Rounding and Exceptions from Rounding in East Tocharian

In a series of recent articles1 that are a part of a comprehensive investigation of the Tocharian o-vocalism, I have examined several Tocharian words containing such vocalism and tried to uncover and formulate the rules that govern the labialization of the reflexes of CT.² * α (and * \mathring{a} ³) and in general the appearance of o in either dialect or both. These rules have been partly known or guessed for a long time, but often they have been vaguely formulated or even quite incorrectly. The reason for this vagueness, apparently, is the fact that they often seem to be no rules at all, because for every word that follows the rule there appears to be another that does not. The rules have therefore been formulated and taken as mere indications of a tendency and not as strict phonological laws. However, it is my contention that the rules in question are indeed strict laws (i.e. as strict as sound laws are in any language) and that the apparent exceptions can be explained, for the most part, as no haphazard phenomena, but as reflecting the crossing effect of other sound laws.

In this paper I wish to examine the apparent exceptions to the East Tocharian rounding⁴ of a to o. In my previous articles I

¹ IF. 89 (1984) p. 29-38; KZ. 97 (1984) p. 135-147; KZ. 97 (1984) p. 287-290; Die Sprache 30 (1984) p. 16-28; MSS. 43 (1984) p. 107-121; Die Sprache 31 (1985) p. 40-47; IF. 90 (1985) p. 83-87. Further articles have appeared in Festskrift Nils Simonsson, Gedenkschrift B. Schwartz, MSS., KZ., Glotta, and (forthcoming) Die Sprache.

² CT. = Common Tocharian.

³ It is assumed here (with Winter, Normier et al.) that I.-E. $*\bar{a}$ yielded CT. $*\hat{a}$ which further developed into B o, A a, except in absolute final position (and here I depart from the above-mentioned linguists) where CT. $*-\hat{a}$ became *-o > B - o, A zero.

⁴ The term rounding is defined here as 'labialization of a vowel caused by a labial consonant', whereas umlaut is defined as 'a change in vowel quality

have assumed that the rule governing this change operated approximately in the following manner: East Tocharian a deriving from CT. * α or * \dot{a} was rounded to o before kw (which later usually became k), p and m or clusters containing one of these sounds. That is to say, a following labial had a rounding effect upon A a, except for the labial w which had no such effect, cf. A śanwem par. 'jaws', kanwem par. 'knees', nawem 'roar' or the cases where -wV > -u after the apocope of final vowels: śaru 'hunter' (B śerwe), katu 'ornament, jewelry' (B ketwe), kratsu 'rag' (B kretswe) etc. Obviously, u-umlaut was no longer operative in East Tocharian at the time of the apocope. In one word only, an a appears to have been rounded to obefore w, i.e. A kowi, the nom. pl. of ko obl. sg. 'cow'. However, Van Windekens (1976, p.226) is surely right in maintaining that A kowi for expected *kawi (cf. B kewäm obl. pl.) has been influenced by the singular form ko < I.-E. *guou-.

The present study reveals that this understanding of the rules of rounding in East Tocharian is not quite accurate. A modified formulation will therefore be proposed at the end.

Rounding occurs in three particular environments: before kw, p and m. The examples will now be listed and the environments scrutinized. Rounding before kw > k can be observed in the following cases:

1) Rounding of a < CT. * α noktim (B nekcīye) 'in the evening' < *nakwtim < CT.

*nækwt- < I.-E. *nok*t- (cf. already Sieg-Siegling-Schulze 1931, p. 267);

onk (B enkwe) 'man' < *ankw < CT. *ænkwæ < I.-E.

*nkuos (cf. Campanile 1969, p. 198);

śorkmi pl. (B śerkw) 'strings' < *śarkw- < CT.

*śærkwän ← I.-E. *kērguṛ/n- (cf. Hilmarsson 1984a);

yok- (B yok-) 'to drink' < *yakw- < CT. *yækw- < I.-E.

*ēg**- (cf. Winter 1955, p. 173);

B onkipse 'shameless' (loanword from East Tocharian, cf.

A kip, but B kwipe 'shame' < *ankwip- < CT. *ænkwip-;

caused by a vowel of the following syllable'. Labialization is a general term covering rounding and back umlauts (u-umlaut, o-umlaut).

orkäm (B orkamo) 'obscure, dark' < *arkwäm < CT. *ærkwmo < I.-E. *org*mōn(ts) / *rg*mōn(ts) (cf. Petersen 1933, p. 21); sokyo 'very' (to B sek 'always'?; cf. Van Windekens 1976, p. 458) < *sakw-yo < CT. *sækw-; *onkrac (indecl.; B onkrocce obl. sg.) 'immortal, eternal' < *ankwr-ac- < CT. *ænkwr-åt/c- < I.-E. *n-dhg*hr-/*n-g*hdhr- (cf. Hilmarsson 1986a).

2) a < CT. *å
poke (B pokai obl. sg.) 'arm' < *pakwe < CT. *påkwai- ←
I.-E. *bhāĝhu- (cf. Hilmarsson 1984b, p.110-111);
yoke (B yoko / yokiye) 'desire, thirst' < *yakwe < CT.
*yåkwai- ← I.-E. *jāk¼ā (cf. Av. yās- 'to demand, crave'
< *jāk¼-sk-, Toch. B yāsk- 'to beg' < *jək¼-sk-, Skt. yāc'to entreat').</p>

Apparent exceptions to the rule of rounding before kw are as follows:

- 1) ak (B ek) 'eye', wak (B wek) 'voice';
- 2) arkant- (B erkent-) 'black';
- 3) maku (B mekwa pl.) '(finger)nail', saku (B sekwe) 'pus'.

However, a closer examination of these words reveals that they need not necessarily constitute exceptions.

1) A ak 'eye' and wak 'voice' represent ancient consonant stems, I.-E. $*H_3ek^{y}$ - and $*uok^{y}$ -. They remained consonant stems throughout the history of Tocharian. To explain the lack of rounding in these words one might tentatively suggest that a labiovelar in absolute final position lost its labial factor at a so early stage that it did not affect the preceding vowel, cf. Lane 1960, p.73.

Another Tocharian word, A yok, B yok 'hair; colour' has been explained by Winter (1980) as deriving from I.-E. * $i\bar{e}g^{\mu}$ -, cf. Gk. $\eta\beta\eta$ 'manhood, strength of youth', Lith. $j\dot{e}g\dot{a}$ 'strength' (for the semantic side, see Winter's convincing arguments in the work cited). Winter takes this Tocharian word as a consonant stem in which the root vocalism has suffered labial rounding before Toch. *kw. The Greek and Lithuanian words, he argues, repre-

sent secondary transfers of earlier neuter (cons. stem) collectives to the fem. a-stem flexion.

However, if all three words, AB yok, A ak, wak, B ek, wek, remained consonant stems throughout their Tocharian history, it is quite suspect to find rounding in the first word, but no rounding in the latter two. Besides, Winter is wrong in maintaining⁵ that "labialization in B affects /e/... when it derives from Common Toch. /ē/" (i.e. in my notation: from CT. * α < I.-E. * α and not CT. * α < I.-E. * α 0. That statement is contradicted by B α 0 * α 0

It is only by assuming an u-umlaut to explain the vocalism of AB yok- that one can by-pass these difficulties. A proposal that the old consonant stem $*i\bar{e}g^u$ - at some point in the history of Tocharian became an u-stem is not as ad hoc as it might sound. B yok has the plural $y\bar{a}kwa < CT$. $*y\bar{a}kw\bar{a}$ (with the labial factor regularly retained in non-final position) which could be interpreted as an u-stem parallel to the plural $*\bar{a}rw\bar{a}$, an u-stem with the singular $*\bar{w}ru$ 'wood'. The proportion $*\bar{a}rw\bar{a}$: $*\bar{w}ru = *y\bar{a}kw\bar{a} : X$ could have yielded $X = *y\bar{w}ku$ for regular $*y\bar{w}k$. Like $*\bar{w}ru$ became AB or, so $*y\bar{w}ku$ also suffered u-umlaut and appeared as AB yok, cf. Hilmarsson 1985 a. Thus the discrepancy between A ak, wak on the one hand and yok on the other could be avoided.

2) A arkant- (B erkent-) 'black' was associated with A orkäm, B orkamo 'dark' by Krause-Thomas (1960, p. 57, 66). Further Indo-European cognates, they indicated, would be Gk. ἔφεβος 'darkness (of the underworld)', Goth. riqis 'darkness' etc. (originally Petersen 1933, p.21), so that the Tocharian words would derive from I.-E. *org*-. This comparison was accepted by Van Windekens 1969, p. 486, who at the same time stressed that the

⁵ Unpublished article, kindly submitted to me in manuscript by Prof. Winter. [Now published, Winter 1985.]

⁶ The Verb yok- 'to drink' may have a generalized o-vocalism from the first person sg. pres.-subj. yoku, i.e. u-umlaut.

suffix A -ant-, B -ent- might be considered comparable to the one observed in Lat. argentum 'silver', Skt. rajatá- 'id.'. Later Van Windekens (1976, p. 150, 340-341) explicitly stated that A arkant-, B erkent- were to be derived from I.-E. *org*-onto-, whereas A orkäm, B orkamo, apparently because of the difference in vocalism, would represent I.-E. *org*mo(nt)-. This form would yield CT. *ārkmo(nt) and the sequence \bar{a} -o became o-o in West Tocharian, whereas in East Tocharian the regular form *ārkām appeared as orkām through the influence of B orkamo.

Van Windekens' explanation of these latter words is somewhat unsatisfying. The postulated vocalic grade $*\bar{o}rg^{\mu}$ is otherwise not attested, the change B $\bar{a}-\bar{a}$ to o-o is doubtful (cf. B $sw\bar{a}\bar{n}co$, $\bar{a}ppo$, $\bar{a}yor$ etc.; see also discussion of B onkolmo below), and one might wish to avoid accepting the influence of the one dialect upon the other unless absolutely evident.

Actually, the solution is far simpler. I.-E. * $org^{\mu}m\bar{o}n$ (cf. for the vocalism Gk. $\"{o}qov\eta < *org^{\mu}sn\bar{a}$, Frisk 1965, p.431-432) / * $rg^{\mu}m\bar{o}n$ would result in CT. *erkwmo (for I.-E. * $reklar{R}$ -> CT. * $erklar{R}$ -> Hilmarsson 1984b, p.116-118) and this form would further develop into B * $orklar{R}$ - $erklar{R}$ -(reduction of $erklar{R}$ - $erklar{R$

Now, if A orkäm and arkant- both derive from I.-E. *org*- or *rg*-, it is quite disconcerting to find rounding in the one word and no rounding in the other. One might wonder whether these words are cognates at all. It was indicated that Van Windekens (1969, p. 486) had stressed that the suffix of A arkant-, B erkent-might be comparable to that of Lat. argentum. That thought might be worth persuing further by proposing that Lat. argentum and A arkant-, B erkent- actually are cognates and that A orkäm, B orkamo are no relatives of theirs.

Phonologically and morphologically, this would fit perfectly, and the semantic difficulties are not insurmountable. The root

⁷ Cf. below for the possibility of o-umlaut affecting East Tocharian.

* $H_2er\hat{g}$ - appears in the sense 'shining, white, silver' in many Indo-European languages, cf. Pokorny 1959, p. 64-65, and Tocharian is no exception, for here we find A $\bar{a}rki$, B $\bar{a}rkwi$ 'white' < CT. * $\bar{a}rkw$ - (plus an -i- of obscure origin) < I.-E. * $H_2er\hat{g}u$ - (u-umlaut did not affect Toch. \bar{a} , Hilmarsson 1984b), cf. Skt. $\acute{a}rju$ -na- 'shining, white', Gk. $\check{\alpha}\varrho\gamma\upsilon$ - $\varrho\sigma$ - ς 'silver-white' (epith. of sheep), cf. Meillet 1911, p. 149; Van Windekens 1976, p. 167; Adams 1980 (1981), p. 441 ftn. 7. This fact, however, need not deter us from deriving Toch. A arkant-, B erkent- 'black' from that same root. The semantic association of the notions 'white': 'shining': 'black' is of frequent occurrence in diverse languages. It may suffice to mention OHG. blanc 'glistening white' as against Mod. Engl. black, or OIcel. blakkr 'pale, yellowish brown' as against Mod. Icel. blakkur 'dark, black'.

Phonologically, A arkant-, B erkent- would reflect an Indo-European zero grade root vocalism and an o-grade suffix vocalism, i.e. < CT. *ærkænt- < I.-E. * $H_2r\hat{g}$ -ont-, and the lack of rounding would be understandable, since no labiovelar is involved.

There remains only the morphological question. Lat. argentum 'silver' is a thematic formation, deriving from I.-E. *H₂erĝ-nt-o-m, cf. also other Italic forms, such as Faliscan arcentelom 'small silver vase', Oscan aragetud (abl.) 'silver'. Its Celtic cognates (OIrish arcat (also arggit, airget – all reflecting [ar'g'əd°] as seen in Mod. Irish airgead –), Mid. Welsh ariant, Mod. Welsh arian, Bret. arc'hant, Gaul Arganto-) are probably best seen as identically formed (I do not understand why Mallory and Huld (1984, p.3) posit a zero grade root vocalism for the Celtic words). Further cognates (also with a thematic nt-suffix) are found in Iranian, cf. Av. ərəzatəm 'silver', OPers. ardatam 'silver' (Ossetic ærzæt 'bronze' might be a loanword, cf. Benvenist[e] 1965, p. 137), whereas Arm. arcat', according to Greppin, cited by Mallory-Huld, op.cit., p.4, may be entirely non-Indo-European.

OPers. ardata- can reflect an I.-E. $*H_2er\hat{g}$ - or $*H_2r\hat{g}$ - (cf. Kent, p. 1953, 15-16), but on the testimony of Av. arazata- a zero grade is always posited. However, one might possibly be

justified in contesting the evidence of the Avestan word. The modern Iranian language Yezdi (of Kurdish stock) has $\bar{a}l\bar{\imath}$ 'silver' (with $-\bar{\imath}$ based on the analogy to gold terms, Mallory-Huld, loc. cit.) in which $\bar{a}l$ -, according to Benveniste 1929, p. 59-60, must reflect a normal grade * $H_2er\hat{g}$ - > Proto-Iranian *arz-. If the term for 'silver' is of Indo-European origin, as commonly accepted and convincingly argued by Mallory-Huld, it would be strange, if Iranian possessed this thematic formation with two different ablaut grades. The normal grade of Yezdi $\bar{a}l\bar{\imath}$ and the Italo-Celtic forms thus induce one to probe for an alternative explanation of the Avestan form.

According to Kellens (1974, p. 275) there is some imprecision as to the general treatment of initial syllables from *r in the Avestan manuscript tradition, which he then proceeds to demonstrate on the example of aranauuac- 'who pronounces the wrongs', which is sometimes written with an initial ara- and sometimes ara-. One might then wonder, whether such oscillation is found in the writing of original *ar-. Actually, in the case of our silver-term (all occurrences, except one, are in the Younger Avesta) all manuscripts, according to Geldner 1895, show a consequent zero grade ara-. However, on the example of another word, Bartholomae's arag- 'to be worth', containing an ascertainable normal grade (= Skt. arh- 'id.'), it can be observed that also in the case of original Iranian *ar- do the Avestan manuscripts hesitate between ara- and ara-. Thus e.g. in Yasna 50.10 we encounter arajat in K 5.4, J 3.6.7, Jpl, Hl, Jml, L13, but ərəjat in J2, Pt4, Mfl, K 11, L1.2.3, Dhl, B2, Bbl (but in Yasna 10.17 only arajahe, Yašt 9.30 only arajat-, Yašt 5.116 only arajat-, whereas Yasna 53.9 has a rich variation araj-, araj-, raj-, rah-, rij-). Therefore, in spite of the uniform rendering of Av. ərəzata-, there is a distinct possibility that ərə- here might be a generalized orthography for a 'more correct' and expected ara-. The Avestan word (and therefore also the ambiguous OPers. ardata-) would then be reconcilable with the Yezdi form and their Italo-Celtic cognates, indicating a uniform I.-E. *H,ergntom.

Now, Mallory-Huld are probably right that $*H_2er\hat{g}$ -nt-o-m should be classified as a substantivization and thematicization

of an original adjective or even an nt-participle. Such adjective (\leftarrow participle) might actually be reflected by Toch. A arkant-, B erkent-, whose flexion is athematic (A nom. pl. masc. arka(m) so like kram so good' < CT. $*k\ddot{a}ræ\tilde{n}\ddot{c}\ddot{a}s$ < I.-E. $*k_rH$ -ont-es, B obl. sg. masc. erkent like krent < CT. $*k\ddot{a}rænt\ddot{a}m$ < I.-E. $*k_rH$ -ont-m, cf. OIrish car(a)e 'friend' < *karants < *karonts < I.-E. * k_rH -ont-s, J.E. Rasmussen, private communication). These Tocharian forms would derive from CT. * $ext{a}ret$ - $ext{a}ret$

3) The lack of rounding in A maku '(finger)nail', saku 'pus' seems unexpected. The corresponding West Tocharian forms, mekwa (pl.) and sekwe, show that the Common Tocharian preforms must have been *mækwæ and *sækwæ from I.-E. *noghuo- (with n- assimilated to m-?) and *sokuo- resp., which should have yielded rounded forms in East Tocharian as shown by A onk 'man' (= B enkwe) from CT. *ænkwæ.

However, it is possible that the discrepancy between A saku, maku and onk on the one side and A saku, maku and yuk (= B yakwe) from CT. * $y\ddot{a}kwe$ 'horse' on the other might be explicable in terms of syllable structure and phonotactics. Also, it is possible that an exact chronological ordering of a set of sound changes, operating from the Common to the East Tocharian stage, might shed some light on this problem. Thus, it might be relevant to know the relative chronology of rounding, u-umlaut, change of \ddot{a} to u before labials, delabialization of kw, apocope, etc.

I. U-umlaut was a process that in all probability began

Although I.-E. *H₂erĝntom 'silver' is not attested in Tocharian, it is perhaps conceivable that its previous existence might be inferred from the fact that the actual words for silver in Tocharian, A nkiñc (with -ñc after the adjective nkäñci), B ñkante (possibly a borrowing from Ancient Chinese *ngien, according to Van Windekens 1976, p.634), show a suffix deriving from CT. *-äntæ which may have been added to the loanword on the analogy of an indigenous *ārkäntæ < *H₂erĝntom.

already in Common Tocharian, as it affects East and West Tocharian alike. It was probably still operative in the early stages of East Tocharian, if one is to judge by such cases as A cmol 'birth' which was an u-stem in East Tocharian (pl. cmolu), whereas B cmel with the plural cmela points to an earlier consonant stem. That is to say, CT. *cmæl \rightarrow early-A *cmælu > *cmolu > cmol, cf. Van Windekens 1976, p.252. On the other hand, u-umlaut ceases to be operative before the apocope of final (CT. *-æ >) A *-a, because, when that sound was dropped, a new final -u emerged (cf. *sakwa > saku) which did not cause u-umlaut.

II. Apocope of final *-u. This change, of course, occurs after the operation of u-umlaut and may even have been the cause of its cessation. However, it is also possible that this apocope occurred only shortly before or simultaneously with the apocope of final *-a and final vowels in general. For the purposes of the matter under discussion here, this is not relevant.

III. A $\ddot{a} > u$ before a labial. It is possible to put a relative date to this change on the basis of the opposition yuk: saku. The divergent treatment of the Common Tocharian final *-kwa in these two words' suggests that the labial element had been lost in the first word at the time of the apocope of (CT. *-a >) A *-a. Such loss might be explained in terms of a dissimilation of the sequence u(...)kw to u(...)k, i.e. A *yukwa yielded *yuka which through apocope resulted in the attested A yuk, whereas if one does not assume dissimilation in *yukwa, the resulting form would have been *yuku (cf. CT. *sakwa > A *sakwa > saku). The dissimilation, of course, presupposes the rounding of \ddot{a} to u before a labial (cf. also A suik 'throat' (B saikw), tuik 'love' (B taikw), suim 'cause' (B saim)). Van Windekens discussed this problem (1962, p. 181–182) and saw two possibilities: either I.-E. *ekuo- was reflected by A * $y\ddot{a}ku$ which

Anreiter 1984, p.64 contends that the Indo-European sound combination velar plus u developed differently from a plain labiovelar in Tocharian. This claim is falsified by pairs like A saku: maku, B sekwe: makwa (I.-E. *sokuo-: *noghuo-) and A yuk: maku (I.-E. *ekuo-: *noghuo-). If B cake 'river' reflects I.-E. *tekuos, the loss of the labial factor is unexpected, but must be due to some environmental disturbances.

became *yuku through u-umlaut, or the umlaut occurred in an earlier form *yäkwV and *-kwV later lost the w. However, both suggestions are incompatible with the development seen in saku, maku.

IV. The sequence u(...)kw becomes u(...)k. As shown above, this change comes after the change $\ddot{a} > u$ before a labial, but it precedes the apocope of (CT. *- α >) A *- α or else *yukwa would have resulted in *yuku as *sakwa in saku.

V. Apocope of A *-a. It was shown that the apocope must be dated after the above-mentioned changes. On the other hand, it must have occurred before the rounding of (CT. * α / \mathring{a} >) A a before labials, or else one would have expected A *sakwa > *sokwa > *sokwa > *sokwa . Through apocope, A *-kwa became -ku with the consequence that *sakwa, *makwa resulted in the attested saku, maku. Later, when A a was rounded before labials, these words no longer contained any -kw-, the necessary conditioning factor of rounding. And since u-umlaut had ceased operating, there was no change to *soku, *moku.

However, matters are complicated by the fact that one word, A onk 'man', does not seem to comply with these rules. The corresponding West Tocharian form, enkwe, shows that the Common Tocharian preform was *æńkwæ, which, according to the above, should yield A *ańkwa and through apocope A *ańku. This form should not have been rounded and should not have lost its final -u.

I can offer no explanation as to why -w- was not vocalized in this word after the apocope. The only structural difference between *ankwa on the one side and *sakwa / *makwa on the other is the sequence -nkw- as against -kw-. It is no use contending that -w- did not vocalize after a closed syllable, for this is falsified by e.g. *käntwo > A käntu 'tongue'. For the moment an ad hoc postulation will therefore have to suffice, namely, that after the apocope, the sequence *-kw yielded -ku, whereas *-nkw remained unvocalized. CT. *ænkwæ > A *ankwa thus resulted in *ankw (apocope and no vocalization), and since -kw was still intact, this form was subject to rounding and yielded *onkw > onk.

VI. Rounding of A a to o before kw. This change, it was

argued above, must have taken place after the apocope of final vowels, whereas on the other hand, obviously, it must have preceded the delabialization of kw.

VII. Delabialization of kw.

Bearing in mind the special phonotactics of A *ankwa, and adhering to the relative chronological order of the sound changes as argued above, i.e.

- I. u-umlaut
- II. apocope of *-u
- III. $\ddot{a} > u$ before a labial
- IV. u(...)kw > u(...)k
 - V. apocope of *-a
- VI. rounding of a to o before kw
- VII. delabialization of kw to k

the development of A yuk, saku and onk becomes intelligible, and A saku, maku, the apparent exceptions to the laws of rounding, are seen to be quite regular, cf. the following scheme (at stage A are set the changes CT. * α , * \dot{a} , *ai > A a, a, e resp., although they might have taken place later (before stage VI at the latest)):

	*æru *oru	*yäkwæ 	*sækwæ	*æṅkwæ 	*påkwai-
Α	-	*yäkwa	*sakwa	*aṅkwa	*pakwe-
H	or				
III	-	*yukwa			
IV	_	*yuka			
V	_	yuk	saku	*aṅkw	
VI	-	_		*onkw	*pokwe
VII	_	-		onk	poke

Rounding before p is found in the following cases:

klop 'pain; misfortune' < *klap < CT. *klæpæ < I.E. *ghlobom, cf. OIcel. glap 'misfortune, mishap' (Hilmarsson 1985b)

 $korp\bar{a}$ 'against' < * $karp(-\bar{a})$ < CT. *kærpæ < I.E. *kuorpom, cf. OIcel. hvarf 'turn' (cf. Van Windekens 1976, p. 230

who, however, operates with an u-stem and therefore u-umlaut in this word);

opäśśi (B epastye) 'adept' 10 < *apäst (+ ya < I.-E. *-io-) < CT. *æpästu- < I.-E. *opi-stHu-;

opṣāly (B ekṣalye) 'season' < *apṣāly (etymology uncertain);

opyāc (B epiyāc) 'in memory' < *apyāc < CT. *æpiyāc ← Mid. Iran. *abiyātiš (cf. Hansen 1940, p.151, Isebaert 1980, p.103);

opänt- (B epinkte) 'in the middle' (cited by Winter 1982, p. 401) < *apänt- < CT. * $\alpha(n)$ pänkt α < I.-E. * α -penk* α - (i.e. 'in the fifth place' (with reference to the four cardinal points) = 'in the middle', as suggested by Winter, personal communication);

opärkā traditionally 'in the morning', but perhaps rather 'early', cf. below for a discussion of this word.

Other words with A o before p are either etymologically unclear, or do not derive their o-vocalism from earlier A a. Thus A orpank 'tribune(?)' may be a compound of A or 'wood' + pank 'bench' as suggested by Van Windekens 1966, p. 497, or Isebaert 1980, p. 142 might be right that this word derives by metathesis from earlier * \bar{a} rponk < CT. * \bar{a} rponk \leftarrow Iran. * \bar{a} rupong. A stop / stow 'stick' is compared to Gk. σ t σ o σ 'stump, stick' by Van Windekens 1976, p. 464, and might thus derive from I.-E. * σ 0 Colcel. staup 'stump (of metal)'. On the other hand, A prop in prop-mahur 'diadem' is a loanword, cf. Skt. prabhā- 'light, splendour' (Van Windekens 1976, p. 638).

The West Tocharian correspondence of this word is epastye with no palatalization. This indicates that the suffix A -i, B -ye (< CT. *-yæ) here is a late addition, as also suggested by B epastäññe (beside -styä-) 'aptitude'. Because of B epastäññe, Isebaert's derivation (1977, p.384-385; 1980, p.136) of B epastye from *-ped-styo- is not feasible. Rather, this form points to a previous consonant stem or an u-stem. The I.-E. root *steH₂- 'to stand' with an u-suffix and various prefixes was used to form adjectives in Indo-European as reflected by Lith. apstùs 'abundant', atstùs 'distant', Arm. astu(ac) 'God, creator' < *sm-stHu-(aĝos) (cf. Hilmarsson 1983), Skt. anuṣṭhú 'properly, correctly, really' (cf. Mayrhofer 1976, p.806), suṣṭhú 'aptly'. Similarly, the Tocharian words in question might derive from I.-E. *opi-stHu-.

The corresponding West Tocharian form is $pr\bar{a}p$ which indicates an underlying A $/\bar{a}/$ and not /a/ (cf. also A wrok, B $wr\bar{a}-kai$ (obl.) 'pearl').

Apparent exceptions to the rule of rounding before p are as follows:

- 1) apärkär (B emparkre) 'long, in detail'
- 2) apälkāt (B empālkatte) 'unworried'
- 3) lap 'head'
- 4) napem 'human being'
- 5) rape 'music'
- 6) svarp / sparp 'string'
- 7) warp (B werpe) 'enclosure'
- 8) rapurñe 'passion'
- 9) tarp 'pond(?)' (cf., however, discussion below)
- 10) kapśañi 'body' (B kektseñe)
- 11) salpem par. 'soles (of the feet)'
- 12) trap- 'to stumble' (B trāpp-)
- 13) tampe 'force'
- 14) kāryap 'damage' (B karep)
- 15) anapär 'before' (B enepre)

When one considers the first six words on this list, all of which possess what can be termed as certain or relatively certain etymologies, it is immediately striking that all show p deriving from I.-E. *bh. Thus we have:

- 1) apärkär 'long, in detail' adv. to the adj. pärkär 'long' < I.-E. *bhrĝhro-, cf. Arm barjr 'high' (Meillet 1912, p. 115),
- apälkāt 'unworried' to the verb A pälk- 'to see; to shine' <
 I.-E. *bhelg-/*bhlg-, cf. φλέγω 'to burn' (Meillet 1911, p. 148, Sieg-Siegling-Schulze 1931, p. 389,
- lap 'head' < CT. *læpæ < I.E. *lobhos, cf. Gk. λόφος 'neck, crest of a helmet' (Schulze 1933 (= 1927, p. 252).
- 4) napem 'human being' < I.-E. *nobh-, cf. Av. $n\bar{a}fah$ 'family', $n\bar{a}fya$ 'belonging to the family, relative', Sogd. (buddh.) $n'\beta$ 'people' and further Skt. $n\bar{a}bhi$ 'navel' etc. (Van Windekens 1976, p. 309),

- 5) rape 'music' < CT. *ræp- < I.-E. *robh-, cf. Mid. Irish reb 'play' < *rebhā, Swiss German räbeln 'make noise' (Van Windekens 1941, p. 105),
- 6) svarp/sparp 'string' < *swærpæ I. E. *suorbhom, cf. OIcel. svarfa 'to swerve', Welsh chwerfu 'turning' (Van Windekens 1968, p. 98).

Conversely, none of the words with rounding of A a to o before p contain an etymological *bh except, apparently, $op\ddot{a}rk\ddot{a}$ in the morning' which Van Winkekens 1976, p. 339 analyses as o- (prefix) + $p\ddot{a}rk$ - 'to rise'. Since Van Windekens does not reckon with rounding in East Tocharian (only u- / w- umlaut), he takes this word as a borrowing from West Tocharian, where the prefix could have the form o- through o-umlaut before a syllable containing -o-. But $op\ddot{a}rk\ddot{a}$ has no -o- in the second syllable, and a matching West Tocharian word is lacking. Therefore, an internal East Tocharian solution seems preferable.

If one does assume that rounding was just a sporadic phenomenon in East Tocharian, Van Windekens' analysis of opärkā would be quite acceptable. The verb AB pärk- 'to rise' is used of the sun, so that opärkā 'in the morning' would equal 'at sunrise'. Still, since AB pärk- derives from I.-E. *bherĝh- / *bhrĝh- (cf. Skt. brhánt- 'high', Van Windekens 1941, p.90), and since the thought being persued here is that rounding did not occur before an original *bh, divergent treatment of the pre-fix in A apärkär on the one hand and opärkā on the other, if both contain -pärk- from *bherĝh- / *bhrĝh-, would be quite incomprehensible.

Actually, an alternative explanation of A opärkā might be proposed. This word is a hapax, occurring only in A 265 a3, viz.

opärkā kom pärkamām säs parno wrasom

which need not necessarily be translated 'in the morning (= at sunrise), as the sun was rising, this illustrious being', but might also equal 'early, as the sun was rising, this illustrious being'. The latter translation would be justified, if -pärk- in A opärkā derives not from I.-E. *bhrĝh-, but from *prko- 'early, quick, fore' as found in OIcel. forr adv. 'quickly', adj. 'forward, eager'

< Germ. *furha- < I.-E. *pṛko- (cf. also Gk. πρόκα 'forthwith'), a guttural extension of I.-E. *pṛ- 'forward, fore'. In the light of such derivation, the initial rounded vowel of opärkā < *apärk- < CT. *æ(n)pärkæ < I.-E. *n-pṛko- (*n- 'in, at'), as against the unrounded one in apärkär would be comprehensible. In the first word there is an etymological *p, whereas in the latter there is an etymological *bh.

As for the remaining words showing no rounding before A p (no's 7-15 on the list above), an etymology with I.-E. *bh is in some cases conceivable, in other cases no etymology is ascertainable and in still other cases disturbing factors may have prevented rounding from taking place. Thus:

- 7) rapurñe 'passion' could derive from an I.-E. *robh-, cf. Skt. rábhas- 'violence, impetuosity', rabhasá- 'wild' < I.-E. *rebhos- / *robhos-, Osset. (D.) ravgæ, Osset. (I.) ravg 'jealousy, longing' < *rābaka- (cf. Benvenist[e] 1965, p.28). Such etymology was first proposed by Poucha 1930, p. 315, although he felt compelled to reconstruct I.-E. *rabhon account of Lat. rabies 'rage, madness' (cf. also Pokorny 1959, p.852 who hesitates between *rabh- and *rebh-). However, an I.-E. *rabh- would yield Toch. A *rāp- and not rap-, so that a normal ablauting *rebh- / *robh- seems a more feasible solution, esp. in view of the fact that Lat. rabies may have a secondary a-vocalism (like magnus etc.). Van Windekens' alternative (1976, p.401) is not compelling (to Gk. ὑέπω 'I incline, bend toward').
- 8) warp 'enclosure' (B werpe) along with A warpi (B werwiye) 'garden' etc. might derive from I.-E. *uorbh-. Such etymology (i.e. *uorbh- or *uorb- 'to turn, entwine') was proposed by Lane 1938, p. 29 and is accepted by Van Windekens 1976, p. 561, cf. Lith. virbas 'twig', Lat. verbera 'rod'. Cf. also Hitt. uarpa- 'enclosure' and discussion in Melchert 1984, p. 157.
- 9) tarp. The meaning assigned to this word by Thomas (1964, p. 103) 'Teich' and Van Windekens (1976, p. 493) 'étang', i.e. 'pond', is not entirely certain. This is acknowledged by Thomas 1957, p. 280, ftn. 1. It occurs three times, viz.

70 b5 ///şluneyntu pälkātār kācky arṣāntās ṣāññā rārpunt tarpsam wri(s)

(textual emendation by Sieg 1952, p. 44 who translates:

'... die ..., welche Sehnsucht hervorrufen, siehst, (wenn du) in den von Natur gegrabenen Wasserläufen (?) des Wassers':

145 b6 sudarśam riyac kātse ñäkcim wäryo ywic[‡] tsopats tarp cäş antul(e) säm ştām lantu tämyo

translated by Thomas 1957, p. 280:

'In der Nähe der Stadt Sudarsana [ist] ein mit himmlischem Wasser gefüllter großer Wasserlauf (?). Aus diesem heraus [ist] der Baum gegangen. Deshalb (wird er Pārijāta genannt)'.

In its third occurrence (219 b4) tarp (i.e. pl. tarpañ) stands beside kärtkalyi usually translated 'ponds' (but B kärkkālle 'mud, mire' rather than 'pond', cf. Thomas 1976, p. 112, K.T. Schmidt 1984, p. 152). Although this text is only fragmentary, there is no reason to believe that kärtkalyi here defines tarpañ. Rather, if one here has a listing of some sort, these two words probably had distinct, albeit possibly related meanings. Sieg and Thomas, as seen above, translated tarp as 'Wasserlauf (?)', i.e. 'watercourse, water-bed'. A more accurate sense of this word, one might perhaps suggest, was 'water-bed covered with vegetation'. Such sense seems to be implied 1) by the fact that in 145 b 6 a tree is said to grow out of tarp, and 2) by the fact that in 70 b 5 tarpsam wri(s) in the tarp (pl.) of the water', as pointed out by Sieg (loc. cit.), translates Skt. saritkuñjāś ca sodakās (saritkuñja- 'water-place overrun with plants', sodaka- 'containing water').

Duchesne-Guillemin's derivation (1941, p. 154, accepted by Van Windekens 1976, p. 493) from I.-E. *torpo- (cf. Lith. tárpas 'interval, cavity'), although perhaps still possible, would lose some strength, if one accepts the meaning 'water-bed with vegetation' instead of 'pond' for A tarp. However, this 'new' sense opens up for another possible etymological explanation, which seems immediately pre-

ferable for semantic reasons and also (on the assumption that rounding did not take place before *bh) for phonological reasons. A tarp might derive from I.-E. *dorbho-, cf. Skt. darbhá- 'grass, tuft of grass', White Russ. dórob 'basket', OIcel. torf 'turf, peat', OHG. zurf 'lawn' etc., cf. Pokorny 1959, p.211-212.

Drosdowski (1977, p. 204-208) has argued against an association of the Sanskrit and Germanic words. Since Skt. darbhá- 'tuft or grass' certainly is to be linked to the verb drbháti 'strings or ties together, ties in a bunch', a basic root *derbh- 'to braid, entwine' should be posited, cf. also Skt. darbhana- n. 'mat of grass', Av. dərəwδa- 'bundle of muscles', West Iran. *(ham-)darb- 'to sew' (Mayerhofer 1963, p.60), White Russ. dórob 'basket' < *dorbho-, cf. Sławski (ed.) 1981, p.112-113. Drosdowski then goes on to claim that since the sense 'grass, tuft of grass' is not attested in Germanic, and since there is no reason to assume a semantic transition of that sense to 'turf, peat', the Germanic words, found only in the latter sense, cannot derive from the same root. Furthermore, for semantic reasons, there can be no connection between OHG. zurf etc. and verbs like OHG. zerben 'to turn', zirben 'to turn in rounds', OEngl. tearflian 'to roll' etc. Rather, by focusing on the meaning 'turf, peat', one is bound to turn to the Balto-Slav. representations of the root *der- 'to split, rip', where the meaning 'turf, peat' is abundantly attested. As a bridge between this family of words and the Germanic turf-words, Drosdowski points out Russ. (dial.) derbá 'new-broken ground; turf', derbováts 'to break ground, remove moss, turf, vegetation'.

However, it seems that Drosdowski's arguments are not necessarily valid. First, Russ. (dial.) derbá (derbovátь), according to Boryś (see Sławski (ed.) 1979, p.62-63), derives not from Slav. *drba (as assumed by Drosdowski, Pokorny 1959, p.212 and others), but rather from Slav. *derbba with the verbal abstract suffix -bba added to the root *der-. A direct comparison with the Germanic turfwords would then be excluded.

Second, the question of a semantic transition of 'tuft or grass' (Skt. darbhá-) to 'turf, peat' (OIcel. torf) is not essential, for in both cases we are confronted with a secondary meaning which has evolved from the primary meaning of the root *derbh-, i.e. 'to braid, entwine'. Thus Skt. darbhá-and White Russ. dórob, signifying 'tuft of grass' and 'basket' resp., both derive from a basic I.-E. *dorbhó- 'that which is braided, entwined'. The essential question would therefore rather be: can there be a semantic transition of 'to braid, entwine' to 'turf, peat'?

A quick look at the sense of Icel. torf immediately reveals that this can be so, for the entwining and matting of plant roots is at the core of its semantics. Thus the Islenzk orðabók (Böðvarsson, (ed.), 1963, p. 729) defines torf as 'the soil of marshy ground and flooded tracts of land, dense with entwined and matted plant roots; peat'. Note also the idiom torf = tyrfið mál 'complicated speech'. The same can be observed in other Germanic languages, e.g. Engl. turf 'covering of grass etc. with matted roots; sod; peat'. There is therefore no semantic obstacle that would deny a derivation of this Germanic family of words from the Indo-European root *derbh- 'to braid, entwine'.

Toch. A tarp, if 'water-bed with vegetation' (cf. Icel. torf 'soil of flooded land, dense with matted plant roots'), although agreeing with Skt. darbhá- and White Russ. dórob in word-formation (I.-E. *dorbhó-), would agree with Germanic as far as the semantic development is concerned.

10) kapśañi 'body' is of disputed origin, cf. Van Windekens 1976, p.187-188. B kektseñe shows -k- for A -p-, indicating that the latter may be the result of dissimilation. A quite plausible comparison was suggested by Toporov (1973, p.148-150): to Lith. kaktà 'forehead', kaktenà 'skin of the forehead; part of helmet covering the forehead; hill-top' (< *kok-tien- or the like). The dissimilation in East Tocharian would have taken place after the law of rounding ceased to operate.</p>

- 11) śalpem par. 'soles (of the feet)'. It is inviting to analyse this word as a compound with -pem, the paral of pe 'food' (cf. Van Windekens 1976, p. 470), and assume that rounding did not take place across the compound boundary.
- 12) trap-'to stammer' (cf. Sieg's translation 1952, p. 13, but B trāpp- apparently 'to stumble') occurs only once in East Tocharian, and then in the form trapmām, a Class VI pres. participle. The corresponding West Tocharian verb also forms a Class IV present, cf. troppontär (3. pl. med.). Van Windekens' etymology of this word appears solid (I.-E. *trop-, cf. OS. thrabōn 'to tread' etc.). The lack of rounding in A trap- may be due to system pressure: Class IV is characterized by the vowel sequence A a-a (B o-o), cf. A aratär 'stops', asatär 'dries', praskatär 'fears' etc., and this may have influenced the vocalism of A *trapatär, trapmām.
- 13) tampe 'force' surely derives from I.-E. *tomp- (cf. Lith. *ītampas* (dial.) 'force, tension', usually fem. *ītampa*) as suggested by Van Windekens 1939, p.127. The lack of rounding in A tampe may be seen in connection with the intervening -m-, as it appears that -m- usually did not have a rounding effect (cf. discussion below).
- 14) *kāryap* 'damage' (B *karep*), despite Van Windekens 1976, p. 196, has no clear etymology.
- 15) anapär 'before' (B enepre) may be analysed as ana-plus -pär < I.-E. *pro (cf. Van Windekens 1971, p. 452). The lack of rounding in this word might be due to the fact that it is not the first but the second syllable that would be affected, i.e. one might assume that rounding occurred only in the first syllable of a word.

The evidence indicates decidedly that rounding of A a to o did not take place before a p from I.-E. *bh. Seven examples support this ($ap\ddot{a}rk\ddot{a}r < *n-bhr\hat{g}h$ -, $ap\ddot{a}lk\bar{a}t < *n-bhlg$ -, lap < *lobho-, $nape\dot{m} < *nobh$ -, rape < *robh-, svarp / sparp < suorbho-, tarp < *dorbho-) and two more may possibly be added (warp < *uorbho-, $rapur\tilde{n}e < *robh$ -). In the cases where there is rounding before A p, that p derives not from I.-E.

*bh, but reflects I.-E. *b or *p or (in loanwords) Iranian *b. Furthermore, $op\ddot{a}rk\bar{a}$, instead of being a counter-example, affirms this conclusion. The only serious counterexample would be trap-< *trop-, but here one can blame the 'Systemzwang' for the unrounded vocalism.

This conclusion is of some consequence, as it implies that the labial occlusives *bh, *b, *p still had not merged into one in East Tocharian (at least not at the time of the rounding) and therefore not in Common Tocharian either. It has long been known that at the time of the palatalization in Common or Proto-Tocharian the three I.-E. dental occlusives were still kept apart or at least had not merged into one sound. The details concerning this matter are still disputed, but if the reflex of I.-E. *bh was still distinct from the reflex of I.-E. *p and *b (that had merged into one) in East Tocharian, it might lend support to Van Windekens' opinion (1976, p.79-84) that the palatalized result of I.-E. *dh in Tocharian was ts as against c from I.-E. *t and *d (for different opinions on this matter, cf. Evangelisti 1959, p.109-118, Winter 1962, p.16-35, Anreiter 1982, p.19-31 etc.).

This, however, was an early Tocharian process, whereas the divergent treatment of A a before p < *bh on the one hand and p < *p / *b on the other is a late dialectal phenomenon. Actually, there is further evidence that *bh developed differently from *p / *b. As pointed out by Van Windekens (1976, p.79) *mbh yields Toch. m, but *mp / *mb yield Toch. mp, cf. A kam, B keme 'tooth' < * $\hat{g}ombhos$, but AB $c\ddot{a}mp$ - 'to be able' < *temp-. That process was probably Common Tocharian as it is reflected in both dialects alike, but still it supports our conclusion that the Tocharian reflex of I.-E. *bh somehow differed from that of I.-E. *p and *b.

If one is justified in that conclusion, it would appear that at some time in the history of Tocharian, distinction in voice was neutralized with the result that *p and *b merged in /p/, whereas the relevant feature determining the eventual reflex of *bh was not its voice but its aspiration.

There seem to be three general alternatives for the development of an aspirated occlusive. First, it may remain aspirated, losing or not losing its voice. After the neutralization of voice distinction in Tocharian, *bh would be represented by the phoneme /ph/. However, it seems unlikely that that sound would be less prone to cause rounding that /p/. Also, there is little reason to assume that [mph] would be simplified to [m] whereas [mp] remained unchanged. Second, on aspirate may lose its aspiration, losing or not losing its voice. This alternative clearly does not apply to Tocharian, because after the loss of voice distinction, *bh > *b would have merged with the reflex of *p and *b. Third, an aspirate may become a fricative. Such development is common enough in Indo-European languages, cf. e.g. Greek, where I.-E. *bh passed through the stage /ph/ and yielded finally a voiceless labiodental fricative /f/, whereas e.g. in Germanic, I.-E. *bh turned out as a voiced bilabial fricative /b/ (for certain at least internally in intervocalic position).

There are three phenomena of Tocharian phonology that might be elucidated, or at least more readily comprehensible, if it is assumed that the development of I.-E. *bh in that language was actually in the direction of a fricative rather than an occlusive: a) the lack of rounding before the reflex of *bh; b) the development of *mbh to m; c) the sporadic confusion of $\langle w \rangle$ and $\langle p \rangle$.

Ad a: Rounding did not take place before the fricative w, whereas it did take place before the occlusive [p] from I.-E. *p/*b (or Iranian b). The lack of rounding before a p from I.-E. *bh might then be taken to indicate a fricative quality of this reflex. This might be summered up in one rule: A a is rounded to o before a labial occlusive, but not before a labial fricative.

Ad b: I.-E. *mbh appears as m in Tocharian. It is possible that this development reflects a direct assimilation of *mbh to *mm > m. However, this would mean that the assimilation was prior to the neutralization of voice distinction, which is conceivable, but not very credible. Besides, if the assimilation occurred so early, original *mb might have been expected to be treated in the same manner. Apparently, it was not. For, if Van Windekens' analysis (1976, p. 234) of Toch. B $kr\ddot{a}mp$ - (kremp) to be disturbed', caus. 'to restrain, hinder' as deriving from I.-E. *kremb-/*krmp-(*kromb-) is correct (cf. OE. kremman 'to restrain, hin-

der', OHG. (h)rim(p)fan 'to contract'), it would indicate the non-assimilation of *mb.

The development of *mbh to m should therefore, more plausibly, be set at a later date, i.e. after the neutralization of voice distinction. The neutralization brought about the merger of *p and *b in /p/. If *bh was still an occlusive at that time, it ought to have yielded /ph/. However, there is little reason to assume that [mph] would suffer assimilation, whereas [mp] remained unchanged.

On the other hand, if *bh had become some sort of a fricative, say /b/, by the time of the neutralization of voice distinction, the development of *mbh, through a stage *mb, to m could be set off against that of *mp / *mb to mp.

Ad c: The sporadic use of $\langle p \rangle$ for $\langle w \rangle$ and vice versa might also be seen in connection with the fricative quality of the Tocharian reflex of I.-E. *bh. If one assumes that Toch. p < I.-E. *bh actually represents a bilabial fricative /b/, its occasional alternation with w would be comparable to the alternation of b and v in many varieties of Indic. This alternation, originally caused by the phonetic resemblance of the fricatives /b/ and /w/ or /v/, thereupon spread to the graphemic level with the consequence that also the occlusive /p/ < I.-E. *p, *b, denoted by the same sign as the fricative /b/ < I. E. bh, i. e. $\langle p \rangle$, came to be expressed by the grapheme $\langle w \rangle$ occasionally. Cf. also Van Windekens 1976, p.77 who suggests a tendency toward fricativization of all labial occlusives in Tocharian.

The evidence concerning rounding before m is conflicting. Thus rounding is possibly to be found in:

- 1) omäskem 'bad', omäl 'hot', onmim 'remorse',
- 2) koläm 'ship', onkaläm 'elephant' (if one assumes there was metathesis of vowel quality in this word, cf. however below),
- 3) ñom 'name', som- 'one'.11

The verbal stems yom-'to reach' (B *yom- only in the subjunctive and preterite forms, elsewhere *yäm-) as well as yow- (Pret. III yowā, yowäs; B yop-only in the subjunctive, preterite and infinitive forms, elsewhere *yäp-) and yok- (inf.; B yok- only in the subjunctive (also as pres. ind.?) and infinitive

For *śolyme*, denoting some instrument of torture, no secure etymology exists, and it will be left out of consideration here (the *o* might reflect a previous diphthong).

However, there is no rounding in the following cases: kam 'tooth' (B keme), ram 'witness' (B reme), wram 'thing' (B wreme), slam 'flame' (B sleme), *yśaläm 'passion' (B yśelme), tampe 'force', parmā 'willingly' (B perma) etc. etc.

If one can draw any conclusions from a so conflicting material, it seems that group 1) indicates that A a in absolute initial position was rounded to o before m. Apparently, there are no counter-examples (amok 'art' is a loanword from Mid. Iran. *hamōk, perhaps through West Tocharian, cf. Isebaert 1980, p. 71-73, 177). Thus omäskem 'bad, evil' derives from *amäskem < CT. * $\alpha(n)$ mäskain-, i.e. the privative prefix * $\alpha(n)$ - < I.E. *n- plus the verbal root mäsk- 'to be' (for the semantic side, cf. Skt. asatya- 'wrong' (RV.), 'bad' (ŚBr.), ábhva- 'terrible', OIcel. óværr 'unpeaceful') plus the suffix *-ain-, cf. plyaskem 'meditation' to pälsk- 'to think'. Such rounding is also found in omäl 'hot' with the substantive omlvi 'heat' to which West Tocharian corresponds with emalye and emalya resp. It might be suggested that this word is cognate with the verb A mäl- 'to oppress' (B mäll- 'to oppress; to contest') with the prefix CT. * $\alpha(n)$ - < *n- 'in'. The notion 'heat, hot' may derive from the use of this root to denote 'oppressive weather, thick air', cf. Icel. molla 'oppressive heat with no wind blowing' and the verb molla 'to be warm; to cook slowly', malla 'to cook slowly' from the same root (for other etymological attempts, cf. Van Windekens 1976, p.634 (with lit.), Isebaert 1978, p.346, Čop 1955, p. 30). The third example of this group is onmim 'remorse' corresponding to B onmim. The origin of this word is disputed and unclear (cf. Van Windekens 1976, p.335, Isebaert 1980, p.141, Cop 1975a, p.33, 1975b, p.11-12) so that it cannot shed any light on the problem under discussion here.

forms), on the evidence of the West Tocharian forms, seem to have an ovocalism basically restricted to the subjunctive and the preterite. It is conceivable that the o-vocalism originated in the first person singular subjunctive through u-umlaut of CT. * α (cf. B yoku), whatever the etymology of the final -u, cf. e.g. Adams 1978, p.449 with ftn.12.

In group 2) $kol\ddot{a}m$ and $onkal\ddot{a}m$ (if with metathesis from $*\ddot{a}nkol\ddot{a}m$) are contradicted by $*y\acute{s}al\ddot{a}m$ (pl. $y\acute{s}alma\~{n}$). The corresponding West Tocharian forms are kolmai (obl. sg. with obl. pl. kolmaim presupposing a nom. sg. *kolmo / *kolmiye), onkolmo and $y\acute{s}elme$ resp. This indicates that the -m- (or -lm-) is not the cause of the rounding in A $kol\ddot{a}m$ and $onkal\ddot{a}m$ (if < $*\ddot{a}nkol\ddot{a}m$) which then must be sought elsewhere.

In two recent articles I have denied that o-umlaut operated in Common or East Tocharian, maintaining that it was an exclusive West Tocharian phenomenon (Hilmarsson 1985b and 1984c, p. 143), primarily on the basis of A praski 'fear' as against B prosko / proskiye. However, it seems that I have not taken due notice of the fact that whereas B prosko and proskiye are fem. nouns of Class VI, 2, A praski is masc. in the singular with a plural form praskintu, indicating a genus alternans Class III,2 inflexion. This discrepancy as well as the difference in root vocalism might be explained in the following manner: Common Tocharian had two words *præsko (< I.-E. *prok-sk-ā), a fem. substantive, and *præskiyæ (< I.E. *prok-sk-ijo- (-iHo-)), a neuter substantive or perhaps an adj. later substantivized. CT. *præsko yielded *prosko through o-umlaut. This form survived in West Tocharian, but not in East Tocharian. CT. *præskiyæ, on the other hand, survived in East Tocharian, yielding praski regularly, whereas in West Tocharian it suffered the influence of prosko whose vocalism, inflexion and gender it adopted. The fact that the nom. sg. final -iye of Class VI, 1 had begun to infiltrate Class VI, 2, replacing - or co-existing with - its proper final -o, may have given impetus to this development, cf. discussion of A kolye, B kolyi below. Thus the main objection to positing an o-umlaut of (CT. * α >) a in East Tocharian words is removed.

Actually, positive evidence of o-umlaut can be observed in East Tocharian. In at least one instance such umlaut is seen to be operative in East Tocharian times, witness A oklop in danger < *aklop (similarly Isebaert 1980, p.137) < *aklap (i.e. rounding of A a before p < I.-E. *b with subsequent umlaut of the initial a) < CT. * $\alpha(n)kl\alpha p\alpha$ < I.-E. * γ + *ghlobom (cf. above), which through the assumption of an o-umlaut becomes

quite regular (for a different and more complicated explanation, cf. Van Windekens 1976, p. 332).

On the other hand, a few East Tocharian words show the effect of o-umlaut that presumably occurred already in Common Tocharian times. Among these words might be koläm, as discussed below, as well as orkäm (B orkamo), whose o-vocalism, however, might also have been effected through rounding, cf. above (for onkaläm, cf. discussion below).

Furthermore, A kolve 'tail' (hapax: 12 b 4 kliso pāccās possāsā to lap śalyim kolyeyac 'sleeping on the right side, the head on the left toward the tail') might show the effect of o-umlaut operating in an East Tocharian word. The corresponding West Tocharian form is kolyi. As far as I am aware this words occurs only twice. In M 1 b4 yäkweñña kolyi indicates fem. gender. A correspondence of the type A kolve: B kolvi is unusual or even singular in a fem. noun (A rake: B reki etc. are neuters of Class II, cf. Krause-Thomas 1960, p. 98). On the other hand, a correspondence A - $\acute{C}e$: B $\acute{C}(i)$ ye is regular in the fem. words of Class VI, 1. One might then wonder, if the form B kolyi of M 1 b4 has not been misspelled for *kolyiye, or rather, if kolyi is not simply a regular obl. sg. form (cf. ālyi, sālyi, the obl. sg. of *alyiye, salvive resp.) mistakenly or incorrectly used for the nom. sg. Such mistakes do occur elsewhere in the magical and medicinal texts wehre kolyi is found, cf. e.g. Y 2 b 4 where the obl. form sālyi is evidently used in the sense of or for the nom, sg. salyiye 'salt', and M 3 b 6 where the obl. pl. pyapyaim is similarly used for the nom. pl. pyapyaiñ (for this latter example, cf. Thomas 1952, p.23, ftn.3). In its second occurrence (M 3 b1), kolvi stands before nor and might therefore be interpreted as *kolyin, the regular nom. pl. of a Class VI, 1 fem. noun.

Recently, I have argued (Hilmarsson 1986b) that Class VI,2 in Tocharian is built upon Indo-European \bar{a} -stems and ablauting $\bar{o}n$ -stems, whereas Class VI,1 is built upon $\bar{e}n$ -stems. The ablaut in the $\bar{o}n$ -stems (e-grade suffix e.g. in the loc. sg. and nom. pl.) offered a port of entrance for the influence of Class VI,1 upon VI,2. A consequence of this was the (partial) replacement of Class VI,2 finals by those of Class VI,1. A further consequence was the occasional transfer of words from

Class VI, 1 to VI, 2, and such transfer, presumably, could also take place in the opposite direction. On this basis the o-vocalism of A kolye (and B kolyi) can be explained as follows: The Indo-European root was probably * $\hat{k}el$ -/* $\hat{k}ol$ -, as suggested by Duchesne-Guillemin (1941, p. 166) and Van Windekens (1976, p. 229). However, the latter's direct comparison with Skt. $\hat{s}alya$ -'dart, point of an arrow' is difficult semantically as well as phonologically and morphologically. A more direct comparison is offered by OIcel. hali 'tail' (also mentioned by Van Windekens), which is a perfect semantic match of the Tocharian words. Deriving from * $\hat{k}ol\bar{e}n$ it would also be a perfect morphological match, if our analysis of B kolyi as the obl. sg. form of *kolyiye, a class VI,1 noun, is correct. However, a motivation for the Tocharian o-vocalism would then be lacking.

Therefore, one might rather suggest that I.-E. had a form $*\hat{k}ol\bar{o}n$ with an alternating stem $*\hat{k}olen$ - (OIcel. hali might have a generalized e-grade of the suffix), this would yield CT. $*k\varpi lo$, obl. stem $*k\varpi ly\bar{a}n$ -. In the nominative, o-umlaut produced the form *kolo, and through the generalization of palatal -ly- from the oblique stem, the form *kolyo was reached (cf. B $sw\bar{a}\bar{n}co$ (sun)beam for $*sw\bar{a}nto$ from I.-E. $*suH_2nt\bar{o}n$ the sunny one, Hilmarsson forthcoming). This was a Class VI,2 noun, but through the interaction of the Classes VI,1 and VI,2, this word was thereupon transferred to VI,1, acquiring the characteristic final of that class. Thus A kolye need not be taken as a borrowing from West Tocharian (Van Windekens, loc. cit.), but would be a regular match of B kolyi for *kolyiye, and the o-vocalism of both words would have been caused by an o-umlaut in Common Tocharian.

Another word might invite an analysis similar to that of A kolye, B kolyi. However, it seems that its etymology is doubtful. This is B olyi 'ship' (obl. sg.) whose East Tocharian match is often cited as olyi. The form actually attested in the eastern dialect is olyik (29 b 2), and its context is not so clear that its sense

To accept with Van Windekens 1976, p.18 that I.-E. *o was retained as B o before ly (and lm) and take A kolye, olyi as loanwords from West Tocharian is unfeasible, cf. A malyw-, B mely- 'to press'.

can be safely arrived at. Its association with B olyi is therefore far from certain. However, even assuming that A olyik somehow matches B olyi, the problems of word-formation and extra-Tocharian connections are by no means solved. Since Hansen (1940, p. 151) these words have been equated with Lith. aldijà boat', OCS. ladiji 'id.'. However, Hansen's derivation from I.-E. *oldh- cannot be maintained, for *-dh- would not be lost in Tocharian. Van Windekens (1976, p. 334) encounters this problem by reconstructing an I.-E. *oldi- with -d- regularly lost before -i- in Tocharian. This answers one question, but the matter is still not solved. The acc. sg. of Lith. aldijà is aldija and the circumflex, as pointed out to me by Kortlandt (per. litt.), would preclude a derivation from *old-, demanding *oldh- because of Winter's Law of lengthening. However, Kortlandt also points out that Lith. aldijà might actually be a borrowing from Slavic, for, in his opinion, it would seem improbable that Lithuanian would have preserved a sequence -ij- in a Proto-Indo-European word (cf. e.g. $vilk\dot{e} < *-i\dot{p} - < *-i\hat{H}$ -) whereas the preservation of -ij- in Slavic would point to a stressed jer which lost the accent to the ending as a result of Dybo's Law.

If then Lith. aldijà is a borrowing from Slavic, the circumflex need not present a serious obstacle for reconstructing an I.-E. *old-. However, Norw. (dial.) olda 'großer Trog, Wasserkumme, Wasserrinne (aus ausgehöhltem Baumstamm)', Old. Dan. aalde, olde 'ausgehöhltes Gefäß' etc. is probably correctly associated with Lith. aldijà, OCS. ladiji by Pokorny 1959, p.31-32, cf. also Stang 1971, p.13. The Germanic words preclude a derivation from *old-, and the status of Toch. A olyik, B olyi (obl. sg.) becomes unclear again. An analysis similar to that of B kolyi, therefore, would be speculative.

Now, back to A koläm, B *kolmo 'ship'. Etymologically, Van Windekens' association (1976, p. 228-229) of these words with OHG. scalm 'ship' seems appropriate. However, assuming that o-umlaut operated in East as well as in West Tocharian (cf. above), it seems unnecessary to take A koläm as a borrowing from the latter. Rather, A koläm and B *kolmo both derive from CT. *kælmo (o-umlaut) < *kælmå < I.-E. *kolmā, as OHG. scalm from I.-E. *skolmā.

On the other hand, the etymology of A onkaläm, B onkolmo is not so transparent. Van Windekens' suggestion (1941, p.82; 1976, p. 337-338; also Duchesne-Guillemin 1941, p. 159) that the final A -aläm, B -olmo is a suffix identical with the one found in B onolme '(human) being' is very attractive, but further analysis of this suffix is difficult and its vocalism problematic, cf. above and below, also ftn. 12. Also, Van Windekens' identification of the radical element onk- as an ancient *ank- < I.-E. *ank- 'to bend', although semantically attractive, is phonologically far from easy. Van Windekens suggests an expected A *ānkalām became onkalām under the influence of B onkolmo. If one wishes to avoid that kind of inter-dialectal borrowing, one might with Isebaert (1980, p. 137) assume that a metathesis has taken place in the East Tocharian form, changing original * \bar{a} nikoläm to *onik \bar{a} läm > onikaläm (reduction of \bar{a} to a in a medial syllable). However, one would still be left with the problem of the suffixal -olm- and its vocalism, and West Tocharian onkolmo would still require a comment. Van Windekens claims that (I.-E. *ank-olm $\bar{o}(n) >$) * \bar{a} nkolmo yielded B onkolmo regularly (cf. also Isebaert 1980, p. 142), i.e. that West Tocharian \bar{a} could be umlauted to o before an o of the following syllable. However, most of the examples of that change, brought forth by Van Windekens, are actually more correctly understood as showing o-umlaut of the West Tocharian reflex of CT. *æ but not *ā. The only example that might stand close scrutiny is onolme '(human) being', if from *ānolmæ < I.-E. *anH- 'to breathe'. But I.-E. *anH- is attested in B anāsk- 'to inhale' < CT. $*\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ -sk- < I.-E. *anH-sk-, and it is difficult to see how the change of $\bar{a} - \bar{a}$ to o - o can have been brought about, 13 cf. however discussion below.

I cannot propose an etymology that would be decidedly more plausible than those mentioned above. However, if one whishes

The class sign of Pres. Class IV, B -o-, A -a-, derives from I.-E. *-ā-. In West Tocharian it causes o-umlaut of B e < CT. *æ (e.g. B orotär (A aratär) 'ceases' < *erotär < CT. *æråtär < I.-E. *orātr; in B osotär (A asatär) 'dries' no o-umlaut has taken place, for the root vocalism here is I.-E. *ā, not *a, i.e. B osotär < CT. *åsåtär < I.-E. *āsātr, cf. Lat. āreō 'I am dry').

to avoid getting involved with explanations based on inter-dialectal borrowing or influence, or the assumption of a vowel metathesis, it appears that the only way to explain A onkaläm, B onkolmo as regular forms would be to assume a Common Tocharian preform *ænkwålmo (or possibly *ånkwålmo). Such a form would yield B *enkolmo (CT. *å > B o regularly; w is dropped before o, cf. B ost: A wast 'house') > onkolmo (oumlaut of the initial syllable). In East Tocharian, CT. *ænkwålmo would regularly yield *ankwaläm (apocope plus insertion of anaptyctic ä; CT. *å and *æ > A a) > onkaläm (rounding of A a before kw; delabialization of kw). The problem would thus be referred to Common Tocharian, which, of course, does not constitute a solution in itself, but at least CT. *ænkwålmo can be considered a concrete starting point.

If the elements B -olmo and -olme (of B onkolmo and onolme resp.) are cognates, with the meaning 'living being, animal', CT. *æṅkwålmo might be analysed as a compound, *æṅkw + ålmo, whose first constituent, *æṅkw-, might derive from I.-E. *ņku- 'a bend, curve, hook', attested as an u-stem in Av. aŋku- 'hook', and with a -lo- extension in Gk. ἀγκύλος 'crooked, curved', ἀγκύλη 'the bend of the arm', OIcel. ongull '(fishing) hook', etc. Such a compound would have the meaning 'the animal with the curve / hook', referring, of course, to the elephant's trunk or its curved tusks. 14

Furthermore, B onolme 'human being' would then be analysable as deriving from CT. * α n-ålmæ (CT. * $\mathring{a} > B$ o regularly, with subsequent o-umlaut in the initial syllable) with * α n- from I.-E. * η - 'in, inside'. The original meaning of this word would then have been 'one living inside (the family community' \rightarrow 'human being'. Semantic parallels are found e.g. in Celtic, cf. ingen 'daughter', inailt 'female servant'.

Thus A onkaläm need not be understood as having suffered metathesis (< *ānkolām), but rather as deriving from CT. *ænkwålmo regularly, whereas the other word of group 2), koläm < *kolmo < CT. *kælmo, would be set off against

¹⁴ Cf. however Ivanov 1980 [82], p. 166 for a quite different explanation of this word: an Austro-Asiatic origin.

*yśaläm < *yśalma < CT. yśælmæ by assuming that there was no rounding through the -m- (or -lm-), but simply an o-umlaut, caused by the final *-o. This umlaut may have been Common Tocharian, since its effects are seen in both dialects, but it appears to have been operative well into the dialectal period, for the initial syllable of A oklop can have been umlauted only after the rounding in the second syllable had taken place.

As for the remaining words showing o-vocalism before -m-, i.e. group 3) nom 'name', som-'one', they stand in sharp contrast to words like kam 'tooth', wram 'thing' etc. I can see no way to explain these forms by any common law. Therefore, inspite of Hilmarsson 1984c, the o-vocalism of A som fem. obl. sg. (B somo) is probably best explained as showing o-umlaut and not rounding before m. This o-vocalism was then generalized in the entire paradigm (except the nom. sg. masc.).

A $\tilde{n}om$ perhaps owes its o-vocalism to the adj. $\tilde{n}omum$ 'having a name', where o may have arisen through u-umlaut, cf. Van Windekens 1976, p. 327, Isebaert 1980, p. 136.

Another solution is perhaps conceivable. As I have recently suggested (Hilmarsson 1984a, ftn. 4; cf. also Lindeman 1982, p. 63) the origin of the initial palatal of A $\bar{n}om$, B $\bar{n}em$ might perhaps be sought in an ancient weak case form where the zero grade of the root morpheme preceded an e-grade of the suffix. The group -nm- was then palatalized and a palatal \bar{n} thereupon generalized in the entire paradigm. Thus, I.-E. nom. sg. *(H)nomn: gen. sg. *(H)nmens would in Tocharian yield *næmän: *æ $\bar{n}m$ än. With the generalization of the genitive palatalization, there arose a paradigm * \bar{n} æmän: *æ \bar{n} män. If both allomorphs, * \bar{n} æm- and *æ \bar{n} m- survived into East Tocharian, the latter would have rounding to * \bar{n} m- (CT. *æ- > A a- > o-before -(R)m- in absolute initial position, cf. omäl and omäskem above). This vocalism was thereupon generalized, so that (* \bar{n} æm- >) A * \bar{n} am became \bar{n} om.

Due to the conflicting material, any conclusion concerning rounding before m must be stated and taken with utmost reserve: Rounding before m took place in absolute initial position. Elsewhere there was no rounding, except in the words $\tilde{n}om$ and som.

To sum: Rounding of East Tocharian a is a much more regular affair than hitherto assumed. Far from being sporadic, it is a regular sound law that can be formulated thus:

East Tocharian a of whatever origin (CT. * α or * \mathring{a}) was rounded to o 1) before kw, 2) before a labial occlusive (i.e. before p from I.-E. *p / *b or Iranian b, but not before p from I.-E. *bh) and 3) before m in absolute initial position (with $\tilde{n}om$ and perhaps som- as exceptions). These rules apply also, if the rounded and the rounding sound are separated by a sonant (except m).

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