Preface to this Edition

The original edition of this book was published by Academic Press, Sydney, in 1985. The text of this revised edition (henceforth \textit{PIMA} 2) was completed in 1995, and published early in 1997 by the University of Hawai‘i Press. In 2000, a Bahasa Indonesia translation of this revised edition was published as \textit{Prasejarah Kepulauan Indo-Malaysia} by PT Gramedia Pustaka Utama in Jakarta.

The decision to go ahead with this electronic edition of \textit{PIMA} 2 was made early in 2007, 10 years after its publication in Honolulu. The book has been out of print for several years, yet no one has written a similar successor, and a readership for its contents still exists; it still scores frequently in citation indices. Furthermore, \textit{PIMA} 2 presents an overall reconstruction of Indo-Malaysian Prehistory that I am still willing to uphold quite forcefully, despite the need, here and there, for updating and minor modification of opinion. I would therefore like to thank ANU E Press for giving me this opportunity to make this work available again.

Two choices were available to me as this edition approached reality. One would have been to prepare a completely new third edition, a \textit{PIMA} 3, updated throughout. Pressure of other involvements renders this impossible at the moment, and updating a full manuscript of this size would take the best part of a year. I have chosen the easier option, this being to keep the \textit{PIMA} 2 text in its original form, but to add this short preface in which I refer very briefly to some selected new discoveries and current references.

The first such new discovery must, of course, be the remarkable \textit{Homo floresiensis}, a dwarfed pre-sapient form of humanity that survived with equally-dwarfed stegodons on Flores until the end of the Pleistocene, perhaps as recently as 12,000 years ago; an exciting cave discovery accompanied by plentiful academic intrigue, now described for a general readership by Morwood and van Oosterzee (2007). Although not of central significance for the prehistory of modern humans, the “hobbits” do reflect some interesting potential light on the early movements of extinct hominin species through Asia, possibly as much as 2 million years ago in deep ancestral terms. But how did hobbits and dwarf stegodons manage to survive in Flores for so long, given that modern humans reached Australia long before, by perhaps 50,000 years ago? It is my current (but mutable) opinion that these early modern humans moved through Nusa Tenggara, including Flores, but not Maluku, to their new homes in previously uninhabited Australia and New Guinea. They must have overlapped spatially and chronologically with the hobbits for tens of thousands of years.
As far as my own research on pre-farming modern human populations is concerned, I now suspect the Tingkayu industry (Fig. 6.7) could be Holocene rather than Pleistocene in date, on the grounds that it has never turned up in cave excavations with well-dated Pleistocene levels (indeed, it has never turned up anywhere else at all). But I am still unsure about this; chronology is always a problem for archaeologists, especially for sites such as Tingkayu that yield no direct dating material. In addition, the shell adzes from Maluku shown in Fig. 25 are likely to be younger than 12,000 to 9000 years in terms of a recently-run series of direct AMS dates on the shell. The *Tridacna* and *Hippopus* specimens appear to be only mid-Holocene, in some cases made on ancient shell, and the *Cassis* specimens could possibly be Neolithic. I am also planning to obtain direct AMS dates for some of the bones of translocated New Guinea marsupials found in Maluku (page 188 below, and see Bellwood et al. 1998; Flannery et al. 1998). Pre-Neolithic translocation is an important issue and dating is still very imprecise.

Some of the post-1995 archaeological findings for the Neolithic and onwards are discussed in various chapters in *Southeast Asia: from Prehistory to History* (Glover and Bellwood 2004), and in briefer form in my own *First Farmers* (Bellwood 2005). A number of other recently-edited compilations (especially Sagart et al. 2005; Oxenham and Tayles 2006; Simanjuntak et al. 2006) contain a range of archaeological, archaeolinguistic and biological chapters that fill out many of the issues. The earliest Neolithic culture in Taiwan, the Dabenkeng (spelt, wrongly as it turns out, Ta-p’en-k’eng in the 1997 edition, using the old Wade-Giles spelling), is now confirmed as fully agricultural by at least 3000 BC, with rice and foxtail millet cultivation (Tsang 2005). Recent research in Taiwan and the Philippines, especially the Batanes Islands (Bellwood and Dizon 2005) and the Cagayan Valley of northern Luzon (Hung 2005), has strengthened greatly the evidence for Austronesian (Malayo-Polynesian) migration out of Taiwan and into Island Southeast Asia and Oceania after 2000 BC, in part with dentate stamped pottery that occurs in related forms in the Philippines, the Mariana Islands, and in Lapita sites in Melanesia (for my current overall views on Austronesian prehistory, see Bellwood and Hiscock 2005).

Interaction between Austronesian-speaking communities did not stop after colonization of new regions, as indicated already by the movement of New Britain obsidian to Borneo around 3000 years ago (see p 224). Since *PIMA* 2, new research in Taiwan has established that green jade earrings, either with three projections or with double animal-heads (see Figs 7.7, 9.2 and 9.3), were traded or exchanged between 2500 and 1500 years ago across a vast region that included Taiwan (the source of the some of the jade), the Philippines, Sarawak, southern Vietnam, southern Thailand and eastern Cambodia. One very distinctive type of
green jade has recently been sourced by electron probe microanalysis to Fengtian in eastern Taiwan (Iizuka and Hung 2005; Hung et al. 2006), and a workshop for the earrings with projections using Fengtian jade has recently been excavated in the Batanes Islands (Bellwood and Dizon 2005). It is possible that these artifacts were made by itinerant craftsmen in workshops spread throughout the Austronesian-speaking world. My suspicion also is that these two artifact forms were reproduced over a millennium later in native nephrite in New Zealand, in the form of the Maori artifacts termed *pora kaka* and *pekapeka*, but the question of how the forms survived transmission through a jade-less tropical Polynesia still puzzles me (were they transmitted in perishable materials such as wood?).

While discussing Neolithic issues, I must state clearly that I no longer accept a movement of people from the Malay Peninsula to Sarawak, as suggested in *PIMA* 2 to explain the appearance around 4000 years ago of rice and cord-marked pottery in Gua Sireh (page 237). Neither the linguistic nor the archaeological evidence support a movement of Austroasiatic-speaking people from Mainland Southeast Asia to Borneo, and Taiwan and the Philippines provide a far more likely origin. It should be noted also that an indigenous development of agriculture in the New Guinea highlands has been supported by new research (Denham 2005, and see related papers in that same volume), whereas evidence for pre-Austronesian agriculture in Island Southeast Asia remains still non-existent. Like New Guinea, research into early agricultural (rice and millet) growing societies in Neolithic China has gone ahead with remarkable intensity (see accounts in Yang 2004), revealing for us a population powerhouse through at least the past 7000 years, indeed a major background player in the Neolithic archaeology of the whole of Southeast Asia.

Populations bring up issues about genetics. In my recent book, *First Farmers*, I have built up an archaeological, linguistic and biological case for the spreads of early farming populations over very large extents of territory in many parts of the world (see also Bellwood and Renfrew 2002; Diamond and Bellwood 2003). Both *PIMA* 1 and 2 presented a similar hypothesis for the Austronesian-speaking peoples, with an ultimate origin in southern China and Taiwan and an expansion over half way around the world within the past 4000 years. This expansion led to a fairly clean replacement of earlier languages by Austronesian forms of speech, and a relatively strong spread of a Neolithic technology and economy, albeit with here-and-there survivals of lithic and shell technologies with local pre-Austronesian roots, particularly in eastern Indonesia and Melanesia. Genetically, however, the picture was more complex owing to the human ability for intermarriage and genetic recombination, an ability not available, beyond normal processes of borrowing, to whole languages. As a result, not all speakers of Austronesian languages have identical genotypes.
I mention this because, when *PIMA* 2 went to press, a plethora of genetic research into the phylogenies and coalescence times of mitochondrial and Y-chromosome DNA lineages had not yet come into being. Nowadays, the international genetics journals are fairly replete with such material. As a non-biochemist who has to keep up to date with all of this and try to work out where it is all going, I can perhaps state that I can believe in the phylogenies and relative ages of these haploid lineages, but not some of the molecular clock absolute dates, which have very large error ranges, a problem exacerbated by very weak methods of calibration to real time (Bellwood 2007:103). There are also many issues concerning the role of natural selection and the ability of mtDNA and the Y chromosome to plot the histories of whole human populations, as opposed merely to the histories of the lineages themselves. Enough said perhaps at this point, and with some of my colleagues I hope soon to be publishing on this matter (see chapter 12 in Bellwood 2005 for my current views on Southeast Asia).

This brief update has been selective; I have no space to review all the regional archaeology carried out in Malaysia, Indonesia and the Philippines since 1995, from Palaeolithic cave deposits (e.g. Simanjuntak et al. 2001, Simanjuntak 2002 for Java; Barker et al. 2002 for the Niah Caves; O’Connor et al. 2005 for the Aru Islands), through red slipped Neolithic pottery in Taiwan and the Philippines (Hung 2005), to anthropomorphic 2000-year old burial jars from Mindanao (Dizon and Santiago 1996). The major regional journals, such as *Asian Perspectives* and *Bulletin of the Indo-Pacific Prehistory Association*, continue to carry many reports every year, as do the in-country national language journals. And then there are all the monographs and PhD theses, some of the latter supervised here at ANU. However, as stated above, I can still recommend the general framework for Indo-Malaysian prehistory presented in *PIMA* 2 as a good horse to bet upon. I hope this book still makes good reading in the new millennium.

Peter Bellwood
Canberra
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REFERENCES


THIS BOOK PRESENTS a multidisciplinary reconstruction of the prehistory of the modern nations of Indonesia and Malaysia as viewed from the perspective of the whole Southeast Asian and Australasian region. Since modern nations' boundaries have little meaning for the student of the remote past, I refer to the region in the following chapters as "the Indo-Malaysian Archipelago." Several interlinked aspects of prehistory are reviewed, mainly from data produced by the disciplines of biological anthropology, linguistics, and archaeology. The overall time span runs from about 2 million years ago to approximately AD 1000. In general, the book ceases with the historical civilizations of the first millennium AD, although it should be realized that prehistory sensu stricto continued in some remote regions to almost the present day.

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**Dating**

In general, I do not give full radiocarbon determinations with laboratory numbers in the text, but interested archaeologists can locate these through the references (see Bronson and White 1992, and Spriggs 1989 for recent date lists for Southeast Asia). Archaeological sites from about 8000 BC onwards are given approximate BC or AD dates according to historical data or the current calibrated radiocarbon chronology (University of Washington, Quaternary Isotope Lab, Radiocarbon Calibration Program Rev. 3.0, 1993). Radiocarbon dated sites older than 10,000 years are generally given a “... years ago” approximation.

**Pronunciation and Place-names**

In Indonesian place-names the “c” is pronounced “ch” as in English “church,” “ng” is pronounced as in “singer,” and “ngg” as in “finger.” Chinese place-names are in Pinyin and Taiwanese in Wade-Giles romanizations.