

PROTO-MUNDA CULTURAL VOCABULARY: EVIDENCE  
FOR EARLY AGRICULTURE

Arlene R. K. Zide

Norman H. Zide

Munda Languages Project

University of Chicago

In a recent paper (Zide and Zide 1972)<sup>1</sup> we attempted to identify various possible Proto-Munda morphemes with the names of specific food-plants, perhaps domesticated, and we concluded on the basis of a small number of persuasive identifications that the Proto-Mundas were probably familiar with the cultivation of rice, a few millets and several legumes. Since our corpus was limited for a number of reasons, there is no reason to think that the plants identified represent more than a small sample of, probably, the more important cultural items the Proto-Munda-speaking people knew. One general conclusion which emerged from our study is that the Proto-Mundas were more agriculturally advanced than archeologists have thought they were.

The 'typical' Munda culture, in the view of ethnographers and archeologists, was the primitive hunting and gathering culture of people like the present-day Juang or Birhor; the more advanced cultures (e.g. the Sora, Mundari or Santali) were presumed to have gotten their technology from more advanced neighbors, e.g. the Indo-Aryans. If we judge by the linguistic evidence, the reverse seems to have been the case; the primitive Juang and Birhor are

obably atypical, being examples of reversion from a more complex culture to a simpler one.<sup>2</sup>

Our tentative linguistics-derived conclusions are not inconsistent with the conclusions of various archeological studies of the origins of certain food plants, notably of rice in Southeast Asia. However, we do not claim that linguistics-derived evidence of this sort can in any way prove or disprove theories about, e.g. the origin, domestication, or utilization of cultural products.

On the other hand, the reconstruction of plant names permits access to aspects of Proto-Munda prehistory which have not been accessible so far to archeologists, physical anthropologists, and what historical ethnologists there have been. Such reconstructions have not been made because of the limited nature of possible archeological remains, due, for example, to climatic conditions, and the comparative scarcity of archeological excavations in many of the relevant areas. Further, there is a sharp break in cultural continuity between the prehistoric cultures and present-day cultures that might be related to them,<sup>3</sup> at least as regards nonperishable remains. Aside from an extremely limited number of agricultural implements, the reconstruction of Proto-Munda tool names is less rewarding than that of food-plant names, since the Munda languages characteristically derive such forms via instrument nominalizations from verbs, and these verbs commonly originally referred to making particular movements rather than to effecting particular results: for example, two verbs meaning 'to winnow' \*guXm<sup>4</sup> and \*er are reconstructible, but they apparently originally meant 'to move something up and down' and 'to move something round

and round', respectively.<sup>5</sup>

We therefore limit ourselves, in this short paper, to the reconstruction of certain food-plant names, domesticable animals, and just those agricultural or household implements which can be shown to be used specifically for cultivation.

Those plant names which are reconstructible with some assurance for Proto-Munda are the following:

FRUITS: 'wild fig', \*lVwa, probably *Ficus glomerata*; 'mango', \*uXlɪ, \*uXlɪa (*Mangifera Indica*) and another word for 'mango', perhaps meaning 'green or unripe mango', \*kaj'-er, \*kag'-er; 'jamun or Indian blackberry', NM \*koXda, SM \*ko?-deX;<sup>6</sup> 'turmeric', \*R-saŋ (sasaŋ, saŋsaŋ, sɪsɪa, in various languages) *Curcuma longa*; 'tamarind', \*R-tɪXŋ and, perhaps, \*(ro)joXd'.

The wild date, or dates (*Phoenix sylvestris*, and presumably *Phoenix acaulis*) are less neat: we can reconstruct words for at least two varieties, \*Vŋ-deñ and \*raloXg', but it is not clear which word refers to which variety in the proto-language.

We reconstruct several words for 'bamboo', a couple of which seem to mean specifically 'bamboo shoots' (and which have cognates elsewhere in Austrorasiatic). The three forms for 'bamboo shoot' are \*kV(-)led'/-led', \*ta (in \*ta-boŋ and \*kaXl-ta), and \*boŋ. The three words for 'bamboo' are \*maXd', \*kaXl, and something like \*kV(-)reXŋ or \*kV(-)ruXŋ. (see Tables 1, 1a, 1b)

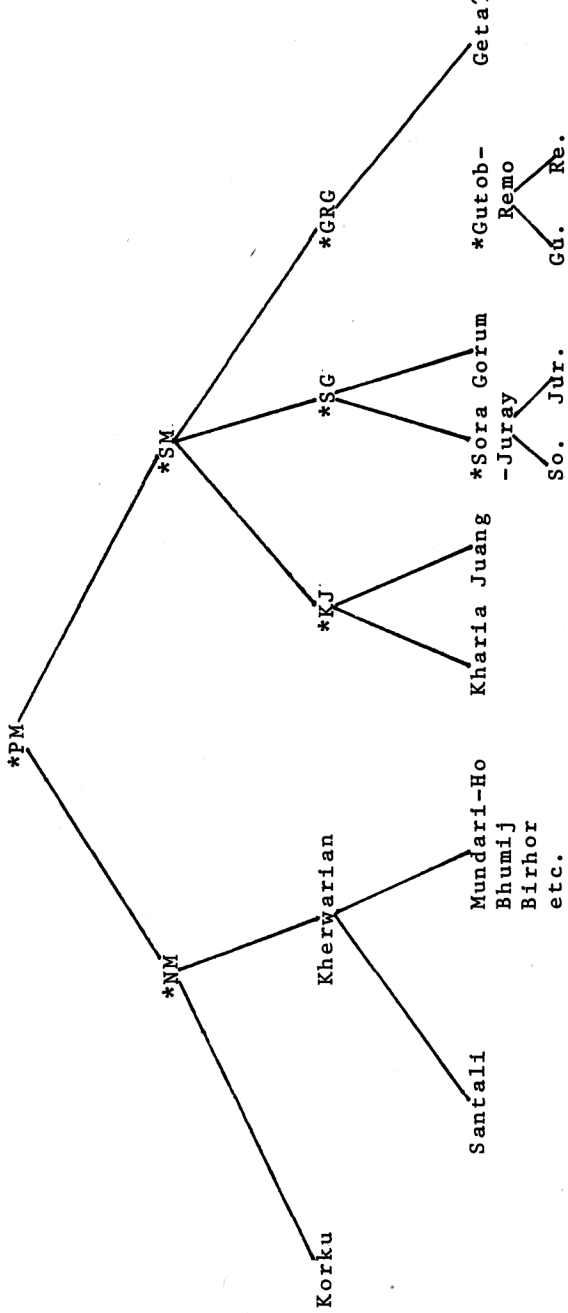


Chart 1

ENGLISH	TAMARIND	TURMERIC	MANGO	GREEN MANGO	MANGO STONE
Sora	tittin	sansan	ura/-ul		taŋkuŋ*
Gorum	tintin	sansan	ura?/ura	aj-er	tāku 'gruel' sɪrab
Gta?	ttin/bcwe?	sisa	ul	he?wir/hia?wir	nhirtur 'gruel'
Remo		sasan		ayer/ager	
Gutob	soso	sasan	ili	a?er	
Kharia	tenton/rojođ 'sour'	sansan		k(a)yar 'mango'	
Juang	tintiŋi/ajođ 'sour'	sansan	ole/ale	kayer	ukulum
Mundari	Jojo	sasan	ul		
Santali	Jojo (also Asuri)	sasan	ul		
Ho	Jojo		ul		
Korku	soso/ciica	sasan	(ambe) ul		
Korwa			uka		
Asuri			ul		

\*stone of any fruit

Table 1

ENGLISH	BAMBOO SHOOT	BAMBOO	(-joint)	JAMUN (Blackberry)
Sora	tabeŋ	urʔŋ/-ur	madmad	
Gorum	taboŋ	uruŋ	mad	ku=da
Gtaʔ	hliʔ	gaŋ-hǎ		koʔde [koʔre]
Remo	leʔ	aʔa		kuʔre
Gutob	ileʔ	aʔl		
Kharia	koledʔ/(karil)	konɔŋ/(koʔden)		kuɔa
Juang	boʔɔj/boʔoʔ	aʔo/(aʔo)		
Mundari	helta/(karil)	madʔ		kuda/kuʔidʔ
Santali	helta	matʔ		kod
Ho	helta	madʔ		kuda
Korku	kelta/kilta	mhad/mad		
Turi	helta			
Nihali	júɔ(o)			
Cf. MK:				
Pal	bəŋ	hriŋ		
Sre		kriŋ		
OMon	tɔaŋ			

Table 1a

kren 'Eugenia' (gen-eric)

mid M. kreen

ENGLISH	DATE-PALM: PHOENIX SYLVESTRIS	PHOENIX ACAULIS	FIG
Sora	sindi	onden	lua
Gorum	inden	inden/sindi	
Gta?	ndandia?	ralo?	(lwa?)
Remo	n-doynd-a/n-dain-da	laruk'/ngun-ra	
Gutob			luwa
Kharia	larog		
Juang	tajo	tajo	loa
Mundari	kita/kendad	kita/kendad	loa
Santali	kita		
Ho	kita		luwa
Korku			
Korwa	kit		
Asuri	kindad		
MK:			(OMon) lwi? (etc.)
			(Khm) lvie etc. <#lwaa?

Table 1b

GRAINS: Most important, however, as evidence of agriculture are the grain names which can be reconstructed for Proto-Munda. For rice, *Oryza sativa*, we get several reconstructible forms. 'Uncooked, unhusked rice' is presumably a bimorphemic form composed of \*ruŋ and \*kug', which seems to be prevalent in South Munda; although apparently replaced in North Munda, it has clear Austroasiatic cognates in Coŋ ruko, Lawa rəko?, Rumi la-kau, Khmu rəŋko? and so on.<sup>7</sup>

The Jeypore Tract in southern Orissa now is (and presumably has been for some time past) inhabited by a large number of different tribal groups, including some of the South Munda groups to which \*ruŋ(-)kub/g' is attributed. The tract is crucial to the understanding of the development of rice varieties in India, where a great number of wild and cultivated varieties of rice are found. It falls within the area starting in Orissa in India and extending into Burma and beyond, where it has been suggested rice varieties originally have been cultivated. It is also worth pointing out that in terms of the number and diversity of rice pests and the time judged necessary by entomologists to account for the development of such a profusion of them, the Jeypore Tract would qualify as a possible area of origin of proliferation, whereas Ahar or Lothal certainly would not.<sup>8</sup>

The North Munda form \*baba 'paddy' (also Kharisa, Juang bua) has reflexes in MK as well: Kasaba 'rice in the husk'; Khasi k'ba Semang ba?, etc. 'paddy'. It also seems not insignificant that although we do not get a single reconstructible morpheme for 'cooked rice', in most instances what we do have are derivatives of one sort or another from the



verb 'to eat'--i.e. 'food'. (see Table 2)

The other grain crops for which we get sets of cognate forms are the millets: for these we have no Austroasiatic material available for comparison, but would not be surprised if Austroasiatic cognates for one or more of the Munda millet names existed. Although we do not find any one proto-morpheme which we can trace throughout the Munda languages, we do get at least three lexically distinguished millets: *Setaria italica*, *Panicum (miliare)*, and another, less obviously identifiable, but with certain consistent characteristics.

The first, \*(h)oXy, clearly refers to *Setaria italica* (Foxtail or Italian millet, Hindi kãgni, Oṛiya kãgu), i.e. the reflexes of \*(h)oXy in the modern languages are invariably identified with '*Setaria*' (cf. Sora bur-oy; Remo wi-dar; Gta? ũ-hwe and Mundari oe). Early evidence for *Setaria italica* and *Panicum miliare* in India is totally lacking in the literature. Its history in Southeast Asia, and cognate forms, especially from Austroasiatic, would be illuminating. Solheim (1970) suggests there is no evidence so far to refute Ho's (1969) contention that the cultivation of *Setaria* and *Panicum* began in North China, but there is little aside from this and Chang's (1970) similar position in the way of evidence, one way or the other.<sup>9</sup>

A second millet name seems, in the same way, to refer to *Panicum miliare* (small millet, Hindi sãwã, Oṛiya suã). The Koraput Munda form, attested in three of the five languages, reconstructs to \*æ-rig'. The word appears to be cognate with Kherwarian \*iṛi, which according to Hoffmann (1930-38)

ENGLISH	RICE (raw, husked)	PADDY (unhusked)	RICE HUSK	SEED RICE	SEED	EAR OF PADDY
Sora	roŋko	sero; kondem	kɪnam	jeb-mol	abay	gele
Gorum	rũ(ŋ)k (-ajan)	kundem (-ar)	bunol-anab ab-	jeb-mol		gall; keŋ
Gta?	rko? /-ro	condia?; kia; ja;		cmu		gll
Remo	ruŋku /ŋkuk'	keron /-ker	anab	sumu-ker; gile-ker	sumu	gile-ker
Gutob	rukug	keron /-ker	anab /ab-	sunmol		gile
Kharia	rumkub	baʔa /bag	kunɔdag kunɔa			gole (also)
Juang	ruŋkub	bua		ejan	ejan	
Mundari	(cauli)	baba (-sar<Rm.ʂ) in tlla-sar	ruruŋ- (v.) lupug	(baba)-jan	jan	gele
Santali	here; (ruruŋ- 'to husk')	(huɾhu, hoɾo 'paddy plant')	here; lupug ruruŋ- (v.)			gele

Sramamurti (1938)

Table 2

ENGLISH	RICE (raw, husked)	PADDY (unhusked)	RICE HUSK	SEED RICE	EAR OF PADDY
Ho	(ruuŋ- 'to husk')		ruuŋ (n. and v.)		gele
Korku	(rum- 'to husk')	baba	kere rum- (v.)	baba	gele
Asuri, Turi		(huŋu 'paddy plant')			(Kqirwa gele);
Birhor		(huŋu 'paddy plant')			(Nihali gele)
MK:	Pal reko etc. *rkew	OMon sro?		GRG *cu(ŋ)-moXI	Riaŋ-Liaŋ *semaI Prade siŋe

Table 2 continued

ENGLISH	COOKED RICE, COOKED PADDY IN HUSK	COOKED GRAIN, PORRIDGE	LIQUID GRUEL, RICE BROTH	WATER FROM COOKED RICE SCUM
Sora	darej; **genaga; baba (children's word)	kuɾu /-kul jaŋ ('EZeusiŋe porridge')	tuŋ-da-kul (Rm.) e-da-roŋ ('broth')	
Gorum	goHsaŋ/-jaŋ; gaga? gag'	lai; -saŋ sima 'fermen- ted rice'	tāk; sita-tāk; simba; simba-tāk	gara?
Gta?	bole; -sia 'cooked rice; cooked grain'	-sia nturɪa?/-tur (<n-tur-ɟia?) 'millet gruel'		
Remo	kerɔŋ-jaŋ; kiyaŋ	-jaŋ /-yaŋ ntra 'millet gruel'	ŋkuk'-ra? 'broth' -soŋ 'rice liquid'	sinirak 'water from boiled rice <si-da? 'to pour of water from cooked gra
Gutob	lai	ida? 'millet gruel'	ginen-soŋ 'broth'	
Kharɪa	peʔe /peg		mandag 'rice broth'	
Juang	tɔŋɔ		dagtɔŋɔ 'rice broth'	
Mundari	jagu		tendaa; mandi	

LIQUID GRUEL,  
RICE BROTH

COOKED RICE,  
ENGLISH COOKED PADDY IN HUSK

Santali jagu

daka

Ho

daka

Korku jom 'food, i.e. cooked  
grain, normally rice'

da

(These forms are possibly

interpretable in terms of PM \*ker 'paddy ear'; \*saŋ 'liquid gruel'; \*yaŋ/jaŋ 'cooked grain' ('cooked rice in husk')

\*goH 'cooked rice'; \*tonV 'broth'; \*d/rag' 'liquid from grain'

\*runkug' 'husked raw rice'; \*(R)-ba(?) 'unhusked raw rice';  
\*saXro 'kind of paddy'

\*gVle 'ear of grain, paddy'; \*Vjaŋ/-jaŋ 'grain seed; rice  
in husk'

\*<Vn>ab' 'to husk', husk' \*g<Vn>a?, j(<Vn>)om 'eat', 'food'  
hence 'staple grain';

\*C/s+(N)-moxl 'seed rice'.)

ENGLISH	BROKEN RICE	PESTLE	HUSKING HOLE	PRESSED RICE, POUNDED RICE	WET, LOW (TERRACE) PADDY FIELD
Sora		ɔnrɨj	onɛl	taŋlad	
Gorum	god/godna	ln(d)ri	aʔal	taŋlad - v. 'to press out water from something'	li(y)oŋ
Gtaʔ		toŋkæ	saboʔ/-sa	tarlad 'a flat grilled cake'	lejo
Remo	turɔl	tɨŋeʔ	sabu/gurlu	torla/-tar 'a flat cake'	leuŋ
Gutob					lioŋ
Kharia		ẽ(n)ri/eŋdi	sol	ompeŋ	(?) lain 'canal sur- plying water to field'
Juang			esɔd	tuŋlad	
Mundari	kudi/khudi		sɛɛl	taben; lad 'a flat grilled cake e.g. of beaten rice'	loeoŋ

PRESSED RICE,  
POUNDED RICE

(taben)

(taben)

PESTLE

BROKEN RICE

ENGLISH

Santali khode/k(h)udi

Ho kudi

Korku

MK

NM \*toko/tuki

PMK \*nrey?

Mon r|?

Khm ɔŋrè

ENGLISH	ELEUSINE CORACANA AND/OR INDICA (ragi)	SETARIA (kangu)	PANICUM (suā)	PHASEOLUS m. (biri)	VIGNA s. (jhukung)
Sora	sldtri/-sld; gamad<Rm.)	bur-oy	ganga/sa?a sa?a-roŋ 'husked'	munu<Tel.	kenrom
Gorum	deray=siday/samel		arig	goŋo/rogo	gaŋ
Gta?	dtra/-dir	ūhūē	ūhūā? (but * -ræg)	romia?/ro?mia /-ro?	gbe/(-gla) / *ga?ŋ 'aiha
Remo	sa?me=sil?me/-sa?m/ (sld-) /-dar 'grain'	ui-dar	rig/-ri	rumak'	gibe-gaŋ
Gutob	sa?mel	kagū (L.)	irig	rumag	ga?ŋ ?Vigna
Kharifa	kuda; le?o (cooked)			rambara	
Juang	(kudu 'kind of gram')			rantlja	akogaŋ 'mille
Mundari	koḏe	oe	iri	rābja	rābja
Santali	koḏe		iri	ram(b)ra ( 'urad' )	
Ho	koḏe/koden			ramba	
Korku	koda				
Bhumij	koḏe				

Table 3



designates a wild variety of *Panicum* (now reclassified as *Echinochloa*), *Panicum crus-galli*.

We also get forms which are presumably cognate in Kherwarian, Kharia-Juang, and Koraput Munda for (in different languages) sorghum (*Andropogon sorghum* var. *roxburghii*, similar to Hindi *juwār*), bulrush millet (*bājra*, i.e. *Pennisetum typhoides*), and elsewhere maize or other large cereal grain-bearing plants. These various meanings point to a core meaning 'a tall plant with leaves characteristic of maize, *bājra*, and sorghum, with millet or millet-like grains.' The tentative PM reconstruction is \*gaŋ(-)gay. A more specific reconstruction cannot be made.

*Eleusine coracana* (Hindi *ragi*) does not seem to have one reconstructible form for the whole family, but it is now used widely and has various names, not identifiable as loans, in both NM and SM. In Koraput Munda one set of forms leads to the reconstruction of KM \*deray which probably referred to the staple grain (excluding rice?), its meaning perhaps changing with shifts in the predominant grain in use. There are no obvious cognates for \*deray outside Koraput Munda, although conceivably Mundari *ḍoṛe*, *ḍoṛom* may be related.

In NM and Kharia *ragi* has forms like *kode*, *kode*, *kuḍa* but the NM and SM forms cannot be related. Further, the SM form seems rather to be derived from a term referring to something more general than *Eleusine*. Meanings range from 'cooked rice, cooked grain, gruel', to 'grain in general, hill millet' (*Eleusine indica*, *Eleusine coracana* etc.) and specifically *ragi* (*Eleusine coracana*). (See Table 3)

ENGLISH DOLICHOS RED GRAM  
 (kulthi, 'horsegram') LARGE MILLET:  
 variously 'sorghum, bajra, maize'  
 Sora ɔɾa'j/səremoŋ gəŋga/kɔɾɔ'j 'large millet'  
 seremoŋ kembur/=buj 'sorghum'  
 gongo (children's  
 lang.<Rm

Gorum gogo (Phas.?): gəŋ  
 'biri' (Vigna)  
 Gta? hɔlæ? ggla?~jo 'sorghum'<\*R-gag

Remo gaʔo 'black-seeded  
 Dolichos'

Gutob gaʔo gangai 'bajra, maize'  
 Kharia koɾa'j gongei 'millet'  
 Juang kɔɾto/kora'y/kulto gangai 'sorghum'

Mundari gangae/i 'maize, sorghum'  
 Santali hoɾe'c gangai 'maize'  
 Ho hoɾe? gangai 'maize, sorghum'

suluid sirum  
 sirum sira/om  
 sirum

Table 4

1313

LEGUMES: Grams or pulses play a very important part in the diet of the present-day Munda. Historically, we can reconstruct at least two varieties of gram for Proto-Munda: \*kodaXj' 'horsegram', *Dolichos biflorus* (Skt. kulattha, Or. koloth); and \*rVm 'black gram', i.e. *Phaseolus mungo* (Or. biri) or something like it.

*Dolichos biflorus* is the likeliest example of a PM word which was borrowed into Sanskrit.<sup>10</sup> (Another--messier--case is that of 'tamarind', where the Skt. tintiḍika may be borrowed from a PM \*R-tiXn, or \*teXn. In some of the Munda languages the forms are derived from the IA forms but in others this seems not to be the case.)

\*kodaXj' is widely attested in Munda with the meaning 'horsegram' consistently found for its reflexes in the modern languages. In contrast, \*rVm has a variety of similar but not identical glosses for its reflexes--sometimes designating *Vigna*, sometimes *Phaseolus*, but referring in all instances to a small black, oval legume. More equivocally, since we have no trustworthy botanical identifications for it, a third legume has been glossed everywhere as 'some sort of small red gram'. One would tentatively reconstruct a morpheme \*sVr/d- +u/aj' and/or +oXm. (T.4)

GOURDS: A form for *Cucurbita lagenaria*, the 'bottle gourd' and alternatively a 'ladle or drinking gourd made from *lagenaria*,' can be reconstructed for Proto-Munda to something like \*su(-)ku(g). In addition to this form for at least Koraput Munda there is a set of forms reconstructing to \*N-tuŋ with the meaning 'gourd'.

Aside from the food plants themselves additional

ENGLISH	GOURD	LADLE	LIQUOR	"SOLOP" LIQUOR ( <i>Caryota urens</i> )	EGGPLANT
Sora	atuŋ	koʔo	ali/-sal	salpəm	endeɾaj
Gorum	aʔuŋ	ku=deb	ali	salpoŋ	reŋraʔ
Gtaʔ	ntoŋ	skoʔ		sapuŋ	koʔdæ-hă
Remo	ku-tuŋ	sukug	li/iili	sapuŋ	lĩɔm/ñiyɔm
Gutob		sukug	ili	salpoŋ	eyom/koʔ
Kharĩa		karuʔul			kanraj/kõdraj
Juang	sukuɖag				hañjeʔd-dar
Mundari	suku		ili		bengar (L.)
Santali	thonga ('a bamboo bottle')				bengar (L.)
Ho			ili		balŋga
Korku			sĩɖu		ëgan

Table 5

suggestive evidence for early agriculture among the Munda-speaking peoples may be had from other kinds of reconstructed items; for example, we can reconstruct words for 'pestle' and 'mortar', the pestle being used by the Mundas not for grinding but for husking rice, and/or pounding larger millet grains, mango pits and gram for gruel. The words for this pestle or husking stick are obviously cognate in SG and Kharia and appear to be cognate with forms elsewhere in Austroasiatic. The form would tentatively reconstruct to something like \*Vnrɨj', VnrɨXj' in PSM, and this seems to be cognate with a tentatively reconstructed PMK \*nrɨy? (Shorto, personal communication). The Proto-Munda form for the 'husking hole, or mortar', usually a hole in the stone of the verandah of a Munda house<sup>11</sup> reconstructs to \*saXʔ|.

Similarly, a word for an alcoholic beverage \*əli can be reconstructed to Proto-Munda (as can \*buX| 'to get drunk', which has widespread Austroasiatic cognates). It is not clear, however, whether \*əli was distilled from grain, as are the beverages now called əli/ali/li etc., or merely fermented. (see Table 5)

**ANIMALS:** In this paper we extend the range of comparative data to include domesticable animals. Domestication usually means that the animal is cared for in exchange for some sort of service or advantage. In a paper on animal husbandry based on evidence from ethnology Cranstone (1969) says that most people who practice some form of agriculture keep domestic animals which provide food, raw materials, or power: i.e., they are not merely pets or aids in hunting but are valued for their meat, milk, blood, hides, wool, or services.

Among people who practice shifting cultivation,

and lack the plough, the number of animals kept and their economic importance tend to be relatively small, and the level of agricultural technique is not sufficiently high to produce a surplus of food to support them. Some animals forage for themselves--e.g. the mithan of Assam or the Melanesian pig--but they usually return at night, or at intervals, in order to be fed.

Among plough cultivators the situation is rather different: the use of the plough implies the use of draught animals; grain crops are usually the food staple, which means that there is stubble or straw or fodder for the cattle. Improved techniques may provide grain surplus to human requirements which can then be used for the animals.

Clearly, we cannot know merely from linguistic evidence whether the animals we discuss (apart from the dog, which has been found in association with almost all archaeological settlements) were in fact actually bred, nurtured or otherwise associated with settlements. Rather, on the basis of what we know of present-day Munda cultures, we have collected information on those animals which seem likely to have been more or less domesticated early--the dog, the chicken, the goat, the pig, the buffalo, the cat, and the cattle. Presumably the peacock was not domesticated, though we include comparative data on it because of its possible inclusion as a domesticated or otherwise symbolically important animal. The ethnographic sources on the Munda give no evidence of its domestication.<sup>12</sup>

DOG: The morpheme for 'dog' is to be reconstructed for PM as something like \*soXd' (alternating with \*seXd'). There are problems of reconstruction,

but we think all the Munda forms go back to \*soXd', \*seXd' plus various affixes. There are MK forms which seem to be related e.g. Rlaŋ-Laŋ so?, possibly PMK \*co?.

CAT: One common motivation for domestication of the cat is as a mouser, to keep down rats and other rodent-damage in surplus stored grain. Conceivably the PM's may have had and stored surplus grain, but we have no direct evidence for or against storage, or for actual domestication of the cat. We get two forms: \*pusi, (alt. pusu) which seems to be frequent universally for 'cat', presumably derived from the "pss" sounds used to call or attract cats. The other form reconstructs to \*rɛm in GRG, and has presumably related forms in SG.

GOAT: For SM one reconstructs \*-mɛd', and the Kherwarian forms \*merom, etc., are presumably (at least the first morpheme of them) cognate. There seems to be a PMK \*be? which looks relatable as well. The Dravidian forms which are somewhat similar<sup>13</sup> do not seem to provide a Dravidian source for the Munda form. Among the present-day Munda, goats are left to forage for themselves, and consequently are not used as milk animals (nor are cows or buffalo). In general, one remarks that the Munda do not seem to be milk-drinking people after childhood, in spite of the keeping of cattle and goats.

PIG: One cannot reconstruct PNM forms for 'pig' but the SM forms presumably go back to a PSM form (GRG \*buXd', SG \*bun; cf. KJ forms: bunuɪ/butae), which is probably \*buXd' for the CF, whatever the FF may have been, if there was one. We note the existence of the Proto-Indonesian babuɪ but doubt any connection with the Kharia form bunuɪ. (Presumably

e could reconstruct a root \*bu| or something of the  
rt with various affixes, although this seems unlike-  
in view of the related Juang and other SM forms.)

However, the pig is interesting for other rea-  
ns, especially from the point of view of its im-  
rtance to certain SM groups, notably the Sora and  
rum. Both groups have elaborate, built-in enclo-  
res or 'pig-houses' with sliding doors beneath the  
ner's own house. Both groups disclaim consumption  
pork, but the short form in Sora, for example, is  
entical with the short form for 'meat' (jɛl, from  
lu) and both groups contend they raise the pigs for  
le to other groups as food. Pigs are not used for  
crifices or pujas at home, as are cows, buffalo,  
ickens, and, to a lesser degree, goats.

As regards the question of domestication of pigs  
ong the Munda, by Gorum standards of animal hus-  
ndry, the pig is given a great deal of care as com-  
red with the goat, or even cattle. For the Gorum,  
e would definitely have to say the pig is domesti-  
ted. Although it forages, rather than being fed,  
is kept within the confines of the fenced-in vil-  
ge, and is not allowed to interbreed with wild or  
ral pigs (unlike the situation among the Naga, for  
ample, where interbreeding is encouraged). What  
e situation may have been among the Proto-Mundas,  
wever, is not at all clear.

CHICKEN: One reconstructs PM \*sɪ(X)m, clearly  
th the meaning 'chicken' (versus \*-tɪd' or  
(-)did' meaning 'bird'). The specialization of  
cabulary with reference to chickens presumably in-  
icates long familiarity with them as domesticates.  
have, however, no way of ascertaining relative or-  
r of domestication of these various animals. Chick-



ens are commonly used among the present-day Munda both in sacrifice and for consumption, but these practices are of course not restricted to the Munda groups. (see Table 6)

THE BOVINES: The words for 'buffalo', presumably *Bos Bubalus*, again look as if they are cognate, but there are a number of problems in reconstructing a PM form or forms. Presumably, the NM forms are metathesized and show vocalic assimilation. The buffalo is perhaps the most important animal among both the North and South Munda today, for ritual and sacrificial purposes such as marriages, pujas, and funerals.<sup>14</sup> The considerable expense entailed in the sacrifice of a buffalo reduces the frequency of sacrifices, and among the Gorum, for example, for minor pujas or temporary, interim ones, chickens or even a symbolic cucumber mixture (with a variety of terms for the latter) are used as substitutes for the buffalo. (see Table 7)

CATTLE: The general word for 'cattle', which seems to develop into specialized words meaning specifically 'cow', is the CF *-taŋ*, which has a FF *taŋ|ɨy* in SG. This form is not found in North Munda, nor is there a reconstructible form for 'bull'. For the latter we find forms borrowed from the Indo-Aryan languages.

The one form of interest which is reconstructible for Proto-Munda, *\*ɔreXj'*, seems to indicate a draught animal, sometimes 'cow'. These seem to relate to forms in MK for 'cow', and possibly to NMK *\*kraak* 'buffalo' (Shorto, personal communication).

That the SM word *\*ɨj-taŋ* 'cattle-dung', derived from the PM word for 'faeces' *\*ɨj'*, is from the *\*taŋ*

ENGLISH	DOG	CAT	GOAT	PIG	CHICKEN	PEACOCK
Sora	kinsod	rameŋ	kinmed	kembon	kensim/-im	mara/-mar
Gorum	kusod	rumanŋ; pusi	kinmed	kanmun/ki-bun	anoy/ki-koy	marah
Gta?	gsu?	grin	gmi?	gbug	gsin	ŋko/-ko
Remo	gusu?	girem/-rem	gime?/-me?	gubu?/-bu?	gisin	kukun/kuk /-kun/-si
Gutob	guso?	girem	gime?	gibig/-big	gisin	
Kharia	solog	pusi; ramad 'claw'	merom	bunul	sigkoe (P.) kunru-sin; sigkoy 'fowl'	marag
Juang	selog		merom	butae	senkoe	marag
Mundari	seta	pusi; runda 'wildcat'	merom		sim	mara?
Santali	seta	pusi; runda 'wildcat'	merom		sim	mara?
Ho	seta	pusi; runda 'wildcat'	merom		sim	mara?
Korku	sita	minu 'cat' puci 'rat'		badu 'hog' (P.)	sim	mhara?
Asuri	seta	pundi				
Turi						

ENGLISH	DOG	CAT	GOAT	CHICKEN	PEACOCK
Korwa		pusu	merom	sim	
Birhor	seta	pusi			
Bhumij	seta	pusi; runda 'wildcat'	merom	MK: cim etc. 'bird'	MK: mra?/amrak brah/cim-merak etc. 'peacock'
PMK:	*co?		e?	Cf. OM kiñcem	
MK:	gsu? etc.	OMon	a.e?	?	<*koncem
Riang-Lang	-so?				
Mid Mon	cluiw ?<*c[ur]				

Table 6

SAL TREE (*Shorea robusta*)

## MUSHROOM

## ENGLISH

## CUCUMBER

sə/arglɪʃə

beti/-p+d

ɛŋrə/ɛŋlud/en(d)rə  
kosalli 'cucumber-  
like vegetable'

Gorum                   botl/u=jupud/-pud

sorgl(jə)

sarla(y); =sa/sa=in  
sa=di/dindi=sa/por=sa  
'cucumber mixture  
symbolic of the buffalo  
in sacrifice'

Gta?

ntwɪg

Remo

ntwi; ntni

sarlay

sɔrʒə

Gutob

itɪg

Kharīa

uɖ

kɛŋrə

sɛrʒə

Juang

ʊɖ/ʊnr

kɛŋrə

sarlɟə

Mundari

u(u)d/putukuʔl

taher/taear

sarjom/salɟə

Santali

ot'/'putka

taher

sarjom/salɟə

Ho

ud

taer

sarjom

Korku

od

takher

salat

Asuri

ud

taher

salɟə

CUCUMBER

taher  
taher

MUSHROOM

ud

ptir/ptø  
<\*ptir

Pal. t'ir Riang-Lang t'is  
Khasi tik

ENGLISH

Turi

Birhor

MK:

Table 7

nds and not from \*ɔreXj' suggests a greater generality for the \*taŋ morpheme in spite of its present re limited distribution. There is a GRG form V(-) |aj' 'bullock, ox', which is perhaps related to e Gorum goj' in degoj-ki tuŋ, but note also the range combining form of Gta? hrwe?/-gwe? perhaps ing back to \*gv<sup>back</sup>j', and suggesting some sort of interference. (see Table 8)

#### SUMMARY

The data presented in this paper provides good evidence that the Proto-Mundas, presumably at least 00 years B.P. (or earlier) at a conservative estimate, had a subsistence agriculture which produced at least knew grain--in particular rice, two or three millets, and at least three legumes. Further, the agricultural technology included implements which presuppose the knowledge and use of such grains and legumes as food, since the specific and consistent meanings for 'husking pestle' and 'mortar' go back, at least in one item, to Proto-Austroasiatic.

Because no solid evidence is obtainable from linguistic information alone, we cannot claim that these food plants or animals were actually domesticated. However, we can reconstruct names of animals which are usually associated with some level of development of settled agriculture, or at least with a hunting and gathering economy which did not exclude some degree of concomitant sedentary life.

Domestication is a term which covers a great variety of cultural patterns, and the full domestication of certain plants and animals must have taken long time to accomplish. The strongest proof for a particular hearth of domestication is generally taken to be that provided by (botanical) cytogenetic evidence.

ENGLISH	BUFFALO	COW	BULL	DRAUGHT ANIMAL	CALF	BULLOCK	CATTLE
Sora	bɔŋtel	taŋlɪʔ					
Gorum	bɔŋtel/-bɔŋ	taŋli/-tan			arɪj-	degoj' -kɪtuŋ 'god'*	dunom
Gta?	bunɬi/-bo	-tla		hrweʔ/-gweʔ 'cow'		glæ?	
Remo	bunte/-bun	-tan				gɪlaj/-goj	
Gutob	bɔŋtel/-bɔŋ	kɪʔtan/-tan				gula'j	
Kharia	bɔŋtel (m.)	-than (P.)s		orej 'bullock'		orej	dim-taŋ ( 'cattle shed'
Juang		ojej	undia	ojej 'cow'	kontaŋ	orai (P.)	
Mundari				urɪ?			
Santali	bitkɪl			ɔrɔk'			
Ho	bitkɪl			urɪ?			
Korku	betkheɪ/ betkɬɪl etc.						
Asuri				urɪ?			
Turi				urɪ?			

ENGLISH

Korwa

Birhor

Bhumij

DRAUGHT ANIMAL

uri?

uri?

var. MK: orok/hrok/hrok/korok  
/krok 'cow'

NMK: \*kraak 'buffalo'

SPINNOW, H.-J. (1959)

\*must sacrifice cow to  
this god every three years

Table 8



However, incontrovertible conclusions coming out of cytogenetic analyses presuppose these analyses to be based on a sufficient exploration of the relevant areas of the world for possibly ancestral plants and adequate sampling and analyses of all these plants. Such investigations--and such incontrovertible conclusions--are not available for *Setaria*, *Panicum*, or for the legumes discussed above. Even when a thorough cytogenetic study is made, there is no guarantee that its results, insofar as they bear on hearths of domestication, will be clear-cut and unequivocal. The archaeologist correlates his own findings with those of the paleobotanists, and, where known and available, with the findings of linguists and of historians (e.g. those of Ping-ti Ho on early rice cultivation in China). We must reiterate that as linguists we do not claim that we can identify a food plant as a domesticate, but we do claim that sets of semantically related terms, and an elaborated nomenclature for a particular food plant and its products, imply rather strongly that these food plants were known and used by the people speaking this reconstructed protolanguage. Further, the existence of certain terms for agricultural operations (e.g. 'winnowing', 'transplanting') strongly suggests that some degree of domestication of these plants was likely, and this in turn presupposes some degree of sedentary agriculture. Our conclusions are consistent with those of Berlin (1972) on the development of plant taxonomy nomenclature.<sup>15</sup>

Rice, in particular, is strongly attested for Austroasiatic (c. 6000-5500 B. P.), and the use of rice by Austroasiatics, presumably somewhere in Southeast Asia, fits in better with the recent discoveries

sites with plant remains made by Solheim, Gorman et al. in Northern Thailand than do such claims as those of Ho on behalf of China. This does not mean that the early inhabitants of the northern Thailand sites were necessarily Austroasiatic speakers. However, it is likely that some Austroasiatics knew rice very early, and perhaps were responsible for its transmission to the west (i.e. to India). The evidence from some early sites in eastern India exhibiting rice (Chirand; see Vishnu-Mittre 1970b) would be consistent with such a hypothesis.

Apart from rice, *Setaria (italica)* and *Panicum liare* and/or *miliaceum*) must have been known to Proto-Mundas by at least 3500 B.P. However, so far as we know, no cognates for the PM forms have been found in MK as yet. This may well be because no one has ever elicited such material with any degree of completeness or accuracy, and not because such cognates do not exist. If *Setaria italica* was domesticated in China--a view which some scholars like Ho<sup>16</sup>--one could expect lexical evidence from areas between a (non-South?) Chinese location and the location of the Proto-Mundas.

Two plant names that are almost universally attested in the contemporary Munda groups, and that apparently have no cognates in the other Austroasiatic languages are the words for 'mango' and 'turmeric'. Both of these plants have varied and deep cultural involvements for the Munda groups. Perhaps this does not contradict the botanical evidence, but what little there is of archaeological evidence--these plants were first extensively used by the Proto-Mundas, and were important in special ways to them. This specialization perhaps largely postdated

the separation of PM from the rest of Austroasiatic, at least from Proto-Mon-Khmer.<sup>17</sup>

Another plant that presents complex (and different) linguistic problems is the chili pepper (*Capsicum*). There is botanical and archaeological evidence for a domestication in and dissemination from Southeast Asia. The word for 'pepper' in Sanskrit is certainly borrowed, as well as the older Dravidian forms, according to Burrow, and a Southeast Asian source in Austroasiatic (MK specifically) is possible. However, the Munda data provide no possible etymologies, since all the known Munda words are borrowings from Indo-Aryan. (This does not rule out the possibility of a PM word now lost without a trace being itself a borrowing into Old Indo-Aryan, i.e. Sanskrit. If such was the case, one would like some explanation of why and how all the Munda languages lost the reflexes of the PM word; however, similar losses are attested elsewhere.<sup>18</sup>)

The linguistic evidence on possibly domesticated animals tells us very little. Apparently one large bovine at least was known to the PM's, but not much more can now be said about it.

In our earlier paper (Zide and Zide 1972), we claimed that there were no old Munda words for 'metal' or for particular metals. However, we now think that Sora-Gorum \*|uaŋ + Kharia |uaŋ 'iron' is possibly old, i.e. not borrowed. Earlier, the apparent similarity of |uaŋ with Indo-Aryan words meaning 'iron' (Sanskrit *loha*, 'copper/iron', basically 'red [dish]', etc.) led us to believe (prematurely) that \*|uaŋ, though admittedly problematic, must have been borrowed. In Mon-Khmer we have possible cognates in

Mon slūy 'copper' and Khmer lūy 'money, small  
age' (these from Shorto, personal communication),  
Paul Benedict (personal communication) recon-  
structs for his Austro-Tai \*lu(y)əŋ 'copper'.

The antiquity of rice for the Proto-Austroasia-  
s, ca. 6000 B.P., and some millets and some le-  
es (so far) for the Proto-Mundas, ca. 3500 B.P.,  
implications which should be correlated with and  
ted by all the paleobotanical, archeological, and  
torical findings there are, and by directed future  
dy of these problems, so as to maximize what we  
know about early agriculture and agricultural  
gins in Southeast Asia and in neighboring regions.

---

<sup>1</sup>The bibliography of our earlier paper should be  
sulted for fuller information on the sources of  
e of the linguistic data in our charts. We are  
y grateful to Harry Shorto for providing most of  
Mon-Khmer forms quoted in this paper.

Much of the work on this paper has been sup-  
ted by grants from the National Science Foundation  
from the United States Educational Foundation in  
ia.

<sup>2</sup>This sort of reversion is not uncommon in South-  
t Asia and elsewhere. A recent example is the so-  
led Stoneage Tasaday of Mindanao, who according to  
popular press are relics of the Neolithic, where-  
the linguistic and ethnographic evidence (F. Eg-  
, personal communication) apparently suggests that  
y split off from a neighboring group no more than  
years ago and withdrew to comparatively inaccessible  
jungle and a simpler subsistence economy.

<sup>3</sup>One of the few attempts to get at possible cul-  
al continuities is that of A. K. Ghosh (1969), who  
mined present-day Ho megaliths in the light of  
historic megalithic cultures that might be related.

<sup>4</sup>X is used here to indicate a vowel feature  
ch must be reconstructed for Proto-Munda.

<sup>5</sup>The verb \*sɨy which we reconstruct for PM,  
ch has in the past been glossed as 'to plough',  
bably need not be defined specifically as 'to

plough', or 'plough-cultivate' but could originally have meant 'to use a pre-plough instrument (\*sn̥iy) for purposes of cultivation'. When the tool in use was replaced by an improved cultivating tool, i.e. the plough, the verb could have been extended to mean 'to cultivate' rather than its original, presumably narrower, meaning. We have no evidence linguistically to support either assumption.

<sup>6</sup>The existence of doublets for North and South Munda for many forms suggests several interesting theories, among them that PNM and PSM may not simply go back to a single proto-language, PM. The fact that many culturally important cognates, such as the forms for 'rice', show connections between SM and PMK, and are lacking or replaced in NM perhaps could be attributed to shift of ecological habitat for the NM's, but could equally well be considered to reflect a partly independent history for North and South Munda.

<sup>7</sup>Cf. H.-J. Pinnow (1959). H. L. Shorto (personal communication) reconstructs something like \*rkəw? for MK.

<sup>8</sup>The earliest archaeological evidence for rice in India is at Lothal and Rangpur (ca. 2300 B.C. according to S. S. Ghosh). There is also a date for Ahar in Rajasthan of ca. 1800 B.C. However, what seem more appropriate in terms of areal considerations are the dates from Navdatoli-Maheshwar, M. P. from ca. 1600 B.C. (cf. also Vishnu-Mittre 1968, 1970a, and 1970b).

<sup>9</sup>However, although the earliest dates for *Setaria* in China seem to occur at ca. 4000 B.C., Isaac (1970) claims there is no botanical evidence regarding the hearth of domestication of *Setaria* and its prominence in Asia.

<sup>10</sup>The earliest evidence so far for *Dolichos biflorus* in India is found in Tekkalakota, dated 1650 B.C. or earlier.

<sup>11</sup>And, by extension, occasionally referring to the kind of stone from which the mortar, verandah, etc., is made.

<sup>12</sup>The horse presents an interesting problem, since a word for 'horse' \*kuXrta(g) can be reconstructed for at least Koraput Munda and probably for South Munda, which is surprising in view of the presumed absence of horses in the area at that time. The chronological problems of whether the horse was known in Eastern India (since presumably the SM people

never got far into Central India) are not insoluble but in what context the SM's knew and used the word remains a mystery. The usual view is that the word was brought in by the Indo-Aryans, but there also seems to be some evidence of equine remains at Chaur in Mysore, dated by C-14 to ca. 1600 B.C. (cf. R. Allchin 1969:319-320, and R. Thapar, 1969). The speculations of Przyluski (1929) about North Munda sadam/sadom 'horse' as the source of various Sanskrit dynastic names seems dubious.

<sup>13</sup> Cf. Burrow and Emeneau (1961:DED 4174) for the word for goat, and/or the onomatopoeic bleating of goats.

<sup>14</sup> Since the ethnography of the South Munda groups has not been studied systematically--or, in some cases, at all--such information as whether or not buffaloes are used as draught animals by various Munda groups is at best available only in fragmentary and unreliable form.

<sup>15</sup> Berlin (1972:72) states 'one should not expect to find varietal ethnobotanical nomenclature except in the languages of societies which practice rather primitive methods of cultivation; all the information available to me at the moment shows that legitimate varietal names occur almost exclusively in the classification of important cultivars.'

<sup>16</sup> Note that Isaac (1970) does not accept as particularly likely a Chinese hearth of domestication for the millets (including *Setaria*).

<sup>17</sup> Note, however, the widespread uses of turmeric elsewhere in Asia and Oceania discussed by Schneringer (1964) and Sterly (1967). The history and origin of such uses would repay close study.

<sup>18</sup> Perhaps the Proto-Munda word for 'twenty' was the same in much the same way. The PM's had a vigesimal system of counting, and must have had an old word (or words) for 'twenty'.

## REFERENCES

- Allchin, Raymond. 1969. Early domestic animals in India and Pakistan. *The domestication and exploitation of plants and animals*, ed. by P.J. Ucko and G.W. Dimbleby, 317-22. London: Duckworth.
- Allchin, Bridget, and Raymond Allchin. 1968. *The birth of Indian civilization*. Harmondsworth.
- Berlin, Brent. 1972. Speculations on the growth of ethnobotanical nomenclature. *Language in Society* 1.1.
- Berry, R.J. 1969. The genetical implications of domestication in animals. *The domestication and exploitation of plants and animals*, editors P.J. Ucko and G.W. Dimbleby, 207-17. London: Duckworth.
- Burrow, T., and M.B. Emeneau. 1961. *A Dravidian etymological dictionary*. London.
- Chang, Kwang-Chih. 1968. *The archeology of ancient China*. Rev. ed. New Haven.
- 
1970. The beginnings of agriculture in the Far East: archaeological comment *Antiquity* 44.175-185.
- Cranstone, B.A.L. 1969. Animal husbandry: the evidence from ethnography. *The domestication and exploitation of plants and animals*, ed. by P.J. Ucko and G.W. Dimbleby. 247-264. London: Duckworth.
- Drower, M.S. 1969. The domestication of the horse. *The domestication and exploitation of plants and animals*, editors P.J. Ucko and G.W. Dimbleby, 471-78. London: Duckworth.
- Friedrich, Paul. 1970. *Proto-Indo-European trees*. Chicago.
- Ghosh, A.K. 1969. The dying custom of megalithic burials in India. *International Committee on Urgent Anthropological and Ethnological Research Bulletin* 11. Vienna.
- Ho, Ping-ti. 1969. The loess and the origin of Chinese agriculture. *The American Historical Review*, 75.1:1-36.
- Hoffmann, John (in collaboration with Arthur van Emelen). 1930-38. *Encyclopaedia Mundarica*. Patna.

- c, Erich. 1970. *Geography of domestication*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.
- ow, Heinz-Jürgen. 1959. *Versuch einer historischen lautlehre der Kharia-Sprache*. Wiesbaden.
- luski, J. 1929. In S. Lévi, J. Przyluski, and Jules Bloch, *Pre-Aryan and pre-Dravidian in India*. Calcutta.
- murti, G.V. 1938. *Sora-English dictionary*. Madras.
- rew, J.M. 1969. The archeological evidence for the domestication of plants. *The domestication and exploitation of plants and animals*, ed. by J.J. Ucko and G.W. Dimbleby. London: Duckworth.
- heim, Wilhelm. G., II. 1970. Northern Thailand, Southeast Asia, and world prehistory. *Asian Perspectives*, 13:145-162.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1972a. Early man in south-east Asia. *Expedition*, Spring, 1972:25-32.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1972b. An earlier agricultural revolution. *Scientific American* 226. :34-41.
- er, D.E. 1964. Indigenous uses of turmeric (*Curcuma domestica*) in Asia and Oceania. *Anthropos* 49:93-127.
- ly, Joachim. 1967. Gelbwurz (*Curcuma spp.*) als Ritual und Heilmittel in Melanesien. *Anthropos* 2:239-40.
- ar, Romila. 1969. The study of society in ancient India. Presidential Address: Indian History Congress (31st session). Varanasi.
- anu-Mittre. 1968. Prehistoric records of agriculture in India. *Transactions of the Bose Research Institute*, 31.3.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1970a. *Palaeobotany and the environment of early man in India*. Birbal Sahni Institute of Palaeobotany. Lucknow.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 1970b. *Palaeobotanical evidence for the history of Indian crops*. Birbal Sahni Institute of Palaeobotany. Lucknow.
- e, Arlene R.K., and Norman H. Zide. 1972. Semantic reconstructions in proto-Munda cultural vocabulary I. *Indian Linguistics*. (December 1972).