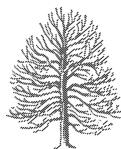


# *Farnah*

Indo-Iranian and Indo-European Studies

in Honor of

**Sasha Lubotsky**



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# The Phonology of Tocharian B *okso* ‘ox’

JAY H. JASANOFF



The etymology of TB *okso* ‘ox’ (obl. *oksaï*, pl. nom. *\*oksaiñ*, obl. *oksaim*; cf. TA nom. pl. *opsi*, with *-ps-* < *\*-ks-*) has never been in doubt. It is the familiar PIE “ox” word, represented by Ved. *uksā́*, pl. *uksánah*, MW *ych*, pl. *ychen*, OIcel. *oxi*, pl. *yxn*, etc., and standardly reconstructed as a hysterokinetic *n*-stem *\*uks-én-*, *\*uks-n-*. In a recent study, Höfler (2015:231–2) has proposed an inner-IE derivational history for this word under which the apparent suffixal *o*-grade of the Tocharian form, along with the West Germanic nom. sg. in *-ō* (cf. OHG *olso*, OE *oxa*),<sup>1</sup> would be an archaism rather than a post-IE substitution of amphikinetic *\*-ō* for hysterokinetic *\*-ēn*. The “deep” etymology of “ox,” however, is not our concern here. What matters, for our present purposes, is that Toch. B *okso* must somehow go back to a post-PIE nom. sg. *\*uksō*.<sup>2</sup>

How the inner-Tocharian phonology would have worked is unclear. According to the standard view, PIE *\*ō*, which uncontroversially gave *\*a* (> TB *ā*, *a*; TA *ā*) in non-final syllables in Proto-Tocharian, should have gone to *\*-ū*, whence *\*-u* (i.e., *\*-ɯ*)<sup>3</sup> in absolute final position. This is a well-established doctrine. Ringe (1996:89–90), citing earlier work by Normier, Penney, and Pedersen, lists the following examples:

PIE *\*d(u)uóh<sub>1</sub>*<sup>4</sup> ‘two’ > PT *\*wú* > TA masc. *wu*

PIE *\*k(u)uó* ‘dog’ > PT *\*kú* > TB, TA *ku*

PIE *\*h<sub>2</sub>ntb<sup>h</sup>óh<sub>1</sub>* ‘both’ > PT *\*antpú* > TA fem. *āmpuk*

PIE 1 sg. *\*-oh<sub>2</sub>* > PT *\*-u* in TB 1 sg. subj. *āyu* ‘I will give’, *yāmu* ‘I will do’, etc.

PIE *\*oktō(u)* (*sic*) ‘eight’ > *\*ektú* > *\*oktú* (*u*-uml.) → PT *\*oktá*<sup>5</sup> > TB *okt*, TA *okät*

Another case is adduced by Pinault (2008:421–2), who makes the rule more general, extending it from absolute auslaut to a wider range of final syllables:

<sup>1</sup>With hyperlong, or “trimoric” *\*-ō*, here indicated by a second macron. As I have argued elsewhere (first in Jasanoff 2002:35–8), PIE inherent long vowels in absolute final position received a quantum of extra length in Germanic and Balto-Slavic.

<sup>2</sup>Note there is no extra-Tocharian evidence for a labiovelar. Höfler (*ibid.*) identifies the underlying root as *\*h<sub>2</sub>eug-* ‘increase’.

<sup>3</sup>The vowels sometimes written *\*i* and *\*u* in Proto-Tocharian reconstructions were underlyingly and phonetically the diphthongs *\*ɨy* and *\*ɨw*. Except in monosyllables and in cases of analogical restoration, diphthongs were the only source of final vowels in Toch. A.

<sup>4</sup>I write *\*h<sub>1</sub>* and *\*h<sub>2</sub>* for Ringe’s *\*x* and *\*x*, but otherwise retain his notation.

<sup>5</sup>With substitution of *\*-j* from the adjacent numerals for ‘7’, ‘9’, ‘10’. The expected *-u* appears in *oktuk* ‘80’.

PIE  $*-u\bar{o}s$  (perfect active participle) > TB, TA *yāmu* ‘done, having done’<sup>6</sup>

But if final  $*-\bar{o}$  gave *-u*, what was the origin of the *-o* of *okso* and the numerous other *n*-stems in Tocharian, both relatively old (e.g., B *klyomo* (pl. *-oñ*), A *klyom* ‘noble’, B *śaumo* (pl. *śāmna*) ‘man’, A *śom* ‘boy’) and relatively new (e.g., B *onkolmo* (pl. *-añ*), A *onkalam* ‘elephant’)? Ringe (1996:10–1), followed by Pinault (*ibid.*), considers three possible sources for this ending: a)  $*-\bar{o}n$ , with  $*-n$  analogically restored, as in Gk. *akmōn* ‘anvil’, *telamōn* ‘strap’, etc.; b) disyllabic  $*-ob_1\bar{o}(n)$ , i.e., the nom. sg. of an *n*-stem with the “Hoffmann suffix,” as in OAv. *maθraā* ‘proclaimer of the *maθra-*, prophet’; and c)  $*-\bar{o}nts$ , proper to *nt*-stems of the type B *walo* ‘king’, obl. *lānt* (*ibid.*). None of these choices are attractive. Tocharian, like Latin and Old Irish, shortened long vowels before final nasals; this is why we find, e.g., B nom. sg. *kantwo* ‘tongue’ <  $*-\bar{a}$  <  $*-\bar{ā}$  beside obl. sg. *kantwa* <  $*-a$  <  $*-\bar{ā}n$  <  $*-\bar{ā}m$  (cf. Lat. *linguām*, OIr. *bé* ‘woman’ <  $*b\bar{e}n$  <  $*g^w\bar{e}n$ ). It follows that the Toch. B reflex of pre-Toch.  $*-\bar{o}n$  would more likely have been  $*-e$  <  $*-e$  <  $*-\bar{o}n$  (cf. *kante* ‘100’ <  $*-om$ ) than *-o*. As for a pre-Toch. nom. sg. in  $*-ob_1\bar{o}(n)$ , Tocharian may well have inherited a nucleus of “Hoffmann” *n*-stems. But there is no evidence that such forms were ever widespread or productive, and no independent reason to believe that Tocharian ever had a Germanic-like distinction between normal (bimoric) and hyperlong (trimoric; see n. 1) long vowels.<sup>7</sup> Finally, in the *nt*-stem *walo*, the attested *-o* was probably not the phonological reflex of  $*-\bar{o}nts$  at all; see below. Pace Pinault, the only demonstrable treatment of  $*-\bar{o}$ - in final syllables where it was *not* in absolute Auslaut was PT  $*-a-$ , as in non-final syllable environments (cf. nom.-acc. pl. fem. B *yāmuwa* < nt. pl.  $*-u\bar{o}s$ ).

All of this would be genuinely puzzling if the standardly assumed change of  $*-\bar{o}\#$  to  $*-u\#$  were well-supported. But it is not. Three of the forms regularly cited in support of the rule — the words for “two” (A *wu*), “both” (A *āmpuk*), and “eight” (B *okt*, A *okāt*) — are historically duals, and hence plausibly referable not to  $*-\bar{o}$  but to  $*-\bar{o}u$  <  $*-ob_1(u)$  (cf. Ved. *-ā*, *-āv*, *-au*; Go. *abtau*). The participial nom. sg. masc. in *-u* (BA *yāmu*) is not from a masculine nom. sg. in  $*-u\bar{o}s$ , which would have given  $*-uwa$ , as in the homophonous neuter (> fem.) pl. (cf. above), but from the neuter sg. in remade  $*-u\bar{u}us$ , whence PT  $*-awə$  and BA *-u*.<sup>8</sup> Most tellingly, the 1 sg. in *-u* (athematic!) and *-au* (thematic), which are confined to Toch. B, are better explained as lenited forms of PIE  $*-mi$ , which survives as *-ām* (athematic) and *-am* (thematic) in Toch. A; for the Toch. B change of  $*-m-$  to  $*-w-$  compare B masc. *su*, fem. *sāu*, nt. *tu* ‘that one’ beside A *sām*, *sām*, *tām* ‘id.’, and B *wāki* ‘difference’ (<  $*-aw^hə$  <  $*-(a)men$ ) beside A *wakām* ‘id.’.<sup>9</sup> The list of potential examples of the change of final  $*-\bar{o}$  to  $*-u$  thus

<sup>6</sup>Pinault’s further derivation (2008:611) of the Tocharian infinitive in BA *-tsi* from  $*-tsə + i$ , where  $*-tsə$  <  $*-tsu$  < PIE  $*-d^h\bar{i}oi$ , is of no probative value; see Fortson 2013:54–5 for full discussion. In A *nuk* ‘I (fem.)’, taken by me (Jasanoff 1989:134–5) from  $*naku$  <  $*[n]e\bar{h}o$ , it is not necessary to assume that the rounding agent was specifically  $*-u$  as opposed to one of the other rounded vowels,  $*-ā$  or  $*-o$ ; see below.

<sup>7</sup>I am myself partly to blame for bringing the Hoffmann suffix into the discussion of these forms, having ill-advisedly proposed  $*-oH\bar{o}$  as the source of Gmc. trimoric  $*-\bar{o}$  in Jasanoff 1980: 379–81. The error was retracted in Jasanoff 2002:36–7 n. 17.

<sup>8</sup>On the reconstruction and phonology of the forms of the past participle, see Þórhallsdóttir 1988:184–91 (where, however, the *-a* of the fem./nt. pl. is said to be analogical).

<sup>9</sup>The exact conditioning of the rule is disputed; see the discussion (with literature) by Malzahn (2010:29–30).

reduces to BA *ku*, where the possibility of contraction or assimilation to the *\*-w-* (< *\*kuwV?* *\*kwV?*) leaves the identity of the final vowel indeterminate.<sup>10</sup>

The purported sound law *\*-ō > \*-ū > -u* can thus be discarded. The claim of this small *hommage* to my friend Sasha is that “late” (i.e., post-laryngeal loss) PIE *\*ō*, which normally gave PT *\*ā*, fell together with post-laryngeal-loss PIE *\*ā* in absolute final position, giving PT *\*-ā* (whence conceivably later PT *\*-o*)<sup>11</sup> and TB *-o*. The subsequent phonological history of the “ox” word, I will argue, was defined by a single phonological rule—the lowering of word-initial *\*u-* to *\*o-*—and a conspicuous *non*-change—the failure of the resulting *\*o-* to participate in the otherwise normal unrounding of *\*o* to *\*e*.

An early lowering of initial *\*u-* to *\*o-* (*vel sim.*) in Tocharian is suggested by the treatment of the PIE negative prefix *\*n-*, which ought to have given *\*m-* <än->, but which in fact regularly appears as PT *\*en-*, as if from PIE *\*on-* (cf. B *etänkätte* = A *atänkät* ‘unhindered’, B *enklyausätte* ‘unheard of’, etc.). In theory, the phonetic development in these forms could either have been a lowering of *\*ǵ-* (probably [i]) to *\*λ-*, with later fronting to *\*e-*; or—if Adams (1984:397–8) is right in thinking that the PIE syllabic resonants passed through a stage *\*uR* on the way to *\*ǵR*—a lowering of initial *\*u-* to *\*o-* directly, with later unrounding of *\*o* to *\*e* via *\*λ*. The latter scenario has not been much discussed, partly because initial *\*u-* has been thought to give *\*wǵ-* in Tocharian,<sup>12</sup> and partly because the purported development of *\*R* to *\*uR* is supposedly ruled out by the failure of pre-Toch. *\*-R-* to induce labialization in a preceding velar.<sup>13</sup> But these positions too need to be re-examined. The evidence for the *\*u-* to *\*wǵ-* change is very weak. Typical of the forms adduced in its support is the adjective B *\*wriye* ‘watery’ (in *wriyesse* ‘id.’), matching A *wri* ‘id.’ and supposedly going back to PIE *\*udrijo-* (Ringe 1996:127). The *\*w-* in this word, however, is not prothetic, but an import from the underlying noun *\*wǵr* ‘water’, where no fewer than three post-IE stem variants (*\*uod-* > PT *\*wer-*, *\*uedr-* > PT *\*wǵr-*, *\*udr-* > *\*w-?*) may have gone into the creation of the form as we have it.<sup>14</sup> The non-labialization of pre-Toch. *\*k<sub>ṛ</sub>R-* to *\*kwǵR-* or *\*k<sup>w</sup>ǵR-* is a red herring; the expectation that the *\*k-* in a “real” *\*kuR-* sequence would have been labialized is not supported by any actual example. The economical assumption, therefore, is that the development of the privative prefix was *\*ǵ- > \*un- > \*on-* (> *\*en-*), and that the rule that lowered *\*un-* > *\*on-* also had the effect of lowering of *\*uksā* to *\*oksā*.<sup>15</sup>

But if lowering was the source of the initial *\*o-* of the “ox” word, why did the newly

<sup>10</sup>Thus, if *\*-ō* gave PT *\*-ā*, as maintained below, PT *\*k<sub>ṛ</sub>w* (“*\*ku*”) < *\*kū* could be either the regular contraction product of *\*kuwā* or a special development of *\*kwā*. Neither possibility is ruled out by B nom. sg. *suwo* ‘pig’ and *luwo* ‘animal’, which look like they were back-formed from their phonologically regular obliques, *suwa* (< *\*suH-m*) and *luwa* (< *\*luHs-Ø*), respectively. In “dog,” where the oblique was the anomalous B *kwem*, A *kom*, the nom. sg. is more likely to be phonologically regular.

<sup>11</sup>Since PT *\*o* and *\*ā* fell together in Toch. B and both were lost word-finally in Toch. A, it is impossible to distinguish final *\*-o* and *\*-ā* in PT reconstructions. In what follows I write *\*-ā* for all stages earlier than the attested languages.

<sup>12</sup>So, e.g., by Hilmarsson (1982:160), followed by later writers. The existence of such a rule is suggested by the development of initial *\*i-* to *\*ya-* (cf. B *ytārye*, A *ytār* ‘road’). But the cases are not parallel: a prothetic *\*y-* also developed before *\*e-* (cf. B *yakwe*, A *yuk* ‘horse’ < *\*ek<sub>u</sub>-*), but not before *\*o-* (cf. B *ek*, A *ak* ‘eye’ < *\*ok<sup>w</sup>-*).

<sup>13</sup>So Ringe 1991:81–3, repeated in Ringe 1996:67.

<sup>14</sup>Also widely cited is B *wāstarye* ‘liver’(?), compared with the family of Gk. *bustērā* (< *\*ud-*) ‘womb’ by Van Windekens (1976:565), and followed by Hilmarsson (*ibid.*), Adams (1988:17), and Ringe (1996:71). But even if the etymology is correct, which is far from clear, the full grade of Lith. *vėdaras* ‘belly’ shows that the Tocharian form could have begun with a real *\*u-*.

<sup>15</sup>On TA *ops-*, which confirms the reconstruction without an initial *\*w-*, cf. Pinault 2008:432–3.

lowered vowel fail to undergo unrounding like the *\*o-* of the privative? For the answer, we have only to look at two forms in which the privative prefix was *not* unrounded, namely, B *ontsoytte* ‘insatiable’ and B obl. *onkrocce*, A *onkrac* ‘immortal’. *ontsoytte* is the regularly formed privative of *soy-* < *\*sāy-* ‘be sated’, presupposing a present *\*sāie/o-* or *\*sādīe/o-* and going back to the root *\*seh<sub>2</sub>(i)-* ‘id.’ (cf. Gk. *áetai* ‘becomes sated’, OIr. *sáith* ‘satiety’, etc.). In *onkrocce*, *onkrac* the root etymology is unknown,<sup>16</sup> but the correspondence B *-o-* = A *-a-* points unambiguously to *\*-ā-* in the second syllable. The failure of the vowel of the prefix to unround in these forms must have been due to the rounded *\*-ā-* that followed. The operative rule or process has been characterized as a form of umlaut, e.g., by Adams (1988:21–2: “rounded vowel umlaut”), Ringe (1996:163: “*o*-umlaut”), and Pinault (2008:431–8: “Umlaut par *\*-ō* et *\*ā*”). But umlaut is properly a sound change, like *i*-umlaut in Germanic, which was a fronting rule, and *a*-umlaut in Tocharian (e.g., *\*l'eka* > *\*lyaka* > B *lyāka*, A *lyāk* ‘saw’), which was a lowering rule. Since the PT initial *\*o-* of our forms was either rounded from the beginning, as in *okso* < PIE *\*u-*, or rounded very early in the post-IE history of Tocharian, as in *on-* < *\*un-* < PIE *\*u-*, the “umlaut” in these cases is probably better thought of as a constraint against unrounding when a rounded vowel followed. The same can be said for the supposed “*u*-umlaut” in BA *or* ‘wood’, where the expected unrounding was blocked by *\*-u* (PT *\*orə* < *\*doru*), and in B *okt*, A *oküt* ‘8’, where the blocking agent was the reflex of *\*-ōu*, perhaps while this was at the *\*-ū* stage.<sup>17</sup> The only true umlaut by a rounded vowel in Proto-Tocharian was the change of *\*a* (< post-IE *\*ā*, “*\*ɔ*,” etc.) to *\*ā* before *\*u* and *\*o*. The umlauting effect before *\*-u* can be seen in B *soy* ‘son’ < pre-PT *\*sāyu* < *\*swāyu* < *\*swayu* < *\*sub<sub>2,3</sub>iū-*. In the much better-attested case of *\*a* followed by *\*o* the phonetic influence was bidirectional: *\*a...o* became *\*ā...ā* in what I have called “mutual rounding assimilation” (cf. B *wokatär*, A *wakatär* ‘blooms’ < PT *\*wākātər* < *\*wago-*).<sup>18</sup>

Our finding that the *\*-ā* of PT *\*oksa* was the phonological reflex of PIE final *\*-ō* has important consequences. At the most immediate level, it explains the amphikinetic *i*-stem inflection of “ox” outside the nom. sg. (cf. obl. sg. *oksai* < *\*-ōim̄* (for *\*-ōim̄*),<sup>19</sup> nom. pl. *\*oksai[ñ]* < *\*-ōies* (for *\*-ōies*) + *-ñ*, obl. pl. *oksaim̄* < *\*-ōim̄s* (for *\*-ōim̄s*), etc.). The immense productivity of the amphikinetic *i*-declension in Tocharian, and especially in Toch. B, is well-known.<sup>20</sup> But the mechanism by which this inflection—familiar in Greek as the

<sup>16</sup>Etymological proposals, none convincing, can be found in Adams 2013 s.v.

<sup>17</sup>Adams (1988:21–2) presents *o-* and *u-*umlaut as “a condition on possible vowel sequences”; compare Ringe 1996:98. There seems to be no good reason to posit universal unrounding followed by selective rounding in these cases.

<sup>18</sup>The term is meant to echo Adams’ “mutual rounding,” though Adams’ understanding of the process (e.g., in Adams 1988:21) is quite different from mine. Mutual rounding assimilation did not take place when the *\*o* was in a final syllable (cf. B *āke* ‘end’, *pāke* ‘part’, etc.), showing that PIE *\*o* was unrounded to *\*a* in final syllables before it lost its rounding elsewhere. The same early unrounding explains why there was no retention of rounding in the root syllable of “*tomas*” type thematic nouns; a form like quasi-PIE *\*d<sup>h</sup>uoro-* ‘door’ gave B *twere* (< PT *\*twere* < *\*twara*), not B *\*twore* (PT *\*twore* < *\*twora*), because the second vowel had already lost its rounding at the time when the *\*o-* in the first syllable would have been subject to the main unrounding rule.

<sup>19</sup>For ease of exposition, *a*-umlaut effects on the first syllable are ignored in the following discussion. I reconstruct *\*-ōim̄* (> PT *\*-ay*) rather than *\*-ōim̄* in the acc. sg. because *\*-ōim̄* would probably have fallen together, via the intermediate stage *\*-ayə(n)*, with PIE *\*oi* and *\*ai*, whence PT *\*-ay* ~ *\*-ey* and TB *-i*, TA *-e* (cf. nom. pl. masc. B *astari*, A *āstve* ‘pure’). Independent evidence for the spread of *\*-ō-* from the nom. sg. can be seen in non-“iotacized” *n*-stem forms like nom. pl. B *onkolmañ*, A *onkälmañ*, with PT *\*-mañə* < *\*-mōnes*. Parallel to the change of *\*-ōim̄* to PT *\*-ay*, I further assume that *\*-ēim̄* would have given PT (palatalizing) *\*-ey*, whence again TB *-i* and TA *-e* (see below).

<sup>20</sup>It would go far beyond the scope of this article to discuss the views of scholars who reject the *i*-stem analysis of the



“*Sapphō*-type” — spread through the language has always been something of a mystery. Under the quasi-standard assumption that PIE  $*\bar{o}$  gave TB  $-u$ , and that TB  $-o$  must therefore go back either to post-PIE  $*\bar{a}$  (as in *kantwo*) or to one of the modified  $n$ -stem endings  $*\bar{o}n$  or  $*\text{-ob}_1\bar{o}(n)$ , there would have been no formal overlap between an  $n$ -stem like “ox” and an amphikinetic  $i$ -stem like the ancestor of TB *yoko* (also *-iye*) ‘thirst’ (root  $*h_1eg^{mh}$  ‘drink’). To appreciate this, consider the relevant nom. sg. and acc. sg. forms. If the amphikinetic  $i$ -stem nom. sg. in  $*\bar{oi}(s)$  was remodeled to  $*\bar{o}$ , as in Greek (*Sápphō*) and Vedic (cf. *sákhā*, acc.  $-\bar{ā}yam$  ‘friend’), nouns of the *yoko*-type would *ex hypothesi* have come out in Proto-Tocharian with a nom. sg. in  $*\bar{ow} < *\bar{u} < *\bar{o}$  and an acc. sg. (= oblique) in  $*\bar{ay} < *\bar{o}i\bar{m}$  (for  $*\bar{o}i\bar{m}$ ). The *okso*-type, on the other hand, would have had a nom. sg. in  $*\bar{o} < *\bar{o}n/\text{-ob}_1\bar{o}(n)$  and an acc. sg. in  $*\bar{an} < *\bar{o}n\bar{m}$  (for  $*\bar{o}n\bar{m}$ ), *vel sim.*<sup>21</sup> There would thus have been no reason for the two paradigms to merge. Yet merge they did. The reason was that PIE  $*\bar{o}$ , contrary to the scenario just presented, did *not* give PT  $*\bar{ow} < *\bar{u}$ . It gave PT  $*\bar{a}$  in both declensions:

	Amphikinetic $n$ -stem	Amphikinetic $i$ -stem
nom. sg.	PT $*\text{oks}\bar{a} < *\text{uks}\bar{o}$	PT $*\text{yok}^w\bar{a} < *\bar{eg}^{mh}\bar{o} \leftarrow *\bar{eg}^{mh}\bar{oi}(s)$
acc. sg.	?PT $*\text{oksan} < *\text{uks}\bar{o}n\bar{m} \leftarrow *\text{uks}\bar{o}n\bar{m}$	PT $*\text{yok}^w\bar{ay} < *\bar{eg}^{mh}\bar{o}i\bar{m} \leftarrow *\bar{eg}^{mh}\bar{o}i\bar{m}$

The identity of the nom. sg. forms —  $*\text{oks}\bar{a}$  and  $*\text{yok}^w\bar{a}$  — was the basis for the amalgamation of the two types.

Many traditional problems of Tocharian grammar come together in the history of *okso* and *yoko*: the origin and diffusion of the nom. sg. in TB  $-o$ , the various transformations undergone by  $n$ -stems, and the relationship of the “ $-ai$ -series” of endings (TB  $-ai$ ,  $-ai\bar{n}$ , etc.) to the less straightforward but obviously related endings of the “ $-i$ -series” (TB  $-iye$ ,  $-i$ ,  $-i\bar{n}$ , etc.). A few remarks can be made about each.

*Other forms in TB -o.* The nom. sg. of amphikinetic  $n$ -stems was uncontroversially reduced to  $*\bar{o}$  in late PIE, with phonologically regular loss of the etymological word-final  $*\bar{n}$ .<sup>22</sup> With these forms as a starting point, the rule deleting the stem-final consonant in lengthened-grade nom. sg. forms was analogically extended to different kinds of stems in different branches of the family. Thus, as is well-known, Indo-Iranian deleted final  $*\bar{r}$  (*pitṛ*, etc.) and final  $*\bar{i}$  (*sákhā* = OAv. *haxā*) in addition to  $*\bar{n}$ ; Lithuanian deleted not only  $*\bar{n}$  and  $*\bar{r}$ , but also final  $*\bar{s}$  in the  $s$ -stem *mėnuo* ‘month’; Greek restored final  $-n$  in  $n$ -stems (*ákmōn* ‘anvil’, etc.), but deleted  $*\bar{i}$  in the *Sapphō*-type; and so on. Besides the cases already discussed, Tocharian extended bare  $*\bar{o}$  to two other forms: 1) the amphikinetic  $u$ -stem B  $*\text{poko}$  ‘arm’, obl. *pokai* (= A *poke*) < PT nom. sg.  $*\text{p}\bar{a}k\bar{a}$ <sup>23</sup> <  $*b^h\bar{a}g^h\bar{o}$ , with  $*\bar{o}$  replacing  $*\bar{ous}$  (cf. GAv.  $-\bar{b}\bar{a}z\bar{a}us$ ); and 2) the amphikinetic  $nt$ -stem B *walo*, obl. *lānt* (= A *wäl*, *lānt*), with PT nom. sg.  $*\text{wal}\bar{a} < *\bar{ul}(l)\bar{o}$  replacing  $*\bar{ull}\bar{o}nts$  (*vel sim.*). Further such cases may be waiting to be discovered.

$-ai$ -endings altogether. Other attempts to explain these forms either make appeal to cases other than the accusative (so, e.g., Peyrot 2012), or rely on a putative sound change of  $*\bar{n}$ - to  $*\bar{i}$ - (so, e.g., Pinault 2008:483–5). Neither approach, in my opinion, is satisfactory.

<sup>21</sup>Another possibility is discussed below.

<sup>22</sup>But  $*\bar{n}$  was retained in hysterokinetic  $*\bar{en}$ ; cf. Jasanoff 2002:34–5.

<sup>23</sup>With apparent raising of  $*\bar{p}\bar{a}$ - to  $*\bar{po}$ - in pre-Toch. A, as also in A *pont*- ‘all’ < PT  $*\bar{p}\bar{a}nt$ - <  $*\bar{p}\bar{a}nt$ -.

*Other kinds of n-stems.* Besides *n*-stems with nom. sg. in  $*-\bar{o}$ , Tocharian inherited originally hysterokinetic *n*-stems with a nom. sg. in  $*-\bar{e}$  (for PIE  $*-\bar{e}n$ ). The clearest early example of this type is  $*kau_n r\bar{s}e$  ‘bull’, obl.  $kau_n r\bar{s}$  (= A  $kayur\bar{s}$ ), a compound of “cow” (B  $ke_u$ ) and the word for “male” or “bull,” PIE  $*u\bar{s}e\bar{n}$  (cf. Ved.  $u\bar{s}an$ , Gk.  $\acute{a}rs\bar{e}n$ ). The hysterokinetic nom. sg. in  $*-\bar{e}$  gave PT palatalizing  $*-a$ , while the acc. sg. in  $*-en\bar{n}$ / $*-enn\bar{n}$ / $*-an\bar{n}$  was simplified to  $*-en$ / $*-m$ , giving PT  $*-\emptyset$ .<sup>24</sup> Words of this type were the locus of the synchronic Toch. B rule that nouns with a nom. sg. in  $*-C^ye$ , which are very numerous, form their obliques in bare  $*-C^y < *-C^ya$  (cf.  $kektse\bar{n}e$  ‘body’, obl.  $kektse\bar{n}$ ;  $me\bar{n}e$  ‘moon’, obl.  $me\bar{n}$ ; etc.). It is conceivable that there was a parallel reduction to  $*-on$  (or  $*-an$  or  $*-en$ ) in the *o*-grade acc. sg. in  $*-on\bar{n} < *-on\bar{n} < *-on\bar{n}m$ ; if so, the “expected” obl. sg. of a word like PT  $*oksa$  would have been PT  $*okse < *-on$ , rather than  $*oksan < *-an < *-\bar{o}n\bar{n}m$ , the form tentatively proposed above. We can never know what the “real” oblique ending would have been in such cases, since the amphikinetic *n*-stem ending, whatever it was, was systematically replaced by  $*-ay$ .<sup>25</sup>

*TB -iye, etc.* Nouns of the type B *okso* and *yoko*, whatever their etymology, frequently have alternative nom. sg. forms in *-iye*; cf. *yokiye* beside *yoko*, *proskiye* ‘fear’ beside *prosko*, *šconiyē* ‘hatred’ beside *šcono*, *koškiye* ‘hut’ beside *koško*, etc.<sup>26</sup> Sometimes only the longer variant is attested, as in *oskiye*, obl. *-ai* ‘habitation’ and *kaumiye*, obl. *-ai* ‘pond’. The *-iye* in these forms never palatalizes the preceding consonant, showing that it cannot go back to  $*-iios$ ,  $*-iie(n)$ , or any other sequence beginning with a front vowel. The simplest interpretation is that the accusative/oblique in pre-TB  $*-ay$  was identified with other obliques ending in a “soft” consonant and supplied with a back-formed nominative in  $*-ay + -a$  ( $*yok^w aye$ , etc.). The  $*-a-$  in the sequence  $*-aya$  was then raised to *-i-*, too late to cause palatalization.<sup>27</sup> A parallel series of forms developed in hysterokinetic stems. In a word like B  $*alyiye$ , obl.  $\bar{a}lyi$  ‘palm (of the hand)’, the starting point was a hysterokinetic *n*-stem in nom. sg.  $*-\bar{e}$  (for  $*-\bar{e}n$ ), the Tocharian cognate of Gk.  $\acute{o}l\acute{e}n$  ‘mat’ (<  $*\text{flat surface}$ ), a byform of  $\acute{o}l\acute{e}n\bar{e}$  ‘lower arm, mat’. Copying the amphikinetic pattern, the hysterokinetic nom. sg. in  $*-\bar{e}$  was supplied with an accusative/oblique in  $*-\bar{e}i\bar{n}$ , as if to a hysterokinetic *i*-stem in  $*-\bar{e}i-$  that may or may not have independently existed as a type. The result was a PToch. oblique in palatalizing  $*-ey$ , whence TB *-i* ( $\bar{a}lyi$ ) and TA *-e* ( $\bar{a}le$ ).<sup>28</sup> PT  $*-ey$  in turn became the basis for the back-formation of a nom. sg. in palatalizing  $*-eya > PT *-\bar{i}ya$  (B *alyiye*), exactly paralleling the back-formation of  $*-aya > B yokiye$  to  $*-ay > yokai$ .

A full-length, theoretically informed study of these forms would no doubt reveal much else of interest about their morphological and derivational history. This, however, must remain a task for the future.

<sup>24</sup>I leave open the question of whether the phonetic process was a Neogrammarian sound change or a haplological reduction of  $*-n\bar{n}$  to bare  $*-n$ .

<sup>25</sup>Except, of course, in BA *ku* ‘dog’, where obl. B *kwem* and A *kom* point unambiguously to  $*-on\bar{n}$ . But this word was in every respect atypical; cf. n. 10.

<sup>26</sup>Toch. A sometimes has *-e* in these forms, corresponding to the Toch. B oblique (e.g., A *yoke* = B *yokai*, A *oške* = B *oskai*), and sometimes *-i*, corresponding to the Toch. B nominative in *-iye* (A *praski* = B *proskiye*, A *slyi* ‘line’ = B *sälyye*).

<sup>27</sup>A striking parallel can be cited from Old English, where the class II weak verbs in  $*-\bar{o}$ - (3 sg.  $*-\bar{o}þ$ , 3 pl.  $*-\bar{o}mþ$ , infin.  $*-\bar{o}m$ ) replaced some of their forms by longer forms in  $*-\bar{o}ja-$  (3 pl.  $*-\bar{o}mþ \rightarrow *-\bar{o}janþ$ , infin.  $*-\bar{o}n \rightarrow *-\bar{o}jan$ , etc.). The  $*-\bar{o}$ - in the sequence  $*-\bar{o}ja-$  was subsequently raised to *-i-*, but too late to cause *i*-umlaut or gemination. Typical forms are thus 3 sg. *lufiaþ* ‘loves’, pl. *lufiaþ*, infin. *lufian*. The facts are described in Cowgill 1959.

<sup>28</sup>With secondarily depalatalized *-l-* before  $*-e$  in A *āle*; compare also A *sāle* ‘salt’ beside B *salyiye*, obl. *sālyi*.

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