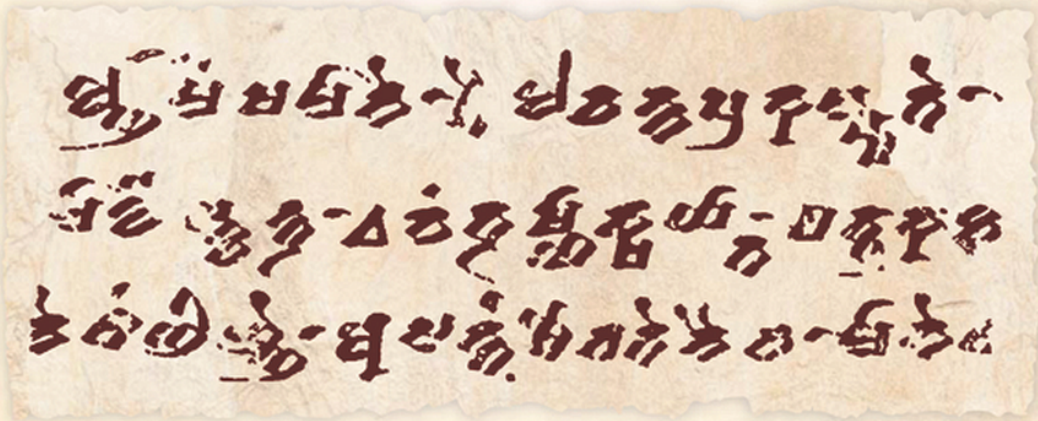


Václav Blažek

# Tocharian Studies

## Works 1



Handwritten Tocharian script on a fragment of parchment.

# Tocharian Studies

Works 1

**muni**  
PRESS

This book was kindly reviewed by

Ronald Kim  
&  
Melanie Malzahn

Václav Blažek

# **Tocharian Studies**

Works 1

Edited by Michal Schwarz

Masaryk University  
Brno 2011

## IV

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## Preface

Since the decipherment of the two Tocharian languages in 1908 this easternmost branch of Indo-European has fascinated linguists as well as non-linguists. Apart from analyzing the Tocharian languages as such, the question of the migration of the speakers of Proto-Tocharian to nowadays China and the position of Tocharian among the other branches of Indo-European have been much discussed topics ever since. During three decades of active publishing Václav Blažek has without a doubt made a significant contribution to Tocharian studies in all its respect. Being both a comparative philologist in the narrow sense of studying Indo-European languages (the further prospective volumes will show that Professor Blažek indeed published on almost every branch of Indo-European) as well as an historical linguist with wide knowledge of non-Indo-European languages of Central and Inner Asia (among others), Professor Blažek's main focus in Tocharian studies was on etymological connections with neighboring languages and their consequences for language contact. The first part of this volume concentrating on his contributions to all kinds of matters Tocharian hence contains eighteen etymological studies that appeared from 1988 to 2011, the second part being a long sketch of the grammar of Tocharian A and B (co-written with Michal Schwarz). Although it is written in Czech, even readers without a command of that language will no doubt judge the many paradigms and reconstructions to be found in it very useful. Part three offers the reprint of a rich paper on the position of Tocharian (again co-written with Michal Schwarz) making much use of the method of lexicostatistics, which was so far not so easy to access.

Also other Czech scholars have made important contributions to the field of Central and Inner Asian studies in general and Tocharian as well as Iranian and Indian in particular. The eminent work of the Czech Orientalist Pavel Poucha was and still is rightly acknowledged in the field, especially his *Thesaurus Linguae Tocharicae Dialecti A* (Praha 1955), which remained the standard reference work until very recently. Václav Blažek not only picked up and

continued that tradition, he now in the final part of this volume (Bio- and Bibliographies) also published for the first time a highly welcomed biographical article on Pavel Poucha's life and work.

It is reasonable to hope that the present volume of selected writings by Václav Blažek will both further enhance Tocharian studies in the author's home country in the future and make Tocharian studies more visible internationally as well.

Melanie Malzahn

## **Introduction and Plan of the Works of Václav Blažek**

Prof. Václav Blažek has published many linguistic studies in international as well as regional journals, proceedings and memorial volumes within the last decades. I have thought it impossible to acknowledge or appreciate the extent and scope of his work without the articles being published together. So I decided to prepare a series of thematic volumes corresponding to the various spheres of linguistic interests of my tutor. This first volume is dedicated to the Tocharian languages. The next volumes will be devoted to the following language groups and topics according to Václav Blažek's updated bibliography: Indo-European (2-3 volumes), Slavic (1-2 volumes), Germanic (2 volumes), Afro-Asiatic (2 volumes), Baltic, Celtic, Indo-Iranian, Uralic, Altaic, Semitic, Distant relationship, General Linguistics, Comparative Mythology. Studies of other language groups could be published in volumes under the designation "Varia" (Italic & Romance, Palaeo-Balkanian, Hellenic, Anatolian, Kartvelian, Paleo-Siberian, Dravidian, Elamite, Austric, Australian). Were there demands for bulky editions, some topical volumes described above could be combined. If possible, any future monographs will be published in this series (i.e. Works) as well. Naturally I anticipate and hope for several more decades of prolific work by Prof. Blažek and consequently I expect modifications of the plan outlined here, both in topics and number of volumes.

In this first volume I compiled the list of articles and rewrote the earliest articles from the pre-computer era, and those written in outdated software and phonetic fonts. While selection, authorisation and updating of articles were done by the author, the organisation of the volume and typing errors remain my responsibility. The content of this Tocharian volume is divided into sections: I. Etymology, II. Grammar, III. Ethno-linguistics & History and IV. Bio- & Bibliographies. (The biography and first complete bibliography of Pavel Poucha is the only article written especially for this volume – the previous Czech version was too short due to demands of the journal *Linguistica Brunensia*). Instead of original pagination the full bibliographical titles are used and some articles were updated or partly modified. The index is comprised of the Tocharian A

and B words only because a special comprehensive index-volume is planned. The following volumes will continue in analogous style. Speed of preparation will depend on author's and editor's working capacity, and availability of financial sources.

I am very indebted to John D. Bengtson for corrections of my English in all parts of this book and to Dan Šlosar and Mgr. Radka Vyskočilová for kind help with my first typesetting. Special thanks belong to the director of the MUNI Press (Masaryk University Publishing House) PhDr. Alena Mizerová for accepting the series to the academic publishing house. Printing costs of this volume were kindly offered by Mr. Václav Švehla from PBTisk, s. r. o.

The editing work was finished during the time of my study stay at the National University of Mongolia in Ulaanbaatar in September & October 2011.

Michal Schwarz

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## Chronological list of all Tocharian articles of Václav Blažek with editorial notes

### 1984

(1984): The Sino-Tibetan etymology of the Tocharian A *mkow-*, B *moko* “monkey”? *Archív orientální* 52, 390-392. (This article is published in this volume in its updated version = 1997c – see below.)

### 1988

(1988): Tocharian Linguistics During Last 25 Years. *Archív orientální* 56, 77-81.

### 1991

(1991a): Slavic-Tocharian Isoglosses I. Sl. *\*kъpъ* : Toch. *\*kwip-* “shame”. *Tocharian and Indo-European Studies* 5, 123-128.

(1991b): Slavic-Tocharian Isoglosses II. Sl. *\*čьlnъ* : Toch. *\*kolmo-* “ship”. *Tocharian and Indo-European Studies* 5, 129-133.

### 1994

(1994): Sl. *\*čьlnъ* “člun” a toch. *\*kolmo-* “lod” (k terminologii pojmenování plavidel v severoindoevropském areálu). *Slavia* 62, 489-492. (This Czech version of the article 1991b is not published in this volume.)

### 1995

(1995): Slavic-Tocharian Isoglosses. *Linguistica Baltica* 4, 233-238.

### 1997

(1997a): Tocharian-Anatolian isoglosses (1-4). *Tocharian and Indo-European Studies* 7, 229-233.

(1997b): It is possible to restore Tocharian A *ku/////* “nave, hub”? *Tocharian and Indo-European Studies* 7, 234-235.

(1997c): The Tocharian word for “monkey” – inherited or borrowed? *Tocharian and Indo-European Studies* 7, 236-238. (This article is published instead of its previous Czech version from 1984.)

(1997d): Praslav. *\*kъpъ* ‘vulva’ ~ tox. *\*kwip-* ‘styd’ – speciﬁčeskaja slavjansko-toxarskaja izoglossa? *Balto-slavjanskije issledovanija*, 1997, 226-229. (This Russian version of the article 1991a is not published in this volume.)

**1999**

(1999a): Tocharian – Anatolian isoglosses II (5 – 6). *Tocharian and Indo-European Studies* 8, 75-78.

(1999b): Alimenta Tocharica (1 – 3). *Tocharian and Indo-European Studies* 8, 79-84.

(1999c): The Tocharian and Celtic “span”. *Tocharian and Indo-European Studies* 8, 85-86.

**2000**

(2000): Toward the Cardinal Points in Tocharian. *Tocharian and Indo-European Studies* 9, 29-32.

**2001**

(2001a): Tocharian A *muk* ‘yoke’ and A *maku*, B *mekw* pl. ‘(finger)nails’ – why *m*? *Historische Sprachforschung* 114, 191-195.

(2001b): Tocharian AB *kät-* “to scatter”, its derivatives and relatives. *Indogermanische Forschungen* 106, 81-83.

**2003**

(2003a): Slavic-Tocharian Isoglosses IV. *Tocharian and Indo-European Studies* 10, 11-13.

(2003b): A Tocharian key to the etymology of the bird-name *\*srġó-* “stork”. *Tocharian and Indo-European Studies* 10, 15-16.

**2005**

(2005): Tocharian A *k<sub>u</sub>li*, B *klyiye* “woman” < *\*ġ/gleH<sub>2</sub>ui-H<sub>1</sub>en-*? *Historische Sprachforschung* 118, 92-100.

**2007**

(2007a – together with Michal Schwarz): Tocharové. Kdo byli, odkud přišli, kde žili. *Linguistica Brunensia. Sborník prací filozofické fakulty brněnské univerzity* A55, 85-113. (This article is published in this volume in its English updated version = 2008b – see below.)

(2007b – together with Michal Schwarz): Pavel Poucha (1905-1986). *Linguistica Brunensia. Sborník prací filozofické fakulty brněnské univerzity* A55, 322-325. Instead of this Czech article (not included in this volume) the new English biography and bibliography of Pavel Poucha is published – see 2011e below).

**2008**

(2008a – together with Michal Schwarz): Nástin tocharské historické gramatiky. [“A sketch of the Tocharian historical grammar”]. *Linguistica Brunensia. Sborník prací filozofické fakulty brněnské univerzity*, A56, 33-58. This article was written for Czech readers; but for better reference: all Tocharian A and B words reconstructed in this article were added to index.

(2008b – together with Michal Schwarz): Tocharians. Who they were, where they came from and where they lived. *Lingua Posnaniensis* 50, 47-74.

**2009**

(2009): Tocharian ‘camel’. *Tocharian and Indo-European Studies* 11, 39-42.

**2011**

(2011a – together with Michal Schwarz): Werner Winter (25.10. 1923 – 7.8. 2010). *Linguistica Brunensia* 59, 286-299. Instead of this Czech version an English article 2011b is published in this volume.

(2011b – together with Michal Schwarz): Werner Winter. *Journal of Indo-European Studies*. 235-254. This article is included in this volume instead of its Czech version = 2011a. For the version in this book we added full contents of Winter’s *Studia Tocharica* from 1984 and *Kleine Schriften = Selected Writings I.+II.* from 2005.

(2011c – together with Michal Schwarz): Tocharian AB *kwär-* ‘to grow old’. *Tocharian and Indo-European Studies* 12, 57-62.

(2011d – together with Michal Schwarz): Tocharian AB *kulyp-* ‘to crave, desire’ and the Indo-European root *\*leub<sup>h</sup>-*. *Indogermanische Forschungen* 116, 72-86. This article will be published in one of future volumes because of copyrights.

(2011e – together with Michal Schwarz): Pavel Poucha – his life, travels and complete bibliography. In: Blažek, Václav. *Tocharian Studies. Works 1.* (ed. Michal Schwarz). Brno: Masarykova univerzita/MUNI Press. 173-210.

# **I. Etymology**



**Tocharian Linguistics During the Last 25 Years.** *Archív orientální* 56, 1988. 77-81.

Václav Blažek

Now we can find a complete survey of recent Tocharian research in the detailed study *Die Erforschung des Tocharischen* (1960-1984), Stuttgart, Steiner-Verlag Wiesbaden-GmbH 1985, ix, 187 pp., by a well-known specialist Werner Thomas.

The book is divided into the following parts: *Vorwort* (I-IX); *Vorbermerkungen* (1-6); A. *Bibliographien* (7); B. *Allgemeine und zusammenfassende Werke* (8-20); C. *Die Sprache* (20-125): I. *Texte bzw. Textstellen und ihre Interpretation*, II. *Wörterbücher bzw. Glossare*, III. *Grammatik*; D. *Die sprachliche Stellung des Tocharischen* (126-154): I. *Verhältnis der beiden tocharischen Sprachen zueinander*, II. *Die indogermanischen Komponente*, III. *Die nichtindogermanischen Komponente*; *Schlussbemerkungen* (155); *Literaturverzeichnis* (156-178); *Abkürzungsverzeichnis* (179-192); *Nachträge aus dem Jahre 1984* (185-187).

The part *Literaturverzeichnis* catalogues 434 books, articles and reviews concerning Tocharian problems. Linguistic studies proper and reviews consist of 324 and 43 titles respectively (there are 8 more citations in the last part, *Nachträge aus dem Jahre 1984*). I think it will be useful to range authors according to the numbers of their original titles about the Tocharian language (total 324): Van Windekens 91, Thomas 44, Winter 20, Lane 13, Isebaert 13, Adams 9 (10 including supplements in the last part), Schmidt K. H. 8, Couvreur 7, Naert 7, Bonfante 5, Lindeman 4, Schmalstieg 4, Ji 4, Brock 4, Hilmarsson 4 (5), Čop 3, Ivănescu 3; 18 authors – 2 titles and 54 authors – 1 title.

It is difficult for the bibliographical study of such an extent to cover all published titles. The following titles can be added:

V. N. Toporov, “Toxarskaja étimologija za dvadcať let”. In: *Étimologija* 1963, Moskva 1963, pp. 236-249 ... (ad A);

V. V. Ivanov, “Funkcii”tocharskich” jazykov i “toxarskoj” literatury v Vostočnom Turkestane i problema tjurksko “tocharskich” kontaktov”. In: *Centralnaja Azija i Tibet. Istorija i kul'tura Vostoka Azii*, T. 1, Novosibirsk 1972 ... (ad B);

T. V. Gamkrelidze, V. V. Ivanov, *Indoevropskij jazyk i indoevropejcy*. Tbilisi 1984 “Vydelenie toxarskogo iz obščeeindoevropskogo jazyka i migracii nositelej toxarskich dialektov”, pp. 935-936) ... (ad D II.);

V. I. Georgiev, *Introduction to the History of the Indo-European languages*, Sofia 1981 (Chap. IX: “Tocharian and Balto-Slavic”, pp. 281-297) ... (ad D II.);

V. Blažek, “The Sino-Tibetan Etymology of the Tocharian A *mkow-*, B *moko-* ‘Monkey’”, *Archív orientální* 52 (1984), pp. 390-392 ... (ad D III., but reflected in Vorwort, p. X);

V. V. Ivanov, “K étimologii nekotorych migracionnyh kul’turnyh terminov”. In: *Étimologija* 1980, Moskva 1982 (7. Avstro-aziatskij istočnik tox. A *oňkaläm*, B *oňkolmo* ‘slon’, p. 166) ... (ad D III.);

V. V. Ivanov, “A korai ugor és az östokhár alapnyelv fonológiai”. *Rendszerének párhuza mossága és ennek lehetséges diakrón megvárázata, Nyelvtudományi közlemények* 85 (1983), pp. 357-359 ... (ad D III.). The Russian version of the last article was published in 1986: “Paralelizm fonológičeskich sistem raneugorskogo i oščetoxarskogo prajazykov i jeho vozmožnoe diachroničeskoe objasnenie”. In: *Fonetika jazykov Sibirii sopredel’nyh regionov*. Novosibirsk 1986, pp. 11-14.

It is also a pity that Thomas’ survey does not inventory the articles in which the name “Tocharian” does not appear their titles, e.g. E. Schwentner, “Khotansakisch *sahä*, *sahe* ‘Hase’”, *Zeitschrift für vergleichende Sprachforschung*, Bd. 77 (1961), p. 160 (Toch. B *šase* “hare” borrowed from OInd. *śāśa-* id.) or V. V. Ivanov, “Mikenskoe grečeskoe *wa-na-ka* i ego indoevropskie sootvetstvija”. In: *Balkanskij lingvističeskij sbornik*, Moskva 1976, pp. 165-171 (Toch. A *ňkät*, B *ňakte* “God”, A *nätäk* “lord”, *näši* “lady” and Greek *wanakt-* “king”, *\*wanakya* “queen” with detailed discussion and older literature), etc.

The research of the last ten years has given precision to our notions about the place of Tocharian among the Indo-European languages, cf. Thomas pp. 128-147. A. J. Van Windekens, the author of an excellent etymological dictionary of Tocharian, tallied isoglosses between Tocharian lexicon and lexicons of other Indo-European groups (Van Windekens 1976: 614-619). He obtained the following rank order: (1) Germanic, (2) Greek, (3) Indic, (4-5) Baltic and Iranian, (6) Latin, (7) Slavic, (8) Celtic, (9) Anatolian, (10) Armenian, (11) Albanian. D. Q. Adams (1984: 399-400) obtained a rather different rank order: (1) Germanic, (2) Greek, (3) Baltic, (4) Indic, (5) Slavic, (6-8) Latin + Celtic + Iranian, (9) Albanian, (10) Anatolian, (11) Armenian. But a different picture arises if we accept etymological interpretations other than those of A. J. Van Windekens.

Toch. A *wār*, B *war* “water” is usually connected with OInd. *vāri* “water, rain” etc. (Van Windekens 1976: 557). An alternative etymology derives PToch. *\*wār* “water” from IE *\*wodr* (Normier 1980: 277). A similar phonological development is known, cf. A *swār*, B *swāre* “sweet” < *\*swādro-* from IE root *\*swādu-* (Normier 1980: 277; Thomas 1985: 58-59). Afterwards we obtain the Germanic-Anatolian-Tocharian isogloss instead of the Indic-Tocharian one.

Toch. B *ālme* “source, well” is analysed as the intensive prefix *\*ā-* + *\*l<sub>e</sub>mo-s* (Thomas 1985: 122). But it corresponds rather to ‘alteuropäische’ hydronyms *\*almā*, *\*almos* (Georgiev 1981: 171, 350-351). Cf. also Lith. *almėti* “to run; flow”, *almė* “pus” (Toporov 1975: 76-77); also Hit. *alalam(m)a-*, *alalima-* may belong here, if its meaning was “river-bed” (cf. Tischler 1977: 13).

Toch. A *lu*, B *luwo* “animal” is derived from IE *\*lāu-* (Sl. *\*lovŭ* “hunting”) or *\*lūs*, *\*luw-* “louse” (“animal”?) (Poucha 1955: 270; Pokorny 1959: 655, 692; the etymologies follow Van Windekens and Pedersen respectively), cf. also Hit. *lalawes(s)a-/lalakwesa-* “ant” (reduplication?; Čop 1972: 167). Now Gamkrelidze and Ivanov (1984: 507-510) present a new etymology for the IE designation of “lion”, cf. Germanic *\*liuwaz* and Greek *\*lewont-* (Mycenaean *re-wo-te-jo* and *re-wo-pi*). The relationship of Albanian *letë* (*\*leut-*) “mane” and Sl. *\*ljutŭ* “ferocious” borrowed into Lith. *liūtas* “id.; lion” and even Hit. *walwa-*, *walwi-*, Luw. *walwa-* (reduplication: *\*lwalwa-*?) are more problematic (Sumnikova 1986: 59-77). Ultimately a non-IE origin is not excluded either, cf. ST *\*lwa* ‘y’ “buffalo” (Blažek 1984: 392).

Toch. AB *pālk-* “shine, burn; see” has been connected with IE *\*b<sup>h</sup>elg-* (Greek *φλέγω* “I burn”, etc.) (Van Windekens 1976: 358). But *pā-* can be interpreted as the old imperative (originally perfective?) prefix (Van Windekens 1982: 233-236; Thomas 1985: 82-83). Consequently Toch. AB *pālk-* represents only an extended form of the verb AB *lāk-* “see”, cf. the present stem A *lka-* (Poucha 1955: 266-267; Van Windekens 1982: 35).

The exclusive Tocharian-Anatolian isogloss A *kast*, B *kest* “hunger” and Hit. *kast-* id., *kestwant-* “hungry” (Van Windekens 1976: 189; Tischler 1982: 535-537; Thomas 1985: 145) can be complemented by Greek *γαστήρ* “belly”, if its original meaning was “hungry” (Watkins 1974: 14), cf. East Iranian (Pamir) forms as Sarikoli *morz* “hunger”, Waxi *mərz* id., Shughni *mōǰj* id., etc. and Avestan *mərəzana-* “belly” (Morgenstierne 1970: 337). A direct relation between Hit.-Toch. *\*kast-* and Basque *gose* “hunger, hungry” proposed by Ivănescu (1969: 242-243) is excluded for geographical reasons. The missing link of comparison between Basque and Indo-European could be sought in North Caucasian as a possible relative of the hypothetical Mediterranean

substratum. In fact the form \**gašē* “hunger” (cf. Tabasaran *gašti* “hungry”) is reconstructed [Nikolayev & Starostin 1994, 431]. But the vector of borrowing was from IE into North Caucasian rather than the opposite direction (Nikolaev 1985: 62). And Basque *gose* may be of Romance origin (cf. Spanish *gazuzo* “hunger” : *gazuzo* “very greedy, voracious”, see Löpeltmann 1968: 463-464 [and Corominas 1990: 295]). Some scholars, e.g. John Bengtson (personal correspondence), prefer the opposite vector of borrowing.

Toch. A *kroñse*, B *kroñ(k)še*, acc. sg. *krokś* “be” is usually connected with IE \**k̑ȓs-en-* “hornet” (Poucha 1955: 92 after Schrader; Pokorny 1959: 576). Van Windekens submitted a new interpretation – borrowing from ST \*(s-)brəñ “fly, bee” (Benedict 1972: 167, 177; Van Windekens 1965: 139-140; Van Windekens 1976: 627; Thomas 1985: 108), but this etymology is phonologically improbable. On the other hand, Sino-Tibetan influence is not really excluded, cf. ST \**krañ* “mosquito” (Burm. *khrañ*, Kachin *dži-groñ*, where *dži* is “winged insect”, etc. – see Benedict 1972: 71). We would have to assume a compound \**krañ-dži* (cf. Kachin) or the like. But the traditional Indo-European etymology remains most probable; a missing Anatolian counterpart may be indicated at least indirectly by the probable IE loan in Kartvelian: Georgian *ḡrazana* “wasp” (Klimov 1986: 198).

Several lexical borrowings from Sino-Tibetan (Chinese) were detected by Van Windekens and Naert (Thomas 1985: 153; from earlier authors H. Lüders. *Zur Geschichte des ostasiatischen Tierkreises*. Sitzungsberichte der Preussischen Akademie der Wissenschaften 1933 must be named). But these relations are bilateral and more intimate than they have shown. We have selected the following comparisons as illustrations.

Toch. B *plewe* “boat” has a good IE etymology (Pokorny 1959: 835-837). It was probably borrowed into ST languages, cf. Gurung (= Bodic division according to R. Schafer) *plava* “boat” and Arch. Chin. *plyôg*, Anc. Chin. *plyəw* id. (Benedict 1972: 176 – in footnote 469 he compares them with Indonesian \**parau* id.; Ulving 1968/1969: 948 = IE + Chin.).

Toch. A *kuryar*, B *karyar* (\**kwräyor*) “business, purchase”, B *käry-* (\**kwräy-*) “to buy”, pres. med. *kärnāsk-* (\**kwränāsk-*), reflect IE \**k<sup>w</sup>rey-* “to buy” (Pokorny 1959: 648; Normier 1980: 257-258; Benveniste 1969: 129-137 – also with Baltic and Slavic parallels). TB \**kroy* in Burm. *krwè* “debt”, Kachin *khoi* “borrow or lend (presupposes a return in kind)” (Benedict 1972: 68; A. Gluhak in the letter from 19. VI. 1986 – ST + IE) could represent a Tocharian loanword.

Toch. AB *pär-* “bring, take” is derived from IE *\*bher-* “bring” (Pokorný 1959: 128-132). The TB voiceless *\*p-* in *\*par* “trade, buy, sell” (Benedict 1972: 35) reveals Tocharian origin, although even Iranian influence is not excluded, cf. Avest. *fra-bara* “deliver, hand over”, Khwarezmian *haβar-* “give”, *βar* “get”, etc. (Levinton 1977: 21-23).

Toch. A *oñkaläm*, B *oñkolmo* “elephant” is analysed on the IE level as *\*ank-* “to bend, curve, bow” and the suffixal extension *\*-ālimo-*, cf. Toch. B *onolme* “man” (Van Windekens 1979: 24, 110). V. V. Ivanov, with reference to E. Sapir, connected this word with Tib. *glañ* “elephant; ox” (Ivanov 1977: 156), which is probably related to Arch. Chin. *zyañ* (*\*dzyañ*), according to P. Benedict from *sgyañ* (Benedict 1976: 188), Burm. *tshañ*, etc. (similar forms with initial affricate are known also from Austro-Asiatic languages – Benedict 1972: 133). Ivanov’s comparison does not explain Toch. *oñ-*. An acceptable solution seems to be the alternative ST reconstruction for Tib. *glañ* according to R. Shafer – ST composite *\*(n-)go-lañ*, cf. Tibetan dialect Tseku *galon* “bull”, and loan in the Dardic language Pashai *go-lañ* “bull” (Shafer 1965: 459). This version can be modified. If the first component was ST *\*ñə* “tooth, tusk” (Shafer 1974: 36, 57, 162), the original composite was *\*ñə-lañ* (> *\*gV-lañ*) “tusked ox” (?) [further see Lushei *ñ<sup>c</sup>ñ<sup>c</sup>o* id., Kapwi *ña* “tooth”, Newari *ña-*, Hwalngau *hñau* “eyetooth, tusk”, etc., maybe Arch. Chin. *\*ñra* besides *ña* and later *ya* “tooth, tusk, ivory”, Proto-Thai *\*ña* “ivory” (Shafer 1974: 469, according to Haudricourt), Proto-Viet-Müöng *\*ña* “ivory” (Sokolovskaja 1978: 163) and Proto-Mnong (Bahnar) *\*ngo’la* “tusk” (Norman & Mei 1976: 288). Later, V. V. Ivanov (1982: 166 - see above) connected Tocharian “elephant” directly with Austro-Asiatic “ivory” (in his article incorrectly “trunk of elephant”).] But the above is questionable, if the transformation of the ST initial *\*ñ-* in Toch. *oñ-* is regular, cf. Toch. A *nkiñc*, B *ñkante* “silver” (n.), A *nkäñci*, B *ñikañce* “silver” (adj.), probably borrowed from a ST source close to Arch. Chin. *nyen* “silver” (which was a source of Proto-Thai *\*ñə(ə)n* id. and Proto-Miao-Yao *\*ñaan*, var. *\*ñ[ua]n* id.), Burm. *ñwe*, Gyarung *pañei*, Tibetan *ñul*, Šerpa *ñul*, etc., all from ST *\*(d-)ñul* “silver” (Van Windekens 1976: 634; Benedict 1972: 15, 173; Benedict 1976: 171; Shafer 1974: 36, 75, 96). A direct borrowing from Tibetan *glañ* may be identified in Toch. A *klañk*, B *kleñke* “vehicle; saddle animal”, as already proposed by E. Sapir (1936: 264).

Toch. A *śisäk*, B *şecake* “lion”, A *śisak-şanweṃ* “leaving the jaws of a lion” was analysed as a derivative of various IE roots, e.g. *\*seng-* “attacher à” and Celtic *\*sogno-* “poil the queue, brosse” (Van Windekens 1941: 120-121), *\*sing<sup>h</sup>eko-* “lion” with the suffix *-ko-* (Van Windekens 1964: 223-228; Adams 1984b: 284-286: A *śisäk* < *säysäke-* < *\*sänśäke-* < *sänkyäke-*, A *śisäk* <

\**sänkyēke-* and B *ṣecake* < \**ṣecake-* < \**syenśäke-* < \**sänśäke-* < \**sänkyäke-*), *sīt-e-ko-* (> *śiśäk*), \**sīt-ē-ko* (> *śiśäk*) and \**sēt-e-ko* (> *ṣecake*) in comparison with Lat. *saeta* “mane, bristles, hosehair” (Van Windekens 1976: 480-481; Lat. *saeta* corresponds to Hit. *settis* “Nackenmähne” [cf. J. Tischler 1982b: 123]; a semantic shift “mane” → “lion” is acceptable, but the etymology is improbable for phonological reasons). A source was also sought in Chinese (Middle) *syi-tsyə*’ “lion” (Pelliot, Lüders). On the contrary E. G. Pulleyblank supposes a borrowing from Tocharian into Chinese (Pulleyblank 1962/1963: 109). But a ST origin is possible too: from a compound consisting of components corresponding to ST \**si* “lion” and TB \**zik* “leopard” (Blažek 1984: 392). S. A. Starostin, the author of a new reconstruction of the ST proto-language, modified this source as \**s-cik* “leopard, lion” with the typical ST animal prefix *s-* (Starostin, March 1986 – personal communication).

Toch. B *mewiyo* (m.), *mewiya* (f.) “tiger” has been connected with Sogdian *myw* and Sacan *muya* id. (Van Windekens 1941: 67 – Schwentner; Van Windekens 1979: 9). All these words have a promising ST etymology (Tocharian is a probable source of the Iranian designation of “tiger“), cf. Arch. Chin. *myau-*, *māu-* “wild cat” (Shi Jing), “cat” (Li Ji) borrowed into Thai *mēw*, Shan *miau*, Ahom *miu* “cat”, further TB: Limbu *mīyo-n* “cat”, Lalung *myaō*, Tengsa *měyǎū*, Pwo *miayu*, etc. (Shafer 1965: 464-465; Shafer 1974: 65, 278, 448). “Cat” and “tiger” are not so different in meaning, cf. Burm. *kron* “cat”, Maru *rauñ* “wildcat”, and Nung *khañ* “tiger”, Kachin *ron*, *śaron*, *śaro* “tiger, leopard”, TB \**ron* (Benedict 1972: 107). An excellent example of the semantic shift “cat” → “tiger” may be found in the Munda languages. Santali *ruṇḍa* “wild cat” is used in the forest as a taboo substitute for *kul* “tiger” and *ṭarup* “leopard”. Prakrit *bheruṇḍa-* “tiger” is probably formed from this Munda root – cf. also Mundari *ruṇḍā* “wild cat” (Kuiper 1948: 151, footnote 48).

It is possible to conclude that the reviewed book excellently demonstrates the progress in Tocharian etymology over the last 25 years. If Tocharian etymologies of the past were noted for their liberal interpretations of phonological rules, contemporary Tocharists work with a more exact historical-comparative method. Our examples were intended to show „the untapped reserve” in Tocharian comparative linguistics: the old isoglosses with other Indo-European languages and the areal relations with the neighbouring non-Indo-European languages.

Abbreviations: Anc. Ancient, Arch. Archaic, Burm. Middle Burmese, cf. confront, Chin. Chinese, Germ. Germanic, Hit. Hittite, IE Indo-European, Lat. Latin, Lith. Lithuanian, Luw. Luwian, OInd. Old Indic, P Proto, Sl. Slavic, ST Sino-Tibetan, TB Tibeto-Burmic, Tib. Written Tibetan, Toch. Tocharian.

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**Slavic – Tocharian Isoglosses I. 1. Sl. \**kǔpǔ* “vulva” ~ Toch. \**kwip-* “shame”. *Tocharian and Indo-European Studies* 5 (1991), 123-128.**

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§ 1. Sl. \**kǔpǔ* is reconstructed on the basis of OCz. *kpen* (?) “vulva, burgulium, culus, matrix”, (older) Cz. *kep* m. “external part of female genitals, shameless fool”, Slk. *kiep* “slatter”, OPol. *kiep* “cunnus, fool, idler”, (older and dial.) Pol. *kiep*, gen. *kpa* m. “female genitals; fool”, Pom.Sln. *ħiep* m. “knave, scoundrel”, and possibly Sln. *kēpec* m. “parson’s nose, dwarf” (Trubačev 1987: 205).

The etymology of Sl. \**kǔpǔ* is not unambiguous. Traditionally it is connected with the IE root \**kǔp-* “hole, opening, hollow”, reflected in OInd. *kūpa-* “pit, hollow, depression”, Gk. *κύπη* “opening, hole”, OEng. *hȳf* “bee-hive”, etc. (Berneker 1908: 664-665; Pokorny 1959: 591). This etymological association finds semantic confirmation in such a parallel as Hbr. *poṭ* “vulva; opening”, related to Arab. *faut* “space, gap”, Angas (West Chadic) *fut* “hole”, etc. (Gesenius & Buhl 1921: 665-666; Müller 1975: 64-65). -

An alternative etymology is based on the not so evident semantic connection of Sl. \**kǔpǔ* “vulva” and \**kypěti* “to seethe”, with the apophonic variant \**kvapiti* “to be in a hurry” (Trubačev 1987: 205-206 who rejects the interpretation “seething, frothing place” and suggests “breath; an opening through which breath escapes”). The parallels from other IE languages appear semantically distant as well: Lith. *kūpėti* “to seethe, boil; be rank”, *kvėpti* “to breathe”, *kvīpti* “to smell”, *kvāpas* “breath, breathing; smell”, Latv. *kūpēt* “to smoke”, OPr. *kupsins* “fog”, Alb. *kapitem* “I breathe heavily (being exhausted)”, Gk. *καπνός* “smoke”, *κάπος, κάπυς · πνεύμα* (Hes.), OInd. *kūpyati* “he is angry, excited”, Lat. *cupiō* “I wish”, etc. (Pokorny 1959: 596-597).

These two etymological suggestions need not mutually exclude each other, cf. e.g. Toporov (1984: 296-300) who tries to accommodate them. The attempt to connect Sl. \**kǔpǔ* with lat. cunnus, derived via \**kumnos* from \**kupnos*, is in principle possible but unprovable (Machek 1971: 249).

§2. Toch. \**kwip-* “shame” is reflected in both Tocharian languages: A *kip*, B *kwīpe*. The correspondence A *k* vs. B *kw* is regular, cf. A *koṃ*, B *kwem* (obl. sg.) “dog”, A *ṣuñk*, B *ṣaṅkw* “throat”, A *suk*, B *sakw* “happiness”, A *tuñk*, B *tañkw*

“love”, A *oñk*, B *eñkwe* “man” (Hilmarsson 1986: 129). Therefore, evidently, B *oñkipse* “shameless” represents a borrowing from East Tocharian.

This word does not have a reliable etymology either. Van Windekens (1941: 51) compared Toch. *\*kwip-* with Gk. *καυνός · κακός* (Hes.), Ir. *cuan* “deceit”, Goth. *hauns* “humble”, Latv. *kàuns* “shame”. But this etymology cannot explain the difference in initial consonantism (IE *\*k-* vs. Toch. *\*kw-*) and vocalism (Toch. *-i-* can hardly be derived from IE *\*-a-* or *\*-au-*). Furthermore, the final root-consonants of IE *\*kaun-* and Toch. *\*kwip-* are quite different. Later, the same author presented a comparison with Lat. *in-quināre* “to soil, dirty” deriving the Toch. word from *\*quw(e)i-wo-* or *\*kuw(e)i-wo-* (Van Windekens 1976: 216). The Latin word together with *cūnīre* “stercus facere” is probably related to Lat. *obscēnus, obscaenus* “dirty, immoral, disgusting”, *caenum* “impurity, dirt” (Pokorny 1959: 628; against Ernout & Meillet 1939: 131, 694). The other IE parallels also oscillate in their semantics near the meaning “dirty” (Pokorny 1959: 628), while a meaning resembling the Tocharian “shame” does not appear. Pedersen (1943: 210) connected Toch. *\*kwip-* with IE *\*kewep-*, *\*kwēp-* “to seethe, breathe, be angry”, etc. (see above).

§2.1. Probably the most recent and best argued etymology of Toch. *\*kwip-* is the comparison with Gmc. *\*wība-* “woman, wife” > ON. *vif*, OEng., OHG. *wīb* (K. T. Schmidt as quoted by Hilmarsson 1987: 40; Pinault 1988: 142; for a full argumentation, see K. T. Schmidt & Strunk 1989: 251-284). This solution is based on the hypothetical protoform *\*ghweibho-*, *\*ghwībho-*, or *\*ghwipó-* (K. T. Schmidt & Strunk 1989: 272), with an original meaning “shame”. The authors envisage the following development in euphemisms of the type Toch. A. *kip-kapsañi* “vulva”, lit. “shame-body”, or Toch. *kwipe-ike* “penis”, lit. “shame-place”. The final result is a semantic shift from “vulva” to “woman, wife”, as is known, e.g., from Sumerian, cf. the determinative “vulva” with the meaning “woman, female” or Arab. *ḥann-* “woman, wife” vs. OAram. *ḥn* “vulva”, *ḥnt* “female slave” (Majzel & Militarev 1983: 222).

However, Gmc. *\*wība-* “woman, wife” has usually been connected with the verbal root attested in Goth. *bi-waibjan* “to wind”, OEng. *wāfan* “to dress”, etc. (Pokorny 1959: 1132; de Vries 1962: 661, 651; Kluge 1975: 844). If it is correct, the IE protoform *\*weip-* would exclude a connection of Gmc. “woman, wife” with Toch. *\*kwip-*. A concrete argument against K. T. Schmidt’s etymology follows from the absence of the effect of palatalisation that would be regularly expected before front vowels or diphthongs (cf. Van Windekens 1976: 94 for *\*gh<sup>w</sup>-*, 66 for *\*w-*, cf. B *ikām* “2” < *\*wīk<sup>m</sup>t*).

§3. Sl. *\*kǔpǔ* “vulva” and Toch. *\*kwip-* “shame” are semantically closer than all the preceding examples, irrespective of whether Sl. “vulva” is derived from IE *\*kǔp-* “hole, opening” or *\*kewep-*, *\*kwēp-*, etc. “to seethe” (see Pedersen’s etymology in §2). The semantic connection of “vulva” and “shame” can be typologically confirmed, cf. Akk. *ūru*, *urū* “pudendum muliebre”, Hbr. *‘ārṯā* “nakedness, shame, disgust”, Arab. *‘awrat* “pudenda”, etc. (Gesenius & Buhl 1921: 618; Majzel & Militarev 1983: 220-221). The main problem is to explain the phonological correspondence of both the Slavic and Tocharian words.

§3.1. Sl. *\*kǔpǔ* probably reflects IE *\*kupo-*, while Toch. *\*kwip-* originates most likely from IE *\*kwepo-* (a radical *\*-i-* would have resulted in A *\*kup*, B *\*kwapē*, cf. K. T. Schmidt & Strunk 1989: 269). But an *e*-vocalism would have been expected to cause palatalization as shown by Toch. A *śtwar*, B *śtwer* “four” < *\*k<sup>w</sup>etwores* (Van Windekens 1976: 489) or A *śeru*, B *śerwe* “hunter”, *śer-* “to hunt” < *\*g<sup>h</sup>wēr-* “beast” (Van Windekens 1976: 478). Hilmarsson (per litt.) explains this contradiction by the analogical levelling of the strong and weak cases of an old *s*-stem: *\*kwep-os* > *\*św’āp-æ* > *\*śāp-æ* > *\*śip-æ*, gen. sg. *\*kup-es-(e/o)s* > *\*kwāp-ās-* (+ ending). During the following development, the palatal initial of the strong cases was replaced by the *\*kw-* of the weak cases, while the *\*-i-* of the strong cases was generalized in the weak cases.

The reconstruction of the thematic vowel *\*-o-* on the basis of the correspondence of Toch. A *-∅* vs. B *-e* is well-known, e.g., A *yuk*, B *yakwe* “horse” < IE *\*ekwos* (m.), cf. also the non-thematic *s*-stem A *klyu*, B *kālywe* “reputation” < IE *\*klewos* (n.) (Van Windekens 1979: 4-8, 74-75). The traces of an old neuter stem (as in the last example) appear in the adjective A *kipsu*, B *kwipassu* “disgraceful”, where *-(s)su* reflects *\*-s-wōnts*, similarly as in B *klawi(s)su* “celebrated, glorious” (Van Windekens 1979: 131-132; K. T. Schmidt & Strunk 1989: 270).

If Sl. *\*kǔpǔ* and Toch. *\*kwip-* are related to IE *\*kewep-*, *\*kwēp-* “to seethe, breathe, be angry”, etc., there is a possibility to see promising morphological parallels in other *s*-stems, probably derived from the same IE root: Lat. *uapor*, gen. *uapōris* “steam, smoke” (Hilmarsson, per litt.) and OPr. *kupsins* “fog” < ? *\*kups-is*, *\*kups-in-(a)s* (Toporov 1984: 296).

4§. The evident semantic proximity, confirmed by the phonological compatibility and the deeper morphological parallelism, allows us to conclude that Sl. *\*kǔpǔ* and Toch. *\*kwip-* represent a common IE heritage.

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**Slavic – Tocharian Isoglosses II. 2. Sl. \*čīlnŭ “boat” ~ Toch. \*kolmo “ship”. *Tocharian and Indo-European Studies* 5 (1991), 129-133.**

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§ 1. Sl. \*čīlnŭ “boat” is recognised on the basis of Bulg. *člun*, *člīnŭ*, *čjunŭ*, Maced. *čoln*, dial. *čun*, S.-Cr. *čŭn*, Sln. *čōln*, Slk. *čln*, Czech *člun*, Upper Sorb. *čolm*, Lower Sorb. *coln*, dial. *čolm*, Polab. *cāun*, Pom.Sln. *č`è-ŭn*, Pol. (15th cent.) *czoln*, *czlon*, (later) *czólno*, (dial.) *czolēn*, ORuss. *člŭnŭ*, *čelnŭ*, *čelenŭ*, Russ. *čēln*, Ukr. *čóven*, *čovnó*, Belarusian *čóven* (Berneker 1908: 166-167; Trubačev 1977: 142).

There have been various attempts to find IE cognates here:

(I) Lith. *kelnas* “fishing boat, punt” (Zupitza 1896: 152; Fraenkel 1962: 237; Machek 1971: 695; Berneker 1908: 167 doubts the existence of the Lithuanian word quoted by Miežinyš);

(II) Lith. *kélta(s)* “punt”, *kéltuvas* “little punt”, Latv. *celtava* id. (Būga 1912: 235; Fraenkel 1962: 238);

(III) Lith. *kélmās* “stump, stemp”, Latv. *celms* “stump”, OPr. *kalmus* “stick, staff, rod, stump” (Zupitza 1896: 152; Fraenkel 1962: 237-238; Toporov 1980: 171-175, who also adds Lith. *kelmuō* “stem, trunk of a tree” and Hitt. *kalmuš* “lituus”, *kalmi-* “log; thunderbolt”, *kalmanna-* “fire-wood”, see Tischler 1983: 467-469);

(IV) OHG *scalm* “navis”, Dutch *schalm* “dünnere Holzstreifen oder Latten als Deckel der Schiffsluken” (Schmidt 1875: 32; Miklosich 1886: 31; Zupitza 1896: 152; Boisacq 1916: 869 adds Gk. *σκαλμός* “oar-peg”);

(V) ON *hjalmr*, *hjal-m-vōlr* “rudder-stick”, OE *helma* “tiller”, OHG *helmo*, *halmo* “rudder-stick” (Pedersen 1906: 378, who hesitatingly adds Arm. *k’eli* “helm, rudder”, *k’elanem* “to drive, navigate” and Gk. *κέλης* “schnellsegelndes Jachtschiff”, etc.).

§2. Toch. A *kolām*, B \**kolmo* (acc. sg. *kolmai*) f. “ship” has been compared with OHG *scalm* “navis”, ON *skalm-tré* “a cleft tree” (Van Windekens 1961: 383; Van Windekens 1976: 19, 228-229; Hilmarsson 1986: 29, 197), usually derived from IE \*(s)kel- “to cut” (Pokorny 1959: 923-927).

§3. The quoted series of cognates imply a connection of Sl. \*čīlnŭ + OHG *scalm* (see §1 IV) on the one hand, and Toch. \*kolmo + OHG *scalm* on the other hand (see §2). It means that the Slavic and Tocharian words should be related too.

Let us look at the possibility of a direct relationship of Sl. \*čīlnŭ and Toch. \*kolmo. Evidently there is a superficial difference in the suffixal extensions here. Schmidt (1895: 110) postulated that the IE suffixes \*-mo- and \*-no- are but dissimilatory variants, determined by the presence or absence of a labial element in the root preceding an original suffixal \*-mno-. In modern terms, therefore, Sl. \*čīlnŭ and Lith. *kelnas*, *kéltas*, etc. (see §1 II), would derive from \*kelH<sub>3</sub>- with -H<sub>3</sub>- conditioning the loss of \*-m- in the underlying suffixal \*-mno-, while Lith. *kéltas*, Latv. *celms*, ON *hjalmr*, etc. (see §1 III, V) would reflect \*kelH<sub>3</sub>- with no labial element and therefore with preservation of the \*-m- of the suffix. Consequently, we can assume the development Sl. \*čīlnŭ < \*kl̥H<sub>3</sub>no- < \*kl̥H<sub>3</sub>mno-.

Hilmarsson (1986: 29) operates with an *o*-umlaut, i.e. *o* – *o* < *æ* – *o*, in his internal reconstruction of the Tocharian word for “ship”: \*kolmo < \*kælmo < \*kælmā /-ōn < \*kolmā /-ōn. Since a laryngeal is lost after an *o*-grade root-vocalism, he suggests the preform \*kolH<sub>3</sub>mā (probably the oldest form) or \*kolH<sub>3</sub>mōn resp. (Hilmarsson, per litt.). Pre-Toch. \*kolH<sub>3</sub>mōn “ship” is fully compatible with Pre-Sl. \*kl̥H<sub>3</sub>mno- “boat”, a thematic extension of the *n*-stem observed in Tocharian.

Provided that our thought are correct on this matter, we have got a Slavic-Tocharian isogloss “boat / ship” derived from the verb \*kelH<sub>3</sub>- “to protrude, lift” (Pokorny 1959: 544).

§4. Another isogloss from the same semantic field may be represented by Sl. \*aldīji, acc. \*aldījŏ “ship” (BER III: 276), alternatively \*oldī (Vasmer II: 510) or \*oldīji (Fraenkel 1962: 120) and Toch. B (obl. sg.) *olyi* id. (Hansen 1940: 151; Van Windekens 1976: 334). The Slavic word has usually been connected with Lith. *aldijà*, *eldijà* “boat (made from a single stem)” and Germanic forms like ON *alda* “wave; bottom of a valley where a brook flows”, Norw. dial. *olda* “vessel, trough” < \*aldōn, cf. High Germ. dial. *alden* “furrow, depression in a field”, OE *ealdoð*, *aldot*, *aldaht* “trough, vat” (Trautmann 1923: 6; Pokorny 1959: 31-32; Vries 1962: 5; Fraenkel 1962: 120; Stang 1972: 13). The Germanic forms derive from \*aldh- or \*oldh- and so they could be compatible with the Lithuanian and Slavic parallels but not with Toch. \*olyi- < \*oldy-, because only IE \*-d- is regularly lost before \*-y- in Tocharian (Van Windekens 1976: 82). The closer semantic affinity suggests that the Balto-Slavic and To-

chiar words are cognates to the exclusion of the Germanic ones. Conversely, Gmc. \*ald- “trough; river-bed” may have a promising cognate in Hitt. *altanni/a-* “fountain, well, water-basin” and in numerous “Old European” hydronyms beside properly Anatolian ones such as *Alda* [name of a river] or *Allatinna-* [name of a fountain] (Rosenkranz 1966: 129; Tischler 1983: 20).

Finally, Lith. *aldijà*, *eldijà* may not be an indigenous word. Hilmarsson (1986: 196-197) suggests that the circumflex accentuation (cf. acc. sg. *aldijà*, *eldijà*) precludes a derivation from \*old-, demanding \*oldh- because of Winter’s Law of lengthening. Hilmarsson (l.c.) quotes Kortlandt’s opinion that Lith. *aldijà* might be a borrowing from Slavic.

It appears then that we have here another exclusive Slavic-Tocharian isogloss.

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## Slavic-Tocharian isoglosses III. *Linguistica Baltica* 4 (1995), 233-238.

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This article presents new Slavic-Tocharian isoglosses: (1) Sl. *\*uprěmъjъ* “sincere” < *\*on-prěmo-* ~ Toch. B *emprem* “true” < *\*ŋ-prěm(o)-*; (2) Sl. *\*lěviti* “to become weak, remit” < *\*lǎ/ǎiweye-* ~ Toch. B *laiwo* “fatigue” < *\*lǎ/ǎiwōn*; (3) Sl. *kļesati* & *kļesŋoti* “to let down” < *\*klNs-/\*kleNs-* ~ Toch. A *klis-*, B *klänts-*, pret. act. *klyantsa* “to sleep” < *\*klNs-* & *\*kleNs-*; (4) Sl. *kalъ* “mud, mire, dirt” < *\*kālo-* Toch. B *kärkkāle* “mud, mire” < *krāke* “dirt, feces” & *\*källe* < *\*kālyo-*.

### 1. Slavic *\*uprěmъjъ* ~ Toch. B *emprem*

1.1. Sl. *\*uprěmъjъ* attested in Old Czech *upřiemý*, cf. *úmysl neupřiemý* “insincere intention”, Czech *upřimný*, Slovak *uprimný* “sincere”, Polish *uprzejmy* “kind, favourable, compliant”, earlier “sincere”, Russian *uprjámuj* “obstinate” (Brückner 1974: 594; Machek 1971: 493-494; Vasmer & Trubačev 4: 165) is derived from Sl. *\*prěmъ/\*prěmъjъ* “direct, straight” by the prefix *\*u-* < *\*vъ* < *\*ŷn-* < *\*on-*, an apophonic variant of IE *\*en-* “in” (Machek 1971: 665-673). Consequently, Sl. *\*u-prěmъ(jъ)* can be derived from *\*on-prěmo-*. The proper stem *\*prěmъ* < *\*prěmo-* has an apophonic variant in Serbocroatian *pram(a)* “opposite, facing” < *\*pramъ* < *\*prōmo-* (Vasmer & Trubačev 1987: 394-395). The other eventual cognates are attested with a short *-o-*: *\*promo-* > Greek *πρόμος* “the first, prince” (Aristophan’s *πρόμος* is rather erroneous for *πρόμος*, Umbrian *promom* “primum”, Gothic *fram* “farther, from, near”, Old Norse *fram* “forward, away, from” or with zero grade: *\*pŕmo-* > Gothic *fruma* “first”, Lithuanian *pirmas*, Old Prussian *pirmas* “first” (Lehmann 1986: 124, 129-130; Pokorny 1959: 814-815).

1.2. Toch. B *emprem* “true, truth” (Thomas 1964: 173) has no unambiguous etymology.

Van Windekens (1976: 177) sought cognates in Old Indic *-bhará* “qui porte, qui maintient”, *bháraṇa* “fait de soutenir, d’assurer la subsistance”.

Isebaert (1988: 139-140) has quite plausibly argued that B *emprem* might be borrowed from Iranian *\*ham-wrama-* “confidence”.

Hilmarsson (1990[1994]: 46) has proposed the following internal reconstruction: *emprem* < *\*æ̃n-præwæ̃nän* < *\*-prōwo-won-ṃ* (acc.), comparing it with Slavic *\*pravъ* “true, right”. Later he has admitted as an alternative solution the borrowing from the Iranian source proposed by Isebaert (Hilmarsson 1991a: 171-172).

1.3. Toch. B *emprem* can be derived from *\*(H<sub>1</sub>)ṅ-prēm(-ṃ/-om)* where *\*(H<sub>1</sub>)ṅ-* is interpreted as a local prefix, cf. e.g. B *emparkre*, A *apärkär* adv. “long, fully, in detail”, derived from B *pärkare*, A *pärkär* “long” (Hilmarsson 1991a: 13, 171). Toch. B *-e-* reflects the original *\*-o-* or *\*-ē-* (Van Windekens 1976: 19, 25). The final *\*-m* regularly gives *-ṃ* in Tocharian, cf. A *tkaṃ*, B *keṃ* “earth” < *\*d<sup>h</sup>om* (Van Windekens 1976: 74, 507). Hilmarsson (1990[1994]: 45-46 & Id. 1991a: 186-187) has interpreted the final nasal as an old accusative marker in zero-grade, similarly as in the case of B *yñkaum* “by day”, etc.

The internal reconstruction *emprem* < *\*ṅ-prēm(o)-* allows us to connect this word with Slavic *\*uprěmъ(jb)* < *\*on-prěmo-*. The functional parallelism in prefixation and the semantic closeness confirm this conclusion.

## 2. Slavic *\*lěviti* ~ Toch. B *laiwo*

2.1. Sl. *\*lěviti* is continued by Serbo-Croatian *lěviti* “to lose time”, Czech *u-leviti* “to facilitate, remit”, Ukrainian *livyty* “to slacken, diminish”, *livyj* “weak, light, rare” (ÉSSJ 15: 28-29; ÉSUM 3: 256). It has been derived from IE *\*lēu-* and compared with Gothic *lewa* (dat.) “cause, opportunity”, *ga-lewjan*, Old High German *gi-lāwen* “to betray” etc. (Lehmann 1986: 232) and Lithuanian *liāuti(s)* “to cease”, Latvian *ļaut* “to allow, admit”, refl. *ļauties* “to cease” (Fraenkel 1962: 362).

2.2. Toch. B *laiwo* “fatigue, tiredness” belongs to the nouns reflecting the termination *\*-ō(n)* in nom. sg. (Van Windekens 1979: 38-40). The diphthong *-ai-* can represent any *i*-diphthong except *\*-ei-* (Van Windekens 1979: 30-31, 34-36). There are probably only two etymological attempts:

Couvreur (1950: 129) compared it with Greek *ληδεῖν* “to be tired” < IE *\*lē(i)-*, better *\*lē[i]d-* “to let” (Pokorny 1959: 666). This comparison is acceptable only if one reconstructs *\*lēidwō(n)* as a protoform for Toch.

Van Windekens (1976: 253-254) derived it from IE *\*laiwo-* “left”. It is certainly possible phonetically but the semantic connection remains rather doubtful.

2.3. Sl. \*-ē- reflects IE \*-ē- and diphthongs \*-ai-, \*-oi-, \*-āi-, \*-ēi-, \*-ōi- (Mikkola 1913: 53-60). It is evident that the Slavic and Tocharian forms are compatible phonetically and semantically too.

3. Slavic \**kļesati* ~ Toch. B *klänts-*

3.1. Sl. \**kļesati* & \**kļesnōti* attested in Bulgarian *klesam* “I move my body forward and backward”, Slovenian *klésniti* “to incline with limp knees”, Czech *klesati* & *klesnouti*, Slovak *klesat’* & *klesnúť* “to sink, fall, let down”, Polish (dial.) *kļesac’* “to press”, *kļesnac’* “to grow less, fall down” (ĚSSJ 10: 36-37) have no convincing etymology.

Zubaty (1945: 25f) compared Polish the form with Lithuanian *klemšiōti* “mit gespreizten Beinen, breitspurig ausschreiten”, Latvian *klemst* “müde, ungewandt gehen” (Fraenkel 1: 268-269).

Machek (1971: 255) compared Slavic \**kļes-* with Lithuanian *kliĩpti*, *klimpstũ* “to plunge into mud, snow”. Both stems have a common root \**kl̥m̥/ŋ-* but differ in termination -s- : -p-.

Similarly Trubačev (ĚSSJ 10: 36) sees in Sl. \**kļesati* a verbal s-intensive stem \**klen-s-ati* paralleled by \**kļekati* < \**klen-k-ati* “to knell, limp”.

3.2. Toch. B *klänts-* (*klants-*) “to sleep” reflects an original stem \**kl̥Ns-* [*N* = *n/m*], cf. Van Windekens (1976: 40-43) for B -*än-* (-*an-*) < \*-*Ń-* and 102-103 for B -*nts-* < \*-*Ns-* (Douglas Q. Adams 1995 [p.c.] prefers to distinguish IE \*-*ns-* > pToch. \*-*s-* and IE \*-*ms-* > pToch. \*-*ns-*). The e-grade \**kleNs-* appears in pret. act. *klyantsa*. An unambiguous etymology does not exist.

Pedersen (1941: 203) connected it with Toch. A *klis-* & *kles-* “to lie, sleep” which is derived from \**kleis-* by Van Windekens (1976: 220-221) and compared with Old Indic *ślis-*, Avestan *sraēš-* “to cling”. Hilmarsson (1991b: 77) has derived A *klis-* & *kles-* from \**klä'ns-*, doubtless related to B *klänts-*.

Van Windekens (1976: 218-219) has derived it from a nominal form (part. pret.) \**kl̥m̥-to-*, secondarily extended by \*-*yo-*, comparing Old Indic *klam-* “to be tired”, *klānti* “fatigue”.

3.3. Slavic nasalized \*-*ę-* continues original \*-*eN-* or \*-*Ń-* (Mikkola 1913: 71). This means that the Slavic and Tocharian forms can be derived from the same stem \**kl̥Ns-* or \**kleNs-*, s-derivatives of the roots \**klen-* (\**klon-*) or \**klem-*, represented e.g. by Sl. \**kloniti* “to bend” and \**klemati* “to dream, move slowly” (ĚSSJ 10: 66-68; 9: 194, respectively, or only the last example, accepting Adams’s correction).

4. Slavic \**kalъ* ~ Toch. B *-källe* (in B *kärkkälle*)

4.1. Sl. \**kalъ* is continued in practically all Slavic languages, cf. e.g. Old Church Slavonic *kalъ* “mud, mire”, Bulgarian *kal* “dirt, mud, sediment”, dial. *kal’* (*kalъ*), Serbocroatian *kāl* “mud, mire, dirt, pool”, Czech *kal* “mud, mire, sediment”, Lusatian *kala* “mud, pool”, Old Russian *kalъ* “dirt, mud, mire; feces, dung” etc. (ĖSSJ 9: 127-129). It can be derived from older \**kāl-* or *k<sup>v</sup>āl-*. Accepting the derivation of Sl. \**kalina* “snowball tree, Viburnum opulus” from \**kalъ* and its relationship to Germanic \**holana-* “elder, Sambucu” (Kluge 1975: 315), the original velar seems to be more probable than labio-velar. The closest cognates appear in Iranian (Pamir): Wakhi *čāl* “mud, dirty liquid”, Ishkashim *čal* “mud, swamp, bog, morass, marsh” (Paxalina 1983: 69). The other comparanda are semantically more distant: Greek *κηλῖς* “stain”, Latin *cālidus* “(horse) with a white spot”, Old Irish *caile* “stain” etc. (Blažek & Peňáz in ESJS 1995: 300).

4.2. Toch. B *kärkkälle* has been connected with A *kärt-kāl*, pl. *kärtkālyi*, usually translated as “pond” (uncertain, cf. Hilmarsson 1986: 183). Van Windekens (1976: 208) has analyzed it as \**k<sub>ṛ</sub>to-* + \**-tk-* (verbal class marker) + \**-lyo-* (verbal adjective suffix) comparing the first component with Old Indic *kartá-* “separation”, Middle Indic *kaṭá-* “depth”. Later Thomas (1976: 112) and Schmidt (1984: 152) have presented a new translation “mud, mire” for B *kärkkälle*.

Abstracting from A *kärtkāl*, the B form is analyzable as a compound *kärk* & *källe* (already Van Windekens 1942: 164). The first component can be derived from \**k<sub>ṛ</sub>k-* or \**k<sub>ṛ</sub>Hk-* (Van Windekens 1976: 38-39, 47). The second possibility is more probable with regard to AB (B > A?) *krāke* “dirt, feces” < \**krāko-* or \**krōko-* < \**kreH<sub>2/3</sub>ko-*, comparable with Khotan Saka *khargga* “mud, mire”, Armenian (< Iranian?) *kork* “dirt, dung”, Old Indic *kalka-* “paste, dirt, sin”, Old Irish *corcah* “swamp” (Van Windekens 1989: 95). Taking in account A *kärt-kāl*, there are probably two possibilities: (i) *kärt-* < \**kärkt-* with *-t-* extension, cf. e.g. A *kākmart* “domination” (Van Windekens 1979: 98); (ii) A *kärt-kāl*, B *kärk-källe* < \**k<sup>(w)</sup>ṛ(H)T-kālyo* where the first component is compatible with Celtic \**k<sup>w</sup>rēd-* > Middle Irish *cré*, gen. *criadh* “clay”, Welsh *pridd* “earth”, Breton *pri* “clay” (Mann 1987: c. 1656).

The second component A *-kāl*, pl. *-kālyi* & B *-källe* reflects the proto-form \**kālyo-* (cf. A *šulyi* & B *šlyiye* < \**selwiyo-* see Van Windekens 1979: 102, 118]. It is very probable that it belongs to the same semantic field as the whole compound, cf. perhaps a parallel formation in Sl. \**kaluža* “pool” < \**kalo-luža* “muddy puddle” (Machek 1971: 237).

It is evident both Slavic and Tocharian preserve the root \**kāl-* describing the semantic field “mud, mire, dirt”.

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**Tocharian-Anatolian isoglosses (1-4).** *Tocharian and Indo-European Studies* 7 (1997), 229-233.

Václav Blažek

The question of the position of Tocharian within Indo-European has not been definitively answered. The richest set of isoglosses connects Tocharian with the ‘Northwest block’, i.e. Germanic and Balto-Slavic. Also the Tocharian-Greek list of lexical correspondences is remarkably extensive (cf. Van Windekens 1976: 614-616). On the other hand, the rather modest list of the Tocharian-Anatolian parallels (Van Windekens 1976: 618; Thomas 1985: 145-146; Gamkrelidze & Ivanov 1990-1991: 277-278) can be enlarged. That is the purpose of this small article.

§1. Toch. A *kñā-* f. ‘stone’ has no secure etymology. Van Windekens (1976: 225) thought about relatives in Greek *ἀκόνη* ‘grindstone’ and Old Indic *aśáni-* ‘lightning; point of arrow’ but he offered no explanation of the loss of *\*a-* preserved in A *āk*, B *āke* ‘point, summit, end’ < *\*ak-* (= *\*H<sub>2</sub>eġ-*) ‘sharp’ (Van Windekens 1976: 157). However, some of his thoughts are certainly plausible. He supposed that the word was probably remodelled after the adj. *kñāṣi*. Comparing it with the adj. *wṣāṣi* derived from *wās* (B *yasa*) ‘gold’, the hypothetical original form in Toch. A would be *\*kāñ*, reflecting pre-Toch. *\*Kniā* / *\*K<sup>w</sup>niā* / *\*Kuniā*.

Hitt. *kunkunuzzi-* ‘a kind of stone (diorite?; also used as a “millstone”’, is formed with the implement-suffix *-uzzi-* (Kronasser 1966: 121; Melchert 1984: 166). It is usually derived from the verb *kuen-* ‘to strike’ (Carruthers, *Language* 9 [1933]: 154f), but for this verb no reduplication is attested. Total reduplication is typical for a nominal sphere (Kronasser 1966: 121; Tischler II: 635), cf. *lulluri-* ‘some mineral or metal’ (Tischler II: 76) from the same semantic field. The semantic difference ‘stone’ vs. ‘millstone’ has an analogy in Toch. B *kärweñe* ‘stone, rock’ vs. e.g. Old Norse *kvern* ‘millstone’ (Van Windekens 1976: 209; I am indebted for this semantic parallel to D. Q. Adams).

The preceding thoughts allow us to isolate an unreplicated root *\*kun-* in Hittite, which is fully compatible with pre-Toch. *\*Kuniā* / *\*K<sup>w</sup>niā*.



Note: Pinault (DTA 127) ingeniously deduces the meaning “mud brick” for \**kāñ*, instr. pl. *kñās-ya*, comparing the Tocharian A text from the Berlin fragment 222 b5: (*k*)*ñās-ya yṣaṃ wālaṃ eṣäk* “he lined the (sides of the) moat with bricks [all] over”, and the Sanskrit description of a town: *tāḥ khalu parikhās caturvidhābhir iṣṭikābhiś citā abhūvan* “now these moats were lined with bricks of four kinds”. Although both texts describe the lining moats, it is not warranted that the same building material was used.

§2. Toch. B *kwele* “blackish, dark grey” (Schmidt 1984: 153) has no unambiguous etymology. Perhaps only Hilmarsson (1991-1993: 184) offered any solution. He proposed the development \**kuwælae* < \**kāwælae* < \**kiwo-lo-*, comparing the stem with Gmc. \**hiwa-* > OIc. *hy* “fine (esp. grey) hair”, English *hue* “colour”, Gothic *hiwi* “appearance” and Middle Irish *céo* “fog”.

An exact cognate can be found in Hitt. *kuliu-* / *kuwaliu-* “dark, blue” – of course, only if the traditional translation (Ehelolf) is correct (Kronasser 1966: 196, 252; Tischler I: 624-626; Melchert 1984: 53; on the other hand Oettinger 1995: 211 prefers the translation “ruhig, still”). Kronasser (1966: 252) has identified the *u*-stem. Melchert (l.c.) adds also the derivatives *kuliyawahh-* and *kuliyawess-*. Accepting the spelling rule *-Cu-wa-* = [*-C(u)wa-*] (Melchert 1984: 51) and separating the termination *-u*, the original stem was \**K(u)wali-* / \**K(u)woli-* (*K* means any velar stop).

Toch. B *-e-* reflects regularly IE \**o* (or \**-ē-*), cf. *leke* “bed” < \**log<sup>h</sup>os*, *plewe* “boat” < \**plowos* (Van Windekens 1976: 18-19). But a hypothetical \**Kwolos* or \**K<sup>w</sup>olos* would give \**kele*, cf. *kele* “navel” < \**k<sup>w</sup>olHos* (Hilmarsson 1991-1993: 177). The most trivial solution is to suppose a protoform \**Kuwo-lo-* agreeing with the corresponding pre-Hitt. \**Kuwo-li-*.

§3. Toch. A *mānt-* “to injure”, B *mānt-* “hurt, injure”, also “to scatter, throw”, mid. *mānt-* “to abuse” etc. (Thomas & Krause 1964: 125) must belong together with B *mānts-*, *ments-*, *mānts-* “to be inferior; lose, belacking”). Hilmarsson (1991: 30) quotes the opinion of W. Thomas who assumes here a root-verb in final laryngeal, probably \**mentH<sub>2</sub>-*.

The closest cognates appear in Lycian *mēte-* “harm” (acc. sg. *meṭe*) (Melchert 1993a: 43) and with *l*-extension in Lydian *meṭl/rid* “harm (of some kind)” besides Luwian *mantalla/i-* “slandorous / slandere” (Melchert 1993b: 137-138) and Hittite *mantalli-* “feindlich, schädlich” (Tischler II: 126-127) or “venomous, poisonous, rancorous” (CHD 176-177), probably related to *manza* [*mant-s*] “Gift- ?, Zauberei ?” (Tischler II: 128-129).

Other IE parallels can be found in Latin *mendum*, *menda* “Fehler, Gebrechen”, *mendāx* “lügnerisch”, Old Indic *mindā-* “Körperfehler, Mangel”, perhaps remodelled after *nindā-* “Schmähung” etc. (Pokorny 1959: 729; Anreiter 1984: 95-96 with detailed discussion of the Tocharian data and their IE comparanda but still without the Anatolian material).

§4. Toch. A *mkälto* “iuvenis, parvus”, acc. sg. m. *mkältont*, abstr. *mkältorñe* “parvitas, juvenitus” (Poucha 1955: 233) probably represents a continuation of the extensions in *\*-to(r)* and *\*-nt-* (Van Windekens 1979: 98-99 who rejects his older solution suggesting a compound of *\*mkäl-* and *\*tā-* “to stand, put, be” – see id. 1976: 299). In agreement with the phonetic rules proposed by Van Windekens (1976: 16, 20, 22) the base proper *\*mkäl-* can reflect (a) *\*miklo-*, (b) *\*muklo-* or (c) *\*meklo-* (cf. *rkäl* “covering” < *\*reglo-* from the verb *rāk-* “to cover”). But Van Windekens (1976: 198-199) reconstructed *\*mīklo-*, to compare it with Greek *μῆκρός*, *σμηκρός* “little, short” and Latin *mīca* “bit, small piece”, *mīcidus* “slight”, although the rule *\*CVCRo-* > *\*CCäR* operates only with the short vowels *\*i*, *\*u*, *\*e*.

A promising cognates could be Hitt. *maklant-* “thin, emaciated”, *makla-tar* “emaciation” (CHD 121-122). Kronasser (1966: 265, 295) isolates the stem *\*makla-* here and the extensions in *-tar* and *-nt-*, remarkably corresponding to the Tocharian counterparts. The only open question remains the correspondence of the root vowels. Hitt. *\*makla-* is usually derived from *\*māklo-* (Tischler II: 98-99). This reconstruction and the identification  $\varrho = H_2$  (Beekes 1995: 146) is based on the other parallels, e.g. Latin *macer* “lean; barren” (cf. *macilentus* “voll Magerkeit”), OHG *magar* “lean” and perhaps Greek *μακρός* “long” besides Doric *μᾶκος*, Attic *μηκος* “length”. The expected reflex of *\*ϑ* is Toch. A *ā* (Van Windekens 1976: 29). But Adams (1988: 18) has demonstrated that this rule is valid only in word initial position and in open syllables. Otherwise the IE laryngeals give pToch. *\*ä* alternating with a zero reflex. Explicitly, Adams (1988: 33) says that a laryngeal is lost after a non-syllabic resonant when before another consonant. It means that the original protoform of Toch. *\*mkäl-* could also be *\*māklo-*, which is fully compatible with the Hittite counterpart including the extensions in *\*-tor* and *\*-nt-*.

Another plausible possibility would be an apophonic pair *\*meklo-* : *\*moklo-* for Toch. and Hitt. respectively. But this solution probably excludes the other cognates.

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**Is it possible to restore Tocharian A *ku///* “nave, hub”? *Tocharian and Indo-European Studies* 7 (1997), 234-235.**

Václav Blažek

§1. K. T. Schmidt (1994: 265, fn. 148 and 281, fn. 216) has found a special Tocharian A term for “Nabe, Achse” in the fragmentarily preserved word *ku///*, differing from Tocharian B *šem* “id.”. In spite of Schmidt’s rather sceptical conclusion “Nicht wieter ergänzbarer Wortrest”, p. 281, fn. 216) there is one promising chance of restoring at least the second consonant of this word.

§2. Already T. Ulving (1968-1969: 950) compared Old Chinese 轂 *kuk* “wheel, nave” (Karlgren 1940: #1126j; id. 1923: #505 for Middle Chinese *kuk* “nave, hub”, while Starostin 1989: 560, 605 reconstructs pre-Classic Old Chinese *\*kōk*) and Indo-European *\*k<sup>v</sup>ek<sup>w</sup>lo-* (Pokorny 1959: 639-640). However, it seems to be a preferable solution to equate the semantically identical Tocharian *ku///* with Old Chinese *kuk*. The most natural hypothesis is that of a borrowing from Tocharian into Old Chinese which would agree with the generally accepted direction of cultural influence of Tocharian upon the Chinese civilization already in the second millenium BC (Pulleyblank 1966: 35). If this solution is correct, the Tocharian A word can be reconstructed as *\*kuk<sup>o</sup>*.

§3. Concerning the etymology the following two proposals seem to be most promising:

(1) A derivative or a compound of A *kukäl*, acc. pl. *kuklas*, B *kokale* “wagon, chariot”.

(2) A metaphorical use of A *kukäm*, B *kukene* (du.), usually translated “heels” (e.g. Winter 1962: 113, although recently Adams 1983: 612-613 concludes, “There is nothing against the translation “heel” here but nothing in the context that necessitates it”).

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**The Tocharian word for “monkey” – inherited or borrowed? *Tocharian and Indo-European Studies* 7 (1997), 236-238.**

Václav Blažek

Abstract:

PToch. \**moko* < Old Chinese \**m(h)ōk gō* < pLolo \**myok* “monkey” + \*’-*ko* “macac rhesus”.

0. Toch. *Amkow-* (pl. *mkowañ* and *mkowy arämpāt* “simiae figura” – see Poucha 1955: 233) and B *moko-* (dim. *mokomśke*) “monkey” have no unambiguous etymology. There are several attempts to determine their origin – as an inherited word (1., 2.) or as a loan (3., 4.).

§1. Van Windekens’ (1941: 68-69) derivation of the Toch. “monkey” from IE \**mā-* “to wave, swing” (Pokorny 1959: 693) is unconvincing phonetically and semantically (a possible semantic parallel in OI *mayú-* “man-like animal [monkey?]; antelope, deer” has been derived from OI *mā-* “to roar, sound” – see Monier-Williams 1899[1988]: 804).

§2. Van Windekens (1976: 299) reconstructs pToch. A \**muko*/\**moko*, while in B *mokomśke* he sees a borrowing from language A extended by a diminutive suffix. The base \**moko* has to be derived from Toch. A *mok*, B (< A) *moko* “old”. In spite of the more plausible phonetic side of this etymology and its acceptance by such a prominent Tocharologist as W. Thomas (1985: X), the semantic connections remain doubtful.

§3. Bailey (BSOAS 8 [1937]: 928) saw a Middle Indic borrowing here, possibly mediated by Iranian languages, cf. Kroraina Prakrit *makaḍ’a* (vs. the more distant OI *markaṭa-* rejected by Lüders 1933: 1018 as a direct source of the borrowing), Saka *makala-* Sogdian *mkr’* “monkey”, but he did not explain the absence of the last syllable in Tocharian.

§4. Lüders (1933: 1018) proposed a borrowing of the Toch. “monkey” from Chinese, quoting the modern forms *mǔhóu* 母猴, *mùhóu* 沐猴, *míhóu* 猕猴. Only Lüders’ solution seems promising. Let us evaluate the details.

The corresponding Old Chinese forms reconstructed by S. Starostin (1989: 676, 605, 697) are as follows: \**mǎ’gō* 母猴, \**m(h)ōkgō* 沐猴, \**m(h)ejgō*

猕猴. Only the reconstruction *\*m(h)ōkgō* bears a marked resemblance to pToch. *\*moko* proposed by Van Windekens (§2). Also the rather strange, in fact inconsistent, vocalism of the Tocharian words (Hilmarsson 1986: 63) may point to a foreign origin. On the other hand, the unstable and binomic spelling of the Chinese words together with the fact that monkeys did not occur in Northern China during the period of Chou offers strong evidence for foreign origin of the Chinese word for “monkey” as well. S. Jaxontov (in a letter of July 23, 1991) has proposed a borrowing of this Old Chinese word for “monkey” from aboriginal languages of Sichuan, the territory of the old kingdoms Shu and Pa conquered in 316 BC by the Qin Empire. Monkeys live in Sichuan up to the present time. Two thousand years ago the local population probably spoke some Lolo-Burmic language rather than Old Chinese. Finally, it is possible to reconstruct pLolo *\*myok + \*'-ko* “macac rhesus”. Only the compound *\*myok + \*'-ko* still surviving in Akha as a *myo k'æ* (Bradley 1978: 296, nn. 23 and 26A) could represent a source of Old Chinese *\*m(h)ōkgō* and indirectly also of proto-Tocharian *\*moko* (cf. also Blažek 1984: 390-391 and 1992: 103-104).

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**Tocharian - Anatolian isoglosses II (5-6).** *Tocharian and Indo-European Studies* 8 (1999), 75-78.

Václav Blažek

This article represents a continuation of the collection of Tocharian-Anatolian isoglosses started in *TIES* 7 [1997], pp. 229-235.

§5. Toch. B *atāne* is attested twice in the following contexts:

*watkāltsa täne atānesa wārñai śānmāmnmāsa kektseñe śeśānmusa* (PK 12 Ib6)

“different here (is the case of) the body tied up with bonds on the *atāne*”

/// *rene atānene yamašare-ne pelene šalāre-ne* (H 149.40a5)

“they put...on (his) *atāne* and threw him in prison”

Isebaert (1980: 152, fn. 1) presents an approximate translation “kluister, boei”, deriving it from *\*ḡ-dʰōno-*. Despite the skepticism of Thomas (1985: 122) and Hilmarsson (1989: 84), the solution proposed by Adams (1983a: 612, fn. 4 and 1983b: 760) remains the most promising (cf. the later more positive standpoint in Hilmarsson 1996: 50). In *atāne* Adams sees the dual of *\*āto* and, considering the fact that this paired body part can be bound, assumes the meaning “wrist”. Adams does not present any etymology.

A promising cognate can be found in Hittite *haz(z)ila-* “double fistful, measure of cupped hand” attested e.g. in the following contexts (according to Puhvel 1991: 281-282):

MUN *ha-az-zi-e-la-aš* “*hazzelas* of salt” (KBo V 2 I 14)

ŠA ITU.1.KAM-*m!* ZÍD.DA *kissan 1 ha-az-zi-la 1 UPNI-ya* ZÍD.D[A.A (KBo II 11-12)

“flour for one month [is] as follows: one *hazzila* and one UPNU [of] flour...”

1 *ha-zi-la-aš memal* “one *hazilas* [of] flour” (KUB XII 4 I 8)

*wātar-samas 3 ha-a-zi-la-an pian[zi]* “they give them three *h.* [of] water” (KUB I 13 IV 36) etc.

In *hazze/ilas* Puhvel l.c. sees a petrified gen. pl. of *\*hazzel* which was reinter-

preted as nom. sg. He separates the suffix *-el* (cf. *hurk-el*) or *-zel* (cf. *sarnik-zel*) forming abstract derivatives from the root *hat(t)-* “to stick, hit, jab” (cf. Latin *pugnus* “fist” vs. *pungō* “I prick, sting”).

Both Toch. B *\*āto* (< *\*atō(n)*) and Hittite *\*hatt-el* can be derived from the same root reconstructable as *\*H<sub>2/3</sub>et-*, perhaps continued in Hittite *hat(t)-* “to stick” etc. (thus Puhvel 1991: 248-255) or Luwian *hizza(i)-* “to hand over(?)” (cf. Melchert 1993: 70).

§6. Toch. B *trau*, pl. *traunta*, du. *trauñc* “measure of capacity” (e.g. *šalype šak traunta* “zehn trau Fett” - see Krause & Thomas 1960: 82) probably reflects *\*Tl̥ ]ro-unt(s) ~ -went-* (cf. Van Windekens 1979: 54, 62, 238). The symbol *\*T* means any dental stop, but for *\*T = \*d* the sequence *\*dr-* is excluded, because *\*d* is regularly missing before *\*y, \*w, \*r, \*l, \*n, \*m* (Van Windekens 1976: 82). Between *\*T* and *\*r* there could be a vowel, not causing palatal effect (cf. B *cake*, pl. *ckenta* “river” < *\*tek<sup>w</sup>o-*) and missing in Tocharian. The only candidate is *\*u* (cf. B *tkācer*, A *ckācar* “daughter” < *\*d<sup>h</sup>ugH<sub>2</sub>tēr*). The etymology of Van Windekens (1976: 511) who reconstructs *\*d<sub>ɛ</sub>rou-nt*, comparing it with the derivatives of IE *\*doru- / \*drou-* “wood, tree”: Greek *δοίτη* “cuve en bois, baignoire; cercueil” < *\*δποφίτᾱ*, Old Swedish *trō* “ein bestimmtes Massgefäß”, Old English *trīg* “auge; plateau” < Gmc. *\*trauja-* < *\*drou-yo-*, cannot be unreservedly accepted. The Tocharian continuant of IE *\*doru- / \*drou-* is AB *or* “wood”, B pl. *ārwa*. The regular loss of *\*d* in the oblique stem *\*drou-* was apparently also generalized for the reflex of *\*doru-* > Common Toch. *\*æru-* whence via *u*-umlaut > *or* (Hilmarsson 1986: 102-103, 142-143, 146, 169).

There is a more promising cognate in Anatolian. Hittite (or Luwian according to Melchert) *taraw(a)r*, abl. *tarawanā[z]* also means “measure of capacity”, cf. the following contexts:

-]x *pí-ra-an ta-ra-a-ur da-a-i* “stellt ein *taraur* vor [ ] hin” (KBo XVII 74 + I 54)

*ki-it-ta-ri-ma-aš-ša-an* <sup>NINDA</sup> *wa-ge-eš-šar da-ra-a-u-ur Û pá-r-šu-ul-li*  
 ”darauf liegen ein Imbiss, *tarawar* und ein Brotbrocken” (KBo XXII 186 Rs. V 2)

[I-N]A UD II <sup>KAM</sup> *ma ke-e [wa-aš-]šī* <sup>HLA</sup> *da-a-i [(-)]a-ri-ya-at-ta-ri-ya-an* <sup>SAR</sup>  
<sup>GA-A-PA-A-NU</sup> I <sup>GÍN.GÍN</sup> *šal-li-in ha-a-ri-ya-ti-in* <sup>SAR</sup> *a-ru-um-mu-ra-aš*  
*ta-a-ra-u-wa-ar*  
*na-at an-da tar-nai nam-ma-at ki-i-naiz-zi pu-u-wa-a-iz-zi SIG<sub>5</sub>-ah-zi*

“am 2. Tag aber nimmt er folgende Ingredienzien: Ja.-Kraut, 1 Schekel (s)eines Blattwerks?, ein

grosses *h*.-Kraut, ein *tarawar* von der *arummura*(-Substanz); und das legt er (in den Mörser)

hinein; dann zerkleinert er es, zerstampft es (und) bereitet es richtig zu” (KUB XLIV 64 II 10)

(see Tischler 1991: 154-55).

The original meaning was probably “handful, fistful” judging from the Hittite or Luwian verb *tarāwi(ya)*- “to hand over, deliver” (Tischler 1991: 155-156; Melchert 1993: 211). It can reflect *\*T(e/o)reH<sub>2</sub>-wr* ~ *-wen-* (cf. Melchert 1994: 86 concerning the Anatolian suffix *\*-āwar*; similarly Hittite *karawar* “horn” < *\*kreH<sub>2</sub>-wr* - see Melchert 1994: 14). The Tocharian and Anatolian words are derivable from the common base *\*Tro-/eH<sub>2</sub>*. Let us examine if also the alternative variant *\*Turo-* reconstructable for Toch. B is compatible with the Anatolian data. Indeed, the syllable *\*ta-* can be derived from *\*dwo-*, cf. Hittite *d/tāiuga-* “two-year-old” (*\*dwoyo-yugo-*, see Tischler 1991: 29-31), *d/tān* “a second time” (*\*dwoyom*, see Melchert 1994: 128) etc. (the length was caused by contraction of *\*-oyo-*). This implies the possibility to derive *taraw(a)r* from *\*TworeH<sub>2</sub>-wr*. The pre-Anatolian base *\*Twor-eH<sub>2</sub>-* is undoubtedly compatible with pre-Tocharian *\*Tur-o-*. The only remaining difference is in the termination. The Anatolian nouns in *\*-āwar* correspond to Tocharian words in *-or* (cf. Hittite *karawar* “horn” vs. Toch A *kror* “crescent, horn of the moon”, B *krorīyai* obl. sg. “horn”); that is evidently not the case here. Toch. B *trau* is formed with the suffix *\*went-* representing possessive adjectives.

Let us assess the possibilities of external comparison. Melchert (1992: 53, fn. 31) mentions “..The first extra-Anatolian comparandum to come to mind is Greek *δῶρον* “palm of the hand”, but the divergent meaning and problematic *ō* raise doubts..”. His point of view is perhaps too skeptical: Greek *δῶρον* denotes also a measure of length, viz. “span”, cf. also *ὀρθόδαρον* “der Abstand von der Handwurzel zur Fingerspitze”, Homeric *ἑκκαίδεκάδαρος* “16 Spannen lang” and so it covers practically the same semantical field as its Anatolian counterpart. Concerning the ambiguous phonetic correspondences, the other cognates of *δῶρον* do not correspond exactly either: Celtic *\*durno-/ā* > Irish *dorn* “fistful”, Welsh *dwrn* “knob, handle”, *dyrnfedd* “four-inch handbreadth”, Breton *dorn* “hand”, including Romance borrowings, e.g. Medieval Latin *durnus* “3 digitos”, Old Provençal *dorn*, Old French *dor* “mesure contenant 4 doigts”, French dial. (Annecy) *tour* “mesure de la grosseur des porcs qui se fait au moyen du poing fermé et du pouce étendu” (Hamp 1986: 253) and Latvian

*dùre*, *dùris* “fist” (Pokorny 1959: 203). All the quoted words representing a common semantic field “fist, fistful, handful, measure of length or capacity motivated by fist, span or handful”, can be derived from an ablauting root \**dwōr-* : \**dūr-* as follows:

\**dwor-eH<sub>2</sub>-wṛ* / *-w(e)n-* “handfulness” > Anatolian \**tarawar* /*-wan-* “handful” > “measure of capacity”;

\**dwōr-o-* > Greek *δῶρον* “palm of hand, span (= length measure)”;

\**dur-o-unt(s)* / *-went-* “belonging to handful” > Toch. B *trau* “measure of capacity”;

\**dur-no-* > Celtic \**durno-* “hand(breadth)”;

\**dūr-iyā* > Latvian *dùre* etc. “fist” (cf. *duŗt* “stechen, stossen“ = Latin *pugnus* : *pungō*).

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**Alimenta Tocharica (1 – 3).** *Tocharian and Indo-European Studies* 8 (1999), 79-84.

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Our information about Tocharian food is mostly based on regular reports about the daily consumption of food and expenses for food in various monasteries. Let us analyze the following three records (cf. Thomas 1964: 73):

(3) *ikām ñune śle trukāle: kantiś yikšye ok tom piś šaṅkāṃ, klese tau*  
 “on 29th [day] moreover a grant: for *kanti* flour 8 ten-pounds, 5 pounds, *klese* ten-pound”

(5) *ñweṃne trukāle Sumaiše wase: kantine yikšye ok tom piś šaṅkāṃ, klese tau piś šaṅkāṃ*  
 “on new moon a grant Sumaiše gave: in *kanti* flour 8 ten-pounds, 5 pounds, *klese* ten-pound, 5 pound”

(6) *wi meñantse ne trukāle Vinaiyše wasa: kantine yikšye cāk wi tom, klese wi tom*  
 “on the 2nd [day] of month a grant Vinaiyše gave: in *kanti* flour hundred-pound, 2 pounds, *klese* 2 pounds”

### §1. Tocharian B *klese*

(A revisited version of the article Valčáková & Blažek 1997)

It is not possible to determine anything more than that Tocharian B *klese* designates some kind of food or ingredient necessary for supporting *kanti*. Its consumption must have been proportionally 6 - 8 times less than that of *yikšye*, i.e. “flour”.

In agreement with the rules of historical phonology of Tocharian B, *klese* is derivable from \**Kloso-* where K represents any velar stop. Van Windekens (1976: 219-220) proposed a root etymology based on comparison with Greek *δέλεαρ*, Aeolic *βλήρ* “bait, decoy”(!), deriving the Tocharian word from \**g<sup>w</sup>l-os-os*. Hilmarsson (1996: 150) saw in *klese* an abstract to the verb *käls-* “to pour, gush; press”. But he found this interpretation uncertain himself.

Regarding the tendency to metathesis *\*CVCC > CCVC* (Van Windekens 1976: 122, §381), an alternative reconstruction *\*Kolso-* is also legitimate. This hypothetical solution opens a possibility to connect *klese* with Common Slavic *\*kolsъ* “ear of corn”, Early Albanian (Buzuku) *kall*, Modern Albanian *kallë* “ear of corn, stalk” (*\*kolso-*), usually compared with Old High German & Old Saxon *hul(i)s*, Middle Low German *huls* “holly / *Ilex aquifolium*” (Pokorny 1959: 545). Another cognate can be found in Iranian *\*karša-ka-* or *\*kṛša-ka-* “barley” > Khotanese *chaska*, Modern Persian *kašk*, Munji *kosk*, Yazghulami *kusk*, *kåsk*, Sarikoli *čūšč*, Shugni *čūšj* etc. (Bailey 1979: 107 - his comparison with Greek *ἀκοστή* “barley”, usually derived from *\*ak-* “sharp, pointed” - see Pokorny 1959: 21, would imply Iranian *\*(a)s°*; Paxalina 1983: 115 proposed *\*kṛsa-ka-*, in regard to the RUKI-law better *\*kṛša-ka-*). The semantic difference between “barley” vs. “ear of corn” is fully acceptable - barley awns are the most characteristic feature of this corn. But what about the difference between “food” vs. “barley” or even “ear of corn”? Similar semantic shifts are actually attested, even in the case of Slavic *\*kolsъ*. Besides Russian dial. *kolós’ja* “sacrificial bread baked in the end of May when ears of corn ripen”, there are suggestive examples in Church Slavonic of Russian redaction (NomJas): *аще коториу епископъ ли попъ принесетъ на жьртвоу етеро что развъ нъвъ класъ* (Lv 2, 14); cf. the variant of the final passage (NomJefr) *развъ новыихъ кроупъ* and its Greek equivalent in Septuaginta *πλὴν νέων χιθρων* where nom. sg. *κροупα = χιθρον* means “Gericht von frischen Gerstenkörnern oder anderen Vegetabilien” (Valčáková & Blažek 1997: 27).

There are more examples confirming that “corn” and “food” represent the same semantic field:

- a) Greek *σίτος* means both “corn”, especially “wheat”, and “bread, food”;
- b) Russian *xleb* (< Common Slavic *\*xlěbъ* < Germanic *\*xlaifa-* “bread”) also means both “corn” and “bread”;
- c) Gothic *bairzeins* “(prepared of) barley”, Old English *bēre* “barley”, Old Icelandic *barr* “grain” vs. Old Russian *bórošno* “rye flour” and Old Church Slavonic *brašъno* “food” (Lehmann 1986: 62);
- d) Lithuanian *pūrai* “Winterweize”, Latvian *pūri* id., Prussian *pure* “Tresp”, Church Slavonic (of Russian redaction) *pyro* ‘ὄλυρα, κέγχρος’, Greek (Hom.) *πῦρός · ψωμός* “wheat” vs. Greek (Hom.) *πύρνον* “wheaten bread”, Old Indic *pūrā* “Kuche” (Schrader & Nehring II: 647; Fraenkel 1965: 671).

Note: In Tocharian A an expected counterpart would have been *\*klas* (cf. A *klañk*, B *klenke* “vehicle” < *\*klongo-*, see Hilmarsson 1996: 149). This form perfectly agrees with Old Chinese *\*klas* 稼 “grain; sow” (Bodman 1985: 153) > Middle Chinese *ka’* > Mandarin *kia* (Karlgren 1923: 124). Peiros &



Starostin (V: 62) reconstruct Old Chinese *\*krās*, comparing it with Tibetan *khra* “a species of grain”, but at least for some dialects (or periods) of Old Chinese the cluster *\*kl-* can be confirmed by the Common Daic borrowing *\*kla* “young rice plants, rice seedlings” (Bodman 1985: 153).

## §2. Tocharian B *kanti*

Tocharian B *kanti* (obl. sg.) means approximately “a kind of bread or a baked product made of flour”. It can reflect *\*K<sup>(w)</sup>(o)NToi-*. Reconstructing *\*gnt-*, Van Windekens (1976: 187) connected it with IE *\*gnet-* > Old High German *knetan* “to knead”, Old Prussian *gnode* “Trog zum Brotknete”, Lithuanian *gnėtyti* “to rub”; Old Church Slavonic *gnetŏ*, *gnesti* “to press” (Pokorny 1959: 371; Toporov 1979: 271). Hilmarsson (1996: 78) quoted no etymology, but for the verbal root *\*gnet-* he found a continuant in Tocharian B *kānt-* “to rub, rub of”, proposing the subj. V stem *\*kāntā-* derivable via *ā*-umlaut from *\*g(o)NT-(H)-* (Hilmarsson 1996: 77). The zero grade can be reflected not only in the Tocharian verb, but also in Old Swedish *knodha* < *\*knuda-* < *\*kunda-* (Rix & Kümmel, LIV 169-170).

If we start from the same semantic field as in the preceding case, it is legitimate to relate Tocharian B *kant<sup>o</sup>* with the following Anatolian forms: Hittite *kanta-* c. (acc. sg. *kantan*), Cuneiform Luwian *kant-* n. “wheat (Einkorn = *Triticum monococcum*)” (nom.-acc. pl. *kanza*), adj. *kantann(i)-* “Einkorn habend” (Starke 1995: 116, fn. 226; Puhvel 1997: 55-56 who does not distinguish Hittite & Luwian) and further with their Indo-Iranian counterparts: Avestan *gaṇtuma-* “wheat”, Zoroastrian Pahlavi & Modern Persian *gandum*, Baluchi *gandīm*, Khotanese *ganama-* (*\*gandama-*), Sogdian *γntwm*, Yaghnobi *γantum*, Wanetsi *γandəm*, Pashto *γanəm* (*\*gandūma-* ?), Shugni *žindam* id., dial. Bajui “grain” m./ “sowing” f., Sarikoli *žandam* “wheat”, Ormuri *ganum*, Yidgha *γadum*, Wakhi *γidīm*, *γudīm* id., Yazghulami *γ<sup>w</sup>ont* “cooked wheat” etc., cf. further *γάνδομα · πυροί* and *γανδόμην · λευρα* (Hesych.), apparently of Iranian origin; Old Indic *godhūma-* “wheat, *Triticum sativum*”, Kati *gūm* etc. (Bailey 1979: 79; Morgenstierne 1974: 110; Paxalina 1983: 19, 130; Mayrhofer 1956: 347-348 and 1986: 498-499). The different Indo-Aryan form was probably influenced by Dravidian counterparts, cf. Kannada *gōdi*, Tamil *kōti* “wheat”, with a following ‘volksetymologisch’ rebuilding after *gó-* / *gáv-* & *dhūmá-*.

(Indo-)Iranian *\*gantuma-* is formed by the *-ma-* suffix from *\*\*gantu-*, cf. Avestan *zaṇtuma-* “dem Gau angehörig” vs. *zaṇtu-* “Gau, Stamm” (cf. Brugmann 1906: 250). The Indo-Iranian stem *\*\*gantu-* is derivable from *\*g<sup>(w)</sup>oNtu-* (*\*N = \*n* or *\*m*), similarly with Old Indic *gántu-* m. “way, course” reflec-

ting \*g<sup>w</sup>óm-tu-, the o-grade stem of the root \*gem- “to squeeze, press” > Greek γέμω “I am full”, (Hom.) γέντο “seize”, Tocharian B *kām-* “to carry, bring, fetch” (Hilmarsson 1996: 72-73), Latvian *gūmt* “greife”, Old Church Slavonic *žьmъ, žęti* “to squeeze”, Russian *žom* “pressure”, *šzatyj* “squeeze” etc. (Mann 1984-87: 269; Rix & Kümmel, LIV 186). The semantic motivation is comparable e.g. with Common Slavic \*pъšeno > Slovenian *pšeno* “das in der Stampfe von den Hülsen befreite Getreide”, Russian *pšenó* “enthülste Hirse” etc., Old Prussian *som-pisinis* “grobes Brod” vs. Old Indic *piṣṭā-* n. “flour”, Modern Persian *pišt* id., Avestan *pišant-* “zerstossend”, Latin *pinsere* “stampfen, zerstoßen”, Church Slavonic (of Russian redaction) *pъxati* “stossen, ausschlagen”, Czech *pěchovati* “stampfen” etc. (Trautmann 1923: 221; LIV 466).

Note: The analysis presented here allows us not only to connect Tocharian B *kānt-* “to rub (off)” and the verb \*gnet-/gnt- “to knead”, but also to derive them from the primary root \*gem- “to squeeze”. From this point of view Van Windekens’ etymology is acceptable. The Tocharian, Anatolian and Indo-Iranian data were already connected by Adams & Mallory, EIEC 639.

### §3. Tocharian AB *klu*

For Tocharian A *klu* m. sg., B *klu* (gender unknown) “rice”, *kluṣṣe* “pertaining to rice” there are several etymologies. Van Windekens (1976: 222) rejected Meillet’s old comparison (from 1916) with Latin *glū* “gum, adhesive”, because it reflects \*gloi-, cf. Greek γλοιός “id., gummy”, and connected it with Old Indic *śāru-* “arrow, spear”, and further with *śārā-* “reed, arrow, spear”, *śalyá-* “point of arrow, thorn, spine”, explaining the semantic difference on the example of Greek ἄκοστή “barley” vs. Gothic *ahs* and Tocharian B *āk* “ear of corn”. Hilmarsson (1996: 152) mentioned the form A *kālweñi* of a contextless Berlin fragment which ‘..might be seen as the m. nom. pl. to an adjectival \**kālweṃ* “pertaining to rice”. This idea implies early A \**kālwǎ* (and a borrowing B < A) allowing the comparison with Germanic \**xulwō* & \**xelwō* > Old English *hulu* “Schale, Hülse”, Old High German *hel(a)wa* “Haferspreu” respectively, and Greek *κολέος* “sheath”. Still another etymological solution can be based on A *klu-* “to make clear”, cf. the semantic strategy in denotations of cereals e.g. in Semitic languages: Akkadian *burru(m)* “a kind of cereal”, Hebrew *bar*, *bār* “threshed grain or corn”, Arabic *burr*, Sabaic *br*, Mehri *barr* “wheat, corn” etc., vs. Akkadian *barru(m)* “purified, pure”, Ugaritic *brr* “to shine; be pure”, Hebrew *bārar* “to purify, select”, Aramaic *bārēr* “rendre clair”, Arabic *barra* “to shine” (Cohen 1970f: 87; Klein 1986: 82, 86).

Besides these etymologies operating with Tocharian or Indo-European data, it is legitimate to ask if a borrowing of the knowledge of rice from au-

tochthonous populations (cf. Hilmarsson 1996: 152) might not imply a borrowing of its denotation from some indigenous source. The answer may be positive. The most promising source seems to be Old Chinese \**lhū* ~ \**Łhū* ‘稻’ “growing rice, paddy” (Peiros & Starostin III: 43) > Middle Chinese ‘*d’âu* > Mandarin *tau*’ (Karlgren 1923: 90). The substitution \**lh-* > *kl-* is perhaps comparable with the analogous, although opposite, substitution *kl-* > \**l-* attested in Common Tocharian \**klānkæ* > A *klānk*, B *kleñke* “vehicle”, together with the denominative AB *klānk-* “to ride, travel by vehicle” (Hilmarsson 1996: 149, 141), which can be a source of Old Chinese \**ləŋs* 乘 “chariot”, \**ləŋ* “to mount, ride on” > Middle Chinese ‘*d’z’iəŋg*’, cf. also Burmese *hlanh* “vehicle”, Jingpo *leŋ* “vehicle, wheel” (Lubotsky 1998: 382; Peiros & Starostin III: 26; Karlgren 1923: 343). Let us mention that chariotry (together with a domesticated horse) was introduced into China ca. 1200 BCE from the West (Shaughnessy 1988: 228).

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**The Tocharian and Celtic „span“.** *Tocharian and Indo-European Studies* 8 (1999), 85-86.

Václav Blažek

§1. Tocharian B *raso* “span” reflects *\*resōnt*, cf. pl. *rsonta* and du. *rsoñc* (Thomas & Krause 1964: 231; Van Windekens 1979: 52, 238). It is transparently derived from AB *räs-* “rechen”. Van Windekens (1976: 403) derived the Tocharian verb from *\*dres-* on the basis of a comparison with Old Icelandic *tarra* (& *terra*) “ausbreiten” < *\*tarzōn* (cf. de Vries 1962: 582-583), quoting the derivatives of the root *\*der-* with semantics “span” etc., e.g. Greek *δῶρον* “palm (of the hand)”, also “measure”, Laconian *δῶρον[ε]ῖρον* “span”. Let us mention that de Vries also offered an alternative etymology based on Swedish dial. *tasa* “ausbreiten; züpfen”, excluding originality of the *-r-*.

§2. Old Irish *réise* f. “finger; span”, acc. pl. *na resi* gl. “digitos” (Vendryes 1974: R-18) is inflected as an *\*-iā-* stem (cf. Thurneysen 1946: 184-185). As far as I know, so far the following two etymologies have been presented. First Strachan (BB 19 [1893]: 104) proposed a protoform *\*reg-s-iā-*, a derivative of the verb *reg-* “tendre, diriger” (Vendryes 1974: R-13) < *\*H<sub>3</sub>reg-* “ausstrecken, gerade richten” (LIV 269-270), explaining the length by analogy with *rén* “span” < *\*(H<sub>3</sub>)reg-no-/ā* (cf. Hitt. *harganau-* “palm; sole” < *\*H<sub>3</sub>rg̃nu-*, see Puhvel 1991: 168-169). Later and elsewhere Strachan (apud Macbain 1911: 289) reconstructed *\*prendsiā*, seeking a support in Lithuanian *sprindis* “Spanne (der gespreizten Hand vom Daumen zum Mittelfinger, Längenmass von etwa 20 cm)”, Latvian *sprīdis* “Spanne, Breite der ausgespannten Hand vom Daumen bis zum Mittelfinger”, derivatives of Lithuanian *sprėndžiu, sprėsti* “(Finger) spreizen, spannen, mittels Spannens stellen, um-, an-, einspannen, eine Spanne messen” etc., Latvian *spriēst* “strecken, spannen, messen, urteilen” etc. (Fraenkel 1965: 880-881).

§3. The Tocharian and Old Irish forms are obviously similar. It is tempting to verify whether they are really related. The two reconstructions of Old Irish *réise* presented here naturally do not exhaust all the possibilities. We can also depart from *\*rens-(-sti-)-iā* with *\*rens-* extended from *\*res-* by the nasal in-

fix, plus the hypothetical suffix \*-(s)ti-, frequently forming parts of the hand (“palm”, “span”), cf. Germanic & Slavic \*p<sub>ŋ</sub>k<sup>w</sup>-sti- “fist”, Indo-Iranian \*mus-(s)ti- “fist”, \*vi-t<sub>h</sub>s-(s)ti- “span”, \*dis-(s)ti- “span”, Greek παλαιστή “Handfläche” (\*p<sub>l</sub>Hstiā), etc.

§4. The final answer can be positive: both of the protoforms \*resōnt and \*rens(s)tiā are derivable from the same root \*res- “to stretch”.

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**Toward the cardinal points in Tocharian.** *Tocharian and Indo-European Studies* 9 (2000), 29-32.

Václav Blažek

§1. Tocharian A *ṣuliñc* and B *oṣsale* designate the same cardinal point interpreted as follows: A “nördlich”, B “Norden” (Schmidt 1994: 282), A “north-east” (Adams 1994: 32, fn. 32 [sic]), B “north” (Adams 1999: 127), but A & B “west” (Winter 1988: 782, 784). Both forms are derivable from A *ṣul*, B *ṣale* “mountain” (*\*suelo-*), i.e. *ṣuliñc* < *\*suel-ṅtiō-* or *\*-ṅKiō-* \* “by the mountain” (Winter 1988: 787) and *oṣsale* < *\*H<sub>1</sub>ṅ-suelo-* “in the mountain” (Adams 1999: 127), but the etymology, though basically convincing, does not decide between “north” and “west” (Winter 1988: 787 mentions an analogous semantic development in Turkic languages where Common Turkic *\*dāg* “mountain” is continued in Orkhon Turkic *tay* and Chuvash *tāv ~ tu* meaning besides “mountain” also “north” and “west” respectively - see Sevortjan 1980: 117-118). A promising solution could be found in Chinese *xī* 西 “west” < Early Middle Chinese *sej* < Old Chinese *\*fál* (Pulleyblank 1995: 189; Baxter 1992: 463 reconstructs Old Chinese *\*sij*, but in view of the same phonogram used for Chinese *xǐ* 洒 < *sejX* < Old Chinese *\*sijʔ* “wash” corresponding to Written Tibetan *bsil* id., for which cf. Gong 1995: 67 who reconstructs Old Chinese *\*silx* “wash”, we should accept the final *\*-l* reconstructed by Pulleyblank for the word “west”). The Chinese word stands isolated within Sino-Tibetan. That is why it is legitimate to seek its origin in neighboring languages. Its source could be a predecessor of B *ṣale* “mountain” reconstructed as *\*ṣəIV* (< *\*ṣyə°* < *\*syə°* < *\*sw'ə°*) < *\*suelo-*, see Winter 1988: 786. If the preceding arguments are valid, the meaning “west” proposed by Winter is more probable than the usually accepted “north”.

§2. Tocharian A *wmānt* “west” is apparently derived from the verb attested only in B *wām-* “to disappear into, be covered up”, judging by the formulation (A 259a2) *yäṣ koṃ-pärkāntac yäṣ ṣkārā koṃ-wmānt* “he goes to the east (‘sun-rising’), he goes back to the west (‘sun-disappearing’ ?)”, cf. Sieg & Siegling & Schulze 1931: 5; Van Windekens 1976: 578; Adams 1999: 593; and (YQ 1.28b2, ed. Ji Xianlin) *säs koṃ-ñkät wmāluneyaṃ yäṣ* “the sun is going down” (cf. Pinault 1998: 363). Adams accepts Van Windekens’ reconstruc-

tion *\*duemōnt(ṃ)* based on the comparison with Greek *δύω* “s’enforcer, se plonger”, *δύσις* “coucher (des astres); occiden”. I offer an alternative solution, viz. to derive B *wām-* from the verb A *yom-*, B *yām-* “to achieve, obtain, reach” (Adams 1999: 497-498) with the prefix *\*au-* expressing the phenomenon of ‘missing’ (note that Van Windekens 1976: 591 and 603-604 recognizes A *yom-* “obtenir, atteindre”, B *yām-* 1. “id.”; 2. “entrer”, cf. the derivative *kaum-yänmälle* “sunset” [PK NS 49b3]; it was probably Pinault 1998: 363 who first proposed the connection of A *-wmānt* “west” and B *yām-* “to enter” & *kaum-yänmälle* “sunset”). The same prefix probably forms Germanic *\*westa-* “west” (Pokorny 1959: 73 and de Vries 1962: 658 directly connect it with Old Indic *avás* “herab”). Pulleyblank (1995: 189) modifies this etymology proposing the compound of the prefix *\*(a)ye-* “off” & the verb *sed-* “to sit / set”.

§3. Tocharian A *mācrim* occurs in the text A 379b4 *mācrim kom[tp]ānt kālymentwām*. Winter (1988: 781-82) proposes the translation “in the directions southeast and south”. Considering the Old Turkic documents, Pinault (1998: 364) offers a different sequence of the cardinal points, viz. “south” & “west”, assuming the emendation *\*kom-[yp]ānt* with the second component derivable from *yāp-* “to enter”, cf. B *kaum-yaptsi-tāntsi* “untill sundown” (PK NS18a3). Both interpretations are compatible with Pinault (1998: 364) deriving this cardinal term from the idea “midday”. His reconstruction *\*mācār* < *\*m<sup>h</sup>ācāræ* < *\*med<sup>h</sup>iro-* is in principle possible. However, in other IE languages where *\*med<sup>h</sup>i-* “middle” was used to express this semantic pattern, the term has been based on a compound “mid-day”: Greek *μεσημβρία* (Aeschyl.), *-iη* (Archil., Hekat.), *μεσαμβρίη* (Herodotus) < *\*med<sup>h</sup>i-ām-* and Latin *merīdiēs* < *\*med<sup>h</sup>iēi-djē*. It is natural to expect a similar compound in Tocharian. A good candidate for this role could be a ‘virtual’ zero grade *\*H<sub>2</sub>i<sup>er-</sup>* / *\*H<sub>2</sub>i<sup>r-</sup>* of the stem *\*H<sub>2</sub>e<sup>i-</sup>er*, obl. *-en-* > Avestan *aiiarə*, gen. *aiiaṇ* “day”, and the loc. in *-i* continuing in Greek *ἠρι* “early”, Gothic *air*, Old Icelandic *ār* id. etc. (Pokorny 1959: 12). After the fall of laryngeals we can expect *\*med<sup>h</sup>i<sup>er</sup> / \*med<sup>h</sup>i<sup>r</sup> > \*māT<sup>i</sup>ār<sup>o</sup> > \*mācār<sup>o</sup>*. The same etymological starting point is possible for the B counterpart *\*aen-motār* reconstructed on the basis of *omotruññaiṣṣe* “southerly, southern, of the south” (Otani 19.1a3/4), cf. *kottār* “family” vs. *kotruññe* “pertaining to family” (Hilmarsson 1991: 132; Pinault 1998: 365). Note the parallel prefixation in B *omotruññaiṣṣe* and *oṣṣale* (see §1). The etymological connection with the root *\*med<sup>h</sup>-* was proposed by Adams (1999: 118) who assumes *-o-* < *\*-ē-*. Using the example *ompalskoññe* vs. *ompolskoññe* “meditation”, Hilmarsson (1991: 133) speculates about at least sporadic assimilation to explain the root *-o-* in the similar position. Another solution was offered by



Svetlana Burlak (p.c., June 2000), who sees in the unexpected *o*'s which are here not due to Tocharian *o*-umlaut, an effect parallel to *akan'je* of East Slavic. The absence of palatalization in the B form may perhaps be explained from the accusative *\*H<sub>2</sub>ṅ-m[e]d<sup>h</sup>irm* where this effect could be neutralized, cf. B *procer* "brother" < *\*b<sup>h</sup>rātēr*, acc. sg. *protär* < *\*b<sup>h</sup>rātrm*.

Note 1: I would like to express my gratitude to Professor Georges-Jean Pinault for his valuable philological corrections and bibliographical supplements.

Note 2: The compound consisting of *\*med<sup>h</sup>i-* & *\*H<sub>2</sub>eġer* is really attested in the Pamir group of Iranian languages: Shughni, Khufi, Roshani, Bartangi, Oroshori *madōr*, Sarikoli *maḍur*, Wakhi *mādīr* "noon" < Iranian *\*madiā-aiāra-* (Morgenstierne 1974: 43) or *\*maḍ(i)-aiāra-* (Steblin-Kamenskij 1999: 237).

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**Tocharian A *muk* “yok” and A *maku*, B *mekwa pl.*”(finger)nail” - why *m-* ? *Historische Sprachforschung* 114 (2001), 191-195.**

Václav Blažek

In Tocharian there are two problematic etymons with puzzling initial *m-*:

1. Tocharian A *muk* corresponds to Sanskrit *yugá-*, cf. 360, 13: *yugaṃ vā / mu(k)*; further 361,5: *ṣi ñi muk kälkām āreñ / iṣā ca hrī mano yoktram*; 66b4: *ke ne kus ne naṣ nati muk tampe oñi* /// (Sieg & Siegling 1921: 201-02; Sieg & Siegling & Schulze 1931: 48; Poucha 1955: 229). It was already Feist (1913: 151) who connected *muk* with Indo-European *\*iugóm* “yoke”. Sapir (Language 12 [1936]: 179) modified this solution, starting from *\*iungóm*. Trying to explain the puzzling initial *m-*, Schneider (IF 58 [1941]: 40) assumed the false segmentation *\*tod iugóm* > pre-Tocharian *\*tām yukóm*. The other etymological attempts are collected in Van Windekens 1976: 306. Taking in account such the forms as Slovincian *dvjǫgø* “a yoke for two oxen” (Trubačev 1978: 189), Latin *bīgae*, *trīgae*, *quadrīgae* “Zwei- Drei-, Viergespann” (cf. Walde & Hofmann 1938: 105), Greek *όμό-ζυξ* “wedded”, *σό-ζυξ* “yoked together, united, paired, also of wedded pairs” (Chantraine 399), *δί-ζυξ*, *-ζυγος* “double-yoked”, Hittite *t/dāiuga-* “two years old”, Old Indic *sa-yúgvān* “united or associated; having a team of horses”, i.e. the compounds of numerals “1”, “2”, “3”, “4” + derivatives of *\*yug-*, it is tempting to think about an analogous compound in Tocharian, maybe consisting of the neuter forms *\*sem* “one” & *\*iugóm* > pre-Tocharian *\*šmyukæ* (the development *\*sem<sup>o</sup>* > *\*šm<sup>o</sup>* can be documented by A *šme*, B *šmāye* “summer” < *\*semH-*) > A *muk* (the cluster *sm-/šm-* is as unstable as the other Tocharian cases of ‘*s*-mobile’, cf. Van Windekens 1976: 76; the cluster *my-* is attested only in late, secondary formations in Tocharian, cf. Hilmarsson 1986: 82-83).

2. The initial *m-* in Tocharian pl. A *maku*, B *mekwa* “fingernails, claws” represents a similar problem. The word has usually been derived from *\*(H<sub>3</sub>)nog<sup>h</sup>wo-* including the most recent handbooks (Van Windekens 1976: 277 and Hilmarsson 1986: 174; Ringe 1996: 154 reconstructs *\*x<sup>w</sup>nog<sup>h</sup>-*; similarly Adams 1999: 467 *\*h<sub>3</sub>nog<sup>wh</sup>-*) without any convincing attempt to explain the initial *m-* instead of the expected *\*n-*. The ‘labial assimilation’ *\*n...w* > *\*m...w* assumed by Van Windekens 1976: 120 and Adams 1999: 459 is based on the only example, viz.

A *nätsw-* vs. B *mätsts-* “to starve” < *\*n-H<sub>1</sub>d<sup>s</sup>-tw-ye/o-*; but in contrary to the Common Tocharian “fingernail” the change *\*n > m* concerns only the language B. Perhaps an influence of AB *mā* “not, no, un-” can represent an easier solution. The puzzling *m-* can be again explained as a compound of *\*sem-/ \*sm̥-* “one” & *\*(H<sub>3</sub>)nog<sup>h</sup>-u-o-*, maybe according to the following scenarios differing in preservation (i) or loss (ii) of the initial laryngeal in Tocharian: (i) *\*sm̥-H<sub>3</sub>noġ<sup>h</sup>-u-o-* > Common Tocharian *\*[sä]mānækwaē* > *\*mānækwaē* > *\*mækwaē* > A *maku*, B *\*mekwe* (cf. A *saku* vs. B *sekwe* “pus” < *\*sok<sup>w</sup>o-*). The assumed haplology has an analogy e.g. in B acc. sg. *manarkai* “bank, shore”, if it is derivable from *\*mana-mark<sup>o</sup>* < *\*menā-mr̥ġ<sup>o</sup>* (Van Windekens 1976: 279; rejected by Adams 1999: 438-439). The loss of the first syllable is not clear. Could it be identified with the synchronic numeral “1” meaning also “together” (A *ša-*, B *še*) or the demonstrative (A *sa-*, B *se(n)* “this”) ? (ii) *\*sem-* & *\*nog<sup>h</sup>-u-o-* > Common Tocharian *\*šämnaekwaē* > *\*šänmækwaē* (but metathesis *\*-mn-* > *-nm-* is regular only for the language B) reinterpreted as “own fingernail”, cf. A *šñi*, B *šanñ* “own”. The proposed compound should be older than the really attested compounds originated thanks to the inner Tocharian development, e.g. A *šoma-pācār* “having one [and the same] father” < *\*sēmo-* with *o*-umlaut. A witness of the inherited, i.e. archaic, character of the assumed formation can be found in the analogous compounds consisting of *\*sem-/ \*sm̥-* & *\*H<sub>3</sub>noġ<sup>h</sup>-u-/ \*H<sub>3</sub>ong<sup>h</sup>-u-*:

a) Greek *μόνυξ* “with single (i.e. uncloven) hoof” was studied by Beekes (1971). He analyzed previous etymologies based on compounds *\*μνο(ν)ο-* & *ὄνυξ* and *\*σμο-ωνυξ*, rejected them, and presented convincing arguments for own solution *\*sm̥-H<sub>3</sub>noġ<sup>h</sup>-u-*. The root vowel *u* has origin in dissimilation *o..o* > *o..u* (Beekes 1969: 47).

b) Hittite *sanku(wa)i-* “fingernail” has been derived from IE *\*H<sub>3</sub>ong<sup>h</sup>-u-* plus *s*-mobile (cf. Eichner 1985: 165 reconstructing *\*[s-]H<sub>3</sub>ong<sup>h</sup>u<sup>o</sup>*). Beekes (1969: 47) correctly objects that one would expect *\*ishanku<sup>o</sup>*. The idea of assibilation of the expected laryngeal (so Josephson 1979: 100-101) appears to be quite unconvincing. Beekes’ etymology of the Greek word can represent an inspiration for this etymons too, namely the compound consisting of *\*sm̥-* “one”, originally perhaps in the function “together”, plus *\*H<sub>3</sub>ong<sup>h</sup>-/\*H<sub>3</sub>noġ<sup>h</sup>-* “fingernail, claw”: *\*sm̥-H<sub>3</sub>noġ<sup>h</sup>-u-* > *\*sananku<sup>o</sup>* (accepting the loss of all laryngeals before *\*o* in Anatolian - see Beekes 1988: 80-81) > Hittite *sanku<sup>o</sup>* (via haplology).

c) For Armenian *elowngn* “fingernail, claw, nail, hook” there are more alternative etymologies: (i) Meillet (1936: 47, 163) derived it via dissimilation plus ‘prothetic’ vowel from *\*e-nungn* and further from *\*onog<sup>h</sup>-* etc. (ii) Ačāryan (II:

711f) connected it with Germanic *\*nagla-* “nail” via metathesis (cf. Džaukjan 1967: 236, fn. 48, admitting metathesis from *\*ong<sup>h</sup>-l-*). (iii) Osthoff (1901: 278f) proposed a compound consisting of *\*el-* “horn” (cf. *eļjiwr* “horn” and the IE denotation of “deer”) & *-owng-* corresponding with Greek *’όvυζ, -vχοζ* “fingernail, claw” etc. (Pokorny 1959: 780). In agreement with the preceding etymologies it seems to be purposive to start from *\*sem-H<sub>3</sub>ong<sup>h</sup>-* > *\*(h)enong-* + *-n* (cf. other Armenian body part terms, e.g. *ot-n* “foot”, *ak-n* “eye” etc. - see Beekes 1969: 47) > *\*enungn* > Armenian *ełowngn* (via dissimilation *\*n...n* > *l...n*, probably preceding the change *\*ěN* > *iN* - cf. Meillet 1936: 41).

d) There is also a hypothetical possibility to identify the same compound in Slavic, namely in the hydronyms *Minoga* / *Minóžka* (the right tributary of Dłubnia emptying into Wisła near Kraków; first attested by Długosz in 1470-80; the toponym already in 1257); *Mnoha* (East Ukraina); *Mnoga* (the tributary of Velikaja emptying into Peipus Lake; attested already in the Old Russian sources: *na Mnogi rěki, vo Mnogu rěku* etc.) - see Udolph 1990: 160-162 who derives these river names from the ‘Old European’ hydronym root *\*mein-/ \*moin-*. But the forms in *-oga* collected by Udolph are only from the territory of the Slavic languages, with one exception, the Lithuanian lake *Minaga* which is apparently named after the fish *minagà, minãgas* “tokia žuvis, niegė, upinė septįntaškė” (Vanagas 1981: 216), probably borrowed from Russian *minóga* or Polish *minóg*, cf. also Czech *minoha* - all borrowed from German *Neunauge* “the fish Petromyzon”, Middle High German *niunouge* or Middle Low German *negenôge* (Vasmer II: 624; Machek 1971: 363-364). If the Slavic origin of the studied hydronym is possible, we can derive it from *\*(s)mĩ-nog<sup>h</sup>ã* “one-legged”. The use of the Slavic word *\*noga* “foot, leg” in hydronymy is well documented, beginning from Joan Exarch (Bulgaria; 9th-10th cent.): *...a ṣstavy vodnye rekše pazuxy i nogy.* (cf. Udolph 1979: 420), till the present time (Russian from Altai *otnoga* “ramification of the river” - see Murzaev 1974: 128).

The idea of the compounds consisting of *\*sem-/ \*sm-* offers a nonviolent solution of both the troublesome etymons.

Note: Recently Klaus T. Schmidt (2009[10]: 188-189) tries to support the ‘labial assimilation’ *\*n...w* > *\*m...w*, adding the example in Tocharian B *maiwe* “young” < *\*núwjo-*, besides A *ñu*, B *ñuwe* “new” < *\*néwo-*. His solution excludes the traditional comparison with Old Icelandic *mjór, mjár, mér* “thin, narrow” < Germanic *\*maiwa-/ \*maiwi-* (Pokorny 1959: 711). For Schmidt the

semantic difference is also too big. But it is possible to identify a good external cognate of Tocharian *maiwe* supporting the primary initial *m-*, namely the Attic comparative *μείων* “minor, lesser”, Mycenaean *me-wi-jo* /*mew(i)jōs*/ (Bartoněk 2003: 269). Pre-Tocharian *\*móuio-* “young” (with the metathesis *\*-uī- > \*-iū-* proposed as regular in Tocharian by Schmidt) and pre-Greek *\*mewjōs* “lesser” are undoubtedly compatible. Concerning semantics, e.g. Latin *minor* meant both “lesser” and “younger”.

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**Tocharian AB *kät-* “to scatter”, its derivatives and relatives.** *Indogermanische Forschungen* 106 (2001), 81-83.

Václav Blažek

Tocharian AB *kät-* “to scatter, spread”, is well attested in both languages:

A: pres. VI (3 sg.) *knāṣ-äm*, (3 pl. med.) *knānträ*, pret. I (3 pl.) *katar*, (ptc. absol.) *ktoräṣ*;

B: pres. VI (1 sg.) *katnau* (verse), (3 sg.) *katnaṃ* (verse), and pres. VII (3 pl.), *kāmtaṃ*, subj. V (3 sg.) *kātaṃ*, (opt. 3 sg. med.) *katoytär*, pret. Ia (2 sg.) *štasta*, (3 pl.) *štare*, (3 pl. med.) *ktānte*, (ptc.) *ktau*, *ktowä* (Poucha 1955: 65; Krause & Thomas: 1960: 203, 240; quoted after Hilmarsson 1996: 108-109).

Hilmarsson (1996: 109) reconstructed the Common Tocharian pres. stem VI *\*kātñā-* (*\*KTñā-*) vs. pres. stem VII *\*kántā-* (*\*KñTā-*), further the subj. stem V *\*kætā-* / *\*kātā-* (*\*KoTā-* / *\*KTā-*), and the pret. stem I *\*śātā-* / *\*kātā-* (*\*KeTā-* / *\*KTā-*). There are also interesting derivatives, viz. B *säktäl̥ye* “seed”, *ktakät* “finger gesture, spreading of the fingers” (Hilmarsson 1996: 186), maybe also *käsk-* “to scatter, disperse, split apart” if it represents the *śk-* extension of *kät-* and not of *\*g<sup>uh</sup>en-* (Van Windekens 1976: 210, cf. Hilmarsson 1996: 104-105; contra LIV: 218-219).

So far the following two etymological attempts were presented:

(1) A comparison with Greek *πάσσω*, Attic *πάττω* “I sprinkle” (Pedersen 1941: 185; Poucha 1955: 65);

(2) A comparison with Greek *(σ)κίδναμαι* “I am scattered, spread”, *σκεδάννυμι* “I scatter, disperse” (Van Windekens in *Orbis* 12 [1963]: 464 and 1976: 211; Hilmarsson 1996: 109; LIV: 550).

Let us analyze both the solutions.

Ad (1): Rix & Lipp (LIV: 563-564) propose *\*kuH<sub>1</sub>t-īō* → *\*k<sub>u</sub>at-īō* (> *πάσσω*) after the root aorist *\*kuēt-īō* with a secondary ablaut *ē*: a comparable with *αερρηζα* (*\*urēg-*) vs. *ἐρράγην* (*\*urag-*), and connect it with Latin *quatiō-*, *-cutiō*, *-ere* “schütteln”, Old High German *scutten* “schütten; schütteln” etc., reconstructing *\*(s)k<sub>ue</sub>H<sub>1</sub>t-*. One would expect a hypothetical Tocharian counterpart depending on the root vocalism: (i) *\*k<sub>ue</sub>H<sub>1</sub>t-* > A *+kat-* / B *+ket-* (cf. Van Windekens 1976: 25); (ii) *\*kuH<sub>1</sub>t-* > A *+kut-* / B *+kwät-* (cf. Van Windekens 1976: 28); (iii) AB *+kät-* (corresponding to Greek *πάσσω*).



Ad (2): Rix & Lipp (LIV: 550) compare the Greek & Tocharian data with Avestan *sciṇdaiiēiti* “zerbricht, zerstört”, Albanian *çan* “spaltet, zerreißt, pflügt”, Lithuanian *kedėnti* “to pluck, crash” etc., reconstructing the pres.  $*(s)k_e d-né/\eta-H_2-$  vs. aor.  $*(s)kédH_2-$  /  $*(s)k_e dH_2-$ .

The loss of *-t-* before *-n-* in Tocharian A need not represent a witness for the derivation *-t-* <  $*-d-$  missing regularly before *-n-* (and *-m-*, *-r-*, *-l-*, *-i-*, *-u-*, see Van Windekens 1976: 81-83). The loss of the auslaut root consonants (not only *-t-* <  $*-d-$ ) before the nasal suffix characterizing the present stem VI is frequent in Tocharian A (Krause & Thomas 1960: 203), cf. A *kārna-* from *kārp-* “to descend, step down”, *kārnā-* from *kārk-* “to steal, take away”, etc. On the other hand, the Tocharian B present stem VI *katna-* preserves *-t-* and so excludes its derivation from  $*-d-$ . The reconstruction  $*(s)kedH_2-$  – etc. indicates the final laryngeal as an integral part of the root. But there is a more natural explanation of the stem auslaut in  $*(n)\bar{a}-$  directly in Tocharian, namely the productive present markers of the V and VI classes in  $*-\bar{a}-$  ( $*-eH_2-$ ) and  $*n\bar{a}$  ( $*-neH_2-$ ) respectively (Krause & Thomas 1960: 202-205).

These thoughts allow us to reconstruct a root  $*KeT-$  /  $*KoT-$  /  $*KT-$  where *K* and *T* represent any velar or dental stops respectively, with exception of  $T = *d$ . With regard to problems of the etymologies (1) & (2) it is legitimate to seek still another solution. A convenient candidate for a cognate can be seen in Lithuanian *kėsti*, pres. *kečiù*, pret. *kečiaũ* ( $*k^{(u)}et-i\bar{o}$ ) “ausbreiten, ausspannen, entfalten, öffnen”, intens. *ketóti rankàs, rañkomis* “die Hände ausbreiten, mit den Händen fuchtneln” (Fraenkel 1962: 246-247). If the Lithuanian verbs are compatible with their Tocharian counterparts, we can conclude:  $K = *k$  or  $*k^u$  and  $T = *t$ . Especially regarding the Tocharian B derivative (an expressive reduplication?) *ktakät* “finger gesture, spreading of the fingers”, the Tocharian data represent a suggestive support to the etymology of the Indo-European numeral  $*k^u etu\check{or}$  “4” =  $*\text{“span”}$  <  $\text{“stretched [fingers]”}$ , based on the Lithuanian verbs *kėsti* and *ketóti* proposed by V. N. Toporov (1983: 130, fn. 79) and independently by W. Schmidt (1989: 24).

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**Slavic - Tocharian Isoglosses IV. Tocharian and Indo-European Studies 10 (2003), 11-13.**

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This article continues a series of articles devoted to the Slavic - Tocharian isoglosses (see *TIES* 5[1991], 123-133; *Linguistica Baltica* 4[1995], 233-238).

7. Sl. \**къту*, gen. \**къмене* “stem, trunk, branch” ~ Toch. A *kom*, B *kaume* “(fresh) shoot”.

Old & Modern Czech *kmen* m. “stem, trunk; tribe, generation” and Lower Sorbian *kmjeń* m. “Zweig, Spross; Stamm, Reis, Stock” reflect proto-Slavic \**къту*, gen. \**къмене* (Schuster-Šewc 1981-1984: 565; ĚSSJ 13[1987]: 196: \**къмень*) which is derivable from \**kumōn*, gen. \**kumenes*. With long root vowel and a different suffixal extension there is Ukrainian *kymák* “block of wood”, in dialects also “beam, log, branch, bee-hive” (ĚSSJ l.c.).

Tocharian A *kom*, B *kaume* “(fresh) shoot” has been derived from \**koudmo-*, which should have been formed from \*(s)*keud-* “to shoot, throw” (Van Windekens 1976: 229; Adams 1999: 212). But the derivation from \**koumo-* is more natural and simple. And just this starting point is easily compatible with pre-Slavic \**kumōn* / \**kumen-*.

Both the Slavic and Tocharian forms are derivable from the verbal base attested in Greek *κέω* “I bear in the womb, have conceived, be pregnant with a child”, cf. *κόημα* “embryo, foetus”, *κῶμα,-ατος* “foetus in the womb, embryo; young sprout of plants”, *ἀκόμων* “without fruit, barren”, and further Latin *in-ciēns* “trächtig” etc. (Frisk II: 42, 47). These thoughts rehabilitate the old idea of Machek who compared Greek *κῶμα* and Slavic \**къмен-* (Machek 1968: 261 [first 1957]; he added Lith. *kamėnas* “stem, trunk”, explaining the different root vowel by analogy with *kamuolys* “tuft, bunch”). The Greek verb has been derived from \**kuH<sub>1</sub>-éje/o-*, where the palatal velar should have been confirmed by the Indo-Iranian parallels as Vedic *śváyati* “schwillt an, nimmt zu”, Khotanese *ha-svīmdä* “schwillt” (LIV 339-340; the other parallels are collected in Pokorny 1959: 592-594). Slavic \**k* vs. Indo-Iranian \**ś* needs an explanation. If we do not want to speculate about the ‘centum’ elements in

Slavic, there is a suggestive analogy in Slavic *\*kamy*, gen. *\*kamene* “stone”, Lithuanian *akmuõ*, gen. *-eĩs* id. vs. Old Indic *ásman-* “stone; heaven”, Avestan *asman-* id., where the same anomaly occurs in similar circumstances.

8. Sl. *\*skoro-vornъ* “lark” ~ Gmc. *\*skēr(i)-* “sea-gull” ~ Toch. B *skren* “sp. of bird”.

The reconstruction *\*skoro-vornъ(kъ)* seems to be the most probable starting point for the Slavic designation of “lark”, attested in numerous variants: Bulgarian *skovrán* & *skolovránec* “Amsel”, *skovránec* “Star”, Macedonian *skolovranec* “Star”, Slovenian *škrjanek* “Lerche”, Slovak *škovran* id., Czech *skřivan* id., Upper Sorbian *škowronc*, Lower Sorbian *škobronk*, arch. also *schkowrionk* id., Polish *skowronek*, Kashubian *skoewronk*, Slovincian *skovárnek*, Ukrainian *škávoronok*, Russian *skovóronok*, besides *ščevrónok* etc. “Lerche / Alauda” (Vasmer III: 644; Schuster-Šewc 1985-1988: 1446-1447).

The corresponding Germanic bird-name differs in the root vocalism: Old Icelandic *skári* “junge Möwe”, Middle Low German *holt-schere* “jay”, Modern Low German *scherke* “kleine Möwe”, cf. also Old English *secge-scēre* “cicada, locust”, Old High German *hewi-screcko* “Heuschreck”, in semantics matching Lithuanian *skērỹs*, *skērēlis* id. (Pokorny 1959: 934).

The Tocharian B ornithonym *skren* “dove”(?) is attested in such forms as gen. sg. *skrenantse paruwa* “the feathers of a dove”, and adj. *skrenše paiyye* “a dove’s foot” (Adams 1999: 708), which do not allow to apply the internal reconstruction to project them in the proto-language level. An old compound of the Slavic type cannot be excluded.

All the studied bird- & insect-names are derivable from the verbal base *\*sker-* “to be in a fast motion”, cf. Greek *σκαίρω* “springe, hüpfе, tanze”; Breton *skara* “to run”, Old High German *scerōn* “mutwillig sein”, Middle High German *scher(e)n* “eilen”, Middle Low German *scheren* “laufen, eilen; spotten, höhnen”; Old Church Slavonic *skorъ* “schnell” etc. (Pokorny 1959: 934; Mann 1984-87: 1162; LIV: 556).

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**A Tocharian key to the etymology of the bird-name *\*sṛġós-* “stork“.**  
*Tocharian and Indo-European Studies 10 (2003), 15-16.*

Václav Blažek

Kaczor & Witczak (1991: 151-53) proposed a suggestive etymon for the Indo-European designation of “stork”, connecting its Germanic name *\*sturka-* id. (Old Icelandic *storkr*, Old English *storc*, Old High German *storaĥ*; let us add the unrecorded Bible-Gothic *\*staurks* which could have been sought in the borrowing into Slavic where Old Church Slavonic [Codex Suprasliensis 6.1] *strъkbъ*, Old Russian [12th cent.] *storkъ* “stork” reflect proto-Slavic *\*stŭrkŭ* - cf. Kiparsky 1934: 161-162), the Greek counterpart *πελαργός* and Old Indic m. *sṛjayá-* m. (*Kāṭhaka*), f. *sṛjayā-* (*Taittirīya-Samhitā*) “a wading bird”. For this undoubtedly tempting etymology they had to solve several problems: (i) A proof of the regular development of the initial cluster *\*sṛC-* > pre-Germanic *\*strC-* > Germanic *\*sturC-*. The detailed discussion was presented by Witczak 1991: 106-107. (ii) A convincing analysis of Greek *πελαργός*. Here the authors identify *\*ἀργός* “stork” < *\*sṛġós*, while the first member of the compound should have been derived via dissimilation from *πέρα* “darüber hinaus, weiter, länger, mehr, jenseits” (after Van Windekens). But the authors themselves felt that from the point of view of semantics this solution is not quite convincing. A deeper semantic motivation of this etymon is solvable with a help of Tocharian B *sark* “back”, A *sārši* “backbone” (Adams 1999: 676-677) < *\*srk<sup>o</sup>*. With respect to the typical black color of back parts of *Ciconia alba*, otherwise white, it is quite legitimate to derive *πελαργός* from *\*πελαρός* “schwärzlich” (cf. *πελιός* “dunkelfarben, fahl” etc., Lithuanian *paĩvas* “falb”; see Kretschmer, Glotta 3[1911]: 294f, who interpreted the compound as “black-white”; similarly already Etymologicum Magnum 659, 7), plus *\*ἀργός* “back”, hence “that with a black back”. There are formally corresponding compounds describing various birds in Old Indic: 1) *kāla-kaṇṭha-* “peacock; gallinule; wagtail; sparrow”, lit. “black-necked”; 2) *kr̥ṣṇá-gala-* “a kind of bird”, lit. “black-throated”; 3) *śyāmá-kaṇṭha-* “peacock; a kind of small bird”, lit. “black-throated”; 4) *nīla-kaṇṭha-* “peacock; a species of gallinule or water-hen; wagtail; sparrow;

blue-necked jay; *Ardea Sibirica*”, lit. “blue-necked” (Monier-Williams 1899: 277, 307, 1094, 566). This explanation implies an elliptic omission of the first member expressing a color in the hypothetical compound in Germanic and Old Indic.

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**Tocharian A** *k<sub>u</sub>li*, **B** *klyiye* “woman” < \**ĝ/gleH<sub>2</sub>ui-H<sub>1</sub>en*-? *Historische Sprachforschung* 118 (2005), 92-100.

Václav Blažek

1. The common Tocharian word for “woman” is well attested in both A and B languages:

A - Sg.: Nom. *k<sub>u</sub>li* (8x), *k<sub>u</sub>lyi* (3x), Acc. *k<sub>u</sub>le*, Gen. *k<sub>u</sub>leyis*, Pl.: Nom. *k<sub>u</sub>lewāñ*, Acc. *k<sub>u</sub>lewās*, Gen. *k<sub>u</sub>lewāśśi*; adj. *k<sub>u</sub>leñci* (Poucha 1955: 80; Thomas 1964: 95-96; Hilmarsson 1996: 158);

B - Sg.: Nom. *klyiye* (10x), *klyīye* (1x), *klīye* (3x), *kliye* (1x), Acc. *klai* (4x, including mistaken *klaiṃ*), *klaiñ* (2x), Gen. *klaiñantse*, Pl.: Nom.-Acc. *klaina*, Gen. *klainamts*; adj. *klaiññe* (Thomas 1964: 190; Hilmarsson 1996: 157; Adams 1999: 224).

2.1. The first etymological attempt was probably proposed by Pedersen (1925: 26) who sought the relatives in Irish *caile* “country woman, maid, serving girl” and Breton *pl-ac’h* “girl” (cf. Pedersen 1913: 64), although the Breton word is probably borrowed from Latin *pellex* “concubine” (Henry 1900: 224). His solution was accepted by Van Windekens (1976: 241; 1979: 27: Nom. \**k<sup>u</sup>lijē* vs. Obl. \**k<sup>u</sup>loi<sup>o</sup>*) and Delamarre (1984: 50 \**k<sup>u</sup>ali-*). Hilmarsson (1996: 159) offers an alternative protoform of the Tocharian words, viz. \**k<sup>u</sup>!H<sub>2</sub>-ōn* which is in principle compatible with Irish *caile*, derivable from Celtic \**k<sup>u</sup>aliġā* like *caire* “fault, crime” from \**kariġā* (Thurneysen 1946: 61) and further from IE \**k<sup>u</sup>!H-ijā* (\*“Herumgehende” after de Bernardo Stempel 1999: 208, fn. 51; her starting-point \**k<sup>u</sup>!H<sub>2</sub><sup>o</sup>* would probably give \**klā<sup>o</sup>* in Irish - that is why *ijā* implying the sequence \**C!HV* > Irish \**CalV* (cf. Beekes 1990: 181).

2.2. Poucha (1955: 80) derived it from IE \**g<sup>u</sup>elH-* “to spring” (Pokorny 1959: 471), unfortunately without any comment explaining this surprising semantic development.

2.3. K.T. Schmidt (1980: 409-410) presented a radically new etymology, deriving the Tocharian word for “woman” from the zero-grade form \**g<sup>u</sup>nai-* or its Siever’s variant \**g<sup>u</sup>ṇnai-*, corresponding to Greek Gen. Sg. *γυναῖκος* and Armenian Nom. Pl. *kanay-k’*. In spite of the assumption of dissimilation \**k<sub>u</sub>naiN-* > \**k<sub>u</sub>laiN-*, which remains without analogy in Tocharian,



Schmidt's etymology has become very popular, being accepted by Kortlandt (1988: 77-79), Hilmarsson (1996: 157-159), Huld (EIEC [1997]: 648) and Adams (1999: 224-225). Let us repeat their arguments:

2.3.1. Kortlandt proposes the following development:

stage I	stage II	stage III	stage IV = B
*g <sup>u</sup> ŋH <sub>2</sub> -H <sub>1</sub> ēn	*k <sup>u</sup> lH <sub>1</sub> ēn	*k <sup>u</sup> lye	klyiye
*g <sup>u</sup> ŋH <sub>2</sub> -H <sub>1</sub> n-	*k <sup>u</sup> lH <sub>1</sub> n-	*k <sup>u</sup> lan-	klain-

Like Hilmarsson (1986: 231-236) he stresses the palatalizing effect of the ending *-iye* in Tocharian B, operating in the Class VI.1, but not when the word is transferred to a foreign flexional category (Class VI.2).

2.3.2. Hilmarsson starts from the protoform \*g<sup>u</sup>ŋH<sub>2</sub>-ōn which should be dissimilated in Common Tocharian \*kwālo, replaced by \*kwāliyə, directly continuing in A k<sub>u</sub>li, while B klyiye has generalized the *k-* of the oblique cases. He judges that the unpalatalized nominatives A k<sub>u</sub>li and B klyiye are primary. In agreement with Krause & Thomas (1960: 135, §191), Hilmarsson includes the B word into the class II.1 (because of the B Nom. Pl. in *-na* like e.g. B *śnona* "wife") and the A form into the class VI.3., but the oblique stem in B *-ai(-)* indicates the class VI.2. Hilmarsson (1986: 218) thinks that the shift from VI.2 to II.1 could be caused by semantics: "Class II.1 nouns with Obl. Sg. *-ai* denote female beings exclusively, whereas in Class VI.2 *klyiye* / *kliye* would have been the only word of such semantic content. Therefore, one might assume that it was transferred and received the plural form *klaina* instead of \**klaiñ*".

2.3.3. Adams reconstructs the starting-point \*g<sup>u</sup>neH<sub>a</sub>-H<sub>1</sub>ēn for the Nom. Sg. and \*g<sup>u</sup>neH<sub>a</sub>-H<sub>1</sub>en-ŋ for the Acc. Sg., which should have given proto-Tocharian \*kwlāiē(n) and \*kwlāiä respectively, and finally Nom. Sg. \*kwloyo > \*kwlaye under the influence of the Acc. Sg. \*kwlai. The transformation of the final \**oaye* into B *oīye* has to be a regular change (Adams 1988b: 26). In the deviant plurals, A k<sub>u</sub>lewāñ and B *klaina*, Adams sees the analogical development after A *sewāñ* "sons" and B *aśiyana* "nuns" respectively.

3.1. The weakest point of these certainly elegant hypotheses consists in assumption of the dissimilative change \*Cn...n > Cl...n. The only attempt to operate with dissimilation in the development of the sequence \*Cn...n is the etymology of Tocharian A *kronkše*, B *kron(k)še* "bee" proposed by Hilmarsson (1986: 35-37; 1996: 181-82). To connect the Tocharian "bee" with Germanic \**huna(n)ga-* "honey", he speculated about the dissimilation \*Cn...n > Cr...n

in Tocharian. Without analogous examples his hypothesis remains highly speculative and the traditional etymology connecting *kronkše* with Latin *crābrō*, Old English *hyrnet* “hornet”, Lithuanian *širšuō* “wasp”, *širšuonas* “hornet”, Russian-Church Slavonic *srъšeny* id. (Schrader & Nehring 1929: 654) seems to be the best solution.

3.2. Let us return to the Tocharian continuants of IE \**g<sup>u</sup>enā*. They are recognized in A *śām*, B *śana* “woman, wife”, where B Nom. Pl. *śnona* also reflects the synchronical sequence *Cn...n*. Yes, against this example there are at least two objections: (i) The initial cluster *Cn-* must be derived from \**Cen<sup>o</sup>*, here concretely from \**g<sup>u</sup>en<sup>o</sup>*, to cause the effect of palatalization. (ii) The B Pl. *śnona* probably represents a relatively late formation, consisting of the Acc. Sg. \**śanō(n)*, plus the plural morpheme \**-nā*, originally abstracted from neuter *n*-stems (Adams 1988: 114-115). But in derivatives e.g. of A *knā-* “to know”, where the initial cluster \**Cn-* (\**ġn-*) is undubitable, there occur even more than two nasals: 2 Sg. Pres. *knānant*, Pres. Part. Med. *knānmām*, and *knānmune* “knowledge” (Thomas 1964: 98).

4. It seems that none from the preceding etymologies is satisfactory. Seeking another solution, it is necessary to take into account that the meaning “woman” belongs to the core lexicon. It means to seek the most probable ancestor of the Tocharian word for “woman” among the core kinship terms. The most promising candidate for this role could be the designation of “husband’s [unmarried] sister” (the semantic reconstruction is discussed by Hermann 1918: 222-223), traditionally reconstructed as \**ġ<sub>e</sub>lōu-s* (Pokorny 1959: 367-368). In reality there are two stem variants: terminated in (a) *-u<sup>o</sup>* and (b) in *-i<sup>o</sup>*:

4a.1. Phrygian *γελαρως* · *ἀδελφοῦ γυνή* · *Φρυγιστί* (Hesych.), if the conjecture \**γελαρως* (Hermann 1918: 222; he quotes a parallel substitution in other Hesychius’ glosses: *δεδροικώς* [δεδφοικώς] · <δε>δοικώς and *τρέ* [τρέ] · *σε* · *Κρητες*) is correct, can be projected in \**ġelH<sub>a</sub>(e)uo-* (Beekes 1976: 15).

4a.2. Greek Attic *γάλως* “sister of husband” is usually derived from \**γάλωφος* (Pokorny, l.c.). Eichner-Kühn (1976: 30 following K. Hoffmann) and independently Beekes (1976: 13-14) have demonstrated that the starting-point must be \**γάλαφος* (cf. the interpretamentum *γαλάος* of Hesychius’ gloss *γάλις*), similarly Homeric Dat. Sg. *γαλόφ* < \**γαλάφωι*, Nom. Pl. *γαλόφ* < \**γάλαφοι*, Gen. Pl. *γαλόων* < \**γαλάφων* (Cowgill apud Anttila 1969: 83; Eichner-Kühn 1976: 35, fn. 31). The primary starting-point is apparently \**ġ<sub>l</sub>H<sub>2</sub>uo-* (Anttila 1969: 83 thinks about an assimilation \**gelawo-* > \**galawo-* in Greek).

4a.3. Latin *glōs*, Gen. Sg. *glōris*, is defined almost only by lexicographers as “husband’s sister” (*uiri soror*, a Graeco *γαλόως* by Paulus ex Fest.

87, 16, 2nd cent. A.D.; ἡ τοῦ ἀνδρὸς ἀδελφή, γάλως in *Corpus Glossariorum Latinorum* II 34, 29; *Andromachae glos* = *Polyxena*, the sister of Hector, quoted by Ausonius in his *Technopaegnion*, 4rd cent. A.D.), or “wife of brother” (cf. the gloss “ἀδελφή γαμετὴ ὡς Πλαῦτος” which must belong to *glōs* and not to *glumea*, how it is attested in *Corpus*, l.c., besides *glos appellatur mariti soror atque item fratris uxor* by Nonius Marcellus, 4rd cent. A.D.). The word has been derived from *\*glō[μ]s* (Kretschmer 1892: 453: like *bōs* from *\*bōus*; Pokorny 1959: 368). The protoform *\*gl̥H₂ōus* proposed by Schrijver (1991: 122) is rather problematic. The author himself admits that according to rules mapped in his monograph the expected Latin continuant would be *\*galōs*. He speculates about an alternative starting point of the type *\*gl̥eH₂<sup>o</sup>*. Sihler (1967: 203; followed by Anttila 1969: 83-84 and Szemerényi 1977: 89) would solve this discrepancy by the syncope *\*galōs* > *glōs*. But for Szemerényi (l.c.) Sihler’s pre-Latin *\*galōs* is a borrowing from Greek. Another possibility is offered by Eichner-Kühn (1976: 36, fn. 37) who reconstructs the following development: Nom. Sg. *\*gl̥H₂μós* > *\*glāvōs* > *\*glās*, besides Gen. Pl. *\*glāvōrum* > *glōrum*, stimulating the change *\*glās* > *glōs*, and finally leading to the application of the declension type *flōs* : *flōris* (cf. Kretschmer 1892: 333, 453).

4a.4. In Slavic, the etymon is attested in Church Slavonic *zъlva*, Bulgarian *zǎlva*, Serbo-Croatian *z’àova*, Slovenian *zólva*, Old Czech *zel-va*, Polish *zêłw*, *zotwica* & *zêłw* & *zotwica*, Russian *zolóvka*, dial. *zólva*, Ukrainian *zolvýca*, “husband’s sister”. Their common starting-point has been reconstructed as *\*zъly*, gen. *\*zъlvе* < *\*gl̥H₂ū-* (not *\*gl̥ǵ₂μ<sup>o</sup>*, giving hypothetical Serbo-Croatian *\*z’ùva*, Old Czech *\*zluva*; cf. Eichner-Kühn 1976: 35, fn. 33), with *ū* usually interpreted as the influence of *\*svekry* “mother-in-law” < *\*suekrū-*). The Polish forms could indicate the vacillation *\*ǵ-* / *\*g-* (Jokl). Let us mention that the historically attested Slavic forms were extended by the most frequent feminine marker *\*-ā*.

4b.1. Old Indic *giri-* in Gr̥hiya Sūtra [Mantra] has to correspond to *yātr̥-* “husband’s brother’s wife” in the parallel passage from Paippalāda-saṁhitā of the Atharvaveda (XIX 19, 11). It is derivable from *\*gl̥Hi-* (Eichner-Kühn 1976: 29; accepted by Szemerényi 1977: 90; Mayrhofer 1986: 487). But Griffiths & Lubotsky (2009: 118-120) convincingly demonstrate that the word *giri-* is in reality “mountain”. This solution simplifies situation with reconstruction of initial: only *\*ǵ-*.

4b.2. Armenian *tal*, Gen. Pl. *-ic* “husband’s sister”, instead of the expected form *\*cal* (probably under the influence of *t-* of the male correspondent *taygr* “husband’s brother”) also reflects the *i*-stem *\*gl̥Hi-* (Eichner-Kühn 1976: 29; Szemerényi 1977: 90; Pedersen 1905: 347 derived Armenian *tal* from the Acc. Sg. *\*gl̥lōm*, assuming the regular development of *\*ǵ* > *t* before *\*l*).

4b.3. The Greek glosses *γάλις · γαλαός* and *γαλῖς · ἡ τοῦ ἀνδρός ἀδελφή καθάπερ Κασάνδρα τῆ Ἀνδρομάχῃ* (Hesychius) mean the same, “husband’s sister”, and are derivable from the same protoform \**ǵlHi-* (Eichner-Kühn 1976: 30).

5.1. On the basis of her careful analysis, Eichner-Kühn (1976: 31) reconstructs the noun \**ǵlH<sub>2</sub>i-* and the adjective formation \**ǵlH<sub>2</sub>u-* (besides the hypothetical variant in *-ro-* indicated by the Phrygian gloss, abstracting from the emendation). Her choice between \**ǵ* > Slavic \**z* and \**g* > Old Indic *g* for \**g* is based on assumption that *z-* of the Slavic form \**zъly, -ъve* can be explained as analogical to \**zъtb* “son-in-law”, similarly as Armenian *t-* in *tal* after *taygr* (4.1.b2.). But in this case, a hypothetical starting-point in Armenian would be \**kal* and not \**cal*. The reinterpretation of the meaning of Old Indic *giri-* unambiguously confirms the reconstruction \**ǵ-*.

5.2. On the other hand, Beekes (1976: 14-15) tries to reconstruct a basic paradigm, with respect to the extension in *-ōu-* hysterodynamic as for Greek *πάτωρ* “father’s brother” (cf. also Beekes 1990: 215, 221): Nom. \**ǵélH<sub>2</sub>-ōu-s*, Acc. \**ǵlH<sub>2</sub>-éu-m*, Gen. \**ǵlH<sub>2</sub>-u-ós*.

5.3. The conclusions of Eichner-Kühn and Beekes are in agreement at least in one thing. The pattern \**p<sub>2</sub>trōus* : \**p<sub>2</sub>tér* implies a primary noun for \**ǵélH<sub>2</sub>ōus* (or \**ǵlH<sub>2</sub>u-* directly derivable from Beekes’s Gen.) and it could be identified in \**ǵlHi-*.

6. Although the preceding conclusions are not definitive, it is necessary to prove if the Tocharian forms are compatible with the more or less probable protoforms quoted in §§4-5.

6.1. The first step that should be taken is the exclusion of the sequence \**ǵe<sup>o</sup>*, causing the palatalizing effect leading to the Tocharian \**ś*.

6.2. The zero-grade \**ǵlH<sub>2</sub>u<sup>o</sup>* would imply the development parallel with AB *käly-* “to stand, stay” (\**kl<sub>1</sub>H<sub>1</sub>-ie/o-*) and A *pärwat* “first”, B *parwe* “first; earlier”, *pärwešše* “first” (\**pr<sub>2/3</sub>H<sub>2/3</sub>u-*).

6.3. In the case of \**ǵlH<sub>2</sub>eu<sup>o</sup>* one expects the development of the diphthong \**eu* parallel to B *mlyotkau* “paste derived by grinding” (\**m(e)lH<sub>2</sub>eu<sup>o</sup>*) : *mlutk-* “to crush” (cf. Adams 1999: 479).

6.4. It seems that only \**ǵleH<sub>2</sub>u<sup>o</sup>*, plus Hofmann’s suffix \**-H<sub>1</sub>en-*, lead to Common Tocharian \**klāuīē(n)* and the following development, which is very close to the scenario proposed by Adams (§ 2.3.3.), only with a small modification, namely without dissimilation and with the inherited \**u*.

6.4.1. The epenthesis of *\*u* into the first syllable in Tocharian A is not unique. It occurs in the group *\*-ä(ñ)kw-* transforming in A *-u(ñ)k-*, cf. A *tũnk* : B *tañkw* “love” < *\*tñg-uñ*, A *yuk* : B *yakwe* “horse” < *\*ekuo-*, but also when *\*u* is preceded by a liquid: A *ṣul* : B *ṣale* “mountain” < *\*seluo-* (Adams 1988a: 38; 1999: 277, 482, 652). The closest example of the development parallel to the first syllable of A *k<sub>u</sub>li* “woman” probably occurs in Nom. Sg. A *k<sub>u</sub>ras* : B *krośce* “cold” < *\*krústōn* or *\*kréustō* and Acc. Sg. A *krośśām* : B *kroścām* < *\*krusténm* (cf. Thomas 1964: 95; Adams 1999: 218).

6.4.2. In Tocharian the IE *i*-diphthongs (with the exception of *\*e<sub>i</sub>*) changed into A *e*, B *ai* (cf. Van Windekens 1976: 30-31, 34-35). The sequence *\*-u<sub>i</sub>-* is metathesized in A and after palatalization of *\*u* simplified in *y* in B (A *malyw-*, B *mely-* “to crush, squeeze, lay waste” < *\*mol(H<sub>2</sub>)u-(e)ie/o-*, matching Gothic *gamalwjan* “to grind”; see Adams 1999: 470). The palatalization of Common Tocharian *\*u* before *\*i* (including *\*i* originating secondarily before IE *\*ē*) and their following merging is regular in Tocharian B, cf. *śāy-* / *śāw-* “to live” < Common Tocharian *\*ś(y)āwiä* / *\*ś(y)āwe* < *\*g<sup>u</sup>ieH<sub>3</sub>u-e-* / *\*g<sup>u</sup>ieH<sub>3</sub>u-o-* (Adams 1988a: 36). Concerning the sequence *\*-Vui/i-* in B, Adams (1999: 346) offers an attractive example, *naimañne*, adj. denoting the first month, deriving the stem *\*naim-* from the superlative *\*nouismos* “newest”. These rules confirm a regular development from Common Tocharian *\*klāuiē(n)* to A *\*klew<sup>o</sup>* via *\*klaiw<sup>o</sup>* (really attested *k<sub>u</sub>lew<sup>o</sup>* probably after the singular stem *k<sub>u</sub>le<sup>o</sup>*) and B *klai<sup>o</sup>* via *\*klaw<sup>o</sup>*.

6.4.3. The stem of our kinship term probably terminated in *-i-*, i.e. *\*ġleH<sub>2</sub>ui-*, like the derivatives of the *\*ōu-* stems: Greek *μήτωρ* “male relative of mother” : *μητρνιά* “stepmother”, adj. *μητρνι-ώδης, πάτρω* : Old Indic *pítṛvya-*, Avestan *tūriia-*.

7. It is remarkable that apart from the A plural forms as Nom. *k<sub>u</sub>lewāñ*, Acc. *k<sub>u</sub>lewās*, Gen. *k<sub>u</sub>lewāśsi*, there is only one corresponding plural paradigm, namely of the word *se* “son” (B *soy*): Nom. *sewāñ*, Acc. *sewās*, Gen. *sewāśsi*. The A plural base *sew<sup>o</sup>* is derivable from the hypothetical protoform *\*soi<sub>u</sub>es* with *\*o* instead of expected *\*ū*. It has usually been explained from the dissimilation of the type Homeric *víός* vs. Laconic, Gortynian *víύς* “son”, only in the opposite order. Hilmarsson (1986: 74-75) added an alternative solution, namely the influence of the possessive *\*suoi<sub>o</sub>s*, forming such kinship terms as Icelandic *sveinn* “boy”, Lithuanian *sváins* “husband of wife’s sister”. The convergence in the plural inflection of two Tocharian words, “woman” and “son”, that seem to have different internal structures can probably be explained by

their semantic closeness. The meaning “son” is firm with respect to its Greek cognate. On the other hand, the synchronically attested meaning “woman” is hardly primary. It seems that the opposition of Common Tocharian \**śānā* : \**klāuīē(n)* can be described as “married woman” : “unmarried woman”, and the latter, with respect to its exclusive relation to “son”, perhaps concretely “bride” ← “daughter-in-law” (cf. Russian *nevesta* : *nevestka* respectively).

8. It is useful to mention the semantic dispersion of some kinship terms with close functions:

8.1. Russian dial. *zólva*, *zólvica*, *zolóvka* (Olonets.) “daughter-in-law” vs. Russian *zolóvka* “husband’s sister”, Slovak *zolva*, *zolvica* “husband’s sister, son’s wife, brother’s wife, daughter-in-law” (Trubačev 1959: 136);

8.2. Bulgarian *nevěsta*, *nevjāsta* “bride, young wife, woman”, Serbian *něvjesta* “bride, daughter-in-law, son’s wife, brother’s wife”, Polish *niewiasta* “woman” : Old Church Slavonic *nevěsta* “νύμφη, sponsa” (Trubačev 1959: 90);

8.3. Common Turkic \**gēlin* “daughter-in-law” continues in some of the daughter languages as follows: Turkish *gelin* “daughter-in-law, bride, son’s wife”, but also “young woman”, Altai *kelin* “son’s wife, young woman, young (about woman)”, Koibalsan *kīlen* “wife of younger brother” (Sevortjan 1980: 16-18).

It seems that the semantic shift to a more general meaning proposed for Tocharian is quite legitimate.

9. Summing up, the Tocharian word for “woman” attested in A *k<sub>u</sub>li*, Obl. stem *k<sub>u</sub>le<sup>o</sup>*, Pl. stem *k<sub>u</sub>lew<sup>o</sup>*, and B *klyiye*, Obl. and Pl. stem *klai<sup>o</sup>*, is derivable from Common Tocharian \**klāuīē(n)* and further from \**ġleH<sub>2</sub>uī-H<sub>1</sub>ēn*. The original meaning of the Tocharian word could probably be “bride” → “young unmarried woman”.

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**Tocharian ‘camel’.** *Tocharian and Indo-European Studies* 11 (2009), 39-42.

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1.0. The designation of “camel” in Tocharian B was first identified by K.T. Schmidt in his unpublished ms. “Die Gebrauchsweisen des Mediums im Tocharischen” (Göttingen 1974), quoted by Van Windekens (1988: 99). Let us mention the context (Filliozat 1948: 94):

*kete añme tākam tweri ruwyenträ partāktaññe pitkesa šarne laikanalle* (M-3b1)

“whoever has the wish [that] the doors might open, [he is] to wash [his] hands with camel spittle”

1.1. In his unpublished dissertation, Isebaert (1980: 66) reconstructed the nominative *\*partākto* according to the pattern of *krañko* “cock” : adj. *krañkaññe* “pertaining to a chicken”, and suggested it was borrowed from a Middle Iranian source of the type *\*pari-taxta-*, seeking a support in Avestan *pairi-taxti-* “das Herumlaufen” : *tačat* “er soll laufen”, comparing it with the semantic motivation of Greek *δρομάς*, *-άδος* “laufend” and its later derivative *δρομαδάριος* (quoted after Van Windekens 1988: 99).

1.2. Van Windekens (1988: 100) proposed another solution based on a hypothetical compound consisting of *\*b<sup>h</sup>orto-* and *\*ağto-*, cf. Greek *φόρτος* “ship’s freight, cargo” & Latin *āctus* (with secondary *ā-*); both the primary verbs are well-known in Tocharian: AB *pär-* “to carry, bear” and AB *āk-* “to lead”. The author explained the vowel *-ā-* in B *\*partākto* as a result of ‘équilibre vocalique’ characteristic for an interdialectal borrowing from an unattested A form *\*\*partakt*.

2. Instead of the presented ad hoc etymologies based on virtual constructions, there are real parallels in the Iranian languages which could be identified as the most probable source:

Osset Digor & Iron *bajrag*, pl. Digor *bajrægutæ*, Iron *bajrægtæ* “foal” (*\*bārayaka-tā*); Lubotsky: p.c.) = Yazgulam *varág*, pl. *vergáθ* “horse”

(Édel'man 1971: 280), Sanglechi *worak*, Ishkashim *wərok*, Roshani *warč*, Shughni *vārj*, Sarikoli *vurj* id. < \**bāraka*-; Middle Persian *bārak* “riding animal”, Classical Persian *bāregī* (*Šāhname* I, 21.27), Modern Persian *bāre* “horse”; Khotanese *bāraa*- “riding animal; vehicle” < \**bāraka*-, cf. adj. *bārgyi* “riding, rider” = Ossetic Digor and Iron *baræg* “rider”, Sogdian *β'r'k*, *β'ryh* [\**βārāk*, \**βārē*] “rider”, Yaghnobi *vóra* id., Khwarezmian *β'rcyk* f. [\**bāračīka*-] “animal for riding”, all from the Iranian base \**bar*- “to carry, bear; be carried = ride” < \**b<sup>h</sup>er*- “to bear, carry” (Abaev 1958: 236-237; Bailey 1979: 278; Horn 1893: 37, #37; Morgenstierne 1974: 85-86; Tomaschek 1880: 763). It is important to emphasize that the plural ending in *-t* is characteristic for the East Iranian languages: Ossetic *-tæ* < \**-tā* (Thordarson 1989: 469; he explains Digor *-u*- preceding the plural suffix as a connecting vowel, cf. *finsæg* “writer” : pl. *finsgutæ*), Yazgulam *-aθ* (see above) and Wakhi *-iš-t*, further Sogdian *-t'* continuing in Yaghnobi *-t*, and *-ται* in the Scythian tribal names (Skjærvø 1989: 379). In this specific plural marker N. Sims-Williams (BSOAS 42, 1979: 337f) sees the primary feminine abstract suffix \**-tā*- (cf. Biemeier 1989: 483). With respect to these facts the East Iranian starting point should have been \**bāra(ya)ktā*-, pl. to \**bāra(ya)ka*- “riding animal”. For Tocharian, the starting-point of the type \**paryākt<sup>o</sup>* may be postulated. For the difference *y* instead of *t* there is no better explanation than the scribe’s mistake in this hapax.

Regarding the similarity of the ligatures *rta* and *rya* (see Malzahn 2007: 245, 246) it is in principle possible.

3. From an Iranian source of the type Ossetic *bajræg(u)tæ* the following East Caucasian forms were probably borrowed: Akusha *bartken* “deer”, Lak *balčan* “horse”, *burttij* “on horse-back”, *burttijhu* “rider”, Avar *bárti* “stallion”, Lezghin *balḥan* “horse”, etc. (S. Nikolaev & S. Starostin 1994: 285: \**bʃaltkē* “a big hoofed animal”). The final *-n* can represent the plural marker known from both some East Caucasian and Middle Iranian languages, e.g. Khotanese *-añä* (Emmerick 1989: 219) or the Sogdian gen. pl. in *-ān* < \**-ānām* (Sims-Williams 1989: 183).

4. A similar source is also probable for the Ugrian forms as Hungarian dial. *bergány* “feuriges Pferd”, Mansi LM *pärwèn*, N. *pārèn* “Zauberpferd” (Munkácsi & Kálmán 1986: 414; Munkácsi 1905: 210; Ugrian + East Caucasian). The final *-n* could be directly borrowed from a donor-language, if it was some Middle-Iranian language with the plural in *-n* (cf. §3).

5. Summing up, the Tocharian B *\*partākto* “camel” can represent the same etymon as the designation of “animal for riding” in general, or specifically “horse” or “deer”, in Iranian, East Caucasian and Ugrian languages. Regarding the transparent Iranian etymology and historical and geographical circumstances, the East Iranian provenance of the donor-language seems most probable. It re-mains to explain the first *-t-* in Tocharian.

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**Tocharian AB *kwär-* “to grow old”.** *Tocharian and Indo-European Studies* 12 (2011), 57-62.

Václav Blažek & Michal Schwarz

The aim of the present article is to discuss the etymology of the Tocharian verb *kwär-* and its derivatives. We shall try to demonstrate that none of the existing etymological solutions is definitive and shall offer new solutions. In this discussion we shall touch on the question of the development of Indo-European labiovelars in Tocharian. Our etymology of the AB verb *kwär-* is in support of the development of the sequence  $*K^u_rH^o >$  Tocharian  $*kwär^o$  (Pinault 2008: 445).

The Tocharian AB verb *kwär-* “to age, grow old” is attested in the following forms (Adams 1999: 236; DTA 152; Hilmarsson 1996: 203-204; Pinault 2008: 456; Poucha 1955: 79; Thomas 1964: 95, 190; Van Windekens 1976: 244):

A: 3pl. med. of the caus. pres. VIII *kursamntär*, past participle nom. sg. m. *kakuru*.

B: 3pl. med. of the pres. III *kwremnträ* <  $*kwäre-$  <  $*K^u_rH_xo-$ , past participle *kuro* for  $^+kuru$  <  $*kwärāu$  <  $*K^u_r(H_x)-H_2-uōs$ , where  $*-H_2-$  was the preterite marker (cf. Hilmarsson 1991: 156).

There are two forms which may be derivatives of this verb: A *oñkrac* and A *kwreyunt*.

A *oñkrac* “eternal, immortal”, *oñkraci* “eternity, immortality”, B obl. sg. m. *oñkrocce* “immortal” <  $*æñK^{(w)}rätstsæ$  (cf. Hilmarsson 1986b: 257-260; 1991: 155-156), but the derivation from AB *kwär-* is not unambiguous.

A *kwreyunt* nom. pl. “growths, fruits” is attested in the compound *štām-kwreyunt* “tree-fruits”. Hilmarsson (1996: 211) reconstructed the nom. sg. A  $*kwre$ , derivable from  $*kwäre$ , originally nomen actionis from the verb *kwär-* “to grow old”. With regard to the parallel development in A *āklye* “doctrine” vs. *ākl-* “to learn, teach”, he proposed Common Tocharian  $*kwäriyæ$  with an extension in

\*-en-. But there is also an alternative interpretation “clay, earth” as proposed by Pinault in DTA 184. This solution would naturally exclude this form from the range of relatives of the verb *kwär-* “to grow old”. Pinault bases his idea on the identification of A *\*kwre* with B *\*kwäriye* or *\*kwäro*, obl. *\*kwärai<sup>o</sup>*, reconstructed according to the adjective *kwraiññe* “made of clay” (Pinault 2000: 94, 105-108; he finds the same development in the verb *kwär-* with such forms as *kwremnträ*). He assumes that the compound *ṣtām-<sup>\*</sup>kwreyu* is a calque of Sanskrit *vykṣa-mṛd-bhū-* “a sort of cane or reed”, lit. “tree-earth-born”. But there is no certainty that the Sanskrit triple compound, recorded only by lexicographers (cf. Monier-Williams 1899: 1008), corresponds to Tocharian A *ṣtām-<sup>\*</sup>kwreyu*. If one accepts Pinault’s interpretation, the question remains whether *\*kwreyu* corresponds to Sanskrit *mṛd-* “earth, soil, clay” or to *bhū-* “arisen”. The latter possibility agrees with the traditional interpretation of A *kwreyunt* as “growths, fruits”. On the other hand, the Tocharian A counterpart of B *\*kwäriye* “clay” can be found in A *tukri* “clay” (Adams in Mallory & Adams 2006: 121: *\*tk<sup>u</sup>-*; contra: Pinault 2000: 106-107). For these reasons we prefer the traditional interpretation of A *kwreyunt* as “growths, fruits”.

If the meaning “growths, fruits” of Tocharian A *kwreyunt* is correctly established, it indicates the primary semantics “to grow, ripen” of the AB verb *kwär-*. In this case the function of the prefix *\*æn-* in Common Tocharian *\*æñK<sup>(w)</sup>rätstsæ* (A *oñkrac*, B *oñkrocce*) should not be negative, as it is usually interpreted, but “in”, cf. B *omprotärtstse* “brotherly, who is in a brotherly relation with someone” < *\*H<sub>1</sub>ṅ-b<sup>h</sup>rātr-tjo-*, *oñkor* “in a cover, fold” < *\*H<sub>1</sub>ṅ-kouHṛ* (Hilmarsson 1991: 134-135), hence *\*æñK<sup>(w)</sup>rätstsæ* < *\*H<sub>1</sub>ṅ-K<sup>u</sup>rā-tjo-* “in ever growing age” or so.

From at least six etymologies proposed thus far the following four should be analyzed seriously:

1. From IE *\*ḡrH<sub>2</sub>-u/u-*, a derivative of the root *\*ḡerH<sub>2</sub>-* “to age, ripen” (LIV 165), cf. Avestan *zauruuan-* “old age”, Vedic *jūr<sup>v</sup>yati* “reibt auf” (Van Windekens 1976: 252). Hilmarsson (1986b: 253) correctly objected that these *set*-forms would give quite different Tocharian continuants: *\*ḡrH<sub>2</sub>u-* > *+krāw-*, *\*ḡrH<sub>2</sub>u-* > *+kärw-*. Adams (1999: 236) speculated about the parallel labial vocalization of the syllabic sonant in Tocharian, comparable with Old Indic *jūr<sup>v</sup>yati* (RV) & *jīryati* “grows old”, but there are no examples of an analogous development in Tocharian.

2. From IE \**ǵʰu̯er-* “to walk crookedly” (Normier 1980: 256). But Vedic *hvárate* and Young Avestan *zbarənt-*, together with Lithuanian *pa-žvilti* “sich neigen”, Latvian *zveļu* : *zveļti* “wälzen, umwerfen, fortbewegen”, rather reflect IE \**ǵʰuel-* (Pokorny 1959: 489; Hilmarsson 1986b: 261; both alternatives are discussed by Kümmel, LIV 182). Incidentally, the semantic development leading to the meaning of the Tocharian words would also be rather enigmatic.

3. From IE \**ǵʰu̯erH-*, attested in Lithuanian *gvėrti* “to expand, break up”, *gùrti* “to disintegrate, crumble, become loose, weak”, Latvian *guŗt* “to become weak, diminish”, Lithuanian *gurlùs*, Latvian *gurls* “tired, weak, frail” (Adams 1999: 236; cf. already Normier 1980: 256). The primary, apparently “destructive”, meaning is not easily compatible with Tocharian A *kwreyunt* “growths, fruits”.

4. From IE \**dʰǵʰer-* (but \**ǵʰer-* according to LIV 213-214) “im Wasser dahintreiben, fließen” (Hilmarsson 1986b: 252-262; 1996: 203-204; Pinault 2008: 456). Although some of the continuants of this root are semantically compatible with Tocharian A *oñkrac*, B *oñkrocce* “immortal”, e.g. Vedic *akṣára-* “imperishable”, Greek *ἀφθαρσία* “immortality”, a connection with the Tocharian verb, if its primary meaning was “to grow, ripen”, remains uncertain.

We offer a new etymology based on the comparison with Latin *crēscō*, perf. *crēuī*, part. perf. pass. *crētum* “to be born; increase, grow” (\**kʷreH₁-*; cf. Schrijver 1991: 124 who separated it from *Cerēs* etc.), with such derivatives as *prōcrēscere* “to grow up”, *crēmentum* “increase”; further *creō*, *-āre* “to procreate; be born; cause”, *recreāre* “to recreate, restore”, and Slavic \**krějō* : \**krējati* or \**krvjati* “to recover, become fresh and strong” (\**kʷreH₁-je/o-*) > Church Slavonic (of the Serbian redaction) *okrijati* “to recover”, Old Czech *krěji* : *křati*, Russian dial. *krejátʹ* “to heal”, Ukrainian *krijáty* “to become healthy”, and \**krěsъ* “summer solstice” (\**kʷreH₁-e/os-*) > Church Slavonic (of the Russian redaction) *krěsъ*, Serbo-Croatian *krijes* (ĖSSJ 12: 130-131; 27: 206-207), all derivable from \**kʷreH₁-* (cf. Hill 2006: 191 and de Vaan 2008: 142-144, who discuss in detail this Latin-Slavic comparison). If the Tocharian counterpart is added, the protoform should be reconstructed with an initial labiovelar as \**kʷreH₁-*. The development \**KʷrH°* > Tocharian \**kwär°* is regular, cf. Tocharian B obl. sg. *kwāräs* “stools, faeces” < \**ǵʷrH₃-*, from the verb \**ǵʷerH₃-* “to devour” (Pinault 2008: 445). The semantic dispersion of our etymon resembles the root \**ǵerH₂-* and its derivatives, e.g. Old Church Slavonic *sъ-zbrěti* “to

ripen, mature”, Church Slavonic *zbrěti* “τίκτειν” vs. Old Indic *jūr̥yati* (RV) & *jīryati* “grows old”, *jāra-* “growing old” = Persian *zār* “weak”, Avestan *zauruuan-* “Greisenalter, Altersschwäche” etc. (Kümmel, LIV 165-166; Pokorny 1959: 390-391; Vasmer I: 462). Summing up, the present solution satisfies both historical phonetics and semantics.

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## II. Grammar

**Nástin tocharské historické gramatiky.** *Linguistica Brunensia. Sborník prací Filozofické fakulty brněnské univerzity*, **A56 (2008), 33-58.**

Michal Schwarz & Václav Blažek

V r. 2008 uplyne právě 100 let od publikování důkazu, že tocharština představuje novou svébytnou větev indoevropských jazyků (viz Blažek & Schwarz 2007). Jediný český ‘náčrt tocharské mluvnice’ vychází v roce 1930 jako součást článku *O nových jazycích indoevropských nalezených ve střední Asii, zvláště o jazyce tocharském*. Unikátní text Pavla Pouchy předchází všechny významné práce oboru. Až o rok později vydávají němečtí sanskrťisté Schulze, Sieg a Siegling obsáhlé dílo *Tocharische Grammatik*. První srovnávací gramatiku publikoval Pedersen (1941). Krauseho popis slovesa jazyka B vychází r. 1952. Základní gramatiku *Tocharisches Elementarbuch* vydávají Krause s Thomasem r. 1960. Svůj originální vklad přidal Van Windekens (1976/1979/1982). Další pokrok přineslo zpracování neanalyzovaných rukopisů. Velmi ceněna je disertace J. Hilmarssona (1986) a jeho etymologický slovník (1996), pro předčasnou smrt žel nedokončený. D. Q. Adams vydal r. 1988 *Tocharian Historical Phonology and Morphology*, o rok později následuje *Introduction au tokharien* od G.-J. Pinaulta. Jen na historickou fonetiku se soustředili D. Ringe (1996) a S. Burlak (2000). Pavel Poucha má prvenství v sestavení jediného výkladového slovníku tocharštiny A (1955), slovník jazyka B vydává Adams v roce 1999. Senzací je nové datování rukopisů. Radiokarbonová metoda posunula dobu vzniku pozdních textů až na přelom 12. a 13. století (Adams 2006); vídeňská badatelka Melanie Malzahnová zase odhalila rukopisné podobnosti nejstarších textů s guptovským písmem ze 4. a 5. století n. l. (Malzahn 2007: 277). Oproti původním předpokladům (6.-8. stol. n. l.) se časový interval vzniku textů rozšířil třikrát a je příslibem pro další výzkum.

### Fonologie

Tocharské rukopisy jsou kromě několika manichejských zlomků zapsány severo-turkestánskou variantou indického slabičného písma *brāhmī*. Tocharskou fonologii nejvíce ovlivnily buddhistické lexikální výpůjčky a s nimi fonologický systém buddhistického hybridního sanskrťu. Původní fonologický systém tocharských jazyků nezná např. znělé a znělé přidechové okluzivy. Výpůjčky z

BHS nebývají vždy tocharizovány – v rekonstrukci tocharského fonologického systému je proto potřeba od nich odhlédnout. Kupř. vl. jm. v BHS *Buddhamit- ra* = B *Puttamitre*; ale BHS adj. *buddhavacana-* „s buddhovským hlasem“ = B *buddhavacam* idem. (Adams 1999: 391, 431); podobně skt. *gotra* = A *koṭār* „rodina“, ale vl. jm. skt. *Gautama* = A *Gautam* (Poucha 1955: 86, 100).

Původní systém:

**vokály:** *a, ā, ä, i, ī, e, u, ū, o; ä* je v tocharštině původní, avšak pro zápis v brāhmī „cizí“ ultrakrátký vokál analogický slovanskému jeru ъ. Realizuje se podle okolního přízvuku jako *a, e* nebo *i*.

**diftongy:** *ai, au, eu*; převažují v jazyce B, kde je i *oy*

**okluzívy:** *k, t, p*; v B dochází k sekundární palatalizaci *ky, py*

**palatály:** *c* [č]

**afrikáty:** *ts*; v B sekundární palatalizace *tsy*

**spiranty:** *s, ṣ* [š], *ś*

**polovokály:** *y, w*

**likvidy:** *r, l*; v B sekundárně palatalizované *ly*

**nasály:** *n, ñ* (palatalizované), *ṃ, ṅ* (velární), *m*; v B sekundární palatalizace *my*

Slovní přízvuk je v obou jazycích zpravidla na první slabice (B *lákke* „utrpení“, v trojslabičných slovech v jazyce B na druhé slabice (B *wärttónṭa* „les“).

Sandhi (vzácné varianty jsou uvedeny vždy za lomítkem): vokalické: před iniciálním vokálem se *-i* a *-e* mění v *-y*; *-u* a *-o* ve *-w*; *-är, -äl, -än* v *-r, -l, -n*. Dva stejné vokály se spojují v jeden s uchováním větší délky (*a + a = a/ā; e + e = e; o + o = o; i + i = i; a + ā = ā; ā + ā = ā*). Různé vokály: ve většině případů dochází k redukci koncového a uchování iniciálního vokálu (*a + e = e/a; a + o = o; a + i = i; a + ai = ai; a + au = au; e + a = a/ā; e + o = o/e; e + i = i*); výjimkami jsou koncová *-ā* a *-o*, kdy se redukuje naopak iniciální vokál (*ā + e = ā; o + e = o; o + a = o*) nebo modifikuje diftong (*ā + ai = āy; o + ai = oy*). Je-li ale iniciální vokál dlouhý či diftong, má vždy přednost jak pro *-o* (*o + ā = ā*) tak v jiných kombinacích, kdy se redukuje koncový vokál: (viz výše a dále *a + au = au; a + ai = ai; e + ā = ā; e + ai = ai; e + au = au*). V konsonantickém sandhi se objevuje částečná nebo úplná asimilace (např. v A *ālakāñ cam* → *ālakāmcam* „jiný“ (obl. sg. m.); v B *tāñ no* → *tān no* „jen [bez] vás [dvou]“) a zdvojení konsonantu na konci slova před iniciálním vokálem (např. A *maññ oki* „jako měsíc“) nebo na začátku slova po koncovém vokálu (např. B *po llākṭenta* „všechna utrpení“).

Typické gramatické změny hlásek se týkají vokálů: *a/ā, ā/a, ä/i*; dochází k nim v ablautu: *i/ai, u/au, ä/e, e/ā, o/ā*, a u konsonantů: *k/ś, ŋk/ṃś/ñś/ñc, tk/ck, t/c, tt/cc, nt/ñś/ṃś/ś, st/śc/śś/ś, n/ñ, l/ly, s/ś*; jen v A *ts/ś, śt/śc/śś/ś*; jen v B *tk/cc, sk/śś, w/y, k/ky, p/py, m/my, ts/tsy*.

Vývoj indoevropského konsonantického a vokalického systému v historické tocharštině A a B shrnuje následující tabulka (\* ... pozdní ie. prajazyk; \*\* raný ie. prajazyk s laryngálami; E znamená přední vokál):

ie. *	tocharské příklady
<i>p</i>	A <i>por</i> , B <i>pūwar</i> „oheň“ < ** <i>peH<sub>2</sub>-u</i>
<i>b</i>	AB <i>prānk-</i> „zdržovat; nedostavit se“, kauz. „vyhýbat se, odmítat“ < * <i>brenk/g<sup>h</sup>-</i>
<i>b<sup>h</sup></i>	A <i>pracar</i> , B <i>procer</i> „bratr“ < * <i>b<sup>h</sup>rātēr</i>
<i>-mb<sup>h</sup>-</i>	A <i>kam</i> , B <i>keme</i> „zub“ < * <i>ḡomb<sup>h</sup>o-</i>
<i>t</i>	A <i>tu</i> , B <i>tuwe</i> „ty“ < ** <i>tuHom</i>
<i>t / E</i>	AB <i>cāmp-</i> „být schopen“ < * <i>temp-</i> ; A <i>pats</i> , B <i>petso</i> „pán“ < * <i>poti-</i>
<i>d</i>	A <i>tāp(p)-</i> , B <i>tāpp-</i> „jíst“ < * <i>d<sub>2</sub>p-u-ā-</i>
<i>d / E</i>	AB <i>tsār-</i> „oddělit“ < * <i>der-</i>
<i>d / ĭ</i>	A <i>kri</i> „vůl“, B <i>kāryāñ</i> pl. „srdce“ < * <i>k<sub>ṛ</sub>djā-</i>
<i>d<sup>h</sup></i>	AB <i>tā-</i> „umístit“ < * <i>d<sup>h</sup>ṛ-</i>
<i>d<sup>h</sup> / E</i>	AB <i>tsāk-</i> „spálit“ < * <i>d<sup>h</sup>eg<sup>th</sup>-</i>
<i>k</i>	AB pres. <i>källā-</i> „vést, přinést“ < * <i>k<sub>ṛ</sub>n-ā-</i>
<i>k / E</i>	A <i>śala-</i> , B <i>śālā-</i> (pret. Ia) < * <i>kel<sub>2</sub>-</i>
<i>g</i>	AB <i>kātk-</i> „být rád, radovat se“ < * <i>ḡād<sup>h</sup>-śke/o-</i>
<i>g / E, ĭ</i>	A pl. <i>tāśśi</i> , B <i>tāś</i> „náčelník“ < * <i>tāḡĭu-</i>
<i>g<sup>h</sup></i>	AB <i>krās-</i> „trápit“ < * <i>ḡrōs-</i>
<i>g<sup>h</sup> / E</i>	A <i>śpāl</i> „hlava“, B <i>śpālu</i> „vyšší, vynikající, nadřazený“ < * <i>ḡeb<sup>h</sup>ṛ<sub>2</sub>l-</i>
<i>ḱ</i>	A <i>kror</i> „srpek měsíce“, B <i>krorīya</i> „roh“ < ** <i>ḱreH<sub>1</sub>-u</i>
<i>ḱ / E</i>	AB opt. méd. 3sg. <i>nśitār</i> (od kořene <i>nāk-</i> „zničit“) < ** <i>nḱ-jeH<sub>1</sub>-tr</i>
<i>ḡ</i>	AB <i>āk-</i> „vést, řídit“ < * <i>aḡ-</i> < ** <i>H<sub>2</sub>eḡ-</i>
<i>ḡ / E</i>	A méd.-pas. 3sg. <i>āśtrā</i> < * <i>aḡetor</i> , B akt. part. <i>aseñca</i> < * <i>aḡentes</i>
<i>ḡ<sup>h</sup></i>	AB <i>ku-</i> „lít“ < * <i>ḡ<sup>h</sup>u-</i>
<i>ḡ<sup>h</sup> / E</i>	A <i>śārme</i> , B <i>śimpriye</i> ~ <i>śimpro</i> „zima“ < * <i>ḡ<sup>h</sup>imrā-(H<sub>1</sub>)en-</i>
<i>k<sup>u</sup></i>	A <i>kukāl</i> , B <i>kokale</i> „vůz“ < * <i>k<sup>u</sup>uk<sup>u</sup>lo-</i>
<i>k<sup>u</sup> / E</i>	A <i>śtwar</i> , B <i>śtwer</i> „4“ < * <i>k<sup>u</sup>etwores</i>
<i>g<sup>u</sup></i>	A ak. sg. <i>ko</i> , nom. pl. <i>kowi</i> , B <i>ke<sub>u</sub></i> „kráva“ < * <i>ḡ<sup>u</sup>ou-</i>

$g^u / E$	A <i>šām</i> , B <i>šana</i> „žena“ < * $g^u en-ā$
$g^{uh}$	AB <i>kārk-</i> „vázat“ < * $kerg^{uh}$ -; A <i>lykäly</i> , B <i>lykaske</i> „malý“ < * $leg^{uh}-l̥io-/-sko-$
$g^{uh} / E$	A opt. méd. 3pl. <i>tsāšintār</i> ( <i>tsāk-</i> „svítit“) < ** $d^hōg^{uh}-iēH_1-nt_3$ , B opt. méd. 2pl. <i>tsišitār</i> ( <i>tsāk-</i> „spálit“) < ** $d^hēg^{uh}-iēH_1-tHe + -r$
$s$	A <i>sa-</i> , B <i>se</i> „tento“ < * $so-$
$s / E$	A <i>šme</i> „léto“, B <i>šmāye</i> „patřící k létu“ < ** $semH_2-(H)en-$
$r$	A <i>rake</i> , B <i>reki</i> „slovo“ < * $rēk-$
$l$	A <i>lak</i> „dno (řeky)“, B <i>leke</i> „postel“ < * $log^h o-$
$l / E$	A <i>lyak-</i> , B <i>lyäk-</i> „ležet“ < * $leg^h-$
$m$	A <i>mañ</i> , B <i>meñe</i> „měsíc“ < * $mēnē(n)$
$n$	A <i>nakcu</i> , B <i>nekc̥ṣye</i> „v noci“ < * $nok^u teuj̥o-$
$n / E$	A <i>ñu</i> , B <i>ñuwe</i> „nový“ < * $neuo-$
$ʃ$	A <i>päärkär</i> , B <i>päärkare</i> „dlouhý“ < * $b^hʃg^h ro-$ ; A <i>tärkär</i> , B <i>tarkär</i> „mrak“ < * $d^hʃgru-$
$l̥$	AB <i>pälk-</i> „pálit“ < * $b^hlg-$
$m̥$	A <i>šäaptänt</i> , B <i>šuktante</i> „sedmý“ < * $septm̥to-$
$n̥$	A <i>käntu</i> , B <i>kantwo</i> „jazyk“ < * $tänkwo < *dn̥g^h uā-(n)$
$ḷ$	A <i>yäs-</i> „kypět“, B <i>yäs-</i> „být sexuálně vzrušen“ < * $ḷes-$
$u$	A <i>wak</i> , B <i>wek</i> „hlas“ < * $uok^u-$
$u- / e$	A <i>wkām</i> , pl. <i>wāknant</i> , B <i>yakne</i> „cesta, způsob“ < * $ueg^h no-$
$i$	A <i>wäs</i> , B <i>wase</i> „jed“ < * $uiso-$
$u$	A <i>rätär</i> , B <i>ratre</i> „rudý“ < ** $H_1 rud^h ro-$
$\bar{n}$	A <i>wiki</i> & <i>wīki</i> , B <i>ikām</i> & <i>īkām</i> „20“ < *( $H_1$ ) $u\bar{w}k̥n̥t̥i$
$\bar{u}$	AB <i>su-</i> „přšet“ < * $sū-$ < ** $suH_3-$
$e-$	B <i>yakwe</i> , A <i>yuk</i> „kůň“ < * $e\hat{k}uo- < *H_1 e\hat{k}uo-$ , A <i>yärk-</i> , B <i>yarke</i> „čest“ < * $erko-$
$-e-$	A <i>pāñ</i> , B <i>piš</i> „5“ < ptoch. * $pāāñs < *pēnk^ue$ , vedle A <i>šāk</i> , B <i>šak</i> „10“ < * $de\hat{k}m̥$
$a$	A <i>ākär</i> , pl. <i>ākrun̥t</i> , B pl. <i>akrūna</i> „slzy“ < * $akru-$
$o$	A <i>ak</i> , B <i>ek</i> „oko“ < * $ok^u-$ , A <i>talke</i> ; B <i>telki</i> „obět“ < * $tolk-$
$\bar{e}$	A <i>want</i> , B <i>yente</i> „vitr“ < * $uēnto- < **ueH_1 nto-$ ; A <i>mañ</i> , B <i>meñe</i> „měsíc“ < * $mēnē(n)$
$\bar{a}$	A <i>swār</i> , B <i>swāre</i> „sladký“ < * $sūādro- < **sueH_2 dro-$
$\bar{o}$	A <i>kāts</i> , B <i>kātso</i> „břicho, žaludek; luno“ < * $g^uōt-iōn-$
$C_2C$	A <i>pācar</i> , B <i>pācer</i> „otec“ < * $p_2tēr$
$e\bar{i}$	A <i>tsek-</i> , B <i>tsik-</i> „budovat, vyrábět“ < * $d^h e\bar{i}g^h-$
$a\bar{i}$	A $e-$ , B <i>ai-</i> „dát“ < * $a\bar{i}-$ ; A <i>ekär-</i> , B <i>aikare-</i> „prázdný“ < * $a\bar{i}gro-$
$o\bar{i}$	A <i>ke</i> , B <i>kaiyye</i> „čí“ < * $k^u o\bar{i}(H)o-$
$e\bar{u}$	A <i>klyom</i> , B <i>klyomo</i> „urozený“ < * $k̥leumōnt(s)$
$a\bar{u}$	A <i>ok-</i> , B <i>auk-</i> „růst“ < * $aug- < **H_2 eug-$
$o\bar{u}$	A <i>top</i> , B <i>taupe</i> „důl“ < * $d^h o\bar{u}bo-$

### Struktura tocharského kořene

Transformace indoevropského kořene do pratocharské podoby proběhla podle pravidel, která lze rekonstruovat jen do té míry, jakou nám dovoluje neznalost skutečné pozice přízvuku (Adams 1988: 23-24):

ie.	<i>T<sub>̣</sub>RT</i>	<i>TeRT</i>	<i>ToRT</i>	<i>TēRT</i>	<i>TōRT</i>
ptoch.	<i>TārT</i>	<i>ṬäRT</i>	<i>TeRT</i>	<i>ṬēRT</i>	<i>TāRT</i>
ie.	<i>T<sub>̣</sub>T / TT / TeT</i>	<i>TeT</i>	<i>ToT</i>	<i>TēT</i>	<i>TōT</i>
ptoch.	<i>ṬäT / TT / ṬäT</i>	<i>ṬäT</i>	<i>TeT</i>	<i>ṬēT</i>	<i>TāT</i>
ie.	<i>TuT</i>	<i>TeuT</i>	<i>TouT</i>	<i>TēuT</i>	<i>TōuT</i>
ptoch.	<i>TāT</i>	<i>ṬäüT</i>	<i>TeuT</i>	<i>ṬēüT</i>	<i>TāüT</i>
ie.	<i>TiT</i>	<i>TeiT</i>	<i>ToiT</i>	<i>TēiT</i>	<i>TōiT</i>
ptoch.	<i>ṬäT</i>	<i>Ṭäit</i>	<i>TeiT</i>	<i>ṬēiT</i>	<i>TāiT</i>

### Morfologie jména

Oba tocharské jazyky rozlišují stejné druhy slov jako ostatní indoevropské jazyky. U jmen se uplatňuje deklinace podle rodu (m., f., n.), čísla (sg., du., pl.) a podvojného systému pádů: indoevropský typ flexe uchovávají koncovky primárních pádů: nominativu, genitivu a pádu předmětu zvaného obliquus (tj. akuzativ); v jazyce B se ještě dochoval vokativ, který je v jazyce A shodný s nominativem. Ostatních sedm sekundárních pádů se tvoří aglutinačně: neměnné koncovky se připojují ke tvaru obliquu. Aglutinační koncovky patrně vznikly dlouhodobým vlivem neindoevropských jazyků. Slova se tvoří derivací i skládáním, např. B *malkwer* „mléko“ = *malk* „mléko“ + *wer* „voda“; A *akmal* „obličej“ = *ak* „zrak“ + *mal* „tvář“.

### Substantiva

**Rod:** Všechny rody jsou zastoupeny u substantiv a zájmen; adjektiva tvoří pouze tvary maskulin a feminin. Např. subst. m. B *yakwe*, A *yuk* „kůň“; subst. f. B *riye*, A *ri* „město“; subst. n. A *kāsu* „dobro“ (= substantivované neutrum z adj. m. *kāsu* „dobrý“). Adj. m. B *orotstse*, A *tsopats* „velký“; adj. f. B *klyomña*, A *klyomim* „urozená, vznešená“. Záj. m. A *sās*, B *se* „tento“; f. A *sās*, B *sā* „tato“; n. A *te*, B *täš* „toto“. Rod substantiv bývá zpravidla určující i pro deklinační tvary přibíraných adjektiv. Pouze některá abstraktní substantiva

vykazují tzv. genus alternans = a., kdy se přibírané adjektivum skloňuje v sg. koncovkami maskulina, zatímco v pl. koncovkami feminina (Krause & Thomas 1960: 75-76): např. „čisté myšlení“ B nom. sg. *astare pālsko*, nom. pl. *astarona pālskonta*, A nom. sg. *āṣtār pālsāk*, nom. pl. *āṣtram pālskant*.

Pád: Deklinace probíhá podle tzv. primárních a sekundárních pádů. Nominativ se užívá pro vyjádření podmětu nebo předmětu ve vazbě s infinitivem. Nejčastější koncovka nominativu substantiv: *-e* (B *yakwe* „kůň“ < \**ek̥uōs*; A *rake* „slovo“ < \**rēkoḷ*), včetně koncovek abstrakt A *-une/ -one*, B *-ñe* (A *klāṣmune* „trpělivost, vytrvalost“, *tāprone* „výška“, B *ṣañāññe* „přirozenost, povaha“). Méně časté jsou koncovky *-o* (B *okso* „býk“ < \**uk̥sō(n)*), *-i* (B *krāñi* „šíje“ < \**ḷr̥H<sub>2</sub>sniḷom*), *-a* (B *śana* „žena“ < \**g<sup>u</sup>enā*), *-u*, *-r*, *-l*, *-n*, *-t*, *-nt*, a další. Obliquus, odrážející ie. akuzativ, vyjadřuje předmět, způsob, cíl, směr, rozlohu v čase a prostoru, označuje oslovené osoby a užívá se v perifrastických obrazech. Tvary primární představují dědictví ie. \**-m* u kmenů vokalických a \**-ṃ* u konsonantických: B *yakwe* < \**ek̥uom* vs. A *koṃ*, B *kwem* „pes“ < \**ḷkuon-ṃ*, B *mātār* „matka“ < \**mātr-ṃ*. Sekundární formy se tvoří 1) nazální extenzí: *enkwem* „člověka“ < \**ṃḷkuon-ṃ*; 2) redukcí koncovky nominativu: nom. *arañce* : obl. *arañc* „srdce“ (\*\**H<sub>2</sub>eH<sub>2</sub>rentēn* : *nten-ṃ*), 3) palatalizací suffixu: nom. *-te* : obl. *-ce*; *-tte/ -tstse* : obl. *-cce*; 4) koncovkami: B *-ai* od nom. *-a/ -o*: *orotstsa* f. „velká“ : obl. *orotstsaḷ* (\**uru-ā-tjāiṃ*), *yoko* : obl. *yokai* „žízeň“; u feminin v B nom. *-a* : obl. *-o* a nom. *-o* : obl. *-a*: nom. *śana* „manželka“ \**g<sup>u</sup>enā* : obl. *śano* < \**g<sup>u</sup>enām*. Genitiv je užíván podobně jako v ostatních ie. jazycích a také ve smyslu dativu po slovese dávání nebo značí činitele v pasivních konstrukcích. Tvoří se koncovkami B *-e*, A *-Ø* (B *lānte*, A *lānt* „krále“ < \**ul̥Hōnt-os*); AB *-i* (B *pātri*, A *pācri* „otce“ < \**p<sub>2</sub>tr-ī* či \**-eḷs* nebo dat. \**-eḷ*); B *-oy* : A *-e* (B *lāntsoy*, A *lāntse* „královny“ < \**ul̥Hōntjāi*); B *-ñ* < \**-n-es*; B *-ntse*, A *-s* (B *yākwentse*, A *yukes* „koně“ < \**ek̥uon-s-os*); popř. B *-epi*, A *-āp/ -yāp* < \**V-b<sup>h</sup>om* (Adams 1988, 140). Vokativ je v jazyce A nahrazen nominativem, v B má koncovky *-a* nebo *-u* od nom. na *-e*: nom. *Ānande* vl. jm., *soṃśke* „synáček“, *kaurṣe* „býk“ : vok. *soṃśka* „synáčku“, *Ānanda* „Ānando“, *kaurṣu* „býku“ (přeneseně o člověku) atp. Třetí koncovka vok. *-ai* se tvoří od nom. na *-a* nebo *-o* zpravidla u slovesných jmen a adjektiv: nom. *aiṣṣeñca* „dárce“, *klyomo* „vznešený“, vok. *aiṣṣeñcai*, *klyomai*.

Sekundární pádové affixy:

Instrumentál jen v A *-yo* (*mā poryo*... *mā wāryo* „ani ohněm ani vodou“). Má funkce podobně jako v češtině. V jazyce B plní jeho funkci perlativ. Perlativ B



-sa/ -sā, A -ā ve funkcích činitele, srovnání, vyjádření způsobu (A *špät komšā* B *šuk kauntsa* „po sedm dní“). Lokativně značí směr či polohu po předložkách „na“ a „v“; v B i ve funkci instrumentálu. Komitativ B -mpa/ -mpā, A -aśśāl. Vyjadřuje slučovací funkci a doprovod; dále se používá po slovese B *tās-* A *tāsk-* jako „podobat se“ (A *šālypaśśāl triwo* „smíšený s olejem“, B *pātār mātārmpa tasemane* „podobající se otci a matce“). Allativ B -ś/ -śc/ -śco, A -ac značí cíl tělesného a duševního hnutí (A *Metraknac kumnāš* „přichází k Mai-tréjovi“). Ablativ B -meṃ (*maṃtstsas* „pod“?), A -āš jako lokál ve funkci „z“ a „od“ (zde i ve smyslu času), vyjadřuje duševní hnutí, užívá se po slovese AB *pārsk-* „bát se“, dále jako ablativus comparationis (B *asānmeṃ tsānka* „zvedl se z trůnu“). Lokativ B -ne, A -aṃ se užívá místně ve smyslu otázek „kam“, „kde“ (B *nraine tānmastār* „zrodí se v pekle“), jako cíl duševních pohnutek i vyjádření času („kdy“) a superlativu. Kausalis jen v B -ñ v citových hnutích: *kawāñ* „z žádostivosti“.

Číslo: Duál bývá v obou jazycích nahrazován plurálem. Vzhledem k početnosti rukopisů je lépe doložen v jazyce B. Krause (1955: 15n.) navíc rozlišoval zvláštní číslo parál s koncovkami B -ne a A -ṃ, které měly označovat přirozenou podvojnost tělesných částí. V jazyce B se ještě rozlišoval tzv. plurativ neboli distributivní plurál např. *ostuwaiwenta* „jednotlivé domy“ vedle sg. *ost* „dům“ a pl. *ostwa* (např. Krause & Thomas 1960: 76-78 a Pinault 1989: 70-71). Všechny tvary však lze odvodit z indoevropského duálu (Hilmarsson 1989; Adams 1991). Dochované formy duálu jazyka B mohou být neutra končící v nom. na palatalizované hlásky -ñc, -š nebo vokál -i (sg. *mlyuwe* „stehno“, du. *mlyuweñc*; sg. *pilta* „list“, du. *piltāš*, pl. *piltāsa*; sg. *kleś* „zákal“, du. *kleśanmi*, pl. *kleśanma*). Druhou skupinu tvoří maskulina či feminina končící na -e/ -ne; -e samo tvoří duál, i když je doloženo jediným výskytem *pacere* (od. sg. *pācer* „otec“, pl. *pacera*); -ne tvoří duál buď u atématických nebo tématických tvarů (atématické: sg. *pokai* „paže“, du. *pokaine*, pl. *pokaiñ*; tématické vždy po vokálu -e: sg. *ñakte* „bůh“, du. *ñaktene*, pl. *ñakti*); koncovky duálu a plurálu se tedy přidávají ke stejnému kmeni (Adams 1991: 26). Nečetné tvary jazyka A končí na -eṃ & -āṃ, výjimečně na -āṃ (*lymeṃ* „rty“, *pār wāṃ* „obočí“, *pāśśāṃ* „ňadra“). Genitiv duálu má v jazyce A koncovky -nis a -ne (*klośnis* „dvou uší“, *aśnis* „dvou očí“, *tine* „těchto dvou“, *āmpine* „obou“); v jazyce B jsou koncovky -naisāñ a -naisi (*eśnaisāñ* „dvou očí“, *komñāktenaisāñ* „dvou bohů-sluncí“, *tainaisi* „těchto dvou“).

Plurál jmen často tvoří ukazatel -nt-, sr. het. kol. a luv. pl. -ant- (B sg. *palskañe* „myšlenka“, pl. *palskañenta*) a rozmanité koncovky. Pro nom. a obl.

se shodují koncovky 1) B *-a*, A *-ā* < \**-H<sub>2</sub>* (B sg. *camel*, pl. *cmela* „zrození“); 2) B *-wa*, A *-ul* / *-wā* (B sg. *ost*, pl. *ostwa*, A *wašt*, pl. *waštu* „domy“ < \**u<sub>2</sub>s-tu-H<sub>2</sub>*; A sg. *pält*, pl. *pältwā* „listy“); 3) B *-na* / *-nma*, A *-mnā* (B sg. *šarm*, pl. *šarmana* / *šarmanma* „příčiny“ < \**s<sub>uer</sub>-m<sub>ṅ</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>*); 4) A *-nt*, B *-nta* < \**-nt-H<sub>2</sub>* (A *pont*, B *ponta* „všichni“ od sg. B *po*, A *puk*). Od tvarů v obl. B *-m* : A *-s* (\**-ns*) se liší jednotlivé příslušné tvary nominativu: AB *-i*, kdy je koncová slabika palatalizovaná (nom. sg. B *meñe*, A *mañ* „měsíc“ < \**mēñēn*, nom. pl. B *meñi*, A *mañi* < °*ejes*, obl. pl. B *meñām*, A *mañäs* < °*ens*) nebo nepalatalizovaná (nom. sg. B *ršāke*, A *rišak* „světec“, nom. pl. B *ršāki*, A *rišaki* < \**-o<sub>i</sub>*); další koncovky AB *-ñ* s variantami B *-eñ*, A *-añ* (A *yukañ* „koně“ < \**-ones*), AB *-iñ* (*riñ* „města“ od sg. nom. B *riye*, A *ri*), B *-añ*, A *-añ* / *-āñ* (např. B varianta tématického nom. pl. *klyomoñ* „slavní“ < \**k<sub>leu</sub>-mōn-es* od nom. sg. *klyomo*; A nom. pl. *swāñcenāñ* „paprsky“ od nom. sg. *swāñcem*), B *-aiñ* (B *swāñcaiñ* „paprsky“ od nom. sg. *swāñco*) a pl. B *-ñc* < \**-ntes*. Genitiv plurálu se tvoří koncovkami A *-is*, B *-m<sub>ts</sub>* (*yākwe<sub>mts</sub>* „koní“, *lāk<sub>lentam<sub>ts</sub></sub>* „utrpení“ < \**-nsōm*), & A *-śśi* (gen. pl. *wramnis* & *wramnāśśi* „věc“ : nom. sg. *wram*).

Substantiva se dělí do 7 deklinačních tříd. Příklad úplné (dvojsystémové) deklinace V. třídy: B *yakwe*, A *yuk* „kůň“; B *eñkwe*, A *oñk* „člověk“ (viz Pinault 1989: 73; Gippert 1987: 22-39; Carling 1999: 95-110):

B	Sg.	Pl.	A	Sg.	Pl.
nom.	<i>yakwe, eñkwe</i> < * <i>ek<sub>yo</sub>, *ñk<sub>yo</sub></i>	<i>yakwi, eñkwi</i> < * <i>ek<sub>woi</sub>, *ñk<sub>woi</sub></i>	nom.	<i>yuk, oñk</i> < * <i>ek<sub>yo</sub>, *ñk<sub>yo</sub></i>	<i>yukañ, oñkañ</i> < * <i>ek<sub>yones</sub>, *ñk<sub>yones</sub></i>
obl.	<i>yakwe, eñkwe<sub>m</sub></i> < * <i>ek<sub>yom</sub>, *ñk<sub>yom<sub>m</sub></sub></i>	<i>yakwe<sub>m</sub>, eñkwe<sub>m</sub></i> < * <i>ek<sub>yons</sub>, *ñk<sub>yons</sub></i>	obl.	<i>yuk, oñka<sub>m</sub></i> < * <i>ek<sub>yom</sub>, *ñk<sub>yom<sub>m</sub></sub></i>	<i>yukas, oñkas</i> < * <i>ek<sub>yons</sub>, *ñk<sub>yons</sub></i>
gen.	<i>yākwentse, eñkwentse</i> < * <i>ek<sub>yons-os</sub>, *ñk<sub>yons-os</sub></i>	<i>yākwe<sub>mts</sub>, eñkwe<sub>mts</sub></i> < * <i>ek<sub>yons-ōm</sub>, *ñk<sub>yons-ōm</sub></i>	gen.	<i>yukes, oñkis</i> < * <i>ek<sub>yons-os</sub>, *ñk<sub>yons-os</sub></i>	<i>yukaśśi, oñkaśśi</i> < * <i>ek<sub>yons-</sub>, *ñk<sub>ons-</sub> + *Tei?</i>
			instr.	<i>yukyo</i> < * <i>ek<sub>yo</sub> + A yo a</i>	<i>yukasyo</i> < * <i>ek<sub>yons</sub> + yo</i>
perl.	<i>yakwesa, eñkwentsa</i> < * <i>ek<sub>yo-sā</sub>, *ñk<sub>yon-sā</sub></i> < * <i>s-ā</i> / * <i>-ad</i> ; <i>-s-</i> podle pl.	<i>yakwentsa, eñkwentsa</i> < * <i>ek<sub>yons-ā</sub>-ad, *ñk<sub>yons-ā</sub></i> / <i>-ad</i>	perl.	<i>yukā, oñk<sub>nā</sub></i> < * <i>ek<sub>yo-ā</sub>-ad, *ñk<sub>yon-ā</sub>-ad</i>	<i>yukasā, oñk<sub>sā</sub></i> < * <i>ek<sub>yons-</sub>, *ñk<sub>yons-ā</sub>-ad</i>
kom.	<i>yakwempa, eñkwe<sub>m</sub>mpa</i> < * <i>ek<sub>yo-</sub>, *ñk<sub>yon-</sub> + B mapi přeci?</i>	<i>yakwe<sub>m</sub>mpa, eñkwe<sub>m</sub>mpa</i> < * <i>ek<sub>yon(s)-</sub>, *ñk<sub>yon(s)-</sub></i> + B mapi přeci?	kom.	<i>yukasśāl, oñk<sub>n</sub>śāl</i> < * <i>ek<sub>yo-</sub>, *ñk<sub>yon-</sub> + A śla, B ś(a)le dohromady</i>	<i>yukasāśśāl, oñk<sub>s</sub>āśśāl</i> < * <i>ek<sub>yons-</sub>, *ñk<sub>yons-</sub> + A śla, B ś(a)le dohromady</i>
all.	<i>yakweś(c), eñkwe<sub>m</sub>ś(c)</i> < * <i>ek<sub>yo-de</sub>, *ñk<sub>yon-de</sub></i>	<i>yakwe<sub>m</sub>ś(c), eñkwe<sub>m</sub>ś(c)</i> < * <i>ek<sub>yons-de</sub>, *ñk<sub>yons-de</sub></i>	all.	<i>yukac, oñknac</i> < * <i>ek<sub>yo-de</sub>, *ñk<sub>yon-de</sub></i>	<i>yukasac, oñksac</i> < * <i>ek<sub>yons-de</sub>, *ñk<sub>yons-de</sub></i>
abl.	<i>yakwe<sub>m</sub>, eñkwe<sub>m</sub></i> < * <i>ek<sub>yo-</sub>, *ñk<sub>yon-</sub> + mon-?</i>	<i>yakwe<sub>m</sub>, eñkwe<sub>m</sub></i> < * <i>ek<sub>yons-</sub>, *ñk<sub>yons-</sub> + mon-?</i>	abl.	<i>yukās, oñk<sub>n</sub>ās</i> < * <i>ek<sub>yo-Vti</sub>, *ñk<sub>yon-Vti</sub>?</i>	<i>yukasās, oñk<sub>s</sub>ās</i> < * <i>ek<sub>yons-Vti</sub>, *ñk<sub>yons-Vti</sub>?</i>
lok.	<i>yakwene, eñkwe<sub>n</sub>e</i> < * <i>ek<sub>yo-no</sub>, *ñk<sub>yon-no</sub></i>	<i>yakwene, eñkwe<sub>n</sub>e</i> = sg. ?	lok.	<i>yukam, oñkam</i> < * <i>ek<sub>yo-no</sub>, *ñk<sub>yon-no</sub></i>	<i>yukasam, oñksam</i> < * <i>ek<sub>yons-no</sub>, *ñk<sub>yons-no</sub></i>

Následují příklady vzorů primárních pádů a perlativu z jednotlivých deklinačních tříd; u šesté třídy jsou vedle singuláru uvedeny i tvary duálu (Krause & Thomas 1960: 138-144): I,1: B *pikul* f., A *p<sub>u</sub>kāl* f., „rok“; II,1: B *ñem* a., „jméno“, A *wram* a., „věc“; III,1 B *yarke* a., A *yārk* a., „soustředění“; IV *pācer* m., *pācar* m. „otec“; V,1: B *yakwe* m., A *yuk* m. „kůň“; VI,2: B *ek* a., A *ak* a., „oko“; VII: B *walo* a., A *wāl* a., „král“.

B	I,1	II,1	III,1	IV	V,1	VI,2	VII
Sg. nom.	<i>pikul</i>	<i>ñem</i>	<i>yarke</i>	<i>pācer</i>	<i>yakwe</i>	<i>ek, du. eš(a)ne</i>	<i>walo</i>
obl.	<i>pikul</i>	<i>ñem</i>	<i>yarke</i>	<i>pātār</i>	<i>yakwe</i>	<i>ek, du. eš(a)ne</i>	<i>lānt</i>
gen.	<i>pikulntse</i>	<i>ñemantse</i>	<i>yārkentse</i>	<i>pātri</i>	<i>yākwentse</i>	<i>ekantse, du. ešnaisañ</i>	<i>lānte</i>
perl.	<i>pikulntsa</i>	<i>ñemntsa</i>	<i>yarkesa</i>	<i>pātārsa</i>	<i>yakwesa</i>	<i>eksa, du. eš(a)nesa</i>	<i>lāntsa</i>
Pl. nom.	<i>pikwala</i>	<i>ñemna</i>	<i>yārkenta</i>	<i>pācera</i>	<i>yakwi</i>	<i>ešaiñ</i>	<i>lāñe</i>
obl.	<i>pikwala</i>	<i>ñemna</i>	<i>yārkenta</i>	<i>pācera</i>	<i>yakweñ</i>	<i>ešaim</i>	<i>lāntām</i>
gen.	<i>pikwalamts</i>	<i>ñemnamts</i>	<i>yārkentamts</i>	<i>paceramts</i>	<i>yākwemts</i>	<i>ešaimts</i>	<i>lāntāmts</i>
perl.	<i>pikwalasa</i>	<i>ñemnasa</i>	<i>yārkentasa</i>	<i>pacerasa</i>	<i>yakwentsa</i>	<i>ešaintsa</i>	<i>lāntāmntsa</i>

A.	I,1	II,1	III,1	IV	V,1	VI,2	VII
Sg. nom.	<i>p<sub>u</sub>kāl</i>	<i>wram</i>	<i>yārk</i>	<i>pācar</i>	<i>yuk</i>	<i>ak, du. ašam</i>	<i>wāl</i>
obl.	<i>p<sub>u</sub>kāl</i>	<i>wram</i>	<i>yārk</i>	<i>pācar</i>	<i>yuk</i>	<i>ak, du. ašam</i>	<i>lānt</i>
gen.	<i>p<sub>u</sub>klis</i>	<i>wramis</i>	<i>yārkes</i>	<i>pācri</i>	<i>yukes</i>	<i>akis, du. ašnis</i>	<i>lānt</i>
perl.	<i>p<sub>u</sub>klā</i>	<i>wramā</i>	<i>yārkā</i>	<i>pācrā</i>	<i>yukā</i>	<i>akā, du. ašnā</i>	<i>lāntā</i>
Pl. nom.	<i>puklā</i>	<i>wramām</i>	<i>yārkant</i>	<i>pācri</i>	<i>yukañ</i>	Ø	<i>lāmś</i>
obl.	<i>puklā</i>	<i>wramām</i>	<i>yārkant</i>	<i>pācrās</i>	<i>yukas</i>	Ø	<i>lāñcās</i>
gen.	<i>puklākis/-āšši</i>	<i>wramnis/-āšši</i>	<i>yārkāntwis</i>	<i>pācrāšši</i>	<i>yukašši</i>	Ø	<i>lāñcāšši</i>
perl.	<i>puklākā</i>	<i>wramnā</i>	<i>yārkāntwā</i>	<i>*pācrsā</i>	<i>yukasā</i>	Ø	<i>lāñcsā</i>

Skupinová flexe: u vícenásobných souřadných větných členů mají pádovou koncovku buď všechny nebo jen poslední – viz. B perl. *kektseñ reki palskosa* „tělem, řečí a myslí“, A instr. *kuklas yukas onkalmāsyo* „s vozy, s koni a se slony“. Ve vazbách substantiv s adjektivy a ukazovacími zájmeny mívá substantivum příslušnou sekundární koncovku, zatímco zájmenný či adjektivní atribut je v základním tvaru obliquu bez koncovky B lok. *pakwārona ymainne* „na nesprávných stezkách“. Pokud je substantivum v genitivu, určující zájmeno nebo adjektivum bývá kromě obliquu (A pl. *sāwes kāsšišši* „velkých učitelů“) také v genitivu (B sg. *cwi yāmortse* „tohoto činu“; A sg. *enkālšināp poris* „ohně utrpení“).

## Adjektiva

Adjektiva se typologicky dělí na čtyři třídy dle tvarů mask. pl. v jazyce B (třídy i vzory podle Krause & Thomas 1960: 144-158):

třída	nom. pl.	obl. pl.
I.	-i	-eṃ
II.	-ñ	-(nā)ṃ
III.	-ñc	-ntāṃ
IV.	-ṣ	-ṣāṃ

I. třída zahrnuje adjektiva odvozená nejčastěji od obliquu subst. koncovkami: B -ṣṣe, A -ṣi; B -(i)ye, A -i; B -ññe, A -ñi; B -tstse, A -ts ; adjektivní sufixy B -ke, A -k jsou iránského původu (B *spaktanīke*, A *spaktanīk* „ministr, sloužící“). Podle tvarů této třídy se skloňují i gerundiva I. a II. B -lye/ -lle, A -l; dále řadové číslovky (např. B *trite*, A *trit* „třetí“), adjektiva končící na B -re, A -r (B *astare*, A *āṣtār* „čistý“) nebo v A na -ñci (*k<sub>u</sub>leñci* „ženský“) a -e(m) (jen pl.: *oṅkalmemwāl* „sloní král“). Koncovky B -ṣṣe, A -ṣi jsou ke konsonantním substantivům připojeny vokálem B *a/ ä*, A *a/ ā* (B *stām* „strom“: *stamaṣṣe* „stromový“, A *ṣtām*: *ṣtāmaṣi* idem.), u obl. sg. & nom. + obl. pl. feminin může být -ṣ- nahrazeno -ṣṣ-. Další příklady B -(i)ye, A -i (B *ñākciye*, A *ñākci* „božský“); B -ññe, A -ñi (B *Dharmasomāññe* „Dharmasómův“); koncovky B -tstse, A -ts (B *orotstse* „velký“, A *tsopats* idem.) mají i posesivní význam (B *kokaletstse* „mající vůz“), u mask. je -tsts- jen v nom. sg., jinak se mění v -cc-; stejně se mění -t- v -c- v B *trite* : obl. *trice* „třetí“ aj.

Různá adjektiva II. třídy (včetně participií i činitelských jmen) spojuje tvar nom. m. pl. -ñ s variantami -iñ (v nom. sg. m. -i např. B *ārkwī*, A *ārki* „bílý“), -aiñ (jediné slovo B nom. sg. m. *yolo* „zlý“), -añ (v B nom. sg. m. -e/-a/-ṃ/-k/-s/ v pl. -ñ, např. B *lykaṣke* „malý“, B *ynūca* „jdoucí“, AB *tseṃ* „modrý“, AB -lyāk „vidoucí“, B *anās* „chudý“, B m. pl. *ysā-yokañ* „zlataví“), -eñ (nom. sg. m. -e, např. B *tapre*, A *tpār* „vysoký“), -oñ (nom. sg. m. -mo, nom. sg. m. B *klyomo*, A *klyom* „vznešený“).

III. třída je odvozena od původních -nt- kmenů. V nom. sg. m. bývá B -e<sub>u</sub>, -ā<sub>u</sub> (v obou případech v A -o) nebo AB -u. Podle sg. v B byly zvoleny vzory: B *perne<sub>u</sub>*, A *parno* „zářící“; B *tallā<sub>u</sub>*, A *tālo* „chudý“; AB *ymassu* „pamětlivý“. Spadají sem sklonné tvary B *po*, A *puk* „všechn, každý“ a adj. B *kartse* „dobrý“, kterému v A odpovídá nepřibuzné *kāsu* idem.

IV. třídu tvoří participia préterita a v jazyce A některá přítomná participia média v m., nejčastěji *knānmām* v titulu Buddhy *puk-knānmām* „Vševědoucí“. Participia préterita končí nejčastěji v sg. na AB -u (AB *yāmu* „udělaný“) s podskupinou zvláštních tvarů v B *ltu*, A *lantu* „vyšlý“. Druhou skupinu tvarů na B -au, A -o (B *kālpau*, A *kālpo* „dosažený“) doplňují tvary s reduplikací iniciální slabiky a koncovkami B -au, A -u (vzor B *papaikau*, A *pāpeku* „malovaný“).

Srovnání pádových koncovek adjektiv všech tříd obou jazyků je excer-pováno z výběru vzorů pro jednotlivé třídy: I. adjektivní koncovky B *-şşe*, A *-şi*; II. B *lāre* „milý“, A *klyom* „vznešený“; III. B *perne* „A *parno* „zářící“; IV. AB *yāmu* „udělaný“.

B mask.	I.	II.	III.	IV.
sg. nom.	<i>-e</i>	<i>-e</i>	<i>-e<sub>u</sub></i>	<i>-u</i>
obl.	<i>-e (-eṃ)</i>	<i>-eṃ</i>	<i>-ent</i>	<i>-oş</i>
gen.	<i>-epi</i>	<i>-epi</i>	<i>*-ente</i>	<i>-oşepi</i>
pl. nom.	<i>-i</i>	<i>-eñ</i>	<i>-eñc</i>	<i>-oş</i>
obl.	<i>-eṃ</i>	<i>-e(nā)ṃ</i>	<i>-entāṃ</i>	<i>-oşāṃ</i>
gen.	<i>-eṃts</i>	<i>-enāṃts</i>	<i>-entāṃts</i>	<i>-oşāṃts</i>

B fem.	I.	II.	III.	IV.
sg. nom.	<i>-a</i>	<i>-iya</i>	<i>-auntsa</i>	<i>-usa</i>
obl.	<i>-ai</i>	<i>-iyai</i>	<i>-auntsai</i>	<i>-usai</i>
gen.	<i>*-antse</i>	$\emptyset$	$\emptyset$	$\emptyset$
pl. nom.	<i>-ana (-ona)</i>	<i>-ona</i>	<i>-enta</i>	<i>-(u)wa</i>
obl.	<i>-ana (-ona)</i>	<i>-ona</i>	<i>-enta</i>	<i>-(u)wa</i>
gen.	<i>-anaṃts</i>	$\emptyset$	<i>-entaṃts</i>	<i>-(u)waṃts</i>

A mask.	I.	II.	III.	IV.
sg. nom.	<i>-i</i>	<i>-<math>\emptyset</math></i>	<i>-o</i>	<i>-u</i>
obl.	<i>-i/-iṃ/-ināṃ</i>	<i>-änt</i>	<i>-ont</i>	<i>-unt</i>
gen.	<i>-ināp</i>	<i>-äntāp</i>	<i>-ontāp</i>	<i>-untāp</i>
pl. nom.	<i>-iñi</i>	<i>-äş</i>	<i>-oş</i>	<i>-uş</i>
obl.	<i>-inās</i>	<i>-äñcās</i>	<i>-oñcās</i>	<i>-uñcās</i>
gen.	<i>-ināşşi</i>	<i>-äñcāşşi</i>	<i>-oñcāşşi</i>	<i>-uñcāşşi</i>

A fem.	I.	II.	III.	IV.
sg. nom.	<i>-i/-iṃ</i>	<i>-iṃ</i>	<i>-oṃts</i>	<i>-us</i>
obl.	<i>-i/-iṃ/-ināṃ/- (şş)āṃ /-yāṃ</i>	<i>-ināṃ</i>	<i>-ontsāṃ</i>	<i>-usāṃ</i>
gen.	<i>-ine</i>	<i>-ine</i>	<i>*-ontse</i>	$\emptyset$
pl. nom.	<i>-ināñ /-(şş)āñ (-aṃ)</i>	<i>-ināñ</i>	<i>-ont</i>	<i>-unt</i>
obl.	<i>-inās /-(şş)ās (-aṃ)</i>	<i>-inās</i>	<i>-ont</i>	<i>-unt</i>
gen.	<i>-ināşşi</i>	$\emptyset$	<i>*-ontāşşi</i>	<i>-untāşşi</i>

Tvary vokativu adjektiv v sg. m. končí u všech tříd v B *-u*: např. I. *-şşu*. Adjektiva I. třídy B *-re* mají obl. sg. m. *-eṃ*. U gerundiv, řadových číslovek a adjektiv na B *-re* & A *-r* a B *-tte* & A *-t* jsou tvary feminin nom. +

obl. pl. B *-ona* & A *-am*. V rámci II. třídy se nejvíce liší koncovky u B *ārkwī*, A *ārki* „bílý“: nom. pl. m. B *-im*, A *-yamś*; nom. sg. f. B *-aňña*, A *-yant*. V B je sg. f. *-ňña* častější (*tseňña* „modrá“). III. třída je zcela pravidelná, pouze nom. pl. m. B *-ñc* odpovídají varianty v A *-ňś*, *-mś*, nebo po vokálu *-ṣ*. V obl. sg. m. v B místo *-nt* bývá *-ñcām* (*poñcām* „každého“). IV. třída je také pravidelná, s výjimkou podskupiny v B *ltu* „vyšlý“, kde se v nenominativních tvarech m. sg. vokál před *-ṣ* mění na obl. *ltuweṣ* „vyšlého“; u A *knānmām* „věducí“ se místo nom. *-m* klade v gen. *-nt* apod.

Tvary duálu: I. třída du. B *kenine* „kolena“: *kenineṣṣe*, A *kanweṃ* id.: *kanweṃṣi*. U tvarů na *-(ts)ts-* jsou dochovány tvary duálu *-tsane* (*wartsane* „širocí“ od sg. *wartse*, *cakkartsane* „mající dvě kola“ od sg. *cakkartse*) a *-tsi* (*aurtsi* „širocí“ od sg. *aurtse*, *läktsi* „zářící“ od *lak<sub>u</sub>tse*). Jediné dva tvary adjektiv duálu v jazyce A jsou *yetuntin* „ozdobení“ a *lalānkuntim* „ověšení“ (Adams 1991: 31).

Adjektivní tvary substantiv se tvoří příponami, typicky např. A m. et f. *-ṣi/ -ṣim*, B m. *-ṣṣe*, f. *-ṣṣa* s flexí: B mask. sg. nom. et obl. *-ṣṣe*, gen. *-ṣṣepi*, vok. *-ṣṣu*; pl. nom. *-ṣṣi*, obl. *-ṣṣeṃ*, gen. *-ṣṣeṃts*. B fem. sg. nom. *-ṣṣa*, obl. *-ṣṣai*, gen. *\*-ṣṣantse*, pl. nom.-obl. *-ṣṣana*, gen. *\*-ṣṣanamts*. A mask. sg. nom. *-ṣi*, obl. *-ṣi/ -ṣim/ -ṣinām*, gen. *-ṣināp*, pl. nom. *-ṣiñi*, obl. *-ṣinās*, gen. *-ṣināśśi*. A fem. sg. nom. *-ṣi/ -ṣim*, obl. *-ṣi/ -ṣim/ -ṣinām/ -ṣyām/ -ṣṣām*, pl. nom. *-ṣināñ/ -ṣṣāñ*, obl. *-ṣinās/ -ṣṣās*, gen. *\*-ṣināśśi*.

Jako příklad adjektivního skloňování mohou posloužit např. B *kartse*, A *kāsu* „dobrý“.

		m.		f.	
		B	A	B	A
sg.	nom.	<i>kartse</i>	<i>kāsu</i>	<i>kartsa</i>	<i>*krä(ṃ)ts?</i>
	obl.	<i>krent</i>	<i>krant, krañcām</i>	<i>kartsai</i>	<i>krāntsām</i>
	gen.	<i>kreñcepi</i>	<i>krantāp</i>	<i>∅</i>	<i>∅</i>
pl.	nom.	<i>kreñc</i>	<i>kramś</i>	<i>krenta</i>	<i>krant</i>
	obl.	<i>krentām</i>	<i>krañcās</i>	<i>krenta</i>	<i>krant</i>
	gen.	<i>krentaṃ</i>	<i>krañcāśśi</i>	<i>krentaṃts</i>	<i>*krantāśśi</i>

## Pronomina

Plné tvary osobních zájmen jsou doloženy jen pro 1. a 2. osobu; zvláštní tvary pro m. a f. jsou jen v A u 1. os. sg.; duál je jen v B nom. + obl. Mimo vzory (Krause & Thomas 1960: 162) je doložen duál 3. os. nom. + obl. B *taine* „ti/ ty dva“ (Adams 1991: 30). Podkladem pro následující rekonstrukce je Jasanoff (1989), Pinault (1989: 111n) a Adams (1988: 149-156)

	B 1.os.	A 1. os.	B 2. os.	A 2. os.
sg. nom.	<i>ñās (ñis) &lt; *(m)ege</i>	nom.-obl. f. <i>ñuk &lt; *(m)egō</i>	<i>twe, tuwe &lt; *tuHom</i>	<i>tu &lt; *tuHom</i>
obl.	<i>ñās (ñis) &lt; *mege</i>	nom.-obl. m. <i>nās &lt; *ñās-āṣ &lt; abl. *meg-eti</i>	<i>ci &lt; *cāyā &lt; *tjāwjä &lt; *(e)ye</i>	<i>cu &lt; *cāwā &lt; *tjāwjä &lt; *(e)ye</i>
gen.	<i>ñi &lt; *m'ñai &lt; *meneis</i>	m. <i>ñi &lt; *meneis</i> f. <i>nāñi &lt; *māneis</i>	<i>tañ &lt; *tune</i>	<i>tñi &lt; *tuneis</i>
du. nom. + obl.	<i>wene &lt; *uo-n-oH<sub>1</sub></i>	∅	<i>yene &lt; *io-n-oH<sub>1</sub></i>	∅
du. gen.	<i>wenaisāñ &lt; *uo-n-ojs-ne</i>		<i>yenaisāñ &lt; *io-n-ois-ne</i>	
pl. nom. + obl.	<i>wes &lt; *uos</i>	<i>was &lt; *uos</i>	<i>yes &lt; *jos</i>	<i>yas &lt; *jos</i>
gen.	<i>wesi &lt; *uosoi(s)</i> <i>wesāñ, wesām &lt; lok. *uos-ne,-o</i>	<i>wasām &lt; *uos-ne,-o</i>	<i>yesi &lt; *joso(i)</i> <i>yesāñ, yesām &lt; *jos-ne,-o</i>	<i>yasām &lt; *jos-ne,-o</i>

Tvary genitivu se používají i jako posesiva; stejnou funkci má vztažné B *sañ* & A *ṣñi* (\**sene* & \**seneis*). Všechny tři osoby se dochovaly u slovesných enklitik: sg. 1. B -*ñ*, A -*ñi* < \**mene*; 2. B -*c*, A -*ci* (např. B *wināskau-c*, A *wināsam-ci* „obdivuji tě“) < \**te*; 3. B -*ne*, A -*m* < \**eno-/\*ono-*; pl. 1.-3. shodně B -*me*, A -*m* < 1. \**ṅsmo*, 2. \**usmo*, 3. \**smo-* (Adams 1988: 155).

Ukazovací zájmena mají tři stupně deixe, v m. I. B *su*, A *sām* „te“; II. B *se*, A *sās* „tento“; ještě silnější deiktickou variantu představuje III. B *sem*, A *saṃ*; iniciální *s-* je v m. vždy jen v nom. sg., jinak se mění v *c-* < \**tE-*. Stejně se mění u f. iniciální *s-* na *t-*. Všechny tvary neutra začínají na *t-*. Duál je doložen v nejslabší deixi u nom. + obl. m. B *tai*, A *tīm* (od sg. B *su*, A *sām*), gen. B *tainaisi/ tainaisāñ*, A \**time*; v nejsilnější deixi jsou jen A tvary nom. + obl. *tīm*, gen. *tine*. Detailní analýza ukazuje, že se zde kombinují demonstrativní kmeny \**so-*/ \**sā-* & \**to-*/ \**tā-* s deiktickými elementy \**u*, \**nu*, v A také \**mu*, \**se*.

B		sg.			pl.		
deixe		I.	II.	III.	I.	II.	III.
m.	nom.	<i>su &lt; *so+u<sup>1</sup></i>	<i>se &lt; *so</i>	<i>sem &lt; *so+nu<sup>1</sup></i>	<i>cey, cai &lt; *to<sub>1</sub><sup>2</sup> či *tē<sub>1</sub>-es<sup>3</sup></i>	<i>cey, cai &lt; *to<sub>1</sub><sup>2</sup> či *tē<sub>1</sub>-es<sup>3</sup></i>	<i>cey, cai &lt; *to<sub>1</sub><sup>2</sup> či *tē<sub>1</sub>-es<sup>3</sup></i>
	obl.	<i>ce<sub>u</sub> &lt; *tom+u<sup>2</sup> c- dle g. *teso</i>	<i>ce &lt; *tom<sup>2</sup> c- dle g. *teso</i>	<i>cem &lt; *tom+nu<sup>2</sup> c- dle g. *teso</i>	<i>cem &lt; *tons<sup>2</sup> či *tēns<sup>4</sup></i>	<i>cem &lt; *tons<sup>2</sup> či *tēns<sup>4</sup></i>	<i>cenām &lt; *tēns+nu<sup>5</sup> ceyna</i>
	gen.	<i>cwī, cpī &lt; *csāw-i &lt; *teso+u-o<sub>1</sub><sup>5</sup> či *teb<sup>h</sup>e<sub>1</sub><sup>6</sup></i>	<i>cwī, cpī &lt; *teso+u-o<sub>1</sub><sup>5</sup> či *teb<sup>h</sup>e<sub>1</sub><sup>6</sup></i>	<i>cwī, cpī &lt; *teso+u-o<sub>1</sub><sup>5</sup> či *teb<sup>h</sup>e<sub>1</sub><sup>6</sup></i>	<i>ceṃts &lt; *tēns-ōm</i>	<i>ceṃts &lt; *tēns-ōm</i>	<i>ceyṃamts, cayṃamts</i>
f.	nom.	<i>sā<sub>u</sub> &lt; *sā+u</i>	<i>sā &lt; *sā</i>	<i>sām &lt; *sā+nu</i>	<i>toṃ = obl.?</i>	<i>toy &lt; *tā<sub>1</sub>+u-es?</i>	<i>toyna &lt; *tā<sub>1</sub>+u-es+nā?</i>
	obl.	<i>tā<sub>u</sub> &lt; *tām+u</i>	<i>tā &lt; *tām</i>	<i>tām &lt; *tām+nu</i>	<i>tom &lt; *tā+u-ns<sup>7</sup></i>	<i>toy = nom.</i>	<i>toyna = nom.</i>
	gen.	<i>tāy &lt; dat. *tā<sub>1</sub></i>	<i>tāy &lt; dat. *tā<sub>1</sub></i>	∅	<i>toṃts &lt; *tāns-ōm</i>	∅	<i>toynaṃts</i>

n.	nom.	<i>tu</i> < * <i>to(d)+u</i>	<i>te</i> < * <i>tod</i>	<i>teṃ</i> < * <i>tod+nu</i>	∅	∅	∅
	obl.	<i>tu</i> < * <i>to(d)+u</i>	<i>te</i> < * <i>tod</i>	<i>teṃ</i> < * <i>tod+nu</i>	∅	∅	∅
	gen.	<i>tuntse</i> < * <i>to+u-nsos</i>	<i>tentse</i> < * <i>to-nsos</i>	<i>tentse</i> < * <i>to-nsos</i>	∅	∅	∅

A		sg.			pl.		
deixe		I.	II.	III.	I.	II.	III.
m.	nom.	<i>sām</i> < * <i>so+mu</i>	<i>sās</i> < * <i>sos+se</i> <sup>8</sup>	<i>saṃ</i> < * <i>so+nu</i>	<i>cem</i> < * <i>toj+mu</i> či * <i>iēj-es+mu</i>	<i>ceṣ</i> < * <i>toj+se</i> či * <i>iēj-es+se</i>	<i>ceṃ</i> < * <i>toj+nu</i> či * <i>iēj-es+nu</i>
	obl.	<i>cam</i> < * <i>tom+mu</i>	<i>caṣ</i> < * <i>tom+se</i>	<i>caṃ</i> < * <i>tom+nu</i>	<i>cesām</i> < * <i>iēns+mu</i>	<i>cesās</i> < * <i>iēns+se</i>	<i>cesāṃ</i> < * <i>iēns+nu</i>
	gen.	<i>camī</i> < * <i>tom+mu-ejs</i>	<i>caṣī</i> < * <i>tom+se-ejs</i>	<i>canī</i> < * <i>tom+nu-ejs</i>	<i>cesmī</i> < * <i>iēns+mu-eis</i>	<i>cessī</i> < * <i>iēns+se-eis</i>	<i>cesmī</i> < * <i>iēns+nu-eis</i>
f.	nom.	<i>sām</i> < * <i>sā+mu</i>	<i>sās</i> < * <i>sā+sā</i>	<i>sāṃ</i> < * <i>sā+nu</i>	<i>tom</i> < * <i>iā+u?-es+mu</i>	<i>toṣ</i> < * <i>iā+u?-es+se</i>	<i>toṃ</i> < * <i>iā+u?-es+nu</i>
	obl.	<i>tām</i> < * <i>tām+mu</i>	<i>tāṣ</i> < * <i>tām+se</i>	<i>tāṃ</i> < * <i>tām+nu</i>	<i>tosām</i> < * <i>iā+u-ns+mu</i>	<i>tosās</i> < * <i>iā+u-ns+se</i>	<i>tosāṃ</i> < * <i>iā+u-ns+nu</i>
	gen.	<i>temī</i> < * <i>tāi+mu-ejs</i>	∅	∅	<i>tosmāssi</i> < * <i>tāns+mu-āskīāā</i>	∅	∅
n.	nom.	<i>tām</i> < * <i>tod+mu</i>	<i>tāṣ</i> < * <i>tod+se</i>	<i>taṃ</i> < * <i>tod+nu</i>	∅	∅	∅
	obl.	<i>tām</i> < * <i>tod+mu</i>	<i>tāṣ</i> < * <i>tod+se</i>	<i>taṃ</i> < * <i>tod+nu</i>	∅	∅	∅
	gen.	<i>tmīs</i> < * <i>to+mu-ensos</i>	* <i>tīs</i> < * <i>to+se-ensos</i>	<i>tanīs</i> < * <i>to+nu-ensos</i>	∅	∅	∅

Pozn.: 1) Adams 1988: 164, 163; Pinault 1989: 115; 2) Pinault 1989: 114; 3) Van Windekens 1979: 266; 4) Van Windekens 1979: 267; 5) Adams 1988: 165-66; 6) Pinault 1989: 114; 7) Van Windekens 1979: 267; 8) Adams 1988: 166 s odvoláním na Wintera, který vysvětlil formy se *s* namísto *ṣ* jako důsledek spojení <sup>o</sup>*s+se*.

Flexe hlavních tázacích a neurčitých zájmen je stejná pro všechna čísla: tázací „kdo, co“: nom. B *k<sub>u</sub>se*, A *kus*; neurčité „někdo, něco“: nom. B *ksa*, A *saṃ*:

	B tázací/vztažné	B neurčité	A tázací/vztažné	A neurčité
nom.	<i>k<sub>u</sub>se</i> < * <i>k<sup>u</sup>u-so</i>	<i>ksa</i> < * <i>k<sup>u</sup>u-sā</i>	<i>kus</i> < * <i>k<sup>u</sup>u-so</i>	<i>saṃ</i> < * <i>so + nu</i>
obl.	<i>k<sub>u</sub>ce</i> < * <i>k<sup>u</sup>u-tom</i>	<i>kca</i> < * <i>k<sup>u</sup>u-tā(m)</i>	<i>kuc</i> < * <i>k<sup>u</sup>u-tom</i>	<i>caṃ</i> < * <i>tom + nu</i>
gen.	<i>ket(e)</i> < * <i>k<sup>u</sup>o-tos</i>	<i>ket(a)ra</i> = <i>ket(e)+ra</i>	<i>ke</i> < * <i>k<sup>u</sup>o-iHos</i> ~ B <i>kaiyye</i> „čí“	

Ke vztažným a tázacím zájmenům se v A připojuje částice *-ne* (*kusne*).

Tázací, resp. vztažné zájmeno B *intsu*, A *äntsam/ äntsanne* „který“ (\**eni-* + B *su* & A *saṃ*) rozlišuje zvláštní tvary m. a f. v sg. a pl: v sg. obl. m. B *iñcaul/ iñcew*, A *añcaṃ*; gen. m. *añcani-k*; obl. f. A *äntām*; v pl. gen. m. *añce-sni*. U tázacího, resp. vztažného zájmena B *māksu* „který“ (\**mé(n)+k<sup>u</sup>u-so+u*) je kromě m. a f. i n.; koncovky se shodují s ukazovacím B *su* (jen gen. pl. m. *mākce-nas*, f. *maktoy-nas*). Tvary m. a f. se dochovaly i u zájmených adjektiv



B m. *makte*, f. *mäkiya*, A m. *mättak*, f. *mäccäk* „sám“ a B m. *alyek*, f. *alyäk*, A m. *älak*, f. *älyäk* „jiný“ (podle tohoto vzoru se skloňují i např. B *aletstse* „cizí“, A *äläm* „jiný“):

	B m.	B f.	A m.	A f.
sg. nom.	<i>makte</i> < * <i>me(n)+ku-to-</i>	<i>mäkiya</i> < * <i>ku-t-iĵä</i>	<i>mättak</i> < * <i>ku-t-äko-</i>	<i>mäccäk</i> < * <i>ku-t-äkä</i>
obl.	<i>makce</i>	<i>mäkiyai</i>	<i>mäccakäm</i>	<i>mäccäkyäm</i>
gen.	<i>mäkcepi</i>	Ø	Ø	<i>mäccäkye</i>
pl. nom.	<i>makci</i>	<i>maktona</i>	<i>mäccek</i>	<i>mätkont</i>
obl.	<i>mäkceṃ</i>	<i>maktona</i>	<i>mäckes</i>	<i>mätkont</i>
gen.	<i>mäkceṃts</i>	Ø	Ø	Ø

	B m.	B f.	A m.	A f.
sg. nom.	<i>alyek</i> / <i>allek</i> < * <i>alĵo-ko-</i>	<i>alyäk</i> < * <i>alĵä-kä</i>	<i>älak</i> < * <i>alĵo-ko-</i>	<i>älyäk</i> < * <i>alĵä-kä</i>
obl.	<i>alyek</i> / <i>allek</i>	<i>alyok</i> / <i>allok</i>	<i>äl(y)akäm</i>	<i>älyäkyäm</i>
gen.	<i>alyekepi</i>	Ø	Ø	Ø
pl. nom.	<i>alyaik</i>	<i>alloñk(na)</i>	<i>älyek</i>	<i>älkont</i>
obl.	<i>alyeñkäm</i>	<i>alloñkna</i>	<i>älykes</i> , <i>älyekäs</i>	<i>älkont</i>
gen.	<i>alyeñkäṃts</i>	Ø	<i>älu</i>	Ø

Od tvarů tázacích zájmen se odvozují některé spojky, např.: A *tā*, B *ente* „kde“ < abl. \**on(i)-tōd* (Adams 1999: 85) = B *ente* „když“ ~ A *äntāne*; dále A *kupre* „zda“; B *k<sub>u</sub>ce*, A *k<sub>u</sub>cne* „protože“; A *k<sub>u</sub>yal* „proč“; A *k<sub>u</sub>yalte* „neboť“; B *kā* „proč“ < abl. f. \**k<sup>u</sup>ā(d)*, srov. lat. *quā* „jak, jakým způsobem“; AB *kos* / A *kospreṃ* „kolik?, jak daleko?“; B *kos*, A *kosnel kospreṃne* „tolik“; B *mäkte*, A *mänt* „jak“; B *mäkte*, A *mämtne* „tím“.

Dílčí tvary zájmen se užívají adverbialně: obl. B *tu* (srov. slovanské *tu*), A *täm* = „zde, právě“, podobně lok. A *tṣam* = „zde“; instr. + perl. B *tusa*, A *tamyo* = „odtud, kolem“; abl. B *tumeṃ*, A *tmäs* = „potom“; B *taisa* „tedy, tak“ < gen. pl. \**toĵsom* či lok. pl. \**toĵsu/i* (Adams 1999: 308).

**Číslovky** 1-1000 představují indoevropské dědictví, vyšší byly přejaty:

	B	A	*
1	<i>še</i> m., <i>sana</i> (somo) f.	<i>sas</i> m., <i>säm</i> f.	* <i>sēms</i> m., * <i>smiĵ</i> , f., * <i>sēm</i> n. (B 152)
1.	<i>pärweṣše</i>		* <i>pr<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>uo-</i> + adj. suf. *-(o)skĵo- (B 153)
		<i>maltowinu</i>	
2	<i>wi</i> m. et f.	<i>wu</i> m., <i>we</i> f.	* <i>duōu</i> m., * <i>duāĵ</i> f., méně pravděpodobně * <i>duoĵ</i> (B 172)
2.	<i>wate</i>	<i>wät</i>	* <i>duĵto-</i> (B 172)
3	<i>trai</i> m., <i>tarya</i> f.	<i>tre</i> m., <i>tri</i> (täryä-) f.	* <i>trĵes</i> m. < coll., * <i>triH<sub>2</sub></i> , f. (B 192)

3.	<i>trite &amp; trīte</i>	<i>trit</i>	* <i>tri-to-</i> , zřejmě kontaminací * <i>trijō-</i> a * <i>duito-</i> (B 193)
4	<i>štwer m., štwāra f.</i>	<i>štwar m. et f.</i>	* <i>k<sup>u</sup>etūores m.-f.</i> , * <i>k<sup>u</sup>etūor<sub>2</sub> n.</i> > B f. (B 208-09)
4.	<i>štart(t)e</i>	<i>štärt</i>	* <i>k<sup>u</sup>et(u)<sub>2</sub>-to-</i> (B 209)
5	<i>piś</i>	<i>pāñ</i>	* <i>penk<sup>u</sup>e</i> (B 224)
5.	<i>piñkte</i>	<i>pānt</i>	* <i>penk<sup>u</sup>to-</i> (B 224)
6	<i>škas</i>	<i>šāk</i>	* <i>s(u)ek<sup>s</sup></i> (B 238)
6.	<i>škaste</i>	<i>škāšt</i>	* <i>s(u)ek<sup>s</sup>-to-</i> (B 238)
7	<i>šukt</i>	<i>špät</i>	* <i>septm<sub>2</sub></i> , <i>-k-</i> v B <i>šukt</i> se vysvětluje analogií <i>okt</i> 8 (B 250)
7.	<i>šuktante</i>	<i>šäptänt</i>	* <i>septm<sub>2</sub>-to-</i> (B 250)
8	<i>okt</i>	<i>okät</i>	* <i>oktō(u)</i> (B 268)
8.	<i>oktante &amp; oktunte</i>	<i>oktänt</i>	* <i>oktō(u)-N-to-</i> ; <i>-N-</i> podle A <i>šäptänt</i> „7.“ a B <i>ñunte</i> „9.“ (B 268)
9	<i>ñu &amp; ñū</i>	<i>ñu</i>	* <i>neum<sub>2</sub></i> ; * <i>-m<sub>2</sub></i> rekonstruováno podle „90“ (B 283)
9.	<i>ñunte</i>	* <i>ñunt</i>	* <i>neum<sub>2</sub>-to-</i> (B 283)
10	<i>śak, śśak &amp; śäk</i>	<i>śäk</i>	* <i>dekm<sub>2</sub></i> (B 295)
10.	<i>škante</i>	<i>škänt</i>	* <i>dekñ<sub>2</sub>-to-</i> (B 295)
20	<i>ikām &amp; ikām</i>	<i>wiki &amp; wīki</i>	* <i>(H<sub>1</sub>)uikñt-iH<sub>1</sub></i> (B 172)
30	<i>tāryāka</i>	<i>taryāk</i>	* <i>triH<sub>2</sub>-(d)kñt-<sub>2</sub></i> (Winter) či * <i>-(d)kñts</i> (Klingenschmitt; B 192)
40	<i>štwärka</i>	<i>štwarāk</i>	* <i>k<sup>u</sup>etūH-(d)kñt-<sub>2</sub></i> či * <i>-(d)kñts</i> (B 209)
50	<i>p(i)śāka</i>	<i>pñāk</i>	* <i>penk<sup>u</sup>ē-(d)kñt-<sub>2</sub></i> či * <i>-(d)kñts</i> (B 224)
60	<i>škaska</i>	<i>säksäk</i>	* <i>s(u)ek<sup>s</sup>-(d)kñt-<sub>2</sub></i> či * <i>-(d)kñts</i> (B 238)
70	<i>šuktan̄ka</i>	<i>šäptuk</i>	* <i>septm<sub>2</sub>-(d)kñt-<sub>2</sub></i> či * <i>-(d)kñts</i> ; <i>-uk</i> v A <i>šäptuk</i> podle <i>oktuk</i> (B 250)
80	<i>oktan̄ka &amp; oktaṃka</i>	<i>oktuk</i>	* <i>oktō(u)-(d)kñt-<sub>2</sub></i> či * <i>-(d)kñts</i> ; B <i>-N-</i> podle 70, 90 (B 268)
90	<i>ñumka &amp; ñun̄ka</i>	<i>nmuk</i>	* <i>neum<sub>2</sub>-(d)kñt-<sub>2</sub></i> či * <i>-(d)kñts</i> (B 283)
100	<i>kante &amp; kante</i>	<i>känt</i>	* <i>kñtom</i> (B 306)
1000	<i>yaltse</i>	<i>wälts</i>	* <i>uēlsoš</i> , <i>-es-os n.</i> , spíše než * <i>ueltjo-</i> (B 316)
10 <sup>4</sup>	<i>tmāne (t<sub>u</sub>mane)</i>	<i>tmām</i>	< stf.irán. * <i>tu-māna-</i> „velká míra“ (Adams 1999: 301)
10 <sup>5</sup>		<i>lakṣ</i>	
10 <sup>6</sup>		<i>kor</i>	

Další číslovky: B m. *šeske*, A m. *sasak*, f. *snāki* „jediný“; distributivní číslovky se tvoří buď prostým zdvojením čísla (B *okt okt* „po osmi“) nebo koncovkou *-ār* (B *w(i)ār* „po dvou“). Dále např. B *wasto*, A *wāšt* „dvojnásobný“; B *watesa*, A *wtaṣ* „podruhé“ nebo *wtā(k)* „zase“. Starý duál zachovává B *antapi/āntpi*, A m. *āmpi*, f. *āmpuk* „oba“ < \*\**Hent-b<sup>h</sup>oiH<sub>1</sub>/-b<sup>h</sup>oH<sub>1</sub>u.*

### Morfologie slovesa

Tocharská slovesa mají jednoduché kořeny. V konjugaci se uplatňuje osoba (1., 2., 3.), číslo (sg., pl., zřídka du.), rod (aktivum a médium), čas (prézens, imperfektum, préteritum, v B navíc v iterativní funkci tzv. durativum, zvané i intenzivní préteritum) a způsob (konjunktiv, optativ, imperativ). Rod je navíc rozlišen paralelní konjugací většiny sloves v základním tvaru (pasivum) a kauzativu (aktivum). Systém koncovek se dělí do dvou hlavních tříd I a II. Viz nejobvyklejší koncovky přítomnosti a konjunktivu v A i B (v A též u optativu a imperfektních tvarů sloves *yem* „šel jsem“, *šem* „byl jsem“) u tematických sloves v rekonstrukci dle Pinault (1989: 153, 155):

**I. Prézens & subjunktiv:** AB *āk-* „vést“; B *klyaus-*, A *klyos-* „slyšet“; B *we-* „mluvit, říci“

	B akt.	A akt.	B méd.	A méd.	*
1 sg.	<i>ākau</i> < * <i>aġ-ō</i>	<i>ākam</i> < * <i>aġ-o-mi</i>	<i>klyausemar</i>	<i>klyosmār</i>	* <i>kleỵs-o-mH<sub>2</sub>+ri</i>
2	<i>āšt(o)</i> < * <i>aġ-e-tH<sub>2</sub>e</i>	<i>āšt</i> < * <i>aġ-e-tH<sub>2</sub>e</i>	<i>klyauštar</i>	<i>klyoštār</i>	* <i>kleỵs-e-tH<sub>2</sub>e+ri</i>
3	<i>āšām</i> < * <i>aġ-e+nu</i>	<i>āšāš</i> < * <i>aġ-e+se</i>	<i>klyauštār</i>	<i>klyoštār</i>	* <i>kleỵs-e-tri</i>
3 du.	<i>westem</i> < * <i>-tom nu<sup>1</sup></i>				
1 pl.	<i>ākem(o)</i> < * <i>aġ-o-mō?</i>	<i>ākamās</i> < * <i>aġ-o-mes-</i>	<i>klyausemt(t)ār</i>	<i>klyosamtār</i>	* <i>kleỵs-o-med<sup>h</sup>H<sub>2</sub>+ri</i>
2	<i>āšcer</i> < * <i>aġ-e-tē+r?</i>	<i>āšāc</i> < * <i>aġ-e-te</i>	<i>klyauštār</i>	<i>klyoššār</i>	* <i>kleỵs-e-d<sup>h</sup>e+ri</i>
3	<i>ākem</i> < * <i>aġ-o-nt</i>	<i>ākeñc</i> < * <i>aġ-o-nti</i>	<i>klyausentār</i>	<i>klyosantār</i>	* <i>kleỵs-o-ntri</i>

Pozn.: 1) Adams 1988: 62.

V 1. os. sg. může být méně časté *-m*. Obvyklé je *-u*, které se u tematických sloves mění na *-e<sub>u</sub>*, později *-au*. Obdobné koncovky platí pro optativ s výjimkou 1. sg. *-m* a 3. sg. *-Ø* v jazyce B (omezují se pouze na aktivní flexi; viz Pinault 1989: 156; Adams 1988: 79-80):

AB *kārs-* „znát“

	B	A	ptoch.	*
1 sg.	<i>kārsoym</i>	<i>kārsim</i>	* <i>kārsā-y-m(ā)</i>	* <i>kṛs-ā-iH<sub>1</sub>-mi</i>
2	<i>kārsoyt</i>	<i>kārsit</i>	* <i>kārsā-y-t(ā)</i>	* <i>kṛs-ā-iH<sub>1</sub>-tā</i>
3	<i>karsoy</i>	<i>kārsiṣ</i>	* <i>kārsā-y-Ø</i>	* <i>kṛs-ā-iH<sub>1</sub>-t</i>
1 pl.	<i>kārsoyem</i>	<i>kārsimās</i>	* <i>kārsā-y-o-mV</i>	= préz.
2	<i>kārsoycer</i>	<i>kārsic</i>	* <i>kārsā-y-e-tē+r</i>	= préz.
3	<i>kārsoyem</i>	<i>kārsiñc</i>	* <i>kārsā-y-o-nt</i>	= préz.

Jiné jsou v AB koncovky préterita a v A imperfekta (Pinault 1989: 157, 159):

**II. Préteritum:** B *kaut-*, A *kot-* „zlomit, rozbit“; B *lät-* „odejít“, *tāk-* „být“ (prét. kmen)

	B akt.	A akt.	ptoch.	*	B méd.	A méd.	ptoch.	*
1 sg.	<i>kautāwa</i>	<i>kotā</i>	* <i>kautā-wā</i>	-uH, < -H, u	<i>kautāmai</i>	<i>kote</i>	* <i>kautā-(m)ai</i>	-H <sub>e</sub> +i
2	<i>kautāsta</i>	<i>kotašt</i>	* <i>kautā-stā</i>	-stH <sub>e</sub>	<i>kautātai</i>	<i>kotte</i>	* <i>kautā-tai</i>	-tH <sub>e</sub> +i
3	<i>kauta</i>	<i>kota</i>	* <i>kautā-Ø</i>	-t?	<i>kautāte</i>	<i>kotat</i>	* <i>kautā-tā</i>	-to
3 du.	<i>ltais<sup>1</sup></i>			<sup>0</sup> <i>ā-īH<sub>i</sub>+s.</i> <sup>2</sup>				
		<i>tākenas<sup>1</sup></i>		<sup>0</sup> <i>ā-īH<sub>i</sub>-nā+s.</i> <sup>2</sup>				
1 pl.	<i>kautām(o)</i>	<i>kotmās</i>	* <i>kautā-mV(sV)</i>	-mesi = prez.	<i>kautāmt(t)e</i>	<i>kotamāt</i>	* <i>kautā-mātā(-)</i>	-med <sup>h</sup> H <sub>2</sub>
2	<i>kautās(o)</i>	<i>kotas</i>	* <i>kautā-stās?</i>	-stesi <sup>3</sup>	<i>kautāt</i>	<i>kotac</i>	* <i>kautā-tā</i>	-d <sup>h</sup> uwe
3	<i>kautāre</i>	<i>kotar</i>	* <i>kautā-rā</i>	-ro / -r	<i>kautānte</i>	<i>kotant</i>	* <i>kautā-ntā</i>	-nto

Pozn.: 1) Adams 1988: 62; 2) Adams 1988: 62-63, 101; 3) Adams 1988: 100: \*-s(ā) < \*-ssā < \*-st'sā < \*-st'āsā < \*-stesi.

Koncovky imperativu se dochovaly jen pro 2. os.:

AB *kāl-* „přinést, přivést“; B *klyaus-*, A *klyos-* „slyšet“; AB *yām-* „dělat“; B *ai-* : imp. *pete-* „dát“; AB *i-* „jít“ (Pinault 1989, 161; Adams 1988, 82; Van Windekens 1982, 294-97):

	B akt.	A akt.	ptoch.* < ie.**	B méd.	A méd.	ptoch.* < ie.**
sg.	<i>pkāla</i> <i>pyām</i> <i>pāklyauš</i> <i>pete</i> <i>paš</i>	<i>pkal</i> <i>pyām</i> <i>pāklyoš</i> <i>paš<sup>1</sup></i> <i>piš</i>	* <i>pā-kālā-Ø</i> < ** <i>pe-k<sub>i</sub>H<sub>3</sub>-ā</i> * <i>pā-yām-Ø</i> ** <i>pe-k<sub>i</sub>lēuse</i> ** <i>po-dH<sub>3</sub>-o</i> ** <i>pe-H<sub>i</sub>+d<sup>h</sup>i<sup>2</sup></i> či ** <i>pe-H<sub>i</sub>+si<sup>1</sup></i>	<i>pkalar</i> <i>pyāmsar</i>	<i>pāklār</i> <i>pyāmsār</i> <i>pāklyossū</i>	* <i>pā-kālā+<sup>r</sup>3</i> * <i>pā-yām-sā+<sup>r</sup>3</i> ** <i>pe-k<sub>i</sub>lēuse-sue<sup>4</sup></i>
du.				<i>pyamtsait</i>		* <i>pā-yām-sā-t</i>
pl.	<i>pkalas(o)</i> <i>pyāmso</i> <i>pāklyaušso</i> <i>petes/petso</i> <i>pešso/cisso</i>	<i>pāklās</i> <i>pyāmās</i> <i>pāklyošās</i> <i>pac</i> <i>pic/picās</i>	** <i>pe-k<sub>i</sub>H<sub>3</sub>-ā-stesi<sup>5</sup></i> * <i>pā-yām-stās<sup>5</sup></i> ** <i>pe-k<sub>i</sub>lēuse-stesi<sup>5</sup></i> ** <i>po-dH<sub>3</sub>-o-stesi<sup>5</sup></i> ** <i>pe-H<sub>i</sub>ite(+stesi)</i>	<i>pkalat</i> <i>pyāmsat</i>	<i>pāklāc</i> <i>pyāmsāc</i>	* <i>pā-kālā-tā<sup>6</sup></i> * <i>pā-yām-sā-tā<sup>6</sup></i>

Pozn.:

1) Van Windekens 1982: 246, 296 srovnává s lat. infinitivy na *-se/-re* (\*-si): *esse, ire* aj. a skt. na \*-si: *néši, dārši, vākši*.

2) Adams 1999: 61. 3) Finální \*-r je zřejmě totéž jako -r v prohibitivní částici A *mar*; srov. dále B *mā ra* „ani ... ani“ : *ra* „také; jako“. Ve slovesném systému se -r objevuje v arm. 2. sg. imperativu na *-(i)r* a het. imperativu mediopassiva na *-ru* (přehled viz Van Windekens 1982: 295). Pinault (1989: 162) dává přednost vysvětlení, které předpokládá primárně nulový ukazatel imperativu jako v aktivu, plus -r signalizující médium. 4) Finální *-sū* < \*-*sue* představuje pravděpodobně reflexivum kterému přesně odpovídá *-sua* v skt. *bhāra-sua* „přines!“ (Pinault 1989: 162; Van Windekens 1982: 296). 5) = 2pl. prét. akt. 6) = 2pl. prét. méd.

Významy základních tvarů sloves bývají intranzitivní pasivní, zatímco kauzativních tvarů tranzitivní aktivní (zákl. B *tsälpetār*, A *šalpatār* „je vysvobozen“; kauz. B *tsalpästār*, A *tsälpäštār* „vysvobozuje, zachraňuje“). Nejčastější kauzativní sufix je v B *-sk-/ -šš-*; u sloves s kořenem na *-k* sufix *-s-/ -š-* (zákl. sg. *rittētār* „spojuje se“, kauz. sg. *rittāššä* „spojuje“, pl. *rittāškem* „spojují“).

Jazyk A má kauzativní sufix *-s-* (3. os. pl. prez. zákl. *länkiñc* „visí“, kauz. *länkseñc* „věš se na“). Až na výjimky se v jazyce B kauzativní tvary používají i jako konjunktivní.

Tvary média se užívají jako aktivum (B *twe ñi yaitkorsa mant pyām* „činiš tak na můj rozkaz“), médium (B *teši cimem ñäskemar* „vyprošuji si od tebe prominutí“) nebo pasivum (B *tane orottsä kwasalñeşşä weşeñña klyausā-te* „byl tu slyšet silný [dosl. velký] nařikavý hlas“).

Většina sloves má základní kmeny v přítomnosti (12 tříd), konjunktivu (11 tříd) a préteritu (6 tříd). Od přítomných kmenů se koncovkami odvozuje indikativ přítomnosti a některá imperfekta v A a většina v B. Od konjunktivních kmenů se koncovkami tvoří konjunktiv a optativ. Od obou kmenů se jednotlivými sufixy tvoří:

tvary	od kmene	sufixy	*
part. prez. akt.	prez.	B <i>-ñca</i> , A <i>-nt</i>	*-ont- m. : *-ānt- f.
part. prez. méd.	prez.	B <i>-mane</i> , A <i>-mām</i>	*-m <sub>2</sub> ,no-
I. gerundivum	prez.	B <i>-lye (-lle)</i> , A <i>-l</i>	*-ljo-
II. gerundivum	konj.	B <i>-lye (-lle)</i> , A <i>-l</i>	*-ljo -
I. abstrakta	prez.	B <i>-l(āñ)ñe</i> / A <i>-lune</i>	*-l-unjo-/*-l-unoj-
II. abstrakta	konj.	B <i>-l(āñ)ñe</i> / A <i>-lune</i>	*-l-unjo-/*-l-unoj-
inf.	A prez., B konj.	AB <i>-tsi</i>	*-tjōi (dat. *-tjō-)
jmenné tvary	prez. et konj.	B <i>-nta</i> , A <i>-nt</i>	*-nt-ā
privativa	konj.	B <i>-tte</i> , A <i>-t</i>	*-to-

Kmeny préterita se většinou shodují s konjunktivem, mají ale odlišné koncovky.

Imperativ se tvoří prefixem *p(ä)-*, který může chybět v B před slovesy na *p-* (B *parskat* „ptejte se!“). Před labiovelárami se *pä-* mění na A *pu*, B *po* (A pl. *pukmäs* „běžte!“; B sg. *pokkāka* „volej!“). Tento prefix má nejbližší obdobu ve slovanském prefixu *\*po-*, který vyjadřuje perfektivnost (Adams 1988: 62).

Co do sufixů se imperativ tvoří šesti způsoby (= třídami):

I. bez sufixů od základních tvarů sloves (A *kām-* „nést“, pl. *pkāmāc*)

II. bez sufixů od kauzativu (A *yär-* „koupat se“, sg. *päyrār*)

III. sufixem *-s-* (B *er-*, A *ar-* „vyvolat“; B pl. *persat*, A sg. *parsār*)

IV. sufixem *-şş-* (B *kätk-* „překročit“, sg. *kätkäşşar*)

V. sufixem *-ññ-* (B *ärk-/ārc-* „mít [povinnost]“, sg. *porcaññar*)

VI. nepravidelně (např. AB *i-* „jít“, B akt. pl. *paş*, A akt. pl. *piş*, méd. pl. *pic*; AB *we-* „mluvit“, B sg. *poñ*, pl. *poñes*).

12 prezentních tříd se dělí na tematické a atematické. Podle zavedeného dělení (Krause & Thomas 1960: 196-217, Pinault 1989: 136-143) je 8 (II.-IV., VIII.-XII.) tematických: u tříd II. – IV. se ke slovesným kmenům připojuje vokál:

II. AB *ä*, B *e*, A *a* < ie. \**e*/\**o* (AB *āk-* „vidět“, prez. akt. sg. B *āsām*, ale B *ašeñca*, A *āsant*)

III. B *e*, A *a* < ie. \**o* (AB *mäsk-* „být, nacházet se“, 3. os. sg. méd. B *mäsketär*, A *mäskatär*)

IV. B *o*, A *a* (AB *ār-* „přestat“, 3. os. sg. méd. B *orotär*, A *aratär*).

U tříd VIII. – XII. se ke slovesným kmenům připojují jako sufixy jednotlivé konsonanty nebo slabiky; mezi styčné konsonanty se vkládá vokál *-a/-ā-* (např. VIII. *yām-* „dělat“, 1. os. sg. prez. *yam-a-sk-au*):

VIII. AB *-s-* (B *er-*, A *ar-* „vzbudit“, 3. os. sg. prez. B *ersau*, A *arsam*)

IX. jen B *-sk-* (B *ai-*, A *e-* „dávat“, 3. os. sg. prez. B *aiskau*, A *esam*)

X. B *-nāsk-/nāsk*, A *-nās-/nās-*; u *-n-* ale dochází k metatezi z *-mn-* na *-nm-* (AB *tām-* „zrodit se“, 3. os. sg. prez. B *tänmastär*, A *tämnāštär*; jinak AB *pāk-* „mít v úmyslu“, 3. os. sg. méd. *päknāštär*)

XI. B *-sask-/säsk-*, A *-sis-* (AB *āks-* „oznámit, učit“, B 3. os. sg. prez. *aksas-kau*; A *ok-* „přibývat“, 1. os. sg. prez. *oksisam*)

XII. AB *-ññ-* se často asimiluje (A *kāš-* „plísnit“, inf. *kāšiñtsi*; B *klänts-* „spát“, 3. os. sg. prez. *kläntsam*).

Ostatní třídy jsou atematické:

I. Koncovky se ke kmeni slovesa připojují pomocným vokálem *ä*, na rozdíl od II. třídy, ale bez palatalizace finálního konsonantu: (*pälk-* „hořet“, 3. os. sg. prez. B *palkām*, A *palkäs*).

V. klade před koncovky vokál *ā* (AB *läk-* „vidět“, 3. os. prez. akt. A *lkās*)

VII. jen v B nasální infix (B *pik* „malovat“, 3. os. sg. prez. *piñkām*)

VI. v AB infix *-nā-* do kmene s krátkým vokálem, *-na-* do kmene s dlouhým vokálem (A *kärs-* „vědět“ : 3. os. sg. prez. *kärsnās*; B *tsāk-* „kousat“ : 3. os. sg. prez. *tsāknaṃ*)

Podle tvarů 1. třídy prezentních kmenů probíhá i konjugace slovesa „jít“ AB *i-*; zatímco tvary v A jsou pravidelné, v B je infix *-n-* (A prez. *yām*, *yät*, *yäš*, *ymäs*, *yäc*, *yiñc*, part. prez. *ymām*; B *yam*, *yat*, *yam*, *ynem*, *yacer*, *yanem*, part.

préz. *ynemane*). Do první třídy přítomných kmenů patří i supletivní sloveso existence, jehož paradigma tvoří tři různé ie. kořeny: 1)  $*H_1es-$  „být“, 2)  $*d^heH_1(-k-/s-)$  „dít se, dělat“, 3)  $*steH_2-$  „stát (se)“: 1a) prez. B *nes-*, A *nas-* „být“ <  $*H_1no-$  +  $*H_1s-$ , srov. lokativní postpozice B *-ne* <  $*H_1no$ , 1b) impf. B sg. *šai-*, pl. *šey-*, A *še-* <  $*H_1s-jeH_1-$ , 1c) *skente* <  $*H_1s-skō-nto$ ; 2) prít. a jeho deriváty  $*tāk-ā-$ ; 3) kopula *ste* <  $*stH_2-ó$ , *stare* <  $*stā_2-ró$ ; čtvrtý kořen  $*men-$  „zůstat“ může být přidán, pokud do paradigmatu slovesa existence zařadíme AB *māsk-* „stát se“ <  $*mñ-sk-$  (viz Pobožniak 1986: 267; Batke 1999: 63-74; Adams 344-46: 458-59).

	os.	B		A	
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
přítomnost	1.	<i>nesau</i>	<i>nesem</i>	<i>nasam</i>	<i>nasamās</i>
	2.	<i>nest</i>	<i>nescer /nešcer</i>	<i>našt</i>	∅
	3.	<i>nesām</i>	<i>nesām</i>	<i>naš</i>	<i>neñc</i>
imperfektum	1.	<i>šaim/ šeym</i>	<i>šeyem</i>	<i>šem</i>	<i>šemās</i>
	2.	<i>šait</i>	<i>šeycer</i>	<i>šet</i>	<i>*šec</i>
	3.	<i>šai</i>	<i>šeyem</i>	<i>šeš</i>	<i>šeñc</i>
přechodník	1.	<i>takāwa</i>	∅	<i>tākā</i>	<i>tākmas</i>
	2.	<i>takāsta</i>	∅	<i>tākast</i>	∅
	3.	<i>tāka</i>	<i>takāre</i>	<i>tāk</i>	<i>tākār</i>
konjunktiv	1.	<i>tākau</i>	<i>tākam</i>	<i>tām</i>	<i>tamās</i>
	2.	<i>tākat</i>	<i>tākacer</i>	<i>tāt</i>	<i>tāc</i>
	3.	<i>tākam</i>	<i>tākam</i>	<i>tāš</i>	<i>tākeñc</i>
optativ	1.	<i>tākoym</i>	<i>tākoyem</i>	<i>tākim</i>	<i>takimās</i>
	2.	<i>tākoyt</i>	<i>tākoycer</i>	<i>tākit</i>	∅
	3.	<i>tākoy</i>	<i>tākoyem</i>	<i>tākiš</i>	<i>tākiñc</i>
imperativ	2.	<i>ptāka</i>	<i>ptākas</i>	<i>pāštāk</i>	<i>pāštākās</i>
kopula	2.	<i>star</i>			
	3.	<i>ste, star-</i>	<i>stare(-)</i> <i>skente, skentar-</i>		

Většina z 11 konjunktivních tříd (II., III., VI., IX.-XII.; Krause & Thomas 1960: 221-233; Pinault 1989: 144-146) se zcela shoduje s přítomnými (jen IX. třída je rozšířena nejen v B o *-sk-*, ale i v A o *-s-*: A *kān-* „vznikat“, 1. os. sg. *knāsam*). Liší se třídy:

IV. jen vzácně v B sufix *-i-* (*kālyp-* „ukrást“, 1. os. akt. *kalypi*, inf. *kālypitsi*).

VII. sufix AB *-ñ-*; častěji v A (AB *we-* „mluvit“, 3. os. akt. sg. A *weñāš*)

I. atematicky jako v přítomnosti, koncovky se připojují k nepalatalizovanému kořenu končícímu vokálem (B *ai-*, A *e-* „dávát“, 1. os. akt. sg. B *āyu*, A *em*)

V. sufixem AB *-ā-* (AB *wik-* „zmizet“, B inf. *wikātsi*, 3. os. sg. méd. A *wikātār*)

Jazyk B vytváří od konjunktivu privativní tvary pomocí negativních prefixů a sufixu *-tte*, např. *kaut-* „rozdělit, rozštěpit“, *akautatte* „nerozštěpitelný“; *klyaus-* „slyšet“, *enklyausätte* „neslýchaný“.

Préterita se dělí do tříd podle způsobu tvoření na šest základních tříd (Krause & Thomas 1960: 237-254; Pinault 1989: 147-152):

I. atematická odvozená bez sufixu od základního tvaru slovesa (AB *kälk-* kořen minulého tvaru od *i-* „jít“, 3. os. sg. akt. A *kälk*);

II. od kauzativu odvozený tvar s palatalizovaným iniciálním konsonantem, který je v A reduplikován, v B následován prodlouženým vokálem (AB *täl-* „zdvihnout“, A *cacäl*, B *cāla*; AB *kärs-* „znát“, A *śasärs*, B *śārsa*);

VI. tematická: slovesa AB *käm-* „přijít“, AB *länt-* „vyjít“ – u obou je 3. os. sg. akt. bez koncovky. B *käm-*: sg. 1. os. *kamau*, 3. os. *śem(o)*, pl. 1. os. *kmem*, 3. os. *kameṃ/ śemare*; B *lä-n-t-*: sg. 1. os. *latau*, 3. os. *lac*, pl. 1. os. *latso*, 3. os. *lateṃ*, du. 3. os. *ltais*;

IV. sufixem *-ṣṣ-* (AB *yām-* „dělat“, 1. os. akt. prét. *yamaṣṣa*, srv. IX. přítomní třída 1. os. přez. sg. *yamaṣṣam*);

V. sufixem *-ñ(ñ)-* (AB *we-* „říkat“, 1. os. sg. akt. B *w(e)ñāwa*, A *weñā*);

III. částečně sigmatická - v obou jazycích v aktivu schází *-s-*; např. u slovesa B *prek-*, A *prak-* „ptát se“: koncovky osob aktiva B sg. *-wa*, *-asta*, *-sa*, pl. *-am*, *\*-as*, *-ar*; A sg. *-wā*, *-āṣt*, *-ās*, pl. *-mäs*, *\*-äs*, *-är*; v médiu se ke kořenům B *park-* A *präk-* připojují koncovky: B sg. *-samai*, *-satai*, *-sate*, pl. *-samt(t)e*, *-sat*, *-sante*; A sg. *-se*, *-sāte*, *-sāt*, pl. *-sāmät*, *-sāc*, *-sānt*.

Prézens označuje přítomný děj i při vyprávění minulých dějů (prézens historický); užívá se i pro bezprostředně očekávaný budoucí děj: A *wältkälts ymār kumsam* „určitě rychle přijdu“; se zápornkou A *mar*, B *mā* vyjadřuje zákaz: B *mā traṅko yamas-ne* „neobviňuj ho!“.

Imperfektum vyjadřuje děj v minulosti nebo minulé jednání durativní (B *pañākte Kapilavāstune mäskītār* „Buddha prodléval v Kapilavastu“) a iterativní (B *yetse tsäkṣyeñ-c kektseñmeṃ latkanoyeñ-c misa po* „odpalovali ti z těla pokožku a odřezávali ti veškeré maso“). Préteritum označuje nedurativní minulý děj. Užívá se narativně.

Perfektum je vyjádřen dokonavý děj či jednání v minulosti (např. B *poysim-ñeṣṣe kauñkte parka* „vyšlo vševědoucí slunce [= Buddha]“).

Tzv. intenzivní préteritum je zvláštní tvar jazyka B. Je jakoby složen z tvarů imperfekta a préterita a má nejednoznačné durativní nebo iterativní užití; např. *ñiś trememñ prusiya* „ze zlosti mne přehlížel“.

Konjunktiv je v hlavních větách užit modálně a vyjadřuje očekávání (B *mäkte ṣ tem kelu* „Ale jak to mám snést?“), přání (A *tāṣ nātkis kärsor tāṣ* „ať se to pán dozví!“) nebo ve vazbě se zápornkou preventivní zákaz (B *mā nai ñakta*



*prankäs-me* „Přece nás, ó bože, neodmítneš!“). Konjunktivními tvary se tvoří vedlejší věty vztahné, podmiňovací a příslovečné časové, místní a způsobové. Výjimečně se konjunktivem vyjadřuje budoucí děj: *A ārkišoşşis sem waste pākār tāt* „Staneš se ochranou a útočištěm světa [= lidí]“.

Optativ se tvoří pomocí *-i-*, jen v V. a VI. konjunktivní třídě v B sufixem *-oy-*; v hlavních větách vyjadřuje přání (B *po cmelane källoymä krentäm wāşmom* „ať ve všech zrozeních získám dobré přátele“), předpis (A *mā yalām wramar yāmiş* „věc, která se nemá činit, ať se nečiní“) nebo možnost. Dále se užívá k tvorbě vedlejších vět vztahných, podmiňovacích a příslovečných místních, časových, způsobových a finálních.

Imperativ – výjimečně se užívá adhortativně (B *carit päs pyāmtso* „ukončeme hostinu!“), popř. může být imperativ základního tvaru slovesa užit kauzativně: A *pkānā-ñy ākāl* „splň mi přání!“. Imperativ duálu se dochoval vzácně jen v jazyce B, např. *pyamttisait* „vy dva dělejte!“.

Infinitiv AB *-tsi* se v jazyce B tvoří od konjunktivu, v A od prézentu. Tvar infinitivu může přibírat koncovky sekundárních pádů, v jazyce A jen allativu, v B navíc perlativu, lokativu a genitivu. Např. allativ (tučně) B *tom ñyatstsenta wikässiş poyşinta tne tseñkemtär* „vševědoucí zde [= ve světě] povstávají, aby **zahnali** takové nesnáze“. Infinitiv může být užit i pasivně nebo predikativně a infinitiv základního tvaru slovesa vyjadřuje i kauzativní význam: A *war wipāsi lywā-ñ* „poslala mu vodu k omytí“.

Od přítomných forem se tvoří prézentní participium akt. a méd. s koncovkou *-e*: B *nesamane* „jsoucí“; od préterita se tvoří participium préterita s koncovkou *-u* a často iniciální reduplikací; např. *pālk-* „hořet“, B part. pré. *pepalyku* „trpěv [ve významu „pálen, spalován“]“, *kārp-* „sestoupit“, A *kā-kārpşu*, B *kakkārpäşşu* „sestoupiv“, apod. Všechny tvary mohou mít aktivní i pasivní užití; např. part. préz. B *mäkte kautsy akemane wñolme* „jako je bytost vedena k smrti“; part. pré. slovesa základního tvaru A *wrasaşşi añmaşi ñme yāmu* „bytostmi byla vytvořena představa já“; part. pré. kauzativa B *emalyesa tsetsarkoş memyoş yokaisa* „spalování horkem, sužování žízni“. Od participia préterita se koncovkou *-r* tvoří slovesná jména, např. *yāmu* „učiniv“, *yāmor* „čin“, atp.

Gerundivní koncovky jsou B *-lye / -lle*, v A *-l*. Gerundivum I. se odvozuje od prézentu a označuje to, co je potřeba učinit, tedy nutnost, popř. se zápornou zákaz (B *kārsanalle* „to co je třeba vědět“, A *yāl* „to co je třeba učinit“). Užívá se ve větách jako atribut (B *kārsanälyem wāntarwane* „ve věcech, které se musí znát“); užívá se také predikativně (B *şāmañ mā ñomā kenäl* „není označován jménem mnich“) nebo tvoří jména, např. A *ākälşäl*, B *akalşälle* „žák“, dosl.

„ten, kdo má studovat“. Gerundivum II. se odvozuje od konjunktivu a označuje možnost. Ve větách se užívá stejně jako první tvar, např. predikativně *A wrasaśsi mā kālpāl naṣ* „není pro bytosti dosažitelné“.

Od gerundiv se tvoří častá gerundivní abstrakta koncovkami A *-une*, B *-(āñ)ñe* (A *wāl-* „zemřít“, *wlalune* „smrt“; B *yuk-* „přemoci“, *yukalñe* „překonání“). Činitelská jména vznikají příponami A *-ts*, B *-tsa* (A *aknāts*, B *aknātsa* „nevědoucí“). Jiná slovesná jména se tvoří sufixy:

A *-nt*, B *-nta* (B *kaṣenta* „vrah“)

B *-uca/ -auca* (*ynūca* „jdoucí“, *kārsauca* „vědoucí“)

B *-uki* (*tanmaṣṣuki* „vyvolavač“)

Od sloves se tvoří i adjektiva koncovkami AB *-m(o)* (B *ynamo* „jdoucí“); jen v B koncovkami *-a*, *-i* (*rita* „hledající“, *poyśi* „vševědoucí“); jen v A kompozitně s koncovkou *-e* (*ākāl-kāṃṣe* „splňující přání“).

**Nesklonné druhy slov:** adverbia, prepozice & postpozice, konjunkce, partikule a citoslovce (Krause & Thomas 1960: 169-172).

**Adverbia** mohou být místní, časová a způsobová. Výběr místních: B *om(p)* / *om(p)te* / *omteṃ* = skt. *tatra* „tam, tady“; B *etsuwai* = skt. *upa* „u, k“; B *mante* = skt. *ūrdhvam* „nahore, nahoru“; B *ywārcka*, A *ywārckā* (altern. *c/ś*) „uprostřed, mezi“; B *ate*, A *atas* „ven“; B *parne*, A *parna* „ven(ku)“; B *enem* / *enenka*, A *an(n)e* „uvnitř“; B *enepre*, A *anapar* „vpředu“; B *lauke*, A *lok* „daleko“; B *lau*, A *lo* / *lek* „pryč“; B *päst*, A *pest* idem.; B *kauc*, A *koc* „vysoko“; B *ette*, A *āñc* „dole, dolů“; B *ñor*, A *posam/ posac* „pod, vedle“; B *śwālyai*, A *śālyās* „vlevo“; B *saiwai*, A *pācyās/ pāccās* „vpravo“. Se slovesy pohybu se pojí směrové prefixy: B *ecce-*, A *aci-* + B *e-* < skt. *ā-* „sem, při-“; B *cowai-*, A *pre-* „pryč, od-“; A *ṣu-* „sem“; A *āsuk-* = skt. *ati* „dál, pře-“, A *śu-* idem.

Adverbia času B *ñ(a)ke* (\**neg<sup>h</sup>o*, sr. sch. *nego* „než“), A *tāpārck* „nyní“ (sr. r. *teper*); B *ṣek*, A *skam* „vždy“; B *nauṣ*, A *neṣ* „dříve“; B *yparwe* „nejdříve“; B *postāṃ* / *ompostāṃ*, A *sārki* „později“; B *entwe*, A *antus* „potom“; B *akek*, A *torim* „nakonec“; B *tsoñkaik*, A *ksār* „ráno“; B *oṣle* & *nekcīye*, A *noktim* „večer“; B *artsa kaum*, A *ārts koṃ* = skt. *anvaham* „den po dni“; B *yñkaum kästwer*, A *ykoṃ oṣeñi* „ve dne v noci“.

Adverbia způsobu B *taisa* / *taisu* / *taise(m)* „tak“; B *totka*, A *tsru* = skt. *alpa* „málo“; B *olañk* = skt. *alam* „dost“; B *(e)śatkai* / *śitkai* „velmi“; B *oly(a)po* / *olyapots(ts)e* / *ololyesa*, A *ṣokyo* „víc“; B *auṣap* / *oṃṣap*, A *lyutār* idem.; B *solme*, A *salu* „zcela“ (\**solmo-/soluo-*); A *ypic* / *ṣitsrāk* id.; AB *ysomo* „celkem“ (\**en-somHām*); B *r(a)mer*, A *ymār* „rychle“ (\**dru-mor*).

**Prepozice a postpozice:** před slovo se kladou typicky jen B *śle*, A *śla* „s“ a B *snai*, A *sna* „bez“ (sr. lat. *sine*); lokativně se ještě užívá prefix *y(n)-* např. B *yñakte* „mezi bohy“ nebo B *yñkaum/ inkaum*, A *ykoṃ/ ykonā* „ve dne“. Za slova se kladou např. B *pkante*, A *pkānt* „bez“; B *tāntsi*, A *okāk* „až do“; B *eneśle* „jako“; B *(e)şe*, A *şyak* „s, dohromady“; B *warñai/wārñai*, A *aci* = skt. *ādi* „počínaje [něčím]“; A *neşontā* „s [něčím] na vrcholu“. Jako postpozice se užívají i různé gramatické tvary slov (Carling 1999): B *şarmtsa*, A *şurmas* „kvůli“ jsou B perl. od *şurm* a A abl. od *şarm* „příčina“; A *posac / posaṃ* „vedle“ je all./ lok. od \**pos-*; A *korpā* „proti“ je perl. od \**korp-* „obrat“ se vztahem k AB *kārp-* „sklánět se“ < ptoch. \**k<sup>w</sup>ärp-*; B *warñai / wārñai* „počínaje“ je obl. od \**wārñ-o*.

**Konjunkce:** B *wai*, A *yo* „a“ ve stejné funkci u vět B *ş/ şpl/ şäp/ şpä*, A *şkam*. Dále AB *epe ... epe* „ať ... či ...“; B *wat*, A *pat* „nebo“; B *no*, A *nu* „jen, ale, také“; B *wat no*, A *pat nu* „nebo i“; B *ra / rano*, A *pe / penu* = „také“; B *noñk* „přesto“; B *ñke* „ale“; B *katu* „neboť, totiž“; B *nano*, A *nuṃ* „zase“; B *kwri*, A *k<sub>y</sub>pre ne* „když, jestliže“ (\**k<sup>u</sup>-b<sup>h</sup>roi*). Souřadné větné členy bývají spojeny asyndeticky: B *şarm oko* „příčina a účinek [dosl. plod]“, A *ātli k<sub>u</sub>lewāñ* „muži a ženy“. I souvětí může být beze spojky (viz níže).

**Partikule:** B *ram(t)*, A *oki* „jako“; B *nai* (sr. ř. *voí* „vskutku“), A *aśśi* „snad“; B *nemcek*, A *şakkats* „zajisté“ – v témž významu B *auspa*, A *wäşpā* i B *attsaik*, A *ättsek*. V B jsou i *yaka / ykāk* „ještě“ (sr. sl. \**ju že* „již“); *taka / tkā* „potom“. Univerzální tázací částicí je v jazyce A jen *te* (Lühr 1997), ostatní jsou specifické: A *pe(nu)*, B *pi* „přece, snad, tak“; *aśśi* „asi, snad“; B *māpi/ mapi/ māpi* „jen, přece, také ne“. Částice mohou stát vedle osobních popř. tázacích zájmen; částice B *-nai*, A *-ne* se připojuje k tázacím zájmenům a adverbium a mění je na vztažné A *kus* „kdo“, *kusne* „který“. V častých spojeních *mämtne* a *tāmne* znamená „právě“.

**Negace** se provádí záporkou AB *mā*, A *mar* nebo složeninami B *mā ... nta*, A *mā ontam* „vůbec ne“; B *mantanta* „nikdy“; B *māwk*, A *mā ok* „ještě ne“.

**Citoslovce:** např. AB *hai* „ó běda“, AB *hā* „ach“, AB *hišt* = skt. *dhik* „fuj“; jen v B např. *arai* „ó“.

### Zásady syntaxe

Tocharské texty se zpravidla řídí syntaxí sanskrtu, nejběžnější je model SOV (MacDonell 2000: 178). Podmět stojí na začátku věty: B 569a1 [*akn*]*ātsam-ñ[e] prutkātār* „nevědomost bude zastavena“. Po podmětu následuje předmět

B 45b4/5 *mā=psāl mā māskwo srūkalñe [ce] ceṃstrā* „ani meč ani překážka smrt nezastaví“. Na konci větného segmentu stojí sloveso: A 1b2f. *tmaṣ rākṣt-sāšši dvipaṃ yeṣ tmaṣ yaḁsāšši (tmaṣ) baladvipaṃ yeṣ* „Poté se odebral [dosl. šel] na ostrov rákšasů, potom jakšů [a] potom šel i na Baladvípu“. Přívlastky stojí před určeným jménem B 17b1 *nāki welñe preresa* „šípem vyčítavé řeči“ – jednotlivě: obl. *nāki* „kritika“; obl. *welñe* „řeč“ (= deverbální abstraktní jméno od *we-* „říkat“); perl. *perresa* „šípem“. V podřadných souvětích vyjadřuje konjunktiv potenciálnost, optativ ireálnost. Konjunktiv v A66a3 *ṣomāp lānt em k pre ne cu ālyek yāsluṣ tāke-ñi* „Kdybych tě dal jednomu králi, druží by se stali mými nepřáteli“. Optativ v souvětí beze spojky B5a6 *toṃmā tākom śaiṣṣene mā ñke tsankoy pudñakte* „Kdyby nebyly na světě [tj. stáří, nemoc a smrt], buddha by nemusel vzniknout [tj. aby osvobodil bytosti]“.

## Zkratky

A východotocharský, a. genus alternans, abl. ablativ, adj. adjektivum, aj. a jiný, ak. akuzativ, akt. aktivum, all. allativ, arm. arménský, av(est). avestský, b- baltsko-, B západotocharský, BHS buddhistický hybridní sanskrt, com. genus communis, dat. dativ, dosl. doslova, du. duál, f./fem. femininum, gen. genitiv, germ. germánský, het. hetitský, ie. indoevropský, imp. imperativ, impf. imperfektum, instr. instrumentál, írán. íránský, jm. jmenný, kaus. kausalis, kauz. kauzativ, kol. kolektivum, kom. komitativ, konj. konjunktiv, lat. latinský, lit. litevský, lok. lokativ, luv. luvijský, m./mask. maskulinum, méd. médium, n. neutrum, nom. nominativ, obl. casus obliquus = nepřímý pád, opt. optativ, part. participium, pas. pasivum, p- pra-, perl. perlativ, pl. plurál, préz. prézens, ptoch. pratocharský, ř. řecký, sg. singulár, skt. sanskrt, sl. slovanský, sr. srovněj, st- staro-, stř- středo-, subst. substantivum, suf. suffix, toch. tocharský, vok. vokativ, vs. versus, zákl. základní tvar slovesa.

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### Poznámka

Předkládaná studie vznikla jako jeden z dílčích výstupů v rámci spolupráce se Střediskem pro interdisciplinární výzkum starých jazyků a starších fází jazyků moderních (MSM 0021622435).

### Summary

A purpose of our study, which represents a continuation from the last year (Blažek & Schwarz 2007), is to offer a brief grammatical sketch of two Tocharian languages, the projection of the most important language features into Common Tocharian or Indo-European proto-languages, and, in limited number of cases, the external comparisons with other Indo-European languages, in agreement with present level of our knowledge.

### **III. Ethno-Linguistics & History**

**Tocharians. Who they were, where they came from and where they lived.** *Lingua Posnaniensis* 50 (2008), 47-74.

Václav Blažek & Michal Schwarz

In 2008 one century will be passed after the recognition of inhabitants of Tang's Chinese Turkestan as speakers of until that time unknown original branch of Indo-European languages. So the eastern border of the Indo-European pre-colonial space passed even the 90th meridian eastwards from Greenwich (to be exact, in the same time also Indo-Iranian people overpassed this line in the area of contemporary Bangladesh and the Indian confederative state of Assam). Tocharians kept their Indo-European identity not only by their long trans-continental drift through Eurasia, but still some thousands years after their arrival to the Chinese border. Interesting is that they didn't yield Chinese cultural and linguistic assimilation; on the contrary, the ancestors of Tocharians brought to the early Chinese civilization achievements from field of technology (war chariot), food (honey), knowledge of some exotic animals (lion) and religion (especially buddhism). Situation of the 9th (or 10th?) century, when the Tocharians became to disappear from the history of Central Asia, remains in darkness of informational vacuum. The only thing that we certainly know is that they didn't yield sinization, but vanished away in expansion of the Turkic nations, represented in this area by Old Uyghurs.

### Content

1. History of early research.
2. Tocharian A, B, C?
3. Tocharian texts + sites and dating of finds.
4. Classical (western) reports about the "Tocharian" speakers / nation.
5. Chinese reports about the ethnicity of areas inhabited (not only) by Tocharians.
6. Origin of the ethnonym in the light of ancient and early medieval resources.
7. Debate about hypothetical trajectories of migrations of ancestors of the Tocharians to the Central Asia.
8. Appendix I.
9. Appendix II.
10. Conclusion.

1. The first Tocharian text came to Europe at the end of 19th century. It was a photograph of one page of a manuscript written in an unknown language in the



northwest variant of the North Indian Brāhmī script. The page was published by Sergei Oldenburg in 1892, who received two sheets of the manuscript from Russian consul Petrovski in Kašghar (in North-Western China, 新疆 Xinjiang province with the majority of Uyghur population). British Hoernle edited the same text in 1893, transcribing it and identifying one Sanskrit name. German Leumann was the first one who had published both sides of the manuscript from Petrovski-collection, transcribed them accurately and recognized other Sanskrit proper names. Thanks to Leumann, both sides of the manuscript were later identified as translation of Sanskrit text Buddhastōtra. But the first Tocharian manuscripts were discovered earlier. In 1890 two Uyghurs sold two manuscripts to British lieutenant Bower. These manuscripts written on birch bark were found in a stupa near Qumtura. Bower brought them to the Asian Society in Calcutta, from where they got into Hoernles' hands. Although poor, this discoveries stimulated high interest not only on the side of European orientalists but also by native citizens (really amazing discovery in the 敦煌莫高 Dunhuang Mogao caves was done by the local Daoist priest Wang Daoshi in 1900 during his amateur reconstruction of wallpaintings in an abandoned temple). If we determine the earliest era of the tocharology by the beginning of the First World War, it is very remarkable how many expeditions to Chinese Turkestan were lead by Russians or by European orientalists in the Russian employment: V. I. Roborovski (1893-95), D. A. Klementz 1897-98), A. I. Kochanovski (1906-07), M. M. Berezovski (1905-07), S. E. Malov (1909-11, 1913-15), S. Oldenburg (1909-10: Xinjiang; 1914-15: Dunhuang). Also Swedish Sven Hedin (1894-96) inquired in the region. British Bower (1890) and M. A. Stein (1906-08) travelled here as well; the leaders of French expeditions were Dutreil de Rhins (1892) and Paul Pelliot (1906-09: Kuqa), and some of the best German expeditions leaded Albert Grünwedel and A. von Le Coq (1902-03: Turpan; 1904-05: Turpan, Qomul; 1905-07: Kuqa, Qarašahr, Turpan, Qomul; 1913-14: Kuqa, Maralbashi). It is evident that original reason to finance this expensive expeditions was not altruistic interest about unknown languages, but power ambitions of European superpowers to control over the Central Asia. From the time of Napoleon's hauling to Egypt (1798-99) the European strategists knew the importance of presence of experts in the areas. So it shouldn't surprise that most of the above mentioned names belongs to the top orientalists in the world in that time. In the first decade of the 20th century most of the expeditions establishing inventaria of the Tocharian manuscripts in museums in Sankt-Peterburg, Berlin, London and Paris were realized. In the same time a fundamental progress in understanding texts, grammatical structure and

genetical relations of language succeeded. In 1908 the Berlin indologists E. Sieg and W. Siegling published a short article about this language, identifying it with “Tocharian” (to this time the working name was “Indo-Scythian”) and determining its two different, although closely related dialects: in traditional terminology Tocharian A and B or Eastern and Western Tocharian. Important was a clear proof of their Indo-European identity and so establishment of the additional and independent branch of Indo-European languages. Their discovery that this eastern IE language resembles western IE languages with some of its features, particularly Italic or Celtic, e.g. the preservation of the velar nature of the hypothetical IE palatal velars  $*\hat{k}$ ,  $*\hat{g}$ ,  $*\hat{g}^h$ , which are changed in Baltic, provoked an immense surprise. Slavic and Indo-Iranian to sibilants and affricates (Toch. A *kānt*, B *kante* next Greek *hekaton*, Lat. *centum* (still in the time of Caesar it was pronounced with /k/, even his name), Celtiberian *kantom*, Old Irish *cét*, Welsh *kant*, Goth. pl. *hunda*. Another obvious common feature is so called “r-” mediopassive. Similar characteristics were identified in Hittite only some years later. To this time we consider them more likely as peripheral archaisms, hence no isoglosses confirming closer genetical relations.

2. Today the term Tocharian covers two closely related languages from present-day 新疆维吾尔自治区 Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Area (formerly known as Chinese or Eastern Turkestan). They constitute an independent branch of Indo-European languages and in these languages an abundant translational buddhist literature was written. Appendix 1 demonstrates close relations and differences of both languages. Some researchers (T. Burrow, D. Q. Adams) see the traces of another member of Tocharian languages, hypothetical southern Tocharian “C”, in loanwords in the Middle Indic language of the oasis-state Kroraina (Chin. 楼兰 Loulan) in southeastern Tarim Basin. The language called Prākrit *niya* or, according to the script, *Kharoṣṭhī-prākrit* was used to the administrative purposes of the state depending on caravan trade in the 3rd century A.D. The loanwords reminding Tocharian (see Burrow 1935) cannot be ranked either to language A or to B. So the hypothesis of the third Tocharian idiom seems quite promising. Let us quote some examples:

“C” *kilma* “district” = A *kälyme* “direction” (Burrow 1935: 674-675; Mallory & Mair 2000: 278)

“C” *meta* = B *mit* ~ *mīt* “honey” <  $*med^hu-$ . Researchers generally conclude that Chinese 蜜 *mi* “honey” < Old Chinese  $*mjit$  (so first Polivanov 1916; cf.

Lubotsky 1998: 379) is also of Tocharian origin. There is interesting Old Turkic *mīr*, its final *-r* can indicate the Chinese mediation (Clouston; see Lin 1998: 478).

“C” *oǵana* “some agricultural product” = B *oko* “fruit” (Burrow 1935: 673; Mallory & Mair 2000: 278).

“C” *paǵe*, pl. *paǵeyu* “package” = B *pāke*, A *pāk* “part, share” (Burrow 1935: 671-672).

“C” *kitsaits* “elder” = B *ktsaitstse* “old (of age)”, A *ktsets* “ended, perfect” (Burrow 1935: 673).

“C” *tipara* “high” = A *tpar* “high”, B *tapre* “high; fat” < \**d<sup>h</sup>ub<sup>h</sup>ro-* “deep”; the original meaning still preserves the diminutive B *tparṣke* “shallow” (Lin 1998: 480-481; Adams 1999: 280).

There are also many personal names, which can be interpreted as Tocharian (Burrow 1935: 675):

*Caṃpe* - cf. AB *cāmp-* “be able (to)”, A *tampe* “power, ability”.

*Larōae* - cf. B *lāre* “dear, beloved”.

*Moǵaca* - cf. A *mokats* “strong”.

*Pośarsa* - cf. B *po* “all” & AB *kārs-/śārs-* “know”, something as “all-knower”. Similar compound appears in A *puk knānmām*, also in B *poyśi* (*po* & *aik-* “know”), as a calque from Sanskrit compound *Sarvajña* denoting Buddha (Adams 1999: 403).

3. Most of the Tocharian manuscripts have been dated from 6th to the end of 8th century. The recent results of detailed paleographical studies (Malzahn 2007: 277) and the radio-carbon tests (Adams 2006) shift the oldest B manuscripts even before AD 400, while the youngest manuscript designated as B-296 is dated between AD 1178 and 1255. The known A texts originate from the period c. AD 700 to c. AD 1000 (Adams 2006: 382-383). Until now the manuscripts were found only in the Chinese autonomous region Xinjiang – in a town-oasis at the northern rim of the Tarim Basin (Chin. 塔里木盆地 *Talimu Pendi*) with the desert Taklamakan (Chin. 塔克拉玛干 *Takelamagan*). Today more than 500 texts, fragments or graffiti in the language A are studied, and more than 3200 in the language B. The real number of all documents with Tocharian inscriptions and writings is about 7600 and almost all will be digitalised in years to come. The A documents were found only in the east, while the B texts come from the west and from most of the places of the A text’s origin.

The alphabetical order of places, where Tocharian manuscripts were found, follows. Except of usual names, variants, alternatives and actual Chinese local names are added. Only locations of founts of A texts are especially marked.

Bäzäqliq = Bezeklik = Bezäklik, Chin. 伯孜克里克 Bozikelike (A).

Chami, Chin. 哈密 Hami, also Qumul, Kumul, Komul – oasis, where 293 sheets of manuscripts and fragments of Old Uyghur version of the Maitrēia-samītinātaka-texts were found; according to this text was reconstructed the same text in Tocharian, discovered in Yanqi 1974.

Duldur Aqur – near of Kuča.

Dunhuang (exactly Chin. 莫高 Mogao caves in Gansu province).

Endere (southern edge of the Tarim Basin).

Jigdalik.

Kuča/Kuqa = Chin. 库车 Kuche, early also 龟兹 Qiuci.

Loulan 楼兰 (East of the Tarim Basin near Lobnur).

Maralbaši = Maralwexi, Chin. 巴楚 Bachu.

Ming-öi Qizil = Qizilchoqa, Chin. 克孜尔确恰 Kezi'erqueqia.

Mirän, Chin. 米兰 Milan (South-East of the Tarim Basin).

Murtuq (A).

Qara-chočo, Karakhoja, Chin. 哈拉和卓 Halahezhuo and also 高昌 Gaochang.

Qarašahr = Qarašähär = Karašahr, early Agni; this name obviously appears in today's Chinese name 焉耆 Yanqi; in 1974 there were found 44 sheets of fragments of Maitrēiasamītinātaka A text here (A).

Qizilqağa = Kizilgaha, Chin. 克孜尔尕哈 Kezi'ergaha.

Qočo = Kocho; also İdiqut (Šähär), Chin. 高昌 Gaochang (A).

Qumtura = Kumtura, Chin. 库木吐拉 Kumutula.

Qumul/Komul – see Chami.

Sayram = (Kizil-)Sairam.

Sängim = Singim, Chin. 胜金口 Shengjinkou (A).

Simsim, Chin. 森木塞姆.

Subaši = Subeši, Chin. 苏巴什 Subashi.

Šorčuq – a temple near of Qarašahr + area of Šikčin (A).

Tajik.

Tonguzbash.

Tumšuq, Chin. 图木休克 Tumuxiuke.

Turfan = Turpan, Chin. 吐鲁番 Tulufan (A).

Tuyuq = Toyuk = Toyok = Toek Mazar, Chin. 土峪沟 Tuyugou (A).

Yanqi – see Qarašahr (A).

Yarkhoto = Chin. 交河 Jiaohe near Turfan.

We should also mention the city of Kašghar (= Qäšqär, Chin. 喀什 Kashi) where many texts were purchased from merchants, and the city of Khotan = Chotan, Chin. 和田 Hetian, place of abundant founts of Khotan-Saka buddhist texts.

The A texts come from Turfan, Qarašahr and surroundings. They have religious character, all are buddhist, some of them continue in Indian dramas of *jātaka* and *avadāna*. In many cases we have Turkic names of donators of these texts. The B manuscripts have a gaier content. Most texts are also buddhist, but some have a medical content. There are also magical and astronomical works and completely secular records: commercial correspondences, caravan passes and economical records of temples. The German researcher Werner Winter (1984: 16) differentiates three local dialects of Tocharian B: western from the area of Kuqa (especially around Qizil), central from Šorčuq near Qarašahr; eastern from Turfan, as well as from the area of Qizil in the far west. Orientalists Lévi and Lüders very struggled for dating of the texts. Some date from the beginning of 7th century A.D. Winter (1984: 17) discovered another chronological information. The Chinese pilgrim Xuanzang visited Kuqa in 630 and noted presence of monks from the kingdom of Agni. They lived in southeastern part of the town. In 648 Kuqa was destroyed by Chinese armies and their allied Turkic tribe Tölös. Subsequently the spiritual centre of Tocharians B moved to Qarašahr, where – near Šorčuq – the temple *Yurpāška* was cited in many texts. This is also an explanation of the fact that the language of these texts attained more and more character of Šorčuq’s dialect, although texts come from another places.

4. Although Central Asia is far from Mediterranean, antique authors recorded surprisingly abundant information about Middle-Asian populations. We can compare some testimonies: first from Pompeius Trogus (1st century B.C. - 1st century A.D.) in abstract of *Epitome historiarum Philipicarum* from Marcus I. Iustinus (3rd century A.D.), second from Strabo (the same time as Trogus), and third from Ptolemaeus from the mid of the 2nd century A.D. (italics have to reflect – if possible – exact forms of the given ethnonyms, including Greek plurals):

Pompeius Trogus > Marcus Iustinus [XLII, 2]

“On this place Artabanus, his uncle (i.e. Phraata), became a king. Scythians, satisfied by their victory and devastation of Parthia, returned to the homeland. But Artabanus fighting with Tocharians [*Tochariis*],

was wounded on arm and after this immediately died. He was substituted by his son Mithridates, whose deeds brought to him epitheton The Great”

Nation known as *Tocharii* permeated to the west of Pamir about 124 or 123 B.C., where they fought with Parthian king Artabanus.

Strabo [XI, 8.2]

“From the area of Caspian sea, the most (tribes) of the Scyths names *Daai* [Δᾶαι]. Races living to the east name *Massagetai* and *Sakai*, another are called with common name *Skythai*, but every nation uses its own name. They all are especially nomads. Particularly famous are this nomads, which took up Bactria from hands of Greeks, that is to say *Asioi*, *Pasianoi*, *Tokharoi* [Τόχχαροι] and *Sakarauloi*, they moved from area of opposite bank of Iaxartes along the territory of Sakkas and Sogdians, in the hands of Sakkas. From the Daai one part is called *Aparnoi*, another *Xanthianoi*, the third *Pissouroi*. The Aparnoi live in the nearest to Hyrcania and it’s bordering see, another nations extend to the area opposite to Aria.”

Ptolemaios [VI, 11.6]

“The northern parts of Bactria, edging the river Oxos, inhabit *Salatarai* and *Zariaspai*, to the south from Salatarai (below from Salatarai) live *Khomaroi*, southly *Kómoi*, then *Akinakai* and *Tambyzoi*, but below Zariaspai the strong nation *Tokharoi*, below them *Marukaioi*/*Marikaioi*, then *Skordai* and *Varnoi*, and still below from them *Auadioi*/*Sabadioi*, then *Orsitoi*/*Orsipoi* and *Amarispoi*.”

Ptolemaios [VI, 12.4]

“The territories edging mountain Oxeia inhabit *Pasikai*, areas edging northern part of the river Iaxartes inhabit *Iateioi* a *Takhoroi*. Below from them live *Autaloi*/*Augaloi*, then along the Sogdian mountains *Oxydrangkai* and *Drybaktai* and *Kandaroi*. Under mountains live *Mardyénoi* and along the Oxus *Óxeianoi* and *Khórasmioi*.”

Ptolemaios [VI, 16.6-8]

“The towns noted be suited in *Sériké* (= China), are this: *Damna*, *Pi-ada*, *Asmiraia*, *Throana*. *Issédón Sériké*: *Aspakara*, *Drósakhé*, *Paliana*, *Thogara*, *Abragana*, *Daxata*, *Orosana*, *Ottotokara*, *Solana*, *Séra Métropolis*.”

5. According to contemporary Chinese sources, inhabitants of areas where Tocharians lived from 6th to 8th century are depicted as farmers and breeders of livestock and horses largely living in towns. The men and women have their hair long to shoulders or even shorter. In frescoes in abandoned buddhist temples we can see typical Mongoloids, “Iranian” and people of Caucasoid physiognomy with straight narrow noses and blue eyes as well (Winter 1984: 13). The most detailed Chinese reports about the Tocharians can be found in information from buddhist scholar Xuanzang (600/602-664). He mentioned them in A.D. 630 (during his travel to the Central Asia and India. We can cite his description of Agni and Kuča – areas of the Tocharians A and B [2002: 21-25; after Josef Kolmaš]: “The region of **Agni** have more than 600 li [1 li = 576 m] from the east to the west and above 400 li from the south to the north. The capital city have circuit 6 or 7 li and is surrounded by mountains from all four directions. There are dangerous paths in that place, but it’s easy to defend them. Many flows are united in one stream, by it fields are irrigated. Land is suitable for growing of millet, winter wheat, dates, grapes, pears, plums and other fruits. Climate is mild and convenient. Customs and habits of people are simple and modest. Their script has Indian origin and only some minute changes and supplements. Clothes are made from cotton or wool. People cut their hairs and wear any caps. They use gold, silver and small copper coins in a trade. The ruler was born just in this land. He is courageous man. Although he gives not too much time to military affairs, he very like boasting by his war expeditions. The land has no stable legal rules, the laws are cruel and have no order. When one walks above 200 li further to the southwest and crosses one small mountains and two large rivers, arrives to the west to the flat valley. When one continues further 700 li and more, arrives to Kuqa. The land of Kuqa have more than 1000 li from the east to the west and more than 600 li from the south tot the north. The circuit of the capital city is about 17 or 18 li. Land is suitable for growing of millet and wheat, people grow rice keng-tao as well. The land also give grapes, pomegranate and many sorts of pears, plums, peaches and apricots. The land produces gold, copper, iron, lead and tin. Climate is mild and customs of peoples are simple. The script has Indian origin and many modifications. The local peoples dominate between all countrymen in the play on woodwind and strings. Their clothes are made from fine brocade

or rough wool. They cut their hairs and wear turbans on their heads. They use money from gold and silver and small copper coins in a trade. The ruler was born in the local family Bai. His natural talent isn't large and he is controlled by influential ministers. If a baby is born, they usually compress its head between the tablets to make it flat.”

6. A very complex question remains the name of Tocharians – from themselves and as well as from their neighbours. Adams (2000) tried to put an order to a little bit chaotic mixture of views. He is our most important guide here. We can start by the term *Agni*, which refers to the Tocharians using the A language. The Central Asian Sanskrit texts use the term and derivatives *Agnideśa* & *Agniviśaya* “the land of Agni” to denote the city and its surroundings. The Uyghurs called it Qarašahr and in Chinese the name Yanqi is used. The people in the neighbouring oasis-state Tumšūq spoke one of the Saka-dialects. The land was named *Agñ(y)e xšera* “the land of Agni” in this language. Another testimony is brought by Chinese pilgrim Xuanzang (he visited the area in the 7th century A.D.). In his records we read name *Ā-g'ji-nji* (in Karlgren's reconstruction of Middle-Chinese, c. A.D. 800), or *?a-gji-nri* (Pulleyblank's reconstruction to c. A.D. 600). The same toponym appears in one of the oldest Tocharian B manuscripts found in Kuqa in 1907, published in 1913. In the manuscript the fifth year of reign of king Suvarṇapuṣpa is mentioned. We know that he died in 624, when his son Suvarṇadeva succeeded in the reign. He governed until 646 and in this year he was replaced by his younger brother Haripuṣpa. We don't know how long was Suvarṇapuṣpa reigned, but he was successful ruler, so it could be, that the time of his reign was the same as by his son. Manuscript is then related to events from the beginning of the 7th century, i.e. this time precede the time of origin of the oldest dated graffiti and caravan passes (641-656) at least about one generation. In the manuscript we read the fourth line: *Akeñe ypoy<sup>a</sup>-moko Nāñište* “Nāñišta, the older of the land Akeñe”. The form *akeñe* is probably adjective (we would expect *\*akeññe*), which can be derived from *āke* “end” = A *āk*. So it may be the land “at the end/ at the edge”. This semantical motivation isn't unusual. We know many similarly motivated toponyms: for example Slavic *Ukrajina*, **Krajina**, the Old English kingdom *Mierce*, Italian *Le Marche*, German *Mark* about Brandenburg, and other. The name of today's Chinese town 焉耆 *Yanqi* (= Uyghur Qarašahr) was pronounced *ĭäng'ji* (Karlgren) or *?iangji* / *?iangji* (Pulleyblank) in the time of Tang's dynasty. In addition final *-n* can reflect older *-r* in adaptation of



originally non-Chinese words. Today's Iranian sources confirm the old *-r-*. The Khotan-Saka toponym *Argīna-* appears in the list of places on the Silk-Road. Sogdian *'rkčyk* (from the work *Nāfnāmak*) follows after toponyms: Kašghar, Khotan and Kuqa. A possible continuation is just today's Yanqi/Qarašahr. Corresponding is also Middle Persian *'rkčyk xwt* = *\*arkčīk χwataw* "the lord of [the city] Ark" according to the text *Mahrnāmag*. Adams (2000: 9) links these toponyms to modern Persian *arg/ark* "small stronghold", Pahlavi *'rkpaty* "the lord of citadel". Related could be Latin *arx* "stronghold, citadel, castle".

The A language is sometimes called *Ārsī*. Really, the compounds *ārśi-kāntu* "the *ārśi* language" and *ārśi-ype* "the land of *ārśi*" indicate it could be an ethnonym. But there is no evidence of its relation to the A Tocharians. The word appears only in translations from Buddhist Hybrid Sanskrit, so more probable is that it is a mechanical equivalent of the standard Sanskrit compounds *āryabhāṣa* "language of the Āryas", i.e. "Sanskrit" and *āryadeśa* "land of the Āryas" (also land of those who keep laws of the Āryas). Another Tocharian A text specifies further meaning of the word *ārśi*, i.e. "buddhist monk" (= who keeps the law of the Āryas or brought the buddhist doctrine to the areas of Tocharians). Distraction of the meaning of the word has analogy in Khotan Saka *āśī*. This word denoted both: the Āryas and monks. This is not a new conclusion, its authors are British iranists Henning & Bailey (30th years of the 20th century). But identification *ārśi* = Tocharian A is still repeated and is evident that it cannot be a palatalized form derived from root *\*ark-*, which obviously denoted a metropolis of the Tocharians A.

The West Tocharian metropolis is denoted Kuča in Uyghur now, in the 9th century its Old Uyghur name was *Kūsān*. This obviously reflects Toch. B adjective *kuśiññe*, which we know from titels written in caravan passes: *kuśiññe orotstse walo* "the great Kuchean king/ the great king of Kucha". The correspondable noun is *\*kuśi*, as it is confirmed by parallels in other languages: Khot. *Akuśi*, Sogd. *'kwcyk* ~ *'kwcyq*, Skt. *Kuci*, Chin. 龟兹 *Qiuci* < Middle Chinese *Kuw-dzá* (Pulleyblank). The Sanskrit and Sogdian names can be traced already in the first century A.D. Together with Chinese forms they indicate original affricate. According to this we can point out that the change *\*-č-* > *-ś-* operated in the first centuries A.D. Adams (2000: 20) still discusses the attractive hypothesis on identification of Tocharians and northwestern barbarians, called in Chinese records 月支 *Yuezhi*. In 126 B.C. returned Zhang Qian – the ambassador of the Han dynasty – from his travel to the land Daxia, i.e. Bactria to inform the Emperor Wu. In the 123rd chapter of the chronicle *Shiji* we can read his notes: "The nation of Yuezhi originally lived in the area between the

Qilian mountains (= Tianshan) and the city of 敦煌 *Dunhuang*, but after their total defeating by the *Xiongnu* tribes (= Huns), they moved far to the west behind 大宛 *Dawan/Dayuan* (= Ferghana), where invaded and dominated people of the land 大夏 *Daxia* (= Bactria) and founded settlement of their king on the northern bank of river *Kui*” (Lin 1998: 476). Chinese sources also mention that part of the defeated, so called 小月支 *Xiao Yuezhi* “the Lesser *Yuezhi*”, didn’t go to the west but settled in mountains to the northwest from Gansu (Adams 2000: 10). In 108 B.C. the king of the Lesser *Yuezhi* subordinated to China. In sources as *Shiji* or *Hanshu* he was called *Ruoju* [= pinyin; i.e. *Jo-chü* in Wade-Giles] King. Pulleyblank (1966: 19) suppose that in fact his name is a title in Middle Chinese form *nyâk-tsjo* and in time of Han dynasty *\*nyak-tsia*. He identified it as the Tocharian adjective A *ñäkci*, B *ñäk(i)ye* “divine, heavenly”, formed from A *ñäkät*, B *ñakte* “god”. So the ruler of the *Xiao Yuezhi* was titled “the Divine King” or “the Heavenly/ Celestial King”. The similar title *βαγο βαο* “god-king” appears in an inscription of the most prominent Bactrian king Kanishka. Interesting is that the kings of 匈奴 *Xiongnu* tribes probably accepted these titles of Tocharians. In the time of Han dynasty their names were accompanied by the epithet *ruodi* [= *jo-ti* after Giles] < *\*nyak-tei* (Pulleyblank 1966: 19-20).

Pulleyblank’s Middle Chinese reconstruction of the ethnonym *Yuezhi* is *\*ɲuat-tɕiä*, in other variants: *yuzhi* < *\*ɲuätɕiä*, *niuzhi* < *\*ɲuwtɕiä*. The Chinese annalists knew these tribes from the end of the 2nd millenium B.C. According to the book *I Zhou shu* they firstly appeared in semimythical list of tribes bringing the tributs to the court of *Zhou* dynasty. Fully realistic is already information from the book *Guanzi* which contents documents from the 5th to the 1st century B.C. According to the book the western nation *Yuezhi* used jade with only one possible origin from surroundings of Khotan (Pulleyblank 1966: 19). Adams supposes the starting point *\*gutyiyi*. This reconstruction perfectly corresponds with the external Indo-European etymology of this ethnonym (Witzcak 1993), based on the etymological analysis of the name of East Germanic Goths: Goth. *Gutþiuda* < *\*Guti-þeudō* “the nation of Goths”; Gr. *Γύθωνες*, Lat. *Gutones*, Old Engl. *Gotan* < *\*gut-an-*, cf. Old Nord. *gotnar* “men”, between Old Eng. *Géatas*, Old Nord. *Gautar* < pl. *\*gautōz*, cf. Old Nord. *gautar* “men”, from this sg. *\*gautaz*. Otrębski (1950, 79-98) was the first who published this analysis, later developed by Hamp (1991, 85-86). Otrębski added comparison with Nor. *gutt* & *gut* “boy”, cf. also Danish *gud* and Swedish *gutt*. Hamp projected these forms to the later IE forms: collect. *\*g<sup>h</sup>ud-i-* : singulative *\*g<sup>h</sup>ud-on-* : *\*g<sup>h</sup>oud-o-*. The ethnonym, if motivated by the

original meaning “young man, boy”, is not isolated in the IE context. Compare the name *Čech*, which in fact is the appellative “boy” preserved in two archaic peripheral dialects: Kashubian and Slovenian (Blažek & Klain 2002). There is still another alternative etymology deriving the name of the capital of the western Tocharians *Kuci* from the pl. *\*k̑witeyes* “the whites, the luminous”. This etymology is supported by the Chinese denotation of the reign dynasty in Kuqa called *Bo* = “white / luminous”. But there are some arguments against this hypothesis: (i) genitive of *Kuciñ* proofs that *Kuci* is singular; (ii) the reign dynasty in Kuqa used its own designation – in Sanskrit sources *suvarṇa-* “gold”; the corresponding Tocharian B term was *Ysaṣṣe*.

The most complex situation seems to be in the case of the ethnonym *Tochar*. The Chinese designation of Ferghana *Dayuan* was probably pronounced as *\*Taxwār* in the last centuries B.C. (Henning 1938; Pulleyblank 1962: 90, 224; 1966: 22). Strabo (referring to Apollodoros) and in the 2nd century Ptolemaeus [VI, 11.6] localized the tribe *Tóχαροι* to Bactria (now Afghanistan) in the 1st century A.D. But Ptolemaeus still knew *Τάχοροι* from northern Sogdiana [VI, 12.4] and the town *Θογάρα*, now in Gansu province [VI, 16.8] = *Tagorae* which mentioned Plinius. Greek *-o-* reflects *\*-u-* in loanwords from the Middle East. This is confirmed by Sanskrit ethnonyms *Tukhara-*, *Tukhāra-*, *Tuṣṣara-*, *Tuṣāra-* and others. *Kumārajīva*, member of Kuchean royal family and famous translator of buddhist texts to Chinese gives the definite equality between *Tukhāra-* and *Yuezhi*. He explained Sanskrit ethnonym by Chinese term *Xiao Yuezhi*, i.e. “the Small *Yuezhi*” at the beginning of 5th century A.D. (Adams 2000: 10, footnote 19). The Sanskrit *-kh-* can function as transcription of Middle Iranian *-g- /γ/*, as Skt. *vakhu* from Bactrian *bago* “god” proofs. Sogdian texts (economical records in the book *Nāfnāmak* – about 800 A.D.) give two variants: *tyw’r’k* and *ʔyw’r’k*. This forms may be vocalized as *\*taywārak* (or *\*taxwārak*; from this possibly derived Khot. *ttahvāra*) and *\*ʔtywārak* (or *\*ʔtxwārak*). Both variants could be derived from original proto-form *\*tuyārak* or *\*tuxārak*. Curious evidence of the second form could be the Ossetic *toxar* “warlord” (if *tox* “war” is reversely derived form). We can demonstrate analogical functional drift from ethnonym to appellative in Slavic word *\*vitędzь* “victor, hero, warrior”, which could be an adaptation of Old Nor. *vikingr* “sea robber, pirate, viking”, later commonly “Norman” (detailed discussion to the problem: see Vykypěl 2004, 120-29). We have also two transcriptions from Chinese: *dou-qia-luo* < *\*təu-k’ia-lâ* (Karlgren) = *\*təw-k’ia-la* (Pulleyblank) a *tu-huo-lo* < *\*t’uo-xuâ-lâ* (Karlgren) = *\*t’ɔ’-xwa’-la* (Pulleyblank). Some modern Chinese toponyms document notable traces of historical presence

of the Tocharians in the Tarim Basin: central village 托胡拉 Tuohula to the west from Khotan (Li Yinbing 2006: 15), village 托乎拉 Tuohula north from Aqsu = Chin. 阿克苏 Akesu. The same origin has most probably the name of the village 吐葫芦 Tuhulu in area of ancient Tocharian settlement near 伊吾 Yiwu. We can still mention Tibetan term *Thogar* used for northeastern Tibet (Adams 2000: 10, note 19). Probably both Chinese variants and the Tibetan word have origin in Sogdian term without prothetic vocal. Adams (2000: 16-17) reconstructs original word as *\*tugra-* which gives common Tocharian *\*tukäre-*; this may be inherited word or loan, most probably from Iranian. Presented existence of loadable (“epenthetic”) vowel before *-r-* is just typical for Tocharian languages and it is at least indirect evidence that historical Tocharians (also?) used this ethnonym. In 1907 the orientalist F. W. K. Müller from Berlin identified ethnical name *TWTR* in Old Uyghur colophon of the Toch. A drama *Maitrēiasamītinātaka*. He vocalized it as *Toχri* and Sieg and Siegling (1908) identified it with the ethnonym *Τόχαροι*, which Strabo and Ptolemaeus located to Bactria, i.e. Afghanistan today. In Old-Uyghur version of drama *Maitrisimit Āryacandra* (Old Uyghur *Aryačintri*) is mentioned as translator of the work from Sanskrit to *toχri tili*. Müller deciphered his origin as the land of *Nakardeśa* (*Nkrydyš*). That is near the modern Jalālābād, south from Kābul. But in 1949 British iranist Henning clearly demonstrated that this toponym must be read as *\*knydyš* and this can be vocalised only as *Agnideśa*, i.e. area of the Tocharians A. It makes sense: Āryacandra translated drama from Sanskrit original into his mother tongue Tocharian A, then the Tocharian A text was translated in Old Uyghur. There are also other arguments, unknown to Müller, for identification of Tocharians A and ethnonym *TWTR*. There was found a trilingual Sogdian-Uyghur-Chinese inscription honoring deeds of the Uyghur ruler, in the Uyghur kingdom capital of Qara Balgasun. It contains information about total defeating of Tibetan army and nation of the four *TWTRY* (Sogd. *ctβʹr twyrʹk*). This is related to the war 791-792. Similar terms are also in Manichean documents in two forms: Middle Persian (*chʹr twyrystʹ[n]*) and Old Uyghur (*twyrt twyr*). The Sogdian book *Mahrnāmag* (written about 800) informs us about members of Manichean church. There are five small city-states among them in north of the Tarim Basin. Four of them were in areas where Tocharian language was probably spoken. There are contemporary places Qočo (Turpan), Kuqa (with Kašghar and Aqsu), Qarašahr (Yanqi), Uč.

7. Historical notes of antique and Chinese authors document presence of the Tocharians in the Central Asia in the last centuries B.C. Analysis of early To-

charian loanwords in Chinese “chariot” and its parts) moves datation of the first contact to 1200 B.C. The famous mummies with typical Caucasoid features were discovered in the Tarim Basin and can be 4000 years old (Mallory & Mair 2000). If we accept the most probable hypothesis that they represent the ancestors of the Tocharians (also confirmed by analysis of DNA – cf. Francalacci 1998: 537-547), their migration from the west must have happened before horizon 2000 B.C. Researchers formulated two alternative hypothesis reconstructing routes of their migration from supposed Indo-European original homeland to Central Asia. Let us compare arguments of both: the northern and the southern hypothesis. The promoters of the northern hypothesis find the strongest arguments in the presence of some primarily Indo-European cultural words in Fenno-Ugric and Samoyedic languages which cannot be explained as Iranian loanwords. We gather from the work of A. Joki (1973) who was the first who tried to explain some Indo-European words in Fenno-Ugric as loanwords from Tocharian. J. Janhunen (1983) made the same conclusion in the case of some Samoyedic etymons. The number of potential Tocharian loanwords in Uralic languages was extended to 18 by V. Napol’skikh (2001). The following mini-list contains 5 etymons and presents a choice only of the most convincing etymologies.

(1) FU *\*mete* “honey” < OToch. *\*m’átə* < IE *\*med<sup>h</sup>u* (Ringe 1996: 108): B *mit* “honey”, “C” *meta* (Joki 1973: 283-284; Napol’skikh 2001: 372). Iranian *\*madu* “wine” and Indo-Aryan *\*mad<sup>h</sup>u* “sweet drink, sweetness, milk, soma, honey” differ in meaning. The original meaning was probably “mead”. IE *\*e* changes regularly to *\*a* in Indo-Iranian. This is conserved in old loans in Fenno-Ugric languages, cf. Fin. *vasa* “calf”, Lap. (Inari) *vyesi* “calf of reindeer”, Mord. Mokša *vaza* “calf” < FM *\*vasa* < Indo-Iranian. *\*vatsa-*: OInd. *vatsá-* “calf”, Ossetic *wäs*, Yaghnobi *wása* id., all from IE *\*wetso-* “yearling” : *\*wet-es-* “year” (Joki 1973: 338).

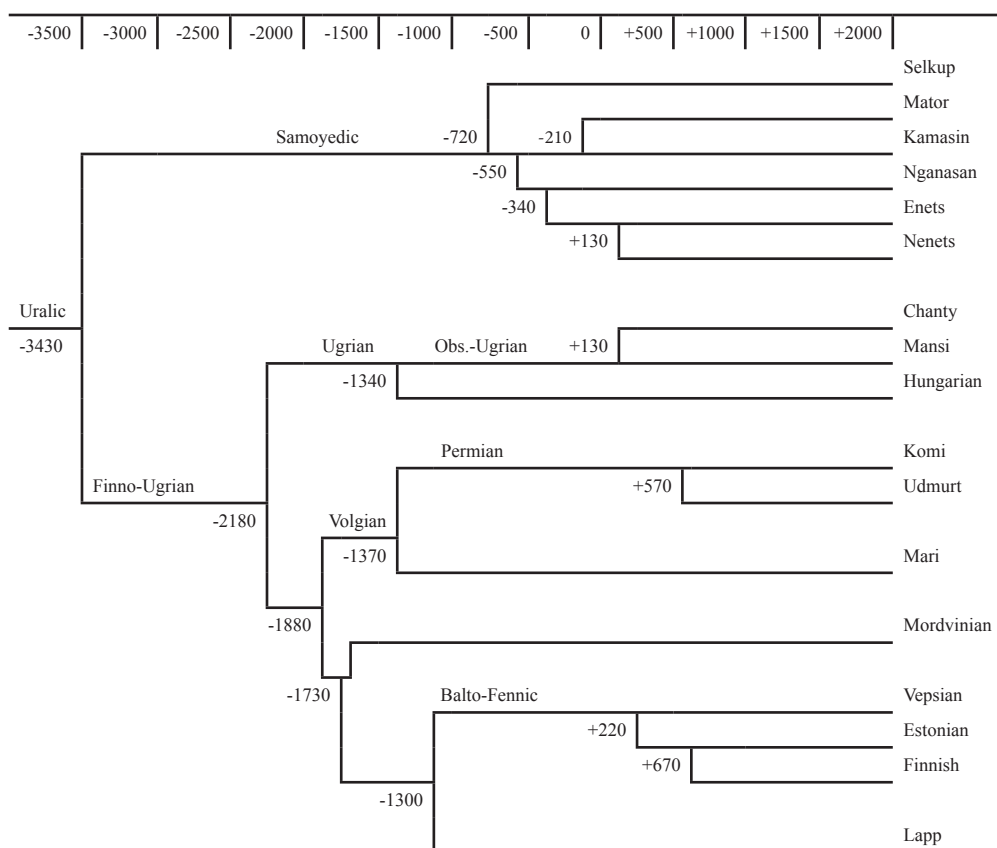
(2) FP *\*sōle* (Fin. *suola*) / *\*sale* (Mord. *sal*, Mari *šancal*, Udm. *sālal*, Komi *sol/sul*) “salt” < *\*sāle* (corresponding Balto-Fin. *\*ō* : Mord. *a* reflects old *\*ā* in stems of words ending by *\*-e*; see Illič-Svityč 1971: XXV) < OToch. *\*sāliyē(n)* (cf. Hilmarsson 1986: 231) : A *sāle*, pl. *sāleyäntu*, B *salyiye*, acc. *sālyi* “salt” (Joki 1973: 316; Napol’skikh 2002: 373-374). In Indo-Iranian languages we know only one cognate in semantically and word-formation distant OInd. *salilām* “see, flood”. The adj. *salilá-/sarirá-* still could mean “salty”.

(3) North Samoyedic *\*menüjâ* “full moon” < OToch. *\*m'eñä-* “moon” < *\*mēnes-* (Ringe 1996: 108-109): A *mañ*, B *meñe* (Napolskikh 2001: 371). Indo-Aryan *\*mās-*, Iranian *\*māh-* “moon” cannot be a source.

(4) Samoyedic *\*sejptâ* “seven” < OToch. *\*ṣəptá* id. (Ringe 1996: 67) < *\*septm̄* (Janhunen 1983: 119; Napolskikh 2001: 373). Indo-Iranian & Indo-Aryan *\*sapta* and especially Iranian *\*hapta* “seven” are more remote.

(5) Samoyedic *\*wesä* “iron; money” < OToch. *\*w'äsā* “gold” (Adams 1999: 487): A *wäs*, B *yasa* < *\*H<sub>a</sub>wes-* (Joki 1973: 339-340; Napolskikh 2001: 374). Similar etymon is reconstructible in Fenno-Ugric languages: BF. *\*vaski* “copper, bronze, brass” | Lap. *\*vēškē* “copper” | Mord. Erzya *viškä* “metal wire” | Mari *važ* “or” | Permian *\*weš* “metal gem”; also cf. Udm. *azveš*, Komi *eziš* “silver”, Udm. *uzveš* “tin, lead”, Komi *oziš* “tin” | Mansi *ātweš* “lead” | Khanty *wăχ* “metal, iron; money” | Hung. *vas* “iron” < FU. *\*waške* ~ *\*wäske* (Joki 1973: 339-340). The Fenno-Ugric forms with the velar extension can reflect Old Tocharian compound *\*w'esä-yäku-* “gold colours” > A *wsä-yok*, B *ysä-yok* very well explains semantical allowance and development in some lines: “gold coloured metal” → “copper/bronze/brass” → “iron”; → “jewel”; → “money”. It is also evident that the adaptation of the Tocharian lexeme into Finno-Ugrian and Samoyedic languages was independent and so probably occurred in different times. In the Indo-Iranian languages the IE root *\*H<sub>a</sub>wes-* in the meaning “iron” doesn't occur.

A hypothetical contact between Tocharian and Fenno-Ugric languages should occur before the disintegration of the Fenno-Ugric protolanguage, traditionally dated to the end of 3rd millennium B.C. (Hajdú 1985: 173). The dating is confirmed by the glottochronological test applied to Uralian languages by the team of Sergei Starostin, the author of the recalibrated method (Santa Fé 2003). According to his conclusion, the interval between dissolution of the Uralic proto-language and dissolution of Fenno-Ugric was c. from 35th to 22th centuries B.C. (see the next genetic schema):



In application of the same recalibrated test on Indo-European languages, the separation of the Tocharian languages from the remaining mainstream can be dated to 3800 B.C. There is no reason to suppose a direct contact between peoples speaking Tocharian and Uralic protolanguages. Hence the ancestors of Tocharians needed at least 4 and at most 16 centuries to reach neighbouring areas of independent, but still undifferentiated Finno-Ugrian. An original homeland of the Fenno-Ugrians has been located in the area between the middle stream of the Volga and the central part of Ural. The contact between the early Tocharians and Fenno-Ugrians should happen in the southern part of the forest-steppes area where only forest hunters and fishermen (= Fenno-Ugrians) and breeders of horses and cattle (= ancestors of Tocharians) could be met. The hypothetical Tocharian stock in Samoyedic lexicon was realized undoubtedly later, when ancestors of the Tocharians moved to the east. But this occurred certainly before the 8th century BC, when the Samoyedic protolanguage dis-

solved. Some of the mummies come from 2000 B.C. If their Tocharian identity is true, we can confirm the contact between the Tocharians and Samoyedic people in the 3rd millenium B.C. Again, it may have most probably occurred in the forest-steppes area in the southern part of Siberia. Even if a direct identification of archeological culture with specific ethnic is always problematic, there is a broad consensus about important role of ancestors of the Tocharians in archeological complex of **Afanasievo culture** from 3500 to 2500 B.C. This culture is localized between the upper flow of the rivers Ob and Angara, to the north from the Altai with the centre around the area of Minussin valley by northern Yenisei. This culture is characterised by knowledge of copper and bronze, there are interesting and evident cultural parallels with such North Pontic cultures as the Srednij Stog (4500-3500 B.C.), see Mallory, EIEC 4-5, Mallory & Mair 2000: 294-97. We can add that the Afanasievo culture was followed by the culture of Okunievo in the 2nd millenium B.C. and that the bearers of this culture probably were early Samoyeds (Vadeckaja 1990: 73). Geographically the territory of both cultures significantly coincides with the original homeland of the Samoyeds, determined by the method of linguistic archaeology into the quadrangle Narym-Tomsk-Jenisejsk-Krasnojarsk by E. Xelimskij (1988: 13-14).

The hypothesis of the **southern** trajectory of ancestors of the Tocharians was firstly formulated by the British iranist P. Henning in 1962 (published first in 1978). His concept was further developed by the Georgian and Russian authors T. Gamkrelidze & V. Ivanov (1989) and Polish K. Witczak (1993). The advocates of the southern route see the main argument in a similarity of the proper names Guti and Tukriš, attested already in the 3rd and especially from the 2nd millenium B.C. in the Western Iran, with the name of the capital of the Western Tocharians Kuča, and the ethnonym Tochar respectively (see above). This concept is certainly seductive, but it spares the linguistic proof of mutual loanwords between Tocharian and one of the ancient Near-Eastern languages. It may be especially Sumerian, Akkadian and Elamite, with which the Proto-Tocharians must be contacted. The only exception is the contribution of K. Witczak. He collected 10 lexical parallels, which should document a mutual contact of ancestors of the Tocharians as well as of the Hurrians and the Urarteians. This is a key argument for the Near Eastern migration, so we will cite this comparisons with short commentaries:

- (1) Hurr. *ag-*, Ur. *agu-* “lead, bring” || Toch. AB *āk-* “lead”. Hurr.-Ur. \**ag-* has the closest cognates in Nakh languages, concretely in Chech. -



*ig-a*, Bats *-ik* “lead, manage”; other parallels in Dagestanian languages as Archi *aḡa-s* “manage”, Dargi *-irḡ-/-urḡ-* lead to pDagestan \**’VrḡV* (Diakonoff & Starostin 1986: 57).

(2) Hurr. *mann-*, Ur. *man-* “to be, exist” || Toch. AB *māsk-* “to be, become, be situated” < \**mṅ-sk-* (Adams 1999: 458). Hurr.-Ur. verb could be without problems derived from Dagest. \**’i-ma(n)* “stay” (Diakonoff & Starostin 1986: 21).

(3) Hurr. & Ur. *pal-* “know, express, say” || Toch. AB *pālsk-* “think, consider” (not “know”). Toch. word is probably the *sk-* derivative from the verb *pālk-* “see, look” (Adams 1999: 377, 380-381).

(4) Hurr. *wali* “worm” || Toch. A *wal*, B *yel* id. The Hurrian word, in modern transcription *ḡali*, has the closest cognates in Nakh languages: Chechen *bō-ḡalla*, Ingush *bḡeḡal* “snake”; also Tsez *bekol*, Bezhit *bekela*, Avar *borox* “snake”, Tindal *bek’a* “snake, worm” (Diakonoff & Starostin 1986: 50).

(5) Ur. *ḡunuše* “battle” || Toch. A *k<sub>u</sub>ñas* “struggle, conflict” (no *kunas* “battle”). The Toch. word reflects the protoform \**g<sup>wh</sup>ṅ-yont-ēn* derived from the root \**g<sup>wh</sup>en-* “fight, struggle” (Hilmarsson 1996: 192). Ur. *-še* represents a productive suffix of abstracts (Wilhelm 2004b: 125).

(6) Ur. *šūše* “sheep” || Toch. A *śos* id. It is not possible to separate *śos* from A *śāyu*, B *śaiyye* < \**śāw-ye-* (Adams 1999: 634); W. Winter (1999: 251-254) appointed the meaning “small domestic animals”. For A \**śos* Winter expected the assimilation from \**śos*, this may be the acc. pl. with analogical development as the acc. pl. *kos* “cows” < \**g<sup>w</sup>owṅs*. Toch. A *śos* and *śāyu*, B *śaiyye* are undoubtedly derived from the verb attested in B *śāw-/śāy-*, A *śo-* “live”; due to semantics cf. Welsh *biw* “Hornvieh” : Lat. *vīvus*. Also B *śānta* “sheep” derivable from \**śāwentā* (Adams 1999: 634) is ranked here.

(7) Hurr. *šaphal(d)i* “left”, Ur. *salmathī* id. || Toch. A *śālyi*, B *śwālyai* id. But the Toch. words do not mean “left”, but in contrary, “right”. This is the fossilized acc. f. gerund *śwālle* “convenient to eat” from the verb *śu-* “to eat”, cf. Khotanese *hvarandaa-* “right hand” : *hvar-* “to eat” (Winter

1985: 590; Adams 1999: 645). On the other hand, the Hurr. word has persuasive etymology in Dagestanian \*čaH(V)pVI- “left” > Agul čalpl-an-, Lezgin čapla, Dargwa čipil (Diakonoff & Starostin 1986, 54; the authors reject the Urarteian parallel, actually it could be a loanword, for example from some of Semitic languages, cf. Akkadian šumēlu, Ugaritic šmāl, Hebrew šamō‘l, Syriac sāmālā “left side”).

(8) Hurr. *p/wandi* “right” || Toch. *Apāci* id., *apāt* “to the right”. Toch. word has no definitely assigned meaning, cf. analysis of W. Winter (1985).

(9) Hurr. *ubi* “millet”, Ur. \**ebi* id. || Toch. AB *yap* id. Hurr. *ubi* is translated as “Gerste”, i.e. “barley” (Wilhelm 1992: 135). The Toch. etymon is often connected with IE \**yewH<sub>1</sub>o-* “grain; barley” (Adams 1999: 482). Witczak himself accepted this etymology too (2004: 43).

(10) Hurr. *umini*, Ur. *ebani* “land, area” || Toch. A *ype*, B *yapoy* “land (country)”. Ur. *-ni* forms several substantives (Wilhelm 2004b: 125); The Hurrian word is now transcribed as *ōmini* (Wilhelm 2000a: 107). The Tocharian words have many etymological attempts: \**H<sub>1</sub>epowen*, pl. \**H<sub>1</sub>epounā*, lit. “dominion” : \**H<sub>1</sub>ep-* “take, hold (keep)”, \**H<sub>1</sub>en-b<sup>h</sup>uH-i* or \**H<sub>1</sub>ep(i)-ouden* (Adams 1999: 483).

In confrontation of the northern and southern hypotheses the first seems more convincing, presuming the starting point of transcontinental drift of ancestors of the Tocharians in the Western Eurasian wood-steppe area, most probably in the area between Danubius and Dniepr. Only this ecological nica allowed to Indo-Europeans to preserve the skills of agropastoralists, as well as surprising mobility. The northern trajectory is also confirmed by important contribution to the cultural vocabulary of Fenno-Ugric and Samoyedic languages. Interesting is also the affinity of the first South Siberian chalcolithic Afanasievo culture with North Pontic archeological complexes as the culture of Srednij Stog.

## 8. APPENDIX 1: THE APPLICATION OF LEXICOSTATISTICS FOR TOCHARIAN

	A	B	Etymology
1. all	<i>pont- &amp; pu-k</i>	<i>po, pont-</i>	* <i>pōnts</i> ; cf. Gr. <i>πᾶς, παντο</i> id.
2a. ashes	<i>tor</i>	<i>taur</i>	< Turk. * <i>tōr</i> dust; cf. also Yakut <i>tor</i> smut (LS, 259; EDAL 1465); comparison with R. <i>dur</i> fatuity, Br. <i>dura</i> stagger (* <i>d<sup>h</sup>ouro-</i> ) is semantically not persuasive
2b. ashes	<i>twe</i>	<i>tweye</i>	* <i>d<sup>h</sup>woyo-</i> from IE <i>d<sup>h</sup>eu(H)-</i> to blow, smoke, cf. Lit. <i>dujā</i> fine dust, Khot. <i>duya-</i> dusty

3. bark		<i>enmetre</i>	
4. belly	<i>kāts</i>	<i>kātsō</i>	* <i>g<sup>w</sup>ōt-yōn-</i> ; cf. Goth. <i>qīþus</i> abdomen, bosom
5a. big	<i>šāw-</i>		cf. A <i>šāw-</i> , B <i>šāy-</i> live (#64b; problematic is the comparison with OInd. <i>sávas-</i> power)
5b. big	<i>tsopats</i>		* <i>d<sup>h</sup>ēubo-tyo-</i> deep; cf. Goth. <i>diups</i> id.; zero grade is in A <i>tpār</i> high < * <i>d<sup>h</sup>ubro-</i>
5c. big		<i>orotstse/wr<sup>o</sup></i>	* <i>uru-(e)H-tyo-</i> , cf. Luw. <i>ura-</i> great
5d. big		<i>trekte</i>	* <i>d<sup>h</sup>rog<sup>h</sup>-to-</i> (original possibly "firm"); cf. OInd. <i>dīhyati</i> he makes firm
6. bird		<i>hwāsa</i> <i>šlyamāna</i>	cf. <i>luwo</i> animal (Adams 1999, 731)
7. bite		<i>tsāk-</i>	* <i>dēnk<sup>h</sup>-(nā-)</i> , cf. Gr. <i>δάκνω</i> I bite, OInd. <i>dásati</i> he bites
8. black	<i>arkant-</i>	<i>erkant-</i>	* <i>H<sub>2</sub>g<sup>o</sup>-ont-</i> , cf. OInd. <i>rājanī-</i> night, Arm. <i>erek</i> evening, Goth. <i>riqis</i> darkness
9. blood	<i>ysār</i>	<i>yasar</i>	* <i>H<sub>2</sub>ésH<sub>2</sub>ōr-</i> , cf. Hit. <i>ēšhar</i> id.
10a. bone	<i>āy</i>	<i>āy</i>	* <i>H<sub>2</sub>ést-yo-?</i>
10aa. bone		pl. <i>āsta</i>	* <i>H<sub>2</sub>ést-ā-</i> ; cf. Hit. <i>hastāi-</i> bone
11. breast	<i>pāššām</i>	<i>pāscane</i>	* <i>psteno-</i> , cf. OInd. <i>stānā</i> breast, Avest. <i>fštāna-</i> , Arm. <i>stin</i> , Gr. <i>στηνίονιον</i> <i>στηθος</i>
12a. burn	<i>tsāk-/tsak-</i>	<i>tsāk-/tsek-</i>	* <i>d<sup>h</sup>eg<sup>nh</sup>-</i> ; cf. Old Ind. <i>dāhati</i> he burns, Alb. <i>djek</i> , Lit. <i>degù</i> I burn
12b. burn	<i>pālk-</i>	<i>pālk-</i>	* <i>b<sup>h</sup>lg-</i> ; cf. Lat. <i>fulgeō</i> I blaze, Gr. <i>φλέγω</i> I burn
13. claw	<i>maku</i>	pl. <i>mekwa</i>	* <i>sm<sub>o</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>nog<sup>h</sup>wā-</i> ; cf. Hit. <i>sankuwai-</i> < * <i>sananku-</i> , Arm. <i>elowngn</i> id. < * <i>enong-</i> < * <i>sem-H<sub>2</sub>ong<sup>h</sup>-</i> , Gr. <i>μῶνυξ</i> single-hoofed < * <i>sm<sub>o</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>nog<sup>h</sup>-u-</i>
14. cloud	<i>tārkār</i>	<i>tarkār</i>	* <i>d<sup>h</sup>rg<sub>ru</sub>-</i> , Cf. Lit. <i>dārga</i> rainy weather, OR. <i>padoroga</i> stormy weather
15. cold	<i>k<sub>u</sub>raš/krošs-</i>	<i>krošce</i>	* <i>krustōn</i> , acc. * <i>krustén-ŋ</i> , cf. Gr. <i>κρυστάλλος</i> ice, OHG <i>hroso</i> id.
16. come	<i>kum-</i>	<i>kām-</i>	* <i>g<sup>w</sup>em-</i> ; cf. OInd. <i>gāmati</i> he walks, Goth. <i>qiman</i> come, Lit. <i>gėmù</i> : <i>gimti</i> be born
17a. die	<i>wāl-/wal-</i>		* <i>welH<sub>2</sub>-</i> ; cf. Hit. <i>walahzi</i> he beats, Hier. Luvian <i>wali-la-</i> de cease
17b. die		<i>sruk-/srauk-</i>	* <i>streug-</i> , cf. ONord. <i>strjúka</i> go away, Gr. <i>σπεύγωμαι</i> I give out
18. dog	<i>ku</i>	<i>ku</i>	* <i>kúwōn</i> ; cf. Hit. <i>kuwan-/kun-</i> id., Gr. <i>κύων</i> , gen. <i>κυνός</i> id.
19a. drink	<i>yok-</i>	<i>yok-</i>	* <i>H<sub>2</sub>ēg<sup>w(h)</sup>-</i> , cf. Hit. <i>eku-/aku-</i> id.
20. dry	<i>āsar</i>	<i>asāre</i>	AB <i>ās-</i> dry, cf. Lat. <i>arēō</i> I am dry, <i>aridus</i> dry < * <i>H<sub>2</sub>ēs-</i>
21. ear	<i>klots</i>	<i>klautso</i>	* <i>k<sub>l</sub>outi-H<sub>2</sub>ōn-</i> ; cf. OInd. <i>śrúti-</i> hearing, OIr. <i>cluas</i> ear
22a. earth	<i>tkaṃ</i>	<i>keṃ</i>	* <i>d<sup>h</sup>g<sup>h</sup>om-</i> ; cf. Hit. <i>tēkan</i> , dat.-loc. <i>taknī</i> id., Gr. <i>χθών</i>
22b. earth	<i>pāts</i>	<i>ptsa</i>	* <i>pedā-</i> , cf. Hit. <i>pēdan</i> place, Gr. <i>πεδίων</i> field, plane
23a. eat	<i>šwā-</i>	<i>šwā-</i>	* <i>gyeuH-eH<sub>2</sub>-</i> ; cf. Pers. <i>jāvidan</i> , OHG. <i>kiuwan</i> , OChSl. <i>žvati</i> id.
23b. eat	<i>tāp-</i>	<i>tāpp-</i>	* <i>dap-w-ā-</i> ; cf. Latv. <i>daps</i> banquet
24. egg			
25. eye	<i>ak</i> , du. <i>ašūṃ</i>	<i>ek</i>	* <i>H<sub>2</sub>ok<sup>w</sup></i> , du. * <i>-iH<sub>2</sub></i> ; cf. Lit. <i>akis</i> , pl. <i>aki</i> , OChSl. <i>oko</i> , du. <i>oči</i>
26. fat n.	<i>šalyþ</i>	<i>šalyþe/šalywe</i>	* <i>sēlpo-</i> , cf. Gr. <i>ἔλπος</i> (Hes.), Alb. <i>gjalþe</i> butter, OHG. <i>salba</i>
27. feather		pl. <i>paruwa</i>	* <i>p(e)rwā</i> , cf. OChSl. <i>pero</i> : <i>perq</i> I fly
28. fire	<i>por</i>	<i>pūwar</i>	* <i>peH<sub>2</sub>w<sub>2</sub>ntr.</i> : * <i>peH<sub>2</sub>wōr</i> coll.; cf. Hit. <i>pahhu(wa)r</i> , Gr. <i>πῶρ</i> id.
29. fish		<i>laks</i>	<i>lōksi-</i> ; cf. ONord. <i>lax</i> , Lit. <i>lāšis</i> , R. <i>losós</i> , Osset. <i>lāsāg</i>
30a. fly v.	<i>plu-</i>	<i>plu-</i>	* <i>pleu-</i> put, flow; cf. Gr. <i>πλέ(τ)ω</i> I put, I swim, OChSl. <i>plujō</i> I swim
30b. fly v.	<i>sāl-</i>	<i>sāl-</i>	* <i>sel-</i> move fast; cf. Lat. <i>saliō</i> I leap
31. foot	<i>pe</i>	<i>paiyye</i>	* <i>pēds</i> or * <i>podyo-</i> ; cf. Lat. <i>pēs</i> or Avest. <i>paiḍā</i> , Gr. <i>πέζα</i> id.

32. full	<i>ypic/ywic</i>	<i>īte</i>	A *y(n)-wic < acc. *en-wītem; B *wīto-; cf. OHG <i>wīt</i> ONord. <i>wíðr</i> wide
33a. give	<i>e-</i>	<i>ai-</i>	*H <sub>9</sub> ei-, cf. Hit. <i>pāi-</i> give, Lyc. <i>ije-</i> buy, Hier. Luw. <i>iyasa-</i> id., Gr. <i>áivvμαι</i> I take
33b. give		Imp. <i>pete</i>	*po-doH <sub>7</sub> -; cf. Hit. <i>pēda-</i> bear
33c. give	<i>wās</i> : PP <i>wawu</i>	<i>was</i> a he gives	*us-(ā-) < *wes-( buy; cf. Hit. <i>wāsi</i> he sells (LIV 693)
34a. good	<i>krant-</i>	<i>krent-</i>	*g <sup>w</sup> rH <sub>9</sub> -ont-; cf. Lit. <i>gēras</i> good
34aa. good		<i>kartse</i>	*g <sup>w</sup> rH <sub>9</sub> -to-; cf. OInd. <i>gūrtā-</i> , Lit. <i>gīrtas</i> , Lat. <i>grātus</i> , all from *g <sup>w</sup> erH <sub>9</sub> - chant
34b. good	<i>kāsu</i>		cf. A <i>kās-</i> be bright, shine, <i>kā-</i> shine on, illuminate?
35. green	<i>motarci</i>	<i>motartstse</i>	*mod <sup>r</sup> tyo-; cf. Slav. *modr <sup>o</sup> blue, Hit. <i>āntara-</i> id.
36a. hair	<i>śāku</i>		*dēkwā; cf. Khot. <i>dasa-</i> filament, OInd. <i>dasā-</i> thrum, Goth. <i>tagl</i> hair
36b. hair	<i>yok</i> (hair; colour)	<i>yok</i> , pl. <i>yākwa</i>	(B: hair, wool; colour) < *yālēku; cf. OInd. <i>yāsu-</i> pubic hair
36c. hair		<i>matsi</i>	*metryo-, cf. Latv. <i>mats</i> , pl. <i>mati</i> hair(s)
37. hand	<i>tsar</i>	<i>šar</i>	A: *g <sup>h</sup> esēr; B: *g <sup>h</sup> esér-ŋ; cf. Hit. <i>kissar-</i> id.
38a. head	<i>špāl</i>	( <i>špālu</i> excellent)	*g <sup>h</sup> eb <sup>h</sup> ōl or *g <sup>h</sup> eb <sup>h</sup> l <sup>o</sup> m; cf. OHG <i>gebal</i> , Gr. <i>κεφαλή</i> id.
38b. head	<i>lap</i>		*lob <sup>h</sup> o-; cf. Gr. <i>λόφος</i> scruff of animal
38c. head		<i>āšce</i>	*H <sub>9</sub> ekst-en-: *H <sub>9</sub> ek <sup>h</sup> - sharp, pointed; cf. Gr. <i>ἀκμή</i> headland, steep bank
39. hear	<i>klyos-</i>	<i>klyaus-</i>	*klēus-; cf. OInd. <i>śróyati</i> he hears, OChSl. <i>shušati</i> & <i>slyšati</i> , Lit. <i>klausyti</i> hear
40a. heart	<i>āriñc</i>	<i>arañce</i>	*H <sub>9</sub> eH <sub>9</sub> (e)ri-, cf. Hit. <i>hah(a)ri-</i> lungs / milts, Celt. *āren- milt > Welsh <i>arenn</i> , pl. <i>eirinn</i> , Old Ir. <i>áru</i> , gen. <i>árann</i> heart
40b. heart	( <i>kri</i> will)	pl. <i>kāryāñ</i>	*k <sup>r</sup> dyā, cf. Gr. <i>καρδία</i> , Old Ir. <i>cride</i> heart
41. horn	( <i>kror</i> crescent of moon)	<i>krorīyai</i>	*kreH <sub>9</sub> w <sup>r</sup> or *k <sup>r</sup> H <sub>9</sub> sr <sup>u</sup> -, cf. Hit. <i>karāwar</i> id. or Myc. <i>ono-karaor</i> = /oino-krāhōr/ unicorn
42. I	<i>nāy</i> m./ <i>ñuk</i> f. < *ñāku	<i>ñāš/ñiš</i>	acc. *H <sub>9</sub> me <sup>g</sup> e crossed with nom. *H <sub>9</sub> e <sup>g</sup> ō > *yāku, ñ- < *m(ā)ñā < gen. *mene; cf. Hit. <i>ūg</i> : <i>ammug</i> , Goth. <i>ik</i> : <i>mik</i>
43a. kill	<i>ko-</i>	<i>kau-</i>	*kāu-; cf. OSaxon <i>hauwan</i> , Lit. <i>kāuti</i> beat, bang
43b. kill	<i>sruk-</i>		cf. B <i>sruk-/srauk-</i> die (#17b)
44. knee	du. <i>kanweŋ</i>	du. <i>keni</i>	*g <sup>o</sup> nu-; cf. Hit. <i>gēnu-</i> , Gr. <i>γόνυ</i> id.
45a. know	<i>knā-</i>	( <i>nān-</i> appear)	*gneH <sub>7</sub> -; cf. OInd. <i>jānāti</i> he knows < *g <sup>h</sup> ηH <sub>7</sub> -neH <sub>7</sub> -
45b. know	<i>kārs-</i>	<i>kārs-</i> pres. <i>šārsāsk-</i>	*k <sup>r</sup> s- : *kers- cut, cf. Hit. <i>kars-</i> cut off; semantics possibly as Lat. <i>scīre</i> know : <i>secāre</i> cut
45c. know	(e <sup>s</sup> attendance)	<i>aik-</i>	*H <sub>9</sub> eik <sup>h</sup> - possess, cf. Goth. <i>aih</i> , <i>aigum</i> id., have, Old Ind. <i>tīse</i> he is master (of something)
46. leaf	<i>pālt</i>	<i>pilta</i>	coll. *b <sup>h</sup> lH <sub>9</sub> tōs, cf. OHG <i>blat</i> id.
47a. lie	<i>klis-/kles-</i>	( <i>klānts-</i> sleep)	*klm <sup>h</sup> H <sub>9</sub> -s-; cf. OInd. <i>klām(y)ati</i> he is tired, <i>klānta-</i> tired
47b. lie	( <i>lake</i> = B <i>leki</i> bed)	<i>lyāk-</i>	*leg <sup>h</sup> -; cf. Goth. <i>ligan</i> id., OIr. <i>laigid</i> he lies, he lies down
48. liver		<i>wāstarye</i>	*ud <sup>r</sup> yo-; cf. Gr. <i>ὄστρος</i> stomach, <i>ὄστέρα</i> bosom; OInd. <i>udāra-</i> abdomen, Lat. <i>uterus</i> bosom
49. long	<i>pārkār</i>	<i>pārkare</i>	*b <sup>h</sup> rg <sup>h</sup> -rō-; cf. Hit. <i>parku-</i> , Arm. <i>barjr</i> high
50. louse		<i>pārseri/pāršere</i>	< Turk. *būrce flea, cf. Chuv. <i>pārʹza</i> (Lubotsky & Starostin 2003: 261)
51a. man	<i>onk</i>	<i>enkwe</i>	*ñkwo- mortal, cf. OIr. <i>éc</i> dead < *ñku- : *nek- kill, die > AB <i>nāk-</i> destroy; be lost, disappear; cf. Lat. <i>necō</i> : <i>necāre</i> kill
51b. man	<i>ātāl</i>		*at(i)-al-; cf. OHG <i>adal</i> gentle

52a. many	<i>māk</i>	<i>māka</i>	* <i>m̥g̥H<sub>a</sub></i> - (> * <i>m̥g̥H<sub>a</sub>ḡ</i> -?) : * <i>meḡōH<sub>a</sub></i> cf. OInd. <i>māhā</i> - : <i>māhi</i> n. big = Gr. <i>μέγα</i> id., Arm. <i>mec</i> id., Hit. <i>mekki</i> - plentiful, Alb. <i>madh</i> great
52b. many	<i>kāštār</i>		* <i>k̥s-tro-/ā</i> ; cf. A <i>kaś</i> , B <i>keś</i> line, account, number < * <i>k̥acsæ</i> < * <i>k̥os-tē(i)</i>
53a. meat	<i>šwāl</i>		sr. <i>šwā</i> - eat (#23a)
53b. meat		pl. <i>mīsa</i>	* <i>memsā</i> (pl. of ntr. * <i>memsom</i> ); cf. Goth. <i>minz</i> id.
54. moon	<i>mañ</i>	<i>meñe</i>	* <i>meH nē(n/s/t?)</i> ; cf. Goth. <i>n</i> -stem <i>mena</i> id.
55. mountain	<i>šul</i>	<i>šale</i>	* <i>sehwo</i> -; cf. Lat. <i>silva</i> wood
56. mouth	<i>ko</i> , loc. <i>koyam</i>	<i>koym</i>	A <i>šew</i> - / B <i>kāy</i> - gape, open mouth < * <i>ḡ<sup>h</sup>eH<sub>i</sub>(w)-</i> / * <i>ḡ<sup>h</sup>oH<sub>i</sub>(y)-</i> ; cf. Lat. <i>hīscō</i> I open mouth, OChSl. <i>zějō</i> : <i>zijati</i> id.
57. name	<i>ñom</i>	<i>ñem</i>	* <i>H<sub>i</sub>nēm̥</i> ; cf. Arm. <i>anown</i> , Gr. <i>ὄνομα</i> , Alb. <i>emër/emën</i>
58a. neck	<i>kñuk</i>		* <i>gneugo</i> -; cf. MHG <i>knock</i> neck or * <i>kneig<sup>wh</sup>o</i> -; cf. Goth. <i>hneivan</i> bend
58b. neck		<i>kor</i>	* <i>k̥uH<sub>y</sub></i> ; cf. Gr. <i>κόρα</i> eye of needle, hole of ear, Av. <i>sūra</i> -, Arm. <i>sor</i> hole
58c. neck		<i>krāñi</i>	* <i>k̥rH<sub>y</sub>sn̥iyom</i> ; cf. OInd. <i>śīrśán</i> - head, Gr. <i>κράνιον</i> vertex
59. new	<i>ñu</i>	<i>ñ(u)we</i>	* <i>newo</i> -; cf. Hit. <i>nēwa</i> -, Gr. <i>νέος</i> id.
60a. night	<i>w̥se</i>	<i>y̥šyē</i>	* <i>wesya-H<sub>i</sub>en</i> - lit. “veiled”, cf. Lat. <i>vesper</i> , Gr. <i>ἕσπερος</i> evening < *that, what is in shroud : Hit. <i>waspa</i> - clothes; shroud (Katz 2000, 69-93)
60b. night		<i>kāstwer</i> at night	* <i>ḡ<sup>sp</sup>wor</i> -; cf. Old Ind. <i>kyāp</i> -, Avest. <i>xšap(ar)</i> -, <i>xšafn</i> -. <i>xšapan</i> -, Hit. <i>ispant</i> - night
61. nose	pl. <i>malañ</i>	pl. <i>meli</i>	* <i>(s)melo</i> -; cf. MEng. <i>smell</i> smell
62. not	<i>mā</i>	<i>mā</i>	* <i>mē</i> ; cf. Arm. <i>mi</i> , Gr. <i>μη</i> , Alb. <i>mos</i> id.
63. one	<i>sas</i> m. / <i>sām</i> f.	<i>še</i> m. / <i>sana</i> & <i>somo</i>	* <i>sēms</i> / * <i>sn̥yā</i> ; cf. Gr. <i>εἷς</i> / <i>μία</i>
64a. person	<i>napeñ</i>		< Iran.: Avest. <i>nāfah</i> - propinquity, family, Sogd. Bud. <i>n'β</i> people, clan
64b. person	( <i>śom</i> youth)	<i>śaumo</i>	from <i>śāw</i> -/ <i>śāy</i> - live < * <i>ḡ<sup>w</sup>yeH<sub>y</sub>w-elo</i> -; cf. OInd. <i>jīvati</i> , Lat. <i>vīvere</i> live
64c. person	<i>oñi</i> < * <i>oñkñi</i>	<i>eñkwaññe</i>	see #51a
64d. person		<i>onolme</i>	* <i>ān(H)-olmo</i> - : * <i>ān(H)</i> - < * <i>H<sub>e</sub>enH<sub>y</sub></i> - breathe, cf. B <i>anāsk</i> - inspire
65. rain n.	<i>swase</i>	<i>swese</i>	* <i>suH<sub>y</sub>oso</i> -; cf. AB <i>su</i> - rain, Gr. <i>ῥεῖ</i> it rains, Prus. <i>soye</i> rain
66. red	<i>rtār</i>	<i>ratre</i>	* <i>H<sub>i</sub>rud<sup>h</sup>ō</i> -; OInd. <i>rudhirá</i> -, Gr. <i>ἔρυθρός</i> id.
67a. road	<i>yme</i>	<i>ymīye</i>	* <i>H<sub>e</sub>im̥ñ-ā-H<sub>e</sub>n</i> -
67b. road	<i>ytār</i>	<i>ytārye</i>	* <i>H<sub>i</sub>ītōr</i> ; cf. Hit. <i>itar</i> , Lat. <i>iter</i> id.
68a. root	<i>tsmār</i>		AB <i>tsām</i> - growth < * <i>dem(H<sub>y</sub>)</i> -; cf. Lyd. <i>tam</i> - frame, Gr. <i>δέμω</i> I frame
68b. root		<i>witsake</i>	< Iran. * <i>waitāka</i> -, cf. Osset. Iron. <i>wīdag</i> , Digor. <i>wedagā</i> id.
69. round	<i>akritār</i>		* <i>(s)kritro</i> -; cf. Lit. <i>āpskritas</i> , Latv. <i>skritulys</i> id.
70. sand	<i>wāryāñc</i>	<i>warañce</i>	pToch. * <i>wār-w-āñce</i> < *( <i>H</i> ) <i>wōru</i> - : B <i>yare</i> gravel < *( <i>H</i> ) <i>wero</i> -; cf. ONord. <i>aur</i> sand blended with clay, OIr. <i>úr</i> soil, clay
71. say	<i>weñ-</i>	<i>weñ-</i>	* <i>wond-ye/o</i> - : OInd. <i>vādate</i> he celebrates    * <i>wokn-ye/o</i> - : OHG <i>giwahanan</i> note
72. see	<i>lāk-/lyāk-</i>	<i>lāk-/lyāk-</i>	* <i>luk</i> - blaze (rather than * <i>leg̥</i> - collect. or comparison with WGerm. * <i>lōkōjan</i> look)
73a. seed	<i>sāryām</i> Saat <i>sārm</i> Same pl. <i>sārmntu</i>	<i>sārm</i> , pl. <i>sarmana</i>	* <i>šryā</i> - : AB <i>sāry</i> - plant < * <i>soH<sub>y</sub>-r</i> -, cf. Lat. <i>serere</i> : <i>serō</i> : <i>seruī</i> & <i>serī</i> plant * <i>sōrm̥ḡ</i>
73b. seed	<i>śāktālyi</i>	<i>śāktālye</i>	AB <i>kāt</i> -( <i>nā</i> -) strew; cf. Lit. <i>kēsti</i> : <i>kečiū</i> diffuse, dispel

73c. seed		<i>ṣaiweñña</i>	* <i>seH<sub>1</sub>i-won-yā</i> : * <i>seH<sub>1</sub>-</i> to seed, cf. Goth. <i>saian</i> id., OChSl. <i>sějō</i> I drill
74a. sit	<i>l(y)ām-</i> / <i>lam-</i>	<i>l(y)ām-</i> / <i>l(y)ām-</i>	* <i>lamb-</i> ; cf. OInd. <i>lāmbate</i> he hang (on), Eng. <i>limp</i>
74b. sit	<i>ṣām-</i>	<i>ṣām-</i>	* <i>sed-m-</i> or * <i>H<sub>1</sub>ṣ-em-</i>
75a. skin	<i>yats</i>	<i>yetse</i>	* <i>H<sub>1</sub>ēd-so-</i> : * <i>H<sub>1</sub>ed-</i> eat
75b. skin	<i>kāc</i>		* <i>kūt-ē(i)</i> : obl. <i>-i-m</i> ; cf. ONord. <i>húð</i> , Lat. <i>cutis</i> id.
75c. skin		<i>ewe</i>	* <i>H<sub>1</sub>ow-es-</i> : * <i>H<sub>1</sub>eu-</i> clothe, shoe; cf. Hit. <i>unu(wa)-</i> decorate; OChSl. <i>ob-ujō</i> I shoe
76. sleep	<i>klis-</i> / <i>kles-</i>	<i>klānts-</i>	cf. #47
77a. small	<i>lykāly</i> / <i>lyākly-</i>	<i>lykaške</i>	* <i>H<sub>1</sub>lig-</i> : ī. <i>ὀλίγος</i> small, few, Alb. <i>lig</i> bad, evil, poor
77b. small	<i>mkāto</i>		* <i>m<sub>2</sub>klo-</i> ; cf. Hit. <i>maktant-</i> slight, Lat. <i>macer</i> : <i>macilentus</i> slight, poor
78. smoke n.			
79a. stand	<i>kāly-</i>	<i>kāly-</i>	* <i>k<sub>1</sub>H<sub>1</sub>-ye/o-</i> ; cf. Lit. <i>kėlti</i> raise : <i>kilti</i> get up
79b. stand	<i>stām-</i>	<i>stām-</i>	* <i>stm<sub>1</sub>-</i> : * <i>steH<sub>2</sub>-</i> stand (be) as * <i>g<sup>m</sup>m<sub>1</sub>-</i> : * <i>g<sup>m</sup>eH<sub>2</sub>-</i> go // * <i>stm<sub>2</sub><sup>b</sup>-</i> designate
80. star	<i>šre</i>	<i>šcirye</i>	* <i>H<sub>2</sub>(H)ster-</i> ; cf. Hit. <i>hasterza</i> , Gr. <i>ἀστὴρ</i> id.
81a. stone	<i>kñā-</i>		* <i>Kunyā</i> ; cf. Hit. <i>kunkunuzzi-</i> sort of stone (diorit?)
81b. stone	<i>pārem,</i> perl. <i>°enā</i>		* <i>pōr-en-</i> ; cf. Hit. ntr. <i>pēru</i> , com. <i>perunas</i> rock, OInd. <i>pārvata-</i> mount, Avest. <i>pauruuatā-</i> mountain range < * <i>perwnt-</i> , OIr. <i>airne</i> stone
81c. stone		<i>kārweñe</i>	* <i>g<sup>m</sup>r<sub>1</sub>Hwon-en-</i> : * <i>g<sup>m</sup>reHwen-</i> > OInd. <i>grāvan-</i> stone for pressing of soma
82. sun	<i>koṃ</i>	<i>kaum</i>	< Turk. * <i>gün</i> sun, day, cf. Chuv. <i>kon</i> day (LS 2003, 257; EDAL, 553), rather than from virtual IE * <i>kauni-</i> ; cf. Gr. <i>καὶμα</i> burning heat (of sun) : <i>καίω</i> I burn < * <i>kawyō</i>
83. swim		<i>nāsk-</i>	* <i>(s)meH<sub>1</sub>-</i> ; cf. OInd. <i>snāti</i> he baths; Lat. <i>nāre</i> swim
84. tail		<i>pākā-</i>	* <i>pukā-</i> ; cf. OInd. <i>pūccha-</i> id. < * <i>puk-skō-</i> , Goth. <i>fauho</i> fox (EIEC 563)
85a. that .	<i>saṃ</i> m. : <i>sām</i> f.	<i>su</i> m. : <i>sā</i> f.	A * <i>sono-</i> m. : * <i>sā-m<sup>o</sup></i> f. / B * <i>so+u</i> m. : * <i>sā+u</i>
85b. that	<i>tām</i> ntr.	<i>tu</i> ntr.	A * <i>tu-m</i> < * <i>to(d)+u-m<sup>o</sup></i> / B * <i>to(d)+u</i>
86a. this	<i>sās</i> m. : <i>sās</i> f.	<i>se</i> m. / <i>sā</i> f.	A * <i>su-so</i> < * <i>so+u-so</i> : * <i>sā-s<sup>o</sup></i> / B * <i>so</i> m. : * <i>sā</i> f.
86b. this		<i>seṃ</i>	B * <i>so-n<sup>o</sup></i>
86b. this	<i>tāṣ</i> ntr.	<i>te</i> ntr.	A * <i>tu-se</i> < * <i>to(d)+u-se</i> / B * <i>tod</i>
87. thou	<i>tu</i>	<i>t(u)we</i>	* <i>tuHóm</i> ; cf. OInd. <i>t(u)vām</i>
88. tongue	<i>kāntu</i>	<i>kantwo</i>	* <i>dn̥g<sup>b</sup>wā-</i> ; cf. OLat. <i>dingua</i> , Goth. <i>tuggo</i> id.
89. tooth	<i>kam</i>	<i>keme</i>	* <i>ḡomb<sup>b</sup>o-</i> ; cf. OInd. <i>jāmbha-</i> , Gr. <i>γόμφος</i> id.
90. tree	<i>stām</i>	<i>stām</i> , pl. <i>stāna</i>	* <i>steH<sub>2</sub>-sm̥</i> , pl. * <i>steH<sub>2</sub>-smn-ā-</i> ; cf. Germanic * <i>stamma-</i> trunk
91. two	<i>wu</i> m. / <i>we</i> f.	<i>wi</i>	A * <i>dwō(u)</i> m. / * <i>dwoi</i> ntr. : B * <i>dwoi</i> ntr.
92a. walk	<i>i-</i>	<i>i-</i>	* <i>H<sub>1</sub>ēi-mi</i> I walk : * <i>H<sub>1</sub>i-mé</i> we walk; cf. OInd. <i>emi</i> : <i>ima</i>
92aa. walk	<i>ya-</i>	<i>ya-</i>	* <i>H<sub>1</sub>ei-ye/o-</i> ; cf. #92a
92b. walk	<i>kālk-</i> / <i>kalk-</i>	( <i>kālāk-</i> follow )	A: * <i>k<sup>w</sup>l-K-</i> B: * <i>k<sup>w</sup>olH-K-</i> ; cf. OInd. <i>cāraṭi</i> he moves : <i>cāritum</i> : <i>cūrti-</i>
92c. walk		<i>mās-</i>	* <i>mus-(ā-)</i> : AB <i>mus-</i> move < * <i>meus-</i> ; cf. Hit. <i>maus-</i> : <i>mu-</i> fall
93a. warm	<i>omāl</i>	<i>emalle</i>	* <i>H<sub>1</sub>m̥-m̥(y)o-</i> ; cf. Icel. <i>molla</i> (be) hot
93b. warm	<i>sāt</i>	( <i>satāsk-</i> expire)	
94. water	<i>wār</i>	<i>war</i>	* <i>udrom</i> (Adams) or loc. * <i>udr̥</i> (Normier); cf. Alb. <i>ujë</i> id. < * <i>udryā</i> ; Gr. <i>ὕδρα</i> bucket

95. we	<i>was</i>	<i>wes</i>	* <i>wos</i> (from crossing of IE nom. * <i>wei-</i> and obl. * <i>nos</i> ); cf. Hit. <i>wēs</i> , Goth. <i>weis</i>
96. what	<i>kuc</i>	<i>k<sub>u</sub>ce</i>	* <i>k<sup>w</sup>u-tóm</i> = acc. from <i>kus</i> / <i>k<sub>u</sub>se</i> who (#98)
97. white	<i>ārki</i> , pl. <i>ārkyan̄c</i> m./ <i>ārkyant</i>	<i>ārkwī</i>	* <i>H<sub>2</sub>erǵ-u-i-n<sup>o</sup></i> , pl. * <i>H<sub>2</sub>erǵ-u-yon-t-</i> ; cf. Hit. <i>harki-</i> id.
98. who	<i>kus</i> , acc. <i>kuc</i>	<i>k<sub>u</sub>se</i> , acc. <i>k<sub>u</sub>ce</i>	* <i>k<sup>w</sup>u-só</i> ; cf. Alb. <i>kush</i> id.; acc. * <i>k<sup>w</sup>u-tóm</i>
99. woman	<i>k<sub>u</sub>li</i>	<i>kl(y)īye</i>	* <i>ǵleH<sub>2</sub>wi-H<sub>2</sub>en-</i> *daughter-in-law/spouse; cf. ChSl. <i>зълъва</i> , Gr. <i>γάλαξ</i> husband's sister
100. yellow		<i>tute</i>	* <i>d<sup>h</sup>ūto-</i> ; cf. OInd. <i>dhūta-</i> turbulent, Pers. <i>dūd</i> fume, OEng. <i>dýþ</i> fuel, tinder (M 226), Cz. <i>doutnat</i> smoulder : IE. * <i>d<sup>h</sup>euH<sub>2</sub>-</i> fume; to semantics cf. OInd. <i>dhūmrá-</i> & <i>dhūmala-</i> fume's coloured, <i>russet</i> : <i>dhūmá-</i> fume (P 261-262)

### Lexicostatistical analysis

#### Missing items

A: 3, 6, 7, 24, 27, 29, 41, 48, 50, 78, 83, 84, 100.

B: 24, 69.

Loanwords: 2a, 50, 64b, 68b, 82.

K = Number of incomplete or quite missing pairs and semantical units attested only as loans: 3, 6, 7, 24, 27, 29, 41, 48, 50, 69, 78, 82, 83, 84, 100; in all 15.

L = Number of complete pairs: L = 100 - K = 85.

M = Number of semantical units, if the A and B counterparts are etymologically distinct ('non-cognates'): ## 5, 17, 38, 47, 53, 58, 75, 81; in all 8.

N = Number of lexical correspondences: N = L - M = 77

R = Share of preserved lexical correspondences due to all complete pairs: R = N / L = 77 / 85 = 0.906.

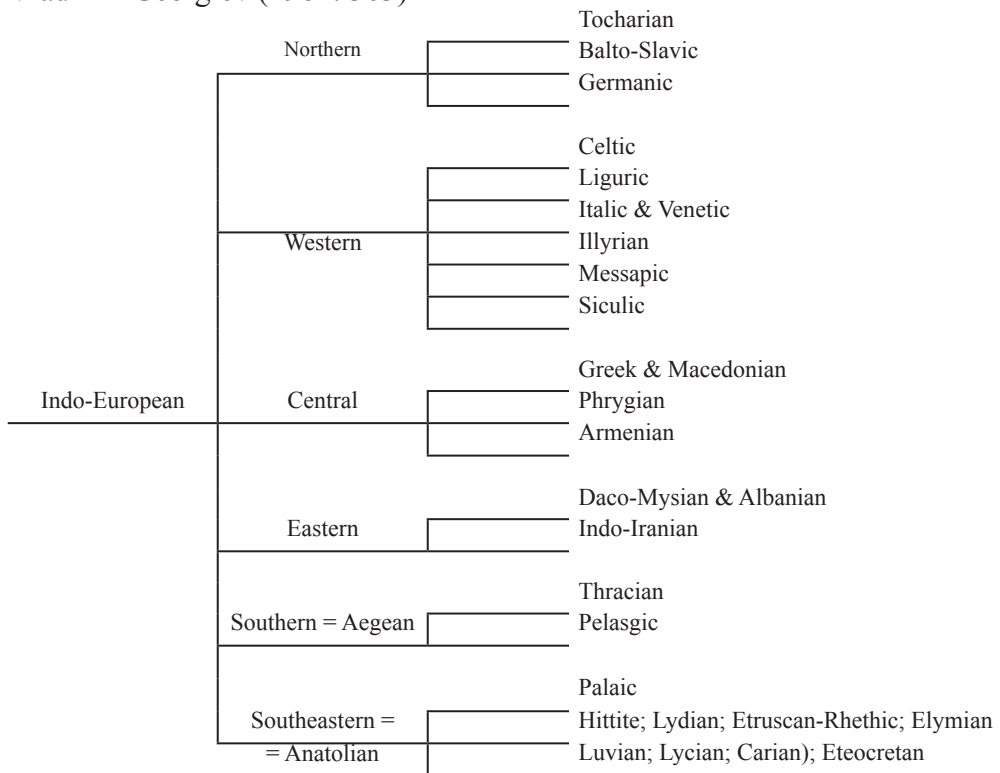
If Tocharian A and B were contemporary living languages, we could conclude that they diverged about 1050 years ago, i.e. they should separate during the 10th century A.D. But these languages are dead and known only from literary – even asynchronic – tradition. It is difficult to express the age of Tocharian texts by the only date. It can be only a statistical average: Tocharian A to A.D. 700 and Tocharian B to A.D. 600 (see §3). Then there are two strategies of calculation of the time of their divergence. According to Swadesh's method we subtract the time of divergence (i.e. 1050 years) from an arithmetic mean of dates of recording of both languages, i.e. from the fictive average A.D. 650. The result 400 BC seems quite realistic. Starostin's approach is different. Starostin uses the projection of historically documented languages to the present. The time space of 1300 years separates the language A (A.D. 700) from the present and 1400 years separates the language B (A.D. 600). The corresponding coefficients of preservation are p: p<sub>A</sub> = 0.925; p<sub>B</sub> = 0.913. In relation to the present, the proto-language common to A and B would have the following share of

preservation of the basic lexicon  $c = R \cdot p_A \cdot p_B = 0.906 \cdot 0.913 \cdot 0.925 = 0.765$  (about the method see Burlak & Starostin 2005: 163). This result corresponds to the date c. A.D. 200 (thus just before the end of the Han dynasty, A.D. 220, when the Chinese influence spread to the area of the Tocharian people). We can add that according to Starostin Tocharian A and B differentiated about 20 B.C. (Dybo 2006: 782-83). But details of this calculation were not published. Summing up, the oldest dating of the A vs. B divergence, 400 BC, seems to be in the best agreement with expectation of both historians and linguists.

## 9. APPENDIX 2: POSITION OF THE TOCHARIAN BRANCH BETWEEN OTHER INDO-EUROPEAN LANGUAGES

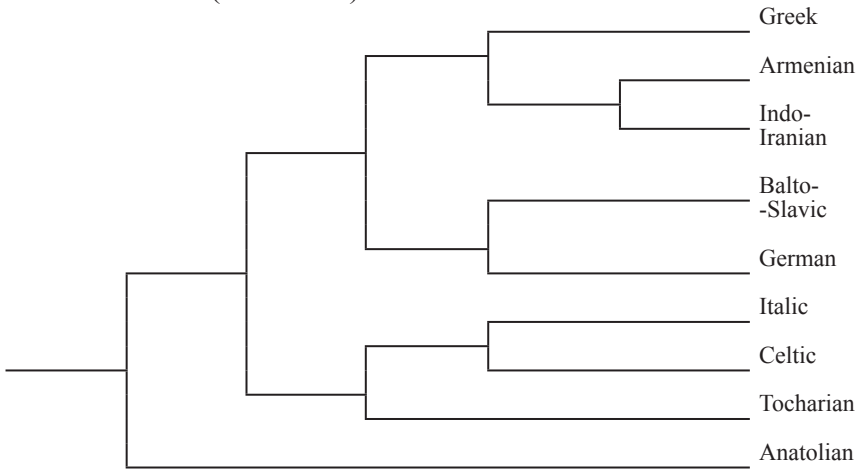
Following diagrams are ranked chronologically according to the year of publication, documenting views of distinguished Indo-Europeanists on development and mutual relations of Indo-European languages:

Vladimir Georgiev (1981: 363)

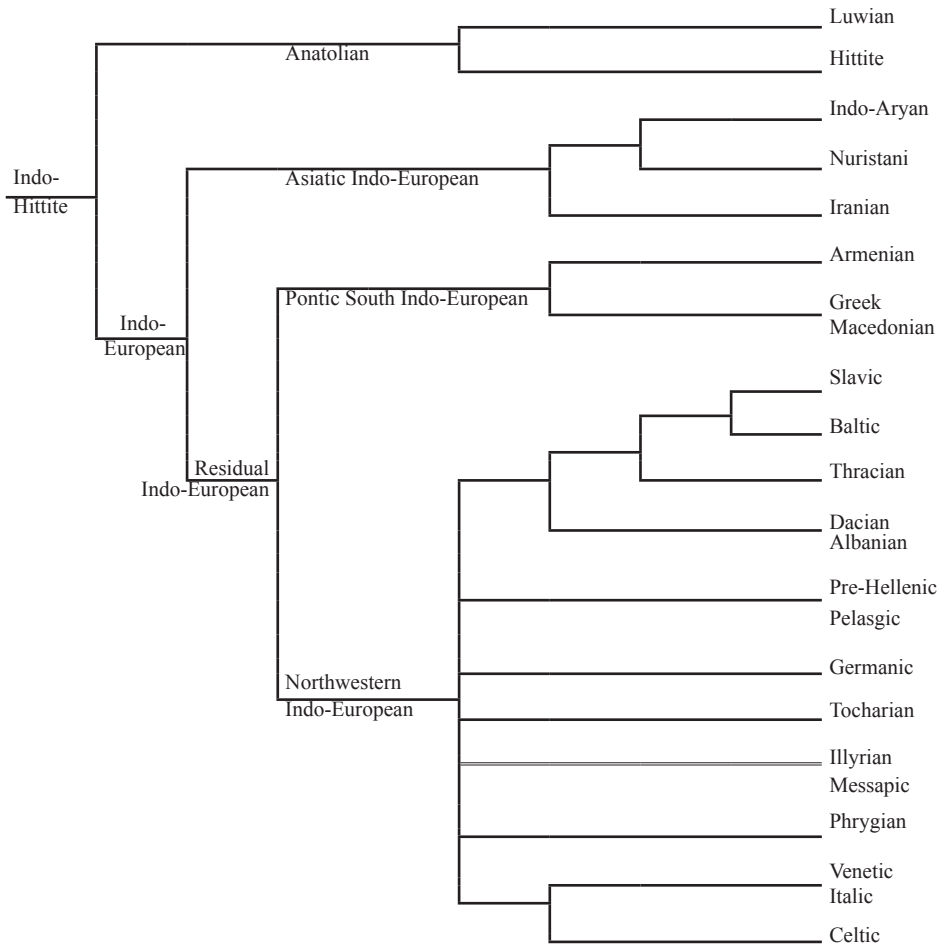




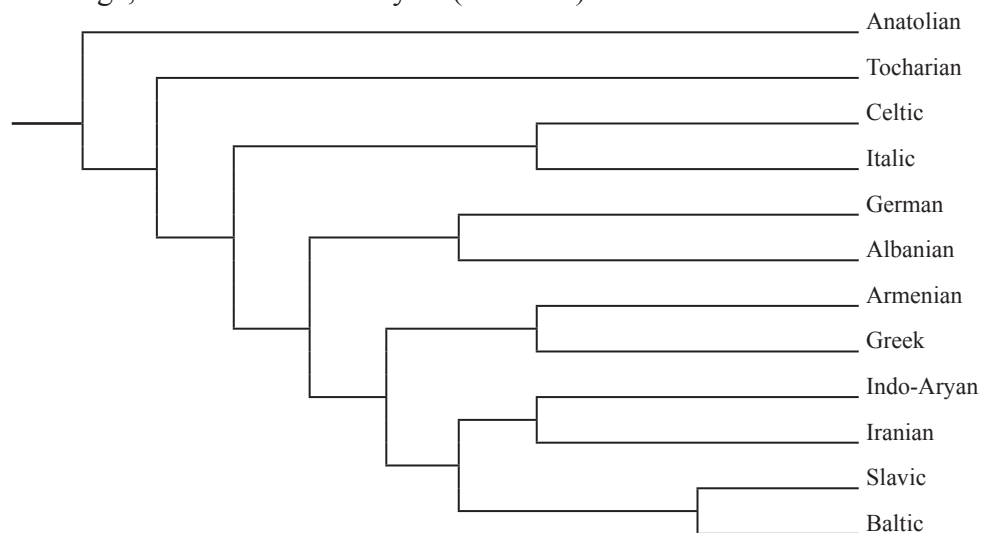
Gamkrelidze & Ivanov (1984: 415)



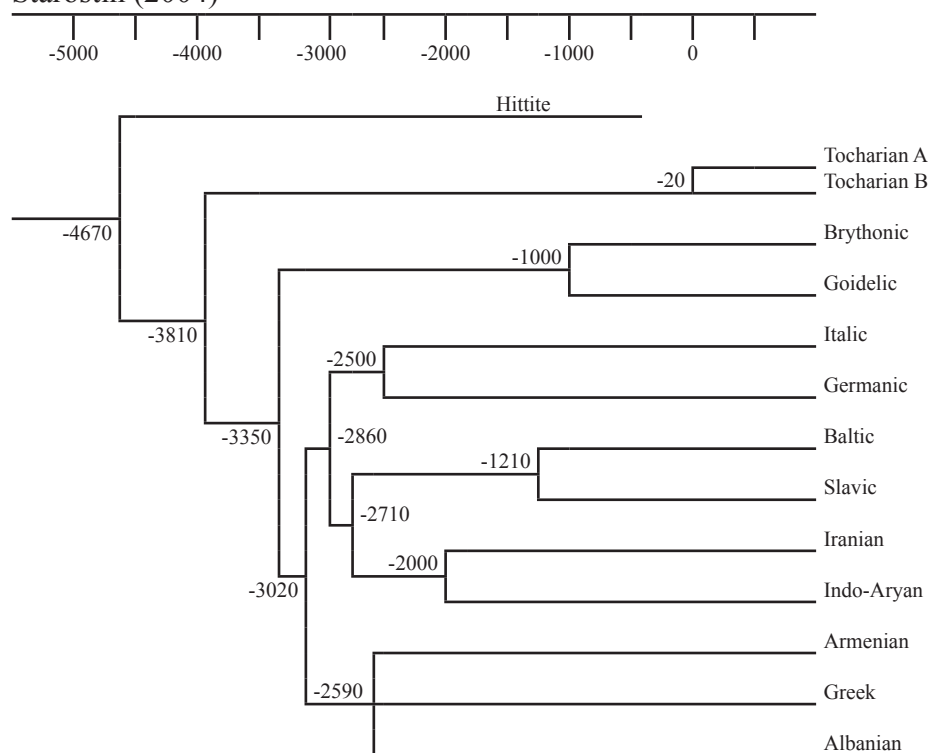
Eric Hamp (1990)



D. Ringe, T. Warnow & A. Taylor (2002: 87)



Starostin (2004)



In three fifths of cases Indo-Europeanists agree in conclusion that Tocharian is a branch separated from the Indo-European dialect continuum as the second

after the separation of the Anatolian branch. Georgiev ranked Tocharian in the so-called northern bloc, represented by Germanic and Balto-Slavic languages, Hamp accents vicinity of German and Tocharian.

## 10. CONCLUSION

In the present study we gathered and dared to assess material allowing to formulate the following scenario. The Indo-European dialect continuum is splitted for the first time in the first half of 5th millenium B.C., when the Anatolian branch is separated. Roughly after 8-9 centuries, c. 3800 B.C., another dialect, developing to the Tocharian branch, made independent. The ancestors of the historical Tocharians separated probably from the eastern part of the Indo-European oikumena, perhaps in the area between Danubius and Dniepr. The area is a logical platform to the further penetration to the east, where the contact with populations speaking still undisintegrated Finno-Ugric proto-language could be realized. This happened probably in the second half of the 4th millenium B.C. We can conceive the area of middle stream of the Volga and Ural (or southern Ural respectively) as pertinent contact zone. The route of Proto-Tocharians led further to the east until it stopped on the northern slopes of the Sajany-Altai, between the upper Irtyš and Angara, where the archeological complex Afanasievo was constituted from 3500 to 2500 B.C. The complex has an evident genetical relation to the culture Srednij Stog, which had dominated in regions to the north from the Black Sea one millenium ago. Culture Okunievo appears in the northern periphery of Afanasievo culture after 2000 B.C. The Okunievo culture obviously contained part of ancestors of Samoyedic populations separating from their Finno-Ugrian relatives around the half of 4th millenium B.C. The vicinity or succession of ancestors of Tocharians and Samoyedic people left some traces in Samoyedic lexicon. The main stream of Proto-Tocharian population moved perhaps to the south still in the last centuries of the 3rd millenium B.C. The most passable route of their migration could lead along the upper flow of Irtysh across the Jungar Basin (*Zhunga'er Pendi*) to the Tarim Basin (*Talimu Pendi*). They were likely to penetrate here from the east (Mallory & Mair 2000: 315) and to gradually colonize the northern edge between the river Tarim and southern uphill of 天山 *Tian Shan* mountains, where the eastern language A and western B were later crystalized. They settled also at the southern rim along the river Qargan and by northern uphill of the Kunlun mountains where hypothetical language C left some traces. The contact with Chinese civilization occured at the latest about 1200 B.C. Spreading of war chariots in Chinese army was the main result (Shaughnessy 1988), documented also in loanword from pre-Toch. \**klæŋkæ* > A *klank*, B

*klenke* “wagon”, AB *klānk-* “to go by wagon”, to Old Chinese *\*ləŋs* “wagon”, *\*ləŋ* “run” (Lubotsky 1998: 379-390; Blažek 1999: 82). Another cultural loans between Tocharian and Chinese follow, in adverse order as well (for example Toch. AB *klu* “rice” < Old Chin. *\*lhu* ~ *\*Lhu* “sprouting rice” - see Blažek 1999: 81-82). In the first half of the 2nd century B.C. the Tocharians were invaded by nomadic ethnics of Xiongnu, who appears as the Huns at the European borders after some centuries. Tocharian’s militant elite runs away to the west, where dominated Bactria for some time. Then some exclusive Bactrian loanwords penetrated in Tocharian et vice versa, although Bactrian was not spoken in the Tarim Basin. This fact confirms that part of the Tocharians returned back from Bactria to Xinjiang. In the following examples chosen from Tremblay (2005: 435-436) the semantics or phonetic peculiarities typical for Bactrian exclude other Middle Iranian languages as a source:

Bactrian and other Iranian languages	Tocharian
<i>αρλο</i> “side, bank (of a ditch)” : Khot. <i>hala</i> “side, half”, Sogd. <i>’rd’r</i> “domain”, Avestan <i>arəda-</i> “side, half”	B <i>ārte</i> “canal”
<i>αγαλγο</i> “wish” : Sogd. <i>āyēdē</i>	A <i>ākāl</i> , B <i>akālk</i> “wish”
<i>καμῖρδο</i> ‘titel of god’ : Khot. <i>kamala</i> “head”, Avestan <i>kamərada-</i> id.	B <i>kamartike</i> “ruler” : <i>ike</i> “place”, <i>kamartāññe</i> “sovereignty”
<i>μολο</i> “wine” : Sogd. <i>mδw</i>	B <i>māla</i> “strong spirit”

There was also an opposite direction of borrowing: *φρογαοο* “profit” ~ Toch. A *pārko*, B *pārka*<sub>u</sub> id.; *σπαχνιιο* “obligated by service” ~ Toch. B *spaktānīke* “minister” < *spaktāṃ* “service” & *ike* “place”; Bactrian words see Sims-Williams 2001). Western and Eastern Tocharian (B : A) separate about the beginning of common era. Hypothetical southern language “C” was probably separated earlier. During the first eight centuries A.D. the population of Tarim Basin become multi-national. With the except of two (or three) Tocharian idioms people use there some written Iranian languages, in particular Middle Persian, Parthian, Sogdian, two variants of the Saka language (from Tumšūq and Khotan), from Indo-Aryan languages Buddhist Hybrid Sanskrit and Prākṛit from Niya are used, plus two Sino-Tibetan literary languages: Chinese and Tibetan. By the end of this era Old Uyghur became a literary language as well. This language and the arrival of Islam in the area (from 9th century) begun to replace not only the Tocharian idioms, but also all of the mentioned Iranian languages.

**Abbreviations:**

A East Tocharian, acc. acusative, adj. adjective, Akkad. Akkadian, Alb. Albanian, Arm. Armenian, Av(est). Avestan, B- Baltic-, B West Tocharian, Bactr. Bactrian, Br. Belorussian, bud. buddhist, Celt. Celtic, cf. compare, Chech. Chechen, Chin. Chinese, Chuv. Chuvash, coll. Collectivum, com. genus communis, Cz. Czech, Dagest. Dagestan, dat. dative, Digor. Digorian, Eng. English, Fin. Finnish, FU. Fenno-Ugric, gen. genitive, Germ. Germanic, Goth. Gothic, Gr. Greek, Hebr. Hebrew, Hit. Hittite, H(ier).Luw. Hieroglyphic Luwian, Hung. Hungarian, Hurr. Hurrian, IA Indo-Aryan, IE Indo-European, II Indo-Iranian, Ind. Indic, Iran. Iranian, Iron. Ironian, Icl. Icelandic, Khot. Khotan Saka, Lat. Latin, Latv. Latvian, Lit. Lithuanian, loc. locative, Lap. Laponic, Luw. Luwian, Lyc. Lycian, Lyd. Lydian, M Middle-, MHG Middle High German, Mord. Mordvinic, nom. nominative, N North, Nor. Norwegian, ntr. neutrum, obl. casus obliquus = indirect case, O Old, OChSl. Old Church Slavonic, OHG Old High German, OInd. Old Indic, OIr. Old Irish, ONord. Old Nordic, Osset. Ossetic, p/P- Proto-, perl. perulative, Perm. Permian, Pers. Persian, praes. praesens, Prus. Prussian, R. Russian, Skt. Sanskrit, Sm. Samoyedic, Sogd. Sogdian, Syr. Syriac, Toch. Tocharian, Turk. Turkic, Udm. Udmurtian, Ugar. Ugaritic, Ur. Urarteian, W West, Wels. Welsh, Yakut. Yakutic.

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### Resumé

The present article summarizes the contemporary knowledge about Tocharians and the region, where they were historically attested, especially from the point of view of linguistics. The early history in the field of Tocharian research opens §1. Two literary languages, Eastern A and Western B, plus the fragments of the Southern idiom C, are briefly described in §2. In §3 the overview of the places, where Tocharian manuscripts were discovered, follows. Especially are analyzed the Roman & Greek and Chinese sources (§§4 and 5 respectively). From the point of view of etymology are discussed the ethnonyms connected with the Tocharians (§6). In §7 the arguments of two alternative hypothetical routes of the ancestors of the Tocharians are confronted, northern and southern ones. The northern trajectory is identified with the zone of the forest & steppe, where the direct contact with the ancestors of Fenno-Ugrians and later Samoyeds could be realized. The southern route had to lead through the Near East. From the point of view of linguistics, the northern solution seems to offer a more realistic scenario. In the Appendix 1 (§8) the etymological analysis of the basic hundred-word-list is demonstrated. The results are used for the glottochronological test according to the 'recalibration' of Sergei Starostin. In the Appendix 2 (§9) the various opinions about the position of Tocharian in the Indo-European dialect continuum are confronted. Most frequently Tocharian is characterized as the second Indo-European branch after Anatolian, which separated from the dialect mainstream. In Conclusion (§10) the multinational history of the Tarim Basin is described. The mutual Tocharian-Chinese and Tocharian-Bactrian loans illustrate these complex relations.

Footnote: The present work is one of partial outputs of interdisciplinary **Research project focused to the old languages and older periods of modern languages** (code 0021622435).

## IV. Bio- & Bibliographies

**Werner Winter (\*25 October 1923 – †7 August 2010).** *Journal of Indo-European Studies* 39 (2011), 235-254.

Michal Schwarz & Václav Blažek

Three very renowned specialists in Indo-European languages passed away in 2010. They were Johann Knobloch (\*5 January 1919 – †25 July 2010), further Wolfgang Schmid (\*25 October 1929 – †22 October 2010) and Werner Winter. The last mentioned was able to extend his mastery beyond the scope of Indo-European languages and became an honoured scholar in languages distant in geography, structure and genetic relations from Indo-European. Werner Winter became one of the most prominent historical and descriptive linguists thanks to his generalism in combination with brilliant and convincing argumentation.

Werner Winter studied at universities in Hamburg and Bern. He defended his dissertation “‘Prothetische Vokal’ im Griechische” in Bern in 1949 (published as 1950a). It is very interesting that in his first profession he was a tamer of wild beasts in circus. Perhaps he tried to forestall entering the armed forces, i.e. the *Wehrmacht*. But his decision in favor of linguistics turned out to be auspicious, since he contributed to the development of several branches in the field. He was back in Hamburg as *Lehrbeauftragter* in 1950-53, then he worked as *Assistant Professor* at the University of Kansas in Lawrence (1953-57). After those four years he moved to Austin to the University of Texas, where he later (1961) gained the position of *Full Professor*. He came back to Germany in 1964 as the head of the Department of Indo-European and General linguistics at the Christian-Albrecht University in Kiel and stayed there next 28 years. During this time he was, in addition, a visiting professor at many universities in the USA (Texas, Kansas, Berkeley, UCLA, Stanford, Yale) and also visited many universities in Europe: in Copenhagen, Kaliningrad and Poznań. Collection of Winter’s pivotal articles about Tocharian languages was published here in Poznań (1984a) where he obtained also a title of honorary doctorate (1984). The same title he obtained once again in Kaliningrad in 2000.

He worked in close cooperation with Mouton Publishing house from 1963 (the name was changed to Mouton de Gruyter in 1976), where he was a director of the section *Janua Linguarum* with the first set called *Series Critica* which was later transformed to *Trends in Linguistics* in the seventies; other subseries were *Studies and Monographs*, *Documentation*, *State-of-the-Art Reports*.

Thanks to his many-sided erudition and extraordinary diligence, Winter as editor helped in publishing around 220 publications, in many cases such fundamental works as *A Handbook of Old Chinese Phonology* by W. H. Baxter (1992), *Comparative Austronesian Dictionary* by D. T. Tryon & M. D. Ross (1995); *Indo-European and the Indo-Europeans* from T. Gamkrelidze & V. V. Ivanov (1995 = English translation of the Russian original from 1984); *Atlas of languages of intercultural communication in the Pacific, Asia and the Americas* by S. A. Wurm, P. Mühlhäusler & D. T. Tryon (1996); *A Historical Dictionary of Yukaghir* by I. Nikolaeva (2006) and many others. As a generally renowned linguist, Werner Winter was a member of editorial boards of many prestigious journals in linguistics (for example *Journal of Indo-European Studies*, *Quaderni semantici*, *Studies in Contrastive Linguistics*, *Tocharian and Indo-European Studies*) and many societies and academical institutions as *Societas Linguistica Europaea* (secretary 1966-91, president 1991-92), *Linguistic Society of America*, *Linguistic Society of Nepal*, *Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft*, *Institut für deutsche Sprache*, *Alexander von Humboldt Foundation*, *Academia Europaea*, *Finnish Academy*. He was acting also as the director of Linguistic Survey of Nepal (1980-84).

Werner Winter opened his career in Indo-European studies with a series of works dedicated to the most “significant“ IE languages, i.e. Sanskrit and Greek, with 17 publications about Germanic languages to follow. His reputation in major has grown thanks to series of 22 articles about Armenian. The discovery of two (or in some cases three) different continuants of IE protophonemes in Armenian (without positional conditioning) gave him the motivation for a fundamental deduction: Armenian (beginning with classical text from the 5th century) is a conglomerate language derived from a mixture of two or three IE languages (1966b).

But Werner Winter was most productive in the field of Tocharian languages with 54 articles and 12 reviews. Many articles were published for the second time in collections *Studia Tocharica* (Poznań 1984) and *Kleine Schriften* with 2 volumes (Bremen 2005). The titles of his articles confirm his key role in setting up Tocharology: he used the name “Tocharia” only in quotes up to 1959. Few of his articles consist of editing or revising former readings + translations of Tocharian manuscripts (1958a, 2003b); he wrote about literary form and metrics (1955f, 1959b), the classification of Tocharian languages (1955g). Other areas were Tocharian dialectology (1958c), studies of relations and loanwords between both idioms A and B (1962d, 1962i). Winter was famous for using Tocharology for the reconstruction of Indo-European

(proto)-language and the theory of linguistics (1960d, 1962c, 1965e, 1969e, 1980b, 1982b, 1992c, 1993b). Studies of grammatical forms (1961c, 1962e, 1965f, 1968a, 1970e, 1980f, 1990d, 1991b, 1992k, 1994b, 1994c) were the most common, together with works dedicated to the development of sounds by comparison of lexicon in Tocharian A and B (1972c, 1976b, 1978b, 1980e, 1984c, 1984d, 1985c, 1987e, 1988b, 1988d, 1989c, 1989d, 1990b, 1993d, 1997a, 1998e, 1999f). Winter's articles about relations of Tocharian and other languages (1963a, 1971b, 1984e, 1984i – ethnonym, 1989b) and Tocharian numerals (1987c, 1992i) remain very important to this day. It is no wonder that after such a broad scope of work he became a respected and sought-after editor in all areas of Tocharian studies. We must mention not only his coedition of the *Fragments of the Tocharian A Maitreyasamiti-Nāṭaka of the Xinjiang Museum, China* (1998b), but also the first part (words beginning with A-J) of the *Dictionary and Thesaurus of Tocharian A* (2009a). The work on this last publication was started due to the need for revision of the only extant Tocharian A dictionary by Pavel Poucha (1955: *Thesaurus*). After the author's death further volumes will probably take more time to realize. One of Winter's last coeditions of *Tocharian and Indo-European Studies* (Vol. 12) will appear posthumously (2011).

Werner Winter wrote only a few but important, studies dedicated to Balto-Slavic languages (1978c, 2002). They led to the formulation of the law called after him (sometimes also Winter-Kortlandt's law).

From his general studies into Indo-European language we must mention his focus on numerals, their inner structure and etymology. Conclusions of his studies (1987c, 1989a, 1990g, 1992d, 1992g, 1992i) are generally accepted. But Winter was active in analyses of non-IE languages too – see his study about the numerals in the languages of Nepal (1999e).

As the head of *Linguistic Survey of Nepal* (1980-84) Winter did not work only as a ceremonial director, but he also started to study non-Indo-European language families: see his 14 publications about Sino-Tibetan languages of Nepal (1985a, 1985d, 1986a, 1986b, 1987b, 1990f, 1991a, 1992f, 1992h, 1996, 1997f, 1999e, 2003a, 2004). Among non-Eurasian languages he focused on the Yuman languages of the Hoka family in the American South-West (13 publications).

Werner Winter was exceptional in possessing a rare combination of such competences as 1) an excellent philologist dealing with old literary languages, 2) a pioneer descriptive linguist who was able to be the first to analyse and describe non-literary languages by the use of modern methods, 3)

a clear-thinking etymologist and 4) a typologist. It may be that due to such extraordinary generalism and today's era of microspecialisations, Winter's chair remained vacant after his superannuation.

We could conclude that Winter "permutated" (almost) all the material he surveyed into linguistic gold. It is a pity that his productive career was limited to "only" 60 years.

### Topical overview of Werner Winter's works

**Indo-European:** 1952a, 1953a, 1963c, 1968b, 1970a, 1982a-b, 1989a, 1990g, 1992g, 1994d, 1995b.

**Greek:** 1950a, 1950c, 1951, 1956a, 1958d, 1960h, 1993f, 1994a.

**Old-Indic:** 1950b, 1955b, 1962k, 1980a, 1987d, 1993f.

**Tocharian:** 1952c, 1955f, 1955g, 1955i, 1958a, 1958c, 1959b, 1960d, 1961c, 1962c, 1962d, 1962e, 1962i, 1963a, 1963d, 1965e, 1965f, 1968a, 1969e, 1970e, 1971b, 1972c, 1975d, 1976b, 1976f, 1978b, 1980b, 1980e, 1980f, 1981a, 1981b, 1982b, 1982d, 1984a, 1984c, 1984d, 1984e, 1984g, 1984i, 1985c, 1987c, 1987e, 1988b, 1988d, 1988e, 1989b, 1989c, 1989d, 1990b, 1990c, 1990d, 1991b, 1991c, 1992c, 1992i, 1992k, 1993b, 1993d, 1993e, 1994b, 1994c, 1997a, 1997d, 1998b, 1998e, 1999f, 2001, 2003b, 2003c, 2005, 2009a, 2009b, 2011.

**Iranian:** 1975a.

**Balto-Slavic:** 1978c, 1980d, 2002.

**Germanic:** 1953c, 1955d, 1958b, 1959e, 1959g, 1960b, 1960g, 1962a, 1962b, 1965b, 1965c, 1967a, 1971d, 1972d, 1979c, 1987d, 1999c.

**Armenian:** 1954a, 1954b, 1955a, 1955c, 1955e, 1956c, 1957b, 1959c, 1960c, 1961d, 1962f, 1965d, 1966b, 1975c, 1980d, 1983b, 1992c, 1992d, 1993b, 1997e, 1998c, 1999a.

**Albanian:** 1958e.

**Yuman:** 1957a, 1966a, 1976d, 1998d.

**Walapai:** 1963b, 1976e, 1983a, 1990e, 1992e, 1995c, 1998a.

**Paipai/Akwa'ala:** 1967c.

**Washo:** 1970f.

**Languages of Nepal:** 1985a, 1986a, 1992h, 1996, 2004.

**Rai:** 1985d, 1987b, 1991a, 1992f.

**Bantawa:** 1986b, 1990f, 1997f, 2003a.

**Altaic:** 1956b, 2010 (co-editor).

**Laryngeals:** 1960c, 1960d, 1965a, 1965d, 1965e.

**Language and style:** 1962g, 1962h, 1964b, 1967b, 1969c.

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## Further reading about Werner Winter

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## **Pavel Poucha (\*29. 12. 1905 Vienna - † 15. 1. 1986 Prague) – his life, travels and complete bibliography**

Michal Schwarz & Václav Blažek

Note: we are very indebted to Prof. PhDr. Josef Kolmaš for his personal memoirs and borrowed archive documents.

### **Life and work**

Pavel Poucha was the first Czech scholar of international renown whose life and academical career were fully devoted to languages, texts and ethnic history of Central or Inner Asia. Although an Indologist in his main work, he founded Mongolian, Tibetan and Tocharian studies in Czechoslovakia. His grammar of Tocharian A, written in Czech in 1930 (1930a, 28 pages) was one of the first descriptive grammars of Tocharian. And his Latin dictionary of Tocharian A (1955d; used shortly as *Thesaurus*) remained the only separately published dictionary of this language for several decades.

Pavel Poucha was born in Vienna and returned with his Czech parents back to Bohemia to Jindřichův Hradec (Neuhaus) in 1912. The multilingual atmosphere of Vienna and exceptional classical philologists at the Gymnasium in bilingual (Czech + German) Jindřichův Hradec inspired Pavel Poucha toward the study of philology at the Philosophical Faculty of Charles University (1924-1929). He studied not only Slavic and Germanic philology and literature, but also attended lectures on Comparative Indo-European linguistics, Latin and Greek dialectology and courses in many languages (Old Lithuanian, Old Prussian, Sanskrit, Avestan, Hebrew, Hittite, Osman Turkish, Persian, Armenian, Hindi, Bengali). Poucha also acquired a good knowledge of German, French, English, Russian, Serbo-Croatian, Latin and Greek. He was a student of such great Czech Orientalists as Vincenc Lesný (1882-1953: Indology & Buddhism), Bedřich Hrozný (1879-1952: Hittite), Jan Rypka (1906-1968: Persian & Turkish), Otakar Pertold (1884-1965: Indology & Comparative Study of Religions) and Oldřich Hujer (1880-1942: Indology). The last mentioned turned Poucha's attention to newly discovered Tocharian manuscripts. Poucha

became his assistant (1925-1930) and librarian at the departments of Comparative Indo-European Linguistics and Indology. After defending his unpublished dissertation *Příspěvky k tocharskému jazyku a literatuře* [Contributions to Tocharian languages and literature] (1928a) Poucha attained the degree of PhDr. in 1929. He was a teacher of Czech and German languages at several gymnasiums in Prague for about twenty years (1927-1947). This was a usual start of scientific career for many linguists and Orientalists in Czechoslovakia and Poucha became full Professor (for secondary schools) in 1931. Thanks to his parallel research and the intervention of Bedřich Hrozný he became a member of the Cultural Department at the Oriental Institute of the Czech Academy of Science and Arts (later the Czechoslovakian Academy of Science) in 1932. The work at the Oriental Institute became his full-time job in 1947 with habilitation in Indology and Central Asian philology one year later. His habilitation lecture *O překladech ze sanskritu do tocharštiny* [On the translations from Sanskrit into Tocharian] shows that Tocharology was the main theme of Poucha's early scientific work. But the most important publications were published during the next decade: the title *Institutiones Linguae Tocharicae* covers two books, i.e. the dictionary of Tocharian A (1955a) and Chrestomathia of the same language one year later (1956b). In the area of Tocharian studies Poucha further described some of the Sanskrit loanwords in Tocharian (1930c, 1931a, 1932a, 1933a and 1939a), published an article about the name "Tocharisch" (1939b) and reviewed important publications in Tocharology (1935d, 1936h, 1942e, 1942f, 1951n, 1955t, 1955u, 1979a, 1981d, 1981g, 1982d). In other articles he informed scholars about the language according to the most current data (1940b), about the importance of Tocharian in relation to the Indo-European homeland (1943a) and compared Tocharian A *tiri*, B *teri* with Mongolian *törü* and Hebrew *tōrah* (1974b). Apart from this research Poucha was also Deputy Director and Scientific Secretary of Oriental Institute and Head of the Indology Department, but due to political reasons (he did not join any political party) he was removed from leading positions in 1957. After that he concentrated fully on research-work, international conference stays and published actively throughout the rest of his life including the years after superannuation in 1970. Pavel Poucha was married and had one son.

Poucha did not stop his pedagogical activity after the Second World War. On the contrary he gave lectures (Sanskrit, Mongolian, Tibetan, Introduction to Altaic philology, Central Asian nations, Old Javanese) not only at the Philosophical Faculty of Charles University, but also at the School of Oriental lan-

guages (later the State School of Languages) in Prague – he was also its head for some years. For students he prepared hand-written grammars and textbooks of Tibetan, Javanese and the first part of a Czech-Mongolian dictionary.

The third pillar of Pavel Poucha's public activity could be seen in popularisation of Oriental studies and Asian culture in post-war Czechoslovakia and Czech science abroad. He prepared the ground for Oriental studies in the home country with translations from Sanskrit, Classical Written Mongolian, modern Khalkha, Tibetan and other languages, further by publishing nearly two hundred dictionary entries, two important travelogues and several popular newspaper articles (these mainly about China and Chinese culture).

### **List of important topics according to other language areas**

Mongolian studies: translation of *The Secret History of the Mongols* into Czech with very detailed notes (1955b); the monograph *Die geheime Geschichte der Mongolen als Geschichtsquelle und Literaturdenkmal* (1956a) – won the prize of the Czechoslovak Academy of Sciences (further article about this 1964a); *Mongolische Miscellen* (1955f, 1955g, 1961f, 1962b, 1963f, 1963g, 1963h, 1965a); Mongolian verse (1956c); bio and bibliography of the great Mongolian scholar Byambin Rinchen (1986a); study on Mongolian Law (1970a); travelogue from Mongolia (1957a, in German 1960a); Moghol language (1961a); Kalmyk (1967a) and Kalmyk epos *Zhangar* (1961b); relations between the Mongols and Jurchens (1970b).

Central Asian philology: Central Asian nations (1931b) and loanwords (1932a), Inner Asian chronology, traces of Huns and Avars in present day Europe (1981b). Travelogue to China (1962a) – mainly to Chinese Turkestan [i.e. Xinjinag] and Inner Mongolia.

Tibetan studies: works on Tibetan poetry (1950a, 1954c), Tibetan grammar (1955h, 1958c, 1963), study and later translation of parts of *The Book of the Dead* (1952b), analyses of Tibetan language (1963i, 1978a).

Indology: structural position of Old Indic (1941a), Old Indic accent (1943b), *Rgveda* (1942b, 1946a), *Upanishads* (1940a, 1941b), several studies in Indian literature, problem of the origin of the Indo-Europeans (1936a, 1943a) and the

time of origin of the *Mahābhārata* (1934b), Vedic folk etymology (1935b), reedition of Kālidāsa's poems (1942a), history of Indology in Czechoslovakia (1951b).

Comparative Asian linguistics: comparison of sentence structure in Tibetan, Newārī, Burmese, Mongolian, Manchu, Turkish, Tamil and Malāyam with Indo-Aryan (1949a); phonetical comparison of Tibetan, Tangut, Newari and Balti languages (1967b); relation of Mongolian to other languages (1969a).

### **Travels**

Poucha visited Mongolia (4 months in 1955) and China (11 months in 1957-1958) and published travelogues for both academicians and public enlightenment. Poucha was the first Western scholar who was allowed to visit Mongolia after the death of Stalin, and in China especially the sites of Central Asian manuscripts in North-Western areas (Xinjiang and Gansu), part of Amdo, Inner Mongolia, China's North-East and big cities in the South. We have also compiled a list of sites in Mongolia and China visited and described by him. In Mongolia his travels covered rarely visited places important for Mongolian, Turkic and Indo-European history. Due to the itinerary Poucha had to overnight in yurts along the road. It enabled him to have direct contact with people of various ethnic and social origins. Such a global picture of Mongolia was very complete and the travelogue was also translated into German. Other study and conference trips led Poucha to Hungary (1955), Rumania (1959), Mongolia (for second and third time in 1959, 1967), Moscow (1960), Poland (1963), Holland (1964), Finland (1967), both German Republics (1965, 1966, 1968), Italy (1966) and so on.

### **Mongolia** (August to December in 1955):

Ulaanbaatar with important museums, temples and several academical, cultural, political institutions and some new factories; trips to surroundings of Ulaanbaatar (Ikh Tengri Am + Bogd-Uul / Choibalsan-Uul, Songino, Bayan-Tsogt with the Stele of Tonyukuk, Selbi, owoo near Nalaikh, cooperative farm Jargalant [north of Ulaanbaatar]).

The first long expedition to the West of Mongolia together with academician Byambin Rinchen: stops in Lung-somon, somon centre Dashinchi-ling (including visit of Castle of the prince Tsogtu-Taiji, rock-carvings, inscriptions and funeral steles around the somon centre), archaeological sites Kara-Balgasun and Bayshingin-Uud, Bulgan (administrative city of the Bulgan aimag), volcanic mountain Uran-Togoo / Uran-Bürkhuul, Unito, Khutug-somon, Tariyalang-somon, Ikh-Uul-somon, Mörön (capital of the Khövsgöl aimag), Khadkhal / Khadgal on the southern bank of the Khövsgöl sea (here trip to Chandman-Öndör-somon, Tsagaan-Üür-somon, ruins of the temple Dayin-Deerkhiin-Khüree, shamanistic cave Dayin-Deerkhiin-Agui and back); crossing of the sea from Khadkhal to Turtu / Khanga / Khankh and back; Mörön, Khar-Tolgoi, the first bag of the Bayan-Tul-somon (in Zavkhan aimag) with Eljigit tribe, cooperative farm Baruun-Turuun, Ulaangom (capital of Uvs aimag) and trip to Uvs-Nuur, Tsagaan-Nuur-somon, Bayan-Ölgii, Khovd / Kobdo, Baatar-Vangyn-Khüree, Tsagaan-Chuluud-somon, Uliastai / Zhavkhlant (capital of Zavkhan aimag), Otgon-somon, Bayan-Bulag, Tsetserleg / Zayin-khüree (capital of Arkhangai aimag), Tsagaan-Suburgatu-Bulgas, Khanui-Balgas, Khöshöö-Tsaidam, Lung-somon, remains of the city Karakorum + temple Erdeni-Dzuu, spa resort Khujirt, Dashinchi-Ling, return to Ulaanbaatar with trip to Nalaikh.

The second expedition to the East: Tsenkher Mandal (Burgaastai Am + Bichigtei Zokhio), Öndör-Khaan (capital of the Khentii aimag), Choibalsan (capital of this time Choibalsan aimag /present day Dornod aimag/), Tamsag-Bulag, Buir-Nuur, Khalkh-Golyn-somon and the site of war against Japanese armies, Buir-Nuur, return to the city Choibalsan and visit of Choibalsan's birth place (Kherlengiin Tsagaan Dalbai), Ereen (cooperative farm 215 km North of Choibalsan city) and Bayan-Uul-somon (area of Buryads and Khamnigans), Deliün-Boldag (birthplace of Temüjin / Chingis-Khaan), Khödölmör-Negdel, Burkhan-Khalduun (perhaps the area of Chingis-Khaan's burial site), return to Deliün-Boldag, Öndör-Khaan, Mörön-somon (here the mountain Salbuur-Uul and the rock Bichigtu-Khanan with carvings and inscriptions), Bayan-Mod, Tsenkher-Mandal-somon, Erdeni-somon (in Töv aimag), return to Ulaanbaatar.

The third brief visit by train to Sainshand in the Gobi (semi-)deserted area, Dzüün-Bayan, return to Sainshand and then by air to Ulaanbaatar.



**China** (June 1957 to May 1958)

Arrival in Beijing as a starting point. Then the expedition to Xinjiang: by train to Luoyang, Xi'an / Chang'an, Lanzhou, Jiuquan; by jeep to Dunhuang (+ Mogao caves) and back to Jiuquan; by plane to Urumqi / Wulumuqi; by jeep to Turpan (and important archaeological sites in surroundings: Lükčün, Sirkip, Tuyuq, Idikut-šähri = Jiaohe, Sengim), Toksun, Karashar / Yanqi, Shorchug, Korla, Kucha (and archaeological sites in surroundings), Kyzyl, Aksu, Kashgar, Yarkend, Khotan, Keriya and return to Khotan; then return by plane via Kashgar to Urumqi, Lanzhou and Beijing.

Visit of Amdo: trip to Hezheng / Hezuo and Labrang (it is described after the return from Xinjiang, but Poucha had to visit it from Lanzhou along the first expedition at the end of October).

Trip to Inner Mongolia in August (probably before the visit of Xinjiang): Beijing, by train to Hohhot / Khökh-khöt / Huhehaote / Guihua / Guisui, and Baotou; by jeep to Ordos / E'erduosi / Dongsheng to the temple of Chingis-Khaan, back to Baotou, by train to "Sinin" / Jining and Saikhantala / Suniteyouqi / Xisunqi, then by jeep to Züün-Sünit / Sunitezuoqi / Dongsunqi, Abagaqi and Xilinhote / Xilinhaote; back to Beijing and further by train to Shenyang / Mukden, Qiqiha'er / Longjiang, Ananxi, Haila'er / Hulubei'er; then by jeep to Solon(-Khoshuun), Khoi-Somon / Tsaahum at the bank of Khashaan-Nor and back to Haila'er; by train to Bükhedü and Nanmu / presentday Elunchunxian, Zhalantun (here visit of Chingis-Khaan Wall), Harbin, Jinzhou, Chengde (+ Zhehol), Datong (+ Yunggang caves) and back to Beijing (here trips to surroundings = Xiangshan in Xishan, Beihai).

Trip to Southern China by train: Nanjing, Shanghai, Hangzhou, Guangzhou / Canton, Wuhan, then undescribed return to Beijing and Czechoslovakia (this second travelogue from China was corrected and compiled from Poucha's letters by editors of the publishing house).

**Overview of the work**

In numbers, the work of Pavel Poucha comprises about 654 items in the following categories:

Monographs: 6  
 Dissertation: 1  
 Monographical article: 1  
 Articles: 170  
 Short articles for daily newspapers: 25  
 Reviews of books: 177  
 Reviews of journals: 45  
 Dictionary entries: 190  
 Poem (translated by C. Damdinsüren into Mongolian and published in a newspaper): 1  
 Translations of books into Czech: 11 (sources: Mongolian 4, Sanskrit 3, Russian 2, Tamil 1, Tibetan 1)  
 Free or short translations into Czech: 21 (sources: Mongolian 10, Tibetan 4, Sanskrit 2, Newari 2, Tocharian 2, Russian 2)

Other manuscripts of planned publications remain unedited in the inheritance (for example the manuscript of Tibetan grammar).

### Topical overview

**Tocharian:** dictionary of Tocharian A: 1955a; articles and reviews 1928a, 1930a, 1930c, 1931a, 1932a, 1933a, 1933b5, 1933b6, 1935d, 1936h, 1939a, 1939b, 1940b, 1942e, 1942f, 1943a, 1943c, 1943d4, 1943d5, 1951n, 1955t, 1955u, 1956b, 1962a, 1974b, 1975g, 1979a, 1981d, 1981g, 1982d; free translations of short stories: 1948i, 1949i.

**Iranian:** 1932c4, 1932g, 1934f, 1935e, 1935f, 1937a4, 1937c, 1939c2, 1940c1, 1942g, 1983f.

**Indic & Indology:** 1928c, 1928e, 1928f, 1929f, 1930b, 1931c, 1931e1, 1931e3, 1931e4, 1931e5, 1931e6, 1931e7, 1931e8, 1931e9, 1931e10, 1931e11, 1932d1, 1932d6, 1932f, 1933b17, 1933b26, 1933b34, 1933c, 1934a, 1934b, 1934c, 1934e, 1935a, 1935b, 1935c1, 1935c2, 1935c3, 1935c4, 1935c5, 1935c6, 1935c7, 1935α, 1936b, 1936c2, 1936c3, 1936c5, 1936c6, 1936c8, 1936c11, 1936d, 1936e, 1936f, 1936g, 1937a2, 1937a3, 1937a5, 1937a6, 1937a7, 1937a8, 1973a9, 1937a11, 1937a12, 1937a13, 1937a14, 1937a15, 1937a16, 1937b1, 1937b2, 1937b3, 1937b4, 1938a1, 1938a3, 1938a5, 1938a6, 1938a7, 1938a8, 1938a9, 1938a10, 1938b1, 1938b2, 1938c, 1939c9, 1940a, 1941a, 1941b, 1941c, 1941d, 1942b, 1942c, 1942d-a, 1942d-b, 1942d-c, 1943b,

1943c, 1943e, 1946a, 1948a, 1948b, 1948c, 1948d, 1948g, 1948k, 1948n, 1948p, 1949b, 1949d, 1949e, 1949f, 1949h, 1951b, 1951m, 1951p, 1951s, 1952e, 1952g, 1953b, 1955d, 1955m, 1955n, 1955o, 1955p, 1955r, 1955γ, 1955ι, 1961e, 1961k, 1962a, 1963e, 1965b, 1967b, 1974c, 1974f, 1976g, 1976n, 1977g, 1978e, 1979b, 1980d, 1981i, 1985c; translations of books from Sanskrit: 1942a, 1959a; translation of book from Tamil: 1944; short and free translations from Indic: 1934e, 1982a, from Newari: 1946b.

**Dravidian:** 1932d5, 1933b7, 1937b5, 1943d1, 1943d2, 1948l.

**General & Indo-European linguistics** (including short biographies of linguists and writers from Soviet Union): 1927a, 1927b, 1928b, 1928h, 1928i, 1929a, 1929c, 1929e, 1929g, 1929h, 1930d, 1931d, 1931e2, 1932b, 1932c1, 1932c3, 1932c5, 1932d4, 1932e, 1933b1, 1933b2, 1933b3, 1933b4, 1933b8, 1933b12, 1933b15, 1933b18, 1933b19, 1933b20, 1933b21, 1933b22, 1933b23, 1933b24, 1933b25, 1933b26, 1933b27, 1933b28, 1933b29, 1933b30, 1933b31, 1933b32, 1933b33, 1933b34, 1933b35, 1933b36, 1933b37, 1935c1, 1935c2, 1935f, 1936a, 1936c4, 1936c9, 1936c10, 1936c12, 1936c13, 1936c14, 1937a1, 1937a10, 1937a13, 1937a15, 1938a2, 1938a4, 1939c1, 1939c3, 1939c4, 1939c5, 1939c6, 1939c7, 1939c8, 1940c2, 1940c3, 1940c4, 1940c5, 1943d3, 1947a, 1951d, 1955e, 1955j, 1957p, 1958y, 1960g, 1961d, 1962f, 1962g, 1964d, 1964e, 1966b1-1966b30, 1966f, 1966g, 1969d, 1970c, 1972a, 1972b, 1975f, 1975j, 1975k, 1977h, 1977i, 1979f, 1980i, 1981l, 1983h.

**Slavic philology:** 1927c, 1927d, 1927e, 1927f, 1928g, 1928j, 1928k, 1929i, 1929j, 1929k, 1933b13, 1935f, 1955s, 1958b, 1977b, 1978b, 1981b.

**Greek:** 1928d, 1929a, 1932c2, 1935g, 1973e, 1977b, 1978b.

**Latin:** 1929d.

**Semitic:** 1929b, 1932d2, 1974b.

**Sumerian:** 1970α.

**Comparative Asian linguistics:** 1949a, 1967b, 1969a, 1974b, 1979c, 1979d, 1980e.

**Central Asian Studies:** 1931b, 1932d3, 1947c, 1948h, 1949l, 1951b, 1951g, 1951q, 1955q, 1958s, 1961e, 1962a, 1962e, 1968a, 1968b, 1971c, 1973a, 1975d, 1975i, 1976f, 1977j, 1979e, 1980h, 1981k, 1982k, 1985e, 1985g.

**Asian history, linguistics, culture and articles about oriental studies:** 1934d, 1935α, 1948f, 1948o, 1949g, 1949m, 1949n, 1949o, 1950b, 1950c, 1951r, 1955l, 1955κ [= Greek κ], 1957l, 1961c, 1970β, 1976b, 1976o, 1981j, 1982e, 1983a, 1983e.

**Sinology** (popularizing works): 1931c, 1942h, 1955α, 1955β, 1955ι 1957i, 1957k, 1957m, 1958i, 1958j, 1958k, 1958l, 1958n, 1958o, 1958p, 1958q, 1958r, 1958s, 1958t, 1958u, 1958v, 1958w, 1960b, 1962a, 1971d, 1973d, 1976h, 1976m, 1982c, 1982f, 1982g, 1984.

**Tibetology:** 1931e4, 1932d7, 1948e, 1948j, 1949c, 1950a, 1951h, 1951i, 1951o, 1952b, 1952c, 1952d, 1952i, 1952j, 1953f, 1954c, 1955h, 1955k, 1955γ, 1955δ, 1955ε, 1955ζ, 1955η, 1955θ, 1958c, 1958m, 1958x, 1960b, 1963a, 1963i, 1966a, 1967e10, 1969c, 1974a, 1976i, 1976k, 1978a, 1980g, 1982f. Translation of book from Tibetan: 1952a; short and free translations from Tibetan: 1947b, 1949k, 1958f, 1962c.

**Mongolian studies:** 1948e, 1948m, 1949c, 1949j, 1949p, 1951c (Kalmyk), 1951f, 1951j, 1951k, 1951l, 1952f, 1952h, 1953a, 1953c, 1953e, 1953g, 1954b, 1954d, 1954e, 1954f, 1955c, 1955f, 1955g, 1955x, 1955y, 1955z, 1955α, 1955β, 1956a, 1956c, 1956c-a, 1956c-b, 1956d, 1956e, 1956f, 1956g, 1957a, 1957b, 1957d, 1957e, 1957h, 1957n, 1957o, 1958d, 1958g, 1958h, 1959b, 1960a, 1960b, 1960d, 1960e, 1961a (Moghol), 1961b (Kalmyk), 1961f, 1961g, 1961h, 1961j, 1962b, 1962d, 1963b, 1963c (Buryat), 1963d (Kalmyk), 1963e, 1963f, 1963g, 1963h, 1963j, 1963k, 1964a, 1964b, 1964c, 1965a, 1965b, 1966a, 1966c, 1966d, 1966e, 1967a (Kalmyk), 1967c, 1967d, 1967e1, 1967e2-1967e9, 1967e11-1967e22, 1967f, 1968c (Kalmyk), 1968c-a, 1968d, 1968e, 1969a, 1969a-a, 1969b, 1969c, 1970a, 1970b, 1970e, 1970f, 1970g, 1970h, 1970i, 1970γ, 1970δ, 1971#, 1971a, 1971b (Kalmyk), 1971e, 1973b, 1974a, 1974b, 1974d, 1974e, 1974g, 1974h, 1974i, 1974j, 1975a, 1975a-a, 1975c, 1975e, 1976j, 1976p, 1977c, 1977d, 1977e, 1977f, 1978d, 1980f, 1981e, 1981f, 1982b, 1982c, 1982h, 1982i, 1983c, 1983g, 1985b (Dagur + Solon), 1985c, 1985d, 1985f, 1986; translations of books from Mon-

golian: 1954a, 1955b, 1957c, 1958a; translations of short stories and poetry: 1947d, 1953d, 1957f, 1957g, 1957j, 1958e, 1959c, 1960f, 1961i, 1975b; poem in Mongolian 1955i.

**Common Altaic studies & Turkology:** 1932d9, 1933b10, 1938a4, 1943d6, 1951d, 1955s, 1955v, 1955w, 1970d, 1974e, 1976a, 1976c, 1976d, 1976l, 1976m, 1977f, 1978c, 1980a, 1980b, 1980c, 1981b, 1981c, 1981e, 1981h, 1982j, 1983b, 1983d, 1985a.

**Finno-Ugric:** 1932d8, 1933b9.

**Uralic:** 1933b11.

**Van:** 1933b14, 1933b16.

**Ket:** 1976e.

**Burushaski:** 1960c.

**Malay-Polynesian:** 1936c1.

**Mon-Khmer:** 1936c7.

**Munda:** 1938b2.

**Translations from Russian:** books: 1951a, 1977a; article: 1951e.

**Transcription or revision of names in oriental languages:** 1957p, 1959d, 1961l, 1961m, 2000.

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(1927b/2 – review of journal): Časopis pro moderní filologii a literatury 13 (1927). *Slavia* 6 (1927-1928), 636-637.

(1927c/3 – review of journal): Časopis za slovenski jezik, književnost in zgodovino 3, 3/4 (1921-1922), 4 (1924), 5 (1926), 6 (1927). *Slavia* 6 (1927-1928), 637-640.

(1927d/4 – review of journal): Archiv für slavische Philologie 40 (1925-1926). *Slavia* 6 (1927-1928), 852-853.

(1927e/5 – review of journal): Južnoslovenski filolog 5 (1925-1926). *Slavia* 6 (1927-1928), 856-858.

(1927f/6 – review of journal): Sborník Matice Slovenskej pre jazykozpyt, národopis, dejepis i literárnu históriu 3 (1925), 4 (1926). *Slavia* 6 (1927-1928), 858-859.

## 1928

(1928a/[without number] = unpublished dissertation): *Príspevky k tocharskému jazyku a literatúre*, Praha: Filozofická fakulta Univerzity Karlovy.

(1928b/7): O současných i zaniklých písmech evropských, jejich vývoji a původu. *Širým světem* 6, 145-149.

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(1928d/9 – review): Mgr. Jaquet, Grammaire du grec du Nouveau Testament. *Listy filologické* 55, 280.

(1928e/10 – review): V. Gordon Childe, The Aryans. A Study of Indo-European origins. *Listy filologické* 55, 280-281.

(1928f/11 – review): F. Nau, Étude historique sur transmission de l’Avesta et sur l’époque probable de sa dernière rédaction. *Listy filologické* 55, 281.

(1928g/12 – review of journal): Sborník Matice Slovenskej pre jazykozpyt, národopis, dejepis i literárnu históriu 5 (1927). *Slavia* 7 (1928-1929), 219-220.

(1928h/13 – review of journal): *Listy filologické* 53. *Slavia* 7 (1928-1929), 220-221.

(1928i/14 – review of journal): Prace filologiczne 10 (1926), 11 (1927). *Slavia* 7 (1928-1929), 440-442.

(1928j/15 – review of journal): Revue études slaves 6 (1926), 7 (1927). *Slavia* 7 (1928-1929), 442-444.

(1928k/16 – review of journal): Južnoslovenski filolog 6 (1926-1927). *Slavia* 7 (1928-1929), 716-717.

## 1929

(1929a/17): O původu písma řeckého a o některých jiných písmech. *Širým světem* 6, 391-394.

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(1929c/19 – entry): Meillet A. *Masarykův slovník naučný*, Vol. 4, 847-848.

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**1930**

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**1931**

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- (1931d/35 – entry): „písmo“. *Masarykův slovník naučný*, Vol. 5, 710-711.
- (1931e1/36-1 – entry): „indická filosofie“. *Nový velký ilustrovaný slovník naučný*, Vol. 10, 53-54.
- (1931e2/36-2 – entry): „indoevropský jazykozpyt srovnávací“. *Nový velký ilustrovaný slovník naučný*, Vol. 10, 59.
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