# **Early Sources for South Asian Substrate Languages**

by

## Michael Witzel

Department of Sanskrit and Indian Studies Harvard University (witzel@fas.harvard.edu)

Ut somniorum interpretatio, ita verborum origo; pro cuiusque ingenio iudicatur<sup>\*</sup> Augustinus, 354-430 AD Es war die etymologische Arbeit, was am Anfang der Linguistik als Wissenschaft stand\*\* V.I. Abaev, 1952 CE

The recent articles in *Mother Tongue* on the isolated South Asian languages Burushaski, Nahali, and Kusunda offer a welcome peep into the complicated linguistic prehistory of the subcontinent. South Asia is, also in its genetics (L. Cavalli-Sforza 1994), a text book case for the continuing coexistence of many subsequent levels of immigrants. In fact, the subcontinent offers a virtual laboratory of linguistic, cultural and social systems. To echo H.C. Fleming, *MT* II 74: "... given India's role as cultural diffusion cul-de-sac of Asia, ... we may have missed the lower strata of prehistory after all!" Such items have kept me occupied, on and off, over the past few years. I offer some additional data here, and I will draw attention to some other remnants of ancient South Asian languages, most of which have come down to us only as substrates. In the following pages I will be brief with regard to cases that have been noticed before (Burushaski, Nahali and Kusunda, *MT* II and III), but I will add data from substrates not yet adequately recognized. Obviously, the more remote

<sup>\* &</sup>quot;Just as the interpretation of dreams, thus the origin of words : it is determined according to one's own inclination (or, 'talent')."

<sup>\*\* &</sup>quot;It was etymological work that constituted the beginning of linguistics as a science", p.39 in: V. I. Abaev, Die Prinzipien eines etymologischen Wörterbuchs. Österreichische Akademie der Wissenschaften, Phil.-Hist. Kl., Sitzungsberichte 368, Heft 11, 1980, 29-45. German translation of the Russian paper in Voprosy Yazykoznaniya 1952/5, 50 sqq. -- I thank J. Bengtson, H. Fleming, and R. Wescott for their very careful reading of a slightly earlier version of this paper, and for many suggestions and improvements in style and substance. Any remaining errors are of my own making. I also thank the discussants; the paper was written, indeed, to facilitate such discussions: in the traditionally multilingual South Asia, such cooperation is sorely needed.

data we can acquire in this fashion, the better our chances will be for the reconstruction of the early settlement of (South) Asia and for the languages spoken by the first modern humans that entered the area several ten thousand years ago (see Cavalli-Sforza 1994).

I will concentrate on those areas of the subcontinent that are best known from early sources (the Vedas), that is the Panjab and parts of the Gangetic plains, and I will pay special attention those items that allow us to place such linguistic data in *place and time*. For there is testimony enough for a number of additional languages that are of importance in this early period; they indicate that we have to rethink the substrate and adstrate relationships of the South Asian languages, even those belonging to the three major language families (Indo-European, Dravidian, Austro-Asiatic) found there.

All are in need of more detailed study by area specialists, who should provide the philological and linguistic background information so that comparativists can make use of them. I propose to do so, incrementally, for a few of the substrate languages mentioned below, especially those found attested in early texts (Vedic, Epic Sanskrit, and Pali).

These texts provide our most ancient sources for non-Indo-European (that is, non-Indo-Aryan) words in the subcontinent. The Vedas were orally composed (c. 1500-500 BC) in northern Pakistan and northern India. They are followed by Dravidian sources represented by the ancient Tamil "Sangam" (Cankam) texts of South India (from the beginning of our era); these are virtually unexplored as far as non-IA and non-Drav. substrates and adstrates are concerned. From a slightly earlier period come the Middle Indo-Aryan (MIA) Pali canon and the Epic texts (Mahābhārata, Rāmāyaṇa).

Since I am not a Dravidian specialist, I will concentrate on the Vedas, which are earlier than Drav. texts by at least a thousand years, and contain a host of so far comparatively little studied data. This procedure also has the advantage that the *oldest* linguistic data of the region are used, which is important because of the quick changes that some of the languages involved have undergone. Such changes obscure the relationships and make comparisons, based on later attested forms, more difficult (cf. below, §8, on Semitic loans, and cf. P. K. Benedict, MT III 93). So far, linguists have concentrated on finding Dravidian and Munda reflexes, especially in the oldest Veda, the Rgveda (RV). These studies are summed up conveniently in the etymological dictionaries by M. Mayrhofer (Indo-Aryan; KEWA, EWA), Th. Burrow - M.B. Emeneau (Dravidian; DED, DEDR), and in the work of F.B.J. Kuiper (Munda/Austro-Asiatic; 1948, 1955, 1991, Pinnow 1959). In addition, it has especially been F. Southworth who has done comparative work on the linguistic history of India (IA, Drav., Munda) during the past few decades; his book on the subject is eagerly awaited.

#### Sources

The oldest text at our disposal is the Rgveda (RV), in archaic Indo-Aryan (Vedic Sanskrit). It is followed by a number of other Vedic texts, usually listed as Saṃhitās, Brāḥmaṇas, Āraṇyakas and Upaniṣads. Linguistically, however, we have to distinguish five distinct levels: Rgveda, other Saṃhitās (Mantra language), Yajurveda Saṃhitā prose, Brāhmaṇas (incl. Āraṇyakas and Upaniṣads) and the late Vedic Sūtras (Witzel 1987, 1997; for abbreviations of names of texts, their dates and their geographical location see attached list).

At the outset, it must be underlined that the Vedic texts excel among other early texts of other cultures in that they are "tape recordings" of this archaic period. They were not allowed to be changed: not one word, not a syllable, not even a tonal accent. If this sounds unbelievable, it may be pointed out that they even preserve *special* cases of main clause and secondary clause intonation, items that have even escaped the sharp ears of early Indian grammarians. These texts are therefore better than any manuscript, and as good -if not better- than any contemporary inscription.

Consequently, these texts are invaluable as early sources for non-IA loan words in Vedic Sanskrit. Recently, F.B.J. Kuiper (1991) has prepared a very valuable collection of some 380 'foreign' words found in the RV. However his intention, in this particular book, was not to present etymologies but to demonstrate their non-IA type by phonetic and structural analyses. Some words indeed stand out immediately because of their non-IA phonetical shape (Burrow 1976), for example busa 'chaff, fog?' RV(cf. Pinnow 1959: 39), rbīsa 'oven/pit with coals, volcanic cleft' RV, Brsaya 'name of a sorcerer or demon' RV, musala 'pestle' AV, kusīda 'lending money' KS, TS, Kusurubinda 'name of a clan' TS, Kosala 'name of the Oudh territory' SB, etc. In IA, s is not allowed after (long or short) i, u, e, ai, o, au, r and k. Many of the other words investigated by Kuiper (1991) are clearly of non-IA origin, but often neither of Munda or of Drav. origin. Kuiper occasionally gives Drav. and Munda etymologies but he also cautiously states that the word in question must belong to some unknown language. I think we can proceed further on this basis by adding a growing number of words from the later Vedic texts, especially from the more popular Atharvaveda, which contains several hundred sorcery spells abounding in non-IA words. The ensuing periods of Yajurveda Samhitās, Brāhmanas, Upanisads, and Sūtras, (see Witzel 1987, 1989 for geographical spread and chronology) have a large number of so far little studied loan words.

In the sequel, I will proceed geographically, region by region, indicating, in each case, the source of our knowledge. (Vedic accent marks are omitted, as they play no role in foreign words, see Kuiper 1991.)

#### §1. The Northwest

This is the area of the first Indo-Aryan influx into the subcontinent reflected by the hymns of the RV. It includes the mountainous regions of Afghanistan and Northern Pakistan as well as the plains of the Panjab. In the Veda we find few place names; river names, as ancient tribal boundaries, are much better attested. However, the Rgvedic area is characterized by an almost total substitution of local river names by those of IA type, such as *Gomatī* 'the one having cows' (mod. *Gomal*), *Mehatnu* 'the one full of fluid', *Asiknī* 'the black one' (now *Chenāb*).

Tribal names, much more difficult to locate, complement this account. Next to typical IA ones (*Druhyu* 'the cheaters', *Bharata* 'the ones who carry (sacred fire?).' There are many that have no plausible IA etymologies, including names such as: the *Gandhāri* tribe of *Gandhāra*, the area between Kabul and Islamabad in Pakistan; *Śambara*, a mountain

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> A restricting factor is the middle/late Vedic redaction of the texts in question. However, this influenced only a very small, well known number of cases, such as the development : Cuv > Cv.

chieftain; Vayiyu and Prayiyu (chieftains on the Suvāstu, modern Swat); Mauja-vant, a Himalayan peak. This is the typical picture of an intrusive element, the IA, overlaying a previous population. Unlike Northern America for example, only a few pre-IA river names have survived, such as: Kubhā (mod. Kabul river), Krumu (mod. Kurram), and maybe even the Sindhu (Indus); these have no clear or only doubtful IA/IE etymologies (see below).

North of this area, at the northern bend of the Indus (Baltistan/Hunza), Burushaski is spoken. However, the language and the tribal name are indirectly attested in this general area ever since the RV: \*m/bruža (mod. burušo) > Ved. Mūja-vant, Avestan Muža (see below).

However, already the RV contains a few words which are still preserved in Bur., such as Bur. kilāy, Ved. kīlāla- 'biestings, a sweet drink' RV 10.91.14, (note AV 4.11.10 next to the loan word kīnāśa, see below); kīlāla cannot have a IA etymology (EWA I 358 'unclear'); continuants are found in Dardic (Khowar kiļāl), Nuristani (kilā etc.), in later Skt. kilāṭa 'cheese', cf. DEDR 1580 Tam. kiḷāan 'curd'). For details see Kuiper 1955: 150f., Turner, CDIAL 3181, Tikkanen 1988. Further the following words (mostly treated in some detail further below),

- mēs 'skinbag', CDIAL 10343 < Ved. \*maisiya 'ovine', mesa 'ram' RV,
- gur 'wheat' pl. gurin/guren < \*yorum, gurgán 'winter wheat', cf. Ved. godhūma,
- bras 'rice', different from briú 'rice (< Shina briú), cf. Ved. vrīhi,
- · bus 'sheaf', CDIAL 8298, cf. Ved. busa, bṛṣī 'chaff'
- ku(h)á (Berger yuá) 'new moon', cf. Ved kuhū 'deity of new moon'.
- yupas (Berger gupás) 'cotton', cf. Ved. karpāsa, Kashm. kapas,
- baluqa 'stone' (in a children's game), cf. báltas 'stone thrown at someone', cf. Ved. paraśu '(stone) ax', Greek pélekus, see EWA II, 214; J. Bengtson, by letter of 4/19/99, draws my attention to PEC \*bølvgwi 'hammer' > Chechen berg 'pickax', Archi burk 'hammer'; as for baluqa, báltas he also draws attention to PEC \*bəHə´V'hill, mountain' > Rutul bäl 'rock', etc. ban 'resin of trees' ~ IIr bhanga 'hemp, cannabis', cf. Khowar bon, or rather, with J. Bengtson (by letter) to be compared with PEC \*bhinkwV 'pine tree' > Ingush baga 'resinous root of pine tree'.

In Proto-Burushaski (or in its early loans from the lowlands) and in the pre-Vedic Indus language there is interchange of  $k/\dot{s}$ , and retention of -an- (not > -o-, see below): Bur.  $kil\bar{a}y$ : Ved.  $k\bar{\imath}l\bar{a}la$ , but  $\dot{s}on$  'blind one-eyed': Ved.  $k\bar{a}na$ ;

• yoro (Berger yuró) 'stone, pebbles', cf. Ved. śar-kara, cf. also (Witzel 1999) yoqares, Berger yókurac 'raven', Ved. kāka; Ved. yaśú 'onion', cf. Ved. laśuna, Shina kaśu; J.Bengtson informs me, by letter of 4/19/99, of the following Caucasian connection: PNC \*lemʒi 'garlic' > Andi raži, Lak la-:i, or alternatively also Bur. yaśú and Basque hausin ~asun 'nettle'; -- cf. also (?) Bur. yon, Berger yúun 'quail' with Ved. laba?

Most of the words from IA languages in Turner's CDIAL that have Bur. correspondences are, however, late loan words from the neighboring Dardic languages, especially from Shina and Khowar (cf. Lorimer 1937, Berger 1959, 1998). I merely mention those which are restricted to the Northwest and may have local substrate origins:

• bəru CDIAL 11313 < Ved. varata, barata 'seed of safflower' GS,

- · chomar, chumer, chumer 'copper' 14496 : Skt. cīmara-kāra, Nur. (Ashkun) cimekára, Khowar cúmur, Shina cimer etc.
- dīru 14547 < Shina diru, didu < \*dhiddha 'belly'
- gindāwər 4199 < Shina gunēr 'small tree with red berries', Skt. gundra 'Saccharum sara'
- gupás 2877 < Kashm. kapas, etc., Late Ved., Skt. karpāsa 'cotton plant'
- kuyōc 'subjects of a ruler' 14404 < Shina kuōc, kuiōch, \*kūpatya
- mēs 'skinbag' 10343 < \*maisiya 'ovine', Ved. mesa 'ram'
- sinda 13415 < \*sind (> Shina sin 'river', Dumaki sina 'river'), Ved. sindhu
- tayay 5626 < Shina tagá 'mud' \*tagga 'mud'

Unfortunately the new dictionary by H. Berger does not contain etymological annotations going beyond CDIAL. For some initial ideas, see Witzel 1999. Further early evidence comes from the names in the Gilgit inscriptions and the Gilgit manuscripts of the later first mill. CE. (see v. Hinüber 1980, 1989, cf. Tikkanen 1988).

It has occasionally been maintained that Burushaski extended into the Panjab in earlier times (L. Schmid 1981, Tikkanen 1988), but the Vedic evidence does not support this. We cannot be sure exactly how far Rgvedic geographical knowledge extended northwards, and how much practical interaction existed between RV and Proto-Burusho people. Yet, the RV knows of some small right side contributory rivers of the Indus that are located north of the confluence with the Kabul River; they have IA names: RV 10.75.6. Tṛṣṭāmā '< tṛṣ 'the rough, (or) the dried up (river)', Susartu 'the one running well', Rasā 'the one full of sap', Śvetī 'the white one'.

While it is questionable how far south Burushaski territory extended at this early time, some of the loan words mentioned above indicate that there was early contact. That extends perhaps also to medicinal and other herbs (cf. below on Kirāta), for it may be that the name of the Burušo is reflected by the RV mountain name Mauja-vant "having Mūja (people)", cf. the east Iranian equivalent, Avestan Muža. This is the mountain where the best Soma, a hallucinogenic plant, comes from. The RV and E. Iranian (Avestan) forms look like adaptations of the local self-designation, \*Mruža, Vedic mūja-, Avest. muža, and are attested since the middle of the first millennium in early Tib. bru-ža, Sanskritized puruṣa (von Hinüber 1989, 1980), local 10th cent. inscriptions prūśava (Jettmar 1989: xxxvii), mod. Bur. Burušo.

Phonetic reflexes of Bur. have been seen (Tikkanen 1988) in the Vedic (and Dravidian) retroflex consonants that have otherwise found a number of explanations, from a Dravidian substrate to an internal East Iranian and Vedic development. The occurrence of these sounds clearly reflects an areal feature that is strongest in the Northwest, but extends all the way to Tamil in the South, and has also influenced Munda to some extent. Below, it will shown that it is an ancient feature of the Indus language as well, and that it must not be traced back to Bur. influence, which seems to have been limited, even in Regvedic times, to the upper Indus valley.

Some early syntactic influence by Burushaski on Vedic in the formation of the Absolutive has been assumed by Tikkanen (1988); it is found already in earliest RV but only as past verbal adverb/conjunctive participle. This clearly S. Asian feature, unknown in the sister language of Vedic, Old Iranian, is also found in various degrees in Drav. and Munda,

and may have been an early regional feature whose ultimate origin remains unclear (cf. Witzel 1999)

### §2. Khowar

Another modern language in the same area is Khowar which belongs, along with Kashmiri, Swati, etc. to the Dardic branch of IA. In its phonetics and vocabulary, however, it shows a strong local substrate, similar to Burushaski. Unique for Khowar, however, is a particular substrate whose origin remains unclear so far. It seems that the Khowars are a late immigrant group who have taken over a Dardic language. Substrate(?) words in Khowar which are neither IA nor Burushaski include (Kuiper 1962: 11, cf. Morgenstierne 1947: 6, Lorimer 1935: xxi): yec 'eye', ap'ak 'mouth', krem 'back', camoṭh 'finger', iskī 'heel', askār 'lungs'.

Kuiper (1962: 14) compares yec 'eye' with Bur. yai(c)-, y'i-, ye-ic- 'to appear, seem, be visible', and with g'e- 'to look, seem, appear', da-g'e- 'to peer' of the Munda language Sora and with Parengi gi- 'to see'. (Differently, Morgenstierne, FS Belvalkar, 2nd section p. 91.)

For Bur. loans in Dardic and in Nuristani see Tikkanen 1988: 305 (*cumar* 'iron', *ju* 'apricot', etc.), cf. Fussman 1972 II, 37 sqq.; Lorimer 1938: 95, Morgenstierne 1935: xxi sqq., 1947: 92 sqq.; Schmidt 1981, Berger 1998.

Finally, one must be open to assume the influence of other substrate languages in the Hindukush/Pamir areas. There are local personal names such as RV Śambara Kaulitara and his father \*Kulitara who are 'in the mountains', Prayiyu and Vayiyu in Swat; names of demons (as always, intentionally confused with those of real, human enemies) such as Cumuri, Namuci, Uraṇa, Arbuda, Pipru, Śambara; tribal names such as Gandhāri, Dṛbhīka(?), Varc-in(?); river names such as Gandhāra, Krumu, Sindhu(?). Note also that the Avesta (V.1) speaks about some of these areas, notably Varəna (Varṇu) as an-airiia 'non-Aryan'.

#### §3. The Kashmir substrate.

The prehistory of Kashmir is little known. In the Neolithic, there were relations with Central Asia and China, but the influence of the Indus civilization (2600-1900 BCE) is strong and long-lasting; of course, this does not tell us anything about the language(s) spoken then. Unfortunately, the Vedic texts, which know of the neighboring Indus valley do not mention Kashmir by name. It is first mentioned by name only by the grammarian Patañjali (150 BCE). The native Kashmiri texts (Rājataraṅginī, Nīlamata Purāṇa, cf. Witzel 1994, Tikkanen 1988, L. Schmid 1981), however, know of the previous populations, the Piśāca 'ghouls' and the Nāga 'snakes' (that can change into human shape at will). These are common Indian names for 'aboriginals'; cf. the Tib.-Burm. Naga tribe on the Burmese border. Yet, these designations may retain some historical memory. The chief of the Piśāca is called Nikumbha (Nikumba in Milindapañho), and the Nāgas have such 'foreign' names such as Karkoṭa, Aṭa, Baḍi, Bahabaka, Cāṭara, Cikura, Cukkaka, etc. The list of some 600 Kashmir Nāga names in the local Nīlamatapurāṇa contains many such non-Sanskritic names; they have not been studied (see Witzel, in press).

An interesting case is that of a tribe in or near Kashmir that is attested only in 550/600 CE: the *Kīra* (Bṛhatsaṃhitā 14.29, c. 550 CE). Its name is close to that of the *Kirāta* who are attested in the early inscriptions of Nepal (464 CE sqq.) but who already appear in

the Atharvaveda (c. 1200 BCE). Hsuan Ts'ang, Hsiyuki (c. 600 CE, cf. T. Funayama 1994: 369) knows of them as *Kilito* (Karlgren 1923, no. 329-527-1006), a people in Kashmir who had their own king shortly before his time. The -ta/-ṭa suffix is common in many North Indian tribal names (Witzel 1999, cf. below).

The rich medieval Kashmiri literature in Skt. has preserved other substrate words, such as the river and place names: Ledarī, a river in the SE of the Valley (also in the place name Levāra < Ledarī-agrahāra); -muša, a 'suffix' in the names of several villages: Khonamuša (mod. Khunāmoh), Katīmuša, (mod. Kaimoh, next to Kati-kā), Rāmuša (mod. Ramuh); also, the Pañcāla-dhāra mountain, (mod. (Pīr) Pantsāl range, south of the Valley), may reflect an old name, cf. the Ved. tribal name Pañcāla, and Grierson, Dict. of Kashmiri III: 744; cf. Nepali himāl 'Himalaya range', CDIAL 14104. Such names have not been studied in detail (cf., however, L. Schmidt 1981, Witzel 1993).

Just as in Northern India and Nepal, most river and place names in Kashmir have been Sanskritized, or they have been transmitted in their Middle Indian forms (e.g., the Mahurī river in N. Kashmir < Skt. madhurī 'the sweet one'. Frequently, like many Indian place names, they have been "telescoped" beyond recognition (e.g. Ved. Kāpiṣṭhala > Kaithal, Rohitakakūla > Rohtak, Class. Skt. Pāṭaliputra > Patna, Nāgapura > Nagor, Indrapaṭṭana > Indarpat, or the river (Pali) Sundarikā > Sai); thus we have, in Kashmir: Kuru-agrahāra > Skt. Kuruhāra, Levāra (above). Such shortening is not unheard of elsewhere (e.g., New Orleans [nɔ'ɔ̄rlīnz] or [ašəberg] for Aschaffenburg near Frankfurt; Worcester [wūstə], or as John Bengtson tells me, Engl. Featherstonehaugh [fænšɔ], Cholmondeley [cʌmli], cf. further below, on Nepal); however, this feature seriously affects the interpretation of river and place names in S. Asia when we do not have early sources.

The Kashmiri language itself has not been thoroughly scrutinized for more substrate materials, cf., however, the report by L. Schmidt (1981), who assumes that 25% of the vocabulary and toponymy belong to a pre-IA substrate. A. Parpola (Tikkanen 1988: 305) thinks of a Proto-Tib. or Sinitic substrate. However, the peculiar phonology of Kashmiri (and Dardic in general) sustains the assumption of a strong *northwestern* substrate influence.

We now turn to a region for which we have larger amount of early sources, the Greater Panjab.

### §4.1. The Greater Panjab

The RV reflects the Panjab and its immediate surroundings of c. 1500-1200 BCE., most clearly visible in its river names, extending from the Kabul River to the Yamunā (mod. Jamna) and even the Ganges (*Gangā*, mentioned only twice).

In order to use the linguistic evidence contained in this text properly, it is important to realize that it has been composed not just in two layers ('main' and 'late', as found in the handbooks), but in *three* clearly distinguishable, and very roughly datable layers (Witzel 1999, J. R. Gardner, Thesis Iowa U., 1998, Th. Proferes, Ph.D. Thesis, Harvard U., 1999, Witzel 1995):

I. the early Rgvedic period: c. 1700-1500 BC, especially the hymns in books 4, 5, 6 (and maybe book 2);

II. the important middle Rgvedic period, c. 1500-1350 BC: RV 3, 7, parts of 8.1-66 and 1.51-191;

III. the late Rgvedic period, c. 1350-1200 BC: RV 8.67-103; 1.1-50; 10, 8.49-59.

It is important to note that level I has no Dravidian loan words at all (details, below); they begin to appear only in level II and III.

Instead, we find some three hundred words from one or more *unknown* languages, especially one working with prefixes. Prefixes are typical neither for Drav. nor for Burushaski (cf. Kuiper 1991: 39 sqq., 53). Note that the "prefixes" of Tibeto-Burm. (Benedict 1972) do not agree with those of the RV substrate either. Their presence apparently excludes also another unknown language which occasionally appears in the RV and more frequently later on with typical gemination of certain consonant groups (perhaps identical with Masica's "Language X" (1979), see below; cf. Zide and Zide 1973:15). The prefixes of the RV substrate are, however, close to, or even identical with those of Proto-Munda; taking my clue from Kuiper (1962: 51,102; but see now Zide MT *II*, 1996, 96), I will therefore call this substrate language *Para-Munda* for the time being.

### §4.2. Para-Munda loan words in the Rgveda

We can start with the convenient list of Kuiper (1991), who does not, however, discuss each of the 383 entries (some 4% of the hieratic RV vocabulary!) This list has been criticized by Oberlies (1994) who retains "only" 344-358 words, and minus those that are personal names, 211-250 'foreign' words.<sup>2</sup> One can, of course, discuss each entry in detail (something that cannot be done here), but even Oberlies' lowest number would be

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Oberlies' criticism is written from an IE-centered point of view similar to that of Mayrhofer (EWA). This is fine from the point of view of someone who has to write an etymological dictionary of OIA; however, due to the clear attestation of cultural, ethnical and religious amalgamation of IIr/IA and local elements visible already in the oldest IA text, the RV, the existence of such a large number of 'foreign' words must not be minimized in its importance. Nor does Oberlies offer an explanation or analysis of the remaining 250 words; they are simply 'non-IA". In a similar vein, R.P. Das has written a much more 'engaged', nit-picking review of Kuiper's book, tellingly entitled 'The hunt for foreign words in the Rgveda' (*IIJ* 38, 1995, 207-238), which induced Kuiper to write a well-deserved, rather scathing reply in the same volume ("On a Hunt for 'Possible' Objections". *IIJ* 38, 1995, 239-247). It is difficult to understand, in view of the well-known evidence (added to in this paper), how one can regard the language (and religion, culture) of the Rgvedic Arya as 'relatively free from foreign influences' (Oberlies 1994: 347). "Pristine" languages and cultures do not exist, nor did they at c. 1500 BCE.

significant enough, in a hieratic text composed in the traditional poetic speech of the Indo-Iranian tradition, to stand out, if not to surprise. It is much more difficult to discern Munda/Austro-Asiatic words, and to distinguish them from those of an unknown local substrate (remnants of the Gangetic "Language X"), or the still unknown language of the Indus inscriptions than to establish IA or Dravidian etymologies, as an etymological dictionary of Munda is still outstanding (in preparation by David Stampe et al.). One can also sympathize with Kuiper (1991: 53): "Burrow and Emeneau understandably and rightly ignore the Pan-Indic aspects, but ... their dictionary [DEDR], by omitting all references to Munda, sometimes inevitably creates a false perspective from a Pan-Indic point of view." Nevertheless, one can, for the time being, make use of Pinnow's reconstructions of Proto-Munda in his investigation of Kharia (1959), Bhattacharya's short list (1966: 28-40), Zide & Zide's discussion of agricultural plants (1973, 1976), and Kuiper's relevant studies (especially 1955, 1991; his 1948 book is still useful, in spite of his own disavowal of it, as a collection of relevant materials). By way of caution, it must be stressed that neither the commonly found Drav. nor Munda etymologies are up to the present standard of analysis, where both the root and all affixes are explained. This is why most of the subsequent etymologies have to be regarded as preliminary.

Among the c. 380 'foreign' words of the RV, those with certain prefixes are especially apt to be explained from Munda (viz. directly from Austro-Asiatic). Instead of finding Munda prefixes just everywhere in Skt., as was done earlier in this century, we have to be more cautious now: "Owing to the typological change that has taken place in these languages, only some petrified relicts remain" (Kuiper 1991: 39). Typical prefixes in modern Munda are such as p-, k-, m-, ro-, ra-, ma-, a, ə-, u-, ka- (Pinnow 1959:10 sqq.; cf. also the plural suffix -ki in Kharia, p. 265 §341a, 211 §145c); some of them are indeed attested in the c. 300 'foreign words' of the RV.

Of interest for the RV substrate are especially the prefixes ka-, ki-,  $k\bar{\imath}$ -, ku-, ke-, which relate to persons and animals (Pinnow 1959: 11; cf. p. 265 §341a) and which can be compared, in the rest of Austro-Asiatic, to the 'article' of Khasi (masc. u-, fem. ka-, pl. ki-, cf. Pinnow 1959: 14). The following words in the RV are important, even if we cannot yet find etymologies. (In the sequel, Sanskrit suffixes and prefixes are separated from the substrate word in question).

- ka-:
- kakardu 'wooden stick', 10.102.6 EWA I 286 'unclear';
- kapard-in 'with hair knot', Kuiper 1955: 241 sqq.; EWA I 299 'non-IE origin probable'
- kabandh-in, kavandha 'barrel' Kuiper 1948: 100. EWA I 327 'unclear'
- kavasa 'straddle-legged', probably Drav., EWA I 327 'unclear'; cf. Kuiper 1948: 130.
- kākambīra 'a certain tree', EWA I 334 'unclear'
- ki-:
- kimīd-in 'a demon', 10.87.24; 7.104.2, 23 (late); EWA I 351 'unclear'; cf. śimida, śimidā 'a demoness', Kuiper 1955: 182
- su-kimśu-ka 'a tree, 'Butea frondosa', CDIAL 3149 and Add., EWA I 348 'not clear'
- kiyāmbu 'a water plant' 10.116.13, AV 18.3.6, PS 18.69.4 k[i]yāmbū, EWA I 352 'not clear'; with Kuiper 1955: 143 connected with Up. ambu 'water', Nur. abu, cf. CDIAL 576, V[i]-yāmbura 'a demon'; Drav. according to DEDR 187, Kur. amm 'water', Malto amu, Tam. am,

- $\bar{a}m$ ; Austro-As.: Sant. um 'to bathe', Khasi  $\bar{u}m$  'water', etc. (Berger 1959: 57), more likely because of prefix ki-
- kilāsa 'spotted, leprous', 5. 53.1, EWA I 354 'unclear'; Kuiper 1955: 170 'derivation unknown'
- kilbiṣa 'evil action', 5.34.4, 10.71.10; EWA I 354 'not sufficiently clear', Kuiper 1955: 175 compares TS, VS kalmāṣa 'spotted' and Epic kalmaṣa, Pkt. kamaḍha (cf. Pinnow 1959: 379 sqq., Kuiper 1991:36 sqq.), Kuiper 1948: 38, 138 on prefixes kal-, kil-, kar-; Sant. boḍor, bode, murgu'c 'dirty', with adaptation -ṣ-/ḍ- into Ved. similar to Vipāś-/Vibāl-/\*Vipāž, cf. Kuiper 1948: 6, 38
- kīkaṭa 'a tribe' 3.53.14; EWA 'foreign name of unknown origin'; prefix kī- points to Austro-As.; cf. Sant. kaṭ- 'fierce, cruel', or common totemic tribal name (like Mara-ṭa PS: Munda mara' 'peacock' IA Matsya 'fish', Kunti 'bird') ~ Sant. kaṭkom 'crab'? cf. Shafer 1954: 107, 125
- kīkasā (dual) 'vertebra, rib bone' 10.163.2, EWA I 355 'unclear'; "formation like pi-ppala, etc. and connected with lex. kaśeruka..." Kuiper 1955: 147
- kīja 'implement, spur?', 8.66.3; EWA I 355 'loan word possible'; KEWA I 214 and Kuiper 1955: 161, 165: 'doubtful Drav. etym.' (Burrow, BSOAS 12: 373)
- kīnārā dual, 'two ploughmen' 10.106.10; EWA I 356 'probably artificial for kīnāśa', rather ś/d/r, Kuiper 1948: 6, 38, 1991: 30-33, and 1955: 155f., 1991: 26 on suffixes -āśa/-āra, (cf. also -na/-ra in rāspina/rāspira); on ś as hyper-Sanskritization for ṣ/r cf. Vipāś; Kuiper 1991: 46 on suffix -śa; if kīnāra- contains a suffix, then probably no prefix kī-.
- kīnāśa 'plough man' 4.57.8 (late), AV; Kuiper 1955: 155, 1991: 14, 26, 46 see kīnāra; EWA I 356 'unclear'.
- kīlāla 'biestings, a sweet drink' 10.91.14; in AV 4.11.10 next to kīnāśa; EWA I 358 'unclear'; discussion, above: Khowar kiļāl, Nuristani kilā etc., Bur. kilāy, Kuiper 1955: 150f., CDIAL 3181.
- kīsta 'praiser, poet' 1.127.7, 6.67.10, to be read as [kisətāsaḥ] Kuiper 1991:23, 1955:155; the unusual sequence -īs- (see introd.) points to a loan word (Kuiper 1991:25); EWA I 358 'not clarified'; cf. Kuiper 1991: 20, 23, 25; to be compared with RV śīṣṭa 8.53.4 with var. lect. śīṣṭeṣu, śīrṣṭeṣu, śīrṣṭrēsa, Kuiper 1991: 7, 71; this is Sanskritization of \*k'īsəteṣu, Witzel 1999; cf. EWA II 644
- ku-:
- kuṇāru 'lame in the arm?' 3.30.8; EWA I 362 'unclear'; Kuiper 1948: 53f., 1955: 175, 176 on a Drav. and Munda explanation
- kupaya 'shimmering?' 1.140.3, in a 'intentionally ambiguous hymn' (Geldner), EWA I 366; Kuiper 1991: 56 compares kupaya with other formations in -ya.
- kumāra 'boy, young man', 4.15.7 etc. EWA I 368 'not convincingly explained'; cf. CDIAL 3523, 13488; Kuiper 1955: 146f. compares Tel. koma 'young', Tam. kommai, etc.; note, however, śi(m)śu-māra (see below), cf. Munda məndra, mər 'man'.
- *kurīra* 'women's hair dress', 10.92.8, EWA I 371 'unclear', Kuiper 1955: 152, 1991: 14, 29-31 compares Tam. *koṭu* 'horn, coil of hair', DEDR 2200
- kurunga 8.4.19, name of a chieftain of the Turvaśa (cf. Kuiper 1991: 6, 17); EWA I 371 'unclear;' however, cf. kulunga 'antelope', and the frequent totemistic names of the Munda

- kulāya 'nest' 6.15.16; EWA I 373 'unclear'; 'foreign', Kuiper 1991:14
- kuliśa 'ax' 3.2.1, 1.32.5, EWA I 374 'not securely explained'; Kuiper 1955: 161, 163 compares Tam. kulir 'battle ax'; Skt. kuṭhara, kuddāla 'hoe', and Sant., Mundari kutam 'to beat, hammer', Mundari, Ho kutasi 'hammer', Kan. kuṭṭu 'to beat, strike, pound'; cf. Kuiper 1991:14; Berger 1963: 419 \*kuḍiśa, from \*kodeś in Kharia khoṇḍe'j 'ax', Mundari koṇḍe'j 'smaller kind of wood ax', with prefix kon- and Kharia te'j 'to break'
- kuśika name of a poets' clan, RV 2 etc.; EWA I 379 'not clear'; cf. Kuiper 1991: 7
- kuṣumbhaka 'poison gland of an insect' 1.191.15-16; EWA I 381 'unclear'; if not one of the common IA animal names in -bha (śara-bha etc.), then: \*ku-šumb(h).

### • Double prefixes in Cər-.

More important, perhaps, are the so-called 'double prefixes' in Austro-Asiatic, composed of a prefix (e.g. k-) followed by a second prefix (mostly -n-, see Pinnow 1959: 11). The use of k-n- is clear in names of domesticated animals, in Sora kin-sod 'dog': Kharia solog 'dog'; Sora kim-med 'goat': Remo -me'; kəm-bon 'pig': Juang bu-tae (see Pinnow 1959: 168, cf. Jpn. buta, Austr. > Sino-Tib. \*mba(y)); Sora ken-sim 'chicken': Mundari sim; Remo gi-rem 'cat': Sora ram-en. Such double prefixes seem to be rarer in Munda now than in Eastern Austro-Asiatic; cf., nevertheless, Kuiper 1991: 94 on śar-varī 'night': śa-bala 'variegated'; Kuiper 1948: 38 on the prefixes kal-, kil-, p. 138 on the 'Proto-Munda prefix k-, 1948: 49f. 'prefix kər-, kar-, and gala-'; further cf. above, on kuliśa, Kharia khon-de'j. Note also the prefixes of Sora kār-dol 'being hungry' (D. Stampe, oral communication, June '99) and Skt. sr-kandu 'itch', Khasi śyr-ton 'comb', Stieng sər-luot 'sweet' (F.B.J. Kuiper, letter 8/24/98; tur-/tər also in Ved., Khasi, Senoi, and Austronesian (Kuiper, 1/29/99).

The clearest Vedic case is, perhaps, jar-tila 'wild sesame' AV: tila 'sesame' AV (cf. tilvila 'fertile' RV, Kuiper 1955: 157,  $tilpi\~nja$ ,  $-$\bar{\imath}$ 'infertile sesame' AV, <math>tilvaka$  'a tree'; on Sumer. connections s. below). Double prefixes, however, are typical for the Rgvedic loans, especially formations with consonant-vowel- $r = C \Rightarrow r$ -, and due to the common Vedic interchange of r/l, also  $C \Rightarrow l$ -, that were adapted in Vedic with various vowels (r, ur, etc., see Kuiper 1991: 42 sqq.; cf. below §9, on Nepalese substrate words for similar substitutions). The cases with  $C \Rightarrow r$  (note also  $C \Rightarrow n$ -,  $C \Rightarrow m$ -), include:

- karañja name of a demon, 1.53.8, karañja-ha 10.48.4; EWA I 310 'unclear', cf. the tree name karañja, DEDR 1507 Kan., Tel. kānagu, Konda karaṅ maran etc.; CDIAL 2785.
- karambha 'gruel', for a discussion, see below; Kuiper 1991: 51 sqq., 63 compares loan words with -b- > -bh- (Pkt. karamba 'gruel'); -- rather prefix kar- and popular etymology with ambhas- 'water' RV, or ambu 'water' Up., Mbh. Kuiper 1991: 63; cf. also Kurukh, Malto amm 'water', but also Tamil am, ām DEDR 187
- karkandhu later, a tree name 'Zizyphus Jujuba', but personal name in RV 1.112.6; EWA I 313 'not clear'; the Drav. word the meaning of karkandhu, DEDR 475, 2070, 3293.
- karkari 'lute' 2.43.3 (late), probably onomatopoetic, but from which language? Cf. the echo words of IA, Drav., Munda (Sant. karkur, gargar, gargor, etc.); cf. also Kuiper 1948: 55f. on Class. Skt. karkarī 'water jar', Epic gargara/-ī (based on the body of string instruments),

therefore with CDIAL 4043, CDIAL 2817 karkaṭa 'name of various plants, curved roof of a plant', NIA 'cucumber'

- kārotara 'sieve, filter' 1.116.7, EWA I 341 'not clear'
- khargalā 'owl' 7.104.17 (late), EWA I 448
- a-kharva 'mutilated' 7.32.13, EWA I 448; cf. Avest. kauruua, then not a loan word; see, however, Kuiper 1955: 176.
- kalmalīk-in 'shining' 2.33.8; EWA I 325 'unclear'; however, cf. kalmāṣa 'spotted', Kuiper 1948: 38; see above on kilbisa

Further: *kr*- [*kər*-] see Kuiper 1991: 40 sqq., 23;

- krkadāśū 1.29.7, unclear meaning, personal name? cf. krkalāsa YV?; EWA I 388 'unclear'
- kṛpīṭa 'bush, brush' 10.28.8 EWA I 394 'unclear', cf. also kṛmuka 'faggot, wood' KS, CDIAL 3340a; 'unexplained' Kuiper 1955: 160
- kṛśana 'pearl' 1.35.1, 10.68.11, 10.144.2 ūrdhva- 10.144.2, kṛśanā-vat 1.126.4, EWA I 396 'not securely explained'; Kuiper 1955: 152 compares kṛ-śana with other words for 'thick, round', such as Skt. lex. śāni 'colocynth?'
- khṛgala meaning unclear: 'staff, crutch, amulet, armor, brush?' 2.39.4; EWA I 494; cf. khargala 'owl', above, Khārgali PB? -- Kuiper 1948: 49f. 'well-known prefix kər-, kar-, and gala-'

Due to the frequent interchange k[k']/s, (see below) the prefix sar-sal belongs here as well (cf. sar-sal RVKh sar-sal

- śaryāta name of a person, 1.112.17, śāryāta 1.51.12, 3.51.7; EWA II 615 compares śara 'arrow'
- śarvarī 'night' 5.52.3, api-śarvara 3.9.7, 8.1.29; EWA II 621 compares \*śarvar, śarman 'protection'; Kuiper 1955:144 u. 1955: 170 compares śambara, karbura, Kuiper 1991: 30 śabala 'variegated' with simple prefix, as compared with prefix + infix ("double prefix") in śambara (cf. Kuiper 1948: 136)
- śalmali name of a tree, 'Salmalia malabarica', EWA II 622 'probably not to be separated from RV 3.53.22 śimbala', CDIAL 12351 (not related Tib.-Burm. \*sin 'tree'); Kuiper 1991: 65 on cases with -lm- for -mm-: 'different dissimilations of \*śamma/śimmal'.
- sṛnjaya a name of a person 6.27.7 (next to Turvaśa), 4.15.4 (next to Daivavant), sārnjaya 'descendent of S.' 6.47.25; EWA II 743 supposes connection with sṛjaya 'a certain bird' KS, which would agree with the totemistic names in Munda; cf. Kuiper 1991: 7, on non-IA tribal names in RV
- srbinda name of a demon 8.32.2; EWA II 744 with Kuiper 1991: 40,43 (and earlier) on names such as *Ku-surubinda* TS, PB, SB, *Kusur-binda* JB and *Bainda* VS 'member of the tribe of the Binds' (probably also the name of the Mountain range, post-Vedic *Vindh-ya*), *Vi-bhindu* RV 8.2.41, 1.116.20, *Vi-bhindu-ka*, *Vi-bhindu-kīya* JB §203; (cf. Kuiper 1939 = 1997: 3 sqq., 1955: 182, Witzel 1999).

In the same way, the prefixes jar, tar, nar, par, bar, śar, sr = [jər, tər] etc.: jarāyu, jarūtha (cf. also Ved. jar-tila: tila); taranta, tarukṣa, trkṣi, trtsu, nār-min̄t, epithet of a fort; nār-mara, probably the area of or the chief of  $\bar{U}rjayant\bar{t}$ ; parṇaya,  $parphar\bar{t}$ -ka, parśāna; prakankata (next to: kankata), prakala,  $parpharv\bar{t}$ , pramaganda, pra-skanva, pharva-ra, phāriva; prthi, pr-dāku [par-dak-u] < Munda da'k 'water'?, barjaha; (cf. also  $N\bar{a}r$ -sada

RV, Nār-vidāla, Nār-kavinda PS and \*ku-bind in: Ved. ku-sur(u)-binda, bainda, vi-bhindu, vi-bhindu-kī-ya).

Furthermore, the formations with other vowels that are adaptations of [-ər] as above in [kər]: tirindi-ra, turīpa, turphari, turva/turvaśa?, turvīti, tūrṇāśa, sūrmī.

Instead of Cər, the much more common double prefix of Munda, Cən-, Cəm-, is found as well: kankata; śamba, śambara (cf. śabala!), śāmbara, śimśapā, śimśumāra, śinjāra, śimbala, śimyu. Compare also the prefixes in Cəs-: puṣkara, puṣya, rāspina, rāspira.

Kuiper (1991: 39 sqq.) also discusses other prefixes, such as  $\bar{a}$ -, i-, u-, o-, ni-, bhr-, ma-, sa-, sa-, hi-. Among them, the old prefix u- (o-) would be of special interest; however, is found in the RV only in some 5 or 6 cases.

A very clear case is śa-kunti(-kā) 'bird' RV, śa-kunta 'bird' AV, Ved. śa-kunta-ka 'bird', Śa-kuntalā 'name of a nymph', Ved. Kunti 'a tribal name', next to the Matsya (IA, 'the Fishes'). The Ved. words belong to Kharia kon-the'd, Sora on-tidən, etc.; Korku ti-tid 'a certain bird', Ved. tit-tir-a 'partridge', Pinnow 1959: 160 §336; cf. however RV śa-kuna 'a (larger) bird', śa-kuni 'bird (of omen)' (Kuiper 1991: 44).

Munda-like prefixes are thus very common in the RV. One has to agree with Kuiper 1991: 39f: "According to some scholars Munda was never spoken west of Orissa, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and eastern Maharashtra... The obvious occurrence of Old Munda names in the Rigveda points to the conclusion that this statement should be revised." If (some of) these words should not go back directly to Proto-Munda, one may think, especially in the case of the untypical formation C r, of an unknown western Austro-Asiatic language, "Para-Munda" (cf. Kuiper 1962: 51, 102).

If this initial interpretation is correct, several far-reaching conclusions can be drawn. The very frequency itself of non-Drav. loan words in the early (as well as in the later) RV is remarkable: it indicates a much stronger non-Drav. substrate in the Panjab than usually admitted. Because of the great similarity with Austro-Asiatic formations and because of some already established (Para-)Munda etymologies (such as śa-kunta ~ Kharia kon-the'd, etc., Pinnow 1959 160: 336), this substrate is likely to be an early form of western Austro-Asiatic (cf. below, at the end of §4.3.)

Is the Indus language therefore a kind of Proto-Munda? Against this may speak first of all, as Kuiper states (1991), that the RV substrate does not have infixes like Munda. However, -n-infixes can perhaps be adduced in ka-bandha/ka-vandha 'headless rump', kar-kandhu 'name of a tree, Zizyphus jujuba', gandhā-ri 'name of a tribe in N. Pakistan', pra-maganda 'name of a chieftain of the Kīkata non-Aryans', śa-kunti 'bird' < PMunda \*ša-kontid, ṣr-binda, and in post-RV, e.g., ku-sur(u)-binda, bainda, vi-bhindu, vi-bhindu-kī-ya 'name of a tribe'. Yet, the substrate may be a very early form of Munda (or another variety of Austro-Asiatic) which still used prefixes actively, just like the eastern Austro-As. languages, e.g. Mon, Khmer, do even today (cf. also below, on Sumerian). Further, the infixes may have developed from prefixes which had found their way into the root (Pinnow 1959: 15). Among these, one can include 'double' prefixes such as kə-r-, šə-r-, pə-r- etc. (Pinnow 1959: 11). If this is correct, then Rgvedic Proto-Munda represents a very old stage of Austro-Asiatic indeed.

However, direct contact of the non-Indo-Aryan words in the RV with predecessors of present day Munda languages is more problematic. Some of the substrate words may, at least in part, have entered the RV through the intervention of the Indus language (lāngala etc., see below). Yet, there also are a few direct correspondences with reconstructed Proto-Munda ( $\dot{s}a$ -kunta < \*kon-ti'd) which indicate the archaic character of the para-Mundic Indus language. For example, the name of Pramaganda, the chieftain of the Kīkata (RV 3.53.14) who lived south of Kuruksetra (cf. Witzel 1995). Both words are non-Indo-Aryan and they show clear indications of Mundic character: maganda can be explained as magand with the old, now unproductive Munda prefix ma- that indicates possession. The word gand may belong to Munda \*gad/gad, ga-n-d/gand (Pinnow 1959: 351 §498) that is also seen in Ganda-kī, Gangā (Witzel 1999, if not modeled after the tribal names Anga, Vanga, see below), W. Nepali gad (as 'suffix' of river names, Witzel 1993) and apparently also in Ma-gadha (with Sanskritization > dh). Kuiper 1991: 43f. (8, 21, 96, also 1955) has explained the prefix pra- [pər] (cf. prefixes such as kər-/śər-) from Munda, which looks perfectly Indo-Aryan but in this case certainly is 'foreign'. The tribe of chief Pra-maganda (pər 'son of'? Kuiper 1991: 43), the Kīkata, has either the typical 'tribal' suffix -ta (see below) or the old Austro-As. plural prefix ki-, or maybe both. Cf. further the prefix  $k\bar{\imath}$ -/ki- in: kīnāśa/kīnāra 'plough man', Kimīdin 'a class of demons', kīkasa 'vertebra, breast bone', kīlāla 'biestings', kiyāmbu 'a water plant', all of which may be compared with the Munda prefix k- for designation of persons (and the plural prefix ki- of Khasi; note that in RV, kalso applies to items merely *connected* with humans and animals).

Further RV substrate names of persons, tribes and rivers include some exactly from the areas where Indus people are to be expected: in their late/post- Indus new settlement area (J. Shaffer 1995: 139) in the eastern Panjab, in Haryana (Kurukṣetra), and especially east of there, well into the Gangetic plains. Even during the middle/late Vedic period, the local rivers of E. Panjab are still designated by non-Indo-Aryan names: the famous Bharata chieftain Sudās crosses (RV 3.33) the Śutudrī and Vipāś and settles on the Sarasvatī. They are not explainable from IA:

Śutudrī (Satlej) < \*šə-tu-da'? from Munda \*tu 'float, drift', Kharia thu'da' < \*tu-da' (da' 'water'), Khasi pər-tīu 'outflow', (note the later popular etymology Śatadru 'running with a hundred streams'); for the Ved. substitution of 'k/' by r cf. \*kul-do' 'tiger' > kulitar-a? and \*ganda' > gandhār-i? -- Vipāś < \*vipāž/\*vibāl (cf. Vibālī RV 4.30.11-12), and note that the Sarasvatī still has a similar name, Vaiśambhalyā (with many variants, always a sign of foreign origin: TB 2.5.8.6, -bhalyā, -pālyā, -balyā ĀpŚS 4.14.4, -bhalyā Bhāradvāja Śikṣā; cf. also RV viśpalā?) < \*višambaž, \*višambāl, probably with the prefix śam/k'am- (as in Śambara, Kam-boja) from \*(vi)-šam-bāž (note the popular etymology from vi-śambala 'having widespread blankets').

The land of  $T\bar{u}rghna$  ( $T\bar{A}$ ), north of this region, has no Indo-Aryan etymology either (see EWA), and  $Kh\bar{a}n\dot{q}ava$  ( $T\bar{A}$ ) with its suspicious cluster  $-n\dot{q}$ - (K. Hoffmann 1941), south of Kurukṣetra, is inhabited by the  $K\bar{\imath}kata$  under their chieftain Pra-maganda. Note also, in the same area (Kurukṣetra), the appearance of Pinnow's u-suffixes in 'foreign words', e.g.  $Kh\bar{a}n\dot{q}ava$ ,  $K\bar{a}rapacava$ , Naitandhava (Pinnow 1953-4).

The Greater Panjab names of Gandhāra, Kubhā, Krumu, Kamboja may be added. --Gandhāri RV, Gāndhāra Br., OP Gandāra, Herodotos Gandárioi, EWA I 462, cf. Munda \*ga(n)d 'river', the river names of the Gangetic plains, Ganḍakī and Gangā, the Gandhina people on its upper course, and Nep. -gāḍ in river names. Gandhāra is formed with the common suffix -āra, -āla (Witzel 1993, 1999); -- Kubhā, cf. Skt. kubja 'bent', Kuiper 1948: 42f., Sant. kubja which belongs to Munda ḍui'j, kəb-ḍuj etc. (Pinnow 1959: 21, 91: §108, 249 §286 Kharia ḍui'j 'bend', Santali kəbḍuj 'ugly', kəbḍuju'd 'crooked', p. 435e Santali kəbnūj 'bent', etc.) -- Krumu from Munda \*kə-rum 'luke warm'?? cf. Kharia rum 'to burn', Sant. urgum 'luke warm', Mon uj-run 'humid, warm'; --The Kamboja (AV, PS < ka-mboj??) settled in S.E. Afghanistan (Kandahar); cf. OP Kambujīya (or Kambaujīya?) 'Cambyses'; however, their name is transmitted as Ambautai by Ptolemy (Geography 6.18.3), without the typical prefix; cf. also Bulitai). This change in the first syllable is typical for Munda names (see below Anga: Vanga, Kalinga: Telinga; Kulūṭa: Ulūṭa, etc.) - Mundas that far west cannot be excluded (Kuiper 1991: 39).

It may be asked, how far Austro-Asiatic speakers extended westwards during and before the RV period. Until now, the *present* distribution of the Munda languages has led to rather far-going conclusions, for example by Burrow (1958, cf. Southworth 1979: 200). Starting from the modern settlement areas of the Mundas in Eastern India (Bihar, Orissa, W. Bengal) and on the River Tapti (in northwestern Maharastra and Madhya Pradesh) he regarded it as impossible that the Munda could ever have settled in the Panjab. Kuiper, however, has been of a different opinion (1955: 140, 1991: 39, see also 1948: 8, cf. Witzel 1980, 1993 on the substrate in Nepal, and 1999 for the Panjab area). The cases discussed above indicate a strong Austro-Asiatic substrate in the Panjab, and there are some hints which point to Munda influence in the Himalayas (Konow 1905, Witzel 1993, see below) and even in E. Afghanistan (*Śambara*, *Kamboja*).

An important result therefore is, that the language of the Indus people, at least those in the Panjab, must have been Para-Munda or a western form of Austro-Asiatic.

In view of the recent comparison by the late I. M. Diakonoff of Munda and Sumerian (MT III, 54-62, but note the criticism by P. Bengtson MT III 72 sq., and cf. still differently, A. R. Bomhard, MT III 75 sqq.) this characterization of the pre-IA Panjab acquires special importance (cf. already Przyludski 1929: 145-149). If Munda were indeed related to Sumerian, names such as Ki-kaṭa, Ki-nāśa, Ki-rāṭa may no longer surprise, cf. Sum. ki 'country'. To follow up, the role of compound nouns in Sumerian versus old 'prefixes' in Munda would need further investigation. Consider, as a very vague possibility, Para-Munda pər- (pra-magandha, pra-skaṇva) and Sum. bala 'term of office, reign, dynasty'. In this regard, it should be noted that Sumerian has 'implosive' (unreleased) consonants, just as Munda, Khasi, Khmer, the Himalayan language Kanauri, the Kathmandu Valley substrate, and Sindhi, all of which may point to a S./S.E. Asian areal feature (For 'implosive', unreleased stops including labials, in Munda and Eastern Austro-Asiatic, see Pinnow 1959: 313 sqq, 316, cf. Zide1969, 416 sq. The final consonants j, d, d, g, which are also called 'checked consonants', are preglottalized and unreleased in Munda.)

If Diakonoff's proposal was borne out, the Rgvedic Para-Munda substrate in the Panjab of c. 1500 BCE would represent an early link to Sumerian. Notably, Sumerologists,

though without any firm reasons going beyond some vague mythological allusion to more eastern territories (Dilmun, etc.), think that the Sumerians immigrated from the east, from the Indus area.

If a relationship with Munda could not be confirmed by obvious etymologies, a minimal position would be to define the c. 300 non-Dravidian loan words as coming from an unknown, prefixing language of the Greater Panjab, which might be called, for lack of a self-designation, after its prominent geographical features, the Gandhāra-Khāṇḍava or perhaps better, Kubhā-Vipāś or simply, the Harappan language.

Finally, in reviewing the evidence of the Rgvedic Para-Munda, it should be taken into account that Northern and Southern Munda differ from each other in many respects, the southern version usually being more archaic (Zide 1969: 414 sq., 423), though much less known, and that both this difference as well as the shift of Munda from a prefixing language with mono-syllabic roots to one working, in typical South Asian fashion, with suffixes, may have been influenced or even may have been due to a north Indian substrate such as Masica's "Language X".

#### §4.4. Other substrates

If the Indus language is a kind of Para-Munda, a 'western' Munda, it cannot, however, be excluded that one or more *unknown* languages are involved (cf. Zide and Zide 1973:15) in the Rgvedic substrate. From the older RV onwards, we find a number of words that cannot be determined as Para-Munda. Examples include the words with geminates (see below) e.g. *pippala* RV 5.54.12 and an undetermined number of the c. 300 'foreign words.' Some of them can be traced as being loan words from more distant eastern (Austro-As.) or western (Near Eastern) languages; the path the loans have taken is clear (see below) in the case of RV *lāṅgala* <-- Indus \**langal* (<-- Sumer. *níg-galax+l* or *níg-gál* 'sickle'?, see §5.3), <--> PMunda \*ñan-kel, Austric (Makassar) naṅkala (see §5.3); Ved. *vrīhi* < Indus \**vrijhi* <-- PMunda (c. 1500 BCE) \*ərig/ Tib./Malay (')bras <-- S.E. As. \*\*əßərij (?); Ved. mayūra 'peacock' <-- N. Indus \**mayur* <-- PMunda *mara'k* 'crier' <-- Austr. (Malay) *merak* --> Sino-Tib. \**raka* 'cock'. Note also the various substrates in Burushaski, Nahali and "Dhimal" (Kiranti languages in E. Nepal) discussed in *MT* II, III and by Kuiper 1962: 14 sqq., 40, 42, 46f, 50f., Berger 1959: 79; and cf. those of the Kathmandu Valley and Tharu (s. below).

In short, the Panjab is an area of a Pre-Rgvedic, largely Para-Munda substrate that apparently overlays a still older local level which may be identical with Masica's "language X" found in the Gangetic plains (Hindi). In general, the vocabulary of Para-Munda and "language X" words is limited to local flora and fauna, agriculture and artisans, to terms of toilette, clothing and household; dancing and music are particularly prominent, and there are some items of religion and beliefs as well (Kuiper 1955, 1991). Since no traces of the supposedly Dravidian "Trader's Language" of the Indus civilization (Parpola 1994) are visible in the RV, the people who spoke this language must either have disappeared without a trace (cf. below on Meluḥḥa) or, more likely, the language of the Panjab was Para-Munda already during the Indus period (2600-1900 BCE).

The large number of agricultural words alone (Kuiper 1955) that have no Dravidian explanation indicates that the language of the Indus people cannot have been Dravidian (cf. also Southworth 1988: 663). Their successors, the Indo-Aryans, preferred to tend their cattle

and they spoke, like their brethren in spirit, the Maasai, about their sedentary non-Indo-Aryan neighbors in southern Kurukṣetra in this fashion: "what is the use of cattle among the Kīkata?" (kím te krnvanti Kīkatesu gávah, RV 3.53.14).

As we can no longer reckon with Dravidian influence on the early RV (see immediately below), this means that the language of the pre-Rgvedic Indus civilization, at least in the Panjab, was of (Para-)Austro-Asiatic nature.

This means that all proposals for a decipherment of the Indus script must start with the c. 300 (Para-)Austro-Asiatic loan words in the RV and by comparing other Munda and Austro-Asiatic words. (For the Indus script see Fairservis 1992: 14, Parpola 1994: 137 sqq., Possehl 1996b). The decipherment has been tried for the past 35 years or so mainly on the basis of Dravidian. Yet, few Indus inscriptions have been "read" even after all these years of concerted, computer-aided attempts, and not yet in a fashion that can be verified independently (cf. a summary of criticism by Zvelebil 1990). Perhaps that is not even attainable, due to the brief nature of the inscriptions (7 signs on average and hardly more than 20). Yet, Kuiper's '300 words' could become the Rosetta stone of the Indus script.

Further, investigations of the South Asiatic linguistic area (Sprachbund) must be reformulated accordingly, for example the question of the retroflex sounds, see Tikkanen 1988, and cf. Zvelebil 1990: 71 on the distinction between true retroflex sounds (domals, 'cerebrals') and cacuminals. In the RV they cannot go back either to Proto-Drav. influence, as usually assumed, because they are already found in the older part of RV (books 4,5,6) where no Drav. loans are present; they also cannot go back to Proto-Munda influences because Munda originally had no retroflexes (Pinnow 1959, except for d, an isolate in the reconstructed consonant system, see Zide 1969: 414). The clear increase of the retroflexes in RV books 1, and especially in 10 is remarkable. In the older RV one can only detect very few cases of not internally conditioned, original and clearly non-IA retroflexes: RV 6: kevaṭa 'hole'; reṇu-kakāṭa; rāṇḍya, śāṇḍa, (hiraṇya-)piṇḍa (late hymn), RV 4, 5: krīḍ-; RV 2: śaṇḍika, mārtāṇḍa, pipīḍe (from pīḍ, < IIr \*pižd)?; cf. also jaṭhára in RV 1,2,3,5,6,9,10. None of these old words is Dravidian (see below). In short, the people of the (northern) Indus civilization must have spoken with retroflexes.

Almost the same situation exists with regard to another item of suspected substrate influence, the innovation in Vedic of the grammatical category of absolutives (not found in Old Iranian!, see below). They occur in RV 4 with 1, RV 6 with 1, RV 2 with 4 cases (a relatively high number in this short book!); equally, in RV 3 with only 1, RV 7 with 4, RV 8 (Kāṇva section) with 0, RV 8 (Āṅgirasa section) with 2, RV 9 with 4; even RV 1 (Kāṇva section) only with 5. - Really innovating are only the late books RV 1 (Āṅg.) with 34, and RV 10 with 60 forms.

### §4.5. Dravidian in the Middle and Late Rgveda

As has been repeatedly mentioned, there are no traces of Dravidian language in the Panjab until c. 1500 BCE, not even of the supposedly Dravidian speaking traders and rulers of the Indus civilization; however, Drav. loan words suddenly appear in the RV texts of level II (books 3, 7, 8.1-66 and 1.51-191) and of level III (books RV 1.1-50, 8.67-103, 10.1-854; 10.85-191). These include personal and tribal names, as well as cultural terms.

For comparisons, we are limited to Burrow-Emeneau's DEDR, and a few lists from old Tamil texts, but scholars usually work directly with Tamil, Kannada, Telugu (etc.) comparisons; a reconstruction of Proto-Drav. forms is but rarely given.

To begin with, many words that have been regarded as Drav., are now explained as coming from Munda or another substrate language, for example, mayūra 'peacock' whose correspondence in Munda \*ma-ra' still has an appellative meaning, 'crier'; (PMunda \*ra'k 'to cry,' Pinnow 1959: 76 §57). However, this is not so for the Drav. designation, where 'peacock feather' is reconstructed at a level earlier than 'peacock' itself. Indeed, many of the 26 words attested in the RV that Burrow (1945, 1946, 1947-48, 1955, cf. Southworth 1979 sqq.) originally listed as Drav., as well as those added by Southworth (1979) and Zvelebil (1990) cannot be regarded as early Dravidian loans in Vedic.

Even if one would regard *all* of them, for argument's sake, as Dravidian, only *kulāya* 'nest' 6.15.16, *karambha* 'gruel' 6.56.1, 6.57.2, *ukha-cchid* 'lame in the hip' 4.19.9 occur in early Rgvedic. These words can, however, no longer be explained as Dravidian:

- *karambha* 'gruel' CDIAL 14358, no longer in DEDR; Kuiper 1955: 151 Drav. etym. as 'doubtful', EWA I 310 'unclear'; Kuiper 1991: 51 sqq. compares loan words with -b- > -bh-(Pkt. *karamba* 'gruel').
- kulāy-in 'nest-like' 6.15.16, cf. kulāyayat- 7.50.1; from Drav. CDIAL 3340, cf. DEDR 1884 Tam. kuṭai, DEDR 1883 Tel. gūḍa 'basket', but word formation? and Drav. \*-ḍ- > Ved. -l-?; EWA I 373 'not clear', comparing N.Pers kunāṃ, East Baluchi kuδām < kudāman, with the same problems; 'foreign word', Kuiper 1991: 14.
- ukha 'pan, hip' in ukha-chid 'breaking the hip, lame' 4.19.9, cf. MS 4, p. 4.9 ukhá (dual) 'hips'; DEDR 564 'particular part of upper leg': ukkam 'waist' Tulu okka 'hip'; for sound change Drav. k: Ved. kh, s. Kuiper 1991: 36, cf. 1995: 243; EWA I 210 compares Latin auxilla 'small pot', Lat. aulla 'pot' (Pokorny 88), but declares 'not sufficiently explained'. As RV 4.19 is not seen as a late hymn, this might be the oldest Drav. loan in Vedic (RV I).

Only cases in the middle and late RV remain: In the early RV (2,4,5,6) possible Drav. words are found only in some additional, late hymns (insertion after the initial collection of the RV, c. 1200 BCE, cf. Witzel 1995):

- -phala 4.57.6 'fruit' DEDR 4004, Tam. palu 'to ripen', palam 'ripe fruit', etc., see Zvelebil 1990: 78 with literature, Parpola 1994: 168; CDIAL 9051, 9057; EWA II 201 doubts Drav. origin, and derives it from IA phal/r 'to coagulate, condense', but finds 'origin of IA \*phal/phar not explained'; that means, a Middle RV loan from Drav. remains possible, or from Munda: Sant. piṭiri 'swelling of glands as in mumps', Sora pēl 'to swell, grow in bulk (seeds)'; cf. Kuiper 1955: 144, 158, 183 (cf. also, 1948: 163, Kharia poṭki 'to sprout', potri 'pregnant'); Pinnow 1959:173, §378.
- phāla 'plough share' 4.57.8, Turner, CDIAL 9072, connects phalati, Iran. \*spāra, and thinks that it has been influenced later on by Drav./Munda; not in DED(R); EWA compares N.Pers. supār, Pashto spāra, Iškašmi uspir < \*spa/ārya?
- -piṇḍa 6.47.23 'ball, dumpling'; the many divergent NIA forms speak for a loan word, see CDIAL 8168 and add.; Drav., Burrow 1946: 23; Munda, Kuiper 1948: 142, 162, cf. 1991: 14; DEDR 4162 Tam. piṇṭi, Konda piṇḍi etc. 'flour'? EWA II 128 'unexplained'; cf. also K. Hoffmann 1941: 380 sqq. and perhaps Armenian pind 'compact, firm' < Iran. (< Ved.?)

In middle RV (3,7,8):

- kuṇāru 3.30.8 'lame in the arm?', or name of a person, see EWA I 362 'unclear'; perhaps connected with Epic kuṇi 'lame', kuṇṭa 'defective'; however, compare Drav.: Kan. kuṇṭa 'cripple', Mal. kuṇṭan 'cripple', etc., CDIAL 3259-60, DEDR 1688
- mayūra 3.45.1 DEDR 4642, 'peacock' PS, mayūrī 'pea hen' RV 1.191.14, mayūra-roman 'having hair like peacock (' feathers)' RV 3.45.1, mayūra-śepya 'a peacock-like tail' RV 8.1.25; generally regarded as Drav.: DEDR 4642 Tam. maññai, mayil; northern Kasaba dialect of Irula muyiru, Tulu mairu, Konda mrīlu, miril, (\*mayil/mayir, see Zvelebil 1990: 77, with discussion and lit.). However, originally from Munda: PMunda \*mara' 'crier', Kharia mara', Santali, Mundari, Ho mara', Kurku mara, Sora mārān 'peacock, Pavo cristatus', see Pinnow 1959: 205 §90; cf. also Skt. marūka (lex.) 'peacock, deer, frog, Curcuma Zerumbet', and Khotanese Saka murāsa 'peacock' (EWA II 317, KEWA II 587, CDIAL 9865, add. 9865, DEDR 4642, Bagchi 1929: 131, Southworth 1979: 191 sqq., 200, cf. Zvelebil 1990: 77, Hock 1975: 86). The rare tribal name *Mara-ta* PS 5.2.1, 12.2.1 (Witzel 1999) belongs here; the Marata probably lived south of the Ganges and north of the Vindhya. The above may indicate that the Dravida entered into contact with some groups of Munda speakers fairly early (before the Middle RV); however, just as in the Vedic case, one or two intervening language(s) (\*mayil / \*mayur) must delivered the word to Drav. and Vedic, for example the "Language X" or rather a Northern and Southern Indus language; in the south, this must have occurred before Sindh was practically deserted in the post-Indus phase (Allchin 1995: 31 sqq.). The Ved. form mayūra may have been influenced by māyu 'bleating'.
- phala 3.45.4 see above
- kāṇa 7.50.1 'one-eyed' EWA I 336 'unclear'; cf. Avest. karəna 'deaf': karəna 'ear' and cf. DEDR 1159 Tam. kaṇ 'eye' and 1443 kāṇ 'to see', both now without reference to Skt.; Zvelebil 1990: 79 compares DEDR 1159 and finds, 'rather speculative', the Drav. negative suffix -a/-ā; cf. Kuiper 1991: 79. --However, cf. Burushaski śon, śōn 'blind' (see above, with northwestern interchange of Ved. ś/k, Witzel 1999); note also that kāṇa is found as hapax RV 10.155.1 next to 'mountain', a 'foreign' name and an onomatopoetic: girim gaccha 'go to the mountain!', Śirimbiṭha, budbud- 'making bubbling sounds' (cf. Sant. budu'c budu'c 'to bubble up').
- kulpha 7.50.2 'ankle', CDIAL 4216, from Drav.; cf. DEDR 1829 kulampu 'hoof'?; EWA I 376 'completely unclear', Kuiper 1955: 148 loan word because of AV gulpha and points (1991: 35) to variant forms in Ved. (gulpha) and MIA (gopphaka, guppha, gompha).
- daṇḍa 7.33.6 (late) 'stick', DEDR 3048 Mal. taṇṭa 'forearm, arm', Tel. daṇḍa, etc., cf. DEDR 3051, CDIAL 6128; Munda, Kuiper 1948: 76: Sant. ḍaṇṭa 'thick stick, club', ḍa(ṇ)ṭiṭit 'stem (of mushrooms)', ḍaṇḍi 'stick, staff, stalk', cf. Mundari ḍāṇḍi 'small stick'; EWA I 691 'not explained'
- kuṇḍa- 'vessel' 8.17.13 can be compared with Avest. kunda/-ī, kundižā, the name of demons; Dravid., DEDR 1669 Tam. kuṭṭam 'deepness, pond', Tel. kuṇṭa, kuṇḍu, Kur. xoṇḍxā etc., DEDR 2082; Kuiper 1948: 76 Drav., 1991:14 'foreign'; CDIAL 3265; EWA I 363 points to the difference in meaning between Drav. and Ved. and concludes 'unclear, perhaps loan word'
- mayūra 8.1.25, see above

- nala~8.1.33 'reed', nada/nala/nada, EWA II 7 from IIr. \*nada (Nuristani  $n\bar{o} < *nada$ , Parthian nad 'flute', N.Pers.  $n\bar{a}y$  'flute') < IE \*nedo (Hitt. nata 'reed', Armenian net), however without actual explanation of the variation \*d > d (cf. Mayrhofer 1968); DEDR 3610 compares, strangely, Tam. nal 'good' with the Skt. name Nala, idem Zvelebil 1990: 82; however, Nala is found in Vedic, ŚB 2.3.2.1-2 Nada~Naisidha, and in Mbh. Nala~Naisadha as king of the (probable) Munda tribe of the Nisidha/Nisadha = Ved. Nisada~Maisadha (MS, VS, see below); cf. Kuiper 1991: 33 on d/d, and p. 19  $n\bar{a}l\bar{\imath}$  10.135.7 'flute, pipe' (cf. 1948: 82).
- kāṇuka 8.77.4; (poet: Kurusuti Kāṇva) next to saras 'pond'; unclear in meaning and etym., EWA I 336; Kuiper 1991 as foreign.

In late RV (1, 10):

- ulūkhala 1.28 'mortar' DEDR 672 Tam. ulukkai, Kan. olake, Koḍagu oḷake, and Kota. oḷka, oḷkal kal '(stone) mortar', Malto loṛa 'stone to grind spices' (S. Palaninappan, by letter); EWA I 231 'problematic'; cf. Zvelebil 1990: 79 with lit., Kuiper 1991: 14, 41 'still unexplained', compares loan words with prefix u-; note Sumerian ur5 'millstone', Proto-South Drav. \*ur-al 'mortar' (Blažek and Boisson 1992: 24); is there a connection with khala 'threshing floor' RV 10.48.7?
- vriś 1.144.5 'finger', DEDR 5409 Tam. viral, Go. wirinj, now without reference to Skt. vriś; EWA II 597 from IA \*vreś 'to bend', Avest. uruuvaēs 'to bend, curve'
- bila 1.11.5, 1.32.11 'hole, cave' CDIAL 9245 'Dravid.'; DED 4459 = DEDR 5432 now without reference to Skt., cf. also DEDR 4194; Kuiper 1991:14 'foreign', EWA II 225 'not clear'
- a-phalā 10.71.5 'without fruit', see above;
- phal-inī 10.97.15 'having fruits', see above;
- *mayūra* 1.191.14, see above;
- *pinda* 1.162.19, see above
- kūṭa 10.102.4 'hammer' DEDR 1651, 1655, 1883, app. 29; previously explained by Burrow as Drav., later explained by him as IE (German hau-en), but see EWA I 384 'unclear'
- phāla 10.117.7 'plough share', see above
- phala 10.146.5 'fruit', see above
- *kāna* 10.155.1, see above
- kaṭu(ka) 10.85.34 'pungent'; CDIAL compares khaṭṭa 'pungent'; EWA I 290 Lithuanian kartùs 'bitter'? or DEDR 1135 Tam. kaṭu 'to pain; pungent; cruel, harsh, bitterness', Kurukh xaṛxa 'bitter', Malto qaṛqe 'bitter', Brahui xarēn 'bitter' etc.
- bala(?) RV 1,3,5,6,7,9,10 'strength, force'; EWA compares Latin de-bilis etc., IE \*belo-, otherwise not found in IIr. (perhaps in Osset./Sarmatian); see, however, Kuiper 1990: 90, on the rare IE (initial) b-, and on the impossibility of an IE etymology; cf. CDIAL 9161; now, against Drav. origin Burrow, see EWA II 215; cf., nevertheless, DEDR 5276 Tam. val 'strong', Kurukh balē 'with the help of', Brahui balun 'big'.

The same is the case with some words that have later on been added and discussed (Sanskrit Index of the DEDR, p. 759-763) and elsewhere. Most of them are too late to be of interest here. In DEDR we find:

Early RV: phalgu 'minute, weak' 4.5.14, kalaśa 'vessel' 4.27.5, 6.69.2, 3.32.15, 7.69.6; and later: tadit 'flash' 2.23.9 (late), 1.94.7 phāla 'plough share' 4.57.8 (late); -- middle RV: ukhā 3.53 'pan, hip' (late), kavaṣa 'straddle legged', a personal name 7.18.12, kūla 'slope, bank' 8.47.11. -- late RV: ukhā 'pan, hip' 1.162.13,15; khala 'treshing floor' 10.48.7.

Of these, only *phalgu* 'minute weak' (RV 4) remains as a possible early loan into IA, if it indeed belongs to DEDR 4562, Tam. *pollu* 'empty husk of grain'; EWA II 203 has an IE etymology. Again, all other words regarded as Dravidian appear only in the *middle* and especially in the in *later* RV.

Southworth (1990, 1995) adds the following examples of early contact between Drav. and Indo-Ar., however, without ordering the texts historically.

- car-, carati RV: Tamil cel 'to go, flow, pass, be suitable' (already Perunku<u>nr</u>ūr Kilā<u>r</u>, c. 160-200 CE); DEDR 2781 "probably from IA", CDIAL 4715; IA, without problems from IE \*kwel(h); perhaps accidental agreement with Drav. cel.
- māyā 'confusion, wonderment, awe' RV (found in all of RV, just as māy-in, mayā-vat, mayā-vin), = Avest. māiiā 'awful power' :: Tam. maya- 'mistake, misunderstand'; mayakku- 'bewilder, confuse, intoxicate, alcohol' etc.; DEDR 4706, without comparison with Skt.; the Skt. and Drav. meanings do not agree; also, as attested that early in the RV and Iran., Drav. origin (only Middle-RV Drav. influence!) is unlikely, -- unless it would have taken place in Iran (Southworth 1979: 196f.: "high degree of contact ... at the earliest period for which we have records and possibly before"); however, see below, on tanū.
- Southworth 1979: 203, 228 f., 1990: 222-3, 1995 reconstructs as further indication of early contact between Drav. and Indo-Ar. in Iran, a word \*tanu 'self', Tamil tān/tan 'oneself', tanū RV 'body, self/oneself', for this meaning see now J. R. Gardner, U. of Iowa Ph.D. thesis, 1998. The variation in vowel length in the Drav. pronoun (Tam. tān/tan 'oneself') is old (Krishnamurti 1968). However, next to the RV instances, there is Avest. tanū 'body, self', OP tanū 'body', however, they all have no clear IE etymology. Pokorny 1959: 1065, 1069 derives them from IE \*ten 'to stretch', in other IE languages the meaning mostly is 'thin'; EWA II 622 connects tan-ū '\*Ausdehnung, ausgespannte Hülle' with tan. The comparison of the IIr. and Drav. words would presuppose a very close relationship between Drav. and (pre-)Indo-Ar. tribes, as pronouns are not taken over easily. Such early Drav.-IA relationships are not found otherwise: there are no early loans in designations of material culture, e.g. pastoralist terms in Vedic/Drav.: horse: aśva: ivuli, kutira, cow: gau-:ā(n), sheep: avi: (y)āṭu, kori, goat: aja: (y)āṭu, kori, dog: śvan: nāy, nāi. This would rather point against a neighborly relationship of both languages in any pre-South Asian context.
- garda-bha 'donkey' RV late, only 1.23.5, appendix hymn 3.53.23 next to rāsa-bha 'donkey'!, RV Vālakhilya 8.56.3 :: Tam. kalutai, Gondi gārdi, etc., to which DEDR 1364 compares Skt. gardabha; CDIAL 4054; EWA I 473 cf. gard 'to cry shout', not from Drav.
- piśāca, piśācī AV, piśāci- 'demon' RV late: 1.133.5 :: Tam. pēy- 'devil, goblin, madness' DEDR 4468, without comparison with Skt., and without suffixing -śāci-, only: pēytti, pēycci, pēcci 'demoness'. -- Ved. piś- may derive from Tam. pēy etc. if, with Zvelebil 1970: 111, Drav. -c- > s > y.

- śava (not in RV, diff. Southworth 1979: 197), only AVP: Tam. cā- 'to die' (Kural), Ko. ca-v- 'corpse' DEDR 2426 compares Skt. śava; EWA II derives śava from śav 'to swell' AVP; CDIAL 12356 not from Drav. As the word is early in Drav., perhaps accidental look-alike.
- paṭhati 'to recite' RVKh., TĀ, Up.: Tam. pāṭu 'sing, chant', pāṭṭu 'song', attested already in Perunkunrūr Kilār, DEDR 4065 without reference to IA; EWA II 69; CDIAL 7712 < \*pṛthati; Drav. <-- Indo-Ar., Burrow-Emeneau 1962: 46, no. 242. Rather to be derived from MIA pupil's slang Ved. prath 'to spread out (a text, in recitation)'?; compare the frequent loan words in the context of Vedic teaching and learning: maṇḍala, kaṇḍa, kāṇḍa, prapāṭhaka, paṭala, daṇḍa, MIA: orimikā 'a section of KS' etc.
- nagara 'town' TĀ, but cf. already nagar-in JB :: Tam. nakar 'house abode, town, city'; cf. EWA II 5, CDIAL 6924; DEDR 3568 IA --> Tam. nakar 'house, town, etc.' But why nakar from Skt.? There is no IA etymon, nor is there one in Drav. and Munda. Drav. for settlements: DEDR 3568 nakar 'house, town', 1655 kuṭi 'home', 3868 paṭṭi 'cow stall, village', 5393 viṭu(ti) 'temporal residence', 2007 cēri 'street, village', 752 ūr 'village', 4362 pūṇṭi 'town, village', 4047 pākkam 'seaside village', 4646 maṭappam 'agricultural town', 807 eyil 'fortress'; 4064 pāṭi 'town', 4112 pāḷi 'temple, town', 4555 Kan. poḷal 'town', 5549 vai, 3911 pati, 2814 cēr; 3638 nāṭu 'open country' (opp. nakaram); -- cf. also Skt. haṭṭa 'market'~ Santali, Mundari, Ho hatu, Korwa watu < PMunda \*watu Pinnow 1959: 79 §69.-- In short, the word may be a loan from the southern Indus language or one from the Malwa area.

Thus, the words added by Southworth are post-Rgvedic (śava, paṭhati, nagara), or they are attested in relatively late RV sections (gardabha, piśāci), or they are of dubious nature (car, māyā, tanū). Therefore, it is not possible to suppose, with Southworth, an early close contact, even in Iran, and on all levels of society, of Dravidas and Indo-Aryans. Rather, one has to agree with Kuiper, who stresses the very hesitant acceptance of non-Indo-Aryan words and forms in the high level, poetic language of the RV. The words collected by Southworth in his second list can have been taken over into Drav. at any time after the RV, e.g. accu 'axle' < aksa RV.

Furthermore, most of the c. 800 words in the list provided by DEDR, p. 759-764 are attested only in the Epics or in class. Skt. Of the c. 61 words listed in the appendix of DEDR which are supposed to come from Indo-Aryan, only a few can be regarded as (possible) early loans; they all should be checked in early Tamil before something that even approaches a final decision can be made.

Finally, among the words in Zvelebil's recent list (1990: 77-82) of 22 "early" Drav. loans into Skt., most have already been discussed above; yet, none of them nor the ones newly mentioned are Rgvedic: 8. bilva 'Aegle marmelos, Bel tree' AV, 10. kuṇapa 'corpse' AV, 11. kurkura 'dog' AV, 12. arka 'Calatropis gigantea', ŚB, 12a. candana 'sandal wood, paste' Nirukta, 13. kavaca 'armor' PS, ŚB, kavacin AV, 13a. jaṭā 'matted hair' GS, 13b. mālā 'flower necklace', GS, mālya RVKh, 13c. eḍa 'sheep' KŚS, eḍaka JB, aiḍaka ŚB. The rest of the words are only post-Vedic.

Zvelebil's summary is: "as Emeneau (1971) writes, 'We end, then with a small, but precious handful of Vedic forms for which Dr. etymologies are certain and acceptable as may be expected in this field of areal linguistics, adding, though that no chronology of the borrowings is possible" (Zvelebil 1990: 81; similarly Parpola 1994: 168). According to what has been said above, this has to be modified drastically: Rgvedic loans from Drav. are

visible, but they also are now datable *only* to middle and late Rgvedic (in the Greater Panjab), and they can both be localized *and* dated for the Post-Rgvedic texts (Witzel 1987, 1989).

Of all the words mentioned so far that have been regarded as Drav., only the following few are possible, though not uncontroversial, for the early RV:

ukha[-chid] 'hip[-breaking]' 4.19.9; phalgu 'minute' 4.5.14, āṇi 'lynch pin' 5.43.8 (whose ultimate source is unclear, and, very tentatively, bala 'force' 5.57.6, 5.30.9, probably from IE, cf. Latin de-bilis).

Whether this is enough to ensure the presence of (even a small number of) speakers of Dravidian in the Panjab during early RV times may remain in the balance. These few village type words would constitute a strange legacy of the c. 700 years of the great Indus civilization, had it been speaking Dravidian. From the middle RV, however, come: kavaṣa 'straddle legged', (a personal name) 7.18.12, kūla 'slope, bank' 8.47.11 and perhaps also kuṇḍa 'vessel' 8.17.13. Burrow (1955, 1958) regards the Drav. element in Vedic as having come from Northern Drav., but cf. Zvelebil 1990: 46.

If the middle and late RV words mentioned above are accepted as Drav. and even if some of the words *excluded* above for the early RV should be accepted, this would not change the general picture: There is *very* little Dravidian, but there are about 300 words of the Indus substrate.

For it cannot be said, conversely, that there were, during the older and middle RV, clear indications (or: "a precious handful", Zvelebil) of a strong Drav. substrate in the Panjab. At best, one can speak of a few very isolated cases which have been taken over into the RV; clearly this indicates an adstrate rather than a substrate.

This result is important for the time of the immigration of speakers of Dravidian into the Panjab and it specifically underlines that the Indo-Aryans did not at once get into contact with speakers of Drav. but only much later, when the tribes speaking IA were already living in the Panjab and on the Sarasvatī and Yamunā. Apparently, Dravidian speakers began influencing the Panjab only at this moment in time (cf. Allchin 1995: 31 sqq., see above). Consequently, all linguistic and cultural deliberations based on the early presence of the Drav. in the area of speakers of IA, are void or they have to be reinvestigated.

It cannot be argued that the immigration of the Dravidians into the Panjab should have taken place earlier than discussed above, for the simple reason that Drav. words do not exist in that early period; the same is the case if only the upper class such as traders (cf. vanij 'trader?' RV 1.112.11, 5.45.6, AV, (pra-)vāṇa 'trade?' 4.24.9, see Kuiper 1955: 168) and administrators of the Indus Civilization was composed of Dravidian speakers (Parpola 1994, Fairservis in: Southworth, 1979: 208, 228; contra, Hock 1975: 87f., cf. Southworth 1992: 663), and that in consequence, the Indus inscriptions should be read as Dravidian. In this case, one would expect, after some 400-700 years of the flourishing of the Indus civilization, cases of bilingualism. Consequently, much more Drav. influence should have been retained than visible in the few (late) words found in the c. 380 'foreign' words. One would expect at least a few important loan words from the fields of trade, handicraft or state organization (at least, from the post-Indus, village level type cultures). This, again, is not the case. Pani '(rich) foreigner, demon' cannot be connected with 'trader' inside the RV,

and paṇ 'to barter' appears first only in (post-Rgvedic) KS, pra-paṇa 'trade' AV, prati-paṇa 'exchange' (see EWA II 69, DEDR 3884 does not help: paṇ 'work, service', paṇikkaṇ 'carpenter'; cf. Kuiper 1955: 168, on vāṇa, vaṇij.) In addition, there are not many designations of RV artisans, except for IA takṣan 'carpenter', etc. (see below). Even if Drav. had been the traders' language, one would be at loss to answer the question why Drav. influence is only seen in the middle and late RV as well as later one (AV+).

Summing up, early Dravidian influence in the Panjab can be excluded, but must be explained for the following middle and later RV periods (cf. also Kuiper 1997: 7 sq). This is best done by the scenario mentioned above: middle and later RV immigration of Drav. speakers from Sindh. Incidentally, it must be noted that in all of the RV, there are no typical Drav. words for agriculture which should be expected if the Indus people of the Panjab had been speakers of Dravidian. This agrees with the reconstruction of Fairservis (1995), Southworth (1979, 1988, 1990: 663 'an "Indus" or "Harappan" language or group of languages'), and McAlpin (1979) of early Dravidian: an originally pastoral society that acquired agriculture only in South Asia. All of this indicates that we have to take a closer look at the regions bordering the Panjab in the South, especially Sindh.

### §5.1. Greater Sindh

In contrast to the clear picture of the Panjab in Rgvedic times, the situation in Greater Sindh is much more vague and the following results must remain tentative. The RV does not mention this area as such, yet there are some indications that Sindh and neighboring Baluchistan were known. First of all, the *Bhalānas* tribe took part in the Ten Kings' Battle (RV 7.18) that settled the suzerainty of the Bharata chieftain over the Panjab tribes. The *Bhalānas* are identified with the *Bolān* pass and river near Quetta in Baluchistan. Unfortunately, southern local rivers are not mentioned anywhere in the RV south of the Gomatī (Gomal River).

However, data from RV book 8 may supplement our scanty information. Book 8 has long been connected with Eastern Iran: K. Hoffmann (1940 = 1975: 1 sqq.) has pointed to Iranian looking names such as Kaśu ~ Avest. Kasu- (EWA I 330), Kaśu Caidya 8.5.37, Kanīta ~ Scythian Kanītēs, cf. further Tirindira 8.6.46 ~ Tiridatēs ~ Avest. Tīrō.nakavßa, Kṛśa 8.59.3 ~ Kərəsāspa, Parśu 8.6.46 ~ OP Pārsa 'Persian', Paktha 8.22.10 (mod. Pashto, Paktho), Varo Suṣāman 8.60.18 (with unusual Sandhi), Arśasāna 8.12.9, 2.20.6, etc., Anarśani 8.32.2 ~ Iran. əršan-? All such names, if Iranian, belong to pre-Iranian tribes that spoke a dialect close to the one that later developed to E. Iranian (cf. the similar case of the Mitanni-Aryans, below). Book 8 also knows of camels (uṣṭra 8.4.21-24, 31, 46-48, O. Iran. uštra, as in Zaravuštra), that are first attested archaeologically in S. Asia in the Bolān area, at Pirak, c.1700 BCE.

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The area west of Sindh, Makran or Gedrosia, is known in Old Persian as Maka and its people as Maciya; this continues the old Mesopotamian designation Makan (Sumer. Mágan, Elam. Ma-ak-qa, Akkad. Ma-ak, Greek Mákai) which included the other coast of the Gulf, in Oman. It may be that indigenous populations held on in this area for a long time as it is altogether missing in the list of "Aryan" countries in the Avesta (V. 1). Along this coast and the few rivers flowing into the Gulf, there were many Indus settlements. Further inland, the oasis along the Bampūr river was known to the Mesopotamians as Marhaši, an area that no longer belonged to the Elamite speaking lands which extended from Susa and Anšan to Simaški (Tepe Yahya/Shahdad).

Now, apart from RV 3 and 7, Drav. words occur first in the Middle RV book 8, more specifically in its Kāṇva section (RV 8.1-48, and 8.49-59, 60-66); they include kuṇḍa- 8.17.13, mayūra 8.1.25, naḍa/naḷa 8.1.33 (see below); note also the many words in RV 8 with retroflexes (Kuiper 1991: 17, Hoffmann 1941, 1975:16, Kuiper 1967: 84 n. 18, 86 n. 26).

If one takes all of this seriously and locates at least the Kāṇva sections of book 8 in East Iranian lands, that is in (S.W.) Afghanistan and Baluchistan, one can also adduce the very name of this clan of poets. K. Hoffmann (and I) have connected the name with kr 'to act magically, to do sorcery' (Hoffmann 1975: 1 sqq., Witzel 1983-5). Kuiper (1991: 80) has correctly objected there also is Pra-skaṇva, with the common Indus prefix pra-\*[par-]. This may mean that the Indus language extended to Eastern Iran, especially to the area west of Sindh, to Baluchistan, and to Makran with its many Indus settlements. Book 8 would then represent an amalgam of Dravidian and Para-Munda influences (including some pre-Iranian?).

Dravidian influence in Middle Rgvedic (the time of king Sudās) can be traced back, with some probability, to the areas from Arachosia to Sindh as well. It is here that Drav. place names are assumed to appear first (cf. L.V. Ramaswamy Iyer 1929-30). These names (showing MIA development p > v) extend from Sindh via Gujarat and Maharastra to the South: Sindhi -vali, Gujarati -wārī/warī (Sankalia 1949), Mar. -oli, all from a Drav. word for 'village' (Tam. paḷḷi 'hamlet', Kan. paḷḷi, haḷḷi, Tel. palli 'village', Kur. pallī DEDR 4018, CDIAL 7972, see Parpola 1984, 1994: 170 sqq., 1997; Southworth 1995: 271, see further, below).

A similar view has been proposed, on the basis of linguistic and archaeological observations, by Zvelebil (1972, 1990: 48, 123), Southworth and McAlpin,<sup>3</sup> and Fairservis (1992: 17, 21). It has to be underlined, however, that McAlpin's reconstruction of an Elamo-Dravidian language family has not been accepted by Dravidologists. Fairservis and Zvelebil think of an immigration by Drav. speaking tribes at c. 4000/3500 BCE, from the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> McAlpin 1981 is based on the lexico-statistic calculation of P. Gardner 1980; he distinguishes: Proto-Dray.: South Dray./Central Dray. - Brahui 4100-3000 BC

PDr-1: SDr/CDr - Kurukh-Malto 2800-1900 BC

PDr-2: SDr - CDr (Kolami, Naiki, Parji) 1500-1100 BC

PDr-3: SDr I - SDr II (Tamil, Telugu) 1000-900 BC.

mountainous lands of East Iran into the Indus valley. Both underline data that characterize the Dravida as originally pastoral hill tribes.

In sum, we may reckon with early Drav. pastoralists (Fairservis 1992, 1997) in Baluchistan and later on, after a period of acculturation with the Indus people, we may encounter Drav. farmers (Southworth 1979, 1990, 1995) who practiced intensive rice (Kenoyer 1998: 178, Jarrige 1985) and millet cultivation in Sindh.

### §5.2. The languages of Sindh

In addition to these western (Dravidian, pre-Iranian) elements there also are local 'Sindh' ones. First of all, it is precisely in this area that rice was first introduced into the Indus civilization. It occurs first as *odana* 'rice gruel' in the (partly E. Iranian) Kaṇva book (RV 8) in the Emuṣa myth, which clearly smacks of 'foreign' origin: RV 8.69.14, 8.77.6-11, 8.77.10, (cf. also 8.96.2, 1.61.7, and in *vy-odana* 8.63.9; summary and discussion by Kuiper 1991: 16 sqq.) He had explained it earlier on (1950) as Austro-Asiatic, but is more cautious now (Kuiper 1991: 18f., cf. below). On closer observation, we can notice a mixture of an IA, Austro-Asiatic and possibly Drav. myth.

Kuiper (1991) now shows that the Kaṇvas, non-IA local sorcerers, introduced this myth into the RV. At any rate, the motif is unusual for the RV. Its hero is a divine bow shooter (probably seen on an Indus copper plate, only at Mohenjo Daro, in Sindh, Parpola 1997: 39; cf. also Avesta, Yt. 8.6,37 ərəxša, Kṛśānu RV 4.27.3, Rudra, and Murukan in S. India; for 'bow' see KS dālbhūṣī, MS drumbhūlī; with PDrav -ṛ- > [l] / [ž], Kuiper 1991: 26). This bow shooter splits a mountain, finds the odana rice gruel and kills the boar Emuṣa. The myth is an imitation of the well known Rgvedic Vala myth (splitting the mountain cave containing the cows/dawns), but is otherwise completely alien to the RV.

Now, the suffix -uṣa (Kuiper 1991) of Emuṣa clearly indicates a name taken from the (Para-Munda) Indus language. This points to a late myth (because a latecomer, rice, is important), adopted from the local southern or southwestern Indus region and from beyond.<sup>4</sup> Second, the word for 'rice' occurs in a Sindh and a Panjab variety (see below). The Sindh version, closer to Dravidian, has been transmitted further west, along the southern trading route to Fars and has entered western languages from there (Greek oryza).

Whether rice was otherwise known to the Rgveda is doubtful. Rice was introduced towards the end of the Indus civilization in its southern areas, in Sindh (Kenoyer 1998: 178, in Pirak, along with newly introduced sorghum and millet, and also horse, donkey, camel). In this case, we have again to reckon with a (West-)Munda word: odana is connected with odi(kā) 'wild rice' (lex., CDIAL 2546) and Santali horo, huru 'rice plant' (EWA I 280) and explained as Munda loan (Berger 1963: 420, Kuiper 1950: 179; but cf. Zide and Zide 1973: 8-9 on Mundari kode, Kharia kuḍa 'millet, ragi'). Together with the introduction of rice its charter myth (Malinowski) may have been taken over as well. As has been mentioned, the Dravidians originally had neither a word for 'rice' nor for the staple food of the Indus civilization, wheat.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> It has to be observed that the boar does not play a role in the Indus civilization: "apparently not domesticated, not used in Indus economy" Kenoyer 1998: 165; this rather seems to be an eastern phenomenon (thus Munda?); cf. below Munda and Sino-Tib. 'pig' and cf. the ancient boar cult on the Nicobar Islands.

In sum, it can be said that we may have to reckon with a combination of several factors in the southern Indus area: with the (Para-Munda) Indus language, with some more eastern Munda influences, with immigration from E. Iran in the person of Vasiṣṭha (RV 7) and of (pre-)Old Iranian tribes into Baluchistan and the neighboring Kachi plain of the Indus valley (e.g. at Pirak, 1700 BCE), and with Dravidian immigration.

As mentioned above, Zvelebil (1970, 1990) is of the opinion that the Dravida entered South Asia from the Iranian highlands. Their oldest vocabulary (Southworth & McAlpin) is that of a semi-nomadic, pastoral group, not of an agricultural community. They are thus not expected to have their own word for 'wheat'. Wheat, however, was the staple of the Indus civilization, and was called in Dravidian by an adaptation of a local word: \*gō-di 'low red plant' (Southworth 1988, 1979, 1990) which is quite different from the Panjab word \*go-dum > Vedic godhūma 'cow smoke' (details below). If the Dravidians acquired agriculture only in the hills bordering S. Asia, they may very well have been inhabitants of Baluchistan at the time. At any rate, neighboring Sindh, just as Gujarat and Maharastra, show place names that are explainable from Dravidian \*paḷḷi (see above). Then, according to archaeology, a large section of the population of Sindh left this area towards the end of the Indus period. They moved further east, to Gujarat, where we find a late, local phase of the Indus civilization (Rangpur phase IIb, IIc, see Allchin 1995: 32 sqq., Kenoyer 1998: 173 sqq.), and, again, Drav. place names.

It is indeed possible that the Dravida constituted a first wave of central Asian tribes that came to Iran before the IA, just as the Kassites came to Mesopotamia before the Mitanni-IA. In that case they knew the horse already in Central Asia, but would not have taken it over directly from the Indo-Iranians (as may be indicated by Brahui  $(h)ull\bar{\imath}$ , O.Tam. ivuli 'horse', etc., different from IIr.  $a \pm va$ ). In other respects as well, they have not been influenced by the Indo-Iranians.

One can even assume that the early testimony of the introduction of horse and camel from the Iranian plateau into Sindh (Pirak and Kachi plain in western Sindh) is due to the Dravida (c. 1700 BCE, Kenoyer 1998: 178; Allchin 1995: 31). In that case, it must be investigated why they apparently did not preserve a word for 'camel'. In this fashion, that is through the mediation of the Dravida in Sindh, Drav. \*variñci 'rice' must have reached Iran (> M.Pers. brinj), that is not, as otherwise common, via the northwestern Khaiber Pass, as in this region another form of the word is found, with \*vrijhi > Pashto wrizē, etc. (see below).

This may mean, on the one hand, that the Dravida themselves were immigrating at the time of the older RV, or that they only influenced the Panjab in the later, Middle Rgvedic period, coming from Sindh. This is perhaps supported by archaeological facts, for Sindh was practically deserted by its population in the post-Indus phase (Allchin 1995: 31 sqq.) It is from this Southern basis that they suddenly appear in mid-level RV, with names such as Kavaṣa 'straddle legged' (K. Ailūṣa RV), cf. Śailūṣa "dancer, singer" VS (EWA II 655, Kuiper 1991:20, 25, 42) which Kuiper 1991: 24 explains with reference to Dravidian: initial c- is often dropped in South (!) Dravidian; further examples in RV are: Śirimbīṭḥa: Irimbiṭhi EWA II 639, cf. also śirinā 'hiding lace, night?': irīṇa 'salt pan, hiding place (for gambling)' (Witzel 1999).

Ailūṣa is important, as it was this poet who was an important priest, on the side of the opponents of the Bharata. (These opponents included the Bhalānas). His great-grandson Tura Kāvaṣeya, however, is an important priest of the Kuru realm that succeeded the Bharata 'kingdom'; he developed the Agnicayana ritual (Th. Proferes, Harvard Ph.D. thesis 1999). This case shows the inclusion of a Dravidian into the fold, and underlines the important role a new 'convert' to Ārya religion could play in its very development (that of the post-RV, classical Śrauta ritual, see Proferes). Further, he was not classified as Śūdra but obviously as a Brahmin who had learned to compose RV hymns in the traditional poetic IA language! All of this is indicative of a high degree of amalgamation and language acquisition at this time, during the middle and late Rgveda period (see below).

### §5.3. The Southern Indus language: Meluhhan

However, there are indications that another language was prevalent in Sindh before the immigration of the Dravida. The trade of the Indus civilization with Sumeria and later Mesopotamia has left us a number of words that are not Dravidian. It is perhaps best to call this language "Meluhhan" after the name the Sumerians gave to the country, Meluhha. Its language was also sufficiently different from Elamite or Sumerian to require a 'translator from Meluhha' (Possehl 1996a: no. 2), whose name is Šu-ilišu (Parpola 1994: 132). In fact, "the language of Marhaši [Bampur area, just west of Iranian Baluchistan] is different from that of the Simaškians [Tepe Yahya in southern Central Iran], and only very partially Elamite-related." (Vallat 1985: 52). This indicates that there was a language boundary, somewhere to the west of the present Iran-Pakistan border. Possehl identifies the area of Meluhha (1996a, 1997) as having a center in the hills and mountains of Baluchistan, closer to the population center of the early Indus civilization, which allows for a hypothetical identification of the Marhaši language with that of Meluhha and makes a thorough investigation of the data of RV 8 (see §5.1.) even more important. There are men with Meluhha as a personal name, thus apparently, 'the Meluhhan'; several persons, among them Urkal and Ur-dlama, are called 'the son of Meluḥḥa'. There also is a 'village of Meluḥḥa', from where a person called Nin-ana comes. The products of Meluhha include giš-ab-ba-melu-hha (abba wood, a thorn tree), mêsu wood ('of the plains'), ships of Meluhhan style (magilum boat) (Possehl 1996a). In total, there are some 40 "Indian" words transmitted to ancient Mesopotamia, some of which may have been coined by Dilmun (Bahrain) traders. They include: Sindh wood sinda (si-in-da-a, si-in-du), date palm, the 'red dog of Meluhha', zaza cattle (zebu?), elephants, etc. (cf. Landsberger, Die Welt des Orients 3. 261). As coming from Dilmun (Bahrain), we may add the Meluhhan(?) trees giš-ha-lu-ub or haluppu wood, giš-mes-makan or mêsu wood of Magan, and the gišgišimmar wood (cf. above \*simmal in śimbala, śalmali 'Salmalia malabarica'!) A slightly later(?) loan-word relationship is seen in Sumer. ili 'sesame', Akkad. ellu/ūlu 'sesame oil', which is only found in South Drav. with el, ellu 'Sesamum indicum' (D. Bedigian 1985); the word can be compared, however, with Ved. tila and jar-tila 'sesame' which shows the typical Para-Munda prefix Cər- (cf. Kuiper 1955: 157 for a Munda origin). The ultimate source, \*\*(t)il, however, is unclear (cf. Blažek and Boisson 1992 on Sumer. loans in Dravidian, see below §6).

The word meluḥḥa is of special interest. It occurs as a verb in a different form (mlecha-ti) in Vedic only in ŚB 3.2.1, an eastern text of N. Bihar where it indicates 'to speak

in barbarian fashion'. But it has a form closer to Meluḥḥa in Middle Indian (MIA): Pali, the church language of S. Buddhism which originated as a western N. Indian dialect (roughly, between Mathura, Gujarat and the Vindhya) has milakkha, milakkhu. Other forms, closer to ŚB mleccha are found in MIA \*mliccha > Sindhi milis, Panjabi milech, malech, Kashmiri brichun 'weep, lament' (< \*mrech-, with the common r/l interchange of IA), W. Pahari melēch 'dirty'. It seems that, just as in other cases mentioned above, the original local form \*m(e)luḥ (i.e. m(e)lukh in IA pronunciation, cf. E. Iranian bāxδī 'Bactria' > AV \*bahli-ka, balhi-ka) was preserved only in the South (Gujarat? > Pali), while the North (Panjab, Kashmir, even ŚB and Bengal) has \*mlecch. The sound shift from -ḥḥ-/-kh- > -cch- is unexplained; it may have been modeled on similar correspondences in MIA (Skt. akṣi 'eye' ~ MIA akkhi, acchi; ksetra 'field' ~ MIA khetta, chetta, etc.)

The meaning of *Mleccha* must have evolved from 'self-designation' > 'name of foreigners', cf. those of the Franks > Arab *Farinjī* 'foreigner.' Its introduction into Vedic must have begun in Meluḥḥa, in Baluchistan-Sindh, and have been transmitted for a long time in a non-literary level of IA as a nickname, before surfacing in E. North India in Middle/Late Vedic as *Mleccha*.<sup>5</sup>

Further examples of the Southern Indus (Sindh) language include the designations of plough, rice, wheat, and millet.

### Plough

The old agricultural word *lāṅgala* 'plow' (RV, 4.57.4, a late hymn) is found, in a divergent form, in Tam. *ñāñcil*, *nāñcil*, Kan. *nēgal*, Gadba *nāngal* (DEDR 2907). Southworth (1988; 1979: 200, 205; 1995: 268, cf. Kuiper 1948: 127, 1955: 156, Przyludski *BSL* 24, 118 sqq., cf. Parpola 1994: 168) assumes a popular etymology PDrav. \**ñān-kal*, \**ñān-kel* 'earth stone' and traces the term back an Austro-Asiatic source, Munda \**ña-kel*, *ñan-kel* (Zide & Zide 1973: 5), Santali *nahel*, Khasi *lynkor* [*lənkor*] < \**lēnkol*, Khmer *aṅkal*; cf. also the Austronesian forms, Malay *tengala*, Makassar *naṅkala* (Bagchi 1929, 9). V. Blažek and C. Boisson (1992: 17-19) add cognates from Austroasiatic (Vietnamese *cay* < \**kal*, etc.), Austronesian (Cham *langal*, *langar*, Batak *tingala*, Bugi *rakala*), Sino-Tibetan (Kanauri *hāloṅ*) etc.; they think of a Sumerian, and ultimately perhaps even an Afro-Asiatic origin of this widespread word of culture: Sumer. *níg-gala<sub>X+l</sub>* or *níg-gál* 'sickle' ('the semantic shift ... may seem far-fetched', 1992: 19), and Afro-As. \**nigal* 'to reap; reaping sickle'.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Pali milāca is influenced by a 'tribal' name, Piśāca, as is Sindhi milindu, milidu by Pulinda; the word has been further 'abbreviated' by avoiding the difficult cluster ml-: Prākṛt mecha, miccha, Kashmiri mī.c.(h), Bengali mech (a Tib.-Burm tribe) and perhaps Pashai mecə if not < \*mecca 'defective' (Turner, CDIAL 10389. -- Parpola 1994: 174 has attempted a Dravidian explanation. He understands Meluḥḥa (var. Melaḥha) as Drav. \*Mēlakam [mēlaxam] 'high country' (= Baluchistan) (=Ta-milakam) and points to Neo-Assyrian baluḥḥu 'galbanum', sinda 'wood from Sindh'. He traces mlech, milakkha back to \*mleks, which is seen as agreeing, with central Drav. metathesis with \*mlēxa = mēlaxa-m. Kuiper 1991:24 indicates not infrequent elision of (Dravid.) -a- when taken over into Skt. -- Shafer 1954 has a Tib-Burm. etymology \*mltśe; Southworth 1990: 223 reconstructs PDrav. 2 \*muzi/mizi 'say, speak, utter', DEDR 4989, tamil'Tamil' < 'own speech'.

However, the Munda words do *not* agree with Ved.  $l\bar{a}ngala$ , though one can easily assume dissimilation of n-l. The word underlying RV  $l\bar{a}ngala$  must have come from an intermediate language, in short, the Panjabi form of the Indus language (Para-Munda), with \*langal. This form cannot have been that of the Southern Indus language (Meluhhan) as this has resulted in Drav. \* $n\bar{a}nkal$ ,  $n\bar{a}nkel$ . While the difference is small here (g/k, n/l), it is more substantial in other agricultural words.

### Rice

The word for 'rice' shows a difference between a Northern form, approximately \*\*(ə)βərij, versus a southern one, \*vari, (v)ariki, variñci. Note that this indicates the same difference in tenuis/media as met with in the word for 'plough':

N. \*langal, \*vəriji :: S. \*nankal, \*variñci/variki.

Still another form exists in Proto-Munda \*ə-rig; it has provided Dravidian \*(v)ari, variki > Tam. arici, ari, Kan. akki (DEDR 215), and also Tam., Tel. vari (DEDR 6565).

Though rice is indigenous to S. Asia, the domesticated version can be traced back to S.E. Asia and S. China.<sup>6</sup> It has been found in India since the 3rd millennium BCE (Glover & Higham 1996, Kajale 1991), and appeared late in the southern Indus civilization, at Pirak c. 1700 BCE. However, it appears first (as *vrīhi*) only in post-RV texts (AV, c. 1200 BCE), though it probably was an ingredient in the RV offerings *purodāśa* 'rice cake' and *odana* 'rice gruel'. The older IA grain is only *yava* 'barley', but later on we have 7 or 10 agricultural products: in the Yajurveda Saṃhitās, the 'seven agricultural plants' (*sapta grāmyā oṣadhayaḥ*); ŚB 14.9.3.22 has even ten: *vrīhi* Oryza sativa L.; *yáva* Hordeum vulgare L. subsp. hexastichum (L.) Schinz et Kell.; *tíla* Sesamum indicum L.; *máṣa* Phaseolus mungo L. var. radiatus = Phaseolus Roxburghii; ánu Panicum miliaceum L.; *priyángu* Setaria italica (L.) Pal. Beauv. = Panicum italicum L.; *godháma* Triticum aestivum = Triticum sativum Lam.; *masúra* Lens culinaris Medic. = Ervum lens L.; *khálva* Phaseolus radiatus L. a variety of Phaseolus mungo L. = *māsa*(?); *khalá-kula* Dolichos biflorus L. (W. Rau 1997: 203-206).

Southworth (1979, 1988: 659-660) supposes an Elamo-Dravid. origin: \*var 'seed, grain', Elam. bar 'seed', PDrav (stage 1, c. 2000 BCE) \*vari 'rice grain'. (McAlpin 1981, Tyler 1968, Southworth 1988). Achaemenid Elam. umi 'grind (grain)', \*um 'to process grain', PDrav1 \*um 'husk, chaff' DEDR 637; (this should be compared with \*gant-um-a, gandh-um-a!). However, the Elamo-Drav. family has not been proven to the satisfaction of Dravidianists (McAlpin (et al.) 1975, Krishnamurti 1985, Zvelebil 1985), and the N. Drav. language Brahui, seen as a link by McAlpin, is a late-comer to Baluchistan (Elfenbein 1987). Southworth (1988: 664) stresses the difference between northern (Gangetic) and southern rice, which might have been dry land rice.

On the other hand, Southworth later on mentions that PDrav \*(v) ariki DEDR 215, has been taken over from PMunda at c. 1500 BCE: \*ərig 'millet, Panicum militare' (Zide & Zide 1973: 8) --> \*arik(i) 'staple grain' (Southworth 1988: 660), because the South Drav. sound change k > c took place only between the second and third stage of Drav.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> The earliest archaeologically found rice is said to come from Koldihwa near Allahabad (c. 5440/5430 BCE or even earlier); this has been doubted. A more probable date is c. 4000 BCE, at Chirand in Bihar. -- Some trace the terms for rice back to Sino-Tibetan (see Blažek and Boisson 1992: 27 n. 40).

(Krishnamurti 1969); thus: Munda \*ərig --> Drav. \*(v)ariki > Tamil ari, arici. This South Dravidian form arici has been transmitted westwards, probably by sea trade, Greek óryza, óryzon and Arab. ruz, Engl. rice etc. (Southworth 1979: 202, cf. EWA II 598).

Southworth also reconstructs PDrav. \*vari, \*variñci DEDR 5265. This, too, was transmitted westwards, but via the Baluchistan-Bampūr trail, to Old Iranian as \*brinj, M.Iran. brinj, N.Pers. birinj). It must have been this form that was the basis of the word in the late Southern Indus civilization.

The northern track westwards is attested by Ved.  $vr\bar{i}hi < pre-IA *vrijhi$ - and reflected in the E. Iran. (and N. Iran.?) languages: Pastho  $wriž\bar{e}$ , (but Khotan.  $rr\bar{i}ysua$  [ $r\bar{i}zua$ ]!), Nuristani  $wr\bar{i}c$ ,  $r\bar{i}c$ . (cf. Fussman 1972).

The Northern Indus dialect had \*vrij > Ved. \*vrijhi > vrīhi, Nuristani wrīc, Pashto wrižē. The Southern dialect is indicated by M.Pers. brinj, N.Pers. birinj, going back to \*vəriñji, Dravidian \*variñci, a form with "infixed" -n-, found in central Dravidian: Gondi wanjī (Pengo verci(l), Gadba vasil, DEDR 5265). The form with -n- points to Munda origin and to a relatively far-reaching influence or expansion of the Munda in this early period (cf. Kuiper 1955: 140, 1962: 14, 51, 1991: 39f.) Again, this distribution also suggests a difference between, on the one hand, northern or north-western form, including the northern Indus language, and on the other, the southern Indus language and the rest of the subcontinent.

However, these forms have to be reconciled with Tibetan 'bras [əbras] > mod. Tib. [jε], Purik bras, with the neighboring, linguistically isolated Burushaski bras (Kuiper 1962: 40, 1955: 143 n. 17, Tikkanen, 1988: 303-325), Dumaki bras, and even with some Austronesian forms such as Malay bəras--> Somali barìs?; cf., however, Dayak bari, Malegasy vare, vari --> Bantu wari, wali (Nurse 1983, Southworth 1988: 664, Witzel 1995) and O.Jpn. uru-shine, (cf. mod. Jpn. uru-chi < \*uru-ti). Both bras and pre-Vedic \*vrijhi must go back to a source such as \*\*əβərij (Witzel 1997b).

In the study of the Asian words for 'rice' we have to take into account words from S., S.E. and E.Asia:

- S. Asia: Ved. *vrīhi* < \**vrijhi*,

Burushaski *bras*<sup>7</sup>, Tib. 'bras,<sup>8</sup>

Drav. \**arici*, \**variñci*;<sup>9</sup>

Munda \**ə-rig*,

<sup>7</sup> Southworth 1990: 229, n.10: PIA \*camala/cāvala < TB ca-? (dza); cf. Southworth 1974, with an early Drav. substrate in the northwest and in the Gangetic plains: < Tib.-Burm. \*cā + vāl/vār < Drav. vari? -- Other IA words for 'rice' (oryza sativa): OIA taṇḍula < Drav. (Southworth 1988: 660); OIA śāli < Tib.-Burm. cau- / Austr. Csamaq (Benedict 1990); P.Drav.1 \*manji(k) DEDR 3790, 'rice plant', but also 'seed' in Kurukh.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Benedict 1972: 123 [əbras, 'əbras]; cf. also TB \*mruw 'grain, seed' Benedict 43: no.150 Tib. 'bru 'grain' (and Nepal. inscriptions, with -brū, -bū, see below), and (?) Lushai buh 'boiled rice'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Southworth 1990: 229 n. 9. - In Drav. the word for 'rice' cannot be reconstructed for the early stages (PDrav. 1), where only the meaning 'seed' is found: Kurukh *manjī* 'seed in general' and Tamil *arici* 'seed' in: *ēlavarici* 'cardamom seed' DEDR 768. -- Cf. also Guj. *varī* "particular kind of grain", Mar. *varī* 'grain Coix barbata', Pkt. *varaia* 'a kind of rice'; CDIAL 11328 *varī*, -- all on the Drav. trail South from Sindh.

Tib.-Burm. \*dza-10 < Austr. \* $C_samaq$ 

Kusunda cusum 'rice in husks', kādiyun 'cleaned rice'

- S.E. Asia: Munda \*ruŋ-ku'g (Zide & Zide 1973: 17)

Austr.  $*C_samaq$ 

Austrones. \*pajay;

Austrones. \*i-may

Thai \*xau > khaw (Haudricourt, in Shafer 1966-7: 522)

Austro-Thai \*kru-may (> Jpn. kome)

- E. Asia: Chin. \*miər, Tib.-Burm. \*may<sup>11</sup>

The distribution of the various words for 'rice' points to an old (South)East Asian word of culture. Just as in the modern spread of the E. Asian word 'tea', several routes of distribution have to be distinguished:

- 1. an approximate reconstruction of the S.(E.) Asian word \*əvrij(h)i/\*əbras, probably < \*\*əßərij, 12 which is spread out in a wide arch between
- 2. E. Asian \*may, \*xau, \*krumay (< \*kru-\*may?)<sup>13</sup> and
- 3. S. Asian \**ə-rig* <sup>14</sup>, \**ruŋ-ku*('g).

PMunda \* $ru\eta$ -ku('g) (Zide & Zide 1973: 17, \*(r)-(n)-ku, Kuiper 1962) may be an Austro-Asiatic form with prefix r-. This might be connected, via metathesis, with Benedict's Austro-Thai-Japanese \*krumay (> Jpn. kome, kuma-shine), a word that may be composed, if Sino-

<sup>10</sup> Ved. vrīhi has been supplanted in NIA almost everywhere by Tib.-Burm. CDIAL 4749 \*cāmala/cāvala, Pkt. caulā (pl.), cavala, and NIA bhāt 'cooked rice' (Southworth 1988: 666); for this see Benedict 1972: 28 no. 66 'to eat', Kanauri za, Garo tśha 'eat', Lushai fa', fān, Bahing dz'a, Newari jā 'cooked rice', jāki 'uncooked rice' (cf. Lushai caw 'cooked rice', caw ciar); the Tib.-Burm. word apparently is a loan from Austro-Thai: \*Csamaq, s. Benedict 1990: 175.

<sup>11</sup> Benedict 1972: 149 n. 408, 491-2 Tib.-Burm. \*may as early loan-word from Austro-Thai, e.g. Indones. \*imay 'rice' (but O.Jpn. yöne, Jpn. ine, -shine 'rice plant' < \*yinai, according to Benedict 1990: 234; cf. also ne 'root'); Chin. miei < \*miər 'rice (paddy)', Bodo-Garo \*m[a,e]y; Karen \*may; cf. Tib.-Burm. \*s-min 'ripe, cooked') Benedict 1972: 106 § 432 (< Proto-Miao-Yao \*snan 'cooked rice'?, see Benedict 1992: 234).

<sup>12</sup> Benedict 1990: 43 reconstructs Proto-W.-Malayo-Polynes. (Hesperonesian) \*pajay (Malay padi, Javanese pari, cf. the Engl. loan paddy; however he also has (1990: 77) Proto-Austrones. \*pagr[ə]y, that differs from the S. Asian/Central Asian cluster \*vrījhi/bras by a transposed(?) -r-, (perhaps: Austric \*\*βə-rəji / \*pa-Cj/grəy > \*pagrəy, \*pajay??).

<sup>13</sup> Benedict 1990 assumes Proto-Austro-Thai \*krumay, whence Jpn. kome, kuma(-shine). In connection with the Tib.-Burm. and Sinitic forms (\*mi, may, Benedict 1972) a compound \*\*kru + \*\*may may be construed. The proto-form \*\*kru seems to be the source for the words for 'rice' in Sino-Tibetan, Austro-Asiatic and Austro-Thai (including Austronesian).

<sup>14</sup> The Austro-Asiat. words still are very close to those in Austro-Thai: PMunda \*ruŋ-ku('g/'b) < Austro-As. \*ərig, 'millet, Panicum militare'. Pinnow 1959: 96 § 139 derives \*run from Kharia durun 'to pound rice' etc. (p. 92 § 116), and -ku('b) from Sant. horo, Mundari huru etc. (p.122 § 244), cf. also Kharia khōsrō pe' etc. (p. 171 § 370). -- In Munda there is, next to Kharia romku'b, also Juang ru(n)kū, Sora runkū-n, Bondo/Remo, Parengi runku, Gutob rukū (Pinnow 1959: 96), and in eastern Austro-As.: Khasi khau, Mon unko, Khmer onkor; - Thai khāu may be a loan word from Austro-As.? Further: Palaung ra-kō, Kuoi ankau, Sue rankao, Palaung ra-kō, Palaung-wa unko, Sakai: Krau (Ketiar) un-kuok, Sakai also: cənron 'husked rice', Krau (Kuala Tembeling) rə-kua' etc. (Pinnow 1959: 96, Kuiper 1962: 51f.). The variation in Austro-As., already observed by Kuiper, points to a proto-form \*(r)(n)-k(h)u. - Thus, Dhimal (= Tib.-Burm. Kiranti, eastern Himalaya) ūnkhū 'rice', according to Kuiper < Munda \*runku.

Tib. (Benedict 1972: no. 65, 128, 149, 192, 193) \*may, Austrones. i-may and Thai \*xau are compared, of \*kru-\*may. In the end, one may think of a Proto-form \*\*kru as the ultimate source for 'rice' in S.E. and E. Asia (Sino-Tib., Austro-As., Austro-Thai; cf. Blažek and Boisson 1992: 27 n. 40).

#### Wheat

Further dialect differences between the northern (Panjab) and the southern (Sindh) forms of the Indus language can be observed in the designation of 'wheat'. Though some claim that wheat, the staple of the Indus civilization, is a local domesticate (cf. Allchin 1995: 46, cf. Allchin & Hammond 1978, Kenoyer 1998), it is a western import, as it originated west of the Zagros and south of the Caucasus. In S. Asia it is found as early as the 7th millennium BCE. This leaves several thousand years before the attestation of the S. Asian words for 'wheat', Ved. godhūma, Kan. gōdi etc.

These are clearly related to Near Eastern ones, e.g. (according to Berger 1959, EWA II 499) \*qend > Hitt. kant, Old Egypt. xnd, PSemit. \*hant (Arab. hintatum). The individual track of the loan word differs, however, just as in the case of the word for 'plough'. A form \*gant-um (note also PKartv. \*ghomu), that has entered via the northern Iranian trade route (Media-Turkmenistan-Margiana/Bactria-Aratta/Sistan) has resulted in Avest. gantuma and the later Iranian forms: M.Pers. gandum, Baluchi gandīm, Pashto yanəm < \*gandūma?, Yigdha gondum, Shugni žindam; Khotanese ganama < \*gandama, etc. (see Berger 1959: 40f, EWA II 498). The Iranian form has also been taken over by the Drav. newcomer in the region, Brahui: xōlum < IA \*yolum (CDIAL 4287), according to Berger (1959: 42), however, from Bur. However, Bur. gurin, guren (pl.), yárum < \*yor-um < \*\*yund- (Berger), rather seem to have been borrowed from the Indus language. (Berger thought of a loan from Bur. into the Panjab area languages; cf. also Bur. gur 'barley, wheat colored', bur 'buck wheat' Berger 1959: 43. However, J. Bengtson informs me, by letter of 4/19/99, of the following Macro-Caucasian links: Bur. gur 'wheat' ~ Basque gari 'wheat' < PEC \*Gōl'e 'wheat' > Tindi, Karta geru, Archi gogol, etc. (Note that Harmatta, EWA II 499, thinks of an Anatolian \*ghond[ $\tilde{u}$ ], but cf. Klimov's PKartv. \*ghomu). How these can be linked to general "Near Eastern" \*qend/kant/gand remains to be seen. The question of the domestication of einkorn, wheat, etc. in the Near East would play a role in determining when the word could have existed (in PEC) and/or spread east - and westwards.

When this word entered the Panjab it must have changed its initial syllable (\*gan-) to go-, thus \*godum, a change echoed by the Southern Indus language (\*godi). Vedic has godhūma and similar continuants (Turner, CDIAL 4287). This is a clear folk etymology: the unfamiliar \*gantum/gandum > \*godum was analyzed as go-dhūma 'cow smoke'.

Another form of the Near Eastern word that has come via the Southern route (Elam/Anšan - Simaški/Tepe Yahya - Marhaši/Bampūr) has resulted in Meluhhan \*gōdi.

This is retained in Drav. \*gōdi (Kan. gōdi, Tam. kōti, cf. DEDR 1906). The change from -an-> -o- is not unfamiliar in Sindh (see below). A pre-Iranian \*gantum must have become \*go-tum or \*go-dum in Sindh.

The Drav. word, too, seems to be a popular etymology of the unfamiliar \*godum: 'low red plant", reconstructed by Southworth (1988: 658, 660) as PDrav. 3 at c. 1000 BC as \*kō-tumpai. Maybe he thought of DEDR 3334 Tam. tumpai etc. 'nettle, weed' etc. (cf. Tam. kōtumam, Mal. kōtambu?). The exact development from \*tumpai > -di would then not clear; (at this supposed late date kōtumpai could even be based on RV godhūma!)

Obviously, in this case both the Northern and Southern Indus language have changed -an- > -o, while the Northern language otherwise retains -an- (see below). The northern form, based on Pre-Iranian \*gantum would have resulted in Vedic \*\*gan-dhūma or perhaps \*\*gandha-dhūma "perfume smell', cf. CDIAL 4020 Skt. (lex.) gandhālu 'fragrant rice', Pashai gandár 'a kind of grain'. The Southern (Meluhhan) \*godi must have influenced a northern \*gantum/gandum that facilitated a later Vedic popular etymology as 'cow smoke'. The mechanism of this influence is unclear. It may be due to Dravidian influence on the Panjab in the Middle/Late Rgvedic period; note that godhūma appears only in early post-RV texts.

In short, the inhabitants of the northern Indus region (Panjab) thus must have called their wheat something like \*godum and those in the Southern Indus region (Sindh), \*godi.

### §5.4. Further dialect differences

However, the strange sound change \*an > o is not isolated. It also occurs in the migrant word of culture for 'hemp': Ved. śaṇa (AV 2.4.5, PS 2.11.5 śaṇa), M.Pers., N.Pers. šan, Khotanese Saka kaṃha (but Gāndhārī > Niya Pkt. ṣaṃṇa), Osset. gœn, gœnœ, (Greek kánnabis, EWA II 605; Engl. hemp, etc.). It appears, again, in Dravidian with popular etymology, as Tel. gōnu, gõ:gu, cf. gōṅgūra, Kan. gōgi, 'hibiscus cannabinus' (DEDR 2183). The original northwestern form is guaranteed by the North-Iranian (Ossete), Greek and Germanic forms of the loan word: kanna-bis, hemp, etc. The northwestern dialect has preserved \*-an-, for example in the Rgvedic, yet certainly pre-Indo-Aryan tribal name of the Gandhāri (and in the later Vedic country Gandhāra). The northwestern name Śambara (in the Afghan. hills), too, has not been changed to \*Śobara, but note the name of a poet in the more southern RV 8, Sobhari Kāṇva.

We have a clear distinction between N. Indus -an- and Southern Indus -o-. (Note that original \*-an- appears in post-RV texts further east and south, in Dravidian, as -o-). This is again a point that may turn out to be of importance for the decipherment of the Indus script which indeed has several features (special signs) that are different in Harappa (N) and Mohenjo Daro (S), (see B. Wells 1998).

This is the opportune moment to briefly discuss another northwestern peculiarity, the interchange of k/s in Vedic. This has occasionally been observed, even one hundred years ago in the case of Karkoṭa/Śarkoṭa, but it has not been put into proper relief (Kuiper 1991: 41, 42, 44 as Proto-Munda, cf. KEWA III 309, Witzel 1999). The interchange of k and s is not related at all to the well-known Indo-Ir. development of IE k'

variation occurs only in 'foreign' words; (note also the curious development, in post-RV Skt., of  $k\acute{s}a > khy\ddot{a}$ , Witzel 1989).

The name of the snake demon Śarkoṭa (AV) appears also as Karkoṭa(-ka) RVKh 2.14.8, and locally especially in Kashmir and Nepal; cf. Bur. hergin (Berger hargín) 'dragon' or rather yárqa (Berger yárqas: CDIAL 3418?) 'lizard', Skt. karkaṭa 'crab', Mundari kaṛkom etc. (Pinnow 1959: 341 §483d). The prefix śar-/kar- can be connected with [sər-] of the '300 foreign words' (Kuiper 1991: 40-1, 1948: 121), for example in Sṛbinda (Kuiper 1939 = 1997: 3 sqq.), Ku-sur(u)-binda, bainda (the mod. Bind tribe; probably also the name of the Mountain range, post-Vedic Vindh-ya).

Further materials include kambala/Śambara 'blanket/name of a demon', kabara/śabara, kīsta/śīṣṭa 8.53.4 (with var. lect. śīṣṭ-, śīrṣṭ-, śīrṣṭr-, see above), Kimīdin/śimidā-'demon/a demoness', kambu/śambu 'shell' (Kuiper 1955: 182), cf. Kū-śāmba, Kau-śāmba 'name of a person', cf. ki-śora 'filly' AV, 'youth' CDIAL 3190: śi-śu 'baby', śi(m)-śu-māra 'Gangetic dolphin', śiśūla 'dolphin' RV (EWA II 641-2; Lévy, in Bagchi 1929: 121 sqq.), Kirāta/Cilāda 'a mountain tribe', kiknasa 'ground grain' AB: cikkasa 'barley meal' lex., Bur. šon ~ Ved. kāna 'blind' RV.

The realization [k'] or [s] of an unknown phoneme (probably k') would easily unite such words as Sam-bara: Sam-bala, Sam-bala, Sam-bala; it would also offer a better candidate for Pinnow's unexpected reconstruction for the Munda and Mon-Khmer self-designation Sam-Sam-bara AB, and in the tribal names Sa-Sa-bara, Sa-bara AB, and in the tribal names Sa-bara, Sa-bara, Sa-bara AB, and in the tribal names Sa-bara, Sa-b

In consequence, Vedic loan words with the interchange of  $\frac{s}{k}$  may go back to a phoneme K' with realization close to [k'] or [s] in the Indus language.

#### Millet

Another dialect difference can be observed in the "new" import at the time of the Indus civilization, millet. This domesticated plant has originated in China and another variety in Africa (Southworth 1988: 665, Randhawa 1980: 504; Nurse 1983, summarized by Cavalli-Sforza 1995, see now Meadow 1998). The Archaic Chinese words have no similarity to the Indian ones (Karlgren 1923, no. 543 \*liang < ,liang 'millet, sorghum', 1095 \*,tsi 'common millet', 1051 \*,tsi < tsiək 'panicled millet, god of agriculture', 903 \*,su' < d'z"iuet 'glutinous millet', 135 \*siwok 'rice, millet', 914 \*'siwo 'glutinous millet'), and the source of the Indian words has not been established so far: any language between the Sahel belt and Baluchistan is possible.

Millet is important as it can be grown outside the winter period (wheat, barley), during the monsoon. The onset of its cultivation in S. Asia coincides with the increasing spread of rice (Kenoyer 1998: 163, 173, 178, Glover & Higham 1996) which has markedly influenced the archaeologically attested emigration of the Indus people towards the Gangetic plains, and towards Gujarat. Even a middle Vedic text, Aitareya-Brāhmaṇa 3. 45, still knows about this (Witzel 1987: 185).

However, the original source of the S. Asian word in Africa or in one of the intermediary languages has not been determined. It has to be noted, that in the case of this comparatively late import, -an-, -am- has been preserved both in Proto-Munda \*gaṅgay, Dravidian DEDR 1084 kaṅgu (Tam. kaṅku), DEDR 1242 kampu, Ved. priyaṅgu, OIA

dialects \*kankuna, \*kanguna, \*tanguna (which may provide some indication of the time frame for the words discussed above).

Even though comparisons between the various words for 'millet' can be made, they cannot be traced back, as is the case with many widely spread loan words, to a single source. Hindi kaṅgnī can be compared with OIA \*kaṅkunī CDIAL 2606, with Tamil kaṃpu DEDR 1242 and with Munda \*gaṅ(-)gay (Southworth 1988: 660, Zide & Zide 1973: 8). The source of these words may have had a form such as \*\*kaṅ-CV. From this, Ved. priyaṅgu (EWA II 190) can be derived as well, as it seems to have been changed by popular etymology, like several other agricultural terms: prefix \*pər- (Kuiper 1991: 42f.) > \*priya+gu 'dear cow'. Other IA designations of millet are: Ved. aṇu and \*aṇuni CDIAL 195. All of this points to a contamination or cross of \*kaṅgu and \*-(k/g)aṅgu --> IA aṇu; (\*al 'to mill' EWA I 55; rather a Munda change, Pinnow 1959: 198f., k/\*q > 0 typical for Sora, Kharia k: Sora 0; thus: kaṅgu: \*aṅgu --> Ved. aṇu, cf. Kuiper 1991: 38). In short, all major language families of S. Asia have taken over the word from an unknown, but not exactly the same source.

Nevertheless, a clear difference between Northern and Eastern/Southern forms is visible: PDrav. \*kampu is opposed to PMunda \*gaṅgay (Zide & Zide 1973), while the IA forms stand in between the two. The usual IA form is Ved. aṇu (cf. Old Indo-Aryan \*aṇunī, Turner, CDIAL 195). However, based on Ved. pri-yaṅgu < \*pər-gaṅgu? and the reconstructed OIA forms \*kaṅkunī, \*kaṅgunī, \*taṅgunī (CDIAL 2606), a northwestern Indian \*kaṅkun, a central-northern \*kaṅgun, a more eastern North Indian \*taṅgun can be reconstructed for the pre-Vedic period, while the Southwest must have had, next to Drav. \*kampu DEDR 1242 (= Skt. kambū Hemādri) also a form \*kaṅgu CDIAL 2605, DEDR 1084. The northern Indus language should have had \*kaṅku(n), its southern dialect (Meluhhan), \*kaṅgu.

The modern languages also do not agree: In Hindi (Masica 1979: 76 sqq., 135f.) we find various terms for the many varieties of millet: kaṅgnī (\*kaṅkunī CDIAL 2606); kuṭkī (Masica from Skt. kuṭakā, not found in the dictionaries; cf. kuṭaka 'a kind of tree' KauśS.); kodoṇ (CDIAL 3515 kodrava 'grain eaten by the poor' Mbh., cf. koradūṣa 'idem' Suśr., -ka KŚS; DEDR 2163 Tam. kural, Kan. koṛale, korle; Konda koṛen 'a grain'); khil (Masica: from Skt. khiḍ), junhār, j(u)wār) (\*yonāla > yavanāla > juār, < Drav. \*coṇnel, DEDR 2359, DEDR 2896, CDIAL 10437); bājrā (Vedic: HŚS varjarī, CDIAL 9201 \*bājjara); ma(ṇ)ṛūa (CDIAL 9728 < maḍaka 'the small grain Euleusine corocana'); sāṇwāṇ (Ved. śyāmaka VS, CDIAL 12667). Some of them belong to the c. 30% of agricultural vocabulary in Hindi that comes from Masica's "Language X".

Finally, the word for 'peacock' must go back to a northern Indus form \*mayur > Ved.  $may\bar{u}ra$  RV level II, and to a southern form \*mayil/r > Drav.: Tamil mayil, Irula muyiru, Tulu mairu, Konda  $mr\bar{u}lu$ , miril etc.

In summing up, it can be stated that in the north-west and also in the Panjab, as represented by loan words in most of the RV, original northwestern \*-an- is opposed to southern -o-. The same relationship is also found in north-western  $\dot{s}$ : subcontinental k, north-western  $-\tilde{n}$ -: subcontinental zero in the word for 'rice'. We can discern a clear difference between the Panjab (-->Vedic) and Sindh/Gujarat (--> Dravidian) forms of the Indus language.

Dialect differences between Panjab and Sindh seem even to be indicated in the Indus inscriptions themselves. Seals and plates from Harappa (Panjab) differ in a number of items from those found at Mohenjo Daro (Sindh), for example in the sign for 'container, quantity' which looks like a V; this is almost only found at Harappa (B. Wells 1998). The same applies to some 'suffixes' in the inscriptions (Wells, by letter 1999).

It can be concluded that the Meluḥḥan variety of the Indus language was the 'original' language of Sindh. Was it also the Indus trading language? In that case, it has disappeared, just like Sumerian and Elamite, and traces may at best be found in Sindhi -- a step that has not been taken. There is no etymological dictionary of Sindhi.

# §6. Dravidian immigration

The observations about the early linguistic evidence from Sindh, made above, indicate that Dravidians were not a primary factor in the population of the Indus civilization, even of Sindh, and that they were immigrating into the Panjab only in middle Rgvedic times. But when could they have entered South Asia?

Earlier scholars (Heine-Geldern 1964, Pinnow 1954: 15) thought that they entered S. Asia (sometime as late as the early 1st millennium BCE) and proceeded via Baluchistan, Sindh and Gujarat to S. India (Zvelebil 1970, 1990: 48, 123). Indeed, their tracks are still visible in certain place names in Sindh, Gujarat and Maharashtra (see above). According to Southworth and McAlpin, however, the semi-nomadic speakers of Dravidian who even had contacts in Iran with the pre-immigration Indo-Aryans (Southworth 1979: 203, 228 f., 1990: 222-3, 1995), came to S. Asia relatively late, but early enough to participate in the Indus civilization, from which they acquired agriculture and the accompanying vocabulary. This scenario, if applied just to Sindh, explains why the c. 300 foreign words of the RV (in the Panjab) with their (agricultural) vocabulary are relatively free of Drav. influence.

According to the indications given above, the Dravidians apparently were just as foreign to Sindh and its agriculture as the Indo-Aryans to the Panjab. As the Northern Indus language (Para-Munda/Harappan) differs considerably from the Southern one (Meluhhan), it seems likely that the speakers of Indo-Aryan entered the Panjab and acquired local words from the Northern dialect (śaṇa, lāṅgala, vrīhi, godhūma, kaṅgu, Gandhāra), and that the Dravidians entered Sindh at or about the same time and acquired such words from the southern dialect (gōnu, ñāñcil, variñci, godī, kaṅku/kampu). It may even be the case that the first who made horses statues at Pirak (1700 BCE) were Dravidians, not the IA Bhalānas. For the first use of horses must not necessarily be linked to speakers of an IA language.

The Drav. words for 'horse' underline this: DEDR 500 Tam. ivuļi, Brah. (h)ullī, 1711 Tam. kutirai, Kan. kudire, Tel. kudira, etc., 3963 Tam. pari 'runner', 4780 Tam. mā 'animal' (horse, elephant), Tel. māvu 'horse, (cognates mean 'deer' etc. in other Drav. languages), cf. Nahali māv 'horse'. These words are quite different and independent of IA aśva 'horse' and various words for 'runner' (arvant, vājin, etc.), etc.

On the other hand, the technical terminology for chariots is IA and IE. It has been taken over into Drav.: akṣa 'axle' RV > Parji-Kolami accu 'axle'; āṇi RV (of unknown origin) > āṇi 'lynch pin', ara RV > ār 'spoke' (cf. Southworth 1979: 230 n. 14). Note that the earliest IIr \*ratha 'chariot (with two spoked wheels)' (Gening 1977, Pigott 1992, Anthony u. Vinogradov 1995, cf. Littauer u. Crouwel 1996) is found about 2000 BCE, near the Volga

(North Iran. \* $Rah\bar{a}$  > Greek  $Rh\tilde{a}$  = Avest.  $Ra\eta h\bar{a}$ , Ved.  $Ras\bar{a}$ ). The IIr word for 'chariot', however, is old enough to have resulted in the archaic compounds Ved.  $rathe-sth\bar{a}$ , Avest.  $ra\vartheta a\bar{e}-sta-$  'chariot fighter', cf. Old Avestan  $ra\vartheta \bar{\imath}$ , RV  $rath\bar{\imath}$  'chariot driver.' Dravidian has nothing of this, but words for 'wagon' or 'bullock cart'.

An early wave of Dravidian speakers might very well have preceded the IAs into Iran and S. Asia. (Note the strange absence of Maka in the list of "Aryan countries" in the Avestan records, such as V. 1, cf. Herodotos 3.94). A few IA loans in Proto-Drav. would settle the case, but culturally decisive words, such as for the newly introduced horse, the chariot, or other pastoral terminology do not exist. The Dravidians hardly had any previous contact with the Indo-Aryans while still in Iran. Contra Southworth (1979: 196f.), there is little secure evidence for early loans from IA into Drav.; such words can have been taken over any time between the RV (1200 BCE) and the earliest attestation of Tamil at the begin of our era (see above, on Dray. evidence in Vedic). There are only a few questionable loans that might have come from the pre-immigration period, that is from hypothetical contact when still in Iran; these remain speculative; cf. perhaps, Ved. garda-bha EWA I 473, Drav. kalu-tai DEDR 1364 'donkey'. -- On the other hand, several agricultural terms in Dravidian are in a close loan word relationship with Sumerian and sometimes beyond, with Afro-Asiatic (Blažek and Boisson 1992). These include words for plough-tail, -handle, plough share, to plough, mortar, threshing floor, and to grind; this close link may point to a more western path of immigration of Proto-Drav. speakers than that of those of pre-Vedic IA (see below §15).

# §7.1. Eastern Panjab and Upper Gangetic Plains

We return now to the epicenter of post-Indus developments, the area of Eastern Panjab-Haryana-Uttar Pradesh, in other words, the lands from the Pakistani border up to Allahabad. In the early post-RV texts, its hub is the Kuruksetra area, northwest of Delhi.

This is the realm of the middle Rgvedic Bharata and the late Rgvedic Kuru (Witzel 1997). The Bharata tribe and its successor, the new tribal union of the Kuru, represent a new wave of IA immigrants from the other side of the Indus (Vasiṣṭha RV 7, JB 3.238-9 §204), which brought new linguistic traits with them (*kuru* for older *kṛṇu*, *sarva* for *viśva*, etc., Witzel 1989). The Kuru dialect is remarkably more modern than the language of the bulk of the RV. However, RV book 10 often reads already like the next level, that of the AV and other Mantra texts of the Kuru period.

The Kuru confederation, supplanting the 50-odd Rgvedic clans and tribes, became the center of linguistic (Witzel 1989), religious and social (Witzel 1997b) development. They formed, together with partly IA acculturated Indus people (ārya-tribes such as the Anu-Druhyu, Yadu-Turvaśa) and with the new addition of Dravida speakers, a new society with a new elite kit (Ehret 1988). This included pastoralism (cattle, horse, sheep, goat), IA ritual and acculturated customs, IA religion and ritual, but also post-Indus type agriculture (barley, wheat, rice, millet) and local artisans (potters, etc. see below). The new culture, Vedic orthopraxy and social system (with four classes) then spread eastwards into the Gangetic plains, and ultimately to Bihar.

Because of the amalgamation of the three groups (IA, Para-Munda, Drav.) we have to suppose a large degree of bilingualism and even trilingualism, and the forming of pidgins. A Vedic pidgin must have been used at home, and proper Vedic Sanskrit was learnt 'in school', at the time of initiation of boys (cf. Kuiper, A bilingual Rṣi, in press). While the lingua franca was a form of late/post-Rgvedic IA, pockets of the Para-Munda Indus language, of the newly arrived Dravidian as well as some remnants of the Gangetic Language "X" must have survived as well.

Among the post-Rgvedic texts, especially the AV is full of non-IA, 'popular' words of plants, animals, demons, local deities, and the like. Their character still is, by and large, Para-Munda, with some words from the 'local' language ("X"), and with some Drav. words included; all of which is clearly visible in the increase of words with retroflexes.

The linguistic situation is reflected, among other items, in the mixture of IA and other river names in the area. The famous Sarasvatī is also called Vaiśambhālyā / Vaiśampālyā / Vibalī; these names and that of the nearby Vipāś < \*vipāļ/vipāž all seem to go back to a local word, \*vi-śam-paž, (Witzel 1999). However, and typically, there are no Dravidian river names in the whole Kuru area.

A hint of how Drav. influence on Vedic was exerted is contained in the name of the Śūdra. From the late RV (10.90) onwards, this designates the fourth, non-Ārya class; it was added to the three 'Ārya' classes of Brahmins, Kṣatriya (nobility) and Vaiśya ('the people') only at this time. However, Greek sources of Alexander's time still place the *Sudroi* people at the confluence of the Panjab rivers with the Indus; this may still indicate their origin in Sindh/ Baluchistan.

Drav. words first appear in Middle and Late Rgvedic, in RV 3, 7, and 8, especially in the Kāṇva section. Interestingly, it is Tura Kāvaṣeya, the great-grandson of the Drav.-named *Kavaṣa* 'straddle legged', a priest on the 'wrong side' in the great Bharata battle (RV 7.18)

who becomes an influential priest in the Kuru realm and who developed the new, post-Rgvedic (śrauta) rituals (Proferes 1999).

It has been stressed by Burrow (1973: 386) that the post-Vedic texts have more Dravidian words; indeed, the evidence of Para-Munda words, too, is not diminishing but increasing during the Vedic period. This is the case right from the Mantra texts, and includes the Yajurveda Saṃhiṭās whose territory can be easily established (Witzel 1987, 1989, 1997) as that of the area between E. Panjab (Lahore), Allahabad and the Chambal River area (Ujjain).

A complete discussion of the c. 200 longer or shorter Vedic texts must be postponed to a separate paper (for some lists, see below). In the mean time, one can compare the word index to the AV (Whitney 1881), or Vishva Bandhu's Vedic Word Concordance (in Devanagari script), in conjunction with EWA, KEWA (and DEDR).

## §7.2. The Post-Rgvedic period

The new tribal union of the Kuru (and their more eastern allies, the Pañcāla), with their new social set-up and solemn rituals expanded, incorporating the surrounding tribes, eastwards into the Gangetic plains, in a partly military, partly peaceful fashion until it reached northern Bihar (Witzel 1995, 1997). The eastern tribes were at first regarded as half-barbarian (JB 1.337 §115) or 'asurya' (demonic).

The same is seen in archaeology: late Harappan people emigrated towards the Upper Gangetic plain (the only movement of people the archaeologists allow for the whole period under discussion here, Shaffer 1995: 139, cf. Allchin 1995: 33-35), a fact reflected in the Vedic texts as well. The emigration was possible due to a new type of agriculture, permitting cultivation of rice during the monsoon (Kenoyer 1998: 163) as well as wheat and barley in winter, resulting in a food surplus. The settlement at first occurred along the river banks, (Witzel 1987, 1995), in half-nomadic treks (grāma, Rau 1997). This is reflected by the Painted Gray Ware culture, with their clear elite pottery whose regional motifs indicate the split into western Kuru and more eastern Pañcāla, something that is also seen in the Vedic dialects they use (Witzel 1989).

Not everybody is included: The non-IA Kīkaṭa (3.53) or the Paṇi are clearly described as foreigners (late hymn 6.45.31), and even later, in the Mantra and YV Saṃhitā period, the Niṣāda in the Chambal area (MS 2.9.5 etc.) and other dasyu 'enemies' (JB, Witzel 1997b: n.161, 163, 278); in RV 10.61.8 as well the South (i.e. the area south of Kurukṣetra) still is the land to banish someone.

As has already been indicated, the features of the Rgvedic substrate language are also found in post-Rgvedic texts that were composed further east in the Kurukṣetra and in western Gangetic plains, as well as in the Chambal area. These words are not just the same as found in the RV, but there are many new ones.

In the Mantra period, starting with YV (MS, KS, TS) and AV/PS, we can clearly distinguish all three linguistic elements:

- Indo-Aryan with some already incorporated north-western elements such as Nuristani kāca 'shining piece of jewelry' or Burushaski kilāy ~ RV kīlāla, šon ~ RV kāṇa, bus ~ RV busa, etc.;
- The Indus substrate (Para-Munda), that also is found in the Ganges area (next to some elements of language 'X'), such as RV kuśika, karañja, kankata, śimśapā, śimśumāra,

puṣkara, puṣya, especially the words with prefix Cər (pər/kər/sər-), kar-koṭa-ka RVKh ~ śar-koṭa AV, tila AV: jar-tila KS, kalmaśa MS, KS, kal-māṣa PS, kul-māṣa Up.: māṣa AV, with the -ṭa, -śā/ṣa suffixes, and with -ṇḍ-: ka-maṇḍalu: maṇḍa-la, kaṇṭḥa? PS, etc.

• The Middle and Late Rgvedic Drav. element also is found in the Ganges area: godhūma AV (Hindi gehũ etc., Kusunda gabun), kuṇapa AV, kurkura AV, cūḍa ŚB, coḍa TS, eḍaka JB, arka ŚB, bilva AV 20 (Kuiper 1991:66), -nīra- ŚB, etc.

In short, the upper class IA language (of the Vedic priests) used in the upper Gangetic plains contains the same substrate elements as seen in the late Rgvedic period of the Panjab. However, due to the increasing stratification of society and increasing specialization among occupations, many words from the sphere of the artisans and from technology were added; furthermore many names of persons, localities and rivers.

Their affiliation can still be ascertained to some extent. With regards to agriculture, Kuiper's RV list (Kuiper 1991: 8, 21, 96, see already Kuiper 1955) contains quite a number of such terms (kīnāśa, lāngala, bīja, etc.) Especially among the artisans there is an increasing number of non-IA designations; many of them first appear in the Horse sacrifice (Aśvamedha ritual) (MS kevarta, kaivarta TB). Some of them are, in line with the increasing specialization, new Indo-Aryan formations (anucara 'servant', grāma-nī 'leader of a trek, wagon train' etc.), but especially those of fishermen (kevarta/kaivarta, dāśa, dhīvan, daivara, puñjiṣṭḥa, pauñjiṣṭḥa, bainda, maināla) are non-IA (often until today). Furthermore, non-IA specialists are: musicians (talava 'musician', āḍambara-āghāta 'drum beater', dundubhy-āghāta 'drum beater' (cf. dundubhi RV), vīnā-gāthin 'lute player', vīnā-vāda 'lute player', cf. vīnā 'lute' KS (EWA II 568), artisans (kanṭakī-kārī worker in thorns', bidala-kārī 'female splitter of bamboo', also kulāla 'potter', and the pālāgala 'messenger' (cf. pālāgalī 'fourth wife of a chieftain'), gaṇaka 'astrologer' (cf. gaṇa 'troop, number' RV) and 'money lender' (kusīdin, kusīda KS).

Such words come up not only in the eastern parts of North India (Bihar, area of VS/ŚB) but also everywhere from the Panjab (RV) and the Delhi area (MS, KS) eastwards,

<sup>15</sup> Details: kīnāśa 'plough man' EWA: 'non-IE'; kīnāra only RV 10.106.10; -- the following words all mean 'fisher' kevarta/kaivarta VS/TB; Pali, Pkt. kevatta, \*kevāta, CDIAL 3469 and add., 3479; Drav. according to Burrow, KEWA I 566, DEDR 1252 Tam. kayal 'carp', Mal. kayal 'a fish', etc.; kai- in kevarta; -- dāśa VS, daśera lex. CDIAL 6314 a Jāt tribe: dahā; -- daivara VS, see dhī, CDIAL add. 6819 NIA, Kuiper, KEWA II 105 ~ tivara (lex.) = tribal name? -- puñjistha also 'bird catcher?', MS, VS, pauñjistha AV; no NIA etym.; -- bainda ~ Srbinda, Kuiper 1991, EWA; -- maināla < Drav. mīna 'fish'; --- śauskala ~ śuska 'dried up'? -- Further: talava 'musician' VS ~ tad Epic 'to play a musical instrument'? Kuiper ZII 8, 1931, 251; -- ādambara-ghāta 'drummer' VS, ā- ŚB; Kuiper 1948: 85f. from Proto-Munda, dundubhy-āghāta 'drummer' (RV), ŚB EWA: onomatopoetic, Kuiper 1948: 84 Munda; vīnā-gāthin 'lute player', also in Iran?, see EWA, Mayrhofer 1968, CDIAL 12048; vīnā-vāda 'ditto'; -- pālāgala 'messenger' ŚB, -kalī ŚS. no NIA continuants; -- kanṭakī-kārī 'worker in thorns' VS; kantaka 'thorn' SB, Iran?, Greek akantha? -- bidala-kārī 'basket maker' VS, EWA "not clear", but cf. DEDR 5432 vil 'to split'; -- sirīn 'weaver?' only RV 10.71.9 (Ved. Ind. 585-6); -- gaṇaka 'astrologer' VS: RV, gaṇa, \*grna, CDIAL 3993 and add.; Greek ageirō 'collect'; Kuiper 1948: 54 Munda; -- kusīdin 'money lender' ŚB, kusīda KS, TS; Pali kusīta 'lazy', etym.? ku+sad > Pali ko-sajja?? -- parņaka? a tribal name? VS "Bhilla" in later commentary, EWA ~ pani? -- paulkasa? VS a mixed tribe, Kuiper 1948: 54ff. -- Indo-Iran.: malaga 'washer man' < AV, mala: IE \*mel; -- upala-praksinī from IA upalā 'mill stone' TS: kulāla 'potter' MS, KS, VS; EWA ~ RV kula 'hole, hollow', in mahākula, Pashai kōlāla 'potter' CDIAL 3341; -- krsī-vala 'agriculturist' RV, a-, AV kārsīvana: suffix variation!; -- vanij RV, vānija KS 'trader' < van-ij 'winning goods' according to EWA, Mayrhofer 1968.

e.g.  $k\bar{\imath}n\bar{a}\acute{s}a$  'plough man' RV, gana 'troop' RV, dundubhi 'drum' RV,  $v\bar{\imath}n\bar{a}$  'lute' KS,  $kus\bar{\imath}da$  'money lending' KS. The newly attested words have the same 'foreign' grammatical formations as seen in the RV: prefixes (ke-/kai-, dun- $dubh\bar{\imath}$ ?), retroflexes ( $\bar{a}dambara$ ,  $kantak\bar{\imath}$ -), initial b- (bidala), suffix - $\bar{a}la$  (pal- $\bar{a}la$ , main- $\bar{a}la$ , cf. Oberlies 1994: 341).

Similar data could be supplied for the spheres of material culture and the surrounding nature: agriculture and domesticated plants, local animals and plants, many items of food, illnesses and poisons, implements and utensils, and ornaments; this would lead to far afield in present context (see the lists in MacDonell-Keith, Vedic Index, Delhi 1967 [1912] 517-92). For more examples, one can consult Mayrhofer, *EWA* and for non-IA details especially *KEWA*; these may serve, in connection with CDIAL, DEDR, Kuiper 1948, 1955, 1991 and Pinnow 1959 as a first orientation.

# §7.3. The Para-Munda substrate in Post-Rgvedic.

Prefixes with ka- are found in the AV, YV and the Brāhmaṇas (here follow only a few proposals for etymologies; it is to be expected that not all of the following words can be divided in the way proposed below; ultimately this depends on a fitting etymology):

- · kapatu 'mushroom' AV, PS, cf. Sora pud-ən, Sant. o'd etc. (Pinnow 1959: 121 §237;
- · kapāla 'potsherd, skull' AV;
- · kapiñjala 'partridge' PS;
- kapola 'cheek' RVKh, cf. Sant. puți 'to swell', Kharia poțki 'to sprout' etc. (Pinnow 1959: 173 §378, Kuiper 1948: 148) ~ puta 'bundle, bag' MS, BŚS;
- · kaphauda/kaphoda 'clavicle, elbow'? AV, see Kuiper 1948: 44;
- · kamandalu 'water jar' KS cf. mandala 'circle' etc.;
- · karīra 'bamboo shoot' MS, KS;
- karīṣ-in 'having dung' AV;
- karuma 'epithet of certain spirits' AV;
- karūkara 'vertebra of the neck and spine' AV;
- kalāp-in 'having a bundle of arrows (or 'peacock feathers')' ŚS;
- kalinga 'the name of Orissa' AB, cf. Skt. tri-linga (mod. Telingana), etc., see Kuiper 1948: 45;
- kavaca 'armor' PS (but see above, Zvelebil's no. 13);
- · kaśambhūka 'name of a mythical being' Suparnākhyāna;
- · kaśipu 'cushion' AV;
- · kaśīti 'name of a man' JB;
- kaśoka 'name of certain demons' AV;
- · kaśmaśa? "? ", 'confusion, agitation?' AV, see Kuiper 1948: 39;
- · kasāya 'astringent sap, red' ŚB;
- · kaskasa? 'a certain damaging worm' AV;
- · kasarnīla 'a certain snake' AV, cf. sarnīka 'water?' TS/srdīka 'water?' MS (cf. srdāku 'snake, lizard' ?);
- · kasāmbu 'name of an extract derived from the devadāru a tree?' AV, etc.;
- · kastūpa 'hair tuft', kastūpa-stopinī 'woman wearing a hair tuft' PS, cf. stupa 'hair tuft, top knot' KS / stuka 'hair tuft' RV;

· kahoda 'name of a teacher, belonging to the Kausītaki clan' ŚB, JB.

With 'double prefix' Cər-/Cəl- there are the following words in which the many variants of the prefix in kər- stand out:

- karkandhu 'the tree Zizyphus jujuba' MS, KS;
- karkī? 'white (cow) 'AV;
- karkoṭa-ka 'name of a snake demon, Nāga' RVKh ~ śarkoṭa 'name of a snake demon 'AV, PS, cf. Mundari kar-kom (Pinnow 1959: 341 §483d), Kuiper 1991: 41, 44, 1948:121, Bur. yarqas 'lizard';
- · kardama 'dirt, mud' KS, cf. Munda ko-dil, ə-dil 'dirty' (Pinnow 1959: 87 §101);
- · karpāsa 'cotton shrub' Suśruta, kārpāsa 'made of cotton' ŚS;
- karśapha 'name of certain demons' AV, PS: śapha 'hoof'? RV (note that śapha has a clear IE etymology, EWA II 608), cf. Śaphāla 'a tribe' BŚS;
- garmut 'wild beans' TS, gārmuta 'wild beans' MS (Kuiper 1948: 146, CDIAL 4063: Sindhi gamu 'a sort of grass');
- · kalkusī 'a bone of the lower arm' PS; ŚB,
- kalmali 'shimmering (of stars)? AV;
- · kalmāṣa 'spotted, variegated' MS, KS, kalmāṣa-grīva 'with spotted neck' ŚS, PS;
- kārṣmarya 'the tree Gmelia arborea' KS;
- · kharjūra 'date palm' KS;
- · gulma? 'shrub, bush' Samh.;
- jar-tila 'wild sesame' KS: tila 'sesame' AV;
- jarvara 'name of a person' PB;
- jalāsa 'an ingredient used in medicine, healing?' PS (or -āsa suffix, Kuiper 1991: 26);
- · palala ' crushed sesame' Sū.,
- · palālī 'straw' AV;
- · palāva 'chaff' AV;
- palījaka 'a certain demon' AV;
- · barkara ' lam' ŚS;
- · barbara 'having curly hair' KS;
- barhina 'peacock' ĀpDhS;
- · bharūjī 'a certain noxious animal' AV;
- marīca 'pepper corn' ĀpDhS;
- · markata 'monkey' KS
- markaṭaka 'a type of grain' ĀpŚS, CDIAL 9884, Shina makaṛi 'large millet', Bihari makrā 'the grass Eleusine aegyptica'; cf. CDIAL 9879 markaka lex. > NIA makāī, makai 'maize'
- śarkara 'sand, pebbles' AV, cf. Bur. yoro 'stones' ?;
- śarkota 'name of a snake demon, Nāga' AV, PS (see above karkota);
- sardigrdi 'part of the female sexual organs' TS.

Double prefix Cən-/Cəm-:

- kankūṣa 'part of the head' AV, PS ~ śanku;
- · kaṇṭḥa? 'neck' PS, (saha)-kaṇṭḥ- AV, cf. Kharia konko, Khmer ko, Mon ka' "possibly old compound", Pinnow 1959: 132 §276;

- · kāṇḍa? 'section, piece, section of bamboo, grass' AV, cf. Kharia koṇḍen 'bamboo', (Pinnow 1959: 132 §275);
- kaṇḍūy-? 'to scratch' KS;
- kandhara 'neck' Up., cf. kantha;
- kambala AV 'woolen blanket, clothes' ~ śambara?;
- · kambūka AV 'chaff' ~ śambūka;
- · kamboja 'name of a people in SE Afghanistan' PS, cf. Greek Ambautai;
- · kāmpīla- 'name of a particular dress, skirt' KS;
- · jāmbila 'saliva' KS, TS;
- · tandula 'rice grain, husked rice' AV;
- talāśa? 'a particular tree' AV (if not with -āśa suffix);
- · parūṣaka 'a type of plant, Grewia asiatica' ŚS;
- · palāndu 'onion' ĀpDhS;
- palāśa 'leaf' TB (if not with -āśa suffix);
- palījaka 'a certain demon' AV;
- palpūlana 'lye, washing water' AV (if not onomatopoetic);
- · palvala? 'pool, small pond' Sū;
- pālāgala 'messenger, runner' ŚB, -ī 'fourth wife of a chieftain' ŚB;
- · barśa? 'knot' KS,
- · barśva? 'gums, alveolus' KS;
- balāsa 'a certain illness' PS (cf. kilāsa 'leprosy');
- · balkasa 'sediment, residue' ŚB;
- balbaja 'a type of grass, Eleusine indica' RV;
- balbūtha 'name of person' RV;
- bhalānas 'name of a tribe' (of the Bolan Pass area?) RV.

From the post-Rgvedic materials come words with other prefixes in Cər- and with other vowels, etc.:

- kirika YV, girika MS 'sparkling';
- kirmira 'variegated' VS, etc.;
- · kul-māsa 'an inferior type of grain' Up., cf. (kal)māsa 'spotted, variegated' AV;
- ku-taru 'rooster' YV, etc.;
- sṛdāku 'lizard', etc., lex., sṛdāku/-gu MS, sṛdara 'snake', etc. Mayrh. ZDMG 110, 6189 Munda prefix sr- + da'k 'water', see KEWA s.v. srdāku, etc.;
- · kaśmaśa? '?' 'confusion' AV, Kuiper 1948: 39;
- · kaskasa? 'a certain type of noxious worm' AV;
- jāskamada 'a certain animal' AV;
- · masnāra 'name of an area' AB;
- · masūra? 'lentil' KS, masura TS;
- prakubrata '?' ŚB, prakudrata '?' ŚBK,
- pramota '?' "deaf, blind?' AV etc.;
- tilvaka 'name of a tree, Symplocos racemosa' ŚB, tailvaka 'belonging, stemming from tilvaka' MS, etc.;
- tumbara 'a certain tree, Disopyros embryopteris?' KauśS etc.

Further Vedic words which are suspected of a Para-Munda origin are, among others: • me-khala 'girdle' AV: śr-n-khala 'chain, fetters' Skt.;

- · khadga 'rhinoceros' MS, EWA 443, cf. N.Pers. karka-dān, Arab. karkaddan, Aelianus kartázōnos (\*kargazōnos) 'Indian rhinoceros', cf. Kuiper 1948: 136 sqq.;
- karta/garta 'hollow'/'seat' to be compared with Kharia gaṛha 'river', Mundari gaḍa, gaṛa 'pit, trench, grave, water course, stream, river'; Sant. gaḍa 'hollow, pit, excavation, trench, river'; etc. (Pinnow 1959: 351f. §498);
- tittira 'partridge' KS, MS cf. Korku titid, Santali sengel titi 'Guinea fowl': Kharia khonthe'd, Sora on-'tid-ən (Pinnow 344 §488a); probably also:
- · musala 'pestle' AV;
- jala? RVKh, PS;
- dhūkṣṇa/dhlukṣṇa/dhlkṣṇa 'a bird' PS ~ dhvānkṣa 'crow' AV, dhūnkṣṇā 'white crow' TS; jhaṣa ŚB: jaṣa AV, TS: caṣa 'a large fish' VādhB;
- · drumbhūlī MS / dālbhuṣī KS / class. dambholi 'bow of Indra' see Kuiper 1991: 26 (cf. p. 18, 47, 61, 75).

### Para-Munda suffixes.

In order to characterize the substrate, certain typical suffixes can be used. Kuiper (1991: 45 sqq.) has isolated the following in the substrate of the RV: -āla, -āṣa,-īṣa,-ūṣa/-āśa,-īśā,-ūśa, -ṭa, -nas, -ya, -ra, -śa/ṣa, -ha. Among the suffixes are to be underlined in this context are those often found in personal and tribal names, in -ṭa (Kīkaṭa 'a tribe', kṛpīṭa 'brush', birīṭa 'crowd', kevaṭa 'hollow' RV / avaṭa 'hollow' SV), and the ones in -āla/-āra (kīlāla 'biestings', caṣāla 'snout'; maināla 'fisher' VS, cf. IA karmāra RV 'smith'; Gandhāri 'a tribe' RV, Gandhāra 'a country in N. Pakistan', Abhisāra 'a region north of Gandhāra'etc., cf. Witzel 1999).

Such suffixes also appear in post-Rgvedic time in the texts of the Mantra period and in the Yajurveda-Saṃhitās, e.g. kalmāṣa 'spotted' VS, TS; niṣkāṣa 'scraping' MS, KS; yevāṣa AV, evaṣa MS 4.8.1:107:16, yavāṣa 'manna plant' KS 30.1, KpS 46.6 (vṛṣaś ca yavāṣaś ca); ṛjīṣa a name of Indra, RV, 'residue of Soma' AV; uṣṇōṣa 'turban' AV; karōṣa[-ja] PS, 'dung', karōṣin AV, karōṣa ŚB, (cf. the frequent purōṣa 'dung'); cf. also tūṣa 'border of garment' KS; later also: palāśa 'leaf' TB, ŚB, ni-palāśa ŚB, śirōṣa 'Acacia sirissa' ṢaḍvB, etc.; cf. also jhaṣa 'a certain large fish', ŚB jaṣa AV, TS, caṣa VādhB.

## Para-Mundas in Kuruksetra and in the Gangetic plains.

The words mentioned above clearly show that also in post-Rgvedic, i.e., in the Mantra texts (AV, SV, RVKh, YV), in Yajurveda Prose, and in the Brāhmaṇas, such Para-Munda words can still appear for the first time. Therefore, they had either already existed in Vedic colloquial speech or they entered Brahmanical High Vedic at that particular point in time from the sphere of village life or of the artisans. The area of the early post-Rgvedic texts (Mantra texts, YV Prose) can be localized fairly well (Witzel 1987, 1989): it contains Kurukṣetra (i.e. more or less, modern Haryana) and the western Ganga-Yamunā-doāb (i.e. the Gangetic plains of western Uttar Pradesh).

In these areas, where no modern groups of Munda speakers survive, the same Rgvedic substrate with its typical prefixes can be found. That means Haryana and Uttar Pradesh once had a Para-Munda population that was acculturated by the Indo-Aryans.

If the late Vedic texts (such as the Jaiminīya Br. and Śatapatha-Br.) are added, the area in question is further enlarged to include the regions south of the Ganges and east of Uttar Pradesh. Here, new Munda words appear as well; however, these regions include those where even today Munda languages are spoken.

In short, a strong Austro-Asiatic substrate is found both in the early Panjab (RV, c. 1500 BC) as well as later on in the Ganges valley (YV Saṃhitās, Brāhmaṇas, c. 1200 v. - 500 BC.), a fact that can also be shown in the names prevailing in these areas (Witzel 1999).

As examples, I mention the river names Gaṅgā (popular etymology of Munda ga(n)d), Gaṇḍak-ī (see below), Narma-dā, and tribal names such as Maraṭa, Vibhindu (and Vibhindukīya, cf. Nār-ka-vinda PS 12.2.3, Sṛ-binda RV Kuiper 1991: 40-43, 1997, Ku-suru-binda TS, TB, ṢB, Ku-sur-binda JB, Bainda VS, cf. Munda bid 'insert, plant, sow', Pinnow 1959: 143 §285), Śabara (\*Šqawar, cf. Pinnow 1959: 154 §31; rather from \*K'awar/Śawar), Puṇḍra, Aṅga/Vaṅga (cf. also Gaṅgā?; further: Pra-vaṅga), Kaliṅga (cf. Teliṅga/Triliṅga, see S. Lévy in Bagchi 1929: 100, cf. Shafer 1954: 14, 122 as Tib.-Burm.; Kuiper 1948: 45 compares kuliṅga 'fork-tailed shrike' Mbh., and \*liṅ in Munda, Khasi, Mon, Khmer, Malay); Ikṣvāku (RV, emigration from the Panjab eastwards, Witzel 1997b: 307 sqq., 321, 1989: 237), Niṣāda/\*Niṣadha/Naiṣadha, Mucīpa/Mūtība/Muvīpa, Magadha (cf. Pra-maganda), Śaphāla cf. Śāvasa, Vasa etc.

However the truly eastern words (Uttar Pradesh, Bihar) are, next to some remnants of language "X", of Munda nature: there are many personal and place names (Witzel 1999), e.g. that of the river  $Gandak(\bar{\imath})$ , or even that of the Ganges, with popular etymology:  $Gang\bar{a}$ , a sort of intensive formation of gam 'to go' (if not modeled after the tribal names Anga, Vanga). Pinnow (1953-4) has pointed out many river names, from the  $Gandak\bar{\imath}$  to the  $Narma-d\bar{a}$  which contain the Munda element -\*da', \*-da'k 'water' (Pinnow 1959: 69), for  $ganda(k\bar{\imath})$  cf. Santali  $g\bar{a}da$ , Ho gada 'river' (Pinnow 1954: 3).

The Gaṇḍakī is not attested in Vedic, and is referred to as Sadānīra 'always having water'. Apart from the Epic, it appears in local context, the early Licchavi inscription (464 CE), Sanskritized as Gaṇḍakī and in other Skt. texts: Kāla-Gaṇḍikā, Gaṇḍārikā, Apara-, Pūrva-; the shorter version, Gaṇḍī, appears from the Epic onwards, and several times early on in Nepal as Gaṇḍi-(gulma-viṣaya) (998, 1092, 1165 CE, see Witzel 1993). The Gaṇḍaka appear as people in Mbh. as well.

Further, tribal names such as Pulinda/Pali Būli, Pali Moriya (from Skt. mayūra 'peacock') and also Mara-ṭa (PS), from Munda mara' 'peacock'), Kunti from Munda kon-ti'd 'bird' (note that Munda kom is a children's word!), cf. RV śa-kunti, Epic Śa-kuntalā, etc. (contrast the IA Matsya 'fish' RV, a tribe just west of the Kunti), Mūtiba (var. Mūcīpa), Śabara (mod. Saora?), Puṇḍra (Bengal), the Aṅga, at the bend of the Ganges, and the neighboring Vaṅga (Bengal). The prefix change in Aṅga (AV) / Vaṅga (AB) is indicative of a Munda formation (Kuiper 1991: 43). Mundas may also have lived in the hills and valleys of the Sub-Himalayas, for example in the Kathmandu Valley (see below, Witzel 1993).

Other typical words of the Gangetic plains are, from west to east: sardigṛdi 'part of female sexual organs' TS, palāśa 'leaf' TB, palāndu 'onion' ĀpDhS, tumbara 'a certain tree'

KauśS, kaśīti 'name of a man' JB, kirmira ' variegated' VS, kaṣāya 'astringent sap, red' ŚB, pra-kudrata '?' ŚBK, pra-kubrata '?' ŚB, ka-hoḍa 'name of a man' ŚB, JB, kul-māṣa 'an inferior type of grain' Up. etc. Especially informative for regional dialect features of the substrate, from W. to E.: jaṣa AV, TS: caṣa VādhB: jhaṣa ŚB 'a certain large fish'.

The Rgvedic substrate thus has the same grammatical structure as the words in the Yajurveda-Saṃhitās and the Brāhmaṇas that newly appear from the substrates of the Kurukṣetra (Haryana) and Ganges regions (doāb, Uttar Pradesh). It is of great importance that we can detect the same Indus substrate as found in the RV. In other words, the Rgvedic Panjab as well as the post-Rgvedic Gangetic Plain were largely settled by speakers of Para-Munda (including remnants of Masica's 'Language X'). They had been joined, in the early Rgvedic period, by speakers of Indo-Aryan and, in the later Rgvedic period, by those of early Dravidian (see above).

## Dravidian

In the new IA speaking, culturally Vedic "eastern territories" of the Gangetic plains some Drav. words occur for the first time in literature, e.g.  $n\bar{\imath}r$  'water' in the name of the eastern river  $Sad\bar{a}m\bar{\imath}r\bar{a}$ , the modern Gaṇḍak (Witzel 1987), or the verb 'to speak in barbaric fashion', mleccha-ti. However Drav.  $n\bar{\imath}r$  is not found in the neighboring N. Drav. languages (Malto, Kurukh), but is only found in Baluchistan (Brahui  $d\bar{\imath}r$ , DEDR 3690). This may be accidental, but it may also indicate that Brahmanical educated speech of the Kuru with their IA-Drav.-Munda symbiosis and acculturation had incorporated some Drav. words which appear only now in the texts. The word mlecch has been discussed above. Its appearance in the eastern context is not surprising. From the point of view of the Brahmins, the easterners are 'foreigners', mleccha. The word may at first have designated only the southern (Sindh) foreigners, and later on all others. These central and eastern North Indian territories, however, have no Dravidian names; the river names belong to other substrates.

A study of present and medieval north Indian places names has not been undertaken in earnest. We will have to account for such names as that of the town of Goṇḍ(ā) in Uttar Pradesh, some 180 km north of Allahabad. The name Goṇḍ appears nowadays only on the Central Indian Vindhya mountains, and is not known in U.P. from medieval and classical sources. (For some supposedly Drav. river names such as Sadā-nīrā from Drav. nīr 'water' see above, and for the Varaṇāvatī at Benares, see Witzel 1999.)

There are, as always, wrong leads, such as the river name *Kankai* in the Eastern Nepal Terai, which looks like the Tamil form of the name *Gaṅgā* (Witzel 1993); there are, however, no traces of an earlier S. Drav. occupation in the area. The Dravidian Kurukh living in the Terai now have recently been imported as laborers from Central India (K.H. Gordon 1976) where they are known as Kurukh or Oraon.

For a different view of early Dravidian settlements in N. India, see R. Shafer 1954, Parpola 1994: 168, and Burrow 1973: 386. Burrow points to the fact that most of the Drav. loan words are found in post-RV texts and concludes: "the influence took place in the central Gangetic plain and the classical Madhyadeśa." Therefore, "the pre-Aryan population of this area contained a considerable element of Dravidian speakers". If that had been the case, we would expect some Drav. river names in the Gangetic plains. However, only Munda (and Tib.-Burm.) names are found (Witzel 1999).

# §8. Substrates of the Lower Gangetic Plains

Next to the Mundas, there must have been speakers of other languages, such as Tibeto-Burmese, who have left us names such as Kosala, Kauśikī (mod. Kosi), perhaps also Kāśi and Kauśāmbi (mod. Kosam) (from Himalayan khu, ku, see Witzel 1993). In IA they also have left such words as the designations for cooked rice IA \*cāmala and probably also PS śāli 'rice'.

In Uttar Pradesh and North Bihar (attested in Middle and Late Vedic texts, c. 1200-500 BCE) another apparent substrate appears in which the 'foreign' words do not have the typical Para-Munda structure, with the common prefixes, as described above (§4.2). Masica (1979) called this unknown substrate "language X". He had traced it in agricultural terms in Hindi that could not be identified as IA, Dravidian or Munda (or as late loans from Persian, S.E. Asia, etc.). Surprisingly some 30% of the terms are of unknown, language "X" origin, and only 9.5% of the terms are from Drav., something that does not point to the identity of the Indus people with a Drav. speaking population.

However, only 5.7% of these terms are directly derived from Munda. Obviously, the pre-IA population of the Gangetic plains had an extensive agricultural vocabulary that was taken over into all subsequent languages. F.B.J. Kuiper has pointed out already in 1955: 137-9 (again in 1991: 1) that many agricultural terms in the RV neither stem from Drav. nor from Munda but from "an unknown third language" (cf. Zide & Zide 1973: 15). This stratum should be *below* that of Para-Munda which is the *active* language in the middle and late Vedic texts.

Again, it has been Kuiper who has pointed the way when he noted that certain 'foreign' words in the Vedic substrate appear with geminate consonants and that these are replaced in 'proper' Vedic by two dissimilar consonants (1991: 67). Examples include: pippala 'fig' RV (1.164.20,22; 5.54.12, su-7.101.5): pispala AV (in Mss.) 9.9.20,21; 6.109.1,2; su-pispala MS 1.2.2:11.7, guggulu 'bdellion' AV, PS: gulgulu KS, TS, kakkaṭa PS 20.51.6, KSAśv.: katkaṭa 'a bird' TS, cf. Pali kakkaṭa 'a large deer'. Kuiper adds many other cases of Vedic words that can be explained on the basis of words attested later on.

In RV geminates also occur in 'onomatopoetic' words: akhkhalī-kṛ 'to speak haltingly' or 'in syllables?', apparently not attested again in IA until, now Nahali akkal-(kāyni) '(to cry) loudly in anguish' MT II 17, L 33 (kāyni < Skt. kathayati 'to tell' CDIAL 2703, cf. 38) MT II 17; cf. also jañjan- RV 8.43.8 etc., ciccika 10.146.2 'a bird'?, and cf. also aśvattha 1.135.8 : aśvatha a personal name, a tree, 6.47.24, with unclear etymology, (Kuiper 1991: 61, 68).

Post-RV, new are: hikkā PS 4.21.2, kakkaṭa PS 20.51.6 (MS kakuṭha, TS katkaṭa! 'a type of bird'), KSAśv in YV: kikkiṭā KS, TS, kiṭkiṭā kṛ 'call to attract birds' JB, kukkuṭa 'rooster' VS, pilippilā 'slippery' TS 7.4.18.1, MS, VS; cf. also TS ākkhidant, prakkhidant TS 4.5.9.2, ājjya 5.2.7.3.

Especially interesting is the early gemination \*dr > ll: ksullaka AV 2.32.5, TS 2.3.9.3 ksullaka, < ksudra 'small' (a children's word?); later on, among others, bhalla-aksa ChU4.1.2, bhalla Br., MBh (with variants phala, phalla! EWA s.v.); JB Malla 'a tribe' (in the Indian desert, Rajasthan; cf. DEDR 4730), etc.

Though certain geminates, especially in word formation and flexion (-tt-, -dd-, -nn-etc.), are allowed and common, they hardly ever appear in the stem of a word (Sandhi cases

such as anna, sanna etc. of course excepted). Until the late Brāhmaṇa texts, other geminates, especially bb, dd, gg, jj, mm, ll, but also kk, pp, etc., are studiously avoided, except in the few loan words mentioned above (pippala 'fig', gulgulu 'bdellion', katkaṭa 'a bird' etc. 1991: 67 sqq.).

It will be readily seen that Kuiper's seminal observation reflects a tendency that can be observed throughout the Vedic texts. Geminates, especially the mediae, apparently were regarded, with the exception of a few inherited forms such as *majj* 'to dive under', as 'foreign' or 'barbaric'. They did not agree with the contemporary Vedic (and even my own) *Sprachgefühl*.

However, starting with Epic Sanskrit, forms such as galla 'cheek', malla 'wrestler', palla 'large granary', bhallūka 'bear'(CDIAL 9415, cf. Nahali bologo, MT II: 41, III, 48, but note Marathi etc. bhālūk; -- Nahali bologo cikin 'caterpillar' MT II: 21 would be 'bear insect') are normal and very common (however, -mm-, perhaps regarded as Drav.(?) remains rare); such words, in part derive from normal MIA developments, in part from the substrate.

This tendency can be sustained by materials from various other sources. In the language 'X' only a few of Masica's agricultural substrate words that do not have a clear etymology (1969: 135) contain such geminates: Hindi kaith < Skt. kapittha 'a tree, Feronia elephantum, wood apple' CDIAL 2749 (Mbh), piplī/pīplā < pippala (RV), roṭī < \*roṭṭā, roṭika 'bread' 10837 (Bhpr.); karela < karella/karavella 'a gourd, Momordica charantia' 3061, khāl < khalla 'leather' 3838-9 (Suśr.); to these one can add the unattested, reconstructed OIA forms (Turner, CDIAL, see Masica 1969: 136): \*alla 'a tree or plant' (Morinda citrifolia') CDIAL 725, \*udidda 'a pulse' 1693, \*carassa 'raw hide' 4688, \*chācchi 'buttermilk' 5012, \*bājjara 'millet' (see, however, OIA \*bājara, 9201 bājjara HŚS: varjarī!), \*balilla 'ox' 9175, \*maṭṭara 'pea' 9724, \*suppāra 'areca nut' 13482, \*sūjji/sōjji 'coarse white meal' 13552. However, these words have come into NIA via MIA, and that their geminates may go back to a consonant cluster without geminates (see below, on Turner's reconstructs).

All of these tendencies are reconfirmed by what we can discern in the other substrate languages. While there still are but a few cases in the northwest, the substrates located further east and south all have such geminates, (for details on these languages see §8). (Incidentally, the northwest has retained the original, non-geminate consonant groups, such as -Cr-, to this day, cf. Ved.  $bhr\bar{a}t\bar{a}$  'brother' > Khowar bhrar, Balkan Gypsy phral, W. Panj.  $bhr\bar{a}$ , E. Panj.  $bh(a)r\bar{a}$ : Hindi  $bh\bar{a}\bar{a}$ , etc.).

In the unstudied substrate of the Kathmandu Valley (inscriptions, 467-750 CE, see below), geminates are found in the following place names: gamme, gullataṃga, gollaṃ, jajje-, dommāna, daṅkhuṭṭā-, bemmā, cf. also bhumbhukkikā (onomat. with double consonant: < \*bhumbhum-ki-kā?); cf. also village names such as joñjon-din, tuñ-catcatu, thuṃtuṃ-rī, daṇḍaṅ-(guṃ).

In the substrate of modern Tharu which is spoken in the swampy lowlands of the foothills of Nepal and U.P.: e.g. gētt̄, ghaṭt̄, tippā (?), ubbā; cf. also 'onomatopoetic' words such as jhemjhemiyā 'small cymbal or drum', bhubhui 'white scurf', gula-gula 'mild' (with the usual middle Vedic, OIA, Tamil, etc. form of the "expressive" and onomatopoetic words: type kara-kara versus older Vedic bal-bal).

In Nahali (spoken on the Upper Tapti River) Kuiper 1962: 58 sqq.) the following substrate words can be found, though apparently various types of consonant groups are allowed: bekki 'to reap', beṭṭo 'to die', bokko 'hand', coggom 'pig', cuṭṭi 'to pound', joppo/jappo 'a clan name', kaggo 'mouth', kāllen 'egg', maikko 'bee', oṭṭi 'to pull out, to burn', poyye 'bird', unni 'to take'. Additions to this list can easily be supplied now from that of A. Mundlay (MT II) which are not obviously from NIA include 8 aḍḍo 'tree', 91 attú 'to stretch', 221 bijjok 'to lay in wait for prey', 232 biṭṭhāwi 'union, horizon', 255 buddi 'to set (sun)', etc.

In the Drav. Nilgiri languages (Zvelebil 1990: 63-72) there are a few isolated geminating words that go back to a pre-Drav. substrate, e.g. Irula mattu 'lip', dëkkada 'panther', mutt(u)ri 'butterfly', vutta 'crossbar in a house'.

The Vedda substrate contains the same type of words: cappi 'bird', potti 'a kind of bee', panni 'worm' (de Silva 1972: 16).

It can be stated, therefore, that the substrate languages outside of the extreme northwest indicate broad evidence for original geminates. Differently from IA (cf. below, on Turner's reconstructions), these words have not been pushed through the 'filter' of MIA, that means their original consonants clusters have not been 'simplified' (e.g. kt > tt, ks > kkh, etc.) The tendency probably has worked on IA from the beginning, as for example in the early example AV ksullaka < ksudraka. In Drav. various consonant groups are allowed, including geminates (Zvelebil 1990: 10 sqq.:) e.g., kakku 'to vomit', kaccu 'to bite', kattu 'to tie', kattu 'to screech', kappu 'to overspread', kammu 'to become hoarse'; (cf. also the interchange p- :: -pp-/-v- :: -p/-u).

One can therefore put the question whether this old substrate tendency has already influenced the Para-Munda of the RV. In Munda itself, such geminates are very rare (cf. Kuiper 1991: 53), and open syllables are common. However, there is a tendency in the Munda languages to eliminate consonant groups caused by vowel loss in prefixes (Pinnow 1959: 457); this does not cause geminates in such cases but is in line with the similar developments from Old to Middle and New IA (e.g. aksi 'eye' > akkhi > akh, rakta 'colored, red' > ratta > rat, etc.). One may therefore explain many of the 'foreign' words with geminates in Vedic and post-Vedic, excluding Drav. loans, in the same way.

For the same area that is covered by Masica's language "X", and for N. India in general, one may also adduce the many words in NIA that are not attested in Vedic, Classical Skt. or the various MIA languages such as Pali but that occur only in their NIA form. They have been collected and reconstructed by V. Turner in his CDIAL. These include the starred forms, appearing in their reconstructed OIA form, and those words that do not appear in Ved. but are more or less accidentally attested in late Skt. texts, and the substrate words dealt with by Turner. They have a typical, often non-IA structure, including the very common clusters -nd- and -tt-. Their root structure follows the following pattern. (C = any consonant, any vowel)

\*Cəkkh, Cəg, Cəgg, Cəcc, Cəcch, Cəjj, Cəñc, Cəṭ, Cəṭṭ, Cəṇṭh, Cəḍ, Cəḍḍ, Cəḍg, Cəṇḍ, Cədd, Cən, Cəpp, Cəmp, Cəbb, Cəmm, Cər, CərC, Cəl, Cəll, Cəv, Cəs, Cəśś, Cəh.

In Turner's CDIAL there are only a few forms such as \*Crək, Crəc, Crənt, Crəll, Cləkk; this does not surprise as all reconstructed words have passed through the filter of MIA and have lost such clusters, -- except in the extreme northwest (Lahnda and Dardic).

Double consonants at the end of roots may go back to complicated clusters that can no longer be reconstructed, for example \*Cəkkh < \*\*Cəkṣ (cf. RV kṣvinkā 'an animal, vulture?', ikṣvāku 'name of a person, tribe' (class. Skt. 'bitter pumpkin'), and compare Ved. clusters such as matkuṇa 'bed bug', matkōṭaka 'white ant', kruñc 'curlew'). Consonant clusters with various realizations in pronunciation may also be hidden in many Vedic loan words (Kuiper 1991: 51 sqq., Ved. cases p. 67 sqq.)

#### Prehistoric Semitic loan-words?

In passing, a few notes on Cyrus Gordon's and Liny Srinivasan's discussion of Semitic loans in NIA, MT 1, 203-206. Most of them are 'disguised' derivatives of earlier stages of IA, a warning to be heeded when comparing S. Asian words with their long literary tradition with other languages (see above, introduction and cf. P. K. Benedict, MT III 93). I had a talk with C. Gordon about that time, but unfortunately we only discussed the Mitanni Aryan words (see MT I 206.)

I briefly list all their words (except for a handful that I could not yet explain) that cannot be derived from a Canaaite source but stem from earlier forms of IA (Vedic, Class. Skt., Prakrit, NIA). Turner's CDIAL discusses the stages of development from OIA > NIA.

- ṣāṛ 'bull' < MIA saṃḍa(ka) < Ved. sāṇḍa MS, ṣaṇḍha CDIAL 13331
- sita 'winter' ~ Ved.  $ś\bar{\imath}ta(la)$  'cold', etc. CDIAL 12485-8; -t- in sita remains a problem; it requires a compound with  $ś\bar{\imath}ta$ -
- gol 'round' < Ved. golikā 'little ball', Skt. gola 'ball'; origin unknown, CDIAL 4321
- mita (= mitā) 'friend' < Ved. mitra CDIAL 10124
- celi 'purple red ritual garment < Ved. cela 'clothes', Skt. celika 'bodice'
- fola 'swelling' < Ved. phala 'fruit', etc. CDIAL 9051 and PHAL 'burst', note Bengali pronunciation of a [2], ph [f].
- tham 'to stop' cf. MIA thape-, thava- < sthāpaya- 'cause to stand, establish', MIA thāma < Ved. sthāman 'station', cf. Gujarati thām 'place' CDIAL 13756-65
- hoi, haya 'is, are' < MIA bhavaï, hōi < Ved. bhavati 'to become, be' CDIAL 9416
- bagan 'garden' < NIA, Hindi bagīcā < Persian
- bas 'cloth < Ved. vas 'to clothe', vasana 'dress' CDIAL 11437
- thoka 'drive in a nail' ~ cf. MIA thaddha < Ved. stabdha 'firmly fixed' CDIAL 13676; the form requires OIA \*sthabdha-ka, like CDIAL 13675 stabaka 'tuft' > MIA thavaya- > Beng. thok
- Abhīra: these tribes (or unknown origin) appear in S. Asia only at the beginning of our era; but the connection of Mitanni Aryan speech with pre-Vedic Skt. is beyond doubt (p. 204).
- bana, banā 'build' < Ved. vana- 'to desire, gain, make ready' CDIAL 11260
- dha 'run quickly' (for Beng. dhãoyā?, Oriya dhāi-bā) < Ved. dhāva- 'to run' CDIAL 6802
- tola 'draw up water' < Ved. tolaya- 'lift up' CDIAL 5979

• gada 'cause mental anxiety'; cf. CDIAL 3960 MIA gamja- 'to oppress, rebuke' < \*gañj 'to press, ram'??

- dhakal 'trouble, misery' CDIAL 5581 < \*dhalati 'bend over, fall'? (note extension with -kk-in Hindi dhalaknā 'to lean over', Beng. dhalkā 'to get loose'; or rather CDIAL 6701 \*dhakk 'push, strike', Hindi dhakelnā.
- chalak 'smart, diplomatic' probably ~ Ved. cal, cālaya- 'to move' CDIAL 4772 (with common -ka suffix).
- chamara 'a low caste' < Epic Skt. carma-kāra 'leather-worker'
- · dhapas 'fat, inert', cf. CDIAL 5580 \*dhappa etc. 'lump', Beng. dhepsā 'swollen', Marathi dhēbūs 'lump'
- karat 'saw' < MIA karapatta < Ved. kara-pattra 'saw' CDIAL 2795
- pala 'to flee' < Ved. palāya- 'go away, flee'
- pa-char 'to disperse' < pra-cala- 'move forward? CDIAL 8489
- sach (= sãc, sãcã) 'pure, true' < MIA sacca < Ved. satya 'true' CDIAL 13112
- kena 'to buy' < MIA kiṇa-, kiṇa- < Ved. krīṇā- 'to buy' CDIAL 3594

# §9. Tibeto-Burmese

Still, this is not all as far as the Gangetic plains are concerned. The eastern section of the North Indian plains (E. Uttar Pradesh and N. Bihar) provides some indications of Tib.-Burm. settlements. The name of the Avadh (Oudh) area north of Benares in late Vedic texts is Kosala; this form should not appear in Vedic/Skt.; it should have been \*Koṣala or \*Koṣala (as is indeed found in the Epics). The word clearly is foreign, and should belong, together with the slightly more eastern river name Kauśikī (post-Vedic, mod. Kosi) to a Tib.-Burmese language. Such designations for 'river' are indeed found in eastern Himalayish: R. Kosi, many Rai river names in -ku, -gu, in medieval Newari (kho, khu, khwa; ko 'river' in the unpublished Newari Amarakośa) and modern Newari (khu, khusi 'streamlet, creak') in and near the Kathmandu Valley, where it is already found in Licchavi time inscriptions, 464-750 CE, as: Cūllaṃ-khu, Then-khu, Japti-khū, Huḍi-khū, Pi-khu-, Vihliṃ-kho-srota, Ripśiṃ-ko-setu. It is perhaps derived from Tib.-Burm. \*klun (details in Witzel 1993).

Perhaps one may add the name of the tribe around Benares (Kāśī) whose older, Vedic form is Kāśi (AV), and its western neighbor, the Kūśāmba, Kauśāmbi (the later town Kauśāmbī, mod. village of Kosam near Allahabad). R. Shafer (1954) has a host of names, taken from the list of peoples in the much later Mahābhārata Epic that must be taken with caution (redaction only c. 500 CE, where even the Huns are included with Hūṇa, Harahūṇa, - they have become a Rajput clan!)

Indeed, early evidence for mountain tribes which might have been Tib.-Burm. is found in the Vedic texts all along the Himalayas. These mountain tribes, probably of Himachal Pradesh and Western Nepal, lived on the border of the Vedic settlement. They are first encountered in AV (1200 BCE) under the names *Kirāta*, in the western Himalayas where they appear as herb collecting mountain girls (*kairatikā kumarikā* PS 16.16.4, ŚS 10.4.14., *kailāta* PS 8.2.5). The more eastern text VS 30.16 has them as living in caves; cf. also the popular form *Kilāta* PB, JB, ŚB; (for details see Witzel 1993, 1999, and cf. KEWA I 211, EWA I 352, and also EWA I 311, s.v. *KAR*, and Prākrt *Cilada*).

An alternate form of the name, *Kīra*, may have been retained in Kashmir, at 500 CE (see above). Since the RV, tribal names are found have the suffix -ta/-ṭa (Witzel 1999), e.g. *Kīkaṭa*, *Bekanāṭa* (certainly a non-IA name: b-, -ṭ-), *Maraṭa* PS 5.21.3, 12.2.1, *Kirāṭa* AV, PS, Āraṭ(ṭ)a BŚS (cf. Sumer. *Araṭṭa*, an Eastern country!), *Kulūṭa*, *Kulūṭa* (MBh), *Kulū-ta(ka)*, (but also: *Kolūṭa*, *Kaulūṭa*, *Kuluṭa*, and even *Ulūṭa*, *Ulūṭa*, see Kuiper 1991: 38 (cf. Pinnow 1959: 198f., cf. S. Lévy, JA 203, 1923, 52 sqq. = Bagchi 1929: 119 sqq.), finally *Kuļu* in W. Pahari, CDIAL 3348, with the typical prefix change of Munda; *Virāṭa*, a king of the Matsya (Mbh) and a country in Bṛhaṭsaṃhiṭā, Pkt. *Virāḍa*, mod. Berar.

However, names in -ta (and -nda) are restricted to the Himalayan mountains while those with -ta (and -nda) occur all over the northern Indian plains (Witzel 1999). As for the origin of the suffix -ta, compare the plural suffix -to in Nahali (Berger 1959, Mundlay MT II, 1996, 5, cf. Kuiper, 1991: 45 on 'Dravidian' -ta).

Beyond this, the early texts do not allow us to decide on the language and appearance of the Kirāta. (The Epic calls them gold-colored). However, MS and ŚB list them with the Asura ('demons') *Kilāta-Akuli*.

Apart from these Vedic sources for (possible) early Tibeto-Burmese, the earliest datable, and so far not utilized evidence is found in Nepalese inscriptions (467 CE+)<sup>16</sup>. The inscriptions are in classical Sanskrit, but contain a host of place names, some personal and tribal names, and even a number of non-Sanskritic, traditional local names for government offices which must be considerably older than c. 200 CE.

A note on the transcription of 'foreign' words in Sanskrit and in Indian alphabets is in order here. Just as in the case of adaptation of 'foreign words' to the Rgvedic phonetical pattern, the local words of the Kathmandu Valley had to be adapted to the possibilities of Sanskrit pronunciation and of spelling them in the Gupta (Nāgarī style) alphabet.

- several vowels are used intermittently: i/e,  $i/\bar{i}$ ,  $u/\bar{u}/o$  (also va/o), r/ri/o [2,2];
- there is variation in some consonants as well, notably:

d/d (no retroflex!), tt/d, k/kh, b/bh, ll/ l, s/s (no  $\S$ ?); jñ (common N. Indian pronunciation: gy?); note aspirated m, n, r |hm, hn, hr|.

Typical is the spelling of the government office śolla/śullī/śulī or of the name of the town of Bhaktapur in Licchavi inscriptions: Khṛpun, Khopṛn [khɔprin], (Mā-)kho-, > medieval Khvapo, Khvapva(m), Khvapa, Khapva, Khopva [khɔpa]) > mod. Khvapya [khɔpɛ], (for medieval names see Witzel 1999, 1993).

Of importance is a variation (just as in Kanauri) that indicates implosive (unreleased) consonants: co/cok/cokh. On the other hand, final -k must, at least in part, still have been pronounced in the late middle ages as it has been taken over into Nepali during the 17th and 18th centuries, e.g. Jama-cok, Pul-cok, or cf. the Patan toponym Nep. Nugal < New. Nugah < O.New. Nogvala, Nogola, Nogola; or the Nep. loan word  $jhy\bar{a}l$  "window". -- For all such variant spellings in the Licchavi inscriptions, see Witzel 1980: 327, n. 60,69, 72, 74, 75, 87, 1993: 240 sqq., 248, n. 171-3, and 1993, n. 120, 152.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup> Now there is one still older inscription which indicates Sanskritization of the valley already around the time of Jayavarman, c. 200 CE (see Tamot and Alsop Asian Arts, July 10, 1996, at: www.asianart.com/index.html).

The actual attribution of the locally spoken language and its substrate found in the Licchavi inscriptions remains in the balance. It may be early Newari or a predecessor, the Kirāta language of the so-called Kirāta dynasty (see below) that reigned in the valley well before 200 CE and has left us with names of government offices such as *śulli*, *kuthera*.

If it is indeed early Newari, it is a very archaic form, characterized by a large numbers of *initial* clusters (*Cr*-, etc.), which differ even from the oldest attested Newari texts (names, occasional words or phrases in early Newari in documents, of 983 CE.) Such consonant clusters are very rare in medieval and certainly in modern Newari.

A clear case for Tib.-Burm. is ti 'water'; I have compared (1980 n. 90, n. 94) co(kh)-, bu-, dol/dul, khu, gal/gvala of the Licchavi inscriptions with mod. New. words: -co "hill, mountain top", mod. New. cwa, cwak-, cf. Kaike chwang, Khaling cong; (note also cuk "mountain range" in Gilyak); -bu, 'land'; O.New. bu/bru, cf. Tamang pū; -gaa '\*village'? cf. Mod. New. "classifier for round objects, part of Kathmandu", O.New. gvala(m), but note Skt. gola(ka), 'ball, globe'; perhaps cognate with Tib.-Burm. (Benedict, 1972: 444) \*r-wa / \*g-wa; cf. 91 \*wal 'round'; -ko 'slope', kwa, kwaa 'down'; pā-kā 'slope of a hill'; cf. Thakāli kohplen. (K. P. Malla has explained some of such place names as being of Newari origin (1981: 17).

In the following list of names, place names are not specially marked, words ending in - continue with Skt. words such as -adhikāra 'office', -kara 'tax', -grāma 'village', -draṅga 'fortress', -nadī 'river', -pāñcālī 'association', -vāstu 'area'.

ajika-(monastery), aśiń-ko (area) (ko 'river? or ko 'slope?'), āṅlābaka-(association), uttane, udanehuśa, udra, etań- (village), kańkā-vattikhā (Skt. vātikā 'garden'?), kańku-lam (area) (lam 'road'?), kadam-prin (area) (prin = prn), kapiśā (river), kampro-yambī (see jamayambī), kambīlampra, karvata (hamlet), kalopi- (village), kādalaka- (village), kāduń- (village), kici-priciń- (village), kuthera-(office), kurpāsi- (village), kuhmum-(area) (see hāhmun), kekhā, ketumbāta (name of a Kirāta official), kon-ko (village), kolī (cf. daksina-koli-grāma 'Southern Koli village'), košī (river), khakam-prin, khaduka, kharjurikā-(monastery), khadabramśai, khādyām, khārika, khārevālga-co (co, cok 'pass'), khāhri-co, khudū-(deity), khula-prin- (village), khrpun- (village), khainaspu (area), khoprn- (village) (see mākho-), gamprondin (village), ganidun (village), gandakī (river), gamme (area), gānśul (village), gī-gval- (association), gitā- (association), gīnun, gundīmaka (village) "hill-water"?, gudan-dul (area) (dul 'river?'), gumpadvrs (area), gullatamga- (village) (see gollam), gechimjāka, gollam (river), gohala- (village), gvalam (~gollam?), (catur-)bhalatasana- (monastery), citalān, cisimanda (tila-maka), cu-prin-(river), custuń- (village), custun- (river), cuhungapeda, cullam-khu (~ collam?), cokhparā (cokh 'mountain pass'), chūma-kūtī, cho-gum- (village), jama-yambī (s. kampro), jayapallikā- (village), jaya-lambha (cf. lambā), jajje- (association), joñjondin- (village), jol-prin- (village), jñātikhṛn (river), tistunga, te-gval (village) (see tegval), dolājī-prathā, tam-brū? (cf. Lalita-b(r)umā name of Patan; cf. -bū?), tāttanakam, tavecekha, tān-, tim-brū (cf. ma/mittam-brū, prīti-brū), tila-(river) (= tila-maka? 'irrigation channel?'), tila-maka, (śrī)-tukhāna, tuñ-catcatu- (village), the-khum-dul (river) (cf. Tib.-Burm. dul 'dust', local meaning 'sandy river?'), tegvan-, te-gvala (see tegval), te-gvala-(association), tenkhu, tepula (office), testuń- (village), thumtum-rī- (fortress), thasam-prin- (deity),

thambi-dul, tham-bū- (village) (Tib.-Burm.  $b\bar{u}$  'rice paddy'? Benedict 135, bu(d)/pu"open land" Ben. 260), theñ-co, (daksina-)koli- (village), (daksina-)tiladu-ku (tila='grain?'), dankhuttā- (street, tax), dandan-gum, dumpran- (village), dumlan-(village), dupran, dommāna, dolā-(śikhā) (deity), dova- (village), dhelan-tī (river) (cf. Tib.-Burm. tī 'water'), nara-prin- (village), nālanga- (village), nim-brū (Tib.-Burm. bū rice paddy?"), nīlī-śālā, paṅkuti, panapphu (area), pan-(river), parikhā, palāndu- (tax), pākhuśi, pā-gum-maka, pāsinkhya, pikankūlaka (area), pikhū- (village), pītaljā-(office), pumdatta (village), putham-pringa, pundri-(palace), puttī- (river), puttī-(deity), punu-(association), prcchi-brū, pondi-(shrine?), pran-prin, pranālī-dī-maka (Tib.-Burm. ti 'water'?), prayittikhā (area), prītu-brū (Tib.-Burm. bū 'rice paddy?), promjñam-bu, pronnipran, pronprovan, phamsinpral (river), phalanju (corvee), phavadran-(village), phrthula (area), phathula (area), pheran-(fort), bugā-yūmī- (village), bunlu- (river), bemmā (area), brahmuń (office), brā-dul (river), brem-gum-co (pass), bhumbhukkikā-(deity), bhel-bū, bhotta- (corvee), bremgu-co, mā-kho-dulum, mā-kho-prn (fortress), māgvala, māṭinga- (village), mātin-(temple), māthan- (village), māp-cok-(office) cf. -co(k/kh) 'pass', māśa, miń-ko, mittim-brū?, mimdi-co (pass), mekan-di-dul (tilamaka) (Tib.-Burm. ti water?), mo-gum-co (co 'pass'), yaku, yā-prin- (village), yāvī- (village), yū-gvala-(association) (cf. gola), yū- (village), yūvīsāmā- (village), yebramkhara, roṭā-(association), rogamācau (watchman), lakha-maka, lamkhulām uttane, lañja-gval-(association), laditama-(deity), lin-gvala- (office), lunśrī-(area), lumbañ-co, lulju (river), lemdu (area), lembatī-(fortress), lo-priń- (village), lo-priń- (association), vāditra- (association), valasoksi-(temple), vinvocā-(shrine), viliviksa (area), vihlin, vihlin-kho (river, Tib.-Burm. khu 'river'?), vrjika, vrjika- (street, highway), vemprā-(village), (vaidya-)madgudi (village), vottarino?, voddi- (province), śaktibāta (corvee), śaṅgā- (village), śatammi (area), śalamkhā, (śiva)-gal- (temple), śītātī, śulhmuṅ (office), śolla (office), śullī (office), śulī (office), saṅ-ko, sattvaumā-lambā (area) (cf. lambha), sapelā- (association), salam-bū (palace), sim- (tax), sindrira (watchmen), subram-ko (area), surisimbattī, stharu- (fortress), hasvimavallī- (village), hāhmuń- (place), hima-? (river), hudi-khū (Tib.-Burm. khu 'river'), hus-prindun (village), hnā-gum, hmas-prin-(village), hnu-prin, hrīm-ko (area).

There also is a traditional list of local kings, 32 in all, called the Kirāta dynasty (transmitted only in a manuscript of 1389 CE, the Gopālarājavamśāvalī), it runs:

Elam, Pelam, Melam, Cammim, Dhaskem, Valumca, Humtim, Huramā, Tuske, Prasaphum, Pavam, Dāstī, Camba, Kamkam, Svananda, Phukom, Śimghu, Julam, Lukam, Thoram, Thuko, Varmma, Gumjam, Puska, Tyapami, Mugamam, Śasaru, Gumnam, Khimbum, Girijam, Khurāmja, Khigu.

Some of these names obviously are Sanskritic: giri-ja- 'born in the mountains'; Svananda (sva-nanda or  $sv-\bar{a}nanda$ ); Varmma ( $varm\bar{a}$ , the designation of Kṣatriyas and kings); note that a new Kathmandu inscription of c. 200 CE is already one of Jaya-varman; consequently, this list will go back to at least 200 CE. The rest looks Tib.-Burm; note the initial clusters pr-, the internal clusters -sk-, -st and the final nasals: these features agree with the phonetic shape and the syllable structure of the place names recorded in the Licchavi inscriptions.

All these data have not yet been exploited for Tib.-Burm. linguistics. (For place names, see Witzel 1980, 1993; for relations between the eastern Himalayan languages and Munda, s. Kuiper 1962: 42, with Nahali, p. 46f; cf. Laufer 1916-18, 403 sqq.).

The Kathmandu Valley, however, seems to have has its own strange substrate, below this Tib.-Burm. level. It is visible in some place names which definitely do not look Tib.-Burm. Some of them are characterized by the geminates studied above: gamme, gullataṃga, gollaṃ, jajje-, dommāna, daṅkhuṭṭā-, bemmā, cf. also bhumbhukkikā (onomatopoetic with double consonant < \*bhumbhum-ki-kā?)

Our task would be simplified if we had an etymological dictionary of Newari, but so far we only have a limited dictionary of O.New. (by H. Jørgensen, A dictionary of the Classical Newarī, København 1936) and an equally limited one of modern Newari by Th. Manandhar (Newari-English Dictionary, Delhi 1986); most of the older New. texts have not even been edited. The next step would be to eliminate all Skt. loan words; (they are often difficult to determine due to diverse and far reaching sound changes, and to telescoping: who would derive punhī 'full moon' < Skt. pūrnimā, or yege(m) 'offering' < Skt. yajnā, ācāgu 'yearly meeting of all Kathmandu Bajrāchārya priests' from Skt. ācārya-goṣṭhikā?) Only then, we can be sure as to what is Newari, and what not and can proceed to eliminate Tib.-Burm. and other loan words in order to trace the substrate language of the Kathmandu Valley. A shortcut, for the time being, is provided by those untypical words with geminates mentioned above.

# §10.1. Early IA settlements in the Himalayas

D. D. Sharma, Old-Indo-Aryan element in Kinnauri (in: R.K. Sharma et al. (eds.), *Dr. B. R. Sharma felicitation Volume*, Tirupati 1986, 149-155) describes older elements in the Kōchī dialect (of LSI 9, 4: 613-6), classified by Grierson as a subgroup of the Kiūṃṭhali Group (= Simla dialects, p. 549 sqq.). It is spoken in the western part of the former state of Bashahr, along the upper Satlej River (Sharma's Lower Kinnaur, including the Kalpa, Nichar and Sangla Valleys), while in the eastern part (Sharma's Upper Kinnaur), up to the Tibetan border, the Tib.-Burm. language Kanauri (Kanāw<sup>a</sup>rī) is used.

Sharma states that Lower Kinnauri has 'a substantial portion of Tibeto-Himalayan vocabulary' and that it has 'various linguistic elements in its sub-strata ... whose origin is sought elsewhere'. One of these substrata is, in his opinion, an Aryan element that cannot have come from the (Vedic) OIA of the plains (*Madhyadeśa*), since he regards linguistic and other contact impossible ("unthinkable"; this can of course, be doubted, as we now have early iron age civilizations in these hills and contacts with the plains).

He links his 'Lower Kinnauri' with "an independent group of Aryans in the prehistoric days" ... the "Khaśa and Yakṣa" who spoke the Aryan language of the pre-Vedic period." He also sees a "conspicuous absence of Brahmans and Brahmanical culture" (which, incidentally, is quite typical for most of the upper Himalayan regions with NIA languages). Or, this form of Aryan is seen by Sharma as that of the Khaśa people "who form the bulk of the populace of this region now-a-days.... The existing OIA elements are the remnants of language of these Khaśas". He thus is on a trail quite similar to that taken later on by Zoller (see below).

The vocabulary given by Sharma, however, shows traces of OIA, MIA and NIA -- as might have been expected. One curious feature of L.Kin. is the division of nouns in animate (suffix -s) and inanimate (suffix - $\dot{n}$ ) which he compares to that of the Munda languages, while he links the endings to OIA masc. -s, neuter -m.

However, his materials represent a mixture of OIA, MIA and NIA forms that have to be separated. Typically, we find OIA kvath 'to boil' preserved as kwath or  $gr\bar{a}ma$  'village' as  $gr\bar{a}ma-\dot{n}$  (as opposed to NIA  $ga\bar{u}/ga\bar{o}$  etc.); next, forms which represent a MIA stage such as sappa-s 'snake' < sarpa, and NIA forms such as  $b\bar{a}y\bar{a}$  'brother'  $< bhr\bar{a}t\bar{a}$ , tau 'heat'  $< t\bar{a}pa$ ,  $dauya-\dot{n}$  'curds' < dadhi,  $ana-\dot{n}$  'food' < anna, or  $m\bar{a}m\bar{a}$  'maternal uncle.'

Then, there are earlier and later loans directly form Sanskrit (tatsama). The earlier ones have undergone some sound changes typical for this NIA language. Direct loans include  $\dot{sastra}.\dot{n} < \dot{sastra}, r\bar{a}ksa.s < r\bar{a}ksasa, b\bar{a}ga.\dot{n}$  'part, share'  $< bh\bar{a}ga$ ; older ones must be: dhaura 'religion' < dharma has preserved dh (otherwise > d, a typical Dardic trait), or akhaura < aksara 'letter'. There are several cases of "Gāndhārī metathesis" as well:  $tr\bar{a}ma.\dot{n}$  'copper'  $< t\bar{a}mra$ , cf. grota.n 'cow urine'  $< gom\bar{u}tra$  etc.

In short, several layers have to be distinguished very carefully; Dardic influences and medieval loan words from Skt. have to be separated, and finally, true OIA survivals must be isolated, -- all of which cannot be done here. This Pahari language thus contains many loan words from the levels of OIA and MIA and NIA.

The case is of interest as it shows, just as that of early Burushaski, the interaction of plains and mountain people (cf. also, below, on Bangani). The present case also provides

some indication of the early date of such interaction between IA and Tib.-Burm. speakers; this may be reflected even in AV, if the *Kirāta* indeed are Tib.-Burm. speakers, and if the name has not been passed on from an unknown earlier population (cf. the Kashmiri *Piśāca*, *Nāga* traditions, above) to Tib.-Burm. speakers.

However that may be, from at least 1100 CE onwards, we see an increasing Aryanization of the western Himalayas and W. Nepal with the spread of the *Khaśa* tribe (found already in Manu's law book); by 1150 CE they are still mentioned in the Rājataraṅgiṇī as settling southwest of the Kashmir Valley. *Khas kurā* is the self-designation of what was called the "language of the Gurkhas" (in Newari called *khaṃy* < *khas*); they have substituted the name Nepali only in this century. By 1150 CE they had established the W. Nepal/C. Tibetan Malla kingdom; by 1769 they had conquered the Kathmandu Valley; and by 1900 they had settled, mixed with Gurung, Magar, and other Tib.-Burm. tribes speaking Nepali as lingua franca, in Darjeeling, Sikkim, S. Bhutan and some parts of Assam. This movement is indicated by their renaming of river names all across the Himalayas (Witzel 1993).

Some part of the Himalayas may also have been occupied by the pre-Tibetan language of W. and Central Tibet, Zhang Zhung. (See the list of Zhang Zhung words, Thomas 1933, Beckwith 1987; for recent archaeological discoveries of Zhang Zhung settlements in the area before the spread of Buddhism in the 7th c., see Bellezza, 12/17/98, at: www.asianart.com/index.html.)

The history of the settlement of the Himalayas is far from clear. (For some details, based especially on hydronomy, see Witzel 1993, and cf. now van Driem http://iias.leidenuniv.nl/host/himalaya/). For example, the Thāmi tribe who live higher up in the Tāma Kosi valley east of Kathmandu belong, as their language shows according to Shafer (1964: 3 n.1), to the Western Himalayish group of the Bodic division of Tibeto-Burmese (Kanauri, etc.); cf. however, Starostin 1989. Indeed, the Thāmi claim to have immigrated from Humla in northwest Nepal. This is one indication among others (Witzel 1993) that there was a west-east flow of population and languages, similar to the much later one of the Nepālī speaking Khas tribe.

## §10.2. Bangani

The intriguing question of Bangani has not been entirely resolved. Bangani is spoken just east of Kinnauri, in the western-most tip of Garhwal, Uttar Pradesh. Zoller (1988, 1989) has reported a non-IA substrate in this otherwise typical NIA language found high up in the western Himalayas. Surprisingly, this substrate is a strange western variety of IE with words such as 2gn2 'unborn' (not Skt. a-ja) and g2n2 'give birth' (not Skt. jan), k2tr2 'fight' (not Skt. jan), k2tr2 'fight' (not Skt. jan), jan0, jan1, jan2, jan3, jan4, jan5, jan8, jan9, jan9,

In principle, bands or tribes who have 'lost their way' and turn up in unexpected areas are not altogether unknown. Tokharian, the easternmost IE language, has western

characteristics (känt, känte '100'), and the North Iranian Alani, ancestors of the Ossetes, traveled all the way through Central Europe, Spain and North Africa with the Germanic Vandals, to settle in Tunisia.

## §10.3. Kusunda

Tib.-Burm. is, however, not the first language in the Central Himalayas. In Nepal it has been preceded by the language isolate of Kusunda. (The language of the nomadic hunter-gatherer group, the Raute, is Tib.-Burm., though; see D.B. Bista, 1976, J. Reinhard 1974). Kusunda has recently been treated at length in MT II and III (cf. Shafer, 1966: 145; 1954: 10 sqq.), and I can therefore be brief. Personally, I deeply regret not having investigated the language when I worked at Kathmandu (1972-8), at a time when this was still possible; I thought that the Summer Institute of Linguistics (T. Toba 1970) and J. Reinhard (1969, 1970) were on the trail. At that time, some Kusunda still lived in the Mahabharata Range west of Kathmandu, in the village Satobati on the river Kar Khola, west of Gorkha. This is, however, a fairly recent settlement, and we should investigate whether other sections of the tribe have survived elsewhere. One of my Nepalese friends, J.R. Acharya, tells me that some decades ago, Kusunda used to come to his village near Tanahum. Children were threatened by their mothers with exclamations such as "Kusunda ayo!" ("the Kusunda have come... they will take you away!" It is important to note that Reinhard reports them from another area, the Dang plains (south of Gorkha). Their possible survival should therefore be investigated urgently -- though the question remains whether various groups of hunters called Kusundā in Nepal (such as those at Tanahum) do/did indeed speak this language. The language is reported to have died out by now. The Summer Institute's web site (www.sil.org/ethnologue/), misclassifying them as Tib.-Burm., says: "KUSANDA (KUSUNDA) ... Tanahun District, Gandaki Zone, western hills, Satto Bhatti west of Chepetar and possibly jungle south of Ambhu. Kireni, near Kumhali. ... Last speaker died recently (1985). Extinct.)" Therefore, Reinhard's taped material of c. 500 words and sentences, deposited in the Phonogramm-Archiv, Vienna, should be (re-)investigated.

It is also important to point out the difference between Hodgson's (1848, 1880) and Reinhard's (1969, 1970) Kusunda, a point also mentioned by P. Whitehouse MT III: 31; however, these differences extend beyond the grammatical forms cited to the basic vocabulary, e.g. gipan 'hand' H(odgson): āibi R(einhard); ing gai 'star/night' H: sā'nām R (cf. ing, ing ying 'sun'); jum 'moon' H: niho' R; cf. also smaller variations: toho 'tooth' H: uhu R; gitān 'skin' H gitat R.

It goes without saying that, for a thorough investigation of Kusunda, the loans it has received from Nepali and some of the neighboring Tib.-Burm. languages such as (Kham-)Magari, Gurung, Chepang, Newari, etc. must be taken into account, and that its relation to the nearby substrate in Tharu (and Masica's "Language X") needs to be evaluated.

S. M. Joshi's dictionary (*Paryācavācī Śabda Koś*,1974) unfortunately has no Kusunda lists; on p. *kha* of the introduction he says (here translated from Nepali, with my notes enclosed in []): "... there also exist two leftovers of these families: Jhangar of the Dravida family, and Santhali or Sartar of the Āgneya [= Munda] family. [Note that the 1961 Census has both Dhangar = Kurukh in Dhanusha Dst., and Jhangar, see Zvelebil 1990: xxiv, n.24; Santali and Sartar are both spoken in the extreme southeast of Nepal]. Again, there are also

such languages about which certainty of their language family has not been reached, such as the Kusuṇḍā language. In the Census the language of a tribe, wandering about in small numbers and either living in village houses or not, and of other languages have been separated. Thus, the language of the Kusuṇḍā (a tribe found here and there in the Gandaki district) and of the Rauṭe people (found in Rapti, Bheri, Karnali and Seti districts) [Tib.-Burm.] cannot be seen [in this dictionary]. But, from the point of view of anthropology and linguistics, the language of some such tribes is important."

# §10.4. A Munda substrate in the Himalayas?

In passing, the old theory of a Munda substrate in the Himalayas should be revisited. It goes back to S. Konow 1905, 117-125. This has been denied by P.K. Benedict 1972 7, n. 23 and G. van Driem, Rutgers 1993, J.J. Bauman (1975), Turin 1998 (see website: http://iias.leidenuniv.nl/host/himalaya/individ/ kirmor.html).

Nevertheless, it must be remembered that the name of the R. Gaṇḍakī can be traced back to Munda. It is found all over Central Nepal, where the major rivers are called "the seven Gaṇḍaki". How far into the Nepalese hills did the settlements of a Munda speaking people reach? Even in exclusively Nepali speaking W. Nepal, the common hydronomical 'suffix' gāḍ denoting 'river' may be connected with the Munda word da'k, ganda'k (Witzel 1993, 1999; further materials in Kuiper 1962: 10, with lit.; and already B. H. Hodgson (1880, 1848).

A further hint may be provided by the implosives (unreleased stops) found in the substrate of the Kathmandu Valley (cokh/cok/co, see above) and in Kanauri (see Grierson, LSI on Kanauri). We may see here an areal feature of implosives that has influenced both the Tib.-Burm. languages in Kinaur (Kanauri) in the western Himalaya and in the Kathmandu Valley. Apart from Munda and Sindhi, this feature is otherwise not found in S. Asia. There are indications in the eastern Himalayas of a pre-Tib.-Burm. population (Witzel 1993). Anecdotally, it may be mentioned that the Kulunge Rai, a Tib.-Burm. tribe in. E. Nepal has legends about the earlier settlers of the Hongu valley, the Rungsiupa.

Even today, the Munda languages Satar and Santali are actually spoken in the extreme south-east of Nepal (probably, like the Kurukh, recent imports). Other Munda speakers are, after all, found south of the Ganges, only about a hundred miles south of Eastern Nepal.

### §10.5. The Tharu substrate

Finally, there are the various Tharu tribes who live in the foothills of the Himalayas, from the Rāmgaṅgā river in U.P. (India) to the eastern border of Nepal, and in some bordering hill tracts, such as in the Rāptī Valley (Chitawan, just 50 miles SW of Kathmandu).

They practice slash-and-burn agriculture and nowadays speak a form of one of the neighboring NIA languages, just like the Nahali or Vedda (see below); however, I believe that we can find, again, a so far unstudied substrate from a pre-IA, Pre-Munda language.

Although often referred to as an archaic, remnant group, they have been little studied (cf. the bibliography in Leal 1972, see now Krauskopf (1989). G. Grierson (Linguistic Survey of India, 5.2: 311) reports the opinion of W. Crooke (1906) that they were formerly Dravidians who intermarried with Himalayan people. Indeed, rarely, some of the

vocabulary looks Tib.-Burm.: for example Tib.-Burm. *ti*- 'water' in Tharu *suitī* 'small river.' (For -*ti* in Himalayan river names, see Witzel 1993).

And indeed, D. N. Majumdar (1944) reports blood group types 'predominantly Mongoloid.' This is now supported by recent, more advanced genetic studies. The Tharu are very isolated within S. Asia (L. Cavalli-Sforza 1994: 84, 239 with fig. 4.14.1).

In Nepal, the Tharu have also consistently been reported to be immune against malaria. Their area was heavily infested until the use of DDT, in the Sixties and early Seventies; and no non-Tharu traveler stopped in this "8 kos" jungle belt overnight as to avoid catching the "mountain fever". L. Cavalli-Sforza 1995:125 gives a genetic reason for immunity. The anecdotally high Tharu immunity rate should be compared to the generally low Indian 'immunity gene' rate.

As for the suspected substrate, D. Leal (1972), provides an example of the influence of their original non-NIA language, i.e. the difficulty the Chitaun Tharu have to pronounce aspirated mediae ( $bh > b \Rightarrow h$ ; cf. above, on the Kathmandu Valley substrate) and mentions as another ("Dravidian") substrate influence the simplification of the possessive case suffix Hindi  $-k\bar{a}$ , -ke, -ki, Nepali -ko,  $-k\bar{a}$  to -k.

I list some examples of suspected substrate evidence from the Tharu word list in S. M. Joshi (1974); this contains lists of 2914 words, starting from the Nepali entry. As in Grierson and Leal, most Tharu words in this dictionary are close to Bhojpuri and Nepali; a cursory check has resulted in the following words (cf. Witzel 1999, n. 43) which are neither related to the surrounding IA languages (Nepali, Awadhi, Bhojpuri, Maithili) nor to the nearby Tib.-Burm. ones (Magar, Chepang, Newari, Tamang). I propose a more detailed study in a later issue of MT. Some interesting words are:

- · ubbā 'small box'
- · konhilā 'tiger'
- · khūdī 'sugar cane' (cf. Ved. ikṣu 'sugar cane', MIA ikkhu, icchu, Maithili, Bhojpuri ūkhi
- , + Tib.-Burm. *ti* 'water' ??)
- · gukhā 'shaman'
- · gulagula 'mild'
- gettī 'splinter'
- · jhemjhemiyā 'small cymbal or drum'
- tippā 'mountain top' (probably NIA)
- ta 'small'
- tīra 'afterbirth'
- tīlvā 'whore house'
- · nimak 'salt'
- · bhubhui 'white scurf'
- · yedi 'brick'.

But the agricultural terms are NIA: bājrā 'millet', dhān 'rice', makai 'maize', gehūm 'wheat', as well as most of their basic vocabulary.

All these cases indicate that we probably can discover more substrates if more work along these lines would be done. But we lack etymological dictionaries for most NIA languages (apart from Turner's great work, CDIAL), not to speak of Munda (in preparation

by D. Stampe et al.) and Tib.-Burm.; (see, however, those on the internet: Starostin et al., accessible from: http://starling.rinet.ru/). For example, it may very well be that the Bihari languages have more Tib.-Burmese substrate words. There is, after all, *cāmal* 'cooked rice' in Nepali, *cāwal* in Hindi, etc. which can be connected with Tib.-Burm. \*dza 'to eat', Newari jā 'cooked rice, etc.' Yet, nobody in Indian Studies is looking for such substrate material.

## §11. Nahali (Nihali).

Turning further South, it may very well be that Rajasthani has a strong Bhili (and Nahali) substrate; Koppers (1948: 23, Kuiper 1962, 1966, 1991) and Shafer (1940, 1954: 10) thought that the Bhils once spoke Nahali as well. The Bhils are now widely spread between the Ārāvaļā (Aravalli) Mountains, the Vindhya Mts. and the Tapti River (Khandesh area); they now speak Gujarati-like IA.

Again, as extensively treated in MT II and III, it should be underlined that Kuiper (1962: 51) distinguished 4 levels in this isolate language: some 25% substrate, then a Munda, Dravidian and finally a NIA layer. The vocabulary given by Mundlay in MT II should be reinvestigated by specialists of IA, Drav., and Munda. From the point of view of IA some words stand out, even if they have not come directly from Marathi or a Hindi dialect or not, whether they have been marked as L (loan-word), as the case of akkal-kāyni (above) shows: MT II p. 45 no. 161, p. 70 no. 10 sanu 'younger brother', belongs to CDIAL 12732 Ved. ślakṣṇa 'slippery, tender' > NIA: Panjabi nannhā 'small, young', Nepali sānu 'small', nāni 'little girl', Oriya sāna 'small, youngest', Hindi nanh 'small, light', Marathi sānā 'small' etc., or MT II: 36 no. 1274 parayn 'river', is other than maintained in MT II: 64 no. 17, a simple look-alike of Nostratic \*bihra', as parayn (Kuiper 1962: 96, 1966: 78) is a borrowing from its neighboring language, Marathi parhyā 'streamlet, brook', and its dialect Konkani parāy, < Skt. parivāha 'overflow of a tank, water channel' CDIAL 7878, cf. MT II: 36.

Berger (1959) was of the opinion that the Nahals were identical with the well known Niṣāda of the Chambal, Malwa and Bandelkhand areas. He discussed their mythology as found in the Mahābhārata; however the *Niṣāda* (and once, the variant *Niṣadha*) are found already in the Middle Vedic texts (see below).

The people called Nihāl or Nāhal are found (Berger 1959: 35) in many medieval texts, such as in Hemacandra's Grammar (c. 1200 CE) as *lāhala*; in Padma Pur. *nāhalaka*, together with the *Bhilla*, as mountain/jungle tribe; in Puṣpadanta's Harivaṃśapurāṇa as ṇāhala, synomym of *bhilla*, savara (another jungle tribe: modern Saora); also in Vikramaṅkadevacaritra of Bilhaṇa (c. 1150 CE), and in Rājaśekhara's drama *Bālarāmāyaṇa* (on the R. Narmadā). Berger wanted to identify them with the ḍahāla as well; they are found in inscriptions of the Kalacuri dynasty of Tripurī and in Albiruni (1030 CE). All of their territories are c. 400 km away from the modern eastern Nahalis near *Nimar*.

He thus derived Nahal/Nihal from a form such as \*nešad reflected by Ved. Niṣāda. Indeed, the word is found in early post-RV texts: KS, MS, and with the typical sound changes in 'foreign' words: Niṣāda: \*Niṣidha: ŚB 2.3.2.1-2 Naḍa Naiṣidha, (apparently the Vedic 'ancestor' of the Epic Nala Naiṣadha); thus, d: dh (as in Magadha: Pra-magandha, etc.). The name certainly is a popular etymology (however, the modern self-designation of the Nahals is kalṭo, du. kalṭih-ṭel, pl. kaliṭṭa; < stem \*kaliṭ-o, s. Kuiper 1962: 82, 17, 27,

Mundlay MT II 5-7, no. 858 kalto, pl. kolta). The Niṣāda are described in Vedic texts (first MS 2.9.5 = KS 17.13, TS 4.5.4.2, VS 16.27) as being "neither wilderness (aranya) nor 'wagon trek, settlement' (grāma)" who are "given over to the earth:" (asyām eva parīttāḥ), next to jana '(foreign) tribe' PB, other non-Brahmins (JB), and samānajana "one's own people" (cf. PB 16.6.7-9); cf. also KB 25.15, LŚS 8.2.8 on temporary residence in a naiṣāda settlement.

Similarly, MS 2.9.5 describes the Niṣāda, among the names of the fearsome god Rudra and his people, together with hunters and other low caste people (=KS 17.13, TS 4.5.4.2, VS 16.27); -- AB 8.11 as robbers in the wilderness; similarly the *dasyu* JB 2.423:§168, where the text insists on Kṣatriya accompaniment during travel, necessary to keep the Dasyu at bay and turn them *madhu* 'sweet', cf. AB 8.11 where the *dasyu* rob a wealthy man or a caravan in the wilderness.

Acculturation is seen at MS 2.2.4, where their chief (*sthapati*) is allowed to offer sacrifices, cf. KŚS 1.1.12. The inclusion of the headman of the Niṣāda reflects the well-known process of upward social movement, called "Sanskritization." (Witzel 1997a)

Their Vedic designation obviously is a popular etymology "those who sit at home." However, they are more frequently described as robbers (still a favorite occupation of the Nahals in early British times) -- against whom one had to guard when traveling through uninhabited territory. Their chieftains (*sthapati*), however, were allowed into the Aryan fold and could perform solemn Vedic sacrifices, clearly an early form of Sanskritization.

In passing, as has been first seen by Shafer and Kuiper, Nahali has connections with Ainu, etc. (see now Bengtson, MT II 51-55), remnants of the earliest substratum of modern Homo Sapiens sapiens' move from the Near East all the way to E. Asia (and S.E. Asia, Australia); note however, the differing views of V. Blažek, H. Fleming, and I. Peiros in MT II.

## §12. Dravidians in the Vindhya Range

Both North Dravidian languages, Kurukh (Oraon, on the borders of Bihar/Orissa/Madhya Pradesh; the settlement in Nepal and Assam is recent) and Malto (on the bend of the Ganges in S.E. Bihar) are late-comers to Munda territory as many loans from Munda languages indicate. Brahui in Baluchistan has returned to E. Iran only a few hundred years ago (Elfenbein 1987); it has no older Iranian loans (from Avestan or Pashto, just from their symbiotic neighbors, the Baluch).

In the Vindhya Mountains we find such names as the following: the Vidarbha people, in the area around Nagpur, (the mod. Barhāḍ, Berar < Virāṭa, Mbh) are mentioned (JB), along with their fierce mācala dogs 'that kill even tigers' (note that this is an area with early iron and horses). Vidarbha seems to be a popular etymology vi-darbha 'with widely spread darbha (grass)', especially if connected with Munda da'b 'to thatch' (Pinnow 1959: 69), cf. vi-bhindu in the Gangetic plains (above). The name of the Vibhindus is related to that of the Bainda tribe (derived from \*bind) that still survives in the Vindhyas today, and names such as Ku-sur(u)-binda (above). The very name of the Vindhya (post-Vedic) can be related, with typical Sanskritizing interchange of d: dh, as in Pra-maganda: Magadha, (above). East of these mountains, we have the Kalinga (cf. Trilinga south of Orissa) and Anga, Vanga. All of these are names that hardly have a Drav. etymology, but which look Austro-Asiatic because of their prefix changes.

However, all around Vidarbha, the first Drav. river names are met with: the Pūrṇā (< \*pēṇ) west of it, the Vēn-gaṅgā east of it, and the Pain-gaṅgā south of it. They all are adaptations of a Drav. term for rivers, DEDR 4160a. \*pēṇ-: \*peṇ-V- 'to twine, twist'. It seems that the area which still has a Munda name in the Vedic middle period (Vidarbha) has also received a Dravidian overlay. This is confirmed by Drav. place names in -oli in Maharastra and in -palli, -valli, -pal in Bastar, just east of the Vidarbha area (now southernmost Madhya Pradesh) where they range from 21% in the south to only 0-4% as one approaches the Raypur plains. The south and southwest of Bastar is occupied by Gonds, all other regions by Chattisgarhi Hindi speakers. (For an overview of studies in (South) Indian place names see the paper by M.N. Nampoothiry 1987: 1-47, --- including a good bibliography, also of unpublished Indian theses).

## §13. The South

The South is frequently supposed to have been Dravidian from times immemorial. However, in the refuge area of Nilgiris with their isolated Drav. tribes (Toda, etc.), we find a substrate, see Zvelebil 1990, 63-70. Isolated words indicating this pre-Drav. substrate (Zvelebil 1990: 69f., Zvelebil 1979: 71f.) include the Irula words

- · mattu 'lip',
- · dökënë, dëkëne, dëkena, dëkkada 'panther',
- ovarakanku, ōrakanku, ōrangeku, ōrange, ōrapodu 'tomorrow' (unless DEDR 707 Tam. uranku 'to sleep'),
- bundri 'grass hopper' (unless DEDR 4169),
- mutt(u)ri 'butterfly' (unless DEDR 4850 mitl 'locust'),
- vutta 'crossbar in a house'.

These instances should encourage Drav. specialists to look for substrates in Tamil, Telugu, Kannada, etc. However, just like the propagators of indigenous "Aryans" in the North, Dravidians of the South frequently think that they are autochthonous.

## §14. Vedda

Finally, in Sri Lanka, the remnant population of the Vedda now speaks Sinhala. (De Silva 1972).

The substrate that they may have preserved is in urgent need of thorough study, carried out by comparing Pali, Sinhala and Tamil words. Some typical words, interestingly many with geminates, that cannot be linked either to Sinhala or to Tamil are:

- · cappi 'bird'
- · mundi 'monitor lizard'
- potti 'a kind of bee'
- · panni 'worm'
- rukula 'home, cavity'

(see de Silva 1972: 16; his vocabulary, pp. 69-96, does not contain etymologies).

Finally there is Andamanese, but unlike the Austro-As. Nicobarese, so isolated that it can only be compared in long-range fashion, something entirely beyond my competence.

#### §15. Indo-Iranian substrates in Central Asia and Iran

By way of addition, attention may be drawn to the northwestern borders of the subcontinent. Nuristani or Kafiri, as it was formerly called, is (differently from the older handbooks which lump it together with the Dardic branch of IA) a third branch of the Indo-Iranians (G. Morgenstierne, Irano-Dardica. Wiesbaden 1973). It has survived in the mountains of East Afghanistan and in neighboring Chitral (N.W. Pakistan). The Kalasha (Chitral) subgroup have even preserved their ancient non-Hindu and non-Iranian religion. Nuristani has preserved such sounds as IIr. £ that has been changed even in the RV  $> \dot{s}$  (c. 1500 BCE) and in Old Iranian > s. It has transmitted at least one loan word into Vedic, Nur. \*kat's'a > Ved.  $k\bar{a}ca$  'shining piece of jewelry' (K. Hoffmann 1986, EWA I 335).

Beyond this, in Proto-IIr., there is a host of unstudied words found both in IA and Old Iranian that do not have an IE etymology and must represent old, Bactria-Margiana (BMAC culture 2100-1900 BCE), or other Central Asian substrate(s). They include plants, animals, and material culture, such as found in Ved. /Avestan:

- uṣṭra / uštra 'camel', middle and new Akkadian udru "Bactrian camel" is a loan from Iran, see EWA I 238, KEWA III 652, cf. Diakonoff in JAOS 105, 1985, 600; the camel was introduced into the BMAC area from Central Asia only in the late 3rd mill. BCE;
- khara / xara 'donkey', cf. Toch. B ker-ca-po < \*karca-bha?, with the common Indian animal suffix -bha (as in garda-bha, śara-bha, ṛṣa-bha); the word ultimately may be a late 3rd mill. Near Eastern loan, cf. Akkadian (Mari) ḥārum, ajarum 'male donkey', EWA I 447. Note also the overlap with Dravidian (denied by EWA 473): Drav. \*garda > Tamil kalutai, etc., one of the few possible links of a Central Asian substrate with Dravidian (and with Vedic);
- iṣṭi, iṣṭikā / ištiia 'brick', zəmōištuua 'clay brick'; OP išti, MP., NP. xišt; cf. Toch. iścem 'clay'?
- sthūna / stūnā, stunā, OP stūnā 'pillar', unless it belongs to Ved. sthūra 'tall, thick', Avest. -stura, Khot. stura (thus EWA II 768);
- yavyā /O.P. yauviyā 'channel', > MP., NP.  $j\bar{o}$ ,  $j\bar{o}y$  'stream, channel', Parachi  $z\bar{\imath}$  'rivulet', EWA II 405; both words, typical for loans, do not go back to exactly the same source;
- godhūma / gantuma 'wheat' from a Near Eastern language, cf. PSemitic \*ḥnṭ, Hitt. kant and Egyptian xnd (EWA II 499, Kuiper IIJ 34, 1991, 119)
- parsa / parša 'sheaf', see EWA II 101;
- bīja / OIran. \*bīza (in names), 'seed, semen', Buddh. Sogdian byz'k, Parachi bīz 'grains';
- śaṇa / kana- 'hemp', MP. šan 'hemp' (with northwestern interchange  $k/\hat{s}$ , see above), Khot. kaṃha, Osset. gœn, gœnœ, Russ. Church Slavic konoplja, Gr. kánnabis, itself a loan from Scythian, as also the early loans into Germanic (before \*k > h): Old High German hanaf, Dutch hennep < \*kanap;
- bhanga / banga 'hemp, hashish', if the word does not belong to bhanj 'to break';
- · \*sinšap 'mustard': Ved. saṣarpa 'mustard', Khot. śśaśvāna, Parthian šyfš-d'n, Sogdian šywšp-δn, MP. span-dān 'mustard seed'; Greek sínapi; < pre-Iran. \*sinšapa < \*\*sinsap (Henning s₁ens₂ap); cf. also: Malay sawi, səsawi, or Austro-As. \*sapi, sV(r)-

- sapi; further EWA 712, 727: śiṃśápā RV+ 'Dalbergia sissoo' NP. šīšam, Pashto šəwa < \*śīsampā, CDIAL 12424), Elam. še-iš-šá-ba-ut = /šeššap/;
- · kaśyapa / kasiiapa 'turtle', Sogdian kyšph, NP. kašaf, kaš(a)p 'tortoise'; cf. Kashaf Rūd, a river in Turkmenistan and Khorasan;
- pard/pandh 'spotted animal, panther': Ved. pṛdāku 'snake' RV, pṛdakū AV, pṛdākhu BŚS (EWA II 163), with Para-Munda prefix pər?; Khowar purdùm < \*pṛdhūma? KEWA II 335, CDIAL 8362; Bur. (Yasin) phúrdum 'adder, snake'; later Skt. 'tiger, panther'; NP. palang 'leopard' < O.Iran. \*pard-, Greek párdalis, párdos, léo-pardos 'leopard' (EWA II 163), all < \*\*pard 'spotted, wild animal?'; Henning reconstructs \*\*parð (but note Greek pánthēr), which may have been close to the Central Asian form;
- \*kar(t)ka 'rhinoceros', Ved. khadga 'rhinoceros' MS+, EWA 443, cf. N.P. karka-dān, Arab. karkaddan, Aelianus kartázōnos (\*kargazōnos) 'Indian rhinoceros', all from a pre-Aryan source; however, cf. Kuiper 1948: 136 sqq.
- bheṣaja / baēsaziia 'healing'; IIr \*bhiš-aj > Ved. bhiṣ-aj; the root \*bhiš may be a loan word (cf. EWA s.v.),
- vīnā 'lute': Ved. vīṇā Khot. bīna 'harp, lute', Sogdian wyn' 'lute', MP. win 'lute', Armenian vin 'lute', unless loans from India, cf. EWA II 568;
- \*kapauta 'blue': Ved. kapota 'pigeon', O.P. kapauta 'blue'; Khot. kavūta 'blue', MP. kabōd 'grey-blue', kabōtar 'pigeon'; EWA I 303, Kuiper 1991;
- \*kadru 'brown': Ved. kadru 'red-brown', Kadrū 'a snake deity', Avest. kadruua.aspa 'with brown horses, NP. kahar 'light brown';

The following words may be of still older origin and may have been taken over either in E. Europe or in Northern Central Asia:

\*medh/melit 'sweet, honey': IE. \*medhu 'sweet' is found in Ved. madhu 'sweet, honey, mead', Avest. maou, Sogdian mow 'wine', (cf. Bur. mel 'wine, from grapes'), Toch. B mit 'honey', Gr. méthu 'wine' etc.; it has spread to Uralic \*mese, mete, Finnish mete, Hungarian méz 'honey'; Chin. mi < \*miet, Sino-Korean mil, Jpn. mitsu < \*mit(u); Iran. \*maou > Turkic, Mongolian bal 'honey'; Arabic mādī?, and to > Toch. B mot 'intoxicating drink'. --- From another source \*melit, Greek mélit-, Hitt. milit, Latin mel, mell-, Gothic miliv. In Nostratic (Illich-Svitych, Opyt II, Moskva 1976: 38sq.) both forms are united under \*majla > \*Uralic majo'a, Drav. maṭṭ, miṭṭ, Altaic /m/ala, bala; cf. also, still further afield, in Polynesia: Samoan meli, Hawaiian mele, meli; mele, melemele 'yellow', Maori miere; Tongan melie 'sweetness, sweet, delicious', Rarotongan meli 'honey', Mangareva mere 'honey'.

• \*sengha/singha 'lion': Ved. simha 'lion' < \* sinj'ha < \*sing'ha differs from Proto-Iran. \*sarg: Khoresmian sary, Parthian šarg, Khot. sarau; Henning reconstructs \*\*s1engha; -- loans into nearby languages, such as Toch. A śiśäk, B śecake 'lion'; Tib. senge, Chin. \*suân-ŋei (Henning, EWA), note, however, Karlgren 1923, no. 893 Arch. Chin. \*,ṣi, Jpn. \*si > shi(-shi); cf. perhaps Armenian inc, inj EWA II 727, KEWA III 447; the western IE languages have received the 'lion' word from a different source, Gr. līs, leon(t)-, Latin leon-.

In short, western and central Iran must have been inhabited by archaeologically well attested people of non-IIr speech. However, their languages have left few remains in Iranian. Apparently, Elamian was spoken up to Simaški (Kerman/Bandar Abbas area), while Aratta (Sistan) and Marhaši (W. Baluchistan, Bampur region) apparently had other language(s), (Vallat 1980); note also the loan word links between Sumerian and Drav. (above, §6.) All of these data need to be studied in greater detail, especially the early IIr substrate language(s).

## §16 Conclusion

In short, the early linguistic picture of South Asia in the second and first millennium BCE is as complex as (or even more so) than its modern counterpart. Some of the examples adduced above indeed indicate that we are in for surprises, once more information is received. The RV hapax  $akhkhal\bar{i}$  kr 'to speak haltingly, to bleat' would have remained one -- if not for A. Mundlay's list in MT II, 17 with Nahali akkal- $(k\bar{a}yni)$  '(to cry) loudly in anguish'. This excludes other etymologies recorded in EWA, ingenious as they may be. This example also indicates that even the oldest literary tradition has retained important information on the (lost) substrates. What may we still find in the Tamil Sangam texts? Yet, as expressed above: nobody is looking!

On the other hand, it is important to know the location and time frame of the first occurrence of substrate words in order to evaluate them properly, and to avoid comparing accidental look-alikes by using derivatives that may have been possible, e.g., only a thousand years later. The Canaaite words or Nahali *parayn* and *sanu* (see above) are cases in point. P. Benedict's warning (MT III: 93) on EFPs needs to be heeded.

The few etymological dictionaries available so far do not provide geographical and historical information, though Mayrhofer's EWA now gives a general idea, for the specialist, of the historical levels, but hardly of the geographical spread. DEDR does not have any such information yet, and we need to check the on-line dictionary at Cologne (http://www.uni-koeln.de/phil-fak/indologie/tamil/otl\_search.html); and the KWIC Concordance of Classical Tamil texts (http://www.uni-koeln.de/cgi-bin/SFgate). A Munda etymological dictionary is still under preparation.

We need much more philological and linguistic study in a number of areas for further comparisons inside and outside South Asia. In this undertaking, the ancient Vedic and Tamil texts still hold out a lot of important and interesting data, but they have not yet been tapped properly. Even in the well-studied IA sector we do not yet have enough reliable information on the geographical spread an time frame of the texts (except for the Veda, see Witzel 1987, 1989, 1997). The various levels and the geography of the Pali and Epic texts still need much more sorting out. In the Dravidian field, we need, especially, a detailed historical grammar and dictionary of Tamil that covers the past two millennia or so in a comprehensive fashion. In Munda, a new reconstruction that pays more attention to S. Munda is eagerly awaited, not to speak of a comparative or etymological dictionary of the various languages and dialects involved. For the remnant languages such as Burushaski, Nahali, Kusunda, and the various substrates the lesser said the better. Even the extensive new Burushaski dictionary of Berger (1998) contains few etymological notes, and they are restricted to the northwestern languages and to Urdu. All major Indian languages, north or south, are lack historical and etymological dictionaries. Even in the well researched field of

Indo-Aryan, Turner's CDIAL and Mayrhofer's EWA are only of limited help for our purpose, restricted as they are, to words derived from OIA or reconstructable as OIA. Mayrhofer's 'unexplained, difficult, unclear' words and Turners 'starred' words may be a help, at least, to highlight possible loan and substrate words; even then, Mayrhofer's marked tendency to explain virtually everything as IE needs constant attention. Unfortunately, in similar vein, Burrow-Emeneau's DEDR only compares only inside Drav., and outside the family refers only IA and not to Munda or to other S. Asian languages, so that "their dictionary, by omitting all references to Munda, sometimes inevitably creates a false perspective from a Pan-Indic point of view" (Kuiper 1991: 53).

Even then, it is my hope that this brief survey will induce comparative linguists to pay closer attention to the rich materials found in the early Indian texts, and that even this still rather limited list will provide some useful materials for further study. More lists are in preparation.

In sum, not only is the linguistic situation of northern South Asia in the second millennium BCE much more complex than usually admitted, the materials adduced above also indicate that, even with the addition of the modern descendants of Proto-Burushaski, -Nahali and -Kusunda, we have to reckon with, and make use of, a number of other substrate languages such languages as Tharu, Masica's "Language X", the substrate of the Kathmandu Valley, and the Panjab and the Sindh varieties of the Indus language.

However, except for the few items pointed out for Vedda and the Nilgiri languages, the prehistoric linguistic situation of South India (before Dravidian) is entirely unclear: in this respect, a lot of spade work needs to be done by Dravidian specialists; the same applies to the reconstruction of Munda and the possible substrates of the eastern and central parts of India; yet, just as in the modern North Indian languages, no progress has been made in all these respects over the past few decades. The Himalayan languages that are finally studied in greater detail by the Linguistic Survey sponsored by the German Research Association and by the Himalayan Languages Project at Leiden, may still surprise us with remnants of pre-Tib.-Burm. substrates.

All of this, and to a small degree even the summaries of substrata given above, provide a multitude of data for the many waves of immigration and amalgamation that have swept over the Indian subcontinent. Ultimately, these substrates will hint at the first wave of immigrant groups of Homo Sapiens sapiens, which may have left us some remnants in the deep substratum of languages such as Nahali, Vedda and Kusunda.

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#### ABBREVIATIONS

Note: for ready reference, the five historical levels of Vedic are indicated by numbers (1-5), followed by their geographical location, W: western North India = Panjab, Haryana, C: central North India = Uttar Pradesh, E: eastern North India = N. Bihar; S: southern N. India = between the Jamna/Ganges and the Vindhya mountains).

AA Austro-Asiatic

AB Aitareya Brāhmaṇa (4, W & E)

Akkad. Akkadian

ĀpDhSĀpastamba Dharmasūtra (5 C)ĀpŚSĀpastamba Śrautasūtra (5 C)

Armen. Armenian Austro-As. Austro-Asiatic

AV Atharvaveda Samhitā (2 C)

Avest. Avestan

AVP Atharvaveda Samhitā, Paippalāda version (2 W)

Beng. Bengali Brah. Brahui

BSL Bulletin de la société de linguistique de Paris

BŚS Baudhāyana Śrautasūtra (4-5 C)

Bur. Burushaski CDIAL Turner 1966-69

DED Burrow, T. and M.B. Emeneau 1960 DEDR Burrow, T. and M.B. Emeneau 1984

Drav. Dravidian
ep. Epic Sanskrit
EWA Mayrhofer 1956-76

Gr. Greek

GS Gṛhyasūtra(s) (5)

Guj. Gujarati

HŚS Hiranyakeśi Śrautasūtra (5 C)

Hitt. Hittite
IA Indo-Aryan
IE Indo-European

IIJ Indo-Iranian Journal

IIr Indo-Iranian Indo-Ar. Indo-Aryan Iran. Iranian

JB Jaiminīya Brāhmana (4 S)

Jpn. Japanese

Kan. Kannada, Canarese

Kaśm. Kashmiri

KaṭhĀ Kaṭha Āraṇyaka (4 W) KauśS. Kauśika Sūtra (5 C)

KB Kauṣītaki Brāhmaṇa (4 C) KEWA Mayrhofer 1986-96

Khar. Kharia

Khot. Khotanese Saka KS Katha Samhitā

KŚS Kātyāyana Śrautasūtra (5 E)

Kur. Kurukh

LŚS Lātyāyana Śrautasūtra (5 S)

Lit. Lithuanian
Mal. Malayalam
Mar. Marathi
Mbh. Mahābhārata

MIA Middle Indo-Aryan MP. Middle Persian

MS Maitrāyaņi Samhitā (2-3 W)

MT Mother Tongue

Mund. Mundari
Nep. Nepali
New. Newari
NP. New Persian
NIA New Indo-Aryan

Nir. Nirukta (5)

Nur. Nuristani (Kafiri)

OP Old Persian
Osset. Ossetic
Panj. Panjabi
Pkt. Prakrit

PS Paippalāda Samhitā (2 W)

PSK Paippalāda Saṃhitā, Kashmir MS. RV Rgveda Saṃhitā (1, Greater Panjab)

RVKh Rgveda Khila (2 W)

ŞadvB Şadvimsa Brāhmana (4 W)

Saṃh. Saṃhitā(s) Sant. Santali

ŚĀ Śānkhāyana Āranyaka (4 C)

ŞB Şadvimsa BrāhmaņaŚB Satapatha Brāhmaņa (4 E)

**ŚBK Satapatha Brāhmana, Kānva recension (4 C)** 

ŚS Śrautasūtra (5)

Skt. Sanskrit
Sum(er). Sumerian
Sū. Sūtra(s) (5)
Suśr. Suśruta

SV Sāmaveda Samhitā (2 W)

Suśr. Suśruta

StII Studien zur Indologie und Iranistik

TĀ Taittirīya Āranyaka (4 C)

Tam. Tamil
Tel. Telugu

TB Taittirīya Brāhmana (4C)

Tib. Tibetan

Tib.-Burm. Tibeto-Burmese

Toch. Tocharian

TS Taittirīya Samhitā (2 C)

Up. Upanișad(s) (4)

V. Vīdēvdād

VādhB Vādhūla Brāhmana (Anvākhyāna) (4 C)

Ved. Vedic

Ved. Index Macdonell - Keith 1912 VS Vājasaneyi Saṃhitā (2 E) YV Yajurveda (-Saṃhitā) (2)

ZDMG Zeitschrift der deutschen morgenländischen Gesellschaft

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to Prof. V.I. Subramoniam, On His Sixtieth Birth Day.

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