old Chinese reconstructions) were textually attested two thousand years ago. Other appellations have been noted, and if they, especially ones for colored dragons, were included, the list would include more than two hundred names. 101

Among the linguistic aspects of draconyms §1.3, pronunciations have the soundest basis. Few Chinese dragon names have feasible etymologies, and many have doubtful (e.g., §6.1) or contradictory (e.g., §8.2) meanings. By Han times, numerous names were known to mean some kind of 'dragon', but their mythical origins had been forgotten.

Chinese draconyms have two phonologically prominent subsets: *ljung and *Kjwər in Tables 7 and 8. Both common 'dragon' etymons show evidence of consonant clusters; possibly from *gljung and *gljwər contrast sets. Table 7 is divided between basic 'dragon' names and *-ljung 龍 compounds. The latter terms do not necessarily bear upon the original pronunciation of 龍 (i.e., *kŭkljung 角龍 "horned dragon" does not evidence a *k'l- etymon).

^{101.} Compare this number with Conrad Gesner's sixteenth century "descriptions of more than 250 varieties of dragons" seen in the Alps by early mountain climbers (cited by Houston 1987:39, suggesting altitude hallucinations). Thanks to John Emelin and Jane Hazen for acquainting the author with high-altitude dragons.

Table 7--*Ljung-ish Draconyms

```
*liung ii 'dragon; king' $2.1
*lwerkung 雷公 'thunder god' $2.6
*kiedmung 計畫 'dragon spirit' $8.8
*g'ung ~ *kung 虹 '(Yang) rainbow' $2.2
*g'jungkung 共工 'rain-dragon; minister' $8.9
*tiadtung O/EZ 'rainbow' $2.2
*d'iôgdjung εζ 'drought demon' $2.7
*djungdjung III II 'drought dragon?' $2.7
*p'iônggliông 豊隆 'thunder god' \2.6
*kjuljung 句龍 'dragon minister' $8.9
*kiwetljung E v 'sea dragon' $5.3
*kogljung 蛟龍 'scaled? dragon' §6.1
*g'iŏgliung δ i 'horned? dragon' $8.2
* kŭkljung 角龍 'horned dragon' $8.3
* 'jengljung 庭館 'winged rain-dragon' $2.4
* 'wagliung 鮮 v 'a demon' $5.2
*Xmekliung 黒龍 'black rain-dragon' $2.3
*nakljung 諾龍 'south sea dragon' $6.5
*d'ialjung 地龍 'earth dragon' $3.2
*t'oljung 土龍 'alligator; rain-dragon' 86.2
*tjob'waljung 豬婆龍 'gavial' 86.4
*tiukliung 燭龍 'torch dragon' $8.5
*t'okljung 卓龍 'torch dragon' $8.5
*t'ienljung 天龍 'heavenly dragon' §3.2
*ã'jěnljung 神龍 'thunder dragon' $2.6
*d'arljung N m 'alligator' $6.2
*piwerljung 飛龍 'flying-dragon' $3.5
*b'wanliung 蜡酸 'flying-dragon'
```

These names confirm the predicted $*g-/k-liung \sim *b-liung$ 'dragon; rainbow' roots in Tables 2 and 3, and suggest a *t-/d-liung etymon. Another previously overlooked set of *Xiwər 'dragon' names is seen below.

Table 8--* Xiwer-ish Draconyms

```
*k'iatńjer 智貳 'rainbow' $2.2
*giwangKiwer 王 中 'boa; python' §4.5
*giungKiwer 雄 中 'nine-headed dragon' §4.5
*g'iwer ⊕ 'one-legged drum dragon' §7.6
*Xiwor 暉 ~ 撣 'one-legged drum dragon' $7.6
*Xmekliwen 黑人 'black rain-dragon' $2.3
*Xiwer k 'python; viper' §4.5
*lwersier 雷師 'thunder god' $2.6
*pjwerpjwer 飛飛 'flying-dragon' $3.5
*p'jokXjwer 蝮 Φ 'boa; viper' $4.5
*piwer & 'drought demon' $2.5
*sanXiwer山У 'a mountain demon' $7.5
*śiwerXiwer 水 中 'water snake dragon' $8.3
*siek'ier 析翳 'rainbow' $2.2
*t'niĕgmier 魑魅 'mountain demon; a dragon' §7.1
*d'ar(gjwer) α (国) 'water spirit' %6.2
*ã'iěnXiwer神川 'one-legged demon' $7.5
```

The dissimilar phonology of these *-iwer 'dragon' names suggests descent from several etyma. Yuan (1978:50) asserts $*g'iwer \Theta$ derives from $*lwer \Xi$ 'thunder' (cf. 富師 above), and a *g'liwer protoform could etymologically explain several appelations in Table 8.

Some names exhibit miscellaneous, perhaps random, similarities (cf. *kŏg 蛟 'dragon; crocodile' \$6.1 and *kodz'ôg 鼓造 'anti-war demon' \$7.2). A few draconyms are without any apparent Chinese cognates and therefore of particular interest as possible contact words. For example (cf. \$9.3), * \acute{n} iam ψ 'giant snake' \$4.4 or * \acute{d} 'ar N 'alligator' \$6.2 could be importations.

\$9.2 Draconym Borrowings. Since the lóng 龍 dragon is the symbol of China, one would expect Chinese draconyms to have been exported to East Asian languages. Comparative linguists have put forth borrowings/loans of five dragons: lóng 龍 'dragon' \$2.1, hóng 虹 'rainbow; dragon' \$2.2, è 諤 'crocodile' \$6.3, chī 魑 'hornless dragon; mountain demon' \$7.1, and chén 辰 '5; dragon' \$8.1. Such words are not unique to the Orient:

The Hebrews had their tan or tannim, which the translators of the English version of the Bible have

rendered by the various terms of sea-monsters, whales, serpents, and dragon. The Greeks also had a dragon, a hydra, and a python; all dreadful to behold, and possessing a fearful power of destruction; terms alluding to a similar being are also to be found in almost every modern tongue. (Williams 1838:253)

In general, draconymic loans follow three patterns: (I) 'dragon' → 'dragon', (II) 'dragon' → (esp. foreign) 'wug', and (III) 'wug; large snake' → 'dragon'.

(I) Dragon myths and their concomitant names have often been transferred directly. Smith takes a strongly diffusionist view:

There can be no doubt that the Chinese dragon is the descendent of the early Babylonian monster, and that the inspiration to create it reached Shensi during the third millennium B.C. (1919:95, cf. 104)

Ideishi (1934:145-6) rejects Smith's hypothesis and interprets the Chinese dragon as a nature personification originating from snake worship.

The Naga §4.7 is an excellent example of direct 'dragon' \rightarrow 'dragon' borrowing. Hindu and Buddhist myths developed around the Sanskrit word Nāga 'water-dragon'; translated into Chinese as nàgā 那伽 \sim lóng 龍, and into Japanese as nāga t-t \sim ryū 竜 (Ideishi 1934:146-8, Mori 1976:163-9). Nāga is also evident in Malay naga \sim ular ["snake"] naga 'dragon', 102 and perhaps in Semang 'rainbowserpent' names nanga, nago, and naga' (Loewenstein 1961:31-2).

- (II) Names of legendary dragons have been applied to living creatures, 103 typically wugs, e.g., dĭlóngzi 地龍子
- 102. Other Malay terms include naga umbang 'giant dragon', (naga) antaboga 'great sea serpent', and biram "elephant; red" 'a legendary snake with heads at both ends of its body'. Chinese has dragon/elephant associations §4.3 and two-headed snakes §4.7, but the words seem unrelated.
- 103. Cf. the Japanese stretching of kirin < the legendary gilin 麒麟 'Chinese "unicorn"' to mean 'giraffe' (cf. Chinese chángjinglù 長頚鹿 "long necked deer"). To distinguish 'giraffe', written Japanese uses either kirin キリン (in katakana versus 麒麟 written in kanji), or the

'earthworm' §2.1. All three Greek 'dragon' names cited above by Williams were chosen for zoological nomenclature. Dragon and the genus Draco of agamid lizards are named (< Latin draco 'dragon; dragon-shaped flag', cf. Δ 'dragon banner' §8.1) from Greek drákōn 'large serpent; dragon', thought to ultimately derive from Indo-European "sharpsighted one" < *derk- 'see' (cf. Zoroastrian drug "deceitful one" 'dragon', Clerke 1887:100). A genus of freshwater polyps which can reproduce when divided was aptly named Hydra in reference to the mythic Hydra 'many-headed dragon which if one head were cut off, grew back two' < Greek húdrā 'aquatic snake' < húdōr 'water'. The Pythonidae family of large snakes was named after the Python 'a guardian spirit of soothsayers' < pythōn an old name for 'Delphi'. 104

Japanese wani 'shark; crocodile' (Hino 1979:419-31) illustrates 'dragon' referential extensions. Wani was originally phoneticized with 和还 characters, but was also written 簡 'crocodile' §6.3. Since crocodilians evidently never lived in Japan, it seems some ancient 'shark; crocodile; sea-dragon?' word was imported and then specialized to 'crocodile', as distinguished from native same 較 'shark' (cf. wanizame 齶較 'fierce shark', i.e., fuka 醬). Aston (1896:61) hypothesizes Japanese wani came from Korean wang-i 'king' < Chinese wang 王 (cf. 王蛇 賢4.5). Since this alleged borrowing was based upon similarities between wani myths and Naga lóngwáng 竜王 'dragon king' stories §4.7, Visser asks:

Why should the ancient Japanese or Koreans have called these sea-monsters "kings", omitting the word "dragon", which is the most important part of the combined term "dragon-king"? (1913:140)

He instead sees resemblances between stories from the Kei

scientific loan word jirafu ジラフ.

^{104.} A fourth example of extending Greek draconyms into zoological nomenclature is Basiliscus 'a genus of tropical American lizards' named after the Basilisk 'a dragon with lethal breath and glance' 〈 Greek basiliskos "little king" (cf. Chinese wángshé 王虹 §4.5 and English king snake). Compare the cockatrice 'dragon with lethal glance' 〈 cock (affected by crocodile) 〈 translating Greek ikhneúmōn.

and Celebes Islands (cited by Müller 1893:533) and wani myths, concluding (1913:141), "we may be sure that the latter is of Indonesian origin" and was brought to Japan in prehistoric times. Smith (1919:103) disagrees: "The wani or crocodile thus introduced from India, via Indonesia, is really the Chinese and Japanese dragon, as Aston has claimed." Visser's proposal for an Indonesian wani origin is linguistically corroborated by Proto-Austro-Tai *(m)banjiwak 'shark; crocodile' (Table 4) which Benedict (1990:193) thinks split into Japanese wani 的 and uo 允 'fish'.

(III) Mythical draconyms often derive from names of larger reptilians. The bāshé < *pàd'ja 巴蛇 'elephant-eating snake' §4.3 and ránshé < *ńjamd'ja 收蛇 'python' §4.4 are good illustrations. Since pythons usually crush their prey and swallow them whole, one can imagine Chinese tales about southern *ńjamd'ja 'pythons' being exaggerated into legendarily constipated *påd'ja 'giant snakes' that ate an elephant every three years.

Chinese lóng it dragons had ancient associations with dinosaurs §2.1, and Xu (1940:62) suggests that fear of dinosaurs developed into Chinese worship of dragons. 105 A similar hypothesis that dragons, including the "serpent" in the Garden of Eden, originally referred to dinosaurs was popularized by Sagan (1977:125-51; failing to acknowledge its proposal in 1886 by Gould [quoted by Ball 1903:222]). Since dinosaurs became extinct many millennia before the earliest humans, this "dinosaur" \rightarrow 'dragon' idea is temporally untenable.

\$9.3 Examples show some potential applications for the Chinese draconymic data complied within this study. The representative illustrations below discuss (I) Chinese qióngqióng 蛋蛋,(II) Japanese orochi 大蛇,(III) Ainu snake gods, and (IV) 'dragon' terms from some Vietnamese languages.

^{105.} Tollef As (p.c. of 89/8/21) suggests dinosaur skeletons had a special significance; cf. lónggǔ 龍骨 "dragon bones" §2.1 and Wang Chong's Lunheng (esp. 6/11a-16a) assertion that dragons were factual animals in historical times.

- *G'jungg'jung 强强 is usually described (e.g., Shanhaijing 8/5b [with 燭陰 \$8.5]; Huainanzi 12/4b-5a) as resembling a horse, and not a dragon. However, since Chinese dragons (cf. 龍馬 \$8.4) were traditionally depicted with horse's heads (Diény 1987:19-20), a mythic association is suggested by graphic and phonetic evidence: the 虫 'wug' in 蛩 and the similarity between *g'jungg'jung and *ljung and 'dragon' <? *g'l- (Tables 2 and 8).
- (II) Japanese orochi < woröti 大蛇 "giant snake; (esp. eight-headed) dragon" has been discussed as a loanword from Austronesian, Tungic, and Indo-European; and Chinese draconyms present a different perspective. According to a widely known Japanese myth (Daniels 1960:145), one of the three imperial treasures, the kusanagi no tsurugi 草薙の観 "grass mowing sword" was discovered in the tail of a yamata no orochi 八岐の大蛇 "eight-headed dragon." 106 Orochi

^{106.} In modern usage, orochi refers to 'giant snake; dragon' with any number of heads. Legends about "many-headed dragons" (e.g., Greek Hydra above) are told around the world, but eight heads are comparatively less common than seven (Smith 1919:212-5) or nine (esp. in Chinese myths, e.g., 雄 Φ §4.5, ν 姪 §5.1 相柳 §8.9; Eberhard 1968:230-2). In Japanese numerology, $ku \sim kyu$ (< Middle Chinese kigu:)九 'nine' is avoided because of homophony with ku (< k'uo:) 'B' can mean 'many' (e.g., yaoya 八百屋 "800 [things] store" 'vegetable shop; Jack-of-all-trades'). Visser (1911:273) suggests later generations mixed up Indian Naga ideas with the original orochi legend, and (1913:150) mentions the Japanese stereotype of Buddhist gods/kings riding eight dragons. Other than "8" \rightarrow 'many', another explanation for the

derives from Old Japanese woröti (with a regular o- < wo-shift, Miller 1971:25-7), but its origin is enigmatic.

Japanese scholars (e.g., Yanagida 1963, Hiroto 1977, 1983) have put forth more than a dozen orochi "etymologies." Excluding the linguistically ludicrous (e.g., a condensation cosoroshiku chijimu yōna kimochi 恐ろしく縮じむような気持ち "feeling like shrinking up in fear" from seeing a big snake, 本朝辞源), we are left with probable oro- "tailed/big/hill" + -chi "god" derivations. The initial o(ro)- < wo(rò)-could indicate o 尾 'tail' (cf. the above 草薙の鯉 myth), ō大 'big; great', or dialectal oro 'peak; summit' (e.g., orota 峰ろ田 "peak field"). And the final -chi < -ti probably means 'god; spirit', cognate with mizuchi 水父 "water father" 'a river god' (Visser 1913:137-9, also written δ §8.2) and/or ikazuchi 冨 'thunder (god)'.

Western linguists have looked for orochi borrowings. Benedict (1985:167) saw woröti < suffixed *(w)oröt-i as an early acquisition from Proto-Austro-Japanese $*[q]ul\ni j$ 'wug; snake' (> Austronesian ' $ul\ni j$ 'wug; snake' words); later modified (1990:243) to *(u-)orot-i < *[q,?]o $l\ni j$. Miller (1987:647) criticized him for overlooking Old Japanese:

...woro 'tail' + suffix -ti--as well as an obvious Tungus etymology, [Proto-Tungus] *xurgu-ci 'the tailed one' (cf. Evenki irgici 'wolf', Benzing 1955:990); this apparently well-traveled orochi has now even turned up in the speculation of the [Indo-European] folklorists (Littleton 1981).

Littleton's hypothesis involves the three-headed Indian Viśvarupa ~ Triśiras [lit. "tricephalous"], but its only similarity with the orochi myth is that both dragons were slain after getting them drunk; Viśvarupa ~ Triśiras is no closer to woröti than three heads is to eight. A possible solution may be found in the earliest Japanese (c. AD 712, Kojiki 古事記 1/19) woröti transcription: yuanluzhi < Middle Chinese jiwanliwo:tie- 遠呂智 "distant spine wisdom." Instead of bilabial w-, this Japanese draconym could have had some ancient palatalized initial, cf. *djangd'ja 長蛇'long snake' §4.2 or *gjwcdngjo & main winged fish' §2.7.

orochi's heads is association with the legs of a tako 蛸'octopus' (Hino 1979:260).

- (III) Since the linguistic origins of Ainu are entirely unknown, there is no reason to expect any of its draconyms would be similar with Chinese. And yet, five of the six Ainu 'dragons; snake gods' listed by Chiri (1954:227-8) have possible cognates with draconyms in this paper, though some are obscured by suffixes like kamuy 'god; spirit'. 107 Compare: kánna-kamuy "upper god" 'thunder dragon' and *giwangd'ia 王蛇 'boa; python' §4.5; nusá-kor-huči (cf. Japanese orochi above) "sanctuary goddess" ~ nusá-kor-kamuy "sanctuary god" 'snake demon' and * ńiukśiôg 蓐收 'dragon spirit' §8.7; nitátorumpe "swamp demon" ~ nitátorum-nitnekamuy "swamp god" 'snake-like spirit' and *nakljung 諾龍 'south sea dragon' §6.5; čatay "snake body" naming the same swampy 'snake-like spirit' and *kuã'ja 鉤蛇 'hook snake' §4.7 or *djangã'ja 長蛇 'long snake' §4.2; hoyáw (< oyaw 'snake'¹⁰⁸) 'snake dragon' and **Iwad'ia* 化蛇 'flood dragon' \$2.8; and perhaps apé-sam-ta-somo-aye-kamuy "god whose name is not spoken at fireside" ~ sak-somo-aye-p "god whose name is not spoken in summer" and *swânzio 酸與 'winged snake' § 3.8 or * atziu ξ o 'dragon-like beast' §4.1. Another Ainu 'dragon' name of kushi ~ koshi (Hino 1979:258) can be compared with *giwangXiwer 王Φ 'boa; python' §4.5. Although these Ainu draconyms have reasonable folk etymologies, the possibilities of Chinese contacts open a new avenue of investigation.
- (IV) Some minority languages spoken in Vietnam have 'dragon' names remarkably similar with Chinese. 109 The

^{107.} Cf. kamuy < kamui loaned < Japanese kami 神 'god; spirit'. The sixth exception is a 'lake dragon' called ráp-us-oyaw ~ ráp-us-nupur ~ ráp-us-kamuy "wing sprouting snake ~ spirit ~ god."

^{108.} Chiri etymologizes oyaw 'snake' < oya-p "fearful thing," and Yakumo Ainu dialect (Hattori 1964:190) has 'oyáw(-kamuy) "snake god" 'a giant winged lizard that appears during prayers', clearly a dragon. Note the similarity between 'oyáw and Dyen's Proto-Austronesian $*^2uDay$ 'wug: snake'.

^{109.} Vietnamese (con) rông 'dragon' was cited in §2.1 as a probable borrowing from liung $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$, while răn 'snake' and trăn 'python' bear a likeness to rân $\langle *\hat{n}jam \psi$ 'giant snake; python' §4.4.

draconyms *ngak 問 'crocodile' \$6.3, *njamd'ia v /監蛇 giant snake; python' §4.4, and *gjwangd'ja 王蛇 'boa; python' §4.5 resemble: Rengao nang grai (Gregerson 1977), Western Cham nugarai (Kvoeu-Hor and Friberg 1978), Chru ana grai (Jrang et al. 1977), Rade anak rai (Y-Chang 1979), and perhaps Northern Roglai ula nac (Awo'i-hathe et al. 1972). Bahnar prao 'dragon' (Banker and Mo' 1979) could derive from *piwərd'ia 飛蛇 'flying snake' §3.6 or *piwərngio 飛魚 'flying fish' §3.7. Nearly perfect 'dragon; alligator' correspondences exist between Nung Fan Slihng tú luhng 'dragon' (Bé et al. 1982) [with tú "spirit" the 'classifier for animate beings'] and *t'oliung 土龍 'alligator: raindragon' or *d'arljung N i 'alligator' §6.2; and lastly between Chrau dêr 'dragon' (Thomas 1966) and *d'ar N 'alligator' §6.2. These draconyms are the most representative case of borrowings, because China has strongly influenced Vietnamese cultures.

False cognates, which Matisoff calls "comparabilia," are a danger. With such a large comparative base of Chinese draconyms, simply finding rough phonetic similarities does not establish borrowings. For instance, *mwângâ'ia 蟒蛇'boa; python' §4.5 sounds something like Mongolian *mo/ai'snake' (Kuribayashi 1989:286), 110 but there is no reason to suspect contact between these southern 'giant snake' and northern 'snake' terms.

Chinese has the oldest recorded East Asian draconyms, and one of the largest 'dragon' lexical fields in any language. Eberhard says:

Combining as it does all sorts of mythological and cosmological notions, the dragon is one of China's most complex and muti-tiered symbols. Indeed the word long covers a variety of heterogeneous beings. (1986:83)

Among the "multiple tiers" of Chinese dragons, names like long makes are more empirically verifiable than myths like luminous snakes or cosmologies like rain-dragons. It is hoped that this study will encourage research into draconymic borrowings/loans among Asian languages. The final answers to questions about dates and directions of

^{110.} From Chakhar mogææ, Dagur mogw, Shera-Yögur moRui. Monguor moGuai, Bao-an moGei, and Dungshang mojei.

dragon contacts will be interdisciplinary, involving not only historical linguistics, but ethnozoology, art history, and comparative mythology.

REFERENCES

- Abe Shinji 阿部真司. 1981. Dashin denshōron josetsu 蛇神伝承 論序説. Dentō to Gendai Sha.
- Allen, Judy and Griffith, Jeanne. 1979. The Book of the Dragon. Orbis.
- Ames, Roger T., tr. 1981. The Art of Rulership, a Study in Ancient Chinese Political Thought. University of Hawaii Press.
- Aston, William, tr. 1896. Nihongi, Chronicles of Japan from the Earliest Times to A.D. 697. Paul, Trench, & Trubner.
- Ball, J. Dyer. 1903. Things Chinese. Kelly & Walsh.
- Awo'i-hathe, Aviong, A-Ty', A-Ly, Maxwell and Vurnell Cobbey. 1977. Northern Roglai Vocabulary. Summer Institute of Linguistics.
- Banker, John and Elizabeth, and Mo'. 1979. Bahnar Dictionary, Plei Bong-Mang Yang Dialect. Summer Institute of Linguistics.
- Bé, Vy Thi, Saul, Janice E., Wilson, Nancy F. 1982. Nung Fan Slihng-English Dictionary. Summer Institute of Linguistics.
- Benedict, Paul K. 1939. "Semantic Differentiation in Indo-Chinese." Harvard Journal of Asiatic Studies 4:213-29.
- _____. 1967. "Austro-Thai Studies, 3. Thai and Chinese."

 Behavioral Science Notes 4:288-91. Reprinted in 1975:75-133.
- _____. 1972. Sino-Tibetan; a Conspectus, James A. Matisoff, ed. Cambridge University Press.
- _____. 1975. Austro-Thai Language and Culture, with a Glossary of Roots. HRAF Press.
- . 1976a. "Early Chinese Borrowings." Genetic Relationship, Diffusion and Typological Similarities of East & Southeast Asian Languages; Papers for the 1st Japan-US Joint Seminar on East & Southeast Asian Linguistics, 60-100.
- _____. 1976b. "Sino-Tibetan: Another Look." Journal of the American Oriental Society 96:167-97.

- . 1979. "Vocalic Transfer: A Southeast Asia Areal Feature." Acta Orientalia 40:229-52.
- _____. 1985. Toppakō: Tōnan Ajia no gengo kara Nihongo e 突破口東南アジアの言語から日本へ. Nishi Yoshio 西義郎, tr. Computational Analyses of Asian and African Languages 25.
- _____. 1986. "Archaic Chinese Initials." Wang Li Memorial Volume 王力先生記念論文集, 25-71. Sanlian.
 - __. 1990. *Japanese Austro/Tai*. Karoma.
- Benzing, Johann. 1955. "Die tungusischen Sprachen; Versuch einer vergleichenden Grammatik." Abhandlungen der Geistes-und Sozialwissenschaftlichen Kalsse 11:949-1099.
- Biot, Edouard, tr. 1881. Le Tcheou-li, ou Rites des Tcheou. 3 vols. Ch'eng Wen reprint 1975.
- Bodde, Derk. 1961 "Myths of Ancient China." In Mythologies of the Ancient World, Samuel Kramer, ed., 369-408.

 Doubleday & Co.
- Bodman, Nicholas C. 1980. "Proto-Chinese and Sino-Tibetan; Data Towards Establishing the Nature of the Relationship." In Contributions to Historical Linguistics, 34-199. Brill.
- . 1985. "Evidence for *l* and *r* Medials in Old Chinese and Associated Problems." Linguistics of the Sino-Tibetan Area: the State of the Art, Graham Thurgood, James A. Matisoff, David Bradley, eds., 146-67. Pacific Linguistics.
- Boodberg, Peter A. 1935. "Sino-Tibetan Notes." Reprinted in 1979:162-70.
- . 1937. "Some Proleptical Remarks on the Evolution of Archaic Chinese." Harvard Journal of Asiatic Studies 2:329-72. Reprinted in 1979:363-403.
- by Alvin P. Cohen. University of California Press.
- Brown, Cecil. H. 1979. "Folk Zoological Life-Forms: Their Universality and Growth." American Anthropologist 81.4:791-812.
- Carr, Michael. 1983. "Why Did *D'jông 蟲 Change from 'Animal' to 'Wug'?" Computational Analyses of Asian and African Languages 21:7-14.
- _____. 1986a. "Semantic Crystals in Chinese Characters."

 Review of Liberal Arts 71:79-97.
- _____. 1986b. "Austro-Tai *Tsum(b)anget 'Spirit' and Archaic Chinese *XmwangXmwet 恍惚 'Bliss'." Journal of Asian and African Studies 32:91-126.

- _____. 1987. "The 天網 'Heaven's Net' Metaphor." Review of Liberal Arts 73:39-74.
- Chamberlain, James R. 1977. An Introduction to Proto-Tai Zoology. Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Michigan.
- Chang Kwang-chih [Zhang Guangzhi] 張光直. 1962. "商周神話之分類 A Classification of Shang and Chou Myths."

 Bulletin of the Institute of Ethnology, Academia Sinica
 14:75-93.
- Chao Weipang 趙衛邦, tr. 1943. "The Dragon Boat Race in Wuling, Hunan." Folklore Studies 2:1-18.
- Chen Mengjia 陳夢家. 1936. "Shangdai de shenhua yu wushu 商 代的神話與巫術." *Yanjing Xuebao* 燕京覺報 20:485-576. Chen Zhongyu 陣仲玉. 1969. "Yindai guqi zhong de longxing
- Chen Zhongyu 陣仲玉. 1969. "Yindai guqi zhong de longxing tu'an de fenxi 股代骨器中的龍形圖案的分析." Lishi yuyan yanjiusuo jikan 歷史語言研究所集刊 41.3:455-496.
- Chiri Mashiho 知里真志保. 1954. Bunrui Ainugo jiten 分類アイヌ語辞典. Nihon jōmin bunka kenkyūjo ihō 日本常民文化研究所彙報 87.
- Clerke, E.M. 1887. "Dragon Myths of the East." Asiatic Quarterly Review 4:98-117.
- Coedès, Georges. 1935. "L'Origine du cycle des douzes animaux au Cambodge." T'oung Pao 31:315-29.
- Cohen, Alvin. 1978. "Coercing the Rain Deities in Ancient China." History of Religions 17:244-265.
- Coral-Rémusat, Gilberte de. 1936. "Animaux fantastiques de l'Indochine, de l'Insulinde et de la Chine." Bulletin de l'Ecole Française de l'Extreme Orient 36.2:427-435.
- Couvreur, S., tr. 1896. Cheu King. Imprimerie de la Mission Catholique.
- Creel, Herriee G. 1937. Studies in Early Chinese Culture. Waverly.
- One, The Western Chou Empire. University of Chicago Press.
- Crump, J.I., tr. 1979. Chan-kuo ts'e, 2nd rev. ed. Chinese Materials Center.
- Daniels, F.J. 1960. "Snake and Dragon Lore of Japan." Folklore 71:145-64.
- Diény, Jean-Pierre. 1987. Le Symbolisme du dragon dans la Chine antique. Bibliothèque des Hautes Etudes Chinoise, vol. 27.
- Doré, Henry. 1917. Researches into Chinese Superstitions. M. Kennelly, tr. T'usewei. Ch'eng-wen reprint 1966.
- Dubs, Homer H., tr. 1928. The Works of Hsuntze. Arthur Probsthain. AMS reprint 1977.

- Eberhard, Wolfram. 1968. The Local Cultures of South and East China. Alide Eberhard, tr. E.J. Brill.
- _____. 1986. A Dictionary of Chinese Symbols. G.L. Campbell, tr. Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Fauvel, A. A. 1879. "Alligators in China." Journal of the North China Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society 2.13:1-36.
- Fung Yu-lan. 1952. A History of Chinese Philosophy, Vol. I The Period of the Philosophers (from the beginnings to circa 100 B.C.), Derk Bodde, tr. 2nd ed. Princeton University Press.
- Gieseler, G. 1917. "Le mythe du dragon en Chine." Revue Archéologique 6:104-70.
- Gould, Charles. 1886. Mythical Monsters. W.H. Allen.
- Granet, Marcel. 1929. Fêtes et chansons anciennes de la Chine. Leroux.
- _____. 1930. Chinese Civilization. Routledge & Kegan Paul. Gregerson, Kenneth and Marilyn. 1977. Rengao Vocabulary. Summer Institute of Linguistics.
- Hattori Shirō 服部四郎. 1964. Ainugo hōgen jiten アイヌ語方言辞典. Iwanami.
- Hawkes, David, tr. 1985. The Songs of the South. Penguin.
- Hayashi Minao 林巳奈夫. 1953. "Inshū dōki ni arawareru ryū ni tsuite 殷周銅器に現れる龍について." Tōhō gakuhō 東方学報 23:181-210.
- Hino Iwao 日野巌、1979. Dōbutsu yōkai dan 動物妖怪譚. Rev. ed. Ariake.
- Hiroto Atushi 広戸惇. 1977. "Zoku hebi no keifu 統蛇の系譜."

 Kyōto kasei tanki daigaku kiyō 京都家政短期大学紀要
 16:23-8.
- _____. 1983. "Hebi へび(蛇)." Kōza nihongo no goi 講座日本語の語彙 11:216-21. Meiji Shoin.
- Hirth, Friedrich. 1908. The Ancient History of China. Columbia University Press.
- Hopkins, L.C. 1913. "Dragon and Alligator; Being Notes on some Ancient Inscribed Bone Carvings." Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society 1913:545-52.
- _____. 1931a. "Where the Rainbow Ends." Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society 1931:603-12.
- ______. 1931b. "The Dragon Terrestrial and the Dragon Celestial; a study of the Lung 龍, and the Ch'en 辰, Part I." Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society 1931:791-806.
- . 1932. "The Dragon Terrestrial and the Dragon Celestial; Part II. Ch'ên, the Dragon Celestial."

- Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society 1932:91-7.
- Hornblower, G.D. 1933. "Evolution of Art-Forms. Early Dragon-Forms." Man, a Monthly Record of Anthropological Science. 85:79-86.
- Houston, Charles S. 1987. Going Higher, the Story of Man and Altitude. 3rd ed. Little, Brown, & Co.
- Ideishi Seisan 出石誠産. 1934. "Ryū no yurai ni tsuite 龍の由来について." Tōyō gakuhō 東洋学報 21.2:140-56.
- Ikeda Suetoshi 池田末利。1953. "Ryūjin kō 龍神考." Tōhō gakuhō 東方学報 6:1-7.
- Ingersoll, Ernest. 1928. Dragons and Dragon Lore. Payson &
 Clarke.
- Izushi Masahiko 出石誠彦。 1943. Shina shinwa densetsu no kenkyū 支那神話伝説の研究。Chūō kōronsha.
- Jennings, William, tr. 1891. The Shi King. George Routledge & Sons.
- Johnston, Reginald Fleming. 1910. The Lion and Dragon in Northern China. John Murray.
- Jrang, Ja Kuang, Ja Wi, Ja Dai, Ja Ngai, and Eugene Fuller. 1977. Chru Vocabulary. Summer Institute of Linguistics.
- Karlgren, Bernhard. 1946. "Legends and Cults in Ancient China." Bulletin of the Museum of Far Eastern Antiquities. 18:199-365.
- _____, tr. 1950a. The Book of Odes. Museum of Far Eastern Antiquities.
- _____, tr. 1950b. The Book of Documents. Museum of Far Eastern Antiquities.
- _____. 1957. Grammata Serica Recensa. Museum of Far Eastern Antiquities.
- _____. 1964. Glosses on the Book of Odes. Museum of Far Eastern Antiquities.
- _____. 1970. Glosses on the Book of Documents. Museum of Far Eastern Antiquities.
- Knechtges, David R., tr. 1987. Wen xuan, or Selections of Refined Literature, Vol. 2. Princeton University Press.
- Kokuritsu Kokugo Kenkyūjo 国立国語研究所. 1969. Okinawago jiten 沖縄語辞典. Okurashō.
- Kominami Ichirō 小南一郎. 1985. "Daichi no shinwa--Kon U densetsu genshi 大地の神話一縣・禹伝説原始." Koshi Shun.jū 古史春秋 2:2-22.
- Kroll, Paul W. 1989. "[Review of] Le Symbolisme du dragon dans la Chine antique by Jean-Pierre Diény." Journal of the American Oriental Society 109.2:325-30.
- Kuribayashi Hitoshi 栗林均 1989. "Comparative Basic Vocabularies for Mongolian (Chakhar), Dagur, Shera-

- Yogur, Monguor, Bao-an and Dungshang." Studies of Linguistic and Cultural Contacts 1:153-383.
- Kvoeu-Hor and Timothy Friberg. 1978. Western Cham Vocabulary. Summer Institute of Linguistics.
- Laufer, Berthold. 1915. The Diamond, a Study in Chinese and Hellenistic Folk-lore. Field Museum Of Natural History, No. 184.
 - _____. 1916. "Si-Hia Language." T'oung Pao 1-128.
- Le Blanc, Charles, tr. 1985. Huai-nan tzu. Hong Kong University Press.
- Legge, James, tr. 1865. The Shu Ching. Oxford University Press.
- _____, tr. 1871. The She King, or The Book of Poetry. Oxford University Press.
- _____, tr. 1872. The Ch'un Ts'eu with the Tso Chuan. Oxford University Press.
- _____, tr. 1885. The Li Ki. 2 vols. Oxford University Press. Motilal Banassidass reprint 1964.
- _____, tr. 1895. The Works of Mencius. Oxford University Press.
- Li Fang-kuei. 1945. "Some Old Chinese Loan Words in the Tai Languages." Harvard Journal of Asiatic Studies 8:333-42.
- Li Lincan 李霖燦, ed. 1978. Long zai gugong 龍在故宮. National Palace Museum 國立故宮博物院.
- Li Xiaoding 李孝定、1965. Jiagu wenzi jishi 甲骨文字集釋, 8 vols. Zhongyang yanjiuyuan lishi yuyan yanjiusuo 50 中央研究院歷史言語研究所刊之五十.
- Li Yan 李延. 1963. "Long chongbai de qiyuan 龍崇拝的起源."
 Xueshu yanjiu 學術研究 (雲南) 9.
- Liao, W.K., tr. 1939. The Complete Works of Han Fei Tzŭ.
 Arthur Probsthain.
- Liétard, A. 1909. "Notes sur le dialectes Lo-lo." Bulletin de l'école française de l'extrême-orient 9:549-72.
- Littleton, C. Scott. 1981. "Susa-nö-wo versus Ya-mata nö woröti: An Indo-European Theme in Japanese Mythology."

 History of Religions 20:269-80.
- Liu Wu-chi 柳無忌. 1966. An Introduction to Chinese Literature. Indiana University Press.
- Loewe, Michael. 1978. "Man and Beast: The Hybrid in Early Chinese Art and Literature." Numen 25.2:97-117.
- Loewenstein, John. 1961. "Rainbow and Serpent." Anthropos 56:31-40.
- Mänchen-Helfen, Otto. 1924. "The Later Books of the Shan-hai-king." Asia Major 1:550-86.

- Maspero, Henri. 1924. "Légendes mythologiques dans le Chou King." Journal Asiatique 204:1-100.
- Matisoff, James A. 1985. "God and the Sino-Tibetan Copula with some good news concerning Selected Tibeto-Burman Rhymes." Journal of Asian and African Studies 29:1-81.
- Mei Yi-Pao, tr. 1929. The Ethical and Political Works of Motse. Arthur Probsthain.
- Miller, Roy Andrew. 1971. Japanese and the Other Altaic Languages. University of Chicago Press.
- _____1987. "[Review of] Toppakō: Tōnan Ajia no gengo kara Nihongo e... By Paul K. Benedict. Translated by Nishi Yoshio." Computational Analyses of Asian and African Languages 25.
- Morgan, Evan, tr. n.d., 1934?. Tao, the Great Luminant. Kelly and Walsh.
- Mori Yutaka 森豊. 1976. Ryū 龍 (シルクロード史考察 11). Rokkō Shupan.
- Muller, F.W.K. 1893. "Mythe der Kei-Insulaner und Verwandtes." Zeitschrift für Ethnologie 25:533-77.
- Na Zhiliang 那志良. 1978. "Yuqishangde long 玉器上的龍." In Li 1978:53-66.
- Nakano Miyoko 中野美代子, tr. [Huxley 1979]. 1982. Ryū to Doragon 龍とドラゴン. Heibonsha.
- Norman, Jerry. 1976. "The Austroasiatics in Ancient South China: Some Lexical Evidence." *Monumenta Serica* 32:274-301.
- Duodenary Cycle." Linguistics of the Sino-Tibetan Area: the States of the Art. Graham Thurgood, James A. Matisoff, David Bradley, eds. Pacific Linguistics, 85-9.
- Norman, Jerry and Mei Tsu-lin. 1970. "The Austroasiatics in Ancient South China: Some Lexical Evidence." Presented at the Third Sino-Tibetan Conference, Cornell.
- Obi Kōichi 小尾郊一, tr. 1974. Monzen 文選. Zenyaku Kanbun taikei 全訳漢文大系 2:138-59. Shueisha.
- Paper, Jordan. 1978. "The Meaning of the 'T'ao-T'ieh'."

 History of Religions 18.1:18-41.
- Pokora, Timoteus. 1985. "'Living Corpses' in Early Mediaeval China--Sources and Opinions." In Religion und Philosophie in Ostasien: Festschrift für Hans Steininger, Gert Naundorf, ed., 343-57. Verlag Dr. Johannes Konigshausen and Dr. Thomas Neumann.
- Przyluski, Jean. 1938. "Dragon chinois et naga indien."

 Monumenta Serica 3:602-610.

- Pulleyblank, E.G. 1979. "The Chinese Cyclical Signs as Phonograms." Journal of the American Oriental Society 99:24-38.
- Rawson, Jessica. 1980. Ancient China, Art and Archaeology. Harper & Row.
- Read, Bernard E. 1931. Chinese Materia Medica, Animal Drugs. Peking Natural History Bulletin 5.4:37-80, 6.1:1-102.
- _____. 1934. "Chinese Materia Medica VII; Dragons and Snakes." Peking Natural History Bulletin 8.4:279-362.
- Rideout, J.K., tr. 1965. "Proclamation to the Crocodile." In Anthology of Chinese Literature, Cyril Birch, ed., 253-5. Grove Press.
- Sagan, Carl. 1977. The Dragons of Eden, Speculations on the Evolution of Human Intelligence. Random House.
- Schafer, Edward H. 1962. "Notes on T'ang Culture." Monumenta Serica 21:194-221.
- _____. 1963. The Golden Peaches of Samarkand, a Study of T'ang Exotics. University of California Press.
- _____. 1973. The Divine Woman: Dragon Ladies and Rain Maidens in T'ang Literature. University of California Press.
- of Ts'ao T'ang. University of California Press.
- _____. 1989. "Fusang and Beyond; The Haunted Seas to Japan." Journal of the American Oriental Society 109.3:379-400.
- Schiffeler, John W. 1978. The Legendary Creatures of the Shan Hai Ching. Hwa Kang.
- _____. 1980. "Chinese Folk Medicine, a Study of the Shan-hai Ching." Asian Folklore Studies 39:41-83.
- Schindler, Bruno. 1923. "The Development of the Chinese Conceptions of Supreme Beings." Asia Major 1:298-351.
- Schuessler, Axel. 1987. A Dictionary of Early Zhou Chinese. University of Hawaii Press.
- Shima Kunio 島邦男. 1958. Inkyo bokuji kenkyū 殷墟卜辞研究. Hirosaki.
 - ____. 1971. Inkyo bokuji sôrui 殷虚卜辞綜類. Kumifuru.
- Shiratori Kiyoshi 白鳥清. 1934. "Ryū no keitai ni tsuite no kosatsu 龍の形態に就いての考察." Tōhō gakuhō 東方学報 21:105-134.
- Smith, F. Porter. 1871. Contributions Towards the Materia Medica and the Natural History of China. American Presbyterian Mission Press.
- Smith, G. Elliot. 1919. The Evolution of the Dragon. Longmans, Green, & Co.

- _____. 1920. "Dragons and Rain Gods." Bulletin of the John Rylands Library 5:317-80.
- Steele, John, tr. 1917. The I-li or Book of Etiquette and Ceremonial. Probsthain.
- Sun Jiaji 孫家驥. 1960. "Hongshui chuanshuo yu Gonggong 洪水傳説與共工." Taiwan fengwu 台湾風物 10.16-21.
- Sun Shoudao 孫守道 and Guo Daxu 郭大順. 1984. "Lun Liaohe liuyu de yuanshi wenming ji long de qiyuan 論遠河流域的原始文明及龍的起源." Wenwu 文物 6:11-20.
- Swinhoe, R. 1870. "Notes on Reptiles and Batracians Collected in Various Parts of China." Proceedings of the Zoological Society of London.
- Tan Danjiong 譚旦冏. 1976. "Feiyi he Longfengpei「肥遺」和「龍鳳配」." Dongwu daxue Zhongguo yishushi jikan 東呉大學中國藝術史集刊 6:1-31.
- Thomas, David. 1966 Chrau Vocabulary. Summer Institute of Linguistics.
- Thurgood, Graham, Matisoff, James A., and Bradley, David, eds. 1985. Linguistics of the Sino-Tibetan Area; the State of the Art. Pacific Linguistics Series C. No. 87.
- de Visser, M.W. 1911. "The Snake in Japanese Superstition."
 Mitteilungen des seminars für Orientalische Sprachen an
 der Königlichen Friederich-Wilhelms Universität zu
 Berlin 14:267-322.
- . 1913. The Dragon in China and Japan. Johannes Müller.
- Waley, Arthur, tr. 1937a. The Book of Songs. George Allen & Unwin. Grove reprint 1960.
- _____. 1937b. The Book of Songs; Supplement Containing Textual Notes. George Allen & Unwin.
- Wallacker, Benjamin. 1962. The Huai-nan-tzu, Book Eleven: Behavior, Culture and the Cosmos. American Oriental Society.
- Wang Mingda 王明達. 1982. "Ye tan woguo shenhuazhong long xingxiang de chansheng 也談我國神話中龍形象的産生."
 Yunnan shaoshu minzu wenxue lunji 雲南少数民族文學論集
 1.
- Ware, James R., tr. 1966. Alchemy, Medicine & Religion in the China of A.D. 320: The Nei P'ien of Ko Hung (Paop'u-tzu). MIT Press.
- Watson, Burton, tr. 1965. "From 'The Shang-lin Park'." In Anthology of Chinese Literature, 142-53. Cyril Birch, ed. Grove Press.
- ______, tr. 1968. The Complete Works of Chuang Tzu. Columbia University Press.

- Wen Yiduo 聞一多. 1956. "Fu Xi kao 伏義考." In Shenhua yu shi 神話與詩, Wen Yiduo quanji 聞一多全集, 3-68. Guji.
- Werner, E.T.C. 1922. Myths and Legends of China. Graham Brash reprint 1984.
- Whincup, Greg. 1986. Rediscovering the I Ching. Doubleday.
- Wilhelm, Richard, tr. 1967. The I Ching or Book of Changes. Cary F. Baynes, tr. 3rd ed. Princeton University Press.
- Williams, Samuel W. 1838. "Notices of Natural History."

 Chinese Repository 7:250-5.
- Wu Chengshi 吳承仕. 1931. "Shuo longshou 説龍首." Guoxue congbian 國學叢編 1.3:1-2.
- Wu Dakun 呉大昆。1934. "Zhongguoren weishenme chongpai long 中國人為甚緊崇拝龍?" Yifeng 藝風 2.12:66-8.
- Wu Zhefu 呉哲夫. 1978. "Tushuzhongde long 圖書中的龍." In Li 1978:185-217.
- Xia Yuan 夏元瑜. 1977. "Longmen dachen 龍門大陳." Longnian tanlong wenji 龍年談龍文集. Taipei.
- Xu Zhibai 徐知白. 1940. "Tan long 譚龍." Zhonghe yuekan 中和月刊 1.2:61-7.
- Yan Yunxiang 閱雲翔. 1986. "Naxizu Hanzu long gushi de bijiao yanjiu 納西族漢族龍故事的比較研究." Minjian wenxue luntan 民間文學論壇 1:6-16.
- _____. 1987a. "Chunqiu Zhanguo shiqi de long 春秋戰國時期 的龍." Jiuzhou xuekan 九州學刊 3.3:131-38.
- _____. 1987b. "Lun Yindu Naga gushi dui Zhongguo Longwangnū gushi de yingxiang 論印度那伽故事對中國龍王女故事的影響。" Zhong-Yin wenxue guanxi yuanliu 中印文學関係源流。Wenyi.
- _____. 1987c. "Yindu de Naga yu Zhongguo de long 印度的那 伽與中國的龍。" Zhongguo bijiao wenxue 中國比較文學 4:46-58.
- _____. 1988。"Shilun long de yanjiu 試論龍的研究。" Jiuzhou xuekan 九州學刊 2:99-110。
- Yanagida Kunio 柳田国男、1963. Nishi wa dochira 西は何方、In Teihon Yanagida Kunio shū 定本柳田国男集 19:213-98. Kobunsha.
- Y-Chang Niê Siêng. 1979. Rade Vocabulary. Summer Institute of Linguistics.
- Yoshino Hiroko 吉野裕子、1979. Hebi, Nihon no hebi shinkō 蛇 日本の蛇信仰。Hōsei Daigaku Shuppankyoku.
- Yuan Dexing 哀德星. 1978. "Shiqian zhi Shangzhou zaoxing yishuzhongde long 史前至商周造型藝術中的龍." In Li 1978:27-52.
- Yuan Ke 袁珂, 1960. Zhongguo Gudai Shenhua 中国古代神話, Zhonghua.

- Zhang Guangyuan 張光遠. 1978. "Cong Shangzhou wenzi tan long 從商周文字談館。" In Li 1978:1-26. Zhang Mengwen 張孟聞。 1979. "Shi tuo e 积N鹧." Bowu zazhi
- 博物雜誌 1:6-11.
- Zhou Benxiong 周本雄. 1982. "Shandong Yanzhou Wangyin xinshiqi shidai yizhizhongde Yangzi'e yihai 山東充州王 因新石器時代遺址中的揚子鰐遺骸。" Kaogu xuebao 考古学報 2:251-60.

APPENDIX OF NON-JIS CHARACTERS

INDEX OF DRACONIC NAMES

```
bā < *pa 巴 'giant snake' $4.3
bāshé < *påd'ja 巴蛇 'giant snake' $4.3
banlong < * pwanljung 班龍 'dappled dragon' $3.3
bangyú < *b'ungngio H魚 'flying-dragon' $3.4
bēnshé < *pwend'ia 奔蛇 'flying snake' $3.1
bóyú < *b'akngjo 薄魚 'drought demon; dragon?' $2.9
chángshé < *djangd'ja 長蛇 'long snake' §4.2
chén < *djen 辰 'cyclical 5; dragon' $8.1
chén < *djen 辰 ~ 晨 'dragon star' $8.1
chī < *xlia ~ *xliĕg !! 'a dragon; mountain demon' $7.1
chīmei < *xljēgmjər 魑魅 'mountain demon; a dragon' §7.1
chuānshān ji a 穿山甲 'gavial' $7.3
dashé < *d'add'ja 大蛇 'giant snake' §4.2
didong < *tiadtung O/EZ 'rainbow' $2.2
dîlóng < *d'ialjung 地龍 'earth dragon' $3.2
dilou < *d'iuglu 地蝗 'man-eating demon; wug' $7.1
diào 弔 'whale'? $8.6 [cf. jidiào]
diāoshé < *tiogd'jat Γ Ж 'dragon; cicada' $5.4
douniu < *tungjug 斗牛 'constellations; a dragon' $8.2
dongfu < *tungb'iwo 董父 'dragon tamer' $8.9
e < *ngak ് 'crocodile' 86.3
fahóng < *pjwătg'ung 發洪 'flood dragon' 86.1
fei < *piwər ∰ 'drought demon' $2.5
feilián < *pjwərgljam 蜚/飛廉 'wind god' 🛭 5.5
fēifēi < *pjwərpjwər 飛飛 'flying-dragon' $3.5
fēilóng < *pjwərljung 飛龍 'flying-dragon' $3.5
feishé < *pjwərd'ja 飛蛇 'flying snake' $3.6
féiyi < *b'iwərgiwEd 肥遺 'rain-dragon' $2.5
feiyú < *pjwərngjo 飛魚 'flying fish' $3.7
fenglóng < *p'jônggljông 豊隆 'thunder god' &.6
fuhuĭ < *p'jokXjwər 蝮Φ 'boa; viper' §4.5
fushé < *p'jokd'ja 蝮蛇 'viper' $4.5
gonggong < *g'jungkung 共工 'rain-dragon; a minister' $8.9
gonggu < *g'jungko 共鼓 'inventor of ships' 88.9
goulóng < *kjuljung 句龍 'dragon minister' 第.9
gōushé < *kud'ja 鉤蛇 'hook snake' \\ 4.7
gŭ < *ko 鼓 'drum dragon' §7.2
guzao < *kodz'og 鼓造 'anti-war spirit' §7.2
gun < *kwən 鯀 'a legendary ruler' 第.9
héyǔ < *g'əpziu 合 o 'flood dragon?' §4.1
hēilóng < *Xməkljung 黒龍 'black rain-dragon' $2.3
hēilún < *Xməkljwən 黒 A 'black rain-dragon' S2.3
```

```
hóng < *g'ung ~ jiàng < *kung 虹 '(Yang) rainbow' \S.2.2
huashé < * Xwad'ja 化蛇 'flood dragon' & .8
huáyú < *g'wctngjo η魚 'winged snake' $2.7
huànlóng < *g'wanljung 蒙龍 'dragon rearer' $8.9
huāntóu < *Xwand'u 謹頭 'a dragon-like creature' $8.9
huī < *Xjwər 暉 ~ 撣 'one-legged drum dragon' §7.6 [cf.kui]
huï < *Xiwer Φ 'python; viper' §4.5
huishé < *Xjwərd'ja Φ蛇 'python; viper' §4.5
hūjiāo < *Xokog 虎蛟 'tiger dragon' 86.1
jidiao 吉弔 'whale' $8.6
jīméng < *kiedmung 計數 'dragon spirit' $8.8
jiāo < *kog 鮫 'shark; mermaid' 86.1
jiāo < *kog 蛟 'river dragon; crocodile' 86.1
jiāocù < *kogts'ak 蛟錯 'shark; dragon?' 86.1
jiāolóng < *kogljung 蛟龍 'scaled? dragon' 86.1
jiǎolóng < *kukljung 角龍 'horned dragon' $8.3
jing < *g'ljang 鯨 'whale' $8.6
jīngni < *g'ljangngieg 鰊鯢 'whales; giant fish' $8.6
jīngyú < *g'ljangngjo 鯨魚 'whale' $8.6
juélong < *kiwetliung E v 'sea dragon' $5.3
kān < *k'əm € 'young dragon; shrine' §2.1
kui < *g'jwər @ 'one-legged drum dragon' §7.6 [cf. huī]
kuixū < *g'jwərXjo @ Ю 'mountain demons' §7.6
léigōng < *lwərkung 富公 'thunder god' §2.6
léishī < * lwərsjər 雷師 'thunder god' S2.6
léishén < *lwərd'jĕn 雷神 'thunder god' \2.6
lì < *li≥d/r \ 'rain-dragon; giant frog' \2.3 [cf. lún]
lingli < *ljengljeg x 鲤 'pangolin' \$7.3
lingshe < *liengd'ja 靈蛇 'divine snake' \$4.3
lingyú < *ljəngngjo χ/陵魚 'merman, mermaid' §7.3
liúléi < ljôgljwər 劉晃 'dragon tamer' 第.9
lóng < *ljung 龍 '(rain) dragon' $2.1
lóngli < *liungliəg 龍鱏 'dragon-carp' $3.4
lóngquè < *ljungtsjok 龍雀 'flying dragon' $3.5
lóngma < *ljungma 龍馬 'dragon horse' $8.4
lóngwáng 龍王 'dragon king; Naga' §4.7
lóngyú < *ljungngjo 龍魚 'flying fish' $3.4
lóngzhi < *ljungd'jět ν 姪 'a dragon' $5.1 [cf. next]
lóngzhi < *ljungtjět ν 蛭 'a dragon' $5.1
lu < *liok \gamma 'land fish' $7.4
 lún < *liwen B 'rain-dragon; giant frog' $2.3 [cf. li]
 luŏyú < *lwângjo 月魚 'flood dragon?' $2.7
 mang < *mwang 蟒 'boa; python' §4.5
 mangshé < *mwangd'ia 蟒蛇 'boa; python' §4.5
 máodú < *mogd'uk 毛犢 'water buffalo?; dragon' & 4
```

měirén < *mjernjěn 美人 'rainbow' \$2.2 mingshé < *mjěngd'ja 鳴蛇 'drought dragon' &2.8 nagā 那伽 ~ lóng 龍 'Naga' \$4.7 ni < *ngieg 說 'giant salamander; (female) whale' \$8.6 niè < *ngiat ~ ni < *ngieg 霓 '(Yin) rainbow' \2.2 nuòlóng < *nâkljung 諾龍 'south sea dragon' \$6.5 pángǔ < *b'wanko 盤古 'creator of the universe' \$8.5 pánlóng < *b'wânljung 蟠龍 'coiled dragon' \$3.2 qièèr < *k'iatńier 智猷 'rainbow' &2.2 [cf. xīyï] qiú < *g'jŏg ~ jiú < *kjŏg δ 'a dragon' \$8.2 qiúlóng < *g'jogljung δ 龍 'horned? dragon' \$8.2 rán < * ήjam ψ 'giant snake' §4.4 ránshé < *njamd'ja ψ/髯蛇 'giant snake; python' §4.4 rányi < *ńjamgjwcd 冉遺 'a dragon' §4.4 rényú < *ńjenngjo 人魚 'merman, mermaid' §7.3 rushōu < *ńjukśjôg 蓐收 'dragon spirit' \$8.7 shānhuī < *sănXjwər山У 'a mountain demon' §7.5 shānxiāo < *sansiog 山 3 'one-legged imp' §7.5 shéshén < *d'jad'jen 蛇神 'snake god' §4.6 shèn < *djen 蚕 'sea-dragon; a shellfish' \$8.1 shénhuī < *d'jĕnXjwər 神 // 'one-legged demon' \$7.5 shénlóng < *d'jenljung 神龍 'thunder dragon' \$2.6 shénlún < *d'jěnliwen 神 A divine rain-dragon' \$2.3 shénshé < *d'jěnd'ja 神蛇 'divine snake' §4.6 shilinglī 石 x 鲤 'gavial' §7.3 shuairán < *sliwəthian 率然 'two-headed snake' \$4.7 shuihui < śjwərXjwər水Ф 'water snake dragon' \$8.3 shuijiāo < *śiwərkŏg 水蛟 'water dragon' 86.1 suānyú < *swânzio 酸與 'winged snake' \$3.8 tāotiè < *t'ogt'iət 饕餮 'glutton; dragon? monster' 55.4 tè < *d'ok A 'locust' \$3.1 [cf. next] téng < *d'eng A 'flying-dragon' \$3.1 téngshé < *d'engd'ia 螣蛇 'flying-dragon' S.1 tianlóng < *t'ienljung 天龍 'heavenly dragon' \$3.2 tiáoyóng < *d'iôgdjung ε ζ 'drought dragon' \$2.7 tulong < *t'oliung 土龍 'alligator; rain-dragon' \$6.2 tulou < *t'oglu 土螻 'man-eating demon' \\$7.1 tuán < *d'wan π 'drought dragon' \$2.9 tuó < *d'ar N 'alligator' \$6.2 tuólóng < *d'arljung N龍 'alligator' \$6.2 tuówéi < *d'argjwer α園 'water spirit' \$6.2 walong < * wagliung # v 'a demon' \$5.2 wanghui < *giwangXiwer 王 中 'python; boa' \$4.5 wangliang < * miwangliang 魍魎 'aquatic demon' \$7.1 wángshé < *giwangd'ia 王蛇 'boa; python' \$4.5

weiyú < *gjwcdngjo θ魚 'winged fish' \$2.7 wényáo < *miwendiog 文 κ 'flying fish' \$3.7 xīyï < *siek'iər 析翳 'rainbow' &2.2 [cf. gièèr] xiāngliǔ < *siangliôg 相柳 'nine-headed dragon' \$8.9 [or] xiāngyáo < *sjangdjog 相 i 'nine-headed dragon' \$8.9 xiónghuĭ < *gjungXjwər 雄Ф 'nine-headed dragon' §4.5 xiūshé 〈 *siôgd'ia 惭蛇 'long/speckled snake' \$4.1 xuánshé < *g'iwend'ja 玄蛇 'giant snake' §4.4 yayu < * 'atziu & o 'dragon-like beast' \$4.1 yánlóng 鹽龍 'salt dragon; monitor lizard?' 86.5 yinglong < * 'iengliung 既龍 'winged rain-dragon' &2.4 yóngyóng < *djungdjung III II 'drought dragon?' \$2.7 yŭ < *gjwo 禹 'legendary ruler' \$8.9 yùlóng < *ngioliung 御龍 'dragon ruler' \$8.9 yúniú < *ngiongiug 魚牛 'land fish' \$7.4 yúyú < *ngjungju 禺禺 'mythical fish' §7.4 yuánshé < *ngjwănd'ja 元蛇 'giant snake' \$4.4 yúnlóng < *gjwenljung 雲龍 'cloud dragon' \$2.1 zhilóng 蛭 v 'a dragon' \$5.1 [cf. lóngzhi] zhūpólóng < *tjob'waljung 豬婆龍 'gavial' 86.4 zhúlóng < *tiukljung 燭龍 'torch dragon' \$8.5 zhúyīn < *tiuk 'iem 煽降 'torch dragon' \$8.5 zhuōlóng < *t'okljung 卓龍 'torch dragon' \$8.5

TABLE OF CONTENTS

- 1 INTRODUCTION
 - 1.1 Scope
 - 1.2 Sources
 - 1.3 Linguistic Aspects
- 2 RAIN-DRAGONS
 - 2.1 Long 龍
 - 2.2 Hong 虹
 - 2.3 Lun B
 - 2.4 Yinglong 應龍
 - 2.5 Feiyi 肥遺
 - 2.6 Leishen 雷神
 - 2.7 Tiaoyong ε ζ
 - 2.8 Mingshe 鳴蛇
 - 2.9 Tuan π
- 3 FLYING-DRAGONS
 - 3.1 Teng A
 - 3.2 Panlong 蟠龍
 - 3.3 Banlong 班龍
 - 3.4 Longyu 龍魚
 - 3.5 Feilong 飛龍
 - 3.6 Feishe 飛蛇
 - 3.7 Feiyu 飛魚
 - 3.8 Suanyu 酸與
- 4 SNAKE-DRAGONS
 - 4.1 Xiushe 倚蛇
 - 4.2 Changshe 長蛇
 - 4.3 Ba 巴
 - 4.4 Ran 10
 - 4.5 Mang 键
 - 4.6 Shenshe 神蛇
 - 4.7 Naga 那伽
- 5 WUG-DRAGONS
- 5.1 Longzhi ν 蛭
 - 5.2 Walong 鮭 v
 - 5.3 Juelong $\Xi \nu$
 - 5.4 Diaoshe ГЖ

6 CROCODILE-DRAGONS

- 6.1 Jiao 蛟
- 6.2 Tuo N
- 6.3 E 鰐
- 6.4 Zhupolong 猪婆龍
- 6.5 Yanlong 塩龍
- 7 HILL-DRAGONS
 - 7.1 Chi 鎮
 - 7.2 Gu 鼓
 - 7.3 Lingli χ鲤
 - 7.4 Lu Y
 - 7.5 Shanxiao 山 3
 - 7.6 Kui ⊖
- 8 MISCELLANEOUS DRAGONS
 - 8.1 Chen 辰
 - 8.2 Qiu &
 - 8.3 Jiaolong 角龍
 - 8.4 Longma 龍馬
 - 8.5 Zhuyin 燭陰
 - 8.6 Jidiao 吉弔
 - 8.7 Rushou 蓐收
 - 8.8 Jimeng 計畫
 - 8.9 Dragon People
- 9 SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS
 - 9.1 Summary
 - 9.2 Draconym Borrowings
 - 9.3 Examples

REFERENCES

APPENDIX

INDEX