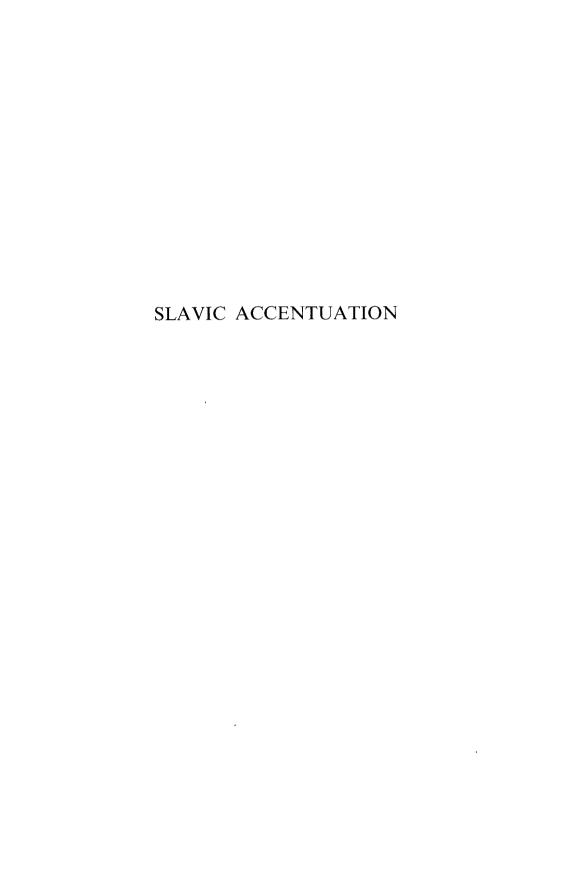
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Slavic Accentuation

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SLAVIC ACCENTUATION

A STUDY IN RELATIVE CHRONOLOGY

LISSE/NETHERLANDS
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To Carl Ebeling on the occasion of his 50th birthday

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INTRODUCTION

"[...] la fixation d'une chronologie devra être la préoccupation dominante des comparatistes" (Benveniste 1935:2). "La chronologie des faits d'intonation [slaves] ne se laisse pas préciser" (Meillet 1934b:179). The motivation for writing this book lies in the conviction that the former statement is correct whereas the latter can no longer be maintained. The reason why the chronology of the Slavic accentual developments could not be established during the first half of our century must be sought in the fact that the classical doctrine (Belić 1914, Lehr-Splawiński 1917, 1918, Van Wijk 1923), which remained virtually unchallenged until 1957, was based on two untenable principles. One is the assumption that de Saussure's law operated in Slavic. As I have pointed out elsewhere, the law is comparatively recent in Lithuanian and did not even operate in the other Baltic languages. The other principle is the assumption of metatony. In the following chapters I intend to show that there never was any real metatony. in the sense of a substitution of one intonation for another, in Slavic.

The publication of Stang's monograph on Slavic accentuation (1957) marked an era in the study of the subject. The importance of this book can hardly be overestimated. Stang proved that (1) de Saussure's law did not operate in Slavic, (2) the neo-acute is due to a retraction of the ictus from a stressed *jer* or from a non-initial vowel with falling intonation, and (3) the neo-circumflex was not the result of a Common Slavic development. Moreover, he demonstrated that

- (a) the acute is restricted to paradigms with fixed stress,
- (b) the neo-acute is characteristic of paradigms where the next syllable is stressed in other forms, and
- (c) the circumflex occurs on the first syllable of paradigms with final stress in other forms. Thus, the classical doctrine, which aimed at deriving the stress pattern of a paradigm from the intonations of the root vowel and the ending, was replaced by a doctrine which derives the intonation of the root vowel, when accented, from the stress pattern of the paradigm.

Looking back after Stang's discoveries, one cannot but wonder why most scholars stuck to de Saussure's law during such a long period. It is remarkable that Van Wijk, who came closest to the truth in most respects, did not reject the law when chronological discrepancies led him to the assumption that it operated first in the Balto-Slavic period, then in Proto-Slavic, and finally again in the separate Slavic languages.

After Stang's reconstruction of the last stage of Proto-Slavic accentuation, Dybo and Illič-Svityč complemented his findings by reconstructing some of the earlier stages. Their main result is the establishment of a progressive accent shift, which is called Dybo's law in the following chapters. On the basis of this law, the paradigms mentioned under (a) and (b) above can be reduced to a single barytone paradigm. As Dybo pointed out correctly (1962:8), the law requires the existence of three different intonations in the stem at a stage which is by far anterior to the rise of the neo-acute and the neo-circumflex. The latter conclusion was not drawn by Illič-Svityč, who demonstrated on the basis of comparative IE evidence that the law explains the existence of endstressed nouns in Slavic (1963:160f.). In the same publication Illič-Svityč proved that Kurylowicz's hypothesis, according to which the Balto-Slavic opposition between fixed stress and accentual mobility is independent of the IE opposition between barytona and oxytona, must be rejected in favour of the classical conception of their historical identity, which was first put forward by de Saussure for Lithuanian. The main deviations from this distribution are explained by Hirt's law, which was reformulated by Illič-Svityč in terms of laryngeals, and by the law which I have called Illič-Svityč's law (cf. below).

Combining Illič-Svityč's connection between Balto-Slavic and IE accentuation, Dybo's progressive accent shift with its implications for Slavic intonation, and Stang's retraction of the stress which gave rise to the neo-acute, Ebeling devised a chronology for the development of Slavic accentuation from IE times up to the end of the Common Slavic period (1967). The present book originated from a critique of Ebeling's article. Retaining the general chronological line, I propose different solutions for a number of details. Moreover, I think that I have found a common motive force for various developments, which become more understandable if they are viewed in connection with the loss of the IE laryngeals. In Chapters 1 and 2 I discuss the main developments before and after the rise of the new timbre distinctions, respectively. Chapter 3 is devoted to the loss of the IE laryngeals

and its significance for the explanation of Slavic accentuation. Some additional problems are discussed in Chapters 4 and 5.

The historical connection between the Balto-Slavic acute and the IE laryngeals, which is one of the main tenets of this book, was first suggested by Vaillant in 1936. In support of his view Vaillant adduced a number of comparisons between Hittite and Balto-Slavic. Though I subscribe to his idea, I consider the evidence insufficient, not only because I think that the best evidence for laryngeals is not from Hittite, but especially because Vaillant does not discuss the intonation of the lengthened grade in Balto-Slavic. The case for a laryngealist explanation of the Balto-Slavic acute is in fact much stronger, as I try to demonstrate in the following chapters.

This book is not intended as an introduction to the study of Slavic accentuation. Though I think that it can be read without any previous knowledge of the matter, a basic familiarity with the subject is most recommendable in view of the unusual complexity of the problems involved. Besides, I do not discuss the points where I think that Stang, Dybo, Illič-Svityč, or Ebeling have found the correct solution and where I simply adopt their views. The best introduction to Slavic accentuation is still Stang 1957, especially if one starts reading on p. 56 (noun declension). The best exposition of the classical theory is presented in Nonnenmacher-Pribić 1961. A beautiful book of recent date which should not be omitted in this review is Kolesov 1972.

I have to add a few words about the formulation of the laws in the following chapters. In order to facilitate the discussion I have retained the names which are generally connected with certain accentual developments, even if the formulation of the law has considerably changed. This has in some cases led to a possible discrepancy between my statement of the law and its author's original intentions. Following Ebeling (1967:582), I have adopted Illič-Svityč's laryngealist formulation of Hirt's law. Van Wijk's law is stated in terms of quantity rather than intonation. I accept Ebeling's modification of Stang's law in order to account for such cases as Russ. sádit, kúrit, but saditsja, kurítsja (cf. also the Middle Bulgarian and Old Russian material in Dybo 1969).

The large amount of details in the following chapters may diminish the transparency of the overall picture. For the sake of convenience I list the main laws of Slavic accentuation here in their chronological order. The bracketed numbers refer to the relevant sections of the book.

- 1. Loss of IE accentual mobility and establishment of an opposition between barytona and oxytona.
- 2. Pedersen's law (1.6).
- 3. Barytonesis (1.6).
- 4. Oxytonesis (1.2).
- 5. Hirt's law (1.3).
- 6. Ebeling's law (1.4).
- 7. Loss of the IE laryngeals in pretonic and post-posttonic syllables (1.7).
- 8. Meillet's law (1.7).
- 9. Illič-Svityč's law (3.4).
- 10. Pedersen's law and rise of distinctive tone (3.4).
- 11. Dolobko's law (4.2).
- 12. Metathesis of liquids in South Slavic and Czecho-Slovak (3.5).
- 13. Rise of the new timbre distinctions (3.5).
- 14. Van Wijk's law (3.5).
- 15. Contractions in posttonic syllables (4.2).
- 16. Retraction of the ictus from final jers (2.3).
- 17. Dybo's law (1.2, 2.2, 3.6).
- 18. Lengthening of short falling vowels in monosyllables (2.3).
- 19. Loss of the laryngeal feature (3.6).
- 20. Pleophony in East Slavic (3.6).
- 21. Shortening of long falling vowels (3.6).
- 22. Stang's law (1.2, 2.4, 3.6).
- 23. Lengthening of short rising vowels in Czech (2.5).
- 24. Progressive accent shift in Slovene (3.6).
- 25. Rise of the neo-circumflex in Slovene.

Finally, I want to thank my colleagues R.S.P. Beekes, C.L. Ebeling, F.B.J. Kuiper, A.H. Kuipers, C.J. Ruijgh, W.R. Vermeer, and F.M.J. Waanders for their criticism of (parts of) the manuscript. Since most of these persons disagree with my views on one point or another, it goes without saying that they cannot in any way be held responsible for the following text. I thank Miss A. Pols and Mrs. I. Bekker-Timofeeva for their help in proof reading and compiling the index. Once again I am indebted to Mr. P. de Ridder for the quick publication of my work.

F.H.H.K. August 13th, 1974

NOTE ADDED IN PROOF

On several places in this book reference is made to my article "On the history of Baltic accentuation". I have just received the offprints of this article, proofs of which — contrary to established usage — had not been submitted for correction. It turns out that the abundance of misprints in the text makes the article largely unintelligible. Most subscript diacritics have been omitted. Nasal vowels are never indicated. A few lines are missing in various places. Consequently, the article should be consulted either with the greatest care or not at all. The most important statement in the article, the relative chronology of the Baltic sound laws, has not been affected by this regrettable course of events.

CHAPTER 1

THE 1-PARTICIPLE

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The subject of this chapter is the origin and the persistence of accentual mobility in the Slavic *l*-participle. According to Ebeling (1967:579), there is no trace of IE mobility in the Slavic verb. Starting from this supposition one can distinguish four verb classes in pre-Slavic IE on the basis of the place of the stress and the intonation of the root:

- (1) The stressed root syllable is acute e.g. Ru. lézut, lézli, lázjat, lázili.
- (2) The stressed root syllable is circumflexed, e.g. Ru. *mógut*, *moglí*, *nósjat*, *nosíli*.
- (3) The unstressed root syllable is acute, e.g. Ru. gryzút, grýzli, edját, éli.
- (4) The unstressed root syllable is circumflexed, e.g. Ru. nesút, neslí, rodját, rodjíl.

Now I shall first give a short account of Ebeling's theory of Slavic accentuation as far as it has an immediate bearing upon the place of the ictus in the *I*-participle, and then go on to discuss the difficulties.

1.2 EBELING'S THEORY

- (a) IE inheritance: I give the infinitive, the 1st and 2nd singular of the present, the 3rd singular of the aorist, and the feminine forms of the l-participle and the passive participle. The symbol N stands for a nasal of unknown quality, S for a spirant of unknown quality.
 - *nós \bar{i} te \bar{i} , *nós \bar{i} ōN, *nós \bar{e} i \bar{i} 0, *nós \bar{i} 1, *nós \bar{i} 1, *nós \bar{i} 2, *nós \bar{i} 2, *nós \bar{i} 3, *nós \bar{i} 4, *nós \bar{i} 6, *nós \bar{i} 7, *nós \bar{i} 8, *n
 - *roditei, *rodio N, *rodeiSi, *rodit, *rodilo A, *rodien A,
 - *nesté \underline{i} , *nesőN, *neséSi, *nesét, *neslá, *nesénā.
- (b) Law of marginal oxytones: if in one paradigm $x\acute{x}$ and $x\acute{x}x$, then $x\acute{x}x > xx\acute{x}$, where x symbolizes a syllable. Examples: $*rodi\acute{o}N$, *rodeiSi, $*rodil\acute{a}$, but *roditei, $*rodi\acute{e}n\~{a}$ because the infinitive and the passive participle constitute separate nominal paradigms, $*nes\acute{o}N$, *neseSi, $*nes\acute{e}n\~{a}$.

- (c) Law of maximal contrasts: if in one paradigm $x\dot{x}$ and $xx\dot{x}$ (but no $\dot{x}x$ or x), then $x\dot{x} > \dot{x}x$. Examples: * $n\dot{e}s\bar{o}N$, *neseSi, * $n\dot{e}set$, * $n\dot{e}sl\bar{a}$, but * $piHl\dot{a}$ because of the aorist *piHt, where H symbolizes a laryngeal.
- (d) Hirt's law: a vowel which is immediately followed by a laryngeal attracts the ictus from the following syllable, cf. Ru. griva, dym (gen. sg. dýma) versus Skt. grīvā, dhūmáḥ. Thus: *grūzenā, but *grūzeSi, *nesénā.
- (e) Reshuffling of mobile paradigms: if in one paradigm $\dot{x}(x)$ and $x\dot{x}$, then $x\dot{x} > \dot{x}x$ unless the final accent is motivated because it helps avoiding homonymy. As a result, most disyllabic forms in mobile paradigms received root-stress, cf. Ru. pil, pilá, pilo, pili, *pilu, *pilá.
- (f) Dybo's law: a stressed short or circumflexed vowel in a paradigm with fixed stress loses the ictus to the following syllable (if there is one). Examples: *nosìti, *nosò, *nosîšь, *nestì, neuter *nosêno, *nesenò, *nosìlo, *neslò, but *pîlo.
- (g) Stang's law: a final syllable with a long vowel which has received the stress as a result of Dybo's law loses the ictus to the preceding syllable. Example: *nósiš/*nòsiš (dialectally conditioned).

1.3 HIRT'S LAW

As was pointed out ten years ago by Illič-Svityč (1963:80f.), the retraction established by Hirt for Baltic and Slavic took place only if the vowel which received the stress was immediately followed by a laryngeal, not if the laryngeal followed a diphthong with a resonant as its second component, e.g. *káHulos, Latv. kaũls, Gr. kaulós, versus *tenHuós, Latv. tiêvs, Gr. tanaós. In this period the laryngeal was still a segmental phoneme, characterized by its position in the word.

The feminine form of the Slavic l-participle seems to contradict Hirt's law. Though * $piHl\tilde{a}$ has escaped Ebeling's "law of maximal contrasts" because of the old root-aorist *piHt, it cannot escape Hirt's law in the above formulation. Moreover, the final accent in Ru. $pil\tilde{a}$ cannot be due to restoration because the other l-participles had received root-stress by the law of maximal contrasts, e.g. * $n\acute{e}sl\tilde{a}$, * $gr\acute{u}zl\tilde{a}$, and the restoration should have taken place before the "reshuffling of mobile paradigms", where the mobility in the l-participle originated. Besides, it is not clear why the final accent was not restored in * $gr\acute{u}zl\tilde{a}$ if it was in * $pil\acute{a}$ because these types had coalesced after Hirt's law. The inevitable conclusion is that the ictus was never retracted in * $pil\acute{a}$

and that, consequently, the reconstruction * $piHl\tilde{a}$ is incorrect. This conclusion is supported by the Sanskrit and Greek material, which points to a stem *poH/*poHi/*pHi, e.g. Skt. $p\bar{a}y\acute{a}yati$, $p\bar{t}i\acute{h}$. On the basis of this connection I assume that Ru. $pil\acute{a}$ goes back to * $pHil\acute{a}H$ and that the ictus was not retracted because the laryngeal preceded the vowel. Thus, the place of the stress in Ru. $pil\acute{a}$ is another indication that the laryngeal was still a segmental phoneme characterized by a position in this period.

The same accentuation is found in Ru. lilá, where I assume *lHiláH, cf. OChSl. lĕjo from *léHiāN, and in Ru. vilá, gnilá, žilá, plylá, slylá, bylá. The accentuation must be old in view of Latv. liêt, bût, which point to final stress. It is possible (though not likely) that some of these verbs have obtained their accentuation by analogy. It is equally possible, however, that Slavic reflects an older stage than Greek and Sanskrit in this case. On the basis of the latter languages one cannot distinguish CHiC/CHuC from CiHC/CuHC (cf. Beekes 1969:173 ff; the counter-example Skt. śúskah < *sHuskos does not hold because both Lith. sausas and Čak. sûh < *sousós point to the absence of a laryngeal, in spite of Gr. auos). I think that the laryngeal was not in all positions strictly ordered with respect to a neighbouring resonant in these languages and that later levellings have led to the remarkable absence of IE CVHR-roots and the high frequency of CVRH-roots, while the former type occurs almost always with a concurrent CVH-root. This may simply be due to the over-emphasis on Greek and Sanskrit in IE reconstructions. Cf. in this connection the short u in Gr. phúsis and Lat. futūrus with the short i underlying Irish del from the stem *dheH/*dheHi/*dhHi. [See also Appendix C.]

The situation is slightly different in the case of Ru. $dal\acute{a}$ and $rodil\acute{a}$, which cannot go back to * $doHl\acute{a}H$, * $rodiHl\acute{a}H$ for the same reason as $pil\acute{a}$ cannot go back to * $piHl\acute{a}H$: Hirt's law would have prevented the rise of accentual mobility. I am inclined to assume an original * $dHl\acute{a}H$, with zero-grade before the l-suffix. It is plausible that the stem vowel was introduced after other forms of the verb when the laryngeal disappeared without a trace in interconsonantal position, cf. Lith. $dukt\~e$, Gr. $thug\'at\~er$. Incidentally, there is no evidence for the vocalization of an interconsonantal laryngeal in Baltic or Slavic. The form Ru. $rodil\acute{a}$ presents greater difficulties, especially because of the long $\~i$ in Čak. (Novi) $r\`od\~il$, $rod\~il\~a$, $r\`od\~ilo$, as opposed to short \ii under the stress, e.g. $p\~alila$, \ii en \ii la. Here short \ii under the stress may have been generalized on the basis of the infinitive and

long $\bar{\imath}$ in the case of mobility on the basis of the (mobile) passive participle, so that neither may be old, cf. kov at, kov at but sk ov at, sk ov at

1.4 EBELING'S LAW

Ebeling's most important contribution to Slavic accentology is the establishment of a general retraction of the ictus in disyllabic forms of mobile paradigms as formulated in his "law of maximal contrasts" and "reshuffling of mobile paradigms" quoted above. In this section I shall discuss the conditions and the chronology of the retraction.

According to the law of maximal contrasts, the accent is retracted in *néslā because the l-participle forms a single paradigm with the personal forms, whereas the infinitive and the passive participle constitute separate nominal paradigms. I find it hard to assume that the *l*-participle belonged more closely with the personal forms than the passive participle in a period which must have been Balto-Slavic because it preceded Hirt's law, especially in view of the elaborate verb system which still existed at that time and in view of the numerous inflected *l*-participles in the contemporary Slavic dialects, e.g. Ru. gnilój, požilój, ustályj, which are extremely rare in Baltic. Moreover, the modern languages show final stress, cf. Ru. neslá, nesló. If the accent is retracted, final stress can only be restored as a result of Dybo's law or on the analogy of the infinitive. Both possibilities are unlikely. The application of Dybo's law presupposes that the *l*-participle does not belong with the personal forms any longer in a later period, which is contrary to the whole development of Slavic verb morphology. Ebeling's problem is that the *l*-participle of these verbs should have become mobile according to his reshuffling of mobile paradigms if the ictus was not retracted according to his law of maximal contrasts.

Thus, the law of maximal contrasts does not prevent the retraction in * $piHl\tilde{a}$ by Hirt's law and yields a doubtful retraction in * $n\acute{e}sl\tilde{a}$

which must be restored later under unclear conditions. As to *nésōN, *néset, this retraction need not be separated chronologically from the reshuffing of mobile paradigms. The reconstruction *maHterés is probably incorrect: on the basis of Lith. mótė vs. duktė I assume gen.sg. *maHtrés for the oldest period of Balto-Slavic, with regular retraction according to Hirt's law and subsequent insertion of *e after the acc.sg. and the nom.pl. Thus, the chronological difference between the two laws established by Ebeling disappears. Moreover, the conditions of the two laws are complementary, apart from the homonymy condition. But the latter condition does not work, as I shall try to show presently.

According to Ebeling (1967:584), the ictus is retracted in disyllabic forms of mobile paradigms unless the accent helps avoiding homonymy. However, in some of his examples the ictus is retracted in one of two previously homonymous forms, thus removing the homonymy: dat.sg.fem. *básē but loc.sg.fem. *basē, and gen.sg.masc.neut. *básā but nom.acc.pl.neut. *basā, cf. Ru. bosój. Ebeling does not explain why the retraction occurs precisely in the forms where the long vowel goes back to an early contraction (dat.sg.fem., gen.dat.sg.masc.neut.) and not in the forms where the long vowel goes back to an IE larvngeal (nom.loc.sg.fem., nom.acc.pl.neut.). In the nom.sg.fem. there is no retraction though there is no fem. form with the same ending. The existence of a gen.sg.masc.neut. with the same ending in the adjective can hardly serve as an argument because the retraction in the loc.sg. masc.neut. and the absence of retraction in the loc.sg.fem., which supposedly had the same ending, indicate that the masc. and fem. paradigms were strictly separated. And if the fem. and neut. paradigms were not strictly separated one would even expect retraction in the nom.sg.fem. because the ictus was not retracted in the nom.acc.pl.neut. Thus, I am inclined to assume that the presence of a laryngeal in the ending prevented the retraction of the ictus. Moreover, homonymy cannot have played a part in the inst.pl.masc.neut. *basū́ because the ending was not homonymous with the ending of the acc.pl.mase. *básū at this stage, cf. OChSl. acc.pl. konje, inst.pl. konji, ORu. acc.pl. koně, inst.pl. koni, Slovene acc.pl. kónje, inst.pl. kónji.

Finally, a similar retraction law operated in Baltic, cf. Lith. gen.sg. vilko, dat.sg. vilkui, but inst.pl. vilkais, and nom.sg. galva, gen.sg. galvas, but dat.sg. galvas. This can hardly be accidental. Mainly on the basis of the Baltic evidence I formulate the following law: in disyllabic word forms the stress is retracted from a final short or

circumflexed vowel or diphthong unless the preceding syllable is closed by an obstruent. The latter condition is added to cover Ru. nesló, vezló, pekló versus pilo, žilo, býlo. If we assume that *H was an ordinary consonant in this period, we can simply say that the stress is retracted from final open syllables, e.g. *vílkā, *vílkōi, *vilkōiS, *golHváH, *golHvás, *gólHvāi, *pHiláH, *pHilo, aorist *néşe because final *t has been lost, cf. the gen.sg.masc., but *neşláH, *neşló, *neşeSí.

For the 1st sg. of the present tense and for the inst.sg.fem. I assume concurrent forms *nesóH/*nés \bar{a} , *golHváH/*gólHv \bar{a} , with *- \bar{a} from *- $\bar{a}m$ like *- \bar{o} from *- $\bar{o}N$ in Lith. $akmu\tilde{o}$, OChSl. kamy and *- \bar{e} from *-ēr in Lith. mótė, OChSl. mati. Apparently a laryngeal was lost before word-final nasal at an early stage in the development of Balto-Slavic, and a word-final resonant could not be maintained after a long vowel. The early loss of a larvngeal in this position is indicated by the fact that the ending of the acc.sg, does not attract the ictus according to de Saussure's law, cf. Lith. rañkq. Lith. nešù goes back to the first and OChSl. neso to the second variant, cf. ORu. živu etc. (Stang 1957:109). In the inst.sg.fem, the first variant was homonymous with the nom.sg. and the second with the acc.sg. The homonymy was removed by a contamination of the two variants, cf. Lith. gálva, which goes back to *gólHvaH, and šaltája, which points to *solHtá-jaH (i.e. the definite form of the adjective šáltas). Slavic had probably *golHvá.

The retraction in Ru. grýzla (vs. gryzëš') is not accounted for by the law formulated in the preceding paragraph. This retraction must be due to Hirt's law: *grúHzlaH, *gruHzeSí. The same holds true for Ru. éla (cf. Polish jadla): the place of the ictus points unambiguously to the presence of a laryngeal in the root because Hirt's law is the only law which produces a retraction of the stress in verbs with a stem ending in an obstruent. An interesting case is Ru. péla, where the present stem poëš' /pajóš/ indicates that the laryngeal cannot have preceded the *i, so we have to reconstruct *poiHeSi. But the l-participle cannot have been *poiHláH because in that case Hirt's law would not have operated, cf. above. The solution is that we must assume zero-grade before the *l*-suffix, like in the cases discussed above. The original form *piHlaH, *piHlo was replaced by *póiHlaH, *póiHlo, just as *dHláH, *dHló was replaced by *daHláH, *dáHlo. This substitution was certainly favoured by the existence of *pHiláH, *pHilo, Ru. pilá, pilo. If this analysis is correct, Ebeling's law cannot have preceded Hirt's law.

Finally, Hirt's law has apparently not operated in Ru brala, zvala, Čak zvāla, prāla These verbs belong to the mobile type, cf Čak oprāl, pobrālo The same holds true for Slovene kovāl, kovala, kovālo < *kovalo, *kovala, *kovalo If we assume that the a is secondary before the l-suffix, the latter forms must have replaced earlier *kouHlu, *kouHlaH, *kouHlo, where the mobility had regularly originated according to Ebeling's law, cf Lith kauti The other verbs are less clear because of the vowel alternation However, whether we assume *beilaH, *zoulaH or *birlaH, *zulaH, mobility is regular in both cases

1.5 THE PASSIVE PARTICIPLE

The accentual parallelism between the *l*-participle and the passive participle makes it probable that these forms have influenced each other as far as they do not have a similar origin Whenever the forms are different, this is an indication of the old distribution of stress patterns in the participles I do not agree with Stang (1957 150) that there was originally complete agreement between the place of the ictus in the *l*-participle and the *n*-participle. As we have seen above, Ru nesla, neslo, nesena, neseno go back to *neslaH, *neslo, *nesenaH, *neseno, with final stress in the passive participle due to Dybo's law I have suggested above that there was originally a perfect correspondence with these forms in *rodilaH, *rodienaH, which is supported by Čak (Novi) rodila, rodilo, with mobility, versus rojeni, with final stress due to Dybo's law Indeed, Russian also shows endstressed participles in verbs of this type SCr lomljen from lomiti < *lomiHtei (with final stress) must be analogical after prelomlien < *pei-lomienu from *per-lomiHtei (with fixed stress, so that Dybo's law applies), cf lomim vs prelomim

Verbs with original root-stress have root-stress in the *n*-participle, e.g. SCr nošen from *nošen because of Stang's law, from *nosenbecause of Dybo's law, from *nosenbecause of Dybo's law, from *nosenbecause of Van Wijk's law (cf Ebeling 1967 587) The long a in SCr pîsān presents a problem Stang states that the "causes are not known to us" (1957 147), and Ebeling explains the length by analogy after nošen, where the long vowel was later shortened in Serbo-Croat (1967 589,592) However, I fail to see why the vowel was not shortened in pîsan if it was in nošen In view of the analogy with *neslaH, *nesenaH and *rodilaH,

*rodiénaH I am inclined to assume *pisaHlaH, *pisaHenaH, with regular fall of *H and contraction yielding *pisānaH. The latter solution also explains the final accent in Ru. danó, as opposed to dálo, which must be old in view of Slovene dán(o) vs. dâl(o). The final stress must be due to Dybo's law because an original final accent would have been retracted according to Ebeling's law. Moreover, the final stress points to the absence of a larvngeal in the root because otherwise Dybo's law would not apply: *dano. A similar case is presented by Slovene končán vs. končál and brán(o) vs. brâl(o), cf. Čak. (Novi) nabrāno vs. pobrālo. These forms reflect an older stage than Ru. sóbran(o) etc. The long rising vowel in Slovene končán cannot be due to levelling, as Stang suggests (1957:147), because there was no model. The final accent in Slovene počesán (-a, -o), as opposed to the retracted stress in zastopan (-a, -o), supports Ebeling's hypothesis that Stang's law operated in final syllables only. The accentuation of the latter word must be due to the later, specifically Slovenian retraction from a short vowel to a preceding long vowel, e.g. in dúša. A long vowel which had received the stress as a result of Dybo's law and did not lose the ictus according to Stang's law, was shortened in Slovene like everywhere else (cf. Ebeling 1967:592, the circumflex in the imperative hvalite is secondary, cf. nesî ga).

I conclude that there is no indication of original accentual mobility in the *n*-participle and that, consequently, any occurring mobility must have been introduced on the analogy of the *l*-participle. The retraction in SCr. $k\ddot{u}povao$, $k\ddot{u}pov\bar{a}n$ is due to analogy after the aorist $k\ddot{u}pov\bar{a}$, cf. Slovene $kupov\dot{a}l$, $kupov\dot{a}n$ (Stang 1957:144).

16 PEDERSEN'S LAW

Ebeling's law as stated above yields mobility in disyllabic words, e.g. Ru. pilá, pilo, but the retraction does not operate in polysyllabic words, cf. Lith. sūnumì. Nevertheless, mobility has spread to polysyllabic l-participles, as is shown by Čak. rodīlà, ròdīlo. It is not quite clear how this mobility came about. I would suggest that *rodīló was replaced by *rodīlo after the model *pHílo and that subsequently the ictus was retracted from an inner syllable in mobile paradigms. The relative chronology of the latter law presents a difficulty, however.

The retraction of the ictus from medial syllables was first proposed for Baltic by de Saussure as an explanation of Lith. dùkteri, dùkteres,

cf. Gr. thugatéra, thugatéres. This retraction cannot have been phonetic, however. The solution was found by Pedersen, who suggested a "recul d'un accent qui contrastait avec un autre accent (final) dans le même paradigme, et qui à cause de ce contraste était exagéré et anticipé" (1933:25). The importance of this idea can hardly be overestimated. In fact, several accent shifts in the history of Slavic are subject to conditions of this type.

Pedersen assumes that mobility spread from the consonant stems to the *aH*- and *o*-stems in Balto-Slavic. I think that this is probable. It is an indication that the retraction in Lith. *dùkteri*, *dùkteres* is very old indeed. If Ebeling's explanation of the oxytonesis in the oblique case forms of the *i*- and *u*-stems is correct, the retraction must be older than his law of marginal oxytones and, consequently, older than any other law of Slavic accentuation. However, the retraction cannot be so old in other cases. In Slavic the ictus is regularly retracted to a preposition from a barytone form of a mobile paradigm, e.g. Ru. *ná vodu*. Since this phenomenon is unknown in Baltic, it can hardly have arisen before the dissolution of the Balto-Slavic unity. Besides, the retraction to a prefix in such forms as Ru. *né byl*, *pródal* cannot have occurred before Ebeling's law, when the mobility arose.

On the other hand, the Baltic evidence seems to point unambiguously to two temporally distinct retractions. In Lithuanian there is one type of verbs where the ictus is retracted to a prefix and which has mobile stress in the active participle, e.g. vedù, veda, nèveda, prìveda, vedās, vēdanti, preterit vēdė. Other verbs have fixed stress on the root-syllable except in the forms where de Saussure's law operated, e.g. sakau, sako, nesako, sakas, preterit sakė. On the basis of the form vedās I am inclined to assume that this verb was originally end-stressed and that it became mobile as a result of Ebeling's law: *uedóH, *uédo from earlier *uedóH, *uedó. The same retraction must be assumed in the preterit *uédē, which goes back to pre-Baltic *uedéHet, with loss of word-final *t prior to Ebeling's law, cf. above. Then the retraction of the ictus from medial syllables in mobile paradigms yielded nèveda, prìveda, nèvedė in a period after Ebeling's law. The ictus was not retracted in nesāko, nesākė because the latter paradigm had fixed stress until de Saussure's law operated. The retraction in nèveda, priveda cannot be identical with the retraction in katinus, valandas (acc.pl.) because of the different quantity of the stressed vowel: the latter retraction must have preceded the lengthening of stressed e,a whereas the former must have been later. The lengthening

of stressed e,a was certainly later than the rise of distinctive intonation, which followed the end of the Balto-Slavic linguistic unity. Thus, we arrive at the following chronology of sound laws for Lithuanian: (1) Pedersen's law, (2) oxytonesis, (3) Hirt's law, (4) Ebeling's law, (5) rise of distinctive intonation, (6) lengthening of stressed e,a, (7) Pedersen's law again, (8) de Saussure's law, (9) Nieminen's law (retraction of the ictus from a short a in final syllables to a preceding long vowel or diphthong, e.g. kiekas, menkas), (10) Leskien's law, cf. Kortlandt 1974.

In Slavic, like in Baltic, we have to assume that Pedersen's law operated once again after the dissolution of the Balto-Slavic unity and then yielded the accentuation of Ru. ná vodu, né byl, pródal. The lateral mobility in Slavic noun inflection must be older and go back to the earliest Balto-Slavic period.

17 MEILLET'S LAW

A final point to be discussed here is the metatony in Slovene hódil (from *hodil), hodila, hodilo, which is matched by the converse metatony in gostil, gostila, gostilo. The latter forms are the regular reflexes of *göstilb, *gostilà, *göstilo, cf. Čak. (Novi) zvònīl, zvonīlà, zvònīlo. A falling accent shifts to the next syllable in early Slovene, and a short final accent is retracted to a preceding long vowel, cf. okô, duša vs. Ru. óko, dušá. The former metatony is less clear, however. I cannot accept Jaksche's suggestion that it is a morphological rebuilding (1965:25), especially because it is absent in ĕ-verbs, e.g. žėlėla, želėla, želėlo. This is all the more remarkable because Dybo's law never applied to ĕ-verbs, whereas it did operate in such verbs as hoditi, nositi. Moreover, we find the same neo-circumflex in other trisyllabic word forms where Dybo's law applied, e.g. ženâmi. I conclude that the metatony is phonetic.

According to Meillet's law, an acute root vowel in a mobile paradigm becomes circumflexed, e.g. SCr. glâvu, sîn. This law is definitely Slavic, cf. Lith. gâlva, sūnu. As far as I know, it has never received a satisfactory explanation, however. Yet I think that an explanation of this as well as other laws of Slavic accentuation can be found if we connect them with the loss of the IE laryngeals. More precisely, I assume that the IE laryngeals have been lost in different periods depending on their position in relation to the place

of the ictus and thereby produced a number of successive sound laws. The dependence of the development of the laryngeals on the place of the ictus is attested in other branches of the IE language family as well, e.g. Skt. $v\acute{a}nit\ddot{a}$, $vant\acute{a}rah$, $j\acute{a}nitoh$, $jant\acute{u}h$ (Kuiper 1947:206). [See also Appendix C.] In this section I shall confine myself to a discussion of the earliest loss of laryngeals in Slavic, which must have occurred shortly after the dissolution of the Balto-Slavic unity. At that time, the laryngeals had been lost already in interconsonantal position (Lith. $dukt\ddot{e} < *dukHt\bar{e}r$), between two full vowels (Lith. gen.sg. $galv\tilde{o}s < *golHvaHes$), and before word-final nasal (Lith. acc.sg. $ra\tilde{n}kq < *ronkaHm$).

I assume that in Slavic, in contradistinction to Baltic, the IE laryngeals were lost first of all in pretonic position, and that an immediately preceding or following vowel received compensatory lengthening: $*golv\acute{a}H < *golHv\acute{a}H, *s\bar{u}numi < *suHnumi, *pil\acute{a}H < *pHil\acute{a}H$. The alternation between the presence of a laryngeal in $*g\acute{o}lHv\bar{q}, *s\acute{u}HnuN, *pHilo$ and its absence in the end-stressed forms was eliminated by the removal of the laryngeal from the barytone forms as well: $*g\acute{o}lv\bar{q}, *s\acute{u}nuN, *pfilo$. This is Meillet's law. The laryngeal was retained in words with fixed stress, cf. SCr. $dim, griva < *d\acute{u}HmuN, *gr\acute{t}HvaH$.

At the same time, as far as we can see, the laryngeals were lost in posttonic syllables, except in the first posttonic syllable. I think that this is the explanation of the neo-circumflex in Slovene $osn\bar{\varrho}va$, $nos\bar{\imath}la$, $zen\bar{a}mi$. The non-initial accent in these words must be due to Dybo's law, cf. the final accent in Ru. zenu and the recessive stress in nosu, nosus, nosus with retraction in accordance with Stang's law. I reconstruct sous, nosus, nosus,

After the period of Meillet's law, the laryngeals were retained in the stressed syllable and in the first posttonic syllable until the general loss of final consonants and concomitant changes led to the characteristic absence of closed syllables in Slavic. Then the posttonic laryngeals, like other final consonants, were lost without compensatory lengthening, e.g. *žėna < *žėnaH, Ru. žená after Dybo's law, like

* $s\hat{y}nb$ < * $s\hat{u}nuN$ and * $sl\hat{u}vo$ < * $sl\hat{u}vos$, cf. Gr. $kl\acute{e}os$. The loss of laryngeals in the first posttonic syllable entailed the rise of new timbre oppositions $/a \sim 0$, $\check{e} \sim e$, $i \sim b$, $y \sim b$. Henceforth I shall write *e instead of * \check{e} for typographical reasons. In stressed syllables a laryngeal lost its phonemic status and became a feature of the preceding vowel, as did a nasal resonant: * $d\mathring{y}mb < *d\mathring{u}HmuN$ like * $z\hat{\varrho}bb < *z\hat{u}NbuN$, Ru. zub. The symbol 'denotes the laryngeal feature (and simultaneously the place of the ictus). I assume that * \mathring{y} , like * $\mathring{\varrho}$, was neutral with respect to quantity in the period immediately following this sound change. Finally, the laryngeal feature was lost in a period after Dybo's law but before Stang's law, cf. below.

CHAPTER 2

SLOVENE konj

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In the paradigm of the Slovenian word konj there is a most interesting alternation between different o-sounds. The stem-vowel is short in the nom.sg. k o nj and long in all other cases. We find one of the two closed o-sounds which go back to early Slovenian long vowels in the loc.sg. k o nji and the other in the gen.pl. k o nji, in the inst.pl. k o nji (k o nji), and in the loc.pl. k o nji (k o nji). All other cases (except the nom.sg.) show an open o o nji, which goes back to the late retraction of the ictus from a following short vowel. The pitch is falling in the loc.sg. and optionally in the inst.pl. and loc.pl., while other long vowels are rising. Since there was only a single o o nji in Slavic at the time when the new timbre distinctions had just arisen, the whole complicated pattern of alternations must be relatively recent. In this chapter I shall discuss how it came about.

2.2 ICTUS

Since the open stem-vowel which we find in most case forms is due to the recent retraction of the stress from a short vowel, we must assume that these forms were end-stressed in early Slovene, whereas the closed vowel in the loc.sg., gen.pl., inst.pl. and loc.pl. was stressed. This situation is confirmed by the Čakavian dialect of Omišalj (Krk), where we find nom.sg. stô, gen.sg. stolà, dat.sg. stolù, nom.pl. stolì, gen.pl. stòli, dat.pl. stolòm, inst.pl. stòli, loc.pl. stòlih (Milčetić 1895:16). The final stress in the gen.sg. and dat.sg. cannot go back to the Balto-Slavic period because it would have been retracted in accordance with Ebeling's law. Thus, it must have arisen as a result of Dybo's law.

I assume that in Slavic, in contradistinction to Baltic, the rise of distinctive pitch is independent of the loss of the IE laryngeals. Somewhere between Meillet's law and the rise of the new timbre distinctions the stressed vowels in barytone forms of mobile paradigms

received a falling intonation and thereby became different from all other stressed vowels, e.g. *vòdā, *nâ vodā, *ròNkā, *lòmjā, cf. Ebeling 1967:585 f. I assume that the other stressed vowels became rising, e.g. *žènā, *trávā, *nòsjā, *xváljā, *nesèno, *lomīšì, Ru. ženú, travú, nošú, xvaljú, nesenó, SCr. lòmīš. In a later period, after the rise of the new timbre distinctions, rising vowels lost the ictus, if possible, to the following syllable, e.g. *zenò, *nosìšь, *nesenò, cf. Ebeling 1967:590. This is Dybo's law. Thus, the final stress in Čak. (Omišalj) stolà, stolù points to an earlier *stòla, *stòlu, with fixed stress on the stem. The same accentuation must be assumed for Slovene konj.

After Dybo's law, the ictus was retracted from a long circumflexed vowel in a final syllable, cf. Ru. $n \acute{o} s i \breve{s}$ ', SCr. $n \~o s i \breve{s}$. This is Stang's law. I do not assume that final jers had already been lost in this period, but they must have been very weak and did not count as syllables any longer, cf. the status of French word-final \eth during the past centuries. In the paradigm under discussion the stress was regularly retracted in the inst.pl. and the loc.pl.: Čak. (Omišalj) $st\~o li$, $st\~o lih$ goes back to $sto l\~o s$, $sto l\~o s$, which is the reflex of Balto-Slavic $sto l\~o s$, $sto l\~o s$. The same must be assumed for the loc.sg.: Slovene s0 solve s1 solve s2 solve s3 solve s3 solve s4 solve s4 solve s5 solve s5 solve s6 solve s6 solve s6 solve s6 solve s6 solve s6 solve s8 solve s8 solve s8 solve s9 solve s8 solve s8 solve s9 solve s

23 QUANTITY

The most complicated characteristic of the paradigm is the quantitative difference between the nom.sg. $k \partial n j$ and the gen.pl. $k \phi n j$. If the length is due to the retraction of the ictus from the final jer, it remains unclear why the vowel has been shortened in the nom.sg. Indeed, if the nom.sg. and the gen.pl. were homonymous at the time when Dybo's law operated, it is hard to see how the difference developed unless we assume that one of the two forms borrowed its quantity from another type. This cannot have been the nom.sg. because there was no model, cf. Slovene $b \partial g$, SCr. $b \partial g$, with a long vowel in the nom.sg. of mobile paradigms.

However, it is questionable whether the endings of the nom.sg. and the gen.pl. were in fact homonymous. Some scholars (e.g., Van Wijk, Pedersen) maintain that the long vowel in the gen.pl. is due to the reduction of the IE ending *-ōm to *-ъ. I would rather agree with Meillet that the ending must be derived from IE *-om. First of all there is a chronological difficulty. If there has ever been an

ending *-ōm on Slavic territory, it must have been shortened in the Balto-Slavic period, whereas the lengthening in the gen.pl. can hardly have been prior to the rise of the new timbre distinctions in Slavic. But there is no evidence for *-ōm in Baltic either, since this ending would regularly have developed into *-ō, cf. Lith. akmuō, Gr. ákmōn. Thus, I assume that both Lith. -ų and OChSl. -ъ regularly continue IE *-om and that Slavic length is secondary.

Ebeling assumes (1967:588) that stressed *- \mathfrak{b} in the gen.pl. was lengthened after the rise of the new timbre distinctions and that the new length was subsequently extended to barytone gen.pl. forms. I fail to see the motivation for this change. Moreover, I find it hard to accept that lengthened - \mathfrak{b} was lost in the same way as short - \mathfrak{b} . The modern SCr. ending - \tilde{a} cannot go back to a long - \mathfrak{b} which dates from this period because of the rising accent in $kos\acute{a}c\bar{a}$, $ov\acute{a}c\bar{a}$, where Stang's law would have caused retraction of the ictus. The SCr. ending - \tilde{a} must have arisen shortly after Stang's law, cf. $sest\acute{a}r\bar{a}$.

I conclude that there is no reason to assume a difference between the endings of the nom.sg. and the gen.pl. in the original form *kônjb and that, consequently, the length in Slovene kónj was introduced analogically after the originally mobile paradigm, cf. Slovene gór < *gorò. It should be noted that length cannot have been analogical in the latter paradigm because there was no model. The retraction of the ictus from a final jer must have preceded Dybo's law because otherwise we would expect a long vowel in the nom.sg. kòni, SCr. könj. Thus, I assume that final jers lost their stressability in a period between the rise of the new timbre distinctions and Dybo's law, and that the ictus was retracted to the preceding stressable vowel, which became long and rising, e.g. gen.pl. Ru. golóv, volós, Čak. (Novi) brád, nebés, Slovene mộž, dial. dán, Posavian dãn (Ivšić 1913:214) < *dωnò, loc.pl. Czech mužích, Slovene možéh, dat.pl. Czech mužům, cf. also Čak. dá, želí, želé, sú. Apparently, the ictus could not be retracted to a preceding jer in non-initial syllable, so that we have Ru. détjam, détjax, ljúdjam, ljúdjax < *detьmъ etc. This accentuation must be old because it is also found in Slovincian and Ukrainian. Moreover, old i-stems often show barytone dat.pl. and loc.pl. forms in Old Russian, e.g. góstem, góstex, cf. Stang 1957:89. These forms probably received falling pitch after the other barytone forms of the paradigm, cf. Slovene kostêm, which points to an earlier *kostbmb. Indeed. I think that the source of the accentuation in Slovene možêm must be sought in the u-stems, cf. goràm, where there was no such influence. The rising pitch in $mož\acute{e}h$, $kost\acute{e}h$ pertained originally to the o-stems, as did the ending itself. I suppose that in the period of the retraction pretonic jers were weak in non-initial syllables. Stressed jers in medial syllables can only have lost their stressability after Dybo's law, e.g. Ru. $gol\acute{o}vka$, $r\acute{u}\acute{c}ka$, Czech $hl\acute{a}vka$, $rou\check{c}ka$, Polish $gl\acute{o}wka$, $raczka < *r\acute{o}\check{c}\acute{b}ka < *roc\check{c}\acute{b}ka$. Besides, pretonic jers in medial syllables did not lose their stressability before *i, where the oppositions $/b \sim i/$, $/b \sim y/$ were neutralized, e.g. Ru. $det\acute{e}j < *detli\acute{b}$.

The length in the gen.pl. of mobile paradigms was analogically extended to the paradigms to which Dybo's law applied, e.g. Slovene gen.pl. kónj, pás (Posavian pãs, cf. Ivšić 1913:213) versus nom.sg. kòni, pòs. This generalization of quantity must have taken place partly before and partly after the operation of Stang's law. Thus, we find Čak. (Novi) svétāc, kòsāc, òtāc, with retraction from a long vowel in accordance with Stang's law, next to kosác, otác, ovác, where the vowel was lengthened later. The Slovenian gen.pl. ovac, lonac must be due to analogy after the inst.pl. lónci and the loc.pl. lóncih. The SCr. gen.pl. lòpātā, köljēnā from lòpata, kòljeno present a problem. These words belong either with pròzor, gen.pl. pròzōrā to the type where Dybo's law applied, or with jèzik, gen.pl. jèzīkā to the type with an original stressed medial syllable. The latter word can hardly have had initial stress before Dybo's law in view of the short vowel in Polish jezyk, Czech jazyk. I assume that when the loss of the laryngeal feature yielded *języko < *języko, the paradigm conformed to *prozòro, *prozòro, which had arisen from *pròzoro, *pròzōro in accordance with Dybo's law. Shortly after Stang's law the gen.pl. ending -b was dialectally lengthened in mobile paradigms when it received the stress analogically after the other plural cases, e.g. Štokavian žénā, póljā, gradóvā, Slovene gorá next to gór, cf. Čak. žén, etc. This analogical development preceded the loss of word-final jers and the neo-Štokavian retraction of the ictus.

Before Dybo's law there existed a pitch opposition on short and long vowels in stressed initial syllables, apart from the laryngealized vowels, which were neutral with respect to quantity and intonation. The shift of the ictus from rising vowels to the following syllable caused the pitch opposition on short vowels to disappear in polysyllabic words. It is only natural that the pitch opposition was subsequently eliminated in monosyllables as well. It is recalled that word-final jers did not count as syllables any longer at this stage. As far as we can see, short falling vowels in monosyllabic words were lengthened

and merged with long falling vowels, e.g. SCr. $b\hat{o}g$, $k\hat{o}st$, $d\hat{a}n$, Slovene $b\hat{\rho}g$, $k\hat{\rho}st$, $d\hat{a}n$. This lengthening was probably Common Slavic in view of Ru.dial. bog, as opposed to $k\hat{o}n$. The distinction between these two o-sounds continues the old pitch opposition, not the original quantitative differences, as Vaillant suggests (1950:276). The pitch opposition on short vowels in polysyllabic words was later restored by the loss of the laryngeal feature, e.g. gen.sg. * $r\hat{a}ka$, * $b\hat{o}ga$, SCr. $r\hat{a}ka$, $b\hat{o}ga$, Slovene $r\hat{a}ka$, $bog\hat{a}$.

2.4 TIMBRE

As we have seen above, there is an alternation between three different long o-sounds in the paradigm of the word konj. The open o goes back to the late retraction of the ictus from a short vowel, which is not carried through in all dialects. The difference between the two closed vowels is reflected in a part of the dialects only. I assume that they originated in different periods.

The timbre of the stem-vowel in the loc.sg. kônju is the regular reflex of the retraction according to Stang's law, cf. môreš, nôsiš, $v \hat{\rho} lja, k \hat{\rho} \hat{z} a < *mo \hat{z} \hat{e} \hat{s} b, *no \hat{s} \hat{s} b, *vo l \hat{a}, *ko \hat{z} \hat{a} < *mo \hat{z} \hat{e} \hat{s} b, *no \hat{s} \hat{s} b, *vo l ja,$ *kòzia. There are two remarkable things about this vowel. Firstly, it is reflected as a diphthong [uo] in Ru.dial. môžeš', nôsiš', vôlja, kôža, Czech můžeš, vůle, kůže, Slovak môžeš, vôl'a, and in the Slovenian dialects which show distinct reflexes of the two closed vowels. Secondly, it is reflected as a short vowel in SCr. možeš, nosiš, volja, köža, Czech nosíš, Slovak nosíš, koža, Polish możesz, nosisz, wola (but stróża for Ru. storóża, Čak. stráža). On the basis of this comparison I assume that Stang's law yielded a Common Slavic quantitatively neutral rising diphthong *\u00e4\u00e0 and write *môzes\u00e5, *nôsis\u00e5, *vôla, *kôza for the last prehistoric stage of Slavic. The diphthong was regularly shortened by the loss of its first element in Serbo-Croat and partly in Czecho-Slovak. On the other hand, the prothetic element developed into a labial fricative in Ru. vósem', vóstryj, dial. vôkna. I do not think that the quantitative differences were dialectally conditioned because not only Czech and Slovak, but also Polish, Slovincian, and Kajkavian show both long and short reflexes of $*\hat{o}$.

The long vowel in Slovene $k \phi n j$, $g \phi r$ must go back to an earlier period because it is characteristic of the gen.pl., where the ictus was retracted in mobile paradigms before Dybo's law, cf. above.

The timbre of the stem-vowel in the inst.pl. $k \phi n j i$ and the loc.pl. $k \phi n j i h$ must have been borrowed from the gen.pl. because the retraction of the ictus in these cases is due to Stang's law. Indeed, we find the expected $*\hat{o}$ in dial. (Borovnica) $k u \hat{o} j n \partial x$, i.e. $k \hat{o} n j i h$ (Ramovš 1921:229). Thus, we have an alternation between $*\hat{o}$ in $k \partial n j$, which goes back to the rise of distinctive pitch, $*\hat{o}$ in $k \phi n j$, which was lengthened analogically after the retraction of the stress from a final jer in $g \phi r$, $*\hat{o}$ in $k \phi n j u$, which arose as a result of Stang's law, and open \hat{o} in the cases where the ictus has recently been retracted. The early Slovenian lengthening of stressed vowels in non-final syllables yielded the same o as the reflex of $*\hat{o}$, e.g. $got \phi v i t$, $osn \phi v a$.

2.5 INTONATION

As will be clear from the preceding sections, we should expect a rising stem-vowel in all case forms of Slovene konj. Yet we find falling pitch in the loc.sg., and optionally in the inst.pl. and the loc.pl. Phonetically, a Slovenian circumflex in polysyllabic words can only have arisen as a result of either the progressive accent shift from an initial falling vowel, which must have occurred shortly after Stang's law, or compensatory lengthening, as I intend to show in detail on another occasion. In the loc.sg. $k\hat{\varrho}nju$ we have to assume that the falling pitch is due to shortening of the word-final vowel.

However, it is not obvious that the final vowel should be long. The form $n\hat{o}si\check{s} < *n\hat{o}si\check{s}b < *nosi\check{s}b$ indicates that a long circumflexed vowel was shortened when it lost the ictus in accordance with Stang's law. The final length in $*k\hat{o}n\bar{u}$ must have been restored on the analogy of paradigms where Stang's law did not apply, e.g. (o) $br\hat{a}tu$, (u) $gr\acute{a}du$ (Valjavec 1897:158) $< *br\dot{a}t\bar{u}$, $*grad\acute{u}$. Length was introduced even in the dat.sg. after a preposition, e.g. k $br\hat{a}tu$, h $k\hat{o}nju$. A similar restoration of length must have occurred optionally (or dialectally) in the inst.pl. and loc.pl. This analogical development must have preceded the shortening of posttonic vowels, which caused the lengthening of the stem-vowel in these words. The latter development preceded the general lengthening of stressed vowels in non-final syllables, which did not reach the dialects of Prekmurje and Prlekija, e.g. (Prekmurje) $d\tilde{e}lo$, $d\tilde{e}ila$ (Ramovš 1935:184), i.e. $d\tilde{e}lo$, $d\tilde{e}la < *d\tilde{e}lo$, $*d\tilde{e}l\tilde{a}$.

The solution proposed here may also explain the twofold reflex of \hat{i} in Czech and Slovak. I assume that the laryngealized vowels

had fallen together with the short rising vowels shortly before Stang's law, so that we have *kràva, *rèzati in the last Common Slavic period. A short rising vowel in an open first syllable of disyllabic words was lengthened in early Czech unless the following syllable contained a long vowel, e.g. kráva, but gen.pl. krav, and řezati, řeží. Similarly, we can assume that *ô fell together with *ó in můžeš < *môžešb, but with *ô in nosíš < *nôsišb after the restoration of long i in the second syllable, cf. bavíš, budíš < *bàvīšb, *budíšb. This restoration could take place more easily in i-verbs, where all the verbs to which Stang's law did not apply had long i, than in e-verbs, where both long e and short e were found, cf. Slovak môžeš versus nesieš < *neséšb. In Serbo-Croat there was no lengthening of short rising vowels, and length was restored in all unstressed short vowels that alternated with long vowels, so that we would expect what we find.

CHAPTER 3

THE LOSS OF THE IE LARYNGEALS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

It is generally assumed that the laryngeals of the IE proto-language were lost in Baltic and Slavic shortly after the dissolution of the IE linguistic unity. According to the traditional view, the resulting long vowels merged with older long vowels, so that the presence or absence of a laryngeal cannot be established on the basis of the Baltic or Slavic evidence. I think that this is incorrect. Indeed, the hypothesis that the laryngeals were lost at an early stage in the development of Slavic forces Ebeling (1967:583-589) to assume a whole series of "broken vowels", which must have persisted during a considerable period. Moreover, a large number of Slavic accentual phenomena become understandable if they are connected with the loss of the IE laryngeals. I think that the loss of the IE laryngeals took place in Baltic and Slavic after the dissolution of the Balto-Slavic linguistic unity, or even that it conditioned the dissolution. The final loss of the laryngeal feature in Slavic must have occurred around 800 A.D.

3.2 IE LENGTHENED GRADE

Long vowels in IE languages have three different origins. Firstly, they may go back to a sequence of full vowel and laryngeal, e.g. Gr. alphē, Lith. algà (with late shortening). The resulting vowels have acute intonation in both Greek and Lithuanian. Secondly, long vowels may go back to early, possibly late IE contractions, e.g. Gr. alphēs, Lith. algōs. In this case, the resulting vowels have circumflex intonation in both Greek and Lithuanian. Thirdly, there is a group of long vowels which seem to fit neither explanation but alternate with short vowels. These long vowels have acute intonation in Greek, but may have either acute or circumflex intonation in Lithuanian, e.g. Lith. piemuō, ĕdu, Gr. poimēn, édō. As far as I know, the conditions under which the latter vowels are acute or circumflexed in Lithuanian have not been cleared up so far. While Greek circumflex seems to be a reliable indi-

cation of a contraction, the intonation in Lithuanian does not point unambiguously to a definite origin of the long vowel. Here I intend to make a contribution to the solution of this problem.

The most remarkable characteristic of IE lengthened grade is that it is rare and that it occurs mainly in a small, morphologically definable group of word forms (cf. Kuryłowicz 1956:142). The rare occurrence of the lengthened grade is an indication that IE long vowels are fairly recent. The occurrence in certain categories is an invitation to look for an explanation in terms of secondary developments. I think that a satisfactory explanation of most instances can be found if we assume that the long vowels are partly the result of phonetic lengthening in certain positions, and partly due to an alternation involving laryngeals.

First of all, I assume that late IE *e, *o were phonetically longer before word-final resonant than in other positions. When length became phonemic, the half-long vowel before word-final resonant was interpreted either as a long vowel, thus coinciding with the new long vowels from contractions, or as a short vowel. The result was partly determined by paradigmatic relationships. In the gen.pl. ending the long vowel was generalized in Skt. -ām, Gr. -ōn, whereas the short vowel was generalized in Baltic and Slavic. Incidentally, Lith. vilkų cannot go back to *vilk δN , which would yield **vilku δ , cf. akmu $\delta < *\acute{a}km\delta N$. The long vowel was generalized in the nom.sg. of stems ending in a resonant, e.g. Gr. méter, ákmön, ekhő, Skt. mätá, ásmā, sákhā, Lith. mótė, akmuõ. The lengthened grade in Gr. eumenés, Skt. sumánāḥ was introduced after the resonant stems, cf. Gr. ménos, Skt. mánah with short vocalism, but Gr. húdor with lengthened grade. In Skt. bháran < *bhéronts we find the expected short vowel. The latter form is indeed an indication that the lengthened grade in the nom.sg. goes back to an original phonetically long variant in certain environments, not to a morphological characteristic.

Secondly, I assume that late IE *e, *o were phonetically long in monosyllabic word forms. The relationship is still maintained in nom.sg. Skt. $p ilde{a}t$, Gr. (Dor.) $p ilde{o}s$, Lat. $p ilde{e}s$, versus gen.sg. Skt. $pad ilde{a}h$, Gr. $pod ilde{o}s$, Lat. pedis. The long stem-vowel is generalized in the flexion of Skt. $v ilde{a}k$, $r ilde{a}t$, Lat. $v ilde{o}x$, $r ilde{e}x$, and then found its way into athematic denominative verbs such as Skt. $t ilde{a}sti$, $r ilde{a}sti$, Avestan $t ilde{a}sti$ (cf. Watkins 1969:30). The short stem vowel was generalized in Gr. ops, Skt. $sp ilde{a}t$. In Slavic we find lengthened grade in Ru. $re ilde{c}$, tvar, gar, tvar, tvar

the phonetic lengthening in monosyllabic word forms is also the origin of the vrddhi in Skt. stáuti, mấrṣṭi, cf. the injunctive staut, impf. astaut, as opposed to full grade in the archaic medial form stáve and in Avestan staoiti, staota, with short diphthong (Watkins 1969:115). Moreover, I think that this is also the origin of the lengthened grade in the s-aorist. Indeed, the only monosyllabic verb forms in late Indo-European are found precisely in the injunctive and in the s-aorist, while nominal forms can only be monosyllabic in the nom.sg. Thus, I assume that the long stem vowel in Lat. vēxī, OChSl. věsъ stems from the 3rd sg. *yēghs, *yēds, which later disappeared, cf. OChSl. iz-č, Hittite dāš, Skt. aprās (Watkins 1969:217).

There is a third origin of IE long vowels alternating with short *e, *o. In the cases discussed above the long vowel is circumflexed in Balto-Slavic, e.g. Lith. akmuõ, dukte, rekti, SCr. rijee, tvar, gar, žâr, aor. 1st sg. klêh, Posavian zakle (Ivšić 1913:91) with neo-acute indicating earlier circumflex, cf. also Lith. $\tilde{e}jo$, $\tilde{e}m\dot{e}$, where the circumflexed long vowel cannot be the result of an analogical development. On the other hand, we find an acute root vowel in Lith. begti, esti, sesti, SCr. jësti, sjësti, sjëći. I think that the stem of these verbs goes back to *beHg-, *eHd-, *seHd-, *seHk-. It should be noted that positing an alternation between *e and *eH in the stem is no more extraordinary than the traditional postulation of an independent phonemic unit $*\bar{e}$ in order to cover precisely the same type of alternation. There is no explanation for the rise of a Balto-Slavic acute vowel from IE lengthening in these words. Thus, I assume that the only source of an old acute in Balto-Slavic is an IE laryngeal. Moreover, the alternation between *e and *eH is unmistakable in SCr. gòveda, cf. Gr. $bo\tilde{u}s < *g^{\underline{u}} \acute{o} H u s$. The origin of Greek and Sanskrit long vowels can only be determined on the basis of the alternations which they display, not on the inherent properties of the vowels themselves. Consequently, if one admits that an alternation between *e and *eH in the stem is theoretically possible, the choice between this possibility and IE lengthened grade cannot be made on the basis of the Greek or Sanskrit evidence. It can only be made on the basis of material where the presence of a laryngeal in a word form can be established without reference to genetically related word forms, i.e. where the larvngeal produces an effect which is absent when the laryngeal is absent. Such an effect is produced by Hirt's law in Baltic and Slavic.

According to Hirt's law, the ictus is retracted to a preceding

syllable containing a vowel which is immediately followed by a laryngeal, e.g. SCr. griva, Skt. griva < *griHuaH. Illič-Svityč has shown (1963:78 ff.) that the ictus was not retracted if the laryngeal followed the second component of a diphthong, e.g. Lith. galva < *golHuaH. As I have pointed out before, the ictus was not retracted either if the laryngeal preceded the vowel, e.g. Ru. pila < *pHilaH. Consequently, the laryngeal was in this period a full-fledged phonemic unit, characterized by a position (cf. Kortlandt 1972:141 ff.). Later the relevant ordering of the laryngeal was lost, so that the segmental phoneme turned into a vocalic feature. In stressed syllables, the laryngeal feature never merged with vocalic length in Slavic, cf. below. Thus, the retraction of the ictus in accordance with Hirt's law points unambiguously to the presence of a laryngeal in the stem. This seems to be the only reliable criterion to separate an original sequence *eH from the lengthened grade *e without reference to genetically related forms.

Indeed, we find retraction in Ru. éla, séla, sékla, as opposed to velá, leglá, teklá, and in the infinitive SCr. jesti, sjesti, sjesti, speci, as opposed to dovėsti, lèći, tèći. These verbs belong together with Ru. grýzla, strígla, prjála, ušíbla, SCr. gristi, strići, presti, šibati, cf. the final accentuation in the present forms Ru. (3rd pl.) edját, sekút, gryzút, strigút, prjadút, ušibút, SCr. (1st sg.) sijèčēm, grízēm, strížēm, prédēm. Similarly, we have Ru. pribégla, bégat', but final stress in begút. The Baltic forms do not point unambiguously to a retraction of the ictus, cf. Lith. ėdą̃s, but also duodą̃s (Stang 1966:451). I think that there was an original alternation which has been obscured by the generalization of the long vowel. The same generalization must have taken place in Lith. sėdėti, SCr. sjèditi, cf. Lat. sedere and OCz. sedeti with a short stem vowel. The original stem *seHd- is found in SCr. sjedati, Lat. $s\bar{e}d\bar{a}re$, and in Old Irish $sid < *s\acute{e}Hdos$, as opposed to Gr. $h\acute{e}dos$. Lengthening is found in SCr. sáditi, Lith. sodinti. Other examples where I suspect an IE alternation between *e and *eH are Lith. úosti, úolektis, cf. Gr. ózō, ölénē.

As to the origin of the laryngeal in the stem, I can think of three different possibilities. Firstly, there may have been a laryngeal infix in certain stems which yielded an alternation *sed-/*seHd-. Secondly, there may have existed a Schwebeablaut alternation *sHed-/*seHd-. Thirdly, an original lengthened grade * \bar{e} may have been replaced by *eH in Balto-Slavic. The latter solution is the most attractive from the traditional IE comparativist point of view because it has

no repercussions outside Balto-Slavic, but it is definitely the least attractive when the motivation of the sound change is taken into account. It should be borne in mind that the change must have occurred before the operation of Hirt's law, i.e. at a stage when the laryngeal was still a segmental phoneme. On the other hand, the last hypothesis does not necessarily conflict with the circumflex intonation before word-final resonant and in the s-aorist. Indeed, a laryngeal before word-final nasal must have been lost at an early stage of development in Balto-Slavic, cf. Lith. $ra\tilde{n}kq$, where the ending does not attract the ictus. Moreover, it is probable that a laryngeal was also lost in monosyllabic words after a full vowel, e.g. Latv. guovs, which is identical with Skt. $g\acute{a}u\dot{p}$, and 3rd sg. Lith. $du\~os$, SCr. $d\~a$ < * $d\~oto Hs$, where the circumflex cannot have been introduced after other forms of the paradigm, cf. 1st sg. SCr. $d\~ah$. [Cf. Appendix E.]

Finally, I have to mention the alleged vrddhi in Ru. voróna, voróčať as opposed to vóron, vorotíť, cf. SCr. vräna, vräćati vs. vrân, vrátiti. In these stems I suspect original IE doublets, cf. Hittite uar- and (u)arh- (Shevelov 1964:47), and SCr. závrat next to vrât, pövrāt, Ru. povorót next to vórot, závorot, Upper Sorabian wrót, zawrót. In view of the dialectal discrepancies I find it hard to assume that the short vowel in SCr. závrat, golòvrat is due to Common Slavic métatonie rude, as Stang suggests (1957:167). On the contrary, I intend to show that in Slavic, in contradistinction to Baltic, there has never been any kind of real metatony.

3.3 BALTIC

As I have pointed out above, the laryngeal was still a segmental phoneme in Balto-Slavic at the stage when Hirt's law operated. The same probably holds true for the period of Ebeling's law, when a word-final laryngeal prevented the retraction of the ictus just as any other consonant did. After the dissolution of the Balto-Slavic linguistic unity, the laryngeal phoneme lost its segmental status and became a feature of the neighbouring vowel. This development proceeded along different lines in the two languages. In Slavic, the loss of laryngeals in pretonic syllables gave rise to the apparent metatony formulated in Meillet's law. In Baltic, however, the loss of the laryngeals yielded the rise of phonemic pitch.

It is difficult to see exactly at what stage the transformation of

the laryngeal into a vocalic feature occurred. I think that it must be connected with the simplification of diphthongs in both languages. In Slavic, the loss of the laryngeal as a segmental phoneme is part of the general elimination of closed syllables. In Baltic, the simplification of diphthongs was restricted to the monophthongization of stressed ei, ai (Endzelin's law, cf. Stang 1966:59) and the shortening of long diphthongs. I see no sufficient evidence for a chronological differentiation between the rise of phonemic pitch in Baltic and these developments. Thus, I assume that $*e \sim *\bar{e} \sim *eH$ developed into $*e \sim *\bar{e} \sim *\hat{e}$ in the same period when the vowel system changed from $*e,*\bar{e} \sim *a \sim *o,*\bar{o}$ into $*\bar{e} \sim *e,*\bar{e} \sim *a,*\bar{a} \sim *\bar{o}$. The rise of the nasal vowels in Lith. $k\hat{q}sti$, $k\tilde{e}sti$ probably also belongs to this period. The respective transitions of *eH, *ei, *en into $*\hat{e}$, $*\bar{e}$, $*\bar{e}$ have in common that a segmental phoneme changed into a vocalic feature.

The rise of phonemic pitch does not imply the rise of a tonal opposition. I propose to use the term "pitch" for any vowel feature which is neither timbre nor quantity, and to reserve the term "tone" for rising and falling tone movements. Though the rise of phonemic pitch goes back to the Common Baltic period, I assume that its development into tone took place independently in Latvian and Lithuanian. The original laryngeal pitch must have been similar to the so-called broken intonation in Latvian, the stød in Danish, or the pitch in Vietnamese ma. Indeed, this intonation has been preserved under the stress in Zemaitian and outside the stressed syllable in Latvian. I think that the Zemaitian facts throw an interesting light upon the origin of tonal oppositions in both Lithuanian and Latvian as well as upon the whole problem of Baltic metatony. In this connection I refer to my article on Baltic accentuation (1974). I assume that retraction of the ictus from a short prevocalic i onto a laryngealized vowel yielded rising tone and loss of the larvngeal feature in Lithuanian, e.g. aũkštis (2), cf. áukštas (3). The old pitch opposition was maintained when the ictus was not retracted. Then the laryngeal pitch feature changed into falling tone and the circumflex coincided with the new rising tone. Retraction of the ictus onto a non-larvngealized long vowel or diphthong yielded a "middle tone", as in Žemaitian, which later coincided with the new falling tone, e.g. vìlkė (1), cf. Ru. volčica, volčixa. In Latvian, on the other hand, the retraction vielded rising tone on both larvngealized and plain vowels, e.g. sniedze. The other stressed vowels became falling per oppositionem, e.g. sniegs, cf. Lith. sniegas. The loss of the laryngeal feature under falling tone yielded a stretched intonation, which later fell together with the new rising tone, e.g. $s\tilde{e}t$, cf. Lith. $s\tilde{e}ti$. Finally, the remaining laryngealized stressed vowels, which had lost their tone when the laryngeal feature was lost under falling tone, became falling, as in Lithuanian. I think that this interpretation of the facts explains why the laryngeal feature was apparently lost earlier in stressed syllables than in unstressed syllables.

After the metatony described in the preceding paragraph, Latvian and Lithuanian went different ways. Latvian *en, *an became * \bar{e} , * \bar{o} , which were later diphthongized into ie, uo, e.g. $lu\hat{o}gs$, $p\hat{e}ci$, i.e. Lith. $l\hat{a}ngas$, $penk\hat{i}$. In Lithuanian, however, old * \bar{e} , * \bar{o} were diphthongized into ie, uo at an early stage, so that * \bar{e} , * \bar{a} could become \dot{e} , o when *e, *a were lengthened under stress, e.g. $v\tilde{e}da$, $s\tilde{a}ko$. This lengthening preceded the retraction of the ictus from medial syllables in mobile paradigms (Pedersen's law), as I have pointed out earlier, cf. $n\hat{e}veda$. Here again, the retraction of the ictus onto a laryngealized vowel yielded rising tone and loss of the laryngeal feature, e.g. $\tilde{e}desis$, $\tilde{e}dalas$, $\tilde{e}sena$, $ta\tilde{u}kinas$, $a\tilde{n}tinas$ (Hjelmslev's law, cf. Hjelmslev 1932:10ff., 62ff., Pedersen 1933:10, Stang 1966:154). The retraction preceded de Saussure's law, as I have pointed out earlier.

According to de Saussure's law, the ictus is transferred from a non-falling vowel to a following acute (i.e. laryngealized) vowel in Lithuanian. There is no indication that de Saussure's law ever operated in Latvian. Indeed, there are two weighty arguments that its application was limited to Lithuanian. Firstly, the law was preceded by Pedersen's law, which was in turn preceded by the exclusively Lithuanian lengthening of stressed *e, *a. Thus, the law should have operated independently in the two languages. Secondly, the operation of the law was certainly favoured by the rising tone of the Lithuanian circumflex. In Latvian, however, the falling circumflex rather favoured a retraction of the stress. I think that the stabilization of the ictus on the first syllable of the word was the Latvian counterpart of de Saussure's law in Lithuanian.

Two more accent laws operated in Lithuanian: the retraction of the ictus from a short a in final syllables to a preceding long vowel or diphthong, e.g. kiekas, meñkas (Nieminen's law, cf. Stang 1957:158), and the shortening of acute vowels in final syllables (Leskien's law). The latter law cannot have preceded the former because of rankà, rankàs. The chronology of Nieminen's law presents a problem, however. I have two arguments for the thesis that this law is relatively late.

Firstly, I find it hard to assume that the final stress in anàs, katràs has been maintained over a long period while the ictus was analogically retracted in all other nom.sg. forms, e.g. gẽras. Secondly, I think that there was a causal relationship between Nieminen's law and Leskien's law. When the ictus was retracted from a short a in final syllables, length became redundant in *rankó, *rankós. Shortening of the acute vowel entailed the neutralization of intonation in final syllables, except in Žemaitian. Similarly, long vowels and diphthongs in final syllables of polysyllabic words were shortened in Latvian when most short vowels were syncopated.

3.4 MEILLET'S LAW

In Slavic, IE laryngeals in pretonic syllables were lost with compensatory lengthening of a neighbouring vowel shortly after the dissolution of the Balto-Slavic unity, è.g. *golváH, *sūnumí, *pīláH < *golHváH, *suHnumí, *pHiláH. The laryngeal was analogically eliminated in the barytone forms of mobile paradigms, e.g. *gólvā, *sūnuN, *pīlo, which led to the apparent metatony known as Meillet's law. At the same time, the laryngeals were lost in posttonic syllables except for the first posttonic syllable, as I have pointed out earlier, e.g. *ósnovā, *nósi(H)lā, *žénaHmīS from earlier *-aH, *-miHS. After Dybo's law, when the ictus shifted to the following syllable, the posttonic quantity was lost in Slovene with compensatory lengthening of the preceding vowel, which yielded the neo-circumflex in osnôva, nosîla, ženâmi. The laryngeals were still retained in the stressed syllable and in the first posttonic syllable.

As a consequence of Meillet's law, mobile paradigms with an acute root vowel are lacking in Slavic. On the other hand, mobility was generalized in the masculine o-stems which did not have an acute root vowel (Illič-Svityč's law). At this stage, masc. o-stems belonged to four different accentual paradigms. Firstly, there were nouns with a laryngeal in the root and fixed stress on the stem, e.g. *dúHmuN, SCr. dîm. Secondly, there were nouns with fixed stress on the stem but without a laryngeal in the root, e.g. *zóNbuN, cf. Gr. gómphos. Thirdly, there were originally neuter nouns with fixed stress on the stem in the singular which had a suppletive end-stressed plural, e.g. *dvóruN, *dvoráH, Ru. dvor. Fourthly, there were mobile paradigms without a laryngeal in the root, e.g. *gólsuN, SCr. glâs. The last type

continued the old IE oxytona. Originally end-stressed nouns with a laryngeal in the root joined either the first type as a result of Hirt's law, or the last type as a result of Meillet's law. However, the accentual difference between the four types mentioned here existed in the plural only. As a consequence of Ebeling's law, the ictus had been retracted to the stem in all singular case forms of the mobile paradigm with the exception of the nominative and the instrumental. These two case forms were lost: the nominative was replaced by the accusative, and the instrumental received a borrowed ending, cf. Lith. vilkù, Ru. vólkom. Now the second accent type joined the mobile paradigm, from which it differed in the oblique cases of the plural only, e.g. SCr. zûb. This development was established by Illič-Svityč (1963:119). The old accentuation was retained in the Čak. dialects of Susak and Istria, where we find e.g. gen.sg. zūbà, with final stress as a result of Dybo's law. I assume that Illič-Svityč's law is posterior to Meillet's law because the first accent type did not take part in the change.

At this stage, nominal prefix formations were stressed either on the stem or on the prefix, e.g. *povóduN, *národuN. Formations of the former type received final stress in the oblique cases of the plural as a result of Illič-Svityč's law. Then the ictus was retracted to the prefix in the other case forms as a result of Pedersen's law. According to Pedersen's law, the ictus is retracted from medial syllables in mobile paradigms. As I have pointed out earlier, this law operated twice in Slavic, first in the earliest Balto-Slavic period, and later again after the dissolution of the Balto-Slavic unity. The latter retraction yielded the accentuation of Ru. ná vodu, né byl, pródal, póvod, ORu. prívedu, góvorju, as opposed to Ru. na vodé, ne bylá, prodalá, na povodú, privedët, govorít. The lateral mobility in nominal prefix formations shows that Pedersen's law was posterior to Illič-Svityč's law. Indeed, lateral mobility did not arise here when the latter law did not operate, cf. Čak. (Istria) razdél, gen.sg. razdēlà, with final stress due to Dybo's law.

At the same stage, as far as we can see, the stressed vowels in the barytone forms of mobile paradigms received a falling intonation, whereas all other stressed vowels became rising, e.g. * $v\ddot{o}d\bar{q}$, * $n\hat{a}$ $vod\bar{q}$, * $z\dot{e}n\bar{q}$, * $tr\dot{a}v\bar{q}$, * $l\ddot{o}mj\bar{q}$, * $n\dot{o}sj\bar{q}$, * $xv\dot{a}lj\bar{q}$, * $nes\dot{e}no$, Ru. $v\dot{o}du$, $n\dot{a}$ vodu, ženu, travu, travu,

than Illič-Svityč's law because of the falling pitch throughout the singular in SCr. $z\hat{u}b$.

From the other developments which took place during this period I want to mention the narrowing of word-final $^*\bar{e}$, $^*\bar{o}$ into $^*\bar{i}$, $^*\bar{u}$, e.g. OChSl. mati, kamy, cf. Lith. $m\acute{o}t\acute{e}$, $akmu\~{o}$, the merger of $^*\bar{a}$, *aH with $^*\bar{o}$, *oH , e.g. OChSl. dati, acc.pl. *zeny , cf. Lith. $d\acute{u}oti$, $j\acute{u}ras$, and the Slavic Umlaut of back vowels after *j , e.g. OChSl. igo, $konj\~{e}$ < $^*j\~{u}go$, $^*k\~{o}njons$, but $zemlj\~{e}$, $znaj\~{e}$ 0 < $^*zemj\~{e}$ 0, $^*zn\~{o}Hj\~{e}$ 1 because the nasal vowel in the latter words was indifferent with respect to the distinction between front and back vowels. The relative chronology of these sound changes is clear: the merger of $^*\~{e}$ 1 and $^*\~{o}$ 2 cannot have preceded the narrowing of $^*\~{o}$ 1 into $^*\~{u}$ 2 because word-final $^*\~{a}$ 2 was preserved in the gen.sg. ending of the o-stems, e.g. Ru. $v\acute{o}lka$, cf. Lith. $v\~{i}lko$ 0, but the merger of *aH 1 and *oH 2 must have preceded the Umlaut3 because the latter operated in the acc.pl. ending of the *aH -stems, e.g. OChSl. $^*zemje{e}$ 4 $^*zemje{e}$ 4 $^*zemje{e}$ 4 $^*zemje{e}$ 4 $^*zemje{e}$ 6. I intend to treat the history of the nasal vowels separately on another occasion.

3.5 THE RISE OF THE NEW TIMBRE DISTINCTIONS

The most radical change in the Slavic sound system was brought about by the so-called law of open syllables, or law of rising sonority. As a result of this law, which actually comprises a series of successive sound laws, closed syllables were eliminated from the language. In this section I shall confine myself to those parts of the law which are relevant in connection with the loss of the IE laryngeals and the development of vocalic quantity.

After Meillet's law the laryngeals were retained in the stressed syllable and in the first posttonic syllable. Now a posttonic laryngeal was lost without compensatory lengthening, whereas in stressed syllables a laryngeal became a vocalic feature. The development is analogous to that of the nasals: we have $*d\hat{y}mb < *d\hat{u}HmuN$ just as we have $*z\hat{o}bb < *z\hat{o}NbuN$. As a result of the loss of the laryngeals, the timbre oppositions $|a \sim 0$, $\tilde{e} \sim e$, $i \sim b$, $y \sim b$ / became phonemic. For typographical reasons I shall again use *e instead of *e in the sequel. The loss of final *N in $*s\hat{u}muN$ probably preceded the loss of final *s in $*sl\hat{o}vos$, and the latter probably preceded the loss of final *H in $*z\hat{e}naH$ (cf. Ebeling 1963:34ff.). This chronological difference is irrelevant for the present exposition, however.

The loss of the laryngeals in posttonic syllables yielded short *a, e.g. in *žėna. On the other hand, long *e arose in the same position as a result of Van Wijk's law, according to which simplification of a consonant cluster entailed lengthening of the following vowel, e.g. *gỳnẽšь < *gùHbneSi (cf. Ebeling 1967:587). Van Wijk's law must have been posterior to or simultaneous with the loss of the laryngeals because of the long vowel in *vòļā from earlier *vòljaH, so that we may have to postulate an intermediate stage *gỳbneSь, *vòlja. It should be noted that long vowels in posttonic syllables were not shortened, cf. SCr. nòsīš, bàvīš < *nòsīšь, *bàvīšь and Slovene osnôva < *òsnovā, where the neo-circumflex points to the retention of length in the final syllable.

As a result of the rise of the new timbre distinctions in posttonic syllables, the quantitative oppositions in pretonic syllables were re-interpreted as timbre distinctions. When Dybo's law restored the quantitative oppositions in pretonic syllables, the old long vowels became distinctively short, e.g. Polish reka, SCr. màlina < *rokà, *malina, cf. Polish watroba, SCr. národ < *otrobā, *národo. The length in SCr. rúka was introduced later after the accusative rûku, cf. the oblique plural form rùkama. The shortening of pretonic long vowels yielded an alternation between pretonic short and posttonic long vowels in mobile paradigms. Here too, Serbo-Croat generalized the long vowel, e.g. gölüb, žèlūd, làbūd, òblāst, whereas Czech and Polish generalized the short vowel, cf. Czech holub, žalud, labuť, oblast. The long vowel was retained everywhere if it did not alternate with a short vowel, i.e. in paradigms with fixed stress such as SCr. mjesec, penezi, jästrēb, päūk, Czech měsíc, peníz, jestřáb, pavouk. The latter words had a laryngealized vowel in the first syllable. Cf. in this connection the difference between SCr. pëkār, čëljād, Cz. pekař, čeleď, and SCr. rìbār, rìbnjāk, Cz. rybář, rybník. The former type has original mobility, the latter type fixed stress. The old mobility is still evident in SCr. sječivo, plur. sječíva, Cz. palivo. The absence of end-stressed words with the same suffix as SCr. rođaj, čeljad, where the intonation points to old mobility, is due to Pedersen's law (cf. Stang 1957:47). Both Czech and Serbo-Croat show short vocalism if the suffix contained a laryngeal, e.g. SCr. bògat, srdit.

In stressed syllables I assume that the laryngealized vowels, like the nasal vowels, were indifferent with respect to quantity in the period under discussion. When the laryngeal feature was finally lost in the period between Dybo's law and Stang's law, the resulting vowels were short. The quantitative opposition in the nasal vowels was restored as a consequence of Dybo's law. Polish $nosz_{\ell}$ shows that the nasal vowels were neutral with respect to quantity at the time of Van Wijk's law. The retraction of the ictus from word-final jers added new long vowels to the inventory, e.g. Slovene $g\acute{o}r$, and analogically $k\acute{o}nj$. This retraction yielded long rising nasal vowels in Polish rqk, $niosq < *r\acute{o}k \vec{o}$, *nes\acute{o}to < *roko*, *nesoto*. Other long vowels arose after Dybo's law as a result of the lengthening in monosyllables, e.g. Slovene $b\acute{o}g$, $k\acute{o}st$, $d\^{a}n$, and dialectally under various conditions.

It is interesting to compare the rise of the new timbre distinctions chronologically with the metathesis of liquids. The metathesis was often accompanied by lengthening. If *or yielded *rā, the metathesis must have preceded the rise of the new timbre distinctions. On the other hand, the latter must have preceded the former if *or vielded * $r\bar{o}$. Finally, no conclusions about the chronology can be drawn in the cases where *or yielded *ro without lengthening. It turns out that the relative chronology of these developments was different in different dialectal areas. In Czecho-Slovak and South Slavic the metathesis preceded the rise of the new timbre distinctions, e.g. Cz.Slk. brázda, brada, SCr.Sln. brázda, bráda < *bòrzdaH, *bordàH. In Polish and Sorabian, however, the order was reversed, cf. Po.US. brózda. broda. Here the long o in the former word indicates that at least under rising accent the metathesis was posterior to the rise of the new timbre distinctions. These results are corroborated by the development of *kòlHdaH, which yielded *klàda in Czecho-Slovak and South Slavic, and *kloda in Lekhite. Here the lengthening of the vowel is not indicated because laryngealized vowels were indifferent with respect to vocalic length. When the laryngeal feature was lost after the operation of Dybo's law, these forms developed into *klàda, *klòda. The short rising vowel was regularly lengthened in Cz.Sln. kláda, US. klóda, but not in SCr. klàda, Slk. klada, Po. kloda. The difference between US. klóda and broda on the one hand, and between Po. kloda and brózda on the other hand clearly shows that the laryngeal feature was still preserved after the rise of the new timbre distinctions.

The development of word-initial *or is slightly different: SCr. lâkat and Slk. laket' point to metathesis and lengthening under falling accent before the rise of the new timbre distinctions, whereas SCr. ròbiti and Slk. robit', as well as Cz. robiti, point to metathesis without lengthening under rising accent. Here Cz. loket is ambiguous: either the vowel was not lengthened, or the metathesis was posterior to the rise of

the new timbre distinctions. The latter possibility is excluded by Cz. $r\acute{a}dlo < *\grave{o}rHdlo$, so that we have to assume that the metathesis was in all positions anterior to the rise of the new timbre distinctions in the whole Czecho-Slovak and South Slavic area. In Czech the metathesized vowel was not lengthened in unstressed syllables, e.g. $jablo\check{n}$, cf. SCr. $j\ddot{a}bl\ddot{a}n$, Po. $jablo\acute{n}$. Thus, the o in Cz. loket may be due to analogical levelling after the end-stressed forms of the paradigm, cf. also role from $*orl\acute{e}jaH$. In OChSl. kamy there must have been an interchange of a word-initial laryngeal with the k in the period between the end of the Balto-Slavic unity and the rise of the new timbre distinctions, cf. Lith. $akmu\~o < *(H)\acute{a}km\~o(N)$. The laryngeal is posited on the basis of Gr. $\acute{a}km\~o n$ and SCr. $k\~am\~e n$.

After the loss of the laryngeals in posttonic syllables and the rise of new long vowels as a result of Van Wijk's law, case endings could have three different quantities. The ending of the nom.sg. of the a-stems was short in *žèna, *tráva, long in *vòlā, *òsnovā, and indifferent with respect to length in *gorà, *dušà. Similarly, the neuter nom.pl. ending was short in *leta, *vina, long in *semenā, *tèletā, and indifferent in *pola, *imena. Other case endings were always long, e.g. the inst.pl. ending, where length has been preserved in Slovene stabrí, râki, with neo-circumflex indicating earlier *råk\vec{v}, mo\vec{z}mi, nog\vec{a}mi. At this stage several levellings took place. Endings which did not occur under the stress were shortened in the whole Slavic territory, e.g. gen.sg. *kòna, *niti, dat.sg. *kònu, *niti. Length was generalized in the unstressed nom.pl. ending in Slovene lêta, but not under the stress, cf. drvà. Conversely, the distinction between a short unstressed nasal vowel and a long nasal vowel under the stress was preserved in Slovene gen.sg. lípe, goré, and in SCr. acc.pl. glâve, gen.sg. glávē. This difference became phonemic as a result of Dybo's law, which re-introduced long unstressed nasal vowels and short nasal vowels under the stress, cf. Polish trąba, noszę from *tręba, *nošę, later *tręba, *nošę.

36 THE LOSS OF THE LARYNGEAL FEATURE

The opposition between long and short vowels in pretonic syllables was restored as a result of Dybo's law (cf. Ebeling 1967:590). According to this law, rising vowels in non-final syllables lost the ictus to the following syllable, e.g. *nosìti, *nosò, *nosìsь, *nosìlo, *nosôno, *pytàti, *pytàšь, *ženà, *trāvà, *voļâ, *osnòvā, *nāròdь, *koṇà, *gotòvo.

Dybo's law introduced phonemic pitch on long vowels in non-initial syllables. On the other hand, the pitch opposition on short vowels was lost, except in monosyllables. Here the opposition was eliminated by the lengthening of short falling vowels, e.g. Slovene $b\hat{\rho}g$, $k\hat{\rho}st$, $d\hat{a}n$, SCr. $b\hat{\sigma}g$, $k\hat{\sigma}st$, $d\hat{a}n$, Ru.dial. bog as opposed to Sln. $k\hat{\sigma}nj$, $p\hat{\sigma}s$, SCr. $k\hat{\sigma}nj$, $p\hat{\sigma}s$, Ru.dial. $k\hat{\sigma}n'$. Consequently, short vowels were falling in the initial syllable of polysyllabic words and rising elsewhere. The tonal opposition on short vowels was not lost, but re-phonemicized by the loss of the laryngeal feature. The old laryngealized vowels fell together with the short rising vowels, e.g. $*d\hat{\gamma}m_{\bar{b}}$, $*gor\hat{\alpha}$.

The tonal opposition on long vowels in initial syllables of polysyllabic words was restored by Stang's law, according to which the ictus was retracted from falling vowels in final syllables (cf. Ebeling 1967:591 f.), e.g. *nôsišb, *nôšenb, *pýtašb, *vôla. The latter development may have been evoked by the general shortening of falling vowels, cf. Polish rękę, Czech ruku, mladost, SCr. mlàdost, gen.sg. pràseta, the second syllable in nöšen, nöšeno, Ru.dial. bog. The shortening did not affect monosyllables in Slovene and Serbo-Croat and the first syllable of disyllabic words in the latter language, e.g. SCr. bôg, rûku, prâse. It probably reached the South Slavic area later than the North. The progressive accent shift in Slovene may also have been evoked by the shortening of falling vowels, e.g. rokô, mladôst. I assume that in the period before the shift length was neutralized under falling tone, as it was in $b \partial g$. It is clear that the Slovenian accent shift cannot have preceded Stang's law but must have preceded the loss of the nasal vowels, cf. also imê, mesô. The shortening of falling vowels was preceded by the South Slavic generalization of length in pretonic vowels which alternated with long vowels under the stress, e.g. SCr.Sln. dúša. This development, which was a logical consequence of the phonemicization of pretonic quantity as a result of Dybo's law, did not affect trisyllabic word forms such as SCr. rùkama. Short rising vowels were lengthened in different languages under different conditions, e.g. Cz. kráva, Sln. léto, Ru.dial. kôn'.

As to chronology, it is clear that the loss of the laryngeal feature cannot have preceded Dybo's law. It is probable that the lengthening of falling vowels in monosyllables also preceded the loss of the laryngeal feature because the latter development restored the tonal opposition on short vowels in the initial syllable of polysyllabic words and thereby eliminated the motivation for the lengthening. On the other hand, the loss of the laryngeal feature cannot have been much

later because the phonetic distinction between falling short vowels in initial syllables of polysyllabic words and rising short vowels elsewhere had not yet been lost. The loss of the laryngeal feature was certainly anterior to Stang's law because of the gen.pl. SCr. $j \tilde{e}z i k \tilde{a}$, as I pointed out earlier. The short vowel in the gen.pl. Cz. krav, $d \tilde{e}l$ is an indication that the loss of the laryngeal feature was posterior to the generalization of length in the gen.pl., which must have taken place in the period around Dybo's law.

The absolute chronology is indicated by the final accentuation in Ru. koról, SCr. krālj. The accentuation of this word does not imply that the borrowing preceded Dybo's law because the word may have been adapted to the existing accent pattern, cf. Lith. kultūra, literatūra. Other loans may be older than Dybo's law, e.g. Ru. kost"er. Since the name of Charlemagne cannot have been borrowed before 800 A.D., Stang's law must be dated in the ninth century and the final loss of the laryngeal feature must have occurred toward the end of the eighth century. I assume that the period between Dybo's law and Stang's law was relatively short. The East Slavic polnoglasie must be dated shortly before Stang's law.

3.7 SLOVINCIAN

In the preceding chapters I have not taken the Slovincian material into account. This is not because I think that Slovincian is of no value for the reconstruction of Slavic accentuation, but simply because I think that its value is seriously impaired by a number of secondary developments which have not as yet been properly investigated. One cannot reach any definite conclusions without previously undertaking an exhaustive synchronic analysis of the language. A superficial comparison of the Slovincian material with what is known about Slavic accentuation from other sources can easily lead to wrong conclusions. Thus, Garde recently (1973) put forward the hypothesis that Dybo's law, which he calls Illič-Svityč's law, did not operate in the West Slavic dialects. In fact, there are valuable indications both in Slovincian and in Czecho-Slovak and Polish that the shift operated in the whole Slavic area. The original state of affairs in Slovincian has been obscured mainly by three phonetic retractions of the ictus, the generalization of certain case endings, and two layers of morphological barytonesis. In the following discussion I shall use a simplified variant of Lorentz's orthography.

Garde claims that historically mobile paradigms are mobile in Slovincian, while all other paradigms have, as a rule, fixed stress on the stem. This is simply incorrect. As Van Wijk pointed out more than half a century ago, Slavic oxytona with a long stem vowel have fixed stress on the stem, whereas the majority of Slavic oxytona with a short stem vowel have become mobile (1922:24). Moreover, Slavic barytona with secondary rising intonation, i.e. where Dybo's law operated but did not yield oxytonesis, have fixed stress on the stem. Van Wijk draws attention to the fact that composite like fxóud and zbjég have fixed stress, whereas a few simplicia like bjég are mobile (1922:13). This is indeed an important indication that Dybo's law did operate in Slovincian. The difference between fixed stress in fxóud and analogically xóud on the one hand and mobility in bóub, dvór, nóuž, vóul etc. on the other can only be explained by assuming that the latter paradigms were stressed on the ending at an earlier stage and joined the mobile pattern after a retraction of the ictus.

Garde's second piece of evidence is the accentuation of golùoloud, darùovac, darùovoul, as opposed to Ru. gololëd, darovát', darovál. This is no indication at all because in Slovincian the accent never falls on the final syllable of polysyllabic word forms except for a few cases where it is secondary. The regular stress pattern has been preserved in kolùodzei, loc.sg. kolodzìejū. In the verb the old accentuation has been preserved in the fem.sg. form of the l-participle darovà, with subsequent loss of the ending.

As far as I can see, we have to assume three phonetic retractions of the ictus in Slovincian. The stress was first retracted from any final syllable to a preceding long vowel (cf. Kuryłowicz 1952:16). This can be viewed as an expansion of Stang's law. The stress was not retracted from medial syllables, cf. zābàva, voutrùoba, which again proves that Dybo's law did operate in Slovincian. Then the ictus was retracted from short vowels in final open syllables. As a consequence of this development, the three accentual paradigms were reduced to two. In the verb the retraction in the 1st sg. pjišq and the imp.sg. pjìšə led to a paradigm with fixed stress. The retraction is clearly phonetic because it did not take place before an enclitic particle, cf. imp. zàčnji, začnjica, pomožà-mja. Finally, the ictus was regularly retracted from final syllables of polysyllabic word forms. Final stress was restored in the inst.pl. forms of mobile paradigms, e.g. rąkami, břegami. The latter forms cannot be old because of two reasons. First, the stress was retracted in the aH-stems according to Hirt's law, cf. Slovene goràm, goràh, Čak. (Novi) goràmi. Second, the final vowel of the ending must be identified with *- \bar{y} , like in $xlùop\bar{i}$, not with *- \bar{i} , which would regularly palatalize the preceding consonant, cf. $mjil\bar{i}$. The long vowel in the gen.dat.sg. $brieg\bar{u}$ cannot be old either, cf. the short ending in nom.pl. xlùopji. The long vowel is analogical after the loc.sg. ending.

There have been two more retractions of the stress in Slovincian. As a rule, the ictus was retracted in those forms of polysyllabic words with fixed stress on the syllable preceding the ending, where the mobile type stressed the initial syllable, e.g. ləsàca, doplàta, casnùota, acc.sg. làsaca, dùoplata, càsnota, and dùoxoud, gen.pl. doxùodou, neuter kùolano, kùopato, nom-acc.pl. kolàna, kopata like jiezoro, jezùora. The same development took place in the verb, e.g. nàpjiša, napjišeš, imp. nàpjiša, like dùonjosa, donjieseš, imp. přànjesa, This retraction must have preceded the retraction from short vowels in final open syllables, which eliminated the motivation for a deviating accentuation in the acc.sg. of the aH-stems. On the other hand, it must have been posterior to the general retraction of the ictus from final syllables of polysyllabic word forms because the Slavic oxytone type and the type with fixed stress on a medial syllable had apparently coalesced, e.g. bùogōč, kàrčmōř, kùovōl, loc.sg. bogáučū, karčmàřū, kováulū. After the retraction from short vowels in final open syllables the ictus was analogically retracted in the nom.gen.dat.loc.sg. of polysyllabic aH-stems when these cases differed from the acc.sg. and nom-acc.pl. as to their accentuation, e.g. mùotaka, inst.sg. motakou, gen.pl. motàk. This process was under way at the beginning of our century (cf. Kurylowicz 1952:13f.). It had affected such words as bùogōčka, kàrčmōrka, kùovōlka, where the new accentuation was supported by the corresponding masculines. The new development reached derivations later than the words from which they were derived, cf. komùora, komórka, kùobəla, kobílka, nùogəica, nogèička, sèrota, sàrotka. For the details I refer to Kuryłowicz's article about Slovincian accentuation.

The question remains how the tendency to retract the ictus, which is so clearly perceivable in Slovincian and which led to the stabilization of the stress on the initial syllable in the other West Slavic languages, came about. I think that the origin must be sought in the shortening of falling vowels, which affected the North earlier than the South. The latter development reached the South Slavic area after the generalization of length in pretonic vowels which alternated with

long stressed vowels, e.g. SCr.Sln. dúša. This generalization could take place only after Dybo's law, which re-introduced phonemic length in pretonic syllables. In West Slavic the old circumflex was shortened before length could be restored in the end-stressed forms of the paradigm. As a result, tone and quantity lost their mutual independence. After Stang's law and the retraction to a preceding long vowel, non-initial stress was associated with accentual mobility, which again led to barytonesis. The details may have been different in various dialects, but the general trend was the same.

Apart from the evidence mentioned above, like fixed stress in fxóud, zbjég and medial accentuation in zābàva, voutrùoba, there are other indications that Dybo's law operated in Slovincian like everywhere else. First, there is the isolated word vjigùo, where the final accentuation cannot otherwise be explained. Second, there is a class of feminine nouns with final stress, e.g. cenjáu, pointing to earlier *tenèja, cf. Ru. sud'já. If Dybo's law had not operated, one would expect retraction of the ictus. Finally, such forms as Czech můžeš, vůle, Slovak môžeš, vôl'a, Polish stróża (cf. Čak. stráža) can only be explained by assuming final accentuation at an earlier stage.

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CHAPTER 4

THE ADJECTIVE

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In the simple adjective we find the same accentuation types as in the substantive, e.g. *ràdb, *stàrb, *čistb, *sŷtb with a laryngealized root vowel, *bélb, *gòlb, *òstrb, *nòvb with later oxytonesis according to Dybo's law, and *bòsb, *sûxb, *jûnb, *mòldb with old mobility, cf. Čak. (Novi) stàra, čista, bēlò, golò, Slovene junô, mladô. The same types occur in suffixed forms, e.g. *glàdbkb, *kỳselb, *težòkb, *debèlb, *mêkbkb, *vèselb, where the retraction of the ictus is due to Hirt's law in the first and to Pedersen's law in the last examples, cf. Slovene glátko, teškò, mehkô. The problem is that the distribution of the patterns has been obscured by the transition of many adjectives into other classes. Thus, the mobility in Čak. novà, nòvo is definitely secondary in view of the short vowel in nòv, which points to an old rising accent. As a result of the numerous transitions, it is hard to find exact correspondences between different languages. Now the question must be posed how this situation came about.

4.2 DOLOBKO'S LAW

The compound adjective results from the composition of two elements which gradually merged to form a unity. The composition goes probably back to the Balto-Slavic period in view of the close correspondence between Baltic and Slavic in this respect. The unity can hardly be so old, however. The Lithuanian forms geras, gerasis point to the fact that the pronominal element in the compound adjective was still an enclitic particle at the time when stressed e,a were lengthened, i.e. shortly after the dissolution of the Letto-Lithuanian linguistic unity, but that it had developed into a regular suffix in the period when Nieminen's law operated (cf. Kortlandt 1974). In Slavic the clitic had become a suffix before the earliest loss of intervocalic *j, which took place before Dybo's law.

In words with mobile stress the ictus moved from the initial syllable

to the end of the word when an enclitic was added, e.g. SCr. nòćas, jesėnas, zimūs, but ljėtos, jūtros. This is Dolobko's law, which must be dated somewhere between the end of the Balto-Slavic linguistic unity and the loss of intervocalic *j. Like Dybo (1962:26f.), I do not agree with Stang (1957:103) and Ebeling (1967:587) that the ictus advanced to the syllable preceding the enclitic. The above cases, like Ru. rodilsjá, rodilís', are inconclusive in this respect because of the lost jer. However, ORu. postvžusjá shows that the stress shifted to the enclitic itself, or rather to the last syllable of the compound, cf. Slovene lahkegà, lahkemù. The latter accentuation is also found in some Serbo-Croatian dialects. For the Old Russian and Middle Bulgarian evidence see Dybo 1971. Thus, the shift strengthened rather than attenuated the lateral mobility in Slavic noun inflection. This is another indication that Dolobko's law must be dated in approximately the same period as Pedersen's law. The similar accent shift in Bulgarian occurred much later and operated differently (Bulaxovskij 1921:286).

The timbre of the vowel in Ru.dial. gôlyj, Slovene gôli shows that the retraction of the stress is a result of Stang's law. Consequently, the paradigm must have had a number of long endings, which can only have arisen by contraction after the loss of intervocalic *j. I assume that Slavic contractions go back to two different periods. Before the operation of Dybo's law, vowels in posttonic syllables were contracted after the loss of intervocalic *i, e.g. Čak. (Novi) pitā, Bulg. píta, Polish pyta < *pytâtь < *pýtaetь. Later contractions did not affect the whole Slavic territory, e.g. Čak. kopâ, Bulg. kopáe, Old Polish kopaje < *kopå(j)etb. It is unclear to what extent the first type of contraction affected the East Slavic dialects. Adjectival forms like Ru.Ukr. dóbrym and the neuter nom.sg. Ukr. dóbre seem to indicate that the older contractions did reach East Slavic. Here Ru. pytáet, Ukr. pytáje may or may not be back-formations after Ru. kopáet, Ukr. kopáje, or the timbre of the vowels may have prevented contraction.

As a result of Dolobko's law and the early contractions, approximately the following paradigms existed in the Common Slavic period between Dybo's law and the loss of the laryngeal feature.

*novŷ	*bosу̀jь	*novâgo	*bosaegò
*novâ	*bosàja	*novûmu	*bosuemù
*novê	*bosojè	*novŷть	*bosỳiть

*novî	*bosìi	*novŷx ъ	*bosу̀іхъ
*novệ	*bosyję̀	*почу̀тъ	*bosỳimъ
*novâ	*bosaja	*novŷmi	*bosỳimi

The loss of the laryngeal feature and the later contractions gave rise to an extensive interchange between these two paradigms. According to Stang's law, the ictus was retracted in the majority of forms belonging to the first paradigm, cf. Ru. nóvyj, bosój.

4.3 THE COMPARATIVE

The stem vowel is rising in the comparative before the suffix *-je, e.g. Ru. molože, dorože. The long stem vowel in Old Czech hure, mene, Ru.dial. bole points unambiguously to a neo-acute. The most plausible explanation is that originally the comparative had fixed stress on the root so that the stem vowel received rising pitch, and that the word-final vowel was lengthened as a result of Van Wijk's law. Thus, the development of *gore < *gore > *go

Stang assumes (1957:104f.) that the comparative shows proto-Slavic metatony and that the neo-acute in the words mentioned above is due to analogy. However, I fail to see the motivation for the analogy. After the loss of the laryngeal feature, the old acute vowels fell together with the short rising vowels, so that one would expect $*\delta$ instead of $*\delta$ if the origin of the intonation were analogical. The only argument against an original neo-acute is the short vowel in Čak. (Novi) više, draže, suše. But here the short vowel can easily have been introduced after the long forms of the comparative, e.g. mlaji, cf. Štok. mladi, mladost. There is no reason to assume any real metatony at any stage in the development of Slavic.

Indeed, the possibility of *métatonie rude* is hard to accept if one agrees that the final loss of the laryngeal feature occurred as late as I have suggested. The difference between Ru. zóloto, górod and pozolóta, ogoród goes back to an original distinction between mobile stress in the simple noun and fixed stress on the prefix in the compound, with later shift in accordance with Dybo's law. In Slavic, in contradistinction to Baltic, there never was any metatony because there was no model for it.

CHAPTER 5

CASE ENDINGS

51 INTRODUCTION

If the theory presented in the foregoing chapters is correct, there was a period of common Balto-Slavic development between the times of IE linguistic unity and the separation into a Baltic and a Slavic branch. To this period belong the earliest retraction of the ictus from medial syllables in mobile paradigms, the extension of barytonesis to nouns with vocalic stems, the oxytonesis in paradigms with end-stressed forms, the retraction of the ictus known as Hirt's law, and the retraction from final open syllables in disyllabic word forms (cf. Kortlandt 1974). The decisive argument for assuming a separate Balto-Slavic period is not the mere existence of common innovations but the shared chronology of these innovations. It follows that the Balto-Slavic period comprises at least the period between the first common innovation after the dissolution of the IE linguistic unity and the last shared development of the two branches.

In view of this result, we have to assume that there was a common Balto-Slavic flexional system before the separation of the branches. In this chapter I shall try to reconstruct the case endings of the substantive at the end of the Balto-Slavic period, concentrating upon the points where the accentuation provides valuable information. At this stage, there were four short vowels *i, *e, *o, *u, five short vowels before laryngeal *iH, *eH, *aH, *oH, *uH, at least four long vowels $*\bar{e}$, $*\bar{a}$, $*\bar{o}$, $*\bar{q}$, and a large number of diphthongs. The syllabic resonants had been lost, cf. Lith. vilkas, $gurkl\bar{y}s$, Polish wilk, gardlo, going back to *il, *ur.

52 NOMINATIVE

The nominative singular is either sigmatic or asigmatic. In masculine and feminine nouns we find *-s after *o, *i, *u and zero after *H, *r, *n, e.g. Lith. dievas, ašis, sūnùs, žiemà, patì, žemė, duktė, akmuo. The sigmatic ending is also present in the participles, e.g. Lith. sukãs.

The neuter ending is zero except for the *o*-stems, which will be discussed below.

The circumflex intonation of the ending in Lith. žẽmė presents a problem. Endzelin's suggestion of analogy after dukte is not convincing. If the contention that a Balto-Slavic acute goes back to a larvngeal is correct, the circumflex cannot simply be ascribed to a contraction because the larvngeal was word-final. It is possible that the larvngeal was regularly lost after a long vowel, cf. Lith. duõs. SCr. $d\hat{a} < *d\bar{o}Hs$. On the other hand, Lith. $\check{z}\tilde{e}m\dot{e}$ is the expected form of the acc.sg. if the hypothesis of regular loss of a word-final resonant after a long vowel is correct. In the latter case, the development of $*\bar{e} < *\bar{e}N < *eHm$ is analogous to the development of $*\bar{e} < *\bar{e}r$ in $dukt\tilde{e}$ or $*\bar{a} < *\bar{a}N < *aHm$ in $ra\tilde{n}ka$. A definite conclusion does not seem possible on the basis of the available evidence. Apart from the isolated nom.sg. form, the paradigm of žemė has been remodelled after the paradigm of rankà. Since it is impossible to distinguish between the original and the analogous forms, I shall leave the paradigm of žemė out of consideration in the sequel. I have no satisfactory explanation for the circumflex in Slovene krî, which may or may not be analogical after $k \hat{o} s t$, cf. SCr. $k \hat{r} v$, gen.sg. $k \hat{r} v i$. The original acute has been preserved before the formative suffix in *jezvkz, cf. OPr. insuwis.

The nominative plural of masc. and fem. nouns ends in *-es except for the o-stems, e.g. Lith. rañkos, with *-ās from *-aHes, dial. ãkmenes (Stang 1966:222), OChSl. kamene, synove, and potbje < *-ejes with reduction of *e before *i. The nom.pl. ending of Lith. ãkys, súnūs probably goes back to the ending *-iHes, *-uHes of the corresponding H-stems, cf. Czech církve, Skt. tanúaḥ. The neuter nom.pl. ending is *-aH, e.g. SCr. sèla, pòlja, nebèsa, Slovene telêta.

One of the most difficult problems in Baltic historical grammar is the nom.pl. ending of the o-stems, e.g. Lith. $vilka\tilde{i}$. The ending, which may or may not be identical to the ending in the adjective geri and the pronoun $ti\tilde{e}$, is enigmatic in all respects. Firstly, the ictus has escaped both the early Balto-Slavic barytonesis and the late Balto-Slavic retraction from final syllables in disyllabic words. Secondly, it is unclear why -ai has not regularly developed into -ie in the noun. Thirdly, the intonation presents a problem.

The IE ending *-o-es, which is still found in Skt. $v_i k \bar{a} h$ and Gothic wulfos, and also in Oscan-Umbrian, was replaced by the pronominal ending *-oi in the majority of IE dialects, e.g. Gr. lúkoi, Lat. lupi,

OChSl. vlaci. This replacement may have been a common innovation in the central IE dialectal area. In any case it must go back to the earliest dialectal period because it was apparently earlier than the Balto-Slavic barytonesis, which belongs to the oldest innovations of the branch. The fact that the barytonesis did not reach the nom.pl. of the o-stems can only be explained by assuming that the ending differed considerably from the other flexion types.

The question why the ictus was not retracted in accordance with Ebeling's law, as it was in the loc.sg. of the o-stems, is more complicated. I think that the answer is provided by the Slavic material. The nom.pl. OChSl. vloci differs from the loc.sg. OChSl. vloce just as the imperative beri differs from the old medial perfect vědě. The development of *oi into i instead of \check{e} in beri is best explained by assuming a narrowing before word-final *S at some stage in the history of Slavic, cf. Gr. phérois. This assumption is supported by the development of *-ōiS, *-oHns into *-\bar{v}, *-v, OChSl. vlbky, as opposed to -u, -o from *- $\bar{o}i$, *-ont. Similarly, we have to assume that the nom.pl. vlbci goes back to the enlarged form *vilkois, with *-s analogically after the other flexion types, as opposed to the loc.sg. vlbce < *vilkoi. The only problem in this approach is the chronology of the enlargement. On the basis of Lith. vilkar I assume that it goes back to the Balto-Slavic period. The final *-s distinguished the noun from the adjective, which simply had the pronominal ending, like Gothic blindai. In Slavic, the sigmatic ending was later extended to the adjective.

This solution accounts for two problems but creates a third one, viz. the subsequent loss of the final *s in Baltic. I think that the latter phenomenon is explained by the diphthong -ai, which is in turn explained by the presence of the *s. Elsewhere I have pointed out that the difference between Lith. dat.sg. $vilkui < *-\bar{o}i$ and inst.pl. $vilka\tilde{a}is < *-\bar{o}is$ is a valuable indication for the relative chronology of the (East) Baltic monophthongization and the shortening of long diphthongs (Kortlandt 1974). The monophthongization entailed the well-known shift in the ablaut relations. This reshuffling must have occurred in the same period as the shortening of long diphthongs in view of the many doublets with ai and ui (cf. Stang 1966:71). Most probably, length was neutralized in closed final syllables before the monophthongization, whereas the shortening of word-final long diphthongs was posterior to the reshuffling. As a consequence of the neutralization, the nom.pl. *vilkoiS and the inst.pl. *vilkoiS

became homophonous. The syncretism did not take place in the adjective and the pronoun, which had no final *s in the nominative. The homophony in the noun was resolved by elimination of the final *s after the monophthongization of relevantly short *oi. Thus, we arrive at nom.pl. $*t\bar{e}$ vilkai versus inst.pl. *taiS vilkaiS. The relation between $*\bar{e}$ and *ai was particularly clear because both of them alternated with *ai in unstressed syllables, where the opposition was neutralized. After the introduction of unstressed $*\bar{e}$, the alternation between $*\bar{e}$ and *ai was suppressed except in the isolated paradigm Latv. $i\hat{e}t$.

Finally, the intonation has to be taken into account. If the above hypothesis is correct, the circumflex in the noun is original and the acute in the adjective must be explained as a secondary development. I think that it must be connected with the loss of the neuter gender in Baltic. The form Lith. *gerì* has probably arisen as a contamination of the masculine **geroi* and the neuter **geraH*. This is not the only contamination of this kind, cf. below.

The nominative and the accusative of the dual ended in *H or *i, e.g. Lith. $vilk\hat{u}$, $rank\hat{i}$, $av\hat{i}$, sumu, OChSl. vluka, $iz\check{e}$, $roc\check{e}$, kosti, symy < *oH, *-oi, *-aHi, *-iH, *-uH. The old accentuation may have been preserved in Slovene $g\acute{o}ri$ < * $gor\hat{i}$, while the stress was analogically retracted elsewhere, e.g. Lith. $g\acute{a}lvi$, $k\acute{e}lmu$, Slovene $gub\hat{e}$, $moz\hat{a}$, $kost\hat{i}$ < * $g\hat{u}be$, * $m\hat{o}z\check{a}$, * $k\ddot{o}sti$, cf. nom-acc.pl. $gor\hat{e}$, $kost\hat{i}$. There are a few OLith. instances of the old nom.du. ending of the consonant stems *-e, which is also found in Greek.

5.3 ACCUSATIVE

The acc.sg. ending was *-m for masculine and feminine nouns, e.g. Lith. $\tilde{a}kmeni$, $n\tilde{a}kti$, $s\tilde{u}nu$, OChSl. kamenb, $no\tilde{s}tb$, synb < *-iN, *-uN. Stem-final *H was lost before this ending, e.g. Lith. $ra\tilde{n}ka$, OChSl. $roko < *-\bar{q}$. The o-stems present a problem. The Slavic material points to narrowing of *o before word-final nasal, e.g. OChSl. vlbkb < *vilkuN. In spite of Lith. vilka I think that this narrowing goes back to the Balto-Slavic period. There are several arguments for this point of view. Firstly, the regular reflex of the ending *-oN is present in the gen.pl. Lith. $vilk\tilde{u}$, cf. below. Secondly, there is a chronological argument. In Slavic we find a nasal vowel in the 3rd plural of the thematic agrist, e.g. OChSl. $s\check{e}do < *-ont$. Consequently, the narrowing

of *-oN into *-uN must have been anterior to the loss of word-final *t. But the latter phenomenon must be dated in the Balto-Slavic period because it preceded the retraction of the ictus from final open syllables in disyllabic words (Ebeling's law), cf. Lith. gen.sg. vilko, 3rd sg. nēša, SCr. aor. nèse. Thirdly, the narrowing must be viewed in connection with the loss of the neuter gender in Baltic.

The nom. and acc.sg. of the neuter o-stems ended in *-om, cf. Skt. yugám, Gr. zugón. In Slavic there is no narrowing in the IE oxytone neuters, e.g. OChSl. igo, but there is in the IE barytone neuters, e.g. OChSl. dvor, cf. Skt. dváram (see Illič-Svityč 1963:124). This must be explained by the substitution of the pronominal ending for the ending *-om in the oxytone neuters. Here again the chronological problem presents itself. In view of the absence of mobility within the singular of neuter paradigms, we have to assume that the old oxytone neuters were barytonized as a result of Ebeling's law and that the historical oxytone neuters in Slavic can only have arisen as a result of Dybo's law. Consequently, the replacement of the ending by that of the pronoun must be dated in the Balto-Slavic period. Thus, I assume that the old neuter ending in Lith. šálta was not confined to the adjective at an earlier stage. This is confirmed by certain loan words from Baltic in Finnish.

The question remains why the replacement of the ending *-om was confined to IE oxytone neuters. I think that the reason is found in the early Balto-Slavic barytonesis. After the rise of lateral mobility in the polysyllabic consonant stems (Pedersen's law), the retraction of the ictus in the acc.sg. form was extended to the other flexion types. Consequently, the acc.sg. ending of the masc. o-stems *-oN became marked in relation to the other case endings of the oxytone paradigm as an unstressed ending. The re-evaluation of the ending *-oN as markedly unstressed, which was perfectly compatible with the existence of barytone neuter o-stems, was hampered by the existence of oxytone neuters in *-oN. The antinomy was resolved by the substitution of the pronominal ending in the oxytone neuters. The replacement preceded the narrowing, which in turn preceded the loss of final *t. Thus, we arrive at the following relative chronology: (1) barytonesis, (2) replacement of the neuter ending, (3) narrowing of *o before final nasal, (4) loss of final t, (5) Ebeling's law. The replacement of -oN in the oxytona and the narrowing of *-oN in the barytona led to the separation of the two neuter paradigms and to the merger of the old barytone neuters with the barytone masculine o-stems. Ebeling's law barytonized

the remaining neuters, which then merged with the masculines in Baltic, but not in Slavic, where the old masc. nominative form was lost.

There were three motive forces for the replacement of the old accusative ending *-uN by *-oN in the o-stems in Baltic. Firstly, the nom. and acc.sg. were in every other flexion type characterized by one and the same vocalic formative before the consonantal case marker. Secondly, the replacement removed the homonymy between the acc.sg. and gen.pl. endings. Thirdly, the neuter nom. and acc.sg. was already characterized by the vowel *o, after which the consonantal case marker was added. In Slavic the old masc. nominative was replaced by the accusative form after the general loss of final consonants had yielded the syncretism of nom. and acc.sg. in the *i*- and *u*-stems and the rise of new neuter words in -o, e.g. OChSl. slovo. These developments eventually led to the merger of the masculine o- and u-stems as well as to the merger of the neuter o- and s-stems.

On the basis of these considerations I assume for the last stage of Balto-Slavic the existence of three o-stem paradigms. There were stem-stressed masculines with a nominative in *-os, e.g. *vilkos, or *-uN, e.g. *dvoruN, and an accusative in *-uN. There were masculines with an end-stressed nominative in *-os and a stem-stressed accusative in *-uN. And there were neuters with a stem-stressed nom.-acc. in *-o. The second type was lost in Slavic and the third type in Baltic. The previous existence of an asigmatic nominative in Baltic is still confirmed by OPr. assaran, etc.

The accusative plural ended in *-HNs, e.g. Lith. vilkùs, avìs, sūnus, sunìs, rankàs, OChSl. vlъky, roky, OPr. rānkans. The laryngeal may or may not offer an explanation for the long vowel in Skt. vṛkān, ávīn, sūnūn, where the ad hoc hypothesis of lengthening before *-ns is not satisfactory. The ending *-HNs may or may not have resulted from a blending of *-Hs and *-Ns, cf. Skt. áśvāh, Gothic gibōs but wulfans.

5.4 GENITIVE

The gen.sg. ending was *-es after a consonant, including *H, e.g. Lith. rankõs, with *-ās < *-aHes, OChSl. kamene, svekrъve < *-enes, *-uHes. The circumflex in Lith. pačiõs, which goes back to *potiaHs, is borrowed from the aH-stems. In the i- and u-stems the IE endings have been preserved in Lith. ašiẽs, sūnaũs, OChSl. kosti, synu < *-eis, *-ous.

The retraction of the ictus in Slavic presents a problem. The old accentuation is still found in Old Russian (cf. Stang 1957:87). In other dialects the ictus was retracted after the loss of the final *s in order to avoid homonymy with the locative. The long vowel which resulted from the diphthong gave rise to the neo-circumflex in Slovene nīti, cf. nom.sg. nīt. The gen.sg. ending of the o-stems was *-ā, which goes back to the IE ablative, e.g. Lith. vīlko, OChSl. vlbka. The alleged preservation of the old IE genitive in OPr. deiwas is purely hypothetical. As Vaillant has pointed out (1958:30), the form is best explained by assuming the addition of a secondary *-s to the Balto-Slavic genitive on the analogy of the other flexion types, all of which had a genitive in *-s, cf. OPr. ālgas with the same ending.

The enigmatic gen.sg. ending in the Slavic aH-stems must be due to the substitution of the acc.pl. ending after the loss of final *s. The latter phenomenon caused the syncretism of nominative and accusative in a number of flexion types, which then could be extended analogically. Presumably the acc.pl. ending was first introduced in the nom.pl. of words where the loss of final *s had yielded homonymy of nom.sg. and nom.pl. forms, e.g. *osnovā. The number of words with *-ā in the nom.sg. was considerably increased by Van Wijk's law, e.g. * $v \partial l \bar{a}$. The old nom.pl. form in * $-\bar{a}$ was finally lost when the levelling of quantity in unstressed endings made the confusion with the nom.sg. form complete. If this view is correct, concurrent nom.pl. forms may have existed during a considerable period. The existence of doublets during the period of gradual replacement led to the introduction of the new ending in the gen.sg. form, where both the old ending and the motivation for an analogical replacement were the same.

The IE gen.pl. ending was *-om, which was narrowed to *-uN in the Balto-Slavic period, as was pointed out above, e.g. Lith. akmenų, OChSl. kameno. The same ending is found in the other flexion types, e.g. Lith. vilkų, rankų, OChSl. vloko, roko, and potojo, synovo, svekrovo < *-eioN, *-ouoN, *-uHoN. Like in the nominative, the ending of Lith. avių, sūnų goes back to the ending *-iHoN, *-uHoN of the corresponding H-stems, which developed into *-iuN, *-uN after the loss of the laryngeal. The old gen.pl. ending is still found in Skt. asmákam, yuṣmákam, which betray its origin. Elsewhere the long vowel resulting from the contraction with a preceding formative vowel has been generalized, e.g. Skt. padám, Gr. podõn. The Italic and Celtic evidence is inconclusive as to the length of the desinential vowel.

The supposition that the gen.pl. ending goes back to IE *- δm is not just highly improbable because of Lith. akmuõ < *akmōN, but simply impossible because of Slavic *-5. There is no reason to assume that the ending was shortened at any stage in the development of Slavic. The connection with the apparent metatony before the gen.pl. ending, which is supported by Van Wijk, Pedersen, and Stang, is incorrect because it neglects the chronology of the Slavic developments: the shortening, if any, must have preceded the rise of the new timbre distinctions, whereas the metatony must have been later, cf. Slovene gór. The lengthening of short stem vowels in the gen.pl. results from the retraction of the stress from a final jer and its analogical extension, as was pointed out above. The retraction must be dated between Van Wijk's law and Dybo's law. The extension did not affect acute stem vowels because they were indifferent with respect to length at that stage. After the loss of the larvngeal feature, length was generalized in the gen.pl. in Slovene (neo-circumflex) and Serbo-Croat. On the other hand, the new short rising vowel was lengthened in Czech kráva, but not in krav. Thus, the whole development of quantitative alternations in the gen.pl. is posterior to the rise of the new timbre distinctions.

The genitive and locative of the dual ended in *-ou or *-ous, e.g. OChSl. vloku, roku, synovu. The old locative has been preserved in Lith. dviejau, pusiaũ, pointing to *-ou, which is confirmed by the Avestan loc.du. zastayō. It is possible that Skt. vikayoḥ represents the old genitive, but it is unclear whether this form ever existed in Balto-Slavic. Unfortunately, the Slavic accentuation has not been preserved, except for the isolated form ORu. nogú (Stang 1957:63). It does not seem possible to base any conclusions on SCr. rùkū, where the short stem vowel points to a contraction in the desinence. There is a variant Lith. dviejaus, but this form can easily have arisen after the model geriaũ, geriaũs. The accentuation of pusiaũ may also be due to the influence of other adverbial formations.

55 LOCATIVE

The locative offers more problems than any other case. The IE loc.sg. ending *-i is found in OChSl. vloce, roce < *-oi, *-aHi, and in Lith. namie, dial. (Buividze) vilkie, where the final accentuation must be borrowed from the loc.sg. of other flexion types. If this explanation

is correct, the ending of Lith. <code>labaī</code> is the regular reflex of unstressed *-oi, which later received the ictus after the end-stressed forms of the adjectival paradigm. The accentuation of Ru. <code>zúbe</code>, Čak. (Novi) <code>vlāsi</code> must be old because it is the only stem-stressed locative and lacks a model for analogical development. Both the retraction of the ictus in this form and the long vowel in the Slavic loc.sg. ending of the <code>i-</code> and <code>u-</code>stems point to the absence of a laryngeal. On the other hand, the final accentuation in the latter forms presents a problem. I think that we have to start from a trisyllabic form *kosteji, where the final accentuation which originated from the Balto-Slavic oxytonesis was regularly maintained, and that the ending *-oui was analogically replaced. The locative ending in such forms as OChSl. <code>kamene</code> is enigmatic.

In Baltic the locative endings have been enlarged by the fusion with a postposition *en. The resulting forms present three problems: the acute intonation of the postposition, the loss of a preceding laryngeal in such forms as Lith. rañkoje, and the original shape of the ending to which the postposition was added. After Buga and Stang, I assume that Lith. butè goes back to *bùtē eN or *bùtē e. If my contention that at this stage the laryngeal was something like a glottal stop is correct, we can write *H instead of the word boundary: *bùtēHeN, *bùtēHe. When the laryngeal lost its segmental status and became a feature of the vowel, the form changed into *bùté, which regularly developed into butè. In the other flexion types the development was slightly more complicated. The form *rôNkaHi eN developed into *rànkāje, with dissimilation of the first laryngeal, so that the ictus was not transferred according to de Saussure's law in Lithuanian. In sūnujè there is a short vowel in the medial syllable. Since this is the only flexion type where we find a short vowel in the prefinal syllable, it cannot be the result of an analogical development. I think that the form goes back to *súnuj \dot{e} < *suHnuHi eN, where the ending was borrowed from the uH-stems, like in the nom, and gen, forms of the plural. The long vowel in avyjè must be analogical after the one in gaidyjè, which is the expected loc.sg. form if the contraction in gaidvs is older than the monophthongization. The forms OLith. nakteie, ugnip may go back to expansions of the original loc.sg. forms *nokteii, *ugniHi.

The IE loc.pl. ending *-su is found in OChSl. kostbxb, synbxb, rqkaxb with analogical *x, and v/bcexb < *-oiSu, cf. Skt. v/kesu. The Lithuanian forms which end in -se have been remodelled after the

singular. The old quantity has been preserved in the adverbial form akisù (Stang 1966:213) and in dial. avisù, turguse. The long vowel in avysè, rañkose is borrowed from the loc.sg. form avyjè, rañkoje. I think that the ending -uose of the o-stems goes back to an analogical formation *-ōsu after *-āsu in rañkose, and that the nasal vowel found in certain dialects is due to a much later influence of the acc.pl. form (illative). The latter influence cannot have been old because of the intonational difference. In Slovene we find the expected retraction of the stress according to Hirt's law in the aH-stems and final accentuation in the o-stems, e.g. goràh, možéh, cf. Čak. (Novi) goràh, vlāsíh, going back to *-aHsu, *-oiSu. This confirms that the loss of the laryngeal in Lith. rañkose is an innovation.

5.6 DATIVE

The dat.sg. ending *-ei is found in OChSl. $roc\check{e}$, with *- $\bar{a}i$ < *-aHei, svekrbvi < *-uHei, synovi, kameni. The same ending *- $\bar{a}i$ is found in Lith. $ra\tilde{n}kai$. In the o-stems the ending is *- $\bar{o}i$, which is represented in Lith. vilkui, OChSl. vloku. The latter form is due either to the Umlaut of the final palatal element after the long rounded vowel, which is an $ad\ hoc$ supposition, or simply to its loss in the period between the change of final * \bar{o} into * \bar{u} in OChSl. kamy and the monophthongization of diphthongs, when *ou became * \bar{o} , e.g. in the gen.sg. synu. The latter development preceded the rise of the new timbre distinctions, when the opposition $|\bar{o} \sim \bar{u}|$ was rephonemicized as $|u,\bar{u} \sim y,\bar{y}|$. The same loss of the final semivowel in the dat.sg. ending of the o-stems is found in Lith. dial. (Gervéčiai) vilkuo. The ending *-ei in the i-stems goes back to a Balto-Slavic haplological simplification, e.g. OChSl. kosti, Lith.dial. (Gervéčiai) $\tilde{a}vie$.

The dat.pl. ending was *-mus, e.g. Lith. rañkoms, vilkáms, avìms, sūnùms, OChSl.rokamь, vlъkomь, kostьть, synьть. The retraction of the ictus according to Hirt's law in Lith. galvóms, Latv. siẽvãm was analogically extended to the other end-stressed types. Later the laryngeal was eliminated in Lith. rañkoms after the locatives rañkoje, rañkose, so that de Saussure's law did not operate. In Slavic the retraction remained confined to the aH-stems, cf. Slovene goràm, možêm < *-aHmus, *-omus. The ending in OPr. gennāmans, waikammans is due to the influence of the acc.pl. ending in gennans, deiwans.

The dative and instrumental of the dual ended in *-maH, e.g. OChSl. vlokoma, synoma, Slovene gorâma. The final vowel was lost in Lithuanian, where the intonational difference between dat.du. vilkám, galvóm, sūnùm and inst.du. vilkam, galvóm, sūnum betrays an earlier accentual difference *-àmaH, *-amàH etc., which must have been introduced analogically after the plural forms.

5.7 INSTRUMENTAL

The inst.sg. form ended in *H or *mi, e.g. Lith. dievù, avimì, sūnumì, OChSl. poteme, symeme. The ending of Lith.dial. (N.W. Žem.) sûnomi, which points to *-miH, must be analogical after the plural. In the aH-stems I assume concurrent forms, e.g. *golHvaH, *golHva, with *- \bar{q} < *- \bar{a} m, like in the acc.sg. ending. Since the ictus was regularly retracted in the second variant but not in the first, the first variant was homonymous with the nom.sg. and the second with the acc.sg. form. The homonymy was eliminated by a contamination of the two variants, cf. Lith. gálva, which goes back to the first variant with the accentuation of the second, and šaltája, which points to the second variant with the accentuation of the first. In Slavic we find pronominal endings in the o- and aH-stems, e.g. vlъkomь, rokojo, and analogically kostojo.

The inst.pl. ending was *- $\bar{o}iS$ in the o-stems and *-miHS elsewhere, e.g. Lith. vilkaĩs, rañkomis, avimis, sūnumis, Slovene râki, kónji, lêti, gorâmi, nîtmi, kostmi. În the aH-stems the ictus was retracted according to Hirt's law, cf. Čak. (Novi) goràmi. The final accentuation was restored in Lith. galvomis after the other flexion types, and the laryngeal in the medial syllable was eliminated on the analogy of the locative so that de Saussure's law did not operate. In the o-stems, the ending *-ōiS was regularly shortened in Lith. vilkais and narrowed in OChSl. vlbky, lety. The narrowing of the diphthong before word-final *S in the latter forms is known from the nom.pl. ending in vloci, and the loss of the palatal element after a long rounded vowel from the dat.sg. ending in vloku. It follows that these two developments must have taken place in this order. The neo-circumflex in Slovene gorâmi is analogical after the one in ženâmi, where it is regular, and points to a generalization of the long vowel, cf. kostmi < *kostmi after nîtmi < *nltьmī. The ending in Slovincian r\(\partia\)bamī is a contamination of *-\(\bar{\psi}\) and *-mi, *-mi, as was pointed out above.

APPENDIX A

LARYNGEALIZED VOWELS IN SLAVIC ROOTS

It will be clear that the theory presented in the preceding chapters has certain consequences for IE reconstructions in general and laryngeal theory in particular. In this appendix I intend to present the material where the Slavic evidence points to a laryngeal in the root. I have to stress that the items listed here have been selected not on the basis of comparative IE evidence, but exclusively on the basis of the Slavic indications. The material adduced from other IE languages is merely illustrative. I have omitted the cases where the Slavic evidence is insufficient for any conclusions. Though the list presented here has no pretension to exhaustiveness, I think that it is fairly complete. The main sources for the list have been Kolesov 1972 and Nonnenmacher-Pribić 1961. The additional sources are listed in the bibliography.

A1. Nouns where Hirt's Law operated

- Cf. Illič-Svityč 1963:153ff. For Hirt's law see section 1.3 above.
- Ru. gríva, SCr. grìva, Sln. gríva, Cz. hříva, Slk. hriva; Latv. grīva, Skt. grīvā.
- Ru. déver', SCr. djëvēr, Sln. devêr; Latv. dieveris, Skt. devá, Gr. dāér.
- Ru. dólog, SCr. dùg, Sln. dolg, Cz. dlouhý, Slk. dlhý; Latv. ilgs, Lith. ilgas, Skt. dirgháh.
- Ru. dym, SCr. dim, Sln. dim, Cz. dým, Slk. dym; Latv. dūmi, Lith. dūmai, Skt. dhūmáh, Gr. thūmós, Lat. fūmus.
- Ru. mat', SCr. màti, Sln. máti, Cz. máti, Slk. mat'; Latv. mãte, Lith. mótė, Skt. mātá, Lat. māter, OHG. muoter.
- Ru. pólon, SCr. pùn, Sln. poln, Cz.Slk. plný; Latv. pílns, Lith. pìlnas, Skt. pūrṇáh, OIr. lán.
- SCr. pir, Sln. pîr, Cz.Slk. pýr; Gr. pūrós.
- SCr. jàto, Sln. játo; Skt. yātám.

A2. OTHER IE NOUN CORRESPONDENCES

- Only identical or immediately comparable formations have been included.
- Ru. berëza, SCr. brèza, Sln. bréza, Cz. bříza, Slk. breza, US. brěza, Po. brzoza; Lith. béržas, Latv. bę̃rzs, Skt. bhūrjah, OHG. birihha.
- Ru. brémja, berémja, SCr. brème, Sln. bréme, Cz. břímě, Slk. bremä, US. brěmjo; Skt. bhárma, bhárīmā.
- Ru. brat, SCr. bràt, Sln. bràt, Cz.Slk. bratr; Lith. brólis, Skt. bhrátā, Gr. phrátēr, OHG. bruoder.
- Ru. véter, SCr. vjetar, Sln. vêter, Cz. vítr, Slk. vietor, vetor; Lith. větra, Latv. vetra, Skt. vátah, Lat. ventus.
- Ru. vólna, SCr. vùna, Sln. vólna, Cz.Slk. vlna; Latv. vílna, Lith. vìlna, Skt. úrnā, Lat. lāna.
- Ru. zernó, Ukr. zérno, SCr. zrno, Sln. zrno, Cz.Slk. zrno; Lith. žirnis, Latv. zírnis, Skt. jirnáh, Lat. gränum, OIr. grán.
- Ru. známja, SCr. znàmēn, Cz. znamě; Gr. gnõma.
- Ru. íva, SCr. ïva, Sln. íva, Cz. jíva, Slk. iva; Latv. iẽva, Lith. íeva, Gr. oíē, OHG. iwa.
- Ru. kámen', SCr. kàmēn, Sln. kámen, Cz. kámen, Slk. kameň; Lith. akmuõ, ašmuõ, Latv. asmens, Skt. áśmā, Gr. ákmön.
- Ru. kilá, Ukr. kýla, SCr. kìla, Sln. kíla, Cz. kýla, Slk. kyla; Lith. kúla, Gr. kēlē, kálē, OHG. hōla.
- Ru. mak, SCr. màk, Sln. màk, Cz. mák, Slk. mak; Gr. mékōn, mákôn, OHG. māho, māgo.
- Ru. mésjac, SCr. mjèsēc, Sln. mệsec, Cz. měsíc, Slk. mesiac, Po. miesiąc; Skt. mấh, Gr. mến, OIr. mí.
- Ru. myš', SCr. miš, Sln. miš, Cz.Slk. myš; Gr. mūs, Lat. mūs, OHG. mūs.
- Ru. pérvyj, SCr. pîvī, Sln. pîvi, Cz.Slk. prvý; Lith. pìrmas, WLatv. pîrmais, Skt. půrvah.
- Ru. rálo, SCr. ràlo, Sln. rálo, Cz. rádlo, Slk. radlo; Lith. árklas, Latv. aîkls, Gr. árotron, Lat. arātrum, OIr. arathar.
- Ru. rámo, SCr. rầme, rầmo, Sln. ráme, Cz. rámě, Slk. ramä; Skt. irmáh, Goth. arms.
- Ru. rátaj, SCr. ràtār, Sln. rátaj, Cz.Slk. rataj; Lith. artójas, Gr. arotēr, Lat. arātor.
- Ru. sémja, SCr. sjème, Sln. séme, Cz. símě, Slk. semä; Lith. sémens, Lat. sēmen, OHG. sāmo.
- Ru. solóma, SCr. slàma, Sln. sláma, Cz. sláma, Slk. slama, US. slóma, Po. sloma; Latv. salms, Gr. kálamos, OHG. hal(a)m.

Ru. soróka, SCr. svräka, Sln. sráka, OCz. stráka, Slk. straka, US. sróka, Po. sroka; Lith. šárka, Skt. śārí, śārikā, Gr. kóraks.

Ru. star, SCr. stàr, Sln. stàr, Cz.Slk. starý; Lith. stóras, Skt. sthiráḥ, ON. stórr.

Ru. tyl, Sln.tîl, Cz. týl, Slk. tyl; Lith. túlas, Skt. túlam.

Ru. útka, SCr. ùtva, Sln. ôtva; Lith. ántis, Lat. anas, OHG. anut.

A3. Nouns where Meillet's law operated

In contradistinction to the rest of this appendix, the Slavic material presented in this section does not itself point to a laryngeal. The presence of a laryngeal is generally derived from the Balto-Slavic correspondence. The latter is not sufficient for the postulation of a laryngeal, however, because the Baltic acute may be due to metatony. An example of this situation is SCr. zvijer, Sln. zvêr, Lith. žvėris, acc.sg. žvěrį. The old gen.pl. form žvėrų points to an original consonant stem, corresponding to Gr. ther, cf. also Latv. zvers, gen.pl. zvêru. If the form corresponding to Gr. therion ever existed in Balto-Slavic, it regularly obtained a metatonical acute in Lithuanian as a result of the retraction from prevocalic i (Kortlandt 1974, section 5) if the long vowel goes back to lengthened grade, which must have been taken from the monosyllable, where it is regular. On the other hand, a laryngealist explanation cannot be excluded on the basis of Lat. ferus, where the short stem vowel can be due to the regular shortening of pretonic vowels (cf. below). I have chosen for lengthened grade because of Lith. acc.sg. žvė̃rį next to žvė̃rį and omitted the word from the following list. A similar case is Lith. širdis, acc.sg. šìrdį, cf. Gr. ker and kardia, Skt. hardi. The Slavic word for 'heart' is inconclusive because it is a trisyllabic neuter and therefore mobile, cf. Sln. srcê, Ru. nom.pl. serdcá. For Meillet's law see section 1.7 above.

Ru. beg, SCr. bijeg, Sln. bęg, Cz. bĕh, Slk. beh; Lith. bégas, SCr prèbjeg.

Ru. vid, SCr.Sln. vîd, Cz,Slk. vid; Lith. véidas, Gr. eïdos.

Ru. vólot', SCr.Sln. vlât; Lith. váltis.

Ru. golová, SCr.Sln. gláva, Cz.Slk. hlava; Lith. galvà, Latv. galva.

Ru. dar, SCr.Sln. dâr, Cz.Slk. dar; Gr. dõron.

Ru. živ, SCr.Sln. žîv, Cz.Slk. živý; Lith. gývas, Latv. dzîvs, Skt. jīváḥ.

Ru. žir, SCr.Sln. žîr, Cz.Slk. žir; cf. OCS. žiti.

Ru. il, Sln. il, Cz. jil, Slk. il; Latv. īls, Gr. īlūs, SCr. ìlovača.

Ru. kvas, SCr.Sln. kvas, Cz.Slk. kvas; Lat. caseus.

- Ru. kij, Sln. kîj, Cz.Slk. kyj; Lith. kūjis.
- Ru. klet', SCr. klijet, Sln. klet; Lith. kletis, Latv. klets.
- Ru. lub, SCr.Sln. lûb, Cz.Slk. lub; Lith. lúobas.
- Ru. lug, SCr. lûg, Sln. lôg, Cz.Slk. luh; Lith. lángas, Latv. luôgs.
- Ru. mir, SCr.Sln. mîr, Cz. mír, Slk. mier; Latv. miêrs.
- Ru. nag, SCr.Sln. nâg, Cz.Slk. nahý; Lith. núogas, Latv. nuôgs.
- Ru. nórot; Lith. nártas, Latv. narts.
- Ru. pívo, SCr. pîvo, Sln. pívo, Cz.Slk. pivo; Gr. pĩnon.
- Ru. pir, SCr.Sln. pîr; cf. OCS. piti.
- Ru. pjatá, SCr. péta, Sln. péta, Cz. pata, Slk. päta, Po. pięta; Lith. péntis.
- Ru. raz, SCr.Sln. râz, Cz. ráz, Slk. raz, ráz; Lith. rúožas, Ru. óbraz, SCr. òbraz, Sln. obràz, Cz.Slk. obraz.
- Ru. rez, SCr. rêz, Sln. rêz, Cz. řez, říz, Slk. rez; Lith. rëžas, SCr. pòrez, pòreza, Sln. porêza.
- Ru. rjad, SCr. rêd, Sln. rêd, OCz. řad, Slk. rad; Latv. riñda, Ru. rjáda, SCr. reda, Cz. řada.
- Ru. sad, SCr.Sln. sâd, Cz.Slk. sad; Skt. sādáḥ, ON. sót.
- Ru. sled, SCr. slijed, Sln. sled, Cz.Slk. sled; ON. slód.
- Ru. smrad, smórod, SCr.Sln. smrâd, Cz.Slk. smrad; Lith. smárdas, Latv. smards.
- Ru. sólod, SCr.Sln. slâd, Cz.Slk. slad; Lith. saldùs, Latv. salds, SCr. slàdak, Sln. sládek.
- Ru. stan, SCr.Sln. stân, Cz.Slk. stan; Lith. stónas, Skt. sthánam, SCr. òstanak.
- Ru. syn, SCr.Sln. sîn, Cz.Slk. syn; Lith. sūnùs, Skt. sūnúh.
- Ru. tésto, SCr. tijesto, Sln. testô, Cz. těsto, Slk. cesto; Gr. stais, OIr. táis.
- Ru. tuk, Čak. tùk, tûk, Cz.Slk. tuk; Lith. taukaĩ, Sln. túča.
- Ru. jun, Sln. jûn; Lith. jáunas, Latv. jaûns.
- Ru. jar', SCr.Sln. jâr, OCz. jĕř, Slk. jar; Gr. hốrā, hõros, Goth. jēr.

A4. Other Balto-Slavic noun correspondences

- Cf. Stang 1957:5ff.
- Ru. bába, SCr. bãba, Sln. bába, Cz. bába, baba, Slk. baba; Lith. bóba, Latv. bãba.
- Ru. boloná, Ukr. bolóna, Sln. blána, Cz. blána, Slk. blana; Lith. bálnas, Gr. pholís.
- Ru. bolóto, SCr. blàto, Sln. bláto, Cz. bláto, Slk. blato, US. blóto, Po. bloto; Lith. báltas.

- Bulg. bárna; Lith. burnà.
- Ru. vápa, Sln. vápa; Latv. vãpe, Skt. vāpí.
- Ru. véko, Sln. véko, Cz. víko, Slk. veko; Lith. vókas, Latv. vâks.
- Ru. vixr', SCr. vìhār, Sln. viher, Cz. vichr, Slk. vichor; Lith. viesulas, Latv. veĩsuôls.
- Ru. voróna, SCr. vräna, Sln. vrána, Cz. vrána, Slk. vrana, US. wróna, Po. wrona; Lith. várna, Latv. vãrna.
- Ru. výdra, SCr. vìdra, Sln. vídra, vídra, Cz.Slk. vydra; Lith. údra, Latv. údrs, Skt. udráh, Gr. húdros, húdrā.
- Ru. gad, SCr. gàd, Sln. gàd, SCz. hád, Slk. had; Lith. géda, Dutch kwaad.
- Ru. glíva, SCr. glĵiva, Sln. glíva, Cz. hlíva, Slk. hliva; Lith. gléivos, Gr. gloiós.
- Ru. gnída, SCr. gnjida, Sln. gnída, SCz. hnída, Slk. hnida; Latv. gnída, Lith. glìnda.
- Ru. górlo, SCr. grìlo, Sln. gŕlo, Cz.Slk. hrdlo; Lith. gurklys, Gr. bárathron.
- Ru. goróx, SCr. grầh, Sln. gràh, Cz. hrách, Slk. hrach, US. hróch, Po. groch; Latv. gãrsa, Lith. gìrsa, Gr. krĩ, krīthế.
- Ru. grábli, SCr. gràblje, Sln. gráblje, Cz. hrábě, Slk. hrable; Lith. gréblýs.
- Ru. grad, SCr. gräd, Sln. gràd, Cz. hrád; Lith. grúodas, Arm. karkut.
- Ru. grúša, Bulg. krúša; Lith. kriáušė.
- Ru. gubá, Ukr. húba, SCr. gùba, Sln. góba, Cz. huba, houba, Slk. huba, Po. geba; Lith. gémbé.
- Ru. ladón', dolón', SCr. dlàn, Sln. dlàn, Cz.Slk. dlaň, US. dlóń, Po. dloń; Lith. délna, Latv. delna.
- Ru. *žíla*, SCr. *žìla*, Sln. *žíla*, Cz. *žíla*, Slk. *žíla*; Lith. *gýsla*, Latv. *dzîsla*, Arm. *jil*, Skt. *jyá*.
- Bulg. žúna; Lith. žiáunos, Latv. žaũnas, OHG. kiuwan.
- Ru. zoród; Lith. žárdas, Latv. zãrds.
- Ru. zjať, SCr. zèt, Sln. zèt, Cz. zeť, Slk. zať, Po. zięć; Lith. žéntas, Latv. znuõts, Skt. jñātíḥ.
- Ru. *istyj*, SCr. *isti*, Sln. *îsti*, Cz. *jistý*, Slk. *istý*; Latv. *īsts*, Lith. *áiškus*, Arm. *isk*, Skt. *iśe*.
- Ru. koróva, SCr. kräva, Sln. kráva, Cz. kráva, Slk. krava, US. kruwa, Po. krowa; Lith. kárvė, Gr. keraós.
- Bulg. kráka, Sln. kráka; Lith. kárka.
- SCr. krplje, Sln. krplja, Cz. krpe; Lith. kurpe, Latv. kurpe, Gr. krepis.
- Ru. kréslo, Cz. křeslo, Slk. krieslo; Lith. krěslas, Latv. kręsls.

- Ru. kúpa, SCr. kùp, kùpa, Sln. kùp, Cz. kupa; Lith. kúopa, Latv. kuôpa, OHG. hūfo.
- Ru. kust; Lith. kúokštas.
- Ru. láva, Sln. láva, Cz. lava; Lith. lóva, Latv. lâva, Skt. lāvah.
- Ru. lákom, SCr. làkom, Sln. lákom, Cz.Slk. lakomý; Lith. álkanas, Gr. olékō.
- Ru. lan', SCr. làne, Sln. lânjec, Cz.Slk. laň; Latv. alnis, Lith. élnias, Arm. eln, Gr. élaphos.
- Ru. lápa, Sln. lápa; Lith. lópa, Latv. lãpa, Goth. lōfa.
- Ru. láčnyj, SCr. làčan, Sln. láčen, Cz.Slk. lačný; Lith. álkanas, Gr. olékō.
- Ru. lesá, SCr. ljësa, Sln. lésa, Cz. lísa, Slk. lesa; Latv. lêsa.
- Ru. lin', SCr. linj, Sln. linj, OCz. liň, Slk. liň; Latv. linis, Lith. lýnas, OHG. slio.
- Ru. lípa, SCr. lìpa, Sln. lípa, Cz. lípa, Slk. lipa; Lith. líepa, Latv. liena.
- Ru. lýko, SCr. lìko, Sln. líko, Cz. lýko, Slk. lyko; Lith. lùnkas, Latv. lûks.
- Ru. mil, SCr. mio, Sln. mîl, Cz.Slk. milý; Lith. mielas, mýlas, Latv. mīlš, Skt. máyaḥ.
- SCr. mlàka, Sln. mláka, Cz.Slk. mláka; Lith. málka.
- Ru. nit', SCr. nìt, Sln. nìt, Cz.Slk. nit'; Lith. nýtis, Latv. nīts, Skt. nīviḥ, snāyati, Lat. nēre, OHG. nājan.
- Ru. pásmo, SCr. päsmo, Sln. pásmo, Cz.Slk. pásmo; Latv. puõsms.
- Ru. péna, SCr. pjèna, spjèna, Sln. péna, OCz. piena, SCz. pína, Slk. pena; Lith. spáinė, Skt. phénah.
- Ru. poróg, SCr. präg, Sln. pràg, Cz. práh, Slk. prah; Lith. pérgas.
- Ru. présen, SCr. prijèsan, Sln. présen; Lith. préskas.
- Ru. púto, SCr. pùto, Sln. póto, Cz. pouto, Slk. puto, Po. peto; Lith. pántis.
- Ru. répa, SCr. rèpa, Sln. répa, OCz. řiepa, Slk. repa; Lith. rópė, Lat. rāpa, OHG. ruoba.
- Ru. rýlo, SCr. rìlo, Sln. rílo, Cz.Slk. rydlo; Latv. raûklis.
- Ru. rys', SCr. ris, Sln. ris, Cz.Slk. rys; Lith. lūšis, Latv. lūsis.
- Ru. rjáda, SCr. reda, Cz. řada; Latv. riñda.
- Ru. sáža, Sln. sája, OCz. sázĕ, Slk. sadza; Lith. súodžiai, OIr. suide, ON. sót.
- Ru. séver, SCr. sjèvēr, Sln. séver, Cz.Slk. sever; Lith. šiáurė, OHG. scūr.
- Ru. siv, SCr. sìv, Sln. sìv, Cz.Slk. sivý; Lith. šývas, Skt. śyāváh.

- Ru. síla, SCr. sìla, Sln. síla, Cz. síla, Slk. sila; Lith. síela.
- Ru. sito, SCr. sito, Sln. sito, Cz. sito, Slk. sito; Lith. sietas, Latv. siêts, Gr. ēthmós.
- Ru. sláva, SCr. slàva, Sln. sláva, Cz.Slk. sláva; Lith. šlově, OIr. clú.
- Ru. slémja, SCr. slème, šljème, Sln. sléme, Cz. slémě, Slk. slemä; Lith. šelmuõ.
- Ru. slína, SCr. slína, Sln. slína, SCz. slína, Slk. slina; Latv. slíenas, sliekas, ON. slím.
- Ru. slúka, SCr. slůka, šljůka, Sln. slóka, OCz. slúka, Slk. sluka; Lith. slánka, slankà, Latv. slůoka, sluõka, OHG. slango.
- Ru. sládkij, solódkij, SCr. slàdak, Sln. sládek, Cz.Slk. sladký; Lith. saldùs, Latv. salds.
- Ru. strúga, SCr. strùga, Sln. strúga, Cz. strouha, Slk. struha; Latv. straŭga.
- Ru. syr, SCr. sìr, Sln. sìr, Cz. sýr, Slk. syr; Lith. súras, Latv. sũrs, OHG. sūr.
- Ru. týsjača, SCr. tisuća, Sln. tisoč, tisoča, Cz.Slk. tisíc, Po. tysiąc; Lith. tūkstantis, OPr. tūsimtons, Goth. būsundi.
- SCr. üka; Latv. aŭka.
- Ru. čist, SCr. čist, Sln. čist, Cz.Slk. čistý; Lith. skýstas, Latv. šķīsts, ON. skíta.
- Ru. čítyj, SCr. čit, čitav; Lith. kíetas, Latv. ciêts.
- Ru. jábloko, SCr. jäbuka, Sln. jábolko, Cz.Slk. jablko; Lith. óbuolas, Latv. âbuõls.
- Ru. jágoda, SCr. jägoda, Sln. jágoda, Cz.Slk. jahoda; Lith. úoga, Latv. uôga.
- Ru. jásen, SCr. jäsan, Sln. jásen, Cz.Slk. jasný; Lith. áiškus.

A5. OTHER NOUNS

As I pointed out above, the material has been selected on the basis of the Slavic evidence alone. A detailed comparison with the other IE evidence remains a task for the future.

- Ru. basn', básnja, SCr. bäsna, bäsma, Sln. bâsen, Cz.Slk. báseň; Arm. ban, ON. bón.
- SCr. bìlo, Sln. bilo, SCz. bidlo, Slk. bidlo; Arm. bir, OHG. bīhal.
- Ru. bitva, SCr. bitva, Sln. bîtva, Cz.Slk. bitva.
- Ru. belená, Ukr. beléna, SCr. bûn, Sln. blèn, Cz. blín, Slk. blen; OHG. bilisa.
- Ru. blízok, SCr. blízak, Sln. blízek, Cz.Slk. blízký; Latv. blaîzît, Lat. fligere.

Ru. bórošno, SCr. bräšno, Sln. brášno; Latv. barība, Lat. farīna.

Ru. bërdo, SCr. brdo, Sln. brdo, Cz.Slk. brdo; Goth. baúrd.

Ru. britva, SCr. britva, Sln. brîtva, Cz. břitva, Slk. britva; Skt. bhrīnāti.

Ru. buj, SCr. bûjan, Sln. bújen; Skt. bhúyān, Dutch bui.

Ru. búrja, SCr. bùra, Sln. búrja, Cz. bouře, Slk. bura, búra; Latv. baŭruôt, OIr. búriud.

Cz.Slk. bydlo; Gr. phútla.

SCr. bîlje, Sln. bíl, bíla, bîlje, Cz. býl, býlí, Slk. byl', byl'a; Gr. phũlon, phúllon.

Ru. bystr, SCr. bistar, Sln. bister, Cz.Slk. bystrý; Skt. bhūṣati.

Sln. véda, Cz. věda, Slk. veda; Skt. védah.

Ru. véžda, SCr. vjedja, Sln. veja; Gr. eidos.

Ru. véra, SCr. vjëra, Sln. véra, Cz. víra, Slk. viera; Lat. vērus, OIr. fír, OHG. wār.

Ru. vetv', Sln. vêja, Cz. větev; Latv. vîte, Gr. oisúā, ītéā, Lat. vītis, OHG. wīda.

Ru. víly, SCr. vile, Sln. víle, Cz. vidle, Slk. vidly.

Ru. víra; Lith. výras, Skt. vīráh, váiram.

SCr. vitao, Sln. vítel; Skt. vitáh.

Ru. víšnja, SCr. vìšnja, Sln. vîšnja, Cz. višně, Slk. višňa; OHG. wīhsila.

Ru. vológa, Vólga, SCr. vlàga, Sln. vlága, vólgek, Cz. vláha, vlhký, Slk. vlaha, vlhký, US. wlóha, Po. wilgi; Lith. válgyti, vìlgyti, Latv. valgs, OHG. wëlc.

SCr. vrèlo, Sln. vrélo, Cz. vřídlo; Lith. vìrti, Latv. vírt.

Ru. výmja, SCr. vìme, Sln. víme, Cz. výmě, Slk. vemä; Skt. údhar, OHG. ūtar.

Ru. gáči, SCr. gäće, Sln. gâče, OCz. hácě; Skt. gātúḥ.

Ru. gládok, SCr. glädak, Sln. gládek, Cz.Slk. hladký; Lith. glodùs.

Ru. glina, SCr. gnjîla, Sln. glina, Cz. hlina, Slk. hlina; ON. klina.

Ru. gnev, SCr. gnjëv, Sln. gnèv, OCz. hniev, Slk. hnev, US. hněw, Po. gniew; OHG. gnītan.

Ru. gorb, SCr. grba, Sln. grba, Cz.Slk. hrb; Lith. gárbana, Arm. karth.

Ru. grúda, SCr. grùda, Sln. grúda, Cz. hrouda, Slk. hruda; Lith. grústi, ON. griót.

Ru. grýža, SCr. grìža, Sln. grîža; Lith. grūžtis.

Ru. gúnja, SCr. gûnj, Sln. gúnj, gúnja, Cz. houně, Slk. huňa.

Ru. gúsli, SCr. güsle, Sln. gósli, Cz. housle, Slk. husle.

Ru. déva, SCr. djèva, Sln. déva, Cz. děva, Slk. deva; Gr. thelus, Lat. femina.

Ru. ded, SCr. djèd, Sln. dèd, Cz. dĕd, Slk. ded ; Gr. tḗthē.

Ru. délo, SCr. djèlo, Sln. délo, Cz. dílo, dělo, Slk. delo, dielo; Lith. déti, Gr. títhēmi.

Ru. dívo, SCr. dív, Cz.Slk. dív; Skt. dhíh.

Ru. doróga, SCr. dräga, Sln. drága, Cz. dráha, Slk. draha, dráha, US. dróha, Po. droga; Lith. dirginti, Gr. tarakhé.

Ru. dúma, Bulg. dúma, Slk. duma; Skt. dhūmáḥ, Gr. thūmós.

Ru. dýnja, SCr. dînja, Sln. dínja, Cz. dýně, Slk. dyňa.

SCr. jèdja, Sln. jéja, OPo. jedza; Lith. ëda, ëdžia.

SCr. jëlo, Sln. jélo, Cz. jídlo, Slk. jedlo.

Ru. žába, SCr. žäba, Sln. žába, Cz. žába, Slk. žaba.

Ru. žátva, SCr. žètva, Sln. žętva, žętev, Cz.Slk. žatva; Lith. ginti.

Ru. žértva, SCr.Sln. žîtva; Lith. gìrti, Lat. grātus.

Ru. žizn'; Lith. gýti.

Ru. žíto, SCr. žîto, Sln. žíto, OCz. žíto, Slk. žito; OPr. geits.

Ru. žíca, SCr. žîca, Sln. žíca; Lith. gijà, Skt. jyá.

Ru. zájac, SCr. zêc, Sln. zâjec, zêc, Cz. zajíc, Slk. zajac, Po. zając; Lith. žáisti, Skt. jíhīte.

Ru. zdoróv, SCr. zdràv, Sln. zdràv, Cz.Slk. zdravý.

Ru. iskra, SCr. iskra, Sln. iskra, Cz. jiskra, Slk. iskra; Lith. áiškus.

Ru. kánja, SCr. kànja, Sln. kánja, Cz. káně, Slk. kaňa; Lat. cicōnia, OHG. huon.

Ru. káplja, SCr. käplja, Sln. káplja, Cz. kápě; Lith. kópti.

Ru. káša, SCr. käša, Sln. káša, SCz. káše, Slk. kaša; Lith. kóšti, Latv. kãst.

Ru. kášeľ, SCr. käšalj, Sln. kášelj, Cz. kašel, Slk. kašeľ; Lith. kósėti, Latv. kãsêt, Skt. kásate, OHG. h(w)uosto.

SCr. kväka, Sln. kváka, Cz.Slk. kvaka.

Ru. kíka, SCr. kìka, Sln. kíka.

Ru. kíslyj, SCr. kìseo, Sln. kísel, Cz. kyselý, Slk. kyslý; Latv. kûsât.

Ru. kist', SCr. kìščica, Slk. kyst'.

Ru. kíta, SCr. kìta, Sln. kíta, Cz. kýta, Slk. kyta; Lith. kūtis, ON. skúfr.

Ru. klin, SCr. klîn, Sln. klin, Cz. klín, Slk. klin.

Ru. kljuká, Ukr. kljúka, SCr. kljûka, Sln. kljúka, Cz. klika, Slk. kl'uka; Lith. kliúti, Lat. clāvis.

Ru. kolóda, SCr. klàda, Sln. kláda, Cz. kláda, Slk. klada, US. klóda, Po. kloda; Lith. kálti, Lat. clādēs.

Ru. korósta, SCr. krästa, Sln. krásta, OCz. krásta, Po. krosta.

Ru. kráža, SCr. krädja, Sln. krâja.

- Ru. kraj, SCr. krâj, Sln. kràj, SCz. kráj, Slk. kraj; Lith. skrósti.
- Ru. krépok, SCr. krèpak, Sln. krépek, Cz. křepký, Slk. krepký; ON. hræfa.
- Ru. krux, SCr. krüh, Sln. krüh, Cz.Slk. kruch.
- Ru. kúka, SCr. kùka, Sln. kúka.
- Ru. kur, SCr. kur, Sln. kur, Cz. kur, kour, Slk. kur; Skt. kuti.
- Ru. kúča, SCr. kůća, Sln. kóča, Cz. kuče, Slk. kuča.
- Ru. laz, SCr. làz, Sln. lâz, Cz. laz, láz; Latv. lęzns, ON. lágr.
- Ru. láska, SCr. làska, Cz.Slk. láska; Lith. lokšnùs.
- Ru. léto, SCr. ljeto, Sln. léto, Cz. léto, Slk. leto, US. lěto; Lith. lietùs.
- Ru. mal, SCr. mão, Sln. mâli, Cz.Slk. malý; Gr. mẽlon, OIr. míl.
- Ru. máma, SCr. mäma, Sln. máma, Cz. máma, Slk. mama; OHG. muoma.
- Ru. máslo, SCr. mäslo, Sln. máslo, Cz. máslo, Slk. maslo; Latv. muőzêt.
- SCr. màh, Sln. màh; Lith. móti, Latv. mãt, Skt. māyā, Gr. mimos.
- SCr. màčka, Sln. mâčka, Cz.Slk. mačka.
- Ru. meď, SCr. mjed, Sln. męd, Cz. měď, Slk. meď.
- Ru. méra, SCr. mjèra, Sln. méra, Cz. míra, Slk. miera; Skt. máti, Lat. mētior.
- Ru. merëža, SCr. mrěža, Sln. mréža, Cz. mříže, Slk. mreža; Lith. márška, Gr. brókhos.
- Ru. mésto, SCr. mjesto, Sln. mésto, Cz. místo, mesto, Slk. mesto, miesto.
- Ru. moróz, SCr. mräz, Sln. mràz, Cz.Slk. mráz, US.Po. mróz.
- Ru. múka, SCr. mìka, Sln. mǫka, OCz. múka, Slk. muka, Po. męka; Lith. mìnkyti.
- Ru. múxa, SCr. mùha, mùha, Sln. múha, Cz. moucha, Slk. mucha; Gr. muĩa.
- Ru. mýlo, SCr. mìlo, Sln. mílo, Cz. mýdlo, Slk. mydlo; Latv. maût.
- Ru. mysl', SCr. mîsao, Sln. mîsel, Cz. mysl, Slk. mysel'; Gr. mũthos.
- Ru. mjágok, SCr. měk, Cz. měkký, Slk. mäkký, Po. miękki; Lith. mìnkštas.
- Ru. néga, SCr. njèga, Cz. něha, Slk. neha.
- Ru. nédra, SCr. njedra, Sln. nedra, SCz. ňádra, Slk. ňadrá; Gr. nedús.
- Ru. níva, SCr. njîva, Sln. njíva, Cz.Slk. niva.
- Ru. nízok, SCr. nízak, Sln. nízek, Cz.Slk. nízký.
- Ru. núža, nuždá, SCr. nůžda, Sln. níga, Cz. nouze, Slk. núdza, Po. nedza; Lith. naudà.
- Ru. par, SCr. para, Sln. para, Cz. para, Slk. para; Gr. pretho.

Ru. pástva, Sln. pâstva, Cz.Slk. pastva; Lat. pāscere.

Ru. páša, SCr. päša, Sln. pâša, Slk. paša; Lat. pāscere.

SCr. pjèga, Sln. péga, OCz. pieha, Slk. peha.

Ru. pésnja, SCr. pjësna, pjësma, Sln. pęsem, Cz. píseň, Slk. pieseň.

Ru. píšča, SCr. pìća, Sln. píča, Cz. píce.

Ru. plámja, SCr. plàmēn, Sln. plámen, Cz. plamen, Slk. plameň, US. plómjo, Po. plomień; Lith. pelenaĩ.

Ru. plač, SCr. plač, Sln. plač, Cz. pláč, Slk. plač; Gr. plesső.

SCr. plùta, Sln. plúta; Lith. pláuti.

Ru. polóva, SCr. pljëva, Sln. pléva, SCz. plíva, Slk. pleva, US. pluwa; OLith. pělūs, Skt. palávah.

Ru. poróm, SCr. prầm, Cz.Slk. prám, Po. prom; Gr. peráō.

Ru. prav, SCr. präv, Sln. pràv, Cz.Slk. pravý; Lat. probus.

Ru. právo, SCr. prävo, Sln. prâvo, Cz.Slk. právo.

SCr. prämēn, Sln. prámen, Cz. pramen, Slk. prameň, US. prómjo, Po. promień.

Ru. prúga, SCr. prüg, Sln. próga, Cz. prouha, Po. pręga; ON. springa.

Ru. prjáža, SCr. prèdja, Sln. prêja, Cz. příze, Slk. priadza, Po. przędza;
Lith. sprésti.

Ru. púzdro, SCr. půzdro, Cz. pouzdro, Slk. puzdro; Gr. pūgē.

Ru. pup, SCr. pùpak, Sln. pôpek, Cz. pupek, Po. pep; Lith. bámba.

Ru. p'jan, SCr. pjän, Sln. pijan, Cz.Slk. pijan; Skt. pyānáh.

Ru. pjast', SCr. pëst, pêst, Sln. pệst, Cz. pĕst, Slk. päst', Po. pięść; Lith. kùmstė, OHG. fūst.

Ru. rad, SCr. rad, Sln. rad, Cz.Slk. rad; Gr. éramai.

Ru. raj, SCr. râj, Sln. ràj, Cz. ráj, Slk. raj; Skt. rấti, Lat. rēs.

Ru. rak, SCr. räk, Sln. råk, SCz. rák, Slk. rak.

Ru. rána, SCr. ràna, Sln. rána, Cz. rána, Slk. rana.

Ru. ráno, SCr. rầno, Sln. ráno, Cz.Slk. ráno, raný; Skt. ūrdhváḥ, Gr. órthros.

Ru. rat', SCr. rat; Gr. éris.

Ru. riza, SCr. riza, Cz. řiza.

Ru. rus, SCr. rüs, Sln. rûs, Cz.Slk. rusý; Latv. rûsa.

Ru. rúxo, SCr. rüho, Sln. rúho, Cz. roucho, Slk. rúcho; Lith. ráuti.

Ru. rýba, SCr. riba, Sln. ríba, OCz. rýba, Slk. ryba; OHG. rūppa.

Ru. ryk, SCr. rìka, Sln. rîk, Cz.Slk. ryk; Lith. rūkti.

Ru. rýxlyj, Cz.Slk. rychlý; Latv. rũsa, ON. rúst.

Ru. sálo, SCr. sälo, Sln. sálo, Cz. sádlo, Slk. sadlo; Skt. sādáḥ.

Ru. svat, SCr. svät, Sln. svât, Cz.Slk. svat; Goth. swēs.

Ru. svérdel, SCr. svřdao, Sln. svéder, Cz. svider; OHG. swërt.

Ru. séža, SCr. sjèdja, Sln. séja; Skt. sādáḥ.

Ru. sen', SCr. sjèn, Sln. sę̂nca, Cz. síň, Slk. sieň; Skt. chāyá, Gr. skēné.

Ru. séra, SCr. sjèra, Cz.Slk. síra; Skt. śāráḥ.

Ru. séča, SCr. sječa, Sln. séča; Lat. secāre.

Ru. séčivo, SCr. sječivo; Lat. secivum.

Ru. sínij, SCr. sînji, Sln. sínji, Cz.Slk. siný; Skt. śyāmáḥ.

Ru. skalá, SCr. skàla, Sln. skála, Cz. skála, Slk. skala; Lith. skélti.

Ru. skvára, SCr. skvära, Sln. skvára.

Sln. skránja, OCz. skráně, Slk. skraňa.

Ru. slab, SCr. slàb, Sln. slàb, Cz.Slk. slabý; Lat. lābor, ON. slápr.

Ru. sliva, SCr. šljiva, Sln. sliva, Cz. sliva, Slk. sliva, Lat. lividus.

Ru. smel, SCr. smeo, Sln. smel, Cz. smelý, Slk. smelý; Lat. mos, OHG. muot.

Ukr. smerék, SCr. smrèka, Sln. smréka, Cz. smrk, Slk. smrek, US. šmrěk; Gr. smîlaks.

Ru. snast'; OIr. snáthe.

Ru. stádo, SCr. stådo, Cz.Slk. stádo; OHG. stuot.

Ru. stája, SCr. stäja, Sln. stája, OCz. stájě, Slk. staja; Lith. stóti.

Ru. strexá, SCr. strèha, Sln. stréha, Cz. střecha, Slk. strecha, US. třěcha; Lith. stríegti.

Ru. struná, SCr. strůna, Sln. strúna, Cz.Slk. struna; Lat. struere.

Ukr. súknja, SCr. sůknja, Sln. sûknja, Cz. sukně, Slk. sukňa.

Ru. syt, SCr. sìt, Sln. sìt, Cz. sytý, Slk. sýty; Skt. śūrah, Gr. kũros.

Ru. tat', SCr.Sln. tât; Skt. tāyúh, OIr. táid.

Ru. témja, SCr. tjème, Sln. téme, Cz. témě, Slk. temä; Gr. témnō.

Ru. tína, OCz. tina; Latv. fīrelis, Gr. fīlos.

Ru. tis, SCr. tis, tisa, Sln. tis, tisa, Cz.Slk. tis.

Ru. tix, SCr. tìh, Sln. tîh, Cz.Slk. tichý.

Ru. túča, SCr. tůča, Sln. tóča, Slk. tuča, Po. tecza; Lith. tánkus.

Ru. týkva, SCr. tìkva, Sln. tîkva, tîkev, Cz. tykev.

Ru. udá, údočka, SCr. ùdica, Sln. ódica, Cz. udice, Po. weda.

Ru. úza, SCr. üza, Sln. óza.

Ru. úzel, SCr. ùzao, Sln. ózel, Cz. uzel, Slk. uzol, Po. węzel; Lith. ážuolas, Latv. uôzuõls.

Ru. útro, SCr. jùtro, Sln. jútro, OCz. jítro, Slk. jutro; Lith. aušrà, Gr. aúrion.

Ru. xort, SCr. hrt, Sln. hrt, Cz.Slk. chrt; Lith. kurti.

Ru. xren, SCr. hrèn, Sln. hrèn, OCz. chřěn, Slk. chren, US. chrěn; Skt. kṣāráḥ, Gr. kṣērós.

Ru. cáplja, SCr. čàplja, Sln. čâplja, OCz. čiepě.

SCr. cesta, Sln. cesta, OCz. ciesta, Slk. cesta; Lith. skiesti.

Ru. čádo, SCr. čèdo, OCz. čád, OPo. czędo; Skt. kanyá, OIr. cenél.

Ru. čas, SCr. čàs, SIn. čàs, OCz. čás, SIk. čas; OPr. kīsman.

Ru. čáša, SCr. čäša, Sln. čáša, Cz. číše, Slk. čaša; OPr. kiosi.

Ru. čúdo, SCr. čùdo, Sln. čúdo, Slk. čudo; Skt. kavíh, Gr. kūdos.

Ru. šéja, SCr. šîja, Sln. šíja, Cz. šíje, Slk. šija; Lith. siūti.

Ru. šílo, SCr. šîlo, Sln. šílo, Cz. šídlo, Slk. šidlo; Lat. sūbula, OHG. siula.

Ru. škvára, Sln. škvára, Cz. škvár, škvára, Slk. škvar, škvara.

Ru. šútyj, SCr. šůt, Cz.Slk. šutý; Gr. ksū́o.

SCr. štäva, Sln. ščáva, Cz. št'áva, Slk. št'ava.

Ru. ščúka, SCr. štůka, Sln. ščúka, Cz. štika, Slk. šťuka.

Ru. jug, SCr. jùg, Sln. jùg, SCz. jíh, Slk. juh; Gr. augē.

Ru. jágnja, SCr. jägnje, Sln. jágnje, Cz. jehně, Slk. jahňa; Gr. amnós, Lat. agnus.

Ru. jázva, Sln. jâzba, OCz. jiezva, Slk. jazva; Lith. áiža, Latv. aĩza.

Ru. jáma, SCr. jäma, Sln. jáma, Cz. jáma, Slk. jama.

Ru. jar, SCr. jära, Sln. járen, Slk. jarý, US. jěry; Gr. zōrós.

SCr. järēb, Sln. jerêb, Cz. jeřáb, Slk. jarab, Po. jarząb; Latv. ířbe.

Ru. jásen', SCr. jäsēn, Sln. jásen, Cz. jasan, Slk. jaseň; Lith. úosis, Latv. uôsis, Lat. ornus.

Ru. jásli, SCr. jäsle, Sln. jásli, OCz. jěsli, Slk. jasle; Lith. ědžios.

Ru. jástreb, SCr. jästrēb, Sln. jâstreb, Cz. jestřáb, Slk. jastrab, Po. jastrząb; Skt. āśúḥ, Gr. ōkús.

A6. VERBS

Here again I confine myself to the Slavic evidence. I have not included the verbs in -noti, Ru. -nut' with a laryngealized root because the laryngeal is often secondary in this class, as I intend to show on another occasion.

Ru. bávit', SCr. bàviti, Sln. báviti se; Skt. bhāváh.

Ru. bájat', SCr. bäjati, Sln. bájati; Gr. phēmi, Lat. fāri.

Ru. bégat', SCr. bjëgati, Sln. bégati; Lith. bégti, Latv. bêgt, Gr. phébomai.

Ru. bit', SCr. bìti, Sln. bíti, Cz. bíti, Slk. bit'; OIr. benim, OHG. bihal.

Ru. bljeváť, SCr. bljůvati, Sln. bljuváti, Cz. blíti, Slk. bl'uť; Lith. bliáuti, bliúti, Latv. blaût.

Ru. borót'sja, US. wo-bróć so; Lith. bárti, Latv. bãrt, Lat. ferīre.

Ru. brit', SCr. brijati, Sln. briti; Skt. bhrināti.

Ru. brýzgať, SCr. brìzgati, Sln. brízgati.

SCr. brisati, Sln. brisati.

Ru. byť, SCr. bìti, Sln. bíti, Cz. býti, Slk. byť; Lith. búti, Skt. bhūtíḥ, OIr. buith.

Ru. vádiť, SCr. väditi, Sln. váditi; Skt. vādaļi.

Ru. ot-vérgnut', SCr. s-vřći, Sln. vréči.

Ru. za-verét', Sln. s-vréti se, Cz. ote-vříti; Lith. vérti, Latv. věrt.

Ru. vérit', SCr. vjëriti, Sln. vériti se ; Lat. vērus, ON. vár.

Ru. vésit', SCr. vjèšati, Sln. vésiti.

Ru. véjať, SCr. vijati, Sln. véti; Skt. váti.

Ru. vídeť, SCr. vìdjeti, Sln. vídeti; Lith. véidas, Lat. vidēre.

Ru. visét', SCr. visjeti, Sln. viséti.

Ru. vit', SCr. viti, Sln. víti, Cz. víti, Slk. vit'; Lith. výti, Latv. vît, Skt. vitáḥ, Lat. viēre.

Ru. voróčať, SCr. vräćati, Sln. vráčati.

Ru. výknuť, SCr. s-vìći; Lith. jùnkti, Skt. úcyati.

Ru. vyť, SCr vìti, Sln. víti, Cz. výti, Slk. vyť; Skt. ūtíh.

Ru. gádiť, SCr. gäditi, Sln. gáditi; Dutch kwaad.

SCr. gàziti, Sln. gáziti; Skt. gáhate.

Ru. gládit', SCr. glàditi, Sln. gláditi; Lith. glósti.

Ru. gljadét', SCr. glèdati, Sln. glédati; Lith. galásti.

Ru. gnit', SCr. gnjîti, Sln. gníti, Cz. hníti, Slk. hnit'; OHG. gnītan.

Ru. grábiť, SCr. gräbiti, Sln. grábiti; Lith. gróbti, Latv. grâbt, Skt. grābháh.

Ru. grájat', SCr. gräjati, Sln. grájati; Lith. gróti, Skt. gṛṇấti, OHG. krājan.

Ru. gret', SCr. grijati, Sln. gréti.

Ru. gryzt', SCr. gristi, Sln. grísti, Cz. hrýzti, Slk. hrýzt'; Lith. gráužti, Latv. graûzt, Gr. brúkhō, Goth. kriustan.

Ru. dat', SCr. dàti, Sln. dáti, Cz. dáti, Slk. dat'; Lith. dúoti, Latv. duôt, Skt. dádāti, Gr. dídōmi.

Ru. dvigat', SCr. dići, Sln. dvigati.

Ru. délat', SCr. djèlati, Sln. délati.

Ru. dërgat', Sln. d´rgati; Lith. d`rginti.

Ru. det', SCr. djëti, Sln. déti, Cz. díti, Slk. diet'; Lith. déti, Skt. dádhāti, Gr. títhēmi.

Ru. dúmat', SCr. dùmati.

Ru. dut', SCr. dùti, Sln. na-dǫti se, Cz. douti, Slk. dut'; Lith. dùmti, Skt. dhámati.

- Ru. est', SCr. jësti, Sln. jęsti, Cz. jísti, Slk. jest'; Lith. ësti, Gr. édō, Lat. edere.
- Ru. ézdit', SCr. jèzditi, Sln. jézditi.
- Ru. éxat', SCr. jähati, Sln. jâhati; Lith. jóti, Latv. jât, Skt. yắti, OIr. áth.
- Ru. žať, SCr. žeti, Sln. žéti, Cz. žíti, Slk. žať; Lith. geněti.
- SCz. žouti, Slk. žuť; Lith. žiáunos, OHG. kiuwan.
- Ru. žit', Sln. žíti, Cz. žíti, Slk. žit'; Lith. gýti, Latv. dzît, Skt. jívati, Lat. vīvere.

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- Ru. ra-zínut', SCr. zìnuti, Sln. zíniti; Gr. khainō, ON. gína.
- Ru. znať, SCr. znäti, Sln. znáti, Cz. znáti, Slk. znať; Skt. jñātáḥ, Gr. gnōtós, OIr. gnáth.
- Ru. zneť, Cz. zněti, Slk. znieť.
- Ru. zret' 'see', SCr. zreti, Sln. zreti, Cz. zříti, Slk. zriet'; Lith. žereti.
- Ru. zret' 'ripen', SCr. zrëti, Sln. zréti, Cz. zráti, Slk. zriet'; Skt. járati.
- Ru. zybáť, SCr. zìbati, Sln. zíbati.
- Ru. kápat', SCr. käpati, Sln. kápati.
- Ru. kájat'sja, SCr. käjati, Sln. kájati.
- SCr. kväsiti, Sln. kvásiti; Lat. cāseus.
- Ru. kidát', SCr. kidati, Sln. kídati; Latv. kûdît, Skt. khudáti.
- SCr. kisati, Sln. kísati; Latv. kûsât.
- Ru. klánjať sja, SCr. klànjati, Sln. klânjati se; Skt. śrānayati.
- Ru. klast', SCr. klästi, Sln. klásti, Cz. klásti, Slk. klást'; Lith. klóti, Latv. klât.
- Ru. kleváť, SCr. kljúvati, Sln. kljuváti, Slk. kľuť; Lith. kliúti.
- SCr. klèći, Sln. klékati; Lith. klénkėti.
- Ru. klíkať, SCr. klíči, Sln. klícati.
- Ru. kljúčiť, SCr. kljůčiti, Sln. kljúčiti; Lith. kliúti.
- Ru. kováť, SCr. kòvati, Sln. kováti, Cz. kouti, Slk. kuť; Lith. káuti, Latv. kaût, Lat. cūdere.
- Ru. kolót', SCr. kläti, Sln. kláti, Cz. kláti, Slk. klat', US. klóć; Lith. kálti, Latv. kalt, Lat. clādēs.
- Ru. kórčit', SCr. křčiti, Sln. kŕčiti.
- Ru. krast', SCr. krästi, Sln. krásti, Cz. krásti; Latv. krât.
- Ru. kryt', SCr. kriti, Sln. kríti, Cz. krýti, Slk. kryt'; Lith. kráuti, Latv. kraut, Gr. krúptō.
- Ru. kudíť, SCr. kůditi, Sln. kúditi.
- Ru. kúkať, SCr. kůkatí, Sln. kúkatí.
- Ru. kúšat', SCr. küšati, Sln. kúšati; Lith. ką́sti, Latv. kuôst, Skt. khádati.

Ru. lázit', SCr. làziti, Sln. láziti; Latv. lêzns, ON. lágr.

Ru. *lájat*', SCr. *làjati*, Sln. *lâjati*; Lith. *lóti*, Latv. *lãt*, Skt. *rấyati*, Lat. *lātrāre*.

Ru. lezt', SCr. s-ljësti, Sln. lésti, Cz. lézti, Slk. liezt'; Latv. lezêt, ON. lágr.

Ru. ljágu, SCr. ljèžēm, Sln. lęžem.

Ru. lit', SCr. liti, Sln. liti, Cz. liti, Slk. liat'; Lith. lieti, Latv. liêt, Gr. leibō, Lat. lībāre.

Ru. mázat', SCr. mäzati, Sln. mázati; Latv. muõzêt.

Ru. májat'sja, SCr. mäjati, Sln. májati; Lith. móti, Latv. mãt, Skt. māyā, Gr. nīmos.

Ru. mérit', SCr. mjëriti, Sln. mériti; Skt. måti, Lat. mētior.

SCr. micati, Sln. micati.

SCr. müsti, Sln. mólsti, mlésti; Lith. mìlžti, mélžti.

Ru. molót', SCr. mljëti, Sln. mléti, Cz. mlíti, Slk. mliet', US. mlěć; Lith. málti, Latv. malt, Skt. mrnáti, Lat. molere.

Ru. múčit', SCr. můčiti, Sln. múčiti, Po. męczyć; Lith. mánkyti.

Ru. mýsliť, SCr. mìsliti, Sln. mísliti; Gr. mũthos.

Ru. myť, SCr. mìti, Sln. míti, Cz. mýti, Slk. myť; Lith. máudyti, Skt. mútram, Dutch mooi.

Ru. mjat', Sln. méti, OCz. mieti, Slk. mät'; Lith. minti, Latv. mit.

Ru. nádiť, SCr. näditi, Sln. náditi.

SCr. nùditi, Sln. núditi, Po. nudzić.

Ru. nyt', Cz. nýti, Slk. nyt'; Lith. novyti, Latv. navêt.

Ru. njúxať, SCr. njůšiti, Sln. njúšati, njúhati; OHG. niusan.

Ru. orát', SCr. òrāti, Sln. oráti; Lith. árti, Latv. art, Gr. aróō, Lat. arāre.

SCr. päziti, Sln. páziti.

Ru. párit', SCr. päriti, Sln. páriti.

Ru. past', pádat', SCr. pästi, pädati, Sln. pásti, pádati.

Ru. pasti, SCr. pästi, Sln. pásti, Cz. pásti, Slk. pást'; Lat. pāscere, Goth. fōdjan.

SCr. pätriti, Po. patrzyć; Skt. pắti.

Ru. pet', SCr. pjëti, pjëvati, Sln. péti, pévati.

Ru. pit', SCr. piti, Sln. piti, Cz. piti, Slk. pit'; Skt. pītáh, Gr. pinō.

Ru. pláviť, SCr. pläviti, Sln. plavíti; Lith. pláuti, Gr. plốō, ON. flóa.

Ru. plákať, SCr. pläkati, Sln. plákati; Lith. plóti, Gr. pléssō, Lat. plangere.

SCr. pläšiti, Sln. plášiti, US. plóšić, Po. ploszyć; Gr. pólemos.

Ru. pleváť, SCr. pljùvati, Sln. pljuváti, Cz. plíti, Slk. pl'uť; Lith. spiáuti, Latv. splaut.

Ru. plyt', SCr. plîti, Sln. plúti, Cz. plouti, Slk. plut'; Lith. plústi, Latv. plûst, Gr. plúnō.

Ru. pólzat', SCr. půzati, Sln. pólzati.

Ru. polózit', SCr. pläziti, Sln. pláziti.

Ru. polót', SCr. pljěti, Sln. pléti, Cz. plíti, Slk. pliet', US. plěć.

Ru. polót', Sln. pláti, Cz. pláti, US. plóć.

Ru. porót', Sln. práti, US. próć; Gr. peráō.

Ru. pret', Po. przeć; Gr. prętho.

Ru. pórtit', SCr. přtiti, prätiti, Sln. pŕtiti, prátiti; Gr. prássō.

Ru. prúžiť, SCr. průžiti, Sln. próžiti.

Ru. prjážiť, SCr. přžiti, präžiti, Sln. pŕžiti, prážiti; Lith. sprógti, Latv. sprágt, Skt. sphúrjati.

Ru. prjast', SCr. prësti, Sln. présti, Cz. přísti, Slk. priast'; Lith. sprésti, Latv. spriêst.

Ru. prjátať, SCr. prètati.

Ru. púkať, púčiť, SCr. půći, Sln. pókati, póčiti, Po. pekać.

SCr. půšiti, Sln. púšiti; Arm. phukh, Gr. phūsáō.

Ru. rvat', SCr. rvati se, Sln. rváti, Cz. rváti, routi, Slk. rvat', rut'; Lith. ráuti, Latv. raût.

Ru. rézat', SCr. rèzati, Sln. rézati; Lith. réžti, Gr. régnūmi.

Ru. vstrétit', SCr. srësti, Sln. srésti, sréčati.

Ru. rúšiť, SCr. růšití, Sln. rúšití; Lith. ráutí, ON. rúst.

Ru. ryt', SCr. riti, Sln. ríti, Cz. rýti, Slk. ryt'; Lith. ráuti, Latv. raût, ON. rýja.

Ru. sest', sjádu, SCr. sjësti, sjëdēm, Sln. sésti, sêdem; Lith. sésti, Latv. sêst, Skt. sídati.

SCr. sjëtiti se, Sln. sétiti se.

Ru. sétovat', SCr. sjëtovati.

Ru. seč', SCr. sjèći, Sln. séči, Cz. síci, Slk. siect'; Lat. secāre, Ir. ésgid.

Ru. séjat', SCr. sìjati, Sln. sejáti, Cz. síti, Slk. siat'; Lith. séti, Latv. sét, Lat. serere, OHG. sāen.

Ru. slúšat', slýšat', SCr. slūšati, slišati, Sln. slúšati, slíšati; Lith. kláusti, klausýti, Skt. śróṣati.

Ru. smet', SCr. smjèti, Sln. sméti, Cz. smíti, Slk. smiet'; Lat. mōs, OHG. muot.

Ru. spet', SCr. dò-spjeti, Sln. spéti, Cz. spěti, Slk. spiet'; Lith. spéti, Latv. spět, Skt. spháyate, Lat. spēs, OHG. spuot.

Ru. stáviť, SCr. stäviti, Sln. stáviti; Lith. stověti, Latv. stãvêt, Gr. stúō.

Ru. stat', SCr. stàti, Sln. státi, Cz. státi se, Slk. stat'; Lith. stóti, Latv. stât, Gr. hístēmi, Lat. stāre, OHG. stān.

Ru. do-stíč, SCr. střći.

Ru. strašít', SCr. sträšiti, Sln. strášiti; Latv. struõstît.

Ru. strič', SCr. striči, Sln. striči; OHG. strihhan.

Ru. sýpať, SCr. sipati, Sln. sípati; Lith. súpoti, Latv. šúpât.

SCr. sezati, Sln. ségati, Po. siegać.

Ru. tájat', SCr. tàjati, Sln. tájati; Gr. tékõ, Lat. tābēre.

Ru. terét', SCr. trti, Sln. treti; Lith. tirti, Gr. teiro, Lat. terere.

Ru. terzát', torgát', SCr. trzati, trgati, Sln. trzati, trgati.

Ru. téšit', SCr. tješiti, Sln. téšiti.

Ru. tískat', SCr. tìskati, Sln. tískati.

SCr. tlàčiti, Sln. tláčiti, US. tlóčić, Po. tloczyć; Lith. tìlkti.

Ru. tlet', Sln. tleti, Cz. tliti, Slk. tliet'; Lith. tilti, Lat. tollere.

SCr. tràpiti, Sln. trápiti.

Ru. trátiť, SCr. trätiti, Sln. trátiti; Lith. trótinti.

SCr. träjati, Sln. trájati; Skt. tráyate.

Ru. trébovat', SCr. trèbovati, Sln. trébiti; Gr. tríbō.

SCr. třliti, Sln. třliti; Lith. tìrti.

SCr. trsiti, Sln. trsiti se.

Ru. turit', SCr. türiti, Sln. túrati.

Ru. tyť, SCr. titi, Cz. týti, Slk. tyť; Lith. túlas, táukas.

Sln. téti, Cz. títi, Slk. t'at'; Lith. tìnti, Gr. témnō.

Ru. údit', SCr. ùditi; Skt. ūdhar, OHG. ūtar.

SCr. ümiti, Sln. úmiti; Lith. aumuõ.

Ru. ob-út', SCr. òb-uti, Sln. ob-úti, Cz. ob-outi, Slk. ob-ut'; Lith. aũti, Lat. ex-uere.

Ru. xájať, SCr. hàjati, Sln. hájati.

Ru. xvatít', SCr. hvätiti, Sln. hvátiti.

Ru. po-xitit', SCr. hititi, Sln. hititi.

Ru. xulit', SCr. hüliti, Sln. húliti.

Ru. čekáť, SCr. čekati, Sln. čákati; Lat. cārus, OHG. huora.

Ru. čájať, SCr. čäjati, Sln. čâjati; Skt. cáyati, Gr. tēréō.

Ru. po-čít', Sln. po-číti; Lat. quiēs.

Ru. čuť, SCr. čůti, Sln. čúti, Cz. číti, Slk. čuť; Skt. kavíh, Gr. koéō, Lat. cavēre.

Ru. u-šibit', SCr. šibati, Sln. šibati.

Ru. šit', SCr. šiti, Sln. šiti, Cz. šíti, Slk. šit'; Lith. siúti, Latv. šūt, Skt. sívyati, Lat. suere.

SCr. jàditi, Sln. jáditi; Gr. oidéō.

Ru. po-jásat', SCr. päsati, Sln. pásati; Lith. júosti, Latv. juôzt, Gr. zōstós.

A7. LOAN WORDS

Next to the inherited material, there are a number of loan words where the Slavic evidence points to a laryngealized vowel in the root. These borrowings go back to the first millennium of our era, when the laryngeal feature had already been integrated in the system of pitch oppositions. The reason why these words belong to this accentuation class must be sought in the pitch characteristics of the Germanic dialects from which the words were taken.

Ru. bánja, SCr. bànja, Sln. bânja, OCz. báně, Slk. baňa; Lat. balneum.

Ru. bljúdo, SCr. bljüdo; Goth. biudan.

SCr. bràdva, Sln. brâdva; OHG. barta.

Ru. buk, búkva, SCr. bùk, bùkva, Sln. búkev, bûkva, Cz.Slk. buk; Goth. bōka, ON. bók.

SCr. bùljav, Sln. búla, Cz. boule, Slk. bul'a; OHG. būlla.

Ukr. vátra, SCr. vätra, Cz.Slk. vatra; Avestan ātarš.

Ru. vertográd, SCr. vřt, Sln. vřt; Goth. aúrtigards.

Ru. volóx, SCr. vlàh, Sln. vlàh, Cz.Slk. vlach; OHG. wal(a)h.

Ru. výžlec, SCr. vižao, vižle, Sln. vížel, Cz. vyžel, vyžle, Slk. vyžla; OHG. wiso.

Ru. dúlja, SCr. gdunja, Cz. kdoule, Slk. dula; Lat. cydonea.

Ru. kaď, SCr. kâd, Sln. kàd, Cz. káď, Slk. kaďa; Gr. kádion.

Ru. kit, SCr. kit, Sln. kit; Gr. ketos.

Ru. kniga, SCr. knjiga, Sln. knjiga, OCz. kniha, Slk. kniha.

Ru. líxva, SCr. lìhva, Sln. lìhva, Cz.Slk. lichva; Goth. leihvan.

Ru. luk, SCr. lùk, Sln. lùk, Cz. luk; ON. laukr.

Ru. mísa, Cz. mísa, Slk. mísa; Lat. mēnsa.

Ru. mlin, SCr. mlîn, Sln. mlîn, Cz. mlýn, Slk. mlyn; OHG. mulīn.

Ru. mjáta, SCr. mětva, Sln. mệta, Cz. máta, Slk. mäta, Po. mięta; Lat. mentha.

Ru. pénjaz', SCr. pjènēzi, Sln. pệnez, Cz. peníz, Slk. peniaz; OHG. pfenning.

Ru. plug, SCr. plug, Sln. plug, SCz. plouh, Slk. pluh; OHG. pfluog.

Ru. púška, SCr. půška, Sln. pûška, Cz.Slk. puška; OHG. buhsa.

Ru. ráka, SCr. räka, Sln. ráka, rákev, Cz.Slk. rakev; Goth. arka.

Ru. rúta, SCr. růta, Sln. rúta; Lat. rūta.

Ru. sáblja, SCr. säblja, Sln. sâblja, Cz. šavle, Slk. šabl'a; Hung. száblya.

Ru. skíba, Cz. skýva, Slk. skyva; OHG. sciba.

Ru. skrin, SCr. skrinja, Sln. skrinja, Cz. skřiň, Slk. skriňa; OHG. scrini.

- Ru. stúpa, SCr. stùpa, Sln. stópa, Cz. stoupa, Slk. stupa, Po. stępa; OHG. stampfon.
- Ru. tyn, SCr. tìn, Sln. tìn, Cz. týn; ON. tún.

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- Ru. xiz, xíža, SCr. hìža, Sln. hìs, híša, Cz. chýše, Slk. chyža; OHG. hūs.
- Ru. xleb, SCr. hljèb, Sln. hlèb, Cz. chléb, Slk. chlieb; Goth. hlaifs.
- Ru. xulá, SCr. hùla, Sln. húla; Goth. hōlōn.
- Ru. čerėšnja, SCr. trešnja, Sln. čręšnja, Cz. třešně, US. třešnja; Lat. cerasus.
- Ru. šelóm, SCr. šljèm, Sln. šlèm; OHG. hëlm.
- Ru. šúba, SCr. šûba, Sln. šûba, Cz.Slk. šuba.
- Ru. ščir, SCr. štìr, Sln. ščîr, Cz. štír; OHG. stir.
- Ru. jávor, SCr. jävör, Sln. jávor, Cz.Slk. javor; OHG. ahorn.

APPENDIX B

LENGTHENED VOWELS IN SLAVIC ROOTS

Occurrences of IE lengthened grade are even harder to identify in Slavic than instances of IE laryngeals. The problem is that, like in Baltic, the large majority of cases go back to a period posterior to the linguistic unity. The rise of new long vowels in derivatives was particularly productive in Baltic as well as in Slavic during the first millennium before our era.

According to the theory presented in the preceding chapters, the regular reflex of the lengthened grade is a circumflex in monosyllables and a long vowel in unstressed roots. A typical case is Ru. žar, žará, SCr. žâr, žára. The co-existence of the two stems points to the enlargement of an earlier consonant stem with different suffixes. The former word can only show accentual mobility because of Illič-Svityč's law (cf. section 3.4 above), and the latter has final accentuation in accordance with Dybo's law (section 3.6), cf. Ru. acc.sg. žarú. Czech žár has its long vowel from the compound požár, where length was regularly maintained in the posttonic syllable, cf. Ru. požár, with non-initial accentuation as a result of Dybo's law, and SCr. pöžār, with secondary mobility. If the lengthened grade would originally have yielded an acute intonation, neither the long root vowel in Cz. požár, SCr. pöžār, nor the final accentuation in Ru. žará, SCr. žára could be explained.

The instances where an apparent lengthened grade manifests an acute intonation must be explained differently. The case of Ru. éla, séla, séla, pribégla was discussed above (section 3.2). A similar explanation is generally accepted for the apparent lengthened grade of the prefix in Ru. pámjat', práded, SCr. pämēt, präded, which goes back to the old instrumental ending *-oH (Meillet 1934a:351, Beekes 1973:216). A third type is exemplified in the acute of Ru. sláva, SCr. slàva, for which we have Lith. šlóvė or šlově, acc.sg. šlóvę or šlôvę. There were derivatives with and without a laryngeal from this root in Balto-Slavic, e.g. Lith. klaũso < *klausā 'obeys' and kláusia < *klauHsia 'interrogates' (cf. Meillet 1934b:164). When the laryngeal

lost its segmental status, the existence of such pairs gave rise to a metatonical relationship. The laryngealized root variant was generalized in Slavic, e.g. Ru. slúšat', SCr. slůšati 'to listen'.

The evaluation of the material presented in this appendix requires a detailed chronological analysis, which remains a task for the future. Here again I have no pretension to exhaustiveness. I have concentrated upon roots which show transparent apophonic relationships and omitted clearly secondary cases.

B1. Nouns

Ru. val, SCr.Sln. vâl; Lith. volē, Latv. vàle, Lat. volvere, ON. valr.

Ru. var, SCr.Sln. vâr, Cz.Slk. var; Lith. varùs, Dutch warm.

Ru. vedró, SCr. vjèdro, Sln. védro, Cz. vědro, Slk. vedro; ON. vátr, Ru. vodá.

Ru. véno, Cz. věno, Slk. veno.

Ru. gal; Latv. gàle, OHG. kalo, Ru. gólyj.

Ru. gar', razgár, ugár, SCr. gâr, gára; Skt. háraḥ, Gr. théros, Ru. gorét'.

Ru. gran', SCr. grána, OCz. hrano, Cz.Slk. hrana, Po. grań; OHG. grana.

Ru. davnó, SCr. dâvno, Sln. dávno, Cz. dávný, Slk. dávny; Skt. dūráḥ, Arm. tev, Lat. dūdum.

Ukr. dirá, Sln. déra, Cz. díra, Slk. diera; Skt. drnáti, Gr. dérō, Ru. drať.

Ru. žal', SCr. žão, Sln. žàl, Cz. žal, Slk. žial; Lith. gėlà, OHG. quāla.

Ru. žar, požár, žará, SCr. žâr, pòžār, žára, Sln. žâr, požâr, Cz. žár, požár, Slk. žiar, žiara; Skt. háraḥ, Gr. théros, Ru. gorét'.

Ru. zar', zarjá, Sln. zárja, Cz. zář, záře; Lith. žérěti, žarà, Ukr. zorjá, SCr. zòra, Sln. zórja, Cz. zoře, Slk. zora.

Ru. zver', SCr. zvijer, Sln. zver, Cz. zver, Slk. zver; Lith. žveris, Gr. ther, Lat. ferus.

Ru. izgága, Sln. izgâga, OCz. zháha, Slk. žháha; Lith. dègti, Skt. dáhati, Ru. žeč'.

Ru. kal, SCr. kão, Sln. kâl, Cz.Slk. kal.

Ru. kára, SCr.Sln. kâr, Cz.Slk. kára; Latv. karinât, Lat. carināre, Ru. korit'.

Ru. krasá, SCr. krâs, krása, Sln. krâs, Cz.Slk. krása; ON. hrósa.

Ru. len', SCr. lijen, Sln. lện, OCz. léň, Slk. lieň; Lith. lénas, lễnas, Latv. lệns, Lat. lēnis.

SCr. mâr, nềmār, Sln. mâr, nệmar; Skt. smárati, Lat. memor.

Ru. mel, Sln. mêl, Cz. měl, Slk. mel'; Lith. smėlys, Ru. molót'.

Ru. mjáso, SCr. mêso, Sln. mesô, Cz. maso, Slk. mäso; Lith. mėsà, Latv. mìesa, Skt. māṃsám, mấḥ, Arm. mis, Goth. mimz.

Ru. reč', SCr. riječ, Sln. ręč, Cz. řeč, Slk. reč; Lith. rekti, Latv. rekt, Skt. racáyati, Goth. ragin.

Ru. sam, SCr.Sln. sâm, Cz.Slk. sám; Skt. samáḥ, Gr. homós, Goth. sama.

Ru. sap, Sln. sápa; Skt. sápati, Ru. sopét'.

Ru. svára, Sln. svâr, Cz.Slk. svár; Lat. sermo, ON. svara.

Ru. slep, SCr. slijep, Sln. slęp, Cz.Slk. slepý; Lith. slėpti, Latv. slept.

Ru. tvar', SCr.Sln. tvâr, Cz. tvář, tvar, Slk. tvár, tvar; Lith. tvorà, Ru. tvorít'.

Ru. travá, SCr.Sln. tráva, Cz.Slk. tráva; Gr. trôō, SCr. tròvati.

Ru. tresk, treská, SCr. trijesak, treska, Sln. tresk, treska, Cz. třesk, tříska, Slk. tresk, trieska; Lith. treskëti, Cz. troska.

Ru. udár, SCr. ùdār, Sln. udâr, Cz.Slk. úder; Ru. drať.

Ru. úžas, SCr. ùžās, Cz.Slk. úžas; Lith. gèsti, Gr. sbénnūmi, Ru. gasít'.

Ru. xvalá, SCr.Sln. hvála, Cz.Slk. chvála; ON. skvala.

Ru. čáry, Ukr. čará, SCr. čâr, Sln. čâr, čára, Cz. čár, čára, Slk. čary; Lith. kerëti, Skt. kṛṇóti.

Ru. *ščap*, SCr. *štâp*, Sln. *ščáp*, Cz. *štěp*, Slk. *štep*; Latv. *šķęps*, OHG. *skaft*, Ru. *ščepá*.

Ru. jaz, SCr. $j\hat{a}z$, Sln. $j\hat{e}z$, Cz. jez, Slk. jaz; Lith. $e\check{z}\check{e}$, Latv. $e\check{z}a$, Arm. ezr.

Ru. jajcó, SCr. jáje, Sln. jájce; Gr. ōión, Lat. ōvum, OHG. ei.

B2. VERBS

SCr. bádati, Cz. bádati.

Ru. valit', Sln. valiti, Cz. valiti.

Ru. varit', SCr. váriti, Sln. varíti, Cz. vařiti.

Ru. gadát', Sln. gádati, Cz. hádati; Lith. guõdas, Latv. gùods, ON. gáta.

Ru. gálit', SCr. gáliti.

SCr. gánjati, Sln. gânjati.

Ru. gasíti, SCr. gásiti, Sln. gasíti, Cz. hasiti; Lith. gèsti, Gr. sbénnűmi.

Ru. davít', SCr.Sln. dáviti, Cz. dáviti; ON. deyja.

Ru. drápat', SCr.Sln. drápati, Cz. drápati; Gr. drépō.

Ru. žalét', SCr. žàliti, Sln. žáliti, Cz. želeti; Lith. gélti, OHG. quëlan.

Ru. žárit', SCr. žáriti, Sln. žaríti.

Ru. zárit', Cz. zářiti; Lith. žėrěti.

Ru. karáť, SCr.Sln. kárati, Cz. kárati.

Ru. krákať, Sln. krâkati, Cz. krákati; Lith. krõkti, Latv. kràkt, Gr. krózō, Lat. crōcīre.

SCr. lijègati, Sln. légati, Cz. lehati.

Ru. letát', SCr. lijètati, Sln. létati, Cz. létati; Lith. lékti, Latv. lèkt.

SCr. máriti, Sln. mârati.

Sln. méniti, Cz. míniti; OHG. meinen.

Ru. palít', SCr.Sln. páliti, Cz. páliti; Lith. pelenaĩ.

Ru. parít', SCr. páriti, Cz. pářiti; Goth. faran.

Ru. ráčiť, SCr.Sln. ráčiti, Cz. ráčiti; Skt. racáyati, Goth. rahnjan.

Sln. rékati, Cz. říkati.

Ru. sadít', SCr. sáditi, Sln. sadíti, Cz. saditi; Lith. sodinti, Goth. satjan.

Sln. sápati, Cz. sápati se.

Ru. svarít'sja, Sln. svaríti, Cz. svářiti se.

Ru. skakát', SCr.Sln. skákati, Cz. skákati; ON. skaga.

Ru. tákat', SCr. tákati, Sln. tâkati; Lith. tekéti.

Sln. tvârjati, Cz. tvářeti; Lith. tvérti.

Sln. tékati, Cz. těkati; Lith. tekéti.

Ru. travít', SCr. tráviti, Cz. tráviti; Gr. trốō.

Ru. xvalít', SCr.Sln. hváliti, Cz. chváliti; ON. skvala.

Ru. čápať, Sln. čápati, Cz. čapati; Lat. capere, Goth. hafjan.

Ru. šalít', Sln. šáliti se, Cz. šáliti.

B3. SIGMATIC AORIST

OChSl. basb, bljusb, věsb, vlěxb, vrěsb, grěsb, ěsb, jaxb, žaxb, lexb, męsb, něsb, rěxb, sěxb, těxb, tresb, cvisb, čisb.

APPENDIX C

SHORTENING OF PRETONIC LONG VOWELS IN ITALIC AND CELTIC

The reconstruction of the oldest Balto-Slavic accentual system requires an evaluation of the comparative IE evidence. The only detailed comparison available so far is presented in Illič-Svityč's monograph on nominal accentuation in Baltic and Slavic (1963). In this study the Baltic and Slavic material is confronted with identical formations in Sanskrit, Greek, and Germanic. These are not the only languages which supply useful information about IE accentuation, however. As Dybo demonstrated in 1961, the shortening of pretonic long vowels in Italic and Celtic provides another valuable clue for the reconstruction of accentual differences in prehistoric times. Here I quote the main part of the introduction to this important article (Dybo 1961a:9f.).

"Comparative linguistics often has to deal with variants of a root where side by side with a long vowel or long resonant (respectively heavy base or root with a laryngeal) a short vowel or resonant (respectively light base or root without a laryngeal) appears. Both variants are usually supposed to go back to IE times.

But a careful examination of the material shows this view to be unwarranted:

- 1. If one leaves aside the instances when the root with a long vowel appears before a vowel or where the root (stem) is split by a nasal infix, and also some cases of shortening of vowels before certain consonant clusters, then the overwhelming majority of the words with a short root variant belongs to the Western part of the IE area, viz. to the Italic, Celtic and, partly, the Germanic languages.
- 2. Moreover, where there are corresponding words or words with a similar structure, the Italic short root variant coincides with the Celtic one, and in the case of a root ending in an intervocalic resonant, also with the Germanic one:
 - 1) Lat. cŭtis, W. cwd, but OHG. hūt;
 - 2) Lat. defrŭtum, OIr. bruth, but OHG. prūt;

- 3) Lat. fŭturus, OIr. ro-both, but Skt. bhūtáh, Lith. būtas;
- 4) Lat. sŭcula, W. hwcc, but Skt. sūkaráḥ;
- 5) Lat. puter, Ir. othar, othrach (root pū-);
- 6) Lat. ulna (< * $\delta len\bar{a}$), Ir. uile, Goth. aleina, but Gr. $\bar{o}l\acute{e}n\bar{e}$, $\bar{o}l\acute{e}n$, Arm. uln (u < IE \bar{o});
 - 7) Lat. vĭr, Ir. fer, Goth. wair; but Skt. vīráḥ, Lith. výras;
 - 8) Lat. sĕrēscō, Ir. serb, OHG. serawēn, but Skt. ksāráh, Gr. ksērós;
- 9) Osc. bivus (acc.pl.), W. byw, Goth. *qĭus, but Skt. jīváḥ, Lith. gývas;
- 10) Lat. *tŭmus (in tŭmēre), W. twf, Ge.(dial.) dŭm, but Avestan tūma-, OChSl. tyti;
 - 11) OIr. del, Sw.(dial.) del (masc.), but Latv. dels (gen. dela);
- 12) Ir. *lon*, Goth. *lun* (the brevity of the u is established on the basis of OE. $\bar{a}lynnan$), but Skt. $l\bar{u}n\dot{a}h$;
- 13) Ir. *len (in lenomnaib 'lituris'), Ge.(dial.) len, Sw. len, but Skt. līnáh;
- 14) Celt. *nŏvis (in Ir. nóine, núna, W. newyn, Bret. naoun), Goth. nawis, but Latv. nâvs, Lith. nōvis, OPr. nowis, Ru. nav'.

These two peculiarities of the distribution of the material with a short root variant compel one to look for the causes of the emergence of this short variant in the phonetic processes of the Celto-Italic dialectal area, and also in the similar and, probably, connected phonetic processes in the dialects underlying the Proto-Germanic language.

The analysis of the Celtic and Italic material from the point of view of IE accentology shows that long vowels and resonants were preserved in these languages under the stress only and were shortened in unstressed position, probably already in the period of Celto-Italic unity, at a time of close contact with the dialects underlying the Proto-Germanic language.

The different reflexes of long \bar{r} and \bar{l} can also be explained by the place of the stress (Celto-Ital. ar, al in unstressed position, Celto-Ital. $r\bar{a}$, $l\bar{a}$ under the Indo-European stress)."

Dybo then presents the material, consisting of 42 items where long IE vowels and resonants have been shortened in unstressed syllables, and 44 items where long IE vowels and resonants have been preserved under the stress. I refrain from repeating the material here and refer to the source for full information.

In addition to the material which is in accordance with the hypothesis, Dybo adduces 17 items with a long stem vowel in Italic and Celtic corresponding to a stressed stem vowel in Baltic and Slavic but to a pretonic long stem vowel in Greek and Sanskrit, e.g. Lat. fūmus, grānum, Ir. grán, lán, SCr. dìm, zrno, pùn, Skt. dhūmáḥ, jūrnáḥ, pūrnáḥ. The difference between the Balto-Slavic and the Greek and Sanskrit accentuation is generally explained by Hirt's law. On the basis of the Italic and Celtic material Dybo rejects this law and assumes that the stress placement in Baltic and Slavic goes back to the proto-language and that the final accentuation in the oldest IE evidence is due to an innovation.

The explanation of the difference between a short vowel in Italic and Celtic and a long vowel elsewhere as resulting from the shortening of pretonic long vowels in the former languages is supported by the existence of an alternation between a long and a short vowel in derivatives from the same root in Italic and Celtic, e.g. Welsh *biw* 'cattle', *byw* 'living', Lat. *sūs*, *sŭcŭla*, *pūrus*, *pŭtus*, *cārus*, OIr. *caraim*. According to Dybo, the quantitative opposition in these words reflects an earlier accentual difference.

The same explanation is put forward for the quantity of the stem vowel in deverbative nominals in -to- (participle) and -tu- (supine). The to-participle has final accentuation in Greek and Sanskrit, whereas the latter language has generalized both full grade and barytonesis in the infinitive in -tum. If the preservation or loss of quantity in the root reflects an earlier accentual opposition in Italic and Celtic, one has to assume two classes of t-formations which merged in Greek and Sanskrit, e.g. Lat. lītus, lītum, pūtāre, fūtāre, fŭtūrus, OIr. ro-both, bith, W. ffrwst, ffraeth, but Lat. sūtus, sūtum, rūta, strātus, strātum, OIr, ro-bith, bráth, W. prid, blawt. These classes must be old because the same distribution is found in Baltic and Slavic, cf. Latv. liêt/lît, pļaût, bût, dzît, sprûst, sprâgt, šũt, bîrt, malt, Ru. lilá, bylá, žilá, šíla, rýla, prostërla, bíla, krýla, molóla. On the basis of the agreement between the Western and the Northern languages Dybo assumes that the accentuation of the Greek and Sanskrit forms is secondary in these categories.

Dybo's article provoked a reaction by Illič-Svityč (1962), who accepted the thesis that pretonic long vowels were shortened in Italic and Celtic, but rejected the suggestion that these languages together with Baltic and Slavic preserved the old stress placement on the stem in a number of cases where Greek and Sanskrit show final accen-

tuation. Illič-Svityč's main objection is that the motivation for the oxytonesis in the latter languages remains unclear, especially because the stem is stressed in such words as Skt. űrṇā, bhrātā, as opposed to pūrṇáḥ, mātā. Moreover, the Germanic evidence generally supports the antiquity of the Greek and Sanskrit accentuation rather than the stress placement conjectured on the basis of Italic and Celtic quantity, e.g. OHG. muoter < *mātēr, OE. sēod < *siūtós, cf. Lat. māter, sūtus, Skt. mātā, syūtáḥ. Illič-Svityč concludes that the Sanskrit, Greek, and Germanic accentuation goes back to the proto-language and that the stress was retracted in Italic and Celtic under the same conditions as it was in Baltic and Slavic.

According to Illič-Svityč, the origin of the retraction must be sought in the intonation of the root vowel. He posits the existence of four types in the proto-language:

- (1) IE barytona with a rising intonation on the root syllable: fixed stress on the stem and preservation of length in Balto-Slavic and Celto-Italic, e.g. SCr. brät, Lat. frāter, OIr. bráthir, Skt. bhrātā, Gr. phrātēr, OHG. bruodar.
- (2) IE oxytona with a rising intonation on the root syllable: retraction of the stress and preservation of length in Balto-Slavic and Celto-Italic, e.g. Lith. pilnas, Latv. pilns, SCr. pün, Ir. lán, Skt. pūrnáh.
- (3) IE oxytona with a 'broken' intonation on the root syllable: mobile stress in Balto-Slavic and shortening of pretonic length in Celto-Italic, e.g. SCr. *trâg*, Ir. *trog*.
- (4) IE barytona with a 'broken' intonation on the root syllable: mobile stress in Balto-Slavic and preservation of length under the stress in Celto-Italic, e.g. Lith. plónas, Latv. plâns, Lat. plānus.

Thus, the opposition between preservation and loss of quantity in Italic and Celtic reflects an earlier intonational difference, which is independent of the IE stress placement. The *to*-participle was stressed on the ending but could have different intonations in the root.

Leaving the Germanic evidence aside, I think that Illič-Svityč is right for two reasons when he sticks to the view that Sanskrit and Greek have preserved the IE stress placement better than Italo-Celtic and Balto-Slavic. First, the original accentuation cannot be established without taking the apophonic evidence into account. When apophony and accentuation in Greek and Sanskrit coincide, there can hardly be any doubt. The combination of final stress and zero grade of the root vowel in the *to*-participle suggests that this is the

original situation. In the *tu*-formation we may expect proterodynamic mobility (cf. Kuiper 1942:35). Second, the preservation of the neuter gender in SCr. *zino* and similar words cannot be explained if we start from original barytonesis. The merger of barytone neuters and masculines in the singular must have preceded the retraction of the stress in these words (cf. section 5.3 above). There is no way to avoid Hirt's law in Baltic and Slavic.

On the other hand, I do not agree with Illič-Svityč that a similar retraction must have operated in Italic and Celtic. The preservation of pretonic long vowels in these languages can be explained more easily if we base ourselves on the principle of relative chronology, i.e. if we assume that the pretonic long vowels which have been preserved had not yet arisen at the time when the shortening operated. It is remarkable that all of the items with preservation of pretonic length adduced by Dybo have a 'long sonant' in the root with the single exception of the word Lat. mater, OIr. máthir, Skt. mata. In this very word Greek has preserved a stem-stressed nominative meter. Dor. mater, which must be the remnant of an old type of mobility. It is probable that the long vowel in Italic and Celtic, which was regularly preserved under the stress in the nominative, was analogically introduced in the other case forms. Alternatively, one could suggest that these languages, in contradistinction to Sanskrit and Slavic, generalized the barytonesis of the nom.sg. form throughout the paradigm.

If this view is correct, the loss of the laryngeals after a vocalic resonant is posterior to the shortening of pretonic long vowels in Italic and Celtic. The specific development of the vocalic liquids, which is posterior to the common shortening of pretonic long vowels, which is in turn posterior to the development of \bar{e} , \bar{a} , \bar{o} from short vowel plus laryngeal, supports the hypothesis of Italo-Celtic linguistic unity.

Illič-Svityč's conjecture about the presence of different intonations in the root must be reconsidered in this connection. It should be clear that his solution is no explanation: it merely shifts the problem. Even if the observed differences reflect an earlier pitch opposition, the latter must still be explained in terms of the root structure. Moreover, the quadripartition into stem-stressed and end-stressed nouns with rising and 'broken' intonation is not so straightforward as Illič-Svityč suggests. Not all of his comparisons are equally acceptable. In particular, his third type is a heterogeneous class and his

fourth type is a fallacy. The broken intonation of Latv. plâns is the regular reflex of an old acute in neuter nouns, cf. Lat. plānum, and the mobility in Lith. plónas is secondary, while Latv. plāns points to original barytonesis. The other items belonging to the same class are also objectionable. This reduces the problem to establishing the difference between the second and third type, i.e. to determining the conditions of Hirt's law and its Italo-Celtic analogue.

In his monograph on Baltic and Slavic accentuation (1963), Illič-Svityč abandons Kuryłowicz's idea that the place of the ictus in Baltic and Slavic is independent of the place of the ictus in Indo-European and proves that Balto-Slavic mobility is the reflex of IE oxytonesis, and that fixed stress in Baltic and Slavic continues IE root stress, with the exception of a few definable classes. One of these classes owes its existence to Hirt's law, which I adopted in this book in Illič-Svityč's formulation: the ictus was retracted if the vowel of the preceding syllable was immediately followed by a laryngeal. As a result of this retraction, we find fixed stress on the stem in Baltic and Slavic corresponding to final accentuation in Sanskrit and Greek. (Another exceptional class, where we find Slavic mobility corresponding to IE barytonesis, originated from what I have called Illič-Svityč's law, cf. section 3.4 above.)

If this formulation of Hirt's law is correct (as I think it is), we can identify the above 'rising intonation' as the presence of a vowel or syllabic resonant which is immediately followed by a laryngeal, and the 'broken intonation' as the absence of this situation. In the latter case there are at least four possibilities. Either there was no laryngeal and the long vowel goes back to lengthened grade, which is a possible solution for SCr. trâg, Ir. trog. Or the root contained vowel plus laryngeal but the accentual mobility was preserved, as in Lith. sūnùs, SCr. sîn (cf. Ebeling 1967:582). Or the laryngeal followed the second component of a diphthong, as in Latv. tiêvs, Gr. tanaós. Or the laryngeal preceded a vocalic resonant. The latter solution was put forward in section 1.3 above as an explanation of the final accentuation in Ru. pilá, lilá, žilá, bylá. I think that this suggestion is now corroborated by the Italo-Celtic evidence. It can also be advanced for SCr. žîr, Skt. jīráh, cf. Lat. vĭrēre.

Thus, I assume that the shortening of a pretonic 'long sonant' in Italic and Celtic points to the presence of a laryngeal preceding the syllabic resonant. This conjecture is supported by other IE evidence in a number of cases, cf. Latv. *lêju*, Hitt. *paḥḥur*, perhaps Gr. *phǔtón*,

bios. The case of Lat. $v\bar{i}r$ is slightly different. The retraction in Lith. $v\dot{y}ras$, Latv. $v\bar{i}rs$, as compared with Skt. $v\bar{i}r\dot{a}h$, points to $*viHr\dot{o}s$, which would yield a long vowel in Italo-Celtic. The expected quantity is indeed attested in Umbr. veir-. The short vowel in Latin must be explained by a merger with the cognate of Skt. $j\bar{i}r\dot{a}h$, where the Balto-Slavic evidence points to a root $*g^{u}Hi$ -, cf. Lat. $v\bar{i}r\bar{e}re$. The original length was preserved in $v\bar{i}s$.

As Dybo pointed out, the shortening of pretonic long vowels yielded a quantitative alternation in such cases as Welsh biw ($<*g^{\underline{u}}Hivos$, Gr. bios), byw ($<*g^{\underline{u}}Hivos$, Skt. jīváḥ), Lat. pūrus, pūtus, cārus, OIr. caraim. The alternation was analogically extended by shortening of the root vowel in certain morphological categories to stems which originally had a vocalic resonant followed by a laryngeal, e.g. in Lat. sūcūla, W. hwch, cf. Lat. sūs <*suH-. It is not necessary to assume the complicated mechanism which Illič-Svityč suggests in this connection (1962:71 f.). The agreement of Italic and Celtic at this stage is another argument in favour of the Italo-Celtic hypothesis. A final solution to the problem requires a detailed chronological analysis of the material, which remains a task for the future.

APPENDIX D

SHORTENING OF PRETONIC LONG VOWELS IN GERMANIC

In his article about the shortening of pretonic length discussed in the preceding appendix (1961a) Dybo points to the same phenomenon in the Germanic languages, where it took place under different conditions. He adduces a list of 16 items where a pretonic long vowel before an intervocalic resonant was shortened, e.g. Goth. wair, ON. verr, OHG. wer, Skt. vīráḥ. It follows from this example that the shortening was posterior to the loss of the laryngeals, cf. also Goth. qius, sunus, Skt. jīváḥ, sūnúḥ. Besides, Dybo adduces 17 items with a long vowel before an intervocalic resonant corresponding to barytona in other IE languages, e.g. ON. súrr, OHG. sūr, Latv. sũrs, SCr. sìr. In oxytona the long vowel was preserved before an obstruent, e.g. OHG. fluot, Gr. plōtós.

Dybo also draws attention to traces of barytonesis in the to-participle, e.g. OHG. kund. The same indication is found in the preterit kunda. Dybo's attempt to connect the accentuation of these forms with the Italo-Celtic and Balto-Slavic phenomena is not convincing (cf. Illič-Svityč 1962:68 f.). It would seem more appropriate to assume a generalization of barytonesis in the old perfect, cf. the recessive stress in Ru. mogú, móžeš'. Thus, I do not think that the Germanic evidence helps clarify the accentual opposition suggested for the to-participle by the material from other IE languages.

APPENDIX E

THE ORIGIN OF IE LENGTHENED GRADE

In 1894 Streitberg formulated the following rule: "Findet in einem Wort ein Morenverlust statt, so wird eine der Verluststelle unmittelbar vorausgehnde betonte kurze Silbe gedehnt, dagegen eine unmittelbar vorausgehnde betonte lange Silbe mit gestossnem Akzent geschleift" (1894:313). Two years later Wackernagel (who incidentally omitted the word "betonte" in his quotation of Streitberg's rule) pointed out that "Für die ig. Dehnstufe passt diese Erklärung nicht, da es in den wenigsten Fällen möglich ist, für die Dehnform eine um eine More reichere Grundform wahrscheinlich zu machen" (1896:68). Nevertheless Streitberg's theory became almost generally accepted in the following decades. Hirt simply disregards Wackernagel's objections (1921:37f. and 1931:65). Yet I think that Streitberg's rule is both theoretically weak and materially inadequate.

From the theoretical point of view it is weak because it offers no explanation but merely shifts the problem to determining the conditions under which the "Morenverlust" and the subsequent analogical levelling took place. These problems are far from trivial. Van Wijk carries the principle through ad absurdum when he suggests that Gr. ker, méthu go back to IE *kerede, *médheue (1907:340). This is mere speculation and does not further our understanding of the apophonic relationships in any respect.

Besides, Streitberg's theory is factually untenable, as Wackernagel demonstrated in his short discussion of the matter. Streitberg assumes that the lengthened grade in the active s-aorist goes back to the loss of a schwa in the next syllable. On the one hand, he does not explain why the alleged vowel was not lost elsewhere under the same conditions. On the other, he does not explain the absence of lengthened grade in the subjunctive and in the medial s-aorist, e.g. ástoși. The same objection can be made in the case of the other relevant categories.

At the same time, the essentially correct solution to the problem is put forward precisely by Wackernagel himself (1896:66ff.). He distinguishes three categories with seven subdivisions:

- (a) Derivative nouns. Wackernagel accepts Streitberg's suggestion (1894:380) that lengthened grade in this category stems from the vrddhi in monosyllabic word forms. The existence of $v\acute{a}k$ 'speech' next to $v\acute{a}cah$ 'word' led to the creation of a collective $a\acute{s}v\acute{a}m$ 'herd of horses' next to $a\acute{s}vah$ 'horse'.
- (b) Roots in monosyllabic nouns, before primary suffixes, in the singular of athematic presents, and in the active s-aorist, e.g. -hārd-, hārdi, mārṣṭi, ajaiṣam. The long vowel of these words goes back to phonetic lengthening in monosyllabic word forms, e.g. *hārd, *jaiṣ.
- (c) The final syllable of noun stems in the nom.sg. and loc.sg. forms, e.g. $s\acute{a}kh\bar{a}$, $agn\acute{a}$. In the nominative Wackernagel assumes lengthening of the vowel before r in IE *paters with subsequent spread to other resonant stems, and in the locative he posits an original ending *-e₁-i, *-e₂-u.

I agree with Wackernagel that the origin of the long vowel in the first and second category is the phonetic lengthening in monosyllabic word forms, but I do not think that the endings which he suggests for the third category are correct. I wonder if the matter was clear in his own mind, because in one and the same paragraph he mentions both "uralte Ersatzdehnung" and lengthening "gemäss der allgemeinen Neigung für Dehnung eines Vokals vor r-Konsonant" for this category. I think that the latter suggestion is correct and that we have to assume phonetic lengthening before word-final resonant. Even if we ignore the fact that there is no indication whatever for the assumption of a sigmatic nominative in the case of $pit\bar{a}$ and $s\bar{a}kh\bar{a}$, the hypothesis of compensatory lengthening does not explain the short vowel in participles like $ad\acute{a}n < *ed\acute{o}nts$.

Wackernagel's theory does not account for the alleged lengthened grade in such instances as Gr. $\tilde{o}l\acute{e}n\bar{e}$, SCr. $p\grave{a}m\bar{e}t$. These are the cases where I assume an alternation involving laryngeals.

While the first part of Streitberg's rule quoted in the first paragraph of this appendix refers to the origin of the lengthened grade, the second part is a statement of IE metatony. Since it is clear by now that evidence from all daughter languages (perhaps with the exception of Germanic) points to the preservation of the IE laryngeals up to a period posterior to the linguistic dissolution, the statement cannot be correct as it stands. Yet there is one kind of metatony in Balto-Slavic which may be very old indeed, viz. the one in Lith. $du\tilde{o}s$, SCr. $d\hat{a}$, cf. especially Latv. $s\tilde{a}ls$, $g\tilde{u}ovs$. These instances show that the laryngeal was lost after a long vowel in monosyllables. The assumption

of late metatony in Lith. duõs would leave the other forms unexplained. Moreover, it is difficult to account for the difference between Lith. lìs and rašỹs unless we assume that the latter form received its circumflex before the acute vowel in the former was shortened in accordance with Leskien's law. Thus, the metatony in duõs, which is required as a model for the one in rašỹs, cannot be identical with the one in tie, which is probably posterior to Leskien's law because it did not reach the Žemaitian dialects.

If this conjecture is correct, the loss of a laryngeal after a long vowel must be very old indeed. It follows from Lith. *dúosiu*, SCr. *dãh* that it preceded the generalization of the long vowel in the polysyllabic forms of the s-aorist. Since the latter development was shared by Sanskrit, I wonder if there are any traces of the former in this language.

The accentuation of Skt. $g\acute{a}v\bar{a}$, $g\acute{a}ve$, $g\acute{a}vi$ suggests that this noun belongs to the proterodynamic paradigm (cf. Kuiper 1942:32). The nominative $g\acute{a}uh$ is monosyllabic in the Veda, contrary to what one would expect on the basis of the reconstruction nom.sg. $*g^{u}\acute{o}Hus$. The simplest solution is to assume that the laryngeal was lost in the nominative after the introduction of lengthened grade, resulting in a form $*g^{u}\acute{o}us$ or $*g\acute{a}us$. If this is correct, Skt. $g\acute{a}uh$ is identical to Latv. $g\grave{u}ovs$. It cannot be decided whether Greek shared the loss of *H after a long vowel.

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GLOSSARY

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