Nostratic Dictionary

by Aharon Dolgopolsky

Third Edition
To the blessed memory
of the great scholars and my dear friends

Vladislav Illich-Svitych (1934–1966)
and Sergey Starostin (1953–2005)
This dictionary is a preliminary one. Critical remarks of scholars and further research will bring about modifications and more exact etymologies. Therefore I appeal to my colleagues and experts in different fields of comparative linguistics to submit their critical remarks (both in their papers and in personal messages) that will be helpful in checking and improving the etymologies.

Today the pace of development in our field of science is rapid; therefore at the very moment of its publication this dictionary (like any other study of this kind) is already out of date. Thus is due to several reasons:

1. Some extremely important studies in etymology are still in preparation or in print. The recently published Altaic etymological dictionary by S. Starostin, A. Dybo and O. Mudrak was not available to me (I could only use its preliminary versions). This drawback has brought about another one: I could not pay due attention to the very complicated and controversial proto-Altaic vocalism of roots, so that my reconstruction of Nostratic vowels still needs checking and revision. Nor have I been able to use the Etymological Dictionary of Egyptian (vols. II and III) by G. Takács.

2. Some important papers were published shortly before the submission of this dictionary (e.g. the second Georgian edition of the Kartvelian etymological dictionary by H. Fähnrich and Z. Sarjveladze, the Laz-Turkish dictionary by I.A. Bucaklişi and H. Uzunhasanoğlu, the latest fascicles of the Dictionnaire des racines sémitiques by D. Cohen, the new Tuareg-French dictionary by K.-G. Prasse, Ghoubeïd Alojaly and Ghabdouane Mohamed, the French-Berber dictionary by M. Dray, the Rendillé Dictionary by S. Pillinger and L. Galboran, The Dhaasanac Language by M. Tosco, the Iraqw-English Dictionary by M. Mous a.o., the Grammar of Miyo by R. Schuh, The Maale Language by Azeb Ahma, Essai sur la phonologie du proto-berbère by M. Kossmann, Comparative Dravidian Linguistics by Bh. Krishnamurti and the volumes II and III of the above-mentioned Takács’s Dictionary), so that I have not been able to use them to the full extent. The same applies to the Encyclopedia of Indo-European Culture, edited by J.P. Mallory and D.Q. Adams (L./Chic., 1997), which is extremely valuable for its lexical and grammatical entries (which are not connected with Mallory’s incorrect conception about the homeland and early migrations of the Indo-Europeans [Gimbutas’s theory of Pontic-Caspian steppes as the homeland, that is at variance with obvious linguistic facts, cf. AD IEH, AD CCIE and AD MAIEH; on the archaeological aspects of the problem see Rnf. ALJ]. The second volume of Indo-European and its Closest Relatives by J. Greenberg reached me in July 2002, when the text of my dictionary was ready. Nevertheless, in the reference notes of my entries (after the signs and ) I have mentioned those comparisons of Greenberg that are (at least partially) acceptable. I have paid no attention to those (too numerous!) among Greenberg’s comparisons that are untenable or unjustified.

3. Some important dictionaries remained inaccessible to me. Among them the manuscripts of the two unedited Goemay dictionaries by E. Sirlanger (Jos, Nigeria, 1937 and 1946), the Russian-Turkmen dictionary by Aliev and Borijev (Ashkhabad, 1929) and the new Chinese dictionaries of the Mongolic languages Baoan, Dongxiang and Dagur (Beijing, 1981–2), the etymological dictionaries of Erzya, Moksha and Cheremis that were published in Saransk and Yoshkar-Ola (see Sr. and Srl EG, AB, BuL, LiuZh, Zhong, CygM, KMC and GOrd. in the bibliography). I regret not being able to use the Gothic etymological dictionary by W. Lehmann and the Dictionary of the Irish Language (Dublin, Royal Irish Academy, 1983).

4. Some earlier papers on Nostratic (among them those by A. Bombhard) have not been analysed although they are likely to contain useful comparisons (in spite of methodological drawbacks [cf. AD rTPN] and partially untenable hypotheses of sound correspondences). Analysing them is a lengthy and inefficient procedure which I could not undertake owing to time constraints.
5. I have not included in my comparison Eskimo-Aleut, Chukchee-Kamchadal and (almost entirely) Gilyak and Elamite, although these languages do belong (in my opinion) to the Nostratic macro-family. The reason is that the comparative-grammatical study of these languages is in its initial stage. At the time of writing I had no access to the only comparative dictionary of Eskaleut (Comparative Eskimo Dictionary with Aleut Cognates) by M. Fortescue, S. Jacobson and L. Kaplan (Fairbanks, 1994). The only comparative dictionary of Chukchee-Kamchadal (that by O. Mudrak) was only published shortly before the present dictionary was submitted, and hence could not be used. Therefore for the time being I cannot evaluate Greenberg’s interesting comparisons concerning EA, CK, Gil and Ai.

For all these and other reasons this dictionary does not claim to be an exhaustive list of all Nostratic words. I am already aware of some possibly reconstructible words that need further investigation. Other Nostratic words may be found in recently published and forthcoming papers on descendant languages. I hope to mention them in future papers.

The greatest practical drawback of the present dictionary is lack of indexes. Their preliminary version does exist, but could not be included in this dictionary because it would have increased its volume immensely. I am planning to publish them separately as soon as possible.

One of the weakest points in the dictionary is the supposed Chadic cognates. Unfortunately, they had to be adduced without previous detailed analysis of the phonological prehistory and history of the Chadic languages (beyond the precious results achieved by O. Stolbova, H. Jungraithmayr and some other scholars in their recent papers). Actually Chadic historical phonology, morphology and etymology are in their infancy. I have adduced Chadic cognates hesitantly and tentatively. They may serve as raw material for establishing sound laws in the prehistory and history of the Chadic languages.

Probably an additional inconvenience for some readers will be my approach to semantic definitions of the lexical entries. In many cases I prefer to preserve the German, French, Italian, Spanish and Latin definitions from the sources in order to avoid inaccuracy in semantic interpretation of the data (due to polysemy of words in the sources and the inevitable arbitrariness in my English translation of these). In some cases I had to achieve accuracy by quoting the sources in Russian, Swedish or other ‘exotic’ languages (accompanied by an English translation). If the name of an endemic plant or animal, of an object or phenomenon of some ethnic culture has no exact English equivalent, I had to present an approximate interpretation (sometimes with the symbols ‘a kind of’ or ≈ ‘approximately’).

If the English word is polysemic, I have sometimes preferred to use a more convenient Latin, French or German equivalent (Latin ‘dorsum’ or French ‘dos’ instead of English ‘back’).

I hope very much to make use of critical remarks of scholars in order to improve the etymologies of this dictionary. New comparative material and modifications of Nostratic etymologies will later be published as Addenda and Corrigenda to the Nostratic Dictionary. Therefore critical remarks by experts in different fields of comparative linguistics and related fields are most welcome.

Acknowledgements

No words can express my gratitude to Professor Colin Renfrew who encouraged my research, to the McDonald Institute for Archaeological Research and to the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation that made possible the publication of this opus vitae meae.

I am greatly indebted to my dear friend, the founder of modern Nostratic linguistics Vladislav Illich-Svitych (1932–1964), from whom I learned the basic methodology of long-range comparative linguistic research. He discovered the main sound correspondences between Nostratic languages and the phonetic laws that underlie these correspondences. In his Essay of Comparison of the Nostratic Languages (IS I, II, III) and his earlier paper ‘Material for comparison of the Nostratic languages’ (IS MS) he proposed more that 600 Nostratic etymologies. Almost all of them (in a revised form) have been incorporated in the present dictionary (with reference notes ‘IS’ and ‘IS MS’).

Among other linguists who contributed very much to the crystallization of mature Nostratic studies, I must gratefully mention Vladimir Dybo, Igor Diakonoff and my predecessors and friends Björn Collinder and Karl-Heinrich Menges.

I am grateful to those colleagues who helped me to interpret material of the Altaic and Samoyedic languages, Greek, Egyptian etc.; Serge Starostin, Anna Dybo, Eugen Helimski, Juho Janhunen, Yulia Krivoruchko, Gábor Takács.

My deep gratitude and homage to those many scholars who dedicated their life, talent and energy to record and register the lexical stock of ancient, living and dying-out languages, to preserve their precious Wortschatz, to establish etymologies and to discover laws of their historical phonology and morphology. This dictionary is built on their shoulders.

No research in comparative linguistics is possible without access to professional literature. Therefore the present study would have not been feasible without support of my colleagues and friends who provided me with their own papers and books and with those of other authors, as well as with

Thanks are further due to Eden Orion (Computer Services, Univ. of Haifa) and to Dora Kemp (Publications Office, the McDonald Institute for Archaeological Research, Cambridge, UK) for their invaluable professional help that enabled the publication of this dictionary. I should like to express my gratitude to Ms Dora Kemp and to Mrs Gila Abrahamson (Haifa) for their help in checking my imperfect (alas!) English style.

Finally I wish to acknowledge the patience and support of my wife Zippora and the help of my children: my daughter Ilana, my sons Hayim, Ilya and Jacob who supported me each in his/her own way during the long years of research which have resulted in the present dictionary.
INTRODUCTION:

THE NOSTRATIC MACROFAMILY

§ 1. The Nostratic macrofamily. This is a hypothetic macrofamily of languages, including Indo-European (IE), Hamito-Semitic (HS) (= Afroasiatic) (comprising Semitic [S], Egyptian [Eg], Berber [B], Cushitic [C], Omotic [Om] and Chadic [Ch]), Kartvelian (K), Uralic (U) (= Finno-Ugric [FU], Samoyed [Sm] and Yukaghir [Y]), Altaic (A) (= Turkic [T], Mongolic [M], Tungusic [Tg], Korean [Ko] and Japanese [J]), Dravidian (D), Elamic (E) and Gilyak (Gil). The hypothesis is based on a large amount of common roots and grammatical morphemes (2,982 etymological items), in which regular sound correspondences have been established (cf. IS MS, IS SS, IS I-III, AD LRC, AD SShS, AD LZL, AD PP, AD NGIE, AD NVIE, AD NM). Among the most important resemblances is that of personal pronouns and inflectional person-markers of the 1st and 2nd persons (Nostratic *mī for 'I' in IE, U, A and K, *ti, *ti (>*ti) ~ *gi (>*gi) for 'thou' in IE, HS, U and M etc.), that of interrogative pronouns (originally *kò for 'who?' and *mī for 'what?', surviving entirely or partially in IE, HS, K, U and A), basic caregorematic words (roots in descendant languages) such as *fǎˈæºˈqó 'stay' (> 'be') preserved in IE (*es-), HS, U and K, *riteh 'to eat' (IE, HS, M), *bar'he 'to hold, take' (all branches except U), *wetē 'water' (all branches except K), *nimʔ 'name, word' (IE, HS, U, A), as well as words connected with culture of the final paleolithic age (cf. AD NM), such as *kālē 'woman of another moiety' > words for 'daughter-in-law', 'sister-in-law' and 'bride' in IE (Latin gēsēs, Greek γάλακτς, ~ γάλακτος, Slavic *zōlē / *ẑōlē), S, U, A and D. The original Nostratic phonology (as reconstructed by V. Illich-Svitych and A. Dolgopol'sky) had a rich consonant system (see below) and 7 vowels. The grammatical structure was, most probably, analytic with a rigid word order (a sentence-final verb, attributive precedes its head, pronominal subject follows its verb) and with grammatical meanings expressed by word order, postpositions (*nu for genitive, *mA for marked accusative and others) and grammatical pronouns.

It is very plausible that there are other members of the Nostratic macrofamily: Chukchee-Kamchadal, Eskimo-Aleut and possibly also Etruscan. But the comparative-grammatical and etymological investigation of these languages is still at its very beginning, therefore at the present stage of Nostratic research they have not yet been included in the framework of comparison. The most interesting Comparative Eskimo Dictionary with Aleut Cognates by M. Fortescue, S. Jacobson and L. Kaplan (Fairbanks, 1994) is very important, but it is not yet a dictionary of Proto-Eskimo-Aleut. This Eskimo dictionary reached me only recently, when my Nostratic Lexicon was already compiled. In any case, the complicated phonological and morphological prehistory of Eskimo-Aleut and its etymology in the framework of the Nostratic macro-family are still to be investigated.
§ 2. Phonology.

§ 2.1. Consonants. According to the extant comparative evidence, proto-Nostratic had a rich consonant system and 7 vowels.

**Nostratic consonant chart**

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Stops and affricates</th>
<th>Fricatives</th>
<th>Central approximants</th>
<th>Nasals</th>
<th>Lateral sonants</th>
<th>Vibrants</th>
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| Symbols in the chart: affricates: \( ̃z \), \( ̃c \), \( ̃ç \), \( ̃ê \) = lateralized \( z \), \( c \), \( ç \), \( ê \); palatalized consonants: \( ̃ê \), \( ̃ç \), \( ̃ê \), \( ̃ê \), \( ̃ê \); \( ̃ê \) = palatalized \( z \), \( c \), \( ç \), \( ê \), \( ê \), \( ê \), \( ê \) and \( ê \) (= \( ê \)) = cacuminal or retroflex \( n \) and \( l \); uvular stops: \( ç \) (voiced), \( ç \) (voiceless), \( ç \) ("emphatic"); uvular fricatives: \( ê \) = Spanish \( j \), \( ù \) = Arabic \( ê \); epiglottal (pharyngeal) consonant: voiceless \( ê \) (= \( ê \) = Arabic \( ç \)), voiceless \( ê \) (= Arabic \( ê \)).

In proto-Nostratic, as it is reconstructed on the basis of extant data, there are three series of stops and affricates: voiced (*ç, *g, *ž etc.), voiceless (*t, *k, *c etc.) and "emphatic" (*f, *k, *ç etc.). The exact phonetic realization of the "emphatic" consonants is not yet clear. Illich-Svitych and myself (until recently) interpreted them as glottalized ejectives. But today I do not insist on this particular interpretation. In fact, the emphatic stops are represented in K as glottalized, in HS as glottalized or plain voiceless (the distribution being probably due to prosodic factors), in U (in the intervocalic position) as geminated voiceless stops, in A as fortes, in IE (in its traditional interpretation) as voiceless. The common denominator of their K, HS, U and A reflexes is an additional effort (if compared to the reflexes of N plain voiceless stops). One cannot determine the original phonetic realization of this additional effort (glottalization, aspiration, fortes articulation?). I prefer to denote them as "emphatic" and to use the traditional Orientlistic underdot as their symbol.

Recently Starostin proposed to interpret the emphatic stops as voiceless fortes (out *ṭ = his *ṭ); see S NSR 306.
In the following table of sound correspondences the symbol "-" denotes zero. The sign ":" symbolizes the lengthening of the preceding vowel, ":" denotes lengthening of the consonant. The sign "," denotes glottalization (emphaticization) of an adjacent consonant, "," is its uvularization, "," is its tensification (transformation of a lax consonant into a tense one [fortis]), "," is its devoicing, "," is its retroflexivization, "," is its palatalization. The symbol "" here denotes labialization of the adjacent vowel, the sign "" denotes its palatalization. Within conditioning formulas, "_\bot_" means "before a labialized vowel", "_E_" means "before a palatal vowel". IE +\$\_\_\$ - denotes the addition of the initial IE +\$\_\_\$ mobile (as a reflex of N word-middle palatal elements). The symbol "**" is used for working hypotheses: in cases when we have sufficient factual confirmation for a class of N phonemes only rather than for each individual N phoneme, e.g. in the case of *n̪ and *n̪̄, where a distinction is possible only if the phoneme is represented in Ostyak, so that in daughter languages where there are no *n̪|n̄-words common with Ostyak we cannot find formal proof of representation of N *n̪ and N *n̄ separately, but only representation of unspecified *r|n̄. In such cases we suppose (as a working hypothesis) that both phonemes (in the case described *n̪ and *n̄) are reflected in the same way, which is symbolized by "**". The letter "N" symbolizes an unspecified non-labial nasal consonant. IE *k̄ = *k̄k̄k̄k̄w̄; "/_" means "after a cns.". The cover symbol "X" for IE means *k̄; *k̄ or *k̄w̄ (depending on the adjacent N vw.). The cover symbol "H_" (in IE) means *h̄, *h̄ or h̄w̄ (here also the choice depends on the adjacent N vw.). IE H is a cover symbol for all laryngeals (except for *?).

In this table "\bot_" means "any consonant" (e.g. "_ \bot _" means "before any consonant", "_ _" means "after any consonant").

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The formulae /??, ?? are to be read: N yields IE ; otherwise yields IE upon back to N lateral cns. (post-N cluster (\la/), \la/ and causes the appearance of the N clusters, \la/, \la/ and probably (cf. entries 131, K 'elbow', GZ 'flat', G 'ashes', represented by D, and N yields D and . N adjacent to a voiceless cns. is likely to yield Tg .

M > means that N yields M or early pM
Remarks:
1. The formula *-b- > U *w, \( \perp / \) *p- means that N *-b- yields U *-w- or early PM *-p- > PM *-w-.
2. *-p- > M *u, *p- > *v means that N *-p- yields M *-l- or early pM *-l- > PM *-v-.
3. The formulae *d- > M *d, _i/ *\( \tilde{z} \), *t- > M *d, _i/ *\( \tilde{z} \) and *t- > M *t, _i/ *\( \tilde{c} \) reflect the PM affricatization *d i > *\( \tilde{z} \) i and *t i > *\( \tilde{c} \) i.
4. The formula *\( \tilde{z} \)- > IE *l, _V*/s- means: in the presence of *l in the IE root the N affricate *\( \tilde{z} \)- yields IE *s-; otherwise *\( \tilde{z} \)- yields IE *l-.
5. The formula *-y- > IE *ø, *j, +*s- is to be read: N *-y- yields IE zero or *-i- and causes the appearance of *s- mobile in the word-initial position.
6. The formulae *-y- / \( \perp \)_v > U *y, *l_ and *-y- / \( \perp \)_v > U *y, *l_y mean: in the positions \( \perp \)_v (after a cns. and before a vw.) and \( \perp \)_v (after a vw and before a cns.) N *-y- remains in U as *y or palatalizes the adjacent U cns. N *y\( \tilde{a} \)- yields D *\( \tilde{a} \)\( \tilde{a} \)- and *-e-, N *y\( \tilde{a} \)- is represented by D *\( \tilde{a} \)\( \tilde{a} \) - *\( \tilde{a} \)\( \tilde{a} \)-, and N *y\( \tilde{e} \)- yields D *\( \tilde{e} \)\( \tilde{e} \)- and *\( \tilde{e} \)-. N *y\( \tilde{i} \)- yields M *i-.
7. N *\( \tilde{z} \)- followed by a voiceless cns. yields T *\( \tilde{c} \).
8. N *\( \tilde{z} \)- adjacent to a voiceless cns. is likely to yield Tg *s.
9. The controversial IE cns. cluster *\( \tilde{g} \)\( \tilde{d} \) is still to be investigated. In one root *(\( \tilde{g} \)\( \tilde{d} \)emr-)/ *\( \tilde{g} \)\( \tilde{d} \)domr- [{El} *\( \tilde{g} \)\( \tilde{d} \)emr-] 'earth') it may result from metathesis (IE {El} *\( \tilde{g} \)\( \tilde{d} \)emr- > *\( \tilde{g} \)\( \tilde{d} \)emr- *\( \tilde{g} \)\( \tilde{d} \)domr-). In another case *(\( \tilde{g} \)\( \tilde{d} \)\( \tilde{d} \)\( \tilde{d} \)s ? *\( \tilde{g} \)\( \tilde{d} \)\( \tilde{d} \)s 'yesterday') *\( \tilde{g} \)\( \tilde{d} \)\( \tilde{d} \) is likely to go back to N *\( \tilde{g} \)\( \tilde{d} \)\( \tilde{d} \)- (cf. entry 6O3a * *\( \tilde{g} \)\( \tilde{d} \)\( \tilde{d} \)\( \tilde{d} \) early, evening').
10. According to AD LZL 364–5, one of the sources of U and FU *\( \tilde{z} \)- is the N clusters *-l\( \tilde{z} \)-, *-l\( \tilde{z} \)-, *-l\( \tilde{z} \)- and probably *-l\( \tilde{v} \)- (cf. entries 131, 871, 1042, 1044, 1698b, 2056a, 2062, 2197, 2475 and 2725 [in the latter U *\( \tilde{z} \)- < N *-l\( \tilde{v} \)-]; in the entry 1698b the post-N cluster *-l\( \tilde{z} \)- goes back to N *-l\( \tilde{z} \)\( \tilde{z} \)-; in N *\( \tilde{u} \)\( \tilde{r} \)\( \tilde{t} \)\( \tilde{a} \) (k\( \tilde{a} \) and in some still unknown conditions) a K preconsontant *-r- goes back to a N lateral cns. (*\( \tilde{a} \) or what is denoted as *\( \tilde{a} \)h) (cf. K *\( \tilde{c} \)\( \tilde{r} \)\( \tilde{r} \)\( \tilde{a} \) 'elbow', GZ *\( \tilde{p} \)\( \tilde{r} \)\( \tilde{t} \)\( \tilde{a} \) 'flat', G\( \tilde{p} \)\( \tilde{r} \)\( \tilde{p} \)- 'ashes',
χɜrtəl 'Winterhaar, Winterpelz [der Tiere]' and GZ *tɡirp- 'spleen' [in the entries 355, 1719, 1723, 1866 and 2355]).

12. As indicated in the chart, in IE in the word-initial preconsonantal position the N voiceless affricate *c yields *s. The same may be (but not necessarily is) true about N *p.

13. The difference between N *p- and *p- is likely to be reflected in Chadic. In this book I tentatively suggest that N *p- yields Ch {Stl.} *f- (> Hs f-, Su f-, ṣ-, Bl, Wrj, Ron lges, Tr, Bu, Mtk f-, Gzg f-, ṣ-, Lgn f-, p- Msg, Ms f-, Ke f-, ṡ-, Mu f-), while N *p- is represented in Ch {Stl.} *p- (Hs f-, ṡ-, Su, Bl ṡ-, Sha p-, other Ron lges f-, Ngz p-, Tr and Bu (mostly) p-, Gzg p-, Lgn ṣ-, Ms, Ke, Mu p-), as reconstructed in Stolbova’s thesis (Stl. IF 23–34). Further research in the historical phonology of Ch and HS will correct my highly tentative reconstructions in this field. In U the N word-internal cns. *p- is represented by *w and *p, the former in the intervocalic position, the latter probably in U or pre-U cns. clusters (the exact rules are still to be clarified).

14. N *n- yields S *n- (rather than *ŋ or *ŋ) in the presence of a laryngeal or *m in the same N word. N *n- sometimes yields IE and S *m- (under still unknown conditions).

15. N *ŋ- and probably *ŋ- yield Tg *s- (cf. entries no s. 907, 1100 and 2082).

16. N *ŋ- yields D *m(m)- in three roots after D *u and *o (cf. entries no-s 215, 647 and 1927). N *ŋ- yields U *ŋ- and *ŋk-, Altaic *ŋ- and *ŋg- (the rules of distribution are unknown).

17. The sign * denote a palatalizing effect (e.g. N *ya- > D *e-).

18. The meaning of our formulae with the signs "/", ",", "⊥" and "y"

1: N *b after cnss yields Uralic *p
2: N *d before *i yields pM *ʒ
3: N *t before *i yields pM *ʒ
4: The B word-initial *i before *i yields pM *c
5: N *t after D cnss yields pD *t
6: N *g after cnss (and probably before cnss) yields pD *k
7: N *k before *i is likely to yield pM *y
8: Thr N word-initial *c before cnss is likely to yield IE *s
9: The N word-initial *c before cnss is likely to yield IE *s
10: The N word-initial *ʒ before *v is likely to yield IE *s
11: The N word-internal *ʒ before cnss is likely to yield IE *s
12: N *ɣ after cnss yields Kartvelian *ɣ
13: The N word-initial *m yields pM *b
14: The N word-initial *m yields pTg *b
15: N *n before *t yields Dravidian *n
16: N *n̂ before *t yields D *n, in the D Auslaut it yields *n
17: N *r before and after cnss yields D *r
15: N *r̃ before cnss yields pT *r
16: N *w before labial vowels disappears in pD
17: N *y in the Inlaut yields U * y or palatalizes the preceding U cns.
18: N *-w-/A_V means "pN *w in the intervocalic position"
19: N *-w-/a,E_⊥ means "pN *w after *a and *E before a cns."
20: N *-y/-u_⊥ means "pN *y before a cns."
21: N *y in the Inlaut yields U * y or palatalizes the preceding U cns.
22: N *y in the Inlaut yields Tg * y, zero or palatalizes the preceding Tg cns.

On the alphabetical order of letters in the present dictionary see below § 9.

§ 2.2. Comment and additional explanations. This chart needs comment and additional explanations, but in this short introduction I cannot afford to enter into details. Some of the problems have been discussed by V. Dybo in his "Editor’s Introduction" ("Ot redaktora") of IS I, in IS SS, AD NGIE and Ad NVIE.

§ 2.2.1. I may add here a short remark about the origin of the Dravidian intervocalic r-consonants. According to the extant data, D *-r̃- (= *-r̃- of the traditional notation, retroflex vibrant/fricative) goes back to N *-*r̃- or *-*r̃-, D *-r̃- (= *-*r̃- or *-*r̃- of the traditional notation, a trill, becoming a stop if geminated) goes back to intervocalic N *-*r̃-, while D *-*r̃- goes back to N consonant clusters with *r.

§ 2.2.2. In HS the N emphatic consonants yield both emphatic and plain voiceless cnss. The distribution seems to be conditioned by prosody. This is suggested by the fact that in grammatical words and pronouns the HS de-emphatization is a rule. Therefore we do not find emphatic cnss in HS affixes, pronouns and aux. words.
NB: In the following notes I use not only the above -mentioned transcription signs, but also cover signs for unspecified N phonemes (such as фр for N  phú, ử for ụнный etc.). For the meaning of such cover signs cf. below the chapter "Transcription".

§ 2.2.3. On the basis of very scarce extant data I have proposed a highly tentative working hypothesis about the origin of the opposition s- ↔ š- in Manchu:

N *š-, *š- and *ś- yield pTg *ś- > LMc ś-, as well as ś- in other Tg languages (but h- in Lm). Cf. N *ś1ılKv to let out' > LMc silgi- ~ silki- 'get through (a narrow opening), crawl (kriechen)', N *śǘ̯]\ó̄ (ké) - *ś1ıl21 (ké) 'mucus, slime, saliva' > LMc silėngi 'saliva, drivel', N *ś|śEHmv 'to swallow' > LMc simi- 'to suck, swallow', N *śamₕ, qmv 'hair, fine hair' > Tg *sēn(e)n 'beard, fin, gill' > LMc senele 'cock's comb, gill', N *šubyv 'spike, spear, to pierce' > LMc suyfūn 'awl', N *šūnigo or *šūgo 'snow' > LMc sū(n)- v. 'become covered with hoarfrost', N *šinerv 'mouse' > LMc sineri id., N *šehřE 'be awake, watch (over), feel, notice' > LMc seṛ- 'be awake, feel, guess, understand', N *šap'u'-śv, pointed stake' > C1Mc sabsi- 'stitch', N *son'q'u' 'sinew, tendon' > Mc sūna ~ sūna 'rein of draught dogs', N *sāR'u' 'sinew, fibre' > C1Mc siren id., 'bowstring'.

But sometimes N *š-, *š- and *ś- yield pTg *ś- > LMc š-, as well as č-, č- and č- in other Tg languages. It may go back to *ś1- (that appears due to contraction of syllables: N *ś1|ū|E ...v > *śv̄yv̄ due to the assimilatory infl. of the A (or pre-Tg) front vw. *ų; for instance, N *š[lw]ol'E 'liquid, moisture' > LMc šula 'juice', Nn Nh/KU čōlō, Nn B colo id., Ud čolo, Ul čōlo(n-) 'soup', N *šlEXarv 'bright, daybreak' > *ślāizzesr'v > LMc šari 'white, clean', N *ś1|h'wv 'sun' > LMc šun 'sun' [+ Pre-Classical Manchu siyūn], Ul šlu(n-), Nn šlu N šlu(n-), Neg siyūn ~ siwūn), N *šuk'á to drink, to suck' > A *šūₕk'v > Tg *šū̄k'k' 'juice' > Neg d. čūp3pś 'stained with juice', Ud X čūŋki, Ud Sm {Krm.} čūŋki 'sap of trees'.

The Manchu reflexes of N *ś- are not yet clear. There are cases of both Mc ś- and š-, but the rule of distribution is still unknown.

§ 2.2.4. Another tentative hypothesis concerns a curious pD phoneme, reconstructed by G. Starostin as *k'-(GS RVP) and later as
k∀- (GS 203 – 7). This is a phoneme that yields *c∀- (and its regular reflexes) in most Dravidian languages (SD, SCD adn CD), but k- in Kurux, Malto and Brahui. Earlier Emeneau (Em. NDV) tried to explain this sound correspondence as a special treatment of pD *c∀- preceding *u-, but later gave up this hypothesis (due to counter-examples). Pfeifer (Pf. 66) supposed that this is a cluster *ki∀- resulting from reduction of earlier *kiy∀- or *k∀y∀-. In the light of external comparison I am inclined to suppose that pD *k∀- goes back to N lateral obstruents (see N *

§ 2.2.5. Vladislav Illich-Svitych advanced a hypothesis about the origin of IE *s- mobile ('movable *s-'). In his opinion it developed only in N words with an inherited internal palatal element ( *y, *ɾ, *t and the like). My interpretation of his hypothesis is as follows. The N emphatic consonants in the word-initial position were pronounced in IE with an initial preaspiration. Usually this preaspiration left no traces. But in roots with an inherited internal palatal element the whole root was palatalized (non-phonemic supersegmental palatalization). The preaspiration was transformed into a kind of *h- that later yielded a movable *s-.

It means that the presence of a "movable" *s- in an IE root suggests that the N initial cns. was emphatic (glottalized?). This is important for roots with an initial labial cns., suggesting that this N cns. was *p-.

This apparently strange phenomenon has a typological parallel (that was unknown to Illich-Svitych). In Salar (as described by Tenishhev) the vowel i before voiceless (preaspirated?) p, t and k (fortes) was transformed into i + a preconsonantal sibilant (transcribed by Tenishhev in IPA as š, ţ, ď: [iśki // ţfki // ički] (i.e. išk1 ∼ iwk1) 'two' (< 1h1t1), [išpax] 'silk thread', [iśt // ičt] (i.e. išt ∼ iwt) 'dog', [pišti- // písfe- // pičt1-] (i.e. pįšti ∼ piw1t1) 'write' (cf. Tn. SJ 77). In his formulation, the phoneme i had an allophone iš (Tn. SJ 8).

§ 2.2.6. According to a preliminary working hypothesis of mine, in the earliest pIE there was a phenomenon that may be interpreted as a word-initial prelaryngealization (preaspiration?). It existed in some roots and brought about a prothetic vowel before sonorants in Greek (sometimes in Arm and other lges) and an initial aspiration ( *h-) in Greek (in some words with etymological *w- and ṭ-). I suppose that this prelaryngealization may go back to a prosodic phenomenon in pN, e.g. partial devoicing of word-initial sonorants or a kind of breathed voice
to use Ladefoged’s terminology. In the present dictionary I denote this prosodic phenomenon by an initial *æ- in pIE and pN reconstructions. We shall call this *æ- "a laryngoid" (like "vocoid"). Its distribution proves that it was a phonologically relevant phenomenon.

It is also possible, that the NaIE *s- mobile before root-initial sonorants belongs here as well: in roots with an inherited internal palatal element and an initial *æ- this laryngoid underwent palatalization (*æ- > *ê-) and became a movable *s- (e.g. NaIE *(s)nêb*h- 'narrow, thin' < *ênêb<N N *êb)X1bV).

§ 2.2.7. In several N words (U roots) one can observe what may be considered Uralic prosthetic *w- (preceding a N initial rounded vw.) or a kind of "labial fission" (an initial labialized vw. > U *w + non-labialized vw.):

N *goK>všêv (Ršv) 'œ canine' > FU (in ObU only) *ôväokšvr> 'fox'
N *>D*uKa 'see', 'eye' > FU (in Ugr only) **wokv (or *wovv) v. 'see, look'
N *q*u1r> 'pierce, make a hole; hole, pit' > FU (att. in ObU)

*ôwurv*yv > ObU *würay 'riverbed'
N *D*yu1ê 'recent' > U {UEW} *wu2ẹ 'new'.

I wonder if there is any regularity in this phenomenon. The matter needs investigation.

§ 2.2.8. The pN consonantism is rich (50 phonemes), but rather economic (19 distinctive features), most phonemes being well integrated (in Martinet’s terms, see Mart. EChPh 79 –106), and none being isolated. The distinctive features include 10 orders (places of articulation), 3 glottal series (voiced ↔ voiceless ↔ emphatic) and 6 manners of articulation (stop\affricate ↔ fricative ↔ central approximant ↔ nasal ↔ lateral ↔ trill). Cp. Kartvelian: 18 phonemic features (for 32 consonants), Semitic: 18 features (for 29 consonants) or Finno-Ugric: 17 (or 16) features (for 26 consonants).

§ 2.2.9. In the overwhelming majority of registered cases N *g- yields T *k-, but there are three apparent exceptions: [1] 621. ? 2 *gû|ulp> Tv 'œ deer'; [2] 638. *gô1fêv 'beat, strike' > T *k‘iyûna- 'beat (so.), cause suffering', [3] 704. *g’alêv 'to go; way, path' > ? NaT *k’ayû- > Tv xay- v. 'make the round'. In the first two cases it may be tentatively supposed a
contraction $^g\ldots ? > ^*k^- > T ^*k'-$, and the N etymology of Tv $^x\text{ay}$- remains semantically doubtful.

§ 2.2.10. In the IE clusters $^*s +$ stops the opposition between the N vd., vl. and emphatic cns. was neutralized, so that all N stops yielded IE vl. consonants: N $^*S\text{vd}^- > IE ^*st-, N ^*S\text{t}^- > IE ^*st-, N ^*S\text{b}^- > IE ^*sp-, N \nabla g^- > IE ^*sk- (or $^*sk^- -$) (cf. entries 2014, 2020, 2132 and 2186).

§ 2.2.11. The N cns. $^*x$ preceded by a sibilant or affricate is likely to yield U $^*k-$ (N $^*\text{na}ç\text{x} \text{a} \nabla $ 'wet, moist' $>$ FU $^*\text{na}ç\text{k} \text{a} \nabla \text{id.}, N ^*\text{z} æ\text{s} x | q \text{a} \nabla $ 'blood' $>$ FU [att. in ObU] $^*ç\text{os}kə \nabla $ 'bear's blood').

§ 2.2.12. In Altaic consonant clusters N $^*q$ is often represented by $^*k$ and $^*g$ : N $^*\text{na}ç\text{a} \nabla $ 'breathe' $>$ NaT $^*\text{ank}ə\text{a} \text{v. 'emit odour'}, N ^*\text{na}ç\text{a} \text{a} $ 'nose' $>$ A $^*\text{n}\text{k} \text{a} \text{a} $ 'nose' $>$ Tg $^*\text{n} \text{j} \text{aks}ə\text{a} ^*l$, $^*\text{n} \text{j} \text{aksi} ^*n $ 'nose', N $^*ç \text{a} \text{v} ^*ç \text{a} \text{v} ^*ç \text{a} \text{v} ^*ç ^*q ^*q ^*q ^*q $ 'a young (of an animal)' $>$ NaT $^*ç \text{ç} \text{u} ^*ç ^*ç ^*ç ^*ç ^*a ^*ï $ id., N $^*\text{sa} \text{l} \text{v} ^*\text{q} \text{a} ^*\text{q} \text{a} $ 'cleave, cut asunder' $>$ Tg $^*\text{s} \text{a}\text{l} \text{v} ^*\text{q} \text{a} ^*\text{q} ^*\text{q} $. Two parts', N $^*\text{taq} \text{oz} ^*\text{i} $ 'to plait, to wattle' $>$ M $^*\text{ta} ^*\text{g} \text{s} ^*\text{i} $ 'cup', N $^*\text{son} ^*\text{v} ^*\text{q} ^*\text{r} ^*\text{u} ^*\text{l} $ 'sinew, tendon; root' $>$ NaT $^*\text{s} \text{n} ^*\text{i} ^*\text{n} ^*\text{i} $ 'vein' ($^*\text{-n} ^*< ^*\text{-ng}$), N $^*\text{p} \text{u} ^*\text{q} ^*\text{d} ^*\text{v} $ 'leather bag' $>$ pA $^*\text{p} \text{l} ^*\text{j} ^*\text{u} ^*\text{k} ^*\text{t} \text{a} $ [by as. from $^*\text{p} \text{l} ^*\text{j} ^*\text{u} ^*\text{k} ^*\text{d} \text{a} ] > M ^*\text{w} ^*\text{y} ^*\text{u} ^*\text{t} \text{a} $ 'sack', N $^*\text{p} \text{l} ^*\text{o} ^*\text{c} ^*\text{E} ^*\text{q} ^*\text{v} $ 'thigh, haunch' $>$ Tg $^*\text{p} \text{g} ^*\text{j} ^*\text{v} $ 'lower part of the back, tail', N $^*\text{t} \text{u} ^*\text{n} ^*\text{r} ^*\text{v} ^*\text{v} $ 'swell, swell up' $>$ M $^*\text{t} \text{ü} ^*\text{n} ^*\text{k} ^*\text{e} $ 'swelling'. But this is not always so: N $^*\text{d} \text{a} \text{l} \text{q} ^*\text{a} ^*\text{l} ^*\text{u} $ 'wave' yields Tg $^*\text{d} \text{a} ^*\text{l} ^*\text{a} ^*\text{n} $ 'flood, inundation', the above-mentioned N $^*\text{sa} \text{l} \text{v} ^*\text{q} ^*\text{q} ^*\text{q} $ 'cleave, cut asunder' is represented by M $^*\text{sa} \text{l} \text{u} ^*\text{v} ^*\text{u} $ v. 'separate, branch off', N $^*\text{p} \text{e} ^*\text{l} ^*\text{q} ^*\text{e} $ 'tremble, to fear' yields NaT $^*\text{b} \text{e} ^*\text{l} ^*\text{a} ^*\text{l} ^*\text{n} ^*\text{n} $ 'panic, terror', N $^*\text{t} \text{a} ^*\text{e} ^*\text{q} ^*\text{a} ^*\text{m} ^*\text{v} $ [or $^*\text{t} \text{a} ^*\text{e} ^*\text{q} ^*\text{l} ^*\text{m} ^*\text{v} ^*? ] 'sinciput, crown of the head' yields Tg $^*\text{t} \text{e} ^*\text{m} ^*\text{v} ^*\sim ^*\text{t} \text{u} ^*\text{m} ^*\text{v} $ 'crown of the head, occiput'.

§ 2.2.13. Tg $^*\text{b} \text{i} ^*\text{l} ^*\text{g} ^*\text{a} $ 'throat' and M $^*\text{b} \text{a} ^*\text{lu} ^*\text{u} $ 'to swallow' (both from N $^*\text{b} \text{a} ^*\text{l} ^*\text{l} ^*\text{j} ^*\text{w} ^*\text{a} $ 'to swallow; throat') and Tg $^*\text{p} \text{a} ^*\text{g} ^*\text{d} ^*\text{i} ^*\text{l} ^*\text{T} ^*\text{T} $, $^*\text{p} \text{a} ^*\text{g} ^*\text{d} ^*\text{i} $ 'sole of the foot' $<$ N $^*\text{p} ^*\text{a} ^*\text{r} ^*\text{g} ^*\text{d} ^*\text{v} $ 'leg' suggest that N $^*\text{y}$ and $^*\text{g}$ may have been preserved as $^*\text{g}$ in Altaic consonant clusters.

§ 2.3. Structure of N words. The words have the structure CV (auxiliary words and pronouns only), CVCV, CVCCV, CV(C)CVCV and CVCVCCV.
§ 2.4. **Vowels.** The original system of vowels, as reconstructed by Illich-Svitych and accepted by the present author, is as follows:

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
*i & *e & *u & *ü \\
*a & *a & *a & *a \\
\end{array}
\]

The original vowels of the first syllable survive in proto-Uralic, partially in proto-Dravidian (where both *a and *ā yield *a) and partially in the Altaic languages (with mutual assimilation of the vowels within a word). The vowels in those languages are stable, i.e. do not undergo alternation (except for quantitative alternation of short and long vowels in Dravidian). In Indo-European, Hamito-Semitic and Kartvelian there is apophony, i.e. a morphologized alternation of vowels (as well as of simple and geminated consonants) that diminishes the importance of vowels for lexical distinction. This apophony is based on phonologization of former allophones (of accentual origin) and subsequent morphologization of the phonemic alternation. Another source of apophony (especially in Hamito-Semitic) is the incorporation of affixes (prefixes → infixes) into word stems, e.g. the prefix *w (of passive and non-active verbs) turned into Semitic *u ~ *ū as marker of the passive voice within (or before) the stem, the prefix *-a n- (< auxiliary verb used in periphrastic constructions of imperfect) turned into the infixes *-n-, *-a- and into gemination of the stem-internal consonant in Semitic, Berber, branches of Cushitic and possibly Chadic. Due to the apophony the vocalic distinction between roots has been partially lost in IE, HS and K, but indirectly preserved in the prevocalic velar and laryngeal consonants. Thus, the N consonants *g, *k, *ŋ, when followed by N *e, yield IE *gwh, *gw and *k w; if followed by N *e and *ā, they yield IE palatalized consonants *g h, *g and *k; if followed by *a or a consonant, they yield plain velar *g, *g and *k. But the N vowels *i, *u and *ū have been preserved better – as IE "sonants" (i.e. high vowels and glides) *i/*i and *u/*u (see examples in AD NVIE, AD NGIE, AD NM, IS I–III and in the present dictionary).

The basic representation of the pN vowels of the initial syllable in the descended languages may be tentatively formulated as follows:

pN *a yields U, T, M, Tg and D *a, K *a/zero and *e (/zero/*a). IE *e /o /zero (with preservation of the preceding velar consonants as *g h, *g and *k) and sometimes (under still unknown conditions) IE *a (as in IE *k w as- 'basket' from N *ko?ac 'basket, wickerwork');
pN *ā yields U and T *ā, M and Tg *e, D *a (and sometimes *ē), IE *e/*o/zero (with representation of the preceding velar consonants as *g₃h, *g and *k), K *a/zero, *e and (seldom) *i; in open syllables pN *ā sometimes yields D *ē (the exact rules have not yet been discovered);

pN *e yields U, T, M, Tg and D *e, IE *e/*o/zero (with representation of the preceding velar consonants as *g₃h, *g and *k), K *e/a/zero and *i/*e;

pN *i yields U, M and D *i, T *i and *I. Tg *i and *i, IE *e/*o/, K *i and *e, as well as *i/*y in the HS languages. Sometimes (under still unknown conditions) N *i yields D *e and *ē. It is not yet clear if in the word-final position pN *i yields IE *i/*ī or disappears. In the latter case the word-final N *ae in our pN reconstructions (based on IE evidence) should be replaced by a less specific *E.

pN *o yields mainly U, T, M and D *o, Tg *o, *ų, and *ų, IE *e/*o/zero (with representation of the preceding velar and lr. consonants as *g₃w₃, *g₃w, *k₃w and *x₃w) and K *w ∨ *w/*u, *o, *a, zero (and sometimes *i and *e under still unknown conditions); in several N words pN *o yields D and M *u (probably due to some special development under still unknown conditions); in HS it is sometimes preserved as a C rounded vowel, as labialization of preceding velar consonants in some C languages, especially Bj and Ag (resulting in *g₃w, k₃w and k₃w) and (mainly in primary nouns and in biconsonantal verbs) as S *ų and *ū; in the prehistory of IE there is as *o...ų> pre-IE *u...u and later reg. development of this new *u (e.g. > *we/*wɔ) (cf. AD NVIE and AD NGIE); in N words with a front vw. of the second or third syllable N *o of the initial syllable often (but not always) yields T and M *ō.

pN *u yields U, M and D *u, T *u (and *I), Tg *ų and *ų (as well as sometimes *o and *ųe), IE *eų*/*ų/*ų/ (and, with loss of the glide, *e/*o, as well as forming with preceding velar and laryngeal consonants groups *g₃wₑ/*g₃wₒ, *g₃wₑ/*g₃wₒ, *k₃wₑ/*k₃wₒ, *x₃wₑ/*x₃wₒ and a cluster *g₃w) and *w ∨ , K *u, *w-diphthongs and sometimes *o, as well as often S *u and *-ū- (in primary nouns and biconsonantal verbs) and other reflexes of HS *u, as well as labialization of preceding velar consonants in some C languages. The delabialization *u > T *I is a rather frequent phenomenon, but its rules and conditions have not yet been investigated. A similar phenomenon of delabialization (N *u > Tg
*1. *i) is found in a few Tg roots (N *b’u*’άρα 'watercourse, river' > Tg *b’ırα 'river, brook', N *κ’υμνά 'sand' > Tg *κ’ιμανα- v. 'snow', N *κ’υλοδά’ήν 'pierce' > ?σ Tg *κ’ιδαρ- v. 'hurt by pricking', N *πυ’λƯ [or *πυ’λǜ?] 'to spring forth' > Tg *β’ή’λκυ- v. 'moisten, wet' [side by side with Tg *β’υλκυ- v. 'wash; spout, jet'], N *Συ’ή 1 'squeeze out, filter, strain' > Tg *σίρ- 'squeeze out [a liquid]'). In T, M and U there is optional regr. as. (leading to "harmony of vowels"): in N words with a front vV. of the second or third syllable N *u yields T, M and U *ü (or sometimes [under still unknown conditions]) T and M *ö). N *uy yields NTg *T (entries 332 and 592).

pN *ü yields U, T and M *ü, Tg *ü, *ü (Ci. *uß > Ewk, Lm, Ngd, Slh, Orc, Ud i, Ork, Ul, Nn, Mc u) and *ü, D *u, IE *e/u/*o/u/*u (and, with loss of the glide, *e/*o) and *w (in both cases the preceding velar consonant was palatalized, which brought about palatalized consonants *g’h, *g and *k, as well as clusters *g’w, *g w and *k w), K *u, *w-diphthongs, zero (and sometimes *1 under still unknown conditions), as well as HS *u (> S *-û- etc.) and labialization of preceding velar consonants in some C and Ch languages; *ü is sometimes delabialized to *1 in T, M, Tg, D and possibly in pre-IE (whence IE *e/j/*o/j/*1), the rules and conditions of this delabialization still need investigating; sometimes (under still unknown conditions) *ü is represented by M *ö.

In non-initial syllables in late PU and pFU the N phonemes *e, *t1 and *ü (unless changed to *u by vV. harmony) yielded *e. If the word-final vV. is attested in U only (by U *-e), the final vV. of the N word will be denoted as *ê (a cover sign for *e|1).

In N and Tg the initial N *ô- yields, beside the expected *ba-, also (under still unknown [prosodic?] conditions) Tg *u- and *o-, M *bu-, bo- and *o-.

N *we- yields T *ö- (cf. entries 2457, 2489 and 255 0) and Tg *u- (*u and *ü) (entries 2489, 2544 and 255 0), as well as possibly M *ö (entry 2550).

N *wi- (unless influenced by regr. as.) yields T *ö- and M *ö- ~ *bö- (cf. entries 2467, 2479 and 2539)

The N initial sequence *ya- is likely to yield D *e- (entries 2642, 2647 and 2652) and probably (under still unknown conditions) M *i- (entry 2620). D *i- from N *yヌ- (as in entries 2622 and 2646) needs investigating.
Several entries (173 and 182) suggest that probably N *bo- could yield (under still unknown conditions) IE *bʰeu̯-/*bʰou̯-/*bʰu̯-.

N *co-, *ćo-, *ćo-, *ćo- and *kǔ- + word-internal *y yield IE *sk- rather than *skw-. Therefore IE *skw- is extremely rare (Pokorny’s dictionary mentions only one root: *(s)kwalo-s, which is also doubtful: "*(s)kwalo-s oder vielmehr *kswana-s 'eine größere Fischart'".

Several N etymons (entries 84Oa, 2104, 2151 and 2235a) suggest that N *EH₁- (*-āH₁-, *eh₁- and possibly -ūH₁-) may yield M *ī (and *ī[:]) and Tg *ī.

According to AD AVD, the Tg ascending diphthongs go back to three sources: [1] a contraction *-aya > Tg *-ja- ~ *ay- ~ *a-, [2] a reversal *-ay- > Tg *-ja- and [3] a vocal breaking (Vokalbrechung) N *V₁C(C)₂ > Tg *V₁V₂C(C)₂. It may be added to this hypothesis that Tg *-ja- may go back to N *-æya- as well.

On the alphabetical order of entries in the present dictionary see below § 9.

§ 2.4.1. I can propose a tentative hypothesis about the prosodic origin of pT ascending diphthongs (in many cases, but not in all of them). These diphthongs are reconstructed on the evidence of the Chv reflexes of initial cns: Chv *J- > NaT *k'- & *k'- < pT *k'- & *k'-; Chv Ć- > NaT *t'- and *t'- < pT *t'- & *t'-; Chv Š- > NaT *s'- < pT *s'. In my hypothesis, the diphthongs go back to pre-T long vowels with a special (broken?) tone (that I denote with the symbol ∨). These long vowels may result from compensatory lengthening before simplified cns. clusters, e.g. N *t‘ūf’ūr ∨ (part of) leg' ('calf of leg', 'thigh', 'knee?') > pre-T *t‘ūf’ūr > *t‘ūf’ūr > NaT *t‘ūz and Chv Ṣep čbr 'knee', N *kālga 'throw, leave' > pre-T *k’al > *k’al > NaT *k’āl- and Chv jul-; N *śihařu 'dirt' > pre-T *śEař > T *śař > NaT *śař 'swamp' and Chv šur 'swamp, quagmire'.

§ 2.5. Tones?. There is no direct evidence of the existence of phonological tones in proto-Nostratic. But the apparent homonymy of N *m₁ 'I' and *m₁ 'what?' (that is unsupportable in the lge, because both occur in the same syntactic position as sentence subject) suggests that *m₁ 'I' and *m₁ 'what?' were not real homonyms, being distinguished probably by phonological ones (unless the distinction was achieved by the intonation of sentences).

§ 3. Grammar. The proto-Nostratic language was analytic. Its grammar was based on a rigid word order, auxiliary words and pronouns.
All words belonged to one of the three classes: [1] categorematic words, [2] pronouns, [3] auxiliary words. These classes differ in their syntactical functioning. Some pronouns may follow syntactical rules of categorematic words, too.

A. The word order may be described by the following rules:
1. The predicate is the final categorematic word of a sentence. It may be followed by personal and demonstrative pronouns ('I eat'), but not by other categorematic words.
2. Attributive (expressed by a categorematic word) precedes its head.
3. Direct object immediately precedes its verb. Other objects precede the verb, too.
4. Pronominal subject follows the predicate.
5. Pronominal attributive ('my', 'this') may follow the noun.
6. Case markers follow the noun.

The only place left for the (non-pronominal) subject (and for adverbial modifiers) is before the verb with its objects.

This word order survives in U, T, M, Tg, Ko, J, D, K, C as word order and in all daughter languages as the order of morphemes within words. It was preserved in proto-IE (and its most ancient descendants) as the unmarked word order, but when the IE words became syntactically autonomous (marking their syntactic function by their morphological form [obligatory cases etc.]), the former rigid word order disappeared, so that the word order began functioning as a means of focalization. In S, B and Eg the old word order was displaced by a new one (originally emphatic, e.g. attributives following their head).

B. There was a very rich system of pronouns, among them:

[1] personal pronouns: *m₁ 'I' and *tʰũ₁ ~ *šũ₁ 'thou' in the direct case, other pronouns in oblique cases (*h₂ ŋ y ᵃ 'by me, my', *k ᵃ ~ *g ᵃ 'thee, thy'), as well as pronominals (i.e. categorematic words replacing the pronouns, e.g. *r'ɑ₁ k E 'self' functioning as a categorematic replacement for *m₁ 'I', whence IE *eɡ̣oH ~ *eɡ̣H-, Semitic *-āk u etc.), pers. pronouns of 1 pl. excl. (*n ᵃ) and of 1 pl. incl. (*g ŋ₁), as well as compound pronouns: *m₁ ᵃ 'we', *m₁ ᵃ 'ye' (with the plurality marker *ɑ₁), *m₁ tʰũ₁ 'we' incl.;

[2] interrogative pronouns: *k ov 'who?', *m₁ 'what?', *y a 'which?', as well as *w ᵃ 'who?' and *ŋ ŋ₁ [1] 'thing', [2] 'what?' (most probably, a phonetic reduction or an ellipsis from *ya ŋ ŋ₁ or *ŋ̣ay ŋ ŋ₁ 'which thing?');

[3] deictic particles *h a, *h' e, *h'₁, *h' u indicating the degree of proximity to the interlocutors (hìc-deixis, ist e-deixis, illé-deixis etc.), demonstrative pronouns: for active (animate and the like) beings/objects and for inanimate objects (*s E 'he, she' for animate
Introduction

Bearers, nomina possessoris, animal names, frequentativity/iterativity, auxiliary words of other meanings: negations:

IE genitive case, too, is based on pronouns (e.g., the genitive case endings: pc. of plurality [used mostly with pronouns], as well as pc. of plurality [used mostly with pronouns], as well as distal or intermediate deixis: *ča 'that', for distal or intermediate deixis: *čE 'that'; demonstrative pronouns for collectivity (*?a*h'a, *h'a, *?E]Å, *]Å, *g✈), for collectivity-plurality (*n'a, *r✈ yE), for plurality (*t✈ of plurality, *r'✈ ś✈ 'they' and *yE [= y'r'?] 'these, they' for animate beings, *ʔa, pc. of plurality, *kU, pc. of plurality [used mostly with pronouns], as well as *r✈ q✈ 'thing, things' and prn.

The nominative case (e.g., IE nominative *-s [for nouns of the active gender] from the N demonstrative active *sE), into affixes of plural, dual and collectivity. In some languages (IE, K and probably S) the genitive case, too, is based on pronouns (e.g., the genitive case endings: IE *-oïos, K *-ïs < *r'y'îyô sE 'which is' [× N *yâ sE id.], originally 'that which is X', as well as probably the S genitive ending *-1 < N *r'y'îyô [and/or *yâ 'which']).

C. Auxiliary words: [1] postpositions and locative adverbs (in many cases functioning also as preverbs): *nu 'of, from', *mA and *t✈ (particles of marked accusative), *k✈ (= *k✈ ?) 'towards' (→ 'to'), *k✈ 'out of, from', *s✈ 'to, towards', *t'ã 'away (from), from', *čæ 'away, downward', *]Å (locative pc.), as well as categorematic words transformed into postpositions/preverbs: *ʔin'Å¹ 'place' (→ 'in'), *d'ôyja 'place (within, below)' (→ locative particle *dô 'in'); [2] negations: *n'î 'not', *pe (~ ? *pã) 'not', *mâ → *mâh'ôi 'do not' (prohibitive pc.) and 'not' (negative); [3] auxiliary words with meaning of tenses and aspects: *drîi, marker of imperfective ( < an auxiliary verb?), *H2i, pc. of past (preterite), *čîčî or *čîčî, a marker of verbal frequentativity/iterativity, ; [4] auxiliary words of other meanings: *râ 'to become, be', *rÅ, a marker of the male sex ( ← 'young'] man??), *bÅ, adjectival pc. forming compound ( → derived) names of quality bearers, nomina possessoris, animal names, *b✈, pc. forming compound ( → derived) nomina abstracta, *čâ or *ča (=
§ 4. Grammatical typology. As we can see, proto-Nostratic was a highly analytic language. On this point there is a certain disagreement between Illich-Svitych and myself. Illich-Svitych, albeit recognizing the analytical status of many grammatical elements in N, still believed that some grammatical elements were agglutinated affixes: the marker of oblique cases *-n (= my *nu 'of, from'), the formative of marked accusative *-m (= my *mA), the plural marker *-NÅ (= my *nâ of collectiveness and plurality) and several others. This interpretation is hardly acceptable because the N etyma in question still preserve traces of their former analytic status: [1] they preserve some mobility within the sentence (a feature of separate words rather than affixes), [2] several pN particles are still analytic in some descendant languages, [3] N etyma with grammatical and derivational function are sometimes identical with autosemantic words. Thus, the element *nu 'of, from' functions in the descendant languages not only as a case suffix (genitive in U, T, M, Tg, formative of the stem of oblique case in the IE heteroclitic nouns, part of the ablative case ending in T, K and in IE adverbs), but also as a preverb of separation/withdrawal in IE (Baltic), as an analytic marker of separation/withdrawal (ablative) in B (functioning in postverbal and other positions). The element *mA is still analytic in Manchu (be, postposition of the direct object, cf. Hrl. 35, 74-5) and Japanese (OJ Ï > J o). On the analytical status of J o (< N *mA), no (< N *nu) cf. Vrd.JG 278 -82. The element *nâ functions not only as a postnominal and postverbal marker of pl. (> pl. suffix of nouns in K, HS and A, ending of 3 pl. of verbs in K, part of the IE ending *-nti ≠ *-nt of 3 pl.), but also as the initial marker of pl. or abstractness (collectiveness) in U and Eg pronouns: F nuo pl. 'those' ↔ tuo sg. 'that', ne pl. 'those' ↔ se sg. 'that', Eg nɔ
abstract 'this' and 'these (things') ↔ p³ 'this' m. ↔ t³ f. The animate plural deictic element (?) yE 'these, they' functions not only as the postnominal marker of plural (> plural ending in IE, U, A and C), but also as a prenominal and prepronominal plural marker (in B, Bj and OEg). The affix forming causative verbs in HS may both precede the verbal root and follow it (e.g. in deverbal nouns), which points to an original analytic status of the corresponding N etymon. HS *tω [prefix of reflexivization in derived verbs > B *tω - t- id., S prefix and infix *(-)t- etc.] and the AnIE reflexive particle *-tī (> HrLw -tī 'sich', Lw -tī, Lc -tī, reflexive pc., Ht z-, -za id.) are etymologically identical with N *t√ω√V y head' (preserved with this meaning in K and Om) that proved the analytic origin of the marker of reflexivization.

In the descendant languages most of these grammatical auxiliary words and some pronouns turned into synthetic affixes (agglutinative in Early U and A, inflectional [fusional] in IE and to a certain extent in HS and K).

One remark about the opposition of tenses in Arabic: the traditional view is that the opposition kataba vs. yaktubu is that of aspects: kataba is perfective, yaktubu is imperfective (cf. Rdr. EVS), but there is another theory that treats this opposition as temporal (Xrak. OKY). Without trying to solve the problem, I preserve the terminology that refers to kataba as perfective (pf.) and to yaktubu as imperfective (ip.).

§ 5. Derivation. The original status of the N etyma underlying derivational affixes of the descendant languages is less clear than that of grammatical morphemes. For some of derivational affixes the analytic origin is obvious. Thus, the etymon *mA (that underlies affixes of nomina actionis and nomina agentis in the descendant languages) was a separate word, which is evidenced by its position: in HS and K it is found both in front of the verb and after it (while in IE, U, D and A its position in the word is always final). The same is true of the etymon *t1 (> suffixes and prefixes of verb; nomina actionis and other deverbal nouns, infinitives etc. in the descendant languages). The adjectival particle *bA forming animal names and other names of quality bearers (IE *e1h9-bh9-o-s 'deer', S *θaśa-b- 'fox', U *ora-pa 'squirrel', Tg *kər-be 'male reindeer', Manchu oŋgo-ba 'forgetful') is interpreted as analytic on the evidence of its phonetic behaviour: the regular reflex of the N intervocal *-b- in U is *-w-, but in the word *ora-pa 'squirrel' (> F oраwa) we find *p, which is regular in the word-initial position only. But for many other etyma of this sort we are not yet able to draw conclusions. Of course, we cannot rule out an ancient synthetic origin of some enigmatic "root extensions" ("Wurzeldeterminative", "élargisse-
ments des racines") that have lost their former meaning in IE, HS and other lges and are represented by an additional consonant at the end of roots or by synonymous roots (N words) that differ by their final (usually third) consonant. These "root extensions" need serious investigation.

In proto-Nostratic there are groups of phonetically and semantically similar words, e.g. (1) *wWHO d湟Ny 'walk, go, set out for' and *wedhA 'to cause to go (to drive, to lead)', (2) *wROunt 'belly' and *waNH3a 'belly', (3) *c1rya to scratch\chisel, to shape (an object), to fashion' and *c1R1pV 'scratching\chisel, hew, cut', (4) *tuIE (or *tue wuIE?) 'extend, stretch, be(come) long' and *taLPV (= *talbV?) 'vast; room', (5) *cEgV 'to prick' (→ 'to butt'), *čika 'to prick, to split' and *čAkV 'to prick (stechen), to gouge', (6) *cOdhV 'break (esp. a body part), strike' and ČVdWy ČVgVdV 'to tear, to split', (7) *wùru 'to scrape', *wahrv 'to scratch, to scrape' and *wAČV 'rub, scrape'. The origin of this similarity is not yet known. Three sources of the similarity may be suggested: (1) ancient (pre-Nostratic) derivation, (2) lexical attraction: phonetically similar words influence the meaning of each other, (3) ideophony. The problem is still to be investigated. By the way, similarity of this kind exists in many languages (if not in all of them). Compare, for instance, English scratch, scrape, scrub or Russian прыскать 'to sprinkle' and брызгать 'to splash, to sprinkle' or Russian скрипеть 'to squeak, to creak' and скрежетать 'to grind'.

§ 6. The place of Hamito-Semitic. In modern long-range comparative linguistics there are two opinions as to the place of Hamito-Semitic (Afro-Asiatic) among the languages of the world: (1) the traditional view among the long-range-comparatists (H. Pedersen, V. Illich-Svitych, the present author etc.) is that HS belongs to the Nostratic macrofamily as its branch; (2) recently several scholars have expressed a different opinion: HS is co-ordinate with N rather than subordinate to it. Joseph Greenberg believes that HS, Kartvelian and Dravidian do not belong to "Eurasiatic" (his term for Nostratic) as its branches but are co-ordinate with it. Recently Sergei Starostin has also expressed an opinion about the co-ordinate relationship between HS and "N proper".

J. Greenberg’s opinion is based on comparison of words of different families within a list of arbitrarily chosen roots and words. Before receiving the lexical volume of his book Indo-European and its Closest Relatives (Stanford, 2002) I had to judge upon Greenberg’s theory from a short list of these roots and words for the "Eurasiatic" languages that were published by Ruhlen (Ruhlen OLs 16 – 17). It is a list of 30 lexical entries. It is not free from mistakes and very subjective conjectures.
The main IE word for 'eat' is not *tap (found in Tokharian only, but registered as the representative of IE in the list of Greenberg-Ruhlen), but *ed- (found in almost all branches of IE: Latin *ed-, Germanic *it-, Sanscrit *at-, Hittite *it- etc.), which is related both to Altaic (Mongolian ide 'eat') and to HS *ʔit- 'to eat' (in East Cushitic and West Chadic). The ancient word for 'what?' is not that represented by IE *yo-~*ye-, Uralic *yo- etc. (which is an ancient N word, but it means 'which'), but *mъ, which is represented not only in Uralic, Altaic (Chuvash), but also in HS (all branches), Kartvelian and probably in Dravidian (cf. IS II 66–68). IE *tek- 'to touch' (adduced in the list in the entry 'arrive') corresponds exactly to HS √tk (cf. here s.v. N *taka|æ 'to touch'). If this list is corrected, enlarged and compared with roots of different branches of HS (as well as Kartvelian and Dravidian), we will see that all these languages are much nearer to "Eurasiatic" than believed by Greenberg and Ruhlen (see Table I):

### Table I. "Eurasiatic cognates" (Ruhlen OLs 16–7) and their cognates in Hamito-Semitic, Kartvelian and Dravidian

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>(1) IE *me-, U *m etc.</td>
<td>Highland East Cush.</td>
<td>*me</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thou</td>
<td>IE *-x 1 sg. marker in verbs (1) IE *tu-~te, Ur. *t- etc.,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>who?</td>
<td>IE *k̂ωo-, Ur. *k̂u etc.</td>
<td>S *-āku 'I' &amp; cognates in B, Eg.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>what?</td>
<td>Ur. *mъ, Chv. man etc.</td>
<td>preserved in Om, Beja, and Ch, but replaced by *m- 'what?' elsewhere</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>which?</td>
<td>IE *yo-/*ye-, Ur. *yo- etc.</td>
<td>S *?ayy- replaced by *y▽ 'what?'</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>this</td>
<td>IE *k̂- etc.</td>
<td>Cush. *k̂-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
that    IE *to- etc.
not    IE *ne- etc.  
not, do not    Ur. *ala 'do not'
plural    Ur., Turk. *t etc.
two    IE *dwo etc.

eye    IE *okw-
see    Yukaghir nugie 'have seen' etc.
bark    Ur. *kopa, Turkic *kap- etc.
bark, skin    IE *ker-, FU *kere-, Tung. *xere-
feather    Ur. *tulka, Turk. *daliank'-> *jalak' -Glavda (Ch.), dTakwa
star    IE *Haster
moon    Korean tal (-l <*r)
fish    Ur. *kala, Tung. *kol-sa etc.

wolf    Ur. *loka 'fox', Mong. *noqa 'dog'
elder brother    Turkic *aka etc.
edge    Ur. *kacca etc.
wet    Ur. *noere etc.
dark    [1] Ur. *polv etc.
[2] FU *rum

speak    IE *kel- etc.
sleep    Ur *uni- etc.
The lexical volume of Greenberg’s book *Indo-European and its Closest Relatives* (that reached me after the text of this dictionary was already written) did not change anything in my opinion about Greenberg’s Eurasiatic theory. Most of his valid comparisons between IE, U and A have exact cognates in HS and/or K and/or D. This can be easily seen from my etymological entries that include references to Greenberg’s book (after the sign or ). For instance, he compares IE *kʷasj-o* 'basket' with U *koč-a~*kuć-a* 'drinking vessel' and OJ kasipa 'container for food\drink’. But reflexes of the same N word are found in Semitic *kappearance of various morphemes. For instance, the "second-person T" (to use Greenberg’s notation) is found not only in IE, Uralic, Mongolian and Gilyak, but also in all branches of Hamito-Semitic (e.g. Semitic *tā-, in Kartvelian *tkwēn ‘ye’, ‘vester’, in proto-Elamic *-t of the 2nd person and in Drav. *-N-t, pers. ending of 2s non-past of verbs (see Gr. I 71 – 4 and the entry *έφ ‘thou’ of the present dictionary). The "interrogative M" (Grb. I 229 – 31) is found not only in Uralic, Altaic and some Indo-European languages (Brythonic, Tocharian, Hittite), but also in five branches of Hamito-Semitic (Semitic, Egyptian, Berber, Cushitic, Chadic), in Kartvelian and Dravidian (see here s.v. *m ‘what?’). Greenberg’s "Eurasiatic" negation ELE (my *ʔāl-a) is typical of HS (much more than of IE, where its presence is extremely problematic). To judge by these two last
examples, Hamito-Semitic looks more "Eurasiatic" that even Indo-European! Greenberg’s book is entitled *Indo-European and its Closest Relatives*. To judge from the above examples, Hamito-Semitic is closer to IE than IE itself! Greenberg’s book actually proves that in this respect (exluding HS from Nostratic) he is wrong.

Starostin’s hypothesis on HS as a sister-language rather than a daughter-language of N is based on his measurement of shared and replaced vocabulary (of Semitic, IE, Uralic, Turkic etc.) within Swadesh’s list of 100 words (the so-called "basic vocabulary"). Starostin concluded that Semitic (taken as a representative of HS) diverged from N earlier than the "Strictly-N" daughter-families from one another. As is known, the glottochronological method of measuring linguistic relationship is based on the unproved assumption that languages replace words of the "basic vocabulary" at a constant rate. But glottochronology cannot serve as a reliable instrument of genetic classification of related languages for at least two reasons: (1) it fails to distinguish between cladistic proximity (German and Swedish are nearer to each other than to Italian and Spanish, because the former go back to Proto-Germanic, while the latter are descendants of Latin, hence German is a "sister-language" of Swedish, but a "cousin-language" of Italian) and dialectal areal proximity (adjacent dialects of a language share innovations without going back to a special intermediate protolangage, e.g. Czech is nearer to Polish than to Bulgarian, but there was no Proto-West-Slavic, i.e. it cannot be claimed that Polish diverged from Czech *later* than from Russian, Bulgarian or Slovene and that it is *genetically nearer* to Czech than to Bulgarian; on the other hand, Russian is nearer to Polish than to Czech, but there was no Proto-Russian-Polish), (2) it fails to take account of major structural (phonological and morphological) factors encouraging word replacement in some languages (in contrast to other lges where these factors do not exist). For instance, in French some phonological factors (loss of many intervocalic consonants and of the posttonic syllables) encouraged homonymy and replacement of lexical unites (even belonging to the sacro-saint "basic vocabulary" of 100 words): N *

*?e'j [w’a] ‘come, go’ is preserved in Proto-IE *ei- 'to go' and in Latin T- 'to go', but is lost in French, because the phonetic laws in the history of French do not allow this verb to exist: it would have yielded *

*oi [w’o] 'goes' undistinguishable from many other ancient verbs which would have merged in *

*oi [w’o] unless the language had expelled these potential homonyms. The same is true of N *

*ritē 'eat' > IE *ed- > Latin eð-, which would have yielded the same *

*oi [w’a] unless it had been lost in the prehistory of French. Now, let us take just the same N words and see what happened to them in HS and in Semitic: N *

*?e’j [w’a] ‘come,
go' yielded HS *†y- 'come' (preserved in Egyptian and Cushitic), but could not survive in Semitic: due to Semitic historical phonology and morphology, 'he went' would have been *†a in Arabic and *†a in Hebrew (because Semitic verbal roots were devocalized and the intervocalic *y- was lost); N *†tê 'eat' survives in HS (namely in Cushitic and Chadic), but because of the devocalization of verbal roots it was lost in Semitic (otherwise it would have been undistinguishable from other verbs with the same historical consonants, such as *†atel 'come').

The alleged constant rate of lexical replacement is a hypothesis at variance with the structure of languages. If in Swadesh's list the percentage of words shared by Semitic and IE, Semitic and Uralic, Semitic and Turkic etc. is indeed lower than that shared by IE and Uralic, IE and Turkic etc. (as Starostin claims), it may be due to the structural history of Semitic rather than to the date of separation of HS from other daughter-families of Nostratic.

The present author shares the opinion of those who are sceptical about the reliability of lexicostatistics as a source of chronology. For more details see my paper "Sources of linguistic chronology" (AD SLC) in *Time Depth in Historical Linguistics* (TDHL [2000]: 401-9).

If Proto-'Nostratic proper' (without HS) had ever existed, it would have led to creation of a specific "Strictly-N" word stock, not found in HS (just as there is a Proto-Germanic word stock that includes roots not found in other branches of IE). The reality is different: among the 2998 N words registered in this *Nostratic Dictionary* the overwhelming majority (more than 2700) do appear in HS (including cases with a query). The N words found in several daughter-families but not in HS (which could have justified a hypothesis of "N proper") are even fewer than those found in several branches but not in IE, but nobody will exclude IE from N! *Therefore the traditional Nostraticist view considering HS as a branch of N is still valid.*

§ 7. Using etymological dictionaries. The etymological dictionaries of daughter-families (such as UEW for Uralic, DQA for Altaic, OS for Hamito-Semitic, P and WP for Indo-European, D for Dravidian etc.) have proved to be extremely useful in our research. This does not mean that the present author agrees with all etymological proposals and hypotheses of the quoted colleagues. If I want to indicate that only a part of the proposed comparisons is acceptable, I use the symbol "≈" before the abbreviated name of the source. In quoting DQA, I use the abbreviation "incl." to indicate the acceptable comparisons between sub-branches. For instance, in the entry *†Eg'umê 'wet\cold weather, dew' (→ 'wet snowfall' → 'snow') I quote DQA no. 1232 in the following way: "≈ DQA no. 1232 (A *†u̞ž; incl. Tg, Ko)", which means that I agree with the comparison (found in DQA) between NTg *†u̞ž 'wet snow' and
§ 8. The Nostratic symposium. Remarks of my colleagues and methodology. The Nostratic Symposium (Cambridge, the McDonald Institute, July 1998), the discussion and the remarks of my colleagues have been very helpful in improving the quality and the exact formulation of the etymologies in this Nostratic Dictionary. This is true not only about the remarks with which I agree (and which are taken into account), but also about those with which I disagree. They are important because they suggest the necessity of explicit and more precise formulation of the ideas concerning etymologies. One example: in AD NM 28 I state that "milk as food exists only in societies with husbandry". I meant there milk as food for adults rather than mother's milk for babies. I supposed that this is obvious. But now I see (from D. Sinor's reaction) that there may be misunderstanding, so that a more explicit statement is needed. A further example is the use of capital letters to denote unspecified phonemes of a certain class. They are used not in order to conceal conflicting evidence in daughter-languages (as one of the colleagues suggested), but first of all to refer to cases when the extant evidence is not enough for identifying a phoneme (see below) or when details of positional representation of phonemes are not yet known. Here also explicit formulation of the usage will help to avoid misunderstanding.

Therefore it will be useful now to dwell on some questions of methodology:

§ 8.1. The purpose of the book The Nostratic Macrofamily and Linguistic Palaeontology. The book was not intended to be a proof of the relationship between the Nostratic languages. Alexander Vovin is quite right in stressing that "Dolgopolsky's goal in the book is to reconstruct Nostratic homeland and habitat and not to prove the hypothesis itself". The hypothesis was proved more than 30 years ago by V. Illich-Svitych in his "Essay of Comparison of the Nostratic Languages".

In order to prove genetic relationship, one must compare words of the basic vocabulary and grammatical morphemes. That is what Illich-Svitych did (IS I 3 - 37). But in a paper concerning linguistic palaeontology the basic vocabulary and the grammatical morphemes are of no use. If I find that IE *ed- 'to eat' is cognate with Mongolian ide 'to eat', East Cushitic *?it- and Ron Chadic *?et 'to eat' and I reconstruct N
eat', this will add nothing to the study of the life, habitat, homeland and culture of the speakers of proto-Nostratic. The same is true of reconstructing proto-Nostratic pronouns for 'I', 'thou', 'who?', 'this' and the Nostratic markers of genitive and accusative. Even without comparative linguistics one expects that the speakers of that ancient language had concepts for 'to eat', for 'I', 'thou', 'what?' etc. and had syntactic means to build a sentence. In linguistic palæontology we work with words and roots belonging to culture and to geographically bound natural phenomena, which is not a basis for proving genetic connections between languages. Usually what is important for the demonstration of genetic relationship of languages is often irrelevant for linguistic palæontology and viceversa.

Unfortunately, some of my colleagues ignored the goal of NM and tried to draw conclusions about the validity of the Nostratic theory on the basis of the etymologies quoted in NM. This is like trying to check the existence of the Indo-European linguistic family by analyzing the etymologies found in Bn. VII (Le vocabulaire des institutions indo-européennes), which is a study in IE linguistic palæontology.

§ 8.2. Morphology as a criterion of genetic relationship. Some of my distinguished colleagues stressed the crucial importance of morphology for the demonstration of genetic kinship of languages. This is an old idea, expressed already by Antoine Meillet. This idea is acceptable if the concept "morphology" includes both syntactical and analytical grammatical morphemes. Actually, the same morpheme may be analytical earlier and syntactical later. One of the essential parts of IE morphology is the personal conjugation of verbs such as Old Indian 1 sg. bharämi - 2 sg. bharäsi - 3 sg. bharati and Greek 1 sg. διδωμι - 2 sg. διδος - 3 sg. διδοσσι. But already Franz Bopp, one of the founders of IE comparative linguistics, paid attention to the fact that the marker of 1 sg. *-mi in the IE verbs is etymologically identical with the stem of the 1 sg. pronoun (in the oblique cases: cf. Latin mē, Sanskrit mā, English me). It is obvious that the IE personal endings go back to personal pronouns of the 1st and 2nd person and to a demonstrative pronoun (for 3 sg.). What happened in the prehistory of IE, happened also in some Mongolic languages - not in their prehistory, but almost before our eyes, in recent centuries: in proto-Mongolic and in Classical Mongolian there is no synthetic personal conjugation, but in Buryat, Kalmuck, Dagur and Moghol it has been formed from a predicative word + personal pronoun (Buryat yereēxe-b 'I shall come', Kalmuck yoβ-na-β 'I go', Dagur ičǐm-bē 'ich fahre, werde fahren', Moghol rā-nān-bī 'I come, am coming' with -b, -β, -bē and -bī < proto-Mongolic *bī 'I'; Kalmuck ĝarβ-č, Buryat ĝarba-š 'you [sg.] went out',
Moghol ůrân-či 'you come', Dagur ŋawbej-ši 'you will go' with -č, -š, -či and -ši < proto-Mongolic *či 'thou').

But if we define morphology as a system of synthetic morphemes only, it will be wrong to claim that "morphological correspondences provide the key to the reconstruction of any proto-language" (to quote D. Sinor). Shall we exclude Sino-Tibetan and other languages without synthetic morphology from comparative linguistics? Prof. Sinor believes that "a comparative dictionary of Nostratic languages will never bring proof of their genetic relationship, a task that only comparative morphology could accomplish" (D. Sin. NT 8). In the case of Nostratic (an analytic language with grammatical particles and pronouns changing into synthetic morphemes in daughter-languages) the term "comparative morphology" is valid only if it means analysis of the system of grammatical particles and pronouns with their subsequent transformation into synthetic morphemes. Such comparative morphological analysis was begun by Illich-Svitych, especially in the introductory part of his "Essay of Comparison" (IS I 10 – 18), although his position as to the status of the grammatical morphemes was different from mine (see above § 4).

§ 8.3. Capital letters. Prof. Comrie suspects that the capital letters (used in Nostratic reconstructions as signs of unspecified phonemes of certain classes) are a refuge for cases with conflicting evidence provided by different daughter-languages. He quotes (with indignation) the Nostratic etymon *KÆRÎ for leguminous plants (AD NM 54), where all letters are capital! In fact what stands behind the capital letters is lack of specific information indispensable for distinguishing between certain phonemes. The symbol *K means "*k or *g". The distinction between the velar *k and the uvular *ɡ has survived in Kartvelian only and has been lost in all other branches of Nostratic. Hence, if a word is not attested in Kartvelian, we have to use the capital letter K (or to write explicitly "*k or *ɡ"). In the entry in question the Kartvelian reflex is unknown, therefore we use *K. The unspecified R means "*r or *r̥" (and not "all kinds of r-sounds", as Comrie erroneously believes). The distinction between the reflexes of *r or *r̥ has survived in Turkic and Dravidian only. If the word (as *KÆRÎ) is not attested in Turkic and Dravidian, we have to use the capital letter R. The symbol *E is used here instead of *e|ā because both Indo-European and Hamito-Semitic (the only languages where this word is attested) have lost the former phonological distinction between N *e and *ā. Here I admit that it would have been more accurate to symbolize the reconstruction as *K*e|āRÎ (in order to rule out *ɪ and *ʊ). Therefore in the present
I have used a more accurate notation (with the sign \( \varepsilon \) for uncertain vowels), e.g., \( \varepsilon \) pod, fruit of a leguminous plant. The symbol \( \varepsilon \) is used here because no information for indentifying the final vowel is available. The use of capital letters is not a refuge but rather a convenient method for distinguishing between the known and the unknown. Of course, the unknown includes also cases in which the extant data do not allow us to identify certain phonemes of the word or of the morpheme.

§ 8.4. Merger of homonyms. One of my colleagues has indicated cases of overlapping etymologies and has even considered them "a common error in purposes of distinct linguistic relationships" (Campbell IB 11). The distinguished scholar has not paid attention to the extremely typical phenomenon of homonymic merger in the history of languages. Every new speaker of a language reconstitutes the language on the basis of utterances he has heard (and read). It is true of any speaker and of any generation of speakers of any language. If a language has inherited (or borrowed, derived) several homonyms and if it is possible to bridge between their meanings (according to the typical patterns of polysemy [like metonymy, metaphor, ellipsis, broadening or narrowing of meanings etc.]), the homonyms will inevitably merge into one word. I shall cite only several examples (from hundreds and thousands found in the history of languages).

In Russian there is a word сало 'lard, tallow, animal fat' and a corresponding adjective салёный 'made of tallow, of animal fat'. In the 19th century Russian borrowed from French the adjective sale 'dirty', that according to the laws of Russian morphology turned into салёный (сouris sale 'dirty smile' \( \rightarrow \) салёная улыбка). But for any speakers of Russian (including those knowing French, like myself) салёный in both meanings is the same word. If in Russian we hear салёная улыбка (as of a man looking at a woman with indecent thoughts), we imagine a face stained with dirty fat.

In Georgian there is a word ქული 'slave' (an old loan from Turkic ქულ; -1 is a suffix of the nominative case). In the 19th century Russian borrowed the word кули from English coolie (of Dravidian origin). The word won popularity in Russia (probably due to the translation of the English novel Coolie by the Indian writer Mulk Raj Anand, preceded by occasional mentioning of this word in Fregat Pallada by Goncharov and in short stories by other Russian authors), and in the famous song "От края до края" ("From border to border", by the poet Lebedev-Kumach) there are words: 'Поёт эту песню и рикша и кули, поёт эту песню китайский солдат' ("This song [about Stalin] is sung by rickshaws and coolies, this song is sung by a Chinese soldier").
From Russian the word penetrated Georgian. But in Georgian it coalesced with ღული  'slave'. For speakers of Georgian this is obviously the same word, because the meanings 'slave' and 'coolie' are very near. A formal proof of this coalescence is the uvular consonant ღ in ღული 'coolie' (rather than the velar ქ that usually renders Russian ქ-).

The Spanish subjunctive sea (of the verb for 'be') goes back both to siat and sedeat (subjunctive forms of the Latin verbs for 'to be' and 'to sit'), while the Spanish infinitive ser 'to be' is from Latin sedēre 'to sit' without homonymic merger.

In IE there is a verb *bʰer- that means both 'carry, take, bring' (> Latin fer- Ō, Greek φέρ-ω, Old Indian भारामि 'I carry', Slavonic бěр-о 'I take', Armenian բերեմ 'I carry, bring') and 'give birth to' (Gothic bafran, English bear 'to give birth to', Albanian mberat 'pregnant'). It goes back to two or three different Nostratic words: [1] *baʔrer 'hold, take' (> Mongolian бари- 'hold'), [2] *berEʔa 'give birth to; child' (> Dravidian *peʔ- v. 'beget, bear (a young)'), as well as possibly to [3] *bærav 'give' (> Turkic bér- 'give', Proto-Tamil *paric- 'gift'). In IE, due to the apophony, the vocalic distinction between N words with *e, *ä and *e was lost (see above § 2.3), the laryngeal *ʔ was also lost, so that the two or three Nostratic etyma became homonyms. The semantic distance between 'hold, take' and 'give' was small ('give' can be interpreted as metonymy from 'hold' → 'bring'), but even 'give birth to' could be understood as metonymy from 'hold, carry', so that the three (or two) Nostratic words merged into one root. In many Indo-European languages the root preserved the original meanings as polysemic variants (such as Gothic bafran 'carry, bring, give birth', Old Irish bréth 'fait de porter/emporter, fait de porter un enfant').

Dravidian *cīvṇkī 'leopard' (or sim.) goes back to N *cīvṇmī 'leopard', but N *cīv 'hyena' merged with it (because in Dravidian in the word-initial position the voiceless and emphatic affricates coalesced, and so did the intervocalic *-w- and *-b-), and as a result Dravidian *cīvṇkī means both 'leopard' and 'hyena, tiger-wolf'.

Hence overlapping etymologies are not an error but an inevitable result of the merger of homonyms — which is a universal law.

§ 8.5. "Isolated cognates" and the amount of preserved phonological information. Sergey Starostin’s comments on my book (SNM) are a brilliant contribution to long-range comparative linguistics.
In these comments, together with some other papers, he found Sino-Caucasian parallels to Nostratic etyma, which are the first step for establishing a Macro-Eurasian super-family covering both Nostratic and Sino-Caucasian (as well as probably some other families). But I have some methodological reservations as to his approach and results.

One reservation (shared by A. Vovin [Vv. AEN 376 - 8]) concerns "isolated cognates", i.e. words represented in only one of many (three or more) branches of a family. According to Starostin, "in families like this the probability of a common root being preserved in only one branch is quite small, so that a root present only in Turkic or Japanese has a very little chance to be actually Common Altaic (i.e. going back to proto-Altaic [A.D.])" (S SNM 1). Practical application of this principle (not applied by Starostin himself, e.g. in his book on Altaic and Japanese [S AJ]) will bring about disaster to etymological research. One would have to reject all Gothic reflexes of IE words unless they are found in other Germanic languages, as well as all Lithuanian reflexes of IE words and roots unless they are represented in Latvian and/or Prussian.

The Nostratic etymon *kālulū 'woman of the other exogamous moiety (of the same age or younger than ego)’ is represented in Semitic *kall-at- 'bride, daughter-in-law' (AD NM 84 - 7), but is not attested by certain cognates elsewhere in Hamito-Semitic. Shall we dismiss this Semitic cognate or find it unreliable only because it is not known in Omotic or Chadic? Shall we share Starostin’s strange opinion that such a root "has a very little chance to be" proto-Hamito-Semitic? Let us not forget that all other branches of HS (except Egyptian) are represented only by modern languages, so that a word which might have existed in proto-Omotic or proto-Libyan-Berber was lost several thousand years ago (just as it has been lost in all modern Indo-European languages outside the Slavic subbranch). By the way, recently possible (but not certain) cognates of this word have been found in Chadic and East Cushitic (cf. the entry *kālū in this dictionary).

The Nostratic word *qanți[V 'forehead, front' was reconstructed by Illich-Svitych (IS MS 354, IS SS 336) on the basis of IE, Altaic and Egyptian. The Semitic reflex of the word was not known to Illich-Svitych because the languages preserving it were not yet described in the 1960s (when IS MS ad IS SS were written). But according to the laws of Nostratic comparative phonology (discovered by Illich-Svitych) the Semitic reflex has to be *χanți-. Today, due to the late Prof. Johnstone’s research, we know that in Jibbali (a Semitic language in southwestern Oman) there is a word χanți 'front, front part of anything’ (Jo. J 303). Both the phonetic shape and the meaning of the word correspond exactly to what was predicted by Illich-Svitych. Actually this story resembles Leverrier’s prediction of the existence of Neptune long before it was actually discovered or Saussure’s hypothesis of the proto-IE
"sonantic coefficients" predicting the laryngeals long before they were discovered in Hittite. Shall we neglect or underestimate *qant\(^{\text{\textdialed}}\) (an extremely important cognate) and deny its proto-Semitic origin only because it is absent in the Semitic languages outside Southeastern Semitic (Jibbali, Mehri and Harsusi)?

The IE word *mems\(^{\text{\textdialed}}\) 'meat' is known to have survived in Gothic mimz 'meat', but not in any other Germanic languages. Shall we deny the proto-Germanic origin of this Gothic word (that in fact goes back to NaIE *mems- 'meat' and to N *r\(^{\text{\textdialed}}\)omsa 'flesh, meat')? Shall we deny the proto-Germanic antiquity of the Gothic verb hlifan 'to steal' (obviously from IE *k\(^{\text{\textdialed}}\)ep- 'steal, hide') only because it has been lost by all other Germanic languages?

"A root present only in Turkic and Japanese has a very little chance to be actually Common Altaic" (Starostin). By "Common Altaic" Starostin means "proto-Altaic". Is this statement true? When he speaks about Japanese, I can understand it, but for other reasons: the Japanese language has lost a great deal of the proto-Altaic phonological information, so that the probability of chance coincidence in Japanese is rather high. With Turkic the situation is different: Turkic preserves much of the phonological information of proto-Altaic, so that proto-Turkic *tölü 'hail' is a legitimate cognate of IE *del- 'rain, dew' and probably of FU *tal\(^{\text{\textdialed}}\)wå 'winter', in spite of its absence in all other branches of Altaic, and hence it must have existed in proto-Altaic. If a root is preserved in Tungusian (a phonologically conservative branch with *x- going back to N *k- and *g- only) and has extra-Altaic cognates in other Nostratic languages, it has much more than "a very little chance" of being proto-Altaic: Tungusian *kodd- 'to finish, stop' (a cognate of Dravidian *kǒṭo/*kott- 'end, summit, top', IE *kw\(^{\text{\textdialed}}\)e(:)d-/*kw\(^{\text{\textdialed}}\)o(:)d- 'sharp point', Semitic *\(\text{\textdialed}\)/kṭ\(^{\text{\textdialed}}\)w\(^{\text{\textdialed}}\)y\(~\) *kutt\(^{\text{\textdialed}}\) > Geez k\(^{\text{\textdialed}}\)awatto, k\(^{\text{\textdialed}}\)wawatto 'butt end of spear' etc.) is very likely to have existed in proto-Altaic, though we find no traces of this root in the other branches of Altaic.

Of course, at the initial stage of research of a possible genetic connection between some languages we are justifiably recommended to be careful with such "isolates" as the only argument for the common origin of language families. But later, when the genetic connection has been proved beyond reasonable doubt and we know the basic phonological correspondences between the languages in question, we may and must use the isolates (especially if they are rich enough in phonological information) to elucidate etymology of words.

I have already mentioned the preservation of phonological information as an important factor in evaluating attested words as sources of etymology. Words that preserve much phonological
information (e.g. Spanish tiempo 'time' — with all information of phonemes of Latin tempus, except for the final -us) are more important than those with little information (as French [tõ] spelled as temps). Words with loss of phonological information may go back to different alternative etymons (as French [tõ] going back to several Latin words: tempus 'time', tantum 'so much', tendit '[he] stretches' etc.) and hence cannot prove much. This linguistic factor is much more important than the mechanical factor of "isolatedness".

Starostin's statistical conclusion based on the principle of "isolatedness" and aimed at determining the taxonomic place of Hamito-Semitic (SNM 14 - 15) has no real value, because the principle of "isolatedness" is wrong.

§ 8.6. Etymological doublets. In some very interesting remarks of Alexander Vovin there is one theoretical postulate that cannot be accepted. For Vovin it is methodologically impossible that two different roots of a language go back to the same Nostratic etymon (cf. Vv. AEN 369). In my opinion, the postulate is wrong. Etymological doublets do exist in languages, if a root is found in different phonetic conditions (incl. phonetic influence of adjacent morphemes or different levels of stress), undergoes lexical attraction, analogy etc. — cf. English off and of, life [lajf] and live [liv], wife [wa+jf] and woman ['wu-man] / pl. women ['wi-man], French homme and on, Hebrew 'leb 'heart' and 'leb that. (both from */libab-um).

§ 8.7. External comparative evidence and "teleological reconstruction". On several occasions A. Vovin mentions "teleological reconstruction" as an illegitimate procedure (Vv. AEN 378, 382 - 3). By "teleological reconstruction" he means reconstruction of elements (in an intermediate proto-language) that cannot be proved by direct evidence of the descendant languages, but are suggested by external comparison. An example: in M *qoruβu 'film, cataract' I prefer the variant *qoruβu which is in regular correspondence with Tungusian, Kartvelian, HS and IE, though the attested M languages have lost the phonetic distinction between earlier *-β- and *-γ-. Another example is *K in proto-Tungusian *jιιKJ-kte 'berries'. The element *-kta/e is a suffix of nomina collectiva, but there is no direct evidence for the preceding *K. If the Altaic word goes back to N *dIkν 'edible cereals or fruit' (reflected in K *dIk- and in HS *dνk-), we have to expect in Tungusian *jιιKJ-kte > *jιk-te. I cannot share Vovin's attitude to external comparative evidence. The procedure labelled by him "teleological reconstruction" is well known in comparative linguistics.
and is quite legitimate. In the proto-Slavic noun *s¥n¥n. 'sleep, dream' there is no *p before *n, but we must suppose its existence in the prehistory of Slavic (and its subsequent loss due to the Slavic law of open syllables) on the external comparative evidence of other Indo-European languages: Greek ὑπνός, Old Indian svapnahì etc. In proto-Italic we reconstruct *pes-ni-s (> Latin pĕnis 'tail, penis'), though the preconsonantal *s has not been attested in any Italic language, but its presence (and subsequent loss due to phonetic laws) is suggested by the external comparative evidence of Old Indian pasas-, Greek pe1 ôß 'penis'. If a proto-language lost phonemes in certain environments (e.g. in consonant clusters) without leaving traces in descendant languages, we sometimes may suppose their former existence by analysing other cognate (especially ancient) languages ("sisters" of the proto-language). In reconstructing the history of languages we cannot afford neglecting evidence from any source.

§ 8.8. Trisyllabic etymons. In IS’s reconstruction most categorematic etymons (but not pronouns or grammatical morphemes) are disyllabic. But even IS recognized the existence of some N trisyllabic words: *K’awingV 'armpit' (IS I 344), *p’alıHma 'palm of hand' (IS III 93 –5) and probably *purčV(qV) ~ *pǔlēV(qV) 'flea' (IS II 99 –100). In this dictionary trisyllabic etyma are numerous. In my opinion, trisyllabic and even quadrisyllabic words (> roots) are not an exception, but one of the existing types of syllabic structure (⇔ DbT NJ 339). Hence I cannot accept the rejection of trisyllabic words as an argument against some of my reconstructions (cf. MichM no. 13 about *d{oÊ}gīHU 'fish' [= *d{oÊ}TgīHU in this dictionary]). I suppose that contraction of trisyllabic words into disyllabic is a common phenomenon in the later history (daughter-families of Nostratic) that explains the loss of * -rO T - of that N word (originally in an unstressed syllable?) in HS, IE and A. Compare similar phenomena in the history of many languages, such as the fate of Latin digitus, cubitum, calidus and frigidus in the Romance languages.

On details of the alphabetic arrangement of entries see our List of Nostratic entries and of Indo-European roots.

§ 10. Nostratic etyma and cross-references. The reconstructed Nostratic etyma (including in cross-references) are printed in bold script. They refer only to reconstructions either proposed or accepted by the present author in this dictionary (rather than to the books and papers quoted from other scholars).

If in same entry there are several cross-references to the same Nostratic etymon, its meaning is often defined only once. It means that if in a cross-reference a Nostratic etymon is mentioned without semantic definition, it must be understood that it has the same meaning as mentioned earlier (within the same entry). Whenever necessary, such a meaning is denoted by an anaphoric sign ‘⇑’.

§ 11. A note on reconstructions. If in a reconstruction of descending proto-languages the name of a family is followed by a name of a branch (e.g. D: SD) or a name of a branch is followed by that of a subbranch (e.g.: "S: CS", "FU [in FP]" etc., e.g., D: SD *tɔtɔ'[tɔ] 'point, nipple', FU: FP *kɔče v. 'crawl, clime, run'), it means that the word is attested in one branch of the family or in one subbranch of the primary branch only, but it is reconstructed on the pD, pS and pFU level (using formulas of sound changes for the respective family or primary branch as a whole). But if the reconstructed form is preceded by the name of a (sub)branch only (e.g. S *'yad- 'hand'), the reconstruction is based on rules and formulas of the respective (sub)branch only. For instance, EC *k̪ad̪h- ~ *k̪ud̪h- 'thorn' is not reconstructed on a pHS or a pC level, but rather on the East Cushitic one. This is true of all cases except the branches of S and FU: the reconstruction preceded by the abbreviations WS, CS, SS, SES, EthS, FP and FV are reconstructed on the pS or pFU (= pU) level.

§ 12. Was Nostratic a root-isolating or a stem-isolating language?

There remains a question: were all Nostratic words monomorphemic, or did some of them consist of two (or even more) morphemes?

We have no ready answer to that question. Here we can discuss two structural problems.

First, we can see that Nostratic words (except for monosyllabic grammatical particles and some pronouns) are polysyllabic. They consist of two, three and sometimes four syllables. In this respect they
do not resemble the known root-isolating languages, which are usually monosyllabic (as Chinese) or mono- and bi-syllabic (as Vietnamese). This fact seems to suggest that Nostratic is more likely to have been a stem-isolating language (with some bi-morphemic words), either at the final stage of its existence (that we are reconstructing) or more probably at an earlier stage of its history. But we cannot be sure about this, because we have not succeeded (so far) in identifying the constituent morphemes of Nostratic words. A very rare case of a presumably derived (or compound?) word is Nostratic *m a t r i V R V rainy season' (entry 1496), that is likely to be derived from (or compound with?) N *m a t r i V V 'moisture'.

Second, in many cases we reconstruct Nostratic words with optional root extensions (denoted as "+ext."). These words with extensions may be interpreted as bi-morphemic. But this is not the only possible interpretation. Such words with extensions may have been syntactic combinations of words. What we denote as extensions may actually have been unstressed words (bi- or even tri-syllabic words?) functioning as the second member of word combinations. These unstressed words have been reduced to one syllable (or even consonants without vowels) in the descendant lges, which caused widespread homonymy among these "extensions" with obliteration of their original meaning. Such phenomena are well known in many languages, especially in the history of Germanic languages, as well as in Slavic, Hungarian etc. Unfortunately we have no means for proper reconstruction of these unstressed words and their original meaning. If the extensions were unstressed words, our reconstructions of Nostratic words with extensions do not prove that there were bi-morphemic words in Nostratic.

§ 13. On transcription

H. Fleming wrote in his review of AD NM (AL XLI/3: 422): "The presentation of the ... etymologies is not user-friendly. An incredible blizzard of idiosyncratic symbols buries the basic data. ... One must fight one's way through several pages of explanatory notes for symbols that one forgets soon after... The reader is presumed to be as erudite as the author, and so one is confronted with forms written in Hebrew, Greek, Arabic, Russian, Old Church Slavonic etc. - but not in IPA".

I am going to justify my use of symbols and scripts. One cannot be equally friendly with all kinds of readers. Both NM and this dictionary are written mainly for those linguists who are interested in languages (shall we call them "Sprachforscher") rather than for "general linguists" who deal with the human language as a whole and not with particular languages and language families. More specifically, I write for historical linguists rather than for those who describe modern languages without reference to their history. It is easier for the Sprachforscher
(Orientalists, Slavicists) to recognize an Arabic, Hebrew, Armenian, Slavonic or Russian word written in their usual spelling rather than in IPA. Besides, the traditional spelling often provides us with etymological information lost in the actual pronunciation of the words. The Arabic verb *bana2* 'he built', if written phonetically, gives us no information of the root-final etymological consonant, which is preserved in traditional spelling (letters ُ, ِ and ی). But, taking into account the interest of those readers who are not Slavicists or Orientalists, I always accompany every non-Latin-based national spelling (other than Greek and modern Cyrillic) with its transcription or transliteration. As to Greek and modern Cyrillic scripts (for Russian etc.), any professional philologist is expected to know these two alphabets. If he does not, let him consult the *Encyclopedia Britannica* on his bookshelf (s.v. "Greek Language" and "Slavic Languages").

Now about IPA. This transcription system is almost never used in comparative and historical linguistics; it is usually absent in etymological and comparative dictionaries of any language families of Europe, Asia and Africa. This is not by chance. IPA has intrinsic drawbacks making its use unpractical and even impossible in reconstruction of the history of language families:

[1] Its basic principle: "one symbol for every phoneme (as far as possible)" is wrong and practically Europocentric (or rather French-English-Germano-centric). The above principle is the only reason to prefer ř to the analytical symbol ş, which is found in the spelling of Czech, Slovak, Croatian, Slovene, Lithuanian, Latvian and which is the usual traditional symbol in Semitic, Slavic, Finno-Ugric, Turkic, Mongolian, Caucasian etc. linguistics. It is often used in Cushitic and Chadic linguistics, including in Fleming's own papers. For the affricate Č IPA uses either the digraph ř (which is misleading, because Č is one consonant rather a consonant cluster and because in many languages [such as Russian and Polish] there is phonemic opposition Č ↔ ř) or the clumsy sign ř, instead of the generally understood Č (which is used both in practical spelling of many languages and in many kinds of traditional transcription). The principle "one symbol for every phoneme" is counter-productive because it ignores the systemic structure of phonology. In many parts of consonantism the analytic principle ("one symbol for one distinctive feature") is much more practical. Cf. my system of sibilant consonants:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>F r i c a t i v e s</th>
<th>A f f r i c a t e s</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Voiced</td>
<td>Voic-eless</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hissing</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Hissing-hushing (as in Kartvelian)  
Palatal  
Hushing  
Lateral

It has only 9 symbols for the whole system, it is easily learned and understood. IPA will have to use 20 or more different symbols: z, s, dz, ñ, z, s, dz, ź, ʝ, ʝy, ɣ, etc. Where do we see more "incredible blizzard"? What is more "idiosyncratic"?

IPA is unable to denote many phonemes existing in languages without inventing new symbols. In Twi there is a voiceless dental infralabialized sibilant, which is denoted in IPA by the symbol ų. But how should one denote the corresponding voiced sibilant (as in Jibbali)? In my system ų is denoted as ź, and its voiced counterpart as z. Without need for any special explanation of the symbol ź. If necessary, the corresponding affricates will naturally be denoted as c and C.

IPA may be used only if we know (or claim to know) the exact pronunciation of phonemes in a language. This is possible for modern languages. But what should we do with ancient languages, with reconstructed proto-languages, where the exact pronunciation is unknown? We do not know if Classical Greek σ was pronounced as s, ŝ or an apico-alveolar š (as in New Greek). What should we do if one language has different dialectal variants? How shall we transcribe the Arabic phoneme ç? In Cairo it is pronounced [g], in Bedouin and Iraqi Arabic [dzh], in Urban Syro-Palestinian and Maghrebine Arabic [ğ], in Sudanese Arabic as palatal [j] etc. (to use the IPA transcription). In this particular case of ç I have chosen to use a special super-dialectal transliteration symbol ě (and the symbol ě in super-dialectal transcription of Arabic). What shall we do with reconstructed words if we cannot be sure about some phonetic feature of the phoneme in question (e.g., we know that IE *s is a voiceless sibilant, but we cannot specify it as [s], [ʃ], [])). Historical and comparative linguistics has to cope with three kinds of uncertainties: (1) the phoneme is known, but its exact phonetic realization cannot be or has not been established, (2) there are different realizations of the same phoneme in different dialects of a language, so that we need a super-dialectal transcription (such as exists in traditional spelling of languages), (3) in some words or roots we cannot reconstruct some distinctive feature for a class of phonemes, so
that we need symbols for unspecified phonemes (e.g. unspecified voiced sibilant, unspecified laryngeal etc.).

I have tried to create a system of transcription which copes with all these problems. Since this is a unified transcription for several hundred languages (including those with a highly complicated system of sounds), it cannot be very simple. Therefore some users will find it not friendly enough. I am sorry about it, but nothing better can be done.

I have done my best in using basic elements of traditional transcriptions: the Orientalist Transcription, the Finno-Ugric Transcription, traditions of transcription of Altaic, Caucasian, Slavic and African languages, as well as IPA. Yes, I have used IPA in those parts of it which are good - especially in denoting vowels (symbols O, E, Ä, Ö).

Feci quod potui, faciant meliora potentes.

§ 13.1. On transliteration and traditional spelling. Data from written languages that use traditional script (other than Latin) are quoted in transliteration with the script a, b, c (except for Greek and some languages using modern Cyrillic script). Data from languages with traditional Romanized spelling are quoted as in the sources (with the script a, b, c). If a language has rival spelling systems, I have tried to use that of the most authoritative sources or that of standard dictionaries. For instance, for Anglo-Saxon ("Old English") I have used the spelling of Holthausen’s dictionary. In quoting Serbo-Croatian the Cyrillic and Roman national scripts indicate the Serbian vs. Croatian variants of their common language; if both variants are identical, the Roman script is used. If I quote words of those languages (mainly of Southern Europe and North Africa, such as Oscan and Umbrian) that are preserved both in their traditional script and in the Latin script, the latter is printed here with capital letters (e.g. Um ÚZÉ, ÖNSÉ 'in umero').

§ 14. On references. In this dictionary the references are indicated by abbreviations (explained in the Bibliography). I have preferred this system to the American system of referring to the used literature by names of scholars and data. I did it because my system spares more space: "P" (for the Indoeuropäisches etymologisches Wörterbuch by Pokorny) is shorter then "Pokorny 1959", "BK" is shorter than "Biberstein-Kazimirsky 1860", "Kln. SAH" is preferable to "Klingenheben 1927–1928". The more so for papers of collective authorship: "KRPS" is shorter than "Karaimsко-ruсskо-pol'skij slovar' 1974" or "Baskakov, Zaja czkowski and Szapsza (eds) 1974". I have used this system also for articles in reviews (though in some very rare cases, when the article was unaccessible to me at the moment of submitting this dictionary, I had to use the commonly used practice of quoting by the author’s name and abbreviation of the periodical).
§ 15. **On epochs and dialects of languages.** One of the serious problems in compiling a comparative dictionary is ascribing words to particular periods in the history of some languages and to particular dialects. For instance, J. Vendryes and J. Pokorny differ in periodization of the history of Irish. J. Vendryes’ s "irlandais ancien" includes both Old Irish *stricto sensu* (his "vieil irlandais") and Middle Irish (cf. Vn. A, p. IX), while other scholars (e.g. Pokorny) distinguish between these two stages. Many words included by Vendryes in his *Lexique étymologique de l’irlandais ancien* are labeled by Pokorny as Middle Irish. I have preferred to use Vendryes’ s (and Thurneysen’s) periodization and label both "vieil irlandais" and Middle Irish as OIr (Old Irish). Among words that are usually characterized as Old High German there are those belonging to the Upper German dialects ("oberdeutsch") rather than to High German ("hochdeutsch") *stricto sensu*. I have to follow this practice (in spite of its deficiency) except for cases when the difference between dialects is essential for the etymology, so that I sometimes have to use the abbreviation "OHG U" (i.e. Upper German dialects of OHG = "altoberdeutsch"). Let us hope that these problems will not jeopardize the understanding of the etymology and the history of words and roots. Another difficult case is that of the so-called "Chagatay language", a term used by different authors in different senses. When quoting Radloff, I used the label "Chg {Rl.}" wherever Radloff uses the language name "Dsch.", though in fact it is often applied to a later literary language of Turks (probably better named East Turki).

§ 16. **On infinitives and "pseudo-infinitives" in our vocabulary entries.** The pN etyma with verbal meaning are often written with the infinitive particle 'to'. It does not mean that the etyma in question are infinitives or verbal nouns. It is merely an artificial way of indicating that their lexical meaning is verbal.

But in registering the words of the descendant languages the same infinitive particle 'to' has its usual meaning. It is used with infinitives and similar verbal nominals (masdar, verbal noun etc.) only. With the Nenets verbs it is used for the indefinite gerund (непрідевленное деепричастная форма with the suffix -ѣ ~ -ѣ ~ -ѣ) that has, among its functions, one similar to the infinitive.

"Quasi-infinitives" appear also when the verbal meaning is discussed in general terms, without reference to a particular language (e.g. "valid if the primary meaning is 'to pick'", cf. entry 453a), as well as sometimes when we mention pIE (and pWIE) roots and pHS, pS or pB consonantal roots, while the English homonymy prevents us from describing the meaning without 'to' (as in the case of 'to fly', that has to be distinguished from 'fly' ['musca']). Similar quasi-infinitives appear also in quotations of etymological hypotheses of other scholars.
§ 17. On indicating the meaning of words and forms. If in an etymological entry the meaning of words and forms in a branch or sub-branch is indicated with the etymon (pCh, pB, pT etc.) only and not indicated with every one of the descending languages, it means that the descending languages have preserved the meaning of the proto-form. Cf., for instance, the entry 2141 (* * * * s s s s V V V V w w w w é é é é V V V V 'drink'), in which the meaning of the word in the Chadic languages is indicated for pCh only (Ch *√s₂wh v. 'drink') and not for every lge. of the Ch subfamily, meaning that the members of the Ch subfamily have preserved the meaning of pCh *√s₂wh.

CLASSIFICATION OF THE NOSTRATIC LANGUAGES

This is not a comprehensive classification of all Nostratic languages. For obvious reasons I have not found it necessary to include many of those modern or young languages which are irrelevant for long-range comparison because their stock of roots and affixes goes back entirely to well known and well described ancient or reconstructed langages. It was not necessary to include here such languages as Afrikaans, Sinhalese, or to give a comprehensive classification of all modern Indo-Aryan and West Iranian languages. On the other hand, even minor languages in families and sub-families without sufficient ancient linguistic documentaton are relevant for deep etymology and have been used in our etymological research. They are represented in this classification.

Names of primary families of languages (Indo-European, Hamito-Semitic, Uralic etc.) are printed in bold type italics. Names of secondary families of languages (such as Semitic, Berber, Finno-Ugrian, Anatolian Indo-European) are printed in italics.

Abbreviations: d. = dialect, ds = dialects, lge = language, lges = languages, sb. = subbranch (of a family or its branch), sd. = subdialect, p... (+ name of a family or subfamily) = proto-, pp... (+ name of a family or subfamily) = early proto- (early stage in the history of a proto-language).

I. IE = Indo-European:

ppIE = Early proto-Indo-European
I.1. NaIE = Narrow IE ("IE proper", subfamily including all IE languages except Hittite-Luwian):
   I.1.1. Ary (= IIr) = Aryan (Indo-Iranian):
       I.1.1.1. MtA = Mitannian Aryan (bhippological words and theonyms in Ht and Hurrite)
I.1.1.2. PAry = Pontic (Tauro-Pontic) Aryan (a branch of Aryan that remained in the region north of the Black Sea and preserved in place names; discovered by Trubachev, but misinterpreted by him as part of InA)

I.1.1.3. InA = Indo-Aryan:
Ass = Assamese
Bhr = Bihari
Bngl = Bengali
Gp = Gypsy; Gp A = Asiatic dls of Gp; Gp Eu = European dls of Gp
Hnd = Hindi; Hnd Bhj = Bhojpuri Hindi
Lhn = Lahnda
Mld = Maldivian
Mrt = Marathi
NInA = New Indo-Aryan lges
Npl = Nepali
OI = Old Indian: OI Sk = Sanskrit, OI BdSk = Buddhist Sanskrit, OI BHS = Buddhist Hybrid Sanskrit, OI ClSk = Classical Sanskrit, OI EpSk = Epic Sanskrit, OI ItSk = Late Sanskrit, OI Vd = Vedic, EpOI = Epigraphic Ols Indian
OMrt = Old Marathi
Ori = Oriya
Pali
pInA = proto-Indo-Aryan (reconstructed from InA lges)
Pnj - Punjabi
Prkr = Prakrit (Middle Indian)
Sin = Sindhi; dl.: Sin J = Jatki dialect
Sk = Sanskrit (= OI Sk)
Vd = Vedic (= OI Vd)

I.1.1.3.1. Drd = Dardic lges:
Khw = Khowar
Kls = Kalasha
Kshm = Kashmiri
Shina
Shm = Shumashti

I.1.1.4. Irn = Iranian:
Alan
Av = Avestan; variants: Av G = Gatha Avestan, YA = Young Avestan
Awr = Awroman
Bct = Bactrian
Blc = Balochi (Beluji)
CINPrs = Classical New Persian
ELrn = East Iranian (branch of the Irn family)
FarK = Farsi-Kabuli (= Dari)
GA = Gatha Avestan
Ish = Ishkashimi
KhS = Khotan Saka
Krd = Kurdish; dls: Krd K = Kurmanji (= Northern Kurmanji), Krd Sr = Sorani (Southern Kurmanji)
Luri
Med = Median
Mrln = Middle Iranian (cover name for several Irn lges)
MPrs = Middle Persian; MPrs T = Middle Persian of Turfan, MncMPrs = Manichaean Middle Persian
NPrs = New Persian, NPrs B = Bakhtiyar dl. of NPrs
MPrt T = Middle Parthian of Turfan
OPrs = Old Persian
Orm = Ormuri
Oss = Ossetic; dls: Oss D = Digor dl., Oss I = Iron dl.
Phl = Pehlevi, Pahlavi (Middle Persian)
Pmr = Pamir Iranian (common name of Ish, Shgn, Srk, Wx, Yzg,
Oroshori, Bartangi, Rushani and Khufi)
Prc = Parachi
Psh = Pashto, Afghani
Prs = Persian; MPrs Trf = Middle Persian of Turfan
Prt = Parthian
Psh = Pushtu, Pashto, Afghani
Saka
Sct = Scythian
Sgd = Sogdian; variants: BdhSgd = Sgd of the Buddhist texts, ChrSgd = Sgd of the Christian texts, Sgd M = Sgd of the texts of Mug, MncSgd = Sgd of the Manichaean texts, Sgd OL = Sgd of the Old Letters
Shgn = Shugnani
Srk = Sarikoli, Sariqoli (сарыкольский язык)
Tati
Tjk = Tajik
Xuri (Khuri, Chur) (a WIr dialect)
Xwr = Xwarezmic (Iranian)
Wx = Wakhi (ваханский язык)
Ydg = Yidga
Ygn = Yaghnobi
Yzg = Yazgulami
ZPhl = Zoroastrian Pehlevi
I.1.1.5. Nrs = Nuristani (Kafir) subgr.: 
Ash = Ashkun
Kati
Pra = Prasun
Wgl = Waigali
Wln = West Iranian (branch of the Irn family)
I.1.2. Gk = Greek; Gk Hl = Hellenistic Greek, EpGr = Epigraphic Greek; dls: Gk A = Attic, Gk AC = Arcado-Cypriote, Gk Ae = Aeolic, Gk Ar = Arcadian sdl., Gk Arg = sdl. of Argos, Gk B = Bœothian sdl., Gk Cp = Cyprian, Gk Cr = Cretan sdl., Gk Crc = Corcyrian (Cercyrian) sdl., Gk Crn
Introduction

= Corinthian sdl., Gk D = Doric, Gk Dl = Delphian sdl., Gk El = Elisan sdl.
of Gk D (Gk of Elis), Gk Ep = Epic Greek, Gk Epr = Epirotic sdl., Gk Hm =
Homeric Gk, Gk I = Ionic, Gk In = Greek of dialectal inscriptions, Gk L =
Lesbian sdl., Gk Lc = Laconian sdl., Gk Lr = Locrian sdl., Gk Mc =
Mycenaean, Gk OA = Old Attic, Gk P = Pamphilian sdl., Gk Ph = Phocæan
sdl., Gk R = Rhodian sdl. (sdl. of Rhodes), Gk Sr = Syracusan sdl., Gk Th
= Thessalian sdl.

MGk = Middle Greek (of the Roman and Byzantine periods)
NGk = New Greek; variants: NGk D = Dimotiki, NGk K = Katharevusa
I.1.3. Itc = Italic:
I.1.3.1. Latin-Faliscan:
Fls = Faliscan
L = Latin; dls: L Prn = Praenestian dl., L Ln = Lanuvian, L Sc = Sicilian L;
EpL = Epigraphic Latin
ltL = Late Latin (= proto-Romance)
MdL = Medieval Latin
OL = Old Latin (= ArcL, Archaic Latin), dl.: OL Pr = Old Latin of
Praenesta
VL = Vulgar Latin; dl.: VL Gl = Gaulish Latin
I.1.3.1. Rom = Romance languages:
AfR = Afro-Romance (a lge of L origin, surviving in North Africa up to
the 10th-11th c., according to Lewicki LRA)
Ctl = Catalan
Dlm = Dalmatian
Fr = French; dl.: Fr Lr = Lorrainese dl.
Frl. = Friulan (= RhR F)
Gsc = Gascon
It = Italian; dls and subdialects: Ab = It of Abruzzi, Cl = Calabrian, Lm
= Lombardian dls, Mdn = sdl. of Modena, Ml = Milanese, Np =
Neapolitan, P = Piemontese, Pv = sdl. of Piverone (Piemonte), Sr = sdl. of
Sora, STs = South Toscanian, Tr = Trentine (dl. of Trento), V = Venetian
MedRm = Macedo-Romanian
Occ = Occitanian (Modern Provençal); dl.: Occ Lm = Limousin dl.
(incl. Occ Cr = sdl. of the département de Creuse)
OIt = Old (Medieval) Italian; sdl.: OIt Ml = Old Milanese, OIt Pv = Old
Pavian (dialetto antico pavese), OIt V = Old (Medieval) Venetian
OFr = Old French
Port = Portuguese; Port Mrn = sdl. of Miranda
Prv = Provençal (Classical Provençal)
RhR = Rhaeto-Romance; dls: RhR F = Friulan, LE = Lower Engadin, RhR
Srm = Surmiran, RhR Srs = Sursilvan, RhR Sts = Sutsilvan, RhR TL =
South Tirol Ladin, RhR UE = Upper Engadin
Rm = Romanian
Sp = Spanish; Sp Mrg = Spanish of Maragateria
Srd = Sardinian; dls: Srd Cm = Campidanian, Srd L = Logudorian
I.1.3.2. OsUm = Osco-Umbrian:
Mrc = Marrucinian
Mrs = Marsian
Osc = Oscan
Pæl = Paelignian
Sbn = Sabine
Um = Umbrian
Vls = Volscian
I.1.4. Clt = Celtic:
Gl = Gaulish
CnC = Continental Celtic (cover name for Gl, CltI and some other Clt lges)
CltI = Celtiberian
I.1.4.1 Goidelic:
Ir = Irish
MIr = Middle Irish
Mx = Manx
NIr = New Irish
OgIr = Ogam Irish (archaic Irish in Ogamic inscriptions)
OIr = Old Irish (= Vendryes’s "irlandais ancien", i.e. including Middle Irish)
ScGl = Scottish Gaelic
I.1.4.2. Brtt = Brittonic (Brythonic) Celtic:
Br = Breton; dl.: Cr = dl. of the diocese of Cornouaille, L = dl. of Léon,
T = Trégorrois (diocese of Tréguier), V = dl. of Vannes
Crn = Cornish
MBr = Middle Breton
MW = Middle Welsh
OBrth = Old Brythonic
OBr = Old Breton
OCrn = Old Cornish
OW = Old Welsh
W = Welsh
I.1.5. Gmc = Germanic:
ORu = the language of the oldest Runic inscriptions
I.1.5.1. NrGmc (= Scn) = Scandinavian, North Germanic:
Dn = Danish
Far = Faroese
Gtl = Gotlandic (a dl. intermediate between Swedish and Danish)
Ic = Icelandic
Nlc = New Icelandic
NNr = New Norwegian (nynorsk)
Nr = Norwegian (BNr = bokmål; NNr = New Nr, i.e. nynorsk; Nr
\[\Delta = N\text{orwegian dls})
ODn = Old Danish
OGtn = Old Gutnish
ON = Old Norse; ON R = ON of the Runic inscriptions
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Description</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ONr</td>
<td>Old Norwegian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OSCn</td>
<td>Old Scandinavian</td>
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<tr>
<td>OSw</td>
<td>Old Swedish; OSw Ru = Old Swedish of Runic inscriptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OWN</td>
<td>Old West Norse</td>
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<tr>
<td>pScn</td>
<td>proto-Scandinavian (proto-North-Germanic)</td>
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<td>Sw</td>
<td>Swedish</td>
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<td>I.1.5.2.</td>
<td>East Germanic:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Brgn</td>
<td>Burgundian</td>
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<td>Gt</td>
<td>Gothic; dialect: Gt Cr = Crimean Gothic</td>
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<tr>
<td>I.1.5.3.</td>
<td>WGmc = West Germanic:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AS</td>
<td>Anglo-Saxon (= Old English); dl.: AS A = Anglian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dt</td>
<td>Dutch (= Netherlandic, Dutch-Flemish); variants: Dt Fl = Flemish, Dt N =</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dutch of the Netherlands; dl.: Dt G = Dutch dl. of Gelderland, Dt H = Dutch</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>of Holland, Dt Lm = dl. of Limburg.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Frs</td>
<td>Frisian</td>
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<tr>
<td>HG</td>
<td>High German (e.g., OHG, MHG, NHG)</td>
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<tr>
<td>LG</td>
<td>Low German (cp. MLG)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lngb</td>
<td>Langobardian</td>
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<tr>
<td>MDT</td>
<td>Middle Dutch</td>
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<tr>
<td>ME</td>
<td>Middle English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MHG</td>
<td>Middle High German; MHG U = Upper German dialects of MHG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MLG</td>
<td>Middle Low German</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MMG</td>
<td>Middle Middle German (Middel German dialects of MHG)</td>
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<tr>
<td>NE</td>
<td>New English, dl.: NE Ork = Orkney English, NE Sc = Scottish English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGr</td>
<td>New German (dl.s): NGr Al = Alemannic, NGr Als = Alsatian German (elsassisch), NGr B = Bavarian (Bayrisch), NGr EP = dl.s of East Prussia, NGr Gtn = dl. of Göttingen; NGr Hs = Hessisch (dl. of Hessen), NGr HsN = dl. of Hessen-Nassau, NGr M = Middle German dl.s, NGr NrF = North Franconian German, NGr Ö = Austrian sdls, NGr OP = NGr of East Prussia, NGr S = NUG = Southern (Upper) German dl.s (oberdeutsch), NGr Sb = Swabian German, NGr Sw = Swiss German, NGr Trl = Tirolean German, NGr WF = West Franconian German, NGr Wph = Westphalian German</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NHG</td>
<td>New High German</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OFrk</td>
<td>Old Franconian (= OHG F)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OHG</td>
<td>Old High German; OHG Al = Alemannic dl., OHG F = Franconian dl. (= OFrk), OHG U = Upper German dl. (oberdeutsch); OHG R = OHG of the Runic inscriptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OLF</td>
<td>Old Low Franconian (altniederfränkisch)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OMG</td>
<td>Old Middle German (in the terminology of Orel and Stolbova) OSlx = Old Saxon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OWGmc</td>
<td>Old West Germanic (preserved in proper names in L sources)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Yid = Yiddish; dls: Yid C = Central Yiddish (Poland), Yid NB = West Yiddish of the Netherlands and Belgium, Yid N = Northern Yiddish (Lithuania, Belorussia), Yid S = Southern Yiddish (the Ukraine, Rumania)

I.1.6.1. Blt = Baltic:

I.1.6.1.1. EBlt = East Baltic

Cur = Curonian

Lt = Lithuanian; dls: Lt A = Aukštaitian (High Lt, Aukštaitish) (with sbds: EA = East Aukštaitis, WA = West Aukštaitis; subsubdialect of EA: Lt U = sbdl. of Ukmerge), Lt D = Dzuki, Lt P = dls of former Prussian Lithuania, Lt Z = Zhemaitytian (Low Lt, Shamaitish, Samogitian; sdl.: Lt K = sbds of the area of Klaipeda [former Memel-Gebiet])

Ltv = Latvian; dls: Ltv Ltg = Latgalian, Ltv H = hochlettisch

I.1.6.1.2. Pru = Prussian

Ytv = Yatvingian (Яるのは Jessica), incl. the language of the supposedly Yatvigian glossarium described by Zinkievicius (Zink. LJZ).

I.1.6.2. Sl = Slavic:

BChS = Bulgarian Church Slavonic

Blg = Bulgarian

Blr = Belorussian

ChS = Church Slavonic

Cz = Czech; dls: Cz L = Lakh (laššký), Cz M = Moravian, Cz MS = Moravian-Slovak, Cz SEB = Southeast Bohemian (= Czech-Moravian) dls.

HLs = High Lusatian (High Sorbian)

Kshb = Kashubian

LLs = Low Lusatian (Low Sorbian)

MedS = Macedonian (a Slavic language)

MR = Middle Russian

OCrt = Old Croatian (a dialect of OSCr), OCrt K = Kajkav dls of OCr

OCS = Old Church Slavonic

OP = Old Polish

OR = Old Russian

OSCr = Old Serbo-Croatian

P = Polish

Plb = Polabian

R = Russian; dls: R Ar = sbds of the Arkhangelsk province (gubernija), R Dn = sbds of the Don region, R Kl = sbds of the Kaluga province (gubernija), R Ks = Kostroma sdl., R N = Novgorod sdl., R Ol = R of the former Olonets province, R Prm = subdialect(s) of the Perm province, R Psk = Pskov sdl., R Rz = R of the Ryazan region (province), R Rzhev dl., R S = Southern dls, R Sb = Siberian dls, R Sml = dls of the Smolensk region, R Tver = sbds of the Tver province, R Vlga = sbds of the Vologda region, R Vt = R of the Vyatka region, R W = Western dls

RChS = Russian Church Slavonic

Scr = Serbo-Croatian; variants: Scr Ch = Chakav dls, Scr Cr = Croatian, Scr K = Kajkav dls, Scr MN = Montenegro dls, Scr Sr = Serbian
Slk = Slovak; dialect: Slk MS = Moravian-Slovak (moravsko-slovenské nářečí)
Slovak
Slv = Slovene
Slvnz = Slovinzian (Slowinzisch, slowinski język, словинский язык)
SrChS = Serbian Church Slavonic
Uk = Ukrainian; dl.: Uk B = Bukovina dl., Uk P = Polesye (Пolesьe)

I.1.7. Thracian branch:
Al = Albanian; pAl = proto-Albanian; Al G = Geg, Al T = Tosk;
subdialects: A = Arbanasi Geg (Dalmatia), Ba = Barile Tosk, Be = Berat Tosk, Ç = Çamërian Tosk (Çamërisht), D = Geg of Dushman, Db = Geg of Dibër, Dr = Southern Geg of Durës, Elb = South Geg of Elbasan, F = Falconara Tosk (Italy), Fr = Tosk of Frashër, Gj = Labërian Tosk of Gjirokastër, Hm = Tosk of Himarë, Kr = Southern Geg of Krujë; Lb = Labërian Tosk (Labërisht), M = Malësian Geg, Mn = Mandres Tosk, Mt = Geg of Mat, Mz = Tosk of Myzeqe, OT = Southern Geg of Old Tiranë, P = Prishtinë Geg (Kosovo), Prm = Tosk of Përmet, SG = Southern Geg, Sf = Sofiko Tosk, Sh = Shkodër Geg, Sl = Salamis Tosk (Greece), SM = San Marzano Tosk (Italy), U = Ukrainian Tosk, V = Vaccarizzo Tosk (Italy), Z = Zadrimë Geg

MAl = Middle Albanian (up to the 17th c.)
DM = Daco-Moesian (= Dacian)
StAl, StAl T = Modern Standard Al (based mainly on Tosk)
StAl G = Standard Geg Al
Thrc = Thracian

I.1.8. Arm = Armenian (= Old Armenian, Grabar)
ClaArm = Classical Old Armenian
eOArm = Early Old Armenian
NArm = New Armenian
NEArm = New East Armenian
NWArm = New West Armenian

I.1.9. Mcd = Macedonian (an ancient IE language)

I.1.10. Ilr = Illyrian (Ige or Iges)

I.1.11. Msp = Messapic

I.1.12. Pnn = Pannonian

I.1.13. Phr = Phrygian

NPhr = New Phrygian

OPhr = Old Phrygian (= {BajO}  старофригийский)

I.1.14. Tc = Tocharian Iges: Tc A, Tc B

I.1.15. Vn = Venetic

I.2. AnIE = Anatolian Indo-European:
Car = Carian
Ht = Hittite
Ld = Lydian
LyCIs = Lycaonic-Isaurian
Pal = Palaic
I.2.1 SAn = South Anatolian Indo-European:
   HrLw = Hieroglyphic Luwian (= Hieroglyphic Hittite)
   Lc = Lycian (= Lycian A); dl.: Lc M = Milyan (= Lycian B)
   Lw = Luwian (= Cuneiform Luwian)
I.2 or 1.1. Pls = "Pelasgian" (Pelastian) of IE origin (pre-Greek IE language[s] of Greece) = Philistine

II. HS = Hamito-Semitic (Afroasiatic):
   II.1.S = Semitic:
      II.1.1.WS = West Semitic:
      II.1.1.1. CS = Central Semitic:
      II.1.1.1.1. NWS = Northwest Semitic (a controversial taxonomic unity)
      II.1.1.1.1.1. Cn = Canaanite (Macro-Canaanite):
      II.1.1.1.1.1.1. SCn = Canaanite proper (South Canaanite):
         Amn = Ammonite
      BHb = Biblical Hebrew; variants: BHb B [or BHb (BV)] = BHb with Babylonian vocalization, BHb T [or BHb (TV)] = BHb with Tiberian traditional (masoretic) vocalization
      Ed = Edomite
      Hb = Hebrew
      ltHb = Late Hebrew (second half of the 1st mill. A.D.); ltHb B = Babylonian ltHb, ltHb J = Jerusalemitc ("Palestinian") ltHb, ltHb T = Tiberian (Northern) ltHb
      M`b = Moabite
      MdHb = Medieval Hebrew
      NHb = New Hebrew (19th - 20th c.)
      OHb = Old Hebrew (the language of the 2nd and the 1st mill. BCE, underlying BHb and EpHb)
      OCn (= OSCn) = Old South Canaanite; OCn Sn = Cn of the Old Sinaitic inscriptions, OCn TA = Cn of the Tell-el-Amarna letters
      PBHb = Post-Biblical Hebrew (e.g. Ben-Sirah, apocryphical literature of the 2nd and the 1st c. BCE)
      Ph = Phoenician; dl.: Ph By = Byblian, Ph OBy = Old Byblian, OPh = Old Phoenician
      Pun = Punic
      SmH = Samaritan Hebrew
      II.1.1.1.1.2. Ug = Ugaritic
      II.1.1.1.1.3. Amr = Amorite
      II.1.1.1.2. McAram = Macro-Aramaic:
      II.1.1.1.2.1. Aram = Aramaic:
         BA = Biblical Aramaic; BA (BV) or BA (BbV) = Biblical Aramaic with Babylonian vocalization; BA (TV) = Biblical Aramaic with Tiberian vocalization
         BzJPA = Jewish Palestinian Aramaic of the Byzantine period
         ChrPA = Christian Palestinian Aramaic ("Syro-Palestinian")
      DSA = Aramaic in Demotic script
Htr = Hatra (an ancient Aramaic dialect)
IA = Imperial Aramaic, Official Aramaic; IA F = Aramaic words in Frahang-i-Pahlavik (glossaries of Aramaic heterograms in Phl)
JA = Jewish Aramaic (common name for JEA and JPA)
JEAn = Jewish East Aramaic (Babylonian Aramaic), JEA Bb = JEA with Babylonian vocalization
JPA = Jewish Palestinian Aramaic (Kutscher’s “Galilean Aramaic”); JPA B = JPA of the Byzantine period, JPA P = JPA with Palestinian vocalization
Md = Mandaic (incl. ClMd [= Classical Mandaic] and NMd [New Mandaic, Modern spoken Mandaic])
MNA = Mlahso Neo-Aramaic
Nbt = Nabataean
NSr = Neo-Syriac
OA = Old Aramaic
PA = Palestinian Aramaic (incl. JPA, JPA B, ChrPA)
Plm = Palmyrene
SmA = Samaritan Aramaic
Sr = Syriac
TA = Turoyo Neo-Aramaic; dls: TA M = TAr of Midin, TA Mt = TAr of Midyat
Ww = the dialect of the "Waw" inscription (belonging to Aramaic?)
II.1.1.1.2.2. DA = the language of the Deir-Alla inscription
II.1.1.1.2.3. Yd = Ya’udic, Samalian
II.1.1.1.2. Macro-Arabic:
Ar = Arabic; dls: Ar AT = Arabic of Algeria and Tunisia, Ar CA = Central African dl., Ar CB = dl. of the coastal part of Batina (Northern Oman), Ar ChCS = Arabic dl. of Chad and Central Sudan, Ar ChrNG = Christian fallah dl. of northern Galilea, Ar Cr = Cairo Arabic, Ar D = Dathina dl., Ar Df = Dofar (Zfar) dl., Ar Eg = Egyptian dl., Ar G = Gulf Arabic (the United Arab Emirates, Qatar and Bahrain), Ar Hdr = Hadramauti dl., Ar Hm = Hamata Arabic, Ar IB = dl. of the inland part of Batina, Ar Ir = Iraqi Arabic, Ar Lb = Arabic of Libya, Ar Mgr = Maghrib Arabic (North Africa), Ar Mrc = Moroccan dls, Ar Ng = Ar. of Nigeria, Ar NY = North Yemenite dls (including sds: Ar NY K = k-subdialect, Ar NY SE = Southeastern sds, Ar NY S = Southern sds, Ar NY T = Tihamah sds.), Ar O = Oman Arabic, Ar OY = Old Yemenite Arabic of 10th - 11th c. AD ([in al-Hamdâni’s and Nashwân’s works], incl. Himyarite loans), Ar P = Palestinian Arabic dls, Ar SA = South Arabian dls (Yemen, southern Oman), Ar Sd = Sudanese dls, Ar SL = Syro-Libanese dl., Ar Sp = Arabic of Spain (8th - 15th c.), Ar Y = Yemenite dls of Ar, Ar Zhl = Arabic of Zahle (Lebanon); dialect groups: Ar B = Bedouin Arabic, Ar F = Fallah (rural) Arabic, Ar Ur = Urban Arabic; PsClAr = Post-Classical Literary Arabic
Lh = Lihiyanic
Malt = Maltese
OAr = Old Arabic; dialect areas: OWAr = OAr H = Old West Arabic (Hijaz dls), OEAr = Old East Arabic; dls: A = Asad, ‘A = Al-'Aliyah, An = Ansar, Hd = Hudhail, Hm = Himyarite OAr, Hr = dl. of Hauran, Hz = Hawazin, Md = dl. of Medinah, Mk = dl. of Mekka, Nj = Nejd dls, O = ‘Oman, Q = Qais, Qd = Quda‘ah, Qr = Quraysh, R = Rabi‘ah, Sl = Sulaim, T = Tamim, Tj = Tajji’, TR = Taim ar-Ribab, Y = Yemenite
ONA = Old North Arabian, Frühnordarabisch (Lh, Sf, Tmd, Hs’)
Sf = Safaitic
Tmd = Thamudic
II.1.1.2. SS = South Semitic:
II.1.1.2.1. SWS = Southwestern Semitic:
II.1.1.2.1.1. ESA = Epigraphic South Arabian (= OSA)
OSA = Old South Arabian (= ESA); dls (labeled as separate languages):
Hadrami, Minaean, Qataianian, Sabaic (Sabaean).
Hdr = Hadrami
Hmr = Himyarite (up to the 10th-11th c. CE)
Mn = Minaean, Minaic ( Mansion ), Madhabian
Qtb = Qataianian
Sb = Sabaic, Sabaic (dialect of OSA)
II.1.1.2.1.1 or II.1.1.1.2. OYmn = Old Yemenite, common name for words of Himyarite and of the Old West Arabic dialect of Yemen (10th and early 11th c.), the distinction between them being unfeasible today
II.1.1.2.1.2. EthS = Ethiosemitic:
Eth = Ethiopian (= EthS)
Amh = Amharic
Arg = Argobba
Gft = Gafat
Grg = Gurage; Gurage languages: Grg Ch = Chaha, Grg Ez = Ezha, Grg Ed = Endegeñ, Grg En = Ennemor, Grg Go = Gogot, Grg Gt = Gyeto, Grg Mh = Muher, Grg Ms = Masqan, Grg Sl = Selti, Grg So = Soddo, Grg Wl = Wolane, Grg Z = Zway
Gz = Ge‘ez
Har = Harari
OEth = Old Ethiopian (a spoken lge., which was the basis of Ge‘ez)
Tgr = Tigre
Tgy = Tigray, Tigrinya; dl.: Tgy H = Hamasien Tigray
II.1.1.2.2. SES = Southeast Semitic (= the ancestor of the Modern South Arabian languages: Mh, Hrs, Jb, Hbt, Bth, Sq):
SEA = Southeast Arabian (common name for Modern South Arabian: Mh, Hrs, Jb, Hbt, Bth, Sq)
Bth = Bathari
Hbt = Hobyot
Hrs = Harsusi
\(Jb = \text{Jibbali} \) (G\text{"ebi"el\(, \) \(\text{Sa\'hri}, \) \(\text{\'Shawri}\)), dls: \(C = \text{Central}, \) \(E = \text{Eastern}, \) \(EM = \text{Mehrizing sdl. of Jb E}\)

\(Mh = \text{Mehri (Mahri)}; \) dls: \(Mh \) \(D = \text{Mh of Dhofar}, \) \(Mh \) \(J = \text{Eastern Mh of Jadib and Hawf}, \) \(Mh \) \(Ng = \text{Nagd Mehri}, \) \(Mh \) \(Q = \text{Qishn Mehri}, \) \(Mh \) \(QB = \text{dl. of Qishn bedouins}, \) \(Mh \) \(SW = \text{Southwestern Mehri}\)

\(Sq = \text{Soqotri}; \) dls: \(Sq \) \(M = \text{Mountain (Central) dl.}, \) \(Sq \) \(N = \text{Northern dl.}\)

(incl. \(Sq \) \(HS = \text{\'Hadiboh-Suq}, \) \(Sq \) \(S = \text{Southern dl.}\)

\(\text{II.1.2. ES = East Semitic:}\)

\(Ak = \text{Akkadian}; \) dls: \(Ak \) \(A = \text{Assyrian}, \) \(Ak \) \(B = \text{Babylonian}, \) \(Ak \) \(LB = \text{Late Babylonian (spB)}, \) \(Ak \) \(MA = \text{Middle Assyrian (nA)}, \) \(Ak \) \(MB = \text{Middle Babylonian (nB)}, \) \(Ak \) \(NA = \text{Neo-Assyrian (nA)}, \) \(Ak \) \(NB = \text{Neo-Babylonian (nB)}, \) \(Ak \) \(OA = \text{Old Assyrian (aA)}, \) \(Ak \) \(OB = \text{Old Babylonian (aB)}, \) \(Ak \) \(StB = \text{Standard Babylonian (used in Assyria of the Neo-Assyrian period)}, \) \(Ak \) \(YB = \text{Young Babylonian (jB)}, \) \(O Ak = \text{Old Akkadian (aAK)}, \) \(Ak \) \(Bg = \text{Ak of the Boghazköy texts}, \) \(Ak \) \(M = \text{Ak of Mari}, \) \(Ak \) \(Nz = \text{Ak of Nuzi}, \) \(Ak \) \(RS = \text{Ak of Ras-Shamra tablets}.\)

\(Eb = \text{Eblaic, Eblaite}\)

\(\text{II.2. LbB = \text{Libyco-Berber} (Old Libyan + Berber + Guanche)}\)

\(= \text{ливийско-гуанческие языки}:\)

\(\text{II.2.1. B = Berber:}\)

\(\text{II.2.1.1. NrB = North Berber:}\)

\(ASgr = \text{Ayt-Seghrushen (a dl. of Tmz, treated here as a separate lge)}\)

\(Assh = \text{Ashasha (a B dialect)}\)

\(Awj = \text{Awjila}\)

\(BHlm (= \text{Hlm}) = \text{Ben-H\'alima or H\'alima (dialect of Ulad-Ben-H\'alima, a }\)

\(B \) "Zenatian" dialect of Central Morocco)

\(BMn = \text{Beni-Menacer}\)

\(BMs = \text{Beni-Messaud}\)

\(BSlh = \text{Beni-Salah}\)

\(BSn = \text{Beni-S\'nus}\)

\(Btw = \text{Bettiwa}\)

\(CA = \text{Berber of Central Algeria}\)

\(CM = \text{Berber of Central Morocco}\)

\(Dbl = \text{Dyebayli (a dl. of Nfs?)}\)

\(Dmn = \text{Demnat}\)

\(Fgg = \text{Figuig, Figig}\)

\(Gd = \text{Ghadamsi}\)

\(Grr = \text{Gurara (Berber dl. of the "ksurs" [villages near Timinun and Badrian])}\)

\(Hrw = \text{Harawa (a B dialect)}\)

\(Iz = \text{Izayan (a B dialect)}\)

\(Izd = \text{Ayt-Izdeg (a dialect of Tmz, treated here as a separate lge)}\)

\(Izn = \text{Beni-Iznacen}\)

\(Jrb = \text{Berber of Jerba}\)
Kb = Kabyle; dls: Kb AX = Ayt-Khalfun, Kb AZ = Ayt-Ziyan, Kb Ir = Irjen, Kb GK = dls of Grande Kabylie, Kb M = At Mangellat (= Kb {Dl.}), Kb PK = dls of Petite Kabylie, Kb Z = Zwawa

Mtm = Matmata (Mat ,māṭa )
Mz = Mzab, Mozabite
NdA = Ndir-Abes
Nfs = Nefusi
Ntf = Ntifa (a B dialect)
Rf = Rif Berber dls; dls and sdls: Rf A = Beni-Amret, Rf B = Boqqoya (Iboqqoyen), Rf Bt = Bettiwa, Rf K = Kebdana (Ikhbdhanen), Rf Q = Gela’ia (Iqr’ien), Rf S’ = Beni-S’id (Aith-Sghidh), Rf T = Beni-Tuzin (Aith-Thuzin), Rf Tf = Beni-Itteft (Aith-Itteftth), Rf Tm = Beni-Temsanan (Aith-Themsanan), Rf U = Beni-Uriaghel (Aith-Uriaghen), Rf Wr = Rif Beni-Waryaghel

Shl = Tashelhit, Shl T = Tashelhit of Tazerwalt (Tashelhit of Semlal [Destaing’s "Tachelhit du Sous"] is treated here as a separate lge, see below Sll)
Shnw = Shenua, Shenwa
Shw = Shawiya
Si = Siwa
Skn = Sokna
Sll (Shl Sm) = Tashelhit of Semlal (Destaing’s "Tachelhit du Sous")
Snd = Sened (= Zenatia de Qalaât es-Sened, a B dialect)
SrSn = Srair Senhazha (Senhaja de Sraïr); dl.: SrSn Gz = Taghzut, SrSn

AA = Aït-Ahmad
Tgn = Tuggana
Tmm = Timimun (Gurara of Timimun, a Zenetic Berber language)
Tmz = Tamazight; dls: AA = Ayt-‘Ayyash, AH = Ayt-Hadiddu, AM = Ayt

Myill, AN = Ayt-Ndhir, AS = Ayt-Sadden, Iz = Iziyan; ASgr (Ayt Seghrushen) and AIzd (Ayt-Izdeg) are treated as separate lges

Wrg = Wargla, Wargli
Wrs = Warsenis (le Zenatia de l'Ouarsenis)
ZAS = Berber dialect of Zayan and Ayt-Sgugu
Zgw = Zaghawa
Zkara
Zkr = Ida-u-Zikri
Zmr = Zemmur (a B dialect)
Zn = Zayan
Zwr = Zwara (a B dialect)

II.2.1.2. SB = South Berber:
Adgg = Twareg of Adghagh
Ah = Twareg of Ahaggar
ETwl = Eastern Tawellemmet
Gh = Ghat
Tdq = Tadghaq (a B dialect of Adghagh of Ifoghas)
Tnsl = Taneslemt
Ttq = Taïtoq
Tw = Twareg; dls: Tw D = Tadraq, Tw M = dialects of Mali, Tw Ng =
dialects of Niger (TwL, Ty), Tw U = Tudalt, Tw Ud = dls spoken in Udalan
(NE Burkina-Faso, i.e. Tw D and Tw U); Ah, ETwl, Ty and Tnsl are treated
here as separate lgs
TwL = Tawellemet (common name of ETwl and WTwl)
Ty, Tyr = Tayert, Tayrt, Twareg of Air (Ayr); sdl.: Ty KU = Kel-Ui
WTwl = Western Tawellemmet
II.2.1.3. WB = West Berber:
Zng = Zenaga (tıξ̣ı̥̈̇igious $\text{\ö̈̈}g̣ı̥̈\text{\ö̈̈}\text{\ö̈̈}a$
II.2.2. Lb = Libyan:
ONum = Old Numidian (= Old East Numidian, Old Libyan)
II.2.3. Gnc = Guanche (dialect cluster); dls: Fv = Fuenteventura, G = La
Gomera, GC = Gran Canaria, Hr = Hierro (Ferro), L = Lanzarote, P = La
Palma, T = Tenerife
II.3. Egyptian branch:
Cpt = Coptic; OCpt = Old Coptic, dls: Cpt A = Akhmimic; Cpt F =
Fayumic; Cpt B = Bohairic; Cpt L = Lycopolitan (Sub-Akhmimic), Cpt P =
the dialect of the Books of Proverbs, Cpt S = Sahidic;
DEg = Demotic Egyptian
Eg = Egyptian; stages and variants: Am = Eg of Amarna Texts, BD = Eg
of the Book of the Dead ("Totb."); CT = Coffin Texts (Sargtexte), D =
Demotic, Eth = Eg of Ethiopian Inscriptions, G = Eg of the Greek-Roman
times, LL = Eg of the late and latest (mostly religious) literature (the "Lit.
Sp." of EG); Md = Eg of Medical Texts, MK = Middle Kingdom Eg, MKL =
Eg of Middle Kingdom literature, MP = Eg of the Mathematical papyri, NK =
Eg of the New Kingdom, NKL = New Kingdom literature, OK = Old
Kingdom Eg, P = Pyramid Texts, RNK = Eg of the ritual texts of the New
Kingdom, RT = Eg of the Royal Tombs of Thebae, St = Saite Dynasty
(26th Dynasty), Wc = Eg of the Westcar papyrus (spoken Middle Eg), Eg
XVIII = Eg of the 18th Dynasty, Eg XIX = Eg of the 19th Dynasty, Eg XX = Eg
of the 20th Dynasty, Eg XXII = Eg of the 22nd Dynasty; L = Late Egyptian
("Sp." of EG), M = Middle Eg, N = New Egyptian ("Nä." of EG), O = Old Eg,
fOK = from Old Kingdom on, fP = from the Pyramid Texts on, fMK =
from Middle Kingdom on, fNK = from New Kingdom on, fO = from Eg O
on, fM = from Eg M on, fMd = from Eg Md on, fN = from Eg N on, fXVIII =
from the 18th Dynasty on (in other cases, if a word is present in
different periods of the history, the most ancient is mentioned)
II.4. C = Cushitic:
II.4.1. Bj = Beja; dls: Bj A = Amar’ar, Bj B = Bishari, Bj Br = Bj of
Barka, Bj Hd = Hadendawa, Bj N = the northern dialect (acc. to
Reinisch), Bj R = the dialect described by Reinisch (Halanga?), Bj Rp =
the dialect described by Roper
II.4.2. Ag = Agaw (Central Cushitic):
Aw = Awngi; dls: Aw D = Dangela, Aw K = Kwakera
Bln = Bilin
Dmb = Dembiya
Dmt = Damot
Km = Kemant
Knfl = Kunfäl (a language of the Agaw subgroup)
Q = Qwara, Kwara; dialect: Q F = {Flad} 'Falashan'
Xm = Xamir (Hamir, Xamtanga, Khamtanga); dls: Xm \{R\} = Hamir, Xm
\{Ap.\} = Khamtanga, Xm T = CR’s Hamta, Xm K = Kaïïña, Xm Wg = Xamir of Wag
II.4.3. EC = East Cushitic:
II.4.3.1. LEC = Lowland East Cushitic:
II.4.3.1.1. AfS = Afar-Saho Iges
Af = Afar; dls: Af N = Northern dl., Af S = Southern dl., Af Tjr = Tajurah dl.
Sa = Saho; dls: Sa HA = Sa of High Assaorta, Sa I = Irob
II.4.3.1.2. SLEC = Southern Lowland East Cushitic (= Omo-Tana):
II.4.3.1.2.1. Arr = Arbore
Dsn = Dasenech (= Geleba)
Elm = Elmolo
II.4.3.1.2.2. Sam = Sam, Macro-Somali (subfamily of LEC):
pSam = proto-Sam \{Heine\}
Bn = Boni; dls: Bn Ba = Baddey, Bn Bi = Bireri, Bn Bl = Bala; Bn Bu = Bura, Bn J = Jara, Bn K = Kili, Bn Kj = Kije, Bn Sa = Safare
Jd = Jiddu (considered a dialect of Sml)
Rn = Rendille
pSml = proto-Somali \{Lamberti\}
II.4.3.1.2.3. Bs = Baiso
II.4.3.1.3. McOr = Macro-Oromo (Oromoid):
II.4.3.1.3.1. Or = Oromo; dls: Or B = Borana, Or BI = Isiolo sdl. of Or B, Or Brr = Barareta, Or Gj = Guji dl., Or H = Harar dl., Or O = Orma, Or M = Macha, Or S = Southern dls, Or T = Tulama, Or Wt = Wata, Or Wl = Wälläga; Or AM = Afan Monyo (Karakara) sdl. of Or O
II.4.3.1.3.2. KG = Konso-Gidole:
Bss = Bussa

Introduction
Di = Dirasha (dı̀rĩ̀ʂə)
Gato
Gdl = Gidole (Dirayta)
Kns = Konso
Mos = Mossiya
Msl = Mashile (a dialect of the Konso-Geleba subgr.)
Turo
II.4.3.2. Dl = Dullay dialect cluster (= "Werizoid"): 
Cm = Tsamako, Tsamay, Sa makko
Dbs = Dobase
Dihina
Gaba
Gln = Gollango
Grs = Gorrose (a dialect of the Dullay dialect continuum)
Gwd = Gawwada, dl.: Gwd D = Gawwada Dalpena
Hr = Harso
II.4.3.3. Ya = Yaku (= Yaaku, Mogogodo)
II.4.3.4. HEC = Highland East Cushitic:
Alb = Alaba
Brj = Burji
Ged = Gede’o (= Darasa)
Hd = Hadi(y)a; Hd Lb = Libido dl.
Kmb = Kambatta
Qbn = Qabenna
Sd = Sidamo; dl.: Sd Hb = Sidamo of Habila
Tmbr = Tembaro
II.4.3.5. Dhl = Dahalo (belongs either to EC or to SC)
II.4.4. SC = South Cushitic
II.4.4.1. Rt = Rift (subgr. of South Cushitic)
II.4.4.1.1. WRt = West Rift (subgr. of Rift within South Cushitic)
Alg = Alagwa
Brn = Burunge
Grw = Gorowa
Irq = Iraqw
II.4.4.1.2. ERt = East Rift
Asa
Kz = Kwadza, Ngomvia
II.4.4.1.3. Mb = Mbugu, Ma’a (a Bantu language with many SC loans)
II.4.5. ? Klk = the Kuliak languages:
Ik = Ik (= Teuso), a Kuliak language
Ny = Nyang’i (= Nyangiya), a Kuliak language
So = So (= Tepeth, Tepes), a Kuliak language
II.5. Om = Omotic:
II.5.1. NrOm = North Omotic (= Kefa-Gimoian subgr. of WOm lges in FIB NSL 47)
II.5.1.1. Gng = Gonga (a subsubgr. of NOm lges):
Amuru = Amuru, Amurru
Anf = Anfillo (Southern Mao, after Grotanelli)
Gjb = Gojjebi
Kf = Kaffa
Mch = Mocha (Shekko)
Mnj (one of the sources/components of Kf, according to Fl. MEH)
Shn = Shinashsha (Bworo), dl.: Shn D = Dangur Shinashsha
II.5.1.2. Omt = Ometo (a cluster of dlslanguages) (when unspecified
[Zs, Wl etc.], Omt {Moreno} is meant)
Bdt = Badditu, Baddito, Koyra
Bsk = Basketo (an Omotic language)
Cha = Chara
Cnc = C’ancha Ometo
COmt = Central Ometo (cover name for several dialects, incl. Gf)
Dc = Dache (an Ometo dialect)
Dk = Doka (an Ometo dialect)
Drz = Dorze-Jo, Dorze (a dialect of the Ometo cluster)
Dwr = Dawro (Kullo), a dialect of the Ometo cluster
Dz = Doze (an Omotic dialect within the Ometo dialect cluster)
Gm = Gamo, Gamu (a dialect of the Ometo cluster)
Gdc = Gidicho (NOmt)
Gemu (an Ometo lge., related to Gf)
Gf = Gofa (an Ometo language)
Gnj = Ganjule (= Ganjawle, a dialect of East Ometo)
Hrr = Haruro
Kcm = Kachama (= Gatsama, a dialect of Ometo)
Krt = Koorete (= Amaroo)
Male
Malo
Oyda
Wl = Wolaytta (an Ometo lge), Wolamo
Zl = Zala
Zrg = Zergulla (a dialect of Ometo)
Zs = Zayse (a dialect of Ometo)
II.5.1.3. Ym = Yemsa (Janjero)
II.5.1.4. Gmr = Gimirra:
Bnc = Bench (Gimirra-Bench, Benesho)
She
II.5.1.5. Ma = Mao (a NrOm dialect cluster) (when it is not specified
[BMa, HzMa etc.], Mao {Grotanelli} is meant)
BMa = Bambes(h)i Mao (= Bambassi)
DMa = Diddesa Mao
GaMa = Ganza Mao
GeMa = Gebsi Mao
HzMa = Hozo Mao
MdMa = Madegi Mao
NrMa = Northern Mao
Sz = Sezo Mao (Seze), Sz1 and Sz 2 = two subdialects of Sezo
II.5.2. Dzd = Dizoid (a subgroup of NOm languages = Maji subgr. of
WOm in FlB NSL 47):
Mj = Maji (= Dizi, an Omotic language), d: DJ = Dizi-Jeba
Na = Na’o (Nayi) (a Dizoid language)
Shk = Shako (a Dizoid language, = AY’s and Fl.’s Sheko)
II.5.3. SOm = South Omotic, Aroid (= Ari-Banna, = EOm of FlB NSL
47):
Ari = Ari (a SOm language); dls: Ari B = Bako (Baka), Ari G = Galila,
Ari J = Ari-Jinka, Ari U = Ubamer
ArJ = Ari-Jinka (dialect of Ari)
Bako = Bako (= Ari B)
Dm = Dime
Hm = Hamer (Hamar); dls: Hm B = Hamar-Ban(n)a, Hm K = Karo
(Kara)
II.6. Ch = Chadic:
II.6.1. WCh = West Chadic:
II.6.1.1. HAB = Hausa-Angas-Bolewa (Hangbole):
II.6.1.1.1. Hausa gr.:
Gw = Gwandara; dls: Gw Cn = Chanchara dl. (Arabishi), Gw G = Gitata
dl., Gw K = Karshi dl., Gw Kr = Koro dl. (Gwagwa), Gw Nm = Nimbia dl.,
Gw T = Toni dl. (Garaku)
Hs = Hausa; StHs = Standard Hausa; dls: Hs B = Bausanchi (Bauchi
dl.), Hs D = Dauranchi (Daura dl.), Hs Dm = Damagaranchi
(Damagaram dl.), Hs G = Gobiranchi (Gobir dl.), Hs Hd = Hadejia, Hs K =
Kananchi (Kano dl.), Hs Kc = Katsinanchi (Katsina dl.), Hs Kt =
Katagum, Hs Skt = Sakkwataanchi (Sokoto dl.), Hs Z = Zazzaganchi (Zaria
dl.)
II.6.1.1.2. AG = Angas-Goemay (Angas-Sura):
Ang = Angas; dls: Ang H = High Angas, Ang K = Kabwir dl..
Cp = Chip
Gmy = Goemay, Ankwe
Kfr = Kofyar; dialect: Kfr M = Mernyang (= Merniang, Mirriam)
Mnt = Montol
Mpn = Mupun
Su = Sura
Tal
Ywm = Yiwom (= Gerka)
II.6.1.1.3. BT = Bole-Tangale gr.:
Bele
Bl = Bolewa, Bolanchi, Bole; dialect: BLF = Bolewa of Fika {Meek}
Dr = Dera, Kanakuru
Gera
Glm = Galembi
Grm = Geruma
Kpt = Kupto
Krf = Kirfi, Kirifi
Krkr = Karekare
Kwm = Kwami
Maha
Ngm = Ngamo
Pr = Pero
Tng = Tangale; dialect: Tng B = Biliri dl.
II.6.1.2. Ron lges:
Bks = Bokkos
Btr = Butura
Chal = Challa
Df = Daffo, DfB = Daffo and Butura
Fy = Fyer
Klr = Kulere
Sha
Tmbs = Tambas
II.6.1.3. NrBc = North Bauchi:
Cg = Tsagu
Dir = Diri
Jmb = Jimbin
Kry = Kariya, Kariyanchi
Mbr = Mburku, Mburkanchi
My = Miya, Miyanchi
P' = Pa’a, Pa’ananchi
Sir = Siryanchi, Siri
Wrj = Warji
II.6.1.4. SBc = South Bauchi:
Bbr = Bubburè
Bg = Boghom (Burrum)
BG = Bu-gàlàmbu
Bot = Bot, Boot (a South Bauchi language)
Brw = Barawa
Buli
Ds = Dass; dls: Ds B = Bodli (Zumbul), Ds Bn = Bandas (Dur), Ds D = Dïkshi; Dwat and Wangday are treated as languages
Dw = Dwat (Dwot, Zodi), a dialect of Dass treated as a language
Gj = Geji; dls: Gj B = Bu (Zaranda), Gj G = Geji proper (Gyanzi), Gj Mg = Migang (Bolu, Pelu)
Grn = Guruntum; dls: Grn G = Guruntum proper, Grn Mb = Mbaru
Jm = Jimi
Kir = Kir; dls: Kir K = Kir (Kiir), Kir L = Lar (Balar), Kir Mn = Mansi (Mangas)
Plc = Polchi; dls: Plc B = Barang (Baram, Dir = Baram Dutse), Plc Ny = Nyamzax (Langas) and Lundur, Plc P = Polchi proper (Posï)
Sy = Saya (Seya, Sayanchi) dialect cluster (belonging to Zar); dls: Sy B = Bot (Boot), Sy Žk = Zakshi, Sy Z = Zari
Tala; dls: Tala L = Lungu (Tala), Tala Sh = Sho (Ju), Tala Z = Zangwal (Sor, Zangwal of Zungur)
Tule
Wnd = Wangday (a dialect of Dass)
Zar = Zar (Zaar, Sigidi); dls: Zar GL = Zar of Gambar-Lere, Zar K = Zar of Kal, Zar L = Zar of Lusa, Sy = Saya (see above s.v.)
Zem = Zem (Zeem); dls: Zem Ch = Chari, Zem D = Dokshi (Lushi), Zem Z = Zem proper; Tule is treated as a language
Zul (Dira, Diri)

II.6.1.5. NgzB = Ngizim-Bade group of languages:
Bd = Bade
Du = Duwai
Ngz = Ngizim

II.6.2. CCh = Central Chadic:
II.6.2.1. McTr = Macro-Tera (subbranch):
Bk = Boka
G’nd = Ga’anda
Gb = Gabin
Hw = Hwona (Hona)
Jr = Jara
Pdl = Pidlimti
Tr = Terra
II.6.2.2. BM = Bura-Margi subbranch:
Bu = Bura, BuP = Bura Pele
Cb = Chibak
Hld = Hildi
Klb = Kilba (H‰ba)
Mrg = Margi; Mrg L = Margi of Lasa {Meek}, Mrg M = Margi of Minthla {Meek}; Mrg P = Margi Putai; Mrg Pl = Plain Margi {Meek}
Ngx = Ngwaxi (Ngwakhi, Ngwahyi)
Wmd = Wamdiu, Wamdiu Margi
WMr = West Margi
II.6.2.3. McHigi = Macro-Higi (Higi subbranch of CCh):
FlG = Fali Gili
FK = Fali Kiria, Fali of Kiria
Higi (cluster of dls)
Hg… = Higi … (dialect cluster); dls: HgB = Higi Baza, HgF = Higi Futu; HgG = Higi Ghye; HgHm = Higi Humsi {Meek}; HgK = Higi Kamale (= Kps); HgMd = Higi Moda {Meek}; HgMk = Higi Makulu {Meek}; HgNk = Higi Nkafa; HgSn = Higi Sinna {Meek}; HgWl = Higi Wula {Meek}
Kps = Kapsiki (= Higi Kamale)
II.6.2.4. BB = Bata-Bachama subbranch:
Bcm = Bachama
Bt = Bata
BtG = Bata-Garua
BtD = Bata-Demsa
BtM = Bata Malabu
BtZ = Bata Zumo
FIB = Fali of Bwagira
FIJ = Fali of Jilbu
FIM = Fali of Muchella
Gude (Cheke)
Gudu
Holma
Mln = Mwulyen (= BtZ?)
Nz = Nzangi
II.6.2.5. Lmn = Lamang; dls: Lmn Hd = Hidkala, Hitkalanchi, Lmn Vz =
Vizik. Lmn A = Alataghwa
II.6.2.6. McMdr = Macro-Mandara (Mandara subbranch):
Dgh = Dghwede, Duxwide, Zeghvana
Gdf = Guduf
Glv = Glavda
Gmrg = Gamergu
Gv = Gava
Mdr = Mandara (Wandala); dialect: Mdr Mr = Mora
Ngs = Ngweshe (= Gvoko, Gboko, Glanda?)
Nkc = Nakatsa
Pdk = Padokwo, Paduko
II.6.2.7. Suk = Sukur
II.6.2.8. McMtk = Macro-Matakam = Matakam subbranch:
Gzg = Giziga; dls: Gzg D = Giziga Dogba, Gzg Mj = Giziga Mijivin, Gzg
Mt = Muturua
Hrz = Hurza
Mada
Mbk = Mboku
Mf = Mafa
MfG = Mofu-Gudur; dialect: MfG M = Mokong
MfM = Mofu-Meri
Mkt = Muktile, Muktele
Mlk = Moloko
Mofu
Mtk = Matakam
Myn = Muyang
pMM = proto-Mafa-Mada
Vm = Vame
Zlg = Zulgo
II.6.2.9. McDb = Macro-Daba, Daba subbranch:
Db = Daba; dls: Db H = Daba-Hina, Db K = Kola (treated as a separate
Ige)
Kola
Msy = Musgoy

II.6.2.10. Gdr = Gidar

II.6.2.11. McKtk = Macro-Kotoko = Kotoko subbranch:
Bdm = Buduma (Yedina)
Glfs = Gulfei
Ktk = Kotoko; dls: Ktk Af = Affade, Ktk Kl = Klesem, Ktk Ks = Kuseri,
Ktk Mk = Makeri
Lgn = Logone; dialect: Lgn M = Mandague
Ngl = Ngala

II.6.2.12. McMsg = Macro-Musgu = Musgu subbranch:
Bld = Baldamu
Mbara
Msg = Musgu; Msg G = Musgu Girvidik (= Munjuk), Msg Ng = Musgu
Ngilemong, Msg P = Musgum-Pus (= Munjuk de Pouss); Mulwi is treated
as a separate language
Msks = Muskum; Msks {Lk.} = Lukas’s "Muzgum-Stadt" (Lk. ZSS 142
Mlw = Mulwi (= Vulum, Mogrum, a dl. of Msg)

II.6.2.13. McMs = Macro-Masa = Masa subbranch:
Azm = Azumeyna (Banana-Marba)
Bana {Lukas ZSS}
Bnns = Banana
BnnMs = Banana-Mouseye {ChL, Lk. ZSS}
Lame
LamPs = Lame-Peve
Ms = Masa
Msms = Misme
Zm = Zime
ZmsB = Zime-Batna
ZmsDs = Zime-Dari

II.6.3. ECh = East Chadic:

II.6.3.1. KwK = Kwang-Kera subbranch:
Kwn = Kwang (Modgel); dl.: Kwn M = Mobu
Ke = Kera

II.6.3.2. Lai = Lele-Kabalay subbranch:
Drm = Lukas’s "Dormo"
Gabri = Lukas’s "Gabri", Bentons "Gabri = Chire"
Kbl = Kabalay (Lukas’s "Kaba")
Ll = Lele
Nng = Lukas’s "Nangire"
Tbn = Tobanga

II.6.3.3. McSmr = Macro-Sumray = Sumray subbranch:
Nd = Ndam; dialect: Nd D = Ndam Dik
Smr = Sumray, Somray (Sibine); dls: Smr G = Gabri, Gaberi (recorded
by GD [DLOuCh 292–301] and by AF and Nacht. [Lk. ZSS 86–8])
Tmks = Tumak

II.6.3.4. McSkr = Macro-Sokoro, Sokoro subbranch:
Skr = Sokoro
Mw = Mawa
Bar = Barein
II.6.3.5. McDng = Macro-Dangla (Dangla group, Dangla-Migama)
Dng = Dangla, Dangaleat (a common denomination for West Dangla
and EDng)
EDng = East Dangla (treated here as a separate lge)
Bdy = Bidiya
Mgm = Migama (Jonkor)
WDng = West Dangla
II.6.3.6. Mkl = Mokilko, Mokulo
II.6.3.7. McMu = Macro-Mubi (Mubi subbranch):
Brg = Birgit
Jg = Jegu
Kjk = Kajakse
Kjr = Kujarke
Mjl = Minjile
Mu = Mubi

III. K = Kartuelian:
III.1. GZ = Georgian-Zan:
III.1.1. OG = Old Georgian; dls: OG H = the dialect represented in the
Haemeti texts, OG X = the dialect of the Xanmeti texts
MG = Middle Georgian (12th – 16th centuries) (Shota Rustaveli,
Kartulis cxovreba etc.)
eNG = Early New Georgian (17th – 18th c.) (Sulhan-Saba Orbeliani’s
dictionary)
G = NG = (New) Georgian; dls: GA = Ajarian (= Acharuli) G, GF =
Fereydan (= Pereidnuli) G, GM = Gudamaqar G, GR (and G G) =
Gurian G, GA = High Ajarian G, GI = Imeretian (Imeruli) G (sdls: HI =
High Imeretian, LI = Low Imeretian), LM = Imerkhan (Imerxeuli) G, G
Ing = Ingilo G, G J = Javakh (Javxuri) G, GK = Kartlian G (incl. GRX =
Aragya Georgian sdl. [Aragvis xebis kartluri]), G KV = Kakhketian
(Kaxuri) G, GKzq = Kiziqian subd. of G Kx, GL = Lechkhumian
(Lechxumuri) G, GM = Mokhevian (Moxeuri) G, GM = Mrskhetian
(Mesxuri) G, GMt = Mtiulian G, GMt = Mtashetian (Mtashhuri)
sdl., GP = Pshavian G, GR = Rachian (Rachuli) G, GT = Tushian G, GTI =
Tianetian (Tianuri) G, GTUA = Upper Ajarian, GX = Khevsur (Xevsuruli);
a period: eNG = Early New Georgian (17th c., as registered by Sulshan-
Saba Orbeliani)
III.1.2. Zan languages:
Lz = Laz (Chan); dls: Lz A = Atinuri, Lz AR = Arxaburi, Arkaburi
(архавский), Lz Art = Artashenian, Lz Ch = Chxaletian (чхальский
говор), Lz V = Vicuri, Lz VAr = Vicur-Arxaburi, Lz X = Xopuri
Mg = Megrelian; dls: Mg SmZ = Samurzakan-Zugdidian, Mg Sn = Senakian; Mg BM = Bandza-Martvil sdl. of Mg Sn, Mg Z = Zugdidian sdl. of Mg SmZ
OZn = Old Zan

IV. U = Uralic:
IV.1. FU = Finno-Ugrian (= Fenno-Ugrian)
IV.1.1. FP = Finno-Permian,
IV.1.1.1. FV = Finno-Volgaic
IV.1.1.1.1. FL = Finno-Lappish
IV.1.1.1.1.1. BF = Balto-Finnic
Es = Estonian; dilects: Es N = Northern dl., Es S = Southern dl., Es SVl = sdl. of Southern Viljandimaa, Es V = Võru dl.
F = Finnish; dls: F H = Häme dl., F MNB = Middle- and North-Bothnian dls (keski- ja pohjoispohjalaiset murteet), F N = Northern dls (Peräpohjolan murteet, hinterbottnische Dialekte), F SB = South Bothnian (eteläpohjalainen), F SE = Southeastern dls, F Sv = Savo dls, F SW = Southwestern, F U = dls of Nyland (Uusimaa) (incl. F I = Ittis sdl.);
eF = Early Finnish (16th -18th c.)
Ing = Ingrian (ижорский язык); dls: Ing Hv = Hevaha dl., Ing O = Oredzh dl., Ing Sk = Soikkola dl.
Krl = Karelian; dls: Krl A = Aunus (Olones Krl, livvin kieli), Krl K = Karjala(inen), Krl KA = {SKES} karjala-aunus; Krl Ld = Lude (lyydiläismurteet), Krl Tv = Tver Karelian (sd. of Krl K)
Lv = Livonian; dls: Lv E = Eastern, Lv W = Western, Lv I = Ira sdl., Lv Slc = Salaca sdl.
Vo = Votic, восточный язык, vatja, wotisch
Vp = Veps

IV.1.1.1.2. Chr = Cheremis; dls: Chr B = Chr of Birsk; Chr Ch = Chr of Cheboksarä; Chr E = Eastern Chr dls; Chr H = High Chr (= Hill Chr, горнo-мaрийскiй); Chr K = Chr of Kosmodemyansk (sdl. of Chr H); Chr L = Low Chr (= Meadow Chr, лугого-мaрийскiй) (today StChr L is officially labelled "Meadow-Eastern, лугово-вoстoчный мaрийскiй", but is actually based on Chr L); Chr M = Chr of Malmïzh; Chr NW = Northwestern Chr.; Chr P = Cheremis of the former Perm province; Chr U = Cheremis of Urzhum; Chr UF (= Chr E UF) = Cheremis of the former Ufa province; Chr V = Chr of Vetluga; Chr Y = Chr of Yaransk; Chr YO = Cheremis of Yoshkar-Ola (Carevokokshaysk); Chr YU = Chr of Yaransk and Urzhum

IV.1.1.1.3. Mr = Mordvin languages;
eMr = Early Mordvin (18th c., according to SJRN)
Er = Erzya Mordvin; sdlls: A = Alatïr sdl. (the area of the river Алaтырь), BI = sdl. of Bolshoye Ignatovo, Iv = Ivancevo sdl., Kal = Kalyayevo sdl., LP = Lower Pyana sdl., Trb = Torbeyevo (former Kazhkïtka) sdl.
Mk = Moksha Mordvin; dls: P = Mk of the former Penza province
pMr = proto-Mordvin
OPrm = Old Permian (древнеpermский язык)
Prmk = Permyak; Prmk In = Inva sdl. (инyвeнскiй гoвop), Prmk K = Kochevo sdl. (кочeвскiй гoвop), Prmk N = Northern dl., Prmk Zz = dl. of the Zyzdincï (зyздинскiй диалект)
pZ = proto-Ziryene (proto-Komi) (ancerstor of Z, Prmk and Yz)
Vt = Votyak; dls: Vt C = Central Votyak (среднiй диалект), Vt N = Northern Votyak, Vt S = Southern Votyak, Vt SW = Southwestern Votyak; subdialects: Vt B = Beserman Vt, Vt G = Glazov sdl., Vt Ks = Koså sdl. (of Vt N), Vt Kz = Vt of the former Kazan province, Vt M = Malmïzh sdl., Vt MU = Malmïzh-Urzhum sdl., Vt Sh = Shoshma subdialect of Vt SW, Vt Sl = Slobodskoy sdl. (district of Slobodskoy, Vyatka oblast), Vt Sr = Sarapul subd., Vt Sm = Vt. of the former Samara.
province, Vt Tl = Tilovay sdl. of Vt C, Vt Uf = Vt. of the former Ufa province, Vt Ur = Ursigurt subdialect of Vt SW, Vt Y = Yelabuga sdl.

Yz = Yazvian, Yaz’va dialect (in the Prm subbranch of FU) = КОМИ-ЯЗЫЧИНСКИЙ ДИАЛЕКТ


IV 1.2. Ur = Ugric

IV.1.2.1. ObU = Ob-Ugric

Os = Ostyak; dls and dialect areas: Os Ag = Agan sdl. (of Os Sr), Os B = Beryozovo sdl. (of Os O), Os Cng = Cingala sdl. (of Os I), Os D = Demyanka dl., Os E = Eastern dialect area, Os I = Irtysh dls (collective denomination), Os K = Konda dl., Os Km = dl. of Kaminskoye, Os Kr = dl. of Krasnoyarskie, Os Ks = Koshelevsk sdl. (of Os I), Os Kz = Kazim dl., Os LD = Lower Demyanka dl. (= DT), Os Lk = Likrisovskoye dl., Os Lk = Lower Konda sdl., Os MY = Maliy Yugan dl., Os N = northern dialect area, Os Nz = Nizyam dl., Os O = Obdorsk (Salehard) dl., Os Pim = Pim (Pim) dl. (sdl. of Os Sr), Os Pt = Pitlyar dl. (sdl. of Os N), Os Sg = Sogom dl., Os Sh = Sherkali dl. (= Middle Ob dl.), Os Shr = Shurishkar dl., Os Sl = Salim dl., Os Sn = Sinya dl., Os Sr = Surgut dl., Os Ty = Tymyugan dl., Os UA = Ust-Agan dl., Os UD = Upper Demyanka dl. (= DN), Os Uy = Ust-Yugan dl., Os V = Vakh dl., Os VK = Verkh-Kalimsk dl.; Os Vrt = Vartovskoye dl., Os Vy = Vasyugan dl., Os Y = Yugan dl. (sdl. of Os Sr), Os Z = Zavadniye (Zavodinskiye) dl.

OVg = Old Vogul (18th c.); dls: OVg E = Eastern, OVg N = Northern, OVg S = Southern, OVg W = Western; sdls: OVg E TM = a sdl. (of OVg E) labelled by Honti as "TM", OVg I = Ia sdl. (of OVg W [?]), OVg L = Lyalya sdl. (of OVg W [?]), OVg N Ber = Berezovo (OVg N; three variants: OVg N BerG, OVg N BerO and OVg BerK), OVg N B and OVg N Chd = sdls (of OVg N) labelled by L. Honti as "B" and "Cd", OVg N NSs = Northern Sosva sdl. (OVg N), OVg N SoG = a sdl. of OVg N labelled by Honti as "SOG", OVg N SoO = a sdl. of OVg N labelled by Honti as "SOO", OVg S Chus = Chusovaya sdl. (of OVg N; two variants: OVg S ChusO and OVg S ChusM), OVg S Kg = Kungur sdl. (of OVg S), OVg S SSs = Southern Sosva sdl. (OVg S), OVg S Tg = Tagil sdl. (OVg S), OVg S Tr = Tura sdl. (OVg S), OVg S Vt = Verhoturye (Верхотурье) sdl. (OVg S), OVg Str = a sdl. (of OVg W [?]) labelled by Honti as "Str", OVg Tb = a sdl. (of OVg E or [less plausibly] OVg S?) labelled by Honti as "Tob" (= Tobol?), OVg W P = Pelimskoye sdl. (OVg W), OVg W Sol = Solikamsk sdl. (OVg W), OVg W UsU = Ust-Ulsuy (Усть-Ульянов) sdl. (OVg W) of the 19th c. (cf. Kann AWD); the sigilla "B", "SOG", "SOO", "Str", "Tob" and "TM" (used by
Honti after J. Gulya) remain enigmatic because their source (Gulya’s manuscript paper "Altwogulische Dialekte") has not yet been published and has not been available to the present writer; the queries "[?]" belong to Honti.

Vg = Vogul; dialectal areas: Vg E (= Vg K) = Eastern (Konda) Vogul (incl. dls: Vg LK = Lower Konda dl., Vg MK = Middle Konda dl., Vg UK = Upper Konda dl., Vg MO = Middle Ob [Sherkal] dl., Vg Yk = Yukonda dl.), Vg N = Northern Vogul dialect area (incl. Vg UL = Upper Lozva dl., Vg Ss = Sosva dl., Vg Sg = Sigva dl.), Vg S = Southern Vogul (Vg T = Tavda dl., Vg TCh = sdl. Chandirî of the Tavda dl., Vg TG = sdl. Gorodok of the Tavda dl., Vg TY = sdl. Yanîchkova of the Tavda dl.), Vg W = Western Vogul (incl. Vg LL = Lower Lozva dl., Vg ML = Middle Lozva dl., Vg NV = North Vagilsk dl. [sds: Vg NVK = sdl. of the village Kama, Vg NVZ = Zaozërnaja sdl.], Vg P = Pelimka dl., Vg SV = South Vagilsk dl., Vg V = Vagilsk dl.), Vg W = Western Vogul dialect area

IV 1.2.2. Hg = Hungarian; dl.: Hg S = South Hungarian (sdl.: Hg O = Ormányság sdl.)

IV.2. Sm = Samoyed

IV.2.1. NrSm = North Samoyed subgroup

Ne = Nenets; dls: Ne F = Forest Nenets (sds: Ne F K = Konda, Ne F KS = Kiselevskaya, Ne F L = Lyamin, Ne F Ny = Nyalina), Ne T = Tundra Nenets (sdl.: Ne BZ = Bol’shaja Zemlja, ssdl.: Ne Sd = Ne BZ registered in the area of the Syaida river), Ne Kn = Kanin ssdl., Ne O = Obdorsk (Salehard) ssdl., Ne Ym = Yamal ssdl.)

Ng = Nganasan (Tavgi)

En = Enets; dls: En B = Baikha dl. (Bay); En K = Karasino dl.; En M = the dl. of Mangazeya (18th c.); En T = Enets of Turukhan region; En Tn = Tundra dl. (HL); En X = Khantai (XÎNTAIKA) dl. (Somatu, Madu)

Yr = Yurak (an extinct lge akin to Ne and En)


IV.2.3. Kms = Kamassian

Koyb = Koybal (a Samoyed language, actually a dialect of Kms)

IV.2.4. Mt = Mator (= Mator-Taygi-Karagas); dls: Mt T = Taigi, Mt M = Mator (Motor) proper, Mt K = Karagas; Mt A = Abakan (a Sayan Samoyed dialect or a conglomerate of data mostly of Mt origin, after Msr. and Strl.)

IV.3. Y = Yukagir; Y = Yukagir language group
OY = Old Yukagir; dls: Ch = Chuvan, K = Kolîma, O = Omok, NW = Northwestern Y (Ust-Yansk)
Y = Yukagir; dls: Y K = Kolîma Yukagir (Jochelson’s Upper Kolîma Y), Y T = Tundra Yukagir

**U. A = Altaic**

Hun = Hunnic (Hsiung-nu)
V.1. T = Turkic
ppT = Early proto-Turkic
V.1.1. NaT = Narrow Turkic, Common Turkic (the proto-language of all T languages except Bulghar and Chuvash)
V.1.1.0. OT = Old Turkic; dls (after Clauson and other authors): OT O = Orkhon dl., OT Og = Old Oghuz, OT OY = Orkhon and Yenisey dialect(s) (Kök-Türkisch), OT Qp = Old Qipchaq, OT QU = Qarakhanid Uyghur (Xakani), OT Tü = Türkü, OT U = Old Uyghur, OT Xk = Xà-kāni; OT Y = Yenisey dialect
MT = Middle Turkic
MU = Middle Uyghur (a dl. of MT)
V.1.1.1. Og = Oghuz (= Southwest Turkic)
‘AQ = ‘Ali-Qurchi Turkic (a SOg dialect, to the south of Arak, Iran)
Az = Azeri; dls: Az Erz = Erzerum dl., Az Mgn = Mughan sdl., Az Nx = Nukha dl., Az Qb = Quba dl., Az Qz = Qazakh dl., Az Shm = Shamakhî dl., Az Sl = Salyan dl. (сальянский диалект), Az Tbr = Tebriz dl.
Afsh = Afshar
AfshN = SOg of Afshar-e Nanakchi (near Kabul)
FA = Firuz-Abad Turkic (a SOg dialect, Iran)
FX = SOg of Qal’aye Farhad-Xan (to the NE of Kermanshah, Iran)
Ggz = Gagauz
HAS = SOg of Hoseyn-Abad-e Sarmashad (near Kazerun, Iran)
MOg = Middle Oghuz; dl.: MOg Tkm = Türkmen dl. of MOg ("Old Türkmen")
MOsm = Middle Osman Turkic
MT Tkm = Türkmäni Middle Turkic (a dl. of MOg)
NEXT = Northeastern Khorasan Turkic (dialect cluster); dls: G = Gujgi, J = Jonk, L = Langar, M = Mareshk
NWXT = Northwestern Khorasan Turkic (dialect cluster); dls: A = Asadli, B = Bojnurd, ShT = Sheykh-Teymur
NEXT = Northern Khorasan Turkic (dialect cluster); dls: D1 = Dara-Gaz 1, D2 = Dara-Gaz 2, Dg = Dougha’i, L = Lotf-abad, Q = Quchan, Shi = Shirwan, Shu = Shurak, Ze = Zeyarat, Zo = Zourum
OOSm = Old Osman Turkic
Osm = Osman Turkic
Prdm = Paradomba Turkic (a SOg dl., to the west of Borujin, Iran)
Qrw = Qorwa Turkic, SOg of Qorwa (to the NE of Kermanshah, Iran)
SA = Soleyman-Abad Turkic (a SOg dialect, Iran)
SEXT = Southeastern Khorasan Turkic (dialect cluster); dls: ChS = Charam-Sarjam, K = Kalat, R = Ruh-abad, XO = Kharwe-'Olya
Shhr = Shahrak Turkic (a SOg dialect, to the east of Shahre-e Kord, Iran)
Slr = Salar; dls: Slr A = Slr of Altiyuli, Slr X = Slr of Khanbakh, Slr U = Slr of Ujirem, Slr UI = Slr of Ullaghil
Snqr = Sonqor Turkic (a SOg dialect, to the NE of Kermanshah, Iran)
SOg = Southern Oghuz dls
SWXT = Southwestern Khorasan Turkic (dialect cluster); dls: H = Hokm-abad, J = Joghatay, PK = Pir-Komaj, QB = Qara-Bagh, SA = Soltan-abad
Tk = Turkish; dls and sdls: Tk An = Anatolian dls, Tk Çr = Çorum sdl., Tk Er = Erzurum sdl., Tk Iç = Içel sdl., Tk Ist = Istanbul sdl., Tk Kn = Konya sdl., Tk Qrpp = Qarapapaq (Karapapak) dl., Tk Rh = Tk of the Rhodope Mountains, Tk WAn = Tk of Western Anatolia
Tkm = Turkoman (Türkmen); dls: Tkm NC = North Caucasian
Turkoman (туркмениский говор Ставрополья), NY = North Yomud dl.
Xlj = Xalaj, Khalaj (acc. to Shch.'s convincing hyp., Xlj is an Og lge.)
XT = Khorasan Turkic (a collective name for NEXT, NWXT, NXT, SEXT and SWXT)
XwT = Xwarezmic Turkic
V.1.1.2. Qïpchaq (= Northwest Turkic) lges:
Blq = Balqar
Brb = Baraba (= STt B); sdl.: Brb Tk Tarmakül sdl.
Bsh = Bashkir (Bashqort)
Cmn = Cumanic (= MQp Cmn)
CrTt = Crimean Tatar
Kr = Karaite (Karaim); dls: Kr Cr = Crimean dl., Kr G = Galich dl., Kr L = Luck (Лук) dl., Kr T = Trakai (Troki) dl.
MQp = Middle Qïpchaq; variations: MQp A = Armeno-Qïpchaq, MQp Cmn = Cumanic (of the Codex Cumanicus), MQp Mm = Mamluq-Qïpchaq (Egyptian Qïpchaq)
MsTt = Mishär Tatar
Nog = Noghay; dls: Nog A = Aqnoghay, Nog P = Noghay proper, Nog Q = Qaranoghay
Qmq = Qumīq
Qt = Qipchaq
Qq = Qaraqalpaq; Qq X = Ramstedt’s "Chagatay of Xiwa (Хива)"
QrB = Qarachay-Balqar
Qzq = Qazaq
SbTt = Siberian Tatar; dls: SbTt B = Baraba (= Brb), SbTt Ichk = Ichkina dialect (dl. of the Ichkina river, Southwestern Siberia), SbTt TI = Tobol-Irtish dialect (incl: SbTt Tb = Tobol Tatar [= TbTt], SbTt Bkl = Baykalovo subsubd., SbTt Kk = Kükrände ssdl. [= Cheburga subsubdialect of TbTt], SbTt Ltm = Laytaman ssdl., SbTt Tr = Tara sdl., SbTt Tv = Tevriz Tt, TbTt = Tobol Tatar [= SbTt Tb]), SbTt Tö = Tömen
Tt (тюменский дл.), SbTt Tom = Tomsk dialect (incl.: SbTt EuCh = Eushta-Chat sdl., SbTt Ql = Qalmaq, SbTt OCh = Orsk Chat, орский подговор чатов)
VTt = Volga Tatar (= Kazan Tatar); dialects: VTt K = Christian Tatar (крышенский), VTt Ks = Kasîmov dl. (касымовский), VTt W = Western dl., VTt M = Middle Tatar dl., VTt E = Eastern dl.; subdialects: VTt H = Highland sdl. of VTt M (= тау ягы сейлемләре, говоры нагорной стороны Татарстана), VTt I = Ichkina sdl. of VTt M (и́чкинскій говор) in West Siberia, VTt Mn = Menzelya sdl. of VTt M (мензелинскій говор), VTt Smb = Simbirsk sdl., VTt TYK = Christian Highland Tatar sdl. (тау ягы керешәннәре сәйләше = подбережинский говор), VTt TYT = Tarkhan sdl. of Highland Tatar (тау ягы, тархан сәйлеме = тарханский говор), VTt U = Ural Tatar (говор уральских татар)
V.1.1.3. QrgA = Qırğız-Altay languages (Central-Eastern Turkic):
Alt = Altay-Kizhi; StAlt = горно-алтайский, ойротский
Ln = Lobnor Turkic
Qmn = Qumanda, Kumanda Tatar
QK = Lebed' Tatar, Quu-Kizhi (Chalan, язык лебединских татар)
Qrg = Qırğız; Qrg S = Southern dls of Qrg; Qrg T = Talas dl.
StAlt = Standard Altay-Kizhi (горно-алтайский, ойротский)
Tb = Tuba (диалект черневых татар, туба-кижи)
Tln = Telengit (Таләнгит)
Tlt = Teleut (Таләнгат)
V.1.1.4. SET = Southeast Turkic (Baskakov's "Qarluq Turkic"): ET = East Turkic (= New Uygur); dls: ET G = Guma dl., ET H = Hami dl., ET K = Kashghar dl., ET Kc = Kucha dl., ET Ta = Tashmaliq dl., ET Tr = Taranchi, ET X = Khotan dl., ET Y = Yarkand dl.
Chg = Chagatay (West Türkistan Islamic literary lge, late XIV - XX); Chg Xw = Chagatay of Xwarezm
QT = Qaraxanid Turkic (West Türkistan, XII - XIV) (the tafsirs, Rabghuzi, İbn-Muhanna)
Tki = Türkî (traditional literary language of East Turkistan)
Uz = Uzbek; dls: Uz Af = Uz dls in Afganistan, Uz Nm = Namangan dl., Uz NmA = Namangan-Andizhan dls, Uz Qp = Qipchaq dls, Uz Srt = dls labelled "Sart" in the old literature (= Uz NmA), Uz U = urban (Iranized) dls, Uz XrOg = Xwarezmic-Oghuz dls
V.1.1.5. NET = Northeast Turkic:
Bltr = Beltir (today considered as a dialect of Xk)
Chl = Chulîm (чулымский); dls: Kü = Küärik (treated as a separate lge), Chl U = Upper Chulîm, Chl M = Middle Chulîm
SY = Sarîg-Yugur (= Western Yugur)
Kü = Küärik or Küärik (dialect of Chulîm)
Qb = Qoýbal (= Koybal Turkic); dl.: Qb Sl = Salbin dl.
Qc = Qacha (качынскій диалект «хакасского» языка)
Qzl = Qözîl (кызыльский диалект т. н. «хакасского» языка)
Sg = Saghay (сагайский диалект «хакасского» языка)
Shor (шорский язык + шорский диал. «хакасского» языка)
Xk = Khakas (Xakas, хакасский язык, Abakan Turkic) (dialect cluster;
StXk is based on Sg and Qc)
V.1.1.6. Tuva-Tofalar (Saytan Turkic)
Tf = Tofalar
Tv = Tuva; Tv NE (= Tv Tj) = Noreastern dl. (Toju dl., тоджинский диалект)
V.1.1.7. Yakut sb.
Yk = Yakut
Dlg = Dolgan
V.1.2. pBlgh = proto-Bulghar
Blgh = Bulghar
MChv = Middle Chuvash
Chv = Chuvash; dls: Chv H = High Chuvash (верховой [вирьял] диалект;
Chr K = Kurmïsh sdl. of Chv H; Chv KA = Krasnoarmeyks sdl.
of Chv H; Chv Mr = Morgaush sdl. of Chv H; Chv L = Low Chuvash
(низовой [анатри] диалект); Chv M = Morgaush sdl. of Chv H; Chv
MK = Malo-Karachkino dl. of Chv; Chv V = Vurnar sdl. of Chv H

V.1.3 (non yet classified): Xzr = Xazar (Khazar, хазарский язык.)
V.2. M = Mongolic
Ba = Bao’an (Pao’an, баоаньский)
Brt = Buryat; dls: Brt A = Alar dl., Brt Ag = Aga dl. (агинский говор),
Brt E = Eastern dls of Brt, Brt NU = Nizhneudinsk dl.
WrM = Written Mongolian (Script Mongolian, Schriftmongolisch,
Classical Mongolian)
WrO = Written Oyrat
Dg = Dagur; dls: Dg B = Butha Dg, Dg Cc = Cicikar Dg, Dg Hl = Hailar
Dx = Dongxiang, Tunghsiang, Santa, дунсянский язык
HIM = Halha-Mongolian
IM = Mongolian dialects of Inner Mongolia; IM H = Hejing dialect
KI = Kalmuck; dls: D = Dörböt, Ö = Ölöt, T = Torgut
Mgl = Moghol; dialect: Mgl Mr = Marda
MM = Middle Mongolian; dls (variants): MM E = Eastern MM, MM W =
Western MM
MMgl = Middle Moghol
Mnr = Monguor; dls: Mnr E = Eastern Monguor (Dongbuyuguyu), Mnr
M = Minhe Monguor (= Sanch’uang, Potanin’s сань-чуан), Mnr H =
Huzu Monguor (Uyangpu, Potanin’s у-ян-бу, Tuzuyu), Mnr Nr =
Naringol sdl. of Mnr H (Monguor of SM)
Oyr = Oyrat; dls: Oyr B = Bayit (Bayat), Oyr T = Torgut, Oyr ET = East
Torgut (in Sinkiang, Rm.’s "Osttorgutisch")
OM = Old Mongolian
Ord = Ordos Mongolian (a dialect treated here as a separate lge)
PCIWrM = Pre-Classic Written Mongolian
Shrn = Shirongol (a collective name for Monguor, Dongxiang and Baoan)

ShY = Shira-Yughur (= Shera-Yöghur, Jegün Yogur, Eastern Yugur)

Trgt = Torgut (a dialect of Kalmuck and Oyrat)

V.3. Tg = Tungusic (= Tungusian), Tungus-Manchu

V.3.1. NrTg = North Tungusian (subgroup of the Tungusian language family)


Lm = Lamut (Ewen, эвенский язык); dls: Lm A = Arman dl., Lm C = Central Lamut, Lm E = Eastern Lamut, Lm W = Western Lamut; sdls: Lm An = Anyuy sdl. (of Lm C), Lm And = Anadir sdl. (of Lm E), Lm B = Bistraya sdl. (of Lm E), Lm KO = Kolima-Omolon sdl. (of Lm E), Lm M = Moma sdl. (of Lm C), Lm N = Northern Lm (a sdl. of Lm E), Lm O = Okhotsk sdl. (of Lm E), Lm Ol = Ola sdl. (of Lm E), Lm P = Penzhina sdl. (of Lm E), Lm Sk = Sakkirir sdl. (of Lm W), Lm T = Timpon sdl. (of Lm C), Lm Tg = Tugesir sdl. (of Lm W) Lm Y = Yukagir sdl. (of Lm W)

Neg = Negidal; dls: H = High Amgun (верхнегунский), L = Low Amgun (низнегунский),

V.3.2. AmTg = Amur Tungusian (subgroup of the Tungusian language family)

Nn = Nanay (Gold); dls: Nn A = Amur dialect group (Nn Nh, Nn SA and Nn G), Nn B = Bikin dl., Nn G = Garin dl. (= Samar dl.), Nn K = Kili (a dial. area, incl. Nn KU, Nn Sn and Nn UU [Doerfer considers Kili a separate language]), Nn KU = Kur & Urm dl., Nn Nh = Naykhiin dl., Nn SA = Sakachi-Alan, Nn Sn = Sungari dialect gr. (incl. Nn B), Nn UU = Upper Ussuri dl.

Orc = Orochi
Ork = Orok  
Sln = Solon  
Ud = Udihe (Ude, удыхейский, удэйский, удэгейский); sdls: Ud  
A = Anyuy sdl., Ud B = Bikin sdl., Ud I = Iman sdl., Ud K = Koppi sdl.,  
Ud X = Khor (Xor) sdl., Ud Sm = Samarga sdl.  
Ul = Ulcha, Olcha  
V.3.3. STg = South Tungusian  
Jrc = Jurchen  
WrMc = Written Manchu (Script Manchu, Classical Manchu)  
Mc = Manchu; sdls: Mc N = Modern Northern Manchu, Mc Sb = Sibe  
Manchu  
PCIWrMc = Pre-Classical Written Manchu (according to TF)  
V.4. Ko = Korean; sdls: Ko Chs = Chejudo, Ko Chl = Chenla, Ko Hm = Hamgyo, Ko Ks = Kyo, Ko NW = Northwestern dls, Ko Ph = Phyo, Ko PhN = Phyo-Namdo, Ko Sl = Seoul dls, Ko SW = Southwestern dls  
ClKo = Classical Korean (Korean in Rm. SKE) (early NKo that still distinguishes between a and ä)  
MKo = Middle Korean  
NKO = New Korean, Modern Standard Korean  
OKg = Old Koguryo  
OKo = Old Korean (Silla)  
StKo = Standard (Modern) Korean  
V.5. JK = Japanese-Kogurö family  
CIJ = Classical (Literary) Japanese (Bungo, based on ItOJ)  
J = Japanese; sdls: J Ak = Akida, J Ht = Hateruma, J Ik = Ikema, J Is = Ishigaki, J Kg = Kagoshima, J Km = Kameyama, J K = Kyoto, J Kt = Keto, J Nk = Nakasui, J Ns = Nase, J Rk = Ryukyu, J Sh = Shuri, J Sz = Sudzu, J Tk = Tokyo (StJ), J Ty = Toyama, J Y = Yonakuni  
Kgr = Kogurö, Kokuryo'  
ltOJ = Late Old Japanese (9th - 11th c.)  
MJ = Middle Japanese (12th - 16th c.)  
OJ = Old Japanese (to the 8th c.); OJ E = Eastern Old Japanese  
pJ = proto-Japanese  
StJ = Standard (Modern) Japanese

**UI. D = Dravidian**  
NaD = Narrow Dravidian (ancestor of all D lges except Brh)  
VI.1. SD = South Dravidian  
ALK = Alu-Kurumba [Ālu Kugumba] (a Dravidian dialect of the Nilgiri area)  
Bel = Belari  
Brgd = Burgandi
Irl = Irula  
JKr = Jenu-Kurumba  [Jēnu Kurumba] (a Dravidian dialect of the Nilgiri area)  
Kdg = Kodagu; dls: K = Karad, a, MV = Merchara-Virajpet, NL = Nalknad  
Kkd = Kaikadi  
Kn = Kannada; dls: B = Bankur, Bd = Badaga, Bl = Bellary, Cr = Coorg  
Kn (Jenu Kuruba), G = Gowda, Gl = Gulbarga, Hl = Halakki, Hv =  
Havyaka, K = Kurumba, Km = Kumta, Nn = Nanjangud, O = Ola, R =  
Rabakavi, Sh = Sholiga, T = Tiptur; ClKn = Classical Kannada  
Krb = Kuruba (Betta-Kuruba)  
Krmb = Alu-Kurumba and Pal-Kurumba (Dravidian dialects of the Nilgiri area)  
Krg = Koraga; dls: Krg M = Mudu, Krg O = Onti, T = Tappu  
Ksb = Kasaba (= Kasava), a D language (or dl. of Irula)  
Kt = Kota  
McTm (= TmM) = Macro-Tamil (= Tamil and Malayalam)  
ML = Malayalam  
OKn = Old Kannada; EpOKn = Epigraphic Old Kannada  
OTm = Old Tamil  
PaK = Palu-Kurumba  [Pālu Kurumba] (a Dravidian dialect of the Nilgiri area)  
Td = Toda  
Tm = Tamil; dls and variants: ClTm = Classical (Literary) Tamil, B = Brahmani  
Tm, K = Kollimalai Tm, LP = Tm of Lower Perak, NA = North Arcot, T = Tirunelvali Tm, W = Western Tm  
Tu = Tulu; Tu Br = Brahmin dl. of Tulu  
VI. 2. SCD = South-Central Dravidian (Telugu-Kui) {Km., Zv.}:  
VI. 2.1: Telugu lges:  
OTl - Old Telugu  
Svr = Savara  
Tl = Telugu; Tl Brh = Brahman Telugu; dls: Tl G = Guntur dl., Tl Mrl = Merolu dl., Tl Vs = Visa ~ kha dl.  
VI.2.2. GnD = Gondvana Dravidian {An.}:  
Gnd = Gondi; dls: Gnd A = Adilabad Gnd, Gnd B = Gnd of the Betul district, Gnd Ch = Chhindwara dl., Gnd ChM = Maria Gondi of the Chanda district, Gnd D = Gnd of Durg, Gnd DM = Gnd of the Dandami Marias, Gnd G = Gnd of Gadchiroli tahsil (Chanda district), Gnd HM = Gnd of the Hill Marias (incl. Gnd HMB, HMD, HMO, HMS = Gnd HM of the areas of Bogan Pallahor, Dhobi, Orcha village and Sirioncha tahsil respectively), Gnd K = Koya Gondi (= Koya, considered a separate lge by some scholars), Gnd KB = Gnd of Bhadrachalam and Rekapalli, Gnd KD = Gnd of the Koyas of Dorlas, Gnd KM = Gnd of the Koyas of Malkangiri tahsil, Gnd KS = Gnd of Koyas and Dorlas of South Bastar, Gnd MB = Gondi of the Bison Horn and Dandami Marias (Bastar), Gnd Mn = Gondi of Mandla, Gnd Mrd = Mardia Gondi, Gnd Mu = Gnd of the Murias of North Bastar, Gnd Nr = Gnd of the Murias of Naraipur (NW. Bastar), Gnd
RCh = dialect of the Raj Gonds of Chanda district, Gnd RSr = dialect of the Raj Gonds of Sironcha tahsil; Gnd Sn = Gnd of Seoni, Gnd Y = Gnd of Yeotmal

Knd = Konda; dls: Knd N = Northern dl., Knd P = Pulgura dl., Knd Sv = Sova dl., Knd W = Western dl.

KK = Kui-Kuwi lges (Kui and Kuwi)

Ku = Kuwi; dls: Ku D = dl. of D ongriya Kondhs, Ku K = Kundi dialect (labelled so in the Dravidian Etymological Dictionary [D XXX]), Ku Kt = Kuttia Kuwi, Ku P = dl. of the Parja Kondhs of Bisamkatak, Ku Su = Sunkarametta, Ku T = T ēkriya Kondh

Kui; dl.: Kui KK = Kui of Kuttia Kandhs

Mnd = Manda

Png = Pengo

VI.3. CD = Central Dravidian

Gdb = Gadba; dls: Gdb K = Kon ēk Kor Gadba, Gdb O = Ollari, Gdb P = Gdb of Pottangi (Koraput district), Gdb Sl = Salur

Klm = Kolami

Nk = Naiki of Chanda (= Nk. [Ch.] of the Dravidian Etymological Dictionary [D])

Nkr = Naikri (dialect of Kolami) (= Nk. of the Dravidian Etymological Dictionary [D])

Prj = Parji

VI.4. NED = Northeastern Dravisian

Krx = Kurukh, Kurux, Oraon

Mlt = Malto

VI.5. Brh = Brahui

**VII. E = Elamite** (family)

AchEl = Achaemenian Elamite (from the 6th c. B.C.)

El = Elamite (language)

MEl = Middle Elamite (13th - 11th c. BC)

NEl = New Elamite (8th - 7th c. BC)

pEl = proto-Elamite

OEl = Old Elamite (23rd - 14th c. BC)

**VIII. Gil = Gilyak** (Nivkh); dls: Gil A = Amur dl., Gil ES = East Sakhalin dl.

**IX. CK = Chukchee-Kamchadal.** Kamchuckee

IX.1. ChK = Chukchee-Koryak (proto-Chukchee)

Chk = Chukchee

Aly = Alyutor, алюторский

Kor = Koryak (Chawchuwen Koryak, "нымыланский")

Pln = Palana Koryak

IX.2. Im = Itelmen (= Kamchadal); dls: Im W, Im E, Im S
**X. EA = Eskimo–Aleut**


X.2. Ale = Aleut, dls: Ale E = Eastern Ale, Ale W = Western Ale (incl. Ale A = Atkan, Ale Au = Attuan)