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not linear in the succession of elements, i. e., they do not occur between one element and another, even though they have specific position. These are: ', which is simultaneous with vowels; intonations (of questions, etc.) which were probably simultaneous with utterances; roots and patterns, which are intercalated with each other, forming together part of the linear succession; the passive u_a morpheme which merely replaces vowels in other patterns; the jussive minus morpheme which drops phonemes from other morphemes.

The other relation which occurs in distribution is coexistence of one element with another in the same construction. In each level there are specific groups of elements which accompany others. One of the chief common features is the non-occurrence of the same element twice in succession. Repetition of an element does occur in the following cases: Two consonants may adjoin each other (but not the same consonant over). Two noun patterns (rarely, the same one over) may occur in one word. Several substantive phrases may adjoin each other in one clause (but rarely with the same initials, except wa-, wa- \cdot -, o·-).

In the phonology, the vowels presented a more patterned system than the consonants. In the morphology, the verb patterns are more fully organized than the noun patterns. This is in part, but not wholly, due to the fuller grouping of morpheme variants for verbs than for nouns. However, the very fact that such grouping was possible for verbs indicates a close similarity between the distributions of verb patterns.⁵⁴ Note that most of the verb pattern variants were in the active -u pattern.

Returning to the other method, the analysis of a construction into its component elements, the following relations are to be noted:

Nuclearity: Certain elements are always present in a construction, while others sometimes occur and sometimes do not. E. g., in a word the stem is always present; affixes may not be. The position of the nuclear element (that which is always present) relative to the others follows: In the word, the stem may have other elements before it or after it. In words having more than one stem, the main stem (the one which participates in the $i \cdot m$ concurrence, end of v1 2) is the first: $zaqn \acute{e} \cdot ha \acute{e} \cdot \acute{a}m \cdot ha \dot{h} \cdot \cdot \overset{a}{k}am \acute{i} \cdot m$ 'the wise elders of the people.' In the phrase, the main word comes first, preceding the following words. In the clause the 0 position usually comes first.

Scope: Each element in a construction applies over a certain part of the construction. Thus, in $zaqn\acute{e} \cdot ha`- \acute{am} \cdot \diamond$ above, the $e \cdot (variant of i \cdot m)$ 'm. pl.' applies to zaqin, not to 'am \cdot . In general, each element applies only to the construction level in which it occurs, and within it up to the position where it could occur again (even if it does not). Thus the \diamond 'm. sg.' after 'am \cdot does not apply to zaqin, for in that position it could occur again, replacing the $e \cdot$ as a member of $i \cdot m$. Similarly the connective morphemes described in vI 3 apply only to the construction which they introduce.

GRAINS OF MEDIAEVAL INDIA

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IT IS a very usual convention in Sanskrit literature to refer to persons or things by a stereotyped number which sometimes refers to the actual number in the group and is sometimes probably only an arbitrary number, though certainly with some factual foundation. European Indologists have shown remarkably little curiosity about these groups, though they offer considerable information. Hemacandra, whose writings cover an almost in-

credible range, is conspicuously devoted to this practice. No doubt his contemporaries understood his allusions. It is difficult now, even for Indians, to explain them all.

As part of the wealth bestowed by Kubera on the native city of an Arhat, Hemacandra mentions "seventeen *dhānyas.*" These I finally located in the commentary by himself to Hemacandra's *Abhidhānacintāmani* 4. 234. They are given in a

⁵⁴ The weakest grouping of morpheme variants is that for ma_{--} ; a different treatment of this morpheme group would yield a slightly different verb system.

quotation whose source I do not know. Grain $(dh\bar{a}nya)$ is used in the wider sense of the word, as it is today in this country in statutory usage, which includes many plants besides the cereal grasses. I found also two lists of grains in Nemicandra's *Pravacanasāroddhāra*, a work antedating Hemacandra by perhaps a century, with a commentary belonging to the end of the twelfth century. One list has twenty-four grains and the other twenty-five. The commentary to the *Kalpasūtra*, named *Subodhikā*, gives a list of twenty-four grains which is apparently copied from the *Pravacanas*°.

These lists combined should give a fair picture of agriculture in Western India in the twelfth century and the same grains are cultivated today, with the possible exception of flax.¹

1. Vrihi, Oryza sativa, rice in general, but specifically rice that ripens during the rainy season. Rice is probably indigenous to India. According to De Candolle, the cultivation of rice in India is subsequent to that in China, but it has been a valued crop since the classic period. It is the chief article of food over a large part of India at the present time. According to Dutt, there are

 Hemacandra, Abhidhānacintāmaņi. Bhavnagar, 1919.
Hemacandra, Abhidhānacintāmaņi, ed. Böhtlingk and Rieu. St. Petersburg, 1847.

Imperial Gazeteer of India. 1909.

Memoirs of the Department of Agriculture in India, Botanical Series, especially Vol. IV.

Nemicandra, Pravacanasāroddhāra. Bombay, 1922.

Roxburgh, Flora Indica. Calcutta, 1874. Watt, The Commercial Products of India. London,

1908.

I have not been able to consult De Candolle at first hand. He is quoted from Watt and the Imperial Gazeteer.

three principal classes of rice: *vrīhi*; śāli, reaped during the winter; and *sastika*, grown in the hot weather and reaped within sixty days of its sowing.

2. Yava, Hordeum vulgare, barley. This has been cultivated in some of its forms from the remotest times. Watt and MW think yava was originally a general term for 'grain' and was later restricted to barley, which must have been an important grain. It is still a very important crop in India.

3. Masūra, Lens esculenta (Roxb. Cicer lens), lentil. De Candolle thinks it was originally introduced into India from Egypt and says it was known as an article of food from the most ancient times. At present it is cultivated all over India.

4. Godh $\bar{u}ma$, Triticum vulgare, wheat. The cultivation of wheat is prehistoric. Dutt considers one variety indigenous to India. Literary references show that it has been known in India from an early date, though Watt speaks of the silence of European authors regarding the cultivation of wheat in India " until well into the 18th, if not to the beginning of the 19th century."

5. Mudga, Phaseolus radiatus, Linn., kidneybean, 'green gram.' It is the Hindī $m\bar{u}ng$ and Gujarātī mag. There is confusion in the lexicons and even in botanical works in the names for mudga and māşa (see below). This is caused by Roxburgh's transposition of the original Linnean names. They are the ones now used by Indian botanists. Mudga is a valuable pulse, widely eaten.

6. $M\bar{a}sa$, Phaseolus mungo, Linn., kidney-bean, 'black gram.' Its most common vernacular name is the Hindī *urad*, Guj. *adad*. Watt says there are two varieties of *urad*: "one with large black seeds and the other with small greenish seeds, and these correspond very possibly with P. mungo proper and the variety Roxburghii." *Urad* is the most valued of all Indian pulses. It is extremely palatable and is one of the many excellent native foods ignored by Europeans. It is the main ingredient of a thin biscuit called $p\bar{a}pata$, a staple article of food in Gujarat. P. mungo and P. radiatus are indigenous to India.

7. Tila, Sesamum indicum, sesame. De Candolle thinks the "plant was introduced into India

¹ Needless to say, botanists do not always agree on the classification of these grains. Roxburgh has 52 species of Panicum, some of which are classified differently by others. Popular usage and vernacular names do not recognize the scientific distinctions between very similar species. Also, vernacular names sometimes denote different plants in different provinces. Generally speaking, the lexicons are of little assistance in botanical matters. An exception is Molesworth-Candy's Marāthi-English Dictionary (MC), which is a mine of information too often disregarded. For Gujarāti I used Mehta's Modern Gujarati-English Dictionary; for Hindī Bate's Dictionary of the Hindee Language; and for Prakrit the Ardha-Māgadhī Koşa (PE) and the Pāia-sadda-mahannavo (PH). I found most useful the following:

Dutt, Materia Medica of the Hindus. Calcutta, 1900. Forbes, Oriental Memoirs. London, 1834.

from Sunda isles at a period prior to the Aryan invasion." Watt says few, if any, of the early European travelers in India mention the plant or its oil. He says it is mentioned in the Ain-i-Akbari (1590), so it has been an "important crop for 300 years." Forbes ² speaks of its extensive cultivation for oil in his time. Its oil and castor oil are the most esteemed, he says.

8. Canaka, Cicer arietinum, chick-pea, the common or Bengal gram of India. It is commonly used as food for horses. Its name comes from the Portuguese word for grain, $gr\tilde{a}o$. The word does not occur, so far as known, in the oldest Sanskrit or Prakrit literature, but does in Suśruta. Watt thinks it is not indigenous, but may have been introduced very early.

9. Anava. This presents difficulties. I have not been able to find any occurrence of the word except in these lists of grain and in the Deśināmamālā (1.52). Hemacandra defines it in the Deśi° as 'śālibheda,' but it is probable that śāli here is grain in general. The PE takes it to be yāvanāla, juār, Sorghum vulgare (Andropogon sorghum, Holcus sorghum), great millet. Juār is one of the most important foods of India and it would be strange for it to be omitted from the list. The commentator to the Pravacana° interprets it as 'yugandharī,' which I do not find quoted in any lexicon.

10. Priyangu, Setaria italica (Panicum italicum), Italian millet. Generally considered not indigenous, though cultivated from a very early time. Kangu (a Sanskrit synonym, also), cīna and rāļā are common vernacular names, according to Watt, but cīna is properly P. miliaceum.

11. Kodrava, Paspalum scrobiculatum, kodo millet. It is a native of India and is cultivated during the rainy season. Its extensive cultivation is accounted for by the fact that it will grow in very poor soil. It is used as a human food, but in some seasons is poisonous. Damp weather at harvest time, a damp season, and damp soil are said to produce the poisonous kind.

12. Mayusthaka (or mayasthaka), Phaseolus acontifolius, the aconite-leaved kidney-bean. This is eaten as a vegetable and dāl, and also is used as

² Oriental Memoirs, II, p. 36.

a valuable fodder. Its Hindī name is *moțh*, Guj. *mațh*, and Forbes speaks of 'mutt' and gram being the most nutritious food for cattle.

13. Sali, Oryza sativa, rice that is grown under water and reaped during winter. See vrihi above.

14. $\bar{A}dhak\bar{\imath}$, Cajanus indicus (Roxb. Cytisus cajan), pigeon-pea. Not a native of India. It seems not to be mentioned in any of the early Sanskrit works, but it occurs in Suśruta. It also occurs in the *Prajñāpanāsūtra*, so it was probably known in India by the first century A. D., perhaps much earlier. The pigeon-pea is cultivated extensively in all tropical countries, because it is available during the hot weather. Another Sanskrit name for the pulse is *tuvarī*, which occurs also in Hindī, though *arahar* is more commonly used. In Guj. *tuvar* and in Marāthī *tūar* are the usual names.

15. Kalāya, Pisum, pea. Watt calls attention to the fact that it must be distinguished from Lathyrus sativus, which it resembles. The confusion is of long standing, evidently. In his commentary to Abhi. 4. 236, Hemacandra gives triputa as another name of kalāya. Triputa seems to be Lathyrus certainly. Matar, which is properly the pea, is also applied to Lathyrus. In Gujarātī it seems to be used indiscriminately. The Pravacana° interprets kalāya as tripuļa, "others canakika" (p. 296) and describes it also as "vrttacanaka." Watt points out the importance of distinguishing between Pisum and Lathyrus and says: "The wedge-shaped pea of the present plant (Lathyrus sativus), flattened on two sides and marbled on the surface, should easily be distinguished from all the peas or pulses of India, except perhaps gram (Cicer arietinum); but while gram is somewhat triangular in section, it is prominently tapered below into a beak and is devoid of the marbling of Lathyrus." Watt's remarks explain the "canakika of others" and the "vrttacanaka" of the Pravacana°.

16. Kulattha, Dolichos biflorus, horse-gram. Watt says: "In popular works on economic products the horse-gram of Madras is viewed as D. uniflorus, and under either of these names (D. uniflorus or D. biflorus) a pulse is described as grown in almost every district in India, but chiefly in Madras and Bombay." This horse-gram of Madras must be distinguished from the Bengal gram, the Cicer arietinum, the true gram of India, and both must be distinguished from Lathyrus sativus. The chief use of D. biflorus is as a cattle food, but it is also eaten by the poorer classes, as it is a very cheap pulse.

17. Sana, Cannabis sativa, hemp. Probably not an indigenous plant. There is considerable discussion whether sana in the older works refers to the true hemp, Cannabis sativa, or to Bengal san, Crotalaria juncea. The most common current name for the true hemp is bhang, a name that goes as far back as the Atharvaveda. Hemacandra gives sana and bhanga as synonyms (Abhi. 4. 245, also mātulānī). Watt thinks śaņa was in use to denote the true hemp at the time of early Mogul emperors. "But while sana-a fibre-occurs in the Institutes of Manu (probably of date 100 to 500 A.D.) and in some of the later Sanskrit works, it apparently denotes Crotalaria rather than Cannabis. It would thus seem as if the word sana to denote the true hemp had been a comparatively modern usage." Watt also quotes from Dr. K. Garde of Poona, who says: "Later Sanskrit commentators and lexicographers interpret bhang as shana, the Bengal sunn plant (Crotalaria juncea), which has been known in India from time immemorial as a plant-yielding fibre." I can not follow this reasoning. Since bhang has always denoted the true hemp, it would seem that the commentators were interpreting sana as Cannabis, not interpreting bhang as Crotalaria. I think there can be no doubt that Hemacandra intends sana and bhanga to refer to the true hemp, as the plant referred to is included in this list of grains. Cannabis produces edible seeds and the well known narcotic. Crotalaria has no edible products. Roxburgh quotes Hardwicke as saying that in the mountains above Hardwar a coarse cloth is made from the bark of Cannabis.

The *Pravacana*° lists these, with the exception of *anava, cana* and *mayusthaka*. In addition it names:

1. Yavayava, a kind of barley.

2. Cavalaka (Pk. cavalaya). Cavalaka or cavala is not quoted in the Sanskrit lexicons. It is obviously the Marāțhī cavaļā, the Gujarātī coļā, which are names for the Vigna catjang (Dolichos

sinensis), the cow-pea. Barba $t\bar{i}$ and lobiy \bar{a} are other common vernacular names. There is some popular confusion between Dolichos lablab and V. catjang. Through lobiy \bar{a} is applied to D. lablab and loosely to any pulse by Indian market gardeners, it especially denotes the present plant, according to Watt, and he reserves the name for V. catjang.

3. Krsnacanaka, black chick-pea. Watt speaks of various forms of the chick-pea, indicated by the different colors of the pea. See cana above. However, the *Pravacana*° commentary describes it as round without a point.

4. Valla, Dolichos lablab, the climbing bean. This is the Gujarātī $v\bar{a}l$, (Watt wall). Another Sanskrit name is *nispāva*. Watt thinks it is probably indigenous. It is a garden plant and is not a regular field crop.

5. Atasī, Linum usitatissimum, common flax. $Um\bar{a}$ and $ksum\bar{a}$ are synonyms. (Abhi. 4. 245). Watt calls attention to the fact that, though the cloth made from $ksum\bar{a}$ is regularly interpreted as 'linen,' flax was not used when he wrote (about forty years ago) to make cloth, but only to produce linseed and linseed oil. He thinks $ksum\bar{a}$ may have originally denoted some other fibre. Forbes³ speaks of flax being cultivated by many villages for the oil.

6. Latva (Pk. latta), Carthamus tinctorius, safflower. Though better known for its dye, safflower also produces oil and edible seeds, and the young shoots are eaten.

7. Koradūşaka (kodūsaga), a kind of kodrava. See above, no. 11. Roxburgh gives koradūşa simply as a synonym of kodrava, but, as the commentator takes them to be different and as they both occur in one list, they are probably different varieties.

8. Barathī, the Pravacana°'s commentary's interpretation of the Pk. varatta. It is said to be

³ Oriental Memoirs, II, p. 36. In this connection a news item from India is of interest. In Indian Information, August 15, 1940, published by the Government of India, there is an announcement of the approval of a government scheme for growing flax. Seed was purchased in Holland. Guarantees to cultivators are designed to discount risks attendant on the growing of a new and unfamiliar crop. (Italics mine.)

'well-known.' It is presumably the Marāṭhī baraṭī, which Gamme says is Setaria glauca as a grain crop; as a grass crop it is called *bhadli*. MC defines baraṭī as a 'grass-grain included amongst $t_{!!!a}$ dhānya. It is white and small and it resembles varī or rāḷā.' Varī is Coix barbata, and rāḷā Panicum italicum, according to MC. But Watt gives 'vari, wadi 'as vernacular names of Panicum miliaceum.

9. Siddhārtha, Brassica campestris, Indian colza or sarson. Hemacandra (Abhi. 4. 246) gives śvetasarşapa as a synonym, and siddhārtha is called 'white mustard' by the lexicons. But it is not Brassica alba. Sarson is widely cultivated in India.

 Rālaka, 'a kind of kangu,' Setaria italica, M. rālā. See priyangu above.

11. $M\bar{u}laka$, Raphanus sativus, radish. Watt says that it is cultivated throughout the plains of India and in the Himalayas up to 10,000 feet. He does not say whether it was indigenous or not, nor when it was introduced. The PH cites it from the *Prajñāpanāsūtra*, so it must have been known for about 2000 years, at least.

The third list, *Pravacana*° 1004 f., which appears to be copied in the commentary to *Kalpasūtra* 89, adds four new grains:

1. Sastika, sixty-day rice. See vrihi above.

2. Tripuțaka (tiugada), Lathyrus sativus, chickling-vetch. This is the pulse with which Pisum is often confused. See kalāya above. It is generally fed to cattle but among the poor it is eaten in the place of the better pulses. If eaten continuously for some time, it causes a form of paralysis, Lathyrism. Its common vernacular names are teora, tiura and, in Bombay, lāng.

3. Ikşu (Pk. ikkhu, ucch \bar{u}), Saccharum officinarum, sugar-cane. Very extensively cultivated. References to fields of sugar-cane are very common. Watt thinks that sugar-cane cultivation originated in South Asia, if not in India, but it has never been found wild in India, nor any other place.

4. *Dhānyaka*, Coriandrum sativum, coriander. Cultivated over India in the cold season.

Although this list adds only four new grains, it furnishes a number of different names for the same grains. *Harimantha* occurs, which Hemacandra

(Abhi. 4. 237) gives as a synonym of cana. The Pravacana° commentator, however, specifies krsnacanaka. According to Watt, harimandakam is used at present in Tamil for the Cicer arietinum (cana). In this list nispāva (nipphāva) is Dolichos lablab; śilinda is Hemacandra's mayusthaka, Phaseolus acontifolius; $r\bar{a}jam\bar{a}sa$ is another name for Vigna catjang. Hemacandra's anava occurs in this list (anua). Assuming that anava is Sorghum vulgare, there are only two grains omitted from these lists that one might expect to be included: cīna and śyāmāka. Though both these names occur in the Abhidhānacintāmani, they may not have been widely cultivated at that time. Both of them are considered inferior grains, which may also have been a reason for their omission.

Cina is generally identified with Panicum miliaceum, common millet. But the Gujarātī lexicon defines cino as 'a poor kind of produce, the third crop from a field in the same year,' and calls it P. miliare. Watt says that P. miliare (little millet) forms together with kodon (kodrava) the crop generally taken from the poorest land in the village. Incidentally, Roxburgh says of both P. miliaceum and P. miliare that they " are generally cultivated on an elevated, light, rich soil." Watt gives cina as one of the vernacular names for S. italica as well as P. miliaceum and Gamme says that cino is used in Sind for a variety of S. italica.

Syāmāka, P. frumentaceum, poor-man's millet, is called by Hemacandra 'jaghanyo vrīhih' (Abhi. 4. 242). It is the baṇți of Gujarat. It is the quickest growing of all millets and in some localities can be harvested six weeks after sowing. It is consumed chiefly by the poorer classes. It is mentioned in the Bower manuscript.

Two other grains, which are widely cultivated at the present time, can not be identified with any of the grains in these lists nor have they any Sanskrit names, so far as I can ascertain: Eleusine coracana, $r\bar{a}g\bar{i}$, a small millet, and Pennisetum typhoideum (Roxb. Panicum spicatum), $b\bar{a}jr\bar{a}$, spiked millet. Roxburgh speaks of both of these as cultivated extensively on the Coromandel coast. They were both well-known in Gujarat in the time of Forbes. However, he calls Eleusine coracana 'nutchnee,' the Coromandel term, or ' boutah' (?).