Univerzita Karlova v Praze

Filozofická fakulta

DISERTAČNÍ PRÁCE

2013 Ľubomír Novák

Univerzita Karlova v Praze

Filozofická fakulta

Ústav obecné lingvistiky

Obecná jazykověda – Indoevropská srovnávací jazykověda

Ľubomír Novák

Problem of Archaism and Innovation in the Eastern Iranian Languages

K problému archaismu a inovace ve východoíránských jazycích

Disertační práce

vedoucí práce – Doc. PhDr. Petr Vavroušek, CSc.



I would like to thank to my family and to my friends for support. My thanks also belong to Mgr. Lucie Schürerová for proofreading and to Mgr. Jan Bičovský, Ph.D. for proofreading and for valuable comments on phonology and other issues. My special thanks belong to Reiner Lipp, Ph.D. who read the text and corrected many of my mistakes. My gratitude belongs to Doc. PhDr. Petr Vavroušek, CSc. who inspired me to write this thesis.

My gratitude also belongs to the Yaghnōbī people (especially to Professor Sayfiddīn Mīrzōzōda and his family) – thank to them I had the opportunity to learn their extraordinary language.

Ľubomír Novák Prague, 2nd April 2013

PROBLEM OF ARCHAISM AND INNOVATION IN THE EASTERN IRANIAN LANGUAGES

K PROBLÉMU ARCHAISMU A INOVACE VE VÝCHODOÍRÁNSKÝCH JAZYCÍCH

Table of contents

Table of contents	i
Abbreviations	V
Languages	V
Maps and figures	viii
Abstract	xii
Abstrakt	xii
I. Introduction	I
I.i. An outline of history and classification of the Eastern Iranian languages	2
I.1.1. Overview of the Eastern Iranian languages	3
I.1.1.1. *Proto-Indo-Iranian and *Proto-Iranian periods	4
I.1.1.2. Old Iranian period	6
I.1.1.2.1. Avestan	6
I.1.1.2.2. Scythian and Sauromatian dialects, Cimmerian	9
I.1.1.3. Middle Iranian period	II
I.1.1.3.1. Sogdian	II
(excursion 1) Sogdian dialects of Bukhārā, Ustrōshana and Zhetisu	15
I.1.1.3.2. Sarmatian, Alanic and Jassic	16
I.1.1.3.3. Khwārezmian	17
I.1.1.3.4. Bactrian	20
I.1.1.3.5. Khōtanese and Tumshuqese, Saka dialects	21
I.1.1.4. New Iranian period	23
I.1.1.4.a. North Eastern Iranian	24
I.1.1.4.1. Yaghnōbī	24
(excursion 2) Yaghnōbī dialects	26
(excursion 3) Sogdo-Yaghnōbī substrate in the Zarafshān-Tajik dialects	27
I.1.1.4.2. Ossetic	
I.1.1.4.b. The Pāmīr languages	
	25

I.1.1.4.4. Yazghulāmī	36
I.1.1.4.5. The Shughnī-Rōshānī group	39
I.1.1.4.6. Sarghulāmī	44
I.1.1.4.7. Munjī and Yidghā	45
I.1.1.4.8. Ishkāshmī, Sanglēchī and Zēbākī	47
I.1.1.4.9. Wakhī	50
I.1.1.4.c. South and Southeast Eastern Iranian	53
I.1.1.4.10. Pashtō and Wazīrī	53
I.1.1.4.11. Waṇetsī	55
I.1.1.4.12. Parāchī	56
I.1.1.4.13. Ōrmuṛī	58
I.1.1.5. Other Eastern Iranian languages	59
I.1.2. Classification of the (Eastern) Iranian languages	60
II. Archaism and innovation in Sogdian and Yaghnōbī	66
II.1. Historical phonology	68
(excursion 4) Sogdian orthographical systems	
II.1.1. Stress	75
II.1.1. Stress I	77
II.1.1.2. Stress II	
II.1.1.3. Stress III and the Sogdian Rhythmic Law	80
II.1.1.4. Stress IV	81
II.1.2. Vowels and diphthongs	82
II.1.2.1. *a, *a	90
II.1.2.2. *ā, *ā	•
II.1.2.3. *i	93
II.1.2.4. *ī	94
II.1.2.5. * <i>u</i>	
II.1.2.6. *ū	95
II.1.2.7. *r	95
II.1.2.8. *ǎi	96
II.1.2.9. *ắи	97
II.1.3. Consonants	97
II.1.3.1. *p	103
II.1.3.2. *t	103
II.1.3.3. *k	104
II.1.3.4. *č	
II.1.3.5. *b	
II.1.3.6. *d	
(excursion 5) Lambda Sogdica?	108
II.1.3.7. *g	113

II.1.3.8. *j´	113
II.1.3.9. *f	113
II.1.3.10. *\$	114
II.1.3.11. *x	116
II.1.3.12. *x ^u , *hu	116
II.1.3.13. *š	117
II.1.3.14. *ž	117
II.1.3.15. *m	117
II.1.3.16. *n	118
II.1.3.17. *r	118
II.1.3.18. *l (?)	119
II.1.3.19. *s	119
II.1.3.20. *h	119
II.1.3.21. *z	120
II.1.3.22. *ts	I2I
II.1.3.23. *dz	I22
II.1.3.24. *į	123
II.1.3.25. * <i>u</i>	123
II.1.3.26. *H	I24
II.1.4. Syncope and reduction	124
II.1.5. Prothesis and epenthesis	125
II.1.6. Assimilation and dissimilation	127
II.1.7. Metathesis	128
II.1.8. Analogy	129
II.1.9. Syllabic structure	130
II.2. Historical grammar	132
II.2.1. Nominal inflection	132
II.2.2. Pronominal inflection	141
II.2.3. Numeral inflection	146
II.2.4. Verbal inflection	I47
(excursion 6) Ergative	154
II.2.5. Adpositions	158
II.2.6. Conjunctions	159
III. Lexicon	160
III.1. Pronouns	164
III.2. Numerals	168
III.3. Adjectives (i)	170
III.4. People	I72
III.5. Animals	176
III.6. Plants	179

	III.7. Body parts	. 182
	III.8. Verbs	188
	III.9. Celestial objects	. 196
	III.10. Nature (i)	. 197
	III.11. Weather	. 199
	III.12. Fire	200
	III.13. Settlement	. 201
	III.14. Tools	.203
	III.15. Nature (ii)	204
	III.16. Colours	204
	III.17. Time	.205
	III.18. Adjectives (ii)	.207
	III.19. Adpositions	211
	III.20. Conjunctions	. 212
	III.21. Name	. 213
ľ	V. Conclusion	. 215
V	. Bibliography	222

Abbreviations

abl.	ablative	obl.	oblique case
acc.	accusative	occ.	occasionally
arch.	archaic	opt.	optative
C	any consonant	pers.	person
coll.	collective	pf.	perfect
colloq.	colloquial	pl.	plural
dat.	dative	poet.	poetical
dial.	dialect, dialectal	postp.	postposition
dir.	direct case	prep.	preposition
du.	dual	pres.	present
encl.	enclitic	pret.	preterite
gen.	genitive	pron.	pronoun
GMS	GERSHEVITCH 1954	sbjn.	subjunctive
imper.	imperative	sg.	singular
impf.	imperfect	tr.	transitive verb
inf.	infinitive	V	any vowel
instr.	instrumental	voc.	vocative
itr.	intransitive verb	0	mark of an incomplete word, e.g.
lit.	literary		the symbol " \bigcirc " is used to omit a part
loc.	locative		of compound word

Languages

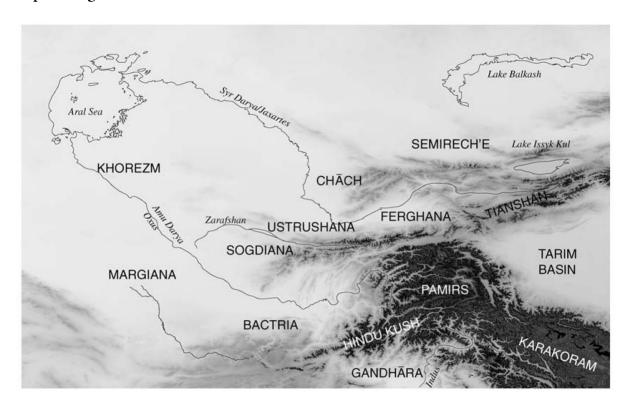
nom. nominative

AfghP.	Afghan Persian, Darī	C., Class.	Classical
Ar.	Arabic	Chaghat.	Chaghatāy
Ave.	Avestan	Chin.	Chinese
Azərb.	Azərbayjanian	Cimm.	Cimmerian
Bactr.	Bactrian (in Greco-Bactrian	Corn.	Cornish
	alphabet)	Cr.Goth.	Crimean Gothic
M	Bactrian in Manichaean script	Cr.Tatar.	Crimean Tatar
Baj.	Bajūwī	CS1.	Church Slavic
Balōch.	Balōchī	Dard.	Dardic
Bart.	Bartangī	Elam.	Elamite
Beṅgāl.	Beṅgālī	Eng.	English
Bret.	Breton	Fārs.	Contemporary Persian of Iran
KLT	'KLT' dialects (i.e. Kerneweg/	Fr.	French
	Cornouaillais – Leoneg/Léonard –	Gael.	Scottish Gaelic
	Tregerieg/ <i>Trégorrois</i>)	Georg.	Georgian
GW	Gwenedeg/Vannetais dialect	Ger.	German
BukhAr.	Bukhāran Arabic	Gmc.	Proto-Germanic
ByzGre.	Byzantine Greek	Goth.	Gothic

Gre.	(Attic) Greek	OPers.	Old Persian
D	Doric	Ōrm.	Ōrmuṛī
I	Ionic	В	Barakī-Barak dialect
K	Hellenistic Koine	K	Kānīgurām dialect
Hazār.	Hazāra(gī)	OScand.	Old Scandinavian
Hind.	Hindī	Oss.	Ossetic
Hitt.	Hittite	D	Digoron dialect
Hung.	Hungarian	I	Iron dialect
IAr.	Indo-Aryan	Ott.	Ottoman Turkish
Ide.	(Proto-)Indo-European	OUygh.	Old Uyghur
IIr.	Indo-Iranian	Pahl.	Middle Persian, Pahlavī
Ir.	(Proto-)Iranian	M	Middle Persian in Manichaean
Irl.	Modern Irish		script
Ishk.	Ishkāshmī (Ranī)	Parāch.	Parāchī
Jass.	Jassic	Parth.	Parthian
Kāb.	Fārsī-Kābulī	Pasht.	Pashtō
Kāmvir.	Kāmviri	Pers.	(Classical) Persian
Khōt.	Khōtanese	Prkt.	Prakrit
Khūf.	Khūfī	Pruss.	Prussian
Khwār.	Khwārezmian	Qāraqalp.	Qāraqalpāq
Kurd.	Kurdish	Qashq.	Qashqāyī
Lat.	Latin	Rāshrv.	Rāshārvī
Latv.	Latvian	Roman.	Romanian
LHChin.	Late Han Chinese	Rōsh.	Rōshānī
Lith.	Lithuanian	Rus.	Russian
LKhōt.	Late Khōtanese	Sangl.	Sanglēchī
Māzand.	Māzanderānī	Sargh.	Sarghulāmī
MChin.	Middle Chinese	Sarghul.	Sarghulāmī
MGre.	Modern Greek	Sarīq.	Sarīqōlī
Mid.	Middle	Sarm.	Sauromatian, Sarmatian
Mod.	Modern	Scyth.	Scythian
Munj.	Munjī	Shākhd.	Shākhdaraī
С	Central dialect	Shugh.	Shughnī
N	Northern (Lower) dialect	ShughRōs	sh. Shughnī-Rōshānī language
S	Southern (Upper) dialect		group
Nūr.	Nūristānī	Skt.	Sanskrit
O.	Old	Sogd.	Sogdian
OChin.	Old Chinese	AL	Sogdian in Sogdian script –
OCS.	Old Church Slavic		'Ancient Letters'
OHG.	Old High German	В	Buddhist Sogdian
OIcel.	Old Icelandic	Br	Brāhmī Sogdian
OIrl.	Old Irish	С	Christian Sogdian
OKhōt.	Old Khōtanese	č	Sogdian in Sogdian script –

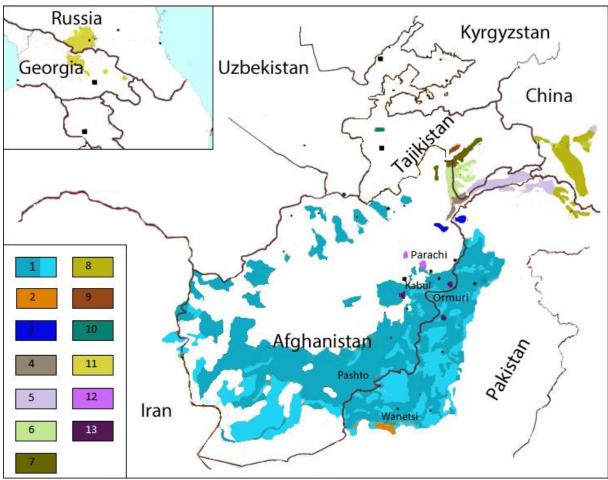
	Chilhujra documents	Tr.	Turkish
Н	Sogdian in Sogdian script -	Tü.	Turkic
	Ḥiṣōrak documents	Tumsh.	Tumshuqese
M	Manichaean Sogdian	Turkm.	Turkmen
мд	Sogdian in Sogdian script -	TVanj.	Tajik dialect of Vanj
	Mount Mugh documents	TVarz.	Tajik dialect of Varzōb
S	Sogdian in Sogdian script	TYagh.	Tajik dialect of Yaghnōb
Z	Sogdian in Sogdian script -	Urd.	Urdū
	Zhetisu documents	Ustr.	Ustrōshanian
Tālysh.	Tālyshī	Ved.	Vedic, Old Indic
TBukh.	Tajik dialect of Bukhārā	Wakh.	Wakhī
Tehr.	Teheran dialect of Modern Persian	Wanj.	Wanjī
TFalgh.	Tajik dialect of Falghar	Yagh.	Yaghnōbī
Thrac.	Thracian	С	Central (Transitional) dialect
Tjk.	Tajik	E	Eastern dialect
TMast.	Tajik dialect of Mastchōh	W	Western dialect
Tokh.	Tokharian	Yazgh.	Yazghulāmī
A	"A" dialect	Yidgh.	Yidghā
В	"B" dialect, Kūchean	Zēb.	Zēbākī

Maps and figures

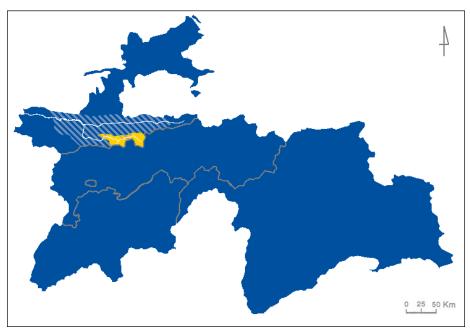




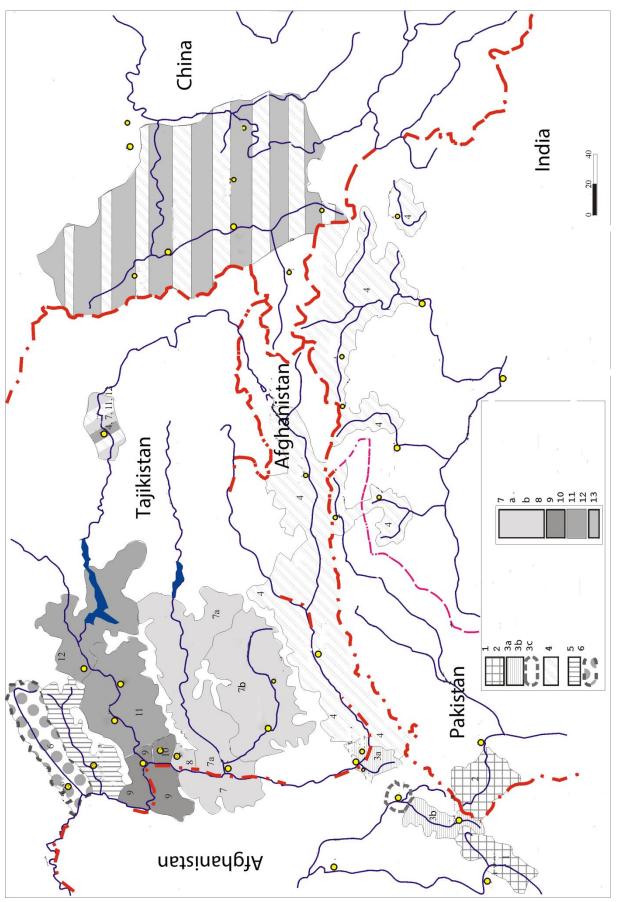
Map 1 Historical territories of Central Asia (DE LA VAISSIÈRE 2005, 14, Map 1)



Map 2 Distribution of Modern Eastern Iranian Languages (1 Pashtō, 2 Waṇetsī, 3 Munjī-Yidghā, 4 Ishkāshmī-Sanglēchī, 5 Wakhī, 6 Shughnī, 7 Rōshānī, Bartangī, Rāshārvī, 8 Sarīqōlī, 9 Yazghulāmī, 10 Yaghnōbī, 11 Ossetic, 12 Parāchī, 13 Ōrmuṛī), URL: http://www.liplus.ru/img4/b/a/bahmanjon/Iranian_lang_rus.jpg [quot. 02. 01. 2013 21:52], edited by Mgr. Veronika Mikešová.



 $\textbf{Map 3} \ Location \ of \ the \ Yaghn\bar{o}b \ valley \ in \ Tajik \ dialects \ (grey).$



Map 4 Iranian languages of Pāmīr and adjacent regions. 1 Munjī, 2 Yidghā; 3a Ishkāshmī, 3b Sanglēchī, 3c Zēbākī; 4 Wakhī; 5 Yazghulāmī; 6 Wanjī; 7a Shughnī, 7b Shākhdaraī, 8 Bajūī, 9 Rōshānī, 10 Khūfī, 11 Bartangī, 12 Rāšārvī, 13 Sarīqōlī (by Yuriy Borisovich Koryakov, Russian Academy of Sciences 2001), URL: http://lingvarium.org/maps/asia/pamir-lgs.gif> [quot. 02. 01. 2013], edited by Mgr. Veronika Mikešová.

Figure 1 Sogdian alphabet of the Ancient Letters.

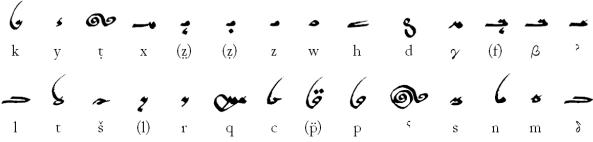


Figure 2 Sogdian cursive script.

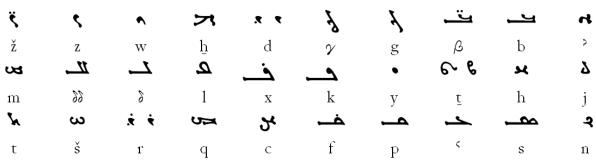


Figure 3 Manichaean Sogdian alphabet.

Figure 4 Syriac Sogdian alphabet.

Abstract

The presented dissertation aims to bring new information concerning the classification of the Eastern Iranian languages. Instead of commonly accepted two branches of Eastern Iranian (Northern and Southern) it seems that there can be classified at least five branches of Eastern Iranian languages, moreover, Avestan can form its own branch, which possibly may include also Khwārezmian. The main issue of the presented thesis was to show archaisms and innovations of the language group in focus. Such task is an issue for numerous studies so the main attention was paid to historical development of Sogdian and Yaghnōbī – two closely related Eastern Iranian languages.

Linguistic proximity of Sogdian and Yaghnōbī has been observed shortly after discoveries of the first Sogdian documents in Chinese Turkestan on the beginning of the 20th century, for a long time it has been supposed that Yaghnōbī is a modern descendent of Sogdian. By analysis of phonology, grammar and vocabulary of both languages I tried to find clues that may answer this question. From diachronic view there is no much difference between Sogdian and Yaghnōbī, individual changes may be interpreted as "dialectal", but there is one phenomenon that influenced different development of both languages – operation of the so-called *Rhythmic Law* in Sogdian, but not in Yaghnōbī. For this reason I have 'reconstructed' an older common ancestor of both languages – *Proto-Sogdic, i.e. proto-language before the operation of the *Rhythmic Law*.

Abstrakt

Předkládaná disertace si klade za cíl přinést nové informace ohledně klasifikace východoíránských jazyků. Místo obecně akceptovaných dvou východoíránských větví (severní a jižní) se zdá, že by bylo vhodnější tyto jazyky rozdělit minimálně na pět skupin. Možnou šestou skupinu pak může tvořit avestština, spolu s ní případně i chórezmština. Hlavním tématem předkládané práce však byl záměr sledovat archaismy a inovace ve východoíránských jazycích. Důkladné zpracování této problematiky by si zasloužilo řadu odborných studií, proto bylo dané téma zúženo zejména na sledování historického vývoje sogdštiny a jaghnóbštiny – dvou blízce příbuzných východoíránských jazyků.

Vzájemná blízkost sogdského a jaghnóbského jazyka byla zpozorována krátce po objevení prvních sogdských textů z Čínského Turkestánu začátkem 20. století. Jaghnóbština byla dokonce po dlouhou dobu považována za moderního pokračovatele sogdštiny. Rozborem fonologie, gramatiky i lexika obou jazyků jsem se pokusil najít odpověď na otázku vzájemného vztahu těchto jazyků. Z diachronního pohledu můžeme považovat rozdíly mezi oběma jazyky jen jako nářeční odlišnosti, je zde však jeden jev, který způsobil rozdílný vývoj v obou jazycích – působení tzv. *rytmického zákona* v sogdštině, ke kterému však nedošlo v jaghnóbštině. Z tohoto důvodu jsem "rekonstruoval" staršího společného předchůdce obou jazyků – *protosogdičtinu, tj. prajazyk z doby před působením *rytmického zákona*.

I. Introduction

The Eastern Iranian languages form an independent group within the Iranian branch of the Indo-European languages. The presented thesis aims to present an outline of development of the Eastern Iranian languages — as languages develop, they usually start to differ from its relatives by development of various innovations and/or by preservation of archaisms. The spread of innovations and preservation of archaisms may vary in individual languages or dialects and study of sets of common innovations and/or archaisms may characterize grouping of languages of a given branch. To see the Eastern Iranian archaisms and innovations I have decided to focus on three fields of study — 1) an outline of the Eastern Iranian languages, 2) historical grammar of Sogdian and Yaghnōbī and 3) lexical study.

The first part will be dedicated to the description of attested Eastern Iranian languages and dialects – each language (or a subgroup) will be briefly described with focus on common data about the individual language(s), with an overview of main phonetic changes and grammar outline. For the overviews I will mark only some archaic and innovative features of the individual languages as for each language can be written separate book on its historical grammar and phonology. I would also like to (re)examine commonly accepted grouping of the Eastern Iranian languages into the Northern and Southern branches as it seems to me that this grouping needs a new revision.

The second part will present comparation of development of Sogdian and Yaghnōbī – i.e. two languages that are considered closely related by many scholars (e.g. BOGOLYUBOV 1956; KLIMCHITSKIY 1935; SKJÆRVØ 1989a, 375-376), but none of them has ever presented thorough study of their differences - Yaghnōbī was in common just considered as a dialect quite different from literary Sogdian. By comparation of phonology and morphology of both languages I would like to show main differences between them and if possible I would like to try to define interrelationship of Sogdian and Yaghnōbī. The comparative study of Yaghnōbī and Sogdian has been taken intentionally – as both languages are comparable from diachronic point of view, their comparison may answer more questions than just their "dialectal" relationship. Historical development of Sogdian and Yaghnōbī will be compared with the other Eastern Iranian languages with focus on the Pāmīr group. The Pāmīr languages will be used as a comparative material for two reasons - 1) it seems that the Pāmīr languages and Yaghnōbī share some historically non-documented areal contacts and 2) for I have collected many material on the Pāmīr languages so I can better use this material in my study. I have not compared development of Sogdian and Yaghnōbī much with related Ossetic because of a probable early split of "Pontic Scythian" and "Central Asian Scythian" dialects of North Eastern Iranian branch and also because of long-standing intensive contact of Ossetic with the Caucasian languages, which caused different development of this branch of Scythian. Materials on other Eastern Iranian languages such as Pashtō or Saka dialects were also available to me, but I focused mainly on study of the Pāmīr languages - there can be supposed a common development also in the Middle Iranian period. Example can be seen in many common features shared in Bactrian (as Bactrian can be considered as a relative of *Proto-Pāmīr languages) and Sogdian on one hand and some features shared by Bactrian with the Pāmīr group (mainly with Yidghā and Munjī).

The third part will present a study of Sogdian and Yaghnōbī lexicon. I have originally intended to compare Yaghnōbī and Sogdian lexicon according to the "Swadesh List" of 207 words. Later I found "Standard Word List Items" presented in the five-volume *Sociolinguistic Survey of Northern Pakistan* (see http://www.sil.org/sociolx/pubs/ssnp.asp) by the *National Institute of Pakistani Studies, Quaid-i-Azam University* and *Summer Institute of Linguistics*, so I decided to combine both lexical lists to present a more thorough study of *basic vocabulary* of both languages. In the lexical parts lexical items of both languages will be supplemented by their etymology. The choice of the Swadesh List was not motivated by attempts of glottochronological study of both languages — I just wanted to exploit an accepted list of basic vocabulary, this motivation also led to supplement the Swadesh list by the SIL "Standard Word List Items". Both lists try to present unbiased choice of basic vocabulary so in this issue I have also to study eventual loans (mainly in case of Yaghnōbī).

As can be seen from outlines of all three parts, my study of the Eastern Iranian archaisms and innovations aims to present new classification of the Eastern Iranian branch with focus on position of Sogdian and Yaghnōbī within this language branch.

I.i. An outline of history and classification of the Eastern Iranian languages

The Iranian languages form a group of genetically related languages and dialects that developed from the Indo-Iranian branch of the Indo-European languages. By use of methods of historical and comparative linguistics we can explain the origin of the Iranian languages as a split of the Indo-Iranian branch of *Proto-Indo-European language. The original *Proto-Indo-Iranian language broke up into the four main branches: Iranian, Nūristānī (or Kāfir), Dardic and Indo-Aryan. Particular prehistoric dialects of Indo-Iranian share with *Proto-Indo-European (and also with many other Indo-European languages) many common features – so called archaisms as well with series of innovations that set them apart from the proto-language. Some of the innovations can be observed in more branches of the Indo-European languages, but are not phenomena proper to the original system of reconstructed *Proto-Indo-European.

The Iranian languages are divided into two main branches – Western and Eastern. Their division is based on agreed conventional brake up of two Old Iranian dialects according to their geographical location to the East and West respectively from the deserts of Central Iran (ÈDEL'MAN 1986, 3; about the classification of the Iranian languages see Chapter I.1.2. of presented work). Present geographical spread of the Eastern and Western Iranian languages and their speakers has changed due to historical migrations of the Iranian peoples (e.g. Western Iranian Balōchī is nowadays located in Eastern Iran and Western Pakistan or the Eastern Iranian Ossetic is to be found on the Caucasus), the contemporary location of the Iranian languages is not relevant for their classification. The Iranian languages can be thus considered as an offspring

of the Indo-European proto-language with which they are connected by genetic relationship and a preservation of some (*Proto-)Indo-European archaisms, on the other hand they differ from *Proto-Indo-European by several innovations which define this language family from historical point of view.

We are informed about the history of the Old Iranian languages by means of indirect sources. Herodotus for example mentions several Scythian words, in one case he even presents an etymology (HERODOTUS IV, 110; HINGE 2006). He also mentioned that the Sauromatians speak the language of Scythia, but they do not speak it well because the Amazons did not learn properly the Scythian language - Herodotus mentioned that the Amazons married some Scythians and by this the Sauromatian nation came into being (HERODOTUS IV, 117). Herodotus also writes about an older poem, Arimaspea, written by Aristeas of Proconnesus (HERODOTUS IV, 13). It is said that Aristeas described the habits and the language of Scythian Issedonians (Issedones) and Arimaspians (Arimaspi) who dwelled in regions to the North-East of the Pontic or Black Sea (ALEMANY I VILAMAJÓ 1999). Unfortunately, Aristeas' Arimaspea has not came down up to these days, it is only mentioned in the Histories of Herodotus and also in Пะค่ ปั่งอบร by Longinus and in Chiliades (or Book of Histories) by John (Ioannes) Tzetzes (TZETZES, Chil. VII, 686-692). In the Anabasis of Arrian there are mentioned several local tribal and personal names of Central Asia, but we miss any reference to the languages of the region, the only relevant information is that the river Ἰαξάρτης (Sīr Daryā) was called Ὀρξάντης in a language of barbarians of Sogdiana (Arrian III, 30.13). In Strabo's Geography is mentioned, that the northern part of Aeeiavn (i.e. approximately area of modern Afghanistan, Eastern Iran, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, and North-western Pakistan) is inhabited by Bactrian and Sogdian peoples who do speak similar languages (STRABO, Geography, XXV, 2:8). The city of Kūrkat in present northern Tajikistan is known from the antiquity – it is spelled either as Κυρούπολις or as Κυρέσχατα; we can discover more about the local Iranian dialect by the analysis of both Greek names: Κῦρούπολις is probably a calque of Iranian appellative *Κūruš-kąβā- 'city of Cyrus' (i.e. Gre. $K\bar{\nu}e^{j} \delta \lambda \iota \varsigma < \dot{\eta} \tau \delta \tilde{\nu} K\dot{\nu}e^{j} \delta \lambda \iota \varsigma$. What is even more interesting is the form $K\bar{\nu}e^{j} \delta \lambda \iota \varsigma$. can be an attempt to render the local name * $K\bar{u}ru\check{s}-kq\Im\bar{a}-$ (cf. Tjk. and Pers. $K\bar{u}rk\acute{a}t)^{1}$; the Greek name is probably contaminated by another Greek word egyath 'the farthest' (probably by an influence by the name of the city of Alexandria the Farthest – Άλεξάνδρεια Έσχάτη, present Khujand, in the Soviet period known as Leninabad, Tjk. Lèninōbód). City of Ψωξανάκη mentioned by Ctesias of Cnidus can be connected with city of Roshān (Rosh. Rixān, Tjk. $R\bar{u}\check{s}\acute{o}n$) in Tajik Badakhshān (ABAEV 1949, 178).

I.i.i. Overview of the Eastern Iranian languages

Within following pages I present a short overview of the Eastern Iranian languages and dialects. The description of individual languages is not meant to be absolute; it contains just basic

_

¹ But see Greek popular etymology «τὰ Κῦξα, ἔσχατον ὂν Κύξου κτίσμα» (STRABO, Geography, XI, 11:4).

information about the history of each language supplemented with an outline of its grammar and main traits of its development. The aim is to present the most important innovations and archaism of each language in focus. The innovations and archaisms will be presented also in (historical) phonology and also in (historical) morphology. The examples of archaisms and/or innovations will be presented in general; the documentation of changes on examples will be (with a few exceptions) waived.

I.i.i. *Proto-Indo-Iranian and *Proto-Iranian periods²

The Iranian languages separated from the older Indo-Iranian branch of the Indo-European languages. The formation of Indo-Iranian proto-language can be characterised by a series of changes that which caused that this branch started to differ from its parent proto-language the *Proto-Indo-European language. Characteristic phonetic differences include following chain of changes: 1) merger of Ide. *k, * k^{μ} > *k; *g, * g^{μ} > *g; * g^{h} , * $g^{\mu h}$ > * g^{h} ; 2) aspiration of *g+ h_2 , *t+ h_2 , $*k+h_2 > *p^b, *t^b, *k^b; 3$) palatalization of $*k, *k^b, *g, *g^b > *c, *c^b, *j, *j^b$ before $*\breve{e}, *\breve{i}, *j; *j^b$ 4) Brugmann's law: ${}^*\check{o} > {}^*\bar{o}$ in an open non-final syllable; 5) merger of ${}^*\check{e}$, ${}^*\check{a}$, ${}^*\check{o} > {}^*\check{a}$. In addition to this chain of changes we can mention a number of others: rhotacism *l > *r; effect of the *RUKI* rule: $*s > *\check{s} > *\check{s}$ following *r, $*\check{u}$, *u, *k(u), *g(u)(h), $*\check{k}$, $*\hat{g}(h)$, $*\check{i}$, $*\dot{i}$; satemization *k, $*\hat{g}$, ${}^*\hat{g}^b > {}^*\hat{c}, {}^*\hat{j}, {}^*\hat{j}^b$ but ${}^*\hat{k}, {}^*\hat{g}, {}^*\hat{g}^b$ (or ${}^*\hat{c}, {}^*\hat{j}, {}^*\hat{j}^b$) next to a stop $> {}^*\check{g}, {}^*\check{g}, {}^*\check{g}^b$ and later development, previously thought as the "thorn problem": *tk, * $d\hat{g}$, * $d^b\hat{g}^b > *tc'$, * d^i , * d^b , * $d^$ merger of the laryngeals * h_1 , * h_2 , * h_3 > *H and subsequent vocalization *H > *a > *i in certain positions; vocalization of *n, *m > *q > *a; *nH, *mH > *\bar{n}, *\bar{m} > *\bar{q} > *\bar{a} and so on. Probably already in the Indo-Iranian period we can also expect the creation of opposition $*a \times *\bar{a} *[a \times a: a]$ p:] (cf. SIMS-WILLIAMS 1981a, 357, 357³¹), this change is evident in the New Iranian languages (mainly in the New Eastern Iranian languages we can see change $*\bar{a} > (*)\bar{o}^3$).

consonants	stops	affricates	fricatives	sonorants	vowels
labials	p b b ^h			m ŭ	i ī u ū
dentals	t d d ^h		§ (<u>z</u>)	n r l	
palatals	$\hat{k}~\hat{g}~\hat{g}^{h}$			į	
velars	k g g ^h		h ₂		e ē\ \ o ō
labiovelars	$k^{\mu} g^{\mu} g^{\mu h}$				
pharyngeals			h ₃		
glottals			h_1		$a \bar{a}$

Table I Sound system of *Proto-Indo-European.

2

² I would like to thank to Reiner Lipp, Ph.D. for his valuable comments on the development of Ide. sound system in *Proto-Indo-Iranian and *Proto-Iranian.

³ This change is spread over a wide area of Central Asia, such as we find it in Yaghnōbī, Pashtō, Shughnī-Rōshānī group, Munjī and Yidghā, Ishkāshimī, Sarghulāmī (?), but also in the South-West Iranian Tājīk and Hazāra(gī), in Turkic Uzbek or in Central Asian Arabic dialects.

consonants	stops	affricates	fricatives	sonorants	vowels
labials	pp^hbb^h			m ŭ	i īu ū
dentals					
alveolars	$t t^h d d^h$		S Z	n r	
postalveolars		ć ć ^h j́ j́ ^h			
retroflexes			š (ž)		
palatals		c c ^h j j ^h		į	
velars	$k k^h g g^h$				a ā
glottals				Н	

Table 2 Sound system of *Proto-Indo-Iranian.

consonants	stops	affricates	fricatives	sonorants	vowels
labials	рb		f	m (m) u	i īu ū
dentals			Э		
alveolars	t d	ts dz	S Z	$n\left(\stackrel{\circ}{n}\right)r\left(\stackrel{\circ}{r}\right)$	
postalveolars		čj	šž		
palatals				į	
velars	k g		X		
labiovelars			X ^ŭ		a ā
glottals			h	(H)	

Table 3 Sound system of *Common Iranian.

The Iranian languages later underwent further changes, that differentiate them from the Indo-Aryan branch: the loss of aspiration of voiced stops $*b^b$, $*d^b$, $*g^b$, $*j^b$, $*f^b$, $*df^b > *b$, *d, *g, *j, *f, *df; *c, *j(b) > *č, *j; the change of the "satəm" and "thorn" consonants *(t)c, *(d)f(b) > *t, *dz; fricativization of $*p^b$, $*t^b$, $*k^b > *f$, $*\mathfrak{I}$, *x and also fricativization in front of another consonant *pC, *tC, *kC > *fC, $*\mathfrak{I}$, $*xC^4$; change of *tc, *df(b) > *š, *ž; shift of *s > *b (but not *s in front of a stop) and subsequently $*bu > *x^u$; change $*T-T > *T^sT > *ST$; and probably also $*pH > *\bar{p} > *a\bar{r}$ (i.e. diphthong (?) *[ar(:)]) and loss of *H. The vocalic system recognises four short $(*a, *i, *u, *p^5)$ and three long $(*\bar{a}, *\bar{i}, *\bar{u})$ vowels and three short $(*ai, *au, *a\bar{r})$ and two long $(*\bar{a}i, *\bar{a}u)$ diphthongs – however, it is possible that diphthongs (and triphthongs) could also consist

⁻

⁴ It is probable, that the fricativization of ${}^*p^b$, ${}^*t^b$, ${}^*k^b > {}^*f$, ${}^*\mathfrak{I}$, *x took place in a *post-Proto-Iranian stage of *Common Iranian – there is no such change in Wakhī, Balōchī and in the Saka dialects. Martin Kümmel suggests, that *Proto-Iranian possessed voiceless aspirated stops, so Wakhī, Balōchī and Saka present an archaic state (KÜMMEL 20. II. 2012, lecture "On historical phonology, typology and reconstruction", Lectures at Charles University, Prague 19-20 November 2012).

⁵ The syllabic r is in fact not a vowel but a syllabic core – as it often behaves as vowels it will be for simplification considered as a vowel in this theses.

of consonants *r, *m and *n, after a stressed (?) vowel in front of a stop or fricative; i.e. * $V_{\overline{L}}$, * $\overline{V}_{\overline{L}}$, * $V_{\overline{L}}$, * $V_{\overline{L}}$, * $V_{\overline{L}}$, and so on. 6

According to the development of the Eastern Iranian languages in the Middle and New Iranian periods it can be assumed that a number of dialectal differences has its source already in the Old Iranian period. Based on a non-existent comparative material we cannot establish a deeper division of these dialects yet, but it seems that by the end of the Old Iranian period the two main Eastern Iranian groups (Northern and Southern) begin to appear.

I.1.1.2. Old Iranian period

There is only one Eastern Iranian language directly attested from the Old Iranian period – Avestan, but we know also some other languages like Scythian and Sauromatian dialects attested in glosses, mainly onomastic. Classification of Avestan within the Eastern Iranian branch has not been successfully solved yet (cf. ÈDEL'MAN 1986, 6-7 with bibliography) I will not attempt to solve the problem of Avestan classification in this thesis and Avestan will be considered as the oldest preserved member of the Eastern Iranian branch.

Grammatical system of the *Proto-Indo-Iranian and *Proto-Iranian languages is not much different from the proto-language state. It has preserved a rich inflectional system of nouns, pronouns and verbs, also there are many archaisms compared with the other Indo-European languages, notably the preservation of the verbal injunctive. *Proto-Indo-Aryan grammar is reconstructed mainly on the basis of Vedic Sanskrit, similarly the reconstruction of *Proto-Iranian is based mainly on Avestan – proto-languages of both branches are then confronted with the *Proto-Indo-European state.

I.i.i.2.i. Avestan

Avestan (in olde

Avestan (in older sources also *Old Bactrian*) is one of the Eastern-Iranian languages. It is closely related to Old Persian, and also comparable with the Indo-Aryan Vedic language, although differences with Vedic go to greater extensions then compared to Old Persian⁷. Unlike Old

⁷ For better documentation of similarities of Avestan and Vedic we have to look at a short Avestan text converted into Vedic: Ave. Təm amauuantəm yazatəm, | sūrəm dāmōhu səuuištəm, | Miðrəm yazāi zaoðrābiiō (Yasht 10.6a-c); Ved. Tám ámavantam yajatám, śúram dbámasu śáviṣṭbam, Mitrám yajai hótrābbyaḥ (Indo-Iranian *tám *ámauantam *jajatám, *ćúram *dbámasu *ćáuiṣṭbam, *Mitrám *jajāi̯ *ʃbáutrābbias), in English «This powerful deity strong among the living the strongest Mithra, I honour with libations» (JACKSON, 1892, xxxi-xxxii). Similarly other Avestan texts can be converted into Sanskrit or vice versa without losing any the basic metrical principles of both languages (VAVROUŠEK 2007, 23-24).

Persian, Avestan has no modern successor. This fact is not overshadowed by the relative recency of the surviving Avestan manuscripts, because Avestan is in fact much older than Old Persian. In contrast with the other Iranian languages, we do not know which Iranian tribe or ethnos used the language or in which territory it was spoken. We even do not know the time-span when Avestan was used and we also do not know the original name of the language itself or in primary either in secondary sources. These questions can be answered only generally: Avestan was a language of an unspecified Iranian tribe (or tribes) that lived in the east part of the territory inhabited by the Iranian-speakers. We can suppose that Avestan was spoken in what is called Airiianəm Vaējo⁸ in Avestan (Vīdēvdāt 1.1-2) and probably Avestan was the mother-tongue of Zarathushtra. Dating is controversial, we can assume roughly the period of 1200-700 BC. The name of the language is also questionable; we do not know the original name⁹; "Avestan" is based on the name of the Holy Book of Zoroastrism - The Avesta. But this name is not original, it dates back to the Middle-Iranian period and comes from Middle Persian (Pahlavī) ²p(y)st²k /abestāk ~ aβestāg/ 'praises' < Ir. *upa-stāuā-kā- (KELLENS 1987); Pers. Avestā (Aβestā). Another plausible etymology is that the (Middle) Persian form comes from Ir. upa-stā-ka- 'foundation, base (text)' (Reiner LIPP, pers. comm.).

consonants	stops	affricates	fricatives	sonorants	vowels
labials	p b		f (B)	₍ m̄ ₎ v/uu	i īu ū
dentals	t ţ d		(8) €		
alveolars			S Z	'n, r hr š	
postalveolars		čj	šž		e ē\ \ o ō
alveopalatals			š (ž)		
palatals			х́ (ÿ)	ń ńh y/ii	ē, ē
velars	k g		x (γ)	ŋh	a ā l
labiovelars			X ^v	ŋºh	
glottals			h		

Table 4 Sound system of Avestan (values in parentheses represent allophones)¹⁰.

The Avestan language as it is known today had undergone a complex development, part of which we cannot document according to known sources. One of the most important facts we have to realise is that the preserved form of the language had been already dead at the time

⁸ It is not known where exactly was the territory of Aⁱriianəm Vaējō, but it may be comparable with area of ἀρειανή (area of Afghanistan, Eastern and South-eastern Iran, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and North-western Pakistan) mentioned by Strabo.

_

⁹ The language was probably called *"Aryan" i.e. Iranian (Ave. $a^i riia$ - < Ir. *aria-) by its speakers; similarly Old Persian has been called "Aryan" (OPers. ariya-; OPers. ariyānām; Ave. $a^i riianam$, Aryan, Iranian (gen. pl.) > Pers. $\bar{E}r\dot{a}n$, Fārs. $\bar{I}r\dot{a}n$, Iran; Ave. $a^i riianam$ (adj.)) in the times of Darius I. according to the Bīsotūn (Behistun) Inscription (DB IV 98).

 $^{^{\}mbox{\tiny 10}}$ For a detailed description of Avestan sound-system see MORGENSTIERNE 1973.

when it was put down in writing (for the first time in the Sāsānian period, 224-651 AD). Individual parts of the Avesta were originally passed on orally; the oldest preserved Avestan manuscripts come from the end of the 13th century AD. Linguists divide Avestan into two dialects – Older Avestan (or Gāthā Avestan, Gāthic) and Younger Avestan. Those two "languages" do not primarily represent two chronologically different stages of one language but they are two dialects of the same language – Old (Gāthic) Avestan being spoken in an older period and Young Avestan from the younger (KELLENS 1987; see also FRYE 1972).

Avestan was passed on orally for a long time, perhaps for more than one thousand and five hundred years. The oldest preserved manuscript (K 7a) dates from AD 1288, but there was probably older tradition, the Sāsānian archetype from the 5^{th} century AD (KELLENS 1987) were written in a new script created by an extension of the Pahlavi cursive script (this script was derived from the Aramaic alphabet). The Avestan script was been occasionally used to write in Middle Persian, such documents are called $P\bar{a}zand$ (or $P\bar{a}zend$). Avestan alphabet consists of fifteen graphemes for vowels and forty graphemes for consonants, some phonemes can be written using multiple graphemes. Avestan script, regardless of graphical doublets, contained more graphemes than phonemes, the orthographical difference between the original phonetic system and writing was caused by a long oral tradition but also by inclusion of sub-phonemic material (e.g. the Schwa etc.). Since Avestan has already been registered as dead language, and there was no firmly codified spelling of the language, many words are often written in different ways in the same text – some notations therefore express different varieties of pronunciation that may have arisen in a later period.

Avestan differs from *Proto-Iranian mainly in the following phonetic innovations: * $^{\prime}rt$ -, * $^{\prime}r\mathfrak{I}$ - > \mathring{s} *[†] (cf. MACKENZIE 1988, 90), * $^{\dagger}t$, * $^{\prime}dz$ > $^{\circ}s$, * $^{\dagger}t$, * $^{\prime}t$) $^{\circ}s$, * $^{\prime}t$, palatalization or labialization of * $^{\dagger}t$ > $^{\prime}t$, but * $^{\dagger}t$, $^{\prime}t$, but * $^{\dagger}t$, $^{\prime}t$, between vowels often > $^{\prime}t$, $^{\prime}t$, $^{\prime}t$, * $^{\prime}t$, * $^{\prime}t$ between vowels often > $^{\prime}t$, $^{\prime}t$, * $^{\prime}t$, * $^{\prime}t$ between vowels often > $^{\prime}t$, $^{\prime}t$, * $^{\prime}t$, *

Avestan grammar preserves much from *Proto-Indo-Iranian, majority of grammatical categories is similar to Old Persian and/or Vedic. Avestan preserved eight cases in three numbers (singular, dual, plural), declension is based on stem system, with vocalic stems (terminating in -a, $-\bar{a}$, -i, -i, -u, $-\bar{u}$) and consonantal stems (terminating

There was threefold opposition of dental stops in Avestan: t: t: d [t : d] (i.e. t: +tense -voice, t: -tense -voice, d: -tense +voice; Reiner LIPP, pers. comm.) was probably an allophone of d word finally after a vowel, *r and *g (-Vt, -r2t, -g2t) and word initially before *k and *b (tk-, tb-).

[&]quot; \acute{x} and x^{ν} (also transliterated as \acute{h} , \acute{h}^{ν}) were in complementary distribution with $\acute{h}ii$ and $\acute{h}uu$.

in -n, -nt, -s, -z, -t, -d, -r, -r/-n, -m, -p, -k, -g, -h/-s). There was no difference in declension of the nouns and the adjectives. Avestan verbal categories are almost the same as they are in Vedic – the verb distinguishes three persons in three numbers, four tenses (present, imperfect, aorist, perfect and injunctive), five moods (indicative, conjunctive, optative, and imperative) and four voices (active, middle, stative and passive). Individual verbal forms are formed by connecting primary or secondary endings to a stem, and/or by adding augment or by reduplication of the stem. Each form can differ a lot from another because they may be influenced by position of stress. Avestan is in many respects more archaic than Old Persian and it provides better evidence for the state of *Proto-Iranian, on the other hand, the reconstruction of *Proto-Iranian is in many aspects based on Avestan.

I.1.1.2.2. Scythian and Sauromatian¹³ dialects, Cimmerian

We have the information on the languages or dialects of the Scythians, Sauromatians (Sarmatians) and Cimmerians from Greek and to a lesser extent, from Latin, Old Persian and Assyrian sources. Language material is relatively modest, several dozen personal and ethnic names and a few glosses are known. When analysing the Scytho-Sauromatian data we can reconstruct some three hundred Scythian and/or Sauromatian roots (ABAEV 1949, 151-190), but their phonology is problematic. Since neither Greek nor Latin graphic system was suitable for accurate representation of Iranian languages phonology. In addition to personal names known from Scythian cities in the Northern Pontic region and some glosses in secondary sources we also know one Scythian inscription written in Hittite hieroglyphs from the 7^{th} century BC found at Saggez (Kurd. Segiz) in Ostān-e Kordestān, Iran (HARMATTA 2002b). It is also believed that an undeciphered inscription in an archaic Kharoṣṭhī script (?) found on a silver bowl from Yesik (Issyk¹⁴) kurgan, Kazakhstan dated to the end of the 6th/beginnings of the 5th century BC is also Scythian (MENGHIN - PARZINGER - NAGLER 2007, 167, Abb. 131; AKISHEV 1978, 53-61). There are probably some Scythian inscriptions written in Aramaic script in the Northern Pontic region (HARMATTA 2002a). Herodotus noted that the Sauromatians spoke the language of Scythia but they did not speak the language well. There was a legend that the Sauromatian nation was formed after the Amazons married Scythian men, the Amazons initially did not learn the Scythian language properly and thus the Sauromatian language differed from the Scythian, «Φωνῆι δὲ οἱ Σαυρομάται νομίζουσι Σκυθικῆι, σολοικίζοντες αὐτῆι ἀπὸ τοῦ ἀρχαίου, ἐπεὶ οὐ χρηστῶς έξεμαθον αὐτὴν αἱ Ἀμαζόνες.» (HERODOTUS IV, 117).

Sound system of Scythian is reconstructed approximately as for *Proto-Eastern Iranian – vowels and diphthongs probably continue *Proto-Iranian system without a change *a, $*\bar{a}$, *i, $*\bar{\imath}$,

¹³ For the purposes of this thesis, I decided to divide dialects of the Sauromatians / Sarmatians according to the historical sources into two chronological phases – I call the Old Iranian dialects as *Sauromatian*, by *Sarmatian* I mean the follower of "Sauromatian" in the Middle Iranian period.

¹⁴ Not to be confused with the lake Ïsïq-köl in Kyrgyzstan, Russian *Иссы́κ-Ку́ль*; Kazakh *Ïstïq-köl*.

*u, * \bar{u} , * \bar{a} \bar{i} and * $\bar{a}u$ \bar{i} ; consonants also quite conservatively continue *Proto-Eastern Iranian stage, but we can observe several innovations: change * $d > *\delta > l$; change *-rn - > l(l) (a dialectal feature?). Sauromatian has a similar evolution as Scythian but there are some different innovations: palatalization *r and subsequent shift to l before * \bar{i} , * \bar{i} ; disappearance of *f before *r; transition *p > f; and probably no change *d > l. Both dialects share the change * $\bar{i}u$, * $\bar{i}u$, * $\bar{i}u$, * $\bar{i}u$, palatalization * $\bar{i}u$ > * $\bar{i}u$ = * $\bar{i}u$ > * $\bar{i}u$ = * $\bar{i}u$ =

consonants	stops	affricates	fricatives	sonorants	vowels
labials	рb		f	m w	iī uū
dentals	t d		\$	1	
alveolars		С	S Z	n r	
postalveolars		čj	šž		*ai;> ē \
palatals				y 1	
velars	k g		X	(ŋ)	
labiovelars			X ^w		a ā
glottals			h		

Table 5 Sound system of the Scytho-Sauromatian dialects.

Documented data also provide poor evidence for Scytho-Sauromatian morphology. According to the Greek transcription we would assume that the Scythian nominal system maintained thematic vowels in the nominative, but they slowly started to disappear in the first centuries AD. Noun plural was formed by adding the ending *- $t\bar{a}$ - derived from abstract suffix *- $t(\underline{u})\bar{a}$ -/*- $\Im u\bar{a}$ -. The analysis of Scythian and Sauromatian personal names shows a number of word formation suffixes, many personal names were formed as $tatpuru\bar{s}a$ composites (ABAEV 1979). In the Saqqez inscription we can recognise two forms of the preterite tense (HARMATTA 2002b).

Scytho-Sauromatian dialects were developing through approximately 1000 years. Based on preserved material we cannot determine the exact chronology of individual changes. In the materials dated into the Christian era we can see changes that are typical for languages of the Middle Iranian period.

It is questionable whether we can consider Cimmerian an Old (Eastern) Iranian language. From the rather scarce data we can assume that the Cimmerian language was a relative of Scythian, to which point shared innovations e.g. the same development *d > l. Apart from that, no much else can be said about the language.

It is highly probable that already in the Old Iranian period there were some Scythian dialects which gave rise to ancestor(s) of Sogdian and Yaghnōbī. Unfortunately we have no data that could confirm this theory. On the other hand there are three Central Asian Scythian (Saka) personal names recorded in the Bīsotūn inscription (OPers. Skunxa-, king of the Sakā tigraxaudā defeated by Darius I.; DB V 27) and in the Histories of Herodotus (Τόμνρις, queen of the Massagetae and Σπαργαπίσης 5, son of Tomyris, Massagetian general; HERODOTUS I 207, 221). Those names do not give us much information about the language/dialect, but we may observe a similarity in Τόμ[νρις] and Sogd. toxmí; Yagh. taxm 'egg' < Ir. *táuxman- 'offspring, family' (but see OPers. taumā-16).

I.1.1.3. Middle Iranian period

Languages of the Middle Iranian period can be characterised by four main innovations that took place throughout the Eastern Iranian language area: 1) monophthongization of diphthongs * $\check{a}\check{i}$, * $\check{a}\check{u} > *\check{e}$, * \check{o} ; 2) change *b, *d, *g, * $\check{j} > *B$, *b, *

There are five rather well attested Eastern Middle Iranian languages – Sogdian, Khwārezmian, Bactrian, Khōtanese and Tumshuqese; to a lesser extent we have information on the other languages and dialects such as Sarmatian and Alanic, Sogdian dialects of Bukhārā, Zhetisu and Ustrōshana, or several Saka (Śaka) dialects from Chinese Turkestan (Uyghuristan, Xinjiang), Eastern Iran, Afghanistan, Pakistan and India.

I.1.1.3.1. Sogdian

Sogdian (*Sughdian*, *Soghdian*; B swyðy²w zβ²k /səyʷðyáu Þzβák/) occupies a special position among the Eastern Iranian languages – its uniqueness can be viewed at two levels. From historical point of view it was probably the most successful Eastern Iranian language – it served

¹⁵ Cf. Scythian Σπαργαπείθης, king of the Scythians and king of the Agathyrsians (two kings with this name are known; HERODOTUS I 78, IV 76).

Tomyris' name *Tóh/xmyris; see also Θάμυξις (< *Táh/xmyris ???) by Polyaenus (Stratagems of War, 7.11.8), by other authors also Τώμυξις, Ταμύξα (Justi 1895, 328, 330), cf. also Ujjayinī and Mālvā Saka •thuma /thūma/, offspring (Harmatta 1989, 305). Classical Persian form of the name is Tahm-rayīs; Tomyris may be connected to Pers. Tahmīna, daughter of Samangān, king of Tūrān, mother of Suhrāb in Firdausi's Shāhnāma (ibid., 328, 319). This change took place in all positions except Parāchī and Ōrmurī where the change did not took place wordinitially. In Ossetic there is no change *b- > *β- word-initially; in the Saka dialects there is no change of wordinitial *g-. In some languages there is a change *d > (*\bar{b}{2}) > *l, see Excursion 5.

as a lingua franca on Central Asian route of the Silk Road (cf. DE LA VAISSIÈRE 2005), it was not just a language of trade, many documents concerning three different religions - Buddhism, Manichaeism and Christianity were also translated into Sogdian. From present point of view we can consider Sogdian as a language that is preserved by a large amount of texts and it is also the language for which we know a closely related offspring - Yaghnōbī (see I.1.1.4.1). Despite its outstanding status Sogdian practically did not survive Arab invasion to Central Asia, its influence slowly declined from the second half of the 8th century, during the 10th and 11th centuries it was gradually replaced by Persian, and Sogdian language enclaves survived only on the peripheries of Sogdiana. Geographically the Sogdian documents are attested from quite vast areas of Central Asia and its surroundings - majority of texts comes either from Sogdiana itself or from Sogdian colonies in Eastern Turkestan and Western China, other texts come from Mongolia, Zhetisu in Kazakhstan, Merv in Turkmenistan, or from Ladākh and Ķarāķoram in Pakistan; some ancient Turkic monumental inscriptions were also written in the Sogdian language. The language of Sogdian literal monuments appears to be relatively homogeneous despite the fact that the period between the oldest and the youngest documents is approximately five centuries long. Linguistic homogeneity can be observed mainly due to texts written in the so-called Sogdian script - orthography in this script was based on archaic form of Sogdian and emerged in 4th or 5th century AD and was preserved until the 8th century (or even up to the 11th century). Orthographies in Manichaean script and Syriac Estrangēlā script document "classical" stage of the language, but Sogdian of the 6th to 9th centuries did not differ much from its oldest attested form 18. Archaic form of the language is known from so called Ancient Letters found in Chinese Dunhunag, other archaic features can be observed in Christian manuscript C 2; on the other hand, the Christian Sogdian texts contain many late-Sogdian features, such as the reduction of nominal inflection as it is documented in Christian manuscript C 5. Although the Sogdian documents are preserved in three different alphabets - Sogdian, Manichaean and Syriac¹⁹ (and even fragmentary in North Turkestan variety of the Brāhmī script), we cannot speak about three different dialects.

Sound system of Sogdian is known only fragmentally – the language was written in consonantal alphabets of Semitic origin so there were no special graphemes for vowels²⁰, for

-

¹⁸ An exception is a Sogdian translation of the Zoroastrian prayer Aṣ̄əm vohū found in manuscript Or. 8212/84 (Ch. 00289) – this short text presents really archaic stage of the language (GERSHEVITCH 1976).

¹⁹ To mark the script of Sogdian documents I will use following abbreviations: s for orthography in the Sogdian script (AL for the *Ancient Letters*, Mg for texts in the Sogdian script found at the Mount Mugh, H for texts in the Sogdian script from fortress of Ḥiṣōrak, z for texts in the Sogdian script from Zhetisu), B for Buddhist texts in the Sogdian script, M for orthography in the Manichaean script, C for Christian texts in the Syriac script and Br for Sogdian texts written in the Brāhmī script.

Vowels were written by so-called *matres lectionis* – \bar{a} by the letter $\bar{a}la\bar{p}$ < 2 >, \bar{o} and \bar{u} by the letter waw <w> and \bar{e} , \bar{i} , \bar{a} and \bar{i} by the letter yud <y>, diphthongs \bar{u} and \bar{u} were written by digraph waw-yud <w> or eventually as waw alone. By orthographical conventions in each script the letters $\bar{a}la\bar{p}$, waw and yud could have been doubled, or some vowels could have been written by combination $\bar{a}la\bar{p}$ -waw or $\bar{a}la\bar{p}$ -yud even word-internally. For word-final - \bar{a} also

consonants often no distinction was made between voiced and voiceless sounds²¹. Despite the difficulties with interpretation of the Sogdian graphic systems, we can reconstruct Sogdian sound system. With the help of methods of historical and comparative linguistics, for more accurate reconstruction of phonology we can also utilize Sogdian fragments written in the Brāhmī script. Sogdian vocalism was strongly influenced by position of stress – we can observe two main stress shifts: the first took place in an early stage of the language and its results can be seen not only in Sogdian but also in Yaghnōbī, the second shift is the so-called Sogdian Rhythmic Law - position of stress within a word depended on quantity of stem vowels. Both stress-shifts caused reduction, shortening or syncopation of unstressed vowels or even syllables. Basic development of Iranian vowels in Sogdian can be described as following: *a > a, \flat (under the influence of *i*-Umlaut > e; due to a contact with a labial sound > u; under the influence of *u*-Umlaut > o-u); * \bar{a} > \bar{a} , a (under the influence of i-Umlaut > \bar{e} , due to a contact with a labial sound $> \bar{u}$); *u > u, \bar{v} , i (under the influence of i-Umlaut $> \bar{u}i > i$); * $\bar{u} > \bar{u}$, u, * $au > \bar{o}$ (in front of * $x \sin$, *x m > o); *a u under the influence of *i*-Umlaut > \bar{e} ; *a u under the influence of *i*-Umlaut > i; *ui > ui; *uai, (or palatalized *ua, *au) > ue (later > \bar{o}); *i > i, a, a; * \bar{i} > \bar{i} , a; *ai > \bar{e} ; *ai > a0, a0, a1, *a2, a3, *a4, *a5, *a5, *a5, *a7, *a8, *a9, *a9, *a9, *a1, *a1, *a1, *a2, *a3, *a3, *a4, *a4, *a5, *a5, *a5, *a6, *a7, *a8, *a8, *a9, *a9, *a9, *a9, *a9, *a9, *a9, *a1, *a1, *a1, *a2, *a3, *a3, *a3, *a4, *a4, *a4, *a5, *a5, *a5, *a5, *a5, *a6, *a7, *a8, * It is also necessary to add some diphthongs to the vocalic system of Sogdian, apart from rising diphthongs $\ddot{u}\ddot{e}$ and $\ddot{u}\ddot{e}$ there were probably falling diphthongs $\bar{a}\dot{i}$ and $\bar{a}u$. Also nasals and r in front of a consonant in closed syllable (i.e. diphthongs like /Vm, Vr/, phonetically probably [Vɔ̃/Vũ, Və]) were of diphthongal nature. Consonantal system does not differ much from the form reconstructed for "common" Middle Iranian, significant changes include * $\Im r$, * $\delta r > \S$, ξ ; *tr, * $tij > \tilde{s};$ *dzr, *tjdz, * $dzi > \tilde{z};$ *mp, *nt, *nk, * $n\tilde{c} > \tilde{m}b,$ $\tilde{m}d,$ $\tilde{m}g,$ $\tilde{m}j;$ *xt, * $ft > \gamma d,$ $\beta d,$ and in some cases palatalization of *k, *t > \check{c} when in contact with * \check{i} , * \check{i} (or $i^r < {}^*\!\!\!\!/r$). Iranian * x^{μ} (< * $h\mu$) usually keeps its labial characteristics when word-initial before $*\ddot{a}$, in other positions it changes to non-labial x; in rare cases, however, there is a change $*x^{\mu}a' > xu'$. Unclear is the development of Iranian *d, the sound is written in the Sogdian script by an Aramaic letter lāmad <1> (in Sogdian it is transcribed as <8>), in the Manichaean script letter <8> is based on the shape for $l\bar{a}mad$, but in the Syriac script the letter δ is written by $d\bar{a}lat$ <d>. It is possible that *d changed to a dental approximant [δ], which continued in some dialects as δ and in some others as l (see excursion 5).

The above mentioned Sogdian Rhythmic Law did not have an impact just on phonology although it was originally a phonological rule, it strongly effected also morphology: Sogdian words split into two groups, so-called *light* and *heavy stems* according to the position of stress.

the letter $h\bar{e}$ <h> could have been used in the Sogdian (and occasionally in the Syriac) script. The Syriac script also utilised diacritic marks for vowels: $a < \dot{\bar{y}}, \dot{x} > \text{ or } < \ddot{\bar{y}}, \dot{x} > , \bar{a} < \dot{\bar{y}}, \dot{x} > , \bar{e} < y, \dot{x} > , \bar{t} < y > , \bar{o} < \dot{w} > , \bar{u} < y > ('x' means any letter), but$ those diacritics were used rarely in Christian documents.

²¹ In the Sogdian alphabet there were only separate graphemes for γ and x, but forms of these letters usually merged together. The only script that had graphic symbols for both voiced and voiceless sounds (except δ and Ͽ) was the Manichaean alphabet. In all three alphabets there was a clear distinction just between z and s and partially between ž and š.

Light stem endings were retained because they bore stress, unstressed endings of the heavy stems were lost or transformed. Substantives had three genders: masculine, feminine and neuter; neuter, however, survives only in a few relict forms. Nouns also maintain three numbers, the original dual was transformed into numerative (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1979). In the light stem inflection Iranian stem system continues in a transformed way (i.e. a-, \bar{a} -, i-, \bar{u} -, \bar{u} -, ya-, $y\bar{a}$ -, and r-stems and also so-called contracted aka- and $\bar{a}k\bar{a}$ -stems), heavy stem inflection consists just of three cases – nominative (direct case), vocative and oblique case; the light stems had six cases – nominative, vocative, accusative, genitive-dative, locative and instrumental-ablative. Plural was formed by adding the ending -t(a), animates have can have endings in $-(y)\bar{a}$ or $-i\bar{s}t$. Adjectives are declined as nouns, but they gradually turn to uninflected forms. Personal pronouns had forms just for first and second person singular and plural, they were declined in two cases (direct and oblique), enclitic forms distinguished within oblique accusative, genitive-dative and instrumental-ablative. Demonstratives distinguished triple deixis and were used also for the third person of personal pronouns. The definite article evolved from forms of the demonstratives of III. deixis.

consonants	stops	affricates	fricatives	sonorants	vowels
bilabials	p (þ)		β	m w	i īu ū
labiodentals			f		į
dentals			8 €	(1)	
alveolars	t (d)	(c) (3)	S Z	n r	e ē
postalveolars		č (j)	šž		$(\check{\tilde{\epsilon}})$
retroflexes	(t) (d)		š ž	(n)	
palatals				у	ā
velars	k (ģ)		xγ	(ŋ) (ÿ)	
uvulars	(q)				
labial velars	$(k^w)(\mathring{g}^w)$		$x^w (\gamma^w)$		
labial uvulars					
labiovelars			x°		
labiouvulars					
glottals			(h)		

 ${\bf Table~6~Sound~system~of~Sogdian~(consonants~in~italics~mark~sounds~appearing~only~in~loan-words).}$

Verbal system is based on present and perfect stems. Imperfect tense was originally formed by addition of augment to a present stem, in Sogdian augment was preserved only as so-called *internal-augment* between verbal prefix and stem, augment of non-prefixed verbs disappeared due to operation of stress. Perfect stem is derived from participles in *-ta-(ka-). Perfect distinguishes transitivity and intransitivity. Transitive verbs form perfect from the perfect stem and auxiliary verb $\delta^2 r$, to have; perfect stems of the *heavy stems* have no ending, *light stems* end in $-\acute{u} < *-am$ (< accusative singular of masculine). Intransitive verbs form perfect from the

perfect stem and copula (but in forms of the third person singular there is no copula at all), forms of the *light stems* end in -i < *-ah (< nominative of masculine), the *heavy stems* have no ending.

(excursion 1) Sogdian dialects of Bukhārā, Ustrōshana and Zhetisu

Sogdian seems to be a homogeneous language. It is quite difficult to observe several dialect differences – features that distinguish the "languages" of individual documents can be interpreted as developmental stages rather as dialects. We can observe some dialectal features in the preserved Sogdian texts; e.g. durative suffix 'štn (cf. Yagh. -išt) appears in some Buddhist texts (e.g. Vessantara jātaka) but in the majority of Sogdian texts there is the suffix 'skwn and its forms. The phenomenon of the Sogdian dialects was solved by Walter Bruno Henning (1958, 105–108) who notes that many differences between the language of the Christian documents in the Syriac script and the documents recorded in Manichaean and Sogdian alphabets can be in the case of Christian Sogdian interpreted rather as colloquial forms of later stages of the Sogdian language (Henning 1958, 105).

There is mention of a Sogdian dialect of Bukhārā in scientific literature. There are several inscriptions in the Old Bukhāran (or Sogdian-Bukhāran) dialect (cf. LIVSHITS – KAUFMAN – D'YAKONOV 1954; LIVSHITS – LUKONIN 1964), the authors unfortunately do not mention the differences between Literal Sogdian and Bukhāran-Sogdian. Based on my own analysis of several Bukhāran inscriptions I suppose that in Bukhāran the *Rhythmic Law* was not applied and thus the Bukhāran dialect was similar to a dialect of Ustrōshana. The *Ustrōshanian dialect has been premised by Al'bert Leonidovich KHROMOV (1987, 645) and after him also by some other Tajik scholars (e.g. Buzurgmehr 2005, 117). *Ustrōshanian is not attested in known sources, the premise of its existence is based on a hypothesis that from this dialect the Yaghnōbī language could have developed (Khromov, ibid.). Sources for knowledge of *Ustrōshanian may be taken from the fortress of Chilhujra in the South-Western part of the Ferghāna valley. The texts from Chilhujra have been published by Vladimir Aronovich Livshits (2003). By my opinion these texts do not differ from other Sogdian texts. According to recent discoveries in Tajikistan we can suppose also a variety of Ushrōshanian of the Mastchōh region – documents found at the fortress of Ḥiṣōrak yet need a detailed analysis to be done (cf. Lur'e 2011; 2012).

Apart from the above mentioned dialects we can also assume a Sogdian dialect of the Zhetisu (*Semirech'e*) region. We have several Sogdian documents from Zhetisu from the 6th century, the use of a local Sogdian vernacular can be supposed till after the half of the 11th century (LIVSHITS 2008, 350-352). Zhetisu Sogdian is attested by two sources – the first are several rock inscriptions and ostraca, the other notes concerning (Zhetisu?) Sogdian in the Old Turkic lexicon *Kitābu dēvānu lughāti 't-türk* by Maḥmūd bin Ḥusayn bin Muḥammad AL-KĀSHGHARĪ. There are also some clues that show similar development of Zhetisu Sogdian and Yaghnōbī, e.g. Zhetisu Sogdian word pwn /pun(n)/ corresponds to Yagh. $pun(n) \times Sogd$. B M C pwrn-y /purní/ 'full' < *pýna-; also the change * \Im > t is similar to development of * \Im in the

Western dialect of Yaghnōbī. Zhetisu definite article is recorded as 'yny /éně/ instead of Literal Sogdian 'xó. We have no more precise clues then the above mentioned, therefore a precise reconstruction of the dialect of Zhetisu is still questionable. It is known from the historical sources that local Sogdian population adopted Turkic clothing and customs, but they had preserved their own language for quite a long time – e.g. Sogdian influence on lexicon and phonology of local Turkic dialects has been recorded (cf. LIVSHITS 2008, 350-351).

I.1.1.3.2. Sarmatian, Alanic and Jassic

Sarmatian and Alanic represent a dialect continuum based on Sauromatian dialects, it can be considered as language(s) of the Sarmatian, Alans, Roxolani, Jazyges, Aorsi, Siraces and Asi. The beginnings of these languages can be dated from the 3rd century AD (HARMATTA 1970), their development continues on Caucasus up today as the Ossetic language, or more precisely, it presents two dialects – Iron, the literal and standard form, and the quite archaic Digoron. Under Mongolian pressure together with the Cumans (Kypchāks) the Alanic Jassians migrated into Hungary. Both Sarmatian and Alanic material is scarce, we have mainly onomastic material and some borrowings in languages such as Hungarian or Chūvash. Besides Sarmatian and Alanic glosses there is also a short Alanic inscription on a grave-stone from the 10th century from Zelenchuk in Kuban' district in Russia and two Alanic phrases were recorded in the 13th century by a Byzantine poet John (Ioannes) Tzetzes in his poem *Theogonia*. With regard to the scarce material it is difficult to draw the line between Sarmatian and Alanic, the label for the languages has been taken from the ethnic names of its speakers as they are known from historical sources.

consonants	stops	affricates	fricatives	sonorants	vowels
labials	рb		f v	m w	Ĭ \ ŭ
dentals			2		
alveolars	t d	сз	S Z	n r	
postalveolars		čj	šž		ē ə ō
palatals				y 1	
velars	k g		хγ	(ŋ)	
labiovelars			x°		a ā
glottals			(h)		

Table 7 Sound system of Sarmatian and Alanic dialects.

Development of Sarmatian continues directly from Old Iranian Sauromatian, phonetic changes observed in Sarmatian show completion of the development outlined for Sauromatian above (I.I.I.1.2.); Sarmatian and Alanic vowels are reconstructed as a, \bar{a} , \bar{e} , $^*\bar{t} > i$, \bar{o} , $^*\bar{u} > u$. In front of word-initial consonantal clusters there appears *a . Consonant system can be described as follows: $^*f(<^*p)$, *t , *s , *k , *c , $^*c > v$, *d , *t , *s , *t , *s , *t ,

97). A question is whether the change $*\delta > *d$ took place already in Sarmato-Alanic period or whether it was an Ossetic development.

On morphology we have just fragmentary information. From the attested material we ascertained genitive singular ending -i, and nominative plural ending -ta. Original genitive plural ending $*-\bar{a}nam > *-\bar{a}n$ lost its original function and became a suffix of some adjectives derived from nouns. Endings of the nominative singular disappear except a-stem feminines where $*-\bar{a}->*-\bar{a}$ (> Oss. D -a) remained (but Oss. I > -a). In phrases recorded by John Tzetzes there can be recognised some Alanic words, their grammatical forms have not been thoroughly analysed yet.

Jassic is attested in one manuscript from the year 1422 which contains a brief Jassic word-list with their Latin and/or Hungarian translation. Forty three words are attested, while in the first part of the document there is a Jassic phrase and then a brief glossary follows, some other Jassic lexemes can be found in toponymy and onomastic of Hungarian district of Jászberény. The language extinction can be dated before the year 1693. Jassic is formally very similar to the Digoron dialect of Ossetic, the main feature that distinguishes Jassic from Ossetic is the preservation of * \check{a} before nasals, in Ossetic there is an innovation $o < *\check{a} / _{\{m, n\}}$. The exact phonetic form of Jassic cannot be reconstructed on attested material – Jassic words are written in a similar way as medieval Hungarian, on one example we can suppose an ejective sound k' < kh >, we can also suppose change * \check{s} , * \check{z} , * \check{c} , * \check{j} > s, z, c, g known also from Ossetic s (see NÉMETH 1959).

I.1.1.3.3. Khwārezmian

Khwārezmian (*Khōrazmian*) was a language of ancient Chorasmia, i.e. region of Khwārezm located in the Khīva oasis (present Qoraqalpogʻiston Autonomous Republic in Uzbekistan) on lower reaches of Āmū Daryā near to its estuary to the Aral Sea. Historically there are two stages of the Khwārezmian language – Middle ²³ and Late Khwārezmian. Middle Khwārezmian is attested from two short inscriptions on ceramic vessels from the 3rd or 2nd century BC from Qoy-Qirilgʻan-Qal'a, other texts are known from inscriptions on coins, from silver-bowls from the Ural-area, documents written on wood and skin from Toʻproq-Qal'a and Yakka-Porson, from ossuary at Toʻq-Qal'a and from an ostracon from Xumbuz-Tepa. The Middle

-

²² Proximity of Ossetic and Jassic can be illustrated also on ethnic names of both peoples – the name Jassian (forms of plural: Lat. *Jazones / Jassones, Jazyges / Jaziges*, Gre. Ἰάσωνες, Ἰάζυγες, Hung. jászok, Russ. άcω, Roman. iáṣĭ, Ger. *Jassen*) and Ossetian (from Russian *Ocemúμω*, the Russian name comes from Georgian *Oseti*) have the same origin, see also Greek names of Scytho-Sarmatian tribes Ἰσαῖοι, Ἰασιοι. In contemporary Ossetic *Asω* || *As(s)i* labels Caucasian Balkars and Balkaria, in Abkhaz the region of Northern Caucasus is called *Aś* (ABAEV 1958, 479-480; NÉMETH 1959, 5-13). The Ossetians call themselves either *Ir* || *Īræ* or *Dugur* || *Digor* according to their language and ethnicity.

²³ Helmut Humbach proposes for the oldest attested from of Khwārezmian a label *Middle Khwārezmian* (HUMBACH 1989, 193), the term *Old Khwārezmian* remains untapped, it probably serves as a label for the oldest, unattested form of the language from the Achaemenid period.

Khwārezmian texts were written in a local variety of the Aramaic alphabet. Late Khwārezmian is a language of documents written in adapted Perso-Arabic script. Main sources of the Late Khwārezmian language are the following works: interlinear translation of encyclopaedia Muqaddimaë al-adab by Jārullāh Abū-l-Qāsim Maḥmūd bin 'Umar az-Zamakhsharī from the year 1135, glosses in a legal document Qunyaë al-munyaë li-tatmīm al-ghunyaë by Najmiddīn Abū Rajā Mukhtār bin Maḥmūd az-Zāhidī al-Ghazmīnī from the 13th century (Qunyat al-munyat contains also Khwārezmian quotations from Yatīmať ad-dahr fī fatāwâ ahl al-saṣr by Muḥammad bin Maḥmūd 'Ala'uddīn 'Abdurraḥīm at-Tarjumānī al-Makkī al-Khuwārazmī), glosses from Qunyat al-munyat and Yatımat ad-dahr were collected in Risālat al-alfāz al-khuwārazmiyyat allatī fī qunyat al-mabsūt by Jamāliddīn al-Imādī al-Jurjānī around the year 1350. Calendar, astronomical and medical terms together with names of kings of Khwārezm are attested from the works of Abū-r-Rayḥān Muḥammad bin Aḥmad al-Bērūnī Kitāb al-āthār al-bāqiyat san al-qurun al-khāliyat and Kitāb as-saydana fī-t-tibb from the beginnings of the 11th century (HUMBACH 1989, 193-194, ZARSHENĀS 1357, 57-59). Khwārezmian became extinct sometime in the 14^{th} century when it was replaced by Oghuz-Ķypchāķ variety of Turkic. In the so-called Khwārezm-Türkī language there were numerous influences of Khwārezmian substrate, some of the Khwārezmian words can be heard in Uzbek dialects of Xorazm (Khwārezm) even today (LIVSHITS 1962, 140). Classification of Khwārezmian is unclear – Dzhoy Iosifovich Èdel'man assignes it to Northern group of the East Iranian languages (ÈDEL'MAN 2000a, 95; ÈDEL'MAN 2008, 6), but in her older work she claimed Khwārezmian to be the South Eastern Iranian language (EDEL'MAN 1986, 6). Khwārezmian shares some features with Alano-Ossetic dialects, some other features link it with the Pāmīr languages; many similarities with Sogdian are also interesting. Cherāgh-'Alī A'zamī and Gernot Windfuhr see some similarities between Khwārezmian and North Western Iranian Sangesārī (A⁵ZAMĪ – WINDFUHR 1972).

consonants	stops	affricates	fricatives	sonorants	vowels
bilabials	рb		β	m w	i īu ū
labiodentals			f		
dentals			8 €		
alveolars	t d	сз	S Z	n r l	e ē\ ə ō
postalveolars		čj	šž		
palatals				у	
velars	k g		хγ	(ŋ)	a ā
labiovelars			X ^w		
glottals			h		

Table 8 Sound system of Khwārezmian²⁴.

_

²⁴ In the Khwārezmian adaptation of the Perso-Arabic script there are also letters used only in Arabic (i.e. b, \underline{s} , \underline{t} , \underline{z} (\underline{d}), \underline{z} , $\underline{\zeta}$, \underline{q}), but their pronunciation in Khwārezmian in not known, they were probably pronounced in a similar way as in Classical Persian.

Since Khwārezmian is recorded by alphabets of Semitic origin, we have no clear idea of Khwārezmian vowels, vocalic system is reconstructed as follows: $a, \bar{a}, i, \bar{i}, e, \bar{e}, \bar{o}, u, \bar{u}, z^{25}$. In development of Khwārezmian vocalic system it is important to understand operation of stress short unstressed vowels (including $*_r$) were reduced, long unstressed vowels were probably shortened. Vowels that were not affected by operation of stress generally did not differ much from the Middle Iranian stage. The only exception was *a, that often changed to i. Besides oral vowels there were also nasalized vowels that emerged after deletion of nasals in front of a consonant or in word-final position, nasalization was often not marked in writing. The stress was mobile, it remained on word-stem. Due to the stress shift vowels within a word changed, some changes were also influenced by sandhi. In Khwārezmian some consonants were palatalized in front of $*\tilde{i}$ and $*\tilde{i}$ (or even $*a\tilde{i}$): $*\hat{k}$, *t' > c; $*\acute{g}$, *d' > 3/z; $*\S'$, $*\acute{s}$, $*\acute{s}$ > s; some other consonants were depalatalized ${}^*\check{c}, {}^*\check{j}, {}^*\check{z} > c, {}_{z}/z, z$. After palatalization and depalatalization has been completed, voiceless consonants were probably sonorized when post-vocalic or after a nasal: *-p-, *-t-, *-k-, *-c- > *-b-, *-d-, *-g-, *- z^{-26} . Other differences from the Middle Iranian consonant system are: * $\Im u > f$; * $\Im u > \Im G$; *f\$ > f; *fr > f, fr (word-initially also r-, \S -, h-); * $\S m > m$; * $\S r$ - > \Im -; *- $\Im r->r;$ * $\Im r->\check s-$ (in other cases $hr-,\ Vr-,\ rc-$); * $\Im n,\ *rn>n;$ * $tr_{\!\!\!/}>c,\ \check c;$ * $rs,\ *r\check s,\ *sr,\ *\check str>\check s;$ *rz> $\check{z}; *\check{s} > x, f, h, s, y^{27}; *x\check{s}, *x\check{s}u > x; *xu > x^{\circ} \text{ (in front of } *\check{a}), x. (EDEL'MAN 2008, 13-26)$

Khwārezmian nouns and adjectives distinguished two genders (masculine and feminine) and two numbers (singular, plural; for nouns as a relict also dual). Nouns were inflected in three cases in singular: direct (nominative-accusative), oblique (labelled also as ablative, locative or instrumental) and genitive (possessive), in plural there are just two cases: direct and oblique. Personal pronouns of the first and second persons singular have four cases (nominative, accusative-dative, ablative-locative and genitive), in plural there are again just two cases (direct/nominative and oblique/genitive), and for personal pronouns of the third person demonstratives were used. Demonstratives have triple deixis, they do distinguish gender but inflectional system was greatly simplified. Khwārezmian has a definite article (one form for masculine and plural, the other just for feminine singular). The definite article originates in forms of the demonstratives of III. deixis. Verbal system preserves quite a large range of moods: indicative, imperative, conjunctive, irrealis, optative and injunctive, there are also grammatically expressed categories of transitivity and intransitivity and aspect. The verb has three stems –

²⁵ Long vowels were written with *matres lectionis*: $alif < > -\bar{a}$, $w\bar{a}w < w > -\bar{o}$, \bar{u} , $y\bar{a}y < y > -\bar{e}$, \bar{i} ; short vowels were occasionally marked by Arabic vocalic signs ($harak\bar{a}t$), haraw was used for haraw and haraw as haraw

Sounds g and g are not marked by special letters, about their voiced pronunciation is considered analogous to the evolution of *-p- and *-t-.

Development of Iranian * \check{s} is diverse in Khwārezmian – in vicinity of * $a\check{u}$, * \check{u} it changes to x, however, after labial consonants * \check{s} > f (e.g. * $ga\check{u}\check{s}a$ -, ear, * $m\check{u}\check{s}$ -, mouse, > γwx / $\gamma \check{o}x$ / × mwf / $m \check{u}f$ /); when palatalized or in front of suffixed *s it changes to s; word-internally (after a palatal ??) * \check{s} > y (e.g. *fra- $pi\check{s}a$ -, to thrash, > $\check{s}py$ -); in other cases * \check{s} > h.

present, imperfect and preterite. Present tense comes from Iranian present stems, imperfect stem is formed from the present stem with addition of reflexes of augment; perfect is based on Iranian participles in *-ta-(ka-) and auxiliary verb $\delta^2 r \bar{y}$ - < *d $\bar{a}r$ -, to have. Characteristic feature of Khwārezmian verbs is use of postverbs – enclitic particles determining direct or indirect object of a clause. Postverbs were derived either from enclitic pronouns or from particles or prepositions. (ÈDEL'MAN 2008, 26-54)

I.1.1.3.4. Bactrian

Bactrian (also called *Eteotokharian*, *Tokharian*, *Kushānian* or *Kushāno-Bactrian*), language of Bactria, is attested from several dozen inscriptions written in a local adaptation of the Greek alphabet and also from several texts written in the Manichaean script from a period from the 2nd to the 9th centuries AD mainly from Northern Afghanistan and Southern Tajikistan, to a lesser extend from Qal^ca-yi Afrāsiyāb near Samarkand, from the Turfān oasis in Eastern Turkestan or form the Hunza Valley in Pakistan. Some scholars believe that Bactrian can be closely related to Munjī and Yidghā. By comparing words attested in the Greco-Bactrian alphabet with those written in the Manichaean script we can quite well reconstruct the phonology of Bactrian – the advantage of Greco-Bactrian alphabet is especially the ability to record vowels, which writing systems derived from the Aramaic alphabet do not allow well enough.

consonants	stops	affricates	fricatives	sonorants	vowels
labials	$\pi(\beta)$		φβ	μο	l El 0 OU
dentals	τ δ		(8)	λ	
alveolars]	σζ	σζ	νę	
postalveolars			ķ (ζ)		ε n $(\varepsilon \alpha o)$ ω
palatals				ı	
velars	κγ		χγ	2	
labiovelars			χο		α
glottals			υ		

Table 9 Sound system of Bactrian (given in letters of the Greco-Bactrian alphabet).

Phonological development of Bactrian can be characterised as follows: * $\delta > l$; * $\Im r > hr$; *p, *t, * $k > \beta$, d ($\sim \delta$), g ($\sim \gamma$); * \check{c} , * $\check{j} > t$, dz (> s, z); in Manichaean Bactrian * $\Im > h$. In later stages of the language articulation of h is lenited or even lost. Comparison of texts in the Manichaean and Greco-Bactrian alphabets proves maintaining differences in quantity of vowels.

In morphology there was ascertain a reduction of Old Iranian inflectional system into two cases – direct and oblique, dual was lost and neuter merges with masculine. Attested is a definite article that distinguishes gender, reflexive article $\bar{\imath}$ (m) / ya (f) performs a function similar to Persian izāfaï. Verbal morphology is based on a system of two stems: present and past; inflection is based on stem endings in *-aia-, which is comparable with the Western Middle

Iranian languages. Past tense is formed by ergative construction (STEBLIN-KAMENSKIY 1981; SIMS-WILLIAMS 1989c; LIVSHITS 2000).

I.1.1.3.5. Khōtanese and Tumshuqese, Saka dialects

Khōtanese (*Khōtan Saka*; OKhōt. hvatanau; LKhōt. hvaṇau, hvaṃ) and Tumshuqese (*Tumshuq Saka*, *Gyāźdese*, *Gyāźdian*²⁸, in older works also *Maralbashi Saka*; gyāźdiyā- ?) are two closely related languages of the Saka (Śaka) of Eastern (Chinese) Turkestan. Both languages were written in Turkestan varieties of the Brāhmī script, but each language had its own orthographical conventions – Khōtanese used mainly digraphs to represent sounds not present in Brāhmī but Tumshuqese used new *akṣaras* (so called *Fremdzeichen*). Tumshuqese was a language of the Gyāźdi region/kingdom, it is attested in fifteen texts from the 7th and 8th centuries AD (or even from the 4th and 5th centuries; cf. EMMERICK 2009, 379; EMMERICK 1989, 204) found on archaeological sites Tumshuq, Maral-bashi (Barchuq) and Bäzäklik (Murtuq). Tumshuqese is more archaic relative of Khōtanese – a language attested form Buddhist texts from the 7th to the 10th century from territory of ancient kingdom of Khōtan (OKhōt. *Hvatāna*-, LKhōt. *Hvam(na-)*, Chin. *Yutien*, *Hetian*), from the Turfān Oasis and from Chinese Dunhuang. In Khōtanese there can be observed two stages of language development: Old Khōtanese (language of the Kingdom of Khōtan) and Late Khōtanese (language of the Turfān oasis)²⁹.

-

²⁸ Rong Xinjiang proposes instead of naming Tumshuqese (made by modern place-name Tumshuq in Eastern Turkestan, where the documents in the language had been first found) a more appropriate name derived from the historical region of Gyāźdi (Tumsh. *Gyāźdi-*, Chin. *Jushide*, Tibetan *Gus-tig*) – *Gyāźdese* or *Gyāźdian* (RONG 2005). In this work I am going to keep the label *Tumshuqese* as it is customary in other scientific works.

²⁹ Leonard Georgievich Gertsenberg characterizes interrelationship of Old and Late Khōtanese as relationship of Latin and Modern Italian (GERTSENBERG 1981, 234). He sees the archaicity of Old Khōtanese possibly in an older scribal tradition in Khōtan and Late Khōtanese is explained as a variety of colloquial language of the Khōtanese people in Turfān (ibid.). Ronald Eric Emmerick claims, that according to palaeographic analysis the oldest Khōtanese texts can be dated already to the 5th and 6th centuries AD (EMMERICK 2009, 378), it is possible that the orthography of Old Khōtanese developed in that period.

monophthongized). Palatals * \check{c} , * \check{j} are depalatalized to / \mathfrak{v} , $\mathsf{d}z$ / when preceding back vowels (but * $\check{c}\check{i} > /\mathsf{v}^{\mathsf{h}}/$); * $\mathsf{t}u$, * $\mathsf{d}zu$ changes into / \check{s} , \check{z} /3° etc. In the development of consonants there is also a significant difference between the Old and Late Khōtanese. There are also evident Indo-Aryan influences on Khōtanese consonantism – emergence of retroflex sounds³¹ and a transition of non-sibilant voiceless fricatives into aspirate stops *f, * \mathfrak{T} , *

consonants	stops	affricates	fricatives	sonorants	vowels
bilabials	p p ^h (b)		b	m v	i īu ū
dentals			t		
alveolars	tt t ^h d	tc ts js	s ys	n r rr 1	ä o/au
postalveolars		c c ^h j	śś ś		/ə/
retroflexes	ţ ţ ^h	kṣ	șș ș	и́ (q́)	e/ai
palatals		ky gy		ñуḍ	
velars	k k ^h gg		h: g	ń/ṃg	ā
labiovelars			hv		
glottals	,		h		

Table 10 Sound system of Old Khōtanese (values in the table are based on transliteration of the Brāhmī script)³³.

A series of changes occurred also in morphology. In nominal inflection the Old Iranian stem system was heavily transformed into a new system of almost two dozen inflectional classes. Genitive case merged with dative, and instrumental merged with ablative. Neuter usually merged with masculine but in some cases neuter was preserved as newly-build *n*-stems. Dual was lost, with some exceptions. Number of cases has been further reduced in Late Khōtanese, prepositions or postpositions were used to a greater extent to express cases.

_

 $^{^{3\}circ}$ Similar change is attested also in Pāmīr Wakhī: Ir. *átua-, horse > Khōt. aśśä [aʃ(:)e], Wakh. yaš × Ave. aspa- (but OPers. asa-), Ved. áśva-.

³¹ Due to contact with the Indo-Aryan languages the retroflex consonants can be met also in other Iranian languages, e.g. in Pashtō, Wakhī, Ishkāshmī-Sanglēchī, Yidghā or Balōchī.

³² Similar feature can be seen also in Parāchī, Ōrmurī and North-West Iranian Balōchī.

³³ In Late Khōtanese /ś, ź/ are usually written as <ś>, <ś'/Ś> (x OKhōt. <śś>, <ś>) and /š, ž/ as <ṣ>, <ṣ'/ṣ> (x OKhōt. <śṣ>, <ṣ>). For OKhōt <ţ^hţ^h> and <kṣ> /tṣ^h/ stands just <kṣ> in Late Khōtanese.

consonants	stops	affricates	fricatives	sonorants	vowels
bilabials	p p ^h b		W	m v	i ü u
dentals			₫		
alveolars	t th d dh	ts dz	S Z	n r <u>r</u> 1	
postalveolars		c c ^h j	śź		e /ə/ o
retroflexes			ș ż	ņ	
palatals		ky gy		ñ y	
velars	k g		kh g	'n	ā
glottals			h		

Table 11 Sound system of Tumshuqese (values in the table are based on transliteration of the Brāhmī script).

Verb distinguished all inherited moods as well as active and middle voice. Also verbal endings continue from *Proto-Iranian, in this case the forms of the endings may differ due to Khōtanese sound changes. Innovative is transformation of tenses – Khōtanese distinguishes just opposition of present and perfect. Perfect is based on opposition of transitive and intransitive verbs – each of these categories has its own set of endings (EMMERICK 1989; GERTSENBERG 1981).

Knowledge of Tumshuqese is poor in comparison to Khōtanese. Tumshuqese is generally much more archaic, both in phonology and in morphology; there is e.g. no sonorization of word-internal voiceless vowels or no palatalization of vowels (EMMERICK 1989, 204-205).

As was observed by Janos Harmatta, beside Khōtanese and Tumshuqese there are also some other Saka dialects, so-called dialects of Southern Saka – Sīstān Saka, Gandhāra Saka, Mathurā Saka and Ujjayinī and Mālvā Saka. The dialects of Southern Saka are attested mainly on onomastic material in some Prakrit texts written in the Brāhmī and Kharōṣṭhī scripts, occasionally there are some glosses in the Greek alphabet (HARMATTA 1989), another Saka dialects of the Eastern Turkestan attested by several glosses are Murtuq Saka (a variety of Tumshuqese?), Krōraina Saka, Kāshghar Saka (Kanchakī, Kanjakī) and Indian Saka (GERTSENBERG 1981, 234). Question is whether unattested languages of *Sakā tigraxaudā* and *Sakā haumavargā* known from Old Persian sources were the proper languages of the Saka, or whether they were spoken by Central Asian Scythians.

I.1.1.4. New Iranian period

In the New Iranian period is attested majority of the known Eastern Iranian languages. Three languages – Wanjī, Zēbākī and Sarghulāmī – died in on the beginning of the last century. There are now 20 living Eastern Iranian languages spoken by approximately 32 809 000 people (excluding Pashtō some 809 000 people). Only Ossetic and Pashtō have orthography of its own, the other languages have no written tradition.

Modern Eastern Iranian languages differ considerably one from the other. All the languages have simplified nominal declination to maximally three cases system. Verbal inflection was in many languages much simplified, majority of past tense verbal forms is based on ergative

construction. Typical Iranian subject-object-verb word order continues in all Eastern Iranian languages.

I.1.1.4.a. North Eastern Iranian

I.1.1.4.1. Yaghnöbī

Yaghnōbī (*Yaghnābī*, incorrectly also *Neo-Sogdian*³⁴; yaynōbī zivók, yaynōbī lavz³⁵) is a language originally spoken in a high-mountain valley on the upper reaches of the river Yaghnōb in Aynî district in North-Western Tajikistan. In the 18th century some of the Yaghnōbīs settled southern slopes of the Ḥiṣār range in northern parts of the Varzōb district South of Yaghnōb and several villages in Ghōnchî district in the Ferghāna Valley; later in the half of the 20th century some Yaghnōbīs settled southern parts of Varzōb and Northern Ḥiṣōr regions (BUZURGMEHR 2005). In the years 1970 and 1971 all the population of the Yaghnōb valley was forced to move to the Zafarōbōd district in the Hungry Steppe (*Mīrzōčūl*; LOY 2005), some of the Yaghnōbīs returned back to their homeland in the early 1990's, today there are approximately 500 people living in the Yaghnōbī Valley³⁶ (Mīrzōzōda 2008, 6). There are some 12 500 people who consider themselves Yaghnōbī, of which approximately 8000 speak Yaghnōbī

Both theories i.e. Yaghnōb as 'Wide Dale' or 'Ice Dale' can be considered correct, or maybe the name of the Yaghnōb Valley/river emerged from a combination of both names, since it is considered that the name as it is known today has been adopted by the Tājīks. Phonetically *yayd-nōu is more accurate than Ex(i) Nōu or *yaxnī/yaxīn-ōb.

³⁴ Designation 'Neo-Sogdian' was rarely used in older scientific literature (cf. BOGOLYUBOV 1956). Nowadays Yaghnōbī is also called $suydī (z^ivol/k)$, Sogdian by some of its speakers. This is a quite recent phenomenon caused by the emerging national self-awareness of the Yaghnōbīs.

³⁵ The language is called also yaynōwi or even yaydnōwi by some of its speakers. The name of the language is derived from the name of the Yaghnōb river and its valley (Tjk. Yaynōb, Yaynōb, Yaynōu). The original name of the river and its valley has two possible etymologies:

ı) it either comes from Yagh. $ya\gamma d \sim yaxt$ 'wide' (Sogd. B $y\gamma(^2)rt$ -y, $yr\gamma t \in y\gamma r\underline{t}$ -y /yə(t) γ dı́/) and $n\bar{o}u$ 'valley, dale' > * $ya\gamma d$ - $n\bar{o}u$ > $Y\acute{a}\gamma(d)n\bar{o}u$ > Tjk. $Ya\gamma n\acute{o}b$ (but also $Y\acute{a}\gamma(d)n\bar{o}u$);

²⁾ or it comes from Tājīk yaxín 'cold, icy' or $yaxn\acute{i}$ 'cold place' (cf. Sogd. s yxn(w) /yəxnú - yḗxn(u)/ 'ice') and $\bar{o}b$ 'water' (Yagh. $\bar{o}p$) > *yaxín/yaxn \acute{i} - $\bar{o}b$ > * $Yaxn\acute{o}b$ > $Yayn\acute{o}b$ (change /x̄n/ > / γ n/ can by explained as voice assimilation, but such a change is attested neither in Tājīk nor in Yaghnōbī; it may be explained as development caused by Tājīk-Yaghnōbī contact ??) — this etymology can be supported by Yaghnōbī toponymy. In the Qūl Valley there is a brook called Exi Nōu (or Exnou) 'Ice Dale' in Yaghnōbī (Yagh. Exi, ix, ice, Tjk. ix, ice, Tjk. ix > ix

³⁶ Before the forced migration there were approximately 2500 people (KHROMOV 1972, 4), 1794 of them were Yaghnōbī-speakers in 1952 (ibid.: 6).

(MĪRZŌZŌDA pers. comm.). Yaghnōbī splits into three dialects – Western, Transitional (or Central) and Eastern³⁷. The language does not have any literary tradition. First books written in Yaghnōbī (dictionaries, text-books etc.) began to appear in the 1990's, today the task to create Yaghnōbī orthography is in progress. A Tajik form of the Cyrillic alphabet serves as the basis for written Yaghnōbī.

Yaghnōbī sound system is relatively archaic – vowels have not been affected much by Umlaut, consonants continue from the Middle Iranian stage, with only little changes. The development of vowels is closely related with stress, it seems that *Proto-Yaghnōbī stress corresponds to position of stress in archaic Sogdian before operation of the Sogdian *Rhythmic Law*. Under the influence of stress many Iranian vowels were changed in unstressed positions: * $\bar{\imath}$ and * $\bar{\imath}$ were shortened to i, u; also short vowels (or even all syllables) were lost when preceding a stressed syllable. Compared to Sogdian in Yaghnōbī there took place a *chain shift* of \bar{a} , \bar{o} , $\bar{u} > \bar{o}$, \bar{u} , \bar{u} / \bar{u} , (Middle) Iranian * \bar{a} changes to Sogdian \bar{e} under i-Umlaut, in Yaghnōbī there is $\bar{e} \parallel a\bar{u}$. Consonants do not differ much from Sogdian, major difference may be * β , * δ > v, d; transition of γ , x, x° from velars to uvulars; quite recent is a development of * ϑ > $\underline{s} \parallel \underline{t}^{38}$. Unlike Sogdian there is no change * ϑ r, * δ r > \underline{s} , \underline{z} , in Yaghnōbī, there is "regular" development to $\underline{s}(v)r \parallel \underline{t}(v)r$, d(v)r; Yaghnōbī mp, nt, nk, $n\check{c}$ respond to Sogdian mb, md, mg, $m\check{f}$; and perhaps (*Proto-)Sogdian (*) γd , (*) βd , (*)2d, > Yaghnōbī xt, $ft/vd \parallel ft$, $st \parallel zd$. (KHROMOV 1987, 653-661)

consonants	stops	affricates	fricatives	sonorants	vowels
bilabials	рb			m w	ī ¬ū ū
labiodentals			f v		i i \ u u
alveolars	t d		S Z	n r l	\bar{e} $(\bar{\Theta})$
alveopalatals		čj	šž		
palatals				у	ē
velars	k g			(ŋ)	
uvulars	q		хγ		$a \qquad \qquad (\bar{a}) $
labiouvulars			_X		
pharyngeals			(بً) (بًا)		
glottals			h		

Table 12 Sound system of Yaghnöbī.

.25.

speakers use the Western dialect, its speakers settled also areas in the Ghōnchî and Upper Varzōb districts.

³⁷ From now on I will distinguish different forms in the Eastern and Western dialect by double vertical line: i.e. {Eastern dialect} || {Western dialect}. The Transitional dialect stands between the Western and the Eastern one – some of its features correspond with the Western dialect, some other with the Eastern (for more information on the Yaghnōbí dialects see KHROMOV 1972, 97-105; NOVÁK 2010, 243-246). At the present time the majority of

 $^{^{38}}$ Before the year 1913 there was still \Im in Yaghnōbī (JUNKER 1930, 126, 128-129). See chapter II.1.3.10.

Yaghnōbī nouns have two numbers and two cases (direct and oblique), the distinction of gender has been $lost^{39}$. Plural is formed with the ending -t (in words ending in -a the final vowel was prolonged before the plural ending: $-a+t > *-\bar{a}t > -\bar{o}t$) $< *-t\bar{a}-$; oblique case ending originates in Iranian a-stem genitive singular: *-hia > -i (after vowels -i, if a word ends in -a, this -a is palatalized: $-a+i > -\bar{\varepsilon} \parallel -ai$). Adjectives are indeclinable; they have neither case nor gender. Personal pronouns have forms for first two persons, for the third person demonstrative pronouns are used. Personal pronoun of the second person singular and demonstratives of both numbers are declined in two cases⁴⁰; demonstratives distinguish double deixis. Verbs have two stems - present and imperfect, there is a similar pattern also for participles - i.e. present and past participles. The present stem comes from Old Iranian present stems; the imperfect stem is formed from the present stem with addition of augment a-. Personal endings of the present tense correspond to Old Iranian primary endings (but the ending of the third person plural was replaced by original perfect ending), imperfect endings come from Iranian optative and imperfect endings. By adding a suffix -išt to personal endings was originally formed durative of verbs, later this old durative was reanalyzed: in present the durative ending serves as "new" present, the "old" present than changed its function as a dependent verb; durative of imperfect was reanalyzed as preterite. Perfect tense is derived from the Iranian past participle. Perfect is connected with split ergativity: perfect of intransitional verbs is formed from the past participle and copula, transitional verbs have subject in oblique followed by copula of the third person singular. Forms of progressive (durative) present and perfect are formed from the infinitive, these forms are also influenced by the ergative (formed analogically as in the perfect tense). (KHROMOV 1987, 662-694)

(excursion 2) Yaghnōbī dialects

There are recognised two common Yaghnōbī dialects – Eastern and Western Yaghnōbī. Al'bert Leonidovich Khromov recognises also third, Transitional, dialect which shares some features of Eastern Yaghnōbī and some other of the Western variety. I will not describe the differences between the dialects as this issue has been described well in Khromov's Yaghnōbī Grammar (Khromov 1972, 97-105), an outline of Yaghnōbī dialects with a short dialectal word-list is also presented in the grammatical appendix of the Yaghnōbī-Czech dictionary (Novák 2010, 243-246).

In many works that mention Yaghnōbī dialects there are observed basic differences of development of historical * \Im (and * \Im r-) and *i*-Umlauted * \bar{a} , i.e. development such as * $m\acute{a}$! \Im a-> $m\~{e}$ \$ || $m\~{e}$ \$ 'day'; * \Im r \acute{a} [\bar{a} -> \Im r \acute{a} [\bar{a} ->

³⁹ Some feminine forms were introduced via Tājīk from Arabic or from Russian (cf. 'colloquial' *māāllimá*, teacheress; *uzbéčka*, Uzbek woman).

⁴⁰ Robert Gauthiot provides direct case of the first person singular *az*. Such form is not mentioned in other works on Yaghnōbī, there is just single form *man* for both cases (originally *man* < **mana* is oblique (< genitive) of (*)*az* < *ázu < *ázam < *adzám; cf. GAUTHIOT – BENVENISTE 1929, 108-109).

differences in verbal endings are given, e.g. for present indicative of the third person singular $-\check{c}i \parallel -ti\check{s}t$. All the above mentioned examples are distinct in contemporary Yaghnōbī dialects, but they are not as important from diachronic point of view (see e.g. BIELMEIER 1989, 487; VINOGRADOVA 2000b, 309-310; JUNKER 1930, 123-131; BOGOLYUBOV 1966, 359 etc.).

What is more interesting than the above mentioned isoglosses $\underline{s} \parallel \underline{t}$, $\bar{\epsilon} \parallel a\underline{i}$ and $-\check{c}i \parallel -ti\check{s}t$ is imperfect and simple preterite ending of the first person plural $-\bar{\imath}m(i\check{s}t) \parallel -\bar{o}m(i\check{s}t)$ — Eastern Yaghnōbī $-\bar{\imath}m$ is derived from optative *- $a\underline{\imath}ma$ (KHROMOV 1987, 681) ⁴¹, but the Western Yaghnōbī ending $-\bar{o}m$ continues from imperfect *- $\bar{a}ma$. This feature was unfortunately left unnoticed by majority of scholars. The two different sets of Yaghnōbī imperfect/simple preterite endings of the first person plural show deeper history of the language, even deeper than the other commonly presented dialectal differences. In this case Eastern Yaghnōbī shares innovation with Sogdian while Western Yaghnōbī (which should be geographically closer to literary Sogdian) preserves archaic Iranian imperfect. This observation may be another clue that proves that Yaghnōbī was not dialect of Sogdian but Sogdian and Yaghnōbī split much earlier.

(excursion 3) Sogdo-Yaghnōbī substrate in the Zarafshān-Tajik dialects

It is not exactly known when the territory of present Tajikistan underwent language shift in favour of Persian; it can be supposed that Persian gained its prestigious position during reign of the Sāmānid dynasty (819-999). Sogdian was then gradually displaced by Persian, but its dialects survived several centuries in mountainous regions on upper reaches of the Zarafshōn river. Nowadays Tajik is spoken in these regions, respectively its Central (of Zarafshān) dialects (RASTORGUEVA 1964). Zarafshān Tajik can be split into three (sub)dialect groups – dialects of historical regions of Mastchōh (cf. KHROMOV 1962), Falghar (cf. KHROMOV 1967; KERIMOVA 1963) and Fōn (RASTORGUEVA 1964, 8; the last two mentioned regions form together with the Yaghnōb Valley present Aynî district, the first mentioned region forms present district Kūhistōni Mastchōh). Substrate words from a Sogdian dialect survived in these dialects. Sogdian substrate in Zarafshān dialects can be observed in phonology, lexicon and in toponymy.

In phonology the Zarafshān dialects share similar features with Yaghnōbī, mainly in a change of vowels initiated by labialization of $*\bar{a}$ and subsequent *chain-shift* of $*\bar{o}$ and $*\bar{u}$ (Figure 5). In the Zarafshān dialects as in Northern Tajik merged $*\bar{\imath}$, *i > i and $*\bar{u}$, *u > u probably before the *chain-shift*, but this feature is not observed in Yaghnōbī (development in Yaghnōbī is a kind of compromise between the schemes (a) and (b) at Figure 5, the development *u, $*\bar{u}$, $*\bar{u}$, $*i > [\upsilon, \upsilon(:), \upsilon:, \iota]$) differs. Substrate consonantism generally does not differ from Tajik, Zarafshān dialects mostly retain clusters mb, nd, ng, $n\check{\jmath}$, in Yaghnōbī there is mp, nt, nk, $n\check{c}$ instead.

-

 $^{^{41}}$ And is directly related to Sogdian ending $-\bar{e}m$.

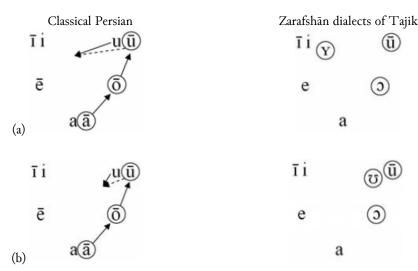


Figure 5 *Chain-shift* of back vowels in the Zarafshān dialects of Tajik: (a) dialects on the right bank of Lower Mastchōh, several dialects of Upper Mastchōh and majority of Falghar dialects⁴² (including Tajik dialect of the Yaghnōb Valley), (b) majority of Upper Mastchōh dialects, dialects on the left bank of Lower and several Upper Falghar dialects; dashed arrow represents conditioned change (IDŌ 2009, 68).

The Sogdian substrate can be recognised in lexicon – problem of Sogdian loan-words in Persian was solved by Walter Bruno HENNING (1939). The list of Sogdian and Yaghnōbī words in the Zarafshān dialects and in Tajik was studied by Al'bert Leonidovich KHROMOV (1962; 1388). In the Zarafshān dialects there are 74 words of Eastern Iranian origin – nine of them are of Sogdian origin without attested responses in Yaghnōbī; 16 words are attested both in Sogdian and Yaghnōbī; 28 are attested only in Yaghnōbī and other 21 words are of Eastern Iranian origin, but their Sogdian and/or Yaghnōbī source cannot be found.

Another important source for the study of Sogdo-Yaghnōbī substrate is toponymy, from Sogdian sources there are known some place-names of North-Western Tajikistan that are used even today e.g. Anzōb (Sogd. Mg ²nz²βh), Iskōdár (Sogd. Mg ²sk²tr), Farmētán (Sogd. Mg prnmyðn), Falyár (Sogd. Mg pryrh), Madm (Sogd. Mg mðmh), Dary (Sogd. Mg ðryh, Yagh. Dary), Rarz (Sogd. Mg rzrh), Falmōút (Sogd. Mg ²βtm²wt), Yagh. Fatmōút, TFalgh. Falmōút), Xušēkát (Sogd. Mg (²)γsyknðh, ²γsykt), TFalgh. Xušēkát), Mardūškát (Sogd. Mg mrtškt-; TMast. Mardūškát, Mardūškát; today generally called Mastchōh), Zarōvátk (Sogd. Mg zr²wðkh), Varz(-i Minór) (Sogd. B βrz-; present Aynî), Vōdíf (Sogd. H w²tyβ); other toponyms are known also from neighbouring areas: Γarm⁴3 (Sogd. Mg γrm), Varzób (Sogd. B βrz- + ²²p(h)) etc. (cf. Khromov 1966; Bogolyubov – Smirnova 1963, 101-108; Smirnova 1963; Bushkov – Novikov 1992; Lur'e 2004; Novák [in print], Novák 2009).

_

⁴² In majority of the Upper Falghar dialects (with an exception in dialect of Rarz) and in some Lower Mastchöh dialect of right bank of the river Zarafshön there [v] later changed to [v] (KHROMOV 1962; KHROMOV 1967b). In the presented thesis the Zarafshān Tājīk vowels [v] and [v] will be transcribed as v, v.

⁴³ It is either city of Gharm in Rasht district in Qarōtegīn, or it could be village of Gharmēn in Yaghnōb (BUSHKOV – NOVIKOV 1992).

On the basis of the substrate in the Zarafshān dialects it can be assumed that the local dialect originated from the same basis as Sogdian and Yaghnōbī – this hypothetic language (dialect) can be called *Zarafshānī. It is possible that Zarafshānī could originate in a dialect (?) attested in documents from fortress of Ḥiṣōrak in by Mardūshkat in Mastchōh (cf. Lur'e 2011; 2012, 455-456).

I.i.i.4.2. Ossetic

Ossetic (Ossetian) needs to be understood as two varieties of one language - Iron (iron ævzag, ironau | īron ævzag, īronau; in older works also Tagaur - Northern Iron and Twal - Southern Iron) and Digoron (Digor; dыguron ævzag, dыguronau ∥ digoron ævzag, digoronau)⁴⁴. Iron is official language in North Ossetia-Alania and South Ossetia (formerly autonomous region of Georgia), Digoron is spoken in western parts of North and South Ossetia. Iron is considered as a literal form of Ossetic, total number of speakers of Ossetic vernaculars is estimated to 542 000 people (ISAEV 1987, 539). Both dialects are historically close one to the other, but due to sound changes that started in Iron approximately two hundred years ago both languages are intelligible with difficulties (THORDARSON 1989, 457); to these two dialects also a transitional dialect of Wællagkom can be added (ISAEV 1966, 101-111). The oldest book written in Ossetic was a translation of catechism by Gay Takaov in the year 1798, the language was written in old (i.e. Church Slavic) variety of the Cyrillic alphabet, in the past Ossetic was written in various modifications of Cyrillic, Georgian alphabets Khutsuri and Mkhedruli or in modified Latin alphabet (THORDARSON 1989, 457-459); Digoron speaking Muslims also used the Arabic script. Modern Ossetic nowadays uses the Cyrillic alphabet extended by a letter æ and nine digraphs (in Digoron there is also digraph *iy* for $/\bar{\imath}/$ and also a letter *h* may be used).

consonants	stops	affricates	fricatives	sonorants	vowels
bilabials	рģb			m w	iu
labiodentals			f v		
alveolars	t ṫ́ d	ć	сз	nrl	0
postalveolars		ččj	S Z		e\ \
palatals				у	
velars	k k g			(ŋ)	\
labiovelars	kw kw gw				
uvulars	q		хγ		
labiouvulars	q^{w}		xw yw		

Table 13 Sound system of Iron Ossetic.

⁴⁴ In this work Ossetic words will be marked in three ways – words that are the same in form will marked just as 'Oss.', when there are different forms in the Iron and Digoron dialects, those forms will be separated by double vertical line: $\{Iron\} \parallel \{Digoron\}$. If a word exists only in one Ossetic dialect, it will be marked by a small capital letter: I = Iron, D = Digoron.

Ossetic is a direct descendent of Alanic, which originates in Scytho-Sarmatian dialects. Though the origins of Ossetic can be traced to the 7th century BC, we have no satisfactory linguistic data concerning its ancestor(s) – the problem lays mainly in an insufficient graphical system in which the old Scytho-Sarmatian languages were recorded and also in a fragmentariness of data which do not provide us with much information concerning morphology and syntax.

consonants	stops	affricates	fricatives	sonorants	vowels
bilabials	рþ́b			m w	ī u
labiodentals			f v		i
alveolars	t ṫ́ d	c ć z	S Z	n r l	
alveopalatals					e\ \ o
palatals				у	
velars	k k g			(ŋ)	x x
labiovelars					
uvulars	q		хγ		
labiouvulars					
glottals			(h)		

Table 14 Sound system of Digoron Ossetic.

Vocalic system of Ossetic, mainly of its Digoron dialect, is rather archaic – reduction of unstressed vowels in Alano-Ossetic dialects did not occur to such extent as it is known in other Eastern Iranian languages. The development of vowels was as follows: $*a > \alpha$, a, o; $*\tilde{a} > a$, o; $*\tilde{a} \not= (a) > i \parallel e$; $*\tilde{a} \not= (a) > u \parallel o$; $*\tilde{i} > \omega \parallel i$; $*\tilde{u} > (w)\omega \parallel u$; $*r > \omega r$, ar; palatalized $*a(i) > i \parallel \bar{i}$, e; *ua after a velar or uvular > o, $\alpha \parallel wa$, $w\alpha$; and e from contraction: $-\alpha + \alpha - \text{or } -\alpha + i - \parallel ye$. In Alano-Ossetic, the quantity of high vowels was lost: *i, $*\bar{i}$ and *u, $*\bar{u}$ developed to i and u in Digoron, in Iron they all merged into ω . Qualitative changes can be observed for low vowels *a and $*\bar{a}$, in this case quantitative difference was replaced by difference in quality: $*a = \alpha/\alpha/$, $*a = a/\alpha/$, *a in front of two tautosyllabic consonants merges with $/\alpha/$ and this "new" $/\alpha/$ later changed to o when followed by a nasal. Consonant system continues from Alanic without major changes, but it has been enriched by contact with Caucasian languages, so in Ossetic there are also glottalized consonants p, *t, *t

Development of s, z, c, c, z continues also recently, in (Northern) Iron they are realized as $[\int, z, s, s', z]$; in Digoron they remain as [s, z, s, s', c] when followed by back vowels (i.e. α , a, o, u), before front vowels e and \tilde{t} they are palatalized: $[\int, z, tf, tf', ct]$. Different development can be observed in some southern dialects of Iron: sibilants and t' develop the same way as in northern Iron, palatal affricates probably retained their pronunciation until half of the t_0 century, nowadays pronunciation of t', t' remained when geminated or when following t', in all other positions they changed to palatal sibilants: t', t',

fundamental changes: change of word-initial $\gamma(w)$ - > q(w)- and affrication of palatal velars before front vowels e and $\check{\imath}$: \acute{k} , \acute{k} , \acute{g} > \acute{c} , \acute{c} , \acute{g} (in southern Iron dialects > c, c, \acute{g} , in Digoron they remain \acute{k} , \acute{k} , \acute{g}). It should be noted that labialization and palatalization preceded change (*)i, (*)u > u 46 (ISAEV 1987, 552-580; Thordarson 1989, 459-466). Bilabial approximants w [\not{e} ~ \not{v}] and y [\not{i} ~ \not{i}] are non-phonemic and often form falling or rising diphthongs.

Ossetic distinguishes nine (D eight) cases: nominative, genitive, dative, allative, ablative, inessive, superessive (/adessive), elative (/equative) and comitative (the last mentioned case is not present in Digoron), it has two numbers (singular and plural) and does not distinguish gender. Ossetic is by the number of cases comparable to Old Iranian, nevertheless Ossetic cases do not respond to the Old Iranian cases functionally; only endings of four cases – nominative, genitive, ablative and inessive (< locative) are considered to be inherited from Old Iranian. All the other case endings newly emerged from prepositions, adverbs or due to contact with languages of Caucasus (Belyaev 2010). There is also an opinion that Ossetic originally possessed only two inherited Old Iranian cases: nominative and genitive (> oblique) and the other cases are an innovation due to contact with Caucasian languages (KIM 2003; 2007).

Ossetic verbal morphology is quite conservative, it preserves most of Old Iranian verbal moods, an innovation is shift of past tenses into single past tense – preterite, also the forms of future tense are new. Conservativism can be observed clearly also in personal endings which are in many cases inherited (THORDARSON 1989, 473-477; ISAEV 1987, 664-632). There are distinguished transitional and intransitional verbs, transitivity is expressed morphologically in preterite – to a past stem (formed originally from *-ta- past participles) are added personal endings, for transitional verbs formed from copula, for intransitional verbs formed from verb to have (ISAEV 1987, 619). It is evident that the preterite endings confirm ergative construction which have been lost in modern Ossetic, but it has just preserved its trace in two sets of the preterite personal endings⁴⁷. For Ossetic is characteristic the use of preverbs – calque from the

-

⁴⁶ Velars were probably palatalized quite recently, some 150 or 200 years ago. In the first book printed in Ossetic there are no marks of palatalization in orthography (but see notation of palatalized and non-palatalized velars in the Romance languages), either the change *i*, *u* > ω has not taken place although the book was written in the Iron dialect (KOZYREVA 1974, 64). The issue of Ossetic phonology at the end of the 18th century is complicated – Tamara Zaurbekovna Kozyreva in her analysis of Ossetic Catechism does not deal with phonology and notes that the analysis needs a separate study (ibid.: 14). Palatalization of velars had to be completed before the year 1844, when had Andeas Johan Sjögren published the first grammar of Ossetic (Sjögren 1844). The solution perhaps may be found in translations of religious texts to Southern Ossetic (written in the Khutsuri alphabet), which were published in the early 19th century by Ivane Yalghuzidze (Thordarson 1989, 458), unfortunately I have not seen those sources. The clue for the issue of velar palatalization can be found in different results of palatalization in the Southern and Northern Iron dialects, or possibly in the development of the transitional Digoron-Iron dialect of Wællagkom – according to Vsevolod Fëdorovich Miller the velars were seldom palatalized before the year 1880, but before the year 1957 palatalization was fully implemented (ISAEV 1966, 106-107).

⁴⁷ The comparation of ergative with Ossetic inflectional system could be interesting – there are many "new" cases formed due to contact with Caucasian languages but it has not preserved or borrowed ergative as a separate case, by

Caucasian languages, but morphologically formed from Iranian sources; preverbs have two functions – locative and modal (THORDARSON 1989, 475; ISAEV 1987, 612-616).

I.1.1.4.b. The Pāmīr languages

The Pāmīr languages (or *Badakhshānī languages*) form a significant group within the Southern branch of the Eastern Iranian languages⁴⁸. The Pāmīr languages can be divided into two groups: Northern Pāmīrī (or "Shughnī-Yazghulāmī") group and Southern Pāmīrī group. To the Southern group belong Wakhī and Ishkāshmī-Sanglēchī, all the other Pāmīr languages belong to the Northern group⁴⁹. Formerly it was supposed that the languages come from a ""Proto-Pāmīrī" proto-language (cf. Pakhalina 1983), nowadays it seems that sources for these languages vary, maybe the languages of the Shughnī-Yazghulāmī group may have a common ancestor (cf. Èdel'Man – Dodykhudoeva 2009, 773; Payne 1989, 420-423; Sokolova 1967; Sokolova 1973).

We do not have much information about the (pre)history of the Pāmīr-Hindūkush area before the Middle Ages, but it seems that Pāmīr was settled by Iranian speaking people in several waves. We do not know from where the Iranian-speaking Pāmīrians came, there may be a clue only for Wakhī which shares some isoglosses with the Saka dialects. Martin Kümmel suggests that (Old) Wakhī was originally a Western Saka dialect (KÜMMEL 2008, I) – nowadays Wakhī certainly belongs to the Pāmīr group, a study of the Wakhī material shows that there may be two (or even more) language layers⁵⁰. It can be supposed that a "Saka-Wakhī" language

contrast, it completely dropped it, despite the fact that ergative is present in languages such as Georgian or Svan (BELYAEV 2010, 309-310).

⁴⁸ The most widely accepted classification of the Eastern Iranian languages divides those languages into two branches – Northern and Southern. I have not found any exact criteria by which both branches are defined. It can be assumed that the inner development especially in the Southern branch could have been much more difficult. It seems that the Eastern Iranian languages should be reclassified. They can be newly divided into five branches: I Northern (or Scythian group; to this group belong Sogdian, Scytho-Sarmatian dialects, Ossetic and Yaghnōbī), II North-eastern (or Saka; Saka dialects, maybe also Wakhī), III Central (or Pāmīr; Yazghulāmī, Shughnī-Rōshānī group, Munjī-Yidghā, Wakhī, Ishkāshmī-Sanglēchī), VI Southern (or Paṭhān; Pashtō and Waṇetsī; maybe Munjī-Yidghā and Sarghulāmī can belong to this group) and V South-eastern (Ōrmuṛī and Parāchī). Questionable is a position of Bactrian (member of the Paṭhān group or Munjī-Yidghā Pāmīr subgroup ??) and Khwārezmian within the above mentioned groups. The proposed classification is based mainly on contemporary (often geographically conditioned) proximity of the languages. Such classification needs to be based on more thorough study of isoglosses within all members of the Eastern Iranian group, some criteria will be shown later in this thesis.

⁴⁹ The position of Munjī and Yidghā within the Pāmīr group may be questionable, there are some authorities who do not recognise them Pāmīr languages and link them with Pashtō and Waṇetsī. More complicated is the position of Sarghulāmī. I will treat them all as members of the Pāmīr group in this work.

⁵⁰ They can be observed mainly in different development of intervocalic voiceless consonants – in some cases they remain voiceless, but in some other instances they were voiced. There are even some examples of roots with forms with both voiced and voiceless responses in Wakhī.

was "Pāmīrized", i.e. overlaid by a Pāmīr superstrate⁵¹. It is quite difficult to determine the development of the Pāmīr languages. As I have mentioned above, there is no reason to reconstruct a *Proto-Pāmīrī language, when a proto-language of the Pāmīr area is needed then it should be reconstructed just for the Shughnī-Yazghulāmī languages. Also Munjī-Yidghā (and Sarghulāmī ??) probably belonged to this group, but they probably split earlier ⁵². The Ishkāshmī-Sanglēchī languages are quite close to the Northern Pāmīr languages, but they differ in some aspects, some authors even suppose that Ishkāshmī-Sanglēchī differ more from Yazghulāmī and Shughnī-Rōshānī than does Munjī and Yidghā (ÈDEL'MAN – DODYKHUDOEVA 2009, 773, 775-777; PAYNE 1989, 420-423; SOKOLOVA 1973). Genetic affiliation of the Pāmīr languages is thus problematic.

To explain similarities between the individual languages of the area we can postulate Pāmīr linguistic area (*Sprachbund*), i.e. the Pāmīr languages of Badakhshān (excluding Munjī and Yidghā). The Pāmīr linguistic area then belongs to a wider linguistic area of the Pāmīr-Hindūkush region that includes all the Pāmīr languages (with Munjī and Yidghā) and the Dardic and Nūristānī languages. There can be even a wider linguistic area – Central Asian or Himālayan Sprachbund that includes the languages of the Pāmīr-Hindūkush Sprachbund, other Iranian languages (i.e. Pashtō, Waṇetsī, Parāchī, Ōrmurī, Balōchī), some Indo-Aryan languages (Þōmākī, Western Pahārī, Panjābī and maybe Lahndā and Sindhī), some Sino-Tibetan languages (Baltī, Ladākhī, West Himālayish languages), Dravidan Brahūī and the language isolate Burūshaskī (PAYNE 1989, 422-423).

Some place names in Pāmīr show probable non-Iranian origin, according to Tat'yana Nikolaevna Pakhalina the name of Ishkāshim should be Indo-Aryan⁵³ and Yazghulām and Sarghulām probably contain a non-Indo-Iranian continuant of Ide. $*d^b\acute{e}\mathring{g}^b\~{o}m \sim *d^b\~{g}^b\acute{e}m$ - 'earth'⁵⁴ (PAKHALINA 1976b).

⁵¹ Ivan Mikhaĭlovič STEBLIN-KAMENSKIY (1976) sees some pre-Wakhī traces in toponymy of Western part of the Wakhī-speaking territory: Khandūt (Wakh. Žəndы́t < Ir. *x¾an-dāta-, given by the Sun; Tjk. Xandūt) and Namatgūt (Wakh. Nəmətgыt < Ir. *namata-gāt-/gā\$-, place of prayer/adoration; Tjk. Namatgūt, earlier also Namōzgáh which is Tājīk calque of the Wakhī name). «It is possible that the names Khandūt and Namatgūt originate in some [unknown] Eastern Iranian dialect that was close or even identical with an ancestor of the contemporary Wakhī language and they [i.e. the place-names] were formed in a period when Old Iranian form- and word-formation models were still preserved.» (STEBLIN-KAMENSKIY 1976, 185)

⁵² It is even possible that an ancestor of Munjī and Yidghā was a 'Pāmīrized' dialect similar to Bactrian.

⁵³ The name of Ishkāshim (originally name of a territory, later on also name of the cites of Eshkāshem and Nut): Ishk. Š(δ)košωm, Pers. Iškāším, Tjk. Iškōším, AfghP. Eškāšém; Wakh. Š(δ)kōšum; Shugh. Šikōšum) has probably derived from Indo-Aryan *śakǎ-samǎ- (sic! Pakhalina 1976b, 178; probably *śakǎ-ṣamǎ-) 'Land of the Saka', cf. Ved. *śakǎ-kṣam- (Pakhalina 1976b, 178-179). Probable etymon for Š(δ)košωm/Iškāším should be (Old) Indo-Aryan *śakǎ-kṣamǎ- with loss of *k in *kṣamǎ- as a result of dissimilation: *śakǎ-kṣamǎ- > *śakǎṣamǎ- > *Proto-Ishk. *š(ǎ)kāš(ǎ)m- > Ishk. Š(δ)košωm, š(δ)košωm; Pers. Iškāším, iškāš(i)mī (Wakhī and Shughnī forms are loans from Ishkāshmī or Persian).

⁵⁴ Tat'yana Nikolaevna Pakhalina sees development of Ide. *d\(^b\hat{g}^b\epsilon\)m (IIr. *\(^d\hat{d}^b\at{a}m\)-; Ir. *\(^dzam\)-; Ave. zam\)-; Pers. zam\(^i\)n; Ved. \(^ksam\)-; Gre. \(^dzam\) and adv. \(^dzam\) and the earth; Lat. \(^humus\); Hit. \(^t\hat{e}kan\); TokhA. \(^tkam\); TokhB. \(^kam\);

The Pāmīr languages share many similar features in phonology and morphology. Vocalic similarities can be seen in operation of i- and \bar{a} -Umlaut. Almost in all of the Pāmīr languages there were secondary palatalized tectals prior to front vowels (including $*\bar{a}$ and often *r), also postalveolar fricatives were depalatalized in almost all of the languages. Palatal sibilants tended to change to retroflex sounds or even to velar fricatives. Intervocalic voicing of voiceless stops and sibilants appeared in all languages, except Wakhī where this feature appears partly, probably due to influence of substrate or adstrate. In morphology we can see also many common features – gradual reduction of cases into two case system (but this development historically differs from one language (subgroup) to another) and its replacement with adpositional constructions,

OCS. zemlja; Lith. žēmė) in several responses that exclude Iranian development: Yazghulām can be translated as 'Land of the *Asi people'. The root *ἄτἴ- (??) can be compared with the name of the Ossetians or Jassians or the Åσιανοί, Åσαῖοι (PTOLEMY, Geography V 9:16) or Ἄσιοι (STRABO, Geography XI, 8:2) or with Ave. asu-, fast (ABAEV 1958, 79). The Ide. root *dʰgħém changed to *(gʔdħm- > *gdām- > *g/yਐām. This *g/yਐām was borrowed as *yũlắm in Persian and besides Yazyulắm it also appears in the name Saryulắm (i.e. '*Upper Land'; cf. also Sarghulāmī development *d > ð > l - so the Persian form was probably borrowed from Sarghulāmī or another related but otherwise unknown language). Yazghulāmī name of the Yazghulām Valley is Yūzdom, its origin is the same as of Pers. Yazyulām (Tjk. Yazgulōm, in Southern dialects Yazgəlom) < *Ἄσιοι/Ἀσαῖοι/Ἀσιανοί-*'gðħchðām- > *yás-(g)dām- > Yūzdom. There lays also the origin of the name of the Yazghulām river, Yazgh. Z(ə)'gamenj < *yas-(d)ġāmāna-čī- (also Yazgh. z(ə)'gamig, a person from Yazghulām < *yas-(d)ġāmā-kā-); probably there were lately two (or even three) continuants of *'gðħchðām- in the Yazghulām-Sarghulām area: *(g)dām- and *(d)'gðm-/*g(d)ðm-. (cf. PAKHALINA 1976b, 179-181)

A variety of $*(d)g\check{a}m-/*g(d)\check{a}m-<$ Ide. $*d^b\hat{g}^b\acute{e}m$ appears also in several (Dardic?) toponyms in Hindūkush: Sine-gam 'Land of the $Sin\bar{a}$ ', Kalas-gum 'Land of the Kalāṣa', $Ver\check{s}i-gum < *Ver\check{s}ik-gum$ 'Land of the Verchik (=B(u)rūshō) people' (PAKHALINA 1976b, 179), but Martin Kümmel connects ga/um with Skr. $gr\bar{a}ma-$, troop > village (KÜMMEL, pers. comm.). In zero-grades Ide. $*d^b\check{g}^b/m_0$ - appears as ksm-, gm-, jm- in Vedic, see declination of Ved. ksam- (f): sg. nom. $ks\bar{a}s$, gen.-abl. gmas/jmas/ksmas, dat. kse, acc. ksam, loc. jman/ksami, instr. $jm\bar{a}s$; du. nom. $ks\bar{a}sm\bar{a}s$; pl. nom. $ks\bar{a}sm\bar{a}s$, acc. $ks\bar{a}ssm\bar{a}s$, loc. $ks\bar{a}sm\bar{a}s$; pl. nom. $ks\bar{a}sm\bar{a}s$, gen. $zam\bar{a}sm\bar{a}s$, acc. $zam\bar{a}sm\bar{a}sm\bar{a}s$, acc. $zam\bar{a}s$

The names $Y\mathring{u}z\underline{dom}$, $Yazyu\underline{l\acute{a}m}$, and $Saryu\underline{l\acute{a}m}$ can be also connected with IIr. $*d^b\bar{a}man$ - 'place', but this does not explain the initial parts of the presented toponyms. Yazghulām may be explained as $*azga-d\bar{a}man$ - 'branch-place' (KÜMMEL, pers. comm.), but Ir. *azga- (IIr. $*hazg^ba$ -) is attested only in Western Iranian (Pahl. azg, Pers. $az\acute{a}y$).

development of ergative construction, which later tends to be lost. From demonstratives emerged definite article which became one of the most important part of speech since it determines gender (in those languages, where it is preserved), case and often subject, the demonstratives preserve triple deixis (except Yazghulāmī, where the system of deixis has been innovated). The Pāmīr languages are also very similar in means of syntax.

I.1.1.4.3. Wanjī

Wanjī (Vanjī or Old Wanjī; w/vanji, vanjiwor(i), vanjivor) is an extinct language of the Vanj Valley in northern part of the Vanj district in Tajik Badakhshān. The first information on Wanjī as the language differing from Tajik comes from the year 1906 from a book Vostochnaya Bukhara by Andreĭ Evgen'evich' Snesarev" (LASHKARBĒKOV 2008, 61), first linguistic data were brought by Ivan Ivanovich Zarubin, who wrote that: «The inhabitants of valley of the Vanj river, pouring into the river Panj northwards of Yazghulām [and] where is now [spoken] one of the Mountain-Tajik dialects, do remember that their ancestors used to speak a different language. In the year 1915 there were living some elders who had used to hear the Wanjī language from their grandfathers in childhood and could tell several words which were preserved in their memories. Despite their small number they [i.e. the words] allow to consider the lost language as one of the Pāmīr [languages]» (ZARUBIN 1924, 79-80) – those several Wanjī words represent a list of 33 words and phrases (ibid.: 80). Ten years later the Vanj Valley has been visited by Mikhail Stepanovich Andreev who confirmed that already in a half of the 19th century the language was spoken only in the furthermost villages of Upper Vanj. Andreev even met one of the informants of Ivan Ivanovich Zarubin - an old man of advanced age, who hardly recalled two-three dozen words of the forgotten language (ANDREEV 1945, 66). There are attested 64 Wanjī words altogether (ZARUBIN 1924, 80; ROZENFEL'D 1964, 141) and one derisive couplet recorded by Hannes SKÖLD (1936, 18-19; LASHKARBĒKOV 2008, 622), some lexemes can be observed by an analysis of the Vanj toponymy and other words can be found in Tajik dialect of Vanj; together we can reconstruct some 500-600 Wanjī lexemes (LASHKARBĒKOV 2008, 63).

consonants	stops	affricates	fricatives	sonorants	vowels
bilabials	рb			m w	iī zü———— uū
labiodentals			f v		
dentals			8 €		ē
alveolars	t d	(c) (3)	S Z	n r l	e ē\ ə o
postalveolars		čj	šž		
palatals				у	
velars	k g		žγ̇	(ŋ)	a ā
uvulars	q		хγ		
glottals			h		

Table 15 Sound system of Wanjī.

Reconstruction of Wanjī phonology carries its own pitfalls – the main problem is real phonological inventory which has been influenced by Tajik adstrate; for the reconstruction of Wanjī phonology closely related Yazghulāmī and Shughnī-Rōshānī languages are helpful. The development of vowels can be summarized as follows: *i, *u > i, v; *ī > i; *ū > u; *aī > i, e, ai; *au > au, aw-av; *r > ø, ir; *a > a, u, e, v; *ā > o; *ī > i; *ia > e; *r, *ar, *ā before a nasal > ai; *a, *ā under i-Umlaut > i, e; *a, *ā in vicinity of a labial > o, u. For consonants is typical sonorization of voiceless stops when they follow sonors of voiced consonants and shifts *š > x^{55} ; * x^{57} -> x^{57} -

Wanjī morphology can be reconstructed only partially from the attested material. Wanjī probably distinguished masculine and feminine genders, some feminines were formed with *i*-Umlaut of the root vowel similarly as in other Shughnī-Yazghulāmī branch of the Pāmīr languages. Plural of nouns was probably formed by adding an ending *-ev*. There is no information about the inflectional system of Wanjī. For adjectives there is attested the comparative ending *-tar* < Ir. *-tara-. Also information about verbal morphology is very poor. Several verbal stems are attested, for some of them we also know a past stem in *-ta-(ka-). Infinitive was formed by adding an ending *-ak*. Neither personal endings are attested, except imperative of the second person singular which was equal to the present stem. Marginally are attested also several demonstrative and relative pronouns and few postpositions (LASHKARBĒKOV 2008, 95-103). A reconstruction of morphology is difficult, though there has been recorded one Wanjī coupled (*bayt*) – this couplet can be interpreted as Tajik with Wanjī lexicon (LASHKARBĒKOV 2008, 62²).

I.1.1.4.4. Yazghulāmī

Yazghulāmī (*Yazgulāmī*; yůzdom(i) z(ə)vəg, z gamígi z(ə)vəg, z gamígi z(ə)vəg, z gamígi z(ə)vəg)⁵⁹ is a language spoken approximately by 3000 people in the Yazghulām valley in southern part of the Vanj

⁵⁵ In words recorded by Zarubin and Andreev \check{x} appears either as $<\check{s}>$ or as uvular <x>, in the Tājīk dialect of Vanj there is also either \check{s} or x for Wanjī $(*)\check{x}$.

 $^{^{56}}$ In records of Zarubin and Andreev instead of c there is $<\check{c}>$, in Vanjī Tājīk there is no /c/ phoneme, it is consistently replaced by $/\check{c}/$.

⁵⁷ In words recorded by Zarubin and Andreev \Im is spelled as <s> and δ is mostly spelled <d>, sporadically <z>. In the same way the continuants of * \Re and * δ are realized in Vanjī dialects of Tājīk.

⁵⁸ Modern Tājīk has just one /v/ phoneme with positional allophone /w/ (PERRY 2005, 24-25), contrary Afghan Darī has just single /w/ sound (KISELEVA 1985, 27).

⁵⁹ Persian name of the language sounds yazyulāmī, in Tājīk there are two varieties of the name: yazyulōmî (quite archaic) and yazgulōmî (the second variety can be influenced by Russian язгулямский от язгулёмский; but see Tājīk dialectal yazgъlomí). Yazghulāmī derives its name from either the local name of the river Yazghulōm – Z'@aménj, or the name of the valley – Yůzdóm.

district in Tajikistan (ÈDEL'MAN 2000b, 274), from the year 1954 some Yazghulāmīs live in Kuĭbyshevsk district (nowadays Abduraḥmōn Jōmī district). There are no historical records about Yazghulāmī. The language does not have its own written form; the role of literary language is played by Tājīkī Persian. Yazghulāmī has two dialects – Lower (Western) and Upper (Eastern), there is no clear border between these two dialects; internal differences are minimal, both dialects differ mainly in lexicon and pronunciation – especially in articulation of palatal tectals k and k (in the Upper dialect [c, k], in the Lower dialect > [tc, k] or even [k], dz]) etc. (ÈDEL'MAN 1966, 9-11).

consonants	stops	affricates	fricatives	sonorants	vowels
bilabials	рb			m w	iu
labiodentals			f v		ů
dentals			8 €		e
alveolars	t d	сз	S Z	n r l	9 0
postalveolars		čj	šž		
palatals	k ģ			у	
velars	k g		žγ̇	(ŋ)	$a \bar{a}$
labiovelars	k° g°		χ̈́°		
uvulars	q		xγ		
labiouvulars	q°		x° y°		
glottals			(h)		

Table 16 Sound system of Yazghulāmī.

*Proto-Iranian vocalic system was completely remodelled in Yazghulāmī, various transformations of vowels in stressed and unstressed positions occurred, and many changes were influenced also by \bar{a} - and i-Umlaut. Vowels a and \bar{a} do distinguish quantity, vowels e, i, o, u, uare all short and ∂ is a super-short vowel. Peculiarity of Yazghulāmī is the opposition of palatal, velar and labial series of tectals $-k: k: k^{\circ}, g: g: g^{\circ}$ and the opposition of labialized and plain (non-labialized) sounds continues also for velar fricatives (\dot{x} : \dot{x} °) and uvulars ($g:g^{\circ},x:x^{\circ},\gamma:$ γ°). Palatal tectals originate in plain velars that were palatalized by * \check{a} and * \check{r} in so-called neutral position or under i-Umlaut. Labialization is a result of historical exposure to $*\bar{u}$ and $*_{\bar{u}}$ ($*\bar{u}$ has later underwent other sound changes, previous tectal was not labialized if $*\check{u}$ has been changed by i- or \bar{a} -Umlaut). Tectals in front of front vowels (i, e) were also palatalized, on the other hand labialized sounds before back vowels (u, \hat{u}) often lose their labial character. Original voiceless stops (together with $*\check{c}$) were sonorized between vowels. *Proto-Iranian $*\check{s}$, $*\check{z}$ through stage * \check{s} , * \check{z} changed into \check{x} , $\check{\gamma}$ (but intervocalic *- \check{s} - > *- \check{z} - > w, \check{x}); consonant groups *sp-, *st-, *sk- changed to > *šp-, *št-, *šk-/*šk- before * \tilde{a} and later came the change * \tilde{s} > \tilde{x} and in wordinitial clusters an epenthetic vowel was inserted between \dot{x} and $p/t/k/\dot{k}$. Among other sound changes should be mention $*\check{s}m > m; *dr-, *\Im r > c; *x\check{s} > \check{x}, \check{s};$ or palatalization $-d'-, *-t'-, *-\acute{k}- > y.$ In consonant groups $*_{i}$ and $*_{i}$ and $*_{i}$ after a vowel formed a diphthong, such diphthong could have been monophthongized: $*Vrd > *Vw\delta/u\delta$ (when palatalized $> *Vy\delta/i\delta$), *Vrn > *Vwn/un; group $*_{\ell}$, t through intermediate $*_{\ell}$ changed into g. (ÈDEL'MAN 1987b, 353-381)

Yazghulāmī nouns distinguish two genders - masculine and feminine, but the original gender system was transformed: the masculines include male names and persons and nouns denoting things and inanimate entities; female names and persons and animals (irrespective of their natural gender) are feminines. There can be traced some relics of old gender diversity, e.g. 1) plural ending -ežg appears with some feminines, 2) words ending in -enj are old feminines; 3) in many words original feminine form can be observed due to reflexes of \bar{a} - and i-Umlaut and 4) the difference between original masculines and feminines can be seen in diverse reflexes of suffixes *(-a)-ka- × *(-a)-ka-, *(-a)-ci-. Plural of nouns is formed by adding an ending $-a\beta$ < *-\$ua-, plural of animate nouns can be also formed by adding an ending -én (with varieties -gén and -yén for words ending in -a or -i respectively) derived from old genitive plural ending *-ānām. Another, yet non-productive plural endings are: -ežg for old feminine and rarely appears also an ending $-\acute{a}n^{60}$. Old kinship terms in *-tar - $\delta \partial \gamma d$ 'daughter' and $v(\partial)r\acute{a}d$ 'brother' form plural by adding an ending -ár: Dəydár, v(ə)radár. Yazghulāmī has two cases - direct and oblique, case is not expressed morphologically, it is expressed by a form of demonstrative pronoun; in singular there can appear attributive suffix -(y)i which is a reflex of Iranian genitive singular *-hia. Adjectives are indeclinable, they do distinguish neither number, nor case nor gender, but gender categories are preserved in remnants - some adjectives have feminine forms that differ from masculine by operation of \bar{a} - or i-Umlaut of a root vowel. Personal pronouns distinguish direct and oblique cases in singular, in plural there is just one form for both cases; moreover, there is a possessive pronoun, which has separate forms for the first and second persons singular, in other cases it is formed with a suffix -i. Personal pronouns in the third person have two forms - one of them marks the third person in common and the other has an emphatic function – it points to a closer object. Oblique forms of the personal pronouns of the third person distinguish gender. Demonstrative pronouns originally had a system of triple deixis, this system changed to double deixis in course of the development of the language. From the original forms of demonstrative pronouns further developed forms of the third persons personal pronouns (for emphatic personal pronouns there fused the forms of I. and II. deixis – direct case is based on the I. deixis, oblique of masculine and feminine and of plural comes from the II. deixis; form of "common" third person pronoun originates in forms if the III. deixis); demonstrative pronouns yu(k) and du(k), which also serve as definite article, are based on the forms of the I. and II. deixis.

⁶⁰ Plural ending $-\acute{a}n$ is, similarly as above mentioned ending $-(g/y)\acute{e}n$, a reflex of old genitive plural ending of a-stems. It seems, that the original $-\acute{e}n$ was contaminated by Persian animate plural ending $-\acute{a}n$; the ending $-\acute{a}n$ should be genuine Yazghulāmī, nowadays it appears just with the word wex, man, pl. $wex\acute{a}n$, men (ÈDEL'MAN 1987b, 382-383).

Yazghulāmī verbal system is based on two stems – present and past. Present stems continue form Old Iranian verbal stems, but in forms of the third person the root vowel often undergoes *i*-Umlaut. Past (or preterite) stem originates in Iranian past participles in *-tă. To the present stem are added personal endings derived from Iranian primary endings, past tenses have endings derived from forms of copula – these endings are often added to the subject of clause. In past tenses ergative construction is applied, personal endings of the third person singular have different forms for transitive and intransitive verbs; intransitive verbs can even have no ending – it is often replaced by a subject in oblique case. (ÈDEL'MAN 1987b, 381-401)

I.1.1.4.5. The Shughnī-Rōshānī group

The Shughnī-Rōshānī language group is a family of eight mutually related languages and dialects which can be divided into four main dialect subgroups, individual languages/dialects are divided as follows: 1) Shughnī (Shughānī, Shighn(ān)ī; xuỳnūn(i) ziv, xuỳni ziv), Shākhdaraī (Shakhdaraī; xōxdarā ziv, xaxdarā ziv)⁶¹ and Bajūī (Bajūwī; bajū(w) ziv); 2) Khūfī (xūf ziv) and Rōshānī (*Rūshānī*; rixūn ziv)⁶²; 3) Bartangī (bārtāng ziv)⁶³ and Rāshārvī (or *Oroshorī*; rōšōrv ziv); 4) Sarīqolī (*Tāshqōrghānī*, wrongly (*Sarīqōlī*) *Tajik*⁶⁴; tujik ziv, Sarīquli ziv)⁶⁵. The languages of the Shughnī-Rōshānī group are altogether spoken by more than 177'000 people: Shughnī is spoken by more than 100'000 speakers in the Shughnon and Rosht-Qal^ca districts of Tajikistan (ÈDEL'MAN – YŪSUFBĒKOV 2000a, 225) and some 30 000 people in Afghan district of Sheghnān (BAKHTĪBĒKOV 1979, 3); Roshānī is spoken by 18'000 people on right bank of the river Panj in the Tajik Růshōn district (ÈDEL'MAN – YŪSUFBĒKOV 2000b, 242) and 2000-3000 speakers live on the opposite bank of the river Panj in the northern part of Afghan Sheghnān district (FAYZOV 1966, 5), Khūfī is spoken by more than 2300 people in the Khūf river valley in the Růshōn district (ÈDEL'MAN – YŪSUFBĒKOV 2000c, 254); Bartangī is spoken by approximately 2500 speakers on the middle reaches of the river Bartang in the Rushon district (EDEL'MAN -YŪSUFBĒKOV 2000d, 259) and Rāshārvī is used by some 2000 speakers on the upper reaches of the Bartang river in the Rushon district (EDEL'MAN - YUSUFBEKOV 2000e, 264); Sarīgolī is a mother-tongue of more than 20'000 speakers in the Tāshqōrghān Tajik Autonomous County (Tashiku'ergan Tajike Zizhixian) in the Chinese Turkestan (ÈDEL'MAN - YŪSUFBĒKOV 2000f,

⁶¹ With already dead Barwāz subdialect (barwōzi ziv).

⁶² With Upper (lertang ziv) and Lower (pōytaxt ziv) subdialects.

⁶³ With Basīd (basīd ziv), Bardara (bārdarā ziv); Sipānj (sipōnj ziv) and Rawmēd (rawmēd ziv) subdialects.

⁶⁴ Chinese authorities officially accept only one Iranian language in the Xinjiang-Uyghur autonomous region – the Tājīk language (*tajike-yu*), however, under this designation fall two Pāmīr languages – Sarīqōlī (*seleku'er-yu*) and Wakhī (*wahan-yu*). Nevertheless, these two languages have nothing in common with Tājīk (i.e. Central Asian variety of Persian), there are no Persian-speaking Tājīks in Uyghuristan. Labelling of the Sarīqōlīs and Wakhīs as Tājīks is based on a local label of the Sarīqōlīs as *tujīk* (< Pers. *tājīk*) (cf. GAWARJON 1996, 257-266). In the past the term *Tājīk* was used for Iranian-speaking population of Central Asia.

⁶⁵ With Tāshqōrghān (tošqыryoni ziv, varšide ziv), Wacha (wača ziv) and Burungsāl (b/ů)růngsol ziv, b/ы)гыngsol ziv) subdialects.

269). The first historical record about the Shughnī-Rōshānī languages can be found in the Travels of Marco Polo – he writes that the inhabitants of province of Balas(c)ian or Badas(c)ian (i.e. Badakhshān) have their own language (MARCO POLO, XLVII), Shughnī is not mentioned directly, but there are mentioned ruby-mines under the mountain Sighinan (i.e. Shughnān). The languages have no written tradition of their own, the only exception is Shughnī for which was created a Latin alphabet based on Tajik (and Pan-Turkic) variety of the Latin alphabet in the 1930's 66 (cf. ŞAMBIZODĀT 1931; ŞAMBIZODA 1937), but this alphabet has not been used for a long time. Currently there are some efforts to create a custom alphabet for each of the languages on basis of the Tajik Cyrillic alphabet (either by adding new diacritical marks or using digraph when letters 5 and 6 substitute diacritics)⁶⁷, in the case of Sarīqōlī there has been created a local variety of the Latin alphabet based on Chinese Pinyin⁶⁸ (cf. GAWARJON 1996).

consonants	stops	affricates	fricatives	sonorants	vowels
bilabials	рb			m w	$i\bar{i}$ \bar{u} u
labiodentals			f v		i \ы u ū́
dentals			8 €		e ē - ö - o
alveolars	t d	сз	s z	n r l	2
postalveolars		čj	šž		$(\varepsilon) \bar{\varepsilon}$ o \bar{o}
palatals				у	α
velars	k g		χχ	(ŋ)	$a a \bar{a}$
uvulars	q		хγ		
glottals			(h)		

Table 17 Sound system of the Shughnī-Rōshānī languages (values in italic represent Sarīqōlī vowels).

Individual languages and dialects of the Shughnī-Rōshānī group are mutually very close one to each other, substantial differences can be observed especially in vowels – Shughnī dialects and Röshānī have ten vowels, Khūfī has eleven vowels⁶⁹, Bartangī and Rāshārvī just nine vowels and in Sarīqōlī there are only seven vowels and two diphthongs 70. Valentina Stepanovna

 66 Shughn $\bar{\text{l}}$ Latin alphabet looked as follows (in parenthesis there are values of the letters corresponding to their scientific transcription used in the presented work): a ā b-B (b) c (č) c (j) c (c) d đ (ð) e (ē) ə (ē) f g g (ý) h i ī j (y) k $1 \text{ m n o } (\bar{o}) \ominus (\bar{u}) \text{ p q oj } (\gamma) \text{ r s } \S (\check{s}) \text{ t } \mathring{b} (\Im) \text{ u } \bar{\text{u}} \text{ v w x x } (\check{x}) \text{ z z } (\check{z}) \text{ 3 } (3).$

⁶⁷ For varieties of the Cyrillic alphabet for the Pāmīr languages of Tajikistan see ÈDEL'MAN – DODYKHUDOEVA 2009a, 778 – Table 14a.1.

⁶⁸ Sarīqōlī pinyin (*'Tujik Zivan Pinyin'*) looks as follows (values given in parenthesis show standard transcription of Sarīqōlī as it is used in presented work): a b c (x) d dz (z) e f g gc (y) gh (y) h (x) hy (h) i j (j) k kh (q) l m n o p q (\check{c}) r s ss (\Im) t ts (c) u \ddot{u} (ω) v w x (\check{s}) y z zy (\check{z}) zz (\eth) (GAWARJON 1996, 1-2).

⁶⁹ Khūfī α and o are rather rising diphthongs [i\omega] and [u\omega] respectively.

⁷⁰ There were also long vowels \bar{a} , \bar{e} , \bar{a} , \bar{i} , \bar{o} , \bar{u} , $b\bar{u}$ in Sarīqōlī, but difference in quantity has been lost (CIT). Instead of an opposition in vowel quantity, there is nowadays an opposition of stable (a, e, δ, o, u) vs. unstable (i, ω) vowels. From the stable vowels e, o, u may be prolonged in speech. Schwa (o) is considered an allophone of o. (PAKHALINA 1966, 6)

Sokolova reconstructs *Proto-Shughnī vocalism as follows: $*a > *\ddot{o}$, $*\ddot{a}$; $*\ddot{a} > *\ddot{o}$; $*\breve{u} > *a$, *u; $*\breve{i} >$ *i; unstressed *i, *u > *ə; * \check{a} i > *ei; * \check{a} u > *ou (SOKOLOVA 1967, 63-78), in later development there took place other changes of vowels as effects of \bar{a} - and i-Umlaut, operation of stress and openness/closeness of syllable. The relationship of vowels in the Shughnī-Rōshānī group can be seen in scheme in Table 18. Consonantal system shares many common features: postalveolar affricates were depalatalized ${}^*\check{c}, {}^*\check{j} > c, z-/3;$ there happened second palatalization of velars ${}^*k, {}^*g,$ * $x > *\acute{k}, *\acute{\gamma}, *\acute{x} > \check{c}, \check{z}, \check{s}$ in front of original front vowels (including * \check{a}); *Proto-Shughnī postvocalic voiceless sounds were sonorized *p, *t, *k, *k, *c > b, d, g, 1/2, 2/2; *š, *ž changes through *š, *ž into x, y, but post-vocalic *-š- changes firstly to *-ž- and it has later underwent different development in individual dialects: Shugh. γ , Bajū. γ or w; Rōsh., Bart., Rāshrv. w, Sarīq. γ or l (only occasionally w). Some other changes took place in consonantal groups: *šm > m; * $\Im r > r$ (but word-initially ar-); *tr-, *dzr- > * \check{s} -, * \check{z} - > \check{x} -, * $\check{\gamma}$ -; * $t\underline{i}$, * $\check{c}\underline{i}$ > s; *gt, *kt > yd/wd; *g,t > *d > Shugh. d, Rōsh., Bart., Rāshrv., Sarīq. g (rarely also *t,t > $r\partial/V\partial$); *rn > (w)n; *t,t, *t,dz > Shugh. xc, yz/yz, Rosh., Bart., Rāshrv. ws, wz, Sarīq. rs, rz. Old suffixes *-ka-, *-čī- usually changed to -j and -z (in the second case also with i-Umlaut of stem vowel). (SOKOLOVA 1967, 63-78; ÈDEL'MAN 1987a, 238-284)

Shugh.		Khūf.	Rōsh.	Bar	tRās	hrv.	Sarīq.
		O	 O		ö	—	e
ī ◆	\leftarrow	æ	 ē	—	ē		i
ē -		ī	 ī		ī		εy
ē -	**********	ē	 ē		ē	—	О
ō		ō	 ō	\rightarrow	ō		u
ů s		ů	 ů				εw
ū -	_	ū	 ū		ū		ы
ā -		ā	 ā		ā	—	О
a -		a	 a		a		a
i -		i	 i		i		i
u -		u	 u		u		ы

Table 18 The relationship of vowels in the Shughnī-Rōshānī languages (after: SOKOLOVA 1953b, 135; modified).

There is distinguished masculine and feminine gender in the Shughnī-Rōshānī languages. Gender differentiation is expressed in three ways: 1) morphologically – gender affiliation is maintained in reflexes of root vowels: masculines are words with reflexes of vowels in so-called neutral position and words ending in -j < *-ka < *-ka-, feminines are words with reflexes of \bar{a} - and i-Umlaut and words ending in $-3 < *-c\bar{i} < *-c\bar{i}$; 2) lexically – this way natural gender of animals and human beings is expressed as well as place-names, which belong to the masculine; 3) syntactically (or semantically) – syntactically gender is applied for majority of majority of nouns: feminines are entities perceived as individual unit, masculines can be the same words when perceived as collectives (morphologically in singular) – e.g. 'apple' is feminine, if it is

perceived as a single unit - '(one/this) apple', but when it is perceived as 'apples (in a common sense), many apples' it is masculine 71. In Sarīqōlī there remained some reflexes of gender in morphological and lexical level, in this case it is preservation of distinction of natural gender, syntactically the category of gender typical for the other Shughnī-Rōshānī languages was completely lost. Nouns distinguish two cases - direct and oblique, cases are often not expressed morphologically, in singular the direct and oblique cases are the same, formally they are equal to stem, in plural the situation is comparable - both cases are formed by adding a plural ending, only in Sarīqōlī there are two different endings for direct and oblique case plural (under Wakhī influence?). Cases are expressed syntactically often with use of demonstratives. Plural can be formed by use of several endings. Plural of inanimate (and optionally animate) nouns is in Shugh., Rosh., Bart. formed by adding an ending -en (following a vowel -yen; in Rashrv. the ending $-(\gamma)\bar{e}n$ appears rarely), and in Rāshrv. -if (following a vowel $-\gamma if$) and Sarīq. -ef (following a vowel -yef; used only in the oblique case), some animate nouns form plural from other endings: Shugh. -yūn, -gūn, -jūn, Rosh., Bart., Rāshrv. -yon, -gon, -jon; Shugh. -ērz, -orj, Rösh. -ērz, -ōrj (Khūf. also -ārz), Bart. -ārz, -ērz, -ōrz, Rāshrv. -ārz, -ārj 72. Plural of some words is formed not just by adding the plural ending but also with an Umlaut of a root vowel. There is another set of collective plural endings: Shugh. -xēl, Rōsh., Bart., Rāshrv. -xīl (> Sarīq. -xɛyl for "plain" plural ending in direct case); Shugh., Rōsh., Rāshrv. -galā, Bart. -galā; Shugh. -guftā, Bart. -guftā and relict Shugh. -īč, Rōsh. -ēč; forms of collective plural can also take plural endings in -ēn. Adjectives do not differ in number or case, but some adjectives have different forms for masculine and feminine. Personal pronouns have forms just for the first and second persons, the third person is expressed by demonstrative pronouns. Both personal and demonstrative pronouns have two cases and two numbers (but the first and second persons plural have the same forms in the direct and oblique cases), the demonstratives distinguish gender in the oblique case (in Shughnī there are masculine and feminine forms also in forms of demonstrative pronouns of III. deixis). Demonstratives distinguish triple deixis and they fill a syntactic function of definite article and they govern case of a noun besides the function of demonstratives and the third person personal pronouns. Sarīqōlī demonstratives have preserved

-

⁷¹ See the use of the word *māwn*, apple in following Rōshānī examples: *dum* {this: *f. obl. sg. II. deixis*} *māwn* {apple: *f. sg.*} *mu-r* {to me} *dāk* {give!} 'give me this apple'; *dum* {this: *f. obl. sg. II. deixis*} *māwn* {apple: *f. sg.*} *bāx ki* {share!} 'share this apple' × *day* {this: *m. obl. sg. II. deixis*} *māwn* {apple(s): *m. sg.*} *tar* {to} *bōzōr* {bazaar, market} *yōs* {carry!} 'carry these apples to the bazaar'; *day* {this: *m. obl. sg. II. deixis*} *māwn* {apple(s): *m. sg.*} *tar* {to} *zastāv* {gate} *yōs* {carry!} 'carry these apples to the gate' (ÈDEL'MAN 1987a, 289; PAYNE 1989, 428).

⁷² Apart from the above mentioned plural endings there are many other endings, which are used only marginally: Rōsh. -*zēn*, Shugh. -*zin-ēn*; Bart. -*zōn*, -*zanōn*, Rāshrv. -*zōn*; Bart., Rāshrv. -*zōr*; Bart., Rāshrv. -*ōn*; Bart. -*iyā*; Shugh., Rōsh., Bart. -*ār* (this ending is added only to the word *virōd* 'brother' : *virōdār*). In Bajūī (and partly in other dialects of Shughnī) and in Bartangī there is also the ending Baj., Shugh. -(*Ŋēv*) (Shākhd. -(*Ŋēf*), Bart. -*īf*, which is used in adverbial function indicating multiplicity of action, the same ending appears also in many placenames (it is the same ending as plural ending in Rāshārvī and Sarīqōlī). (ÈDEL'MAN 1987a, 291-295)

forms of masculine and feminine, but the feminine forms are used rarely. (ÈDEL'MAN 1987a, 284-316)

Shughnī-Rōshānī verbal system is based on four stems: present, preterite, perfect and infinitive stems. The present stems continue from Old Iranian present stems, the preterite stem originates in Iranian past participles in *-ta- (m.), *-tā- (f., pl.) > -t/-d/*-d (in feminine and plural forms there is \bar{a} -Umlaut of a root vowel), the perfect stem originates in extended perfect stem: *-ta-ka- (m.) // *-ta-čī- (f.) // *-ta-kā- (pl.) > -(C)č/-j // -ʒ/-c // -(C)č/-j (in feminine forms there is *i*-Umlaut of a root vowel, in plural \bar{a} -Umlaut takes place)⁷³. Preterite and present stems distinguished gender and number, such distinction remained in majority of intransitive verbs forms, and transitive verbs are based on form of masculine, same as Sarīqōlī preterite and perfect stems of intransitional verbs. Infinitive stem comes from Iranian verbal noun ending in *-ti, infinitive itself has two forms, short infinitive, which is equal to the infinitive stem and long infinitive – i.e. infinitive stem with the ending Shugh., Rosh., Rashrv. $-\delta w$, Bart. $-\delta (w)$, Sarīq. -ew. Personal endings of the present tense are consistent with Old Iranian primary endings, just the second person plural comes from optative ending *-aita, forms of the third person singular often use i-Umlaut of root vowel with the ending -d/-t < *-ti. Past tense endings originate in forms of copula. The Shughnī-Rōshānī languages had originally ergative construction in the past tenses, ergative has been preserved in Roshani, Khufi and Bartangi, however, in these languages the ergative construction tend to be substituted by absolutive construction as it is in Shughnī, Rāshārvī and Sarīqōlī. Although the category of ergative has been lost in some languages (or it is slowly substituted by absolutive), the difference in transitive and intransitive verbs remains - in Shughni, Röshāni, Khūfi, Bartangi and Sarīqōli the transitional verbs have an enclitic ending -i in forms of the third person singular (in Roshānī and Khūfī use of the ending is optional, it is used mainly in phrases, in which there is not expressed subject; in Sarīqōlī use of the ending is also optional, but it can be used also for intransitive verbs; in Rāshārvī and in the Basīd dialect of Bartangī there is no ending at all), the intransitive verbs have no ending for the third person singular. Bartangī (and earlier also Rāshārvī) has special forms of enclitic ending for the third person plural. (EDEL'MAN 1987a, 317-337)

-

⁷³ Reflexes of participles in *-ta- se do differ in individual dialects in front of preterite endings *-kā-/*-čī- e.g.: *tak-ta-kā-/-čī- (preterite stem of the verb 'to leave') > Shugh. tūyj // tīc // tōyj (m. // f. // pl.), Rōsh. tuyj // tayc // tāyj, Khūf. tuyj // tiyc/tīc // tōyj, Bart. tūyj // tayc // tōyj, Sarīq. tuyj (single form); *čiu-ta-kā-/-čī- (preterite stem of the verb 'to go') > Shugh. suðj // sic // saðj, Rōsh. suj // siz // saj, Khūf. suj // sic // saj, Bart. suj // sic // saj, Sarīq. seðj; transitive verbs have a single form based on masculine: *br-ta-ka- (preterite stem of the verb 'to bring') > Shugh. vūyj, Rōsh. (a)vūj, Khūf. vugj, Bart. vūj, Sarīq. vəyj (ÈDEL'MAN 1987a, 320).

I.1.1.4.6. Sarghulāmī

Sarghulāmī (or *Saraghlāmī*)⁷⁴ is a dead language from upper reaches of the Sarghulām (or Saraghlām) river in Afghan Badakhshān. The language became extinct at the beginning of the 20th century, the only reference about the language has been published by Ivan Ivanovich Zarubin, who in the year 1916 recorded several Sarghulāmī words from a Munjī person, who claimed that he knew the Sarghulāmī language. From the list of Sarghulāmī words majority were Persian or Munjī lexemes; Zarubin notes, that only three words could have been identified as Sarghulāmī words⁷⁵ – *woliké / wolikí* 'water'; *kišó* 'cow', and *zoīk* 'boy', and he quotes these words with selected responses from other Eastern Iranian languages (ZARUBIN 1924, 79). Despite poorly documented linguistic material, we can get many valuable information about the language if we thoroughly analyse the attested words⁷⁶.

From the attested material we cannot judge much about Sarghulāmī – one can only guess that it is one of the Northern Pāmīr languages, obviously related to Munjī. However, we can observe two certain Sarghulāmī innovations: change *d > l (thus a phenomenon that is known also in Bactrian, Munjī or Pashtō) and semantic shift of Ir. $*u\bar{a}di$ -, irrigation channel > water⁷⁷ (ZARUBIN 1924, 79; MORGENSTIERNE 1974, 99). Iranian suffix $*-k\bar{a}$ - should be attested je in words $wolik\acute{e}/wolik\acute{t}$ ($*u\bar{a}di$ - $k\bar{a}$ - and $zo\bar{t}$ (*dzaha-ka- (or $*dz\bar{a}ta$ -ka- ??) 'child' (cf. MORGENSTIERNE 2003, 103-104). Voiceless consonants were probably retained in intervocalic positions, in addition to example of suffix $*-k\bar{a}$ - similar feature can be seen in the word $ki\acute{s}\acute{o}^{78}$ ($*kau\acute{s}$ - \bar{a} - $*ku\~{u}$ -*a-*a-*c-*ow

_

⁷⁴ The language was also known as *lafz-i mazấr* i.e. 'the speech of mazār *(shrine)*' after a mazār located in village of Sarghulām (Sar Ghulām) near to Afghan Fayzābād.

⁷⁵ One can only say that it is a great pity that Zarubin did not specify also those words he did not consider Sarghulāmī – even from the study of borrowings we could deduce more about this language, the issue of Munjī borrowing might be interesting – could they be a contamination caused by the first (?) language of the informant or were the Sarghulāmī and Munjī words so similar, that Zarubin identified them as Munjī words, or their original Sarghulāmī form was garbled by their Munjī responses.

⁷⁶ Moreover there are several place-names in the Sarghulām Valley that can be identified as of Sarghulāmī origin: *Malangāu* or *Malangāb*, *Lučīw* and *Gharālīw* (MORGENSTIERNE 1938, 439), I will not analyse them in detail in this work.

⁷⁷ For a similar semantic shift see Wanj. wol 'water' × Yazgh. waδ, Shugh. wēδ, Wakh. wod/δ 'brook, stream, (irrigation) channel', Ave. va'δi- 'irrigation channel' < *u̞ādi- (LASHKARBĒKOV 2008, 83); Yazgh. xex, Vanj. xïk 'water' < Ir. xāha- 'well, spring' (MORGENSTIERNE 1974, 99) or Oss. don 'water, river' < Ir. *dānu- 'river' (ABAEV 1958, 366-367).

⁷⁸ In Munjī, Shughnī-Rōshānī languages, Ishkāshmī-Sanglēchī or in Pashtō intervocalic *-š- changed to *-ž- and later has undergone other phonetic changes.

⁷⁹ Cf. Munj. kūwō/kūyō 'bull', Ishk. kьžůk, Yagh. kišók.

I.1.1.4.7. Munjī and Yidghā

Munj \bar{i} (*Munjānī* or *Minj(ān)ī*; mənj \bar{i} rōy, mənj \bar{i} roy, mənj \bar{i} war, munj \bar{i} war) is spoken by some 2000-2500 people in valley of the river Munjan in Koran wa Monjan district in Afghan Badakhshan 80 (GRYUNBERG 2000, 154; DECKER 1992, 54), Yidghā (Yüdghā; yıd(ə) γ ā, lūṭkūhwar; Munj. U yədgonə roy) is spoken by 5000-6000 speakers in the Lūţkoh Valley in Pakistani Chitral (Yidgh. Čitréyo) (DECKER 1992, 48). The Munjan and Lütköh Valleys are divided by the Hindükush massif, the only path connecting both areas goes through the Dōrāh Pass in the Hindūkush, through which it is possible to pass further to the Sanglech Valley. Both languages are closely related⁸¹, though both languages are hardly mutually intelligible today. Among the Yidghās there is a legend, that they came from Munjan - this fact can be also compared with the fact that majority of place-names in the Lūţkōh Valley is unlike in Munjān a non-Iranian (mainly Dardic) origin and also that Yidghā does not split into dialects, but Munjī has three dialects -Upper (Southern), Central and Lower (Northern). It is assumed that the Yidghās came to the Lūţkōh Valley sometime in the 11th-13th centuries (DECKER 1992). History of Munjān is unknown, the only historical record dates to the 7th century from the pen of Chinese traveller Xuan Zang, who within Tokharistān mentions kingdom of Mungjin in Badakhshān (XUAN ZANG, I, 24, XII, 6; MORGENSTIERNE 1938, 7). Both languages do not have a written tradition of their own. Both languages are often classified as the Pāmīr languages⁸², Valentina Stepanovna Sokolova classifies Munjī and Yidghā as members of the Northern Pāmīr group (other members of this group are Shughnī-Rōshānī languages, Yazghulāmī, Wanjī and probably Sarghulāmī; see SOKOLOVA 1973).

Differences between Munjī dialects and Yidghā can be seen mainly in phonology, correlation of vocalic system is summarized in Table 21. Munjī vowels \breve{a} (\mathring{a}) and \breve{u} (u) merge with ϑ in colloquial speech. Munjī vocalic system was enriched by Persian, vowels a and u were introduced together with Persian loans (GRYUNBERG 1972, 400-401; GRYUNBERG 1987, 163-164), but these 'Persian' sounds usually merge with similar sounds in Munjī $a \sim \breve{u}$ and $u \sim \breve{u}$ ($\sim \vartheta$). Historical development of vocalism can be outlined as follows: $*a > \breve{u}$ ($\sim \vartheta$) || o (in closed syllable $> \bar{v}$) || a; under i-Umlaut $> \bar{v}$); $*\bar{u} > \bar{v}$ (|| u) $|| \bar{v}$ (in open syllable $> \bar{v}$) || u; in various positions $> \bar{u}/\breve{u}$ $|| \breve{u}/v$; under i-Umlaut $> \bar{v}/v$); $*\bar{v}/v$ 0; $*\bar{v}/v$ 1 || u0; $*\bar{v}/v$ 2 || u1; $*\bar{v}/v$ 3 || u2; $*\bar{v}/v$ 4 || u3, $*\bar{v}/v$ 4 || u4, || u5, || u5, || u6, || u7, || u7, || u8, || u9, || u9,

⁸⁰ According to the latest information, most of the Munjīs left Munjān after the start of Afghan Civil War (1989-1992) and they moved to different places in Pakistani Chitrāl, many Munjīs might be killed, and many of their villages destroyed. Refugees themselves say that they would like to return to Munjān after the war ends. (DECKER 1992, 50)

⁸¹ For simplicity, in the following text the examples will be given in both languages and Munj \bar{i} form will be separated from Yidgh \bar{a} by double vertical lines $\|$; to indicate the Lower, Central and Upper dialect I will use shortcuts in the form of small capitals: L, C, U.

⁸² On the other hand, Munjī and Yidghā share several similar features with Waṇetsī and Pashtō.

the Middle Iranian period, in a later period there was a shift $*d \ (> *\delta) > l$; other characteristic changes are: $*\Im > \check{x}; *-p-, *-t-, *-k-, *-\check{c}-, *-\check{s}- > v/w \parallel v, y/\emptyset, \gamma \ (U g) \parallel \varphi, \check{z}/y \ (U g) \parallel \emptyset/y; *rt > r \ (L r) \parallel r; *\check{s}t, *rst, *r\check{s}t > \check{s}k \parallel \check{s}\check{c}; *rn, *r\check{s}n, *r\check{z}n > n\acute{g} \parallel n; *\check{s}m > m$. One of the typical changes presents a loss of a nasal before (voiced) stop in Yidghā and Upper Munjī. Denominal abstract suffix *-(a-)ka- changed to $-\partial y \ (-iy) \parallel -\ddot{e}/-\partial$. Secondary palatalization of word-initial *k links both languages with Yazghulāmī and the Shughnī-Rōshānī languages. Due to the contact with Dardic and Indo-Aryan languages cerebral sounds emerged in Yidghā. (GRYUNBERG 1987, 171-180; SKJÆRVØ 1989c, 412-413; MORGENSTIERNE 1938, 36-109)

consonants	stops	affricates	fricatives	sonorants	vowels
bilabials	рb			m w	ī _ ū
labiodentals			f v		ŭ
alveolars	t d	сз	S Z	n r l	ы и
retroflexes		čj	š ž	ŗ	ē
alveopalatals		čj	šž		ō
palatals	k ģ		ž	ń y	ă
velars	k g		X	(ŋ)	a ā å
uvulars	q		ÿγ		
glottals			h		

Table 19 Sound system of Munjī.

consonants	stops	affricates	fricatives	sonorants	vowels
bilabials	рb		φ	m w	ī
labiodentals			f v		i ŭ
alveolars	t d	сз	S Z	nrţl	e ē u
postalveolars		čj	šž		ë\ e
retroflexes	ţ ḍ	č j	š ž	ù ţ	0
palatals	k ^y g ^y		ž	у	ä
velars	k g		хγ	(ŋ)	a ā
uvulars	(p)				
glottals			h		

Table 20 Sound system of Yidghā.

Munjī and Yidghā nouns have two genders (masculine and feminine), two numbers (singular, plural) and two cases (direct and oblique), Munjī has additionally predicative genitive and vocative. Adjectives have categories of gender and number but they do not distinguish case. Pronouns retain system of the direct and oblique cases together with the predicative genitive, demonstratives distinguish triple deixis. Verbal system is based on three stem system: present, preterite and perfect. Munjī forms of past tenses distinguish transitional and intransitional verbs, in Yidghā the categories of (in)transitivity have been lost. Moreover Yidghā forms durative

present and some verbal forms in Yidghā originate from forms calqued from Dardic Khowār (Chitrālī). (GRYUNBERG 1987, 180-229; SKJÆRVØ 1989c, 413-415; MORGENSTIERNE 1938, 110-167)

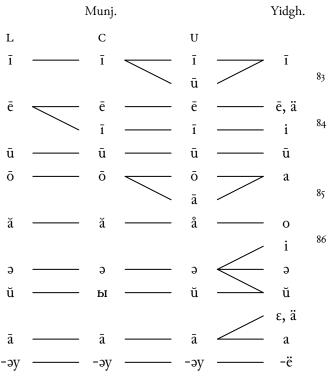


Table 21 The relationship of vowels in Munjī dialects and in Yidghā (after: GRYUNBERG 1987, 169; modified).

I.1.1.4.8. Ishkāshmī, Sanglēchī and Zēbākī

Ishkāshmī (or *Ishkāshimī*, *Ranī*, *Rtnī*; š(ь)košmi zьvůk, rьni zьvůk), Sanglēchī (*Sanglīchī*; sanglēci lavz, sanglēci zəvūk) and Zēbākī are three closely related languages ⁸⁷ ⁸⁸ of the Southern Pāmīr group. They are spoken in south-eastern part of Tajik and north-western part of Afghan Badakhshān. Ishkāshmī is spoken by approximately 2000 speakers, majority of them lives in the village of Ran (Ishk. *Rьn*), several Ishkāshmī speaking families live also in places such as Ishkōshim (Ishk. *Nьt* or Š(ь)košьm), Sumjin, Mulvōj and Namatgūt (Wakh. *Nəmətgыt*) on the Tajik bank of the river Panj and in vicinity of Afghan city of Eshkāshem (PAKHALINA 1987b, 474-475; PAKHALINA – QURBŌNOV 2000, 197). In Afghan Badakhshān there live more than 1300 speakers of Sanglēchī (Yūsufbēkov – Dodykhudoeva 2008, 110) in the Sanglēch Valley

 $^{^{83}}$ < * \bar{a} .

⁸⁴ In suffix -ēka // -īka.

⁸⁵ In ending of masculine nouns.

 $^{^{86}}$ < **i*.

⁸⁷ All three languages are often referred to as Ishkāshmī, if necessary to distinguish Ishkāshmī proper, i.e. the variety spoken on right bank of Panj the language is often called *rьni zьvůk – 'Ranī / Rtnī'*, or *'Ran Ishkāshmī'*.

⁸⁸ According to information given by Nazar Nazarzōda (an Ishkāshmī native speaker, member of the Rūdakî Institute of Language and Literature of the Academy of Sciences of the Republic of Tajikistan) who has visited the Sanglēch valley in Afghanistan in 2007, Sanglēchī and Ishkāshmī are mutually intelligible languages.

southwards from the city of Zēbāk (Zēb. *Izivúk*); Zēbākī dialect/language has been quite recently replaced by Afghan Persian and by Lower Sanglēchī dialect (YūSUFBĒKOV 2000, 186-187). In addition to the above mentioned language varieties it is necessary to mention a mixed Ishkāshmī-Sanglēchī-Wakhī dialect of the village of Warg in Afghan Wakhān (MORGENSTIERNE 1938, 287, 291-292). Of all the three vernaculars only Sanglēchī splits into two dialects – Lower (Northern) and Upper (Southern) Sanglēchī, both dialect differ slightly one form the other. There are not many information concerning Ishkāshmī in historical sources, probably the first mention of the language can be from the Travels of Marco Polo, he mentions an indigenous language of province of *Casem* (or *Scasem*, *Scasunen*; MARCO POLO, XLVI) – it was either some today unknown language of region around the city of Keshem or it was a language of Ishākāshim⁸⁹. All three languages do not have written tradition of their own, in recent years there are efforts in Tajikistan to create Ishkāshmī alphabet based on Tajik variety of the Cyrillic alphabet.

consonants	stops	affricates	fricatives	sonorants	vowels
bilabials	рb			m w	iu
labiodentals			f v		b \ ů
alveolars	t d	сз	S Z	n r l	
postalveolars		čj	šž		e
retroflexes	ţ ḍ	č	š ž	ņ ļ	0
palatals				у	
velars	k g			(ŋ)	a
uvulars	q		хγ		
glottals			(h)		

Table 22 Sound system of Ishkāshmī.

Sound system of all the three dialects differs only a little bit, mainly in vowels. Vowel system of Sanglēchī appears to be the most archaic of the three vernaculars, it retains distinction of five long and short vowels \ddot{a} , \breve{e}^{90} , \breve{i} , \breve{o} , \breve{u} and a reduced vowel \mathfrak{o} ; on the opposite side stands Ishkāshmī vowel system, which does not distinguish vowel quality 91 – it has been replaced by opposition of stable versus unstable vowels, the stable vowels include a, e, i, o, \mathring{u} , u; vowel \mathfrak{o}^{92} is

⁸⁹ The interpretation of the name *Scasem* or *Scasunen* is quite complicated, in the Travels there is attested also form *Casem* – this can be the Afghan city of Keshem or Eshkāshem in Afghan Badakhshān (cf. YULE – CORDIER 1993, book 1, chapter 28, note 4; LENTZ 1933), it seems that probably two similar place names merged into interchangeable forms: *Casem* = Keshem ~ *Scasem/Scasunen* = Ishkāshim/Eshkāshem.

⁹⁰ Sanglēchī e, is often realised as rising diphthong /īe/; status of short e is unclear (YŪSUFBĒKOV – DODYKHUDOEVA 2008, 116-117).

⁹¹ In descriptions of Ishkāshmī by Georg Morgenstierne and George Abraham Grierson were recorded also long vowels (GRIERSON 1920; MORGENSTIERNE 1938, 283-427), in the description of Ishkāshmī phonology by Valentina Stepanovna Sokolova there is no mention about vowel length (SOKOLOVA 1953c).

 $^{^{92}}$ Ishkāshmī b is also spelled I or I, mainly in non-Russian works.

unstable. Zēbākī vowel system is closer to the Sanglēchī one, but in many aspects there can be seen transitions from Sanglēchī to Ishkāshmī; unfortunately Zēbākī vocalism needs a more detailed study, which is impossible due to the fact that Zēbākī gave way to Persian and remained as a substrate in Lower Sanglēchī (YŪSUFBĒKOV 2000, 186). I tried to indicate the relationship of vowels of all the three vernaculars in Table 24. Due to a complex development of *Proto-Iranian vowels in the Ishkāshmī-Sanglēchī languages their evolution cannot be characterised briefly; the individual changes were influenced by \bar{a} - and i-Umlaut, openness or closeness of syllables and position of stress also played its part. The consonant system is in contrast to the vowels more or less the same in all the three dialects. There can be observed several similar features such as e.g. sonorization of voiceless stops in intervocalic position and their subsequent spirantization, partial shift ${}^*\dot{c}, {}^*\dot{j} > c - / 3/z, 3/z;$ sonorization of intervocalic ${}^*\dot{s}$ and its later change in l or change *šm > m, *št > t (in Ishk. also t), * $\Im r > r$ etc. In Ishkāshmī and Sanglēchī secondary palatalization of velar stops took place, its results vary: ${}^*\dot{k}$, ${}^*\dot{g} > \dot{c}$ -, \check{j} -/ \check{z} -/y-, intervocalically y/i/j/ž. Some other changes did not take place consistently in all languages: *δ (< *d, *-t-) changed into d word-initially in all the three vernaculars, in Ishkāshmī and Zēbākī (and often in Lower Sanglēchī) this change continued also word-internally but in Sanglēchī -8- is often preserved after vowels; *3 changed to Sanglēchī and Zēbākī t but in Ishkāshmī to s; *rn > Ishk. r(n), Sangl. n; *nd, *nt > Ishk. nd, Sangl. nd/nd; *tšt > Ishk. st, Sangl. st; in Sanglēchī there is l (< *-rd-, *-rt-, *-š-) preserved better than in Ishkāshmī (there often l > l); in Upper Sanglēchī š, š often change to x and z, z to y. (PAKHALINA 1987b, 476-496; YŪSUFBĒKOV – DODYKHUDOEVA 2008, 117-174; MORGENSTIERNE 1938, 228-333; GRIERSON 1920)

consonants	stops	affricates	fricatives	sonorants	vowels
bilabials	рb			m w	i īū
labiodentals			f v		
dentals			8		ē u
alveolars	t d	сз	S Z	n r l	(e) ē \
postalveolars		čj	šž		0 0
retroflexes	ţ ḍ		š ž	ņ ļ	
palatals				у	a ā
velars	k g		$(\check{\mathbf{x}})(\check{\boldsymbol{\gamma}})$	(ŋ)	
uvulars	(p)		хγ		
glottals			(h)		

Table 23 Sound system of Sanglēchī.

The Ishkāshmī-Sanglēchī languages do not distinguish gender or case, original gender has been preserved only in several nouns; case is expressed syntactically by use of demonstratives. Sanglēchī and Zēbākī maintain *Proto-Ishkāshmī plural ending derived from Old Iranian genitive plural ending * $-\bar{a}n\bar{a}m$, in Ishkāshmī such ending is used only with several animate nouns; Ishkāshmī forms plural with ending -o (in Sanglēchī $-\bar{o}$), which is a loan from

Persian -hā. Adjectives, same as the nouns, do not have categories of gender and case, moreover they do not distinguish number; in Ishkāshmī forms of comparative in *-tara- were lost. Personal pronouns distinguish direct and oblique case and a predicative genitive; the same categories are distinguished by demonstrative pronouns, which also distinguish triple deixis. Verbal system is based on two stems – present and past, the present stem continues from *Proto-Iranian present stems, the past (preterite) stem is derived from Iranian past participles in *-tā. Ishkāshmī forms past tenses by adding endings derived from copula; in Sanglēchī past tenses of transitional verbs are formed by ergative construction, for intransitional verbs the situation is analogous to Ishkāshmī. (PAKHALINA 1987b, 496-536; YŪSUFBĒKOV – DODYKHUDOEVA 2008, 175-227)

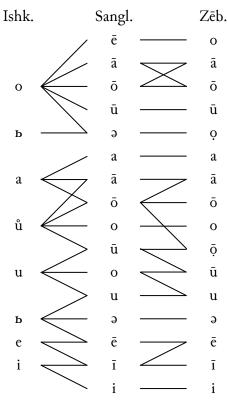


Table 24 The relationship of vowels in Ishkāshmī, Sanglēchī and Zēbākī.

I.1.1.4.9. Wakhī

Wakhī (*Wakhānī*; x̄īk zīk, x̄īkwor; *in Pakistan also* guhjali/guhyali – "*Gōjalī*") is the second most used Pāmīr language after the Shughnī language. Its speakers live on territory of four states – Tajikistan, Afghanistan, Chinese Turkestan (Xinjiang) and Pakistan. The total number of Wakhī speakers is estimated at 40 000 people (REINHOLD 2006, I), this number appears to be exaggerated. In Tajikistan there are 7000-10 000 Wakhī speakers living in the Ishkōshim district (PAKHALINA 1987a, 408); in Afghanistan roughly 7000 speakers live in the Wakhān district; in Pakistan there are 7500-10 000 Wakhīs in the Gōjal (Upper Hunza), Ishkōman, Yāsīn and Yārkhūn Valleys; and approximately 6000-7000 Wakhīs live in Sarīqōl in the

Tāshqōrghān Tajik Autonomous County in Chinese Uyghuristan (BACKSTROM 1992, 61-62). The Wakhīs that live in the valleys of Northern Pakistan started to settle those areas sometime after the year 1880, the second wave of immigration continued between the years 1935 and 1940 (BACKSTROM 1992, 60). The Wakhī language is quite homogenous on all of its territories, it splits into three dialects – Lower (Western) and Upper (Eastern; including Sarīqōl Wakhī) in Badakhshān and Gōjal (Hunza) dialect of Pakistan (Gōjal Wakhī is often not considered as individual dialect and it is often considered as a variety of Upper Wakhī), between the Upper and Lower dialects there is sometimes distinguished Central Wakhī dialect (PAKHALINA 1987a, 408-409; PAYNE 1989, 419-420; BACKSTROM 1992, 65-69). The first historical record on Wakhī comes from Marco Polo; he notes that inhabitants of province of *Vocan* (i.e. Wakhān) have a speech of their own (MARCO POLO, L). Wakhī does not have its own written tradition, in Tajikistan there are efforts on to create Wakhī alphabet based on the Tajik Cyrillic alphabet, in Pakistan there is used a modified Latin alphabet based on scientific transcription of Wakhī, sometimes the Urdū alphabet may be used.

consonants	stops	affricates	fricatives	sonorants	vowels
bilabials	p b			m w	i īu ū
labiodentals			f v		\ы ы̄
dentals			8 €		
alveolars	t d	сз	S Z	$nr(\underline{r})l(\underline{l})$	(e) (ē) ə ō o ō
postalveolars		čj	šž		
retroflexes	ţ ḍ	čį	šž	(i) j (j)	
palatals			ž	y (y)	$a \bar{a} $ (\bar{a})
velars	k g		ž	(ŋ)	
uvulars	q		xγ		
glottals			(h)		

Table 25 Sound system of Wakhī.

Vowel system of Wakhī is in common based on six short $(a, \bar{o}, i, o, u, \omega)$ and seven long $(\bar{a}, \bar{e}, \bar{o}, \bar{u}, \bar{\omega})$ vowels⁹³; historically *Proto-Iranian vocalic system has been influenced by series of changes, e.g. vowels in so called neutral position changed as follows: * $\bar{a} > \bar{o}$, \bar{u} , $\bar{\omega}$; *a > o, u, ω ;

_

⁹³ The vowel \bar{e} appears only in Lower Wakhī, in the other dialects there is \bar{i} instead. Pakhalina claims that also \bar{e} can have its short counterpart (PAKHALINA 1987a, 410). Pronunciation of ω , $\bar{\omega}$ varies, in the Central and Upper dialects as their pronunciation shifts from [ω (:)] through [ω (:)] to [ω (:)] (PAKHALINA 1987a, 410; BACKSTROM 1992, 410). Wakhī ω was variously transcribed ω , ω or ω in non-Russian works, ω is also used in the Wakhī Latin alphabet in Pakistan. Some scholars believe that in Wakhī there is no opposition of long and short vowels (PAKHALINA 1987a, 410), with certainty it can be said that the length was not recorded during the latest researches on Gōjal Wakhī (BACKSTROM 1992). In contemporary Wakhān Wakhī there is instead of opposition in quantity opposition of stable ((ω), ω , ω) vs. unstable (ω), ω , ω 0 vs. unstable (ω) vowels (ÈDEL'MAN – DODYKHUDOEVA 2009a, 778). Persian ω 2 (in Darī [ω 2]) is often realised as ω 3 in Wakhī, in the Gōjal dialect it is realised like ω 3 [ω 2] (written ω 3 in the Latin alphabet used for Wakhī in Pakistan).

* $d\bar{u} > \bar{e} (/\bar{\iota}); *d\bar{u} > \bar{o}; *\bar{\iota}, \bar{u} > \omega, \bar{\sigma};$ but due to *i*-Umlaut the vowels shifted towards close front vowels, under \bar{a} -Umlaut there was a shift towards back open vowels (PAKHALINA 1987a, 412-419). Wakhī consonantism in quite conservative in some aspects, mainly due to the fact that the voiceless stops are usually retained (but in some cases they are sonorized or even spirantized), other archaic feature is preservation of Indo-Iranian clusters *tr and *kr (in *Proto-Iranian they Iranian > *xs), or > \dot{s} . Similarly to the other Pāmīr languages, there occurs a second palatalization of velars. There is an interesting feature that links Wakhī with Khōtanese: *tu > š (Khōt. /ś-, -ź-/ x other Eastern Iranian *sp). Together with some other Pāmīr languages Wakhī shares change ${}^*\check{c}, {}^*\check{j} > c, z$. For many consonants there is often difficult to determine their development clearly, there are many alternations, e.g. $*\check{s} > \check{s}$, \check{s} , $-\check{s}$, $-\check{s}$, $-\check{s}$, $-\check{z}$, $-\check{z}$, $-\check{z}$, $-\check{x}$ *p > p, b, v, (f); * $\check{s}t > st$, $\check{s}t$, \check{s} (PAKHALINA 1983, 24-56; PAKHALINA 1987a, 420-438; MORGENSTIERNE 1938, 450-476), do not explain this curious feature, the exception is Ivan Mikhaĭlovich Steblin-Kamenskiy, who explains certain alternations as a result of sandhi and as an influence of areal contacts with neighbouring languages (STEBLIN-KAMENSKIY 1999, 17-40). Specifics of Wakhī development can be interpreted as the influence of contacts within the Pāmīr-Hindūkush ethnolingvistic region (or in a wider view in Central Asian Sprachbund), John Payne offers a hypothesis that Wakhī was the oldest (Iranian) language in the Pāmīr region and later it was superstrated by the other Pāmīr languages (PAYNE 1989, 421-423), Valentina Stepanovna Sokolova connects Wakhī closely with the Ishkāshmī-Sanglēchī languages and proposes that they can together form their own subgroup of the Pāmīr languages (cf. SOKOLOVA 1973). In case of Wakhī there can be supposed early and intensive contact with Persian, many Persian loans had undergone intra-Wakhī development (STEBLIN-KAMENSKIY 1999, 17-40), similarly was Wakhī in quite intensive contact with some Indo-Aryan language(s), there may have been some really old Indo-Aryan influences on Wakhī (PAKHALINA 1976a).

Wakhī appears to be archaic not only from phonological point of view, but also in morphology we can observe survivals of some archaic features that have not been preserved in other Eastern Iranian languages. Nouns do not distinguish gender, but according to operation of \bar{a} - and i-Umlaut there can be observed forms of feminine that certainly existed in older stages of Wakhī (relicts of neuter are unclear; PAKHALINA 1987a, 444-446). Unique archaism presents the preservation of traces of Old Iranian dual forms in Wakhī: some nouns which denote(d) paired body parts and some other appellatives culturally perceived as pair (e.g. yoke or door) are in contemporary Wakhī considered as singular, but their forms are based on historical dual forms (plural of such words is then formed by standard addition of Wakhī plural endings). Formally the survivals of dual do not differ from forms derived from historical singular, traces of dual can

⁹⁴ The origin of groups tr, kr in Wakhī can be considered as an innovation rather as archaism: IIr. *pr, *tr, *kr > Ir. *fr, *ar, *ar (> (ar) *ar) *ar0 *ar1 *ar2 *ar3 *ar4 *ar5 *ar6 *ar4 *ar5 *ar6 *ar6 *ar6 *ar7 *ar8 *ar9 *ar9

be observed in operation of a root vowel Umlaut (PAKHALINA 1987a, 447). Nouns are inflected in two cases - direct and oblique. Case is formally not distinguished in singular, in plural there are two endings: $-i\xi(t)$ for the direct case, and $-\partial v$ for the oblique; the ending of oblique plural has parallels in other Pāmīr languages; the ending of the direct case can be related to Sogdian non-productive nominative plural ending -išt. In addition to the above mentioned there are also other plural endings in Wakhī, some of them come from Old Iranian genitive plural: $-\bar{o}n/-\bar{u}n$, $-\bar{i}n$ (< *- $\bar{a}n\bar{a}m$, *- $\bar{i}n\bar{a}m$); endings $-\bar{u}rg$, $-\bar{o}r\check{c}$ (< *- \bar{a} -tra-ka-) have analogies in the Shughnī-Rōshānī group (e.g. Shugh. -ōrj); and there are also some other endings: -āl, -ōl (< *- $\bar{a}tra$ -); $-\bar{i}f$ (< * $a\underline{i}$ - $f\underline{i}a$ - < * $a\underline{i}$ - $b\underline{i}a$ -). The other plural endings except $-\bar{i}\underline{s}t$: - ∂v are non-productive and they appear only in forms of few nouns. According to the results of Umlaut can be assumed that some Wakhī nouns that are currently considered as direct forms could have been derived from other cases than from nominative (PAKHALINA 1987a, 446-447). Adjectives distinguish neither gender (traces of original gender distinction in Wakhī can be similarly as for nouns observed in effects of Umlaut), nor number or case. Comparative is formed by adding the ending -tər < *-tara- but it can be formed analytically, there is not a separate form for superlative – it is expressed only analytically. Personal pronouns have forms just for the first and second persons singular and plural. Demonstratives distinguish triple deixis and they are used also for the third person of personal pronouns and as definite article. Pronouns are inflected in two cases - direct and oblique.

Wakhī verbal system is primary based on opposition of present and preterite stem, from the preterite stem are derived some other forms of past tenses. Present is formed by adding personal endings to verbal stem, in the past tenses the endings are substituted by enclitic forms of copula. Preterite stem is normally formed by adding an ending derived from *Proto-Iranian preterites in * $-t\bar{a}$ -, occasionally, however, there are also forms derived from the suffix * $-n(i)\bar{a}$ -/* $-n\bar{i}$ - (PAKHALINA 1987a, 459-466).

I.1.1.4.c. South and Southeast Eastern Iranian

I.i.i.4.10. Pashtō and Wazīrī

Pashtō (or Pakhtō, Pushtū, Paṭhān, Afghan; pəṣtū žə́bə // paxtō žə́ba) is an Eastern Iranian language. Number of its speakers is the greatest among all Eastern Iranian languages – the language is spoken by more than 23 million people (ROBSON – TEGEY 2009, 721); speakers of Pashtō live mainly in Southern Afghanistan and in North-western Pakistan, to a lesser extent there are some Pashtūn enclaves in Northern regions of Afghanistan and in Eastern Iran; Pashtō is together with Afghan Persian (Darī) recognized as official language of Afghanistan. Pashtō distinguishes four main dialect groups: North-western and North-eastern (i.e. Hard or Eastern dialects – paxto) and South-western and South-eastern (Soft / Western dialects – paxto), noteworthy is also Wazīrī (dialect of the Wazīrī tribe, remarkable dialects. The Pashtūns may

be connected with the tribe Πάρσιοι mentioned by Ptolemy in area around ἀραχωσία (Ave. Harax aitī, OPers. Hara buvatiš) and the river Ἐτύμανδρος (present Hilmand; cf. SKJÆRVØ 1989b, 384), from historical sources we know also some Pashtūn tribes, e.g. the Afrīdī tribe can be connected with the ἀπαρύται mentioned by Herodotus. Pashtō is written in the Perso-Arabic script supplemented by graphemes for Pashtō sounds. The oldest written monuments come from the 8th century AD (GRYUNBERG – ÈDEL MAN 1987, 7), literary tradition evolves from end of the 16th century (ROBSON – TEGEY 2009, 721).

consonants	stops	affricates	fricatives	sonorants	vowels
bilabials	рb			m w	í ī ú ū
labiodentals			(f)		i
alveolars	t d	сз	S Z	n r l	ē u ō
postalveolars		čj	šž		9
retroflexes	ţ ḍ		š ž	ù i	
palatals	ģ		•	у	
velars	k g		ž	(ŋ)	$a - \bar{a}$
uvulars	(q)		хγ		
glottals			(h)		

Table 26 Sound system of Pashtō.

Sound system of Pashtō has undergone a complex development; its characteristic feature is syncope of unstressed vowels, due to syncopation of unstressed vowels consonant clusters appear often syllable-initially. Development of Pashtō vowels can be summarized as follows: *a > a, \bar{a} , \bar{o} (under i-Umlaut > $(\gamma)\bar{a}$); * \bar{a} > \bar{o} , \bar{a} , a (under i-Umlaut > $(\gamma)\bar{a}$); *i, * \bar{i} > i; *u, * \bar{u} > u, v; * $\bar{a}u$ > u, v, * $\bar{a}u$ > u, *u, *u \bar{u} ; * $\bar{a}ua > \bar{o}$, \bar{u} ; * $\bar{a}i > i$, \bar{e} ; position of stress influenced quality and quantity of vowels in *Proto-Paṭhān. Voiceless consonants were voiced after a vowel (also *-f- > * β > w, but *-t- > *d (> * δ > l), \emptyset); * \check{c} was depalatalized to c-, -3(-); * $d > *\delta > /1/$ and * $\check{s} > \check{s} - x\check{c}$ -, $-\check{z}(-) - g(-)$. From consonant groups containing *r or *š emerge cerebral sounds, e.g. *sr-, *str > \S - \check{x} , *rd, *rt > r, *rn, *x \S n > n, *rs > št-xt. Clusters are often simplified, in some cases one of the consonants disappears or a consonant is changed into another one. Due to i-Umlaut the vowel *a can have prothetic y, which can cause secondary palatalization, e.g. $*k\bar{a}...i(-) > \check{c}\bar{a}(-)$, $\check{c}\bar{e}(-)$; a frequent phenomenon is also metathesis, assimilation or dissimilation and pre-nasalization of consonants (SKJÆRVØ 1989b, 398-406; GRYUNBERG - ÈDEL'MAN 1987, 21-38). In Pashtō there is mobile stress, words are divided into two stress patterns: barytones (words with a stressed root) and oxytones (words with a stressed ending or suffix). Study of operation of stress in Pashtō can help in reconstruction of stress in *Proto-(Indo-)Iranian - in some cases position of stress in Pashtō appears to be more archaic than stress attested in Vedic (GRYUNBERG – ÈDEL'MAN 1987, 38-39).

Pashtō nouns and adjectives distinguish two genders (masculine and feminine), two numbers, in plural is also distinguished animacy or inanimacy. Nomina are inflected in three cases: direct, oblique and vocative, some masculines can moreover form *oblique II*. Nouns are

inflected in eleven paradigm classes (seven masculine and four feminine classes), the adjectives form four inflectional classes; there are also inflectional subgroups in each of the classes, inflectional forms often differ due to operation of stress. Verbal system has triple structure similar to other Eastern Iranian languages: present, preterite and prefect. In past tenses there is distinguished transitivity and intransitivity. Aspect of verbs is formed either by prefix $w\acute{\sigma}$ - or by suppletive forms or stress shift (SKJÆRVØ 1989b, 390-398; GRYUNBERG – ÈDEL'MAN 1987, 44-135).

I.i.i.4.ii. Wanetsī

Waṇetsī ((spīn) tarī́nō, waṇecī z(i)bə/zəbō, 'č'algari) has been for a long time considered a dialect of Pashtō (it was often called "corrupted Pashtō" and is recognised as "a kind of Pashtō" by its own speakers, see ELFENBEIN 1984a, 54-55), nowadays it is mostly considered to be an independent language closely related to Pashtō (HALLBERG 1992, 45-47). Wanetsī shares many features with Pashtō, mainly with Kākaṛī dialect and "Soft" Pashtō in Quetta area, Pakistan. On the other hand Wanetsi «differs from all other Ps [Pashto dialects] in phonology, morphology, and lexicon so much as to be quite unintelligible to other Pš [Pashtō] speakers (in a way that e.g. Wazīrī is not)" (ELFENBEIN 1984a, 55). The supposed number of speakers exceeds 25.000 people living in Harnāy (Waņ. Arna(h)ī) and Sanjāvī taḥṣīls in Sibī district eastwards from Quetta, province of Balochistan, Pakistan; many of the speakers live also in Quetta (HALLBERG 1992, 47-48). The language is spoken by Məkhyāṇī and Waṇetsī tribal subdivisions of Spīn Tarīn tribe⁹⁵. The language itself does not possess any prestige in its socio-linguistic area, even among its own speakers it does not enjoy adequate prestige and is even disdained by the Pashtūns. Preservation of the language in such socio-linguistic situation is connected with tribal matters as each tribe identifies itself through its own dialect. (ELFENBEIN 1984a, 55-56) The language has no written tradition, nor was thoroughly described in scientific literature. All Wanetsis are bilingual with Pashtō and recently, as the importance of Urdū rises, many Wanetsīs speak also Urdū.

Phonologically Waṇetsī does not differ much from neighbouring Kākaṛī dialect of Pashtō. Historical development of vowels is quite similar to that of Pashtō: $*a > \check{a}, \ a; *\bar{a} > \check{a}, \ \check{o}; *i, *\bar{\imath} > \check{\imath};$ $*u, *\bar{u} > \check{u}, \ a; *\check{a}\underline{u} > wa, \ \check{o}; *\check{a}\underline{i} > \check{e}, \ \check{\imath};$ just i-Umlaut or epenthesis of -y- is not as common as in Pashtō. Stressed a is often lengthened, unstressed \bar{a} is shortened, word-final unstressed a and a usually merge in pronunciation. Vowels $-\bar{\imath}$ - and $-\check{e}$ - tend to be prepalatalized $/-y\bar{\imath}$ -, $-y\bar{e}$ -/ and $-\bar{o}$ - and $-\bar{u}$ - prelabialized $/-w\bar{\imath}$ -, $-w\bar{o}$ -/, but word-initial $w\bar{u}$ -, $w\bar{o}$ - are often delabialized. "Majhūl" vowels \bar{e} , \bar{o} are not kept apart from " $ma^c r\bar{\imath} f$ " $\bar{\imath}$, $\bar{\imath}$. Consonants have comparable development with Pashtō: voiceless consonants were voiced word-internally (*-p-, *-k-, $*-\check{c}$ -, *-f-, $*-\check{s}$ - >b, g, $*\check{\jmath}$ > g, w, (\check{z}) ; $*\check{c}$ and $*\check{\jmath}$ were depalatalized; $*\beta$ and $*\underline{u}$ merged as w; $*\delta$, $*\delta$ > l as in

_

⁹⁵ The Waṇetsī-speaking Spīn ('White') Tarīn tribe forms a minority of a larger Tarīn tribe – its major group are the Tōr ('Black') Tarīns, another small group are the Bōr ('Brown') Tarīns. The Black and Brown Tarīns are all Pashtō speakers (Elfenbein 1984a, 56).

Pashtō; but *-t- > y, Ø as in Munjī (or in a way as in Parāchī and Ōrmurī). Different from Pashtō is retention of r in * $r\check{z}$ > $r\check{z}$; development * $\check{s}k$, *ft > k, w (Pasht. \check{c} , (w)d) or retention of *nd in γ andəm 'wheat' < * $g\acute{a}ntuma$ -, Pasht. γ anəm. Often *CrVC > CrC. Cerebral (*) \check{s} , (*) \check{z} merged with \check{s} , \check{z} in Waṇetsī, but they may be occasionally "reintroduced" in speech under Pashtō influence. As in colloquial Pashtō, there are no /f/, /q/ and /h/ sounds in Waṇetsī, these sounds are usually realised as p, k, Ø (rarely x) respectively, they can appear only in "educated" speech. Phonological changes show that *Proto-Waṇetsī developed quite early from *Proto-Paṭhān ancestor and *Proto-Waṇetsīs were probably forerunners of the Pashtūns towards the East. (MORGENSTIERNE 1983a; ELFENBEIN 1984a, 56-57; ELFENBEIN 1984b; MOSHKALO 2000, 150)

consonants	stops	affricates	fricatives	sonorants	vowels
bilabials	рb			m w	i īu ū
labiodentals			(f)		
alveolars	t d	сз	S Z	n r l	e ē o ō
postalveolars		čj	šž		è
retroflexes	ţ ḍ		(š) (ž)	ù i	
palatals				у	
velars	k g			(ŋ)	$a \longrightarrow \bar{a}$
uvulars	(q)		хγ		
glottals			(h)		

Table 27 Sound system of Wanetsī.

Waṇetsī nouns distinguish gender (masculine and feminine), number (singular and plural) and three cases (direct, oblique and vocative), vocative is usually the same as the direct case. There are eight inflectional classes – five for masculines and three for feminines, only masculine and feminine class I nouns have different vocative forms. As a fourth case can be considered ablative formed by agglutination of $-(\bar{e})ya$. Waṇetsī has forms for all three persons; first and second persons singular and third person for both numbers distinguish direct and oblique cases, forms of the third person also retain gender distinction. Unlike Pashtō, Waṇetsī demonstratives have triple deixis. Verbal system is based on two stems – present and past, past stems are formed from old past participles as in other Iranian languages. The past tense is formed by means of ergative construction. (MORGENSTIERNE 1983a; ELFENBEIN 1984a; MOSHKALO 2000)

Waṇetsī phonology and morphology is from historical point of view very similar to Pashtō, many forms were also influenced by language contact. Main differences between both languages can be seen in syntax and lexicon.

I.i.i.4.12. Parāchī

Parāchī (parāčī) is one of the New Iranian languages closely related to Ōrmuṛī, its accurate classification has not been successfully explained: some scholars claim Parāchī (and Ōrmuṛī) as

Eastern Iranian, some other as (North) Western Iranian language (see MORGENSTIERNE 1929; KIEFFER 1989; EFIMOV 1999a). Parāchī is spoken by approximately 5000 speakers in the Shotol, Pachaghān and Ghochūlān valleys⁹⁶ in Nejrāb district south-eastwards from Kābul (EFIMOV 1999a, 257). The oldest reference about the language quoted as "parā\"\" comes from the 16th century from the Bāburnāma, memories of Mughal sultan Zahīruddīn Muḥammad Bābur (KIEFFER 1989, 445-446). The language does not have its own written tradition.

consonants	stops	affricates	fricatives	sonorants	vowels
bilabials	$p p^h b b^h$			m m ^h w	ī \\vec{u} \qquad \vec{u}
labiodentals			f (v)		i u
alveolars	t t ^h d d ^h	сз	s s ^h z	nn ^h rr ^h ll ^h	ę ē\ö o
postalveolars		č č ^h j j ^h	š žž ^h		e
retroflexes	ţţh ḍ			ùί	
palatals				(y)	ä
velars	$k k^h g g^h$			(ŋ)	$a \longrightarrow \bar{a}$
uvulars	(q)		x γ		
glottals	(5)		h		

Table 28 Sound system of Parāchī.

Historical phonology shows some similarities with Pashtō and with Saka dialects, but preservation of word-initial voiced stops is similar with the North Western Iranian languages. Word-initial (voiceless) fricatives changed to voiceless aspirated stops (as in Saka or Balōchī): *f-, *\Partial-, *x->p^b, t^b, k^b. Characteristic changes are *\varphi_-, *\variangle > *g^w-, *\vartau > \gamma^-, * in Khōtanese and Balōchī); *s(t)r, $*tr > \check{s}$; sonorization of intervocalic voiceless stops *-p-, *-t-, *-k- and their merger with voiced fricatives (< Old Iranian voiced stops) *- β -/*- δ -, *- δ -/*-d-, *- γ -/*-g- > w, ϕ -w- γ -h-g- > γ ; *st > st, *st following *i > st, *rt, *rd > r, *ui- > γu -. Intervocalic *-š- is lost. There is often metathesis of *b* and subsequent development of aspirated consonants. Consonantal system is very similar to Pashtō, moreover Parāchī has aspirated sounds including nasals, sonorants or sibilants. In vowels there are following significant changes: stressed * $a > \bar{o} - \bar{o}$; * \bar{u} , * $a\bar{i}$ > \bar{i} ; * $a\bar{u}$ > \bar{u} ; * \bar{a} ia > \bar{e} ; * \bar{a} iua > \bar{o} - \bar{o} ; *r > ur; *a, * \bar{a} under i-Umlaut > \bar{e} , *a under a-Umlaut > a. Parāchī long back rounded vowels tend to be fronted: \bar{u} , $\bar{o} > \bar{u}$, \bar{o} ; \bar{a} is strongly rounded and often raised in front of a nasal. Long vowels are shortened in unstressed position. Diphthongs tend to reduce its non-syllabic part, mainly in fast speech. Besides oral vowels there are also nasalized vowels. (MORGENSTIERNE 1929, 22; KIEFFER 2009, 694-695; SKJÆRVØ 1989a; EFIMOV 1999a, 258)

⁹⁶ Each of these valleys has its own dialect – Shotolī, Pachaghānī and Ghochūlānī.

⁹⁷ In some cases "old" and "new" *b/*d continued as *b, it is preserved as aspiration of consonants, cf. Parāch. $d^b\bar{\iota}$ < *dṻb < *dūð/đa- < *dūta- 'smoke'; bʰām < *buhām < buð/đām < *budāma- 'smell'; Ave. baoða- (MORGENSTIERNE 1929, 36).

Parāchī nouns do not distinguish gender, plural is formed by adding an ending $-\bar{a}n$, but there is also a elliptic dual in $-h\bar{a}$ and numerative in -a. There are three cases: direct, oblique and ablative, other cases (accusative, dative, locative-directive and instrumental-comitative) are formed analytically with pre- or postpositions. Adjectives are not morphologically marked. Pronouns distinguish five cases: direct (nominative), oblique, dative, accusative and possessive. Verbal system is based on an opposition of present and past stems (past stems are alike in other Iranian languages formed from past participles in *-ta-). Verbs have perfective and imperfective aspect, past tenses transitional and intransitional verbs are formed with ergative construction (KIEFFER 2009, 696-708).

I.i.i.4.13. Ōrmurī

Ōrmuṛī (ōrmuṛī, ōrmuļī, bargistā, barakī) is a New Iranian language variously treated as a member of the Eastern or Western Iranian group (see MORGENSTIERNE 1929; HALLBERG 1992, 53-66; EFIMOV 1999b). It is closely related to Parāchī, both languages are now mutually unintelligible. Ōrmuṛī is spoken by some 100-200 people of city of Barakī-Barak (Ōrm. *Grām*; Pasht. *Ōrmər*, *Ōrmuṛ*) in Afghan province of Lōgar and approximately of 5000 speakers in city of Kānīgurām⁹⁸ in South Wazīristān, Pakistan (EFIMOV 1999b, 276). The language has been mentioned for the first time in the 16th century as "bīrkī" together with some other regional languages in vicinity of Kābul in the *Bāburnāma* of Mughal sultan Ḥahīruddīn Muḥammad Bābur (KIEFFER 1989, 445-446). Ōrmuṛī has no written tradition, in recent time there was created an alphabet for Lōgar Ōrmuṛī based on Pashtō variety of the Arabic alphabet (BURKI 2001).

consonants	stops	affricates	fricatives	sonorants	vowels
bilabials	рb		φw	m	ī _ ū
labiodentals			(f)		i u
alveolars	t d	сз	S Z	n r l	e \ ö \ o
postalveolars		čj	šž		ē ə ō
retroflexes	ţ ḍ		ř š ž	ù i (j)	ε
palatals				у	ä
velars	k g		ž	(ŋ)	$a - \bar{a} \bar{a} \bar{a}$
uvulars	q		хγ		
labiouvulars			x° y°		
glottals			h		

Table 29 Sound system of Ōrmuṛī.

Ōrmuṛī vowels developed as follows: *a > *a, \bar{a} (labialized > u, \bar{o} ; palatalized $> \bar{e}$); $*\bar{a} > \bar{a}$ (unstressed > a; palatalized $> \bar{e}$); *i > i, e (unstressed > a; before $\check{r} > \bar{e}$); $\bar{\imath} > \bar{\imath}$; *u > u (unstressed > a)

-

⁹⁸ Ōrmuṛī has two varieties – Kānīgurām dialect of Pakistan and Lōgar dialect of Barakī-Barak, both vernaculars differ quite a lot, there are differences in phonology, morphology and in lexicon.

a); $*\bar{u} > *\bar{u}; *\bar{a}\underline{i}(a) > *\bar{e}$ (before $*n > \bar{i}$; unstressed > i); word-final $*-a\underline{i}a-> *-\bar{i}; *\bar{a}\underline{u} > *\bar{o}$ (before * $n > \bar{u}$); * $\bar{a}ua > \bar{a}$, \bar{o} (word-finally $> \bar{u}$); *r > ar, ar, ur. There are some differences between Afghan and Pakistani varieties of Ōrmuṛī - in Afghanistan there is under the influence of Darī/Kābulī tendency to realize short i, u as e, o and \bar{a} is labialized \bar{a} . Development of consonants shares some similar features with Parāchī, and in a wider range also with Saka dialects or North Western Iranian. Word-initial voiceless fricatives *f-, * \mathfrak{I} -, *x- were probably preserved (attested is only x-), *f, *x were preserved word-internally, but *-\mathcal{P}-, *-\mathcal{P}\varphi_-, *-\mathcal{P}\varphi_- > \varphi_. Voiceless stops (except *k) were sonorized, they later merged with * β , * δ , * δ and then changed to w, \emptyset , $\check{z}/3$; \check{z} , \check{z} were often depalatalized > $c-\check{c}$, $3-\check{j}$. Word-initial \check{u} - changes to $\gamma(\circ)$ - or to j- when palatalized; *-fr-, *- $\Im r$ -, *-xr- > r *ft, *xt > *tt > \emptyset (but *xt sometimes > k); *rt, * $r\Im$, *rd > l; * $x\check{s}$, *rt, * $r\check{s} > \check{s}$; * $x\check{s}n > n$; intervocalic * $-\check{s}-> y$, \emptyset ; *h is lost, but initial *h- may be preserved before a stressed vowel in the dialect of Kānīgurām. (MORGENSTIERNE 1929, 322-339; EFIMOV 1999b, 278; SKJÆRVØ 1989a). Except sibilants, there are no retroflex sounds in genuine Ōrmuṛī words, beside palato-alveolar affricates there are also alveolar affricates (the second mentioned are not present in Parāchī). To the sound š in the dialect of Kānīgurām corresponds \dot{x} in Logar Ormuri (EFIMOV 1999b, 278).

Ōrmuṛī dialect of Kānīgurām distinguishes masculine and feminine gender; in plural animates and inanimates are distinguished. Umlaut or palatalization occurs quite frequently in inflection, cases are often expressed syntactically. Personal pronoun of the first person has direct and oblique cases, other persons have just one form for both cases. Demonstratives are used also for the third person pronouns, they are declined in three cases: nominative, accusative-objective and possessive. Verbal morphology is in common very similar to Parāchī and Pashtō – there are two verbal stems: present and past. (EFIMOV 1999b, 281-296; KIEFFER 1989, 454-451). Morphology of Lōgar Ōrmuṛī was considerably simplified when compared to the Kānīgurām variety (MORGENSTIERNE 1929, 313).

I.1.1.5. Other Eastern Iranian languages

Apart from the above mentioned languages, various scholars mention some other languages that can be considered as members of the Eastern Iranian branch. Project Ethnologue lists Wardōjī ¹⁰⁰ – a language of the Wardōj river valley northwards from Zēbāk in Afghan

-

⁹⁹ This sound can be transcribed also \S^r , the sound should be similar to Czech voiceless \check{r} (BURKI 2001), phonetically $[\mathring{1}]$: voiceless retroflex non-sibilant fricative. Similar sound but voiced occurs also in the Nūristānī languages.

However, it is possible that this is may be another name of the Zēbākī language – the city of Zēbāk lays on the river Wardōj. On the website http://globalrecordings.net there is given a record of biblical story about the Great Flood in Wardōjī (with an alternative name Zēbākī; URL: http://globalrecordings.net/en/language/3400, cit. 24. 3. 2012, 13:37). When I compared this recording with Ishkāshmī and Sanglēchī I can tell that Wardōjī sounds much different from Ishkāshmī-Sanglēchī (which should not happen in case of Zēbākī as a dialect of Ishkāshmī and Sanglēchī). To my ears Wardōjī sounds more like a language of the Shughnī-Rōshānī group.

Badakhshān with approximately 4000 speakers. The language is not classified precisely, but it may belong to the Pāmīr languages (ETHNOLOGUE, 318). Based on analysis of toponyms of Tajik Qarōtegīn and Darvōz and Afghan Darwāz can be assumed that also in these regions there has been some Pāmīr languages or dialects (or languages/dialects closely related to them) spoken in the past (PAYNE 1989, 420), in case of *Darwāzī we can analyse toponymy of both Tajik and Afghan Darvāz but also there are some substrate words in Darvōz dialects of Tājīkī, some other substrate words appear in Qarōtegīn Tajik dialects¹⁰¹.

Georg Morgenstierne lists a hypothetical group of Southeast Eastern Iranian languages, from which could have developed *Proto-Parāchī and *Proto-Ōrmuṛī, relicts of this language may be observable in lexical borrowings in Pashtō and in the Nūristānī languages (MORGENSTIERNE 1926, 14-39; MORGENSTIERNE 1983b; KIEFFER 1989, 451-454), There is also an assumption that the 3rd and 5th version of inscription from Afghan Dasht-e Nāwor could have been attempt to write this unknown language with an adaptation of the Kharōṣṭhī script (MORGENSTIERNE 1983b; FUSSMAN 1974), Gérard Fussman suggests for this hypothetical Southeast Eastern Iranian language label *Kambojian (Kambojī)*, after Iranian tribe of the *Kambojians*, who probably dwelled in area of western Hindūkush (FUSSMAN 1974, 32-34).

I.1.2. Classification of the (Eastern) Iranian languages

The Iranian language family is conventionally divided into two basic groups – Eastern and Western Iranian. Differences between these two groups begun to appear probably in the Old

My assumption was confirmed by Shughnī speaker Fōkhir Yūsufbēkov (son of Tājīk linguist Shōdīkhōn Yūsufbēkov, with whom was this matter consulted) and Rāshārvī speaker Ghulōmshō Alīnazarov – the informants have stated that the language of the record is Shughnī mixed with Rōshānī – this Wardōjī can be characterized as Shughnī with Rōshānī accent and some Rōshānī vocabulary, on the other hand both informants stated that they have never heard about Wardōjī (both of them come from the Tājīk bank of the river Panj), according to words of Ghulōmshō Alīnazarov there are some villages on the Shughnī–Rōshānī language border where the people speak in a mixed language that is not so different from Bajūī (Fōkhir Yūsufbēkov and Ghulōmshō Alīnazarov, pers. comm., 24.–26. 3. 2012).

Another informant – Ishkāshmī speaker Muḥammad Bōdurbēkov – stated that the language of the record is quite similar to Ishkāshmī of Tajikistan, but there are differences mainly in lexicon, which is common in Sanglēchī and Yidghā (sic!, the informant probably meant Munjī; Muḥammad BōDURBĒKOV, pers. comm., 2. 4. 2012).

If this theory is correct then Wardōjī is not a Shughnī–Rōshānī mixed language but it is rather a Ishkāshmī-Sanglēchī language with Shughnī and Rōshānī admixture, such theory may be supported by witness of George Abraham Grierson, who stated that: «The tract of Zēbak is one of the most polyglot spots in this part of Asia.» (GRIERSON 1920, 3). Based on the above mentioned facts, it is necessary to critically examine the source of the recording; a question is how credible is the source published on the Web, how reliable was the informant (especially with regard to the designation of Zēbākī as an alternative name), or to what extent was the author of the recording competent in linguistics.

Darvōz dialects are close to other Tājīk dialects of the Pāmīr area (e.g. dialect of Vanj or Vakhiyōyi Bōlō; see RASTORGUEVA 1964, 4, 162). Question of classification of *Qarātegīnī substrate within the Eastern Iranian languages – Qarōtegīn Tājīk belongs to Southern Tājīk dialects (RASTORGUEVA 1964, 5, 161), it has some ties with Upper Mastchōh dialects of Tājīk (KHROMOV 1962, 16).

Iranian period and became more distinctive in the Middle Iranian period. Each of these groups later split into two subgroups - South and North subgroup. In the North Western Iranian languages we can find e.g. Median (Old Iranian period), Parthian (Old and mainly Middle Iranian period), Old Azarī, Balōchī, Kurdish, Zâzâki (Dimli), Gōrānī, dialects of Semnān (Semnānī, Sangesarī), dialects of Central Iran (Āshtīyānī, Vafsī, Khwānsārī/Khūnsārī, Natanzī, Borūjerdī, Yazdī, Kermānī, Sīvandī, Khūrī etc.), Caspian dialects (Māzanderānī, Gīlakī, Gorgānī), Tālyshī/Tāləshī, Tātī, Khō²īnī and many others. South Western Iranian languages are represented by Old Persian, *Old Shīrāzī (in the Old Iranian period), Middle Persian-Pahlavī (in the Middle Iranian period); in the New Iranian period there are varieties of Modern Persian (Classical Persian (Fārsī-yi darī), Contemporary Persian of Iran (Fārsī), Afghan Persian (Pārsī-ye $Dar\hat{i}$) and Tajik Persian ($T\bar{o}j\bar{i}k\bar{i}$), and non-literal or sub-standard forms of Persian such as Hazāragī, (Chār-)Aymāqī, Herātī/Haravī, Kābolī, Sīstānī, Bukhār(āy)ī, Pārsī of Pāmīr etc.), dialects of Fars (Tājīkī of Iran, Būshehrī, Dashtakī, Kondāzī, Māsaramī, Samghānī/Somghūnī), Lārī/Lārestānī, Shīrāzī, Lurī/Lorī, Bakhtiyārī, Bandarī, Kazerūnī and others. Among the North Eastern Iranian are classified Scythian dialects and *Sauromatian (in the Old Iranian period), Sarmatian, Alanic, Sogdian (Middle Iranian period) and Ossetic and Yaghnōbī (New Iranian period). South Eastern Iranian languages are represented by dialects of the Saka (mainly Khōtanese and Tumshuqese), Bactrian (Middle Iranian period), the Pāmīr languages (Shughnī-Rōshānī group, Yazghulāmī, Wanjī, Wakhī, Ishkāshmī-Sanglēchī and Munjī-Yidghā), Pashtō and Wanetsī (New Iranian period). Questionable is classification of the Avestan language - it is probably one of the South Eastern Iranian, Khwārezmian is variously classified as North or South Eastern Iranian; the most complicated is classification of Parāchī and Ōrmurī – some scholars claim them as North Western Iranian but some other hive off new - Southeast branch within Eastern Iranian.

	South Western Iranian	North Western Iranian	Southeast Eastern Iranian	North Eastern Iranian	Pāmīr / Central (?) Eastern Iranian	South Eastern Iranian
*t, *dz, *t <u>u</u>	*3, *d, *s	*s, *z, *sp	*s, *z, *sp	*s, *z, *sp	*s, *z, *sp	*s, *z, *sp
*-b-, *-d-, *-g-	*\beta>*b, *\delta>*y, *\gamma>*g	*\beta, *\dagger, *\gamma	*B, *8, *9	*B, *8, *9	*B, *8, *9	*B, *S, *Y
*i-	*j	*j *y	*y	*y	*y	*y
*ft, *xt	*ft, *xt	*ft, *xt	*βd, *γd	*βd, *γd	*βd, *γd	*βd, *γd
*b-, *d-, *g-	*b, *d, *g	*b, *d, *g	*b, *d, *g	*\beta, *\delta, *\gamma	*B, *8, *9	*B, *8, *7
*	*š	*š	*š	*š	*ž	*ž
'mountain'	*kaufa-				*gari-	
'fish'	*mā̃tsi̯a-		,		*kapā-	
'arrow'	*tigra-		?		*рāЭа-	
'dog'	***	uą́-ka-		*kut	ta-, *kutī	*tsúą-ka-

Table 30 Basic isoglosses of the Iranian languages.

South Western Iranian languages and dialects differ from other Iranian languages by significant isogloss Ir. *t, *dz, * $tu > *\Im$, *d (< * \Im ??), *s; such isogloss, however, does not separate North Western Iranian languages from Eastern Iranian, cf. development of Ir. *t, *dz, *tu > *s, *z, * sp^{102} . Differences between the (North) Western Iranian and Eastern Iranian have to be looked up within other features. Some basic isoglosses between the branches of the Iranian languages are summarized in Table 30.

However, according to the isoglosses shown in Table 30, distinctive features cannot be found only on phonological level. There were not many phonological differences between the Eastern and Western Iranian in the Middle Iranian period, one of the essential features was development of word-initial voiced stops *b-, *d-, *g- and development of clusters *ft and *xt. To establish a border between the Eastern and Western Iranian, lexical (e.g. in many works presented example *gari- × *kaufa- 'mountain' and *kapa- × *mataia- 'fish'; cf. SIMS-WILLIAMS 1989a, 168-169) and grammatical differences should be also taken into account. There can be mentioned some other words from lexicon that can be considered typical for the Eastern Iranian area:

*abi-ar- 'to find, to obtain' > Sogd. s в м $\sqrt{\beta}$ уг с \sqrt{b} уг / $\sqrt{\beta}$ īг/, Khwār. β уг-, Bactr. м 2 β уг-, Yazgh. vir-, Yagh. vīr-;

*(h)ánda- 'blind' > Khōt. hana-, Sogd. B 'nt M 'nd /aṁd/, Munj. yāndəy, Pasht. rūnd, Ōrm. hōnd (but cf. Parth. hand);

*aua-súxta-(ka-) 'clean, purified' > Khōt. Tumshuq. vasuta-, Sogd. β 'wswyty, 'ws(')wyt'k μ 'wswytyy /osuyde', Bactr. ωσογδο /osuyd/, Oss. (without prefix) suydæg || suydæg, Khwār. (with other prefix) (')fsyd;

*dráua- 'hair' > Khōt. drau-, Sogd. B zw-y /žəwí/, Yagh. daráu || d¹ráu, Oss. ærdu || ærdo, Shugh. cīw, Rōsh. cōw, Yazgh. ců Ōrm. drī × Pers. mōi < *mauda-;

*gári- 'mountain' > Khōt. ggara-, ggari-, Sogd. B M γr-y /γərí/, Bactr. γειξο, γαξο /γ̄ιτ, γar/, Yagh. γar, Shugh. žīr, Wakh. γar, Munj. γār, Pasht. γar, Ōrm. grī, Parāch. gir × Pers. kōh < *kaufa-;

*kápā- 'fish' > Khōt. kavā-, Sogd. B M C kp-y /kəpí/, Khwār. kўb, Scyth. (Παντι)κάπης, Oss. kæf, Wakh. kūp, Munj. kōp, Pasht. kab × Pers. mǎhī < *mǎtia-;

*káta- 'house' > Sogd. B kt²y, kt²k M qt, qty(y), ktyy C qty /kətḗ/, Bactr. καδ(α)γο /kad(a)g/, Yagh. kat, Shugh. čīd, Rōsh. Khūf. čod, Bart. čöd, Rāshrv. čūd, Sarīq. čed, Yazgh. kůd, Munj. ḱay, Yidgh. kyei, Ave. kata- (+ Parth. Pahl. kdg) × Pers. κᾱná < *κᾱna-ka- (but Sogd. S B γ²n²k(b) M κ²n² /κᾱnā/, Wakh. κun, Ishk. κon, Sangl. κᾱn);

*kúta-, *kutī- 'dog' > Sogd. S B 'kwt-y M kwt-y, qwt-y / kwəti/, Bactr. κοδο /kud/, Yagh. kut, Oss. kwыz || kuy, Shugh-Rōsh. kud, Sarīq. kыd, Yazgh. kod, Ishk. kыd × Pers. sag < *tuá-ka-, Med. σπάκα (but Khōt. śve, Wakh. šač, Pasht. spay (f. spəi), Wan. spa (f. spī), Ōrm. spuk, Parāch. spö);

_

But in Wakhī *ty > š and in Khōtanese *ty > š []].

* $m\acute{a}i\Im a$ - 'day' > Sogd. s $my\delta$ B $m(\ref{i})y\delta$ M $my\delta$, $my(y)\delta\delta$ C $my\Im$, $my\Im$, $my\Im$, $my\Im$ /me͡ਤ/, Khwār. $my\Im$ /me͡ਤ/, Yagh. $mẽ\S$ | $mẽ\S$, Shugh. $mẽ\Im$, Rōsh. Khūf. Bart. Rāshrv. $mi\Im$, Sarīq. $ma\Im$, Yazgh. $mi\Im$, Ishk may, Sangl. $mẽ\S$, Zēb. $m\~\iota$, Munj. Yidgh. $m\~\iota\check{x}$ × Pers. $r\~oz$ < * $r\'au\~\iota\check{c}a$ - (but Pasht. $wra\Im$, $rwa\Im$, Waṇ. $wre\Im$, Ōrm. $wrie\Im$, $wrie\Im$);

*pati-gadz- 'to accept' > Khōt. pajāys-, Sogd. B √pcy²(²)z /√pəčyáz/, Khwār. pcy²z-; *tána- 'enemy' > Khōt. Tumshuq. sāna-, Sogd. s B M C s²n /sān/, Oss. son × Pers. dušmán < *duš-mana- (cf. SIMS-WILLIAMS 1989a, 169; SIMS-WILLIAMS 1996b [online]).

Eastern Iranian languages also borrowed some Indo-Aryan words (in this case old loans are meant, not loaned Buddhist terminology, which appear in several Eastern Middle Iranian languages): Skt. ākāśa- 'heaven' > Khōt. ātāśa-, Sogd. β ²²k²c(h) /ākāč/; Skt. maraṇa- 'death' > Khōt. maraṇa-, Bactr. (adj.) μαξανιγγο /maraṇnjng/; Skt. markaṭa- (Prkt. makkaḍa-) 'monkey' > Khōt. makala-, Sogd. β mkkr(²) μακρανιγγο /makkáṇ, (á)/, Khwār. mrk; Skt. puṇya- 'merit' > Khōt. puña-, Sogd. β s pw(r)ny²n(h), pw(r)ny²nyh /puṇ,yắn(ya)/, Bactr. μ pwwn /puṇ,/. Some of the above mentioned Indo-Aryan words are found in North Western Iranian Parthian (ākāśa- > Parth. ²²g²c /āgāč/; maraṇa- > Parth. mrn /maraṇ,/; puṇya- > Parth. pwn /puṇ,/; SIMS-WILLIAMS 1989a, 169), Parthian also borrowed Eastern Iranian word *pā¬a- 'arrow' > Parth. p²ḥ/pāh/ (SUNDERMANN 1989, 112) - such fact is probably due to a long-time contact of historical Parthia (modern date South-western Turkmenistan and North-eastern Iran) with Khwārezm, Bactria, Sogdiana and Gandhāra.

Division of Eastern Iranian languages into Northern and Southern branch (and eventually South-eastern branch if we will consider Ōrmuṛī and Parāchī as members of the Eastern Iranian languages) is often used by many scholars, only few of them explain the criteria of such classification, so it seems that this division was more based on (modern) geographical distribution of the Eastern Iranian languages. For example Vera Sergeevna Rastorgueva lists the following criteria for dividing the Eastern Iranian languages:

«Basic features of the North Eastern [Iranian] languages:

- I) ending of plurals of nouns -t (in Khwārezmian -c < -t): Sogd. βr'trt 'brothers', Khwār.
 nikanc 'stakes', aβrāc 'eyebrows', Oss. xæzærttæ 'houses', bælæstæ 'trees', Yagh. odamt 'people', žutot 'sons';
- 2) preservation of Iranian post-vocalic d; e.g. Ir. pāda 'foot' is reflected as Sogd. p'd, Yagh. podá, Oss. fad;
- 3) preservation of Old Iranian cluster dv word-initially; e.g. Ir. dvara 'door', is reflected as Sogd. \(\delta w r, \) Yagh. \(d^i v ar, \) Oss. \(dwar; \)

One of the basic features of the South Eastern group is sonorization of Old Iranian consonant š; e.g. Ir. word gauša 'ear', is reflected as Shugh. yůy, Rōsh. yōw, Pasht. ywaž, Yazgh. yəvón and other.» (RASTORGUEVA 1966, 198)

From the above mentioned characteristics only two can be confirmed – typical feature for the North Eastern languages is formation of plural with originally abstract suffix *- $t\tilde{a}$ (such suffix

can be found also in Yazghulāmī and in some non-productive forms in Ishkāshmī) and sonorization of intervocalic *-s- in South Eastern Iranian. Other presented features are not distinctive for both groups. Comparation of selected sound changes and other features can characterize some isoglosses in the Eastern Iranian languages. As can be seen in Table 31, some changes are common for many of these languages regardless to their ranking to the Northern or Southern branch. Based on a comparison of isoglosses listed in Table 31, instead of classification of the Northern and Southern branch, there can be better postulated a dialect continuum than two different branches; the only (?) branch that seems to show more distinctive features is the South-eastern branch which continues in the Ōrmuṛī-Parāchī subgroup. As distinctive features of the South Eastern Iranian branch can be considered 1) preservation of archaic formation of plural (i.e. absence of innovation of plural form by adding an abstract suffix *-ta); 2) sonorization of intervocalic *-š-; 3) change of Ir. *rd, *rt; 4) change of Ir. *rdz, *rt and 5) emergence of innovated form of the second person plural personal pronoun from combination of forms of the second person singular and first person plural. All the above mentioned changes have not emerged in all South Eastern Iranian area: feature 1) have not took place in Yazghulāmī (and except some non-productive forms in Ishkāshmī); intervocalic *-š- has not been sonorized in Bactrian and probably also in Sarghulāmī; changes under the point 3) have not taken place in Bactrian and Wakhī; in Munjī, Yidghā and Wakhī (and probably also in Bactrian) has not taken place change point 4); innovated forms of plural the second person plural (point 5)) are present in all South Eastern Iranian languages, but in Parāchī they come from different source than from the above mentioned.

			I					III				III	III	II	IV	V
	Ave.	Sogd.	Yagh.	Oss.	Khwār.	Wanj.	Yazgh.	ShughRōsh.	Sargh.	MunjYidgh.	Bactr.	IshkSangl.	Wakh.	Khōt.	PashtWaņ.	ParāchŌrm.
preservation of *rd, *rt,	±	+	+	+	+		-	-		-	+	-	+	+	-	-
preservation of *rz, *rs < *rdz, *rts	+	±	+	+	-		-	-		+	?	-	+	?	-	-
innovated form of 2 nd pers. pl. pers. pronoun	-	-	-	-	-		+	+		+	+	+	+	-	+	±
preservation of *VšV	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	±	-	-	-
ā-Umlaut	-	-	-	-	-		+	+	?	+		+	+			+
plural ending in *-t(ų)ā-/*-Яца-	-	+	+	+	±	-	+	-		-	-	±	?	-	-	_
*u->*gw-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		-	-	-	-	+	-	+
preservation of diphthong in *3r ăi a-	+	?	+	*	?		+	+		+	+	+	+	-	*	-
*\beta, *\u > *w	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		-	-	-	-	-	+	+
palatalization of *t	-	±	±	+	+	-	+	-	?	±	-	-	-	±	±	±
second palatalization of velars	-	-	-	±	±	-	+	+		+	-	-	-	-	±	-
sonorization of *p, *t, *k, *č	-	-	-	+	+		+	+	-	+	+	+	±	-	+	±
depalatalization of *š, *ž, *č, *j	-	-	-	+	+	?	-	+	-	-	+	±	±	±	+	
emergence of cerebral sounds	-	±	-	-	-	?	*	*		±	-	+	+	+	+	+
augment	+	±	+	-	±	-	-	-		-	-	-	-	?	-	-

			Ι			l I		III			l I	III	III	II	IV	V
	Ave.	Sogd.	Yagh.	Oss.	Khwār.	Wanj.	Yazgh.	ShughRōsh.	Sargh.	MunjYidgh.	Bactr.	IshkSangl.	Wakh.	Khōt.	PashtWaņ.	ParāchŌrm.
labialization of tectals	-	+	-	+	-	-	+	-		-	-	-	-	-	±	-
ergative	+	+	+	-	+		±	±		±	+	±	-	+	+	+
preservation of gender	+	+	-	-	+	?	+	±		+	+	-	-	+	+	+
*t <u>u</u> > *sp	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	?	+	+	+	-	-	+	+
preservation of *du	+	+	+	+	+		+	+		+		+	-	-	±	-
<i>i</i> -Umlaut	+	+	+	?	+		+	+	?	+		+	+		+	+
u-Umlaut	+	+	-		-		-	-	-	-	-	-	-			±
preservation of *ℑ	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	+		-	-	-	+	-	-	_
*b, *g, *j > *\beta, *\gamma, *\dot\delta	±	+	+	+	+	+	+	+		+	+	+	+	+	+	+
*\delta > *d	-	-	+	+	-	?	-	-				±	±	-		±
*\dagger \dagger \dagg	-	±	-	-	_	±	-	-	+	+	+	±	±	-	+	±
preservation of word-initial * b , * d , * g , * \check{j}	+	-	-	±	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	±	-	+
*šm > *m	-	±		-	+		+	+		+		+	±	+	-	+
voicing of initial *fr, *3r, *xr	-	-	-	-	-		-	-		-	-	-	-	+	+	-
3 rd pl. verbal ending *-ār-	+	-	+	-	+		-	-		-	-	-	-	+	-	-
preservation of initial *h-	+	-	-	+	-		-	-		-	-	-	-	+	+	+
vocalic outcome of *-ă-kă-stems	-	+	+	-	-		-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	

Table 31 Isoglosses in the Eastern Iranian languages (plus (+) or minus (-) signs mean operation/absence of such change; asterisk (*) means that this change can be observed only with regard to the historical development of the language(s); plus-minus sign (\pm) indicates, that such change has not operated in full extent; question mark (?) means that according to attested material it is impossible to judge about operation of such change; text in gray indicates innovation when compared to the older state).

I have outlined new classification in the note nr. 48 (Chapter I.I.I.4.b.). The Eastern Iranian languages can be divided into five branches: I Northern (Sogdo-Scythian) group; II Northeastern (Saka) group, III Central (Pāmīr) group, IV Southern (Paṭhān) group and V Southeastern (Hindūkush) group. Group I can be defined by innovated plural ending *-tā- (comparable to Yazghulāmī), preservation of intervocalic *-š- (shared with Bactrian and Wakhī but excluding Ossetic). Groups III, IV, V have undergone common change of form of the second person personal pronoun, in languages of these groups there are innovated forms of plural, they may be influenced by Indo-Aryan or Dardic pronouns. Innovated forms of the second person plural often comes from combination of personal pronoun of the second person singular with form of the first person plural *talu-*ahmā-(k/xam-), or *talu-s,ma- copied from Indo-Aryan (cf. Maiyā tus; Ṣiṇā tsalo; Lahndā tus) different form is just in Parāchī. Groups II and IV share sonorization of word-initial *fr-, *\$r-, *xr-.

II. Archaism and innovation in Sogdian and Yaghnōbī

According to the outline of the Eastern Iranian languages presented in the previous chapters one can state that there are four dozen extinct or living Eastern Iranian languages and dialects. Majority of those languages can be studied mainly from synchronous point of view - these languages and dialects are attested as individual stages of the Eastern Iranian branch but with some exceptions we do not know their older development stages. There is exception within the North Eastern Iranian branch – in this case both Yaghnōbī and Ossetic can be compared with their closely related ancestors. The development of Ossetic can be continuously observed from the Old Iranian period – there are many similar features in the Scytho-Sarmatian dialects and in Alanic that can be compared with Ossetic and we can even suppose that Ossetic is a modern descendent of one of Alanic (or Sarmatian or even Sauromatian) dialects. Similar situation applies for Sogdian and Yaghnōbī - these two languages are very similar from many points of view, Yaghnōbī has been even labelled 'Neo Sogdian' by some authors (BOGOLYUBOV 1956; KLIMCHITSKIY 1935; SKJÆRVØ 1989a, 375-376), nowadays many scholars are inclined to believe that Yaghnōbī may come from some non-attested non-literary dialect of Sogdian (BIELMEIER 1989, 480; SIMS-WILLIAMS 1989b, 173), Al'bert Leonidovich Khromov expressed an opinion that Yaghnōbī could have originate in a non-attested Sogdian dialect of Ustrōshana (KHROMOV 1987, 645), unfortunately there is no relevant data to confirm this hypothesis. Some other New Eastern Iranian languages share several isoglosses with the Middle Iranian languages: Khōtanese and Tumshuqese share some isoglosses with Wakhī and sporadically also with the other Pāmīr languages; Bactrian shares many isoglosses with Munjī and Yidghā and also with Pashtō and Wanetsi or even with the Shughni-Roshani languages. Khwarezmian (whose affiliation to the North or South Eastern Iranian languages remains unsolved; see EDEL'MAN 2000a, 95; EDEL'MAN 2008, 6; EDEL'MAN 1986, 6) is similar to Ossetic from one point of view and to Pashtō and the Pāmīr languages from another; an ending of the third person plural of subjunctive connects Khwārezmian together with the Saka dialects and with Yaghnōbī ending of the third person plural of present, imperfect and non-durative preterite (SKJÆRVØ 1989a).

On the basis of the above mentioned data we can declare that a thorough diachronic and synchronic study of the Eastern Iranian languages is possible in its Northern branch – but in the case of Ossetic comparable material lies mainly in lexicon, development of grammar and syntax is blurred (cf. ABAEV 1949). It is of course possible to outline historical development of other (New) Eastern Iranian languages, but in these cases it is necessary to deal only with methods of historical and comparative linguistics because there are not attested direct ancestors of these languages.

Based on the above mentioned facts the main theme of this thesis will be the comparison of Sogdian and Yaghnōbī – information on Sogdian are available in a large corpus of texts from which we can learn about Sogdian grammar, lexicon and syntax; Yaghnōbī as a living language is so far undrawn repository of knowledge – to linguists Yaghnōbī is known a little bit more than

hundred years, within that period of time some texts, grammars and lexicons have been published, at the present time a research on the Yaghnōbī language and ethnography is under patronage of the Academy of Sciences of the Republic of Tajikistan, where under the Rūdakî Institute of Language and Literature falls the Department of Yaghnōbī Studies (Tjk. Gurūhi yaghnōbshinōsî). The study of the Sogdian and Yaghnōbī languages certainly cannot be separated from study of the other Eastern Iranian languages therefore I will also pay attention to interpretation of relevant innovations and archaisms in other languages and dialects of the Eastern Iranian branch. In case of Yaghnōbī (and the other Modern Eastern Iranian languages except Ossetic) it is also necessary to follow development of Modern Persian, mainly its varieties in Tajikistan and Afghanistan 103. A comparison of the Sogdian and Yaghnōbī material can solve the issue of the relationship of both of these languages. It can be supposed that both languages developed from one common North Eastern Iranian proto-language or proto-dialect, such proto-language will be labelled *Proto-Sogdic (i.e. a Central Asiatic variety of "Scythian/Saka" of the late Old Iranian period) here. Later *Proto-Sogdic split into two (or even more) main dialects - *Proto-Sogdian and *Proto-Yaghnōbī. Both *Proto-Sogdian and *Proto-Yaghnōbī are reconstructed as predecessors of the attested languages - Sogdian and Yaghnōbī, besides those two languages there may have been Sogdian dialects of Bukhārā, Ustrōshana and Zhetisu -*Bukhāran Sogdian is attested by several short texts, *Zhetisu Sogdian is attested on several inscriptions and from historical sources while *Ustroshanian remains to be a hypothetical Early Mediaeval ancestor of Yaghnōbī, *Ustrōshanian is also thought to be an ancestor of hypothetic *Zarafshānī language/dialect which remained as substrate in Tajik dialects of Mastchōh, Falghar and Fon.

-

Development of Persian as a member of the South Western Iranian branch is surely not the theme of this work. For simplification the development of Persian will be observed on basis of following works – general development of Persian and its vernaculars was described by Valentin Aleksandrovich Efimov, Vera Sergeevna Rastorgueva and E. N. Sharova (EFIMOV – RASTORGUEVA – SHAROVA 1982); Tājīk grammar is thoroughly described by John PERRY (2005), grammar of Afghan Darī is described by Lidiya Nikolaevna KISELEVA (1985). Thorough description of Tājīk dialects was published by Vera Sergeevna RASTORGUEVA (1964).

II.1. Historical phonology 104

The *Proto-Sogdic language split into two reconstructible dialects – *Proto-Sogdian and *Proto-Yaghnōbī. For description of the historical phonology of Sogdian it is necessary to outline several stages of development of the Sogdian language (see Table 32).

```
*Proto-Sogdic
                           *Proto-Sogdian / *Proto-Yaghnōbī
                           *Old Sogdian
                                                                         language of Sogdian translation of Aṣəm vohū
           4<sup>th</sup>-5<sup>th</sup> cent.
                           Preclassical Sogdian
                                                                         the Ancient Letters
                           Early Classical Sogdian
                                                                         Christian document C 2
           7<sup>th</sup>-9<sup>th</sup> cent.
                           Classical Sogdian (& Bukhāran dialect)
                                                                         majority of texts
                           Postclassical Sogdian (& Zhetisu dialect)
                                                                         Brāhmī documents, Christian document C 5
half of the 11th (?) cent.
                           (death of Sogdian)
           (middle ages)
                                                         *Zarafshānī preserved only in central Tajik dialects
                                                                       preservation of "majhūl" ō and ੨
        up to cca. 1900
                                            Early Modern Yaghnöbī
         from cca. 1900
                                           Contemporary Yaghnōbī
                                Table 32 Relative chronology of *Proto-Sogdic dialects.
```

Yaghnōbī and Sogdian phonology will be outlined in a comprehensive view. I will try to present all phonological changes of both languages. The main sources for the study of historical phonology of Sogdian and Yaghnōbī were outlines of Sogdian and Yaghnōbī historical grammar (LIVSHITS – KHROMOV 1981, 373-116; KHROMOV 1987, 653-660) and GMS §82-530. In many case I have tried to find same responses both in Sogdian and in Yaghnōbī for better demonstration of similar development of both languages. Before I start with historical phonology I will describe Sogdian orthographical system in order to explain possibilities of reconstruction of Sogdian phonology.

(excursion 4) Sogdian orthographical systems

Sogdian texts have been written in three various graphic systems: in the Sogdian, Manichaean and Syriac alphabets (see Table 33 to compare transliteration of the alphabets). The Sogdian script was a locally developed variety the Aramaic alphabet, this script was used in Sogdian documents from approximately the first third of the 4th century AD (so-called *Ancient Letters* found at Dunhuang in China) up to the 9th-10th centuries. The Manichaean alphabet was also a

In the presented work the majority of Sogdian and Yaghnōbī words will be supplemented by their *Proto-Iranian form – in this reconstruction I will transcribe continuants of some sounds in rather archaic state: * \check{q} for continuants of *Proto-Indo-European vocalic nasals, *s, *dz for *Ide. *k, * $\hat{g}(b)$ and sometimes I will use *H for *Proto-(Indo-)Iranian continuant of *Proto-Indo-European laryngeals.

Stress will be shown on majority of examples, but stress will usually marked in position of "Stress II" (see chapter II.1.1.), only in several cases position of "Stress I" (i.e. *Proto-Iranian stress) will be marked – such only in cases where it was known to me. I decided for such notation of stress for two reasons – 1) original position of stress in *Proto-Iranian is not marked in majority of reconstructed forms, and 2) marking of the position of Stress II is preferable for explanation of *Proto-Sogdic development.

modification of the Aramaic alphabet, according to legends the creator of this script was a prophet Mānī (216-276 AD), founder of Manichaeism; the Manichaean alphabet differs from the Aramaic original by number of new consonant graphemes – this alphabet was quite widespread, apart from the Sogdian texts there are attested also Middle Persian (Pahlavi), Parthian or Bactrian (or even non-Iranian Tokharian B and Old Turkic) documents written in the Manichaean script. Sogdian translations of Christian texts were written in Eastern (Nestorian, Estrangēlā) variety of the Syriac script, Sogdian adapted Syriac script was supplemented by three new consonant graphemes. All three scripts originated in the Aramaic alphabet so Sogdian orthographies were based on the model used for Aramaic and for other Semitic languages alphabets of Semitic origin do not have special signs for vowels, vowels were either not written or written with consonant graphemes ("matres lectionis" - in Sogdian ?, y, w; and also (M), h, k (S B)). In the Syriac script diacritic vowel signs occasionally appear. Besides documents written in the Sogdian, Manichaean and Syriac scripts, there are also some Sogdian documents written in North Turkestan variety of the Brāhmī script - reading of the Sogdian documents in the Brāhmī script can considerably help with reconstruction of Sogdian sound system. In Abū-r-Rayḥān Muḥammad bin Aḥmad al-Bērūnī's Kitāb al-āthār al-bāqiyat 'an al-qurūn al-khāliyat there are some Sogdian glosses written in the Arabic alphabet, also in an unnamed manuscript from the ${}_{13}{}^{th}$ century by Muḥammad bin Manṣūr bin $Sa^{\varsigma}\bar{i}d$ Mubārak $Sh\bar{a}h$ (Fakhr-i Mudīr) we can find Sogdian adaptation of the Arabic alphabet together with several Sogdian glosses (ROSS - GAUTHIOT 1913), moreover Sogdian letters are also transliterated (in this case rendered for Old Turkic) by Maḥmūd bin Ḥusayn bin Muḥammad al-Kāshgharī in Kitābu dēvānu lughāti 't-türk.

Aramaic alphabet	Sog	dian alphabet	Mani	chaean alphabet	Syr	iac alphabet ¹⁰⁵
	< >	//	< >	//	< >	//
²ālap̄	>	ă, ∂, i∙	>	ă, ∂, ŧ	>	ă, ∂, i
bēţ	β f (β,)	β, f f	b В (b)	b B	b	β, b
gāmal	γ	γ , x , b , q	g Y	g Y	g	g, (γ)
dāla <u>t</u>	d	-	d	d	d	ð, (d)
hē	h	-ă, ø	h	<i>b</i> , <i>x</i>	h	h, (-ā)
waw	w	w, ^w , <u>u</u> , <u>u</u> , <u>o</u> , <u>o</u> , <u>u</u>	w	w, ^w , <u>u</u> , <u>u</u> , <u>o</u> , <u>o</u> , <u>u</u>	w	w, ^w , <u>u</u> , <u>u</u> , <u>o</u> , <u>o</u> , <u>u</u>
zayn	z ; ;	z, ž, ž z, ž, ž z, ž, ž	z ž (ž)	z ž, ž	Z	z

_

In the Syriac script can be observed some differences in reading of the letters $t\bar{e}t$ and taw: $t\bar{e}t$ is usually used for writing t (eventually d), but in several cases it is used also for $\Im < \Im >$; taw normally serves as a grapheme for \Im , but it can be used also for t (d) < t>. Whether one of the other variant was used, it was consistent throughout the document, i.e. if $t\bar{e}t = t/d$, thus $taw = \Im$ and vice-versa, if $t\bar{e}t = \Im$, then taw = t/d (the second variety is not common according majority of Christian texts).

(žayn)			j	ž, ž, j	ž	ž, ž
ḥēṯ	x (ẍ)	x, h, q (q)	<u>þ</u>	-ā, ø	<u>þ</u>	b
ţēţ	ţ	-	<u>t</u>	t, d	<u>t</u> (2)	t, d (ℑ)
yud	у	$y, \underline{i}, \overline{i}, \overline{e}, \partial, i$	у	y , i , \bar{i} , \bar{e} , ∂ , i	y	$y, i, \bar{i}, \bar{e}, \partial, i$
kāp	k	k, g, -ă, -ĕ	k x (k)	$k \\ x$	k x	$k \\ x$
lāmaḍ	2	l	l	l	l	l
(Sālat)			22 2	E ,8 W ,E		
mim	m	m, \dot{m}	m	m, \dot{m}	m	m, \dot{m}
nun	n	n, \dot{m}	n	n, \dot{m}	n	n, \dot{m}
semka <u>t</u>	S	s, (š)	S	S	S	S
⁵ayin / ⁵ē	ς	-	ς	$ec{i},reve{ar{l}},reve{ar{e}}$	γ (⁵)	γ
pē	P P	p, b, f f	р f (р)	р, b f	p f	р, b f
ṣāḍē	С	č, j, (t), (dz)	С	č, j, (t), (dz)	С	č, j, ts, (dz)
qop	q	-	q	k	q	k, g
rēš	r l (ṛ)	r, r, r, l l	r	r, r, r	r	r, r, r
šin	š	š, š	š	š, š	š	š, š
taw	t	t, d	t	t, d	9 (t)	$\Im, (t, d)$
(ðāmad)	2	8, 3				

Table 33 Overview of transliterations of Sogdian from the scripts derived from the Aramaic alphabet (after SIMS-WILLIAMS 1989b, 176 and KÜMMEL 2006; edited).

Sogdian orthography of the *Ancient Letters* (written in an archaic non-cursive variety of the Sogdian script) corresponds to a rather archaic ("Pre-Classical") form of the language, in which the *- $\check{a}k\check{a}$ -stems were neither contracted yet nor there have been change * $\Im r$, * $\Im r > /\S$, $\check{z}/2$ occurred. From Aramaic ductus was adopted writing of word-final - \check{a} with letter $b\bar{e}$, but it cannot be judged whether already in the language of the *Ancient Letters* operated *Stress III* and the *Rhythmic Law*. Younger (or "Classical") Sogdian texts from the 8th-9th centuries come from the orthography similar to the orthography of the *Ancient Letters*, but in these younger texts appear some orthographic doublets – word-final - \check{e} (originally masculine aka-stems) was written either archaic as <-(?)k> or phonetically as <-(?)y> and word-final - \check{e} (from originally unstressed feminine $\bar{a}k\bar{a}$ -stems) was written as <-(?)k> or according to its pronunciation as <-?(?)x> or <-(?)x>, even -x0 (in forms of adverbs, and accusative of masculines and nominative/accusative of neuter) was written as <-(?)x> and word-final -x0 of old x-stems is often written as <-x> in endings of later x> x> x0 sounds x0. Texts in the Manichaean and Syriac alphabet

It means that the grapheme $h\bar{e}$ had two functions: 1) it marked word-final - \check{a} in forms of the *light stems*, and 2) it was used as a common marker of feminine nouns and adjectives (with no phonetic value); later also the third function was emerged – it was used as filler at the end of the line.

use rather phonetic spelling (if we can really use the term "phonetic spelling" in a case of a consonant script which does not have separate vowel graphemes) – reflexes of the unstressed $\bar{a}k\bar{a}$ -stems were written by use of the letter $\bar{a}la\bar{p}$ and reflexes of the aka-stems with the letter yud; continuants of old * $\Im r$ and * $\Im r$ were written with the letters $\Im r$ and " $\H z$ and " $\H z$ ". Interesting is an adoption of a grapheme for $\Im z$ (and $\Im z$) – In the Sogdian alphabet $\Im z$ was written by Aramaic letter $l\bar{a}mad$, in the Manichaean script with the letter " $\Im a lat$ ", which is morphologically derived from the letter $l\bar{a}mad$, but in the Syriac alphabet the sound $\Im z$ is written as $d\bar{a}lat$ and $\Im z$ as taw (i.e. only in the Syriac script there are two separate graphemes for $\Im z$ and $\Im z$), problem of Sogdian $\Im z$ *z ("lambda Sogdica") will be discussed in excursion $\Im z$ in chapter II.1.3.6.

With the exception of sibilants there were no different graphemes for opposition of voiced and voiceless consonants in the Sogdian script - voiced stops (which have been rather rare in Sogdian) were written with graphemes for voiceless stops; on the contrary voiceless fricatives were written with graphemes for voiced fricatives, an exception presented only x and γ , which had two separate graphemes: letters gāmal and hēt, these graphemes slowly merged and their forms were distinguishable only word-finally, word-initially and word-internally was the difference in shapes of $g\bar{a}mal$ and $h\bar{e}t$ hardly evident. Labial fricative f was written with two graphemes – with the letters $b\bar{e}t$ and $p\bar{e}$, the first mentioned was used also for β , the second letter was used also for labial stops p and b; occasionally the letters $b\bar{e}t$ and $p\bar{e}$ were supplemented with diacritics to spell $f - b\bar{e}t$ was supplemented by a subscribed dot or hook beneath the original letter, pē could have two dots written over the original letter (such way was used in Manichaean texts written in the Sogdian script). The letter zayn could have been also supplemented by diacritics - by either one dot/hook or two dots beneath the letter - these diacritic marks (without a distinction of <z> and <z>) had two meanings - they either distinguished ž-sound or they kept apart the letter zayn from the letter nun (nun was always written without diacritics). In a later period a subscribed hook under the letter $r\bar{e}^{\bar{s}}$ for l appears, this new grapheme is of Turkic origin and in Sogdian it has been used rarely (as there was no l in Sogdian). The Syriac alphabet has special graphemes for voiced and voiceless fricatives; and also the voiced velar stop g had its own grapheme $g\bar{a}mal$ (but g could have been written as $qo\bar{p}$), the other voiced stops were written either as voiceless stops or as voiced fricatives (i.e. $d = t\bar{e}t$ or $d\bar{a}lat$; $b = p\bar{e}$ or $b\bar{e}t$). Only the Manichaean script had quite a full range of graphemes to represent Sogdian consonants (but the letter šin was used for š and š and "žayn" for ž and ž and except the letter "\$\bar{a}lat"\$ which served both for \$\delta\$ and \$\beta\$, but occasionally double \$\bar{a}lat < \delta > \text{ was}\$ used for ϑ^{107}), it was possible to distinguish stops clearly in writing, but voiced stops were often written as their voiceless counterparts.

Moreover Aramaic had some phonemes that do not appear in the Iranian languages, mainly emphatic t, s, q and pharyngeal b, s. Letters for those sounds were used in different ways in

-

Compare similar way of graphic representation of θ and δ in Modern English – both sounds are written with a single digraph .

Sogdian. The letter $\underline{s}\bar{a}\underline{d}\bar{e}$ was used in all three alphabets for \check{c} and \check{j} (and possibly for t and its allophone dz). In the Sogdian alphabet the letter $\underline{h}\bar{e}\underline{t}$ was used for x, in the Manichaean alphabet $\underline{h}\bar{e}\underline{t}$ served as a line-filler and in the Syriac script it was used for b. The letter $\underline{t}\bar{e}\underline{t}$ was not used in the Sogdian script, in the Manichaean script it was interchangeable with the letter taw and in the Syriac script it was used for t (as taw has been used for t). The letter taw and no use in the Sogdian alphabet, in the Manichaean and Syriac scripts it was interchangeable with the letter taw (while taw) was used rarely in the Syriac script). The letter taw and in the Manichaean script for vowels taw, taw, taw in the Sogdian alphabet it was not used and in the Syriac alphabet it was used for taw. The Sogdian alphabet had no use for the letter taw

The Sogdian alphabet was not used only for recording Sogdian language – it served also for Old Uyghur and later for Mongolian, Oyrat, Manchu or Sibe (Xibe) who use it up today. In

-

¹⁰⁸ In the Sogdian alphabet the non-used letters dālat, tēt, ^sayin and qop appear only in Aramaic ideograms.

Thus bgdhwzhtyklmns psqršt.

The Uyghur variety of the Sogdian alphabet has been adopted by the Mongolians, who changed the collation as follows: $a(\langle c'\rangle)$, $e(\langle c'\rangle)$, $i(\langle c'\rangle)$, $o/u(\langle c'\rangle)$, o

Sogdian translation of the Buddhist text *Avalokiteśvarasyanāmāṣṭaśatakastotra* a Sanskrit quatrain is recorded in the Sogdian script (Figure 6):

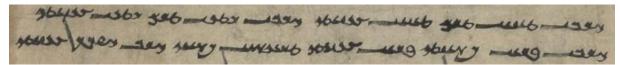


Figure 6 Sanskrit inscription in the Sogdian script (Bibliothèque Nationale de France, Pelliot chinois nº 3520, lines 53-54; http://gallica.bnf.fr/ark:/12148/btv1b8305780t/f2.image.r=pelliot+3520.langEN, cit. 12.9.2012, 10:16)

(53) srBn	t^2n^2n	$trm t^2n^2n$	cyn²ty	srBn rtym	trm rtym	cyn ² ty
sarvaṃ	dānaṃ	$d^{\scriptscriptstyle h}armad^{\scriptscriptstyle h}\bar{a}nam$	jināti	sarvam ratim	$d^{\text{h}} armaratim \\$	jināti
(54) sr\beta n	$pr^{2}n$	kš²nty pr²n	cyn²ty	tr²yšn² kš²²y	srβ swkk	cyn ² ty
sarvaṃ	balaṃ	kṣāntibalaṃ	jināti	tṛṣṇākṣayaḥ	sarvasuk ^h a	jināti

«The greatest of gifts is the gift of the law; the greatest of delights is delight in the law, the greatest of strengths is the strength of patience; the greatest happiness is the destruction of desire.» (GAUTHIOT 1911, 94). In this example characteristics of the Sogdian script can be seen – by comparison with Sanskrit whose sound system is well known, reading of individual graphemes can be verified – an effort to mark vowels i and u regardless their quantity is evident, but a similarly as in Sogdian is marked rarely; voiced stops were written with graphemes for their voiceless counterparts. Neither aspiration was marked (orthography < kk > for k^b cannot be interpreted as an effort to mark aspiration – the first < k > probably marks velar, the second < k > probably stands for vowel -a). In case of the word $trsnaksayab < tr^2yšn^2ks^2^2y >$ we can presume that it is a scribal error for $* < tr^2yšn^2ks^2y^2 >$ The sound l was written with the letter $r\bar{e}s$, in many Sanskrit loans in Sogdian there is l often written with the letter $l\bar{a}mad$: Sogd. B δwk^2 , rwk /lok(a)/ 'world, loka' < Ved. loka'-.

Sogdian texts written in the Brāhmī script are quite different from the text in Aramaic-derived scripts – Sogdian has adopted Central Asian variety of Brāhmī as it has been used by the ancient Uyghurs, but in the case of Sogdian cannot speak about Sogdian literature in this script, only a dozen texts are known. The main advantage of the Brāhmī script is its ability to mark vowel quality, however quantity is not marked. The Sogdian Brāhmī documents are not dated well, but they can come from the later period of Sogdian and thus they can bring valuable information about the development of the language.

In case of Sogdian written in the Brāhmī script we cannot speak even about developed orthography, it is rather an effort to record Sogdian words in an orthography created for some Turkic language, presumably Old Uyghur, but there are several features that can tell more about the Sogdian sound system; reading of the Brāhmī Sogdian documents have to be compared with

_

The orthography of this word informs also about pronunciation of Sanskrit
/ri/ sometimes after the 8th century.

other records in the Sogdian, Manichaean and Syriac alphabets. The North Turkestan Brāhmī script used nine graphemes ($ak_i a r a^{112}$) for vowels and diphthongs: a/a, a/ $/\bar{u}/^{114}$, $r/3^{17}$, $e/\bar{e}/$, $ai/\bar{a}i/$, $o/\bar{o}/$, $au/\bar{a}u$, $\bar{e}u/$. Other 33 akṣaras were used for consonants: ka/k/, $k^b a$, ga, $g^b a$, $\dot{n}a$, ca / \dot{c} /, $c^b a$, ja / \dot{j} , \dot{c} /, $j^b a$, $\tilde{n}a$, ta /t, t^h /, $t^b a$ / t^h /, da /d/, $d^b a$, $\underline{x}/, \underline{k}/k/, \underline{t}/t, \Im/, \underline{p}/p/, \underline{m}/m/, \underline{r}/r/, \underline{l}, \underline{u}/w/, \underline{s}/\check{s}, \check{s}/$ and three diacritic marks – anusvāra (\underline{m} /n/), virāma (sign that marks that after a consonant akṣara does not follow a vowel) and ä /-i, ø/. Beside the above mentioned aksaras there were used some digraphs, e.g.: ar/ar, ayu /ÿĕ/, yue /ÿĕ/, ve /ÿĕ/, hk /q~x/, hv /x°/, hṣ /xš/, hu /x°/, wt ~ wdh /βd/, wt /βd/, wv /f/, ue /ÿĕ/ etc.

Based on the present state of knowledge we can hardly talk about literature in the Sogdian Brāhmī script, yet even there we can trace certain orthographic conventions; e.g. for a (and/or its allophone i) existed two different spellings – i) in an open syllable of a disyllabic word the vowel a/i was not marked: Sogd. Br knā (B M kwn? C qwn?) /k(w)əna/ 'do!' (2nd pers. sg. imper. pres.); Sogd. Br md^bu (S B M $m\delta w$ C mdw) /mə δu / 'wine'; Sogd. Br prau (S $pr^2(y)w$ B $pr^2(y)w$, prywм pryw c prw) /pərēu/ '(together) with'; Sogd. вг hji /xəči/ '[(s)he/it] is'; Sogd. вг nðā-m (с nydm) /nɨðam/ 'husk, bark'; 2) in a closed syllable it has been written as a: Sogd. Br hṣa wdhi, hṣa wti (B 2 xšy β t-y) / 3 xši β di/ 'milk'; Sogd. Br d^b a w d^b i-k, d^b a wti-k (S $^3\beta$ tyk B $^3\beta$ tyk, $^3\beta$ t 2 yk(w) M $\delta \beta t(t)yk$, $\delta \beta tyq$, $\delta \delta \beta tyk \in dbtyq$) / $\delta i \beta dik$ / 'again'; Sogd. Br pa $ty\bar{a}-\underline{p}$ (S B M pty^2p) / $p^3 ty\bar{a}p$ / 'part'). Interesting issue presents pronunciation and orthography of ϑ – it is written as the letter t^ba - $k\bar{a}ra$ (Sogd. Br t^bau / $\Im \bar{a}u$ / 'shoot (2nd pers. sg. imper. pres.)'), in other positions it is written as "Fremdzeiche" ta-kāra, which is used either for \Im or for t: Sogd. Br me-t (AL Mg 2my δ s (2)m2y δ B $m^2y\delta$ Μ $m^2y\delta(\delta)$ C $my\Im$, $my\Im$) /mē \Im / 'thus' × Sogd. Br $pcai-\underline{t}$, $pc\bar{a}-yt\ddot{a}$, $pc\bar{a}-yt$ / $p^3\check{c}ait$ / (B M $\sqrt{p}c^2y$ /p³čái/) 'is beneficial' – it is possible that in Sogdian dialect recorded by the Brāhmī script 3 changed to t (i.e. similarly as e.g. in Sogdian dialects of Zhetisu; see Excursion 1), or it is determined by the fact that there was no akṣara for the voiceless dental fricative \Im in the Old Uyghur Brāhmī and thus this sound has been written with an akṣara for voiceless dental stop t $(ta-k\bar{a}ra).$

In some words we find i and u instead of (etymologically) expected \breve{e} and \breve{o} , Nicolas Sims-Williams explains this change with an assumption that there was a stress shift to the last syllable (see Stress IV in chapter II.1.1.4.) and newly unstressed \bar{e} and \bar{o} were shifted towards \bar{i} and \bar{u} (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1996a, 310). Moreover, the Brāhmī script shows pronunciation of the numeral 'one' in Sogdian – it is attested as Sogd. S B 'yw M 'yw, 'yw C yw, jw in the Aramaic

¹¹² After each *akṣara* will be shown its phonetic value as it was pronounced in Sogdian.

¹¹³ In unstressed position probably also /ĕ/.

¹¹⁴ Maybe /ŏ/ in an unstressed position.

derived alphabets but written yau in Brāhmī, so it could have been pronounced as $/y\bar{\epsilon}u/^{115}$ (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1996a, 313); also reading of Sogdian digraph (SB) < wy> have been corrected – Nicolas Sims-Williams originally suggested reading either $\bar{\varrho}$ or $\bar{\varrho}$ (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1996a, 313-314).

Sogdian documents in Brāhmī still wait for a thorough study, since just one Sogdian—Sanskrit bilingual document has been published (MAUE – SIMS-WILLIAMS 1991) together with some words quoted by Nicolas Sims-Williams to evaluate Sogdian phonology (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1996a).

II.1.1. Stress

Development of stress in the *Proto-Sogdic language is essential to understand phonology of Sogdian and Yaghnōbī and also to discover differences between both languages. It is not necessary to focus on position of stress in *Proto-Iranian because there was a stress shift in *Proto-Sogdic from which both languages developed. The reconstruction of *Proto-Iranian stress is complex – it can be supposed that the *Proto-Iranian stress was mobile and its position was similar to Vedic. For the reconstruction of Old Iranian stress is essential to study stress in Pashtō (GRYUNBERG – ÈDEL'MAN 1987, 38-39). Position of stress changed also in the other Eastern Iranian languages, mainly in the Pāmīr languages where stress shifts caused either syncopation of unstressed vowels or changes of stressed vowels under operation of \bar{a} - or i-Umlaut; nowadays all Pāmīr languages of Badakhshān have stress on the last syllable.

It seems that predecessors of both Yaghnōbī and Sogdian underwent the same or very similar stress shifts, the results of operations of stress slightly differ in both languages. Some Sogdian words point to original *Proto-(Eastern-)Iranian stress, the place of this stress ($Stress\ I$) can be reconstructed after operation of i-Umlaut, e.g. Sogd. s M C $zyrn\ /zern/zern/< *dzárania- 'gold' (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1989b, 181). Stress later shifted to another position (<math>Stress\ II$): the stress fell on penultimate or antepenultimate syllable. Words with penultimate stress were either disyllabic words or words with a penultima containing long syllable i.e. syllable containing either long vowel (long either naturally or rhythmically) or a diphthong (diphthong could have been formed also by a nasal or (*)r) in a closed syllable; in other positions the stress shifts on antepenultima. Position of stress in Yaghnōbī comes from the results of operation of the $Stress\ II$, this stress can be observed in Sogdian in results of operation of i-Umlaut of several words. Such stress shift is also probably related with change of its strength – many unstressed vowels (in Yaghnōbī often all syllables) were reduced or even syncopated, mainly short vowels directly preceding or following a stressed syllable.

Other stress shift (*Stress III*) took place in Sogdian, and this change is related operation of the Sogdian *Rhythmic Law*; but no such shift has taken place in Yaghnōbī. The *Rhythmic Law*,

¹¹⁵ See also Sogd. Br *prau* /pərξu/ mentioned above.

which was originally only a phonological feature caused many other changes in Sogdian morphology - this problem will be discussed in following parts of this thesis. The Rhythmic Law divides Sogdian words into two groups - in so-called light and heavy stems 116 (cf. SIMS-WILLIAMS 1984; GMS §484-530; TEDESCO 1926). As the heavy stems we can classify words with stressed root syllable, in fact stress falls on the first possible rhythmically long syllable (i.e. either on a long vowel or on a diphthong – in this case diphthongs are considered groups Vi, Vu, Vr, Vm in closed syllable), the heavy stems end with a consonant in majority of words. In the light stems stress shifted to the ending - the light stem words do not have rhythmically long root syllables and the stress shifted towards the end of the word, and thus *Proto-Sogdian endings have been preserved. Emergence of the Rhythmic Law also influenced reduction of vowels in unstressed syllables, mainly when they followed stress – in the *heavy stems* the original endings disappeared but they remained in the light stem forms. Subsequently the last stress shift (Stress IV) appears – this stress shifts to the ultimate syllable (Nicolas Sims-Williams suggests this development after an analysis of Sogdian documents in the Brāhmī script, some evidence of this feature can be found in several vocalized documents in the Syriac script; SIMS-WILLIAMS 1996a, 312-313)

As indicated above, mere shifts in stress position presented a significant feature which resulted in further sound changes in Sogdian and in Yaghnōbī. Both languages probably shared similar changes of stress for quite a long period of time during their common development. Yaghnōbī retained original stress on (ante)penultima (i.e. *Stress II*) Sogdian, however, was more progressive and there developed another innovation in stress (*Stress III*), this shift was motivated by rhythmical weight of a syllable – the operation of *Stress III* and the Sogdian *Rhythmic Law* is one of the most important distinctive features distinguishing Yaghnōbī from Sogdian.

The following parts present analysis of stress operation reflexes from the *Proto-(Eastern-)Iranian state up to (*Proto-)Sogdian and (*Proto-)Yaghnōbī, and subsequent Sogdian innovation in the form of the *Rhythmic Law*. We can distinguish three development stages of stress changes: *Stress I, Stress II* and *Stress III* – the first two stages can be observed in both languages (there are sources for position of the *Stress I* mainly in Sogdian, but they can be suggested in Yaghnōbī), *Stress III* is just Sogdian development – in the scientific literature the *Stress III* is labelled as the Sogdian *Rhythmic Law*. In the presented thesis I will use the term "*Rhythmic Law*" just for the outcome of the operation of the *Stress III* in all its complexity, mainly as a feature influencing Sogdian grammar; the label *Stress III* means only phonological shift of stress. In Late Sogdian *Stress IV* followed. A good example of all stress shifts can be seen in the following example: *Stress I *adzám 'I'* (Pasht. zə; Waṇ. ze; Munj. za; Yidgh. zo, zə; cf. Ave. azəm, Ved. ahám; Ide. *h¹eḡbóm, Gre. ἐγώ) > *Stress II *ázam* (Proto-Sogdic *ázu; Yagh.

The *light stem* words can be also labelled "oxytones" as they had stressed ending; the *heavy stem* words can be regarded as "barytones" i.e. words with a stressed root.

(*)az; Wakh. wuz; Ishk. az(i); Sangl. azə; azi; Yazgh. az; Shugh. (w)uz; Rōsh. az; Khūf. Rāshrv. Sarīq. waz; Bart. āz) > Stress III Sogd. S B M 'zw, /əzú/ > Stress IV Sogd. C zw /zu/ (?).

II.i.i. Stress I

Stress I corresponds to the position of stress in *Proto-(Eastern-)Iranian. Its responses are preserved only in rare cases, examples can be found mainly in Sogdian words, in Yaghnōbī there are no direct traces, but its operation can be also presumed. The position of the Stress I is not attested but it can be reconstructed in several words due to reflects of i-Umlaut in some roots, Nicolas Sims-Williams presents several examples: Sogd. s $M \subset Zyrn$ /zern/ 'gold' < *dzárania-; Sogd. s $ryp\delta\beta$ - /rep $\beta\beta$ a' 'noon' < *rápi $\beta\beta$ a; Sogd. s $pr^2y\delta \subset pry\beta$ /prē β - 'to sell' < *pará-da β ia-. In some cases stress can be found even on some nominal prefixes: Sogd. s $py(t)\delta^2r M py\delta^2r C pyd^2r$ /pe δ ar/ 'because (of)' < *páit δ ar' < *páti-rādi-; Sogd. pyr δ nn /pér δ an/ 'saddle' < *pári-dāna-; Sogd. s $wz\gamma^2m$, vzy^2m /uzyam/ 'absolutely, ever' < *údz-gāman- (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1989b, 181). The position of the Stress I can be better reconstructed from Pashtō.

The position of *Stress I* is attested from some words in Sogdian, traces of the *Stress I* can be better found in Pashtō and also in Munjī-Yidghā and Wakhī (here the position of the *Stress I* can be observed in results of Umlaut), many of examples of the *Stress I* can be compared with Vedic:

```
Pasht. áspa 'mare' < *átuā-; Ved. áśvā-;
Pasht. zāma 'jaw' < *dzámbā-; Ved. jámbʰa-;
Pasht. tōra 'black (f)'; Munj. tīrō; Yidgh. tūro 'darkness' < *tánβra-; Ved. támisrā-;
Pasht. sxər; Waṇ. xwsar; Wakh. xurs 'father in law' < *x¤atūra- × Ved. śváśura-;
Pasht. xwấṣē-xwấxē; Wakh. xaṣ 'mother in law' < *x¤átr(u)- × Ved. śváśrū-;
Pasht. drē; Wakh. trū(y) 'three' < *βrắja-; Ved. tráyaḥ;
Pasht. Waṇ. špa 'night' < *xšapā-; Ved. kṣapā-;
Pasht. lūná 'corn, uncer' < *dānā-; Ved. dʰānāḥ;
Pasht. paxá 'cooked, ripe (f)' < *paxūā-; Ved. pakvá-;
```

Pasht. zə; Wan. ze; Munj. za; Yidgh. zo, zə 'I' < *adzám-; Ved. ahám-; Pasht. atá; Wan. otá; Munj. ōšká; Yidgh. aščó; Wakh. at 'eight' < *aštá-; Ved. aṣṭấ (MAYRHOFER 1989, 13; MORGENSTIERNE 2003; STEBLIN-KAMENSKIY 1999).

II.1.1.2. Stress II

Stress shift marked as $Stress\ II$ characterizes another development in *Proto-Sogdic ¹¹⁷. The original *Proto-(Eastern-)Iranian stress shifted to penultimate or antepenultimate syllable according to its rhythmic weight: stress was on penultima if this syllable contained naturally or metrically long vowel (i.e. either a long vowel or a short vowel/diphthong in a closed syllable), in other circumstances stress fell on the antepenultima (that implies that rules of stress were similar to those in Latin or Sanskrit). The shift towards $Stress\ II$ position brought about several significant features, which were characteristic for the development in *Proto-Sogdian and *Proto-Yaghnōbī, notable are following four phenomena: 1) stress shift was probably related also with its strength, the new $Stress\ II$ being probably stronger than $Stress\ I$; 2) after the operation of $Stress\ II$ some unstressed vowels (or even whole syllables) were reduced or lost; 3) after the reduction of unstressed vowels the syllabic structure was rearranged, and 4) after loss of unstressed *i (or *ī and *į) the stressed root vowels and some consonants were palatalized.

The results of the changes caused by *Stress II* have different reflexes in *Proto-Yaghnōbī (and probably in Ustrōshanian Sogdian) and in *Proto-Sogdian, it is possible that at this stage the Sogdian dialects of Bukhārā and Zhetisu started to split. The majority of dialects developed from *Proto-Sogdic probably retained the position of the *Stress II*, but clear evidence can be found just for (*Proto-)Yaghnōbī. For *Bukhāran Sogdian, *Ustrōshanian and *Zhetisu Sogdian we can only suppose the preservation of *Stress II* and no shift towards *Stress III*.

The shift of *Stress II* resulted mainly in a change of stress strength which led to the reduction of unstressed vowels – short vowels were reduced or changed into *Schwa* (\mathfrak{d}). Long vowels were shortened when unstressed – in Yaghnōbī it can be said with certainty that *Proto-Sogdic unstressed * $\bar{\imath}$ and * $\bar{\imath}$ changed to i, u; in Sogdian a similar development can be presumed, but there is no clear evidence due to unsuitable graphic representation of vowels in the Aramaic-derived alphabets. One knows for certain that in Sogdian long vowels * $\bar{\imath}$ and * $\bar{\imath}$ were retained in syllables that later bore *Stress III*; but *Proto-Sogdic * $\bar{\imath}$ usually remained unchanged, although there some examples of shortening of * $\bar{\imath}$ > * $\bar{\imath}$ are attested.

The transition from $Stress\ I$ to $Stress\ II$ must have been regular, the original $Stress\ I$ being preserved only in rare cases, mainly in cases of old syncopation of vowels, but also under some other circumstances (see examples given above); and some words have double forms that either preserve an archaic state with $Stress\ I$ or show $Stress\ II$ innovations: *údz-gāmam- ($Stress\ I$)

¹¹⁷ *Proto-Sogdic as a reconstructed language can be interpreted as a development stage of a North Eastern Iranian language just in a period when *Stress II* operated, but the features caused by effects of *Stress II* are different for the development of *Proto-Sogdian and *Proto-Yaghnōbī.

'absolutely, ever' > *uz- $\gamma \acute{a}mam$ (Stress II) > * $\check{u}z$ - $\gamma \acute{a}mu$ > Sogd. s $wz\gamma^2 m$, $^2wz\gamma^2 m$ / w - $^2wz\gamma \acute{a}m$ / (Stress I) × s c $z\gamma^2 m$ /(3) $z\gamma \acute{a}m$ / (Stress II) (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1989b, 182).

The vowel loss is related to an Umlaut of stressed root vowels. Operation of i-Umlaut causes palatalization of a stressed vowel or diphthong after loss of *i or *i. Outcomes of palatalization differ in Sogdian and Yaghnōbī – in Sogdian there are palatalized vowels and diphthong $*\check{a}$, *u, $*\check{a}u$, in Yaghnōbī there is attested palatalization of $*\check{a}$ and *u: Sogd. S $\beta(y)z-y$, $\beta(y)z-y$, M $\beta(y)j-y$, $\beta(y)j-y$

The issue of syllabic structure transformation in Sogdian and Yaghnōbī will be thoroughly discussed in Chapter II.1.9., now we need to outline only the basic features of Sogdian and Yaghnōbī syllable – due to loss of unstressed vowels consonant clusters emerged, in later stages of the language consonant clusters were not allowed in word-initial positions – the clusters have been reanalysed by prothesis (in Sogdian there are reconstructed two prothetic vowels ³ and ⁴), or epenthesis (in Yaghnōbī a, ⁴, ⁴); an anaptyctic vowel appeared in Yaghnōbī in several word-final positions if the word ended in *xm, *xn, *\beta n, *\sim, *(x)\sin, *\sin, *fr and *zm: r\u00e1x\sin in \text{ 'dawn'} < *r\u00e1\u00e4\u00e4na-; w\u00e4\u00efra-; w\u00e4xin \text{ 'blood'} < *\u00e4\u00e4\u00e4nuni-; \u00e4zin \u00e4 \u00e4 \u00e4\u00e4nuni-\u00e4 \u00e4 \u00e4\u00e4 \u00e4 \u00e4\u00e4 \u00e4 \u00e4\u00e4 \u00e4 \u00e4 \u00e4\u00e4 \u00e4 \u00e4 \u00e4 \u00e4 \u00e4 \u00e4\u00e4 \u00e4 \

II.1.1.3. Stress III and the Sogdian Rhythmic Law

The last of significant stress shifts in the languages derived from *Proto-Sogdic is Stress III – this change took place in (literary) Sogdian, where it is generally known as the Sogdian Rhythmic Law; the Stress III has not developed in Yaghnōbī and probably it did not operate in the Sogdian dialect of Zhetisu, its impact can be excluded less likely in the Sogdian dialects of Bukhārā and Ustrōshana. Together with the operation of Stress III the morphology of Sogdian words was completely rebuilt – stress shifted on the first possible rhythmically long syllable. A long syllable was defined as a syllable containing either a long vowel or a diphthong in a closed syllable. Together with the operation of the Rhythmic Law transformation the loss of unstressed endings took place. If a word contained no rhythmically long syllable, stress shifted to the ending, which under these circumstances remained. According to the position of stress either on the root or on the ending, Sogdian words split into two groups: in the so-called heavy and light stems.

The *Proto-Sogdian endings of the *beavy stems* were reduced or lost due to the stress shift; the *light stems* when compared to the *beavy stems* are richer in morphology – in the *light stems* the original endings were retained as they bore stress. The difference between the *light* and *beavy stems* can be demonstrated in the following examples (all forms are in nominative singular): M $\beta^2\gamma$ C $b^2\gamma$ / $\beta\bar{a}\gamma$ / < * $\beta\acute{a}\gamma$ i < * $b\acute{a}gah$ 'garden' × S B M $\beta\gamma$ -y C $b\gamma$ -y / β - γ i/ < * $\beta\acute{a}\gamma$ i < * $b\acute{a}gah$ 'god'; BS $mr\gamma h$ S M C $mr\gamma$ /mai γ / < * $m\acute{a}r\gamma$ i < * $m\acute{a}r\gamma$ i < * $m\acute{a}rgah$ 'forest, meadow' × B $^2mr\gamma$ -y / 3 m(\mathfrak{d}^r) γ i/ S B M $mr\gamma$ -y / $\mathfrak{m}\mathfrak{d}^r\gamma$ i/ < * $m\acute{r}\gamma$ i/ < * $m\acute{r}gah$ 'bird'. Apart from the transformation of endings in forms of the *beavy stems* also other transformations occurred – mainly * \bar{u} and * $\bar{\iota}$ were shortened in unstressed positions > \bar{u} , $\bar{\iota}$; rarely also * \bar{a} has been shortened to \bar{a} : Sogd. S $^{22}m^2t^2\gamma$ B $^{22}m^2t$ (?)k M $^{22}m^2t\gamma$ y C $^2m^2t\gamma$, 2mit y / 2mat e/ < \bar{a} - 2mit y / 2mat e/ < \bar{a} - 2mit ta- 2

As I have mentioned above, the rhythmically long syllable was every syllable containing rhythmically long vowel – i.e. either a quantitatively long vowel, or a vowel as the first part of a diphthong¹¹⁸ in a closed syllable, or a vowel followed by a labialized velar (uvular) fricative x° ; other syllables are considered as rhythmically short (i.e. vowels followed by clusters mt, ny, my, tkw/tk^{w} , $x\check{s}n$, and rw). However, if there was a *light stem* word terminating either in -y, -w, -r or a nasal supplemented by an ending beginning with a stop or an affricate, the *light stem* changed to a *heavy stem* (this feature can be observed mainly with verbs), e.g.: Sogd. B M $\sqrt{\beta}r$ - C $\sqrt{b}r$ - $\sqrt{\beta}$ - π - 'to bear, to carry': β - π - π - 'I] bear (f^{st} pers. gg. pres.)' $\times \beta$ - π - π - '(s) he] bears (g^{rd} pers. gg. pres.)'; Sogd. S B M C \sqrt{s} - π - ' π - 'to go': g- π - π - 'II] go (g- π - g- π - g- π - 'g- π - 'g- π - 'g- π - 'y- π

¹¹⁸ Apart from the "inherited" falling diphthongs terminating in $-\dot{i}$ and $-\dot{u}$ also vowels followed by $-\dot{r}$ and $-\dot{m}$ were classified as diphthongs, and in such case it is necessary to say that \dot{r} and \dot{m} had to be followed by a stop or a fricative (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1984, 206, 209-212).

¹¹⁹ By analogy also Sogd. βərtí.

II.1.1.4. Stress IV

According to analysis of late Sogdian texts/words written in the Brāhmī script it can be supposed that after the operation of Stress III another stress shift (Stress IV) took place in Sogdian – in this case the stress shifted to the ultimate syllable. The position of *Stress IV* can be seen in the graphic representation of phonemes \check{e} and \check{o} versus \check{i} and \check{u} in the Brāhmī script: the graphemes <e> and <o> were used only in the last (i.e. stressed) syllable of a polysyllabic word, in monosyllabic words or in proclitics; the graphemes <i> and <u> appear instead of (etymologically) expected \bar{e} , \bar{o} in another than the last (i.e. unstressed) syllable of a polysyllabic word or in enclitics. The main evidence for the shift towards the Stress IV comes from the documents in the Brāhmī script, and some indications can also be seen in some vocalized Christian Sogdian texts in the Syriac script (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1996a, 312-313). It is possible that there was a transitional stage between operation of Stress III and Stress IV, when stress shifted from the first rhythmically long syllable towards the last possible rhythmically long syllable - Nicolas Sims-Williams states that according to the analysis of the Sogdian texts written in the Brāhmī script it will be necessary to revise the Sogdian Rhythmic Law (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1996a, 312). Elio Provasi analysed the metre of Sogdian verses in a Sogdian translation of the Middle Persian hymn cycle Huyadagmān, and he supposed that in a heavy stem word with two rhythmically long syllables the stress shifted towards the last rhythmically long syllable (PROVASI 2009, 351-353), which seems to be inconsistent with the definition of the Sogdian Rhythmic Law according to Nicolas Sims-Williams.

As is evident from the Sogdian documents written in the Brāhmī script, the shift from $Stress\ III$ towards $Stress\ IV$ was not only a stress shift but also a cause of sound system changes in late Sogdian – after the operation of $Stress\ IV$ the sounds \check{e} and \check{o} could not remain in an unstressed position and so they have been changed to \check{i} and \check{u} respectively. Unfortunately, in the "Sogdian variety" of the Brāhmī script (originating in the Central Asian variety of Brāhmī as it has been used for Old Uyghur; SIMS-WILLIAMS 1966a, 309) the quantity of the vowels \check{e} , \check{i} , \check{o} and \check{u} was not distinguished, therefore it cannot be assessed whether the shift towards $Stress\ IV$ was related to the change of quality of \check{e} and \check{o} witch probably also changed in their quantity. Examples of the $Stress\ IV$ can be shown in the following examples: Sogd. Br $ine\ C\ ^2yny\ /\tilde{i}n\dot{\bar{e}}/\ (x\ s\ ^2yny,\ ^2yn^2k\ M\ ^yny(y),\ ^2yny(y)\ C\ ^2yny\ /\dot{\bar{e}}n\dot{\bar{e}}/\)$ 'this' $<\ ^*a\dot{i}na-ka-\ [Ved.\ ena-,\ Pahl.\ \bar{e}n,\ Pers.\ \bar{i}n]$; Sogd. Br $z\bar{a}\ ua\ rkem\ /z\bar{a}wa\dot{r}k\dot{\bar{e}}n/\)$ 'strong'; or enclitics: Sogd. Br $ni-st\ /n\bar{i}st/\ (x\ s\ B\ nyst(y)\ M\ ny(y)st(t)\ C\ nyst(y)\ nyst,\ nyst,\ nst\ /n\bar{e}st(i)/\)$ '[(s)he/it] is not' $<\ ^*nai(d)-\dot{a}sti\ [Yagh.\ n\bar{e}st,\ Pers.\ n\bar{e}st]\ a\ Sogd.\ Br\ wu-t\ /\beta\bar{u}t/\ (x\ s\ B\ M\ \betawt\ C\ bwt\ /\beta\bar{o}t/\)$ '[(s)he] is' $<\ b\dot{u}\dot{u}a-ti\ [Pers.\ buv\dot{u}d$].

_

In the documents appear primarily vocalic signs $\langle y, \times \rangle$ and $\langle y \rangle$, i.e. \check{e} and \check{i} , vocalization of \check{o} $\langle \dot{w} \rangle$ and \check{u} $\langle \dot{w} \rangle$ have been used rarely (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1981a, 356; 1996, 307).

II.1.2. Vowels and diphthongs

The original Old Iranian system of seven vowels (*a, *i, *u, *r, *ā, *ī, *ū) and four diphthongs (*ai, *au, *āi, *āu) has considerably changed in course of the development of Sogdian and Yaghnōbī. In Sogdian there can be reconstructed 17 (or even 19) vowels (a, ə, ə^r [ə], e, i, i^r [i], i^{121} , o, u, u^r [u], \bar{a} , \bar{e} , \bar{i} , \bar{o} , \bar{u} , \dot{m}^{122} , \dot{r}^{123} ; eventually $\check{s}/^*$ [\check{s}] and a [\bar{a}]), two super-short prothetic vowels (*, *) and eight diphthongs (ai, au, āi, āu, ēu, \bar{e} u, \bar{e} u, \bar{u} i, \bar{u} i, \bar{u} i, \bar{e} i, \bar{u} in, \bar{e} i, \bar{e} in, \bar{u} ir, \bar{u} in, \bar{e} ir, \bar{e} in, \bar{u} ir, \bar{u} in, \bar{e} ir, \bar{e} in, \bar{u} ir, \bar{e} in, \bar{u} ir, \bar{e} in, \bar{u} ir, \bar{e} in, \bar{e} ir, \bar{e} in, \bar{u} ir, \bar{e} in, \bar{e} ir, \bar{e} in, \bar{u} ir, \bar{e} in, \bar{e} ir, \bar{e} in, \bar{u} ir, \bar{e} in, \bar{u} ir, \bar{u} in). In Yaghnōbī the situation corresponds more to the Middle Iranian stage: in every dialect there are eight (nine) vowels (a¹²⁶, i, u, ē, ī, ō, ū, furthermore \bar{u} in the Western dialect, and in the Eastern dialect \bar{e} ; peripheral sound is \bar{a}), two super-short svarabhakti vowels (i, u) and one true diphthong (ai, in the Eastern dialect it is pronounced \bar{e} , in the transitional dialect there is \hat{e}^i [\bar{e}^i .]) and three newly built diphthongs (au, \bar{e} u, \bar{o} u).

*Proto-Sogdic vowel system developed differently in these two languages, the most significant difference was mainly Sogdian reduction of all historical short vowels in unstressed position (i.e. *a, *i, *u > a or i), in Yaghnōbī the historical short vowels were also reduced in unstressed positions, but not to such extent as in Sogdian (In Sogdian the unstressed short vowels were neutralized, in Yaghnōbī the reduction resulted in emergence of super-short vowels in an open syllable preceding a stressed syllable).

Vowel system of Sogdian needs to be based mainly on the study of historical phonology – as mentioned above, Sogdian was written in alphabets derived from Aramaic which was not able to sign vowels properly and thus their appearance have to be reconstructed – as a valuable source here serve s few documents written in the Brāhmī script and several vocalized Christian texts in the Syriac script, on their basis we can evaluate the reconstructed data (see Table 34). Analysis of Sogdian phonology has been studied by Nicolas Sims-Williams, basic outline of Sogdian vowel system can be found in his basic outline of Sogdian grammar (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1989b,

The vowel i is interchangeable with ∂ (in majority of occurrences they are allophones; the exception is i (i ??) as a reflex of palatalized *iau).

¹²² Sound marked as \dot{m} is a vocalic nasal prolongation of preceding vowel appearing as the second part of a diphthong, its realisation changed according to the pronunciation of preceding vowel e.g.: $a\dot{m}$ [a\tilde{u} ~ a\tilde{a}] (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1989b, 181).

The sound represented as \dot{r} is something like syllabic r as second parts of a diphthong, it was realized as rhotacized vowel ∂^r , in this case the rhotacized vowel was non-syllabic $\left[\frac{1}{2}\right]$ (or $\left[\frac{1}{2}\right]$), e.g. $a\dot{r}$ $\left[a\dot{\varphi}^r \sim a\dot{\varphi} \sim ar\right]$ (cf. SIMS-WILLIAMS 1989b, 181).

Or probably monophthong \ddot{u} (cf. SIMS-WILLIAMS 1989b, 181).

With positional allophone \hat{a} i.e. half-long a [$a \cdot \alpha \cdot$].

175-181), in the paper *The Sogdian sound-system and the origin of the Uyghur script* (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1981a) he compared spelling in the Sogdian script with sound system of Old Uyghur and in the paper *The Sogdian manuscripts in Brāhmī script as evidence for Sogdian phonology* (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1996a) he evaluated Sogdian phonology with the help of Sogdian glosses in the Brāhmī script. Other studies of Sogdian phonology can be found in following works: GMS §82-483; GAUTHIOT – BENVENISTE 1914-1923; LIVSHITS – KHROMOV 1981, 373-416; QARĪB 1383, xxix-xxxii.

vowel	Sogdian alphabet	Manichaean alphabet	Syriac alphabet	Brāhmī script
а	??-, -(?)-, -?(h), -h, -(?)k(h)	?-, -(?)-, -?(-), -(?) <u>b</u>	²-, ½-, -(²)-, -ẋ-, -²(-), -;, (-h)	a, -a, -ā
ā	??-, -?(?)-, -(?)h, -(?)k(h), -?(?)	??-, -?-, -?(?), -(?) <u>b</u>	?-, ^ÿ / ^ż -, -(²)-, - ^ÿ / ^ż -, -ÿ/×-, -², - ^ÿ / ^ż , (-h)	ā
д	²-, -ø-, -y-, -(w)-	²-, -ø-, -y-, -(w)-	²-, ː²-, -(ẋ)-, -y-, -(w)-	
i	²y-, -(y)-	² y-, ⁵ (y)-, -(y)-, - ⁵ (y)-	²y-, ²y-, -y(-), -y(-)	a, -ø-
<i>i</i> <i>ī</i>	²y-, -(²)y(-)	<i>²y−</i> ,	²y-, ²y-, -y(-), -y(-)	i, -i, -ä
e ē	²y-, -(²)y(-), -(²)k	⁵ y-, -(²)y(-), -y(y)(-)	²y-, ²y-, -y(-),-y(-), -×-	e, i
u ū	²w-, -(²)w(-)	2 ()()	²w-, ²w-, -w(-), -w(-)	и
o ō	²w-, -(²)w(-), -(²)kw	^{2}w -, $^{-}w(w)(-)$	²w-, ²w-, -w(-), -w(-)	o, u
āį	²² y-, - ² (²)y(-)	^{>>} y-, - ^{>} (^{>})y(-)	² y-, -(²)y(-)	ai, āy
āų	[?] ?w-, -²(²)w(-)	^{??} w-, - [?] (²)w(-)	²w-, -(²)w(-)	аи
iji ijĕ	('')wy-, (-)w(y)- (-)w('')y-, (-)w(y)-	(-)w(y)-	(-)w(y)-	і уи(е), це, ve
∂^r	(²)r-, -r-	(²)r-, -r-	(²)r-, -r-	ar, r
i^r	-yr-	-yr-	-yr-	
u^r	-wr-	-wr-	-wr-	
ŕ	r	r	r	r, <u>r</u>
ṁ	m, n	m, n(n)	m, n	m, m, n, n

Table 34 Spelling of vowels in the Sogdian, Manichaean nad Syriac alphabets and in the Brāhmī script.

By comparison of Sogdian documents in the Sogdian, Manichaean and Syriac alphabets along with a few fragments in the Brāhmī script and with use of methods of historical linguistics it is possible to reconstruct the Sogdian vowel system. Another important source, which can be used to validate values of reconstructed vowels, are Sogdian words shared with Yaghnōbī, moreover the data can be compared also with Sogdian loanwords in some other languages, especially in Persian (primarily in Tājīkī Persian and in Tajik dialects), in Old Uyghur (and also in other Turkic languages – some Sogdian words have been recorded for example by Maḥmūd bin Ḥusayn bin Muḥammad al-Kāshgharī).

Nicolas Sims-Williams in his study *The Sogdian sound-system and the origin of the Uyghur script* compared the Sogdian alphabet (with regard to the Manichaean and Syriac alphabets) with the so-called Uyghur script, which originates from cursive version of the Sogdian script. The

speakers of Old Uyghur adopted the already established Sogdian alphabet to record their language, however, they simplified its (in many aspects archaic) orthographical rules (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1981a; on the contrary the Old Uyghur variety of the Brāhmī script was taken over by the Sogdians from the Uyghurs, see SIMS-WILLIAMS 1996a, 309). Since Old Uyghur vowel system can be quite easily reconstructed by comparation with other Turkic languages, in the following lines I will summarize a short outline of the Old Uyghur vowel system as compared to Sogdian. Old Uyghur had nine vowels: $a^*[v]$, $\ddot{a}^*[x] \sim \dot{e}^*[e]$, $\ddot{i}^*[u]$, i, o, \ddot{o} , u, \ddot{u} – there were four pairs of front/back vowels in mutual opposition and moreover vowel \dot{e} , which was a positional allophone of \ddot{a} ; question of quantity of Old Uyghur vowels is unclear, in *Proto-Turkic there are reconstructed also long counterparts of the above mentioned Old Uyghur vowels, reflexes of *Proto-Turkic quantity have remained in languages such as Turkmen or Khalaj (cf. RÓNA-TAS 1998, 69-71). For graphic representation of Old Uyghur vowels Sogdian spelling rules were adopted: OUygh. a has been written $\langle ??-, -?(-) \rangle$ i.e. same as Sogd. \bar{a} ; OUygh. $\ddot{a} < \stackrel{?}{\sim}$, $-\emptyset$ -, $-\stackrel{?}{\sim}$ = Sogd. a, a; OUygh. \dot{e} , \dot{i} , \dot{i} < \dot{i} > -y(-)> = Sogd. \ddot{e} , \ddot{i} , \dot{i} ; OUygh. a $u < w^-, -w(-) > = \text{Sogd. } \bar{o}, \; \bar{u}; \; \text{OUygh. } \bar{o}, \; \bar{u} < wy^-, -wy(-) \; / \text{in the first syllable of a word/, } -w(-) \; / \text{in}$ other then the first syllable of the word/> = Sogd. ii (ii), iie. Apart from the above mentioned spelling rules for vowels, the Old Uyghur spelling took over some Sogdian orthographical conventions, mainly spelling of word-initial a as $<^2->$ prior to a nasal and r; on the other side Old Uyghur took over neither the archaic writing of $-\bar{a}$ and $-\bar{e}$ by the letter $k\bar{a}\bar{p}$, nor spelling of -ā with the letter hē (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1981a). To precise the reading of the Old Uyghur alphabet (traditional) Mongolian alphabet can help as it has been adopted from the ancient Uyghurs (see excursion 5).

By combination of the methods of historical and comparative linguistics with the study of Sogdian orthographies in the Aramaic-derived scripts and in the Brāhmī script together with comparation of the material with Old Uyghur documents and with a study of Sogdian loans (i.e. study of the Sogdian loans in neighbouring languages and also study of Sogdian borrowings from other languages such as Sanskrit and Prakrits, Pahlavī, Turkic or Chinese) basic patterns of the Sogdian vowel system can be reconstructed. None of the graphic systems utilized for writing Sogdian for example does not mark vowel quality (with an exception of $a \times \bar{a}$, in this case, as will be seen later, the difference between those two sounds was not in quality but in quantity), but due to operation of Stress III it can be supposed that long $\bar{\imath}$ and \bar{u} have been preserved only in stressed positions: Sogd. M δwr /δūr/ 'far' < *dūra-, Sogd. B √γr²γn C √xrγn /\xr\tan / 'to buy' < $xr\tilde{n}a$ -; otherwise the historical long \tilde{t}, \tilde{u} was shortened in unstressed positions, similarly in Yaghnōbī there is no \bar{i} and \bar{u} in other than stressed position, so Yaghnōbī and Sogdian development are comparable in this case. More complicated is a situation of Sogdian \bar{e} and \bar{o} , we can state with certainty that their long varieties occurred in stressed positions, but according to etymology there is attested also \check{e} and \check{o} in unstressed positions (in majority of cases in endings of masculine aka-stems; e.g. Sogd. zátě < *dzáta-ka- 'son'). No texts in the Brāhmī script can help to solve problem of quality of unstressed \bar{e} , \bar{o} , but according to the

Brāhmī documents in a late ("Post-Classical") Sogdian it can be surmised that in the Late Sogdian language vowel quantity was not as important as vowel quality, as can be demonstrated on some examples in the vocalized Syriac texts: Sogd. c ²yny, Br ine / ine/ < Sogd. s ²yny, ²yn²k m ²yny(y), ²yny(y) c ²yny, /ene/ 'this' < *áina-ka- – in this case stress just shifted towards the last syllable, but neither Syriac vocalization nor Brāhmī vowels show vowel quantity. The problem of word-final -ĕ and -ā was commented by Walter Bruno Henning in his study Sogdian Loan-Words in New Persian – all the Sogdian ākā-stem endings are rendered as -a in Persian (HENNING 1939, 98), i.e. consistently with development of the ākā-stems in Persian (OPers. -ā-kā- > Pahl. -ag > Pers. Tjk. AfghP. -a, Fārs. -e (-ä)), and thus Henning suggests that the Sogdian unstressed word-final -e and -a were realized as short vowels (ibid.).

Much more evident is the difference between a and \bar{a} – both vowels differed not only quantitatively but also qualitatively: a was a front open short vowel, while \bar{a} was a back open (rounded) vowel similar to Modern Persian and Darī \bar{d} or to long \hat{a} in Scandinavian languages; different quantity of a and \bar{a} can be presumed also from the adoption of the Sogdian script for Old Uyghur. The North Turkestan Brāhmī script did not distinguish in quantity of e, i, o, u but retained distinction between a and \bar{a} , and similarly vowel diacritics in the Syriac script express rather vowel quality then quantity (i.e. a, \bar{a} , \bar{e} , \bar{i} , \bar{o} , \bar{u}) – it can be assumed that both Brāhmī letters a- $k\bar{a}$ ra and \bar{a} - $k\bar{a}$ ra as well as Syriac $\sqrt[3]{x}$ and Manichaean and Sogdian $\sqrt[2-]{-o}(-)$ and $\sqrt[2-]{-2}(-)$ primarily did not distinguish vowel quantity but vowel quantity $\sqrt[127]{c}$ (cf. SIMS-WILLIAMS 1981a, 355–358; SIMS-WILLIAMS 1996a, 310–311). Just the difference in quality of a and a motivated adoption of spelling of a and a in Old Uyghur – Sogd. a (and its allophone a) and OUygh. a were front vowels, whilst Sogd. a and OUygh. a were both back vowels (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1981a, 358).

After the operation of the *Stress III* (as a phonological feature) Sogdian morphology and phonology underwent other changes labelled as the Sogdian *Rhythmic Law*. From the phonological point of view the *Rhythmic Law* can be characterized by a change of syllabic structure (this feature will be discussed in chapter II.1.9.) and by a split of vocalic system according to their rhythmic length to short (reduced) and (rhythmically) long (i.e. long vowels and diphthongs) vowels – according to the syllabic weight the Sogdian words distinguished rhythmically *light* and *heavy stems*. Words with initial unstressed syllables could start only in reduced vowels \bar{a} , \bar{i} or \bar{a}^r ; words beginning in vowels \bar{a} , \bar{a} , \bar{i} , \bar{i} , \bar{e} , \bar{e} , \bar{o} , \bar{u} and \bar{u} belonged to the *heavy stems* as they always bore stress. Word-internally the situation is similar, but the vowels \bar{a} , \bar{i} , \bar{o} , \bar{u} can stand also in an unstressed position without being considered rhythmically long (i.e. that in such change they do need not to be the first part of a diphthong) – the vowels \bar{a} , \bar{i} and \bar{u} are shortened varieties of originally long * \bar{a} , * \bar{i} and * \bar{u} ; the vowel \bar{o} comes either from a

¹²⁷ A similar difference in vowel quality can be observed in continuants of Iranian vowels *a, * \bar{a} in other Iranian languages: Fārs. \ddot{a} (**a) [α] × \bar{a} [α]; Tjk. α [a] × \bar{a} (o:*], Yagh. α [a] × \bar{a} (o:*a) [α], Os. α (**a) [α] × a (**a) [α]; Pasht. α [a] × \bar{a} [α] etc.

diphthong *au prior to *xm, * $x\check{s}(u)$ or from labialization of *a in front of * x^u or *Cu. From all the (historically) long vowels only \bar{a} can appear also in an unstressed position.

In Sogdian there were probably two reduced vowels ∂ and ∂ both originating in *Proto-Sogdic short unstressed vowels *a, *i and *u. In the Aramaic-derived alphabets these vowels were usually unmarked, rarely they were written by the letter yud. Both vowels can be considered as allophones of the Schwa sound (∂), I will use the letter ∂ in Sogdian words where ∂ is written with the letter ∂ in Moreover the vowel ∂ can originate in palatalization of * ∂ in the Sogdian word s ∂ in ∂

In Sogdian there was at least one rising diphthong – üĕ, which emerged either from diphthongs *ui and *uăi or as a result of palatalization of *ău or *ua (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1981a, 206-207; 1989b, 180; 1996a, 313-314). With less certainty, we can assume a second rising diphthong *iii* that emerged from palatalization of *u; Nicolas Sims-Williams interprets the result of palatalization of *u as \ddot{u} (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1989b, 181; however a development * $u\dot{i} > \ddot{u}\dot{i}$ can be expected rather than Sims-Williams' * $ui > u\tilde{e}$). Both diphthongs can be phonetically interpreted as follows: $\ddot{u} \breve{e} \left[\dot{y} e(:) \sim \dot{q} e(:) \right]$, $\ddot{u} \dot{i} \left[\dot{y} \dot{i} \sim \dot{q} \dot{i} \sim \dot{q} \dot{i} \right]^{128}$. In the presented work I will interpret the result of development of ui and palatalization of ui as ui (although the development outlined by Nicolas Sims-Williams can be seen as an alternative), e.g. Sogd. B √ywys /√xüis/ (according to Sims-Williams /√xüĕs/) 'to sweat' < *huisa-; Sogd. s wyzp- в wzp- м wjp- c ²wžb-² /ụižbá/ (according to Sims-Williams /üžbá/) < *úbjįā 'terror' (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1989b, 181). One of the reasons for $\ddot{u}i$ instead of \ddot{u} is the spelling of this diphthong in the Aramaicderived alphabets, in which is spelled either as <wy> or <w>, just in the Syriac alphabet there is $<^{\gamma}$ w>, so it was rather a diphthong, when \ddot{u} has been marked by the letter waw but the letter yud for i has been used inconsistently (similarly as on other occasions). On the contrary, later pronunciation of the diphthong $\ddot{u}i$ was spelled with i- $k\bar{a}ra$ in the Brāhmī script, this probably means delabialization of either $\ddot{u}i$ or \ddot{u} (delabialization is evident from some younger Sogdian texts): Sogd. Br icā-t /ičāt < ÿižčyāt/ 'comfortable' (cf. SIMS-WILLIAMS 1996a, 308; SIMS-WILLIAMS – HAMILTON 1990, 42-43). It can be supposed that the diphthong \(\vec{u}\vec{e}\) was later monophthongized into a back vowel (Sims-Williams presumes ō; SIMS-WILLIAMS 1981a, 207) – such change is attested in Manichaean and Syriac orthographies written as waw (but its diphthongal character remained in the Brāhmī documents).

_

Even [yə ~ yə ~ yə] if the sounds $\it o$ and $\it i$ were allophones in this case.

Nicolas Sims-Williams postulates one more diphthong: ἔμ. This diphthong is reconstructed according to Brāhmī spelling of two words: Sogd. Br yau /ȳἔμ/ 'one' and (from the previous word derived) Sogd. Br prau /pərḗu/ '(together) with'. In the Aramaic-derived alphabets there are different forms of spelling of those words: 'one' – Sogd. s B ²yw M ²yw, 'yw C yw, yw; Yagh. ī; and '(together) with' – Sogd. s pr²(y)w B pr²(y)w, pryw M pryw C prw (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1996a, 313). However, it is possible that Brāhmī <au> was not read as /ἔμ/ but as /aμ/ or /ɔੱμ/ – according to vocalized record in the Syriac script: Sogd. C yw²²²² /yŏ ~ yɔੱμ/: Sogd. Br prau, yau /pərau ~ pərɔ̆u, yau ~ yɔ̆u/ (cf. SIMS-WILLIAMS 1996a, 313). In this thesis I will tend to mark pronunciation of Brāhmī au-kāra as /ĕμ/, even though according to the spelling in the Semitic-derived alphabets it is possible to read these words as /(y)ĕμ ~ yɔ̆u/ and /pərḗu ~ pərɔ̈́u ~ pərä́u/.

	[a]	basic pronunciation of the phoneme	pad
a	[æ]	allophonous pronunciation after a "palatal" consonant, mainly in the word jax	jax
	[a]	allophonous variety in vicinity of an uvular	xar
â	[a·]	half-long vowel, only in the word vânt	vânt
a	[a·]	half-long vowel, only in the word $\gamma \hat{a}r$	γâr
ā	[a:]	result of compensatory lengthening in case of loss of ε , h or h after a before a consonant	tārī́x < taşrī́x, kādə́n < kahdə́n, jām < jamş
e	[e·]	half-long variety, in native words or in Tajik loans it originates from $*i$ prior to \wp , h and h in a closed syllable; pronunciation of e in Russian loans	mehmḗn, abéd
ē	[e:]	basic pronunciation of the phoneme, in inherited words it appears only in a stressed position	pēn, sēb
	[i:]	in vicinity of š, ž or a nasal	šēr, mēţ
ē ĉ ^į a <u>i</u>	[ɛː] [ɛi̯·] [ai̯]	pronunciation of historical diphthong $*\widehat{ai}$ is preserved as a diphthong in the Western dialect, In the Eastern dialect it is pronounced $\bar{\epsilon}$ (and often merges with $\bar{\epsilon}$); in the transitional dialect it is pronounced rather as half-long semi diphthong $\hat{\epsilon}^i$	mēn mê ⁱ n ma <u>i</u> n, wēš wê ⁱ š wa <u>i</u> š
	[I]	basic pronunciation of the phoneme	pit
	[ĭ]	super-short pronunciation (mainly in an open syllable before a stressed vowel) ¹³⁰	xišíft, tiráy; rū́γin
i	[i]	allophonous pronunciation either near to fricatives or in a closed syllable following a palatal k, \hat{g}	iš, ĝịrd, k̃íšak
	[e]	in unstressed position or in closed stressed syllable	tírak, amír, nížak, áxtit
	[e]	allophonous variety word-finally or before a pharyngeal or an uvular	mốrti, áwi, ix, díhak, qizíq
	[i:]	basic pronunciation of the phoneme	
ī	[e:]	allophonous pronunciation between stops	rīš, pīr, tīr
1	[ⁱ iː]	pronunciation after a stop	tīk, tīs
	[i̞:]	pronunciation after a fricative	fiĥ

¹²⁹ See SIMS-WILLIAMS 1996a, 313²⁷. It is possible that Sogd. c ýw was a scribal error or an abbreviation for *yww (?).

Super-short /i/ will be transcribed i, its pronunciation is consistent with an allophonous realizations of a non-reduced i: $[\check{i} - \check{i} - \check{e}]$.

0	[ɔ·]	half-long pronunciation of \bar{o} appearing only in Russian loans	folklór
ō	[3:]	basic pronunciation of the phoneme	Yáynōb, yaynōbī
	[o:]	in a closed stressed syllable or in front of a nasal	z ⁱ vók
	[ប:]	allophonous pronunciation in a closed stressed syllable	rōţ, d¹rṓţ
ē	[u:]	allophonous variety of \bar{o} in front of a nasal	nēm, mehmḗn
u	[ပှ]	basic pronunciation of the phoneme	buqqá
	[ŭ̞]	super-short pronunciation (mainly in a syllable in an open syllable before a stressed vowel) ¹³¹	s ^u túr, š ^u móx
	[ų]	allophonous pronunciation near to a fricative	šuft
	[o̞]	allophonous realization in closed syllable containing a stop	urk, kut, pul, kun
	[ʊ]	allophonous pronunciation of u , mainly before an uvular sound	uxš
ū	[u:]	sound that emerged from historical $*\bar{o}$ (and $*\bar{u}$), in the native words it appears only in a stressed syllable	rúpas < *rópas, rúγin, rúγan < *róγn
ū	[y:] [yiː]	allophonous pronunciation of historical $*\bar{u}$ in a stressed syllable – such pronunciation appears only in the Western dialect, in the Eastern and	kabū́d kabúd < *kabū́d, xūr xūir < *xūr
	- '	transitional dialects it merged with Yagh. $ar{u}$	

Table 35 Yaghnōbī vowel system (NOVÁK 2010, 220-221).

Yaghnōbī vowel system is considerably easier to interpret due to the fact that Yaghnōbī is a living language, but the situation is complicated by number of allophones of the basic vowels. Yaghnōbī vowel system is in contrary to the (reconstructed) Sogdian state much poorer, however Yaghnōbī gives an impression of a more archaic language than Sogdian. I do not want to discuss the phonology of Yaghnōbī vowels - this issue has been dealt with by Valentina Stepanovna SOKOLOVA (1953a), a shorter overview is outlined in the grammatical overview attached to the Yaghnōbī-Czech dictionary (NOVÁK 2010, 220-221 – see Table 35).

Yaghnōbī vowel system is practically the same as the vowel system of the Zarafshān dialects of Tajik (see excursion 3; NOVÁK [in print], Table 1, Table 2; NOVÁK 2009), it may be in a way influenced by a vowel system of literary and colloquial Tajik. The basic difference of Yaghnōbī and neighbouring dialects of Tajik (i.e. Zarafshān dialects of Mastchōh, Falghar and Fōn and Southern Tajik dialects of Varzōb) is pronunciation of short u – in Yaghnōbī (mainly in rapid speech) there is a tendency of front articulation of u^{132} (SOKOLOVA 1953a, 69; this feature can explain development of $*\dot{u} > \dot{\bar{u}}$), but neither in literal Tajik nor in its Varzōb dialect there has not been described such change. Yaghnōbī shares another feature with the neighbouring dialects of Tajik – rising of $(*\bar{a} >) \bar{o} > \bar{u}$ (in this work marked $<\bar{o}>$) in front of a nasal. Roland Bielmeier explained this change as a Tajik influence (BIELMEIER 2006 [online]; after him NOVÁK [in print]); similar change appears also in other Iranian languages and dialects - in the Zarafshān dialects (* $\bar{a} > \bar{o}_{m}, n$ } > \bar{u}), in Southern Tajik dialects (* $\bar{a} > \bar{o}_{m}, n$ } > $\bar{u} \sim \bar{u}$); in

¹³¹ Super-short /u/ is transcribed here as ^u, its allophonous pronunciation is similar to a non-reduced u: [ȳ ~ ū ~ ō ~

There is no tendency of fronted pronunciation of long \bar{u} (< $*\bar{o}$) – this feature can be explained as a result of the chain-shift $*\bar{a} > \bar{o} \mid *\bar{o} > \bar{u} \mid *\bar{u} > *\bar{u} > *\bar{u} \mid *u > \mu$.

Teh(e)rānī colloquial Persian (\bar{a}_{m} , n) > \bar{u}), in Herāt dialect of Afghan Darī (\bar{a}_{m} , n) > \bar{u} ; IOANNESYAN 1999, 21), in the Hazāra language (i.e. Persian dialect of descendants of Ğenghis Khān's Mongolian soldiers; $*\bar{a} > \bar{o}_{m}, n > \bar{u}$; EFIMOV 2008, 355), similarly in Tātī, dialects of Fars or in Yazdī (* \bar{a}_{m} , n} > u; GRYUNBERG – DAVYDOVA 1982, 224; KERIMOVA 1982, 319; MOLCHANOVA 2008, 253, 260), in Shughnī (* $\bar{a} > \bar{o} = \{m, n\} > \bar{u}$) etc., this feature is probably characteristic for development of the Western Iranian languages¹³³ with a partial projection into the Eastern Iranian language area. Other feature borrowed from Tajik is lowering of articulation of $\tilde{t} > \tilde{e}$ before tautosyllabic h, h a ε – this feature is typical for Tajik, but it rarely appears in Uzbek or in Shughnī; in Yaghnōbī this development is attested in one example - on the Yaghnōbī verb díhak 'to hit' - in forms of the third person singular and in the second person plural there are forms déhči || déhtišt respectively déhṣišt || déhṭišt (both examples are shown in the present tense), and forms of present and past participles déhna and déhta, in other cases there are forms with dib- (although in the contemporary language forms derived from the innovated root deh- by analogy begin to appear in all verbal forms; such feature cannot be shown in other Yaghnōbī examples because the sound h appears rarely in genuine Yaghnōbī words; NOVÁK [in print]); analogical feature is lowering of $\tilde{u} > u/u$ before h, h and ε in a closed syllable, which can be observed in Tajik (and Uzbek), but it is not directly demonstrable in Yaghnōbī – as mentioned above, the h sound is rare in Yaghnōbī (and the sounds h and ε appear only in Arabic loans), so such changes are observable only in Tajik loans in Yaghnōbī (in Yaghnōbī the results of \bar{u} lowering are the same as in the Zarafshān dialects; i.e. $\bar{u} > \bar{u}$ but does not change in > il/\ddot{u} in Zarafshān dialects or $> \bar{u}$ in Yaghnōbī). Peripheral vowel is long \bar{a} (or eventually \bar{o}), which is a result of compensatory lengthening of a before b, b, \dot{p} , \dot{p} in a closed syllable (e.g. $ba \varepsilon d > b\bar{a}d$ 'later'; $kahd\tilde{\theta n}>k\bar{a}d\tilde{\theta n}$ 'kod $\tilde{\theta n}$ 'mow, hayloft'; $Ya = q\tilde{u}b > Y\bar{a}q\tilde{u}b$ 'Ya $^{\varsigma}q\tilde{u}b$, Jacob'); similar development can be seen not only in neighbouring Tajik dialects but in other languages/dialects such as Teh(e)rānī colloquial Persian, Afghan Darī, Shughnī, Uzbek, Urdū etc.

*Proto-Yaghnōbī short vowels *a, *i and *u were reduced in an open syllable and they changed into super-short vowels i and u. These ultra-short vowels are also of svarabhakti origin as they were inserted to break word-initial consonant cluster (See chapter II.1.5.). As an epenthetic svarabhakti vowel may appear either super-short vowels i a u or short a (svarabhakti a mainly in the Eastern dialect, instead of svarabhakti a often there is i in the Western dialect). Super-short vowels i, u and short a thus may have twofold origin: 1) < *\vec{a}, *\vec{i}, *\vec{u}: #C_.C\(\dec{x}; \)2) < #C_C- < *#CC-. We can observe some regularities reduction of short vowels and epenthesis of svarabhakti vowels there — they can be better observed mainly in the Western Yaghnōbī: in majority of examples the super-short vowel is realized as i, e.g. *\vec{\varray} y \vec{a} a \cdot v \vec{v} y \vec{o} r a \cdot v \cdot v \vec{o} a \cdot v \vec{o} r \vec{a} t \cdot v \vec{o} r \vec{a} t \cdot v \vec{o} r \vec{o} t \vec{o} r \vec{o}

_

¹³³ There is no such change in Afghan Darī (KISELEVA 1985, 23¹⁴), same as in Kābulī Persian (DOROFEEVA 1960, 13).

tufốr (also tifốr; E tafốr, tufốr) 'four'; *nămắč > Yagh. w numốč (also nimốč; E namốč) 'prayer'. The super-short vowels emerged also in loan-words, e.g. Pers. bahắr > Yagh. buhốr 'spring(time)'; Arab. bahar > Pers. xahár > Yagh. xapár || xipár 'news, report'; Rus. muhýma > Yagh. munắt 'minute'; Rus. mpáκmoρ > Yagh. tiráktir 'tractor'. As for articulation of i and i it is qualitatively identical with their "non-reduced" varieties i, u, i.e. i can be realized as [$\tilde{i} \sim \tilde{i} \sim \tilde{e} \sim \tilde{e}$] and \tilde{u} [$\tilde{u}/\tilde{u} \sim \tilde{v}/\tilde{o} \sim \tilde{o}/\tilde{o}$]. Yaghnōbī super-short vowels are basically very similar to the super-short vowels \tilde{e} (< \tilde{a}), i and \tilde{u} in Zarafshān dialects (cf. Khromov 1958; Khromov 1962, 17-26; Khromov 1969, 306), and do not considerably differ from pronunciation of short vowels in an open unstressed syllable in Standard Tajik (Perry 2005, 15-22), the only exception is Yaghnōbī a, which does not reduce either in quality or in quantity, it remains stable regardless of stress position.

In contemporary Yaghnōbī (probably under influence of Tajik) distinction of opposition long \times short vowel gradually disappears which led to quantitative reform of the vowel system – historical long and short vowels in stressed position behave as long vowels, long or short vowels in closed syllable or historical long vowels in open syllable behave as short vowels; and short vowels in an unstressed open syllable are realized as super-short. Thus a new opposition comes to existence: from the historical opposition short \times long vowel there is super-short (reduced) \times short (non- reduced) \times long (stressed) vowel, while the difference in the quantity of the latter two is given only by the position of stress.

Development of Iranian vowels in Sogdian and in Yaghnōbī can be characterized as follows:

II.1.2.1. *a, *q

- i. (in a stressed position or as a part of a diphthong) > Sogd. a, Yagh. a: Sogd. B snk(²) M sng /sámg(š)/, Yagh. sánk(a) 'stone' < *atánga-(ka-), Ave. asənga-, OPers. aβanga-, Pers. sang;
- ii. (in an unstressed position) > Sogd. ε, Yagh. α: Sogd. s B M ²sp-y /əspí/, C (²)sp-y /(³)spí/, Yagh. asp 'horse' < *άτμα-, Ave. aspα-, OPers. asα-, Ved. áśvα-;
- iii. (in an unstressed position) > Sogd. ø, Yagh. ø: Sogd. в √pn²yš /√p³nḗš/, Yagh. p¹nḗš- ∥ p¹náįš- 'to lose' < Ir. *apa-nấtaịa-;
- iv. (word-initially in an unstressed position before a syllable containing *ĭ or *į) > Sogd. ĕ, Yagh. ē: Sogd. B zyrt(²)k M zyrtyh /zḗrtĕ/, Yagh. zḗrta 'yellow' < *dzárita-ka-, Ave. za¹rita-; Sogd. B √np²yð /√nəpḗð/, Yagh. n¹péd- 'to sleep' < *ni-pád(a)ia-, Ave. nipa¹ðiia-;
- v. (word-initially before *nk or *ng under influence of a following syllable containing *ĭ or *i) > Sogd. a, Yagh. i: Sogd. B ²nk²yr /ámgir/, Yagh. ínkir 'fireplace' < *ham-gária-;
- vi. (word-initially, mainly before a nasal or *s, *š or after *j) > Sogd. i ~ ∂, Yagh. a: Sogd. M √β(y)nd : √β(y)st- /√βiṁd : √βiṣt-/, Yagh. vant- : vásta 'to bind (pres. : past part.)' < *bánda- : *básta-(ka-), Pers. bastán : band-; Sogd. M √jyt- /√žit-/ 'to strike (past part.)' < *játa-, Pers. zadán : zan- (GMS §106-113);

- vii. (word-initially in an unstressed reduced syllable before a syllable containing $*\check{i}$ or $*\check{i}$) > Sogd. i, Yagh. i: Sogd. M $my\delta^2n$ C $myd(^2)n$ /miðán/, Yagh. $b^id\delta n$ 'middle' < *madiána-, Ave. $ma^i\delta ii\bar{a}na$ -;
- viii. (under effect of *i*-Umlaut before a syllable containing *aia > *ia) > Sogd. *i*, Yagh. *i*: Sogd. s $\sqrt[3]{zw^2yrt}$ B $\sqrt[3]{zw^2yrt}$ M $\sqrt[3]{zw^2yrt}$ C $\sqrt[3]{zwyrt}$ / $\sqrt[3]{zwirt}$, Yagh. z^iwirt 'to turn' < *udz-udrt(a)ia-;
- ix. (under effect of *u*-Umlaut) > Sogd. ŏ, Yagh. *a* (?): Sogd. AL š²tyxw s š²twy(w), š²txw B š²t²wy, š²twy(w), š²twx M š²twx C š²twx /šatŏx(°)/ 'happy' < *šatəx° < *šatə-axua-; Sogd. M fswx C fsx /f³sox/ 'parasang' < *fra-ta(n)xua-, Pers. farsax¹³⁴; Sogd. B kwf /kŏf/, Yagh. xaf 'foam' < *káfua-, Ave. kafa-;
- x. (before *rt, in verbal stems also before *rθ, *rč) > Sogd. a (> ā?), Yagh. ō: Sogd. B Mg mrty M mrtyy /mářtĭ/, Yagh. mốrti 'man' < *mártiia-, OPers. martiya-; Sogd. B srt /sařt/, Yagh. sōrt 'cold'; Sogd. s √βy(²)rt, √²βy²rt B √βy(²)rt M √βyrt C √byrt /√²βyářt/, Yagh. v¹yórta 'to find (past part.)' < *abi-ar-ta-(ka-);
- xi. (word-initially before * $n\{k, g, x, x^{u}\}$ under influence of a following syllable containing * \check{u} or * \check{u}) > Sogd. a, Yagh. u: Sogd. b *nkwšt m *ngwšt /amgwəšt/, Yagh. $unk\check{u}\check{s}\check{t}$ 'finger' < * $angu\check{s}\check{t}a$ -, Ave. $angu\check{s}\check{t}a$ -; Sogd. b * $n\gamma wsty$ /amx°əstĕ/, Yagh. $unk\check{u}\check{s}\check{t}$ * $angu\check{s}\check{t}a$ -;
- *xii.* (in vicinity of a labial sound) > Sogd. u, Yagh. u: Sogd. $/\sqrt{p^3}$ ufs-/, Yagh. $b^u du$ fs- 'to attach, to glue' < *upa-dufsa-;
- xiii. (result of metathesis) > Sogd. u, Yagh. u: Sogd. s wxwšw, wywšw, ²ywšw B wywšw, ²ywšw C xwšw /wəxšú, 'xwəsú/, Yagh. uxš 'six' < *xúšu < *x¼ášu < *xšųášam;
- xiv. *ah > Sogd. i (i), Yagh. i: Sogd. s B M 'sp-y /əspi/, C (')sp-y /(')spi/, Yagh. asp 'horse' < *átνμα-, Ave. aspα-; Sogd. B 'ym M 'ym /im/, Yagh. im '[I] am' < *áhmi, OAve. ahmī, OPers. ahmiy, Ved. ásmi; Sogd. ky /ki/, Yagh. ki 'which' < *kah, Ave. kō;
- xv. *ahia (in an unstressed position) > Sogd. $\bar{\imath}$ (\bar{e} ?), Yagh. i: Sogd. s $\gamma ntmy$ C $\gamma ntmy$ / $\gamma \acute{a} mid \rightarrow m\bar{\imath}$ /, Yagh. $\gamma \acute{a} mtuni$ (< $\gamma \acute{a} ntumi$) 'wheat (obl. sg. < gen. sg.)' < *g\acute{a} ntumahia (GMS §204);
- **xvi. **am (in an ending) > Sogd. u, Yagh. u/\bar{u}/\varphi: Sogd. B (?)pw M pw /\bar{9}pú/, Yagh. p\bar{u}! 'without' < **apám; Sogd. S B M \bar{2}zw C zw /(\varphi)zú/, Yagh. (arch.) az\bar{135} 'I' < **ádzam, Ave. az\varphi m, OPers. adam; Sogd. S wxwšw, wywšw, \bar{9}ywšw B wywšw, \bar{9}ywšw C xwšw /\bar{w}\varphi x\bar{w}\varphi x\bar{w}\v
- xvii. *an \Im > Sogd. \bar{a} , Yagh. \bar{o} : Sogd. B t^2r^2k /tarē/, Yagh. $t \bar{o} r a$ 'darkness' < * $t a \Im r a k a$ -, Ave. $t a \Im r a k a$ -, Pers. $t \bar{a} r \bar{i} k$;
- xviii. *(a)i̯ă (in an unstressed position) > Sogd. ī, Yagh. i: Sogd. B m²ny(h) C m²ny /mä́nī/ 'mind (loc. sg.)' < *mãni̯a < *mãnai̯ā;

¹³⁴ But cf. Sogd. B ²βs²nγ M f(n)s²x (and also c fsx) /²fsámx/ < fra-tánx(u)a-, Pers. fasráng, parsáng.

¹³⁵ See GAUTHIOT – BENVENISTE 1929, 108-109.

- xx. *ua (affected by i-Umlaut) > Sogd. uĕ (> ō), Yagh. i: Sogd. B ywyr C xwyr /xuĕr/ (later B ywr M xwr /xōr/), Yagh. xūr 'the sun' < *huária-;
- xxi. *uă (in an unstressed position) > Sogd. u, Yagh. u: Sogd. Mg ywt²rnk /xutárnĕ/, Yagh. xutánna 'water-mill' < *huat(a)-árana-ka-;
- (ad x.) Similar development can be seen in several Avestan examples, e.g. $v\bar{a}\space$ 'chariot' < *ulpharta-, $\Im\beta\bar{a}\space$ 'quickly' < * \Imulpha rta- or $b\bar{a}\space$ 'horseman' < *blpharta-; comparable can be also Pers. sal 'year' < OPers. \Ima rda- < *tarda- (MORGENSTIERNE 1973, 46)¹³⁶;

II.1.2.2. *ā, *ā

- i. (in majority of cases) > Sogd. ā, Yagh. ō: Sogd. s ²²ph B ²²p(h) M ²²p C ²p Br ā-p /āp/, Yagh. ōp 'water' < *āp-, Ave. āp-; Sogd. B M p'ð /pāð/, Yagh. pöda 'foot, leg' < *páda-(ka-), Ave. pāða-, OPers. pāda-; Sogd. s C z²y M z²y(y) /zāi/ 'earth', Yagh. zōy 'field' < *dzáia-;
- ii. (shortened when following a preceding long vowel) > Sogd. a, Yagh. a: Sogd. B M rwps
 /rops/, Yagh. rúpas 'fox' < *ráupăta-, Pers. rōbáh, Ved. lopāśá-;
- iii. (unstressed before *.iā) > Sogd. ə, Yagh. i: Sogd. B sy''k(h) M sy'k C sy'q /səyāk/, Yagh. s'yóka 'shadow' < *asāiā-kā-(ka-), Ave. asaiia-, Pahl. sāyag, Ved. cbāyā- (GMS § 123-124);
- iv. (before *.īā) > Sogd. a, Yagh. a: Sogd. s ðry Mg ðryw Β (²)ðry M ðry(y) C šy /³ṣ̌ai̯/, Yagh. saráy || t̞'ráy 'three' < *βrāija-; Ave. βrāijō, Pers. se;
- v. (before *.uặ) > Sogd. ə, Yagh. ?: Sogd. s nw²z μ n²wzyy (a scribal error?) /nəwaz(ĕ)/ 'sailor' < *nāuádza-(ka-), YAve. nauuāza-, Parth. nāwāz, Ved. nāvājá- (GMS § 123, 125);
- vi. (before a syllable containing $*\underline{i}$ or $*\overline{i}$) > Sogd. \bar{e} , Yagh. $\bar{e} \parallel a\underline{i}$: Sogd. B $wy\check{s}(h)$ /weš/, Yagh. $w\bar{e}\check{s} \parallel wa\underline{i}\check{s}$ 'grass' < $*\underline{u}\check{a}\check{s}tr\underline{i}a$ -, Ave. $v\bar{a}striia$ -; Yagh. $n\bar{e}s \parallel na\underline{i}s$ 'nose' < $*n\check{a}sn\underline{i}a$ -;
- vii. (in original causative stems before an ending *-(a)ia-) > Sogd. \bar{e} , Yagh. $\bar{e} \parallel ai$: Sogd. s C M \sqrt{syn} / \sqrt{sen} , Yagh. sen-1 sain- 'to ascend, to raise' < *tánaia-; Sogd. b $\sqrt{pn^2y}$ / $\sqrt{p^3ne}$, Yagh. p^ine *i0 for to lose' < Ir. *apa-nátaia-, (LIVSHITS KHROMOV 1981, 388);
- viii. (shortened/reduced) > Sogd. a / ə, Yagh. a: Sogd. M pšn²/pəšnā/ 'heel', Yagh. pášna 'heel of a shoe' < *pášna-ka- < *pášna-ka- 'heel', Ave. pāšna-, Pers. pāšná, Ved. pārṣṇi-; Sogd. s ²²m²t²y β ²²m²t(²)k M ²²m(²)tyy C ²m²ty, ²mity /āmātĕ/ < ā-māta-ka- 'ready';

.92.

Georg Morgenstierne quotes also comparable development in Eastern Norwegian: $g\bar{a}l$ 'yard' (Norwegian gar(d), Danish gard) < OScand. $gar\partial R$ (MORGENSTIERNE 1973, 46).

- ix. *(ă)hă (after loss of *h) > Sogd. ā, Yagh. ō: Sogd. B √ρtγw(²)y M √ρtxw²y C √ρtxw²y, √ρtwx²y /√ρ³tx°áy/, Yagh. tu²xoy- 'to kill' < *pati-xuāhaia-; Sogd. M xw²r /x°ār/, Yagh. xor 'sister' < *huahar-, Ave. xuanhar;
- x. *ām (in ā-stem obl. pl. ending) > Sogd. ŭ, Yagh. ?: Sogd. s wyšnw /wḗšənū/ 'they' < *auái̞šanām;
- xi. *μā (affected by i-Umlaut) > Sogd. μĕ, Yagh. ?: Sogd. B √γw²yr M C √xwyr Br √hyu(e)-r, √hye-r, √hve-r /√xμĕr/¹³7 'to feed' < *hμáraja-;

II.1.2.3. *i

- i. (in a stressed position or as a part of a diphthong) > Sogd. i, Yagh. i: Sogd. B ²yntk²w /imdku/ (< *imduk) 'Indian, Indic' < *hindu-ka-, OPers. hinduya-, Pahl. hindug, Pers. hindu;
- ii. (in an unstressed position) > Sogd. (y)∂/(y)i, Yagh. i: Sogd. s ²xš(²)yβt-y Br hṣa wdi /³xšiβquí/, Yagh. xištft 'milk' < *xšutfta-, Ave. xšuuipta-; Sogd. s √zyβ- B √zyβ-, √zyβ- M √jβ-/√žiβ-/ 'to chew', Yagh. živ- 'to sew, to stitch' < *žiba-; Sogd. B ršk-², ršk-h /rəšká/, Yagh. rišk 'nit' < *rtškā-, Pers. rišk, Oss. I bisk' D liskæ, Skt. likṣá- (GMS § 114);
- iii. (in an unstressed position) > Sogd. \emptyset , Yagh. \emptyset : Yagh. $\check{z}av\acute{a}r$ $||\check{z}^iv\acute{a}r$ 'to bring, to produce, to invent' $< *ni\check{\jmath} -b\acute{a}ra$ -;
- iv. *ĭi̞a > Sogd. ĭ, Yagh. ĭ: Sogd. s в м √βyr с √byr /√βīr/, Yagh. vīr- 'to find' < *abi-ar-; Sogd. в мд mrty м mrtyy /mártĭ/, Yagh. mőrti 'man' < *mártii̞a-, OPers. martiya-;
- v. * $i(\underline{i})i > \text{Sogd. } \bar{i}$, Yagh. \bar{i} : Sogd. B M tys / $\sqrt{\text{tis}}$, Yagh. $t\bar{i}s$ 'to enter' < *ati-ita-;
- vi. *ihi > Sogd. ī, Yagh. ī: Sogd. s B M √nyð C √nyd : s B M √nyst C √nyst /√nīð : √nīst/, Yagh. nīd- 'to sit' < *nihida-;
- vii. * $ui > \text{Sogd. } \ddot{u}i$, Yagh. ?: Sogd. B $\sqrt{\gamma}wys / \sqrt{x}\ddot{u}is/$ 'to sweat' < *huisa-, Ave. $x^v\bar{\iota}sa$ -;

(ad ii.) Reduction of unstressed Ir. *a, *i, *u and their merger to ρ (/i) show similar development in Munjī, where stressed or unstressed *i and unstressed *a, *u change to ρ, ἄ, ŭ and nowadays they all merge to Schwa: Munj. s(²)pɨyä 'louse' < *tuiśa-; Ave. špiš- Sogd. B špšh /špəšá/, Yagh. šupúš/šipúš; Munj. U yədgṓnə [rōy] 'the Yidghā language' < *hindŭ-ka-ka-; Sogd. B ²yntk²w, ²ynt²wk /imdku, imduk/ (cf. modern loans: Yagh. hundú 'Indian'; Munj. Ŭndūstắn 'India' < Pers. hindú/Hindūstán);

(ad iv.) The change *iia > Sogd. i, Yagh. i probably took place after lengthening of *a before *rt (see II.1.2.1.x.): Sogd. S B M \lor Byr C \lor byr $/\lor$ Bir/: S \lor By(?)rt, \lor 2By2rt B \lor By(?)rt M \lor Byrt C \lor byrt/ \lor 2Byárt/, Yagh. $v\bar{i}r$ -: * v^i y $\bar{o}rta$ 'to find (pres. stem: past part.)' < * (\bar{a}) Biy (\bar{a}) r-: * (\bar{a}) Biyárita(ka)- < *abi-ar-: *abi-ar-ta-(ka-); other explanation of different forms of the present stem and of past participle of the word *abi-ar- can be explained as difference in stress (in such case probably

.

¹³⁷ See Sogd. C √*xwyrd²rym* /√xǘë́r-Ӯārīm/ 'we have caused you to drink' (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1996a, 314).

Stress I, which remained on preverb in the present stem: $*abi-ar^{-138}$, but shifted towards the Stress II in the past participle: *abi-ar-ta->*abi-ar-ta-);

II.1.2.4. *ī

- i. > Sogd. ī, Yagh. ī: Sogd. B √γr²yn C √xryn /√xrīn/, Yagh. xirín- 'to buy' < *xrīna-, Ved. krīṇāti;
- ii. *-īm (in i-stem accusative ending ?) > Sogd. ĭ, Yagh. ?: Sogd. M xwrnyy /xo^rni/ 'blood (acc. sg.)' < *uáhu(r)nīm (GMS §350.iv);

II.1.2.5. *u

- i. (in a stressed position or as a part of a diphthong) > Sogd. u, Yagh. u: Sogd. B √nγ(²)wnt
 /√n∋γúṁd/, Yagh. n^uγúnt- 'to dress' < *ni-gúnda-;
- ii. (in an unstressed position) > Sogd. (w)ə/(w)ɨ, Yagh. u: Sogd. s γntm c γntm /γámdəm/, Yagh. γámtun (< γántum) 'wheat' < *gántuma-, Ave. gantuma-; Sogd. s ¬pyδr²k, ¬pδr B ¬pyδr²k, ¬pδr, ¬pšy M ¬pšy (as a part of compounds) /piṣ́(ē)/ 'son', Yagh. púl(l)a (?) 'boy, child; little, small' < *púðra-(ka-), OPers. puça-; Sogd. s B ²kwt-y M kwt-y, qwt-y /²kwəti/, Yagh. kut 'dog' < *kúti-, Os I kwы 3 D kuy (GMS § 119);
- iii. (in an unstressed position) > Sogd. ø, Yagh. ø: Sogd. s √²zw²yrt B √(²)zw²yrt M √zw²yrt C √zwyrt /√³zwirt/, Yagh. z¹wirt- 'to turn' < *uz-uartia- < *udz-uartaia-;
- iv. (reduced sound in an initial syllable) > Sogd.

 δ/i, Yagh. i: Sogd. s myδrh Mg myδr-y /mɨžá, mɨžé/ B mwz²kk /mužē/, Yagh. mírda 'bead, pearl' < *múδra-(ka-), Ved. mudrá-;
- v. (in a stressed position under effect of *i*-Umlaut) > Sogd. üɨ¹³⁹ (>(w)ɨ/(w)i), Yagh. *i*: Sogd. C √nyγwynṭ /√níγü̞ɨmd/ '[(s)he] dressed (ʒrd pers. sg. impf.)' < *ni-на-gúndai̞a-t, Khwār. /(ə)nγwind/; Sogd. B fr²²wyšcy м fr²wycyḥ /frāwɨ(š)či/, Yagh. farómič | f¹rómič / f²rómič 'obliviousness' < *frāmúšti-; s wyzp- в wzp- м wjp- c ²wžb-²/ü̞ɨżbá/ < *úbji̞ā 'terror';
- vi. *uua (following *x) > Sogd. ū, Yagh. ū: Sogd. Sogd. B γwr M xwr /xūr/, Yagh. xūr 'sun'
 < *huuár-, Ved. suvár-;
- vii. *hu- (followed by more than one consonant) > Sogd. u, Yagh. u: Sogd. s $M \sqrt{w}\beta t$ C $\sqrt{w}bd$ -, $\sqrt{w}ft$ / $\sqrt{u}\beta d$ -/, Yagh. úfta 'to sleep (past part.)' < *húfta-(ka-);

(ad ii.) Reduction of unstressed Ir. *u together with *a, *i and their merger to \mathfrak{d} (/i) can be compared with Munjī, where unstressed *i, *a and *u changed to \mathfrak{d} , \check{a} , \check{u} and nowadays they all merge to Schwa: Munj. $\gamma\check{o}(n)d\check{u}m$ (~ $\gamma\check{o}(n)d\eth{m}$) 'wheat' < * $g\acute{a}ntuma$ -; Sogd. s γntm C $\gamma n\underline{t}m$ / $\gamma\acute{a}md\eth{d}m$ /, Yagh. $\gamma\acute{a}mtun/\gamma\acute{a}ntum$. In Munjī \check{u} shifted to \mathfrak{d} does not cause labialization of velars as in Sogdian. In the Iron dialect of Ossetic there is merger of *Proto-Ossetic *i and *u (Ir. < * \check{i} ,

Position of stress on *i can be also caused by operation of Stress II after a syncope of word-initial *a-: * $abi-ar-/*abi-\acute{a}r-$ (with Stress I either on a second syllable of prefix or on a root) > * β íyar- > * β ír-.

¹³⁹ According to Nicolas Sims-Williams \ddot{u} (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1989b, 181).

* \check{u}) > ω (in Digoron they remained unchanged), but *u following a velar or uvular sound caused labialization of the preceding tectal: * $\{k, k, g, q, x, \gamma\}u > \{k, k, g, q, x, \gamma\}^w\omega$;

II.1.2.6. *ū

- i. > Sogd. ū, Yagh. ¾: Sogd. Β γωδ /γūβ/, Yagh. γ¾§ || γ¾¼ 'faeces' < gúβa-, Ave. gūβa-;
 Sogd. M δωr /δūr/, Yagh. d¾r 'far' < *dúra-, Pers. dūr;
- ii. (in ablaut) > Sogd. \bar{u} , Yagh. \bar{u} : Sogd. s (?)kw B ?kw, k?w M k(?)w / ^{3}k (w) \bar{u} /, Yagh. $k\bar{u}$ 'where', OAve. $k\bar{u}$;

II.1.2.7. *r

- i. > Sogd. ∂^r , Yagh. ar (?): Sogd. s $krps^2k$ / $k\partial^r pose^{\frac{1}{2}}$, Yagh. $kalp\acute{a}sa^{140}$ (dissimilation r > l) 'lizard' < Ir. * $k\acute{r}pasa-ka-$, Ave. kahrpuna-, Pers. $karb\acute{a}s$, Tjk. $kalp\bar{e}s\acute{a}$;
- ii. > Sogd. ∂^r, Yagh. ur (?): Sogd. B ²mry-y /³m(¬^r)γ1/, Yagh. mury 141 'bird, fowl' < Ir. *mrga-, Ave. m¬rγγα-, Ved. mrgá-;
- iii. > Sogd. i^r , Yagh. ir: Sogd. M $kyrm-y \in qyrm-y$ / ki^r mí/, Yagh. $kir(^i)m$ 'snake' < Ir. *krmi-, Ved. krmi-;
- iv. (in front of *i) > Sogd. i^r (ir), Yagh. ir: Sogd. $c \sqrt{tr} \sqrt{tir}$, Yagh. tir- 'to go' < * $t\acute{r}ia$ -; Sogd. S B M C \sqrt{myr} \sqrt{mir} -/, Yagh. mir- 'to die' < * $m\acute{r}ia$ -;
- v. > Sogd. i^r, Yagh. i: Sogd. *ti^ršpḗ, Yagh. tíšpa 'sour' < *tŕšpa-ka- (KHROMOV 1987, 653); Sodg. B krm(²)yr, kyrmyr M qrmyr C qyrmyr /ki^rmḗr/, Yagh. kamḗr ∥ kⁱmḗr 'red', Palh. karmīr;
- vi. (following a labial sound) > Sogd. u^r , Yagh. ur: Sogd. B $\sqrt{\beta}wrt$ $\sqrt{\beta}u^rt$ -/, Yagh. v'urta 'to bring (past part.)' < *b'veta-(ka-); Sogd. B M \sqrt{mwrt} C \sqrt{mwrt} -/ $\sqrt{mu^rt}$ -/, Yagh. m'urta 'to die (past part.)' < *m'veta-(ka-);
- vii. (in present stem of the verb *kar- 'to do') > Sogd. u, Yagh. u: Sogd. s в м √kwn- C √qwn- /√kun-/, Yagh. kun- 'to do, to make' < *kṛ́nau̞a-, Ave. kərənaoʲti; Ved. kṛnóti 'he does';
- ix. (before *š (< Ide. *tk)) > Sogd. ə,š, Yagh. ?: Sogd. B 'ššh /ə,š,šá/ 'bear' < *Hŕša-, YAve. arša-, Khwār. hrs, Pers. xirs, Ved. ŕkṣa-, Ide. *h/rtko- (GMS §155);
- x. (before *nt/*nd, *nk/*ng, *xt, *xs, *g) > Sogd. ra, Yagh. ?: Sogd. B √²nkr²nt M √²ngrnd /√ámgraṁd/ 'to cut' < *ham-kṛ́nta-; Sogd. M βtrnng- /β³trámg-/ 'oppression' < *abi-tṛ́nga- (*abi-tṛ́nka-) (GMS § 152);

¹⁴⁰ The Yaghnōbī form was probably influenced by Tjk. *kalpēsá* (this word itself can be of Sogdian origin), Pers. *karbás*.

¹⁴¹ A Persian loan: Pers. mury 'bird, fowl'?

- xi. (before *ft, *nč) > Sogd. ri, Yagh. ri: Sogd. AL √ρτγγβt- /√p²tγriβd-/ 'to take (past part.)', Yagh. γ¹rífta 'to know, to understand (past part.)' < *(pati-)gífta-(ka-) < *grb- 'to know, to understand, to take', Ave. gərəbiia-, OPers. grbāya-, Pers. giriftán : gīr- 'to take' (GMS §153a);
- xii. (before *f\$\psi\$ or in the cluster *mr\$\psi\$) > Sogd. ru, Yagh. ?: Sogd. s \lambdaz\ru\psi\s-\lambdaz\ru\psi\s-\lambdaz\ru\psi\s-\lambda
- xiii. *rn > Sogd. rn, Yagh. n(n): Sogd. B M C $pwrn-y/pu^rni/^{142}$, Yagh. pun(n) 'full' < *pri/na-;
- xiv. *u̞r- > Sogd. wi^r, Yagh. ur: Sogd. B wyrk-y C wyrq-y /wi^rki/, Yagh. urk 'wolf' < *u̞rka-,
 Ave. vəhrka-, Pers. gurg, Ved. vṛ́ka-;
- xv. *u̞r (before *t, *s, *z, *š, *ž, *γ < *g) > Sogd. u, Yagh. ∴ Sogd. м wšn-y /wušni/ 'hungry' < *u̞rˈšna-, colloq. Tjk. gušná, Tehr. gošné < Pers. gurusná;

II.1.2.8. *āi¹⁴³

i. > Sogd. ē, Yagh. ī: Sogd. s в м 'yδ /ēδ/, Yagh. īd 'this' < *áita-;

- ii. *(h)ai (word-initially) > Sogd. i, Yagh. ī/ē: Yagh. īx/ēx 'ice' < *áixa-, Ave. aēxa-; Sogd. B yyðγn /yɨðxán/ 'glacier' < Ir. *áixa-dāna-; Sogd. Mg yttkw B ytkw M ytqw /yɨtkú/ < *itúk, Yagh. ētk/ītk 'bridge' < *háitu-ka-; Sogd. B č 'zm-y /izmí/, Yagh. ízim 'firewood' < *áizma-, Ave. aēsma-, Khwār. 'zm, Pers. hēzúm, Ved. idhmá-;
- iii. *ai(a) > Sogd. ē, Yagh. ē: Sogd. B γr²yk(²) M γryk /γrḗk(ă)/, Yagh. γ¹rḗk 'clay, earth' < Ir. *gráia-ka-; Sogd. B ²sp²yt(²k), ²sp(²)ytk, (²)sp²ytk, (²)sp²yty C spyty /¹spḗt(ĕ)/, Yagh. s¹pḗta 'white' < *¤μáita-(ka-), Ave. spaēta-;
- iv. *-ắṇa- (in the word * $\Im r$ ắṇa-) > Sogd. aị (?), Yagh. ay: Sogd. s $\Im r$ y Mg $\Im r$ yw B (?) $\Im r$ y Mg $\Im r$ y(y) C šy / $\Im r$ šạṇ/, Yagh. ṣaráy $\mathop{\parallel} t^i r$ áy 'three' < * $\Im r$ ắṇa-; Ave. $\Im r$ āṇō, Pers. se;
- v. *ait (in the word *bait-) > Sogd. ē, Yagh. ē: Sogd. s в β ук м β ук, β уq с bуq / β ēk/, Yagh. vēk 'side, outside; external' < Ir. *bait-kā-, Ave. bōit, bā, bē;
- vi. *μἄį > Sogd. üĕ, Yagh. ?: Sogd. s Β γωyštr Μ xw(y)štr C xwštr /xüëštər > xốštər/ 'chief' < *hμἄ(i)-išta-tara-, Ave. hvōišta- 'the higher (one)';

(ad *iv.*) Preservation of the diphthong in the cluster *-ἄμα- in forms of the numeral ¬παμα- 'three', is similar in the other Eastern Iranian languages, e.g.: Bactr. ναφηιο /hərēy/, Shugh. aray, Rōsh. Bart. arāy, Sarīq. aroy, Ishk. rů(y), Sangl. rōy, Yazgh. củy, Wakh. trū(y), Munj. xiray, Yidgh. xiray, xuroy × Oss. arta, Pasht. drē, Khōt. drai, Tumshuq. dre, Khwār. sy /šē/; cf. Tjk. dial. of Tafkōn muρau (MALLITSKIY 1924). Such feature is related to shortening of

¹⁴² In Sogdian dialect of Zhetisu * $\gamma n > n(n)$: $\rho w n / \rho u n(n) / 'full' < *<math>\rho \gamma n a$ - (LIVSHITS 2008, 351-352).

¹⁴³ In *Proto-Sogdic there we can observe instead of the expected diphthong * $\check{a}\check{i}$ its innovated form * $a\check{e}$, or even * $a\check{e}$; cf. also spelling of this diphthong in Avestan: $a\bar{e}$.

* \bar{a} shown in II.1.2.2.iv-v., it is an Eastern Iranian isogloss * \bar{a} > * \bar{a} in front of * \bar{i} or * \bar{u} (cf. MACKENZIE 1988, 88-89), in majority of the Eastern Iranian languages this "new" * \bar{a} has not been contracted * $a\bar{i}(a)$ > * \bar{e} , the diphthong has been usually preserved, but it could have undergone some later changes in various languages.

According to spelling of the umeral "three" in the Mount Mugh documents as $\Im ryw$ (< $*\Im r\acute{a}jam$??) It can be supposed, that the mumeral "three" was pronounced $*\Im jaj$, which may later changed to $*\Im je$.

II.1.2.9. *āu¹⁴⁴

- i. > Sogd. ō, Yagh. ū: Sogd. B βωδδh M βωδ /βōδ/, Yagh. vūd 'scent' < báuda-, Ave. bao'δi-; Sogd. B M šwk C šwq /šōk/, Yagh. šūk 'silent' < *a-tráuka-; Sogd. B M rwps /rópas/, Yagh. rúpas 'fox' < *ráupāta-, Pers. rōbáh, Ved. lopāśá-; Sogd. s B M C rwyn Br ro haṃ, ro yaṃ /róy³n/, Yagh. rúyɨn, rúyan 'oil, butter' < *ráugna-, Ave. raoyna-, Pers. rōyán, Tjk. rauyán;</p>
- ii. (preceding *xm, *xš(u)) > Sogd. o, Yagh. a: Sogd. s B tγm-y C txm-y /toxmí/, s B tγmy C t(w)xmy /toxmé/, Yagh. taxm 'egg, seed' < *táoxma-(ka-) < *táuxman-, Ave. taoxman-, OPers. taumā-, Pahl. tōm, Pers. tuxm; Sogd. s B rwγšn-y M C rwxšn-y /roxšní/ 'light (of colour)', Yagh. ráxšin 'dawn' < *ráoxšna- < *ráuxšna-, Ave. raoxšna-;
- iii. (affected by i-Umlaut) > Sogd. μĕ, Yagh. ē ∥ ai (?): Sogd. B √tw(y)z, √twz M √twj C √twž /√tüež > √tōz/ 'to pay' < *tauj̆ai̞a-; Sogd. s √pckwyr /√p²čküer/, Yagh. č¹ker- ∥ čukái̞r- 'to fear' < *pati-káu̞rai̞a- (?);
- iv. (affected by i-Umlaut after dissimilation or in vicinity of a labial sound) > Sogd. ĕ, Yagh.
 ē: Sogd. B γwt(²)ynh /xutḗn/ < xuətüĕn 'queen' < *hua-tắunī-; Sogd. Sogd. B Mg γγρδ M xγρδ(δ) C xγρθ Br he-p /xḗp(ə)θ/, Yagh. E xēp 'own, self' < *xüĕρθ < *huắ-paθia-, Ave. x²aēpaθiia- (× Yagh. w xap < *huắ-paθa-);
- v. *¡au̯ (affected by i-Umlaut) > Sogd. i, Yagh. i: Sogd. s ²ync(h), ynch B Mg ²ync(h) M ʿync C ²ync /yɨmɨj/, Yagh. inč 'woman, wife' < *¡áu̯ni-kā-.

II.1.3. Consonants

_

The (Eastern) Old Iranian system of 24 (26) consonants (*p, *t, *k, *č, *b, *d, *g, *j, *f, * \Im , *x, *x**/*hu, *š, *ž, *m, *n, *r, (*l), *s, *h, *z, *t, *dz, *i, *u, (*h)) underwent a number of changes during its development towards Sogdian and Yaghnōbī, Sogdian had 25 consonants (p, t, k, č, t, f, \Im , x, x°, š, š, β , δ , γ , ž, ž, m, n, r, l, s, h, z, y, w)¹⁴⁵ and Yaghnōbī has 28 consonants (p, t, k, č, q,

¹⁴⁴ Instead of the original diphthong * \check{a} \check{u} we can expect an innovated form * $a\check{o}$, or * \mathring{a} \check{o} in *Proto-Sogdic; see spelling of this diphthong in Avestan: ao.

b, d, g, j, f, x, x, s, v, γ , z, m, n, η , r, l, s, h, z, y, w, b, ε) ¹⁴⁶. For the Eastern Middle Iranian languages (at least in their early stages) is characteristic a phonemic opposition of voiceless stops and voiced fricatives *p:*\beta, *t:*\delta, *k:*\gamma, *\delta, *\delta,

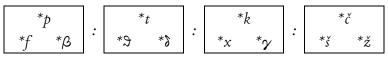


Table 36 Threefold opposition of consonants in *Proto-Sogdic.

In total (i.e. with allophones) Sogdian consonant system consisted of 34 consonants (excluding consonants appearing only in loans), outline of consonantal sounds with their representation in alphabets utilized for Sogdian is presented in Table 37. Real number of consonants was certainly smaller, e.g. voiced stops b, d, g, (g^w) , \check{j} (and dz) can be classified only as allophones of their voiceless counterparts p, t, k, (k^w) , \check{c} , t; phonemes k^w , g^w , x^w , γ^w can be also considered as allophonous. Questionable is whether these sounds were labiovelars or (secondary) labialized velars. Stress shift (probably Stress III) caused reduction of historical short vowels in unstressed position, following a velar this historical unstressed reduced u was still spelled by the letter waw. It can be supposed that *Proto-Sogdic (or *Proto-Sogdian) velars were secondary labialized when they preceded $*\bar{u}$ and most likely also before $*\bar{o}$; later when *u was reduced to a- the change was not reflected in spelling after velars, and continues to be written with the letter waw, in this case it is either archaic spelling or an attempt to spell labialized characteristics of a preceding velar. There were probably two /xw/ sounds in Sogdian, respectively it was of two sources: 1) it is a continuant of Iranian * x^{μ} (< * $h\mu$ < IIr., Ide. * $s\mu$), and 2) it is a result of secondary labialization of *Proto-Sogdic *x. In documents written in the Sogdian script an indirect result of labialization of velars can be marked word-initially by spelling with a prothetic Schwa ° <>>: Sogd. S B ²kwt-y (x M kwt-y, qwt-y) /3kwəti/, Yagh. kut 'dog'; Sogd. S ²xwštr-y B ²γwštr-y (x M xwštr-y) /³xw¬štrí/ 'camel' < *uxštra-; Sogd. AL ²xwmt²n /³Xw¬mdan/ 'Khumdan, Xianyang (city in China)' [Khōt. Humdān, Syr. hwmd'n]; prothesis of does not appear before vowels beginning in historical * x^{μ} (*hu), e.g. Sogd. s B $\sqrt{\gamma wr}$ - $\sqrt{\sqrt{x^{\circ}}}$ ar-/, not $\sqrt{\sqrt{x^{\circ}}}$ Yagh. xar- 'to eat'. According to documents in the Brāhmī script the labialized velars later lost their

_

¹⁴⁶ While the consonants q, g, \check{j} , l, h, h, h, h appear only in borrowed lexicon, h is rare in genuine Yaghnōbī words. It is possible that h and h can be inherited in some cases.

¹⁴⁷ See analogical situation in Hellenistic Greek: π /p/ : \mathcal{C}/β /, τ /t/ : \mathcal{D}/δ /, \varkappa /k/ : γ / γ / (BROWNING 1983, 26-27).

labial character, e.g. Sogd. Br $kn\bar{a}$ /kənā/ × Sogd. B M kwn^2 C qwn^2 /kwənā/, Yagh. kun 'do!, make! $(2^{nd} \ pers. \ sg. \ imper. \ pres.$)'; delabialization can be better seen in the case of x° – for the stem $x^\circ ar$ – (Yagh. $x^* ar$) 'to eat', there are attested following forms: Sogd. Br ho-rt / $x^\circ it$ / 148 × B \sqrt{ywrt} / $x^\circ art$ / (inf.), $hu\ r\bar{a}-t$ /xurat/ < / $x^\circ arat$ /, Yagh. $x^* arat$ / ($x^* arat$) for $x^* arat$ / ($x^* arat$), $x^* arat$ /

consonant	Sogdian alphabet	Manichaean alphabet	Syriac alphabet	Brāhmī script ¹⁵²
Þ	Þ	Þ	p	p, p^b, \underline{p}
t	t	t, \underline{t}	<u>t</u> (/t)	t, tt, t, \underline{t}
k	k	k, q	k, q	k, <u>k</u>
č	С	С	С	c, cc^b, j
ts	(c), ts	(c), ts	С	
b	p, (β)	p, b	p, b	b
d	t, (8)	$t, \underline{t}, d, dt, d\underline{t}$	\underline{t} (/t), d	d, d^b, t, \underline{t}
g	$k, (\gamma)$	k, q, g	k, q, g	g

¹⁴⁸ Here is an interesting similarity with Tājīk (and Darī?): Pers. x²arðán > x²urðán : Tjk. /xürdán/, AfghP. /x(w)ŏrdán/, Fārs. /xordán/. In the case ho-rt /xŏrt/ can be seen a feature similar to lengthening of *a before r_{ć, t, *3} in Yaghnōbī verbal roots – e.g. Yagh. x²ar- : x⁵orči 'to eat (present stem : 3rd pers. sg. pres.)'.

¹⁴⁹ Delabialization is unclear in these cases – in the word $k m \mathring{a} < k^w m \mathring{a}$ this feature can be seen well. In examples $x \check{o} \check{r} t < {}^*x {}^w a \check{r} \check{t}; x u r \mathring{a} t < {}^*x {}^w a r \mathring{a} t; x u r \mathring{a} t < {}^*x {}^w a r \mathring{a} \check{e}$ and $x u t \mathring{e} < {}^*x {}^w a t \check{i}$ labial character of x^w is of different origin – it continues from Iranian ${}^*x {}^u$ and not from secondary labialization caused by reduction of unstressed *u . It is possible that the spelling bo-rt, $bu \ ra -t$, $bu \ ra$ and $bu \ t t e$ should be read with initial $x^w-: /x {}^w \check{o} \check{r} t, \ x^w a r \mathring{a} t, \ x^w a$

¹⁵⁰ In most cases I will put down only spelling varieties in the Sogdian script (i.e. secular texts in the Sogdian script or Buddhist texts), in the Manichaean and Syriac scripts there are no attested such examples of metathesis. In majority of example I will not give phonetic transcription.

¹⁵¹ Spelling like s $swy\delta(^2)yk$ or $syw\delta yk$ can be also explained as development from *tugudija-ka-, cf. OPers. spelling $< s^a-u-g^u-d^a>$, $< s^a-u-g^u-u-d^a>$ or $< s^a-u-g^a-d^a>$. In Manichaean spelling is attested spelling like $M swy\delta y^2w \times s syw\delta y^2w$.

¹⁵² Here will be given only consonantal part of aksara.

consonant	Sogdian alphabet	Manichaean alphabet	Syriac alphabet	Brāhmī script ¹⁵²
j	С	<i>c</i> , <i>j</i>	c	j
(dz)	(c)	(c)	(c)	J
f		f	f	w, wv
3	β, f, p, p̈	5, 55	3 (/ <u>3</u>)	t^{b} -, t , t
x	$x, (\gamma)$	x	x	h
x°	$xw, (\gamma w)$	xw	xw	
xš	$x\check{s}, (\gamma\check{s})$	xš	xš	hş
β	β	β	<i>b</i>	v, wv
βd	βt	βt	b <u>t</u> , bd	$w\underline{t}, wt, wd^b$
S	8	8	$\frac{d}{d}$	δ, d^b
γ	γ	γ ·	γ	γ, b
γd	$\gamma t, \gamma \delta$	γ t	$\gamma t, \gamma d$	7, 13
s	s	s	s	S
š	š	š	š	ś, ş, <u>ş</u>
	3			
ž ž	z, z, z	j, ž	ž Ž	z ź, ś, ș
ž Š	× >	<i>j, z</i> š	š	
ž	š, dr	j, ž	ž	ś, ş
	z, z, z, dr	-		ź, ś, ṣ
m	m	m	m	<i>m</i> , <i>m</i> _
n . 1	n	n	n	n, ṇ, (-)ṃ
mb . 1	тр, пр	mp, mb	mp .	тр
ṁd	nt	$nt, n\underline{t}, nd, ndt, nd\underline{t}$	n <u>t</u>	
mg	nk	n(n)g, nk, nq	ng, nk, nq	
mj	nc	nc, nj	пс	
r	r	r	r	<i>r</i> , <u>r</u>
[1]	r, l, 8	<i>l</i> , δ	l	<i>l</i> , <u>l</u>
y	у	y	у	y
w				v, u
w	w	w	w	ø (?)
[h]	х	x, h	<i>b</i> , <u><i>b</i></u>	b
[t]				
[otation the content of the conte	r, rt			t, t^b, t
[d़]	r			d
[ņ]	rn	rn		ņ
[q]	x, (ÿ)			(bk)
{ <u>t</u> }			<u>t</u>	
{q}			q	
{s}	(c)		С	
{?}	x, (²)		(?)	
{b}	(x)		b	
<i>{</i> 5 <i>}</i>	(5)		γ	

Table 37 Spelling of consonants in the Sogdian, Manichaean and Syriac script and in the Brāhmī script.

In Yaghnōbī there are no traces of *Proto-Sogdian labialization of velars (but it is possible that this feature was already *Proto-Sogdic), the only possible example of a reflex of labialization can be found in Yaghnōbī verb w $\check{c}^u k \acute{a} i r a k$ (E $\check{c}^i k \acute{e} r a k$) 'to fear' – a precise etymology of this verb is not known to me, it may have been derived from *pati-kāuraia-?; in Sogdian there is attested s $\sqrt{pckwyr}/\sqrt{p^3}\check{c}k^w \acute{e}r \sim \sqrt{p^3}\check{c}k \ddot{u} \acute{e}r/$, so probably svarabhakti " in Western Yaghnōbī can be a reflex of original k^w (according to development of reduced vowels in Western Yaghnōbī we should expect $\dagger \check{c}^i k \acute{a} i r$ - as in Eastern Yaghnōbī, although here ' can be influenced by palatalization of k before \check{e}).

The Manichaean alphabet as the only Aramaic-derived alphabet could spell voiced stoops b, d, g. The original voiced stops changed in *Proto-Sogdic to fricatives, in Sogdian voiced stops appear from secondary development – either as a result of voice assimilation or from loan words.

	[nh]		pốda
/p/	[ph]	allophonous pronunciation in front of another consonant	ípti
/1. /	[p]	anophonous pronunciation in front of another consonant	bidén
/b/	[b]		p,qeu
/t/	$[t^h]$		tírak, mē <u>t,</u> x ⁱ šíft
/t/ -	[t]	allophonous pronunciation in front of another consonant	ētk
/d/	[d]		díndak
/č/	[ʧi]		čayz, činak
/j/	[dz ^j]		jáxak
	[k ^h]		kōy
	[k]	allophonous pronunciation in front of another consonant	bŭktár
/k/	[ch]	allophonous pronunciation in vicinity of a front vowel	tīk, tīk, šarīk, káxik
	[c]	allophonous pronunciation following a front vowel in front of another consonant	íĥta
, ,	[g]		g ^u zárak
/g/	[J]	allophonous pronunciation in vicinity of a front vowel	ĝird
	$[q^h]$		haq
/q/	[q]	allophonous pronunciation in front of another consonant	maqsád
	[R]	voiced variety of q (not \dagger [G])	dod [ˌdpo:ʀ] qaλtoʻ
, ,	[m]		mēxk
/m/	[m]	allophone of m in front of v, f	čúmfak
, ,	[n]		nēn
/n/	[ŋ]	allophone of <i>n</i> preceding a velar	īránka
/f/	[f]		fúšma
/v/	[v]		v ⁱ rot
/s/	F.1		
/ş/	· [s]		saráy, sört, s ⁱ nóyak
/z/	[z]		zōy, zēnk
/š/ -	[ʃi]		šíša
	[ʧi]	in some loans from Tajik can be pronounced as \check{c}	ōč < ōš, čapalốq < šapalốq
/ž/	[ʒ ^j]		žū́ta
	[ʤi]	mainly in non-native words it can be pronounced $\check{\jmath}$	aždahốr [a(d)ʒida'ho:r], ráujna [ˈrau̯(d)ʒina]

/x/	[x]		xạr
/2/	[R]		γayk
/ <u>%</u> /	[xw]		х́а́rak, х̂аt, х̂о́r
	[χ]	often loses its labialized character when followed by \bar{o}	хо́г
/h/	[h]		hámma, naháx
/ḥ/	[ħ]	archaic pronunciation of \dot{p} of Arabic origin, in common speech it merges with b	ḥiss > hiss, suḥbát > suhbát aḥmáq
151	[?]	pronunciation of ^s ayn in Modern Yaghnōbī is preserved only in a word šaş-mák	ša~mák
	Ø	the 'ayn-sound usually disappears in pronunciation, it often prolongs preceding vowel, following a consonant it may be realized as slight stop in speech	جúdda > údda; qalجá > [qʰɑl.ˈæ]
/w/	[ß]		wáfir, wénak
/ <u>u</u> /	[u̯] [沒̞]	allophonous pronunciation of w following a vowel	dēu ['de:u̯] sau̯dí [sa̞β'di:], sarkúu̯ [sar'kʰu:̞β̞]
у	[j]		yaŭ
r	[r]		čarx, r u ta
1	[1]		púl(l)a

Table 38 Yaghnōbī consonant system (NOVÁK 2010, 222-223).

Historically Yaghnobi consonant system differs only a little from the state reconstructed for Sogdian. The main differences can be seen in lack of labialization of velars in front of a labial vowels and different development of voicing¹⁵³. In comparison to Sogdian it can be said that in Yaghnōbī there are no voiced stops (and affricate) in diachronic view, the voiced consonants emerged from positional allophones. From synchronic point of view Yaghnōbī there is developed opposition of voiceless and voiced stops and affricates, the only exception is uvular stop q which has no voiced counterpart in voiced uvular stop $\dagger [g]$ – voiced counterpart of q is voiced uvular fricative γ . Yaghnobī consonant system is the same as consonant system of the Zarafshān Tajik dialects – only voiced alveopalatals fricative ž appears more often in Yaghnōbī in contrast to Zarafshān Tajik¹⁵⁴ (mainly dialects of Mastchōh; cf. KHROMOV 1962, 27). Yaghnōbī consonant system is also comparable to consonant system of literary Tajik, but the standard Tajik language lacks voiceless pharyngeal fricative h which merged with voiceless glottal fricative h (h appeared together with voiced pharyngeal fricative so both in Yaghnōbī and Mastchōhī in speech of older generations, nowadays h is usually realised as h and p is either lost or it prolongs preceding vowel in Yaghnobī). Interesting feature is a common change of Tajik (and colloquially Russian) ž to j both in Mastchōhī and in Yaghnōbī, this feature is observable also in

¹⁵³ And also lack of t in Yaghnōbī, but it is a question whether t was a separate phoneme in Sogdian. Nowadays t can appear in some Russian loans in Yaghnōbī, but it is usually realized as s: Yagh. revalúsiya 'revolution' < Rus. револю́ция, gastínisa 'tavern' < гости́ница, kansért 'concert' < конце́рт, sigán / tigán 'Gypsy' < цига́н.

 $^{^{154}}$ As \check{z} appears rarely also in Persian, in the Zarafshān dialects \check{z} appears only in words of Eastern-Iranian (*Zarafshānī) origin.

colloquial Tajik and in many Tajik dialects (RASTORGUEVA 1964, 44-45) or Uzbek: Pers. Tjk. mižá 'eyelash' > Yagh. míj(j)a, TMast. mijá, Pers. žālá, Tjk. žōlá 'hail' > Yagh. jōla, TMast. jōlá; in Yaghnōbī also Tajik š occasionally changes to č: Tjk. ōš 'pilaf' > Yagh. ōč (KHROMOV 1987, 656), Uzb. šapałåq 'slap' > Tjk. šapalōq > Yagh. čapalōq.

Development of Iranian consonants in Sogdian and Yaghnōbī can be characterized as follows:

II.1.3.1. *p

- i. > Sogd. p¹⁵⁵, Yagh. p: Sogd. s ²²ph B ²²p(h) M ²²p C ²p Br ā-p/āp/, Yagh. ōp 'water' > *āp-, Ave. āp-; Sogd. B M p²δ /pāδ/, Yagh. pōda 'foot' < *pāda-(ka-), Ave. pāδa-, OPers. pāda-; Sogd. S B ²yšp-h M ²xšp-²(h), xšp-² C xšp-²/³xšəpá/, Yagh. x¹šáp 'night' < *xšapá-, Ave. xšapā-;
- ii. (voice assimilation) > Sogd. p, Yagh. b: Sogd. B \sqrt{p} δwβs-, \sqrt{p} δwfs- M \sqrt{p} δwfs- / \sqrt{p} δufs-/, Yagh. $b^u du$ fs- 'to glue, to stick' < *upa-dufsa-;
- iii. (before *ia) > Sogd. b, Yagh. ?: Sogd. M by²mnwrz /byấm[○]/ 'personal name' (x Sogd. s B M C √py²m /√pyām/ 'to heal') < *upa-iáma-[○] (GMS §306);

II.1.3.2. *t

.

- i. > Sogd. t¹⁵⁶, Yagh. t: Sogd. s βr²t B βr²t, ²βr²tr M βr²t C br²t / ³βrāt(ər)/, Yagh. v¹rốt 'brother' < *brắtar-; Sogd. B M tys /tīs-/, Yagh. tīs- 'to enter' < *ati-íta-; Sogd. B krt /kart/, Yagh. kōrt 'knife' < *kárta-, Ave. karəta-, Pers. kārd; Sogd. B √ptyw(²)y M √ptxw²y C √ptxw²y, √ptwx²y /√p³tx°āy/, Yagh. tuxôy- 'to kill' < *pati-xuặhaṭa-;
- ii. (voice assimilation) > Sogd. t, Yagh. d: Sogd. s M √ptywš B √pty(²)wš C √ptywš /√p²tyóš/,
 Yagh. duyúš- 'to hear' < *pati-gáuša-;
- iii. (palatalized) > Sogd. č, Yagh. č (?): Sogd. s \pckwyr /\počkūĕr/, Yagh. čikēr- || čukáir- 'to fear' < *pati-káuraia- (?); Sogd. β \pcβ²nt C \pcbnt /\počβámd/ 'to answer' < *pati-bánda-; Sogd. β Mg \pcγrβ- /\počγrəβ-/ 'to accept' < *pati-grába-; Sogd. β γcy M xcy, 'γcy βr hji /xəčí, ičí/ '[(s)he/it] is' < *ásči < *ásti; Yagh. -či 'ending of the 3rd pers. sg. pres.' < *-ti-¹⁵⁷;

¹⁵⁶ Later in post-vocalic position and after *r (mainly in younger Christian texts) > Sogd. d (- δ?): Sogd. c xwdy /xwədi/ (x Sogd. Br hu tte /xwət-i/), Yagh. xat 'own, self' < *huata-, Ave. xvatō; Sogd. c xwd(²)w /xudau/ (x Sogd. s γwt²w B γwt²(²)w M xwt²w C xwt(²)w /xutau/) 'lord' < *hua-tauan-, Pers. Xuda(i) 'God'; Sogd. C mrdxmy /mardoxmĕ/ 'human, mankind' (x Sogd. AL mrt²xmk s B mrtym²k(w), mrtym²y M mrtxmy(y) C mrtxmy /martoxmĕ/) < *martija-tauxman-ka-, Pers. mardum (GMS §269-270).

Different explanation of development of the ending $-\check{c}i$: $-\check{c}i < -\check{c}it < *-t\check{s}it < -t-i\check{s}t$ (cf. KLIMCHITSKIY 1940, 99-100).

- iv. (rarely after a vowel) > Sogd. d (δ?), Yagh. d: Sogd. B M ²yδ C yd /ēd/, Yagh. īd 'this' <
 *áita-, Ave. aēta-; Sogd. B kt²(²)m M kt²m, kδ²m C qd²m /kədām/, Yagh. kadōm¹58 'which'
 <*katāma-, Ave. katāma-, Pers. kadām (GMS §269);
- v. (in secondary contact with * $\delta < *d$) > Sogd. \Im , Yagh. ?: Sogd. $B \sqrt{k} \sqrt{r} / \sqrt{k^3 \Im r}$ 'to do, to work (stem of a transitive preterite)' $< *iktú-\delta \Har < *k\'rtam d\Har (GMS §279)$;
- vi. *tr̥ (word-initially) > Sogd. čə (tɔ ?), Yagh. ?: Sogd. B cšn-y M C cn- /ċ̄ə(š)ní ~ tɔə(š)ní/ 'thirst' < *tṛ́šna-, Pers. tašná;

II.1.3.3. **k*

- i. > Sogd. k¹⁵⁹, Yagh. k: Sogd. B kt²y, kt²k M qt, qty(y), ktyy C qty /kətĕ/, Yagh. kat 'house' < *káta-(ka-); Sogd. B γðwk² M γðwk /γάθuk(ӑ)/ 'throne', Yagh. γōtk 'nest' < *gấθŭ-kā-, Ave. gātu-, OPers. gāθu-; Sogd. ky /ki/, Yagh. ki 'which' < *kah, Ave. kō; Sogd. B wyrk-y C wyrq-y /wirkí/, Yagh. urk 'wolf' < *μṛka-, Ave. vəhrka-, Ved. vṛka-;
- ii. (in several cases) > Sogd. x, Yagh. x: Sogd. $B \sqrt{\gamma r s}$ -, $\sqrt{\gamma n s}$ $M \sqrt{x r s}$ -, $\sqrt{x n s}$ -, $\sqrt{x s}$ -, $\sqrt{x s}$ -, $\sqrt{x s}$ -, Yagh. x a s- 'to pull' < k r s-, Ave. k a r s-, Ved. k a r s-, Sogd. $B m^2 \gamma(w) M C m^2 x$ /max(u)/, Yagh. m o x 'we' < k r s-, OPers. a h m o x s-, OPers. a h m o x s-, a h m o x-, a h m o x-,
- iii. (before $-i\bar{a}$) > Sogd. g, Yagh. ?: Sogd. M $w\beta$ 'stgy'h /w $i\beta$ astəgy \bar{a} / 'narrative' < $*^{\bigcirc}-ka-i\bar{a}$ (GMS §246.2);
- iv. (rarely) > Sogd. č, Yagh. ?: Sogd. s B M crks /čárkəs/ 'vulture' < *krka-tsa-, Ave. kəhrkāsa-,
 Pers. kargás; Sogd. c crxwšt /čárxušt/ 'wine-press' ~ cf. Pahl. karxōš (GMS §249);
- v. (before a reduced labial vowel) > Sogd. (3) k^w , Yagh. k: Sogd. s B $^2kwt-y$ M kwt-y, qwt-y /3 k^w 3ti/, Yagh. kut 'dog' < * $k\dot{u}ta$ -, * $kut\bar{\iota}$ -; Oss. k^w 6ti3 || kuy;
- vi. *-a-ka- (denominal abstract suffix *-ka- in ending of masculine a-stems) > Sogd. -ĕ, Yagh. -a: Sogd. B 'sp'yt('k), 'sp(')ytk, (')sp'ytk, (')sp'yty C spyty /ispétĕ/, Yagh. sipéta 'white' < *tuáita-ka-;
- vii. *-a-ka- (denominal abstract suffix *-ka- in ending of neuter and adverbial a-stems) > Sogd. -ŏ, Yagh. -a (?): Sogd. s b m c²n(²)kw, c²n²w /čánŏ/ 'as, if' < *hača-ana-kam; cf. Yagh. čūn < *hača-ana-(ka-));
- viii. *-´ā-kā- (denominal abstract suffix *-kā- in ending of ā-stems) > Sogd. -ā, Yagh. -a:
 Sogd. M ryr'kh /rḗrā/, Yagh. rḗra 'saliva'; Sogd. S Β ''ph /apā/, Yagh. ópa 'water' < *āpā-kā-, Wakh. yupk;
- ix. *- \acute{a} - $k\ddot{a}$ (denominal abstract suffix *- $k\ddot{a}$ in ending of \ddot{a} -stems) > Sogd. - $\acute{a}k$, Yagh. - $\acute{o}k$: Sogd. B (²) $z\beta$ ²(²)k(h) M $z\beta$ ²k C zb²q /³ $z\beta$ $\acute{a}k$ /, Yagh. z¹v $\acute{o}k$ 'tongue, language' < hidzu \acute{a} -k \breve{a} -,

_

¹⁵⁸ Yaghnōbī form may be borrowed from Persian.

Later in post-vocalic position (in younger Christian texts) > Sogd. g: Sogd. c √γwžtg² /√γὁždəgẵ/ 'to ask (2nd pers. pl. fut.); Sogd. м nwgrwc /nógrōč/ 'New Year('s day)' < *naua-ka-rauĕa-, Pers. Nauróz, Fārs. Nourúz (GMS §246.3).</p>

- Ave. hizū-, hizvā-, hizvah-, Ved. jihvā; Sogd. B sy²²k(h) M sy²k C sy²q /səyāk/, Yagh. s¹yóka 'shadow' < *atājā-kā-(ka-), Ave. asaiia-, Pers. sāyá;
- x. *-ĭ-kā- (denominal abstract suffix *-kā- in ending of ĭ-stems) > Sogd. -č(ā) (-j(ā)), Yagh. -č: Sogd. s ²ync(h), ynch в мд ²ync(h) м ²ync c ²ync /yimj/ (< *imč), Yagh. inč 'woman, wife' < *iáuni-kā-; Sogd. в ²²r²ync м ²²r²nj c ²rync /ārimj/ (< *árimč), Yagh. ōrínj 'elbow' < *ăráɔni-ka-; Sogd. в nyc /nēč/ 'nostrils' < *náhi-kā-, Khwār. n²c /nāʒa/, Ved. násikā-;
- xi. *-u-ka- (denominal abstract suffix *-kā- in ending of u-stems) > Sogd. -ku, Yagh.-k: Sogd. Mg yttkw B ytkw M ytqw /yitkú/ < *itúk, Yagh. ētk/ītk 'bridge' < *háitŭka- < *háitu-ka-, Oss. I xid D xed; Sogd. S B 'yntk(')w /imdku/ 'Indian, Indic' < *(h)índŭka- < *híndu-ka-, OPers. hinduya-, Pahl. hindūg, Pers. hindú (> Yagh. hundú)
- xii. *-ū-kā- (denominal abstract suffix *-kā- in ending of ū-stems) > Sogd. -uk(ā), Yagh. -k: Sogd. Β γðwk Μ γδwk /γάθuk(ā)/ 'throne', Yagh. γōţk 'nest' < *gấθūkă- < *gấθū-kā-, Pers. gāh 'place'; Sogd. Β z²n²wk, zn²wk², μ znwq /zănuk(ā)/, Yagh. zōnk 'knee' < *zấnŭkă- < *dzấnū-kā-, Pers. zānū, Pahl. zānūg; Sogd. Β ²ynt²wk /íṁduk/ 'Indian, Indic' < *(h)índŭkă- < *híndū-kā-;

(ad iv.) There is a "secondary" palatalization of velars attested in some Eastern Iranian languages, mainly in the Pāmīr branch, and as a recent feature in Iron dialect of Ossetic. It is possible that the examples showing secondary palatalization $*k > \check{c}$ in Sogdian show possible loans from a Middle Iranian Pāmīr (?) language.

(ad vi.-xii.) A typical feature of the Iranian languages is extension of a nominal stem with denominal abstract suffix *- $k\bar{a}$ - (or its variety *- $\epsilon\bar{a}$ - for feminines). By extending the stem with the denominal abstract suffix the original nomina got a new modified meaning, but most of words did not change their meaning significantly. In individual Iranian languages various reflexes of the suffix *- $k\bar{a}$ - can be observed: in most languages the suffix is more or less maintained (of course, with regard to its further development in various languages). However in some of the Iranian languages it leads to its peculiar transformation – its consonantal part disappears and vowels emerge into new vocalic or diphthongal ending of a nominal stem (such development may be observed in Sogdian, Yaghnōbī, Munjī-Yidghā¹⁶⁰, Pashtō-Waṇetsī, Saka dialects or in New Persian¹⁶¹).

Development of denominal abstract suffixes in *Proto-Sogdic had to start before operation of the *Stress II*: suffix *-kä- became part of the stem and position of *Stress II* was governed also by presence or absence of the denominal abstract suffix: Sogd. s 'ps'kkh M (')ps'k C 'ps'q /'psåk/

¹⁶⁰ For development of the denominal abstract suffix *-kā- in Munjī-Yidghā see MORGENSTIERNE 1938, 114-115.

¹⁶¹ "Vocalic" development of the *a-ka-suffix can be shown on following example: Sogd. B (²)st²r²k M (²)st²ry, ²stry /ˈstárĕ/, Khōt. stāraa-, Munj. stōráy, Yidgh. stárë, Pasht. stóray (f); Pers. sitārá × Khwār. (²)st²rỹk /(ə)stāreg/, Ishk. strůk, Sangl. ust²rŭk, Shugh. žitērʒ, Bajū. žitērʒ, žitērš, Khūf. Rōsh. žitērʒ, žiturš, Bart. Rāshrv. žitōrš, Sarīq. žωturš, žiturš, Yazgh. ž(ə)tarag, Ōrm. starrak; Parth. ²st²rg < *stāra-kā- 'star'.

'wreath, crown' < *pusắkā- < *pútā-kā- (: Yagh. $\dagger p^us \acute{o}k \times$ without the *-kā- suffix may be supposed following development: * $\dagger p\acute{u}t\ddot{a}$ - (Stress II) : Yagh. $\dagger pus > \dagger p\breve{u}s\acute{a}$ (Stress III) : Sogd. $\dagger pas\acute{a}$). The change of the denominal abstract suffix *-kā- in an innovated word-stem has two responses: 1) forms preserving *-k-, or 2) contracted forms, in which internal *-k- disappeared and subsequently underwent other sound changes.

- (1) The original consonant was retained in some feminine \bar{a} -stems and in forms of \bar{u} -stems. In case of feminine \bar{a} -stem, *-k- was retained when the suffix *-k \bar{a} - followed a stressed syllable (that emerged from the Stress II shift): Sogd. B (2)z\beta^2\chi^2)k M z\beta^2k C zb^2q \rangle^3z\beta \tag{\frac{1}{2}k}, Yagh. z^iv\tilde{b}k 'tongue, language' < *hĭzβákā- < *hidzuā-kā- [cf. Pers. zabán < *zbán < *hidzuā-nā-]; Sogd. Β $sy^2k(h)$ M sy^2k C sy^2q /syzak/, Yagh. s^iyz óka 'shadow' < *sazákā-(ka-) < *azázā-kā- [Pers. sayá < Pahl. $s\bar{a}yag < *as\acute{a}i\bar{a}-k\bar{a}-$]. Forms of denominal abstract suffix of the original \bar{u} -stems have a different outcome in Sogdian and in Yaghnōbī: Sogdian forms retain thematic -u- (for feminines *- \bar{u} - $k\bar{a}$ - > - $uk(\bar{a})$; for masculines *-u-ka- > -ku, -uk), in Yaghnōbī *- \bar{u} - was syncopated: Sogd. Mg yttkw B ytkw M ytqw /yitkú/ < *itúk, Yagh. ētk/ītk 'bridge' < *háetŭka- < *haitu-ka- [Oss. 1 xid D xed]; Sogd. S B 'yntk(')w /imdku/ 'Indian, Indic' < *(h)indŭka- < *híndu-ka- (× Sogd. B 2 ynt 2 wk /iṁduk/ < *(h)índŭkā- < *híndu-kā-) [OPers. hi^n duya-, Pahl. bindūg, Pers. bindū > Yagh. bundū]; Sogd. B $\delta^2 r(2)wk(2)$, $\delta^2 r^2 wkh$ M $\delta^2 rwk(2)$ C $d^2 rwq / \delta a ruk(a)/$, Yagh. dōrk 'wood' < *δárŭka- < *dáru-ka-; Sogd. Β γ'ðwk' Μ γ'ðwk /γάθuk(ặ)/ 'throne', Yagh. $y \bar{o} t k$ 'nest' < * $y \dot{a} \Im u k \ddot{a}$ - < * $g \dot{a} \Im u k \ddot{a}$ - [Pers. $g \bar{a} h$ 'place']; Sogd. B $z^2 n^2 w k$, $z n^2 w k^2$, M z n w q/zănuk(ă)/, Yagh. zōnk 'knee' < *zánŭkă- < *dzánŭ-kā- [Pers. zānú, Pahl. zānūg]. Similar development can be observed also for other substantives: Sogd. B $\gamma r^2 \gamma k(r^2)$ M $\gamma r \gamma k / \gamma r \dot{e} k(\check{a}) / \gamma r \dot{e} k(\check{$ Yagh. γⁱrēk 'clay, earth' < *γrágkă- < *grája-ka-; Sogd. s sγwδyk, swyδ(²)yk /səγwδik/ 'Sogdian' < *suyðikā- < *tug(u)dija-kā- [Pers. suydi; cf. OPers. Sug(u)da- 'Sogdiana']; Sogd. mg p'rsyk /parsik/ 'Persian' < *pārsikā- < *pārtija-kā- [Pers. fārsi, pārsi < Pahl. pārsig]. Nicolas Sims-Williams interprets this development as a result of the Sogdian Rhythmic Law (i.e. Stress III) and presents two examples, which show different development as should be expected for the Rhythmic Law: Sogd. s $\gamma nt^2k(^2)$, γnt^2kk B $\gamma nt^2(^2)k(^2)$, γnt^2kk M γnd^2k C γnt^2q / γ ámdāk(\bar{a})/ 'bad' < *gand- $\bar{a}ka$ - 'stinking' and Sogd. s M 'wt'k B 'wt'(')k C ' $w\underline{t}$ 'q / \bar{o} tāk/ 'place' < *aua-tāk-a- (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1981b, 13); both these examples can be systematically explained as a result of the Stress II, and subsequently the stress shifted to the Stress III: *gandā-kā- > yandákă- > yámdāk [Yagh. gandá 'bad' < Pers. gandá 'bad < stinking'; Parth. gnd'g; Ved. gand 'á- 'smell']; *aua-tā-kā- > aotākā- > otāk [> Turkic otag (Uzb. ůtåg) > Pers. otāg 'room'].
- (2) Forms of a-stem masculines and \bar{a} -stem feminines with stress on antepenultima delete the original *-k- of the denominal abstract suffix, after the loss of *-k- there is a further development which has different responses in both languages: in Sogdian can be observed development *-a-kah (nominative singular) > *-a'i > *- \bar{e} and *- \bar{a} - $k\bar{a}h$ (nom. sg.) > *- \bar{a} ' \bar{a} > *- \bar{a} ; in Yaghnōbī there is the same development for both a- and \bar{a} -stems: *-a-kah (nom. sg.) > *-a'i > -a and *-a- $k\bar{a}h$ (nom. sg.) > *-a'a'a > -a:

Sogd. B 'sp'yt('k), 'sp(')ytk, (')sp'ytk, (')sp'yty C spyty / spétě/, Yagh. s péta 'white' < *spágta' i < *tuáita-ka- [Munj. spī, Pasht. Wan. spīn, Pers. saféd, sipéd, ispéd];

Sogd. Mg γwt²rnk /xutárnĕ/, Yagh. xutánna 'water-mill' < *xuatárna'i < *huat(a)-árana-ka- [Yazgh. x°ayerg, Shugh. xidōrj, Rōsh. xadūrj, Sangl. xuδári, Wakh. xədōrg, Munj. xīrga, Yidgh. xĭryo];

Sogd. s B β²r²k M β²ryh C b²ry /βárĕ/ 'rider; riding animal', Yagh. vốra 'rider' < βára'i < *bára-ka- [Pahl. b²rg /bārag/, Pers. bārá, Shugh. vōrˇj, Rōsh. vūrˇj, Yazgh. varāg, Ishk. vъrůk 'horse'; Oss. baræg 'rider'];

Sogd. M ryr^2kh /rḗrā/, Yagh. rḗra 'saliva' < *ráerā'ā < *rāerā'ā < *rāerā'ā = [Pers. lēr, Pasht. lára] 163;

Sogd. s B [?]ph /āpā/, Yagh. ó̄pa 'water' < *ápā'ā < *āpā-kā- [Khōt. ūtcā-, Ishk. vek, Wakh. yupk, Munj. yośwyā, Yidgh. yowyo, Pasht. ōbó, Tjk. ōbó 'water'; Oss. avg 'glass'].

According to examples of contracted (or aka- and $\bar{a}k\bar{a}$ -) stems shown in the unit (2) mentioned above, it can be suggested that words derived from denominal abstract suffix *- $k\bar{a}$ - retained its semantic value in subsequent stages of *Proto-Sogdic. If we did not consider the *- $\bar{a}k\bar{a}$ - suffix this way, we would not be able to convincingly explain the development of originally suffixed *- $k(\bar{a})$ - from the development of *k in all other cases – Iranian (and *Proto-Sogdian) *k is usually retained as k both in Sogdian and Yaghnōbī (e.g. except Sogdian change *nk > mg etc.), but *Proto-Sogdian denominal *-k- disappears between unstressed * \bar{a} ... \bar{a} . Different development of this suffixed *-k- can be seen in other forms of the aka-stems, e.g. in neuter (and in adverbs): *-a-kam (nom. and acc. sg. neuter and acc. sg. masculine) > *-a'u > Sogd. - \bar{o} (cf. Sogd. s B M c'n(')kw, c'n'w /cánŏ/ 'as, if < *($h\bar{a}$)cána'u < *haća-ana-a-a(a). Some features of development of aka- and a-a-stems will be shown later in analysis of *Proto-Sogdic inflectional system.

Apart from the denominal abstract suffix *- $k\bar{a}$ - there was a similar suffix *-ka-, which was used to form diminutives – this suffix did not morphologically distinguish the original stem system and thus its development considerably differs from the denominal abstract suffix: responses of the diminutive suffix give both in Yaghnōbī and Sogdian regular form in -(a)k.

(ad ix.) This suffix belongs also to the denominal abstract suffixes in *- $k\bar{a}$ -, in this example can be seen its development with the i-stems. See also an analogical development in the Slavic languages: Ide. * h_3eui - keh_2 - > *oui- $k\bar{a}$ - > PSI. *ouica- > OCS. oboua 'sheep' × Ved. $avik\bar{a}$.

¹⁶² Precise etymology of this word is not known to me.

¹⁶³ Cf. etymologically unrelated Hebrew *rīr*, Aramaic *rīrā* of the same meaning.

The root $-\bar{u}$ in \check{cun} emerged either from $\check{con} < \check{con}$ (i.e. "regular" Yaghnōbī change $\bar{o} > \bar{u}$ in front of a nasal) or by labialization of \check{a} after disappearance of $\check{con} < \check{a} < a - kam$ or $\check{a} < a$

II.1.3.4. *č

- i. > Sogd. č¹⁶⁵, Yagh. č: Sogd. s rwcn /ročən/, Yagh. rúča 'window' < *ráuča-na // *ráuča-ka-;
- ii. (in front of *k, *t, *n) > Sogd. š, Yagh. č, š: Sogd. M stryšt / stríšt/ 'women (pl. from / stríč/)' < *stríč-ta- < *(H)strí-kā-tă-; Sogd. B 'yškt'yh M 'yšktyh / škatě/ 'harem' < *iáuni-kā-kata-ka- (GMS §259); Yagh. šūč- : súšta 'to burn (pres. stem : past part.);
- iii. *či > Sogd. š, Yagh. š: Sogd. м √šw- /√šəw-/, Yagh. šau- 'to go' < *čiáua-, Ave. š(ii)auu-, OPers. šav-,Ved. cyav-;

II.1.3.5. *b

i. > Sogd. β, Yagh. v: Sogd. s $\beta r^2 t$ в $\beta r^2 t$, $\beta r^2 t$ α $\beta r^2 t$ α $\beta r^2 t$ α $\delta r^2 t$

II.1.3.6. **d*

- i. > Sogd. δ (l?), Yagh. d: Sogd. B δ²r(²)wk(²), δ²r²wkh M δ²rwk(²) C d²rwq /δáruk(ă)/, Yagh. dōrk 'wood' < *dáru-ka-, Ave. dāru-; Sogd. B βωδδh M βωδ /βōδ/, Yagh. vūd 'scent' < *báudi-, Ave. baodi-, Khwār. /βōδ/;
- ii. (in secondary contact with *š) > Sogd. č (but older δ), Yagh. ?: Sogd. B cštw²n, δštw²n C
 dyštw²n /č³štwán < δištwán/ 'poor' < *duš-tuμána- (GMS §286);
- iv. *dr > Sogd. ž, Yagh. rd (word-internally): Sogd. s myδrh mg myδr- /mɨξά/ Β mwz²kk /mužē/, Yagh. mírda 'bead, pearl' < *múδra-(ka-), Ved. mudrá-;
- v. * $d\mu$ > Sogd. δβ, Yagh. d(v)v: Sogd. $B M δβr-y C dbr-y /δβərί/, Yagh. <math>davár \parallel d^ivár$ 'door' < *duár(a)-, Ave. duuar-;

(excursion 5) Lambda Sogdica?

In many Eastern Iranian languages there can be seen a development of Iranian voiced dental

stop *d: it appears in some of the Eastern Iranian languages and dialects as (*)l. The development *d > (*)l is attested already in the Old Iranian period –in Scythian and Cimmerian, in the Middle Iranian Bactrian and in the New Iranian Pashtō, Waṇetsī, Munjī and Yidghā (and probably in Sarghulāmī and in some words in the Pāmīr area).

Several personal names are attested from Cimmerian, one of them was recorded as Tugdammē or Dugdammē in Assyrian, in Greek the same name was recorded either as Δύγδαμις or as Λύγδαμις, Λυγδάμιος (HERODOTUS I, 61). The name of the Cimmerian king

Later in post-vocalic position > Sogd. $\check{\jmath}$ (often not reflected in spelling, the only example can be spelling in the Brāhmī script): Sogd. Br hji /xə $\check{\jmath}$ i/ (x Sogd. B γcy M xcy /xə \check{c} i/) '[(s)he/it] is' < *(x)ásči < *haṇ-ásti.

Dygdamis/Lygdami(o)s (reigned between the years 660 and 640 BC) demonstrates that the change *d > (*)l took place already in the first half of the 7th century BC (or even at the end of the 8th century BC). Similar feature is documented also for the name of the Scythians: in Greek they are known as $\Sigma \kappa \dot{\nu} \partial \omega \iota$ (and from there Latin Scythae), which is derived from their own ethnic name $*Skuda - \langle \text{Ir. } *skuda - \text{ 'archer' } \langle \langle \text{Ide. } *skud - o - \rangle$, cf. Eng. shoot; Old English sceotan; Ger. schiessen 'to shoot'; ABAEV 1965, 25). Herodotus quoted that the Scythians called themselves $\Sigma \kappa \dot{\nu} \partial \nu \partial \tau \omega \iota^{166}$ (i.e. $*Skula - t \check{a} - \iota$) after a king called $\Sigma \kappa \dot{\nu} \partial \nu \eta s$ (i.e. *Skula - Archer'). If we compare the Greek (nom. sg.) $\Sigma \kappa \dot{\nu} \partial \eta s$ 'Scythian' and "Scythian" $\Sigma \kappa \dot{\nu} \partial \eta s$ 'Scyles', we can see the only difference $\vartheta \times \lambda$, it is the feature we observed already in the Cimmerian name Dygdamis/Lygdamis. The Histories of Herodotus were written in the second half of the 5th century BC. In this period the change *d > (*)l was probably finished already – the Greek name for the Scythians ($\Sigma \kappa \dot{\nu} \partial \omega \iota$) was probably of an older date 167 , the later names of the king Scyles and the Scythians-Scolotians ($\Sigma \kappa \dot{\nu} \partial \eta s$ and $\Sigma \kappa \dot{\nu} \partial \sigma \omega \iota$) was recorded in innovated forms by Herodotus.

If we compare once more the spellings of the Cimmerian name $Tugdamm\bar{e}: Dugdamm\bar{e}: \Delta \dot{\nu}\gamma \delta \alpha \mu \iota \varsigma: \Lambda \dot{\nu}\gamma \delta \alpha \mu \iota \varsigma$ with the Scythian ethnic names $\Sigma \kappa \dot{\nu} \partial \alpha \iota : \Sigma \kappa \dot{\nu} \partial \alpha \iota \iota$ we can see changing of lateral l with dentals (or less possibly alveolars). Dental pronunciation of Iranian *d can better explain a dichotomy in development of Ir. $^*d > ^{(*)}\delta / ^{(*)}l$ in the Eastern Iranian languages. The development can be summarized as follows: (dental) stop > (dental) approximant > (dental-alveolar) lateral approximant × (dental-alveolar) fricative, i.e. $^*[d] > ^*[\delta] > ^*[l>1] \times ^*[d\delta>\delta]^{168}$. Similar development can be assumed not only for dentals, but also for labials and velars: thus we can better explain a shift of *b towards labiodental fricative or labialized velar approximant and *g towards uvular fricative (i.e. $^*[b] > ^*[\beta] > ^*[v-w]; ^*[g] > ^*[w] > \gamma [w]$). 169

The change *d > l which is typical for some Eastern Iranian languages is nothing unusual when compared with other Indo-European languages. Apart from Iranian Pashtō, Waṇetsī, Munjī, Yidghā, Sarghulāmī (?), Bactrian this change is attested as substrate in some Pāmīr languages; in other Indo-European languages such as Nūristānī Prāsūn ($P\bar{a}r\bar{u}n/V\bar{a}sivari$; e.g. $l\partial z$ < IIr. $*d\acute{a}\acute{c}a$ - 'ten', $l\ddot{u}$ < IIr. $*d\acute{u}a$ - 'two')¹⁷⁰; Indo-Aryan Romani (Gypsy; e.g. $p^bral < *b^brad(a)$ - < $*b^brad(a)$ - ; Ved. $b^brad(a)$ 'brother'; cf. Eng. pal); change *d > l can be partly observed in Latin (in

166 «... σύμπασι δὲ εἶναι οὐνομα Σκολότους· τοῦ βασιλέος ἐπωνυμίην Σκύθας δὲ Ἑλληνες ἀνόμασαν» (HERODOTUS IV, 6).

 $^{^{167}}$ For a relatively older origin of the name Σ κύθαι (and not $\dagger \Sigma$ κύθαται or $\dagger \Sigma$ κύθαται) can testify also an absence of a plural ending in * -t \check{a} - typical for the Scythian language of the period of Herodotus.

Other explanation of the development *d > (*)l offers Ivan Mikhaĭlovich Steblin-Kamenskiy: *d > *d > *l > *l (STEBLIN-KAMENSKIY 1999, 22²) — he supposes that the intermediate stage was a cerebral sound instead of an approximant. Such explanation does not make sense as cerebral sounds are peripheral in the Iranian languages and when they appeared it was always caused by a contact with *r and they never emerged randomly.

¹⁶⁹ I would like to thank to Mgr. Jan Bičovský, Ph.D. for his remarks on phonology.

¹⁷⁰ Probably due to contact with neighbouring Munjī (?).

such case in Sabine loan-words ¹⁷¹ (?); PULJU 2000) and in Greek, although it concerns a Mediterranean substrate words ¹⁷², and in Hittite (e.g. *tabarna* × *labarna* 'king'; see also *nāman* × *lāman* 'name'). Among non-Indo-European languages a similar feature can be observed in Siouan (North American Indian) Lakota language (which differs from mutually relative Dakota by operation of the shift *d > l; e.g. Lakota *ločhíŋ* × Dakota *dočhíŋ* 'hungry').

The problem of development *d > l in Sogdian can be difficult to assess. The Sogdian script used the 'Aramaic' letter $l\bar{a}mad$ for a continuant of Ir. *d; this grapheme was used to spell mainly dental fricatives δ and δ , but occasionally it was used also for l in words borrowed from Sanskrit (see excursion 4); although the Aramaic original of the Sogdian alphabet possessed also the letter $d\bar{a}lat$ to spell $d \sim \delta$, in Sogdian this letter was used only in an Aramaic ideogram Sogd. AL $SD = s \sim t / st$ 'to, towards, in'. In the Manichaean script the letter " $\delta \bar{a}lat$ " used to spell δ (and δ), " $\delta \bar{a}lat$ " was derived from a shape of the letter $l\bar{a}mad$, which was normally used to spell δ . Only the Syriac script used the letter $d\bar{a}lat$ to spell δ . Moreover, the Old Uyghur alphabet used the "Sogdian" letter $l\bar{a}mad$ to spell δ (or d; in the modern Turkic languages with outcome as t0, t1 or in Chuvash t2.

¹⁷¹ In Latin there are following words showing the (Sabine?) change *d > l:

Lat. lēvir, laevir; ProtoItal. *daiwēr, Ide. *deṭh₂-u̞er-, Skt. devár-, Pasht. lēwar, Yagh. sḗwir, Gre. δαής, Armen. taygr, Lith. díeveris, dieverìs, Latv. diēveris, CSL. děverь, Rus. géверь, Srb.-Cro. ђѐвер // đềver, Balt.-Slav. *da²iu̞er-, OHG. zeibhur, OEng. tācor, ProtoGerm. taṭkura-(?), Lith. láigonas;

Lat. lingva, dingva; ProtoItal. * $d\eta\chi(u)w\bar{a}$ -, Osc. fangvam, fancua < *fon $\chi u\bar{a}$ < * d^b -; Ide. * $d\eta \hat{g}^b uh_2$, OIrl. $\tau e\eta g \omega$, Irl. teanga, Gael. teanga(dh), OWelsh. tauawt, MidWelsh. tavawt, tauavt, Welsh tafod, OCorn. tauot, MidCorn. taves, tavas, tawes, MidBret. te(a)ut, Bret. teod < * $t\eta \hat{g}^b w\bar{a}t$ -, Ved. jihvá-, Ave. hizuuā-, Armen. lezow, Pruss. insuwis, Lith. liežuvis, OCS. językz, Goth. tungo, OHG. Zunga, OIcel. tunga < * $d^b \eta \hat{g}^b$ -, TokhA. käntu, TokhB. kantwo < * $t\ddot{a}nkwo$;

Lat. lacrima, lacrima, dacrima, dacrima; ProtoItal. *d(r)(k)akrunā-, Ide. *drk-h₂(e)kru-, OIrl. τέρη, Welsh deigr, Hitt. išḥaḥru- < *s-h₂ekru-, Ved. áśru-, YAve. asrū, Gre. δάκξυ(μα), δάκξυμα, Armen. artasuk, Lith. ãšara, OGH. zahar, TokhB. akrūna;

Lat. *larix -cis*; Ide. **dr-u-*;

Lat. lautia, dautia, ProtoItal. *dawetio-, Ide. *douн-ó-, OIrl. vúar, Skt. dúvas- < *duн-es-;

Lat. ūlīgo, ūdus < Ide. *ued-;

Lat. lēns -endis; ProtoItal. *dlind-?, Ide. *dk(o)n-i-d-; OIrl. ṛneo, Welsh nedd(en), Corn. nedhen, Bret. nez(enn) < *snidā-; Gre. ҡѹӀдъє, Alban. (Gheg.) thëní < *kon-id-, Lith. glìnda, Latv. gnĩda, Rus. гнúga, Srb.-Cro. гьйga // gnjìda, Sloven. gnída < Balt.-Slav. *gni²da² < *knid- < Ide. *knid-; OEng. hnitu, Eng. nit, OHG. (h)niz < *knid-; Armen. anic;

Lat. olor, odor :: olĕre : oleō : oluī; ProtoItal. *ode/o-, *odōs, Ide. *hȝ(e)d-, Gre. ὄζω : ὄδωδει, όδμή, ὀσμή, Armen. hot < *hȝed-, Lith. úosti : úodžia, Latv. uóst, OCze. jadati (cf. PULJU 2000; WALDE 1906; DE VAAN 2008).

172 In the Mediterranean substrate in Greek it probably was a dental sound with lateral articulation *[dl]?, its presence shows the d-series of the Linear B script and different outcomes of *[dl] in Greek and other languages: Gre. Ὀδυσσεύς × Ὀλυσ(σ)εύς, Ὀλυτ(τ)εύς, Οὐλίξεύς, Οὐλίξης, Ὀλυσεύς, Ὠλυσσεύς; Etruscan Utbuze, Utbste, Ut(b)ustbe × Lat. Ulyssēs, Ulixēs 'Ulysses' < *Minoan /'Οτθυτε ~ 'Οτθυτε, see also Sumerian Utu-zi; further in Mycenaean da-pu₂-ri-to-jo (gen. sg.) /dlaburinthojo/ × Gre. λαδύςινθος : λαδυςίνθου 'labyrinth'; Gre. δίσκος × λίσκος 'disc'; Gre. δάφνη × λάφνη; Lat. laurus 'laurel'; Lat. lōrica × Mycenaean to-ra-ke (nom. pl.) /thōrākes//pl./; Gre. θώςαξ 'lorica, armour' (cf. BARTONĚK 2009, 39).

By comparison with Yaghnōbī a similar development in Sogdian might be expected: Sogd. $*d > \emptyset$: Yagh. $*d > (*\emptyset >) d$. So why the issue of "lambda Sogdica" then? There are several Sogdian (or in common Eastern Iranian) loans in Persian, in which \emptyset (and also \emptyset) appears as l^{173} :

الفخان) : الفخان الفغدن alfaydán (alfaxtán) : alfanj- 'to acquire, gain, earn, collect, save' < Sogd. B الله عنه المعارفة الفخان الفغدن الفغدن الفغدن الفغدن الفغدن الفغدن الفغدن الفغدن الفغان الفغدن الفغدن الفغدن الفغان الفغدن الفغدن الفغدن الفغدن الفغان الفغدن الفغ

(פּ) אַלבּג balād, balādá, אַלאַ balāyá 'contemptible, corrupted, depraved, perverted' < Sogd. s ²þδ²ty B (²)pδ²ty M pδ²ty C pd²ty /³pδātĕ/;

שְׁנֵנֵּك / pālīk (/ אָנֵנֵל bālīk) 'leather shoes' < Sogd. в p'δyk /pā́δīk/ 'related to foot' < Sogd. в p'δ(h) м p'δ с p²d /pāδ/ 'foot, leg';

μ pil 'heel' < Sogd. s pδ-y м pδ(δ)-y /pəδi/ 'foot'; Yagh. pad × Pers. pai;

پلندين palindín, palandín, pilandín 'door-frame, lintel' < Sogd. μ ρδηνη /pəðimd/ 'treshold' < *pati-antā-, Shugh piðind;

غولين $\gamma \delta l \tilde{l} n$ 'a jug with a wide mouth' < Sogd. B $\gamma w \delta^2 k(h)$ C $\gamma w \delta y / \gamma \delta \delta \tilde{e} /$ 'vessel, container, pitcher, (a dry) measure'; Ave. $gao^i \delta i$ -, $gao \delta ana$ -;

אם 'wine' < Sogd. AL s $mw\delta$ s B M $m\delta w$ C mwd, mdw Br md^bu / $m\bar{u}\delta$ > $mə\delta\dot{u}$ /; Oss. $mыd \parallel mud$ 'honey';

ال nāl 'reed(-pen)' < Sogd. (?) /nāð/ × Pers. nāj 'reed flute'; Yidgh nəl, Wakh. nālčik 'tube, pipe' (HENNING 1939);

In addition to the above shown forms there are some other Eastern Iranian words in Persian that show the change *d > l, e.g. $mal\acute{a}x$ 'grasshopper, locust'; $bil\acute{s}t$ 'span'; $l\ddot{o}\gamma \bar{\iota}d\acute{a}n$ 'to milk'; $\check{z}\bar{a}l\acute{a}$ 'hail'; also in a place-names $Hilm\acute{a}nd$ in Afghanistan (cf. Ave. $Ha\bar{e}tumant$, Greek $E\tau\dot{\nu}\mu\alpha\nu\delta\varrho\sigma_s$) and probably $Sar\gamma ul\acute{a}m$ and $Yaz\gamma ul\acute{a}m$ in Badakhshān (see chapter I.I.I.4.b., note 54). There is also double form with both l and d in the word $Balax\check{s}\acute{a}n$ 'Badakhshān' in Pāmīr (Tjk. $Badax\check{s}\acute{o}n$; cf. Balas(c)ian and Badas(c)ian mentioned by Marco Polo) and $Am\acute{u}i$ (< $*Am\acute{u}\delta$) / $Am\acute{u}l$ $Dary\acute{a}$ 'Āmū Daryā, Oxus' (cf. QARĪB 1965, 63). In Persian there in attested a loan that shows preservation of "Sogdian" δ without any change: Pers. $\acute{v}\acute{v}\acute{e}$ ($\acute{v}\acute{e}$) $\acute{v}\acute{e}$ \acute{e} \acute{e}

¹⁷³ In Persian *l* normally originates from OPers. *rd < Ir. *rd, *rdz. However, in the Early Classical Persian there has

in the Sogdian script $-pxl^2w^2n^2k$, $p\gamma l^2w^2n^2k$ (also s $p\gamma r^2w^2n^2k$) /pəhlǎwānē/ 'Parthian' – to the Sogdians there probably was a difference in pronunciation of (Middle) Persian l in contrast to Sogdian δ .

been the sound δ (nowadays realized as $d < \delta < *t$, *d; only in few words there is $z < \delta < *t$, *d; e.g. Pers. $gu\delta a\check{s}t\acute{a}n: gu\delta a\check{s}t\acute{a}n: goz a\check{s}t\acute{a}n: goz$

Given the above mentioned facts, the issue of the nature of Iranian *d in Sogdian is difficult to assess. To make it more difficult, I will show responses of Sogdian s $swy\delta(r)yk$, $syw\delta yk$ /səyw δik / 'Sogdian, belonging to Sogdiana' and Sogd. AL $syw\delta ykstn$ /Səyw δik istan/ 'Sogdiana' in the neighbouring languages:

×

Pahl. swl(y)k /sülı̈g/ M swylyy /suylı̄/ 'Sogdian'; Khōt. sūli, pl. sūlya 'Sogdian'; Northwestern Prkt. $suli\acute{g}a$ - 'Sogdian'; Chin. 宰利 Sūli 'Sogdiana'; MidChin. *Sa(k)-lis 'Sogdian(a)'.

As wa can see in the above shown examples (which I have divided into two groups), the name for the Sogdians and for Sogdiana differed variously in neighbouring languages – in some of them there is development $*d > \delta$ and in the other there is *d > l. Interesting is mainly the Bactrian form $\operatorname{soy}(ay)$ (Livshits 2008, 324) – in Bactrian should be excepted a form $\operatorname{tooy}(ay)$. Had the Bactrian form found on an inscription from Qal^ca-yi Afrāsiyāb reflected local Sogdian pronunciation? Or was the attested form contaminated by Greek $\operatorname{Soy}(ax)$? Bactrian certainly needed to have its own name for the neighbouring countries that was probably inherited from Old Iranian, so why the attested form looks non-Bactrian?

According to the above shown examples, there is a majority of forms with attested δ , not with l, and because of Yaghnōbī (and *Zarafshānī) d it can be assumed that pronunciation $/\delta/$ was more common (or standard?) in Sogdian, also the "borrowed" Bactrian word $\sigma og \delta lav(\alpha \gamma) og$ shows development $*d > \delta$ in Sogdian. It is possible that the l-forms attested in Persian may have been borrowed via Bactrian (or) with Bactrian-like pronunciation.

How can be "lambda Sogdica" explained? 1) It is possible that Sogdian loans in Persian with l instead of * δ may be interpreted as "scribal (or copyist) errors", i.e. that these words were recorded according to the written form, not according to the spoken language¹⁷⁴. 2) In Sogdian

-

See e.g. realisation of Sogdian β as f in many Persian words (Henning 1939) — Sogdian β was spelled as $\dot{\sigma}$ in the Perso-Arabic script, but due to its resemblance with $\dot{\sigma}$ this grapheme has been replaced by the letter $f:\dot{\sigma}$ 'sordidness, impurity, filth' < Sogd. s $\beta(y)z-y$, $\beta(y)z-y$, m $\beta(y)j-y$, $\beta j-y$ $\beta \xi i$ < $\beta \epsilon i$ 'evil' < * $b\epsilon i$ < * $b\epsilon i$ < * $b\epsilon i$ az dia-). Then letter $\dot{\sigma}$ was used also in Classical Persian to write $\dot{\sigma}$ / β /, this sound has been lost in later stages of the language and changed to $\dot{\sigma}$, e.g. $\dot{\sigma}$ $\dot{\sigma}$ $\dot{\sigma}$ $\dot{\sigma}$ $\dot{\sigma}$ (language'.

there were several dialects, from which a majority (delta-dialects) underwent a development *d > δ , but some dialects (lambda-dialects) changed *d (and perhaps also * \Im) > l^{175} - those lambda-dialects were probably in contact with Persian – this can explain the dichotomy of forms with *l* not only in Persian but also in Chinese Suli (× Sute), in Pahlavī sŭlīg, suγlī (× sūδ, suβδīg) and in other languages (cf. QARĪB 1965, 62-64). There is, however, one problem - whether a postulation of the lambda-dialect is not just a purposeful attempt to solve this issue. There is also another explanation: 3) in Sogdian there was retained pronunciation of *d as a dental approximant *[δ], which appeared as (*[δ] ~) *[δ] ~ *[δ] to speakers of some other languages, but as $*[d] \sim *[d]$ or even as $*[l] \sim *[l]$ to speakers of other neighbouring languages. The adoption of the Sogdian dental approximant *\frac{1}{2} in various languages differed according to how it was perceived by non-Sogdian speakers who borrowed Sogdian lexemes. Indeed preservation of * δ can explain the "preservation" of pronunciation of *d as such in Yaghnōbī. Similar example can be found in Danish pronunciation of "soft" d, i.e. dental approximant (or alveolar voiced sonorant; see HABERLAND 1994, 320) as in mad ['mao] 'food', dydig ['dy:oi] 'virtuous', or buset ['hu:?səŏ] 'the house'. «Its auditive impression is quite close to [1] and it is often confused with it by non-native learners of Danish.» (ibid.)

Finally a theme for reflection – do we really know what kind of sound has been spelled by the Aramaic letter *lāmad* in the period when the Sogdians adopted the Aramaic alphabet for their language¹⁷⁶? In the presented work I will not deal with this problem, I will leave it to the Semitic scholars ...

II.1.3.7. *g

- i. > Sogd. γ , Yagh. γ : Sogd. B $\sqrt{\gamma^2 r} / \sqrt{\gamma} \bar{a} r'$ 'to guard', Yagh. $\gamma \bar{o} r$ 'to look' < * $g \bar{a} r$ -, Ave. $g \bar{a} r$ 'to be awake, to protect'; Sogd. $/\gamma \bar{a} \mu/\gamma$, Yagh. $\gamma \bar{o} \mu$ 'cow' < * $g \bar{a} \mu a$ -, Ave. $g \bar{a} u \dot{s}$;
- ii. (before a labial vowel) > Sogd. γ^w, Yagh. γ: Sogd. C γwr²ty /γ^wrấtĕ/ < M wγr²tyy /w²γrấtĕ/, Yagh. γ²rốt(a) 'awaken' < *uigrấta-(ka-);

II.1.3.8. *j

i. > Sogd. ž, Yagh. ž: Sogd. s √²zw(-) в √(²)zw(-) м √jw(-) c √žw(-) /√³žū, ³žau̯-/, Yagh. žū- 'to live' < *jáu̞a-, Ave. j(a)uua-;

II.1.3.9. *f

-

i. > Sogd. f, Yagh. f: Sogd. B wβr-y M wfr-y /wəfri/, Yagh. wáfir 'snow' < *μάfra-, Ave. vafra-; Sogd. B βr²²k /frāk/, Yagh. firők 'tomorrow' < *frấ(n)ka-, Ave. frẫnk-, frāka-, Ved. pránk-, prāk-; Sogd. B βr²n M fr²²n /frān/ 'breath', Yagh. firőn 'smell' < *frána-; Skt. prāna- 'breath';

¹⁷⁵ It is possible that in those *lambda*-dialects, if we accept its existence, there has been an opposition of voiced and voiceless *l*.

¹⁷⁶ And also on the time when Mānī created the Manichaean script.

- ii. *fn > Sogd. βn, Yagh. vn, mn: Sogd. β γwβn-y β xwβn-y /xuβní/, Yagh. xuvn/xumn 'dream' < *hμáfna-, Ave. χ afna-;
- iii. *fni > Sogd. m, Yagh. m: Sogd. M C xš²m /xšām/ 'evening', Yagh. x¹šóm 'diner' < *xšáfnia- 'evening', Ave. xšāfniia-, Parth. š²m (GMS §313);
- iv. *ft > Sogd. βd, Yagh. ft (vd?): Sogd. B ²γšyβt(-y) s ²xš²yβt M xšyβt Br hṣa wdhi, hṣa wṭi /³xš²βd(á) ~ ³xš²βdí/, Yagh. x¹šíft 'milk' < *xšuífta-; Sogd. Br a wta /aβd, ¬βdá/, Yagh. aft (avd) 'seven' < *háfta, Ave. *hapta, Oss. avd, Pers. haft;
- v. *fra- (before *s, *š, *t, *r, *n and probably before *įā) > Sogd. f(^V)-, Yagh. f^V-: Sogd. s B √(²)βš²m, √²ρš²m B √²βš²m, √²ρš²m M C √fš²m /√³fšám/, Yagh. f³šóm- 'to send' < *fra-šáma-; Sogd. s B ²βtm-y, (²)prtm-y M ²ftm-y C fim(²) /³ftəmí/ 'first' < *fra-táma-; Yagh. f²tú(m)mēṣ ∥ f²tú(m)mēṭ, f²túmēṭ 'day after tomorrow' < *fratā-máṭṢā-, *fra-tama-máṭṢā- (GMS §315-322);
- vi. *fra-b- > Sogd. $\beta\beta$ -, Yagh. tVf-: Sogd. S B M $\sqrt{\delta}\beta$ r- C $\sqrt{\beta}\beta$ r-/, Yagh. tafár- tifár- 'to give' < *f(t)tafár- < *fra-bára-;
- vii. *fru- (before *š) > Sogd. f(V)-, Yagh. ?: Sogd. Β 'βš-'h / 'fšá/ 'flea' < *frúšā-, Pasht. wróža (GMS §323);

II.₁.₃.10. *3

i. > Sogd. \Im , Yagh. $\S \parallel \underline{t}$ (< Early Modern Yaghnōbī \Im^{177}): Sogd. s $my\delta$ B $m(?)y\delta$ M $my\delta$ $my(y)\delta\delta$ C $my\Im$, myd /mē \Im /, Yagh. $m\bar{e}\S \parallel m\bar{e}\underline{t}$ 'day' < * $m\acute{a}\underline{t}\Im a$ -; Sogd. B $p^*\delta(\delta)$ Mg $p^*\delta\delta$ C $p^*\Im$ / $p\bar{a}\Im$ /, Yagh. $p\bar{o}\S \parallel p\bar{o}\underline{t}$ 'arrow, bullet' < * $p\acute{a}\Im a$ -;

ii. (before *k) > Sogd. β, Yagh. ½: Sogd. β γðwk ' M γðwk / γάβuk(ā)/ 'throne', Yagh. γόţk 'nest' < *gάβŭ-kā-, Ave. gātu-, OPers. gāβu-, Pers. găh;

- iii. (before *n) > Sogd. Ø, Yagh. Ø: Sogd. M pn²nc /pənámj/, Yagh. pɨnónč 'co-wife' < *hapaβnī-ánča-, Oss. bīn[oynag], Pahl. ²bwg ; Sogd. B ²²r²ync M ²²r²nj C ²rync /árɨmj/ (< *árɨmč), Yagh. ōrínj 'elbow' < *ăráβni-ka-;
- iv. (before *t) > Sogd. t, Yagh. t: Sogd. B $mrts^2r \in mc^2$, $ms^2/\text{m\'a}(\dot{r})$ ts\(\bar{a}(\darka)\)/, Yagh. m'astar 'here' < * $im\'ar \Im a$ - $s\bar{a}r$ < * $im\'ar \Im a$ - $s\bar{a}r$ -; Sogd. S $iw(r)ts^2r$ B $iw ts^2r$ M $iw ts^2r$ C $iw ts^2$ /\(\documea (\darka)tra \)/, Yagh. w'astar 'there' < * $iu\'ar \Im a$ - $s\bar{a}r$ < * $iu\'ar \Im a$ - $s\bar{a}r$ (GMS \)301.1);
- v. (before *š) > Sogd. t (> *č), Yagh. ?: Sogd. s δtš rwc M δ(y)ščy(y) /δətš-roč ~ δeščí/ 'name of the 15th day of a month' < *δátši < *dáθuša-, Ave. daθušo (GMS §301.2);
- vi. (after *δ < *d) > Sogd. t, Yagh. ?: Sogd. $M \sqrt{ptwy\delta t} / \sqrt{p^3 tw\acute{e}} \delta t / \acute{t}o$ transmit (impt. 2. os. pl.)' < * $pati-u\acute{a}idaia$ - $\Im \breve{a}$ (GMS §302);
- vii. (occasionally before *i) > Sogd. š, Yagh. ?: Sogd. B γr²nš /γrẵmš/ 'tie' < *granβi- (GMS §302.vi);

-

¹⁷⁷ Around the year 1913 still \Im (JUNKER 1930, 126, 128-129), the dental aspirate \Im is attested in Yaghnōbī certainly in the year 1877, but in this period there are double forms with a sibilant s (DE UJFALVY DE MEZŐ KÖVESD 1882, 276; TOMASCHEK 1880, 735; cf. JUNKER 1930, 4-5). In this work continuants of $^*\Im$ will be marked $s \parallel t$.

- viii. *\$\mathfrak{T}\$r (word-initially) > Sogd. \(\xi, \text{Yagh.} \(\xi^v r \| \text{\$t^v r\$} (< Early Modern Yaghn\(\overline{b}\)\)\(\text{\$\pi\$}\) Sogd. s \\
 \(\partial \text{Try Mg} \(\partial \text{Try W} \text{B} (^2)\)\(\delta r \text{M} \(\partial \text{Try}(y) \circ \text{\$\si} / \text{\$\si} \text{\$\si}/\$, Yagh. \$\si ar\'ay \| \text{\$t^i r ay} 'three' < *\$\Partial r \text{\$\text{\$\si} \text{\$\text{\$\si} \text{\$\text{\$\si} \text{\$\si}\$}}; \\
 \text{Pers. } \$se < sih;
- ix. *βr (word-internally) > Sogd. š, Yagh. l(l) (?): Sogd. s ^Opyðr'k, ^Opðr B ^Opyðr'k, ^Opðr, ^Opšy M ^Opšy (as a part of compounds) /pɨṣ́(ḗ)/ 'son', Yagh. púl(l)a (?) 'boy, child; small, little' < *púβra-, Pers. pisár;
- x. *¾μ > Sogd. ¾β (¾f), Yagh. ? Sogd. s √p¾βyr Μ √(²)p¾βyr /√³p³ββér/ 'to hasten' < *μpa-¾μάταja- (GMS §293);
- xi. * $\Im \mu$ (after * $\check c$) > Sogd. tf, Yagh. $\underline t(V)f$: Sogd. B $ct\beta^2 r$ M $ctf^2 r$ C $ctf^2 r$, $\check stf^2 r$ / $\check c$ 3tfā $\dot r$, Yagh. $\underline taf\check o r$, $\underline t^u f\check o r$ $\| \underline t^i f\check o r$, $t^u f\check o r$ 'four' < * $\check c$ 3 $u \check a \check r$ -, Ave. $\check c$ 3 $u u \check a r$ (GMS §295)
- xii. *Ϡμ (word-initially) > Sogd. tf (tβ, Ϡβ), Yagh. ? Sogd. s в √δβ²yz м √δβj с √Ϡfyž, √tfyž, √tbyž /√tfež/ 'to collect' < *Ϡμάjaja- (GMS §296);
- xiii. * $\Im \mu$ (occasionally) > Sogd. f, Yagh. ?: Sogd. M =f(y) /=f(i)/ 'encl. pron. of the 2nd pers. pl.' < *= $\Im \mu \bar{a}$, Ave. - $\Im \beta \bar{a}$ (GMS § 297);

(ad ix.) Development of Iranian *- $\Im r$ - > l(l) (instead of expected †rs || †rt, cf. KHROMOV 1972, 127) in Yaghnōbī is rather problematic – there are not many attested continuants of * $\Im r$. This development is for the first time mentioned by Wilhelm Geiger: «3r is preserved word-initially in tirāi $(t^i r-)$ 'three' = Ave. $\Im r \bar{a} y \bar{o}$. Word-internally it is l in $\bar{a}l$ 'fire' = Ave. $\bar{a} \Im r-$, pula 'son, child' = Ave. pu3ra-.» (GEIGER 1898-1901, 336). Al'bert Leonidovich Khromov sees such development as less acceptable, he notes, that Yaghnōbī ōl 'fire' is attested only in verb ōlxáš- 'to light up' and that in all other cases 'fire' is called by Tajik loan ōlóu (Tjk. alów, ōláw, aláw, Pers. āláv)¹⁷⁸. Yaghnōbī $\bar{o}l(x\acute{a}\check{s}-)$ can be connected with Kābulī $\bar{a}l$ zadan 'to emit heat'. Khromov also assumes that Yaghnōbī púl(l)a may not be connected with Iranian *pu3ra- as in Yaghnōbī it is used mainly in the sense '(young) child, young boy' rather than 'boy' and the word can be taken from child's speech (KHROMOV 1972, 127). The development of *- $\Im r$ -> l(l) in Yaghnōbī can be confirmed in other example: Yagh. kat(t)ōlá, kattalá '(1) stone shelter made with no wood; (2) ruin(s)' < *kata-ā3ra-ka- 'house-fire' (RASTORGUEVA – ÈDEL'MAN 2000, 321) and TMast. katōl. Katōlas are used by herdsmen in mountains far from their villages - this term is connected with seminomadic life of the Yaghnōbīs so it can be assumed that the word can be of old origin. It is certainly not a borrowing as I have not found similar word in various Tajik, Uzbek and Kyrgyz dictionaries. Mastchōhī Tajik has, similar to Yaghnōbī, katól for a herders' shelter - the "Ghalcha" (i.e. Mountain Tajik(s)) of Mastchōh share a similar pastoral style of life, so Mastchōhī katól may be *Zarafshānī substrate word in this Tajik dialect. The word for 'fire' -ōl (cf. Sogd. s B M ²(²)š /āš/) quoted by Geiger thus can be considered archaic, nowadays replaced by the Tajik word $\bar{o}l\bar{o}u$. Cf. also development *rt, *r\beta > \tilde{s} \text{(v)} *[\frac{1}{2}] in Avestan (MACKENZIE 1988, 90).

-

 $^{^{178}}$ I have neither heard $\bar{o}l$ for 'fire' during my stays with the Yaghnöbīs.

II.1.3.11. **x*

- i. > Sogd. x, Yagh. x: Sogd. B Mg γr -y C xr-y /xəri/, Yagh. xar 'ass, donkey' < *xára-, Ave. xara-; Sogd. /xāx/, Yagh. xōk 'spring' < *xáha-;
- ii. (non-etymological intrusive x before *šC) > Sogd. x, Yagh. \emptyset : Sogd. M $\forall npxšt- / \forall npixšt- /$, Yagh. $n^ipišta$ 'to write (past part.)' < *nipišta-(ka-), OPers. nipišta-; Sogd. S $^2xwštr-y$ B $^2\gamma wštr-y$ M xwštr-y / 3x »-3stri/ 'camel' < *uxštri < *usštri-, Ave. usštri-, Pers. sutur (GMS $\S256$);
- iii. (before a labial vowel) > Sogd. x^w , Yagh. x: Sogd. B (²) $\gamma w \, M \, xw(w) \, C \, xw \, /^3 x\bar{o}/$, Yagh. ax, he, that < *ahau-;
- iv. *xt > Sogd. γd, Yagh. xt (γd?): Sogd. B yγ(²)rt-, yrγt C yγrt-/yəγdi/, Yagh. yaxt (yaγd) 'wide' < *μi-gṛ́ta-; Sogd. B M √swγt-/√suγd-/, Yagh. súxta 'to burn (past part.)' < *κúxta-, Ave. -suxta-;
- v. *xš > Sogd. xš, Yagh. x(V)š: Sogd. s B $\sqrt[2]{sp-h}$ M $\sqrt[2]{x^5p-2}$ (h), xšp-2 C xšp-2/ $\sqrt[3]{x^5p-4}$, Yagh. x^i šáp 'night' < *xšápā-, Ave. xšapā-;
- vi. * $x\check{s}\check{u} > \operatorname{Sogd}.$ $x\check{s},$ Yagh. $x(V)\check{s}:$ Sogd. B ${}^2\gamma\check{s}y\mathcal{E}t(-y)$ s ${}^2x\check{s}^2y\mathcal{E}t$ M $x\check{s}y\mathcal{E}t$ Br $h\check{s}a$ $w\underline{t}i$ / ${}^3x\check{s}\check{i}\mathcal{E}d$ (á) ${}^3x\check{s}\check{i}\mathcal{E}d$ (i/, Yagh. $x^i\check{s}ift$ 'milk' < * $x\check{s}uifta$ -, Ave. $x\check{s}uuipta$ -; Sogd. /(u)xušu/ (< * $x^{\underline{u}}a\check{s}u$), Yagh. $ux\check{s}$ 'six' < * $x\check{s}u\check{a}\check{s}am$;
- (ad ii.) Intrusive x before *š is attested also in Avestan: Ave. uruuixšna- 'rope', Sogd. c 'rwxš /ərǘixš/ 'bandage', Yagh. όr(w)isna, όrusna 'wax-end, thread' (GMS §256), YAve. zixšnānhəmnā 'kennen lernen wollend', OAve. frāxšnənəm 'Unterweisung', YAve. xšuuaš 'six', YAve. xštāt '[(s)]he stands', YAve. fraxštā 'te 'er soll hervortreten', YAve. ašauuaxšnuš 'den Frommen zufrieden stellend', Ave. xšnūtó 'zufrieden gestellt' and in Old Persian xšnāssātiy 'er wird kennen' (BARTHOLOMAE 1895-1901, 36 §86). Similar feature can be found also in Bactrian ναθιχτο, ναθιχτι, ναθοχτο, νιθοχτι, νοθιχτο μερχιτο το write (past part.)' or in Munjī nəwuxt- 'to write (past stem)' (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1988 [online], 348).

II.1.3.12. * x^{μ} , *hu

- i. > Sogd. x°, Yagh. x̂: Sogd. M xw²r /x°ār/, Yagh. x̂ōr 'sister' < *huahar-, Ave. x²aŋhar;
 Sogd. s B √γwr- /√x°ər-/, Yagh. x̂ar- 'to eat' < *x¼ara-, Ave. x²ara-; Sogd. s xwty, γwty B
 γwt(²)(²)γ M xwty C xwty, xwdy Br hu tte /x°ətí/, Yagh. x̂at 'own, self' < *huáta-, Ave. x²atō, Pers. x²að > xuð;
- ii. > Sogd. x, Yagh. x: Sogd. B Mg γγρδ M xγρδ(δ) C xγρβ Br he-p /xép(ə)β/, Yagh. xēp (|| xap)
 'own, self' < *huáipaβia-, Ave. x²aēpaβiia-; Sogd. Mg γwt²rnk /xutárně/, Yagh. xutánna
 'water-mill' < *huat(a)-árana-ka-; Sogd. B γwβn-y M xwβn-y /xuβní/, Yagh. xuvn/xumn
 'dream' < *huáfna-, Ave. x²afna-;
- (ad *i*.) See analogical development in the Brythonic branch of the Celtic languages: Ide. *su > Brythonic *hu > *xu; cf. Mid. and Mod. Welsh *chwaer*; Mid. Bret. hoer, hoar; Mod. Bret. KLT

c'hoar // Gw hoér; Old Cornish huir; Modern Revived Cornish (Kernewek Kemmyn) hwoer < Ide. *su̯esōr, sister; OIrl. ṛuṇ; Manx shuyr; Ir. *hu̞ahar-; Pers. xºāhár; Ved. svásar-;

II.1.3.13. *š

- i. > Sogd. š, Yagh. š: Sogd. s B M C γwš /γōš/, Yagh. γūš 'ear' < *gáuša-, Ave. gaoša-; Sogd.
 B ²γšyβt(-y) s ²xš²yβt M xšyβt Br hṣa wdhi, hṣa wṭi /³xštβd(á) ~ ³xštβdí/, Yagh. xištft 'milk'
 *xšutfta-, Ave. xšuuipta-;
- ii. (occasionally after *č(a) in front of a nasal) > Sogd. Ø, Yagh. ?: Sogd. s cm-y м cm-y(y) C c(y)m-y /čɨmi/ (× Sogd. s в м С cšm-y /čɨsmi/) 'eye' < *čášman-, Khwār. cm̄-, cm-/camma/, Khōt. tse'ima-, tsaima-, Ishk. com, Ōrm. cimī; Sogd. м С cn-/čəni ~ tsəni/ (× Sogd. в cšn-y /čəšni ~ tsəšni/) 'thirst' < *tŕśšna-, Pers. tašná, Ōrm. trunuk (GMS §385-386);
- iii. *št(i) > Sogd. č (simplification of ProtoSogd. šč), Yagh. č: Sogd. B prch /pařč/ 'spine', Yagh. párča 'rim, edge' < *páršta-(ka-), Ave. paršti-; Sogd. B fr²²wyšcy M fr²wycyh /frāwi(š)či/, Yagh. farómič || f¹rómič / f¹urómič 'obliviousness' < *frāmúšti- (GMS §382);
- iv. *štr (occasionally) > Sogd. šč, Yagh. ?: Sogd. s 'zr'wšc /°Zrúšč/ в м zrwšc-y /°Zruščí/ 'Zarathushtra' < *dzaraθúštra- < IIr. *jarat-ниštra-, Ave Zaraθuštra-, Parth. zrhwšt, Pers. Zardúšt;

The development of Ide. * $s > *\S$ under the operation of the *RUKI*-rule is recorded not only in the Indo-Iranian languages, it is known also in Slavic (in Slavic later * $\S > *f_1 > \S \sim x$) and partially in Baltic and Armenian (cf. BEEKES 2011, 137; MEIER-BRÜGGER 2003, 102-105; MARTIROSYAN 2008, 536-538).

II.1.3.14. *ž

i. > Sogd. ž, Yagh. ž: Sogd. s $\forall zy\beta$ - Β $\forall zy\beta$ -, $\forall zy\beta$ - Μ $\forall j\beta$ - / \forall ži β -/ 'to bite, to chew', Yagh. živ- 'to sew, to stitch' < *žíba-;

II.1.3.15. *m

- i. > Sogd. *m*, Yagh. *m*: Sogd. B M C √*myn* /√mēn/ 'to be similar', Yagh. $m\bar{\epsilon}(n)ta \parallel m\acute{a}(\underline{i})nta$ 'similarly, (like) as' < *mánaja- 'to be similar';
- ii. (occasionally) > Sogd. m, Yagh. b: Sogd. M myδ²n C myd(²)n /miðán/, Yagh. bɨdón 'middle'
 < *madiána-, Ave. maɨðiiāna-;
- iii. (following *ā in front of a vowel) > Sogd. āw, Yagh. ōm: Sogd. B fr²²wyšcy M fr²wycyḥ /frāwɨ(š)či/, Yagh. farômič | f¹rômič / f¹rômič 'obliviousness' < *frāmúšti-; Sogd. c *mr²w /mrāu/ 'weeping' < *brāma-;
- **mp*, **mb* > Sogd. *mb*, Yagh. *mp*: Sogd. B (')šk'np /'škámb/ 'world', Yagh. š'ikámpa 'belly' < *škámba-(ka-) (Khromov 1987,);

- (ad ii.) cf. Gre. δορτός < μορτός 'mortal', ἄμδορτος 'immortal' < Ide. *(η)mṛto-s;
- (ad ii.-iii.) cf. opposite development *w or * β /*b > m in Zâzâkî and Kurdish: Zâzâ. z_1man , z_1wan , z_1wan , Kurd. $z_1man < *b_1z_2ban$ 'language';

II.1.3.16. *n

- i. > Sogd. n, Yagh. n: Sogd. /nāf/ 'human kind', Yagh. nōf 'navel' < *nāfa-, Ave. nāfa- 'navel';
- ii. (in some cases before *č, γ < *g, *k, *m, *t, š (< *č_t, *-i-kā-_t), *θ, *x) > Sogd. Ø ~ n, Yagh. n ~ Ø: Sogd. B ²yškt²yh M ʿyšktyh /įškətĕ/ 'harem' < *imċ-kata'i < *iáuni-kā-kata-ka-; Sogd. C xγr /xáγər/ (x Sogd. M xnγr /xámγər/) 'sword' < *xángara-, Sogd. C kθ, qθ /kąθ/ (x Sogd. S B knδ(h) M knδ(δ) C knθ, qnθ /kamθ/) 'city, town', Yagh. Kánṣi 'Kansi (name of a village in Yaghnōb)', Yagh. [Panji]kát 'Panjakent' < *kánθā-; Oss. I kænt 'building', Khōt. kanthā-, ka(m)tha- 'town' (GMS § 334-341);
- iii. (non-etymological intrusive *n before *s) > Sogd. $n \sim \emptyset$, Yagh. \emptyset (?): Sogd. $M \sim ns\delta^2$ /áms $\Im a/(\times Sogd. B \sim s\delta, s\delta(\delta^2), s\delta(\delta h) / ás\Im, s\Im(\acute{a})/)$, Yagh. $\acute{os}(i) \parallel \bar{ot}$ '[you] are (copula of the 2^{nd} pers. pl. pres.) < *s $\Im \acute{a}$ -;
- iv. *nt, *nd > Sogd. md, Yagh. nt: Sogd. s γntm C γntm /γámdəm/, Yagh. γámtun (<γántum) 'wheat' < *gántuma-, Ave. gantuma-;
- v. *nt, *nd (occasionally) > Sogd. md, Yagh. nd ¹⁷⁹: Sogd. B δnt(²)k B M δnt²kh C dnt² / δimdă(k), δamdă(k)/, Yagh. díndak 'tooth, teeth' < *dántu-ka-;
- vi. *nk, *ng > Sogd. mg, Yagh. nk: Sogd. B snk(²) M sng /sámg(š)/, Yagh. sánk(a) 'stone' < *atánga-(ka-), Ave. asənga-, OPers. aβanga-; Sogd. B ²nk²yr /ámgir/, Yagh. ínkir 'fireplace' < *hám-garja-;
- vii. *nč, *nj > Sogd. mj, Yagh. nč: Sogd. s в с рпс м рпс, рпž, рпj /pamj/, Yagh. panč 'five' < *pánča-, Ave. panča-, Pers. panj;
- viii. * $n + *-ik(\bar{a})$ > Sogd. $m\check{j}$, Yagh. $n\check{c}$: Sogd. BS $^2ync(h)$ M 5ync C 2ync / $im\check{j}$ / (< $*im\check{c}$) 'woman', Yagh. $in\check{c}$ 'wife' < $*i\acute{a}\acute{u}ni$ - $k\bar{a}$ -;
- ix. * $n + *-ik(\bar{a})$ (rarely) > Sogd. $m\check{j}$, Yagh. $n\check{j}^{480}$: Sogd. B 2 ? 2 ync M 2 ? 2 n \check{j} C 2 rync / \check{a} r $\overset{\circ}{i}$ m $\overset{\circ}{i}$ / (< * \check{a} r $\overset{\circ}{i}$ m $\overset{\circ}{i}$), Yagh. \bar{o} rín $\overset{\circ}{j}$ 'elbow' < * \check{a} r $\overset{\circ}{a}$ n $\overset{\circ}{i}$ -ka-, Pers. \bar{a} r $\overset{\circ}{a}$ n $\overset{\circ}{i}$;

II.1.3.17. *r

i. > Sogd. r, Yagh. r: Sogd. B S $r \Im(h) \bowtie r \Im(\delta)(h) \subset r \Im / r \bar{a} \Im /$, Yagh. $r \bar{o}_{\underline{t}}$ 'path, road' < $r \hat{a} \Im(a) -$;

¹⁷⁹ In Yaghnōbī *nd* is attested just in one inherited word: *díndak* 'tooth', the form can be contamined by Persian *dandán* of the same meaning (KHROMOV 1987, 659).

¹⁸⁰ In Yaghnōbī n_j^x is attested only in one inherited word: $\bar{o}rin_j^x$ 'elbow' but its form can have been influenced by Persian $\bar{a}r\acute{a}n\acute{j}$.

- ii. (non-etymological intrusive *r before *n, after β < *b or after a long vowel) > Sogd. r (r)
 ø, Yagh. ø (?): Sogd. β γwrn-w, γwrn-y M (y)xwrn-y C xwrn-y /(yə)xwərni, xwərni/ (x
 Sogd. β γγwn-w, wγrn-b M yxwn-y C ywxn-y /yəxwəni, yəxwəni, yəxni/, yəxni/, Yagh. wáxin) 'blood' < *uáhu(r)na-, Ave. vohunī-; Sogd. M βrywr /βréwər/ 'ten thousand' < *báiuar-, Ave. baēuuar-; Oss. biræ || be(u)ræ 'many, much' (GMS §359-362);
- iii. (in several cases before *ž, *n, *š, *t or after *ā) > Sogd. ø, Yagh. ø: Sogd. M kj c qž /kaž/ (x Sogd. s b krz, krz m krj c qrž /kařž/) 'miracle' < *kárja-; Sogd. m c p² /pā/ (x Sogd. s b m p²r /pāř/, Yagh. par) 'for, because of < *pār-; Sogd. c =s² /=sā/ (x Sogd. s b m c =s²r /=sā/), Yagh. =sa '(towards) to' < *tār- (GMS §354-358);
- iv. *rn > Sogd. rn, Yagh. n(n): Sogd. B prn /pain/ 'feather', Yagh. pan(n) 'blade of a wheel of a watter-mill' < *párna- 'feather'; Sogd. B M krn /kain/, Yagh. kan(n) 'deaf' < *kárna-, Ave. karəna-;

II.1.3.18. **l* (?)

i. > Sogd. l (?) / r (?), Yagh. l (?): Sogd. B √rys /√rēs ~ √lēs/, Yagh. lēs- 'to lick' < *raidz- (*laidz-), Ave. raēz-, Pers. lēsīdán : lēs-; Sogd. s √wyr²rz c √wlrz, √wdrz /√wilárz/, Yagh. larz- (< Pers.?) 'to tremble' < *(μi-)rardz- (*(μi-)lardz-), Khōt. rrīys-, Pers. larzīdán : larz-;

II.1.3.19. *s

- i. > Sogd. s, Yagh. s: Sogd. s 'st B 'sty C sty /(ə)stí, ást(i)/, Yagh. ást(i) '[(s)he/it] is' < *ásti, OAve. astī, OPers. astī, Ved. ástī, Ide. *h₁ésti;
- *ii.* *sp (often stem-initially) > Sogd. šp, Yagh. šp (?): Sogd. B M √²nšpr /√áṁšpər/ 'to walk' < *hám-spar- (GMS §370);
- iii. *sk (often stem-initially) > Sogd. šk, Yagh. š^Vk (?): Sogd. B (²)šk²wrð M (²)škwrð C šqwr⊅ /³škōṙЗ/ 'difficult' < *skáu̞ℑra-, OPers. škau̞ℑi-; Sogd. B √(²)šk²yr C √šqyr /√³škḗr/ 'to be driven', Yagh. šⁱkḗl(l)- 'to push' < *skáraja- (GMS § 366-367)
- iv. *sč (outcome of simplification of a *clusteru*) > Sogd. č, Yagh. č (?): Sogd. B ycy M xcy, 'ycy Br *hji* /xəčí, ičí/ '[(s)he/it] is' < *(x)ásčí < *ásti (GMS §372);
- v. *sč (in forms of preposition *pasča-) > Sogd. š, Yagh. ?: Sogd. s pyš- в pyš-, ²pyš м pš-(²), pšyy c pš-(²), pšy /piš(ə), ³piš, piší/ 'after, later' < *pásča-, Ave. pasča- (GMS §373);

II.1.3.20. *h

i. (in front of *ŭ, *u, *ău) > Sogd. x, Yagh. x: Sogd. /(ə)xú, (ə)xó/, Yagh. ax 'he' < ábau; Sogd. B γwrn-w, γwrn-y, yγwn-w, wγrn-b M (y)xwrn-y, yxwn-y C xwrn-y, ywxn-y /(yə)xwə(r)ní, xwərnú, yəxwənú, yəxní, wəxərná/, Yagh. wáxin 'blood' < *uábu(r)na-, Ave. vohunī-, vohuna-; Sogd. B γw(y)r, C xwyr, M xwr /xüĕr/ (later /xōr/), Yagh. xūr 'sun' < *huárja- (GMS §389-396);

- ii. (following a long vowel) > Sogd. x, Yagh. $x \sim k$ (?): Sogd. $s B \gamma^2 \gamma h / x \bar{a} x / y$, Yagh. $x \bar{o} k$ 'spring' $< *x \hat{a} x a -;$ Sogd. $s B m^2 \gamma (h) M m^2 x / m \bar{a} x / m oon' <math>< m \hat{a} h -,$ Pers. $m \bar{a} h$, Ved. $m \hat{a} s (a) (GMS \S 394 396);$
- iii. (word-initially, mainly before *ĭ, *į) > Sogd. Ø, Yagh. Ø: Sogd. B (²)zβ²(²)k M zβ²k C zb²q
 /²zβāk/, Yagh. z¹vốk 'language' < hidzuá-kă-, Ave. hizū-, hizvā-, hizvah-, Ved. jihvá- (GMS §397);
- iv. (often word-internally) > Sogd. ø, Yagh. ø: Sogd. м xw²r /x°ār/, Yagh. x̊ōr 'sister' < *huáhar-, Ave. xʰaŋhar; Sogd. s в м √nyð с √nyd : s в м √nyst с √nyst /√nīð : √nīst/, Yagh. nīd- 'to sit' < *nihida- (GMS §398-401);
- v. (occasionally when palatalized) > Sogd. š, Yagh. š: Sogd. M ^ςyš /ɨš/, Yagh. išt¹⁸¹ '[thou] art' < *áhi, OAve. ahī, Ved. ási (GMS §405);
- vi. (in some forms of the verb *ah- 'to be') > Sogd. x, Yagh. x: Sogd. s xnt B γnt M xnd C xnt /xamd/ '[they] are' < *hánti, OAve. həṇtī, OPers. hantiy, Ved. sánti (GMS §770); Sogd. B γcy M xcy Br hji /xəči/, Yagh. xást(i) '[(s)he/it] is' < *ásti; Sogd. s M C x²y B γ²y, x²y /xāi/, Yagh. xōy '[(s)he] was (copula 3rd pers. sg. impf.)' < *áiձ < *á'a < *áha (GMS §770-771);

Iranian *h originates from Ide. *s, except when it is followed by another obstruent. Similar development *s > *h can be seen also in Greek, Armenian, Celtic, Phrygian, Lycian or Albanian, and marginally in Vedic. In Greek Ide. *s changed to *h (but remained when adjacent to a stop or word-finally), later on it was subject of Grassmann's Law word-initially or disappears word-internally. In Celtic original *s following a vowel was lenited to *h when no obstruent followed, in Brythonic there has been the change *s > *h also word-initially 182 , later word-internal *h disappears. In Armenian the development was the same as in Brythonic Celtic; in Albanian *s changes to h between vowels. In Vedic Ide. word-final *s changes to 'visarga' (h) before a pause (cf. BEEKES 2011, 137; MEIER-BRÜGGER 2003, 102-105; KÜMMEL 2010, 12; MARTIROSYAN 2008, 536).

II.1.3.21. *z

- i. > Sogd. z, Yagh. z: Sogd. Sogd. B zmy /změ/ B č ²zm-y /ɨzmí/, Yagh. ízim 'firewood' < *áizma-(ka-), Ave. aēsma-, Khwār. ²zm, Pers. hēzúm, Ved. idhmá-;
- ii. (prothesis before *m-) > Sogd. z, Yagh. ø (?): Sogd. B zm²wrc, zm²wr²k /zmōrč, zmṓrĕ/,
 Yagh. mūrčak¹8³ 'ant' < *(z)máuri-ka-(ka-), (z)máura-ka-, Ave. maoiri-, Tjk. mūrčák,
 Pers. mōrčá (GMS §380)¹8⁴;

Yaghnōbī $i\check{s}t < *i\check{s} = t < *h\acute{a}hi + = t$ (encl. pron. 2^{nd} pers. sg.) (GAUTHIOT – BENVENISTE 1929, 52).

¹⁸² See OIrl. ṛẹn; Irl. sean; Gael. sean(n); Manx shenn × Welsh hen (hên); Bret. hen; Cornish hen 'old' < Ide. *seno-s; cf. Ved. sánaḥ; Lat. senex; Goth. sineigs; Lith. sēnas; Latv. sens × Gre. ἕvoç; Armen. hin.

¹⁸³ Yaghnōbī $m\acute{u}r\acute{c}ak$ can originate either from Tājīk $m\ddot{\bar{u}}r\acute{c}ak$ (x Pers. $m\bar{o}r\acute{c}a$), or the Tājīk form originates from a Sogdo-Yaghnōbī dialect.

- iii. *zd > Sogd. zd, Yagh. zd || st: Sogd. s pzt- /pəzd-á/, Yagh. pazd || pa(i)st 'smoke' < *pázda(ia)-, Ave. pazdaiia-;
- iv. *zd (palatalized) > Sogd. ž, Yagh. ž (?): Sogd. s $\beta(y)z-y$, $\beta(y)z-y$, $\beta(y)j-y$,

II.1.3.22. *ts

- i. > Sogd. s, Yagh. s: Sogd. B snk(²) M sng /sáṁg(ā)/, Yagh. sánk(a) 'stone' < *atánga-(ka-),
 Ave. asənga-, OPers. aβanga-; Sogd. B M rwps /rópəs/, Yagh. rúpas 'fox' < *ráupāta-, Pers. rōbāh, Ved. lopāśá-; Sogd. B M sr-y /sərí/, Yagh. sar 'head' < *tára-, Pers. sar, Oss. sær (GMS §364);
- ii. (palatalized) > Sogd. š, Yagh. š: Sogd. B $\sqrt{pn^2y}$ š / $\sqrt{p^3}$ néš/, Yagh. $p^in\acute{e}$ š- $\parallel p^in\acute{a}$ iš- 'to lose' < Ir. *apa-nátaja- (LIVSHITS KHROMOV 1981, 388 ; GMS §374);
- iii. *ttr > Sogd. š, Yagh. š: Sogd. B wyš(h) /wēš/, Yagh. wēš || wajš 'grass' < *μάτττμα-, Ave. vāstriia-;
- iv. *tr > Sogd. š, Yagh. š: Sogd. B M šwk C šwq /šōk/, Yagh. šūk 'silent' < *a-tráuka- (GMS §371);
- v. *tɨ̯ > Sogd. š, Yagh. š: Sogd. s B M š²w C šw /šāu̯/, Yagh. šōu̯ 'black' < *tɨ̞au̞a-, Ave. siiāuua-, Pers. siyáh (GMS §194);
- vi. *τω > *τφ > Sogd. sp, Yagh. sp: Sogd. s в м 'sp-y /əspi/, c (')sp-y /(э)spi /, Yagh. asp 'horse' < *άτωμα-, Ave. aspα-; Sogd. в 'sp'yt('k), 'sp(')ytk, (')sp'ytk, (')sp'yty c spyty /ispḗtĕ/, Yagh. sipḗta 'white' < *τωάjtα-kα- (GMS §364);
 - (ad vi.) Development *τμ > *sp is common in majority of Eastern Iranian languages, an exception is the South Western ("Persian") branch, Wakhī and Saka dialects. In the Nūristānī and Dardic langauges there is IIr. *ćμ > Nūr./Dard. *šp, in the Indo-Aryan languages there is expected development IIr. *ćμ > Ved. śv. The development of Ir. *τμ (IIr. *ćμ, Ide. *kμ) can be demonstrated in an example of Ide. *h₁ékμo-s 'horse': IIr. *háćμa-s; Ir. *(h)áτμα-h; Ave. aspa-, Sogd. aspí, Khwār. ²sb/²sp /asp/, Bactr. ασπο /asp/, Yagh. asp, Oss. yæſs || æſsæ, Munj. yōsp, Yidgh. yasp, Pasht. ās ((m.) // áspa (f.); Wazīrī dial.: wōs // wōspa; Afrīdī dial. wā̄s // wā̄spa < *Proto-Paṭhān *áspā- // *áspā-), Waṇ. ās, Ōrm. yāsp, Parāch. ösp; Med. *aspa-, Balōch. (h)aps, (h)asp, Kurd. (h)esp × OPers. asa- (but Pers. asb/asp and Pahl. asp is probably of Median or Parthian origin 185); Wakh. yaš, Khōt. aśśa-186;

¹⁸⁵ Similarly in other New South Western Iranian languages: Bakhtiyārī, Samghānī, Davānī asp, Lārestānī (²)asp etc. In this case they are loans Persian loans (Fārs. äsb).

¹⁸⁴ See also Gre. σμύρνα × μύρρα 'myrrh'; Gre σμάραγδος × Skt. marakata- 'smaragd'.

(Indo-Aryan responses) Ved. áśva-ḥ, Pāli assa, Bengālī aśba; cf. āššu[ššanni] 'horse trainer' in Mitanni Indic;

(Nūristānī responses) Kati (Bashgalī): úšpa (Kāmviri) / vašúp (Kātəviri);

(Dardic responses) Şiṇā ãšpo, Kalāṣa bãš;

(other Ide. responses) Gre. ίππος (Aeolic ἴκκος), Lat. equus (m.) // equa (f.) > Romanian iapă, Spanish yegua 'mare'; Celtic *epos ~ *ekuos, OIrl. eċ, Irl. Gael. each; OBret. eb; Goth. aíhva-, OEng. ēoh, OIcel. jór, Tokh. A yuk B yakwe, Armen. ēš; Lith. ašvà/ešvà 'mare'.

II.1.3.23. *dz

- i. > Sogd. z, Yagh. z: Sogd. s c z²γ M z²γ(γ) /zāi/ 'earth', Yagh. zōγ 'field' < *dzģia-;
- ii. (palatalized) > Sogd. ž, Yagh. ž: Sogd. c √pryž /√pərėž/, Yagh. p¹rėž- ∥ p¹ráįž- 'to escape'
 < *upa-rádzaja- (GMS §201);
- iii. (dissimilated) > Sogd. δ , Yagh. d: Sogd. δ Mg M δ st-y δ dst-y δ dst-y δ dast 'hand' < *dásta- < *dzásta-, Ave. zasta-, Ved. hásta-;
- iv. (before $\gamma < *g$) > Sogd. ž, Yagh. ž (?): Sogd. B $\sqrt{2}wz\gamma\delta$ M $\sqrt{2}wj\gamma\delta(\delta)$ / $\sqrt{6}z\gamma\gamma\delta$ / 'to dismount' $<*aua-zg\acute{a}d-$, Ave. zgad- (GMS §376.2);
- v. *dzr > Sogd. ž, Yagh. \check{z} (?): Sogd. s $\bar{z}y\delta n(h)$ / $\check{z}\acute{e}\delta$ ən/ 'hail' < * $dzr\acute{a}dun\check{i}$ -, Ved. $br\bar{a}d\acute{u}n\bar{i}$ -, cf. Pers. $\check{z}\bar{a}l\acute{a}^{187}$;
- - (ad vi.) Development of * $dz \mu$ ¹⁸⁹ is rather complicated in comparison with the above mentioned development of * $tz \mu$ (II.1.3.22.vi.). There are no many examples, the best one

Both etymologies are wrong – there are comparable examples for another source of Sogd. and Yagh. \check{z} in this case, cf. Wakh. $\check{j}oy$ - or Munj. $\check{z}\check{o}y$ -. Ivan Mikhaĭlovich Steblin-Kamenskiy connects this verb with Ave. $g\bar{a}\Im a$ - 'song, Gāthā' and Ved. $g\bar{a}yati$ 'he sings' ~ (I)Ir. * $\check{j}\check{a}\check{i}$ - < Ide. * $g\bar{e}\check{i}$ - (STEBLIN-KAMENSKIY 1999, 200). Other "comparable" examples with different etymology are Shugh.-Rōsh. $\check{x}\check{o}y$ -, Sarīq. $\check{x}uy$ - 'to speak' and Pasht. $\check{x}\check{o}w\acute{o}l$ 'to show' are from Ir. * $sr\bar{a}ua\check{i}a$ - (ibid.).

^{*/}ts\$\phi - s\$\phi/ > Khōt. \$\sis\$ [\(\infty(:)\)] / Wakh. \$\sis\$. Similar development of rounding can be observed e.g. in Avestan: YAve. draf\$\sigma^-\$ 'banner' \times Ved. draf\$\sigma^-\$; OAve. naf\$\sigma^\infty\$ 'grand-child (loc. pl.)' < *naf\$u^- < IIr. *napt-su^-\$ (Reiner LIPP, pers. comm.).

¹⁸⁷ Most likely a borrowing from some Eastern Iranian language which changed *d to l, but there was no i-Umlaut of the root vowel; probably a Bactrian loan, see Yidgh. $\check{z}\bar{\imath}lo$ 'hail'.

Dialectally also *dzu > ž β : Sogd. c ž β 'q /ž β āk/ 'tongue' (GMS §378).

It was claimed by Khromov and Livshits that there was also a development * $dzu > \check{z}$ in Sogdian Yaghnōbī: Sogd. M $\sqrt{j^2y} \subset \sqrt{\check{z}^2y} / \sqrt{\check{z}}$ it o discuss, to talk', Yagh. \check{z} ōy- 'to read, to sing, to learn' < *dzuáia-, Ave. zbaiia-, Skt. bvayati (KHROMOV – LIVSHITS 1981, 412; KHROMOV 1987, 567). On contrary, Ilya Gershevitch claims Sogd. $\sqrt{\check{z}}$ āy/ can be connected with Pahl. drāy- (GMS § 285) < Ir. *drāi-/ *drau- (the same explanation also in RASTORGUEVA – ÈDEL'MAN 2003, 464). Yaghnōbī \check{z} cannot come from Ir. *dr so if this root comes from *drāi- we would expect Yagh. †darôy- || †dirôy-.

is an Iranian word for *tongue*, *language*, but unfortunatelly its responses are attested from two stems: *hidzuá- and *hidzú-.

*(hi)dzuá-(kă-) > Sogd. /³zβāk ~ žβāk/, Yagh. z¹vók, Oss. ævzag, Ave. hizuuā-¹9°, Khwār. zuβ²k, ²zβ²k /zuβág, əzβág/, Bactr. εζωγο /əzβāg/, Munj. zəvíγ u zəvúg, Yidgh. z³vīγ, zıbēγ, Shugh.-Rōsh. ziv, Yazg. zəveg, Ishk. z(ь)vůk, Sangl. zəvйk, Pasht. žəba, Wazīrī žəbba¹9¹, Waṇ. z(i)bə, zəbō; Ved. jihvá;

*hidzuá-nă- > OPers. hizānm (acc. sg.), Pahl. ²wzw²n M ʿzw²n /uzwān, izwān/, Pers. zabán, Parth. ʿzb²n /izbān/, Med. *hizbān-;

*(hi)dzū-(kā-) > Ave. hizū-, Wakh. zĭk, OPers. hizū- 192 ; Ved. juhū-;

Unexplained is Khōt. *biśā /βiźā/*, Vera Sergeevna Rastorgueva and Dzhoy Iosifovich Èdel'man claim it can result from methatesis of *dzuā-n- ?? (RASTORGUEVA – ÈDEL'MAN 2007, 405);

II.1.3.24. *i

- i. > Sogd. y, Yagh. y: Sogd. s M yw-y /yəwi/, Yagh. yau "barley < *iáua, Ave. yauua-; Sogd. B sy²²k(b) M sy²k C sy²q /səyāk/, Yagh. siyōka 'shadow' < *atāiá-kā-(ka-), Ave. asaiia-;
- ii. (hiatus) > Sogd. y, Yagh. y: Sogd. s B M ²²y /āi̯/, Yagh. ōy '[(s)he] was (3rd pers. sg. impf.)'
 *áiặ < *á'a < *ha=háha, Ave. ā̄ŋha (GMS § 401);
 - (ad *i.*) **i* often disappeared in *Proto-Sogdic. The loss of **i* caused *i*-Umlaut of **ă*, **u*, **ç*, **ău* (II.1.2.1.*iv-v*, *vii-viii*.; II.1.2.2.*iii-iv*, *vi-vii*.; II.1.2.5.*vi-v*.; II.1.2.7.*iii-v*.; II.1.2.9.*iii-v*.) or palatalization of **zd*, **t*, **dz* (II.1.3.21.*iv*.; II.1.3.22.*ii*.; II.1.3.23.*ii*.). Palatalization of consonants is widespread mainly in Khōtanese. In Sogdian the result of palatalization of vowels and/or consonants might gave different phonetic forms of verbal stems originating either form *-*aia*-causative or from *-*ia*-passive, thus the difference cannot be judged from spelling of Sogdian words (GMS §548-550);

II.1.3.25. *u

i. > Sogd. w, Yagh. w: Sogd. B wβr-y M wfr-y /wəfr-á/, Yagh. wáf¹r 'snow' < *μáfra-, Ave. vafra-; Sogd. B wyš(h) /wēš/, Yagh. wēš || waiš 'grass' < *μάttria-, Ave. vāstriia-; Sogd. S B √prw(²)yð M √prwyð C √prwyd /√pərwéð/ 'to seek', Yagh. parwéd- 'to beg' < *pari-μάida-;

Avestan zbaiia- and Vedic bvayati is connected with Pasht. zwaž-, OCS. zьvati : zovǫ 'to call, to invite' < Ide. $*\hat{g}^b e \mu H - / *\hat{g}^b \mu H$ -, Tokh. в kwā- (МАҮКНОБЕК 1996, 810).

¹⁹⁰ Instead of expected $\dagger hizb\bar{a}$ - (or maybe $\dagger hiz\beta\bar{a}$ -). Maybe -zuu- is to be understood as an allophone of *- $z\beta$ - < *-zb-.

 $^{^{191}}$ ž emerged from palatalization of $^*z < ^*dz$: ž $^*ba/^*z^*bba < ^*z^!ba < ^*izb\bar{a} < ^*(hi)dz u\bar{a}$ -, but Pasht./Wazīrī ž $^*aba/^*z^*bba$ may be a loan (or influence?) from Sindhī $^*jib^*ba$ (RASTORGUEVA — ÈDEL'MAN 2007, 404–405)

¹⁹² Instead of expected † hidū - < *hiðū - < *hidzū - . Probably a Median loan.

II.1.3.26. *H¹⁹³

- i. > Sogd. Ø, Yagh. Ø: Sogd. s ²st B ²sty C sty /(ə)stí, ást(i)/, Yagh. ást(i) '[(s)he/it] is' < *hásti, OAve. astī, OPers. astiy, Ved. ásti, Ide. *h₁ésti; Sogd. s B M ²sp-y /əspí/, C (²)sp-y /(³)spí /, Yagh. asp 'horse' < *átua- < Ir. *hátua-, Ave. aspa-, OPers. asa-, Ved. áśva- < IIr. *hátua- < Ide. *h₁ékuo-s; Sogd. M xwštr-y /xuštrí/ 'camel' < *uxštrí < *huštra-, Ave. uštra-, Ved. úṣṭra-;
- ii. (in forms of internal augment) > Sogd. V̄, Yagh. V̄ ~ Ø: Sogd. s M √ptywš B √pty(²)wš C √ptywš: s B √ptyywš, √pt²yy²wš M C √ptyywš C √ptyywš /√p³tyōš: √ptiyōš/ 'to hear (pressem: impf. stem)' < *păti-yáošă-: *păti-yaošă- < *pati-gáuša-: *pati-ha=gáuša- (× Yagh. duyúš-: aduyúš- < *(pă)tĭ-yáošă-: *à=(pă)tĭ-yáošă- < *pati-gáuša-: *pati-ha=gáuša-); Sogd. B √wzyð M √wjyð(ð): B √w²zyð M √w²zyð M √w²zyð /√ožyðð: √wážyðð/ 'to dismount (pressem: impf. stem)' < *áo-žyãð-: * ăuá-žyãð- < *haua-dzgád-: *haua-ha=dzgád-; Sogd. s B M ²²y /āi/, Yagh. ōy '[(s)he] was (¾ pers. sg. impf.)' < *áiā < *há(h)a < *ha=hába, Ave. āŋba;
- iii. *aна > Sogd. \bar{a} , Yagh. \bar{o} : Sogd. w^2t /wāt/, Yagh. $w \bar{o} t(a)$ 'wind' < *uaн $\bar{a} ta$ -(ua-(ua-(ua-), Ave. ua-(ua-) < Ide. *u-ua-1, Lat. u-u-). Lat. u-u-u-)

II.1.4. Syncope and reduction

Vowel reduction continued later on in Sogdian and Yaghnōbī in different ways. In Sogdian all historical short vowels *a, *i, *u (and also Sogd. e from i-Umlaut of short *a; cf. Sogd. s $\beta(y)z-y$, $\beta(y)z-y$,

¹⁹³ With some exceptions, I will not mark *Proto-Iranian laryngeals in the presented work.

Another example of reduction in *Proto-Sogdic is loss of * $_{(7)}$ under several circumstances (see chapters II.1.2.7.vii.-viii., II.1.3.17.iii., II.1.3.9.v.-vii. and for Yaghnōbī also II.1.2.7.v.): Sogd. s $\sqrt{(?)}krt$ - B $\sqrt{?}krt$ - M $\sqrt{(?)}kt$ - C $\sqrt{(?)}qt$ - $\sqrt{!}kt$ -/, Yagh. ikta 'to do, to make (past part.)' < *krta-(ka-); Sogd. M kj C qt /ka-t/2 (× Sogd. s B krt, krt/2 M krj C t/2 (× Sodg. s B t/2)t/2 (× Sodg. s B t/2)t/3 (× Sodg. s B t/2)t/4 (× Sodg. s B t/2)t/4 (× Sodg. s B t/2)t/6 (

In Yaghnōbī all word-final vowels were lost, in Sogdian *heavy-stem* word-final vowels were lost also, but they have been preserved in *light-stem* endings.

As syncope can be explained origin of indicative present and imperfect ending of the third person plural $-\bar{o}st$. It originates in older $-\bar{o}r-ist^{194}$ (attested as $-\bar{o}rist$ by Junker 1930, 107). The development of the ending can be reconstructed as follows: $-\bar{o}r(-)ist > -\bar{o}(y)ist > -\bar{o}yst$ (attested in speech of village of Marghtimayn; KLIMCHITSKIY 1940, 99-100) $> -\bar{o}st$ (cf. Novák [in print], note nr. 23).

II.1.5. Prothesis and epenthesis

Syllabic structure of *Proto-Sogdic permitted presence of word-initial consonant clusters, this feature slowly appears to change in *Proto-Sogdian and *Proto-Yaghnōbī after the split of *Proto-Sogdic – in both of the derived (proto-)languages the word-initial consonant clusters were not allowed so they were transformed: Yaghnōbī shows epenthesis – a svarabhakti vowel *a*, ⁱ or ^u was inserted to break the original initial consonant cluster; Sogdian shows prothesis rather than epenthesis – the prothetic vowel is spelled as ^ə in the presented thesis, but in front of ^s often appears its allophone ⁱ (we can suppose presence of ⁱ according to texts written in the

¹⁹⁴ From Iranian perfect indicative active voice $*-r(\tilde{s}) > *-\bar{a}ri$; and (originally) durative ending $-i\tilde{s}t$ (cf. Sogd. B $^2\tilde{s}tn$ attested in Vessantara Jātaka).

Manichaean script, where the epenthetic vowel is often spelled by 'ayin before s instead of more common $\bar{a}la\bar{p}$; cf. GMS §157).

After the split of *Proto-Sogdic two kinds of prothesis/epenthesis appeared – vocalic and consonantal:

1) As have been mentioned above, vocalic prothesis appears in Sogdian, in Yaghnōbī there is vocalic epenthesis observable in analogous positions. Sogdian prothetic ² (and ⁴) usually appears before inherited word-initial clusters (cf. GMS §157), prothetic vowel can appear also before a historical single consonant - this feature is observable mainly for Sogdian k and x (GMS §159-160), peripherally also for Sogd. γ preceding historical $*\check{u}$ – the *Proto-Sogdic velars were probably labialized and labialization was then reanalyzed as a consonant cluster (see chapters II.1.3.3.v., II.1.3.11.iii., II.1.3.7.ii.). There are also other examples of prothesis before a historically single consonant – some examples are given in GMS §159-161 – in all those cases the prothetic vowel emerged from secondary built clusters of *Cu or *Ci: s B 'ky /3ke/ 'who' < *kia- < * $k\acute{a}h(j\bar{a})$ -; s $\hbar w(2)$, b M $\hbar w(2)$ / $\hbar w(3)$ / $\hbar w = 1$ (w) $\hbar w = 1$ (two' < * $\hbar u = 1$; s b $\hbar w = 1$ (w) $\hbar w$ *či-āka-. Different example of prothesis before a single consonant may be seen in Sogdian: ²pkš-y 'side' < *upa-kaša-, Skt. pakṣa- (claimed as a Sanskrit loan in Buddhist Sogdian by Gerschevitch (GMS §161), but cf. Yagh. kapáš | kipáš) – in this case we can assume pronunciation *pkəší (cf. Qarīb 1383, 50 §1277) rather than **pəkší (cf. GMS §161; but see the same example in chapter on metathesis II.1.7.); comparable example may be Sogdian word for "father": B $^2ptr-y$ M $(^2)ptr-y(y)$ C $(^2)ptr-y$ $/^3pt(9)ri/ < pit\acute{a}-r^{195}$. It should be noted that there are no many examples of prothesis in Christian Sogdian texts.

In Yaghnōbī there are three epenthetic svarabhakti vowels a, i and u. Svarabhakti a appears mainly in Eastern Yaghnōbī, in the Western and Transitional dialects there is i instead (but i appears in many Eastern Yaghnōbī words also). Svarabhakti u is quite rare, it can be considered as allophonous variant of a or i. It can be said that svarabhakti u is a typical epenthetic vowel in Yaghnōbī, it appears in majority of words, e.g. $v^i y \delta r a$ 'evening' $< *\beta y \delta r a < *abi-a i \delta r a -k a -; v^i r \delta t$ 'younger brother' $< *\beta r \delta t$ etc., see also Russian $m \rho \delta \kappa m o \rho > V$ agh. $t^i r \delta t \kappa^i t$ 'tractor'. In other cases there appears a in the Eastern dialect and u in the Western and Transitional dialects – this often happens in clusters beginning in u and u (u in the Western and Transitional dialects – this often happens in clusters beginning in u and u in the Western and Transitional dialects – u is often happens in clusters beginning in u and u in the Western and Transitional dialects – u is often happens in clusters beginning in u and u in the Western and Transitional dialects – u is often happens in clusters beginning in u and u in the Western and Transitional dialects – u is often happens in clusters beginning in u and u in the Western and Transitional dialects – u is often happens in clusters beginning in u and u in the Western and Transitional dialects – u is often happens in clusters beginning in u and u in the Western and Transitional dialects – u is often happens in clusters beginning in u and u in the Western and Transitional dialects – u is often happens in clusters beginning in u and u is often happens in clusters beginning in u and u is a point u in the Western and u in the Western and u is a point u in the Western and u is a point u in the Western and u is a point u in the Western and u in the Western and u in the Western

But emergence of the prothetic vowel can be interpreted also in a different way – the Sogdian root may originate from a stem comparable to Avestan (p) $t\bar{a}$ (nom.), $ptar\bar{s}m$ (acc.) or $f\bar{s}\bar{b}r\bar{o}i$ (dat.).

For the change $a > \bar{o}$ see chapter II.1.2.1.x.

In Yaghnōbī is attested also vowel epenthesis in some word-final clusters ending in *xm, *xn, *\Beta, *\sim, *(x)\sin, *\chin, *fr, *zm and *\gamma: r\alphax\sin '\dawn' < *r\alpha\uxisna-; w\alpha\iffir' snow' < *\u\u\alpha\int ranger \uxisna-; w\alphax\int r\univan' now' \text{ \text{\$\text{\$\text{\$\sin}\$}}} '\text{\$\text{olawn'}} '\text{\$\

In Yaghnōbī there are not allowed clusters Cy, so an anaptyctic i is inserted to break the cluster: C^iy : Yagh. $dun^iy\delta$ 'world' < Pers. $duny\delta$ < Ar. $duny\delta$, Yagh. $bis(s)^iy\delta r$ 'much, many' < Pers. $bisy\delta r$, Yagh. $samal^iy\delta t$ 'airplane' < Russ. $camon\delta m$. Some of the Cy clusters often undergo metathesis yC: $duyn\delta$, $samayl\delta t$.

2) Consonantal epenthesis (excrescence) is attested only in a few Sogdian words. In several words intrusive x before $\S C$ is attested: Sogd. M $\mbox{$nipi\S ta-(ka-)$}$; Sogd. s $\mbox{$nipi\S ta-(ka-)$}$; Sogd. s $\mbox{$nipi\S ta-(ka-)$}$; Sogd. s $\mbox{$nipi\S ta-(ka-)$}$; Before $\mbox{$nipi\S ta-(ka-)$}$; Sogd. s $\mbox{$nipi\S ta-(ka-)$}$; Before $\mbox{$nipi\S ta-(ka-)$}$; Sogd. B $\mbox{$nipi\S ta-(ka-)$}$; Before $\mbox{$nipi\S ta-(ka-)$}$; Sogd. Before $\mbox{$nipi\S ta-(ka-)$}$; Sogd. Before $\mbox{$nipi\S ta-(ka-)$}$; Before $\mbox{$nipi\S ta-(ka-)$}$; Sogd. Before $\mbox{$nipi\S ta-(ka-)$}$; Before $\mbox{$nipi\S ta-(ka-)$}$; Sogd. B

II.1.6. Assimilation and dissimilation

There can be found some examples of dissimilation or assimilation in Sogdian and Yaghnōbī. At first should be mentioned really old dissimilation *dz-st > *d-st in Iranian *dzásta- 'hand' (Ved. hásta-, Ide. *ḡbés-to-) — it appears as zasta- in Avestan, in Old Persian is attested dasta- (here d- can originate either from *dz- or from *d-), but in all other Iranian languages the word for "hand" comes from dissimilated stem *dásta-: Sogd. B Mg M δst-y C dst-y /δəstí/, Yagh. dast; Khwār. δst, Khōt. dasta-, Bactr. λιστο */list/, Shugh. δust, Rōsh. δost, Khūf. δūst, Sarīq δωst, Wakh. δast, Yazgh. δůst, Munj. lost, Yidgh. last, Pasht. lās, Parāch. döst, Pers. dast, Pahl. dst */dast/, Parth. dst. The dissimilated form of the word dásta- may have been influenced by past participle of the verb *dā- 'to give' — *dad-ta- > *dasta- '(the) giving (one) [= hand]'.

*Proto-Sogdic dissimilation can be seen in example of the numeral "six" which comes from Ir. *xšuášam and which was dissimilated in *(Pre-)Proto-Sogdic as *xuášam > *xuášam > *xuáša > Sogd. s B } \(^2\gamma w \times w \times x w \ti

¹⁹⁷ Yagh. form *rúyan* may be a loan from Mastchōhī Tājīk (cf. Tjk. *rau̞yán*, TMast *rūyán*, Pers. *rōyán*, Fārs. *rou̞yán*, Pahl. *rōyn*), or the epenthetic *a* was taken from/influenced by Tājīk.

'weeping' < *bráwa- (see chapter II.1.3.15.iii.) < *bráma-, similar, but opposite development is attested in Yaghnōbī $b^i d$ ốn 'middle' < *madiána-, Sogd. M my δ ? $n \in myd$ (?)n / midán/ (see chapter II.1.3.15.ii.).

Voice assimilation of stops following a homorganic nasal is typical for Sogdian. This development probably stared in *Proto-Sogdic, where groups * $\{m/(n)\}\{p/b\}$, * $\{(m)/n\}\{b/j/k\}$ changed to *Proto-Sogdic *mb, *nd, *nd,

In Yaghnōbī voiceless consonant were voiced when they directly preceded a voiced consonant – such voicing appeared after syncope of unstressed vowels as can be demonstrated in following examples: Yagh. $d^u\gamma u\tilde{s}$ - 'to hear' $<*d\gamma o\tilde{s}$ - $<*(p^{\circ})t\gamma o\tilde{s}$ - $<*pati-gau\tilde{s}a$ -, Sogd. s M C $\forall pt\gamma w\tilde{s}$ B $\forall pt\gamma(\tilde{s})w\tilde{s}$ /p³t $\gamma o\tilde{s}$ -/; Yagh. $b^uz o\tilde{n}$ - $\parallel b^iz o\tilde{n}$ - 'to know' $<*bz\bar{a}n$ - $<*pz\bar{a}n$ - $<*apa-dz\tilde{a}n$ -; Yagh. b^udufs - 'to glue, to stick' $<*b\delta ufs$ - $<*p\delta ufs$ - <*upa-dafta-, Sogd. B $\forall p\delta w\beta s$ -, $\forall p\delta wfs$ - M $\forall p\delta wfs$ - $/\forall p$ 3ufs-/ (see chapters II.1.3.1.ii., II.1.3.2.ii.).

II.1.7. Metathesis

There are attested several examples of metathesis in Sogdian and Yaghnōbī. I will mention only a few of them – some of the below given examples show interesting development in Sogdian, other given examples are my re-interpretations of phenomena incorrectly interpreted by Ilya Gershevitch in his *Grammar of Manichaean Sogdian* (GERSHEVITCH 1954).

In Sogdian there is well attested progressive metathesis of $*\check{u}$ or $*\check{u}$ and a velar sound: this phenomenon can be well demonstrated on doublets in following examples Sogd. AL $\Im w \gamma \Im r$, $\Im w \gamma th$ s $\Im w \chi th$ M $\Im w \chi t(?)$ C $\Im w \chi t(?)$ × s B $\Im w th$ 'daughter' < $*\Im v th$ 'sogdian' < $\Im v th$ (Sogdian' < $\Im v th$ or These examples show probable development $\Im v th$ but after reduction of $\Im v th$ the reduced sound retained its labial character, and later $\Im v th$ caused labialization of following velar. Ilya Gershevitch interprets Sogdian words s $\Im v th th$ 'all', s $\Im v th th$ "soil', B $\Im v th th the$ examples show metathesis of $\Im v th th the$ examples show metathesis of $\Im v th th the$ letter $\Im v th th the$ satested also as C $\Im v th th the$ suppose that the letter $\Im v th th th the$ letter $\Im v th th the$ letter $\Im v th th th the$ labialization i.e. $\Im v th th th the$ letter $\Im v th th th the$ letter $\Im v th th th th the$ letter $\Im v th th th th the$ letter $\Im v th th th the$ letter $\Im v th th th th the$ letter $\Im v th th the$ letter $\Im v th th th the$ letter \Im

Sogdian s $\gamma wrwm$ 'soil' is also attested as B $\gamma wrm(h)$ M xrwm, xwrm C xwrm / x^w rúm/ < *xruma- — in the attested spellings it is certain, that the letter waw does not mark epenthesis but metathesis of *u and/or labialization of x. Sogdian s wxwsw, $w\gamma wsw$ B $w\gamma wsw$ 'six' is attested

¹⁹⁸ In most cases I will put down only spelling varieties in the Sogdian script (i.e. secular texts in the Sogdian script or Buddhist texts), in the Manichaean and Syriac scripts no such examples of metathesis are attested. In majority of example I will not give phonetic transcription.

¹⁹⁹ Spelling like s $swy\delta(^{2})yk$ or $syw\delta yk$ can be also explained as development from *sugudija-ka-, cf. OPers. spelling $< s^{a}-u-g^{u}-d^{a}>$, $< s^{a}-u-g^{u}-u-d^{a}>$ or $< s^{a}-u-g^{a}-d^{a}>$. In Manichaean spelling is attested spelling like M $swy\delta y^{2}w \times s syw\delta y^{2}w$.

Gershevitch also mentions insertion of r in Sogd. M š $kwr\delta$ 'difficult' (GMS §361) which he compared with Old Persian š $kau\beta i$ -, but this etymology should be unacceptable because after loss of final -i- *-au- should be influenced by i-Umlaut. According to spelling of * $šk\bar{o}r\dot{\beta}$ in Sogdian scripts: B (?) $šk^2wr\delta$ M (?) $škwr\delta$ C $šqwr\beta$ I suppose a different etymology from Ir. * $sk\acute{a}u\beta ra$ - with metathesis * $\Im r > *'\dot{r}\dot{\beta}$. For other examples of metathesis in Sogdian see GMS §406-447.

In Yaghnōbī should be mentioned metathesis of *pk- > *kp- in kapáš || k¹páš 'armpit' < *øpøkašø < *upa-káša-. This Yaghnōbī word also proves reading of Sogd. B 'pkš- 'side', which is interpreted as a word with prothetic ālap̄ by Ilya Gershevitch: «B. 'pkš- (əpakš-, light stem) 'side' VJ 8, borrowed from Skt. pakṣa-» (GMS §161), but development from *upa-kaša- seems to be more probable, thus the word should be read *əpkəší instead of *əpəkší as may be presumed from the Sanskrit form.

Essential example of metathesis presents Yaghnōbī present tense ending of the third person singular $-\check{c}i$ (originally ending used only in Eastern Yaghnōbī, nowadays it spread also into other dialects, in the Transitional and Western dialect there is ending $-ti\check{s}t$). The ending $-\check{c}i$ in Eastern Yaghnōbī is from diachronic point of view the same as Western Yaghnōbī $-ti\check{s}t < -t-i\check{s}t^{201}$. In Eastern Yaghnōbī the ending underwent metathesis: $-t(-)i\check{s}t > *-t\check{s}it > -\check{c}it$ (attested in speech of village of Nōmitkōn; KLIMCHITSKIY 1940, 99-100) or $-\check{c}i\check{s}$ (in the Transitional dialect of village of Qūl; ANDREEV – LIVSHITS – PISARCHIK 1957, 236) $> -t\check{s}i$ (dialect of Qūl; ibid.) $> -\check{c}i$ (cf. Novák [in print], note nr. 23).

II.1.8. Analogy

I have not for

I have not found much examples of analogy in the languages derived from *Proto-Sogdic, in Sogdian there is problem with spelling, so I will present two examples I have recorded in Yaghnōbī.

Present stem form of the Yaghnōbī verb $\gamma^i rif$ - $\parallel \gamma^i riv$ - 'to know, to understand' < *grb- 'to know, to understand, to take, to grab' probably emerged by analogy from past participle

In some cases thus can be assumed that in Sogdian appeared also progressive labialization. Orthography of labialized x^w or y^w appears as $\langle xw \rangle$, $\langle yw \rangle$, $\langle wx \rangle$ or $\langle wy \rangle$ depending on spelling customs in each script utilized for Sogdian. Orthography similar to Sogdian $\langle wx \rangle$ or $\langle wy \rangle$ can be compared with Parthian spelling $\langle wx \rangle$ or $\langle xw \rangle$ for x^w (RASTORGUEVA – MOLCHANOVA 1981, 178–179).

²⁰¹ *Id est* Iranian indicative present ending of the third person singular *-ti and (originally) durative ending -išt (cf. Sogd. B 'štn attested in Vessantara Jātaka).

 $\gamma^i r'ifta < *\gamma r'ifta-ka- < *gr'ifta-ka- < *gr'i$

Another example of analogy in Yaghnōbī is development of augment. I will discuss this problem later in chapter on verbal inflection (chapter II.2.4.), now I will mention the phenomenon briefly. In *Proto-Sogdic the imperfect tense has been formed by prefixation of an augment in front of a verbal root. If a verbal stem contained a prefix and a root, the augment followed the prefix – i.e. there was so-called *internal augment*. In Sogdian augment was preserved only in reflexes of the internal augment, original augment of non-prefixed verbs disappeared due to operation of stress (probably *Stress III* as there is a different development in Yaghnōbī), but augment of non-prefixed verbs is preserved in Yaghnōbī. As the language developed further there have been lost awareness of Iranian (or *Proto-Sogdic) verbal prefixes and by analogy the augment have been placed in front of the original prefix. See following examples to demonstrate this phenomenon: Yagh. $d^u\gamma u\check{s}-:ad^u\gamma u\check{s}-$ 'to hear' (pres. stem: impf. stem) < *(pā)tī-yágšā-: *à=(pā)tī-yágšā-< *pati-gáuša-: *pati-Ha=gáuša-(x Sogd. \sqrt{p} -tyóš: \sqrt{p} -tīyōš < *pātī-yágšā-: *pātī-yágšā-< *pati-gáuša-: *pati-Ha=gáuša-); Yagh. $var-:av\acute{a}r-$ 'to bear' (pres. stem: impf. stem) < *\beta ar-: *\delta ar-</br>
\/\beta ar-: \delta \beta ar-

II.1.9. Syllabic structure

Syllabic structure of *Proto-Sogdic was probably very similar (if not identical) to Old Iranian syllabic structure. After stress-influenced changes in phonology (and morphology), mainly after vowel syncopation and reduction, the syllabic structure of Sogdic daughter-languages changed considerably. Unfortunately there are no many clues to reconstruct syllabic structure of *Proto-Sogdian and *Proto-Yaghnōbī, we can assume, that already after split of *Proto-Sogdic there slowly emerged a tendency to avoid word-initial consonant clusters, however, this development is not typical only for Sogdic dialects as it appears in many other Iranian languages, especially in the New Iranian period.

I have not met many attempts to reconstruct Sogdian Syllabic structure – there are probably only two outlines of the Sogdian syllabic structure. The first outline was presented by Sofya Petrovna Vinogradova: «The specific structure of the syllable: CCVCC: C škwr\$ [škōr\$] 'difficult', cf. B (²)šk²wrð-, M (²)škwrð [(ə)škōr\$-], CV (probably also CCV, CCCV, CVC, VCC, VC): B ²rðkw [arðuk, arðku] 'sincere', S [ðastya] 'hand' (locative), martəxmeti 'people' (oblique), [prāmana] and [prāmandi] 'Brahman' (vocative singular and plural), B [nərðße-] 'scorpion'.» (VINOGRADOVA 2000a, 64). The other outline of Sogdian syllabification was presented by Elio Provasi in his

study of Sogdian versification: «Sogdian, then, had syllabification rules which were quite different from those of Western Middle Iranian. In Sogdian, inside a word, a group of consonants between two syllabic peaks (i.e. vowels or diphthongs) is not divided between the two syllables, but belongs to the second one, constituting its onset. [note 33: Cf. the observations, from a historical-comparative point of view, by GERCENBERG 1980, pp. 48-49. (= Gercenberg, L. G. 1981: "Ob afganskom udarenii." In: Iranskoe jazykoznanie: ežegodnik 1980, pp. 48-56.)] In other words, a syllable boundary (\$) must be inserted immediately after a (short or long) vocalic nucleus [note 34: Including in the definition of "long vocalic nucleus", besides the long vowels /āēīōū/, also the complex nuclei ("diphthongs") /Vr/ and /Vn/ (where /V/ = any vowel).] whenever it is followed by any number of consonants, followed in their turn by another vocalic nucleus: o > \$ / V_C(C(C))V (e.g. /\dasstel *hand (gen.)", /wi\$zpya/ "terror (abl.)").» (PROVASI 2009, 350).

It seems that both descriptions of Sogdian syllabic structure are correct, thus the description given by Provasi seems to be more elaborate. Elio Provasi analyzed Sogdian poetic translation of Middle Persian Manichaean hymn cycle *Huyadagmān* – by the analysis of metrical text there can be assumed much about Sogdian phonology, syllabification and stress (cf. chapters on Stress, II.1.1.4. ff.). According to Provasi's description it seems that Sogdian preferred open syllables, so syllables starting in consonant cluster were quite often – this situation can be compared to syllabic structure in *Proto-Slavic (cf. SCHENKER 1993, 67) or in contemporary Belarusian (BIRILLO – BULAKHOV – SUDNIK 1966, 163). I am not aware of a tendency for open syllables in other Eastern Iranian languages, I am not sure whether it may appear in Pashtō (it can be suggested by Provasi's comparation of Sogdian syllabic structure with Gertsenberg's study on Pashtō stress – unfortunately I was not able to get this article; cf. PROVASI 2009, 350³³).

Syllabic structure of Yaghnōbī has not been described by many scholars either, the only description can be found in an outline of Yaghnōbī by Sofya Petrovna Vinogradova: «Prevailing syllabic patterns: 1) CVC, (C)VCC (for monosyllabic nouns): kat 'house', pōt 'arrow', mēt 'day', vūd 'smell', ark 'work', urk 'wolf', ētk 'bridge', pun 'full', nays 'nose'; 2) CV-, CVC- (for di- or trisyllabic nouns): tóra 'dark', yūrda 'eye', divár 'door', zivók 'tongue, language', dirōt 'sicle'. xutánna 'watermill', xiníšta 'butter', nipáyšin 'nephew'.» (VINOGRADOVA 2000b, 293-294). In Yaghnōbī there are also monosyllabic words like CV, VC or even V (e.g. či 'from', ax '(s)he', ī 'one'), but they are not so frequent as the above mentioned CVC and (C)VCC monosyllabic words. Yaghnōbī syllabic structure is the same as syllabic structure of neighbouring Tajik or Uzbek, but I suppose that in this case the similarity is not due to language contact.

II.2. Historical grammar

In following chapters I would like to present basic features of Sogdian and Yaghnōbī grammar. Both languages differ considerably, but from diachronic view they can be seen gradual development towards simplification of Old Iranian system. I will focus mainly on description of nominal and verbal systems – with primary attention to description of features inherited in both languages. Many grammatical features will be compared with development in the Pāmīr languages as there may be seen many common tendencies in development of Sogdic dialects and languages of the Pāmīr group.

II.2.1. Nominal inflection

The Old Iranian system of nominal inflection was radically transformed in majority of the Eastern Iranian languages. In Avestan and in Old Persian original eight cases, three numbers and three genders are preserved. Inflection distinguished two inflectional categories – thematic and athematic nouns. The thematic nouns distinguished vocalic a-, \bar{a} -, \bar{i} -, i-/ $a\bar{i}$ -, u-/au- and \bar{u} -stems, the athematic stems ended in a consonant (i.e. p-, b-, t-, d-, n-, nt-, s-, \bar{s} -, h-, r-, r-/n-, k- and g-stems). In the Middle Iranian a syncretism of cases emerged, which resulted in three cases system (nominative/direct case : oblique case : vocative) $^{2^{O2}}$ and gradual merger of gender (in many languages remained distinction of masculine (< originally masculine + neuter) and feminine, however, some languages do not distinguish gender at all). The three-case system was preserved Munj \bar{i} -Yidgh \bar{a} , Pasht \bar{o} and Wanets \bar{i} , in the other New Iranian languages the vocative case merged with the nominative. Such outlined development of cases and gender is typical almost for all Eastern Iranian languages (except Ossetic $^{2^{O3}}$), it can be found in the Western Iranian languages too $^{2^{O4}}$.

Case syncretism was certainly a gradual process, from the Middle Iranian languages only Old Khōtanese fully preserved a six-case system with series of inflectional classes (however in Late Khōtanese the case system has been reduced). Somewhat simpler six-case system (for the *light-stem* words) is attested in Sogdian – a gradual reduction towards three-case inflection can be seen. Khwārezmian had three cases, in Bactrian there were just two cases. In all Eastern Iranian languages masculine merged with neuter, only Khōtanese developed a "new" neuter from old

 $^{^{202}}$ By comparation of preserved inflectional endings in Yaghnōbī, in the Pāmīr languages and in Pashtō we can suggest four-case system: nominative-accusative: vocative: genitive-possessive: inessive-oblique (by syncretism of old locative, ablative, dative and instrumental) – see Table 40.

²⁰³ The development of Ossetic has been different – we can certainly think about emergence of two-case system based on opposition of nominative/direct case: genitive/oblique, original seems to be ablative and inessive (derived from the locative case); other Ossetic cases emerged anew, probably due to contact with Caucassian languages (cf. KIM 2003; 2007; BELYAEV 2010; chapter I.I.I.3.2.).

²⁰⁴ In the Western Iranian languages there is majority of vernaculars with two- or three-case system, some other languages, such as Persian, lost its inflectional endings, but nominal endings show simplification of the two-case system.

n-stems; in Sogdian there are few relicts of *a*-stem neutres. Dual began to lose its original function too; it was marginally preserved in Khōtanese and Khwārezmian; in Sogdian dual shifted to numerative.

In Pāmīr Wakhī also operated the syncretism of cases (in singular there is just one case, in plural there is direct case, oblique and objective), nowadays several relicts of the original inflectional system still can be seen. Reflexes of several old cases are shown by Tat'yana Nikolaevna Pakhalina in her comprehensive study of Wakhī (PAKHALINA 1987a) — archaic inflectional system was preserved in reflexes of \bar{a} - and i-Umlaut in several Wakhī words:

```
dat. sg.: pətr 'son' < *púθrai (but also < nom. sg. *púθrah ?);
δργά 'doughter' < *dúgtrai;
instr. sg.: andarč 'husband's brother's wife' < *iánt(a)rā-kā;
kaṣˇ 'boy' < *káršnā;
δāy '(hu)man' < *dắyā / *dắhā;
war 'ram' < *uárnā;
loc. sg.: pər-cəng 'bracelet' < *upari-čángai;
pəlingəṣˇt 'ring' < *upari-angúštai;
pōlīz 'garden' < *upara-daidzai (PAKHALINA 1987a, 444-445, 449).
```

By means of operation of \bar{a} - and i-Umlaut in Wakhī there are not preserved only the reflexes of the original cases but also reflexes of nominatives of old dual (mainly in appellatives labelling paired entities or things culturally perceived as pair) and plural (for collective number):

```
nom.-acc. du.: bār 'door' < *duarā;
                    p\bar{a}\delta / p\bar{a}d 'leg(s), loins' < *p\dot{a}d\bar{a};
                     \delta ast 'hand(s)' < *d\acute{a}st\ddot{a} < *dzast\ddot{a};
                     šuš 'kidney(s) < *tsúši;
                     \xi = (\dot{z})m 'eye(s)' < *\dot{z}ášmaj;
                     vыrәw '(eye)brow(s)' < *brúцаі;
                     \gamma i \tilde{s} 'ear(s)' < *gáušai;
                     tūxm 'seed' < *táuxmai;
                     kak 'eye(s)' < *k\acute{a}k\check{s}\bar{a};
                     šəw 'horn(s)' < *trúuai / *trúuī;
                     wəltk 'lung(s)' < *urta-kai;
                     bərət 'spoke(s)' < *dui-ará∂ni;
                     yuy 'yoke' < *iúgai;
nom. pl.: z\bar{a} 'children' < *dz\bar{a}\Im\bar{a}h;
              yop\check{c} 'sheep (coll.)' < *pat(u)uā-kāh;
               yangl 'finger(s)' < *áng(u)r\bar{a}h;
               (γ)ayč 'bone(s)' < *ásta-kāh (PAKHALINA 1987a, 444-447, 449-450).
```

As outlined above, the Middle Iranian languages distinguished two genders: masculine and feminine (and some of them relicts of neuter). In the New Iranian period there are many languages which still retain gender (e.g. Pashtō, Waṇetsī, Yazghulāmī, Munjī and Yidghā, languages of the Shughnī-Rōshānī group except Sarīqōlī), but some of them lost gender (Yaghnōbī, Ossetic, Wakhī, Sarīqōlī, Ishkāshmī and Sanglēchī). The original gender system has been in fact preserved only in Pashtō, Waṇetsī and Munjī-Yidghā; in Yazghulāmī and Shughnī-Rōshānī languages the difference in gender was replaced by semantic-syntactic distinction.

	Ir.	OAve.	ProtoSogdc.	Sogd.	c Sogd. C5	Yagh.
sg.						
nom.	*atyah	aspō	*áspa'	əspí		
voc.	*asua	aspā	*áspa	əspá	əspí	asp
acc.	*atsuam	aspəm	*áspậm	əspú		
gen.	*atuahia	aspahē, <i>aspahiiā</i>	*áspa'iặ	ach á	asháī.	áani
dat.	*atsųāį	aspāi	*áspā <u>i</u>	əspē	əspíī	áspi
abl.	*atsųā'at	aspā(a)ţ	*áspā'	anh ä		
instr.	*atyā	aspā	*áspā	əspā		
loc.	*atuai(ā)	aspōiiā	*áspăjā	əspyắ		áspi
du.				numv.		
nom.						
voc.	*atyā	aspā	*áspā	əspā́		
acc.						
gen.	*atsuajāh	aspaiiā	*áspăjā'	*əspyắ	?	áspi (?)
dat.		aspaēibiiā,			:	
abl.	*atsuābjā	aspae biia, aspõibiiā	?			
instr.		aspoiblia	:			
loc.	*atuajah	aspaiiā, aspōiiō				
pl.						
nom.	*atsųāh(ah)	aspā,	*áspā'	əspyắ		
voc.	авцап(ап)	aspā̇̃ŋhō	иѕри	әѕруи		?
acc.	*atsu̯ā̃nh	aspāṇg	*áspān	*əspā́n		
gen.	*atsųāna'ām	aspanąm	*aspā́ną̃m	əspấn(u)	?	
dat.	*atsuajbiah	aspaē ⁱ biiō,	*áchain ă'	†əspēß	:	†aspḗv,
abl.	นอนุนโบโตม	aspōibiiō	*áspajβă'	1 өзрер		†áspīf
instr.	*atsųājš	aspāiš	?	?		?
loc.	*atsuaišu	aspaēšū	•	·		

Table 39 Development of a-stem inflection of masculines (given on example *átua- 'horse') in Avestan, Sogdian and Yaghnōbī.

Yazghulāmī masculines mark male names and inanimate things; the feminines include female names and animals regardless their natural gender (the feminines also contain several words that have retained its gender in relict forms). In the Shughnī-Rōshānī languages (except Sarīqōlī) did not appear such a radical transformation of gender as in Yazghulāmī: as masculines

are perceived some original masculines, some male names, male animals and geographical names and in means of collective noun; as feminines are considered female names, female animals and majority of substantives perceived as a single unit (see Chapter I.I.I.3.5.).

Reflects of Old Iranian gender are morphologically preserved not only in the Shughnī-Rōshānī languages (in this case partially including Sarīqōlī) and in Yazghulāmī, but some traces of gender have been preserved in Wakhī or Ishkāshmī. Remains of morphologically (i.e. originally with different ending) expressed gender can be observed in outcomes of effect of \bar{a} - and i-Umlaut on originally stressed root vowel; such feature can be documented on the following example: Ir. *xara-h × *xarā-ø (nom. sg.) 'ass × she-ass' > Rōsh. šor × šār, Bart. šōr × šār, Rāshrv. šur × šār, Wakh. xur × *xar (in močxar, lit. female-ass); but Sarīq. šer, Yazgh. xůr, Yagh. xar (< m.) × Munj. xára (u xárâ), Yidgh. xárō (< f.). (PAKHALINA 1987a, 444-446)

Transformation of the inflectional system, gender and number was probably iniciated by stress shifts. Probably a gradual syncretism and loss of inflectional endings emerged as a consequence of stress strength and its shift on a root (?). Simultaneously with the transformation of the inflectional system also masculine merged with neuter (the neuter differed from the masculine only in different endings in nominative and vocative of all three numbers) and with reconstruction of athematic stems as \bar{a} -stems. Case endings of the \bar{a} -stems gradually generalized also in other vocalic (thematic) stems, the original thematic stems were retained marginally. The above outlined development can be demonstrated quite well in an example of masculine a-stem inflection in Sogdian and Yaghnōbī – by comparison of both languages with Old Iranian and Avestan is possible to reconstruct also *Proto-Sogdic inflection (see Table 39). As a result of ending loss it was necessary to revise inflectional syntax - the "loss" of forms of cases of location and direction was syntactically replaced with adpositional constructions (it is possible that Old locative and ablative cases of location or direction joined with adpositions already before the loss of inflectional endings in these cases). Development of genitive and accusative was quite different – both cases have an important role in syntax. Accusative as a case of direct object gradually merged with nominative. But genitive in the Indo-Iranian languages gained a new function when compared to the Indo-European proto-language - it became the case of the verb object in ergative construction.

The loss of inflectional endings and case syncretism caused two say undesirable morphological phenomena: I) the nominative plural endings were lost (in case of absence of \bar{a} -Umlaut) and thus forms of nominative plural and singular merged; and 2) genitive and accusative cases were reanalyzed. In singular the form of genitive merged with dative, but in plural the difference between genitive × dative(-ablative) remained. In case of accusative there is well attested the difference between accusative × genitive in singular, but it is possible that in plural both cases started to merge both in function and in pronunciation. Such feature is observable in Sogdian (respectively in texts younger than the *Ancient Letters*), where the archaic form of accusative plural $-\bar{a}n$ behaves as oblique. The archaic accusative in $-\bar{a}n$ resembles to genitive in $-\bar{a}n$ (in the *Ancient Letters* still $-\bar{a}nu$). The syncretism of genitive with some cases in

singular and with some other in plural probably led to the dichotomy of function of genitive, dative and accusative: in singular there was opposition accusative × genitive-dative, in plural, however, accusative-genitive × dative(-ablative).

		Ya	ıgh.	W	akh.		nugh. / h. / Bart.	Rās	shrv.	Sa	ırīq.	Munj.		Ish	k.	Ya	zgh.
		sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.	m. sg. f.	pl.	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
v	oc.											-(y)ō -ī					
rec.	nom.	-ø	-t	-ø	∸īšt	-ø		-ø		-ø	$-x \varepsilon y l$		-ī	-ø	-ó	-ø	-á3
re	acc.						-		<u>-ēn</u>			-ø -a			<u>-6n</u>		<u>-en</u>
	gen.	-i	-́ti	-i	-́∂vi		-ēn					-ān -īn		-i, -y	-óyi	-i	-á3i
	dat.	-1	<u>-ēv</u> ,		,		<u>-ēv</u> , <u>-ēf</u>		-c		С		- C				
obl.	abl.		<u>-īf</u>		-ʻəv		// <u>-īf</u>		-īf		-ef		-āf				
	instr.																
	loc.	-i															

Table 40 Summary of endings in Yaghnōbī and in the Pāmīr languages with account of historical development of individual endings (values in *italic letters* present endings derived from endings other than those derived from *a*-stem endings in individual cases; values in grey letters mark change of meaning of the ending; <u>underlined letters</u> label archaisms).

In singular the three-case system emerged from reanalysis of nominative, vocative and genitive – nominative merged with accusative (> direct case), and genitive merged with all other oblique cases (> oblique). As mentioned above, vocative remained as individual case only in Munjī-Yidghā, Pashtō and Waṇetsī, in all other languages it was replaced by nominative. In the Pāmīr languages of Badakhshān gradually ceased or changed functions of genitive/oblique – in Wakhī and Ishkāshmī it changed to objective case, in Yazghulāmī changed to possessive case; and in the Shughnī-Rōshānī group it disappeared completely.

Different changes occurred in plural than in singular. Due to the loss of the original endings of nominative plural there can be observed two tendencies: 1) emergence of new ending of nominative plural (see endings in Yaghnōbī, Wakhī, Ishkāshmī, Yazghulāmī and Sarīqōlī in Table 40); 2) there was reanalyzed the original ending of genitive(-accusative) plural, whose ending passed transferred to nominative (see forms of plural endings in Shughnī, Rōshānī, Bartangī, Rāshārvī and Yazghulāmī in Table 40). After the genitive form began to function instead of the nominative plural, it was necessary to create a new form of the oblique case – this has become the dative-ablative ending.

Sogdian inflectional system preserves a rich stem system, however, it was transformed a lot in comparison to the Old Iranian stage; it distinguishes \bar{a} -, \bar{i} -, \bar{u} -, $\bar{a}k\bar{a}$ - and $i\underline{i}\bar{a}$ -stems, but there are no consonant stems – they were revised and according to their gender they merged with either a- or \bar{a} -stems. Inflection of the \bar{a} -stems became dominant and later on many \bar{u} - and \bar{i} -stem words were inflected as \bar{a} -stems. In the North Eastern Iranian languages essential innovation operated, which separates this branch from other Eastern Iranian languages: from Iranian abstract suffix $*-\Im u\bar{a}$ -/*- $t(u)\bar{a}$ - emerged new plural ending *- $t\bar{a}$ -. This new ending was added after the thematic vowel in Sogdian and it was inflected as \bar{a} -stem singular feminines.

The plural ending in *-tā- uniquely appears in Southern Pāmīr languages – in Ishkāshmī and Wakhī: Ishk. -d in words soyûnd 'hair (pl.)' < *tārṭa-gauna-tā-; mend 'apples, apple-trees' < *amarnṭa-tā- and čowend 'apricots, apricot-trees' < *uant̄-tā- 'trees'; and Wakhī ending of direct case plural 'išt originating in Iranian *-ī-tua-tā- or *-iš(n)-tā-. From Iranian *-ɔuā- comes Yazghulāmī plural ending -á\beta; nota bene Persian plural ending -hā (> colloq. Tjk. -(h)ō > Ishk. -o) is also of the same origin.

	*	Ir.	So	gd.	c Sogd. C5	Sogd.	Yagh.	*Ir.	Sogd.	c Sogd. C5	Sogd.	Yagh.	
					a-stems			ā-stems					
	m. n.			ligh	t stems	heavy stems		ſ	lig	ht stems	heavy stems		
sg.	m.	n.	т.	n.	m.n.	m.n.	1	f.	f.	f.	f.	_	
voc.	-a		-a					-a <u>i</u>	-é, -á				
nom.	-ah	-am	-í	-ú	-í	-′ø	∸ø	-ā	-ắ	-á	-′ø	-′ø	
acc.		•	-	ú				-ām	$-\overset{\circ}{ar{u}},-\overset{\circ}{ar{a}}$				
gen.	-a	hịa	-	ē	-11	<u>-</u> 1	-i	-ājāh	-yắ́	-áī	<u>-</u> -ī	-i	
dat.	-	āi̯	-	ē	$-i\bar{\imath}$	<u>-</u> 1	∸i	-ā <u>i</u> (ā <u>i</u>)	-yắ	-áī	<u>-</u> -ī	-i	
loc.	-	a <u>i</u>	-7	γắ	- <i>íī</i>	<u>-</u> 1	∸i	-ā <u>i</u> ā	−yắ́	-áī	<u>-</u> 1	-i	
abl.	-	āt		å				-ā <u>i</u> āt	−yắ́	-áī	<u>-</u> -ī	-i	
instr.	-	-ā	-	å				-(a <u>i</u>)ā	-(y)ắ	-áī	<u>-</u> 1	-i	

Table 41 Overview of ă-stem inflection in Sogdian and in Yaghnōbī.

	*	Ir.	c Sog	d. C2	Sogd.	Yagh.	*Ir.	Sogd.	Yagh.
			a-ka-s				ā	- <i>kā-</i> stems	3
sg.	<i>m</i> .	n.	m. n.		m.n.	-	f.	f.	-
voc.	-aka		-ā				-āka <u>i</u>	-e, -a	
nom.	-akah	-a-kam	-ĕ	-ŏ	-ĕ	-a	-ākā	-ă	-a
acc.	-akam		-	ŏ		-a	-ākām	-ă	-a
gen.	-al-	kahia	-ē		-ē	-a <u>i</u> / -ε̄	-ākājāh	-ē	-a <u>i</u> / -ē
dat.	-3	akā <u>i</u>	-	ē	-ē	-a <u>i</u> / -ε̄	-ākā <u>i</u> (ā <u>i</u>)	-ē	-a <u>i</u> / -ε̄
loc.	-aka <u>i</u>		-	ē	-ē	-a <u>i</u> / -ε̄	-ākājā	-ē	-a <u>i</u> / -ε̄
abl.	-akāt		-ă				-ākājāt	-ē	-ai / -ē
instr.	-akā		-	ă			-āk(a <u>i</u>)ā	-ē	-ai / -ē

Table 42 Overview of aka-stem inflection in Sogdian and in Yaghnōbī.

	*Īr.	Sogd.	Sogd.		*Īr.	Sogd.	Yagh.	*	Īr.	Sogd.		Yagh.
		ŭ-stems			ĭ-s₁	tems		<i>ii̯−ẵ</i> -stems				
sg.	m.f.	<i>m</i> .	f.	ı	m.f.	m.f.	-	m. f.		<i>m</i> .	f.	-
voc.	-a <u>u</u>	-a			-i, -a <u>i</u>			-i <u>i</u> a	-i <u>i</u> ai	-iya		
nom.	-uš, -āuš	-u		-ø	-i(š), -ā	-i	-ø	-ijah	-i <u>i</u> ā	-ī	-yā	-i
acc.	-um, -āuam	-u			-īm, -āi̯am	-ī		-ijam	-i <u>i</u> ām		-yā	
gen.	-auš, -uah			-i	-ai̯š, -i̯ā̄h	-ī	-i	-ijahja	-ijājāh	-(i)ī	-yā(ī)	-i <u>i</u>
dat.	-(a) <u>u</u> a <u>i</u>	-(w)ī, -wyā	-wyā		-(a) <u>i</u> ai	-ī	- <i>i</i>	-i <u>i</u> āi̯	-i̯iai̯(āi̯)	-(i)ī	-yā(ī)	−i <u>i</u>
loc.	-au̯, -ø				-ă			-i <u>i</u> ai	-i <u>i</u> āi̯ā	-(i)ī	-yā(ī)	-i <u>i</u>
abl.	-au̯t, -u̯at				-ai̯t, -i̯āt	-ī	-i	-i <u>i</u> āt	-ijājāt		-yā(ī)	(-i <u>i</u>)
instr.	-ū, - <u>u</u> ā				-i	-i	-i	-i <u>i</u> ā	-i <u>į</u> (a <u>į</u>)ā		-yā(ī)	(-i <u>i</u>)

Table 43 Overview of ŭ-, ĭ- and ijă-stem inflection in Sogdian and in Yaghnōbī.

Sogdian, similarly to some other Eastern Iranian languages, preserves peripheral relicts of r-stem inflection. The relicts of r-stem inflection can be observed in a few plural forms continuing from Indo-European nomina agentis in -ter- (or more correctly from continuants of Ide. * ph_2 -tér-, meh_2 -tér-, $b^bréh_2$ -ter-, * d^bugh_2 -tér- 'father, mother, brother, daughter'; moreover by semantic analogy also in *suesór- 'sister' > Ir. * $pit\acute{a}$ -r, * $m\acute{a}ta$ -r, * $br\acute{a}ta$ -r, * $d\acute{u}xta$ -r, * $x^\mu\acute{a}har$ -): Yazgh. $v(a)rad\acute{a}r$, $\delta ayd\acute{a}r$ 'brothers, daughters'; Shugh. Rōsh. $vir\bar{o}d\acute{a}r$ 'brothers' (> Shugh. $a \ r\bar{o}(d\acute{a})r!$ 'bros!'); Sangl. $vrud\acute{a}r$ 'brothers'; in other languages the "r-stem plural" is extended by normal plural ending: Sogd. M $\beta r^2 trt$, s $\delta wytrth$, $\delta ywtrt$ / $\delta pr\acute{a}ta\dot{r}t$, $\delta aywid\acute{a}t$ / 'brothers, daughters'; Ishk. $vrudar\acute{e}n$ (sg. vru(d)), $ixodar\acute{e}n$ (sg. $ix\acute{o}$), $ixodar\acute{e}n$ 'brothers, sisters, daughters'; Oss. fiidæltæ (sg. fiid | fidæ), mæd(t)æltæ (sg. mad | madæ), evvad(t)æltæ (sg. evvad | evvade) 'fathers, mothers, relatives||brothers'.

Plural ending in *-tā- needs to be reconstructed already for the North Eastern Old Iranian dialects as it is attested in several Scytho-Sarmatian tribal names: Σκόλοται, Μασσαγέται, Θυσσαγέται and Σαυξομάτοι/Σαξμάτοι/Σαξμάτοι.

Apart from the innovated (and say unified) plural ending *- $t\bar{a}$ - there are marginally preserved old plural forms in Sogdian – these forms are preserved mainly in \bar{a} - and \bar{u} -stem inflection. In the \bar{a} -stem direct cases there is the ending -a (with allomorph (?) -ya), which often appears with animate substantives (e.g. $spy\bar{a}$ 'horses'). Some animate substantives and majority of \bar{u} -stem nouns have plural ending - \bar{i} st (< originally probably an agglutination of abstract suffixes *-is(n)-n0 and *-n1 wash. n2 ist). In the oblique cases of the n3-stems (and also masculine n4 and n5 there appears a continuant of old genitive(-accusative) ending -n6 ending can be used to express the oblique case of plural of animate nouns.

As marginal and really archaic case can be considered dative-ablative plural of the \check{a} -stems. In Sogdian there is attested the ending $-y\beta$ /- $\bar{e}\beta$ / in some toponyms: Sogd. Mg (?) β tmy β h / 3 Ftmé β / – present $Fatm\acute{e}v$ in Falghar and Sogd. H w2 $ty\beta$ c /wati β 2 3 C/ of Wati δ 2 3 C/ of

⁻

²⁰⁵ Compare Slavic *-ωs(t) in a suffix *-ωstvo: OCS. bratrωstvo, Cze. bratrstvo 'brotherhood' (LIVSHITS – KHROMOV 1981, 425).

²⁰⁶ In Varzōbī (and some other) Tājīk dialects and also in the Tājīk dialect of the Yaghnōb Valley there is often recorded change -b(-) > -w(-)/-v(-), but such change is not attested in the Tājīk dialects of Mastchōh and partially in the Falghar dialects. The form $Mary\acute{e}b$ has been probably reanalyzed (and "Tājīkized") and then emerged "reversal" change *-v > -b, probably by analogy with some other Yaghnōbī place-names: Yagh. $X^i \acute{s}\acute{o}rt\~ou$ × Tjk. $Xi \acute{s}\~ort\~ob$, Yagh. $Fark\~ou$ × Tjk. $Fark\~ou$, Yagh. (*) Yay(d) $n\~ou$ > Tjk. $Yayn\~ou$ b. Indeed, the original form * $Mary\acute{e}v$ / * $Mary\acute{e}f$ is indicated in Russian orthography $Map\imath u\phi(\iouv)$ in Russian maps from the end of the 18th and beginning of the 19th century.

Maryḗb < *Maryḗv < dat.-abl. *margajbjah : *marga- 'forest, meadow' i.e. 'in meadows / in forests'. For other place names the etymology is not known, but it can be supposed that the ending *-ēβ/-*ĭβ might have another function – it could have served as possessive, it is that in some place-names can be attested personal names of founders of such villages – e.g. Imbēf can be interpreted as a village founded by a man called *Imb-, i.e. Imbēf could mean '[the] †Imbs' (??) (settlement)'. In case of Fatmēv its meaning can be supposed as *'(village) of the first(s)' < *fratamájbjah and Vōdif can mean '(village) of the wind(s)' < *μαματαίβιαh. Place-names terminating in etymologically the same ending can be found also on Pāmīr: X̄ūvyĕf, Xidōryĕf, Sumyĕf, Bōyĕf, Pōrxinḗv in Tajik Shughnōn and Shākhdara; in Afghan Sheghnān Yastḗw, in Tajik Rūshōn Pastḗv and probably also Lučīw and Γarālīw in the Sarghulām Valley. See also Rāshārvī plural ending -(y)īf and in Wanjī there can be supposed plural ending -ev. The old dative-ablative ending can be found in oblique plural endings in Munjī and Yidghā -āf || -əf, in Wakhī -əv, in Sarīqōlī -(y)ef, and in Pashtō -ō, Waṇetsī -ū.

After the *Stress III* shift and operation of the Sogdian *Rhythmic Law* there emerged differentiation of the *light* and *heavy* (\check{a} -)stem endings. This change can be observed well mainly in \check{a} -stem endings – according to position of stress there emerged two different declinations – *light* and *heavy*; in the other stems there have remained only the "*light*" endings, the *heavy* stems morphologically merged with the *heavy* \check{a} -stems. Number of case endings was reduced, mainly in the *heavy stems*, where virtually remained only one ending²⁰⁷ – gen.-dat. sg. /- $\bar{\imath}$ /, endings of the direct cases was lost, the endings of the oblique cases merged with the original genitive-dative ending(s), the vocative endings of the *heavy stems* were taken over by analogy from the *light stems*.

The inflectional system was later simplified, e.g. the archaic endings of masculine (and neuter) aka-stems are attested in Christian Sogdian manuscript C 2 (and also in the Ancient Letters), but in all other documents there is attested much simplified inflection (Table 42). Similarly the light \check{a} -stem declination is preserved in majority of documents in the form developed from Old Iranian \check{a} -stem inflection, but the Christian Sogdian manuscript C 5 shows a new innovated inflectional system in which oblique ending is agglutinated to a reflex of a thematic vowel. The Christian Sogdian manuscript C 5 presents agglutinative inflection in

.

Questionable is the ending of the feminine heavy \bar{a} -stems – in documents written in the Brāhmī script the \bar{a} -stem feminines light and heavy stems do terminate in the letter $h\bar{e}$: –h (the light stems also end in –²h or just –²). Question is how to interpret the terminal letter $h\bar{e}$. There are several possibilities how to explain this orthography: 1) it is an archaic spelling of terminal vowel – \bar{a} in *all forms of nom. sg. of feminine \bar{a} -stems, 2) it is a spelling of word-final – \bar{a} adapted from Aramaic orthography, where in Aramaic words ending in – \bar{a} <-b> have been feminines; or 3) it is a combination of both above shown examples. Outcome is the state attested in documents in the Manichaean and Syriac scripts – form of feminine heavy \bar{a} -stems with no ending. In the documents written in nthe Sogdian alphabet there has been pertained (archaic) spelling with the letter $h\bar{e}$ in feminine forms regardless whether the thematic ending remained preserved or whether it has been lost due to operation of the Rhythmic Law. The development of Sogdian nominative singular forms of the heavy \bar{a} -stem feminines can be shown on following example: Ir. *mátar 'mother' > ProtoSogdc. *mátă > after the Stress III shift *mắta (Sogd. AL m2th) > "Classical" Sogdian" *mát (Sogd. M C m2t × archaic spelling Sogd. s m2th).

Inflection of adjectives is diachronically the same as noun inflection. In the Middle Iranian period also the adjective inflection was rebuilt. Such development is observable in Sogdian. Initially Sogdian adjective corresponded with its noun in gender, number and case. By simplifying of the inflectional system a new phenomenon emerged – so-called *group inflection*, where the bearer of the main grammatical information remained to be the noun, but adjective corresponded with it often just in number an later on it remained in form of nominative singular. The origin of the *group inflection* can be seen in the *heavy stem* endings, but it later spread to the *light stems* too. Such change is probably older than "agglutinative" inflection of the *light stems* as it is attested in the Christian Sogdian document C 5. The emergence of the *group inflection* caused that the adjectives became uninflected and they have been fossilized mostly in form of nominative singular masculine. This innovation corresponds with emergence of agglutination of substantives and it is comparable with the *group inflection* in agglutinative languages such as the Turkic languages.

In a reduction of adjective inflection probably for the longest period of time survived gender distinction, which is preserved for some adjectives in Pashtō, Waṇetsī, Yazghulāmī and in the Shughnī-Rōshānī languages. In Pashtō-Waṇetsī the adjectives are usually distinguished by different ending, in the Pāmīr languages feminine adjectives can be distinguished by results of \bar{a} - or i-Umlaut, e.g. Pasht. $sp\bar{i}n: sp\bar{i}na$ 'white'; Shugh. kut: kat 'short', $r\bar{u}st: r\bar{o}st$ 'red'; Bart. $c\bar{b}st: c\bar{b}st: c\bar{b}st:$

²⁰⁸ See Uzbek nom. sg. *qåra sū* 'black water' (with the same meaning also in all the other examples) : gen. sg. *qåra sūniŋ* : nom. pl. *qåra sūlar* : gen. pl. *qåra sūlarniŋ* × Sogd. šāu āp : šāu āpt : šāu āpt : šāu āpt : šāu āpt : šōu ōp : šōu ōp : šōu ōpt : šōu ōpt : šōu opt : šōu opt : šōu opt : šōu opt : šou opt : š

endings of the aka-stems which end in $-\check{c}(\check{a})^{2\circ 9}$ in Sogdian, e.g. 'spétč 'white (f)' × 'spétě 'white (m)' < * $tu\check{a}ita$ -ka-; ' $kt\check{c}\check{a}$ 'done (f)' × ' $kt\acute{e}$ 'done (m)' < * $k\acute{r}ta$ -ka-.

In Sogdian there are two sets of comparative endings: $-t\partial r(-i/-d) < *-tara-$ for the *light* and *heavy stems* and *-stor* for dkd-stems. Both endings may be used also for superlative forms. Special superlative forms are formed with ending *-tama-, occasionally accompanied by Sogdian ending -cik. (GMS §1280-1296) Formation of comparatives and superlatives is analytic in Yaghnōbī, but calqued forms with Tajik -tar < -*tara- may be found. Some forms with ending -star are quoted in the $Yaghnōb\bar{\imath}$ Texts by Mikhail Stepanovich Andreev – Elena Mikhaĭlovna Peshchereva (1957): ritistar 'more in front' or sarháddistar 'higher' < Perso-Arabic sar-had(d) 'border' + Yagh. -star. (Khromov 1972, 20-21; Novák 2010, 225-226)

II.2.2. Pronominal inflection

Iranian pronominal inflection shows many similarities in development in many of the languages of the Eastern Iranian branch. Almost all languages preserve archaic system with forms just for the first and second person personal pronouns singular and plural, separate forms of the third person emerged only in a few Eastern Iranian languages, in majority of them they are expressed by demonstratives. Personal and demonstrative pronouns developed into three- or two-case system (See Tables 44 and 45 for the Pāmīr languages). All languages inherited triple deixis of the demonstrative pronouns, such system is preserved in majority of the Eastern Iranian languages, but in some of them the deictic system has been reduced into double deixis (e.g. in Yaghnōbī or Yazghulāmī, the tendency may be observed probably also in Sogdian). Enclitic forms the personal pronouns have been widely used as they were employed for personal endings in ergative construction – in majority of the Pāmīr languages the enclitics are used no more there, they have merged with forms of copula.

The North Eastern Iranian languages differ from the other Eastern Iranian by retention of archaic form of the second person pronoun: Sogd. $i\check{s}m\acute{a}x$, Yagh. $\check{s}^um\acute{o}x$, Oss. $s\omega max \parallel sumax < *iu\check{s}m\acute{a}xam : *iu\check{s}am$ 'you (gen. : nom.)' In the Eastern Iranian languages both the first and the second persons plural pronouns emerged from old accusative, in the Southern branch, probably after the change $*\check{s}m > m$ took place, the pronouns phonetically merged: $*ahm\acute{a}xam > *(a)m\acute{a}\acute{x}am$ 'we' $\times *(i)u\check{s}m\acute{a}xam^{211} > *(a)m\acute{a}\acute{x}am$ 'we'. The Southern branch had to differentiate the first and the second person plural, so for the second person the "South Eastern-Iranian" form has been augmented by prefix *tu-, *ta- taken from the second person singular: *ta-(h) $m\acute{a}\acute{x}am$ or *tu-(\check{s}) $m\acute{a}\acute{x}am$ — both etymologies can be considered correct, but also the etymologies do not tell whether such innovation of the form of the second person plural really

²¹⁰ See Modern English *you* which is originally dative-accusative form of *ye*.

²⁰⁹ Feminine "aka-stem" adjectives distinguish light and heavy stems.

²¹¹ Certainly not from *xšmáxam as it is claimed by some scholars (cf. GAUTHIOT – BENVENISTE 1929, 115), it would give something like $†x^i$ šm0m0m1 Yaghnm0m1, †x3m0m2 in Sogdian and in the Pm1 languages the proto-form should be based on †x1m0m2m3m3m4m8 so the forms of the first and second persons plural would not merge together.

took place after the change * $\check{s}m$ > *m (cf. MORGENSTIERNE 1929, 62). The innovation of the second person pronoun can be explained either as an areal feature (even caused by a Burūshaskīlike substrate language?) or as a contact with the Indo-Aryan languages (PAKHALINA 1976a). Wakhī shows that this innovated pronoun can be of an early date $s\check{a}(y)i\check{s}(t)$: sav originates from *tosa (*tusa / *tasa < Middle IAr. *tusma < *tusma-; PAKHALINA 1976a, 80) + Wakh dir. pl. suffix - $i\check{s}t$ or obl. pl. -v. Also Wakhī pronoun of the first person plural sak shows Indo-Aryan influence < *asma- (gen.; ibid.). Forms of the personal pronoun of the second person in Pashtō $t\check{a}s\bar{e}$, $t\check{a}s\bar{o}$, Waṇetsī $t\bar{a}s$ and tosa and tosa can be compared with Wakhī. Exception from the South Eastern Iranian languages are Parāchī and Saka dialects: in Parāchī v comes *v comes *v

	Wakh.	Ishk.	Sangl.	Yazgh.	Munj.	Yidgh.	Shugh.	Rōsh.	Bart.	Rāshrv.	Sarīq.
ıst sg.											
dir	wəz, (w)uz	az(i)	azə, azi	az	za	zo, zə	wuz	az	āz	waz	waz
obl.	māž	mak	mak	mů(n)	man	mun,	mu	mu	mu	mu(n)	ты(п)
poss.	žэ, žы	ть(п)	mən	ni	mən	mən	mu	mu	mu	IIIu(II)	11161(11)
encl.	-(ə)m	-ьт	(-əm)	-əm	-(y)əm	-əm	-um	-um	-um	-(u)m	-(y)am
2 nd sg.											
dir	tu	tь	tōw	tow	tu	tu, tə		tu	tū	tu	tεw
obl.	tow, taw	fak	təfak	tu	ta	to, ta	tu	tā	tā	tā	ta, tы
poss.	ti	ti	tō	ti	ta	10, ta		ta	ta	ta	ta, tbi
encl.	-(ə)t	-ь <i>t</i>	-et	-at	-(y)ət	(-t)	-at	-at	-at	-(a)t	-(y)at
3 rd sg.											
encl.	-(i)	-(i)	-š	-ay	-(y)əš	?	-(i)	-(i)	- <i>i</i>	-ø	-(y)i
ıst pl.											
dir	sak	тьх(ó)	aməx, amax	mox	mōx	māx,					
obl.	Sak	ть́čьv(о)	mičəf	IIIOX	IIIOX	mŏx	māš	māš	māš	māš	maš
poss.	səpo	mьš	mič	moxi	āmōx	amax, amŏx					
encl.	-(ə)n	-on	-mōn	-an	-(y)əmōn	?	-ām	-am	-an	-(a)n	-(y)an
2 nd pl.											
dir	sā́(y)išt	tьmьx	təməx	tamov	mōf	mặf, mỗf					
obl.	COM	tы́тьх(ьv)	təməx(əf)	təmox	11101	mai, moi	tama	tama	tamāš	tamāš	tamaš
poss.	sav	tьmьx	təməx	təmoxi	āmōf	amaf, amŏf					
encl.	-(ə)v	-ьv	?	-əf	-(y)əfōm	(-f)	-ēt	-af	-at, -af	-(a)f	-(y)af
3 rd pl.											
encl.	-(ə)v	-on	-šōn	-an	-(y)əšōn	?	-ēn	-an	-an, -af	-(a)f	-(y)af

Table 44 Personal pronouns of the first and second persons in the Pāmīr languages. Enclitic forms given in *italics* are used as copula.

Another possible archaism can be seen in Wakhī – oblique case of the first person singular pronoun $m\bar{a}$ ¢ can originate 1) either from Ir. dat. * $m\acute{a}dz$ iam < IIr. * $m\acute{a}j^b$ iam < Ide. * $me\^{g}^b$ i-om, 2) or it is an Indo-Aryan loan * $m\acute{a}j^b$ iam. If Wakh. $m\bar{a}$ ¢ is Iranian origin, it should be rather archaic feature, even more archaic then Avestan $ma^ibii\bar{a}$, $ma^ibii\bar{o}$ which is an innovation (cf. VAVROUŠEK 2007, 43), or it is an early loan from Indo-Aryan * $m\acute{a}j^b$ iam, Ved. $m\acute{a}b$ yam (see

oblique forms in Hindī and Urdū *muj*, Marāṭhī *maz*; PAKHALINA 1976a, 83). Tat'yana Nikolaevna Pakhalina rather accepts the Indo-Aryan hypothesis, which can also better explain Wakhī possessive forms ἔρ, ἔρι < *mṣặan < *mṣặan < *maṣán (ibid., 82), other clue for the Indo-Aryan origin can be ignorance of *i*-Umlaut, i.e. there is no †māṣ́.

		I. de	eixis	II. d	eixis	III. de	eixis
	case	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.	sg.	pl.
Chuah	dir.	yam	māð	(y)id	dāð	yu / yā	wāð
Shugh.	obl.	mi / mam	mēv	di / dam	dēv	wi / wam	wēv
Rōsh.	dir.	(y)im	māð	(y)id	dāð	yā	wāð
Rosn.	obl.	may / mum	muf	day / dum	duf	way / (w)um	wuf
D	dir.	yim	māð	yid	dā∂	yā	wāð
Bart.	obl.	mī / mim	mif	dī / dim	dif	wī / um	uf
D = .1	dir.	yim	māð	yid	dā∂	yā	wāð
Rāshrv.	obl.	mi / mam	maf	di / dam	daf	wi / wam	waf
C	dir.	yam	yam, (mol)	yad	yad, (doð)	уы	уы, (wo3)
Sarīq.	obl.	mi / mem	mef	di / dem	def	wi / wem	wef
Wakh.	dir.		yámiš(t)	4	yátiš(t)		yá(w)iš(t)
w akii.	obl.	yəm	yáməv	yət	yátəv	yow, yaw	yá(wə)v
Ishk.	dir.	am(í)	amón(on)	ad(í)	adónd(on)	aw(í)	awónd(on)
ISHK.	obl.	man	mánьv(o)	dan	dánьv(o)	wan	wánьv(o)
371	dir.			1	lu		
Yazgh.	obl.		-	a	ıu	yu	L
Muni	dir.	ma	māy	ya	yāy	wa	wāy
Munj.	obl.	mān / māy	māf	yān / yāy	yāf	wān / wāy	wāf

Table 45 Inflection of demonstrative pronouns in the Pāmīr languages.

Sogdian and Yaghnobī pronominal inflection is very similar one to each other, the main differences were caused by operation of the Rhythmic Law in Sogdian, the system is also comparable to the Pāmīr languages. In both languages the first and second persons plural were based on forms of accusative and are not inflected. The personal pronouns for the first and second person singular are both inflected in direct and oblique cases, in Yaghnōbī the direct case form of the first person gave place to its oblique form, it has been attested once by Émile Benveniste (GAUTHIOT - BENVENISTE 1929, p. 108-109), but all other sources have just one form for both direct and oblique case: man. In Yaghnōbī the oblique form infiltrated the direct case probably under Tajik influence (Pers. Tjk. man 'I') and maybe also some impact of Turkic can be suggested (cf. Uzbek mėn, colloq. mån, Kyrgyz men etc.). There can be seen a tendency to develop distinct inflectional forms for all personal pronouns both in Sogdian and in Yaghnōbī - by analogy innovated forms of oblique can be formed from the original personal pronouns by adding a "heavy stem" oblique ending (cf. Tables 46 and 47). *Proto-Sogdic has inherited pronominal system without independent forms of the third person personal pronouns - their function has been fulfilled by demonstratives. Such pattern continued in Sogdian and still goes on in Yaghnöbī.

The Iranian triple deictic system has been inherited from the Indo-European proto-language. Demonstrative pronouns distinguished *I., II.* and *III.* deixis (of also *ich-, du-* and *er-*deixis or *hic-, iste-* and *ille-*deixis), the inflectional pattern has been based on two suppletive forms – nominative in *iiia-/aia- (I.), *aiša- (II.) and *(a)hau- (III.) and oblique stem in *ima-, *aita- and *aua- (cf. Tables 45, 46 and 47). In Yaghnōbī the original near *I.* deixis disappeared so there is only double deictic system (cf. the same development in Yazghulāmī). In Sogdian complete system is attested, but according to preserved forms can be judged that forms of the *II.* deixis started to disappear or were of lesser importance.

				sg.							pl.		
	I st	2 nd	I. de	eixis	II. d	eixis	III. de	ixis	I st	2 nd	I.	II.	III.
	pers.	pers.	m	f	m	f	m	f	pers.	pers.	deixis	deixis	deixis
nom.	əzú	t(³γ)ú	yu	уŭ	[∔] šú	ŧšā	ōχć	³ха́́			yu	ŧšā	эха́
acc.			imú	<u></u> ∙mấ	i tú	ŧtā́	ō, ³wú	∍wá́			imú	[‡] tá	∍wá
gen dat.	məná	təwá	imén	[∔] mī́,			³wén(ē)	⁵W1,	māx 212	išmáx 213	mḗšən		wéšən 214
instr abl.	Шәпа	təwa	men	imyā			wen(e)	∍wyá					
loc.													
encl. acc.	-m	-f(ī)		-šu						-fən,		-šən	
encl. gen.	-mī	-t(<u>i</u>)			-š(ī)			-mən	-tən		-8911		

Table 46 Inflectional system of personal and demonstrative pronouns in Sogdian.

		sg				pl.		
	1 st	2 nd	near	far	I st	2 nd	near	far
	pers.	pers.	deixis	deixis	pers.	pers.	deixis	deixis
dir.	$(az)^{215}$	tu	īš	ax	mōx ²¹⁶	$\check{s}^u m \acute{o} x^{2.17}$	ίštit	áxtit
obl.	man ^{2.18}	tau ²¹⁹	ī́ti	áwi	mox	sumox	ī́titi	áutiti
encl.	-́(¹)m	<u>-'(')</u> t	<u>-</u> (⁽ⁱ)š	<u>-</u> (¹)mōx	-´šint		

Table 47 Inflectional system of personal and demonstrative pronouns in Yaghnōbī.

²¹⁵ The form *az* is quoted only by Émile Benveniste in his *Essai de grammaire Sogdienne, Deuxieme partie, Morphologie, syntaxe et glossaire* (GAUTHIOT – BENVENISTE 1929, 108-109); in all other sources there appears only single form of 1st person singular *man* for both cases.

.144.

²¹² Occasionally nominative $m \dot{\bar{a}} x u$, oblique $m \dot{\bar{a}} x \bar{\imath}$.

²¹³ Occasionally nominative *'šmáxu*, oblique *'šmáxī*.

²¹⁴ Cf. Pahl. awēšan 'they'.

Occasionally analogically formed oblique *moxi* can appear.

²¹⁷ Occasionally by analogy formed oblique š^umoxi.

²¹⁸ In colloquial speech appears analogically formed oblique *máni*.

²¹⁹ The oblique form can *per analogiam* appear as *táwi*.

*Proto-Sogdic pronouns started to develop independent pronominal system of inflectional endings with rich suppletive system. Pronominal inflection developed differently in both languages. In Sogdian it can be seen in inflectional forms of the demonstrative pronouns (cf. Table 46) and also on an adjective 'all' – wispú (Table 47) and a numeral 'one' – ½ (Table 50). Yaghnōbī developed independent system based on ending 'tit for direct case and 'titi for oblique (originating in reduplication of the plural ending *-tǎ; KHROMOV 1987, 674). Such ending can be added to interrogative pronouns (Table 49). The pronominal plural ending -tit(i) can be also added to numerals to express number of people, e.g. Yagh. úxš-tit(-i) '(of) six individuals', saráytit || tiráytit 'three individuals', cf. Pers. šaš-tǎ 'six individuals', baft-tǎ 'seven individuals'.

	S	g.	n1
	m	f	pl.
nom.	wispí	wispå	vvi on á
acc.	wis	spú	wispé
gendat.	wisp	oəné	<u> </u>
instrabl.	wisp	pəná	wispė̃šən

Table 48 Inflection of wisp- 'all'.

The demonstratives can be both in Yaghnōbī and in Sogdian extended by prefixed or suffixed particle *nah, *nă-(kă-) – in Yaghnōbī the particle is proclitics and it can be used with various forms derived from the demonstratives; in Sogdian the particle is enclitic: -nĕ, -nəx; e.g. Sogd. M xwny, xwnx 'xó-nĕ, xó-nəx', Yagh. nah-áx 'THAT (III. deixis) one', cf. Yagh. nah-id-óka 'THIS place here'.

	Sogd.	Yagh.	Sogd.	Yagh.	Sogd.	Yagh.	Sogd.	Yagh.	Sogd.	Yagh.
	'who'		'what'		'which'		'how much'		'where'	
rec.sg.	∘kḗ	kax	°čó	čō	1 1	kēm	Y- C	čōf	∘kú́	kū
obl.sg.	kyá	kai, káyi	³CO	čōi, čṓyi	kədām	kḗmi	čāf	čốfi	³KU	kūi, kū́yi
rec.pl.		káxtit				kḗmtit		čốftit		
obl.pl.	_	káytiti	_	_	_	kḗmtiti	_	čṓftiti	_	_

Table 49 Iterrogative pronouns in Sogdian and Yaghnōbī.

Sogdian has also developed a definite article – it was formally the same as the demonstrative pronouns of III. deixis, but in plural all forms of the definite article were inflected as feminine singular. The definite article has been widely used during the development of the Sogdian languages, but in late Christian texts it is inflected only in two cases (dir. < nom., obl. < acc.) and its forms gradually merged. In really late texts there can be no definite article. As it is attested in several Sogdian documents of Zhetisu, there were probably more ways to express the definite article in *Proto-Sogdian, the dialect of Zhetisu shows the definite article $\acute{e}n\check{e}$ based on extended form of the demonstrative pronoun of the I. deixis *aia-nā-kā-. In Yaghnōbī there is no definite article, according to known history of the Yaghnōbī language it cannot be judged whether there have been also a definite article that disappeared during the development of the language or if there has been no definite article in *Proto-Yaghnōbī. In the Pāmīr languages the

demonstrative pronouns serve also as the definite article, but they are used also syntactically and grammatically to express gender or subject of a clause.

*Proto-Sogdic enclitic pronouns originate from enclitics inherited *Proto-(Indo-)Iranian, in *Proto-Sogdian and *Proto-Yaghnōbī the enclitics were simplified. In Sogdian the enclitic pronouns distinguished accusative and genitive forms; in Yaghnōbī the enclitics have just one form (see Tables 46, 47). Yaghnōbī plural enclitics have been innovated enclitic pronoun of the first person plural has been taken from original Iranian accusative (i.e. Yaghnōbī direct-oblique). The inherited forms of enclitics of the second person plural were lost in Yaghnōbī and were replaced by forms of the third person. Inherited Yaghnōbī enclitic pronoun of the second and third persons plural -šint originates from the *Proto-Sogdic (or *Proto-Yaghnōbī) third person enclitic *-šan extended by plural ending *-tā (cf. KHROMOV 1987, 675). See also merger of the forms of enclitic forms of copula (< enclitic pronouns) of the second and third persons in Bartangī, Rāshārvī and Sarīqōlī (Table 44).

II.2.3. Numeral inflection

*Proto-Iranian numerals were inflected similarly as nouns. The numeral inflection was present also in *Proto-Sogdic, but the inflectional system changed during later development. In Sogdian there are attested inflectional forms just for numerals "one" and "two" (Table 50) – for the numeral "one" both cases were formed analogically (i.e. accusative by adding oblique case ending, genitive-dative ending is taken from pronominal inflection), the numeral 'two' preserves inherited genitive ending. Both Sogdian numerals "one" and "two" distinguished masculine and feminine forms (feminine form 'ywh /yĕwă/ 'one' is attested only in the Sogdian documents from the Mount Mugh; cf. BOGOLYUBOV – SMIRNOVA 1963, 21). Some forms of numerals can have old genitive ending in -nu (YOSHIDA 2009a, 295).

		'one'	'two	,
	m	f	m	f
nom.	^y Ḗ <u>u</u>	yŧwā ²²⁰	³ðwá, ³ðú	³Sw∉
acc.		^y ŧ̃wī		
gendat.	yξ̈̈́	wən ²²¹	δ i βnı	ú

Table 50 Inflection of the numerals 'one' and 'two' in Sogdian.

Yaghnōbī numerals do not distinguish gender and they are normally uninflected, but in occasional cases they can be inflected the same way as nouns, the numerals can even take plural ending -t when necessary. Inherited Yaghnōbī numerals from "two" to "ten" can also take pronominal plural endings to express number of people (see chapter II.2.2. above). The Yaghnōbī language has two sets of numerals – inherited and borrowed. Inherited are only the numerals from "one" to "ten" (see numerals presented in lexical part of the presented thesis,

_

²²⁰ Feminine form of the numeral 'one' is attested only in the Mount Mugh documents.

²²¹ In Christian Sogdian oblique *ywy* /yĕwī/.

chapter III.2.), the borrowed numerals are taken from the Zarafshōn Tajik dialects. The Tajik numerals are used to count entities of more than ten items, but with words of Tajik origin (as considered by the Yaghnōbīs, i.e. also Arabic and/or Uzbek loans) Tajik numerals are used even for entities less than *ten*.

When counting, entities of more than one item are not presented in their plural form, but numerative form is used. Sogdian numerative originates from *Proto-Sogdic (or Iranian) dual (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1979; cf. table 39). In Yaghnōbī the counted entities are in oblique singular (it is possible, that the oblique ending comes from *(oblique)* dual, but due to formal similarity of continuants of both oblique singular and oblique dual > numerative it can be only difficult to judge²²²). In other (Modern) Eastern Iranian languages counted entities often appear in singular – this can be interpreted as development influenced by a development of group inflection, interpretation as influence of Persian or Turkic seems to be less probable in this case.

Yaghnōbī has lost inherited numerals from eleven up to the "infinity" – those numerals have been replaced by Tajik forms. Al'bert Leonidovich KHROMOV (1987, 671-672) notes, that elder Yaghnōbīs (i.e. in the time of his field-work in the Yaghnōb valley in the first half of the 1960's) counted in vigesimal system (vigesimal system of counting is attested also in the Zarafshōn Tajik dialects or in some of the Pāmīr languages). Nowadays the vigesimal system is not used in Yaghnōbī, but some speakers use synthetic counting using inherited Yaghnōbī numerals, e.g. $das\ \bar{\iota}$ 'eleven' (or borrowed $y\bar{o}zda^{i}$), $ux\bar{s}$ das 'sixty' (vigesimal $saray \parallel t^{i}ray$ $b\bar{t}st$, borrowed sast). Sogdian numerals continue from Iranian numerals, but units precede decades, e.g. $s\beta d-w\bar{t}st$ 'twenty seven (literally 'seven-twenty')', numbers close to a higher decade can be expressed by subtraction, e.g. $s\beta d$ saray sa

Distributive numerals in Sogdian and Yaghnōbī have comparable ending: Sogd. $-k\bar{\iota}^{223}$, Yagh. -ki. In *Proto-Sogdic there have been archaic forms of ordinal number "first", "second" and "third", ordinal numerals higher than four were formed by addition of endings. Such system has been preserved in Sogdian²²⁴, where ordinal numerals beginning from four were formed by adding an ending $-\partial m(i) \sim -am(i)$ or $-m\bar{\iota}k$. Yaghnōbī uses ordinal numerals borrowed from Tajik (and in case of the ordinal "first" also Arabic form can be used), occasionally ordinals can be formed from Yaghnōbī numerals with Tajik ending -(y)um (this Tajik ending is of the same origin as Sogdian $-\partial m(i) \sim -am(i)$).

II.2.4. Verbal inflection

Sogdian preserved complex conjugation system which in the active voice continues from the Old Iranian pattern, but in the middle voice there is attested conjugation only for indicative present

_

²²² See also comparable Ossetic ending -ii || -ii used for counting entities of more than one item which probably comes from Iranian genitive ending (ISAEV 1987, 593).

²²³ In Sogdian also -kankī ~ -kaṁgī.

²²⁴ Iranian *fra-táma- 'first' (Sogd. s B ' β tm-y, (')prtm-y M 'ftm-y C ftm(') / 'ftəmí/) is preserved in Yaghnōbī f''tú(m)[mēṣ] || f''tú(m)[mēṭ], f'túm[ēṭ] 'day after tomorrow' < *fratā-máṭ ϑ ā-, *fra-tama-máṭ ϑ ā-.

and imperfect. Yaghnobī conjugation also continues from the Old Iranian pattern, but there has been completely lost the middle voice and also optative present. Moreover both languages lost Iranian indicative perfect. The endings have undergone several changes in both Sogdian and Yaghnōbī – *Proto-Sogdic verbal stems have been all "thematized" and the verbal endings were based on Iranian thematic endings. The Old Iranian endings changed a little bit in *Proto-Sogdic, the main change can be seen in spread of \Im to all forms of the second person plural. In *Proto-Sogdic there were two sets of endings of the third person plural - in the indicative mood there has been used either ending in *-ant- or in *- $\bar{a}r$ - < *-r-. The *-ant- forms have been preserved in Sogdian, in Yaghnōbī the endings are based on *-ār- (such endings are comparable to Khwārezmian, similar *-ār- endings can be found in Khōtanese 225; and in Avestan²²⁶) originating in endings of the third person plural of the lost forms of perfect indicative. In Yaghnōbī there remain preserved transformed forms of perfect which continue from endings of peripheral Indo-European middle voice perfect: primary ending *-(o)ror, secondary ending *-(o)ro (cf. BIČOVSKÝ 2012, 109-111). Sogdian present and subjunctive forms were contaminated by causative *-aja- endings in the first person plural (see also Bactrian endings influenced by *-aja-causative, such feature links Bactrian with development observed in Middle Persian), there may also be observed tendency to differentiate present indicative ending from other tenses in Christian Sogdian, where the ending of the second pers. pl. is -t(a) in present indicative, and in all other tenses and moods there remained *-9-. In Yaghnōbī the optative mood has been lost, or better: optative has merged with imperfect - in Yaghnōbī dialect there have up today survived both optative and imperfect endings in forms of the first person plural: in the Eastern dialect the ending -īm continues from optative *-aima, in the Western dialect there continues imperfect ending *- $\bar{a}ma > -\bar{o}m$. (See Table 51)

		*Ir.	Sogd.	Yagh.	*Ir.	Sogd.
			Active		Middle	
+	ı st sg.	-āmi	-ām ∥ -ám	-ēm	-aį	
esen	2 nd sg.	-ahi	-(ĕ) -É	-ø	-ahai	
e pr	3 rd sg.	-ati	-t ∥ -tí	-t	-atai	-tĭ
ativ	ı st pl.	-āmahi	-ēm ²²⁷	-īm ²²⁸	-amada <u>i</u>	
Indicative present	2 nd pl.	-аЗа	$-\Im(a) \parallel -\Im \acute{a}^{229}$	-§ ∥ -ţ	-aduai	
I	3 rd pl.	-anti	-aṁd	-ōr ²³⁰	-anta <u>i</u>	

Indicative present middle voice $-\bar{a}re < *-\bar{a}ra\underline{a}$, subjunctive present active voice $-\bar{a}ro < *-\bar{a}r\bar{a}m$.

²²⁶ Perfect indicative active voice -arə < -ar, middle voice -are < *-arai.

From causative *-aia-conjugation < *-aiamah; or from optative *-aima. In the Ancient Letters there is attested 1st plural ending -'ymn /-ēmən/, cf. Khōt. -amne.

²²⁸ From causative *-aja-conjugation < *-ajamah; or from optative *-ajma.

In Christian Sogdian often $-t(a) \parallel -t \acute{a}$.

From perfect indicative active voice *- $r(\tilde{s}) > *-\bar{a}ri$; cf. Khwār. $-\bar{a}ri$ (3rd pers. sg. present indicative & subjunctive).

		*Ir.	Sogd.	Yagh.	*Ir.	Sogd.
			Active		Middle	
t	ı st sg.	-a			-ai	
Indicative perfect	2 nd sg.	-∂a, -ta			?	
e be	3 rd sg.	-a			-ai	
ativ	r st n1	-ma			-mada <u>i</u>	
ndic	2 nd pl.	?			-duai	
Ī	3 rd pl.	-r(š)			-rai	
nt	i so.	-āni	-ăn ²³¹	-ēm	-ā('a) <u>i</u>	
Subjunctive present	2 nd sg.	-āhi	-ā	-ø	-āhai	
ve p	3 rd sg.	-āti	-āt	-ōt	-āta <u>i</u>	
nctiv	r st n1	?	-ēm ²³²	-īm ²³³	-āmada <u>i</u>	
ıbjuı	2 nd pl.	-ā3a	-∂a	-ş ∥ -ţ	-āduai	
Su	3 rd pl.	-ānti	-aṁd	-ant	-ānta <u>i</u>	
	ı st sg.	-a <u>i</u> (a)m			-aia	
sent	2 nd sg.	-aįš	$-\bar{e}^{234}$		-aįša	
pre	3 rd sg.	-ait			-aita	
utive	r st nl	-aima	-ēm		-aimadi	
Optative present	2 nd pl.	-aita	-ē∂ ²³⁵		-aiduam	
	3 rd pl.	-aiant	-ēnt ²³⁶		-aianta	
ct	ı st so	-am	-(u) -ú ²³⁷	-im ²³⁸	-a <u>i</u>	-tu
Indicative imperfect	2 nd sg.	-ah	-(i) -í	- <u>1</u> ²²³⁹	-aha	-ti
imp	3 rd sg.	-at	-ø ∥ -á	-ø	-ata	-t(a) -tá
tive	r st n1	-āma	-ēm ²⁴⁰	-īm²4I -ēm	-āmadi	
dica	2 nd pl.	-ata	-3(a) -3á	-§ĭ ∥ -ţĭ ²⁴²	-адцат	
In	3 rd pl.	-ant	-ant	-ōr ²⁴³	-anta	_

²³¹ In Christian Sogdian -ām.

²³² From causative *-aia-conjugation < *-aiamah; or from optative *-aima.

²³³ From causative *-aia-conjugation < *-aiamah; or from optative *-aima.

²³⁴ In the Mugh documents for one of persons also ending $-y^2$ /-ya/, the second person also -yš /-ēš/. Probably from the middle forms.

²³⁵ Mugh documents -γδγ /-ēθi/.

²³⁶ In the Ancient Letters -²y²nt /- ăyāmd/, in one Buddhist document -y²nt /-(ə)yāmd/.

²³⁷ Also used as injunctive and irrealis.

²³⁸ From optative *-ai(a)m (KHROMOV 1987, 681).

²³⁹ Either from imperfect *-ah or from optative *-aiš (KHROMOV 1987, 681).

²⁴⁰ Also -ēmu (Mugh documents) or -ēmən < optative *-aima (?).

²⁴¹ From optative *-aima? (KHROMOV 1987, 681).

From optative *- $a\underline{i}\Im a$ (KHROMOV 1987, 681) influenced by present indicative/subjunctive; with metathesis *- $a\underline{i}\Im a > *-\bar{e}\Im > -\Im i > -\underline{s}i \parallel -\underline{t}i$.

From perfect indicative active voice *- $r(\tilde{s}) > *-\bar{a}r$; cf. Khwār. - $\bar{a}ra$ (3rd pers. sg. imperfect).

		*Ir.	Sogd.	Yagh.	*Ir.	Sogd.
			Active		M_i	iddle
ıt	ı st sg.					
eser.	2 nd sg.	-a	-(a) -á	-ø	-ax ^y a	
e pr	3 rd sg.				-atām	
rativ	ı st pl.					
Imperative present	2 nd pl.	-ata	-∂(a) -∂á	-§ ∥ -ţ	-aduam	
Ir	3 rd pl.	-antu			-antām	

 $\textbf{Table 51} \ \ \text{Overview of Old Iranian thematic conjugation and its development in Sogdian and Yaghn\"{o}b\~{i}.}$

*Proto-(Eastern-)Iranian verbal stem system has been simplified in *Proto-Sogdic, there emerged new conjugation system based on the present augmented or un-augmented stem, present and past participle and infinitive stem. The difference between thematic and athematic stems has been lost and all verbs were formed as "thematic". The difference between individual verbal stems gradually merged and the stem system has become quite regular, there are only several irregular verbs both in Sogdian and in Yaghnōbī.

The main difference between Sogdian and Yaghnōbī is different treatment of augment in forms of imperfect tense. In Sogdian the original augment has been lost in non-prefixed verbs and remained only as so-called *internal augment* in between verbal prefix and stem. In Yaghnōbī augment is preserved in all positions, but there is no *internal augment*, in the contemporary language augment of prefixed verbs is placed by analogy with non-prefixed verbs before the prefix as if the prefix was integral part of a verbal stem (see also chapter II.1.8.)²⁴⁴. According to development of stress in *(Post-)Proto-Sogdic it is probable, that *"non-internal"* augment should have been lost both in *Proto-Sogdian and *Proto-Yaghnōbī, but probably due to merger of optative and imperfect endings in *Proto-Yaghnōbī and their formal similarity with endings of present indicative (cf. ISKHAKOV 1977, 30-31) the augment possibly acquired a secondary stress and thus was not lost due to operation of stress changes (on the other hand later in Christian Sogdian the imperfect has been gradually replaced by periphrastic perfect).

The survival of the augment in Yaghnōbī (regardless of its change by analogy) is a striking archaism within all modern Indo-European languages. Augment is peripherally preserved in Modern Greek – only accented augment is preserved, but it disappeared in unaccented positions: MGre. έλυσα 'I loosened', φλύσαμε 'we loosened' × Gre. ἔλυσα, ἐλύσαμεν (cf. SOPHRONIOU 1962, 79). According to R. L. Turner there are some traces of augment also in Dardic Khowār and Kalāṣa (Turner 1927, 538-541).

Both in *Proto-Sogdian and in *Proto-Yaghnōbī emerged secondary endings that may have been used with verbs to modify their syntactic or temporal meaning. In Sogdian there are attested several compound formations from present stem – durative in $-(^{\circ})$ skun (see QARĪB 1965, 167-169), future in $-k\bar{a}m$ (ibid., 174), or preterite in $-\bar{a}z$ (ibid, 179-180). In Yaghnōbī there is a

²⁴⁴ See also Old Persian *a=pari-āy-* 'to behave (augmented stem)' with augment preceding prefix (SKJÆRVØ 2005, 50).

*durative suffix $-i\check{s}t$ (cf. Sogd. B $-\check{s}tn$ in Vessantara Jātaka). Durative suffixes further developed in Christian Sogdian and in Yaghnōbī, where present durative replaced present indicative (QARĪB 1965, 168). In Yaghnōbī the original durative suffix $-i\check{s}t$ ($<*hi(-)\check{s}ta-<*st\bar{a}-$ 'to stand') was agglutinated to personal endings, and some forms have changed: $(*)-t+i\check{s}t>(E)-\check{c}i(t)$, $(*)-\bar{o}r+i\check{s}t>-\bar{o}(y)\check{s}t$, $(*)-i+i\check{s}t>-i\check{s}t$; $(*)-\emptyset+i\check{s}t>-i\check{s}t$. The suffix $-i\check{s}t$ is agglutinated also with endings of imperfect tense. The original forms non-suffixed of indicative present and imperfect tense change their meaning: non- $i\check{s}t$ present serves as a so-called "dependent paradigm" and non- $i\check{s}t$ imperfect is used as simple past (simple perfect) tense.

Infinitive developed different forms in Sogdian and in Yaghnōbī. In Sogdian present infinitive distinguishes *light* and *heavy stems*: the *light stems* have ending -y(y) in nominative and oblique (but in Christian, Buddhist Sogdian and Sogdian in the Sogdian script also abl. $-^2$ and acc. $-(^2)w$ (GMS §905-913), the *heavy stems* have no ending in nominative and -y in oblique (GMS §905, 914-921). Past infinitive has ending -y (or $-^2$) in the *light stems* and no ending (or -y) in the *heavy stems* (GMS §922-934). Yaghnōbī has two forms of infinitive - short infinitive (i.e. equal to verbal stem) and infinitives in -ak (cf. infinitive endings in other Iranian languages: Ishk. -ak, -ak, -ak, -ak, -ak, -ak, Parāch. -o; Balōch. -ag).

	norcon	present	past	tense
	person	tense	tr.	itr.
	ı st sg.	-(y)əm	-(y)əm	-(y)ām
	2 nd so	-(y)əy	-(y)ət	-(y)āy
ınjī	3 sg.	-d/-t/-ø	-(y)a	-ø
Munjī	ı st nl		-(y))ām
	2 nd pl.	-(y)ām -(y)āf)āf
	3 rd pl.	-(y)āt	-(y)āt
	i sg.	-ьm	-ьm	
'=	2 nd sg.	-i	-ъt	
Ishkāshmī	3 rd sg.	-u	-(i)	
shkā	ı st pl.	-on	-on	
Is	2 nd pl.	-bV	-PA	
	3 rd pl.	-on	-(on
	i so.	-əm	- <i>a</i>	m
	2 nd sg.	-(i) ²⁴⁶	-	ət
khī	ard so.	-d	-((i)
Wakhī	r st nl	-ən		ən
	2 nd pl.	-9v		
	3 rd pl.	-ən	-,	əv

		1		
	person	present	past	tense
	1	tense	tr.	itr.
	ı st sg.	-em	-əm	-ōm
	2 nd sg.	-ë	-ət	-it
ghā	ard so.	-d/-t	-ø	-ø
Yidghā	r st nl	-am	-em	-ōm
	2 nd pl.	-əf	-ef	-ōf
	3 rd pl.	-et	-et	-ōt
	ı st sα.	-ən	-9	m
1=	2 nd sg.	-ī	-	·i
Sanglēchī	3 rd sg.	-ō	-	Ø
ang	ı st nl.	-əm		
S	2 nd pl.	-əf	-3	ໍ່ເກ
	3 rd pl.	-ăn		
	i so.	-in	-,	at
n <u>i</u>	2 nd sg.	-ay	-(1	ау)
Yazghulāmī	ard so.	-d/-t	-6	ın
ızgh	ı st pl.	-əm	_	
Ya	and al	-it	-	əf
	3 rd pl.	-an		

²⁴⁵ "Dependent paradigm" is a characteristic feature of Yaghnōbī syntax – dependent forms are used after another verb in sentences like Yagh. w ax jáx-t-išt saḥári tiráy ōdámi ī lāɛlí tifór-t-ø, nōn tifór-t-ø, čōy tifór-t-ø 'he wakes up and in the morning [he] give[s] dish to three persons, [he] give[s] bread (and) [he] give[s] tea' (cf. KHROMOV 1972, 42).

²⁴⁶ Ending -*i* appears only in Western Wakhī.

		present	past	tense
	person	tense	tr.	itr.
	ı st sg.	-um	-11	ım
	2 nd sg.	-i		at
Shughnī	3 sg.	-t/-d	- <i>i</i>	-ø
Shu	ı st pl.	-ām	-ā	im
	2 nd nl	-ēt	-,	ēt
	3 rd pl.	-ēn	-6	. n
	ı st so	-um	-um	
	2 nd sg.	-(i)	-at	
Bartangī	3 rd sg.	-t/-d	$-(i)^{247}$	-ø
Bart	ı st pl.	-an	-am	
	2 nd nl	-at/-af	-af	
	3 rd pl.	-an	-af/-an	-an
	st	-am	-a	m
	2 nd sg.	-ø	-0	at
qōlī	3 rd sg.	-t/-d	- <i>i</i>	-(i)
Sarīqōlī	ı st nl	-an	-6	in
	2 nd nl	-it		af
	3 rd pl.	-in	-6	uj

	person	present	past	tense
	1	tense	tr.	itr.
fi	ı st sg.	-um		-um
(hū	2 nd sg.	-i		-at
& F	3 rd sg.	-t/-d		-i
Rōshānī & Khūfī	ı st pl.	-am	-ø	-am
lōsh	2 nd pl.	-at/-af		-af
4	3 rd pl.	-an		-an
	ı st sg.	-um	-1	ım
	2 nd sg.	-ø	-,	at
ıārvī	3 rd sg.	-t/-d	-ø	
Rāshārvī	ı st pl.	-an	-6	in
	2 nd pl.	-at/-af		C
	3 rd pl.	-an		af

Table 52 Basic personal endings of the Pāmīr languages (values in *italic* represent enclitic endings usually added to a subject of a clause).

Sogdiar forms of copula continue from Proto-Iranian *(μ)ab- (IIr. * μ as-, Ide. * h_1es -). Both in Sogdian and in Yaghnōbī some of the forms changed from the *Proto-Iranian state (see Table 53). Sogdian forms of the second person singular and the first person plural originate either from $a\dot{\mu}a$ -conjugation (GAUTHIOT – BENVENISTE 1929, 60-61) i.e. $a\dot{\mu}a$ -conjunctive forms of personal endings or they can be taken from optative personal endings * $-a\dot{\mu}$ \$ (> Mug $-e\ddot{s}$ \$) '2 nd pers. sg. opt.' ²⁴⁸ and *-aima > -em '1st pers. pl. opt.' Yaghnōbī plural forms of copula have forms which may be based on *Proto-Yaghnōbī personal endings of *-am < *-ama '1st pers. pl. impf.' and * $-a\ddot{r}$ '3rd pers. pl. impf.' < * $-a\ddot{r}(i)$ * $-a\ddot{r}$ '3rd pers. pl. perf.' and by analogy also *($-)a\ddot{\vartheta}$ \$; analogical form is also in Christian Sogdian $e\ddot{s}ta$ '[you] are' < $e\ddot{s}$ '[thou] art' + -t(a) < * $-a\Im a$ '2 nd pers. pl. ind. pres.'. The development of some forms of copula from verbal endings shows, that copula was probably more often used as an enclitic form and thus some of its forms were taken from verbal endings in order to regularize conjugation. Sogdian non-enclitic copula of the second person plural $^{2}ns\eth{\vartheta}$ / $^{2}as\ddot{\vartheta}$ ($^{2}a\ddot{\vartheta}$) may come from a stem ^{2}n - of an unclear origin (GMS §784), such stem may be compared with Pahl. $^{2}n^{2}d$, $^{2}n^{2}nd$ (ibid.).

Not only verbal endings affected copula forms – copula was also influenced by pronominal enclitics. The main feature is prefixation of x= to forms of copula of the third persons singular

²⁴⁷ Forms of the third person differ in Bartangī dialects – in Basīdī there is no ending, in Sipānjī -*i* is used (cf. SOKOLOVA 1966, 379-380), I have no information concerning Rawmēdī and Bardaraī.

Or maybe by occasional palatalization of *h (GMS §405; see chapter II.1.3.20.v.).

and plural. In Sogdian this "pronominal" x= appears in present and imperfect indicative and in subjunctive, in Yaghnōbī only in the third person singular forms of indicative present and imperfect. In all forms there this x= is "optional", i.e. there are forms with x= or without it. The x= originates in the third deictic demonstrative *(a)hau (cf. GMS §1398.b, §1405) 249 . Yaghnōbī išt comes from combination of the second person singular copula with the second person singular enclitic, i.e. iš-t. The use of pronominal elements in forms of copula can be observed in some Eastern Iranian languages such as Ossetic, Pashtō or Wakhī (KORN 2011). Comparable is also merger of copula with pronominal enclitics in verbal endings in the Pāmīr languages.

		iı	andrina atina	obtation	irrealis			
		present		imperfect		subjunctive	optative	irrealis
	Sogdian	Sogdian Yaghnōbī *Iranian		Sogdian Yaghnōbī		S	ogdian	
ıst sg.	i m	im	*áhmi		ốyim	xān		
2 nd sg.	ēš	išt ²⁵⁰	*áhi	āįš	ốy(i(št))			
3 rd sg.	əsti ²⁵¹ , (x) i čí	(x)ást (i) , = x	*ásti	$(x)\bar{a}i^{252}$	(x)óy	$(x)\bar{a}t^{253}$, əst $\dot{a}t$	$y\bar{a}t^{254}$	əstāj
ı st pl.	ēm ²⁵⁵	ōm	*hmáhi		ī́yōm			
2 nd pl.	\acute{q} s $\Im(\check{a})^{256}$	ōş∥ōţ	*stā		ī́yōsౖ ∥ ī́yōtౖ			
3 rd pl.	(x) a \dot{m} d ²⁵⁷	ōr	*hánti	(x)ấyaṁd	íyōr		əstấyaṁd	

Table 53 Copula.

Copula also serves as a verb "to have" – in this issue only form of the third person singular is used with oblique forms of subject. Such construction is typical also in the Pāmīr languages or in Turkic (see Novák [in print], note 22).

Negative forms of copula have analytic forms in Sogdian based on (historical) negative of the third person singular Sogd. B nyst M nystt C nyst, nyst, nyst, nyst, nest, =nist/ '[(s)he] is not' < *na-ásti [Pers. nēst, cf. Eng. isn't]: M nystym /néstim/ '[I] am not' (GMS §784). In Yaghnōbī

Initial x- in forms of copula can be also explained as analogical spread of x- from the third person plural indicative present copula Sogd. sc xnt B ynt M xnd /xamd/ <*(H)bánti < Ide. * $h_Isénti$ (cf. GMS §770-774; HORN 1988, 245). I believe that pronominal origin of x= is the most probable explanation. See also Persian forms ast and bast.

From * $i\ddot{s}=t$, i.e. with suffixed enclitic second person singular pronoun (GAUTHIOT – BENVENISTE 1929, 52).

²⁵¹ In Sogdian in the Sogdian Script also enclitic *2st/ast*; in Christian Sogdian *sti* (cf. QARĪB 1965, 224).

²⁵² From optative (QARĪB 1965, 225).

²⁵³ From Ir. *ahat (QARĪB 1965, 225).

²⁵⁴ From Ir. *bjat (QARĪB 1965, 225).

²⁵⁵ In Sogdian in the Sogdian Script also $\acute{e}man$; in Christian Sogdian also $\acute{e}m\breve{a}(x)$ (cf. QARĪB 1965, 224; VINOGRADOVA 2000a, 89).

²⁵⁶ In Sogdian in the Sogdian script and in Manichaean Sogdian also enclitic =(∂) $\mathfrak{S}(\check{a})$; in Christian Sogdian \acute{e} šta (cf. QARĪB 1965, 224). Both forms are probably reanalysed forms of the second person singular copula with second person plural ending (cf. KHROMOV – LIVSHITS 1981, 480).

²⁵⁷ In Sogdian in the Sogdian Script also *sstárid* (cf. QARĪB 1965, 224).

negative prefix $n\acute{a}$ - is added in front of copula, there can be also the third person copula short form na=x.

For a more comprehensive study of Sogdian verb see the *Analysis of the Verbal System in the Sogdian Language* by Badrezzamān QARĪB (1965).

(excursion 6) Ergative

So-called *ergative construction* 258 appears to be one of the most important features of development of the Iranian languages – it gradually developed into a primary way to express past tense(s). Antje Wendtland connects Iranian ergativity with development of periphrastic perfect which is known also in many (Western) European languages (WENDTLAND 2011). Iranian ergative construction is formed with past participle and auxiliary verb *to be* or *to have*, the ("European") periphrastic perfect is formed with a passive participle and auxiliary verb *to have* (ibid., 39) 259 . The periphrastic perfect formed with *-nt*-participles and auxiliaries *to be* (*eš*-) and *to have* (*har*(*k*)-) is found also in Hittite, similar construction is attested also in Latin and in Old Indic (ibid., 39-42; cf. also GARRETT 1990).

	intransitive: 'I have come'			transitive: '1 have given'		
ıst sg.	$^{27}\gamma t^{2}ym$	ấγət- i m	je suis venu	$\delta \beta r t(w) \delta^2 r^2 m$	Þβár[t(ŭ)]ðárām	j'ai donné
2 nd sg.	²² 7t ² yš	ấγət-ēš	tu es venu	$\delta \beta r t - \delta^2 r^2 y$	Ββár[t(ŭ)]δắr(ĕ)	tu as donné
3 rd sg.	$^{22}\gamma t$	ấγət	il est venu	\$0 (/) \$2 (SO (/ E/\)\)	Ββár[t(ŭ)]δárt	il/elle a donné
3 sg.	$^{2}\gamma t^{2}$	ấγət-ă	elle est venue	δβrt(w) δ ² rt	Spartt(u) Joart	urene a aonne
ı st pl.	$^{27}\gamma t^{2}ym$	ấγət-ēm	nous sommes venus	∂brd²rym	Ββár[t(ŭ)]δắrēm	nous avez donné
2 nd pl.	22	شر مد سوک (مّر)	ấγət-ąs3(ặ) vous êtes venus	∃brd²ryšt²	Ββár[t(ŭ)]δārĭštā	vous avez donné
2 pl.	227 tsd	ayət-qs⊼(a)			ခβár[t(ŭ)]ðárð(ā)	vous avez aonne
3 rd pl.	$\gamma \gamma t \gamma nt$	ấγət-aṁd	ils sont venus	∃brd²rnt	Ββár[t(ŭ)]δáramd	ils ont donné

Table 54 Ergative construction in Sogdian, forms are given in various orthographies (after Wendtland 2011, 43, Table 1, edited)

For the Iranian languages the periphrastic perfect is attested yet in the Old Iranian period (see examples given in CARDONA 1970). The Iranian periphrastic perfect emerged from forms of past participle and copula – as there was no independent form for verb *to have* it was also expressed by copula with subject in genitive case²⁶⁰. The ergative construction emerged from difference of transitive and intransitive verbs – the periphrastic perfect of transitive verbs emerged from a past participle and verb *to be* (i.e. subject in nominative + copula that agrees with subject in form), the intransitive verbs emerged from a past participle and verb *to have* (i.e.

_

 $^{^{258}}$ «An S[plit]E[rgative] language is one in which some transitive clauses, but not all, are ergative constructions. ... I will define an ergative construction as a transitive clause in which a special case-form or adposition marks the semantic agent, or verb-agreement is with patient in preference to agent» (DELANCEY 1981, 627).

²⁵⁹ There are two kinds of periphrastic perfect in the European languages – *be*- and *have*-languages, e.g. (Old High) German, Dutch, Frisian, Icelandic, Norwegian, Danish, French, formerly Catalan; and *have*-languages; e.g. English, Swedish, Spanish, Catalan, Portuguese, Romanian, Albanian (cf. WENDTLAND 2011, 40 Map 1).

²⁶⁰ E.g. in Latin or Latvian the subject of such possessive construction is in dative case.

subject in genitive (oblique) case and copula in form of the third person singular). The difference of case of the subject and form of copula influenced the development of the ergative construction, in many cases e.g. Old Persian forms are very similar to Latin: OPers. *ima tya manā kṛtam*, Lat. *hoc (est) quod a me factum est* 'I have done' (cf. CARDONA 1970, I). The forms of "ergative-like" periphrastic perfect served as a base for further development of past tenses in all other Iranian languages.

stage	verbs	patterns of the perfect	example	texts	
	itr	past participle + form of be attached	$^{27}\gamma t^{2}ym$	A maione I aeean II	
I	tr	past participle, no aux., enclitic pronoun	-m ptywšt	e.g. Ancient Letter II	
	itr	past participle + form of <i>be</i> attached	$^{22}\gamma t^{2}ym$		
2	4	past participle, no aux., enclitic pronoun	-m ptywšt	e.g. Ancient Letter V	
	tr	past participle in -w + form of have	δβrtw δ²rt		
	itr	past participle + form of <i>be</i> attached	$^{22}\gamma t^{2}ym$	Buddhist texts	
3	tr	past participle in $-w$ + form of have regular wytw $\delta^2 r^2 nt$		(mainly in direct speech)	
	:	past participle + form of <i>be</i> attached	$^{22}\gamma t^{2}ym$	Manichaean texts	
4	itr	first intransitive verbs with have	$r^2t\delta^2rt$	(also used in the	
	tr	past participle in $-w$ or \emptyset + form of have	ptywštw d ² r ² m	narrative)	
	itr unacc	past participle + form of <i>be</i> attached	$^{27}\gamma t^{2}ym$	Christian texts	
5	itr unerg	past participle + form of <i>have</i>	žw²d²rt	(begins to replace	
	tr	past participle without -w + have attached	ptwysd ² rnt	the imperfect)	
	itr unacc	past participle + form of <i>be</i> attached	$^{27}\gamma t^{-2}ym$	Chairtin Connell VC	
6	itr unerg	past participle + form of <i>have</i>	wywsd ² rt	Christian Gospels, KG 2	
	tr	past participle without -w + have attached	wyd ² rt	(used as simple past)	

Table 55 Stages of development of the *have-* and *be-*perfect in Sogdian (Wendtland 2001, 50 Table 2) (tr = transitive verb; itr = intransitive verb; unacc = unaccusative; unerg = unergative; aux. = auxiliary).

Nearly in all Modern Iranian languages the past tenses are formed with later developments and reanalysis of the ergative construction — e.g. in the Pāmīr languages the ergative construction was reanalyzed for transitive verbs — there has been lost form of copula of the third person singular and oblique forms of subject were gradually replaced by enclitic personal pronouns. Later "have-preterite" predominated e.g. in majority of the Pāmīr languages; in several instances the enclitic-based endings influenced personal endings of present tense (see Table 52). In the languages of the Shughnī-Rōshānī group, in Yazghulāmī and Wakhī the "past tense" endings are usually connected to subject, not to verb, e.g. Shugh. wuz lūv-um 'I say' × wúz=um lūvd 'I said'; Rōsh. az lúv-um 'I say' × mu luvd or áz=um luvd 'I said'; Rōsh. āz lúv-um 'I say' × mu luvd or áz=vm laft 'I said'; Wakh. wuz xán-vm 'I say' × wúz=vm xat(vy)²6²² 'I said'. In Ishkāshmī the past tense personal endings may

²⁶¹ In Rōshānī transitive prefect $mu\ luvd$ (literary " $me\ said$ ") is used only by elder speakers, younger generations use construction $\acute{a}z=um\ luvd$ (literary " $I=my\ said\sim I=am\ said$ ") similar to Shughnī or Bartangī.

²⁶² Wúz=əm šat in Western Wakhī, wúz=əm šatəy in Eastern and Central Wakhī (PAKHALINA 1969, 100).

be connected to a verb or, more often, to subject: $azi \ \gamma \acute{a} \acute{z} - bm$ 'I say' × $azi = m \ \gamma a \check{z} d$ or $azi \ \gamma \acute{a} \acute{z} d = bm$ 'I said' (the "personal" ending may be even doubled: $azi = m \ \gamma \acute{a} \acute{z} d = bm$); Munjī intransitive verbs show typical ergative construction: $z\partial \ \check{z} \bar{\partial} y - \partial m$ 'I say' × $m\partial n \ i \check{s} t\partial m$ 'I said' (all the above presented examples are taken from PAKHALINA 1969).

Development of split ergativity can be seen also in Sogdic dialects – in both Sogdian and Yaghnōbī we can see development of the original periphrastic perfect in "live broadcast". As shown by Antje WENDTLAND (2011) there can be observed six stages of development of perfect in Sogdian, in Yaghnōbī there took place reanalysis of the original ergative construction quite recently. According to attested personal endings it seems that already *Proto-Sogdic lost inherited forms of Iranian perfect and it was replaced by a new periphrastic perfect based on split ergativity.

Sogdian development of periphrastic perfect shows gradual extension of the ergative construction inherited (?) from *Common Iranian. The oldest attested examples of the ergative construction come from the Ancient Letters - in the Ancient Letter II there are simple archaic forms - past participles of intransitive verbs are formed with subject in nominative and with inflected copula, for transitive verbs the subject takes enclitic form of a personal pronoun (see WENDTLAND 2011, 44 - examples 10-11). In all other Ancient Letters (mainly in the Ancient Letter V) also new forms of periphrastic perfect appear - the transitive past participle has ending in $-\bar{u} < *-\bar{a}m$ (i.e. accusative singular) followed by inflected form of the verb $\sqrt{\delta a}r$ 'to hold' (> semantically 'to have', but this meaning of the verb $\sqrt{\delta a}r$ is used only for transitive forms, in all other cases the verb to have is expressed by subject in genitive/oblique and copula of the third person singular; cf. WENDTLAND 2011, 45 - examples 12-16), but the archaic form of perfect with enclitic pronouns are still attested together with the innovated forms (ibid., 45 - example 17). Later the periphrastic perfect changes its function form direct speech past through narrative past to expression of past tense in common and replaces imperfect (see Table 55; ibid., 46-50). It should be noted that the oldest attested formation of the periphrastic perfect (Wendtland's Stage 1) is very similar to (yet rather archaic) formation of periphrastic perfect in Yaghnōbī; on the other hand, the most innovative forms (i.e. Wendtland's Stage 6) shows similar formation of perfect in Ossetic²⁶³.

²⁶³ Ossetic has two sets of preterite endings – intransitive endings are based on forms of copula, transitive endings come from forms of verb *to have*, see following scheme for the Ossetic Iron dialect:

person	present	perf	copula	
person	present	tr.	itr.	(present)
ıst sg.	-ып	-(t/d)on	-(t/d)æn	dæn
2 nd sg.	-ыs	-(t/d)ay	-(t/d)æ	dæ
3 rd sg.	-bl	-(t/d)a	-(is)	u / is / i
ı st pl.	-æm	-(t/d)am	-ыstæm	stæm
2 nd pl.	-ut	-(t/d)at	-ыstut	stut
3 rd pl.	-ыпс	-(t/d)oy	-ы <i>st</i> ы	stы
(ISAEV I	987, 619)			

The intransitional periphrastic perfect is formed from past participle in *- $t\bar{a}$ - to which is are added inflected forms of copula, only forms of the third person singular have no copula, instead of copula nominative singular endings are used – masculine *light stems* add ending -i < *-ah, but heavy stems have no ending, feminine forms add $-\bar{a} < *-\bar{a}$ (with no distinction of light and heavy stems). Transitional perfect forms have ending in $-\bar{u}$ and auxiliary verb $\sqrt{\delta}\bar{a}r$ 'to have'; the "ending" $-\bar{u}$ probably comes from accusative singular of preterite in *- $\bar{a}m$. There are attested forms in <-w> and in $-\bar{o}$ in Sogdian, Ilya Gershevitch interprets them as light and heavy stem endings respectively (GMS §878-879), but Antje Wendtland interprets the forms with -w as older than those without -w (WENDTLAND 2011, 43)²⁶⁴. In later development the auxiliary verb $\sqrt{\delta}\bar{a}r$ merges with the past participle stem ending -t into single agglutinated form: $-t(\bar{u}) \delta \bar{a}r - *-t(=) \delta \bar{a}r - *-\delta \bar{a}r$, this feature can be clearly observed in Christian Sogdian texts.

		transitive verb	intransitive verb		
ıst sg.	weta=m=x	I saw him (lit. by me seen)	tṓrta=im	I went	
2 nd sg.	wḗta=t=x	thou saw him (lit. by thee seen)	tốrta=išt	thou went	
	wḗta=š=im	he saw me			
3 rd sg.	wḗta=š=išt	he saw thee	torta=x(ast)	he went	
	wḗta=š=x	he saw (him)			
ı st pl.	wḗta=m=ōr	I saw them (lit. they by me saw)	tốrt(a)=ōm	we went	
2 nd pl.			$t \circ rt(a) = \bar{o} \circ \ t \circ rt(a) = \bar{o} \circ \ $	you went	
3 rd pl.	wḗta=š=ōr	he saw (them) (lit. they by him saw)	tốrt(a)=ōr	they went	

Table 56 Ergative construction in Yaghnōbī according to BOGOLYUBOV (1966, 354).

In Yaghnōbī the development of the ergative construction was quite different and is more similar to the ergative construction of the *Stage 1* as observed by Wendtland. Mikhail Nikolaevich BOGOLYUBOV (1966, 354) quoted typical ergative construction in Yaghnōbī, on the other hand Al'bert Leonidovich KHROMOV (1972, 36) noted only "intransitive" inflection for perfect and in the latest Yaghnōbī grammar by Sayfiddīn Mīrzōzōda and Bahriddīn Alavî there is presented only "intransitive inflection" (see Tables 56 and 57). Forms of the ergative construction changed a little bit during past fifty (?) years – this state was probably caused by intensive contact of Yaghnōbī with Tajik. The forms of intransitive verbs retained unchanged form and they are practically identical with (unaccusative) intransitional perfects in Sogdian. The transitive perfects have two forms – the first (nowadays rather archaic) is quite similar with the forms presented by Bogolyubov (Table 56), but I have not met forms such as wéta=š=išt,

_

²⁶⁴ Antje Wendtland claims that the non-auxiliary part of the transitive periphrastic perfect originates from a past stem in *-tw* (WENDTLAND 2011, 43), I suppose that accusative form of the past participle is more accurate interpretation.

The interpretation of the origin of the participial ending $-\check{u}$ from accusative singular *- $\check{a}m$ may have analogies in Latin: litteram (f) scrīptam (f) habeō > litteram (f) scrīptum (m) habeō (loss of agreement) 'I have written a letter' (WENDTLAND 2011, 40). Maybe that the two different form in $-\check{u}$ ($\sqrt{\lambda} \hat{a}r$) and $-\emptyset$ ($\sqrt{\lambda} \hat{a}r$) are not connected with the light or heavy stems but with gender. Such issue has to be analysed yet, the loss of $-\check{u}$ then may be interpreted as loss of gender agreement.

 $w\acute{e}ta=\check{s}=\bar{o}r$ (but it does not mean they are not used even today); the other is consistent with system presented by Mīrzōzōda and Alavî (Table 57) and is more used among the Yaghnōbīs with whom I have spoken – outline of positive and negative forms of ergative construction in contemporary Yaghnōbī is presented in Table 58; it is evident that there is a tendency to simplify the ergative system in contemporary Yaghnōbī.

	"intransitive conjugation"	"transitive conjugation" (Mīrzōzōda – Alavî)			
	intransitive conjugation	Cyrillic	romanized		
ıst sg.	wốfta=im	I said	ман хирита	man x ⁱ rī́ta	I bought
2 nd sg.	wotta=išt	thou said	тав хирита	tau x ⁱ rīta	thou bought
3 rd sg.	wófta=xast, wófta=x	he said	ави хирита	áwi x ⁱ rīta	he bought
ı st pl.	wort(a)=ōm	we said	мох хирита	mōx x ⁱ rīta	we bought
2 nd pl.	$w \circ ft(a) = o \circ w \circ ft(a) = o \circ$	you said	шумох хирита	š ^u mṓx x ⁱ rī́ta	you bought
3 rd pl.	wort(a)=ōr	they said	автити хирита	áu̯titi x ⁱ rī́ta	they bought

Table 57 Periphrastic perfect according to Khromov (1972, 36) and MĪRZŌZŌDA – ALAVÎ (2008, 57).

		positive	negative		
	transitive		intransitive	transitive	intransitive
ı st sg.	wḗta=m=x(ast)	man wéta=x(ast)	tṓrta=im	ná=m wēta=x(ast)	ná tồrta=im
2 nd sg.	$w \dot{\bar{e}} t a = t = x(ast)$	tau wéta=x(ast)	tṓrta=išt	ná=t wèta=x(ast)	ná tồrta=išt
3 rd sg.	wēta=š=x(ast)	áwi wéta=x(ast)	torta=x(ast)	ná=š wèta=x(ast)	ná tồrta=x(ast)
ı st pl.	wḗta=mōx=x(ast)	mōx wḗta=x(ast)	tort(a)=om	ná=mōx wēta=x(ast)	ná tồrt(a)=ōm
2 nd pl.	wéta=šint=x(ast)	šumox wéta=x(ast)	tort(a)=ōs ∥		ná tồrt(a)=ōs ∥
2 pi.			tort(a)=ōţ	ná=šint wė̇ta=x(ast)	ná tồrt(a)=ōţ
3 rd pl.		áutiti wéta=x(ast)	tort(a)=ōr		ná tồrt(a)=ōr
	'I / thou / (s)he saw'		'I / thou went'	'I did not see'	'I did not come'

Table 58 Overview of ergative construction forms of resultative perfect in contemporary Yaghnōbī.

II.2.5. Adpositions

There are several prepositions and postpositions both in Sogdian and Yaghnōbī. Sogdian shows archaic state of pre- and postpositional system, Yaghnōbī preserves only some inherited adpositions: či 'from' (Sogd. B cy /či/; Khwār. cy), =sa 'towards, to' (Sogd. S B M =s²r C =s²(r) /=sā, =sār/; Khwār. s²r), =pi 'with' (cf. Khwār. py), =rīti 'on, by' (Sogd. B ryty M rytyy), =nūt 'in', =cintìr 'in, inside' (Sogd. B c(y)ntr M c(y)ndr /čimdər/); archaic adpositions are Yagh. par 'for, because of (Sogd. S B p²r M p²(r) C p² /pā, pār'), and pu 'without' (Sogd. B (²)pw M pw /²pú/).

		Yaghnōbī		
	ı st person	2 nd person	(definite article)	3 rd person
to	tấmā	tấfā		
from	čấmā	čấfā	čõṁn	čau
with	г ámā	∂áfā	бõmn	
about	pərāmā	pərāfā		

Table 59 Prepositions combined with pronouns.

Some prepositions can be combined with pronouns – good examples are attested in Sogdian, in Yaghnōbī there is attested just one combined preposition čau 'from this' (see Table 59).

I will not describe here the adpositional system on both languages – comprehensive description of Sogdian adpositions is in GMS §1610-1632 and LIVSHITS – KHROMOV 1981, 503-510), for Yaghnōbī see KHROMOV 1972, 53-62.

II.2.6. Conjunctions

III. Lexicon

In the third part of the presented thesis there will be presented a short comparative dictionary of "basic" vocabulary of Yaghnōbī and Sogdian. The lexicon is based on the extended Swadesh List (i.e. list of 207 words) supplemented by a list of 210 vocabulary of the "Standard Word List Items"

five-volume Sociolinguistic Survey of Northern presented in the (see http://www.sil.org/sociolx/pubs/ssnp.asp) by the National Institute of Pakistani Studies, Quaid-i-Azam University and Summer Institute of Linguistics. By combination of both word-lists I have studied 298 lexical items, but some items have not been translated into Yaghnōbī and/or Sogdian due to cultural and/or historical reasons (e.g. there are presented terms such as eggplant or mango but I have not translated them because there was no need to search meaning of these words in Sogdian as they are non Central Asian origin, also there is no Yaghnōbī translation of such words because there is only a little possibility that the Yaghnōbīs will have to name such items, and if so, they will be referred to in Russian or less likely in Tajik), the only exception are words for potatoes and tomatoes - potatoes are planted nowadays in Yaghnōb and tomatoes can be bought on markets in centres adjacent to the Yaghnōb Valley (but these words come from Russian via their colloquial Tajik forms).

The items are aligned according to the Swadesh List, items of the *standard word-list* are usually ordered according to their semantic relations with the Swadesh List, in cases when the *standard word-list* items do not correspond to the Swadesh List I have kept their alignment as in the SIL publications (see BACKSTROM 1992, 273-284; HALLBERG 1992; DECKER 1992, 177-211). For better work with the vocabulary I have split individual words into 21 units which better group their common semantic values. Some of the words (mainly in case of Sogdian) were left untranslated as I have not found their meanings in Sogdian and/or Yaghnōbī (unfortunately I have not made the Yaghnōbī translations during my stays with the Yaghnōbīs). The numbers of individual lexical items respect their number on both lists: words of the Swadesh List are left unmarked, the *standard word-list* items are given in brackets.

The lexical items that have been borrowed into Yaghnōbī are marked in *italics* in the vocabulary, but words that appear similar both in Yaghnōbī and in Tajik (and where precise origin cannot be judged) are considered as inherited. Also some parts of a word can be in *italics* – I marked such way borrowed elements of compounds (e.g. Yagh. vanlinká 'spider' < Yagh. van(n) 'long' and borrowed link 'leg' + Yagh. suffix –á) or sounds that changed probably due to Tajik influence (e.g. Yagh. díndak 'tooth' – instead of the second d we should except t in Yaghnōbī).

The analysed lexicon is supplemented by etymologies of the translated items, etymology is given in cases when it was known to me. Many words were unfortunately left without their etymologies.

The analyzed word items are as follows, for comparison I have added their translations into modern literary Tajik (the Tajik forms are transliterated as if they were written in the Perso-Arabic script; $\hat{\imath}$ transliterates Tajik Cyrillic word-final "stressed $\bar{\imath}$ " $\langle \bar{n} \rangle$):

Pronouns	Adjectives (i)
I. (202.) I man	27. (142.) big kalốn, buzúrg
2. (203.) thou <i>tu</i>	28. (134.) long darốz, balánd
3. (205. & 206.) he, she $\bar{u}(\underline{i})$, vaj	29. wide <i>farốx, vasế^ς, pahn</i>
4. (207. & 208.) we <i>mō</i> , (mōhō, mōyōn)	30. thick γafs
5. (209 & 204.) you <i>šumō, (šumōhō, šumōyṓn)</i>	31. (144.) heavy vaznín, sangín, garáng
6. (210.) they ōnhō, vaịhō	32. (143.) small xurd, kūčík, majdá
(171.) this <i>īn</i>	33. (135.) short $k\bar{u}t\acute{o}h$, past
(172.) that <i>ōn</i>	34. narrow tang
(173.) these $\bar{\imath}nb\acute{o}$	35. thin tunúk
(174.) those ōnhố	(145.) light sabúk
9. here īnjó(i)	People
10. there $\bar{o}nj\acute{o}(j)$	36. (103.) woman zan
11. (165.) who? <i>k</i> ĭ	37. (102.) man <i>mard</i>
12. (166.) what? <i>či</i>	38. human <i>ōdám, insốn, nafár, šax</i> s
13. (167.) where? <i>kuj̇̃o</i>	39. (104.) child $k\bar{u}d\acute{a}k$, $ba\check{c}(\check{c})\acute{a}$
14. (168.) when? <i>kai</i>	40. (114.) wife zan
15. how? čĩ-xél, čĩ- <u>t</u> aur	41. (113.) husband šauhár
(169.) how many? čand	42. (106.) mother <i>mōdár</i>
(170.) which? <i>kadóm</i>	43. (105.) father padár, pidár
16. not <i>na</i>	(107.) older brother akố, aká
17. (181.) all <i>hamá</i>	(108.) younger brother dōdár
18. (180.) many <i>bisyốr, ziyốd, xếlē</i>	(109.) older sister ap(p)á
19. some <i>yagón</i>	(110.) younger sister $x^{v}\bar{o}h\acute{a}r$
20. (179.) little / few kam	(111.) son <i>pisár</i>
21. other kam	(112.) daughter duxtár
(176.) different <i>dīgár</i>	(115.) boy bač(č)á, pisár
Numerals	(116.) girl duxtár
22. (151.) one <i>yak</i>	Animals
23. (152.) two <i>du</i>	44. animal <i>ḥai̯vṓn, j̄ōnvár</i>
24. (153.) three se	45. (86.) fish <i>mōh</i> î́
25. (154.) four <i>č(ah)ór</i>	46. bird <i>mury</i> , parrandá
26. (155.) five <i>panj</i>	(87.) chicken <i>mury, čůjá</i>
(156.) six <i>šaš</i>	47. (95.) dog <i>sag</i>
(157.) seven haft	(89.) cow <i>gōw</i>
(158.) eight <i>hašt</i>	(90.) buffalo
(159.) nine <i>nůh</i>	(94.) goat <i>buz</i>
(160.) ten <i>dah</i>	(97.) monkey maimún
(161.) eleven <i>yōzdáh</i>	48. louse <i>šipíš</i>
(162.) twelve duvōzdáh	49. (96.) snake <i>mōr</i>
(163.) twenty $b\bar{\imath}st$	50. worm kirm
(164.) (one) hundred sad	(98.) mosquito / fly paššá / magás

(99.) ant $m\bar{u}r\check{c}\acute{a}k$

(100.) spider törtanák

Plants

51. (61.) tree daráxt

52. forest jangál, bēšá

53. stick čůb

54. (66.) fruit mēvá

55. seed dōná, tuxm

56. (62.) leaf barg

57. (63.) root rēšá

58. bark půst-i daráxt

(64.) thorn *xōr*

59. (65.) flower gul

(67.) mango

(68.) banana

(69.) wheat gandúm

(70.) barley jau

(71.) rice birínj

(72.) potato kartóška

(73.) eggplant

(74.) groundnut

(75.) chilli / pepper murč

(76.) tumeric

(77.) garlic sīr

(78.) onion piyoz

(79.) cauliflower

(80.) tomato pomidór

(81.) cabbage karám

60. grass ^salaf, sabzá

61. (36.) rope aryamčín

Body parts

62. (84.) skin *pūst, čarm*

63. (84.) meat gūšt

64. (22.) blood xūn

65. (20.) bone ustux on

66. (85.) fat čarb

(82.) oil rauyán

(91.) milk šēr

67. (88.) egg tuxm

68. (92.) horn šōx

69. (93.) tail *dūm*

70. feather par

71. (3.) hair $m\overline{\mathring{u}}(i)$

72. (2.) head sar, kallá

(4.) face čehr

73. (6.) ear guš

74. (5.) eye *čašm*

75. (7.) nose *bīnî*

76. (8.) mouth dahōn

77. (9.) teeth dandon

78. (10.) tongue zabón

79. (17.) fingernail nōxún

80. foot *pō(i)*

81. (18.) leg ling

82. knee $z\bar{o}n\dot{\bar{u}}$

83. armband dast

(14.) elbow ōrinj

(15.) palm panjá

(16.) finger angúšt

(10.) Illiger ungust

84. wing bōl, qanốt

(1.) body badan, tan

85. (12.) belly šikám, iškám

86. guts růdá

87. neck gardán

88. back pušt

89. (11.) breast sīná

90. (21.) heart dil, qalb

91. liver *jigár*

(23.) urine pēšób, mēzá

(24.) feces gůh

Verbs

92. (185.) to drink $n\bar{u}\bar{s}id\acute{a}n:n\bar{u}\bar{s}-$

93. (182.) to eat x^{ν} ůrdán : x^{ν} ůr-

94. (183.) to bite gazīdán: gaz-

95. to suck makīdán: mak-

96. to spit tuf kardán

97. to vomit gaj kardán

98. to blow puf kardán, vazīdán : vaz-

99. to breathe nafás kašīdán

100. to laugh xandīdán: xand-

101. (201.) to look / to see dīdán : bīn-

102. (200.) to hear / to listen šunīdán : šunav-/šunau-

103. to know dōnistán : dōn-

104. to think andēšīdán : andēš-, fikr kardán

105. to smell $b\bar{u}(i)$ kardán

106. to fear tarsīdán -: tars-

107. (187.) to sleep $x^{\nu}uft\acute{a}n/x^{\nu}\bar{o}b\bar{\iota}d\acute{a}n:x^{\nu}\bar{o}b$ -

108. to live zīstan : ziy-, zindagî kardán

109. (192.) to die murdán: mir-

110. (193.) to kill kuštán : kuš-

111. to fight jangīdán: jang-, jang kardán

112. to hunt šikốr kardán

113. to hit zadán: zan-

114. to cut burrīdán : burr-

115. to split šikōftán : šikōf-

116. to stab kōrd zadán

117. to scratch xanjól kardán, xarōšidán : xarōš-

118. to dig kandán : kan-, kōftán : kōv-/kōw-

119. to swim šinó kardán

120. (194.) to fly parrīdán : parr-

121. (195.) to walk gaštán: gard-, rōh raftán

122. (198.) to come *ōmadán* : *ōy-/ō(i)-*

(196.) to run davīdán: dav-/dau-

(197.) to go raftán: rav-/rau-

123. (188.) to lie (down) $x^{\nu}uft\acute{a}n/x^{\nu}\bar{o}b\bar{\iota}d\acute{a}n: x^{\nu}\bar{o}b$, $dar\acute{o}z$ $ka\check{s}\bar{\iota}d\acute{a}n$

124. (189.) to sit nišastán: nišīn-, šištán: šīn-

125. to stand *īstōdán*: *īst-*

126. to turn čarxīdán : čarx-, gardōn(ī)dán : gardōn-

127. to fall aftōdán: aft-

128. (190.) to give dōdán: dih-/deh-

129. to hold giriftán: gīr-, dōštán: dōr-

130. to squeeze fišór kardán

131. to rub mōlīdán: mōl-

132. to wash $\check{s}ust\acute{a}n: \check{s}\bar{u}\gamma - /\check{s}\bar{u}(\underline{i})$ -

133. to wipe pōk kardán

134. to pull kašīdán : kaš-

135. to push tēlá dōdán

136. to throw partōftán : partōv-/partōw-, andōxtán : andōz-

137. to tie bastan -: band-

138. to sew $d\bar{u}xtan:d\bar{u}z$ -

139. to count šumurdán: šumōr-

140. to say / to speak guftán : $g\bar{u}y - /g\bar{u}(i)$ -

141. to sing $sur\bar{u}d\acute{a}n: sar\bar{o}y-/sar\bar{o}(i)-, x^v\bar{o}nd\acute{a}n: x^v\bar{o}n-$

142. to play bōxtán : bōz-, bōzî kardán

143. to float šinōvár šudán

144. to flow ravón šudán

145. to freeze yax kardán

146. to swell ōmōsīdán: ōmōs-

(184.) to be hungry gurusná būdán

(186.) to be thirsty tašná būdán

Celestial objects

147. (41.) sun *x^vuršēd*, ōftōb

148. (42.) moon $m\bar{o}h(t\bar{o}b)$

149. (44.) star sitōrá

Nature (i)

150. (46.) water ōb

151. (45.) rain bōrṓn

152. (47.) river daryō, rūdxōná

153. lake *ku*l

154. sea daryō, baḥr

155. (83.) salt namák

156. (52.) stone sang

157. (54.) sand *rēg, qum*

158. (59.) dust čang, xōk

159. earth zamín

(58.) mud *lōy*

Weather

160. (48.) cloud abr

161. fog tūmán

162. (43.) sky *ōsmón*

163. (51.) wind bód, šamốl

164. snow barf

165. ice *yax*

(49.) lightning barq, ōtašák

(50.) rainbow kamón-i Ḥasán-u Ḥusáin

Fire

166. (56.) smoke *dūd*

167. (55.) fire ōtáš, ōzár, alów, ōláw, aláw

168. (57.) ash xōkistár

169. (191.) to burn sūxtán : sūz-

(29.) firewood hēzúm

Settlement

170. (53.) road / path rōh

(25.) village deh(á), qišlóq, rūstó

(26.) house xōná

(27.) roof *bōm*

(28.) door dar

Tools

(30.) broom jorůb

(31.) butter churn guppî

(32.) pestle $\check{c}ax\check{c}\bar{\mathring{u}}b$

(33.) hammer bolyá

(34.) knife kōrd

(35.) axe tabár

() 1 1

(37.) thread $t\bar{o}r$

(38.) needle sůzán

(39.) cloth lattá

(40.) ring anguštarīn, anguštponá

Nature (ii)

171. mountain $k\bar{u}h$

(60.) gold tilló, zar(r)

Colours

172. (150.) red surx

173. green sabz

174. yellow zard

175. (148.) white saféd

176. (149.) black siyōh 191. sharp tēz Time 192. dull kund 177. (118.) night šab 193. smooth suftá 178. (117.) day $r\bar{u}z$ 194. (132.) wet *tar* (119.) morning subb, sabár 195. (133.) dry xušk, gōg (120.) noon $n\bar{i}mr\bar{l}z$ 196. correct durúst (121.) evening / afternoon bēgōh, bēgōhî 197. (140.) near nazdík (122.) yesterday $d\bar{\imath}r\bar{\mathring{u}}z$ 198. (141.) far dūr (123.) today imrůz 199. (127.) right rost (124.) tomorrow pagóh 200. (139.) left *čap* (125.) week haftá (175.) whole tamóm, purrá (178.) broken *šikastá*, *šikastag*î (126.) month *mōh* 179. (127.) year sōl Adpositions Adjectives (ii) 201. at *ba* 202. in (an)dár 180. (136.) hot garm 181. (137.) cold sard, xunúk (146.) above bōlō, sar 182. full *pur(r)* (147.) below pōyốn, tag 203. with bō, kátî, qátî 183. (129.) new nau 184. (128.) old qadīm, qadīmá, kůhná; pīr Conjunctions 185. (130.) good xūb, nayz 204. and va, -(y/v)u186. (131.) bad bad, gandá 205. if agár 187. rotten půsidá 206. because zérō, čún-ki 188. dirty čirkín, iflós Name 189. straight rost 207. name nom, ism 190. round gird

Swadesh List and *standard word-list* with Yaghnōbī and Sogdian translation and with etymological notes:

III.1. Pronouns

I. (202.)

man (arch. az) : man (occ. máni) ❖ S B M ²zw C zw : obl. S B mn²/(ə)zú : məná/

< *adzám; Ave. azəm, Khōt. aysu, a(ysä), Tumshuq. asu, azu, Oss. æz, Shugh. (w)uz, Rōsh. az, Khūf. Rāshrv. Bart. āz, Sarīq. waz, Yazgh. az, Ishk. az(i), Sangl. azə, azi, Wakh. wuz, Munj. za, Yidgh. zo, zə, Pasht. zə, Waṇ. ze, OPers. adam, Pers. man, Hazār. ma, Kurd. ez, Ved. ahám, Ide. *h₁eĝh₂óm, Gre. ἐγώ, Lat. egō, OCS. azъ, OCze. já(z), ORus. на(эъ), Lith. àš, OScand. ek, Ger. ich</p>

(cf. formally similar but etymologically unrelated Uzb. *mėn*, colloq. *mån*, Chaghat. *mėn*, Uygh. *män*, Kyrg. *men*, Tü. **bėn*, **mėn*, Eynu. *män*)

2. (203.) thou

tu : tau (occ. táwi) \clubsuit S B $t\gamma w$ Mg M $t(\gamma)w$ C $\underline{t}(\gamma)w$: obl. $tw^2/t(^2\gamma)u$: təwá/

< tuu̞am; Ave. tū, Oss. du, Shugh. Rōsh. Khūf. Rāshrv. tu, Bart. tū, Sarīq. tεw, Yazgh. tow, Ishk. to, Sangl. tōw, Wakh. tu, Munj. tu, Yidgh. tu, tə, Pasht. tə, Pers. tō > tŭ, Hazār.

```
Eng. thou, Ger. du
                                                                           he, she
3. (205. & 206.)
ax : áwi \clubsuit B (?)\gamma w : ^2 w M xw(w) : (?)ww C xw : ^2 w, w- /(ə)x\acute{u} : (ə)w\acute{u}, \bar{o}/
                       Ir. *(a)hau : *auam, Bactr. \omega /\bar{o}/
4. (207. & 208.)
                                                                           we (inclusive & exclusive)
m\bar{o}x \Leftrightarrow s B m^2 \gamma(h), m^2 \gamma(w) M C m^2 x / m\bar{a}x(w)/
                        < *ĭmáxu < *ahmáxam < Ir. *ahmákam, Bactr. (α)μαχο /(ə)māx/ Oss. max, Shugh. Rōsh.
                        Kuf. Bart. Rāshrv. māš, Sarīq. maš, Yazgh. mox, Munj. mōx, Yidgh. māx, mōx, Ishk.
                        тьх(о), Sangl. amax, aməx, Pasht. mū(n)ģ, Wan. moš, Ōrm. mâx, OPers. a(h)тāхат,
                       Pers. mā, Hazār. mū; IIr. *asmákam
5. (209 & 204.)
                                                                          you (pl. & honorific)
\check{s}^u m \check{o} x \Leftrightarrow S B (?) \check{s} m ? \gamma w, ? \check{s} m ? \gamma h M ? \check{s} m ? x (w), \check{s} m ? x C \check{s} m ? x / \check{s} m \check{a} x (w) / \check{s
                        < *yŭšmấxu < *jušmấxam; Ave. yūžōm, Oset. sытах ∥ sumax, Pers. šumấ, ašmấ, Tjk. šumố,
                       Fārs. AfghP. šomā', Hazār. šimū'
6. (210.)
                                                                           they
áxtit : áutiti \clubsuit B S \gamma h, \gamma h M C x^2/3xa^2/3
                        < *ahau; Yagh. ax : au- + pronominal pl. ending -tit(i)
(171.)
 ❖ B M yw : S (²)mw M mw /yu : ³mú/
                        < *ijam, *ajam: *imam; OPers. iyam: imam
iš : it ❖ s B (²)šw : ²tw /ɨšú : ɨtú/,
                        < *aišam : *aitam; Ave. aēša- : aēta-; Bactr. (ε)ιδο /īd/, OPers. aita- (obl.)
īd ❖ S B M 3/8 /ē8/
                        < aita- (obl.); Bactr. (ε)ιδο /īd/
(172.)
                                                                           that
ax : áwi \clubsuit B (?)\gamma w : ^2 w M xw(w) : (?)ww \in xw : ^2 w, w-/(\flat)x\acute{u} : (\flat)w\acute{u}, \bar{o}/
                        < *(a)hau : *auam; Bactr. \omega / \bar{o}/
au ❖ B ²w M (²)ww C ²w /ō/
                        < *aua- (obl.); Bactr. ω /ō/
(173.)
                                                                           these
 ❖ м γw /yu/
                        < *ija-, *aja-: *ima-
íštit (: ítiti) ❖ /ɨšā : ɨta/
                        < *aiša-: *aita-; Yagh. iš: it-+ pronominal pl. ending -tit(i)
(174.)
áxtit : áutiti \clubsuit B s \gamma h, \gamma h M C x^{2}/3xa/3
                        *(a)hau : *aua-; Yagh. ax : au- + pronominal pl. ending -tit(i)
                                                                           here
9.
```

Kurd. tu, Ved. tvam, Ide. *tuH, Gre. σύ, Lat. tu, OCS. ty, Lith. tù, OScand. OEng. þū,

mástar * B mrts²r C mc², ms²/mártsar/ < *ĭmárðă-sār- < *imáðra-tsārthere IO. wástár \diamond s $^2w(r)ts^2r$ B $^2wrts^2r$ M $^2wts^2r$ C $^2wc^2$, $^2ws^2$ / \circ rbar/ < *ăuárβă-sār- < *auáβra-tār-, cf. Tjk. ustár 11. (165.) who? kax (: káyi, káxtit : káytiti), -k ❖ s B (²)ky, ky² M ky(²), qy(²) c qy(²) : Mg ky² /³kḗ : kyā/ $< *k\acute{a}h(i\bar{a})^{-265};$ Ave. $k\bar{o}$, Khōt. kye, kyi, Oss. $\check{c}i \parallel ka$, Wakh. $k\bar{u}y$, Shugh. Rōsh. Khūf. $\check{c}ay$, Bart. čī, Rāshrv. či, Sarīq. čoy, Ishk. kůy, Sangl. kō(y), Pers. kī, Kurd. ki, Balōch. kē, kaj; Ved. kásya-, OCS. koto what? 12. (166.) $\check{co}: \check{co}_{!} \Leftrightarrow SB(?)cw MCcw/?\check{co}/; Bc?/\check{ca}/$ 'ellative prefix' < *či-āka-; Ave. čit, Oss. сы | ci, Bactr. от /ci/, Khōt. cu, Khwār. ciya, Pasht. cōk, ca, Shugh. ca, cf. TVarz. čo (only with verb kardán), OPers. čiy, Pers. čī, Kurd. çi, Balōch. či; Ved. cid, Lat. quid, Gre. 71 where? 13. (167.) $k\bar{u} \Leftrightarrow s (?)kw B ?kw, k?w M k(?)w / k(w)\bar{u}/$ Ave. gen. kū; Pers. kū, kujā, cf. TVarz. gŭjó; Gre. ποῦ 14. (168.) kad ❖ s B kð(²) M kð c qd /kað, kəðá/ Ave. kaδa-; Bactr. καδο /kad/, Oss. kæd, Pasht. kəla, Pers. kaj; Ved. kadá--(i)k (encl.) ***** cf. Pers. ki how? 15. čūt(t)i ❖ s ²cwty B (²)cwty M cwty C cwty /³čūtī/ < Ir. *čahia-uti-; Bactr. σιδο, σιδι Μ ²cyd /°cid/ (169.)how many? čōf ❖ s B c B M C c f / čāf/ čandin, čandon ❖ M cndn /čamdan/ cf. Pers. čandín, čandán, Ave. č(a)uuant, čuuaţ (170.) which? kēm (: kḗmi, kḗmtit : kḗmtiti) ❖ < *kāma-; Khōt. kāma-, Wakh. Pasht. kum kadém ❖ B kt²(²)m M kt²m, kð²m C qd²m /kədám/ < *katāma; Ave. katāma-, Bactr. καδαμο /kadām/, Ishk. kьdьm; Pers. kađām, TMast.

-

kŭdūm

²⁶⁵ Yaghnōbī kax is form *káh($i\bar{a}$)- 'who' + ax 'personal pronoun of the third person singular / demonstrative pronoun of far (< III.) deixis'.

```
kī, -k (encl.) ❖
         < Pers. k\bar{\imath}; cf. Gre. \tau i(\varsigma)
16.
na(\varepsilon), n\acute{a}(\varepsilon)a, na^h, n\bar{\varepsilon} \parallel nai, n\bar{e} \Leftrightarrow s n^2 y M C ny / n\bar{e}/s
         < *na; Bactr. να, Oss. 1 næ, Pers. na, Tjk. collog. na, na(\varepsilon)ά, nĕ, nĕ(\varepsilon)έ, Kurd. na
17. (181.)
hám(m)á 🌣
         < Pers. hamá, TVarz. hámma, hamá, Uzb. hámma. Qāraqalp. häma
b<sup>u</sup>tū́n ❖
         < Uzb., Tjk. butún, TMast. b<sup>u</sup>tún, pütúm, Sarīg. ρωτώn
❖ S B wysp-y / wysp-h, wysp-<sup>2</sup> M C wysp-y, wysp-<sup>2</sup> /wispí, wispá/
         < *uitua-; Ave. vispa-, OPers. *visa-, Med. *vispa-
18. (180.)
                            many
bis(¹)yốr ❖
         < Pers. bisyár, Shugh. bisyōr, Wakh. bəsyor, Uzb. bisyår, Eynu. bisyar
z^{i}y\delta t, z^{i}y\delta d
         < Ar., Pers. ziyád, Hazār. ziyót, ziyát, Shugh. ziyōt, Pasht. ziyát, Urd. zyādā
xḗlē ❖
         < Pers. xáilē, Tjk. AfghP. xélē, Fārs. xéilī, Sarīq. xeyli
yalbalá ❖ S B yrβ M C yrf/yarf/
         < *yárfu < *fáryu < *fáruwu < *faruuam; OPers. paruvam, cf. Wakh. yafč, Parāch.
        valaba
ĭpốrá (arch.) ❖ s в 'yw p'r'yk м 'y p'ryk /ī-pấrĕ(k)/
         cf. Sogd. c p<sup>2</sup>r /pār/ 'unit of liquid volume (120 galons)'
19.
                            some
čōf ❖ s b c B M C c f / čāf/
čandín, čandón ❖ M cndn /čamdan/
        cf. Pers. čandín, čandán, Ave. č(a)uuant, čuuat
                            little / few
20. (179.)
kávin (arch.), kam 🌣 B M kβn-y C qbn-y /kaβní/,
         < *kábna-; Oss. k<sup>w</sup>ыпæg || kunæg, Pers. kam < *kamna-(ka-); Wakh. kam; Uzb. kam, Kyrg.
         kem, Tr. kem, Urd. kam, NMong. гам
                            other
21.
áni ❖ s ²ny², ²nyh, (²)nyw B ²ny², ²nyh, ²nyw M C (²)nyw /(ə)nyä, (ə)nyú/
         < *ánia-, Ave. ainia-, Khwār. ¬ny /īnī/, Bactr. (α)νιγο, ανιιο, ανιιο, Κhōt. aña-, Oss. innæ,
        annæ, Ishk. an, Wakh. Sarīq. yan, Pahl. Parth. <sup>2</sup>ny, OPers. aniya-, Kurd. henî; Ved. anya-,
        Pālī añña
                            different
(176.)
```

- - < *ánia-, Ave. a¹niia-, Khwār. ²ny /šnī/, Bactr. (α)νιγο, ανιιο, ανιιο, Κhōt. aña-, Oss. innæ, annæ, Ishk. an, Wakh. Sarīq. yan, Pahl. Parth. ²ny, OPers. aniya-, Kurd. henî; Ved. anya-, Pālī añña</p>

dĭgá(r) ❖

< Pers. dīgár, Tjk. colloq. dǐgá, TMast. digá, diyá, TVarz. digá, digí, cf. Fārs. dīgár, colloq. dīgé, Hazār. digá, Ishk. digar, Wakh. digār, Uzb. digár, Tr. diğer

III.2. Numerals

22. (151.) one

- ī � в ¬уw(h) м ¬уw с уw, уw вг уаи (m) : мg ¬уwh (f) /уё́ц : уё́кwа́/
 - < *áịua-; Ave. aē̄uuō, Khwār. ²yw /ēw/, Oss. iu̯ || yeụ, Khōt. śśa(u), Bactr. ιωγο м ywg /yōg/, Pasht. yaw (f. yawá), Munj. Yidgh. yū, Shugh. Rōsh. Bart. Rāshrv. yīw, yi, Sarīq. i(w), Wakh. (y)ī̄(w), Yazgh. wug, Ishk. uk, Sangl. wok, Pers. yak, Tjk. yak, colloq. ya(g), Fārs. yek, colloq. ye(i), Kābulī yak, yag, OPers. aiva-, Pahl. ²yw²k /ēwak/ м yk /yak/, Parth. ²yw /ēw/, Kurd. yek; Ved. éka; Eynu. yäk, Kyrg. (Southern dial.) yäk</p>

23. (152.) two

- $d\tilde{\mathbf{u}}$ \Leftrightarrow $s \sqrt[3]{w(2)}$, $b \in w \sqrt[3]{w(2)}$, $b \in w \sqrt[3]{w}$ $s \in w \sqrt[3]{w}$
 - < *d(u)ua-; Ave. duua-, Khwār. "ðyw /aðwi/, Bactr. λοο, λο(ο)ι /lu/, Khōt. d(u)va-, dvi, Oss. dωwwæ || duw(w)æ, Shugh. δiyūn, δu, Bajū. δuyūn, δō, Rōsh. Bart. Rāshrv. δaw, Khūf. δaw(yōn), Sarīq. δæw, δa, Wakh. bu(y), Yazgh. δow, Ishk. dь(w), Sangl. daw, dow, Munj. lu, Yidgh. lob, Pasht. dwa (f. dwē), Pers. dō > dŭ, Tjk. du, TMast. dü, du, Tjk. dial. dů, dial. Takfōn (arch.) gyau, AfghP. dū, dū, Fārs. do, Pahl. dō, Kurd. du, Balōch. dō, Ved. duvā(u)-, Lit. dù, Pruss. duai, OCS. dva, dvě, Gre. δύο, MGre. δυο, Lat. duo, Gót. twai; Eynu. du

24. (153.) three

şaráy, şiráy \parallel ţiráy \diamondsuit s $\eth ry$ Mg $\eth ryw$ B (?) $\eth ry$ M $\eth ry(y)$ C šy /-ṣai/

< *ઝrǎia-; Ave. ઝrāiiō; Khwār. šy /šē/, Bactr. ναρηιο /hərēy/, Khōt. drai, Tumshuq. dre, Oss. ærtæ, Shugh. aray, Rōsh. Bart. Rāshrv. arāy, Sarīq. aroy, Ishk. růy, Sangl. rōy, Yazgh. cůy, Wakh. trū(y), Yidgh. žiray, žuroy, Munj. žiray, Pasht. drē, Waṇ. dre, Ōrm. šō, řī, Parāch. šī, šu, Tjk. dial. Takfōn (arch.) muρau, Pers. sē, sih > se, Tjk. AfghP. Fārs. se, Kurd. sê; Eynu. si(h)

25. (154.) four

ţafốr ∥ ţufốr, ţifốr ❖ s B ctβ²r M ctf²r C ctf²r, štf²r /č³tfắr/

< *čaβuár-; Ave. čaβuuăr-, čaββārō, Khwār. cf²r /cafār/, Bactr. σοφαξο /cufār/, Khōt. tcūra-, tcohora-, tcahora-, Oss. cωppar || cuppar, Shugh. Bajū. cavōr, cavūr, Rōsh. cavūr, Bart. Rāshrv. cavōr, Sarīq. cavur, Wakh. cəbūr, cыbūr, Yazgh. čer, Ishk. cьfur, Sangl. cəfūr, Munj. čfir / č(¹)fūr, Yidgh. čšir, Pasht. calṓr, Tjk. dial. Takfōn (arch.) nyφορ; Pers. čahár,</p>

Tjk. čōr (lit. čahōr), Fārs. čähār, colloq. čār, AfghP. č(ah)ār, Pahl. ch²l м ch²l /čahār/, Parth. /čafār/, Kurd. çar, Ved. catvāras, Hind. cār; Eynu. čar

26. (155.) five

panč ❖ s B C pnc M pnc, pnž, pnj[○] /paṁj/

< *pánča-; Ave. panča-, Khwār. pnc /panʒ/, Bactr. πανζο /panʒ/, Khōt. pamjsa, Oss. fonʒ, Shugh. Rōsh. Bart. Rāshrv. pīnʒ, Sarīq. pinʒ, Wakh. pānʒ, Yazgh. penj, Ishk. půnʒ, Sangl. pōnz, pōnʒ, Munj. pōnč, pōnj, Yidgh. pānš, Pasht. pinʒə; Тjk. dial. Таkfōn (arch.) пондж; Pers. panj, Kurd. pênc, Ir. *panča-, Ved. pañca; Eynu. pänj(ä)</p>

(156.) six

uxš s wxwšw, wywšw, zywšw b wywšw, zywšw c xwšw /waxšú, zwašú/

< *xúšu < *x¼šu < *(x)šųášam; Ave. xšuuaš-, Khwār. /ux̄, uxs-/, Khōt. kṣä(tä'), Oss. æxsæz, Shugh. xōyˇ, Bajū. Rōsh. Khūf. xūw, Bart. Rāshrv. xōw, Sarīq. xel, Wakh. šād / šāb̄, Yazgh. xu(w), Ishk. xûd, Sangl. xāl, Munj. ōxša, Yidgh. uxšo, Pasht. špaǵ, Pers. šaš, Tjk. šaš, colloq. šiš, TMast. šaš, šiš, šaī, Fārs. šäš, colloq. šiš, šeš, Kurd. şeş, Ide. *s(u)ék̄s, Ved. ṣaṣ; Eynu. šäš</p>

(157.) seven

avd / aft ❖ S B ³βt-², ³βt-h M ²βt-², (²)bt-² Br aw ta /(ə)βdá/

< *haftą-; Ave. hapta-, Sarm. αΘ(α)-, Khwār. ²βd /aβd/, Bactr. n6ο /ēβ/, Khōt. haudo, Oss. avd, Shugh. Rāshrv. (w)ūvd, Rōsh. Bajū. wūvd, Bart. ūvd, Sarīq. ωvd Yazgh. uvd, Ishk. ůvd, Sangl. ōvd, Wakh. ωb, Munj. ōvdá, Yidgh. ávdo, Pasht. ōwó, Pers. haft, Tjk. colloq. haf, TMast. haf(t), Kurd. heft, Ved. saptá-; Eynu. häp(t); cf. Bactr. n6οδαλο /ēβ(u)dal/, 'Hephthalite'</p>

(158.) eight

ašt \diamond s $\stackrel{?}{s}t(\stackrel{?}{})$, $\stackrel{?}{s}th$ B $\stackrel{?}{s}t(\stackrel{?}{})$ M $\stackrel{?}{s}t$ C $\stackrel{?}{s}t^{?}$ /ašt, (ə) stá/

< *ášta-; Ave. ašta-, Khwār. ²št, Bactr. αταο /ata/, Khōt. haṣṭa, Oss. ast, Shugh.-Rōsh. waxt, Sarīq. woxt, Yazgh. uxt, Wakh. at, Ishk. ot, Sangl. ōt, Munj. ōšká, Yidgh. áščo, Pasht. atô, Pers. hašt, Tjk. colloq. haš, TMast. haš(t), Kurd. heṣt; Ved. aṣṭá(u); Eynu. häš(t)</p>

(159.) nine

nau \diamond s nw, nw B nwb, nw C nw / nau, nō, n(ə)wá/,

< *naua-; Ave. nauua-, Sughn. nōw, Rōsh. Bart. Rāshrv. nāw, Sarīq. new, Wakh. nāw, Yazgh. nu(w), Ishk, naw, nu, Sangl. nōw, Munj. naw, Yidgh. now, Pasht. nə, Khōt. nau, Pers. $nu(h) < n\bar{o}$, Tjk. nůh, TMast. nü, nu, TFalgh. nu, TVarz. nuh, nůh, AfghP. noh, colloq. $n\bar{u}$, Fārs. noh, Pahl. naum, Kurd. ne, Ved. náva; Gre. ἐννέα, Armen. inn; Eynu. noh

(160.) ten

das ❖ s B δs(²), δsh M δs(²) C ds² /δəs(á)/

< *dáta-; Ave. dasa-, Khwār. δỹs, Bactr. λασο /las/, Khōt. dasau, Oss. dæs, Shugh. δῖs, Rōsh. δοs, Bart. Rāshrv. δus, Sarīq. δes, Wakh. δas, Yazgh. δûs, Sangl. dōs, Yidgh. los, Pasht.

Waṇ. las, Parāch. dös, Pers. dah, TMast. TFalgh. da, TVarz. da(h), Pahl. dah, OPers. *daβa-, Kurd. deh, Ved. dáśa; Gre. δέκα, Armen. ťasn, OCS. desetь, Lat. decem, Goth. táihun; Hung. tíz < Scyth.?; Eynu. dah, däh

(161.) eleven

 $y \acute{o}z d\acute{a}^b \diamondsuit c ywnts(nw), ywtsnw / y \acute{o}\dot{m}dz(nu)/$

< *aiua(n)-data-(anām-); Ave. aēuuandasa-, Pers. yāzdáh, TMast. yo(n)zdá, yūnzdá, Fārs. collog. yāzá. Kurd. yanzdeh

(162.) twelve

duwózdáb ❖ M Sw²ts C dw²ts /Swāts/

< *duuā-datā-; Ave. duuadasa-, Pasht. dwólas, Pers. duvāzdáh, Fārs. dävāzdáh, colloq. dävāzá, TMast. dŭvo(n)zdá, dŭvūnzdá

(163.) twenty

bīst ❖ c wyst /wist/

< *u̯itsatī < *u̯intsati; Ave. vīsaiti-, Khwār. 'wsy̆c /əws(e)ʒ, ūs(e)ʒ/, Bactr. οιστο /wīst/, Khōt. bistä, Oss. (ω)ssæʒ || insæy, Sarm. Ἰνσάζ[αγος], Wakh. wīst, Yazgh. wast, Sarīq. vist, Sangl. wišt, Yidgh. wisto, Pers. bīst, Tjk. bīst, Pahl. vīst, Kurd. bîst, Balōch. gīst; Ved. vimśatí, viñśatí, Armen. ksan, Gre. εἴκοσι; Eynu. bist</p>

(164.) (one) hundred

(yak)sád ❖ C st-w /sətú/,

< *tatam-; Ave. satəm-, Khwār. syd, Bactr. σαδο /sad/, Oss. sædæ, Sarīq. sad, Pers. (yak)sad, OPers. \Im ata $^{\bigcirc}$; Ved. śatám, Ide. *(h_I)kmtóm, *dkmtóm, Lat. centum, Gre. ἐκατόν, OCS. soto; Cr.Goth. sada; BukhAr. såt, Eynu. säd

III.3. Adjectives (i)

27. (142.) big

kátta 🌣

Uzb. kāttā, Uygh. katta, Kyrg. kette, Tatar. kättä, Qašq. kātā, Bašk. kəttə, Chŭvash kačča, TMast. TVarz. kattá, AfghP. kattá, Hazār. kaṭá, Shugh. Rōsh. katta, katanak < IAr. kattā-???; cf. Gre. Κατάνης, name of Bactrian nobleman (4th century BC), the word can be of Bactrian origin and in tan explain etymology of Tjk. kalón

kalen (occ.) 💠

< Tjk. kalón, TMast. kŭlún, Parth. м kalān < Bactr. ???

b"zúrĝ ❖ B wz²rk /wəzárk/ M wzrg /wəzárg/

< Pers. buzúrg, Pahl. wcwlg /wazurg, wazarg/, OPers. vazrka-, Māzand. bazarg, Bactr. οαζορκο /wazurk/; Ott. büzürg, Elam. azzaka, haz(z)ak(k)a

28. (134.) long

 $van(n) \Leftrightarrow s^{2}\beta n^{-2}y \in bn/^{3}\beta ni, \beta n(i)/$

```
balánd 'high, long' s s β βrz /βə'zí/ 'high, long'
< *bṛdza-; Ave. bərəz-, barəz-, Bactr. εοςξο- /βurz-/, Khōt. bulysa-, Yazgh. vəz, Shugh.
vūýʒ, Rōsh. vūz, Wakh. vыrz, Ishk. vьҳdůk, Sangl. vəҳduk, Munj. vańg, Yidgh. vän,
Pasht. (w)ūgd, OPers. personal name Bṛdiya; cf. Pers. bulánd, Tjk. balánd, Fārs. boländ,
Hazār. bilán < *bṛdzánt- and Pers. [Al]búrz 'Alborz mountains', Fārs. [Äl]bórz (< Pahl.
Harburz < Ave. Harā Bərəza¹tī), Wakh. bland; Turkm. belend; Ved. bṛhánt-; cf. Khwār.
βžk (m) βžc (f) /βažeg- : βažez-/
```

dūir 'long, far' ❖ S B ðwr(h) M ðwr C dwr /ðūr/ 'long, far'

< *dūra-; Ave. dūra-, Khōt. dura-, Wakh. ðir, Sarīq. ðar, Pers. dūr, TMast. dür, dir, TFalgh. dir, OPers. dūra-; Ved. dūrá-, Hind. dūr

daróz 🌣

< Pers. dirấz, Tjk. darốz, Fārs. derẫz, Ave. drājah-, Sarīq. darúz, Pahl. Balōch. drāj, Kurd. dirêj

♣ B mz²yy(h) M mzy(y)x, mzyy C mzyx /məzḗx/ cf. Ave. maziia-

29. wide

yayd, yaxt $\Rightarrow B y\gamma(^2)rt-y, yr\gamma t C y\gamma r\underline{t}-y /y \ni (^r)\gamma di/) < *u\underline{i}-grta-$

pa^bm ❖ B pδn²y /paβnē/

< *paℑana-; Ave. paℑana-, Oss. fætæn || faťan, Pasht. plan, Pers. pahn, Pahl. pahan, pahnāī, pahnāk, Kurd. pan, Balōch. patan

30. thick

farbéh, farbíx ❖ Mg βrpyy /frəpix/

Ave. pīvah, Pers. farbíh, TMast. farbí, Pahl. farbīh

γafs ❖ s γβsw /γəfsú/

Tjk. yafs

31. (144.) heavy

wazmin 🌣

< Ar. WZN, Pers. vaznín, TMast. vazmín

garáng \Leftrightarrow B $\gamma r^2 n(h)$ M C $\gamma r^2 n$ / $\gamma r\bar{a}n$ /

cf. Uzb. garan, Tjk. garang, Hazar. giran(g), giran(k)

32. (143.) small

púl(l)a 🌣

< Yagh. púl(l)a 'child' < *pu¬ra- 'son', Ave. pu¬ra-, Sogd. s ¬pyδr²k, ¬pδr в ¬pyδr²k, ¬pδr, ¬pšy м ¬pšy (as a part of compounds) /piṣ́(ė́)/, Khwār. (²)pr, Scyth. *pur¬a-, Bactr. πο(υ)ęο /pü(h)r/, Khōt. pūra-, Alan. φουęτ, Sarm. *fur¬a-, Oss. furt || furt, Shugh.-Rōsh. puc, Sarīq. puc, Yazgh. poc, Munj. pūr, Yidgh. pūr, pūḷ, Wakh. pətr, Parāch. puš, Pers. pisár, pūr, pus(ár), Fārs. pesár, Tjk. pisár, AfghP. pesár, Pahl. pus, puhr, OPers. puça-,</p>

```
Med. *puℑra-, Kurd. pisir, Baloch. phusay, Parth. pūr; IIr. *putrá-, Ide. *putló-, Ved.
        putrá-, Pāli putta-, Hind. pūt, Bengāl. put; cf. Lat. puer
maydá 🌣
         < Tjk. majdá, Uzb. máydá, Kyrg. mayda
❖ s rync²k(k), ryncyk B ryncwk(k), ryncwk c ryn²q /rímjǎk, rímjěk, rímjůk/
        < *ranjā-ka-, *ranja-ka-ka-, *ranju-ka-; Ave. rənjiia-, Khwār. rnc, Khōt. raysga, Pasht.
        rangay
33. (135.)
                          short
kaltá 🌣
        < Uzb. káltá, Tjk. kaltá
❖ B mwrzk-y /murzki/
        < *mṛdzuka-
❖ B \gamma r^2 w \dot{s} / \gamma r \bar{u} \dot{s} \sim \gamma r \bar{o} \dot{s} /
\Leftrightarrow B sn^2r / sn\bar{a}r /
        < *snāra-; Wakh. sənōr
34.
                          narrow
bōrīk 🌣
        < Pers. bārīk
tank, tang 🌣
        < Pers. tang, Pahl. tang(īh), Ave. taņčišta-, Wakh. Sarīq. tang, Kurd. teng, Baloch. tank,
        Chaghat. tän, Uzb. tän
                          thin
35.
tank, tang 🌣
        < Pers. tang, Pahl. tang(īh), Ave. taņčišta-, Wakh. Sarīq. tang, Kurd. teng, Balōch. tank,
        Chaghat. täŋ, Uzb. täŋ
tunúk, tunukák 🌣
        < Тік. tunúk, Ishk. tьпьk, Oss. tænæg, Sarīq. tanыk, Kurd. tenik, Balōch. tanak; Ved.
        tanú-, tánuka-
(145.)
                          light
sabúk, subúk �
        < Tjk. sabúk, Hazār. subúk
```

III.4. People

36. (103.) woman

 $za(\varepsilon)if(a)$ �

< Ar. DŚF $da^{\varsigma}\bar{\imath}fa\bar{\imath}$, Pers. $za^{\varsigma}\bar{\imath}fa$ 'weak' > BukhAr. $za^{\varsigma}\bar{\imath}fa$, TMast. $za{\varsigma}f$, Tjk. dial. Chust, Ůrōteppa zaf, Waṇ. zaypa, zaypa 'woman'

- ❖ B [?]st²yrch M (²)stryc, ^ςstryc C s<u>t</u>ryc /[‡]str<u>ī</u>č/
 - < *strī-kā-; Ave. strī-, Ishk. šьс 'female animal', Yazgh. wenj, Shugh. wānīc 'calf (f)'; Oss. wænыg || iwænug 'calf, bullock'</p>

37. (102.) man

- mốrti 🌣 B Mg mrty M mrtyy, mrtyy /márti/
 - < *mártija-; Ave. maṣ̃iia-, Khwār. mrc(y), Bactr. μαρδο /mard/, Munj. maṛa, Pers. mard, OPers. martiya-, Kurd. mêṛ, Ved. mártiya- < Ide. *mṛto- 'mortal', Gre. μορτός, δορτός

38. human

ōdám 🌣

- < Ar. ādam, BukhAr. ādəmi, Hebrew adam, Pers. ādám, Oset. adæm, Ishk. odam, Shugh. ōdam, Tr. adam, Turkm. ādam, Tatar adäm, Chŭvash etem; cf. Sogd. м "д" с "dm /Ādam/ 'Adam' < Ar. Ādam, Pers. Ādám, Yagh. Ōdám etc.
- mardúm ❖ AL mrt²xmk s в mrtүm²k(w), mrtүm²y м mrtxmy(y) с mrtҳmy, mrdxmy /mártoxmĕ/ < *màrtiia-táuxman-(ka-); Pers. mardúm, Shugh. mardum, Ishk. mardьm

39. (104.) child

- púl(l)a * s ^Opyðr²k, ^Opðr B ^Opyðr²k, ^Opðr, ^Opšy M ^Opšy (as a part of compounds) /pɨṣ́(ḗ)/ 'son' < *puðra- 'son', Ave. puðra-, Khwār. (²)pr, Scyth. *purða-, Bactr. πο(υ)ęο /pū́(h)r/, Khōt. pūra-, Alan. φουęτ, Sarm. *furða-, Oss. fωrt || furt, Shugh.-Rōsh. puc, Sarīq. pωc, Yazgh. poc, Munj. pūr, Yidgh. pūr, pūl, Wakh. pətr, Parāch. puš, Pers. pisár, pūr, pus(ár), Fārs. pesár, Tjk. pisár, AfghP. pesár, Pahl. pus, puhr, OPers. puça-, Med. *puðra-, Kurd. pisir, Balōch. pʰusay, Parth. pūr; IIr. *putrá-, Ide. *putló-, Ved. putrá-, Pāli putta-, Hind. pūt, Bengāl. put; cf. Lat. puer
- gŭdák 🌣

Pers. kōđák, Tjk. kudák, TVarz. gudák, AfghP. kudák, Fars. kudák, Pahl. kwtk м qwtk /koðag/, Uzb. gudák, Uygh. gödäk, Ott. kudek, Tr. (arch.) kudek

farzánd 🌣

< Pers. farzánd, Pahl. frazand, farzand, Parth. frzynd, Bactr. φορζινδο, φορζανδο, φροζινδο, φαρζινδο, Ave. fraza nti-, Ir. *fra-zanti-

40. (114.) wife

- inč s zync(h), ynch B Mg zync(h) M sync C zync / imj/
- < *jáuni-kā-; Yazgh. wenĭ, Shugh. wānīc 'calf (f)'; Oss. wænыg ∥ iwænug 'calf, bullock' ayốl ❖

< Ar. ⁵ayāl, Pers. ⁵ayāl

41. (113.) husband

wīr, vīr s b c wyr /wīr/

< *ūrá-; Ave. vīra-, Pahl. wīr, Scyth. οἰός, Ved. vīrá-, Ide. *ūiHró-s, Lat. vir, OIrl. ren pl. rin, Irl. Gael. fear pl. fir, Welsh gŵr pl. gwŷr, Bret. gour, Lith. výras, Latv. vīrs, Goth. wair, OEng. wer, OScand. verr, cf. Engl. (arch.) wer(e), Ger. Wehr</p>

42. (106.) mother

ōčá ❖

< Uzb. ača, ača, Turkm. eje, Tjk. oča, ača

mōdár ❖ M *m²t* C *m²t* /māt/

*mātar-; Ave. mātar-, Khwār. m²d /mād-a/, Bactr. µαδο /mād/, Khōt. māta, māvä, Oss. mad | madæ, Shugh. Bajū. mōd, Bart. Khūf. Rōsh. Rāshrv. mud, Munj. māyā, Pasht. mōr, Pers. māđár, OPers. *mātar-, Pahl. māt, mātar-, Balōch. māt, Ide. *meh2tḗr-, Ved. mātár-, Gre. μητής D μāτής, OCS. matь, OEng. mōdor, OIrl. mátin; Eynu. madär, mėdär

43. (105.) father

dōdố ❖

< Tjk. dōdō, dadá, Oss. 1 dadá; Uzb. dada; cf. Fārs. bābā', Oss. 1 babá

padár ❖ Β ²*ptr-y* M (²)*ptr-y*(y) C (²)*ptr-y* /³*pt*(ə)rí/

< *pitar-; Ave. (p)tā (nom.sg.), Khwār. pc /pica/, Bactr. πιδο /pid/, Khōt. pätar-, Oss. fud | fide, Shugh. ped, Khūf. Rosh. Rashrv. Bart. pīd, Sarīq. pit, Pasht. plār, Wan. pyār, Pers. piđár, Tjk. padár, pidár, TMast. padár, Fars. pedár, pädár, Pahl. pit(ar) > piðar, OPers. pitar-, Baloch. pit, phis, phis, Ide. * $p(a)h_2t\acute{e}r$ -, Gre. $\pi\alpha\tau\acute{n}e$, Armen. hayr, Eng. father, OEng. fæder, OIrl. atin; Eynu. padär, pedär

(107.) older brother

akó, aká 🌣

< Uzb. aka, Uygh. aka, Tjk. aka, ako, TMast. ako, Shugh. aka, Tr. aga, Kyrg. Kazakh. Qāraqalp. aya, BukhAr. aká

(108.)younger brother

 $v^{i}r\dot{o}t + s \beta r^{2}t B \beta r^{2}t$, $\beta r^{2}tr M \beta r^{2}t C br^{2}t / \beta rat(2r)/266$

 $< *br\bar{a}tar -; Khwār. \beta r^2 d /\beta r\bar{a}d/, Bactr. <math>\zeta(\alpha) e \alpha \delta \sigma /\beta(\alpha) r\bar{a}d/, Kh\bar{o}t. br\bar{a}te, Tumshuq. br\bar{a}de,$ Wakh. vrыt, Yazgh. v(ә)rád, Shugh. Rōsh. virōd, Ishk. vru(d), Sangl. vrud, Pasht. wrōr, Pers. birādár, Tjk. barōdár, TMast. bŭrodár (> Yagh. burōdár), Fars. berādár, Hazar. birór, Kurd. bera, Ide. *bhrātar-, Ved. bhrátar-, Gypsy phral, OCS. bratro, OIrl. bnátin, Welsh brawd, OEng. brōðor, Lat. frāter; Oss. ærvad 'relative' | ærvadæ 'brother, relative'; Gre. Φεάτης Ι Φεήτης D Φεάτης 'member of a community'

dōdár (occ.) �

< Tjk. dōdár

(109.) older sister

ap(p)á ❖

Uzb. åpa, Kyrg. apa, Tik. apá, TMast. apá, BukhAr. apá

(IIO.) younger sister

²⁶⁶ Meaning both older and/or younger brother in Sogdian.

xor ❖ B γw²rh M xw²r /x°ar/267

< *huahar-; Ave. x^vayhar , Khwār. $^2ux^a$, Bactr. $\chi o \alpha vo$ / $x^w ah$ /, Oss. $xo \parallel x^w ara$, Yazgh. $\chi^o arg$, Ishk. ixo, Pasht. $x\bar{o}r$, Pers. $x^v\bar{a}h\acute{a}r$, TMast. $x\bar{u}(v)\acute{a}r$; AfghP. $x^w\bar{a}r$, Hazār. $x(w)\bar{o}r$, Pahl. xwah, Parth. wx^2r ; Ide. *suesōr, sister, Ved. svásar-; Mid. and Mod. Welsh chwaer; Mid. Bret. hoer, hoar; Mod. Bret. KLT c'hoar // Gw hoér; OCorn. huir; Corn. hwoer, OIrl. run; Manx shuyr, Ger. Schwester; BukhAr. $b\bar{a}har$

(III.) son

žū́ta ❖

< past part. of the verb $\check{z}\bar{u}$ - 'to live', Sogd. s $\sqrt{z}w(-)$ B $\sqrt{(z)}zw(-)$ M $\sqrt{y}w(-)$ C $\sqrt{\check{z}}w(-)$ / \sqrt{z} \bar{u}, \sqrt{z} \bar{u}-/, Ave. $\check{y}(a)uua$ - ???

- \bullet S B $z^2t(^2)k$ M $z^2ty(y)$ C z^2ty /zātē/
 - < * $dz\bar{a}ta$ -ka-; Ave. $z\bar{a}ta$ -, Khwār. $z^2d\tilde{y}k$, Bactr. ζαδο / $z\bar{a}d$ /, Pasht. $z\bar{o}y$, Pers. $z\bar{a}d\dot{a}$, Ide. * $g\eta h_I t\dot{o}$ -
- púl(l)a 'child' **\$** s ^Opyðr'k, ^Opðr B ^Opyðr'k, ^Opðr, ^Opšy M ^Opšy (as a part of compounds) /pɨṣ́(é)/ < *puϑra- 'son', Ave. puϑra-, Khwār. (')pr, Scyth. *purϑa-, Bactr. πο(ν)ęο /pū́(h)r/, Khōt. pūra-, Alan. φουęτ, Sarm. *furϑa-, Oss. fωrt || furt, Shugh.-Rōsh. puc, Sarīq. pωc, Yazgh. poc, Munj. pūr, Yidgh. pūr, pūl, Wakh. pətr, Parāch. puš, Pers. pisár, pūr, pus(ár), Fārs. pesár, Tjk. pisár, AfghP. pesár, Pahl. pus, puhr, OPers. puça-, Med. *puϑra-, Kurd. pisir, Balōch. pʰusay, Parth. pūr; IIr. *putrá-, Ide. *putló-, Ved. putrá-, Pāli putta-, Hind. pūt, Bengāl. put; cf. Lat. puer

(112.) daughter

yayk ❖

cf. Yazgh. yačać, Shugh. yāc, Rosh. yac, Sarīq. yoc

 $duxt\acute{a}r$ (occ.) \Leftrightarrow AL $\delta wy \delta r$ S $\delta wxth$, $\delta ywth$ B $\delta ywth$ M $\delta wyt(?) \subset dwyt(?) / \delta \partial y wd(\acute{a}) / \delta \partial y wd(\acute{a})$

< *duxtar-; OAve. dugədar-, YAve. duyðar-, Khwār. $\delta^u \mathring{\gamma} d^a$ /δυγda/, Bactr. λογδα /luγd(a)/, Khōt. dutar-, Yazgh. $\delta \mathring{\gamma} y d$, Ishk. wůdůγd, Yidgh. luγdo, Pasht. lūr, Pers. duxtár, TMast. düxtár; Ved. dubitár-; Eynu. tuxtär

(115.) boy

púl(l)a s ^Opyðr'k, ^Opðr B ^Opyðr'k, ^Opðr, ^Opšy M ^Opšy (as a part of compounds) /piṣ́(ḗ)/
< *puϑra- 'son', Ave. puϑra-, Khwār. (²)pr, Scyth. *purϑa-, Bactr. πο(υ)ęο /pū́(h)r/, Khōt.
pūra-, Alan. φουęτ, Sarm. *furϑa-, Oss. furt || furt, Shugh.-Rōsh. puc, Sarīq. puc, Yazgh.
poc, Munj. pūr, Yidgh. pūr, pūl, Wakh. pətr, Parāch. puš, Pers. pisár, pūr, pus(ár), Fārs.
pesár, Tjk. pisár, AfghP. pesár, Pahl. pus, puhr, OPers. puça-, Med. *puϑra-, Kurd. pisir,
Balōch. pʰusay, Parth. pūr; IIr. *putrá-, Ide. *putló-, Ved. putrá-, Pāli putta-, Hind. pūt,

Bengāl. put; cf. Lat. puer

-

²⁶⁷ Meaning both older and/or younger sister in Sogdian.

```
žū́ta 🌣
```

< past part. of the verb $\check{z}\bar{u}$ - 'to live', Sogd. s $\sqrt{z}w(-)$ B $\sqrt{z}w(-)$ M $\sqrt{y}w(-)$ C $\sqrt{z}w(-)$ / $\sqrt{z}\bar{u}$, $\sqrt{z}u$, Ave. $\check{j}(a)uua$ - ???

• S B $z^2t(^2)k$ M $z^2ty(y)$ C z^2ty /zate/

 < *dzāta-ka-; Ave. zāta-, Khwār. z²dỹk, Bactr. ζαδο /zād/, Pasht. zōy, Pers. zāđá, Ide. *ĝņ h_I tó-

(116.)

γayk ❖

cf. Yazgh. yačaģ, Shugh. yāc, Rōsh. yac, Sarīq. yoc

girl

duxtár (occ.) ❖ AL δωγδr S δωχth, δγωth B δγωth M δωγt(²) C dwγt(²) /δργ^wd(á)/

< *duxtar-; OAve. dugədar-, YAve. duyðar-, Khwār. $\delta^u \mathring{y} d^a$ /δυγda/, Bactr. λογδα /luγd(a)/, Khōt. dutar-, Yazgh. $\delta \mathring{y} y d$, Ishk. wůdůγd, Yidgh. luγdo, Pasht. lūr, Pers. duxtár, TMast. düxtár; Ved. duhitár-; Eynu. tuxtär

III.5. Animals

44. animal

ḥayvēn 💠

< Ar. ḤΥΥ ḥaywān, Hebrew ḥayah, Syr. ḥaywatā, Pers. ḥaiván, Oss. xáywan, Uzb. hayvān hayvēnót 'fauna' ❖

< Ar. ḤYY ḥaywānāt (sg. ḥaywān) Pers. pl. ḥaivānāt, Hazār. aywōnōt

(jố h - μ) j $ar{e}$ ndốr 💠

< Tjk. jōndốr, TMast. jūndór

jarmár 🌣

< Tjk. jarmár

◆ в м δt-w /δәtú/

Ave. daitaka-

❖ в [?]stwrpδ²y, [?]st²wrpδ²²y, [?]st²wrpδ²k м stwprбy /³stṓrpəδĕ/

< *staura-pada-ka-; cf. Sogd. S B ?st?wr(h) 'cattle', Yagh. sutū́r 'sheep'

45. (86.) fish

mōhī, mahī 💠

< Pers. māhí, Tjk. mōhí, mahí, TMast. mi(y)í, TVarz. mií, Kābul. māyí, Hazār. mōí, Pahl. m²hyg /māhīg/, OPers. *maᠫya-(ka-), Shugh. mōyi, Wakh. mo(h)í, mahí, moyí, Parth. m²sy²g, Kurd. masî, Ir. *mắtia-; Ved. mátsya-

◆ в м с kp-y /kəpí/

< *kápă-; Khōt. kavā-, Khwār. kỹb, Scyth. (Παντι)κάπης, Oss. kæf, Wakh. kūp, Munj. kōp, Pasht. kab

46. bird

 $<*m''_{i}ga-$; Ave. mərəya-, Khwār. (²)my-, Bactr. μιςγο /miry/, Khōt. mura-, Oss. 1 mary,

Pers. mury, TMast. müry, Hazār. murq, Parth. mwrg, Ishk. mьry; Ved. mrgá-;

par(r)andá 🌣

Pers. parrandá, Wakh. prinda, Shugh. parindā, parandā

jarmár 🌣

< Tjk. jarmár

(j̄ō¹-ʉ) j̄ōndōr ❖

< Tjk. jondór, TMast. jundór

qūš 🌣

< Uzb. quš, Tr. kuş, Tü. *quś; Chaghat. quš 'animal'

síča * B syc²kk c sycy /síčāk, síčě/

< *tīka-ka-, *tijakā-ka-

(87.) chicken

*m*μ*ry* ❖ S M *mry*-*y* B (²)*mry*-*y* /³m(ə^r)γί, mə^rγί/

< *mṛ́ga-; Ave. mərəya-, Khwār. (²)my-, Bactr. μιęyo /miry/, Khōt. mura-, Oss. I mary, Pers. mury, TMast. müry, Hazār. murq, Parth. mwrg, Ishk. mьry; Ved. mṛgá-;

čújá (occ. čúžá) Β cwz²kk /čóžāk/

Khwār. twžk, Yazgh. čiγkg, Wakh. čωča, Yidgh. čužiya, Pasht. čuγλka, Pers. čōjá, Fārs. jūjé, joujé; Uzb. jūjá, Tr. cüce, Qashq. jūjá

47. (95.) dog

kut ❖ s B ²kwt-y M kwt-y, qwt-y /³kwəti/

< *kúta-, *kutī-; Bactr. κοδο /kud/, Oss. k^w ы $z \parallel kuy$, Yazgh. k^o od (fem. kid), Shugh.-Rōsh. kud (f. kid), Sarīq. kыd, Ishk. kьd, Sangl. kud; Tjk. colloq. kučák, Hazār. kutá, Ir. *kuta-, *kutī-; Hind. kuttā, Tokh. ku

ráužna, ráujna 🌣

< pres. part. of the verb raųj̃-, raųž- 'to bark', Sogd. s в √rβz- /√rəβž-/, Munj. rav- : rivd-

(89.) cow

yōu ❖ S B M γ²w C γw / yāu/

< *găua-; Ave. găuu- (nom. gāuš), Scyth. *gău-, Khwār. γwk /γōk/, Bactr. γαο(ι) Μ γ²²w /γāw/, Khōt. ggūhī, Oss. qug || γοg, Shugh. Rōsh. Khūf. žōw, Bart. žaw, Rāshrv. žāw, Sarīq. žɛw, žaw, Yazgh. γεw, Wakh. γωw, Ishk. γu, Sangl. uγūi, Munj. γōwa, Yidgh. γavo, Pasht. γwā, Parāch. gū, Ōrm. gōī, Pers. gāv, TYagh. TFalgh. TVarz. gou, Hazār. gaw, Pahl. gāv, gō, OPers. *gau- (Gaubrūva- = Γωβενίας), Kurd. ga, Balōch. gōk, Tālysh. gug; Ide. *gūōu-s, Ved. go-, gau-, gāv-, Gre. βοῦς, Lat. bōs, Armen. kov, OScand. kýr, OEng. cū, cỹ, Eng. cow, dial. kye (pl. kine), OHG. chuo, Ger. Kuh, Irl. bó, OCS. gov[ędo]

```
kišốk 'bull' ❖
        < *kṛš-āka- 'bull' // *kau̞š-ā-/*kū̃š-ā- 'cow'; Bactr. γαο κιμαγο /gāw kišāg/, Ishk. kužůk,
        Sangl. kujūk, Munj. kūwō, kūyō, Parāch. kâšagū; Sarghul. kišó 'cow'
                        buffalo
<del>(90.)</del>
(94.)
                        goat
vuz  c bzyšt /(³)βzī́št/ (pl.); mg. βzynch /³βzi̇̃mj̇́/ 'kid'
        < *būdza-; Ave. būza-, Khwār. βz /aβza/, Khōt. buysa-, Yazgh. Shugh. Rōsh. vaz, Ishk.
        vьz, Munj. vэza, Pasht. wuz (f. wuza), Pers. buz, TFalgh. büz, Pahl. vuz, Zázá. bıze;
        Thrac. buza
(97.)
                         monkey
maymน์ท 🌣
        < Pers. maimūn, Oss. I maymuli, Kyrg. maymił, Tatar. maymıl, Tatar. dial. mäymun,
       Uygh. maymun, MGre. μαϊμοῦ
♣ B mkkr(²) M mkr²/makká,r,(á)/
        < Skt. markata-, Prkt. makkada- > Khōt. makala-, Khwār. mrk
                         louse
48.
š<sup>u</sup>púš, š<sup>i</sup>púš ❖ B špšh /špəšá/
        < *tsuíša-; Ave. špiš-, Khwār. sp²h, Oss. sыst ∥ sistæ, Yazgh. səpaw, Shugh. sipáy, Rōsh.
       sipaw, Sarīq. spal, Ishk. s(ь)pul, s(ь)pьl, Wakh. šiš, Munj. s(²)pэ́yă, Yidgh. spūo, špūo, Pasht.
        spága, špága, Parāch. espō, Ōrm. spōī, Kurd. sipi, Māzand. isfīj, Pahl. spiš, Tjk. šupúš,
       šubúš(k), šabúš(k), TMast. sübűs, Hazār. išpíš
                         snake
49. (96.)
mōr ❖
        < Pers. mār, Kurd. mar
kír(¹)m ❖ kyrm-y c qyrm-y /ki<sup>r</sup>mí/
        < *kṛmi-, Oss. kalm | kælmæ, Pers. kirm 'worm'; Ved. kṛmi-
50.
                         worm
kírmák 🌣
        < *kṛmi- + diminutive suffix -ak
(98.)
                         mosquito / fly
páš(š)á 'fly' 💠
        < TMast. TVarz. pašá, TBuch. paššá 'fly'; Tjk. paššá 'mosquito'
púžna, pújna 'fly' �
jūnčurák 'mosquito' ❖
        < Tjk. čur(ču)rák 'whiz'
❖ s mwxšk 'mosquito'
        < *maxšika-
```

(99.)

ant

```
mūrčak ❖ B zm²wrc, zm²wr²k /zmōrč, zmṓrē/
        < *(z)máuri-ka-(ka-); Ave. mao<sup>i</sup>ri-, Oss. mælzωg || mulzug, Pasht. mēģay, Wan. mērža<u>i</u>,
       Pers. mōrčá, Tjk. mūrčák
(100.)
                        spider
wófkak 🌣
        < derived from verb w\bar{o}f: w\dot{o}fta 'to weave', Sogd. M \sqrt{w^2}f /\sqrt{w}af/: \sqrt{w}ft-, Oss. I waftan,
       Pers. bāftán: bāf-
vallinká, vanlinká, vanpóda 🌣
        < van(n) 'long' + link (< Turkic?) / poda (Sogd. pao (Šeč)) 'leg', i.e. 'long-legged'
tōrtanák 🌣
        < Tjk. tōrtanák < Tjk. tōr 'web'
III.6. Plants
51. (61.)
                         tree
daráxt / d¹ráxt ❖
        < Pers. diráxt, Tjk. daráxt, TMast. dəráxt, Wakh. daráxt, Shugh. diráxt; Uzb. daraxt,
        Kyrg. daraq
❖ s wn(²k)h м wn² /wəná/
        < *μαπᾱ-; Ave. vanā-, Shugh. wān 'weeping willow', Pasht. wona, wuna, Parāch. γan
        'oak'; cf Ishk. [čb]wen 'apricot, apricot-tree'
                         forest
52.
mary 'grass' ❖ BS mryh S M C mry /mary/ 'meadow, forest'
        < *márga- 'meadow'; Ave. marəγa-, Bactr. μαργο /mary/ 'meadow', Sangl. mērγ, Yidgh.
        mīryo, Pasht. marya, Tjk. mary, maryzốr 'meadow'
jangál 🌣
        < Pers. jangál, Shugh. jingāl, Hind. jangal, Pali. Prkt. jangala, Eng. jungle, Ger. Dschungel
❖ s B wnt²k(h) /wəndak/
        < *uanā- 'tree'
                         stick
53.
šōx ❖ м š²γh /šāx/
        < *šāxa-; Wakh. šōx, Pers. šāx, Parth. š²x
šáppa ❖ M xwšyp /x°³šḗp/ 'whip'
        < Pers. šappá, TMast. šap(p)á < *xšuaipa- 'whip'; Ave. xšuuaēβaiiat 'whip', Rōsh. xabēz
        'whip, stick'
dōrk 'wood, stick'  B δ'r(')wk('), δ'r'wkh M δ'rwk(') c d'rwq /δāruk(ă)/ 'wood'
        < *δårŭka- < *dåru-ka- 'wood'; Yazgh. δerk, Shugh. δōrg, Rōsh. δůrg, Ishk. dьrk, Sangl.
        durk, Pasht. largáy, Wan. lergá, Parth. d'lwg, Pers. dār 'wood, tree, pillar
```

fruit

54. (66.)

```
mēvagī, mēvá s B myδ'k /məyδέ/
        < *migda-ka-; Pers. mēvá, Pahl. mēβ(ag), Parth. mygdg /miγδ(ag)/; Balōch. nīwag, nībag;
        Uzb. mėva, Tr. meyve, Azərb. meyvə
                          seed
55.
táx(i)m, túx(u)m \Leftrightarrow s \ b \ t\gamma m - \gamma \ c \ txm - \gamma \ /toxmi/, s \ b \ t\gamma m \gamma \ c \ t(w)xm \gamma \ /toxmé/
        < *taoxma-(ka-) < *tauxman-; Ave. taoxman-, Bactr. τοχμανο /tuxman/, Wakh. taym,
        Ishk. tbxm, Pasht. tōma, Pers. tuxm, TMast. tüxm, Hazār. túxum, Pahl. tōm, Parth.
        tw(x)m / t\bar{o}(x)m/, OPers. taumā-, Kurd. tom; Ved. tókman-
56. (62.)
                          leaf
barg & B M wrkr C wrgr /warkar/,
        < *uarka-; Pers. barg, Hazār. balk, Pahl. barg > Ar. WRQ waraq(aï) 'page (of a book)',
        BukhAr. yaraka, Pers. varág (> Yagh. warág)
57. (63.)
                          root
rīša 🌣
        < Pers. rēšá, Ave. raēša-
58.
                          bark
pūst ❖ s pwst(h) /pōst/
        < *pau(a)sta-; Ave. pasta-, Shugh. pūst, Rosh. Khūf. Bart. pūst, Sarīq. past, Yazgh. past,
        Wakh. pist, Sangl. pask, Munj. pūstá, Yidgh. pisto, Pers. pōst, Pasht. Kurd. post; Skt.
        pustaka- 'book'
pūčoq 🌣
        < Uzb. půčåq, Tjk. půčóq
(64.)
                          thorn
xōr ❖
        < Pers. xār, Pahl. xār; Skt. kbara- 'sharp'
                          flower
59. (65.)
gul 'rose, flower' ❖ M wrð /warð/ 'rose'
        < uarda-, *urda-; Ave. varada-, Oss. I wardi, Pers. gul, TMast. gül, gəl, gůl, Wakh. gul,
        gəl, Kurd. gul; Uzb. Tr. gül, Kyrg. gül, kül, Tatar. göl, NGr. γλιούλι
* B <sup>2</sup>sp(<sup>2</sup>)rymy(y), <sup>2</sup>sprym(<sup>2</sup>)k, sp<sup>2</sup>rymy M <sup>2</sup>sprymy(y), sp<sup>2</sup>rymy /<sup>4</sup>spáry(ə)mĕ/
        Ave. sparəya-, Parth. Pahl. ?sprhm
(67.)
                         mango
(68.)
                         <del>banana</del>
                          wheat (husked)
(69.)
yámtun, yántum ❖ s yntm c yntm /yámdəm/
        < *gántuma-; Ave. gắntuma-, Khwār. γηdỹm, Bactr. γανδομο /γandum/, Shugh. žindam,
        Wakh yədim, Ishk yundum, Munj. yō(n)dŭm, Pasht. yanəm, Wan. yandəm, Pers.
        gandúm, TMast. gandúm, Pahl. /gandum/, gnwm /gannum/; Gre. γάνδομα, γανδόμην
```

barley

(70.)

```
yau \diamond s mg m \gamma w - \gamma / \gamma > wi/
        < *iaua-; Ave. yauua-, Bactr. ιαοι, ιαο(ο) /yaw/, Oss. 1 yæu 'millet', Shugh. jav, Wakh.
        žaw, žow; Munj. you 'grain', Pers. jau, Pahl. jaw; Ved. yáva-
(71.)
                          rice (husky)
b<sup>i</sup>rínj ❖ Μ βrync /βrīmj/
        < *urīdzi-; Ave. verenja, Khwār. βnc, Khōt. rrīysū-, rrīysua-, Pasht. (w)ríža, Wan. wríza,
        Wakh. gurunj, Ōrm. rījan, Pers. birinj, gurinj, Pahl. brinj, Tālysh. birz, Sivandi. birji; Ved.
        vrīhī-, Elam. mi-ri-zi-iš, Gre. ὄρυζα, βρίζα, Cze. rýže, Eng. rice, Kāmvir. wrúji, Qashq.
        birinj
(72.)
                          potato
kartušká, kartišká 🌣
        < Rus. καρπόωκα, Τjk. kartošká, TVarz. ka(r)tušká, Kyrg. kartöškö < Fr. cartouche
                          eggplant
<del>(73.)</del>
(74.)
                          <del>groundnut</del>
(75.)
                          chilli / pepper
galamfűr 🌣
         Tik. galamfúr, garanfúl, TMast. gəlamfúr, gəlamfír < Hind.
zanjabil s snkrpyl /simgərbil/ 'ginger'
        < Τjk. (regionally) zanjabil 'red pepper' < Pers. zanjabil 'ginger', Pahl. sngypyl /singaβēr/,
        Kurd. zencefil, Ujgh. zänjiwil, Tr. zencefil, Ázerb. zəncəfil, Ar. zanjabīl, Gre. Liyyilseeis,
        Mediaeval Lat. gingiber, zingiber < Palī. singiv 'ginger'
                          tumeric
<del>(76.)</del>
(77.)
                          garlic
kámčun (arch.) 💠
         cf. TMast. kamč 'wild onion'
sīr 🌣
        < Pers. sīr, Kurd. sîr
(78.)
                          onion
p¹yōz ❖ B py²k /pyāk/
        < Ir. *pijāka-; Yidgh. pīy, Wakh. piūk, Yazgh. piyēy; Bactr. πιωζο /piyōz/; Pers. piyāz,
        Pahl. paðāz, Kurd. pîvaz; Uygh. piyaz, Kyrg. pïyaz
<del>(79.)</del>
                      <del>cauliflower</del>
(80.)
                          tomato
pamadúr, pamadór 💠
        < Rus. помидо́р < Ital. pomi d'oro; ТМаst. famildorű
(81.)
                          cabbage
vuzyūšák ❖
        < v u z 'goat' + \gamma u \ddot{s} 'ear'
```

grass

60.

```
wēš / waiš ❖ B wyš(h) /wēš/
```

< *ūastria-; Ave. vāstra- 'pasture, provender', Khwār. wš, Bactr. οαξο M wš /wāš/, Yazgh. wex 'grass, hay', Shugh. Rōsh. Rāshrv. Khūf. wōx, Sarīq. wux, Ishk. (w)uš, Sangl. wuṣ, Wakh. wuṣ, Munj. wəṣ, wūṣ, Yidgh. wuṣ, Pasht. wāxó, Parāch. yīṣ, Ōrm. ywāṣī, Parth. wāṣ 'provender'</p>

mary ❖ BS mryh S M C mry /mary/ 'meadow, forest'

< *márga- 'meadow'; Ave. marəya-, Bactr. μαργο /mary/ 'meadow', Sangl. mēry, Yidgh. mīryo, Pasht. marya, Τjk. mary, maryzốr 'meadow'

61. (36.) rope

wita 🌣

< *ūta-ka-, Oss. I biуыn 'to bind'

vânt 🌣

< *banta-, Bactr. βανδο /βand/, Oss. I bændæg, Pers. band

III.7. Body parts

62. (84.) skin

pūst ❖ s pwst(h) /pōst/

< *pau(a)sta-; Ave. pasta-, Shugh. pūst, Rōsh. Khūf. Bart. pūst, Sarīq. past, Yazgh. pəst, Wakh. pist, Sangl. pask, Munj. pūstá, Yidgh. pisto, Pers. pōst, Pasht. Kurd. post; Skt. pustaka- 'book'</p>

čarm ❖ S B crm /čarm/,

< *čarman-; Ave. čarəman-, Khwār. crm /carm/, črm /čarm/, Khōt. tcārman-, Oss. car(m), Pasht. carman, Pers. čarm, Kurd. çerm; Ved. carman-

63. (84.) meat

yốta & B y²t²k, y²tk M y²ty /yấtē/

< *jāta-ka-; Khwār. yātti; cf. etymologically non-related Uygh. Uzb. ėt, Kyrg. it

64. (22.) blood

wáx(i)n, wáx(i)m **♦** B γwrn-w, γwrn-y, yγwn-w, wγrn-h M (y)xwrn-y, yxwn-y C xwrn-y, ywxn-y /(yə)xwərní, xwərnú, yəxwənú, yəxwənú, yəxní, wəxərná/

< *uáhu(r)na-; Ave. vohunī-, vohuna-, Khwār. hwny, Khōt. hūnä, Shugh. Rōsh. wixīn, Bart. waxīn, Rāshrv. waxīn, Yazgh. x°an, Ishk. wen, Wakh. wыхэп, Munj. yīna, Pasht. winē, Pers. xūn, TFalgh. xin

65. (20.) bone

siták s B M ?stk-y, C stq-y /astakí/

< *asta(-)ka-; Khwār. 'stk /əstag/, Khōt. āstaa-, Oss. 1 ыstæg, Ishk. wůstůk, Sangl. ostŏk, Wakh. (у)ayč, Munj. yostīy, Yidgh. yastë, Pahl. astag, cf. Pers. ustuxván

čárpa ❖ B crp /čarp/

< *čarp(a)-; Khwār. crb, Oss. carv, Jass. carif, Tik. čarb

(82.) oil

rū́γin, rū́γan, rū́γna ❖ S B M C rwyn Br ro ham, ro γam /róγon/

< *ráugna-(ka-); Ave. raoyna-, Khwār. ryÿn, Bactr. M rwgn, Khōt. rrūṇa-, Yazgh. roy(ə)n, Shugh. rūyan, Ishk. rey(u)n, Wakh. rūyn, rūyĕn, Munj. rūyna, Yidgh. rūyən, Pers. rōyán, Tjk. rauyán, TMast. rūyán, TVarz. růyán, TYagh. rūyín, AfghP. rauyán, colloq. rūyán, Hazār. ruyṻ, rūyṻ, Fārs. rouy Fārs. rouyán, Pahl. rōyn</p>

(91.) milk

xišíft * Β ²γšγβt(-γ) s ²xš²γβt M xšγβt Br hṣa wdhi, hṣa wti / ³xšiβd(á) ~ ³xšiβdí/

< *xšuífta-; Ave. xšuuipta-, xšuuīd-, Khwār. xwfcy /xŭβʒī/, Khōt. ṣvīdä-, Yazgh. xˇovd, Shugh. Rōsh. xūvd, Sarīq. x̄ewd, Yidgh. xūšuvd, Pasht. šawdɔ́, Ōrm. šīpī, Parth. šyft, Zâz. šit, cf. Pers. šaftālú</p>

šīr 🌣

< Pers. šīr, Oss. I æxsыr

67. (88.) egg

 $táx(i)m; túx(u)m \Leftrightarrow SB t\gamma m-y C txm-y /toxmi/, SB t\gamma my C t(w)xmy /toxmé/$

< *taoxman-(ka-) < *tauxman-; Ave. taoxman-, Bactr. τοχμανο /tuxman/, Wakh. taym, Ishk. tьxm, Pasht. tōma, Pers. tuxm, TMast. tüxm, Hazār. túxum, Pahl. tōm, Parth. tw(x)m /tō(x)m/, OPers. taumā-, Kurd. tom; Ved. tókman-

xốya 'testicles' ❖

< Pers. xāyá, 'egg(s)' Pahl. xāyag, Khwār. y²k /yāg/, Ir. *āuia-ka-, Ave. aēm, Ide. *h₂ōuiom, OCS. ajьce, Rus. πůμό, Cze. vejce; Lat. ōvum, Gre. ψόν, Gót. ada, OEng. æġ, OScand. egg, Ger. Ei</p>

68. (92.) horn

šōx ❖ м š²γh /šāx/

< *šāxa-; Wakh. šōx, Pers. šāx, Parth. š²x

❖ c krn²/kaṙ̀nā/

< *kárnā-kā-; Ave. karəna- 'ear'; Ved. śrniga-, Lat. cornu, Goth. haúrn

69. (93.) tail

dūm, dumbá ❖ м дwnp-/дūmb-/; в дwnp²k /дumbē/ '[having a] tail'

< *dŭma-; Ave. dŭma-, Khwār. δ wm / δ ŭm/, Khōt. dumaa-, Oss. dыmæg || dumæg, Yazgh. δ om, Shugh. Rōsh. δ um, Ishk. dům, Munj. lum, Pasht. ləm, Pers. dūm, Tjk. dūm(bá), TMast. dümb(á), Kurd. duw, dunk, Balōch. dummag

70. feather

pan(n) (arch.); par 'feather, wing' ❖ B prn /parn/

< Ir. *parna-; Ave. parəna-, Khwār. pn, Shugh. pūn, Rōsh. pūn, Bart. pōnt, Sarīq. pun, Yazgh. půn, Wakh. pār, Munj. pūn(ģ), Yidgh. pūna, Pasht. bóna, Perc. par cf. Tjk. parrá</p>

71. (3.) hair

```
daráu ∥ d¹ráu ❖ B zw-y /žəwí/
```

< *dráua- 'hair'; Khōt. drau-, dro, Oss. ærdu || ærdo, Shugh. cīw, Rōsh. cōw, Yazgh. ců; Ōrm. drī; Ved. drav-, Khowār. dro, Ide. *dreu-

72. (2.) head

sar ❖ sr-y, s²r /sarí/

< *tára-; Bactr. σαςο /sar/, Oss. I sær, Ishk. sar, Pers. sar, Kurd. serî, Hind. sar, sir, Eynu. sär

kallá, sàrkállá 🌣

< Pers. kallá, Tjk. (sàr)kallá BukhAr. kalla, Uzb. källä, Karakaplak. gelle, Turkm. kelle

(4.) face

rīt \diamondsuit s B ryt(h) M ry(y)t C $ry\underline{t}$ /rīt/

 $r\bar{u}^y \Leftrightarrow$

< Pers. rōi, TMast. rū, Hazār. ruy, Kurd. rû, Ave. raoda-; Goth. ludja

lunj 🌣

< Tjk. lunj

če¹rá ❖

< Pers. čihr(á); Ir. *či \Im ra- 'sign'; Khōt. tcira- 'image'; Ave. či \Im ra- 'picture'; Pasht. cēr 'alike'; Alan. τζης \Im ε, τζιςτ 'tombstone', Oss. cωrt \parallel cirt; Ved. citra- 'visible'; Tatar. çıray 'face'

73. (6.) ear

γūš ❖ s в м с γwš /γōš/

< *gauša-; Ave. gaoša-, Khwār. $\gamma wx / \gamma \bar{o}x/$, Khōt. gguv'a-, ggū', Oss. qus || γos , Scyth. $\gamma \omega \sigma os$, Wakh. $\gamma iš$, Ishk. γu_d , Shugh. $\gamma u\gamma$, Rōsh. $\gamma \bar{o}w$, Sarīq. γawl , Yazgh. $\gamma avon$, Munj. $\gamma \bar{u}y$, $\gamma u\bar{i}$, Yidgh. $\gamma \bar{u}$, Pasht. $\gamma wa\acute{g}$, Ōrm. gōi, gōy, Parāch. gū, Pers. gōš, Pahl. Parth gōš, OPers. gauša-, Balóč gōš, Kurd. goh; Ved. gboṣa- 'neck'

74. (5.) eye

yúrda ❖

< *grda-ka-; cf. Ave. gərəba- 'hole, pit'

 $\check{c}\check{a}\check{s}(^{i})m \Leftrightarrow s c(\check{s})m-y \land cm-y(y), c\check{s}m-y \lor c(y)m-y, c\check{s}m-y /\check{c}\check{i}(\check{s})mi/$

< *čášman-; Ave. čašman-, Khwār. cm-, cm-/camma/, Khōt. tcei'man-, Oss. cæst 'eye', casm || cans 'window-opening', Ishk. com, Sangl. cām, Zēb. cōm, Munj. čōm, Yidgh. čam, Shugh. Baj. cēm, Rōsh. Khūf. cām, Bart. cēm, Rāshrv. cīm, Sarīq. cem, Yazgh. čăm, Wakh. čə(ž)m, Ōrm. cimī, čīm, cōm, Pers. čašm, TMast. čišm, Fārs. češm, Hazār. číšim, Kurd. çav</p>

75. (7.) nose

nēs / nais & B nns /nams/, M ns /nas/; B nyc /nēč/

< *nāsn(ia)-, *nāhi-kā-; Ave. nāŋhan-, Khwār. n²c /nāza/, Yazgh. nej, Shugh. nāz, Rōsh. Khūf. nēz, Bart. Rāshrv. nōz, Sarīq. noz, Ishk. nic, Parāch. nēšt; Ved. nāsikā-

76. (8.) mouth

rax ❖ s ry²k /rəxā/

77. (9.) teeth

díndak • B Snt(?)k B M Snt?kh C dnt?/Simda(k), Samda(k)/

< *dāntu(-)ka-; Khwār. δnck /δanzig/, Khōt. dandaa-, Oss. I dændag, Shugh. δindūn, Khūf. Rōsh. Bart. Rāshrv. δindōn, Sarīq. δandan, δandun, Yazgh. δand, δān, Wakh. dəndыk, dendik, Ishk. dond, Sangl. dānd, Munj. lod, Pers. dandān, TMast. dandūn, Pahl. dandān, Kurd. didan, Balōch. dāntān; Lat. dans, Gre. δδών, Gót. tunþus, Ger. Zahn, OEng. tōð, Lit. dantís, OIrl. σέτ, Irl. déad, Welsh Bret. dant, Ide. *h₁dónt-</p>

78. (10.) tongue

zivốk ❖ Β (ˀ)zβˀ(ˀ)k Μ zβˀk C zbˀq /ˀzβāk ~ žβāk /

< *hidzuá-kă-; Ave. hizuuā-, hizū-, Khwār. zuβ'k, 'zβ'k /zuβág, əzβág/, Bactr. εζβαγο /əzβāg/, Khōt. biśā /βiżā/, Oss. ævzag, Munj. zəvíŋ u zəvúg, Yidgh. z³vīŋ, zıbēŋ, Shugh.-Rōsh. ziv, Yazg. z(ə)veg, Wakh. zĭk, Ishk. z(ь)vůk, Sangl. zəvŭk, Pasht. žɨba, Wazīrī žəbba, Wazīrī žəbba, Wan. z(i)bə, zəbō; Pers. zabán, TMast. zŭbún, zuyún, zəbún, TBukh. zavon, Hazār. zibū, Pahl. 'wzw'n m 'zw'n /uzwān, izwān/, Parth. 'zb'n /izbān/, OPers. hizānam (acc. sg.), hizū-, Med. *hizbān-, Zâzâ. zıman, zıwan, zun, Kurd. ziman, Māzand. ziwŭn, ziwan, Balōch. zubān, zuvān, zavān, Talysh. zəvon, Khō'īnī zuan, Tātī zubun; Ōrm. zobån; Urd. zabān; IIr. *sij'huā-; Ved. jihvá, juhú-, Sindhī jibha; Ide. *dnghū-, *dnghuā-, OCS. jezykъ; Lat. lingua, OIrl. τeng(e), τengæ, Goth. tungō, Armen. lezu, Tokh. A käntu B käntvo</p>

79. (17.) fingernail

náxna \bullet B $n^2 \gamma(^2) n / n a xən/$

< *năxa-na-; Khōt. nāhane, Yidgh. anaxno, Pers. nāxún, Ved. nakbá-

80. foot

pốda \diamondsuit s p% β p%(y), p%h, p%(z)k m p%(y) c p2d(y) /pấðĕ/

< *páda-(ka-), Ave. pāða-, Khwār. p'ð, Khōt. pāa-, Oss. fad, Wakh. pūð, Shugh. pōð, Yazgh. peð, Ishk. pud, Munj. pāla; Pers. pāi, Pahl. pāī, OPers. pāda-, Kurd. pê; Gre. πούς, cf. Pasht. calōrbōlai 'four-legged'

81. (18.) leg

link 🌣

< Tü. ??, Kurd. ling

pốda, $p\bar{o}(y)$ \Leftrightarrow s $p^*\delta^2k$ в $p^*\delta(y)$, $p^*\delta h$, $p^*\delta(^2)k$ м $p^*\delta(y)$ $\subset p^2d(y)$ /pấðĕ/

< *pāda-(ka-), Ave. pāδa-, Khwār. p'ð, Khōt. pāa-, Oss. fad, Wakh. pūδ, Shugh. pōδ, Yazgh. peð, Ishk. pud, Munj. pāla; Pers. pāi, Pahl. pāī, OPers. pāda-, Kurd. pê; Gre. πούς, cf. Pasht. calōrbōlai 'four-legged'

82. knee

zēnk ❖ B z²n²wk, zn²wk², M znwg /zānuk(ā)/

<*zấnữkã- <*dzấnữ-kā-, Ave. žnu-, Khwār. z^2 nwk, Khōt. ysānữ-, ysānua-, Oss. I zonыg,

```
Ishk. zong, Wan. zung, Parāch. zanuk, Pers. zānú, TMast. züní, Pahl. z<sup>2</sup>nwk /zānūg/,
Parth. z'nwg, Baloch. zanūk; Ved. jánu-, Gre. yovo, Lat. genu, OEng. cnēo(w)
```

```
armband
83.
dast ❖ S B M gM Sst-y C dst-y /Sast-i/
       < *dásta- (disslimilation or contamination of past part. of verb dăd- 'to give' *dăsta- <
       *dād-ta-) < *dzásta-; Ave. zasta-, Khwār. δst /δast-/, Bactr. λιστο /list/, Khōt. dasta-,
       Shugh. Sust, Khūf. Sūst Rosh. Sost, Sarīq Sust, Wakh. Sast, dast, Yazgh. Sůst, dast, Munj.
       löst, Yidgh. last, Pasht. läs, Parāch. döst, Pers. dast, Pahl. dst /dast/, OPers. dasta-, Parth.
       dst, Kurd. des; Ved. hásta-, Ide. *ghes-to-; cf. Gre. χείε D χήε, Hitt. keššar, Tokh. A tsar B
       sar
yozna ❖
       < pres. part. of the verb yōz- 'to stretch', Pers. yāzīdán: yāz-
(14.)
                        elbow
ōríný, ōrúný � B ^>²r²ync M >>²r²nj C ²rync /ấrɨmੱ/
        < *ărá$ni-ka-; Ave. arə$na-, Khōt. ariñe 'belonging to elbow'; Oss. [ælm-/ærm-]ærin ||
       [cæng-]ærinæ, Shugh. ārenj, Sarīq. yorn; Sangl. ărinj, Wakh. ōrīnj; Munj. rázən, rázen,
       Yidgh. razín, Pers. ăran(j), Tjk. ōrinj, Northern dial. olínj, olúnj, AfghP. ārónj, Fars.
       äränj; Ved. aratní-, Gre. ωλήν, OEng. eln
(15.)
                        palm (of hand)
panjá(ra) 🌣
       < Tjk. panjará, panjá < *panča- 'five'
kaf ❖
       < Pers. kaf
nišk 💠 s nnšky
       cf. Khōt. nänārra- < Khōt. näna- / nina- 'within' + ārra- < *arma- 'arm'
páx(x)a ❖
       cf. Yagh. pax 'finger'
(16.)
                        finger
unkúšt, angúšt ❖ ²nkwšt M ²ngwšt /aṁgwəšt/
       < *ángušta-; Ave. angušta-, Oss. I ængwыlz, Khōt. āṣṭia-, Pers. angúšt, Pahl. angušt, Kurd.
       enguşt; Ved. anghústha-
pax 🌣
       cf. Yagh. pax(x)á 'palm'
84.
                        wing
```

qanốt, qanát 🌣

< Uzb. qanåt, Uygh. Kyrg. qanat < Tü. *qāńat; Tjk. qanót, qanát

bal 🌣

< Pers. bāl

```
par ❖ B prn /parn/
        < Ir. *parna-; Ave. parəna-, Khwār. pn, Shugh. pūn, Rosh. pūn, Bart. pont, Sarīq. pun,
        Yazgh. půn, Wakh. pār, Munj. pūn(ģ), Yidgh. pūna, Pasht. bona, Pers. par
\wedge M C w^2z /waz/
        cf. Sogd. B M \wz- /\wəz-/ 'to fly'; Pers. vazīdán: vaz-, Ved. vab- 'to blow'
(I.)
tan ❖ S B tnp²r, M tanb²r, tamb²r, tamp²r C tanb²r, tanp²r, tam(b)²r, tmf²r /táṁbār/
        < Ir. *tanū-(pāra-); Ave. tanu-, Khwār. tn /tan/, Bactr. τανο /tan/, Pers. tan, Parth. tnb²r,
        Pahl. tn\beta^2r; Uzb. t\dan, Uygh. t\dan, Kyrg. ten, BukhAr. tan
badán 💠
         Ar. BDN, Pers. badán
jasád 🌣
         Ar. JSD jasad, Pers. jasád
85. (12.)
                          belly
šikámpa, iškampá 🌣
        < *škamba-ka-; Pers. šikám, Tjk. šikambá, iškambá, TVarz. šikám, iškám
dára 'belly, guts' A B kð'r('y), kð'r'k C q\(\mathbf{G}\)'ry, k\(\mathbf{G}\)'ry /k\(\mathbf{S}\)are, k\(\mathbf{G}\)'re
        < *udára-(ka-); Khwār. ²wðyr /uðir/, Ishk. dēr, Wakh. dūr; Tjk. dará 'stomach of a
        domestic animal', Ved. udára- 'stomach'
86.
                          guts
dára 'belly, guts' ❖ B kð'r('y), kð'r'k C q3'ry, k3'ry /k³ðarĕ, k³5arĕ/ 'belly'
        < *udára-(ka-); Khwār. ²wðyr /uðir/, Ishk. dēr, Wakh. dūr; Tjk. dará 'stomach of a
        domestic animal', Ved. udára- 'stomach'
bándil 'heart, guts' �
        < Tjk. collog. bandíl < bánd-i dil 'bundle of heart'
j¹gár 'liver, guts' ❖
        < Pers. jigár, Pahl. jakar, yakar, Ave. yākar-, Khōt. gyagarra-, jatärra-, Oss. igær, Yidgh.
        yēγən, Pasht. (y)īná, Ōrm. zặr; Ved. yákrt-, Ide. *Hiĕk rt-, Gre. ἦπαe
r<del>u</del>ta 🌣
        < Tjk. rūdá, Rosh. rūd, Yazgh. rad, Ishk. růčik, Munj. rūyay, rūyī
87.
                          neck
yalk 🌣
        < Ar. HLQ; Tjk. balq, Shugh. alq
kám(á), k\bar{o}m \Leftrightarrow s k^2kh B k^2\gamma^2kh, k^2\gamma k C q^2x / kaxa(k), kax, kak/k
        < *kāh-man-, *kāha-ka-; Oss. kom, gom, Yazgh. māk, Rōsh. māk, Munj. kāyəko, Pasht.
        kumai; Parāch. kāma; Tjk. kōm, Pers. kāk
88.
                          back
árgá 🌣
```

Uzb. årga, Tü. *argā; Yazgh. Shugh. Rōsh. Ishk. Wakh. argá, Sarīq. argó, Yidgh. harkŏ

```
sitám, satám �
pušt ❖ B prch /parč/
        < *páršta-(ka-); Ave. paršti-, Pasht. pužt, Pers. pušt, Kurd. pişt; Ved. prstí-
                           breast
89. (11.)
čič, jijí 🌣
        cf. Tjk. čuč, čoč, jij, Oss. zizi | zeze, Khōt. tcījsa, Ishk. čiči, Sangl. čičī, Shugh. jij, Armen.
        cic, Ger. Zitze, Cze. cecek, Ital. zizza, Gre. τιτθός, Georg. zuzu
v<del>u</del>na ❖
sīna 🌣
        < Pers. sīná, Shugh. sīná
90. (21.)
                           heart
dil ❖ Β δrzy Μ δrjy(γ) /δəržē/
        < *dzṛdaja-; Ave. zərəδaiia-, Khōt. ysära-, Pers. dil, TMast. dil, Ishk. dьl, Ved. hṛdaya-,
        Lat. cor, Gre. καρδία, κῆρ, St.Sl. sьrdьce; Ide. *krd-
bándil 'heart, guts' �
        < Tjk. colloq. bandíl < bánd-i dil 'bundle of heart'
                           liver
91.
j¹gár 'liver, guts' ❖
        < Pers. jigár, Pahl. jakar, yakar, Ave. yākar-, Khōt. gyagarra-, jatärra-, Oss. igær, Yidgh.
        yēyən, Pasht. (y)īná, Ōrm. zāř; Ved. yákrt-, Ide. *μįčk*rt-, Gre. ἦπαρ
(23.)
                           urine
gaz(z)ák, giz(z)ák ❖
        < Tjk.?
(24.)
                           feces
γūs / γūiţ ❖ s γωδ /γūβ/
         < *g\bar{u}\Im \bar{i}-, *g\bar{u}\Im (\underline{i})\bar{a}-; Ave. g\bar{u}\Im a-, Khwār. \gamma w\Im /\gamma \bar{u}\Im /, Yazgh. \gamma \circ \Im, Shugh. Rōsh. \gamma a\Im,
        Wakh. gi, Munj. yūw, Pasht. y(w)ul, Pers. gub, Tjk. gůb
xērdák 🌣
         Wakh. xωrdəx; cf. Yagh. verb xērd- 'to shit': Khwār. -xrδ-, Shugh. šarδ- : šuxt-, Rōsh.
        Bart. šarð-, širð-: šužt-, Sarīq. šarð-, Yazgh. xawð-: xažt-, Yidgh. žawd-, Pasht. xarðl
III.8. Verbs
92. (185.)
                           to drink
žau- (ažáu : žáuta : žáuna : žáwak) �
         < *žiau-; Pasht. žōwál, Baloch. jāyag, Pers. jāvīdán: jāv-
♦ B √<sup>2</sup>/<sub>5</sub><sup>2</sup>/m /√āšām/
        Ave. šam-
93. (182.)
```

to eat

```
xar- (axár: xorta: xárna: xárak) ❖ s b √ywr- br hor-, hur-: s b √ywrt /√x°ər-: √x°art/
        < *x^{\mu}ar -; Ave x^{\nu}ar -, Khwār. x(w)r -, Bactr. \chi \circ \alpha \circ \varphi - : \chi \circ \alpha \circ \delta \circ : /x^{\omega}ar - : x^{\omega}ard/, Pers. x^{\nu}ard\acute{a}n :
        x^{v}ar-, Tjk. x^{v}u^{v}dan: x^{v}u^{v}r-, Fārs. x^{v}ordan: x^{v}or-, AfghP. x^{w}ordan: x^{w}or-; Eynu. xorla-
94. (183.)
                           to bite
xišốy- (axišốy: xišốyta: xišốyna: xišốyak) ❖ B √²γšy²k (inf.) /³xšayḗ/
        < *xšau-; Ishk. šāw- : šāwůd, Wakh. šыw- : šōwd, Yazgh. šaw-, Munj. axšōw- : axšēvd-
živ- (ažív: žívta: žívna: žívak) 'to sew, to stitch' s √zyβ- β √zyβ-, √zyβ- Μ √jβ- /√žiβ-/
        < *žíba-
                           to suck
95.
zamák-, zamáq- (azamák : zamákta : zamágna : zamákak) | zimák- (azimák : zimákta : zimágna :
        zimákak) 🌣
        < *udz-mak-, cf. Pers. makīđán : mak-
dīy- (adīy: dīyta: dīyna: dīyak) ❖
        < *d\bar{a}i-; Oss. dæyыn || dæyun : dad; Ved. d^b\bar{a}y-, Gre. βαω, OCS. dojiti, Goth. daddjan
                           to spit
96.
x\bar{u}f- (ax\bar{u}f: x\bar{u}fta: x\bar{u}fta: x\bar{u}fak) 'to cough' \Leftrightarrow B \sqrt{y}w^{2}\beta /\sqrt{x}^{\alpha}af/
        Oss. xwыfыn || xufun 'to cough', Yidgh. xof-: xofāi-, Parāch. k^b\bar{u}f-, Parth. wf-
97.
                           to vomit
gay kun- (gáyi kárak) ❖
        < Pers. gai kardán
ūrt kun- (ūrti kárak) ❖
        cf. TMast. ūrt kašidán; cf. TMast. çür(r)idán 'to shout'
kōu- (akōu : kōuta : kōuna : kōwak) 'to search; to vomit; to touch; to dig' ❖
        < Pers. kāftán : kāv- / kāb-, TVarz. koftán : kou-
❖ B ywrtsnty /x°ər-sáṁdĕ/ 'vomiting'
❖ c q²xwš²ty /kax-wišate/ 'vomiting'
                           to blow
98.
dam wīd- (dámi wīdak) �
        < Tjk. dam 'breath' + Yagh. wīd- 'to pour'; cf. Oss. dытып | dumun
                           to breathe
99.
dam I xaš- (dámi xášak) �
        < Tjk. dam 'breath' + Yagh. xaš- 'to pull'
                           to laugh
100.
xant- (axánt : xántta : xántna : xántak) ❖ B √ynt /√xaṁd-/
        < *xand-; Yazgh. xənd-: xant-, Shugh. Rosh. šānd-: sīnt-, Ishk. xond-, Wakh. kānd-,
        Munj. xåd-, Pers. xandīđán: xand-
101. (201.)
                           to look / to see
wēn- (awḗn : wḗta : wḗnna : wḗnak) ❖ S B M C √wyn : S B M √wyt C √wyt /√wēn : √wēt/
        < *uaina-; Ave. vaēna-, Khwār. wyn-: wynyd, Bactr. onν-, οι(η)ν- Μ wyn-: * λιδο /wēn-:
```

```
weyn-: wand, Yazgh. Wakh. Sangl. wīn-: wīnd, Pers. dīdán: bīn-, Pahl. wēn-: dīd-
yōr- (ayṓr : yṓrta : yṓrna : yṓrak) ❖ Β √y<sup>γ</sup>r /√yār/
                            < *g\bar{a}ra -; Khw\bar{a}r. \gamma^2 r -; cf. Oss. [en]qelun : [en]qeld || [en]\gammaelun : [en]\gammaald 'to hope'
                                                                                     to hear / to listen
102. (200.)
d<sup>u</sup>yū́š- (ad<sup>u</sup>yū́š : d<sup>u</sup>yū́šta : d<sup>u</sup>yū́šna : d<sup>u</sup>yū́šak) 'to hear' ❖ s M √ptywš B √pty(²)wš C √ptywš
                          /√p³tyōš/ 'to hear'
                           < *pati-gáuša-
yūš dōr- / kun- (yūši dorak / kárak) 'to listen' ❖
                           < Pers. gōš dāštán, TYagh. yūš dóštan, Oss. I qus darыn
                                                                                     to know
 103.
buzến- (abuzến : buzếnta : buzếnta : buzếnta : buzếnta : buzếnta : buzếnta : bizếnta : bizếnta : bizếnta : bizếnta : bizếnta : buzếnta 
                           \sqrt{(pt)}z^2n \text{ M } \sqrt{pt}z^2n \text{ C } \sqrt{pt}z^2n / \sqrt{(p^2t)}z^{\frac{1}{2}}n / \sqrt{(p
                           < *apa-dzān-, *(pati-)dzān-; Ave. pāti-zāna-, Khōt. paysān-, Oss. (ba)zonыn : (ba)zыnd, ||
                           zonun : zund, Yazgh. vəzan- : vəzant-, Shugh. wizůn- : wizůnt; Rōsh. Khūf. wizōn- :
                           wizēnt, Sarīq. wazon-: wazont, Ishk. pьzin-: pьzint-, Wakh. pazdan-, Munj. vzōn-:
                           vzōd-, Pasht. pēžōn-, Pers. dānistán: dān-; cf. Bactr. πιζινδδι??
y ríf- (ay ríf : γ rífta : γ rífna : γ rífak) | γ rív- (ay rív : γ rífta : γ rívna : γ rívak) 💠 S B M
                          VyrB-C Vyrb-/VyirB-/
                           < *grbia- 'to grab, to take'; Ave. gərəbiia-, Khwār. γίβγα-; Khōt. grauna-, Oss.
                          erywevыn: eryevd | eryuvun: eryuvd, Ishk. yurv-: yurd, Munj. yərv-: yərivd, OPers.
                          grbāya-, Pers. giriftán: gīr-, Pahl. graftan, Kurd. girtin, Balōch. girag: gipt; Ved. grab<sup>b</sup>-:
                          grbhṇāti, OCS. grebo : grabiti
                                                                                     to think
104.
fikr kun- (fikri kárak) �
                             Pers. fikr kardán < Ar. fikr 'mind, opinion'
andéša kun- (andéšai kárak) *
                             < Pers. andēšīđán : andēš- 'to think'
 ❖ S B C √myn /√mēn/
                             Ave. mainiia-, Pahl. menīdan
                                                                                      to smell
105.
vūd xaš- (vūdi xášak) *
                           calque of Tjk. būi kašīdán < Yagh. vūd, Sogd. B βωδδh M βωδ /βōδ/ 'scent' < Ir. *báudi-,
                          Ave. baodi-, Khwār. \beta w \delta / \beta \bar{o} \delta /, Oss. bud || bodæ, Wakh. v \bar{u} l, Parāch. b^h \bar{a} m, Pers. b \bar{o} i, Pahl.
                           bōy; Hung. búz + Yagh. xaš-, Pers. kašīđán 'to pull'
 ❖ M √ρcβwš, √ptzβwš C √pcbwš /√p³čβōš/
                                                                                     to fear
106.
```

līd/, Shugh. Bart. Rāshrv. wīn-: wīnt, Khūf. win-: wīnt, Rōsh. wun-: wunt, Sarīq.

```
čikḗr- (ačikḗr: čikḗrta: čikḗrna: čikḗrak) ∥ čukájr- (ačukájr: čukájrta: čukájrna: čukájrak) ❖ s
        √pckwyr /√p³čkÿĕr/
        < *pati-kāuraja- (?)
tūr- (atūr: tūrta: tūrna: tūrak) 💠
        cf. Southern Tik. tūridán: tūr-
❖ B √trs-/√tərs-, √trəs-/
        < *tṛʦ-; Ave. tras-, Pers. tarsīđán: tars-
107. (187.)
                           to sleep
ŭfs- (awuts: utsa : utsak) ❖ s √²wβs(-) c √²wfs(-) : s M √²wβt(-) c √²wbt(-), √²wft(-) /√ofs,
        √ufs-: √oβd, √uβd-/
        < *(aua-)huftsa-; Khōt. hūs-, Oss. х<sup>w</sup>ыssыn || xussun, Rōsh. xofs- : xuvd-, Yazgh. pəxas- :
        pəxovd, Pers. xuftán : x<sup>v</sup>āb-, Baloch. vafsag-; cf. Pasht. udé 'sleeping'
108.
                           to live
\check{z}\bar{u} - (\check{a}\check{z}\check{u}:\check{z}\check{u}ta:\check{z}\check{u}na:\check{z}\check{u}ak,\check{z}\check{u}^wak) \Leftrightarrow s \sqrt{z}w(-) B \sqrt{z}w(-) M \sqrt{j}w(-) C \sqrt{z}w(-) /\sqrt{z}u, \tilde{z}\tilde{u}u-/
        < *j(a)ua-; Ave. j(a)uua-, Khwār. zyw-, Khōt. jū
zindagi kun- (zindagi kárak) *
        < Pers. zindagi kardán; zindagi 'life', past part. of verb zīstán : zĭy- 'to live', OPers. jīv-,
        Pahl. zīwastan; Pasht. žwand(ūn) 'life'
109. (192.)
                           to die
mir- (amír : múrta : mírna : mírak) ❖ S B M C √myr- : B M √mwrt- C √mwrt- /√mir- : √murt-/
        < *mṛja-: mṛta-; Khwār. (²)my-: ²mȳd, Bactr. μιε-: μοεδο (mīr-: murd), Khōt. mär-:
        muḍa-, Pers. murdán: mīr-, Pahl. mīr-: murd-
110. (193.)
                           to kill
t^u \mathring{x} \circ y - (at^u \mathring{x} \circ y : t^u \mathring{x} \circ x \circ x) + t^u \mathring{x} \circ y \circ x)
        /√p³tx°ấy/
        < *pati-x¼āhaia-
pakk- (apákk : pákkta : pákkna : pákkak) 'to cut, to kill' *
                           to fight
jang- (ajáng : jángta : jángna : jángak) ❖
        < Pers. jangīđán : jang- < Pers. jang 'war'
jang kun- / nōs- (jángi kárak / nōsak) ❖
        < Pers. jang kardán, Pers. jang 'war' + kardán 'to do'; cf. Uzb. jan qülmåq
yūštī́n / gūštī́n nōs- (yūštī́ni / gūštī́ni nosak) ❖
         Tjk. gůštín giriftán < Tjk. gůštín, Fārs. koští 'fight, wrestling'
fūrúš- (afūrúš: fūrúšta: fūrúšna: fūrúšak) �
bidḗn nōs- (bidḗni nṓsak) ❖
         Yagh. biden 'waist' + nos- 'to take'
♣ B √rnβ-, √rnp- /√rənb-/
                           to hunt
112.
```

```
šikor kun- (šikori kárak) ❖ S M √²šk²r, B √(²)šk²r /√iškar/
         Bactr. αρ(α)καρ-δο, ερκαρ- : αρκαρδο /əš(ə)kār- : əš(ə)kārd-/; Pers. šikār kardán (Pers.
         šikār, BukhAr. šikār 'hunt')
nūk kun- (nūki kárak) �
                             to hit
113.
deh-, dih- (adíh : déhta : déhna : díhak) �
         < *d\bar{a}(h)- 'to give, to hit'; Ave. d\bar{a}-, Khwār. dah-, dih-, Khōt. d\bar{u}-, Yazgh. day- : \delta ed-,
         Shugh. di(y) - : \delta \bar{o}d, d\bar{e}t, Khūf. di(y) - : d\bar{e}t, Rōsh. Bart. d\bar{e}(y) - : d\bar{e}t, Sarīq. de - : det, Ishk.
         de- : ded-, Sangl. deh- : dēδ-, Wakh. dē-, di- : dəyt, dēxt, Munj. dē-, də-, Yidgh. dah-,
         Parāch. dah-, deh-, Pers. dādán: dah-, Kābul. dē-, TVanj. deh kardán; Khowār. dik
                             to cut
114.
p^u\mathring{x}\mathring{o}y-(ap^u\mathring{x}\mathring{o}y:p^u\mathring{x}\mathring{o}yta:p^u\mathring{x}\mathring{o}yta:p^u\mathring{x}\mathring{o}yta:p^u\mathring{x}\mathring{o}yak)   \Leftrightarrow s \sqrt{p\gamma}w^2\gamma B \sqrt{(2)p\gamma}w^2\gamma M \sqrt{p\chi}w(w)^2\gamma C \sqrt{p\chi}w^2\gamma
         /√p³x°áy/
         < *apa-/upa-xuāhaia-
pakk- (apákk : pákkta : pákkna : pákkak); pákka kun- (pákkaj kárak) ❖
burr- (abúrr: búrrta: búrrna: búrrak) �
         < Pers. burrīđán: burr-
115.
                             to split
judó / jidó kun- (judój / jidój kárak) ❖
         < Pers. judá kardán
116.
                             to stab
čumf- (ačúmf: čúmfta: čúmfna: čúmfak) 🌣 B Bstywnp C fstxwmp /f³stxúmb/
         cf. Khwār. xwmb-
                              to scratch
117.
rūčón- (arūčón: rūčónta: rūčónna: rūčónak) ❖
k\bar{\imath}r(r)- (ak\hat{\imath}r(r):k\hat{\imath}r(r)ta:k\hat{\imath}r(r)na:k\hat{\imath}r(r)ak)
118.
                             to dig
kan- (akán : kánta : kánna : kának) ❖ B M √kn- : √knt C √gn- /√kən- : √kaṁd-/
         < *kan-; Pers. kandán : kan-
kōu- (akōu : kōuta : kōuna : kōwak) 'to search; to vomit; to touch; to dig' ❖
         < Pers. kāftán : kāv- / kāb-, TVarz. koftán : kou-
119.
                             to swim
ō(b)bōzī́ kun- (ō(b)bōzī́į kárak) ❖
         < Pers. ābbāzī́ (< āb 'water' + bāzī́ 'game') kardán 'to swim'

❖ м √fsn²y- /√fъsnái/
         < *fra-snāja-; Khōt. haysnāta-
120. (194.)
                             to fly
```

```
fur(r) - (afúr(r) : fúr(r)ta : fúr(r)na : fúr(r)ak); par - <math>(apár : párta : párta : párak) \Leftrightarrow B \sqrt{prn^2}y
        /√párnāy, √frənāy/
        cf. Pers. parrīđán: parr-
paywốz kun- (paywốzi kárak) ❖ B √βrwz M √frw(²)z C √frwz /√frəwaz, pərwaz/
         Tjk. parvóz kardán; cf. Sogd. c prw²z /parwáz/ 'winged'
❖ B M √wz- /√wəz-/
121. (195.)
                            to walk
šau- (ašáu : éta, šáuta, šúta : šáuna : šáwak) ❖ S B M C √šw- /√šəw-/
         < *čiau-; Ave. š(ii)auu-, TYaghn. šaw-, Khwār. ciyy-, Khōt. tsu-, Tumsh. cchami 'I go',
        Bactr. \flat \alpha o(\iota)-, \flat o(o)- : \flat o \delta o /šaw- : šud/, Oss. c \alpha w \omega n : c \omega d, \parallel c \alpha w \omega n : c \omega d, OPers. šyav-;
        Pers. \delta ud\acute{a}n: \delta au-\delta v 'to walk' > from the II^{th}-I2^{th} century 'to become' (Tjk. \delta ud\acute{a}n: \delta au-\delta v)
        / šav-, AfghP. šodán: šau- / šaw-, Fārs. šodán: šou- / šäv- 'to become'), OPers. šiyav-; Skt.
        cyavati
122. (198.)
                            to come
vōu- (avốu : vốuta : vốuna : vốwak) ❖ s в м √β²w c √b²w /√βāw/
(196.)
                            to run
day- (adáy : dáyta : dáyna : dáwak) �
         Pers. davīđán : dau- / dav-; Ir. *dau-, Ave. dauu-, Oss. dawыn ∥ dawun : dawd, Ved.
         d^b \bar{a}v - : d^b \bar{a}vati, Gre. \vartheta \dot{\epsilon} \omega
(197.)
                            to go
tir- (atír : torta : tírna : tírak) ❖ c √tr- /√tir-/
         < *tria-; Bactr. να-τιεινδο 'they do not come'; cf. Sogd. s   \sqrt{\beta} tyr-   \sqrt{ft(y)}r-    c
         \sqrt{ft}(y)r- /\sqrt{ft}ir-/ 'to go through, to pass' < *fra-tria-; Pers. guðaštán : guðar-, Tjk.
        guzaštán: gudar- 'to go through, to pass' < *ui-tṛja-
123. (188.)
                            to lie (down)
napíd- (anapíd: napísta: napídna: napídak) | nipíd- (anipíd: nipísta: nipídna: nipídak) 💠 B
         \sqrt{np^2y\delta}/\sqrt{nape\delta}
         < *ni-pád(a)ia-; Ave. nipaiòiia-, Khwār. ?nbzy-, Khōt. nuvad-, Munj. nīlv-: nuwåst, Pahl.
         nibastan
124. (189.)
                            to sit
nīd- (anīd: nīsta: nīdna: nīdak) ❖ S B M √nyð C √nyd: S B M √nyst C √nyst /√nīð: √nīst/
         < *ni-hĭda-; Khwār. nīβ-, Khōt. näd-, Yazgh. niβ-: nust, Shugh. Khūf. niβ-: nust, Rōsh.
        ni3-: nōst, Bart. ni3-: nōst, Rāshrv. ni3-: nūst, Ishk. nid-: nьļůst, Munj. niž-: niyōst-,
        Yidgh. nix-: nūst
125.
                            to stand
ūšt- (awūšt : ū́šta : ū́šna : ū́štak) ❖ s B M √²wšt C √²wšt /√ošt/
         < *aua-hišta-; Khōt. vaṣt-, Oss. (ы)stып | istun, Part. ?wyšt-, Balōch. ōštag, vuštag; cf. Pers.
         īstādán : īst, Hazār. istōdū'
```

to turn

126.

```
ziwórt- (aziwórt : ziwórta : ziwórta : ziwórtak) | zuwórt- (azuwórt : zuwórta : zuwórta : zuwórtak)
        ❖ S √zw²rt B √(²)zw²rt M C √zwrt /√zwart/
        *udz-uárt(a)-; Parth. Pahl. 'zwrd-: 'zwšt-; cf. Pers. gaštán: gard- < *urt-; Cze. zvrtnout,
ziwirt- (aziwirt : ziwirtta : ziwirtna : ziwirtak) ❖ s √²zw²yrt B √(²)zw²yrt M √zw²yrt C √zwyrt
        /√³zwírt/
        *udz-uárt(a)-ja-
laks- (aláks : láksta : láksna : láksak) ❖
        cf. Ar. RQS, Pers. ragsīdán: rags- 'to dance'
tōb xar- (tōbi xarak) ❖
        < Pers. tāb xºardán, TVarz. tou xůrdán
                          to fall
127.
E diwi- (adiwi: diwita: diwina: diwiyak) �
        < *duaja-; Ave. duuan- 'to fly', Pasht. lwēģ- : lwēd-; Ide. *dhun-jo-
w tira(i)š- (atirá(i)š : tirá(i)šta : tirá(i)šna : tirá(i)šak) ❖ B √ptrz-, √ptr²yz : M √ptršt- /√p³tr∋ž-,
        √p³trė́ž : √p³trəšt-/
        < *pati-radzia-, *pati-rādzaja-?; cf. Ave. raēš-, Khōt birata-
❖ s \sqrt{npt} B \sqrt{np(2)}t M \sqrt{npt} C \sqrt{npt}, \sqrt{npd} \sqrt{ambat}; s M C \sqrt{npt} B \sqrt{np(2)}t C \sqrt{npt}
        < *ham-pata-, *aua-pata-; Khōr. ²npd-
                          to give
128. (190.)
tafár- (atafár: saráfta, tafórta: tafárna: tafárak) | tifár- (atifár: tiráfta, tifórta: tifárna: tifárak) 💠
        S B M \sqrt{\delta}\beta r- C \sqrt{\beta}br- /\sqrt{\beta}\beta \partial r-/
        < *f(x)βáră- < *fra-bára-; Khwār. hiβ°r- : h²βryd, Khōt. haur-, hor- : hoḍa-, Tumshuq.
        ror-: rorda-
                          to hold
129.
dōr- (adór: dórta: dórna: dórak) s B M νδ'r C νd'r: S νzyt-, νzyt- B νδryt-, νzyt- M
       jγt- c žγt- /√δār : √žəγd-/
        < *d\bar{a}ra- : drxta-; Bactr. λης- : λειγδο, δδειγ(α)δο, δδεαγδο, Khwār. δ²ry-, Oss. darыn,
        Pers. dāštán: dār-, Ide. *dher-
čak dor- (čak adór: čak dórta: čak dórna: čáki dórak), čágdor- (ačágdor: čágdorta: čágdorna:
        čágdōrak) ❖
         < Tjk. čak doštán
                          to squeeze
130.
yilíč- (ayilíč : yilíčta : yilíčna : yilíčak) ❖
čōų- (ačóų: čóųta: čóųna: čówak) ❖
        cf. TMast. čovidán, čoftán: čov-
                          to rub
131.
mūll- (amúll: múllta: múllna: múllak) �
        < Pers. mālīđán: māl-??
```

```
to wash
132.
s^{i}nốy- (as^{i}nốy: s^{i}nốyta: s^{i}nốyna: s^{i}nốyak) \diamond B \forall sn^{2}(2)\gamma- M C \forall sn^{2}\gamma-: B \forall sn^{2}? \forall s- \forall 
                     < *snāja-: *snāta-; Ave. snaiia-, Khōt. haysnā-, Khwār. snādak 'washed', Oss. æxsnыn :
                     exsnad | exsnun; Yazgh. Yidgh. Ishk. zənay-, Rosh. zenay-, Munj. wūzn-, Ved. snā-
                                                                    to wipe
133.
rant- (aránt : ránta : rán(t)na : rántak) �
                     Oss. rændыn: rænsd-, Balōch. randag
                                                                    to pull
134.
xaš- (axáš: xášta: xášaa: xášak) ❖ B √yrš-, √ynš- M √xrš-, √xnš-, √xš- /√x>š-, √xąš-/
                     < *kṛša-; Ave. karš-, Khwār. xš-, Oss. xæssыn, Yazgh. xəráx- : xaráxt-, kəxán- : kəxánt-,
                     Ishk. xaš-: xašt-, kreš-, Wakh. xāš-: xāšt-, Munj. xaš-: xišk-, Pasht. kžəl: xkī-, Pers.
                     kašīđán: kaš-; Ved. kársati
135.
                                                                    to push
šikėl(1)- (ašikėl(1): šikėl(1)ta: šikėl(1)na: šikėl(1)lak) ❖
čumf- (ačúmf: čúmfta: čúmfna: čúmfak) 🌣 B Bstywnp C fstxwmp /fstxúmb/
                     cf. Khwār. xwmb-
136.
                                                                    to throw
 ♦ B √²βs²yp /√³fsēp/
                     cf. Ave. aēvi-sipa-
                                                                    to tie
137.
vant- (avánt : vásta : vánna : vántak) ❖ Μ √β(y)nd : √β(y)st- /√βɨmɨd : √βɨst-/
                     < *bánda- : *básta-(ka-), Khwār. βncy-, Khōt. ban- : bast-, Oss. bættып : bast, Yazgh.
                     vand-: våst-, Rosh. vind-: vost-, Wakh. vand-: vast-, Yidgh. vad-: vast-, Ishk. vond-:
                     vůst-, Pers. bastán: band-, Kurd. bastin, Baloch. bandag
138.
                                                                    to sew
šīy- I (ašíy: šíta: šíyna: šíyak) ❖ M C √šwm /√šūm/
                     Munj. žīy-, Ved. syūtá- 'sewn'; Lit. siúti, OCS. šiti
živ- (ažív: žívta: žívna: žívak) s √zyβ- B √zyβ-, √zyβ- M √jβ- /√žiβ-/ 'to chew'
                     < *žíba-
139.
                                                                    to count
hisőb kun- (hisőbi kárak) ❖
                       < Pers. hisáb kardán; Pers. hisáb < Ar. HSB hisáb, BukhAr. hisáb 'count'
 ❖ AL √ptšmr S B M √ptšm²r C √pcmr /√p³tšmār/
                      < *pati-šmāra-; cf. Pers. šumārá 'number'
                                                                    to say / to speak
\overline{\text{wo}}(v) - (a\overline{\text{wo}}(v) : \overline{\text{wo}}(v)\text{ta} : \overline{\text{wo}}(v)\text{na} : \overline{\text{wo}}(v)\text{ak}) \Leftrightarrow S B M \sqrt{w^2\beta} C \sqrt{w^2b} / \sqrt{\overline{\text{wa}}\beta}/
                      < *uāb/f-; Ave. uf- 'to sing', Pasht. wayəl: wāy-
gap deh- (gápi díhak) 💠
                     < Tjk. gap zadán; Shugh. gāp di(y)-
```

```
to sing
141.
žōy- (ažốy : žốyta : žốy<br/>na : žốyak) � Μ \sqrt{j}γ C \sqrt{z}γ /\sqrt{z}ay/
        < *jāi-; Wakh. joy-: joyd, Munj. žōy-, Ide. *gēi-; cf. Ave. gā$a- 'song, Gāthā', Ved. gāyati
        'he sings'
                            to play
I42.
bōzī́ kun- (bōzī́i kárak) ❖
        < Pers. bāzī kardán, cf. Pers. bāxtán: bāz-
                            to float
143.
                            to flow
I44.
                            to freeze
145.
šīy- II (ašíy: šóta: šíyna: šíyak) ❖
         Oss. siyыn, Yazgh. šay-: šed, Shugh. Baj. xici(y)-: xicōd, Rōsh. Khūf. xicay-: xicūd, Bart.
        xicī-: xicōd, Rāshrv. xicay-: xicōd, Sarīq. xысey-: xысиd, Ishk. štiw-: štud; cf. Sarīq. iš
        'cold'
ősir- (awósir : ósirta, ósorta : ósirna : ósirak) ❖
        < Ir. *āsria-; Ave. sarəta-, Oss. D sælun : sald, Wakh. wasér- : wasért, Tjk. Wanj siridán,
        Pahl. <sup>2</sup>ps<sup>2</sup>r-; Parth sald; cf. Sogd. м (р)syr<sup>2</sup> mndyy, 'freezing'; cf. Wakh. sьīr 'cold'
146.
                            to swell
\bullet C \forall t \exists m-, \forall f \Rightarrow \exists m-/
        < *fra-dmā-
(184.)
                            to be hungry
daváz ∥ d¹váz vī- (davázi ∥ d¹vázi vīvak) ❖
        Yagh. daváz | diváz 'hunger', Sogd. s Β (?)δβz-γ c dbz-γ /3δβəzí/, Chót. debīśa, Pašt. lwóğa,
```

Parth. 2dbz (186.)to be thirsty

tašná vī- (tašnáj vívak) � < Tik. tašná būdán

III.9. Celestial objects

147. (41.) sun

 $x\bar{u}$ r (arch. x^2 ar) \Rightarrow B $\gamma w(y)r$ M $xw(^2)r$ C xwyr / $x\bar{u}\bar{e}$ r, $x\bar{o}$ r, $x^2\bar{o}$ ar/

< *huária-; Ave. hūrō-, Khwār. ²xyr, xr, Oss. xur || xor, Yazgh. xəwúr, xůr, Wakh. (y)īr, Shugh. xīr, Rōsh. xor, Bart. xōr, Sarīq. xer, Ved. suvár-, sūrya-; cf. Pers. xvar[šēd] > $x^{\nu}ur[\check{s}\check{e}\check{d}]$, Tjk. $x^{\nu}ur[\check{s}\check{e}\check{d}]$, Pahl. $x^{\nu}ar[\check{s}\bar{e}t]$, Ave. huuare-x $\check{s}aeta$ -; Scyth. Ko $\lambda \acute{a}[\check{\xi} \alpha \ddot{\imath} \varsigma]$; Ide.

*s(u)uél-, *sūl-, Gre. hnos, Lat. sōl, Lit. sáulė, OCS. slonbce

ōftốb, aftốb ❖

< Pers. ăftáb, TMast. aftób, TVarz. aftów, oftów, Hazar. aftéw, oftéw, Kurd. extaw, cf. Skt. ābbā-tāpa-

148. (42.) moon

 $maht\delta b$, $m\delta ht\delta b \Leftrightarrow s B m^2 \gamma(h)$, $m^2 x M C m^2 x / max/$

< * $m\bar{a}h$ -; Ave. OPers. $m\bar{a}h$ -, Bactr. $\mu\alpha(\nu)\delta$ /m $\bar{a}(h)$ /, Khōt. $m\bar{a}st\ddot{a}$, Oss. $m\alpha\dot{e}i \parallel m\alpha\dot{e}y\alpha$, Shugh. $m\bar{\epsilon}st$, Rōsh. $m\bar{\epsilon}st$, Sarīq. most, Yazgh. mast, Wakh. $mb\bar{\iota}y$, Pasht. $my\bar{a}\dot{s}t$, Kurd. meh, Ved. $m\bar{a}s$ -; Pers. $m\bar{a}h[t\dot{a}b]$, TVarz. $moht\dot{\delta}b$, Hazār. $m\bar{\delta}t\dot{\epsilon}w$, $m\bar{\delta}t\dot{a}w$, BukhAr. $maht\bar{\delta}b$

149. (44.) star

sitóra * B (²)st²r²k M (²)st²ry, ²stry /istárĕ/

< *stāra-kă-; Khwār. (²)st²rўk /(ә)stāreg/, Khōt. stāraa-, stāray, Shugh. žitērz, Bajū. žitērz, žitērj, Khūf. Rōsh. žitērz, žiturj, Bart. Rāshrv. žitōrj, Sarīq. žыturj, žiturj, Yazgh. ž(ә)tarag, Ishk. strůk, Sangl. ust²rйk, Wakh. s(ә)tōr, Munj. stōréy, Yidgh. stárë, Pasht. stóray (f), Ōrm. starrak, Pers. sitārá, Parth. ²st²rg

bildíng(a) *

unknown origin, in Yaghnōbī this word is known only in dialect of village Qūl; cf. Wakh. piðing (perf.): piðic-, pidic- 'to glitter'

III.10. Nature (i)

150. (46.) water

ốp(a), ōu ❖ s ¬рh в ¬р(h) м ¬р с р вг ā-р /ấp(ӑ)/

< *ăpa-(ka-); Ave. āp- (nom. sg. āfs), Khwār. ½ /āb/, Bactr. αβ(β) м yβ /āb, āβ/, Khōt. $\bar{u}tc\bar{a}$ -, Oss. avg 'glass', Ishk. vek, Sangl. $v\bar{e}(k)$, Wakh. yupk, Munj. $y\acute{o}wγ\bar{a}$, Yidgh. yowγo, Pasht. $\bar{o}b\acute{a}$, Parāch. $\bar{a}w∂$, Ōrm. $w\bar{o}k$; Pers. $\bar{a}b$, Tjk. $\bar{o}b(\acute{a})$, TVarz. ow, TMast. TFalgh. ob, TYagh. ob, ow, Hazār. aw, Pahl. $\bar{a}p > \bar{a}β$, OPers. $\bar{a}p$ -, Kurd. aw, Balōch. āp; Ide. * h_2ep -; Ved. $\acute{a}pa$ -, ap-, Hit. $\dot{b}a$ -pa-a, $\dot{b}a$ -ap-pa 'to the river'; Eynu. ab; Gre. $^{\bigcirc}ωπ^{\bigcirc}$ (in geographical names); OIrl. aba, 'river', Irl. Gael. abhainn 'river', Welsh afon 'river'; Lith. $\dot{u}p\dot{e}$ 'river', cf. Cze. (substrate?) hydronyms Op[ava], $\dot{U}pa$

xōk 'spring' ❖ B γ²γh, M x²x /xāx/ 'spring'

< *xā́xa-, xā́ka- 'spring'; Ave. xāo, Khōt. xāha-, Yazgh. xex, Wanj. xik, 'water, spring', Shugh. Rōsh. x̄ac 'water'; Rāshrv. xāy 'brook', Wakh. kыk, Munj. xūga; Ōrm. xāko</p>

151. (45.) rain

bōren ❖ BMC w²r /war/

< *ūara-; Ave. $v\bar{a}ra$ -, Khwār. w^2r /wār/, Oss. $warыn \parallel warun$, Pers. $b\bar{a}r\bar{a}n$, TBuch. boron, Shugh. $b\bar{o}r\bar{u}n$, Ishk. boron, Munj. $b\bar{o}r\bar{o}n$, Kurd. barin, $bar\hat{i}$

152. (47.) river

dayrō, dar(¹)yō '(great) river, (sea)' ❖ M zry /zrē/ 'sea'

< *dzraja-; Ave. zraiia- 'sea', OPers. draya-, Pers. daryá(b) 'sea, (great river)'; Tjk. daryó '(great) river, sea', TMast. dajró, TVarz. dajró, daryó, Sarīq. daryú; cf. Kyrg. dariya, dayra, Kazakh. dariya, Uzb. daryå, Uygh. därya, Tatar. därya, Eynu. därya; cf. BukhAr. baḥar 'river' < Ar. BḤR baḥr</p>

```
na⁵r ❖
       < Ar. NHR nahr, Pers. nahr; BukhAr. nahr '(irrigation) channel'
rūd ❖
       < Pers. r\bar{o}d; cf. Yagh. r\bar{o}(w)ut 'ravine (arch.)', Sogd. B r^2w^2th /rāwat/, M rw(w)t \in rwt
       /rot/, TMast. rowűt, TYaghn. roud, Pers. (Luyát-i Furs) r²wd /rāv(a)d/ < Ir. *rāuati-, Ave.
       rauuan- 'valley', Khwār. r'wyn 'earth'; Oss. ran | ræwæn 'place'; cf. Kyrg. place-names
       Ravat, Raut
nōu 'dale' ❖ B n²wn /nāw³n/
       < nāua-; Shugh-Rosh. nāw, Sarīq. new, Yazgh. new
                        lake
153.
hauz, haud �
       < Ar. hawd; Pers. hauz, TVarz. hauz, TMast. hauz, haud, Shugh. awz, awz, Tr. havuz,
       Rus. κάμε, κούε, χόμε; cf. (etymologically /un/related?) Sogd. Β γ²wz²k, γ²wzyy, γ²w²zh
       /awaz(e)/ 'pool, lake'
\Rightarrow B ??wz?k, ??wzyy, ??w?zh/awaz(e)/
kūl 🌣
       < Uzb. kůl, Kyrg. köl, Tr. göl, Tü. *köl, Tjk. kūl, Bulg. гьол
ózira 🌣
       < Rus. о́зеро, OCS. jezero, jezero, Srb-Cro. jèzero, Lith. ẽžeras, Tjk. colloq. ozirá
154.
dayrō, dar(¹)yō '(great) river, (sea)' ❖ M zry /zrē/ 'sea'
       < *dzraia-; Ave. zraiia- 'sea', OPers. draya-, Pers. daryā 'sea'; Tjk. daryō '(great) river,
       sea', TMast. dairó, TVarz. dairó, daryó, Sarīq. daryú; cf. Kyrg. darïya, dayra, Kazakh.
       dariya, Uzb. darya, Uygh. därya, Tatar. därya, Eynu. därya
bahr 🌣
       < Ar. BHR bahr, Malt. bahar, Pers. bahr 'sea'; BukhAr. bahar 'river'
❖ S B sm²wtr M smwtr-y, swmtr C smwtr-y, swmdr /sumudr(i)/
       < Skt. samudra-
                        salt
155. (83.)
namák ❖ B nm³ðk(h) м nm²ðk /nəmaðk/
       < *namadkā-; Ave. nəmaðka-, Khwār. nmθk /namaθk/, Bactr. ναμιλγο /namilg/, Pasht.
       mālga, Pers. namák, Parth. nmydk
156. (52.)
                        stone
sank(a), sang ❖ B snk(?) M sng /sáṁg(š)/
       < *atánga-(ka-), Ave. asənga-, Khwār. snk /sang(a)/, Bactr. ασαγγο /asang/, Ishk. sůng;
       OPers. a3anga-, Pers. sang, Hazār. san(g), san(k); Eynu. san
157. (54.)
                        sand
rēg 🌣
       < Pers. rēg, Kurd. rîk, rêg, Pasht. rēg
```

```
158. (59.)
                         dust
xōk ❖
        < Pers. xāk
yubor ❖
        < Ar. ĠBR ġubấr, Pers. yubấr
čank, čang 🌣
        < Pers. čang, BukhAr. čang
gard 🌣
        < Pers. gard
❖ s ywrwm B ywrm(h) M xrwm, xwrm C xwrm /xwrúm/
        < *xruma-; Ave. paxruma-
                         earth
159.
y i r e k ❖ Β γ r γ k (²) M γ r y k / γ r e k (ă)/
        < *grája-ka-; Khwār. γr²k, Khōt. grika-, gruikyā-, Oss. ælыg || ærγæ, Munj. γərəy, Yazgh.
       xərik; cf. OCS. glina, Eng. clay
xōk ❖
        < Pers. xāk
zōy 'field', zamín 'earth, land' ❖ s c z²y M z²y(y) /zāi/
        < *dzája-; Ave. zam-, Bactr. ζαμιγο, ζαμιιο, TMast. zoyák, TYagh. zoyók 'cultivated land'
       Pers. zamín, Hazār. zimí, Wakh. zəmin, Sarīq. zamín; Ide. *dheghō-m: *dheghm-, Chet.
       te-e-kán (tēkan), Tokh. A tkaṃ B kaṃ, Gre. χθών, Ved. kṣam-, Lat. humus, OCS. zemlja,
       Lit. žemės
(58.)
                         mud
lōy ❖
        < Pers. lāy
< Tik. zah
\Leftrightarrow s \gamma r^{\gamma} y / \gamma r \bar{\imath} /
        < *grija-; Khōt. grīha-, Gre. γλοιός
III.11. Weather
160. (48.)
                         cloud
abr 🌣
        < Pers. abr, TVarz. aur, Hazār. aúr, Shugh. bábri, Kurd. awr, Balōch. (b)aur, Ir. *abr(i)a-,
       Ave. aβra-, Khōt. ora- 'sky', Oss. arv 'sky', ævrag 'cloud', Pasht. ōrá, Ved. abbrā-
❖ c myy /mēy/
        < *māigá-; Ave. maēya-, Oss. miy ∥ meyæ, Pers. Pahl. mēy, Ved. meg¹á-
161.
                         fog
```

tūmán 🌣

< Tjk. tūmốn

162. (43.)

sky

ōs(")mōn ❖ B sm²nh M (²)sm²n C sm²n /±smān/

< *átsmān-; Ave. asman-, Khwār. y²sma /yā-(a)smã/ 'the heaven', Pers. āsmán, Fārs. colloq. āsemún, Tjk. colloq. osumún, osumón, TMast. ospún, TVarz. osmón, ospón; OPers. asman-, Pahl. āsmān, Kurd. esman; Ved. áśman-, Pruss. asman-, Eng. heaven; Qashq. åssimån, åsmån</p>

163. (51.) wind

 $\dot{\text{wot}}(a) \Leftrightarrow S B C w^2 t M w^2 t, w^2 \delta, w^2 \delta / wat/,$

< *μ̄āqta-(ka-); Ave. vāta- (trisyllabic), Bactr. οαδο /wād/, Oss. wad, Pers. bād, Kurd. ba; IIr. *Huahata- < Ide. *h₂ueh₁nto-, Lat. ventus

šamól 🌣

< Ar. ŠML šamāl 'northern wind', Pers. šamāl, Fārs. šemāl, dial. of Khorāsān šumol 'wind'; Tjk. šamāl, 'wind'; Uzb. šamāl 'wind', Kyrg. šamal 'wind', Kazakh. samal 'wind', Turkm. šāmāl 'wind'

164. snow

wáf(i)r, warf ❖ B *wβr-y* M *wfr-y* /wəfrí/

< *uáfra-; Ave. vafra-, Khwār. wfyrk, Khōt. borā-, Sangl. varf, Munj. váfră, Pasht. wāwra, Pers. barf, Kurd. vafr, befir, bafer, berf

165. ice

ēx, $\bar{i}x + s yxn(w) / y \Rightarrow xn(u) / y \Rightarrow x$

< *aixa-; Ave. aexa-, Khwār. yyx, Oss. $ix \parallel yex$, Yazgh. yax, Shugh. Rōsh. yax, Wakh. yix, Pers. yax; cf. Sogd. $yy\delta yn < *aixa-dana$ - 'glacier', Khwār. /exmenza/ 'icy (f)'

(49.) lightning

tunturák 'thunder, thunder and lightning' B twntr /túndər/ 'thunder'

Pers. tuntúr, tunturák, Tjk. tundár, tundúr, dial. Shaydan tündűr

ōtašák 'lightning' ❖

< Tjk. ōtašák, TMast. otašák < Pers. ātáš 'fire', Fārs. ātéš

barq 'lightning' *

< Ar. BRQ barq; Pers. barq

rāşd(ák) 'thunder' ❖

< Ar. RSD rasd, Pers. rasd

(50.) rainbow

kamēn-i Ḥasán-at Ḥusáin, kamēn-i Ḥasán-u Ḥusáin �

< Pers. kamán-i Hasán-u Husáin 'Hasan and Hussein's bow'

III.12. Fire

```
166. (56.)
                            smoke
pazd || pa(i)st \diamond s pzt-/pəzd-á/
        < *pázda(ia)-, Ave. pazdaiia-; Oss. 1 fæzdæg; Hung. füst
d<del>u</del>id ❖
        < Pers. dūd, TMast. düd, did, TFalgh. dūd, TYagh. düd, Sarīq. δωd, Ir. *dūta-, Parāch.
        d^b \bar{\imath}
                            fire
167. (55.)
ol ❖ S B M ??t(?)r(h), ?(?)š, ?rt ∈ ?tr /atar, aš/
        < *\bar{a}\Im r-, *\bar{a}tr\check{s}; Ave. \bar{a}tar-, \bar{a}\Im r-, Khwār. ^2(t)rw, Bactr. \alpha\Im(\mathfrak{o}) ko /\bar{a}\Im(\mathfrak{u})\check{s}/, \alpha\tau\alphaeo /\bar{a}tar/, Oss.
        art, Shugh. Bartang. yōc, Rōsh. yůc, Sarīq. yuc, Yazgh. yec, Munj. yūr, Yidgh. yūr, Pasht.
        ōr, Parāch. âr, Pers. ābár, ābúr, ātíš, Tjk. ōl(ōw), ōzár, ōtáš, AfghP. āl, āzár, ātéš, Fārs.
        azár, atéš, Pahl. twr /asur/, Kurd. ar; Eynu. atäš
\bar{o}l\bar{o}u, al\bar{o}u & B ^{2}r^{2}\beta /\bar{a}l\bar{a}\beta/ 'flame'
        < Tü. *ałāw < *yałay, *yaław; Uzb. åłåu, Tr. alev; Pers. āláv, āláu, Tjk. alóu, ōláu, ōlóu,
        aláu, TVarz. TYaghn. alóu, TMast. alób, Shugh. alōw,
168. (57.)
                            ash
xōkistár 🌣
        < Pers. xākistár, Yazgh. xəkistůr
d<del>u</del>ida ❖
         < Pers. dūdá
šaş mák 🌣
        cf. Ar. ŠMS šam sat 'candle', Pers. šam', TMast. BukhAr. šaş m
169. (191.)
                            to burn
sūč- (asūč: sūčta, sūšta: sūčna: sūčak) ❖ S B C √swc: S B √swyt- C √swyt- /√sōč: √suyd-/
         < кацčа-; Ave. saoča-, Khōt. sūtc-, Oss. I suzыn : soyd, Pers. sōxtán : sōz-
suxs- (asúxs : súxta : súxsna : súxsak) ❖ B M √swys- /√suxs-/
        cf. Khōt. vasus-: vasut; Pers. sōxtán: sōz-
(29.)
                            firewood
źz(i)m ❖ B zmy /zmĕ/ B č ²zm-y /ɨzmí/
        < *áizma-(ka-), Ave. aēsma-, Khwār. ²zm, Munj. ízmō, Pers. hēzúm, TMast. (h)ezúm,
        (h)ezím, TYagh. ezím, TVarz. ezúm, Gīlānī hīzəm, Ved. idhmá-
```

III.13. Settlement

170. (53.) road / path
rōs / rōt ❖ B S r³(h) M r³(δ)(h) C r²∋ /rā∋/

 $< r\bar{a}\Im a$ -, $r\bar{a}\Im i$ -; Ave. $ra^i\Im \bar{\imath}m$ (acc.), Pasht. $l\bar{a}r < {}^*r\bar{a}l$, dial. $ly\bar{a}r < {}^*r\bar{a}\Im i$ -; Ōrm. $r\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$, Pers. $r\bar{a}h$, $r\bar{a}s$, TMast. ra, TVarz. ro(h), ra(h), Pahl. $r\bar{a}s$, Kurd. $r\hat{e}$, Balōch. $r\bar{a}(h)$; Ved. $rat^hy\bar{a}$ -, Armen. $\dot{r}ah$

(25.) village

 $m\bar{\epsilon}n \parallel main \Leftrightarrow B \bowtie \delta m^2(?)n / \delta m\bar{\epsilon}n / \text{'house, dwelling'}$

< *dmān(i)a- 'house, dwelling'; Ave. d²māna-, d²mana-, nmāna-; nmāniia- 'belonging to house', Bactr. μανο /mān/, Pasht. mēna 'house, fatherland', Pers. mān, Pahl. mān; Ved. māna-; cf. Gre. δόμος, Lat. domus, OCS. domō, Lith. nāmas

qišloq 🌣

Uzb. qišłaq, Uygh. qišłaq, Kyrg. qišłaq, qištaq, qištō, Kazakh. qistaw, Tatar. qışlaq, Turkm. ğišłay, Azərb. qışlaq, dial. qışlax, Qashq. qišłay, Turk. kışla(k), Ott. kišla(k) < Tü. *qiś-*łāy/*łāq = 'winter=place'; Hazār. qišlóq, Pers. qišláq, Munj. kəšlōk, Shugh. qišlōq deh & C dyx(?)w /ðexáu/

< *dahjāu-; Pers. dih, OPers. 'land, province, district'

(26.) house

kat ❖ B kt²y, kt²k M qt, qty(y), ktyy C qty /kətḗ/

< *káta-(ka-); Ave. kata-Bactr. καδ(α)γο /kad(a)g/, Yagh. kat, Shugh. čīd, Rōsh. Khūf. čod, Bart. čöd, Rāshrv. čūd, Sarīq. čed, Yazgh. kůd, Munj. kay, Yidgh. k³εi, Pasht. kôlaį 'village', Parth. Pahl. kdg; cf. Ide. Ide. *knta-: *kan- 'to dig'</p>

xēn 'summer pasture' ❖ B $\gamma^2 n$ M $x^2 n$ /xān/

< *xána-; Bactr. χανο /xān/, Wakh. xun, Ishk. xon, Sangl. xān, Parth. x^2n ; cf. TMast. $d\bar{u}x\bar{u}n\dot{a}$ 'summer pasture'

 $x \in n a$ 'room' \Leftrightarrow S B $\gamma^2 n^2 k(b) \text{ M } x^2 n^2 / x \in (\bar{a}) / \bar{a}$

< *xána-ka-; Pers. xāná, TMast. xūná, TYagh. xúná, Kurd. xanî; Uzb. xånà, Uygh. xanä, Kyrg. qana, Ott. bāne, Tr. hane, Tatar. xanä, Eynu. xani</p>

mēn ∥ main 'village' ❖ B M δm²(²)n /δmān/

< *dmān(i)a-; Ave. d²māna-, d³mąna-, nmāna-; nmāniia- 'belonging to house', Bactr. μανο /mān/, Pasht. mḗna 'house, fatherland', Pers. mān, Pahl. mān; Ved. mḗna-; cf. Gre. δόμος, Lat. domus, OCS. domъ, Lith. nāmas

(27.) roof

kūs(ar) 🌣

bōm ❖

< Pers. bām

šamp 🌣

< *skamb-; cf. *upa-skamb- 'to attach' *fra-skamb- 'to attach, to build'; Khōt. skam- 'to lift up', Munj. škōb-: škabəy- 'to rise', Pasht. āčawə́l 'to overthrow'

(28.) door

davár || dⁱvár ❖ Β Μ δβ*r-*γ C dbr-γ /δβərí/

< duár(a)-; Ave. duuara-, Khwār. δβỹr-, Khōt. vara-, Oss. I dwar, Wakh. bār, Pasht. war, Munj. luwår, Pers. dar, Pahl. dar, OPers. duvar-, Kurd. derî, Ir. *duar-; Ved. dvār-, Armen. durn, OCS. dvъrь, Cze. dveře 'door', dvůr '(court)yard', Lit. dùrys, Goth. daur, Ger. Tür, Tor, Gre. Ξνρα, OIrl. σορ

```
III.14. Tools
(30.)
                         broom
rūpč 🌣
        < *ra-upa-čī-, Yazgh. rəbág, Wakh. drepč, Pasht. rēbəz; cf. Tjk. jōrūb < jōy + ruftán : rūb-
(31.)
                         butter churn
kuppī 🌣
        < Tjk. guppí, TMast. küp(p)í, kip(p)í, TFalgh. kuppí
túyla 🌣
       cf. TYaghn. tulyá
(32.)
                         pestle
puškák 🌣
       cf. TMast. püškák
(33.)
                         hammer
bốlyá 🌣
        < Tjk. bōlyá
                         knife
(34.)
kōrt, kōrd ❖ B krt(h) /kart/
        < *karta-; Ave. karəta-, Khwar. krc /karz-/, Oss. 1 kard, Wakh. kəž, Yidgh. kero, Munj.
       kéra, Pasht. čāṛō, Pers. kārd; Eynu. kard; Cze. kord 'epée', Hung. kard 'epée'
(35.)
                         axe
tabár 💠
        < Pers. tabár, TVarz. tavár, Hazār. tawár, tabár, Pahl. tabrak; cf. Rus. monóρ, Cze. toporo
       'helve, haft', Ar. tabar
tī́ša, tēšá 'adze' ❖ s B tš /taš/
        < *taša-, Ave. taša-, Tjk. tēšá 'adze'
(37.)
                         thread
pūd ❖
        < Tjk. pūd
tōr 🌣
        < Tjk. tōr(á)
(38.)
                         needle
sinčin 🌣
        < *sinčn < *tsínčana-; cf. Oss. suzin || sozīnæ, Ishk. šьtun, štьn, Munj. šīžna, Yidgh. šīnjo,
        Wan. sunzən, sənjən, Pasht. stən, Kurd. suzîn, şûjin, Pers. sōzán, Hazār. sizū, Pahl. sōzan
(39.)
                         cloth
```

lát(t)a ❖

(40.)

< Pers. lattá

ring

angušták, anguštarín, anguš(t)pena ❖
< Tjk. angušták, anguštarín, anguštþōná

III.15. Nature (ii)

171. mountain

yâr 'mountain, mountain pass' ❖ B M γr-y /γərí/

< *gári-; Ave. ga¹ri-, Bactr. γειξο, γαξο /γῖr, γar/, Khōt. ggara-, ggari-, Shugh. Rāshrv. žīr 'stone', Rōsh. Bart. žēr 'stone', Khūf. žær 'stone', Sarīq. žer 'stone', Wakh. γ̃ar 'stone', Munj. γār 'pass', Yidgh. γar 'stone, mountain', Pasht. γar, Ōrm. grī, Parāch. gir, Pahl. γar, Ved. girí-, OCS. gora, Ide. *guorh-; Alb. gur 'rock'; Gre. βοξέας 'northwind (< *mountain wind; MALLORY – ADAMS 2006, 121)'; Lith. girià 'forest' cf. Burūshaskī γοτο 'stone'</p>

kūb ❖

< Pers. kōh, TMast. kü, TVarz. kuh, Pahl. kwf/kōf/, OPers. kaufa-, Ave. kaofa-, Munj. kifa, Wanj. kub, kup, Ir. *kaufa-; Eynu. kox

(60.) gold

tillób ❖

< Ar., Pers. *tillá*

zar (occ.) ❖ S M C zyrn /zern/

< *dzárania-; Ave. zaraniia-, Khwār. zrny /zirnī/, Bactr. ζαξο /zar/, Pers. zarr, Pahl. zarēn, OPers. daraniya-; Ved. bíraṇya-, Ide. *ĝʰlenio-; cf. Gre. δαξεικός [στατής] 'daric – gold coin introduced by Darius I.', Sogd. s δ²ryk /ðárīk/ 'gold coin' < OPers.

III.16. Colours

172. (150.) red

kimér, kamér (arch.) 🌣 B krm(?)yr, kyrmyr M qrmyr C qyrmyr /kirmér/

Pahl. karmīr, Armen. karmir; cf. ByzGre. Κερμι[χίωνες]; cf. Ar. QRMZ qirmiz, Fārs. qerméz, Tr. kırmız

surx 🌣

< Pers. surx, Pahl. suxr, TMast. sürx, OPers. θuxra-, Kurd. sor, Balōch. suhr, sōhr; Ir. *suxra-; Ave. suxra-, Bactr. σορχ^O /surx/, Khōt. surai, Oss. sыrx || surx, Wakh. səkr, Ishk. sərx, Munj. sərx, surx, Yidgh. surx, Pasht. sūr, srə, Parāch. súrku, Ōrm. šuš, Ved. śukrá-

173. green

zaryúna (arch.) s zrywn'k M zrywnyy /záryōnĕ/ cf. Sogd. B zrywn /zaryōn/ 'plant, vegetable'

²⁶⁸ See also Slovak *bora* 'mountain // forest // mountain covered with forest'.

sabz, sauz 🌣

Pers. sabz, TVarz. sauz, Hazār. sauz, Shugh. sāvz, Ir. *tapačia-

kaptt(a) || kuptt(a) (arch.), kabttt 'green, blue' ❖ B kpwt(k) /kəpot(ē)/ 'blue, green'

< *kapauta-ka- 'blue'; Pers. kabúd, TMast. kəbúd, Pahl. kabōt; Armen. kapoit

174. yellow

zérta (arch.), zard * Sogd. B zyrt(²)k M zyrtyh /zéřtě/

< *dzárita-ka-; Ave. za¹rita-; Yazgh. Wakh. zărt, Shugh. Rōsh. zĭrd, Ishk. zord, Munj. Yidgh. zīt, Parāch. zītŏ, Pers. zard, Kurd. zer; Hung. zöld

175. (148.) white

sipéta (arch.), saféd, sapéd || sipéd � B 'sp'yt('k), 'sp(')ytk, (')sp'ytk, (')sp'yty C spyty /ispét(ĕ)/

*tuáita-(ka-); Ave. spaēta-, Khwār. spydyk, Khōt. śśīta-, śśīya-, Munj. spī, safid, Pers. sipéd, ispéd, saféd, Tjk. saféd, sapéd, TMast. səféd, Fārs. sefid, Hazār. safít, Shugh. safēd, Ishk. safed, Yazgh. səpid, Kurd. spî, Ved. śvetá-, OEng. hwīt, Gót. hveit-s, OCS. světъ 'light'

176. (149.) black

šōu (arch.), $s^i y \tilde{o}^h$, $s^i y \hat{a}^h \Leftrightarrow Sogd. s B M <math>\check{s}^2 w \subset \check{s} w / \check{s} \bar{a} u / \check{a} u / \check{a$

< *tiāua-, Ave. siiāuua-, Sarm. Σαυ[ξομάτοι], Khwār. s²w /sāw/, Oss. saw, Ishk. šu, su, Wakh. šыw, Pers. siyáh, Hazār. siyá, siyó; Tr. siyah, Cr. Tatar. siya

mazáng 🌣

cf. *Malang[áb/u]* in Sarghulām (i.e. 'Black water', the second part is probably Persian as 'water' is *woliké* or *wolikí* in Sarghulāmī, but it is uncertain whether **malang* is a Sarghulāmī word or if the element really means 'black')

III.17. Time

177. (118.) night

xišáp; šab, šau ❖ s Β ²γšp-h M ²xšp-²(h), xšp-² C xšp-²/³xšəpá/

< *xšapā-; Ave. xšapā-, Khwār. ²xÿb, xb, Khōt. ṣṣavā-, kṣap-, Oss. I æxsæv, Shugh. x̄āb, Rōsh. x̄ab, Sarīq. x̄ob, Yazgh. x̄əb, Ishk. ṣ̄ab, Yidgh. xšovo, Munj. xšawå, Pasht. x̄ab, Pers. ṣ̄ab, TVarz. ṣ̄au, Pahl. ṣ̄ap > ṣ̄aβ, Kurd. ṣev; Ved. kṣapā-; Eynu. ṣ̄āb

178. (117.) day

 $m\bar{e}_{\bar{s}} / m\bar{e}_{\bar{t}} + Sogd. s my\delta B m(2)y\delta M my\delta, my(y)\delta\delta C my\beta, my\beta, myd/m\bar{e}\beta/$

< * $m\acute{a}$ ı́¬ \ddot{a} -; Ave. $ma\bar{e}$ ¬ \ddot{a} - 'unstable, changing (with night)', Khwār. my¬¬ /m第, Yazgh. mi¬¬, Shugh. $m\bar{e}$ ¬¬, Rōsh. Khūf. Bart. Rāshrv. $m\bar{\imath}$ ¬¬, Sarīq. ma¬¬, Ishk. may, Sangl. $m\bar{e}\dot{\imath}$, Zēbāk. $m\bar{\imath}$, Munj. Yidgh. $m\bar{\imath}$ ×́

nur '(day)light, day' ❖ B C S nwr /nur/

< *nūra- '(day)light, day', Ave. nūrəm, Khwār. nwr /nūr/, Pers. nūr, TMast. nir 'light'; BukhAr. nūr 'day'

```
rūz ❖ S M rwc /rōč/
        < *rauča-; Bactr. eωσο /roc/, Pasht. rwaz, colloq. wraz, Pers. roz, Hazar. rūz, Pahl. roz,
        Kurd. roj, Shugh. rūz
(119.)
                          morning
firenta || firek  s \beta r^2(r)k B \beta r^2(r)k M fr^2k C fr^2q /frak/
        < *frāka-; Oss. rag, Wakh. vərōk; cf. Ved. prā(ñ)k- 'in front', Welsh rhag 'in front', Corn.
        rag 'in front', Bret. rak 'in front'
sahár 🌣
        < Ar. SHR sahar, Pers. saḥár, TMast. səḥár, səhár, Wakh. sahār
čōštagá¹(i) ❖
         Tjk. čōštgōh, čōštgōhī
pagō¹, pagōhī ❖
        < Tjk. pagōh, pagōhī, TMast. pəgá, Ave. upa-gāβ-
bōm 'morning, dawn; time of the first morning prayer' ❖ c b²m /βām/ 'morning, dawn'
        cf. Pers. bām
❖ B wy²ws M wyws /wyūs/
        Ave. viiusa-

❖ c ²wc²q /ōčák/
        Ave. v\bar{\imath}tara, vi\check{c}ak < uit(a)r\bar{a}k-
(120.)
                          noon
n\bar{\imath}mr\bar{\imath}uz, n\bar{\imath}mr\bar{\imath}uz\bar{\imath} \Leftrightarrow s nymy\delta(h) M nymy\delta / n\acute{e}m(m)\bar{e}\Im/
        < *naima-máisā-, *naima-rauča- 'midday'; Pers. nīmrōz, nīmrōzī
yarnám 🌣
        Pasht. yarmá < Ir. *garma- 'warm'
pēšīn 🌣
        < Tjk. pēšīn
$ s rypδβ-/repθβά/
        < *rápiββā
(121.)
                          evening / afternoon
viyốra ❖ s βy²r²k μ βy²ryy /βyā́rĕ/
         < *abi-aiāra-ka-, Khwār. biyāri < *apa-aiāra-; Yazgh. biyir, Shugh. Rōsh. biyōr; Parāch.
        wyār
bēgō¹ ❖ večer
        < Tik. bēgōh
xišom 'diner', šōm 'evening, afternoon' ❖ M C xš²m /xšām/
        < *xšáfnia-; Ave. xšafnaiia-; Shugh. xãm, Yidgh. xšēma- 'diner', Pasht. šúma; Parth. š²m,
        Pahl. xšām, Pers. šām; Tatar. axşam 'evening prayer', Georgian vaxšami
(122.)
                          yesterday
```

```
piyến ❖ s py >>n >kh /pyấnā/
```

< *apa-aiā-na-(ka-); cf. Pasht. parún, Waṇ. párun(d), párən(d), Sangl. pāruzd < *para-adzna-/adzni-</p>

(123.) today

ín(n)ūr / ídnūr ❖

< Yagh. īt / īd nūr 'this day'; cf. Shugh. nūr

(124.) tomorrow

frénta | frók s βr²(²)k β βr²(²)k Μ fr²k c fr²q /frāk/

< * $fr\bar{a}ka$ -; Wakh. $v \ni r\bar{o}k$; cf. Ved. $pr\bar{a}(\tilde{n})k$ - 'in front', Welsh rhag 'in front', Corn. rag 'in front', Bret. rak 'in front'

pagō¹, pagōhī ❖

< Tjk. pagóh, pagōhí, TMast. pəgá, Ave. upa-gāβ-

(125.) week

háftá ❖ Β ²βt(²)myδ M ²βt²myδ /əβdəmḗθ/

< haftą-mái̞βā-; Ir. *haftą-ka- > Pers. haftá > Shugh. aftā, Tr. hafta, Kazakh. apta; cf. Gre. ἐβομάζ, MGre. εβομάζα, Fr. semaine

(126.) month

 $m\bar{o}^b$, ma^b ; $m\bar{o}x$ (arch.) \Leftrightarrow S B $m^2\gamma(b)$, $m^2x M C m^2x / m\bar{a}x / m\bar$

< * $m\bar{a}h$ -; Ave. OPers. $m\bar{a}h$ -, Bactr. $\mu\alpha(\nu)\delta$ /mā(h)/, Khōt. $m\bar{a}st\ddot{a}$, Oss. $m\varkappa\dot{\mu}\parallel m\varkappa\nu\varkappa$, Shugh. $m\bar{\epsilon}st$, Rōsh. $m\bar{\epsilon}st$, Sarīq. most, Yazgh. mast, Pasht. $my\bar{a}st$, Wakh. $m\omega\dot{\nu}$, Pers. $m\ddot{a}h$, TVarz. mo(h), ma(h), Kurd. meh, Ved. $m\bar{a}s$ -

179. (127.) year

sōl ❖ S B srð-y M srð(ð)-y C srd-y /serðí/

yośo (arch.) �

< *ātaka-; Oss. az ∥ anz

III.18. Adjectives (ii)

180. (136.) hot

yarm ❖ B M yrm /yarm/

< *garma-; Ave. garəma-, Khwār. γrm, Khōt. grāma-, Oss. qarm $\|$ γarm, Ishk. γorm, Sangl. γōrm, Pers. garm, Munj. gərm, Shugh. gārm, Ishk. garm, Kurd. germ, Balōch. garm(ag), Skt. gʰarma-, Gre. Θερμός, Lat. formus, Eng. warm, Ger. warm, Cze. žár; Urd. garm

181. (137.) cold

sōrt ❖ B srt /sart/

< *tarta-; Ave. sarəta-, Khōt. sāḍa-, Wakh. sωr, Pasht. sōṛ (f. saṛa), Ōrm. sāla, Pers. sard,

```
Pahl. sart, Baloch. sart, sard, Kurd. sar, Goth. kalds, Eng. cold, Ger. kalt, Rus. хо́лод, Сze.
        chlad, Lit. šáltas; Urd. sard
                          full
182.
pun(n), púnna ❖ Sogd. pwrn-y c pwn-y /pu<sup>r</sup>ní/, z pwn /pun(n)/
        < *pṛ́na-(ka-); Ave. pərəna-, Bactr. πορρι /purr/, Khōt. purra-, Pasht. pur, Pers. Kurd.
        Balōch. pur, Ved. pūrņá-, OCS. plъnъ, Rus. по́лный, по́лон, Cze. pln(ý), Lit. pìlnas, Gót.
        fulls, Ger. voll, Eng. full; cf. Lat. plēnus
183. (129.)
                          new
náwa ❖ B nw²kw M nwyy /nəwḗ/
        < *náua-ka-; Khwār. nw²k /nawāg/, nwÿk, Bactr. νογο, ναγο /nug, nag/, Oss. nog (arch.
        næwæg) | næwæg, Ishk. nuwůk, Sangl. nuwōk, Shugh. naw, Yidgh. nowoyo, Pasht. nówai (f.
        nówē), Parth nawāg, Pers. nau
184. (128.)
                          old
pīr 'old (of age)' ❖
         Pers. pīr, Bactr. πιρο /pir/, Ir. *parya-; Ave. parō 'previous'; BukhAr. pīr
kú⁵ná 'old (inanimate)' ❖
        < Pers. kuhná, kuhán, Tjk. kůhná, kuhán, TMast. küná, Pahl. kahwan, Uzb. kůhná, kühná,
        Kazakh. könė, Tr. köhne, Qashq. köhna, kohna
gadīm(á) 🌣
        < Ar. QDM qadīm(at), BukhAr. kadīm, Malt. qadim, Pers. qadīm, qadīmá, Wakh.
        gadim
❖ M wtcny(y), wcny C ²wcny / üitčně > ốtčně/
        < *ui-tačina-ka-
185. (130.)
                         good
xūb ❖ B S ywp M C xwp /xūp/
        < Ir. *hu-apa-, *huapa-; Khwār. xwb /xūb/, Bactr. χοθο /xūb/, Pers. xūb, Fārs. collog. xob,
        Skt. svapa-s, Uzb. xůb, xůp
nayz ❖ Sogd. B nyz-y /nəyzi/
        > Pers. nayz, TMast. naxs
186. (131.)
                          bad
gánda \diamond s \gamma nt^2 k(^2), \gamma nt^2 kk B \gamma nt^2(^2)k(^2), \gamma nt^2 kk M \gamma nd^2 k C \gamma n\underline{t}^2 q /\gammaámdāk(\overline{a})/
        < *gand-āka-; Tjk. gandá, Ishk. ganda; Parth. gnd'g /gandag/ 'stinking', Baloch. gandag;
        Ved. gandhá- 'smell'; Uzb. ganda, BukhAr. ganda
• s \beta(y)z-y, \beta(y)z-y, M \beta(y)j-y, \beta(j-y)/\beta(z)i < \beta(z)i/\beta
        < *béži < *bázdia-; Pers. faž, βaž < Sogd.
187.
                          rotten
pū́ta ❖ c pwtky /pū́təkẽ/
```

< *pūta-ka-(ka-); Ave. pūti-

dirty

188.

```
yažd 🌣
        cf. TMast yažd
čirkín 🌣
       < Pers. čirk(i̇́n), Shugh. čirkin
❖ B rym(nyk) M rym, rymny(y) C rym /rḗm(nē)/
       Parth. Pahl. rēm
❖ s ??ywst B ??ywstk /āy™əst(ĕ)/
       Parth. 2gwd, 2gwst, Pahl. 2gwh-
                        straight
189.
razk, rōst ❖ B ršt(h) /rəšt/ 'right, true'
       < *reg-to-, Lat. rectus, Ger. Recht
       < * rāšta-; Ave. rāšta-, Khwār. ršt /rašt/, Khōt. rraṣṭa-, Pers. rāst, Hazār. rōs, Pahl.
       (Turfān) rāšt, OPers. rāsta-, Kurd. rast, Oss. rast; Uzb. råst, colloq. rås, Kyrg. ïras
C fršty /frašté/
       < *fərášta'i < *fra-rašta-ka-, cf. Sogd. B √fr'yz C √fryž : M √fršt- /√frēž : √fršt/ 'to straighten'
       < *fra-radzaja-: *fra-rašta-
♣ B przp²r /párzpār/
190.
                        round
lūnda 🌣
       < Tjk. lữndá
γila ❖
       cf. Yagh. yīl- 'to roll' < Tjk. yēlīdán : yēl-
kulūlá ❖
       < Pers. gulōlá, Tjk. kulūlá; TVarz. kulolá, Fars. golūlé 'round'
❖ B C ywrs /yurs/
       < *gar(t)tu-; cf. etymologically unrelated Ar. QRŞ qurş > Tjk. qurş(ák) > Yagh. qurs(ák)
❖ s ²skwrnkh /ɨskúṛnā/
       Ave. skarənā-
❖ B pryrs²y / páryərsē/
       < *pari-grts-aka-; cf. Ave. gərəsna-
                        sharp
tīr 'arrow' ❖ S B M try-y C try-y /tiryi/
       < *tigra-; Ave. tigra-, tiγra- 'sharp', tiγri- 'arrow', Khwār. čγr /ciγr/, Khōt. ttīra-, Oss.
       сыгу || ciry, Ishk. tiry, Munj. tərya, Pers. tīr 'arrow', OPers. tigra-
tēz ❖
       < Pers. tēz, Kurd. tûj
                        dull
192.
kunt & tupý
        Pers. kund, BukhAr. kund
```

```
smooth
193.
lḗxna ❖
hamwór 💠
        < Pers. hamvár, Shugh. amwör, anwör
fit 🌣
        < Tjk. fit
194. (132.)
                         wet
tan(n), tar ❖ B M S trn /tarn/
        < taurna-; Ave. taorna-, Khwār. trn /tarn/, Pers. tar
195. (133.)
gōg 🌣
        < Uzb. gåg, Kyrg. Tatar. gag, Tjk. Shugh. gōg
xušk ❖ B ²šk-w M (²)šk-w, škwy(y), šqwy(y) /iškú, iškəwḗ/
        < *huška-, *hišku-, *hiškuua-ka-; Ave. hišku-, Oss. x^wыsk'\parallel xusk', Pasht. wuč, Pers. xušk
196.
durúst ❖ správně
        < Pers. durúst
razk, rōst ❖ B ršt(h) /rəšt/
        < *redzuka-; Yazgh. razé, Sangl. rōsk, Munj. wurzug, Ide. *reg-to-, Lat. rectus, Ger. Recht
        < * rāšta-; Ave. rāšta-, Khwār. ršt /rašt/, Khōt. rraṣṭa-, Pers. rāst, Hazār. rōs, Pahl.
        (Turfān) rāšt, OPers. rāsta-, Kurd. rast, Oss. rast; Uzb. råst, colloq. rås, Kyrg. ïras
tūyrī 🌣
        < Uzb. tůyrï, Tr. doğru, Kypch. toyru, Kyrg. tūra, Kazakh. tura, Karakalp. tuwrï, Tjk.
        tuyri, TMast. tuyri, Hazar. tuyri
197. (140.)
                         near
nazdík ❖ AL nzt-w /nəzdú/
        < nazdĭiah-; Ave. nazda-, nazdiiah-, Bactr. νοδο /nuzd/, Sarīq. nizd, Pasht. nizdē, niždē,
       Pers. nazd(tk), TMast. naz(z)ik, Pahl. nazdīk, Kurd. nizûk, nêzîk, nazik, Balōch. nazīk,
        nazīx, nazī, Ved. nédīyas-
garīb 🌣
        Ar. QRB garīb, BukhAr. karīb, Pers. garīb, TMast. gəríb
♦ в β²w /βāw/
s nβ<sup>2</sup>nt B nβ<sup>2</sup>nt, nβ<sup>2</sup>ynth M nβnd C nbndy, nbnt(y), nbnt /nɨβáṁd(ĕ), nɨβéṁd/
198. (141.)
                         far
dūir ❖ S B δwr(h) M δwr C dwr /δūr/
        < *dūra-; Ave. dūra-, Khōt. dura-, Wakh. bir, Sarīq. bar, Pers. dūr, TMast. dür, dir,
        TFalgh. dir, Ved. dūrá-, Hind. dūr
```

199. (127.)

right

```
rázk(a), rōst ❖ B ršt(h) /rəštá/
        < *ŕdzuka-(ka); Yazgh. razģ, Sangl. rōsk, Munj. wurzug, Ide. *reĝ-to-, Lat. rectus, Ger.
       Recht
        < * rāšta-; Ave. rāšta-, Khwār. ršt /rašt/, Khōt. rraṣṭa-, Pers. rāst, Hazār. rōs, Pahl.
        (Turfan) rāšt, OPers. rāsta-, Kurd. rast, Oss. rast; Uzb. råst, collog. rås, Kyrg. ïras
❖ B wrzr-w, wyzr-w M C wyzr-w /wirzrú/
       Ave. vərəzra-
200. (139.)
                         left
čap(p)á, čap ❖
        Tjk. čap, Sarīq. čop, Kurd. çep, BukhAr. čappa
\bullet B C s^2pt(w) C s^2pt /sapt(u), sapt(u)
(175.)
                         whole
tamóm 💠
       Ar. TMM tamām, Pers. tamām
(178.)
                         broken
unxastagi ❖ s ²wxwsty B ²nywsty M xwsty C ²wxsty / ox°əstĕ, amx°əstĕ, x°əstḗ/
        < *(aua-/ham-)xuasta-ka-; cf. Pahl. xwastan; cf. Pers. suffix -gi, e.g. šikastagi 'broken' <
       šikastán: šikan- 'to break'
kalốt 🌣
        < Tjk. kalót, TMast. kĭlét, TVarz. kalét; Pers. (Luyát-i Furs) kl²t < Sogd. ???
vayrén 🌣
       Pers. vairán, TMast. verún, vairún, Hazar. bērū, Pahl. apērān, Ishk. veron; BukhAr.
       beirān, uairan
III.19. Adpositions
201.
                         at
-sa ❖ S B M -s²r C -s²(r) /-sār, -sā/)
        < *t\bar{a}r-; Khwār. -s^2r /-sār/, Pasht. -sara
ра- 🌣
       cf. Sogd. M \beta C b /\betaā/
par ❖ S B M C pr /pər/
        < *upari-; Ave. upari-, Khwār. (-)par, Pasht. pər, Pers. bar
❖ s kw B k²w M kw, qw C qw /kō/
       cf. OCS. kv
                         in
202.
číntír ❖ B c(y)ntr M c(y)ndr /čáṁdər, čɨṁdər/
        < *hačā-antar-; Wan. zdáre; cf. Pers. (an)dár, Tjk. dar, Fārs. där, TVarz. da(r), -da
-n<del>u</del>t ❖
```

(146.)above -sár(i), -sárai ❖ na, nad, u Oss. I -særы šī[○] (arch.) ❖ S M ²sk-(²) B ²sk-²(²) C ²sk-(²), sky /əska, ³ske/ Ave. uskát, Khwār. 3sk, Pasht. hask; cf. Yagh. Šīmēn 'upper village; upper part of village of Gharmēn in Yaghnōb' ❖ S B M C cwpr /čopar/ < *hačā-uparibelow (147.) -táki, -tági ❖ cf. Tjk. tag 'below' ❖ S c²∂r, c²(∂r)s²r B c²∂r(s²r) M c²∂r(p²r), c²(∂r)s²r C c²p²r, c²s²(r) /čáðər, čá(ðər)pār, čá(ðər)sār/ < *hačā-adariwith 203. -pi **❖** AL *py(š)* /pi(š)/ Khwār. py /pi/ kát(t)f, qát(t)f ❖ < Tjk. kátĭ, gátĭ, TMast. gətí, Shugh. gati

III.20. Conjunctions

< Ar. wa, BukhAr. Mait. u, Hebrew ve, Syriac u; Pers. va, Kurd. ve, Pasht. wa, Tr. ve, Azərb. və

205. if

kad 'when' ❖ Sogd. s B kð(') M kð C qd /kað, kəðá/ 'when, if

• s $pr^2(y)w$ B $pr^2(y)w$, pryw M pryw C prw Br prau /pər $\frac{\epsilon}{2}$ w

< *upari-ájua- 'at once'

Ave. kaδa-; Bactr. καδο /kad/, Oss. kæd, Pasht. kəla, Pers. kaj; Ved. kadá-

agá(r) ❖

< Pers. agár, poet. gar, Tjk. colloq. agá, TYagh. agá(r), Fārs. ägár colloq. äge, Hazār. agá;

OPers. hakaram 'once', Ave. hakərəṭ, Shugh. aga(r), Bart. agar, agi, Sarīq. agár; Uzb. agar, colloq. ayar, Chaghat. ägär, Tr. eğer, Qashq. ayar, agar, Turkm. eýer, Kyrg. eger, jižn. dial. äger, Tatar. ägär, Kypch. egär, BukhAr. agár, agál

206. because

nahīpiti báxša ∥ nihīpiti báxša ❖

< Yagh. nah- 'encl. particle of demonstratives' (Sogd. -nax: Β γωηγ, γωηγ Μ κωηω, hwηχ C 'wην η'χ /honax, xonax, ono-nax/) + ípti 'thus' + Tjk. baxš 'for', AfghP. báxč-e čúnki ❖</p>

< Pers. čún-ki < *či-gauna- + *káhiā-

- ❖ c c²nwt /čanūt/
- \bullet S B $p^2 rwty C p^2 rwty / páruti/$

III.21. Name

207. name

nēm ❖ S B M C n²m /nām/

< nāman-; Ave. nāman-, nāman-, Khwār. n²m /nām/, n²mÿk /nāmag : nāmég/, Bactr. ναμο /nām/, Khōt. Tumshuq. nāma-, Oss. nom || non, Pasht. nūm, Sarīq. num, Pers. nām, Pahl. nām, OPers. nāman-, Kurd. nav, Balōch. nām, Ide. *hȝnéhȝmen-, Ved. nāman-, Armen. anun, Gre. ὄνομα D ἐνυμα-, Lat. nōmen, Ger. Name, OCS. jьmę, OCze. jmě, Rus. úмя, OIrl. aɪnm(m), Irl. Gael. ainm, Bret. hañv, Welsh enw, Hitt. lāman-

Vocabulary of Yaghnōbī and Sogdian considerably differ – the difference is caused by several factors such as non-existent contact between both Sogdic dialects for approximately 1000 years, intensive contact of Yaghnōbī with Tajik (and to a lesser extent contact with Arabic and Turkic, presumably via Tajik) on one hand, on the other hand some Sogdian words show contact with Sanskrit (mainly Buddhist terminology), Aramaic (in Christian and to a lesser extent in Manichaean texts) ²⁶⁹, and Turkic (which appears in secular texts, namely from documents found at the Mount Mugh). There are also observable Sogdian contacts with Classical Persian, but it seems to me that there was much more Sogdian influence on Persian than Persian influence on Sogdian. In contemporary Yaghnōbī there is a great amount of loans from (or via) Tajik – there are approximately 48% loan-words and some 6% word are Yaghnōbī—Tajik compounds and other approximately 19% words are so-called compound verbs (presumably majority of them calqued from Tajik) – remaining 27% of words are genuine Yaghnōbī (Novák [in print]).

Both languages also show similar patterns of word-formation, even Yaghnōbī calques from Tajik show some Sogdic patterns of word-formation. In Yaghnōbī there still remain many

-

²⁶⁹ In this case I do not take in account Aramaic ideograms used in texts written in the Sogdian script – such ideograms were very likely read as Sogdian words as they show e.g. Sogdian inflectional endings.

suffixes attested in Sogdian, unfortunately many of such suffixes are unproductive in the contemporary language (cf. GMS §935-1166; LIVSHITS – KHROMOV 1981, 434-449; KHROMOV 1987, 665-670).

Some Yaghnōbī words have no Sogdian responses, Sof'ya Petrovna Vinogradova quotes several of them: $\gamma \acute{u}rda$ 'eye', $\gamma \acute{a}yk$ 'daughter', rax 'mouth' 270 , $n\bar{o}s$ - 'to take' (VINOGRADOVA 2000b, 310), there are many other words without Sogdian etymology, but some of those words have etymology in the Pāmīr languages, e.g. Yagh. $\gamma \acute{a}yk$ 'daughter, girl' may be connected with Yazgh. $\gamma \acute{a}\acute{c}a\acute{g}$, Shugh. $\gamma \bar{a}c$, Rōsh. $\gamma \acute{a}c$, Sarīq. $\gamma \acute{o}c$; Yagh. $\acute{o}d(^i)ma$ 'Saponaria Griffithiana Boiss. plant' ~ Khūf. $wu\eth m$; Yagh. $par\acute{a}m$ 'Cousina umbrosa Buge plant' ~ Khūf. piram, Yagh. $\r{s}\acute{a}w\acute{e}n$ $\| \r{s}\acute{v}w\acute{e}na$ 'home-made paper-like thin cotton cloth' ~ Shugh. $\r{x}iw\~{i}n\~{j}$, Bart. $\r{x}iw\~{i}n\~{c}$, Khūf. $\r{x}iw\~{i}n\~{c}$, $\r{x}uwan\~{j}$, Rōsh. $\r{x}iw\~{u}n\~{c}$; Yagh. $\r{x}u\~{s}\acute{u}pa$ 'crow, magpie' ~ Shugh. Khūf. $\r{k}i\r{x}\acute{e}pc$ and many other. The Yaghnōbī-Pāmīrī vocabulary may be connected with local ecology and semi-nomadic lifestyle or it may even be associated with the Pāmīr-Hindūkush Sprachbund mentioned in chapter I.I.I.4.b.

Some other Yaghnōbī words have been recorded in past years, but they are not used in the modern language: man 'apple', $k^i m \hat{e}r$ 'red', $z \hat{e}rta$ 'yellow', \check{sou} 'black', $s^i p \hat{e}ta$ 'white', $v^u r \hat{u}k$ 'eyebrow', $\bar{i}p \hat{o}ra$, $\gamma albal \hat{a}$ 'much, many' and many other (cf. BOGOLYUBOV 1966, 359; KLIMCHITSKIY 1940; NOVÁK [in print]), some other *Early Modern Yaghnōbī words that were also similar in Sogdian were replaced by their Tajik similar-sounding counterparts: * $v\bar{o}\gamma$ (Sogd. $\beta \bar{a}\gamma$) 'garden' × Tjk. > Yagh. $b\bar{o}\gamma$, * $m\bar{o}x$ (Sogd. $m\bar{a}x$) 'moon, month' × Tjk. > Yagh. $m\bar{o}h$ 'month' (cf. BOGOLYUBOV 1966, 359) or * $v\bar{i}m$ (Sogd. $\beta \bar{i}m$) 'fear' × Tjk. > Yagh. $b\bar{i}m$.

-

 $^{^{270}}$ Yagh. rax has attested Sogdian form s $r\gamma^2 \! k$ /rəxå/.

IV. Conclusion

In the presented thesis I tried to present main development features of the Eastern Iranian languages. The main attention was paid to the development and interrelation of Sogdian and Yaghnōbī - two closely related languages of the Northern branch of the Eastern Iranian languages. Yaghnōbī and Sogdian were studied together with other Eastern Iranian languages, primarily with the languages of the Pāmīrs. I have compared all documented Eastern Iranian languages to the sketch of contemporary development of the languages in focus – I have tried to outline their basic development in phonology and morphology in the first part of the presented thesis. By a thorough study of the Eastern Iranian languages I have found another phenomenon, which should be carefully investigated - (re)classification of the Eastern Iranian languages. As I have mentioned in the chapter I.1.2. there is commonly accepted grouping of the language group in focus into the Northern and Southern branch, but as I have observed, there are no given criteria for such grouping. In the Table 31 I put down some thirty isoglosses that I have observed among the Eastern Iranian languages, but according to the isoglosses presented in the Table 31 there are no many really distinct features that can differentiate the "Northern" and "Southern" branches. According to a preliminary analysis of Eastern Iranian isoglosses there can be defined at least five groups/branches: I Northern (Sogdo-Scythian), II North-eastern (Saka), III Central (Pāmīr), IV Southern (Paṭhān) and V South-eastern (Hindūkush) groups. Problematic is classification of Avestan (cf. EDEL'MAN 1986, 6-7 with bibliography), Khwārezmian (cf. ÈDEL'MAN 2000a, 95; ÈDEL'MAN 2008, 6; ÈDEL'MAN 1986, 6) and Bactrian – presented classification was based mainly on Modern Eastern Iranian languages. Some of isoglosses presented in the Table 31 can be demonstrated on following four examples (all examples are supplemented by forms in Classical Persian):

```
*čášman- 'eye'
       I Sogd. s c(\check{s})m-\gamma M cm-\gamma(\gamma), c\check{s}m-\gamma C c(\gamma)m-\gamma, c\check{s}m-\gamma /\check{c}\dot{i}(\check{s})mi/; Oss. c = x, c = x
       'window-opening'
       II Khōt. tse'iman-
       III Ishk. com, Sangl. cām, Zēb. cōm, Munj. čōm, Yidgh. čam, Shugh. Baj. cēm,
       Rosh. Khūf. cām, Bart. cēm, Rāshrv. cīm, Sarīq. cem, Yazgh. čăm, Wakh. čə(ž)m
       V Ōrm. cimī, čīm, cōm
       ? Khwār. cm-, cm-/camma/, Ave. čašman-[Pers. čašm]
*3rāia- 'three'
       I Sogd. s Try mg Tryw B (?) Try m Try(y) C šy / sai/, Yagh. saráy | tiráy, Oss. ærtæ
       II Khōt. drai, Tumshuq. dre
       III Yidgh. xiray, xuroy, Munj. xiray, Shugh. aray, Baj. Bart. Rosh. aray, Sariq.
       aroy, Ishk. růy, Sangl. rōy, Yazgh. cůy, Wakh. trū(y) {Bactr. υαρηιο /hərēy/}
       IV Pasht. drē, Waņ. dre
       V Ōrm. šō, řī, Parāch. šī, šu
       ? Khwār. šy /šē/, Ave. $\text{$r\tilde{a}ii\tilde{o}$ [Pers. $sib > se]}
```

```
*iušmāxam 'you'
       I Sogd. S B (?)\check{s}m^2\gamma w, \check{s}m^2\gamma h M \check{s}m^2x(w), \check{s}m^2x C \check{s}m^2x /\check{s}m\dot{a}x(w)/, Yagh. \check{s}^um\dot{a}x,
       Oss. sыmax || sumax
       II Khōt. uhu, umă, umä, LKhōt. ama
       III Wakh. sấ(y)išt, Ishk. tьтьх, Sangl. təтəх, Munj. mōf, Yidgh. măf, mŏf, Shugh.
       Rosh. Khūf. tama, Bart. Rāshrv. tamāš, Sarīg. tamaš {Bactr. τωμαχο, τομαχο,
       ταμαχο, /tōmāx, tumāx, tamāx/}
       IV Pasht. tásē, tásō, Waņ. tās
       V Parāch. wā, Ōrm. tōs, tyūs
       ? Ave. yūžām, Khwār. h\(\beta\)y [Pers. \(\delta\)um\(\delta\)]
*gauša- 'ear'
       I Sogd. S B M C γwš /γōš/, Yagh. γūš, Oss. qus || γos, Scyth. <sup>○</sup>γωσος
       II Khōt. gguv'a-, ggū'
       III Wakh. γἴις, Ishk. γιἰς, Sangl. γο̄ι, Shugh. γιις, Rōsh. γο̄w, Sarīq. γawl, Yazgh.
       γ əvon, Munj. γūy, Yidgh. γū(ĭ)
       IV Pasht. ywaź, yważ
       V Ōrm. gōī, gōy, Parāch. gū
       ? Khwār. \gamma wx / \gamma \bar{o}x/, Ave. gaoša- [Pers. gōš]
```

The issue of reclassification of the Eastern Iranian languages was only outlined in this thesis, the question still waits for its thorough examination. Valentina Stepanovna Sokolova studied genetic relations of Yazghulāmī and the Shughnī-Rōshānī group (SOKOLOVA 1967) and later relations of the Shughnī-Yazghulāmī group with Munjī²⁷¹ (SOKOLOVA 1973). Studies of genetic relations of Munjī and Yidghā with Bactrian and also interrelations of Bactrian with the Paṭhān languages can answer the question of position of Bactrian within the Eastern Iranian group. In a similar way can be studied relationship of Wakhī and the Saka languages — Wakhī appears to share several isoglosses with the Saka languages, but the language shows probable adstrate or substrate phenomena that link it closer to the languages of Pāmīr. Classification of the language of Khwārezm remains to be rather complicated — Khwārezmian shares several isoglosses with Alano-Ossetic languages and with the languages of Pāmīr on one hand, on the other hand there are some similarities with North-Western Iranian Sangesārī (cf. AʻZAMī — WINDFUHR 1972), there are also some isoglosses shared with Sogdian (cf. SIMS-WILLIAMS 1989a, 170); summary of possible connections of Khwārezmian with Avestan have been presented by David Neil MACKENZIE (1988) and by Vladimir Aronovich LIVSHITS (1962, 140).

I tried to solve the issue of mutual affinity of Sogdian and Yaghnōbī. Some scholars assumed that Yaghnōbī is a language continuing an unattested non-literary dialect of Sogdian, Yaghnōbī was even labelled *Neo-Sogdian* by some of them (cf. BOGOLYUBOV 1956; KLIMCHITSKIY 1935;

_

²⁷¹ In this case also position of Ishkāshmī and Wakhī is discussed.

SKJÆRVØ 1989a, 375-376), some other scholars suppose that Yaghnōbī is a successor of (in texts unattested) Sogdian dialect of Ustrōshana (KHROMOV 1987, 645, BUZURGMEHR 2005, 117). Contemporary studies tend to see rather greater differences between Yaghnōbī and Sogdian – the main differences quoted in scientific literature is absence of operation of the Sogdian *Rhythmic Law* in Yaghnōbī, different development of augment and Yaghnōbī (archaic) verbal ending of the third person plural *-ōr* instead of Sogdian *-aṁd* (cf. YOSHIDA 2009a, 327), another thorough study on relationship of Yaghnōbī and Sogdian was recently presented by Nicolas SIMS-WILLIAMS (2012).

For definition of interrelation of Yaghnōbī and Sogdian it is important to define both languages. Sogdian retains many archaic features in morphology and is, in comparison to Yaghnōbī, morphologically richer. For Yaghnōbī there is no direct evidence of development of its morphology during its history, but it can be assumed, that *Proto-Yaghnōbī possessed similar morphological forms as those attested in Sogdian. I have decided to "reconstruct" a proto-language common for both Sogdian and Yaghnōbī for the purposes of this thesis. Reconstruction of *Proto-Sogdic seems to be the best way to answer questions concerning interrelations of Yaghnōbī and Sogdian. The main difference appears not to be seen in morphology, which is much simplified in Yaghnōbī, neither in phonology, which has to be carefully reconstructed for Sogdian, but it is the development of stress that can the source of divergent features in both languages.

In the chapter II.1.1. there is outlined development of stress in languages derived from *Proto-Sogdic. I have outlined four stages of stress: Stress I (chapter II.1.1.1.) corresponds with original position of stress in *Proto-Iranian, Stress II (chapter II.1.1.2.) presents stress shift that defines position of stress in *Proto-Sogdic and subsequent shifts labelled as Stress III and Stress IV (chapters II.1.1.3. and II.1.1.4.) represent development of stress as it can be reconstructed for Sogdian. Position of stress in Yaghnōbī continues from the position of the Stress II (i.e. Yaghnōbī stress preserves archaic position of stress as can be reconstructed for *Proto-Sogdic), such position of stress can be also reconstructed for oldest stages of Sogdian before operation of the Stress III. The Sogdian language 272 can be defined as a language that developed after shift of the Stress III and subsequent operation of the Sogdian Rhythmic Law - it is the operation of the Rhythmic Law that defines Sogdian as against other Iranian languages, such as this innovation has not been attested in other Iranian languages. As *Proto-Sogdic stress remained on the same position in Yaghnōbī, Yaghnōbī and Sogdian developed differently. The operation of the *Rhythmic Law* divided Sogdian words into two groups – so-called *light* and heavy stems, the light stem words retained rich inflectional system, but the heavy stems developed three-case system (i.e. oblique cases phonetically merged into a single form). Development in Yaghnōbī was comparable with development of the Sogdian *heavy stems*.

²⁷² I.e. its literary form attested in various texts from territory of Sogdiana, Chinese Turkestan, or from other regions of Central and Inner Asia.

There are also several phonetic differences in development of Sogdian and Yaghnōbī – these features can be considered dialectal and probably they originally led to the assumption that Yaghnōbī may be a dialect of Sogdian. According to the analysis of stress shifts in languages derived from *Proto-Sogdic it can be suggested, that phonological development was also influenced by stress, namely in *(Proto-)Sogdian, where original short unstressed vowels changed to Schwa (\mathfrak{d} or its allophone \mathfrak{d}), but remained unchanged in Yaghnōbī (for development in phonology see chapters II.1.2. and II.1.3.).

In morphology the differences between Yaghnōbī and Sogdian arise, mainly due to the operation of the Rhythmic Law, but there are also other phenomena that have not been influenced by stress. Fundamental is development of augment in Sogdian and Yaghnōbī - in Sogdian augment has been lost for all non-prefixed verbs, but it has been preserved as so-called internal augment for prefixed verbs (i.e. reflects of augment can be seen after a verbal prefix, in this case prefix usually changes its phonetic form when followed by augment), but in Yaghnōbī augment remained as a distinctive feature of imperfect and was reanalysed by analogy for all verbs as a prefix even for those containing historical verbal prefixes (see chapters II.2.4., II.1.3.26.ii. and II.1.8.). Other essential morphological features are two archaisms preserved only in Yaghnōbī – preservation (and reanalysis) of peripheral preterite ending $-\bar{o}r < *-\bar{a}r < \text{Ide.}$ *-(o)ro / -(o)ror and preservation of imperfect ending of the first person plural $-\bar{o}m < *-\bar{a}ma$ in Western Yaghnobī (in Eastern Yaghnobī and in Sogdian the imperfect ending of the first person plural has been replaced by original optative ending *-aima > Yagh. E -īm, Sogd. -ēm; see Table 51). The fact that Yaghnōbī dialects developed two different imperfect endings of the first person plural may indicate an early split of *Proto-Yaghnōbī and *Proto-Sogdian, and subsequent innovation of imperfect endings in (*Proto-)Sogdian and *Proto-Eastern Yaghnōbī.

During the development of the Sogdian language, Sogdian nominal morphology gradually simplified inflectional cases and light stem nouns changed their case endings and analogically switched to agglutinative inflection as is attested for heavy stems - the light stems formed minority of nominal roots and as there was double system of nominal inflection in Sogdian the language tended to avoid such dichotomy. As the *light stem* inflection switched by analogy towards the heavy stem inflection, there remained system of three cases - direct, oblique and vocative, i.e. case system similar to *Proto-Yaghnōbī. This reduced inflectional system is attested in late Sogdian Christian document C 5 (cf. SIMS-WILLIAMS 1982). Also verbal endings tended to be unified for both light and heavy stems. Similarity in "agglutinative" system of late Sogdian inflectional system with Yaghnōbī is striking, but only formally (or say on synchronic level), but diachronically the development in both languages differ. The late Sogdian (or "C 5-Sogdian") system of nominal inflection cannot be considered as a source for development of Yaghnōbī inflectional system as there are still different patterns of stress development in both languages - diachronically Yaghnōbī still preserves stress on its position as it was in *Proto-Sogdic (i.e. Stress II), but (*Proto-)Sogdian certainly developed later stress shift -Stress III that influenced also morphology of the language (i.e. so-called Rhythmic Law), and

probably later on another stress shift appeared in (late) Sogdian – *Stress IV*. The shift towards the *Stress IV* can be probably connected with the above mentioned simplification of nominal inflectional cases as attested in the document C 5 – the tendency to equalize the three-case system of the *heavy stems* and the six-case system of the *light stems* led towards a *heavy stem*-like agglutinative system. There was probable opposite tendency in stress – it tended to shift towards the end of a word, such tendency can be seen in analysis of Sogdian versification by Elio PROVASI (2009, 351-353) whereas the final state of the *Stress IV* shift can be seen in the Sogdian documents written in the Brāhmī script (SIMS-WILLIAMS 1996a, 312-313).

Lexicon of both Sogdian and Yaghnōbī differs. This fact can be caused by two facts – 1) Sogdian is attested in various documents, but majority of texts are religious texts so the vocabulary often does not describe "basic" vocabulary connected with everyday life of peasants and other common people in Sogdiana, but such vocabulary is well attested in Yaghnōbī as the Yaghnōbīs are semi-nomadic pastoralists and their language preserves many "indigenous" terminology connected with animal husbandry and life in the mountains ²⁷³; and 2) there is approximately a thousand years long gap between Sogdian and (Modern) Yaghnōbī, during this period the "world of the Sogdians" changed considerably and this development may be observed in development of Yaghnōbī lexicon.

After the fall of Sogdiana and gradual disuse of the Sogdian language (Arabic and) Persian became the *lingua franca* of Central Asia and Persian strongly influenced not only (Pre-Modern) Yaghnōbī, but also many other languages such as the Pāmīr languages, Pashtō, Indo-Aryan Urdū, the Nūristānī and the Dardic languages or Turkic Uzbek, Kyrgyz etc. Modern Yaghnōbī preserves approximately 27% of indigenous vocabulary, other parts of lexicon are borrowings, calques, or Yaghnōbī-Persian (Yaghnōbī-Arabic etc.) compounds. Sogdian lexicon contains also number of borrowings, mainly from Sanskrit, Old Turkic and Aramaic (but excluding "Sogdian" words written with Aramaic ideograms).

Yaghnōbī shows some lexical similarities with the Pāmīr languages, e.g. γayk 'daughter, girl', $\delta d(^i)ma$ 'Saponaria Griffithiana Boiss. plant', $x^u\check{s}\check{u}pa$ 'crow, magpie' and many others (see end of the chapter III) – these words can be connected either with local ecology and comparable seminomadic lifestyle or with the Pāmīr-Hindūkush Sprachbund mentioned in chapter I.I.I.4.b. Unfortunately there are no attested counterparts in Sogdian.

From the above mentioned points it thus can be suggested, that Sogdian and Yaghnōbī are closely related languages, but there is no evidence that shows that Yaghnōbī developed directly from Sogdian. If we assume that Yaghnōbī developed from a Sogdian dialect we have to define such dialect – I tried to sum up our knowledge of possible Sogdian dialects in the excursion 1,

_

 $^{^{273}}$ As Yaghnōbī is an unwritten language there is no elaborate terminology connected with say political and religious life for these fields are domains of Tājīk Persian (but also in Persian many words connected with religious life are taken from Arabic).

but the evidence of the dialects is quite deficient. It is certain that both Sogdian and Yaghnōbī developed from the same proto-language, but this proto-language equally differs from both languages in focus – I labelled the proto-language as *Proto-Sogdic which I find appropriate for explanation of development of both Sogdian and Yaghnōbī rather than *Proto-Sogdian as there has to be suggested a an intermediate development stage between *Proto-Sogdic and (literary) Sogdian.

As can be seen in the part II of the presented thesis, Yaghnōbī appears in some aspects more archaic in comparison to Sogdian – Yaghnōbī preserves archaic position of stress, it preserves augment (though the augment has been innovated in Yaghnōbī), it better preserves Iranian vowels (i.e. there is no reduction of unstressed vowels to *Schwa* as there was no *Stress III* shift) and Yaghnōbī dialects show that origins of both dialects can be of an old date. Archaic is also formation of ergative construction in Yaghnōbī and another archaism shared with Avestan, Khōtanese and Khwārezmian is preservation of archaic preterite ending of the third person plural *-ār. On contrary, Sogdian shows archaic features mainly in morphology – the operation of the Sogdian *Rhythmic Law* preserved archaic inflectional system for *light stem* words, and also verbal morphology – Sogdian preserves more inherited verbal forms then does Yaghnōbī.

Both languages share some innovations - main similarity is development of nominal inflection in Yaghnōbī and in case of the heavy stems in Sogdian - development of direct and oblique cases is comparable, moreover, Yaghnōbī lost vocative case. Another shared innovation (typical also for other North Eastern Iranian languages) is formation of plural with the abstract suffix *-t(u)ă-. Sogdian innovated ergative construction as it replaced copula by the verb * $d\bar{a}r$ - 'to hold' for transitive verbs (cf. similar development in Khwārezmian), another innovations can be seen in new suffixed forms of verbal inflection. The most important innovation in Sogdian was the shift towards the Stress III and subsequent operation of the Rhythmic Law - in this case originally phonetic change strongly influenced morphology and phonology of the language (the later shift towards the Stress IV was probably connected with a tendency to simplify inflectional dichotomy between the light and heavy stems). Yaghnōbī innovations show spread of prefixed augment by analogy to all verbal forms regardless of their original prefixes and also reanalysis of verbal endings - original durative ending -išt serves to form simple present and future tenses or as durative marker for the imperfect. Original indicative endings remained in Yaghnōbī, but they changed their function - they are used as forms of so-called dependent paradigm, i.e. they are used in a clause where appear more than one verb – for indicative present only the first verb is inflected in the present(/future) tense (i.e. historical present + -išt), all other verbs appear in forms of the dependent paradigm (i.e. in forms of historical present). Yaghnōbī has lost formation of causatives from Iranian *-aja-stems', there are preserved only several verbs in Yaghnōbī that originate from such causatives, nowadays Tajik causative suffix -ōn- is used. Tajik has influenced Yaghnōbī verbal morphology also in many other aspects, this issue can be considered as contact phenomenon rather as innovation (cf. Novák [in print]).

* * *

Both Yaghnōbī and Sogdian show many differences, some of them are caused by approximately thousand years of discontinuity of development of both language as Sogdian has been replaced by Persian in the 10th and 11th centuries AD. After the Arabic conquest of Sogdiana both languages were gradually influenced by Persian, strong influence of Persian is visible mainly in Yaghnōbī. As both languages differ according to their attested forms, it can be said that from diachronic point of view they are two similar dialects/languages, both comparable in historical development as Sogdic dialects within the North Eastern Iranian language group.

V. Bibliography

ABAEV 1949:

Василий Иванович Абаев: Осетинский язык и фольклор. Москва – Ленинград, 1949.

ABAEV 1958:

Василий Иванович Абаев: Историко-этимологический словарь осетинского языка. Том 1: А-К'. Ленинград (: *Наука*), 1958.

ABAEV 1965:

Василий Иванович Абаев: Скифо-европейские изоглоссы. На стыке Востока и Запада. Москва (: *Наука*), 1965.

ABAEV 1979:

Василий Иванович Абаев: Скифо-сарматские наречия. In: Вера Сергеевна Расторгуева (ed.): Основы иранского языкознания. Древнеиранские языки. Москва (: Наука) 1979, р. 272-364.

AKISHEV 1978:

Кемаль А. Аркишев: Курган Иссык. *Искусство саков Казахстана.* Москва (: *Искусство*), 1978.

ALEMANY I VILAMAJÓ 1999:

Augustí Alemany i Vilamajó: Els «Cants arimaspeus» d'Arísteas de Proconnès i la caiguda dels Zhou occidentals. Faventia 21/2, 1999, p. 45-55.

ANDREEV 1945:

Михаил Степанович Андреев: О таджикском языке настоящего времени. In: Материалы по истории таджиков и Таджикистана. Сб. 1-й. Сталинабад, 1954, р. 66-80.

ANDREEV - LIVSHITS - PISARCHIK 1957:

Михаил Степанович Андреев – Владимир Аронович Лившиц – Антония Константиновна Писарчик: Словарь. In: Михаил Степанович Андреев – Елена Михайловна Пещерева: Ягнобские тексты с приложением ягнобско-русского словаря составленного М. С. Андреевым, В. А. Лившицем и А. К. Писарчик. Москва – Ленинград (: Издательст во Академии Наук СССР), 1957, 215-391.

ANDREEV - PESHCHEREVA 1957:

Михаил Степанович Андреев – Елена Михайловна Пещерева: Ягнобские тексты с приложением ягнобско-русского словаря составленного М. С. Андреевым, В. А. Лившицем и А. К. Писарчик. Москва – Ленинград (: Издательство Академии Наук СССР), 1957.

A⁵ZAMĪ – WINDFUHR 1972:

Cheragh Ali Azami – Gernot Windfuhr: A Dictionary of Sangesari, With a Grammatical Outline. Tehrān (: Franklin Book Company), 1972.

چراغعلی اعظمی – گرنت ل. ویندفوهر: واژهنامهٔ سنگسری، با مقدمهای از دستور آن زبان. تحران (: موسسه انتشارات فرانکلین)، ۱۳۵۱.

BACKSTROM 1992:

Peter C. Backstrom: Wakhi. In: Peter C. Backstrom - Carla F. Radloff: Sociolinguistic

Survey of Northern Pakistan, Volume 2, Languages of Northern Areas. Islamabad (: *National Institute of Pakistan Studies, Quaid-i-Azam University*), 1992, s. 55-74 (+ Appendix D – Wakhi Survey Data, s. 273-292).

BAKHTĪBĒKOV 1979:

Тупчи Бахтибеков: Грамматикаи забони шуғнони. Душанбе (: Дониш), 1979.

BARTHOLOMAE 1895-1901:

Christian Bartholomae: Vorgeschichte der iranischen Sprachen. In: Wilhelm Geiger – Ernst Kuhn (eds.): Grundriss der iranischen Philologie, Erster Band, 1. Abteilung. Straßburg (: Verlag von Karl J. Trübner), 1898-1901, p. 1-151.

BARTHOLOMAE 1961:

Christian Bartholomae: Altiranisches Wörterbuch. Berlin (: Walter de Gruyter & Co.), 1961.

BARTONĚK 2009:

Antonín Bartoněk: Dialekty klasické řečtiny. Brno (: Masarykova universita), 2009.

BEEKES 2011:

Robert Stephen Paul Beekes: Comparative Indo-European Linguistics. An introduction. [Second edition]. Amsterdam – Philadelphia (: John Benjamins Publishing Company), 2011.

BELYAEV 2010:

Oleg Belyayev: Evolution of Case in Ossetic. In: Iran and the Caucasus 14, 2010, p. 287-322.

BIČOVSKÝ 2012:

Jan Bičovský: Stručná mluvnice praindoevropštiny. Praha (: Filozofická fakulta Univerzity Karlovy v Praze), 2012.

BIELMEIER 1989:

Roland Bielmeier: Yaghnōbī. In: Rüdiger Schmitt (ed.): Compendium Linguarum Iranicarum. Wiesbaden (: Dr. Ludwig Reichert Verlag), 1989, p. 480-488.

BIELMEIER 2006 [online]:

Roland Bielmeier: Yaghnobi. In: Eḥsān Yārshāṭer (ed.): Encyclopædia Iranica [online edition]. Costa Mesa, California.

URL: http://www.iranica.com/articles/yaghnobi> [quot. 23. 07. 2010, 18:14]

BIRILLO - BULAKHOV - SUDNIK 1966:

H.~B.~ Бирилло — $M.~\Gamma.~$ Булахов — M.~P.~ Судник: Белорусский язык. In: B.~B.~ Виноградов (ed.): Языки народов СССР. Том первый: Индоевропейские языки. Москва (: Hayka), 1966, p. 154-193.

BOGOLYUBOV 1956:

Михаил Николаевич Боголюбов: Ягнобский (новосогдийский) язык. Исследование и материалы. Автореферат на соискание учёной степени доктора филологических наук. Ленинград 1956.

BOGOLYUBOV 1966:

Михаил Николаевич Боголюбов: Ягнобский язык. In: В. В. Виноградов (ed.): Языки

народов СССР. Том первый: Индоевропейские языки. Москва (: *Наука*), 1966, р. 342-361.

BOGOLYUBOV – SMIRNOVA 1963:

Михаил Николаевич Боголюбов – Ольга Ивановна Смирнова: Хозяйственные документы. Согдийские документы с горы Муг. Чтение. Перевод. Комментарий. Выпуск III. Москва (: Издательст во вост очной лит ерат уры), 1963.

BOYCE 1952:

Mary Boyce: Some Parthian Abecedarian Hymns. In: Bulletin of the School of Oriental and African Studies 14/3, Studies Presented to Vladimir Minorsky by His Colleagues and Friends (: *University of London*), 1952, s. 435-450.

BROWNING 1983:

Robert Browning: Medieval and Modern Greek. Cambridge (: Cambridge University Press), 1983.

BURKI 2001:

Rozi Khan Burki: Dying Languages with Special Focus on Ormuri. In: Pakistan Journal of Public Administration; December 2001; Volume 6. No. 2.

URL: http://www.fli-online.org/documents/languages/ormuri/dying-languages.pdf [quot. 23. 03. 2012, 20:34]

BUSHKOV - NOVIKOV 1992:

B. U. Бушков - C. B. Новиков: Об интерпретации некоторых документов с горы Муг и местной топонимике. In: Вестник МГУ. Серия VIII, История, 1992 № 3, р. 14-25.

BUZURGMEHR 2005:

Бурхониддин Бузургмехр: Яғнобиёни муқими Душанбешахр ва музофоти он. In: Ю. Шодипур — A. Абдуллоев: Душанбе дар масири таърих (Mаум \bar{y} аи маколахо). Душанбе (: Cr yденr), 2005, p. 117-128.

CARDONA 1970:

George Cardona: The Indo-Iranian construction mana (mama) kṛtam. In: Language, Vol. 46/1, 1970, p. 1-12.

DECKER 1992:

Kendall D. Decker: Yidgha. In: Kendall D. Decker: Sociolinguistic Survey of Northern Pakistan, Volume 5, Languages of Chitral. Islamabad (: National Institute of Pakistan Studies, Quaid-i-Azam University), 1992, p. 43-66 (+ Appendix B – Chitral Word lists, p. 177-211; Appendix C.2 – Yidgha texts, p. 216-217).

DELANCEY 1981:

Scott DeLancey: An Interpretation of Split Ergativity and Related Patterns. In: Language, Vol. 57/3, 1981, p. 626-657.

DOROFEEVA 1960:

Лидия Николаевна Дорофеева: Язык фарси-кабули. Москва (: *Издательство вост очной лит ерат уры*), 1960.

ÈDEL'MAN 1966:

Джой Иосифович Эдельман: Язгулямский язык. Москва (: Наука), 1966.

ÈDEL'MAN 1986:

Джой Иосифович Эдельман: Сравнительная грамматика восточноиранских языков. Фонология. Москва (: *Наука*), 1986.

ÈDEL'MAN 1987a:

Джой Иосифович Эдельман: Шугнано-рушанская язычная группа. In: Вера Сергеевна Расторгуева (ed.): Основы иранского языкознания. Новоиранские языки II. – Восточная группа. Москва (: Наука), 1987, р. 236-347.

ÈDEL'MAN 1987b:

Джой Иосифович Эдельман: Язгулямский язык. In: Вера Сергеевна Расторгуева (ed.): Основы иранского языкознания. Новоиранские языки II. – Восточная группа. Москва (: Наука), 1987, р. 348-407.

ÈDEL'MAN 2000a:

Джой Иосифович Эдельман: Хорезмийский язык. In: Языки мира. Иранские языки III. – Восточноиранские языки. Москва (: ИНДРИК), 2000, р. 95-105.

ÈDEL'MAN 2000b:

Джой Иосифович Эдельман: Язгулямский язык. In: Языки мира. Иранские языки III. – Восточноиранские языки. Москва (: ИНДРИК), 2000, р. 274-290.

ÈDEL'MAN 2008:

Джой Иосифович Эдельман: Хорезмийский язык. In: Основы иранского языкознания. Среднеиранские И новоиранские Москва (: Восточная языки. лит ерат ура), 2008, р. 6-60.

ÈDEL'MAN – DODYKHUDOEVA 2009:

Joy I. Edelman – Leila R. Dodykhudoeva: The Pamir Languages. In: Gernot Windfuhr (ed.): Iranian Languages. London – New York (: Routledge), 2009, p. 773-786.

ÈDEL'MAN – YŪSUFBĒKOV 2000a:

Джой Иосифович Эдельман – *Шодихон П.* Юсуфбеков: Шугнанский язык. In: Языки мира. Иранские языки III. – Восточноиранские языки. Москва (: *ИНДРИК*), 2000, p. 225-242.

ÈDEL'MAN – YŪSUFBĒKOV 2000b:

Джой Иосифович Эдельман – Шодихон П. Юсуфбеков: Рушанский язык. In: Языки мира. Иранские языки III. – Восточноиранские языки. Москва (: ИНДРИК), 2000, р. 242-254.

ÈDEL'MAN – YŪSUFBĒKOV 2000C:

Джой Иосифович Эдельман – Шодихон П. Юсуфбеков: Хуфский язык. In: Языки мира. Иранские языки III. – Восточноиранские языки. Москва (: ИНДРИК), 2000, р. 254-259.

ÈDEL'MAN - YŪSUFBĒKOV 2000d:

Джой Иосифович Эдельман – Шодихон П. Юсуфбеков: Бартангский язык. In: Языки мира. Иранские языки III. – Восточноиранские языки. Москва (: ИНДРИК), 2000, p. 259-264.

ÈDEL'MAN - YŪSUFBĒKOV 2000e:

Джой Иосифович Эдельман – Шодихон П. Юсуфбеков: Рошорвский язык. In:

Языки мира. Иранские языки III. – Восточноиранские языки. Москва (: ИНДРИК), 2000, р. 264-268.

ÈDEL'MAN – YŪSUFBĒKOV 2000f:

Джой Иосифович Эдельман – Шодихон П. Юсуфбеков: Сарыкольский язык. In: Языки мира. Иранские языки III. – Восточноиранские языки. Москва (: ИНДРИК), 2000, р. 269-274.

EFIMOV 1999a:

Валентин Александрович Ефимов: Парачи язык. In: Языки мира. Иранские языки II. – Северо-западные иранские языки. Москва (: *ИНДРИК*), 1999, p. 257-275.

EFIMOV 1999b:

Валентин Александрович Ефимов: Ормури язык. In: Языки мира. Иранские языки II. – Юго-западные иранские языки. Москва (: *ИНДРИК*), 1999, p. 276-296.

EFIMOV 2008:

Валентин Александрович Ефимов: Хазара. In: Основы иранского языкознания. Среднеиранские и новоиранские языки. Москва (: Восточная литература), 2008, р. 344-414.

EFIMOV – RASTORGUEVA – SHAROVA 1982:

Валентин Александрович Ефимов — Вера Сергеевна Расторгуева — Е. Н. Шарова: Персидский, таджикский, дари́. In: Вера Сергеевна Расторгуева (ed.): Основы иранского языкознания. Новоиранские языки І. — Западная группа, прикаспийские языки. Москва (: Наука), 1982, р. 5-230.

ELFENBEIN 1984a:

Joseph H. Elfenbein: The Wanetsi connexion. Part I. In: Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society 116/1, 1984, p. 54-76.

ELFENBEIN 1984b:

Joseph H. Elfenbein: The Wanetsi connexion. Part II. In: Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society 116/2, 1984, p. 229-241.

EMMERICK 1989:

Ronald Eric Emmerick: Khotanese and Tumshuqese. In: Rüdiger Schmitt (ed.): Compendium Linguarum Iranicarum. Wiesbaden (: Dr. Ludwig Reichert Verlag) 1989, p. 204-229.

EMMERICK 2009:

Ronald Eric Emmerick: Khotanese and Tumshuqese. In: Gernot Windfuhr (ed.): Iranian Languages. London – New York (: Routledge), 2009, p. 377-415.

ETHNOLOGUE:

Raymond G. Gordon (ed.) Ethnologue. Languages of the World. Fifteenth Edition. Dallas (: SIL International), 2005.

FAYZOV 1966:

М. Файзов: Язык рушанцев советского Памира. Душанбе (: *Таджикский ГосУниверситет им. В. И. Ленина*), 1966.

FRYE 1972:

R. N. Frye: Historical remarks on the two dialects of the Avesta. In: Dr. J. M. Unvala Memorial Volume. Bombay, 1964, str. 30–34.

FUSSMAN 1974:

Gérard Fussman: Documents épigraphiques kouchans, In: Bulletin de l'Ecole Française d'Extrême Orient 61, 1974, p. 1-66.

GARRETT 1990:

Andrew Garrett: Hittite Enclitic Subjects and Transitive Verbs. Journal of Cuineform Studies, Vol. 42/2, 1990, p. 227-242.

GAUTHIOT 1911:

Robert Gauthiot: De l'alphabet sogdien. Journal Asiatique 17, 1911, p. 81-95.

GAUTHIOT - BENVENISTE 1914-1923:

Robert Gauthiot – Émile Benveniste: Essai de grammaire sogdienne. Première partie: Phonétique. Mission Pelliot en Asie centrale: Série petit in-Octavo, 1. Paris, 1914-1923.

GAUTHIOT - BENVENISTE 1929:

Robert Gauthiot – Émile Benveniste: Essai de grammaire sogdienne. Deuxième partie: Morphologie, syntaxe et glossaire. Mission Pelliot en Asie centrale: Série petit in-Octavo, 3. Paris, 1929.

GAWARJON 1996:

高尔锵: 塔吉克汉词典 (Tujik ziv – Hanzu ziv lughot). Sichuan (: Sichuan Nationalities Publishing House), 1996.

GEIGER 1898-1901:

Wilhelm Geiger: Über das Yaghnōbī. In: Wilhelm Geiger – Ernst Kuhn (eds.): Grundriss der iranischen Philologie, Erster Band, 2. Abteilung. Straßburg (: Verlag von Karl J. Trübner), 1898–1901, p. 334–344.

GERSHEVITCH 1954:

Ilya Gershevitch: A Grammar of Manichaean Sogdian. Oxford, 1954.

GERSHEVITCH 1976:

Ilya Gershevitch: The Sogdian Fragments of the British Library: Appendix. Indo-Iranian Journal 18, 1976, p. 75-82.

GERTSENBERG 1981:

Леонард Георгиевич Герценберг: Хотаносакский язык. In: Вера Сергеевна Расторгуева (ed.): Основы иранского языкознания. Среднеиранские языки I. Москва (: Наука), 1981, р. 233-313.

GERTSENBERG 2000:

Леонард Георгиевич Герценберг: Хотаносакский язык. In: Языки мира. Иранские языки III. – Восточноиранские языки. Москва (: ИНДРИК), 2000, р. 46-57.

GMS = GERSHEVITCH 1954

GRIERSON 1920:

George Abraham Grierson: Ishkashmi, Zebaki and Yazghulami. An Account of Three Eranian Dialects. London (: Royal Asiatic Society), 1920.

GRYUNBERG 1972:

Александр Леонович Грюнберг: Языки Восточного Гиндукуша: Мунджанский язык. *Тексты, словарь, грамматический очерк.* Ленинград, 1972.

GRYUNBERG 1987:

Александр Леонович Грюнберг: Мунджанский язык. In: Вера Сергеевна Расторгуева (ed.): Основы иранского языкознания. Новоиранские языки II. – Восточная группа. Москва (: Наука), 1987, р. 155-235.

GRYUNBERG 2000:

Александр Леонович Грюнберг: Мунджанский язык. In: Языки мира. Иранские языки III. – Восточноиранские языки. Москва (: ИНДРИК), 2000, р. 154-170.

GRYUNBERG - DAVYDOVA 1982:

Александр Леонович Грюнберг – Л. Х. Давыдова: Татский язык. In: Вера Сергеевна Расторгуева (ed.): Основы иранского языкознания. Новоиранские языки I. – Западная группа, прикаспийские языки. Москва (: Hayka), 1982, p. 231-286.

GRYUNBERG – ÈDEL'MAN 1987:

Александр Леонович Грюнберг – Джой Иосифович Эдельман: Афганский язык. In: Вера Сергеевна Расторгуева (ed.): Основы иранского языкознания. Новоиранские языки II. – Восточная группа. Москва (: Наука), 1987, р. 6-154.

HABERLAND 1994:

Hartmut Haberland: Danish. In: Ekkehard König – Johann van der Auwera (eds.): The Gremanic Languages. London (: Routledge), 1994, 313-348.

HALLBERG 1992:

Daniel G. Hallberg: Sociolinguistic Survey of Northern Pakistan, Volume 4, Pashto, Waneci, Ormuri. Islamabad (: National Institute of Pakistan Studies, Quaid-i-Azam University), 1992.

HARMATTA 1970:

Harmatta János (Harmatta János): Studies in the history and language of the Sarmatians. Acta universitatis de Attila József nominatae – Acta Antiqua et Archaeologica, Tomus XIII. Szeged 1970.

HARMATTA 1989:

János Harmatta (Harmatta János): The Language of the Southern Sakas. Acta Antiqua Academiae Scientiarum Hungaricae 32. Budapest (: Akadémiai Kiadó), 1989, p. 299-307.

HARMATTA 2002a:

Harmatta (Harmatta Iános): Herodotus. Die Schrift antiken **Iános** Steppenvölkern. In: László Havas – Imre Tegyey (eds.): János Harmatta. Selected writings. West and East in the unity of the ancient world. AFAOA XII. Debreceni bölcsészettudományi kar. Klasszika-filológiai Tanszék. Debrecen (: Kossuth egyetem egyetemi kiadó, Debreceni egyetem), 2002, p. 40-50. (Acta Classica Universitatis Scientiarum Debreceniensis 28, 1992, 7-16)

HARMATTA 2002b:

János Harmatta: Herodotus, historian of the Cimmerians and the Scythians. In: *László* Havas – *Imre* Tegyey (eds.): János Harmatta. Selected writings. West and East in the

unity of the ancient world. AΓAΘA XII. Debreceni egyetem bölcsészettudományi kar. Klasszika-filológiai Tanszék. Debrecen (: Kossuth egyetemi kiadó, Debreceni egyetem), 2002, p. 207-216. (Entretiens sur l'antiquité antique classique. Tome XXXV. Vandœuvres-Genève, 1990, 115-130)

HENNING 1939:

Walter Bruno Henning: Sogdian Loan-Words in New Persian. In: Bulletin of the School of Oriental and African Studies 10/1 (: *University of London*), 1939, p. 93-106.

HENNING 1958:

Walter Bruno Henning: Mitteliranisch. In: Karl Hoffmann – Walter Bruno Henning – Harold Walter Bailey – Georg Morgenstierne – Wolfgang Lentz (eds.): Iranistik, Erster Abschnitt – Linguistik. Leiden – Köln (: Brill), 1958.

HINGE 2006:

George Hinge: Herodot zur skythischen Sprache. In: Glotta 81 2005[2006], p. 86-115.

HORN 1988:

Paul Horn: Grundriß der neupersischen Etymologie. Sammlung indogermanischer Wörterbücher. Hildesheim – Zürich – New York (: Georg Olms Verlag), 1988.

HUMBACH 1989:

Helmut Humbach: Choresmian. In: Rüdiger Schmitt (ed.): Compendium Linguarum Iranicarum. Wiesbaden (: Dr. Ludwig Reichert Verlag), 1989, p. 193-203.

IDŌ 2009:

Shinji Ido: An analysis of the formation of the Tajik vowel system. In: Anju Saxena – Åke Viberg (eds.): Multilingualism. Proceedings of the 23rd Scandinavian conference of linguistics. Acta universitatis Upsaliensis: Studia Linguistica Upsaliensia 8. Uppsala, 2009, p. 65-74.

IOANNESYAN 1999:

Юлий Аркадьевич Иоаннесян: Гератский диалект языка дари современного Афганистана. Москва (: *Восточная лит ерат ура*), 1999.

ISAEV 1966:

Магомет Измайлович Исаев: Дигорский диалект осетинского языка. Фонетика, Морфологиа. Москва (: *Наука*), 1966, р. 237-256.

ISAEV 1987:

Магомет Измайлович Исаев: Осетинский язык. In: *Вера Сергеевна* Расторгуева (ed.): Основы иранского языкознания. Новоиранские языки II. – Восточная группа. Москва (: *Наука*), 1987, р. 537-643.

ISKHAKOV 1977:

М. М. Исхаков: Глагол в согдийском языке: *документы с горы Муг*. Ташкент (*: Фан*), 1977.

JUNKER 1930:

Heinrich Franz Josef Junker: Arische Forschungen. Yaghnöbī-Studien I. Die Sprachgeographische Gliederung des Yaghnöb-Tales. Abhandlungen der Philologischehistorische Klasse der Sächsischen Akademie der Wissenschaften, Bd. XLI, Nr. II. Leipzig (: Hirzel), 1930.

JUSTI 1895:

Ferdinand Justi: Iranisches Namenbuch. Marburg (: Elwert), 1895.

KELLENS 1987:

Jean Kellens: Avesta the holy book of the Zoroastrians. In: Eḥsān Yārshāṭer (ed.): Encyclopædia Iranica [online edition]. Costa Mesa, California.

URL: http://www.iranicaonline.org/articles/avesta-holy-book [quot. 19. 02. 2013, 20:22]

KERIMOVA 1963:

Аза Алимовна Керимова: Особенности говора кишлака Рарза. In: Иранский сборник. *К семидесятилетию профессора И. И. Зарубина*. Москва (: *Издательство вост очной лит ерат уры*), 1963, p. 24-43.

KERIMOVA 1982:

Аза Алимовна Керимова: Диалекты Фарса. In: Вера Сергеевна Расторгуева (ed.): Основы иранского языкознания. Новоиранские языки I. – Западная группа, прикаспийские языки. Москва (: Наука), 1982, р. 316-363.

KHROMOV 1388:

KHROMOV 1958:

Альберт Леонидович Хромов: Особенности вокализма матчинских говоров. вокализми шевахои Мастчох. In: Известия Академии Наук Таджикской ССР, Ахбороти Академияи фанхои РСС Точикистон. Отделение Общественных Наук, 1958, I (16). Душанбе (: *Дониш*), 1958, s. 7-20.

KHROMOV 1962:

Альберт Леонидович Хромов: Говоры таджиков Матчинского района. Гўишхои точики райони Мастчох. Труды, т. СVII. Душанбе (: *Издательство Академии наук т аджикской ССР*), 1962.

KHROMOV 1966:

Альберт Леонидович Хромов: Общая лингвистическая характеристика топонимии и микротопонимии Ягноба. Іп: Известия Академии Наук Таджикской ССР, Ахбороти Академияи фанхои РСС Точикистон. Отделение Общественных Наук, 1966, № 3 (45). Душанбе (: Дониш), 1966, р. 83-87.

KHROMOV 1967:

A. L. Chromov: Zur Gesamtcharakteristik der Tadschik-Mundarten von Falghar. In: Mitteilungen des Instituts für Orientforschung, Bd. XIII, N. 3, 1967, p. 462-465.

KHROMOV 1969:

Альберт Леонидович Хромов: Историко-лингвистическое исследование Ягноба и Верхнего Зеравшана. Диссертация на соискание учёной степени кандидата филологических наук. Душанбе 1969.

KHROMOV 1972:

Альберт Леонидович Хромов: Ягнобский язык. Москва (: Наука), 1972.

KHROMOV 1987:

Альберт Леонидович Хромов: Ягнобский язык. In: Вера Сергеевна Расторгуева (ed.): Основы иранского языкознания. Новоиранские языки II. – Восточная группа. Москва (: Наука), 1987, р. 644-701.

KIEFFER 1989:

Charles M. Kieffer: Le paračī, l'ōrmuṛī et le grouppe des langues iraniennes du Sud-Est. In: Rüdiger Schmitt (ed.): Compendium Linguarum Iranicarum. Wiesbaden (: Dr. Ludwig Reichert Verlag), 1989, p. 445-455.

KIEFFER 2009:

Charles M. Kieffer: Parachi. In: Gernot Windfuhr (ed.): Iranian Languages. London – New York (: Routledge), 2009, p. 693-720.

KIM 2003:

Ronald I. Kim: On the Historical Phonology of Ossetic: The Origin of the Oblique Case Suffix. In: Journal of the American Oriental Society 123/1, 2003, p. 43-72.

KIM 2007:

Ronald I. Kim: Two problems of Ossetic nominal morphology. In: Indogermanische Forschungen 112. Band, 2007, p. 47-68.

KISELEVA 1985:

Лидия Николаевна Киселева: Язык дари Афганистана. Москва (: Наука), 1985.

KLIMCHITSKIY 1935:

C. M. Климчицкий: Ягнобско-согдийские соответствия. In: Записки института востоковедения академии наук · VI. Ленинград, 1935. 15-25.

KLIMCHITSKIY 1940:

С. И. Климчицкий: Секретный язык у ягнобцев и язгулёмцев. In: Академия наук СССР — Труды Таджикистанской базы, т. IX — 1938 — История — язык — литература. Akademijaji Fanho SSSR: Asarhoji ваzаji Тоçіkіston, çіldі IX — Тагіх — zавоп — adaвіjot. Москва — Ленинград (: Издательство Академии наук СССР), 1940. 104-117.

KORN 2011:

Agnes Korn: Pronouns as Verbs, Verbs as Pronouns: Demonstratives and the Copula in Iranian. In: Agnes Korn – Geoffrey Haig – Simin Karimi – Poller Samvelian (eds.): Topics in Iranian Linguistics. Beiträge zur Iranistik 34. Wiesbaden (: Dr. Ludwig Reichert Verlag), 2011, p. 53-70.

KOZYREVA 1974:

Tамара \mathcal{J} аурбековна Козырева (Кодзырты T. \mathcal{J}): Язык первой осетинской печатной книги. \mathcal{D} ышцаг ирон мыхуыргонд чиныджы взаг. Орджоникидзе (: \mathcal{U} р), 1974.

KÜMMEL 2006:

Martin Joachim Kümmel: Mitteliranisch II: Sogdisch. Sommersemester 2006.

URL: http://www.indogermanistik.uni-

freiburg.de/seminar/pers/kuemmel/umat/sogd.pdf> [quot. 07. 03. 2012, 11:40]

KÜMMEL 2008:

Martin Joachim Kümmel: Mitteliranisch I: Khotansakisch. 2008.

URL: http://www.indogermanistik.uni-

freiburg.de/seminar/pers/kuemmel/umat/khotan.pdf> [quot. 07. 03. 2012, 11:45]

KÜMMEL 2010:

Martin Joachim Kümmel: Mittelkymrisch. Sommersemester 2010.

URL: http://www.indogermanistik.uni-

freiburg.de/seminar/pers/kuemmel/umat/mittelkymrisch> [quot. 20. 08. 2012, 08:32]

LASHKARBĒKOV 2008:

Б. Б. Лашкарбеков: Старованджский язык (vanjivor). In: Основы иранского (: языкознания. Среднеиранские языки. Москва Восточная И новоиранские лит ерат ура), 2008, р. 61-109.

LENTZ 1933:

Wolfgang Lentz: War Marco Polo auf dem Pamir? In: Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft 85, 1933, p. 1-32.

LIVSHITS 1962:

Владимир Аронович Лившиц: Хорезмийский язык. In: $C. \Pi$. Толстов — T. A. Жданко — C. M. Абрамзон — H. A. Кисляков (eds.): Народы Средней Азии и Казахстана I. Москва (: Издательство Академии наук СССР), 1962, 138-140.

LIVSHITS 2000:

Владимир Аронович Лившиц: Бактрийский язык. In: Языки мира. Иранские языки III. – Восточноиранские языки. Москва (: *ИНДРИК*), 2000, р. 38-46.

LIVSHITS 2003:

Владимир Аронович Лившиц: Согдийские документы из замка Чильхуджра. In: Scripta Gregoriana. Сборник в честь семидесятилетия академика Γ . M. Бонгард-Левина. Москва, 2003, 77-88.

LIVSHITS 2008:

Владимир Аронович Лившиц: Согдийская эпиграфика Средней Азии и Семиречья. Исследования. Санкт-Петербург (: Филологический факультет Санкт-Пет ербургского государственного университета), 2008.

LIVSHITS – KAUFMAN – D'YAKONOV 1954:

Владимир Аронович Лившиц – К. В. Кауфман – Игорь Михайлович Дьяконов: О древней согдийской письменности Бухары. Вестник древней истории 1954 \Box 1 (47), 1954, s. 150-163.

LIVSHITS - KHROMOV 1981:

Владимир Аронович Лившиц — Альберт Леонидович Хромов: Согдийский язык. In: Вера Сергеевна Расторгуева (ed.): Основы иранского языкознания. Среднеиранские языки І. Москва (: Наука), 1981, р. 347-514.

LIVSHITS - LUKONIN 1964:

Владимир Аронович Лившиц — В. Г. Луконин: Среднеперсидские и согдийские надписи на серебряных сосудах. Вестник древней истории 1964 \square 3 (89), 1964, s. 155-176.

LOY 2005:

Thomas Loy: Jaghnob 1970. Erinnerungen an eine Zwangsumsiedlung in der Tadschikischen SSR. Wiesbaden (: Reichert Verlag), 2005.

LUR'E 2004:

Павел Борисович Лурье: Историко-лингвистический анализ согдийской топонимии. Диссертация на соискание учёной степени кандидата филологических наук. Санкт-Петербург, 2004.

LUR'E 2011:

Павел Борисович Лурье: Согдийские документы, открытые в Хисораке и Пенджикенте в 2011 г. Предварительное сообщение. In: Павел Борисович Лурье (ed.): Материалы пенджикентской археологоческой экспедиции. Вхпуск XIV. Санкт-Петербург, 2011.

LUR'E 2012:

Павел Борисович Лурье: Согдийские документы из раскопок раннесредневекового Мартшката. Предварительное сообщение. In: H. H. Казанский (ed.): Индоевропейское языкознание и классическая филология – XVI. Материалы чтений, посвященных памяти профессора Иосифа Моисеевича Тронского 18–20 июня 2012 г. Санкт-Петерсбург (: Наука), 2012.

MACKENZIE 1988:

David Neil MacKenzie: Khwarezmian and Avestan. In: East and West, Vol. 38, No. 1/4 (: Instituto Italiano per l'Africa e l'Oriente), 1988, p. 81-92.

MALLITSKIY 1924:

Николай Гурьевич Маллицкий: Ягнобцы. In: Известия Туркестанского отдела Географического общества, Том XVII. Ташкент, 1924, р. 174-178.

MALLORY - ADAMS 2006:

J. P. Mallory – D. Q. Adams: The Oxford Introduction to Proto-Indo-European and the Proto-Indo-European World. Oxford (: *University Press*), 2006.

MARTIROSYAN 2008:

Hrach Martirosyan: Studies in armenian Etymology. With Special Emphasis on Dialects and Culture. Indo-European Heritage. Proefschrift ter verkrijging van de graad van Doctor aan de Universiteit Leiden. Leiden (: Faculty of Arts, Leiden University), 2008.

URL:

 $<\!\!https:\!//openaccess.leidenuniv.nl/bitstream/handle/1887/12604/Front.pdf?sequence=4>$

[quot. 25. 12. 2012, 23:13]

MAUE - SIMS-WILLIAMS 1991:

Dieter Maue – *Nicolas* Sims-Williams: Eine Sanskrit-Sogdische Bilingue in Brahmi. Bulletin of the School of Oriental and African Studies 54/3 (: *University of London*), 1991, p. 486-495.

MAYRHOFER 1989:

Manfred Mayrhofer: Vorgeschichte der iranischen Sprachen; Uriranisch. In: Rüdiger Schmitt (ed.): Compendium Linguarum Iranicarum. Wiesbaden (: *Dr. Ludwig Reichert Verlag*), 1989, p. 4-24.

MAYRHOFER 1992:

Manfred Mayrhofer: Etymologisches Wörterbuch des Altindoarischen. I. Band. Heidelberg (: Carl Winter – Universitätsverlag), 1992.

MAYRHOFER 1996:

Manfred Mayrhofer: Etymologisches Wörterbuch des Altindoarischen. II. Band. Heidelberg (: Carl Winter – Universitätsverlag), 1996.

MEIER-BRÜGGER 2003:

Michael Meier-Brügger: Indo-European Linguistics. Berlin – New-York (: Walter de Gruyter), 2003.

MENGHIN – PARZINGER – NAGLER 2007:

Wilfried Menghin – Hermann Parzinger – Anatoli Nagler (eds.): Im Zeichen des goldenen Greifen. Königsgräber der Skythen. München – Berlin – London – New York (: Prestel), 2007.

MĪRZŌZŌDA 2008:

Сайфиддин Мирзозода: Фарханги яғнобй-точикй. Душанбе (: Деваштич), 2008.

MĪRZŌZŌDA – ALAVÎ 2008:

Сайфиддин Мирзозода – *Бахриддин* Алавй: Дастури забони яғнобй. Яғнобй зивоки дастур. Душанбе (: *Девашт ич*), 2008.

MOLCHANOVA 2008:

Е. К. Молчанова: Йезди (зороастрийский дари). In: Основы иранского языкознания. Среднеиранские новоиранские Москва (: Восточная языки. лит ерат ура), 2008, р. 235-343.

MONIER-WILLIAMS 1964:

Monier Monier-Williams: A Sanskrit – English Dictionary. Etymologically And Philologically Arranged with special reference to Cognate Indo-European Languages. Oxford (: Clarendon Press), 1964.

MORGENSTIERNE 1926:

Georg Valentin von Munthe af Morgenstierne: Report on a linguistic mission to Afghanistan. Oslo (: H. Aschehoug & Co., W. Nygaard), 1926.

MORGENSTIERNE 1929:

Georg Valentin von Munthe af Morgenstierne: Indo-Iranian Frontier Languages. Volume I. Parachi and Ormuri. Oslo (: H. Aschehoug & Co., W. Nygaard), 1929.

MORGENSTIERNE 1938:

Georg Valentin von Munthe af Morgenstierne: Indo-Iranian Frontier Languages. Volume II. Iranian Pamir Languages (Yidgha-Munji, Sanglechi-Ishkashmi and Wakhi). Oslo (: H. Aschehoug & Co., W. Nygaard), 1938.

MORGENSTIERNE 1973:

Georg Valentin von Munthe af Morgenstierne: Orthography and sound-system of the Avesta. In: Georg Valentin von Munthe af Morgenstierne: Irano-Dardica. Beiträge zur Iranistik 5. Wiesbaden (: Dr. Ludwig Reichert Verlag), 1973, p. 31-83.

MORGENSTIERNE 1974:

Georg Valentin von Munthe af Morgenstierne: Etymological Vocabulary of the Shughni Group. Beiträge zur Iranistik 6. Wiesbaden (: Dr. Ludwig Reichert Verlag), 1974.

MORGENSTIERNE 1983a:

Georg Valentin von Munthe af Morgenstierne: Afghanistan. vi. Pašto. F. Waṇecī. In: Eḥṣān Yārshāṭer (ed.): Encyclopædia Iranica [online edition]. London – Boston – Henley (: Routledge & Kegan Paul), 1983.

URL: http://www.iranicaonline.org/articles/afghanistan-vi-pasto> [quot. 06. 01. 2013, 17:58]

MORGENSTIERNE 1983b:

Georg Valentin von Munthe af Morgenstierne: Afghanistan. vii. Parāčī. In: Eḥṣān Yāršāṭer (ed.): Encyclopædia Iranica [online edition]. London – Boston – Henley (: Routledge & Kegan Paul), 1983, p. 522-525.

MORGENSTIERNE 2003:

Georg Valentin von Munthe af Morgenstierne: A New Etymological Vocabulary of Pashto. Beiträge zur Iranistik 23. Wiesbaden (: Dr. Ludwig Reichert Verlag), 2003.

MOSHKALO 2000:

В. В. Мошкало: Ванеци язык//диалект. In: Языки мира. Иранские языки III. – Восточноиранские языки. Москва (: ИНДРИК), 2000, р. 150-154.

NÉMETH 1959:

Julius Németh: Eine Wörterliste der Jassen, der ungarländische Alanen. Abhandlungen der Deutschen Akademie der Wissenschaften zu Berlin. Berlin (: Akademie-Verlag), 1959.

NOVÁK 2009:

Ľubomír Novák: گویش زبان تاجیکئ وادئ یغناب. Гўиши забони точикии водии Яғноб.

URL: http://www.academia.edu/1443513/_guyesh-e_zaban-e_tajiki-ye_vadi-ye_yaghnab> [quot. II. 03. 2010, 22:28]

NOVÁK 2010:

Ľubomír Novák: Jaghnóbsko-český slovník s přehledem jaghnóbské gramatiky. Яғнобйчехй луғат яноби зивоки дастури федрастипи. Praha (: Filozofická fakulta Univerzity Karlovy v Praze), 2010.

NOVÁK [in print]:

Ľubomír Novák: Yaghnobi: an Example of a Language in Contact. In: Chatreššar 2011. Praha (: *Filozofická fakulta Univerzity Karlovy v Praze*), 2011, p. XX-YY.

PAKHALINA 1966:

Тат ьяна Николаевна Пахалина: Сарыкольский язык. Москва (: Наука), 1966.

PAKHALINA 1060:

Тат ьяна Николаевна Пахалина: Памирские языки. Москва (: Наука), 1969.

PAKHALINA 1976a:

Татьяна Николаевна Пахалина: Об индоарийских элементах в системе личных местимений восточноиранских языков. In: Иранское языкознание: история, этимология, типология. К 75-летию В. И. Абаева. Москва (: *Наука*), 1976, р. 79-84.

PAKHALINA 1976b:

Татьяна Николаевна Пахалина: О происхождении топонимов Ишкашим, Язгулям и Вахан. In: Иранское языкознание: история, этимология, типология. К 75-летию В. И. Абаева. Москва (: Наука), 1976, р. 178-181.

PAKHALINA 1983:

Татьяна Николаевна Пахалина: Исследования по сравнительно-исторической фонетике памирских языков. Москва (: *Наука*), 1983.

PAKHALINA 1987a:

Татьяна Николаевна Пахалина: Ваханский язык. In: *Вера Сергеевна* Расторгуева (ed.): Основы иранского языкознания. Новоиранские языки II. – Восточная группа. Москва (: *Наука*), 1987, р. 408-473.

PAKHALINA 1987b:

Татьяна Николаевна Пахалина: Ишкашимский язык. In: Вера Сергеевна Расторгуева (ed.): Основы иранского языкознания. Новоиранские языки II. – Восточная группа. Москва (: Наука), 1987, р. 474-536.

PAKHALINA – QURBŌNOV 2000:

Tатьяна Hиколаевна Пахалина — X. Курбанов: Ишкашимский язык. In: Языки мира. Иранские языки III. — Восточноиранские языки. Москва (: UНДРИК), 2000, p. 196-208.

PAYNE 1989:

John Payne: Pāmir Languages. In: Rüdiger Schmitt (ed.): Compendium Linguarum Iranicarum. Wiesbaden (: Dr. Ludwig Reichert Verlag), 1989, p. 418-444.

PERRY 2005:

John R. Perry: A Tajik Persian Reference Grammar. Handbuch der Orientalistik II. Leiden (: Brill), 2005.

PROVASI 2009:

Elio Provasi: Versification in Sogdian. In: Werner Sundermann – Almut Hintze – François de Blois (eds.): Exegisti monumenta. Festschrift in honour of Nicholas Sims-Williams. Wiesbaden (: Harrassowitz), 2009, p. 347-368.

PULJU 2000:

Tim Pulju: Indo-European *d, *l, and *dl. In: John Charles Smith – Delia Bentley (eds.): Historical linguistics 1995. Volume 1: General issues and non-Germanic Languages. Selected Papers from the 12th International Conference on Historical Linguistics, Manchester, August 1995. Amsterdam – Philadelphia (: John Benjamins Publishing Co.), 2000, p. 311-326.

QARĪB 1383:

Badrezzaman Gharib: Sogdian Dictionary (Sogdian – Persian – English). Tehran (: Farhangan Publications), 2004.

QARĪB 1965:

Badresaman Gharib: Analysis of the Verbal System in the Sogdian Language. A Dissertation in Oriental Studies Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of Arts and

Science of the University of Pennsylvania in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy. Philadelphia, 1965.

RASTORGUEVA 1964:

Вера Сергеевна Расторгуева: Опыт сравнительного изучения таджикских говоров. Москва (: *Наука*), 1964.

RASTORGUEVA 1966:

Вера Сергеевна Расторгуева: Иранские языки. Введение. In: В. В. Виноградов (ed.): Языки народов СССР. Том первый: Индоевропейские языки. Москва (: Наука), 1966, р. 194-211.

RASTORGUEVA – ÈDEL'MAN 2000:

Вера Сергеевна Расторгуева – Джой Иосифович Эдельман: Этимологический словарь иранских языков. Том 1: a-ā. Москва (: Восточная лит ерат ура), 2000.

RASTORGUEVA – ÈDEL'MAN 2003:

Вера Сергеевна Расторгуева – Джой Иосифович Эдельман: Этимологический словарь иранских языков. Том 2: b-d. Москва (: Восточная лит ерат ура), 2003.

RASTORGUEVA – ÈDEL'MAN 2007:

Вера Сергеевна Расторгуева – Джой Иосифович Эдельман: Этимологический словарь иранских языков. Том 3: f-h. Москва (: Восточная лит ерат ура), 2007.

RASTORGUEVA - MOLCHANOVA 1981:

Вера Сергеевна Расторгуева – Е. К. Молчанова: Парфянский язык. In: Вера Сергеевна Расторгуева (ed.): Основы иранского языкознания. Среднеиранские языки І. Москва (: Наука), 1981, s. 147-232.

REINHOLD 2006:

Beate Reinhold: Neue Entwicklungen in der Wakhi-Sprache von Gojal (Nordpakistan). Berlin (: Harrassowitz), 2006.

ROBSON - TEGEY 2009:

Barbara Robson – Habibullah Tegey: Pashto. In: Gernot Windfuhr (ed.): Iranian Languages. London – New York (: Routledge), 2009, p. 721-772.

RÓNA-TAS 1998:

András Róna-Tas: The Reconstruction of Proto-Turkic and the Genetic Question. In: Lars Johanson – Éva Ágnes Csató (eds.): The Turkic Languages. London – New York (: Routledge), 1998 (2006 reprint), p. 67-80.

RONG 2005:

Rong Xinjiang (Rong Sin-tlang): The Name of the So-called "Tumshuqese" Language. In: Carol Altman Bromberg – Nicolas Sims-Williams – Ursula Sims-Williams (eds.): Bulletin of the Asia Institute. Iranian and Zoroastrian Studies in Honor of Prods Oktor Skjærvø. New Series/Volume 19, 2005, p. 119-127.

ROSS - GAUTHIOT 1913:

E. D. Ross – Robert Gauthiot: L'alphabet sogdien d'après un témoignage du XIII^e siècle. Journal Asiatique, 1913, p. 521-533.

ROZENFEL'D 1964:

Анна Зиновьевна Розенфельд: Ванджские говоры таджикского языка. Ленинград (: *Издат ельст во ленинградского университета*), 1971.

ŞAMBIZODA 1937:

Çamşed Şambizoda: Alifbe. Awalon sol çat. Stalinobod, 1937.

ŞAMBIZODĀT 1931:

M. B. Şambizodāt: Xurgnoni alifbə. Olullajen çāt. Sitalinonod – Toşkand, 1931.

SCHENKER 1993:

Alexander M. Schenker: Proto-Slavonic. In: Bernard Comrie – Greville G. Corbett (eds.): The Slavonic Languages. London (: Routledge), 1993, 60-121.

SIMS-WILLIAMS 1979:

Nicolas Sims-Williams: On the Plural and Dual in Sogdian. Bulletin of the School of Oriental and African Studies 42/2 (: University of London), 1979, s. 337-346.

SIMS-WILLIAMS 1981a:

Nicolas Sims-Williams: The Sogdian sound-system and the origins of the Uyghur script. Journal Asiatique 269, 1981, p. 347-360. (with errata-slip distributed with JA 270, 1982)

SIMS-WILLIAMS 1981b:

Nicolas Sims-Williams: Some Sogdian denominal abstract suffixes. Acta Orientalia XLII, Copenhagen (: Munksgaard), 1981, p. 11-19.

SIMS-WILLIAMS 1982:

Nicolas Sims-Williams: The double system of nominal inflection in Sogdian. Transactions of the Philological Society 1982, Oxford, 1982, s. 67-76.

SIMS-WILLIAMS 1984:

Nicolas Sims-Williams: The Sogdian "Rhytmic Law". In: Wojciech Skalmowski, Alois van Tongerloo (eds.): Middle Iranian Studies: Proceedings of the International Symposium organized by the Katholieke Universiteit Leuven from the 17th to the 20th of May 1982. Leuven (: Katholieke Universiteit te Leuven), 1984, p. 203-215.

SIMS-WILLIAMS 1988 [online]:

Nicolas Sims-Williams: Bactrian Language. In: *Eḥṣān* Yārshāṭer (ed.): Encyclopædia Iranica [online edition]. Costa Mesa, California, p. 344-349.

URL: http://www.iranicaonline.org/articles/bactrian-language [quot. 16. 02. 2013, 23:18]

SIMS-WILLIAMS 1989a:

Nicolas Sims-Williams: Eastern Middle Iranian. In: Rüdiger Schmitt (ed.): Compendium Linguarum Iranicarum. Wiesbaden (: Dr. Ludwig Reichert Verlag), 1989, p. 165-172.

SIMS-WILLIAMS 1989b:

Nicolas Sims-Williams: Sogdian. In: Rüdiger Schmitt (ed.): Compendium Linguarum Iranicarum. Wiesbaden (: Dr. Ludwig Reichert Verlag), 1989, p. 174-192.

SIMS-WILLIAMS 1989c:

Nicolas Sims-Williams: Bactrian. In: Rüdiger Schmitt (ed.): Compendium Linguarum Iranicarum. Wiesbaden (: Dr. Ludwig Reichert Verlag), 1989, p. 230-235.

SIMS-WILLIAMS 1996a:

Nicolas Sims-Williams: The Sogdian manuscripts in Brāhmī script as evidence for Sogdian phonology. In: Ronald Eric Emmerick et ali. (eds.): Turfan, Khotan und Dunhuang: Vorträge der Tagung "Annemarie von Gabain und die Turfanforschung" veranstaltet von der Berlin-Brandenburgischen Akademie der Wissenschaften in Berlin (9.-12. 12, 1994). Berlin, 1996, p. 307-315.

SIMS-WILLIAMS 1996b [online]:

Nicolas Sims-Williams: Eastern Iranian Languages. In: *Eḥsān* Yārshāṭer (ed.): Encyclopædia Iranica [online edition]. Costa Mesa, California.

URL: http://www.iranicaonline.org/articles/eastern-iranian-languages [quot. 05. 12. 2012, 12:34]

SIMS-WILLIAMS 2012:

Nicolas Sims-Williams: Yaghnobi as a Sogdian dialect. [handout presented on 11. 5. 2012 at Symposium in the memory of Manfred Mayrhofer (1929-2011): Iranian and Indo-European Onomastics and Linguistics, Vienna, May 10-12, 2012]

SIMS-WILLIAMS - HAMILTON 1990:

Nicolas Sims-Williams – James Hamilton: Documentes turco-sogdiens du IXe-Xe siècle de Touen-houang. Corpus inscriptionum iranicarum. London (: School of Oriental and African Studies), 1990.

SJÖGREN 1844:

Андрей Михайловичь Шёгренъ: Осетинская грамматика съ краткимъ словаремъ осетинско-россійскимъ и россійско-осетинскимъ. Санктпетербургъ (: Типографія Императской Академіи Наукъ), 1844.

SKJÆRVØ 1989a:

Prods Oktor Skjærvø: Modern Eastern Iranian. In: Rüdiger Schmitt (ed.): Compendium Linguarum Iranicarum. Wiesbaden (: Dr. Ludwig Reichert Verlag), 1989, p. 370-383.

SKJÆRVØ 1989b:

Prods Oktor Skjærvø: Pashto. In: Rüdiger Schmitt (ed.): Compendium Linguarum Iranicarum. Wiesbaden (: Dr. Ludwig Reichert Verlag), 1989, p. 384-410.

SKJÆRVØ 1989c:

Prods Oktor Skjærvø: Yidgha and Munjī. In: Rüdiger Schmitt (ed.): Compendium Linguarum Iranicarum. Wiesbaden (: Dr. Ludwig Reichert Verlag), 1989, p. 411-416.

SKJÆRVØ 2005:

Prods Oktor Skjærvø: An Introduction to Old Persian (revised and expanded 2nd version). 2005.

URL: http://www.fas.harvard.edu/-iranian/OldPersian/opcomplete.pdf [quot. oi. 10. 2008, oo:33]

SKÖLD 1936:

Hannes Sköld: Materialien zu den iranischen Pamirsprachen. Lund (: C. W. K. Gleerup), 1936.

SMIRNOVA 1963:

O. I. Smirnova: La carte des regions du haut Zerafchan d'apprès les documents du Mt.

Mough. In: Труды двадцать пятого международного конгресса востоковедов. *Москва 9-16 августа 1960 г.* Том II, заседания серий VI-IX, XII. Moscow – Nendeln/Liechtenstein (: *Kraus-Thompson Organization Limited*), 1963, p. 329-337.

SOKOLOVA 1953a:

Валетина Степановна Соколова: Ягнобский язык. In: Валетина Степановна Соколова: Очерки по фонетике иранских языков. Выпуск II. Осетинский, ягнобский и памирские языки. Москва – Ленинград (: Издательство Академии наук СССР), 1953, р. 59-79.

SOKOLOVA 1953b:

Валетина Степановна Соколова: Шугнано-рушанская In: Валетина группа. Выпуск Степановна Соколова: Очерки ПО фонетике иранских языков. II. Осетинский, ягнобский и памирские языки. Москва – Ленинград (: Издательство *Академии наук СССР*), 1953, p. 84-175.

SOKOLOVA 1953c:

Валетина Степановна Соколова: Ишкашимский язык. In: Валетина Степановна Соколова: Очерки по фонетике иранских языков. Выпуск II. Осетинский, ягнобский и памирские языки. Москва – Ленинград (: Издательство Академии наук СССР), 1953, р. 230-240.

SOKOLOVA 1966:

Валетина Степановна Соколова: Шугнано-рушанская языковая группа. In: *В. В.* Виноградов (ed.): Языки народов СССР. Том первый: Индоевропейские языки. Москва (: *Наука*), 1966, р. 362-397.

SOKOLOVA 1967:

Валетина Степановна Соколова: Генетические отношения язгулямского языка и шугнанской языковой группы. Ленинград (: *Наука*), 1967.

SOKOLOVA 1973:

Валетина Степановна Соколова: Генетические отношения мунджанского языка и шугнано-язгулямской языковой группы. Ленинград, 1973.

SOPHRONIOU 1962:

Sofronios Agathocli Sofroniou: Teach Yourself Modern Greek. London, 1962.

STEBLIN-KAMENSKIY 1976:

 $\it Иван \ \, Mихайлович \ \,$ Стеблин-Каменский: Два ваханских топонима. In: Иранское языкознание: история, этимология, типология. К 75-летию В. И. Абаева. Москва (: $\it Hayka$), 1976, s. 182-185.

STEBLIN-KAMENSKIY 1981:

Иван Михайлович Стеблин-Каменский: Бактрийский язык. In: Вера Сергеевна Расторгуева (ed.): Основы иранского языкознания. Среднеиранские языки. Москва (: Наука), 1981, р. 314-346.

STEBLIN-KAMENSKIY 1999:

Иван Михайлович Стеблин-Каменский: Этимологический словарь ваханского языка. Ethymological Dictionary of the Wakhi Language. Санкт-Петербург (: Петербургское Вост оковедение), 1999.

SUNDERMANN 1989:

Werner Sundermann: westmitteliranische Sprachen. In: Rüdiger Schmitt (ed.): Compendium Linguarum Iranicarum. Wiesbaden (: *Dr. Ludwig Reichert Verlag*), 1989, p. 106-113.

TEDESCO 1926:

Paul Tedesco: Ostiranische Nominalflexion. In: Zeitschrift für Indologie und Iranistik, Band 4. Leipzig (: Deutschen Morgenländische Gesellschaft), 1926, s. 94-166.

THORDARSON 1989:

Fridrik Thordarson: Ossetic. In: Rüdiger Schmitt (ed.): Compendium Linguarum Iranicarum. Wiesbaden (: Dr. Ludwig Reichert Verlag), 1989, p. 456-479.

TOMASCHEK 1880:

Wilhelm Tomaschek: Central-asiatische studien II. Die Pamir-Dialecte. Wien, 1880.

TURNER 1927:

R. L. Turner: Notes on Dardic. In: Bulletin of the School of Oriental Studies 4/3 (: University of London), 1937, p. 533-541.

DE UJFALVY DE MEZŐ-KÖVESD 1882:

Charles-Eugène de Ujfalvy: La langue des Yagnobis. In: Revue de linguistique et de philologie comparée XV, Paris, 1882, p. 271-292.

DE VAAN 2008:

Michiel de Vaan: Etymological Dictionary of Latin and the other Italic Languages. Leiden Indo-European Etymological Dictionary Series. Leiden – Boston (: Brill), 2008.

DE LA VAISSIÈRE 2005:

Étienne de la Vaissière: Sogdian Traders. A History. Handbuch der Orientalistik 10. Leiden – Boston (: Brill), 2005.

VAVROUŠEK 2007:

Petr Vavroušek: O rekonstrukci praindoevropštiny. Praha (: Filozofický fakulta Univerzity Karlovy v Praze), 2007.

VINOGRADOVA 2000a:

Софья Петровна Виноградова: Согдийский язык. In: Языки мира. Иранские языки III. – Восточноиранские языки. Москва (: ИНДРИК), 2000, р. 58-95.

VINOGRADOVA 2000b:

Софья Петровна Виноградова: Ягнобский язык. In: Языки мира. Иранские языки III. – Восточноиранские языки. Москва (: ИНДРИК), 2000, р. 290-310.

VITCHAK 1992:

K. T. Витчак: Скифский язык: опыт описания. In: Вопросы языкознания 1991, №5. Москва (: Hау κ а), 1992, p. 50–59.

WALDE 1906:

Alois Walde: Lateinisches etymologisches Wörterbuch. Heidelberg (: Carl Winter's – Universitätsbuchhandlung), 1906.

WENDTLAND 2011:

Antje Wendtland: The Emergence and Development of the Sogdian Perfect. In: Agnes Korn – Geoffrey Haig – Simin Karimi – Poller Samvelian (eds.): Topics in Iranian

Linguistics. Beiträge zur Iranistik 34. Wiesbaden (: *Dr. Ludwig Reichert Verlag*), 2009, p. 39-52.

YOSHIDA 2009a:

Yutaka Yoshida: Sogdian. In: Gernot Windfuhr (ed.): Iranian Languages. London – New York (: Routledge), 2009, p. 295-335.

YULE - CORDIER 1993:

Henry Yule - Henri Cordier: The Travels of Marco Polo. The Complete Yule-Cordier Edition. Volume I. Toronto (: General Publishing Company), 1993.

YŪSUFBĒKOV 2000:

Шодихон П. Юсуфбеков: Сангличский язык. In: Языки мира. Иранские языки III. – Восточноиранские языки. Москва (: *ИНДРИК*), 2000, р. 186-196.

YŪSUFBĒKOV – DODYKHUDOEVA 2008:

Шодихон П. Юсуфбеков – Л. Р. Додыхудоева: Сангличский язык. In: Основы иранского языкознания. Среднеиранские и новоиранские языки. Москва (: Вост очная лит ерат ура), 2008, р. 110-234.

ZARSHENĀS 1357:

Zohre Zaršenās: \underline{K}^{v} ārazmī Language. In: Nāme-ye Farhangestān Vol. 2, No. 1 (Ser. No. 5), 1357, p. 53-65.

زهرهٔ زرشناس: زبان خوارزمی. :In نامهٔ فرهنگستان ۲/۲ (مسلسل ۵)، ۱۳۵۷، ۵۵-۵۳.

ZARUBIN 1924:

Иван Иванович Зарубин: К списку памирских языков. In: Доклады Российской Академии Наук, 1924, серия В, р. 79-81.