14

Global Etymologies

John D. Bengtson and Merritt Ruhlen

If the strength of Indo-European studies is largely based on the existence, in a few instances at least, of very old sources, the strength of Amerindian studies is simply the vast number of languages. Thus synchronic breadth becomes the source of diachronic depth. —Joseph H. Greenberg (1987)

How does one know that two languages are related? Or that two language families are related? Every linguist purports to know the answers to these questions, but the answers vary surprisingly from one linguist to another. And the divergence of views concerning what *is* actually known is even greater than that exhibited on the question of how one *arrives at* this body of information. This is not a particularly satisfactory state of affairs. In what follows we will explore these questions in a global context. We conclude that, despite the generally antipathetic or agnostic stance of most linguists, the case for monogenesis of extant (and attested extinct) languages is quite strong. We will present evidence that we feel can only be explained genetically (i.e. as the result of common origin), but we will also attempt to answer some of the criticism that has been leveled at work such as ours for over a century.

THE BASIS OF LINGUISTIC TAXONOMY

That ordinary words form the basis of linguistic taxonomy is a direct consequence of the fundamental property of human language, the *arbitrary* relationship between sound and meaning. Since all sequences of sounds are equally well suited to represent any meaning, there is no tendency or predisposition for certain sounds or sound sequences to be associated with certain meanings (leaving aside onomatopoeia, which in any event is irrelevant for classification). In classifying languages genetically we seek, among the available lexical and grammatical formatives, similarities that involve *both* sound and meaning. Typological similarities, involving sound alone or meaning alone, do not yield reliable results.

The fundamental principles of taxonomy are not specific to linguistics, but are, rather, as applicable in fields as disparate as molecular biology, botany, ethnology, and astronomy. When one identifies similarities among molecular structures, plants, human societies, or stars, the origin of such similarities can be explained only by one of three mechanisms: (1) common origin, (2) borrowing, or (3) convergence. To demonstrate that two languages (or language families) are related, it is thus sufficient to show that their shared similarities are not the result of either borrowing or convergence. As regards convergence the manifestation of motivated or accidental resemblances—linguists are in a more favorable situation than are biologists. In biology, convergence may be accidental, but is more often motivated by the environment; it is not by accident that bats resemble birds, or that dolphins resemble fish. In linguistics, by contrast, where the sound/meaning association is arbitrary, convergence is *always* accidental.

It is seldom emphasized that similarities between language *families* are themselves susceptible to the same three explanations. That we so seldom see mention of this corollary principle is largely because twentieth-century historical linguistics has been laboring under the delusion that language families like Indo-European share *no* cognates with other families, thus offering nothing to compare. At this level, it is alleged, similarities simply do not exist.

What is striking is that this position—for which considerable evidence to the contrary existed already at the start of this century (Trombetti 1905) and which on a priori grounds seems most unlikely (Ruhlen 1988a)—came to be almost universally accepted by linguists, most of whom have never investigated the question themselves. Those few scholars who have actually investigated the question, such as Trombetti (1905), Swadesh (1960), and Greenberg

(1987), have tended to favor monogenesis of extant languages. Even Edward Sapir, often considered an exemplar of linguistic sobriety (despite his alleged excesses in the Americas), looked favorably upon the work of Trombetti, as seen in a letter to Kroeber in 1924: "There is much excellent material and good sense in Trombetti in spite of his being a frenzied monogenist. I am not so sure that his standpoint is less sound than the usual 'conservative' one" (quoted in Golla 1984: 420). We maintain that a comparison of the world's language families *without preconception* reveals numerous widespread elements that can only be reasonably explained as the result of common origin.

BORROWING

Linguists employ a number of well-known techniques to distinguish borrowed words from inherited items. Most important, clearly, is the fact that basic vocabulary, as defined by Dolgopolsky (1964) and others, is highly resistant to borrowing. Though it is no doubt true that any word may on occasion be borrowed by one language from another, it is equally true that such basic items as pronouns and body parts are rarely borrowed. Furthermore, borrowing takes place between two languages, at a particular time and place, not between language families, across broad expanses of time and place. Thus to attribute the global similarities we document here to borrowing would be ludicrous. And as regards the alleged cases of mass borrowing in the Americas (the so-called "Pan-Americanisms"), Greenberg (1990: 11) quite rightly protests "that basic words and pronouns could be borrowed from Tierra del Fuego to British Columbia . . . is so utterly improbable that it hardly needs discussion." It seems to us even less likely that basic vocabulary—the grist for most of the etymologies we offer herein—could have been borrowed from one language to another all the way from Africa across Eurasia to South America.

CONVERGENCE

A common criticism of work like ours is that, with around 5,000 languages to choose from, it cannot be too hard to find a word in some African language that is semantically and phonologically similar to, or even identical with, some word in an American Indian language.¹ There are so many possibilities, runs this argument, that one can hardly fail to find accidental "lookalikes" everywhere (Goddard 1979, Campbell 1988). But this sort of mindless search is exactly the reverse of how the comparative method proceeds. The units we are comparing are *language families*, not individual languages (a language isolate like Basque has traditionally been considered, taxonomically,

¹ For a more fundamental discussion of convergence, see Chapter 2.

a family consisting of a single language). Specifically, we will be comparing items in the following 32 taxa, each of which we believe is a genetically valid group at some level of the classification: Khoisan, Niger-Congo, Kordofanian, Nilo-Saharan, Afro-Asiatic, Kartvelian, Indo-European, Uralic, Dravidian, Turkic, Mongolian, Tungus, Korean, Japanese-Ryukyuan, Ainu, Gilyak, Chukchi-Kamchatkan, Eskimo-Aleut, Caucasian, Basque, Burushaski, Yeniseian, Sino-Tibetan, Na-Dene, Indo-Pacific, Australian, Nahali, Austroasiatic, Miao-Yao, Daic (= Kadai), Austronesian, and Amerind.

One may legitimately wonder why, for the most part, we are comparing relatively low-level families like Indo-European and Sino-Tibetan rather than higher-level taxa like Eurasiatic/Nostratic and Dene-Caucasian, especially since both of us support the validity of these higher-level families (Bengtson 1991a, b, Ruhlen 1990a). We do this to emphasize that higher-level groupings do not require the prior working out of all the intermediate nodes, contrary to the opinion of most Amerindian specialists (the field is all but bereft of generalists!). As is well known, both Indo-European and Austronesian were recognized as families from the early years of their investigation, long befor specialists had reconstructed all their intermediate levels (a task that is, of course, still incomplete). In taxonomy it is a commonplace that higherlevel groupings are often more obvious—and easier to demonstrate—than are lower-level nodes. We maintain that this is particularly so when one considers the entire world. Current contrary opinion notwithstanding, it is really fairly simple to show that all the world's language families are related, as we shall see in the etymologies that follow. Discovering the correct intermediate groupings of the tree—the subgrouping of the entire human family—is a much more difficult task, and one that has only begun. Exactly the same is true of Amerind, which itself is a well-defined taxon (Greenberg 1987, Ruhlen 1991a); the subgrouping within Amerind involves far more difficult analyses and taxonomic decisions (Ruhlen 1991c).

Each of our 32 genetic groups is defined by a set of etymologies that connects grammatical and lexical items presumed to be cognate within that group; the postulated membership and putative subgrouping within each of these groups is given in Ruhlen (1987a). The precise number of etymologies defining each of the 32 groups ranges from several thousand (for close-knit and/or well-documented groups like Dravidian or Indo-European) to several dozen (for ancient and/or poorly studied groups like Indo-Pacific or Australian). For the most part the many etymologies defining each group have been discovered independently, by different scholars. (In this regard Greenberg's work—in Africa, New Guinea, and the Americas—represents an exception to the rule.) So instead of drawing our etymologies from thousands of *languages*, each containing thousands of words, we are, rather, limited to less than three-dozen *families*, some of which have no more than a few hundred identifiable cognates. The pool of possibilities is thus greatly reduced, and accidental look-alikes will be few.

We believe that the failure of our critics to appreciate the truly minuscule probability of accidental similarities is the chief impediment to their understanding why all the world's languages must derive from a common origin. Accordingly, let us consider this question in some detail. Each of the etymologies we cite involves at least a half-dozen of the 32 supposedly independent families, precisely because the probability of finding the same accidental resemblance in six different families is close to zero. The multiplication of the (im)probabilities of accidental resemblance, as more and more families are considered, quickly assures the attentive taxonomist that similarities shared by numerous families, often separated by vast distances, cannot be due to chance. This crucial point has been emphasized by Collinder (1949), Greenberg (1957, 1963, 1987), and Dolgopolsky (1964), among others, but even Trombetti (1905) was well aware of the statistical importance of attestation in multiple families, rather than in just two. The biologist Richard Dawkins (1987: 274) makes the same point: "Convergent evolution is really a special kind of coincidence. The thing about coincidences is that, even if they happen once, they are far less likely to happen twice. And even less likely to happen three times. By taking more and more separate protein molecules, we can all but eliminate coincidence."

To see just how unlikely accidental look-alikes really are, let us consider two languages that each have just seven consonants and three vowels:

With a few notable exceptions the vast majority of the world's languages show at least these phonological distinctions. Yet even this minimal inventory is capable of producing 147 CVC roots, as shown in Table 5. The probability of accidental phonological *identity* is only 1/147, though the probability of accidental phonological *resemblance* might be 2/147, 3/147, etc., depending on how many other phonological shapes in Table 5 are deemed sufficiently similar. A perusal of Table 5 suggests, however, that most of these putative roots are quite distinct phonologically and are not readily connected by common phonological processes.

TABLE 5 Possible CVC Roots for a Language with Seven Consonants and Three Vowels

KAK	LAK	MAK	NAK	PAK	SAK	TAK	
KAL	LAL	MAL	NAL	PAL	SAL	TAL	
KAM	LAM	MAM	NAM	PAM	SAM	TAM	
KAN	LAN	MAN	NAN	PAN	SAN	TAN	
KAP	LAP	MAP	NAP	PAP	SAP	TAP	
KAS	LAS	MAS	NAS	PAS	SAS	TAS	
KAT	LAT	MAT	NAT	PAT	SAT	TAT	
KIK	LIK	MIK	NIK	PIK	SIK	TIK	
KIL	LIL	MIL	NIL	PIL	SIL	TIL	
KIM	LIM	MIM	NIM	PIM	SIM	TIM	
KIN	LIN	MIN	NIN	PIN	SIN	TIN	
KIP	LIP	MIP	NIP	PIP	SIP	TIP	
KIS	LIS	MIS	NIS	PIS	SIS	TIS	
KIT	LIT	MIT	NIT	PIT	SIT	TIT	
KUK	LUK	MUK	NUK	PUK	SUK	TUK	
KUL	LUL	MUL	NUL	PUL	SUL	TUL	
KUM	LUM	MUM	NUM	PUM	SUM	TUM	
KUN	LUN	MUN	NUN	PUN	SUN	TUN	
KUP	LUP	MUP	NUP	PUP	SUP	TUP	
KUS	LUS	MUS	NUS	PUS	SUS	TUS	
KUT	LUT	MUT	NUT	PUT	SUT	TUT	

Now were we to compare two languages with a more typical phonemic inventory, say, fourteen consonants and five vowels,

р	\mathbf{t}	k	j	W	i	u
b	d	g			e	0
	č					a
	\mathbf{S}					
m	n					
	1					
	r					

we would find that the number of possible CVC roots in each language jumps to 980. Again, of course, the probability of chance resemblance will depend on certain phonological assumptions, but precious few accidental identities *or* resemblances, vis-à-vis the stock of some other language or group of languages, could be expected.

One may appreciate just how unlikely an explanation of chance resemblance —independent development in each family—really is by considering the prob-

ability that the resemblances noted in etymology 21 (below) arose by convergence. We have chosen this etymology for our argument because the meaning involved is rarely borrowed and has no onomatopoeic connections. It thus offers a clear case, where the similarities must be due either to common origin or to accidental convergence. Let us try to calculate the probability that these similarities arose independently. To do this we must make certain assumptions, and at each such stage we shall adopt a minimalist approach that in fact underestimates the true probability. Let us assume, as we did above, that each language family uses only seven consonants and three vowels, yielding the 147 syllable types shown in Table 5. What, then, is the probability that two languages will accidentally match for a particular semantic/phonological domain, in the present case 'female genitalia'? Clearly it is 1/147 or .007. Whatever the form that appears in the first language family, the second family has only one chance in 147 of matching it. And the probability that a third family will offer a match will be $(1/147)^2$ or .000049; that of a fourth family, $(1/147)^3$ or .0000003; and so forth. In the etymology we give, 14 of the 32 taxa show apparent cognates, though the evidence is for the moment slim in Australian and the vowel in Austronesian (and many Amerind forms) is e rather than the expected u. But if we ignore these details, then the probability that the particular sound/meaning correlation "PUT/female genitals" arose independently *fourteen times* will be $(1/147)^{13}$, or about one chance in ten octillion, by our rough calculations. We feel that this qualifies as a long shot; certainly descent from a common source is the more likely explanation.

The foregoing constitutes what we consider to be the basis of genetic classification in linguistics. The application of these basic principles to the world's language families leads inevitably, in our opinion, to the conclusion that they all derive from a single source, as suggested by the 27 etymologies presented below. We have not yet dealt, however, with a number of other topics that in the minds of many linguists are inextricably tied up with taxonomy, questions like reconstruction, sound correspondences, and the like. We believe that these topics are not in fact of crucial importance in linguistic taxonomy, and that mixing the basic taxonomic principles with these other factors has led to much of the current confusion that we see concerning the classification of the world's languages. So that these ancilary topics not be invoked yet again, by those opposed to global comparisons, we will take them up one by one and explain why they are not relevant to our enterprise. Let us begin with a topic that is at the heart of many current disputes, the alleged incompatibility between Greenberg's method of multilateral comparison and the traditional methods of comparative linguistics.

MULTILATERAL COMPARISON VS. THE TRADITIONAL METHOD

Many linguists feel that Greenberg's use of what he calls multilateral comparison to classify languages in various parts of the world is incompatible with—or even antagonistic to—the methods of traditional historical linguistics, which emphasize reconstruction and sound correspondences (about which, see below). Thus, Bynon (1977: 271) claims that "the use of basic vocabulary comparison not simply as a *preliminary* to reconstruction but as a *substitute* for it is more controversial. . . . Traditional historical linguists . . . have not been slow in pointing out the inaccuracies which are bound to result from a reliance on mere similarity of form assessed intuitively and unsubstantiated by reconstruction." In a similar vein, Anna Morpurgo Davies (1989: 167) objects that "we do not yet know whether superfamilies outlined in this way have the same properties as families established with the standard comparative method. If they do not, there is a serious risk that the whole concept of superfamily is vacuous." And Derbyshire and Pullum (1991: 13) find Greenberg's Amerind hypothesis "startling, to say the least, when judged in terms of the standard methodology"

The confusion displayed in the previous three quotes (and one could give many others) results from a failure to realize that the comparative method consists essentially of two stages. The first stage is *classification*, which is really no different from what Greenberg calls multilateral comparison. The second stage, which might be called *historical linguistics*, involves family-internal questions such as sound correspondences and reconstruction. In practice, there is no name for this second stage simply because the two stages are seldom distinguished in the basic handbooks on historical linguistics, in which, almost without exception, the initial stage, classification, is overlooked (Bynon 1977, Hock 1986, Anttila 1989). Also overlooked in these basic texts are language families other than Indo-European. The origin of this anomaly—which knows no parallel in the biological world—is a consequence of the primogeniture of Indo-European in the pantheon of identified families, and the subsequent elaboration of the family by Europeans in the nineteenth century.

That the initial stage of comparative linguistics, classification, is so systematically overlooked today lies in the origin of the Indo-European concept itself. When Sir William Jones announced in 1786 that Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin and probably Gothic and Celtic as well—had all "sprung from some common source," he essentially resolved the first stage of comparative linguistics at the outset: he identified five branches of Indo-European and hypothesized that all five were altered later forms of a single language that no longer existed. What was left unstated in Jones's historic formulation was the fact that languages such as Arabic, Hebrew, and Turkish—languages that Jones knew well—were excluded from his Indo-European family.² For Indo-European, and for the Indo-Europeanists who came to dominate historical linguistics, the problem of classification was essentially resolved by Jones, and the later additions of a few more obvious branches, such as Tocharian and Anatolian, did not alter this state of affairs.

The problems that Greenberg confronted, however, when he set out to classify the languages of Africa, were quite different from those facing a historical linguist investigating an already-defined family. Greenberg was confronted by over 1,000 languages, only some of which fit into well-defined families (e.g. Semitic, Bantu), and among which there was little understanding of the relationships. Under these circumstances, where does one start? Obviously the only way to begin is by the comparison of basic lexical items and grammatical formatives in *all* the languages, which inevitably leads to a classification of the languages into a certain number of groups defined by recurring similarities. This is exactly what Jones had done when he identified Indo-European, stressing, as he did, "a stronger affinity, both in the roots of verbs and in the forms of grammar, than could possibly have been produced by accident." He said nothing of sound correspondences or reconstruction, for in fact these concepts came to prominence (despite the earlier work of Rask, Grimm, and Bopp) only in the second half of the nineteenth century.

We believe, in short, that there is really no conflict between Greenberg's method of classifying languages and what is often referred to rather inexplicitly as "the standard methodology." The standard methodology is used to investigate family-internal problems; it does not—at least as it is explained in the basic textbooks referred to above—tell one how to identify language families. Accordingly, it does not tell one how to classify the world's languages. This, rather, is what Greenberg's work does, and it is, furthermore, how Greenberg views what he does. It has recently been alleged that he himself subscribes to the view that his methods differ from the standard methodology: "Greenberg (1987) makes clear that he believes such groupings [as Altaic, Hokan, and Amerind] cannot be reached by the standard comparative method; a wholly different method, MASS COMPARISON, is required" (Nichols 1990: 477). That this is, in fact, exactly the opposite of Greenberg's views is shown in the following:

Statements from certain American Indianists that I have rejected comparative linguistics and have invented a new unorthodox method called mass or multilateral comparison are repeated again and again in the press. However, as I clearly stated in Greenberg (1987: 3), once we have a well-established stock I go about comparing and reconstructing just like anyone else, as can be seen in my various contributions to historical linguistics. However, as I pointed out long ago in regard to my generally accepted African classification, the first step has to be to look very broadly,

 $^{^{2}}$ The term Indo-European was not introduced until the nineteenth century.

on at least a continent-wide scale, to see what the obvious groupings are. How can one start to apply the comparative method until one knows what to compare? (Greenberg 1990: 8)

RECONSTRUCTION

It is remarkable how frequently reconstruction is confounded with taxonomy. For a moment's reflection should make it clear that one can only begin reconstructing a proto-language *after* one has decided which languages belong to the putative family. Until one has delineated a set of seemingly related languages, collectively distinct from all others, by the methods outlined at the outset of this chapter, there is simply nothing to reconstruct. (After the fact, of course, reconstruction and (re)classification may enjoy a fruitful feedback.) And as for the supposed validating effect of reconstruction, would anybody claim that a bad reconstruction invalidates a well-defined family such as Indo-European? Or that a brilliant reconstruction could show that Slavic, Ob-Ugric, and Basque form a valid family? As a process, reconstruction is entirely different from taxonomy, and the two should not be confused. It is for this reason that Bynon's claim that Greenberg uses multilateral comparison as a "substitute" for reconstruction really makes no sense, and it is certainly not anything that Greenberg has ever written or said or even suggested.

SOUND CORRESPONDENCES

Perhaps the greatest source of confusion in recent taxonomic debates has been the role that sound correspondences, for example Grimm's Law, play in classification. It is clear that many historical linguists see regular sound correspondences as playing some crucial role in identifying valid linguistic taxa. In reality, sound correspondences are discovered only *after* a linguistic family has been identified, for the simple reason that sound correspondences are properties of particular linguistic families. They are not—and could not be—a technique for discovering families. When the Indo-European sound correspondences were worked out in the nineteenth century, not for a minute did any of the Indo-Europeanists imagine that they were "proving" Indo-European, the validity of which had not been in doubt for decades.

There are several reasons why sound correspondences have become enmeshed with taxonomic questions. First, it is sometimes alleged that it is only by means of regular sound correspondences that borrowings can be discriminated from true cognates. It has long been recognized, however, that loanwords often obey regular sound correspondences as strictly as do true cognates, a point emphasized on several occasions by Greenberg (1957, 1987). Campbell (1986: 224) makes the same point: "It ought to be noted that such

agreements among sounds frequently recur in a number of borrowed forms, mimicking recurrent sound correspondences of true cognates."

Another alleged use of sound correspondences is to discriminate superficial look-alikes from true cognates (see the quote by Bynon above), and cognates, it is claimed, do not look alike and can only be recognized by means of sound correspondences. Thus, the commonly accepted Indo-European sound correspondences show that Armenian *erku* '2' and Latin *duo* '2' are cognate, despite their different form, whereas English bad and Farsi *bad* are not cognate, despite their identity of form. Campbell has aptly criticized such views:

Identical or very similar sound matchings do not necessarily imply loans or weak evidence of genetic connection. . . . With a time depth approaching that of the Indo-European languages of Europe, the Mayan correspondences are on the whole identical or are the result of single natural and recurrent changes. Proto-Mayan *p, *m, *n, and *y are reflected unchanged, with identical correspondences, in all of the over thirty Mayan languages. All other correspondences are very similar. Even English, after its many changes, reflects Proto-Indo-European *r, *l, *m, *n, *s, *w, and *y unchanged, on the whole.

A quick survey of once-disputed but now established remote genetic relationships reveals that identical (or very similar) sound correspondences are not that unusual \ldots .

Therefore, identical correspondences should not be shunned nor too speedily attributed to borrowing. While longer separation may provide greater opportunity for unusual and exotic correspondences to develop in cases of distant genetic relationship, it is in no way necessary for such developments to have taken place nor for correspondences to be non-identical" (1986: 221–23).

Indeed, when one looks at the reconstructions that have been proposed for almost any family, one is able to find modern languages that preserve the proposed ancestral forms virtually unchanged. To cite just a few examples, Proto-Indo-European $n\bar{e}pot$ - 'nephew, son-in-law' is strikingly similar to modern Rumanian nepot, and Proto-Indo-European $m\bar{u}s$ 'mouse' was preserved without change in Latin, Old English, and Sanskrit. Proto-Austronesian *sepat '2' is almost identical with Rukai sepate, and Proto-Autronesian *mat^sa 'eye' is identical with Rukai mat^sa. Proto-Uralic *tule 'fire' is preserved in Finnish tule-, and Proto-Uralic *mośka 'to wash' differs little from Estonian mõske-. At an even greater time depth, we find that Proto-Nostratic *nato 'female relation by marriage' has survived, in Uralic, as Finnish nato 'husband's or wife's sister' and, in Dravidian, as Malavalam $n\bar{a}tt\bar{u}n$ 'husband's sister, brother's wife,' while Proto-Nostratic $p^{h}alV$ 'tooth' survives in Dravidian as Telugu palu and in Altaic as Ulch palu. At a time depth perhaps even greater than that of Nostratic, we find Proto-Australian *bunku 'knee' preserved in Dyirbal buŋku.

In the etymologies we present below, connecting all of the world's language families, the situation is not all that different from that within the families

just discussed. There are, in fact, many examples of sound correspondences of the transparent variety discussed by Campbell. This initial stage of the analysis is necessarily characterized by the identification of easily recognizable similarities, just as was the discovery of Indo-European or any other family. The refinement represented by exotic sound correspondences of the erku-duo variety inevitably awaits a later stage in the analysis—the second stage, which we have called "historical linguistics." And it is important to recognize that the work of this stage leads almost invariably to a refinement of the etymologies, rather than a refinement of the classification.

Among the world's language families, there are no doubt exotic sound correspondences as well that we have not detected. It should be noted, nevertheless, that as early as 1986 one of us (Bengtson) proposed some global sound correspondences, and the Russian scholar Sergei Starostin (1991) has recently published the most explicit statement of interphyletic sound correspondences to date. His brief table of Nostratic–Dene-Caucasian correspondences, though not quite global in scope, accounts for a vast expanse of the linguistic world. Nostratic, for Starostin, includes ten of our 32 taxa (Kartvelian, Indo-European, Uralic, Dravidian, Turkic, Mongolian, Tungus, Korean, Japanese-Ryukyuan, and Eskimo-Aleut), and Dene-Caucasian, for Starostin, includes Caucasian, Sino-Tibetan, Yeniseian, and Na-Dene—to which one may confidently add both Basque and Burushaski (Bengtson 1991a,b). Thus, Starostin's equations account for roughly half of our 32 taxa, as well as the vast majority of the Eurasian land mass. We find nothing in Starostin's correspondences that is inconsistent with the etymologies proposed below.

ON THE LIMITS OF THE COMPARATIVE METHOD

It has recently been widely asserted that the comparative method in linguistics produces reliable results only for the past 5,000–10,000 years. According to Kaufman (1990: 23), "A temporal ceiling of 7,000 to 8,000 years is inherent in the methods of comparative linguistic reconstruction. We can recover genetic relationships that are that old, but probably no earlier than that. The methods possibly will be expanded, but for the moment we have to operate within that limit in drawing inferences." Similar statements from a host of other scholars are given in Chapter 11, where such beliefs are identified as the central myth of historical linguistics (Chapter 13 further analyzes such myths). The origin of this myth, we believe, is an attempt by Indo-Europeanists to "explain" why Indo-European has no known genetic connections—in our view yet another myth. The fact that Indo-European is intimately connected with numerous other families has been demonstrated beyond a reasonable doubt by the Russian Nostraticists (Illich-Svitych 1971–84), a demonstration that is complemented and extended by Greenberg (to appear).

We have shown that in numerous cases sounds (particularly stable ones like nasal consonants and liquids)—and even entire words—have persisted over time spans greater than 8,000 years virtually unchanged. This raises the question why these evidently quite stable sounds must suddenly change beyond recognition, or disappear entirely, beyond the supposedly insuperable threshold of 10,000 years. If we can use modern languages to reconstruct proto-languages that existed at least 6,000-8,000 years ago (e.g. Proto-Indo-European, Proto-Uralic, Proto-Dravidian, Proto-Austronesian), why cannot such earlier languages themselves be compared (as in fact we will do) in order to discern still earlier groupings? Would it not be one of the more remarkable coincidences in the history of science if Indo-European, the family in terms of which comparative linguistics was discovered, turned out to define the temporal limit of comparative linguistics as well? That there is no such coincidence is amply demonstrated in the etymologies we give below. We feel it is time for linguists to stop selling the comparative method short and to apply it consistently to the world's linguistic taxa, without preconception. The present chapter represents a step in this direction, an initial step that shows that all of the world's populations are linguistically connected. The culmination of these efforts will be a comprehensive subgrouping of this single linguistic family.

BAD SEMANTICS

Another criticism of global etymologies in particular, and of long-range comparison in general, is that such liberties are taken with semantic change that literally anything can be connected with anything else, and it is certainly true that many global etymologies proposed over the years have been semantically unconvincing. But for just that reason we have constrained the semantic variation of each etymology very tightly, and few of the semantic connections we propose would raise an eyebrow if encountered in any of the standard etymological dictionaries. They are in fact semantically more conservative than many proposed connections in Pokorny (1959), the standard Indo-European etymological dictionary. Whatever damage this often alleged defect may have done to earlier programs of long-range comparison, we believe that it does not affect the etymologies presented below.

ERRORS IN THE DATA

Another often-cited criticism of long-range comparison is the presence of errors in the data, errors that invalidate the overall hypothesis. This is a specious argument, for it ignores both common sense and the standard measures of statistical significance. Genetic classification is not analogous to a mathematical proof, wherein one false step undermines the complete demon-

stration. Rather, the cumulative weight of all the evidence completely swamps the effects of whatever random errors may be scattered through the work. As Greenberg has often stressed—and has in fact shown in his work—multilateral comparison yields valid genetic classifications even from decidedly degenerate data. An example was Greenberg's classification of Australian languages in 1953, using little more than the vocabularies published by E. M. Curr in 1886–87. The notion that data must be pristine and copious flies in the face of commonly accepted historical method. It is all well and good for Kaufman (1990: 18) to demand at least 500 items of basic vocabulary and 100 points of grammar before "serious comparative work" can be carried out, but the fact remains that Indo-Europeanists have classified Lydian as Indo-European, without dissent, on the basis of a handful of words, as noted by Greenberg (1990: 10). Similarly, David Payne (1991: 362) reports that "all that remains of the [Shebayo] language is a vocabulary list of fifteen words collected at the end of the 17th century. . . . Despite the paucity of data from this language, it is quite clear that it is Arawakan." Historians and historical linguists-not to mention paleontologists working from handfuls of bashed fossils-use whatever material is available; they do not demand that the evidence be complete or immaculate.

DISTRIBUTIONAL DIFFERENCES

It is often alleged that one can find anything in linguistic data if one looks for it hard enough. Thus the global etymologies we present below are a tribute more to our industry and enterprise than to real genetic connections. Such a view is widespread among linguists who have never actually compared large numbers of languages (or language families), but those of us who have done this kind of work know the reverse to be true. "Wanting" to find something is of very little help if it is not there. Greenberg (1987) points out that the Amerind family has two general words for females, TUNA 'girl' and KUNA 'woman.' Both roots are abundantly attested throughout North and South America, and both are found in all eleven branches of the Amerind family. What is interesting about their distribution, however, is that whereas KUNA is widely attested in the Old World, as we show in etymology 11 below, we have found no trace of TUNA in the Old World. If it were really so easy to find anything one looks for, why did we fail to find TUNA in the roughly 4,500 Old World languages, when it is so readily observed in the approximately 500 New World languages? The evolutionary analysis provides a simple and natural explanation: when the Amerind forebears first entered the New World they brought with them the word KUNA 'woman,' and only later did they invent the word TUNA 'girl.' That there is no trace of TUNA 'girl' in the Old World is because it never existed there.

GLOBAL ETYMOLOGIES

For each etymology, in what follows, we present a phonetic and semantic gloss,³ followed by examples from different language families. Though we have not attempted to present a unified phonetic transcription for all sources, we have adjusted certain transcriptions from time to time to avoid potential ambiguity. In the first etymology (but not elsewhere) yod has been normalized to j in all citations. Ejectives have been normalized to p', t', k', etc.; V represents a vowel of indeterminate timbre; \check{i} is used for the Old Church Slavic soft sign and \check{u} for the hard sign; and ~ separates alternative forms. In the two interrogative etymologies (10, 17), interrogative and relative uses are not distinguished ('who?' as in "Who is that man?" vs. 'who' in "The man who came to dinner."). The intimate connection between the two is well known and uncontroversial. Most of the cited forms are, however, true interrogatives.

The source of the information for each family represented in a given entry is indicated by an abbreviation in brackets at the end of the entry. The number following the abbreviation is either the etymology number in the original source (if there is one) or the page number there. Since the existence of these roots as characteristic features of the language families cited has already been established by other scholars, and is not for the most part in question, we do not give the complete documentation for each family, limiting ourselves in most instances to an indication of the range of semantic and phonological variation within the family. The reader who wishes to see every relevant form for a given family should consult the sources cited. For Amerind, however, we give extensive citations, in order to counterbalance the fallacious criticism that has been directed at Greenberg's work. Parts of etymologies that are problematic, by dint of either phonetic or semantic divergence, or by restricted distribution, are preceded by a question mark. The lack of a semantic gloss following a form means that that form has the same meaning as the preceding form.

We make no claim to being the first to discover any of the etymologies listed below. The pioneering work of Trombetti, Swadesh, Greenberg, Illich-Svitych, Dolgopolsky, and Starostin has identified numerous widespread roots. What we *have* tried to do is to make each etymology more complete and more soundly documented in this incarnation than it may have been in previous ones. With this goal in mind we have weeded out certain families from pre-

 $^{^{3}}$ We do not deal here with reconstruction, and these glosses are intended merely to characterize the most general meaning and phonological shape of each root. Future work on reconstruction will no doubt discover cases where the most widespread meaning or shape was not original.

vious proposals, where the root was phonologically or semantically too divergent, or too weakly attested, to be convincing. But we believe we have also uncovered some additional etymological connections that had previously gone unnoticed. To a very great extent the recognition of these similarities has been made possible by the lower-level classificatory work of Greenberg in Africa, the New Guinea area, and the Americas, and by that of Russian scholars on Kartvelian, Caucasian, and other families of the former Soviet Union. Before all this work appeared, in recent decades, it was difficult, if not impossible, for a taxonomist to be sure that a root was truly diagnostic of some family, simply because there was no understanding of what the valid genetic families were, much less what cognates defined them. Trombetti, for example, dealt in terms of languages only where he was forced to by a lack of any general overall classification. Wherever possible, he worked with established language families (e.g. Indo-European, Uralic, Bantu), since he was well aware of the unavoidable methodological quandary presented by poorly documented families.

We harbor no illusions, of course, that every etymological connection we propose will be found, ultimately, to be correct, but we do believe that the removal of such errors as may exist in these etymologies will not seriously affect the basic hypothesis, which does not depend on any specific link for its validity. Furthermore, the number of widespread etymologies can be vastly increased over the fragment we present here. In the long run we expect the evidence for monogenesis of extant languages to become so compelling that the question will be not whether all the world's languages are related, but why it took the linguistic community so long to recognize this obvious fact.

1 AJA 'mother, older female relative'

- KHOISAN: \neq Au.//eî ai 'female, mother,' !Kung ?ai 'mother'; Naron ai, Hadza aija ~ aijako 'mother, grandmother, aunt'; /'Auni aija 'mother.' [BD 6]
- NIGER-CONGO: Temne -ja 'mother,' Bulom ja, Yoruba ija; Bantu: Proto-Bantu $*jija \sim *jijo$. [BA IV: 190]
- NILO-SAHARAN: Saharan: Daza aja 'mother,' Kanembu jia ~ ja, Kanuri ja; Fur ija; Maban: Runga ja; Koman: Gumuz ijo; Central Sudanic: Mangbetu aja, Madi ia, Lombi jaija; East Sudanic: Gulfan aja, Midob ija, Suk iju, Nyangiya joijao 'thy mother.' [NS 95, CN 67, ES 77, NSD 43]
- AFRO-ASIATIC: Omotic: Wolamo $aj\bar{e}$ 'mother'; Cushitic: Oromo ajo, Somali hoojo; Chadic: Kotoko $\bar{i}ja \sim ija \sim ja$, Mubi ija. [WM 64]
- DRAVIDIAN: Tamil $\bar{a}j \sim \tilde{a}ji \sim jaj$ 'mother,' $\bar{a}j\bar{a}l$ 'mother, grandmother,' Kannada $\bar{a}ji$ 'mother,' Kolami aj, Parji ajal 'woman, wife,' ija 'mother,' Gadba aja 'mother,' ajal 'woman, wife,' Gondi ajal 'mother,' Konda aja, Pengo

 $aja \sim ija,$ Mandaaja,Ku
i $aia \sim aja \sim ija,$ Kuwi $\overline{\imath}ja$ 'mother,
'aja 'woman,'

Kurux $aja\eta g \sim ajo$ 'mother,' Malto $a\bar{j}a$ 'my mother.' [D 364, NSD 43]

BURUSHASKI -*Ai* 'daughter, girl.' [B 455]

?INDO-PACIFIC: Isabi aijo 'mother,' Korafe aja. [FS 99]

NAHALI aji 'husband's younger sister.' [NA 59]

AUSTROASIATIC: Munda: Sora *ajaŋ-tsər* 'bitch' (= female-dog, cf. *kin-tsər* 'male dog'); Mon-Khmer: Proto-Mon-Khmer **ja?* 'grandmother.' [PB 482, SB 34]

MIAO-YAO: Proto-Yao *ja 'father's sister.' [PB 339]

- DAIC: Tai: Proto-Tai *ja 'father's mother'; Sek ja; Kam-Sui: Proto-Kam-Sui *ja 'grandmother,' Sui ja 'grandmother, old woman'; Li: Proto-Li *ja 'mother, grandmother,' Small Cloth Loi ja 'mother'; Lakkia jə 'grandmother.' [PB 339]
- AUSTRONESIAN: Proto-Austronesian *'ajah 'father,' Atayal jaja? 'mother,' Pazeh jah 'older sister,' Malay 'ajah 'father,' Javanese (j)ajah 'father.' [AN 13, WW 74, PB 339]
- AMERIND: Penutian: North Sahaptin ájaD 'woman,' Nez Perce ?ajat, Tzotzil jaja 'grandmother'; Hokan: Washo -ja 'paternal aunt,' Quinigua ?jaak, Tonkawa ?ejan 'woman's sister'; Central Amerind: Tewa jia 'mother,' Proto-Oto-Manguean *ja 'female,' Proto-Uto-Aztecan *je 'mother,' Tarahumara ije, Yaqui ?aije, Nahua -je?; Chibchan-Paezan: Xinca aja 'woman,' Matagalpa joaja, Cuna jaa-kwa 'young woman,' Colorado aja 'mother'; Andean: Ona joj 'grandmother,' Auca -jæjæ; Macro-Tucanoan: Amaguaje ajo 'old woman,' Masaka jaja 'older sister,' Ticuna jake 'old woman'; Equatorial: Mapidiana aja 'aunt,' Tora ije 'paternal grandmother,' Arikem haja 'aunt'; Macro-Panoan: Mayoruna jaja, Shipibo jaja 'paternal aunt,' Moseten eje 'grandmother,' jaja 'mother-in-law'; Macro-Carib: Accawai aja 'mother'; Macro-Ge: Coropo ajan, Coroado ajan, Palmas jã. [CA 55, AMN]

2 BU(N)KA 'knee, to bend'

NIGER-CONGO: Baga -buŋ 'knee,' Pajade -paŋ, ?Lefana -ŋko; Bantu: Proto-Bantu *bóŋgó, Swahili bong'oa 'to stoop, bend down.' [BA III: 57]

KORDOFANIAN: Tegele mbo 'knee' (pl. aboan ~ $abua\eta$). [VB]

- AFRO-ASIATIC: Omotic: Dime boq 'knee,' Bako boγa, Basketo buka, Oyde bunke; Chadic: Fyer fuŋ 'knee,' Bura bunji 'knee.' [VB]
- INDO-EUROPEAN: Proto-Indo-European *bheug(h) 'to bend'; Indic: Sanskrit bhugná 'bent'; Germanic: Gothic biugan 'to bend,' Old Icelandic bogenn 'bent,' English bow, elbow; Celtic: Proto-Celtic *buggo 'flexible, malleable,' Irish bog 'soft'; Albanian butë (< bhug(h)-to) 'soft'; Baltic: Latvian baũgurs 'hill, rising ground.' [IE 152, N 25]

- TURKIC: Proto-Turkic $*b\ddot{u}k(\ddot{a}) \sim *b\ddot{o}k(\ddot{a})$ 'to bend,' Chuvash pĕk ~ pök 'to bend,' Yakut bük, Khakas bükri 'bent,' Old Uighur bük ~ bök 'to twist,' Uighur bük ~ bök 'to kneel.' [N 25]
- MONGOLIAN: Proto-Mongolian *böke 'to bend,' Written Mongolian bökeji ~ $b\ddot{o}k\ddot{o}ji$ 'to cave in, sag' böken 'hump of a camel,' bökötür 'bent,' Khalkha $b\dot{o}x(\dot{o}n)$ 'hump of a camel,' Kalmyk bökn 'hump, humped.' [N 25]
- TUNGUS: Proto-Tungus *bök(ä) 'to bend,' Manchu buk(-da), Nanai bukun 'hump,' Evenki bukä 'to bow,' buku 'bent, crooked,' bäkä 'hump.' [N 25]
- AINU he-poki-ki 'bow down,' he-poki-poki 'to nod the head.'
- INDO-PACIFIC: Halmahera: Tobelo buku 'knee,' Modole bubuqu, Loda wuwuku; Bougainville: Koianu poku; South New Guinea: Teri Kawalsch bugu; Northeast New Guinea: Saker bakbakan. [IP 43]
- AUSTRALIAN: Proto-Australian *puŋku 'knee,' Tyeraity böŋgöl, Maranunggu biŋgar, Guugu Yimidhir buŋgu, Kok-Nar poŋk ~ púŋkuwál, Gugu-Badhun buŋguyal, Kukatj poŋkipal, Dyirbal buŋgu 'knee, bend in the river, wave,' Yidiny buŋgu 'knee, hump in a snake's body.' [NP 232, RD 110, 123, 223]
- AMERIND: Proto-Algonquian: *wāk- 'bend,' Blackfoot woxos 'shin' (from an earlier meaning of 'knee,' as seen in Maidu pok'ósi), Bella Bella wak-'bent,' Crow išbaxe 'elbow,' Hidatsa išpahi 'elbow,' Caddo buko 'knee'; Penutian: Tfalatik $p \Rightarrow sq$ 'bow' (with metathesis, from earlier $*p \Rightarrow qVs$), Kalapuya oposqu 'bow' (with metathesis), Maidu pok'ósi 'knee,' Nisenan p'akkasi 'elbow,' Zuni po?ku 'to fold,' Texistepec boka 'elbow,' Pokonchi bak 'crooked,' Sierra Popoluca pikši 'bow,' Mixe kupokš 'elbow'; Hokan: Shasta ?ičipka 'knee,' Achomawi lupu?isi 'bow,' Chumash sibuk \sim šipuk 'elbow,' Walapai mipuk 'knee,' phú? 'bow'; Central Amerind: Varohia čopokori 'knee'; Chibchan-Paezan: Guamaca buka 'knee, elbow,' Rama buk 'twist,' Atanque buküh-köna 'knee,' Warrao oboka 'elbow,' Colorado te-bunga 'elbow,' Cayapa ne-bumbuka 'knee,' Chimu č'epuk; Andean: Jebero pöktenja 'bow,' Ona epekten 'elbow,' Alakaluf kolpakar 'knee'; Macro-Tucanoan: Iranshe poku 'bow (n.),' Proto-Nambikwara *pako 'crooked,' *pok 'bow (n.)': Equatorial: Paumari amabokoi 'elbow,' Guarañoca pokà 'bow,' Cuiva tabóko 'knee,' Palicur ubowγi, Karif bugunuge 'elbow'; Macro-Carib: Miranha thüboqua 'bow,' Apiaca topkat; Macro-Panoan: Mayoruna mupukušau 'elbow,' Panobo wa?puško 'elbow' (with metathesis), Sapiboca embako 'elbow,' Tiatinagua waku; Macro-Ge: Mohačobm pokai 'bow,' Umotina boika, Bororo boiga, Opaie či-pege-ri 'elbow.' [AM 157, MT 16, AMN]

3 BUR 'ashes, dust'

- NILO-SAHARAN: Songhai: Gao bonni 'ashes,' Djerma boron; Berta bub(u)?da;
 Central Sudanic: Bongo buru-ku, Keliko oforago; East Sudanic: Kenzi,
 Birgid u-burti, Murle būr, Mursi borr, Balé bor, Shilluk, Bor bur, Lango buru, Alur burru. [NS 9, CN 7, ES 5, NSD 6, NSB]
- AFRO-ASIATIC: Proto-Afro-Asiatic *b(w)rH 'loose soil, sand, dust'; Semitic: Proto-Semitic *br 'dust,' Arabic baraj 'dust, soil,' Mehri berōr 'sandy seashore,' Classical Hebrew bar 'field, open space,' Proto-Semitic *bwr '(fallow) ground,' Arabic bawr 'fallow ground,' Syriac būrō, Akkadian bāru 'open space'; ?Berber: Shilha tamurt 'soil'; Cushitic: Beja būr 'soil,' Bilin birā 'soil,' Saho baro, Afar balō, Somali bɛrri; Chadic: Proto-Chadic *'bwr 'sand,' Angas 'bur 'sand, dust,' Logone bū́rá, Gider burduku 'soil.' [CS 398, N 22]
- KARTVELIAN: Svan $bur\gamma w$ 'to raise dust,' $bir\gamma w$ (< $*bur\gamma w-i$) 'dust, ashes,' ?Middle Georgian bre. [N 22]
- URALIC: Proto-Uralic (Illich-Svitych) *porV 'dust, sand, dirt'; Samoyed: Kamassian püre 'sand'; Ugric: Ostyak per 'ashes'; Finnic: Finnish poro 'hot ashes, course dust,' Estonian pori 'mud,' Mansi pors 'sweepings.' [U 68, N 22]
- DRAVIDIAN: Proto-Dravidian * $p\bar{u}rW \sim *porW$ 'loose soil, sand, dust,' Malto porsi 'sweepings,' Naikri burdi 'ash,' Telugu b $\bar{u}dida$ 'ashes,' Tulu poyyè 'sand,' Malayalam pur $\hat{u}ti$ 'dust, earth,' $p\bar{u}yi$ 'sand,' Tamil pur $\hat{u}ti$ 'dust, dry earth,' $p\bar{u}r\hat{\mathbf{E}}$ 'powder, dust.' [D 4316, N 22, NSD 6]
- TURKIC: Proto-Turkic $b\bar{v}$, Chuvash $pur(\check{a})$ 'chalk,' Tuva por 'clay,' Jakut buor 'soil, clay, dust,' Altai pur 'ashes,' Uighur bor, Kazakh bor 'chalk.' [N 22]
- MONGOLIAN: Khalkha bur 'dirty, muddy, dark,' Buriat bur 'silt, swamp, clay.' [N 22]
- TUNGUS: Manchu buraki 'dust, sand,' Nanai buräxin 'dust,' Oroch buräxi. [N 22]

?ESKIMO-ALEUT: Proto-Eskimo-Aleut * $pujV \sim *apju$ 'dust, mud, soot.' [EA] BURUSHASKI bur-di 'the ground.'

?INDO-PACIFIC: Tasmanian būrana 'smoke.'

AUSTRALIAN: Proto-Australian *burin ~ *burinj 'smoke.' [AC 75]

AMERIND: Chibchan-Paezan: Cuna piru 'ashes,' Uncasica bura, Manare okabora, Move ñio-bru, Guatuso purun, Catio pora 'dust'; Andean: Lupaca purka 'ashes'; Equatorial: Shuara pupuur 'dust,' Bare baridi 'ashes,' Wapishana parati, Goajiro purpura 'dust'; Macro-Panoan: Taruma gulaparu 'powder'; Macro-Carib: Yagua pupāndru 'ashes'; Macro-Ge: Proto-Ge *prə 'ashes,' Krenje pro, Cayapo pra 'embers,' Guato (ma-)fora(-ta) 'ashes,' Caraja brībi. [AM 11, AMN]

4 ČUN(G)A 'nose; to smell'

- KHOISAN: ≠Au.//eî č'ũ 'nose,' !Kung t^s'ũ ~ sũ, !O-!Kung t^sn ~ čn; G//abake čui, Naron sõ 'to snuff,' Nama suni 'sniff, smell from'; /Xam sũ 'snore,' //Ng-!'e sũ?wa 'blow the nose,' Kakia /nuha čuni 'nostrils.' [K 89, SAK 488, 489, HF 1:10]
- NILO-SAHARAN: Saharan: Zagawa sina 'nose,' Berti sano; East Sudanic: Meidob *i-siŋi* 'nose,' Ongamo (*a-ta-*)sıŋa 'to sneeze,' Ik sik'wa 'to sneeze'; Central Sudanic: Shabo čona ~ šona 'nose.' [NSB, KER, HF 12]
- AFRO-ASIATIC: Proto-Afro-Asiatic $*\underline{t}(w)n \sim *\underline{t}(j)n$ 'smell; Ancient Egyptian śn 'to smell,' śnśn 'to breathe'; Omotic: Proto-Omotic *sin-t 'nose,' Basketo sinça, Chara sindā, Gimira sint, Mao šinto; Cushitic: Burgi suna, Konso sona, Tambaro sana, Somali san, Kaffa činno 'odor,' Saho sīn 'to smell'; Chadic: Hausa súnsùnā ~ sánsànā 'to smell,' Bachama šine, Bata činne, Klesem siŋ, Bana činan, Dari šin. [AA 54, N 51, HF 1:10]

KARTVELIAN: Georgian sun 'odor, to smell.' [N 51]

- INDO-EUROPEAN: Proto-Indo-European *snā 'to flow, dampness, nose'; Germanic: Proto-Germanic *snu 'to smell, nose,' Swedish snus 'snuff,' snuva 'runny nose,' German snau 'snout, beak,' Old Icelandic snoppe 'to snuff,' Norwegian snūt 'nose,' English 'snout, sniff'; Baltic: Lithuanian snukkis 'snout.' [IE 971]
- URALIC: Proto-Uralic (Illich-Svitych) *čüŋV 'to smell, odor, smoke,' (Rédei)
 *śaŋk‰ 'smell, taste'; Samoyed: Nenets t'üńē ~ tińē 'to smell'; Ugric: Vogul seeŋkw 'mist, vapor'; Finnic: Votyak čyŋ ~ šyŋ 'smoke,' Zyrian čyn 'smoke,' ?Finnish henki 'breath, spirit.' [U 97, N 51, KR 462]
- DRAVIDIAN: Tamil cuṇțu 'bill, beak,' Malayalam cuṇțu 'beak, lips, snout,' Kannada cuṇḍu 'a bird's beak,' Parji cond 'mouth, beak,' Pengo condi 'beak of a bird,' Kui suḍa 'mouth, beak,' Kuwi hondi 'mouth.' [D 2664]
- CAUCASIAN: Proto-Caucasian *sHwiInt' 'to smell, snot,' Proto-Avar-Andi *swint'V 'to smell, snuff,' Avar sunt' 'snuff,' sunt'(-ize) 'to smell,' Dargi sunt' 'scent, odor,' Lak sunt' 'snuff,' Proto-Lezghian *swiInt' 'snot,' Tsaxur suInt' 'snot,' ?Hurrian sunA 'breath, soul.' [HF 1:10, C 190]

BASQUE su-dur 'nose,' sun-da 'smell.'

BURUSHASKI $\check{s}\bar{u}\eta$ (εtAs) ~ $\check{s}\bar{\tilde{u}}$ (εtAs) 'to smell.' [B 335]

- SINO-TIBETAN: Karen suŋ 'odor'; Tibeto-Burman: Proto-Tibeto-Burman *sVna 'nose,' *suŋ 'smell,' Tibetan sna, bsuŋ 'smell (sweet),' Nung səna, Janggali sina, Digaro həna(-gam), Burmese hna, sàŋ 'emit a pleasant odor.' [ST 101, 405, HF 1:10]
- NA-DENE: Haida sánjuu 'smell,' sīnaŋ 'sniffling'; Tlingit čan 'stench'; Eyak čãh ~ čã? 'stink'; Athabaskan: Proto-Athabaskan *-čin-4 'nose,' Galice šan ~ šãã 'smell,' Kato čən 'smell.' [ND]

INDO-PACIFIC: Baruya sinna 'nose,' Musak sinami- 'to smell.' [FS 105] NAHALI čōn 'nose.' [NA]

- MIAO-YAO: Miao tsinyu 'nose,' Yao (pu-)tsoN. [HF 1:10]
- DAIC: Ong Be $zo\eta$ 'nose,' $su\eta$ (mu) 'to blow the nose' (= to-blow [nose-mucus]). [PB 345]
- AUSTRONESIAN: Proto-Austronesian *iğu $\eta \sim$ *uğu η 'nose,' Kuvalan uğu η , Proto-Philippine *su ηaD , Proto-Oceanic *isu $(\eta) \sim$ *untsu (η) , Fijian utsu, Proto-Polynesian *isu; Proto-Austronesian *t'u $\eta al \sim$ *suNar 'to sneer, turn up the nose.' [AN 67, 158; WW 139, 227; PB 345]
- AMERIND: Almosan-Keresiouan: Seneca 2osēnõ? 'smell,' Chiwere sĩŋe, Tutelo sũw 'stink'; Penutian: Wintu sono 'nose,' Chukchansi sinik', Gashowu sīn-wiyi 'to blow the nose,' Yokuts ṣēniț' 'smell,' Yaudanchi senk'a 'smell,' Huave šink 'nose,' Santa Cruz suunta 'snot,' Lake Miwok ṣin- 'blow the nose,' Central Sierra Miwok sēŋ-aH 'smelly thing'; Central Amerind: Tewa sũ 'smell,' Kiowa sẽ, Proto-Central Otomi *šiñũ 'nose,' South Pame šinyû; Chibchan-Paezan: Atanque sun-köna 'beak,' Binticua misun-a 'nose,' Move inson, Colorado sin, Timicua čini; Andean: Sek čuna, Leco (bi-)činua, Proto-Quechuan *sinqa; Macro-Tucanoan: Ubde-Nehern činuehei 'smell,' Yuri čunama; Equatorial: Campa asanki-ro, Callahuaya čini 'nose,' Caranga čonanğa 'stink.' [AK 175, CP 133, A 79, 106, AMN]

5 KAMA 'hold (in the hand)'

- KHOISAN: Zhu xớm(-xéi) 'rub back and forth'; Kxoe xôm 'crush with the hands.' [SAK 852]
- NIGER-CONGO: Dagomba kam 'squeeze,' Nupe kã, Proto-Bantu *kama, Swahili kama 'to squeeze, to milk,' kama-ta 'to take hold, seize, grasp.' [KS 59, BA III: 263]
- ?NILO-SAHARAN: Songhai kaŋkam 'squeeze' (< *kamkam ?). [KS 59]
- AFRO-ASIATIC: Proto-Afro-Asiatic *km 'seize, take, squeeze'; Semitic: Akkadian kamū 'to capture,' Arabic kamaša 'seize, grasp'; Cushitic: Dahalo kam 'to hold,' Kwadza komos 'to grip,' Iraqw kom 'to have'; Berber: Tuareg ekmem 'squeeze'; Chadic: Hausa kāma 'to catch,' Musgu kaw 'seize,' Gidar gəma 'to take,' Masa čum. [AA 63, N 157, AB 160]
- INDO-EUROPEAN: Proto-Indo-European *gem ~ *gemō 'to grasp with both hands, seize'; Armenian čmlem 'I squeeze'; Greek geuto 'he took' (< *gem-to); Celtic: Old Irish gemel 'fetters'; Germanic: Old Swedish kumla 'to crumple'; Baltic: Latvian gùmstu 'to seize, grasp'; Slavic: Old Church Slavic žimoş 'I press, squeeze.' [IE 368, N 157, AB 171]
- URALIC: Proto-Uralic (Illich-Svitych) *kama-lV ~ *koma-rV 'handful,' (Rédei) *kom&(r%) 'palm of the hand,' (Rédei) *käme(-ne); Samoyed: Yenisei Samoyed hammara 'hand'; Finnic: Finnish kamahlo ~ kahmalo

'double handful,' Estonian *kamal* 'handful,' Mordvin *komoro*, Saami goabmer 'double handful.' [U 42, N 157, KR 137, 175]

- DRAVIDIAN: Proto-Dravidian *kamV 'to seize, take, hold,' Koraga kamdi 'to steal,' Telugu kamucu 'to hold, seize,' Malto kam 'to gather (by oneself).' [D 1326, N 157]
- TURKIC: Proto-Turkic *kam-a ~ *qam-a 'to take, seize,' Old Uighur qama 'to take prisoner, surround,' Kirghiz kama 'to surround, arrest,' Tatar kama 'to herd cattle into a pen,' Nogai kam-ty 'to seize.' [N 157]
- MONGOLIAN: Written Mongolian *qamu* 'to gather, pick up,' Khalkha *xamă* 'to gather, pick up.' [N 157]
- TUNGUS: Proto-Tungus *kama ~ *kamu 'to press, oppress, forbid,' Nanai kama-le 'to press, clasp,' Olcha kama-lu 'to forbid,' kama-lğu 'to press,' Orok kamu-i 'to take in one's arms, seize,' Evenki kama 'deny assistance to, oppress.' [N 157]
- CAUCASIAN: Proto-Caucasian *k'ēmV 'armful, handful,' Proto-Lak *k'ama 'handful,' Proto-Lezghian *k'em(a) 'armful.' [C 124]
- ?INDO-PACIFIC: North New Guinea: Arapesh kum 'to steal,' Bosngun kamba 'to steal,' Siaute kupi 'to take.' [NNG 45]
- MIAO-YAO: Proto-Miao-Yao **ŋgam* 'to crush, squeeze' (< *kamgam), Haininh Yao gam 'to crush or squeeze with the hand.' [PB 315]
- DAIC: Tai: Proto-Tai *hŋam 'to lay hold of, grasp' (< *kamgam), *kum 'hold with the hand'; Kam-Sui: Sui 2ńam 'to hold,' Mak ńam 'to clench the fist, take hold of' (< *2ŋam < *kamgam); Li: Proto-Li *kəm 'to press with the hand, squeeze,' Southern Li kom (luoi) 'to squeeze' (= press [down]); Ong-Be kom 'to press down.' [PB 315]
- AUSTRONESIAN: Proto-Austronesian *kem 'enclose, cover, grasp,' *gemgem 'hold, grasp in the fist, make a fist,' Rukai (wa-)gəmgəm 'to squeeze in the hand.' [AN 54, 74, 78; WW 103; PB 315-16]

6 KANO 'arm'

- KHOISAN: /Xam //kũ 'arm,' /Nu-//en //kan 'branch'; Naron //k'õã 'arm,' Nama //õa(-b); !Kung //kãũ 'branch,' ? \neq hã ~ \neq hā 'arm.' [SAK 130, 186]
- NIGER-CONGO: Yingulum kəni 'arm,' Fali kan; Bantu: Proto-Bantu *kónò '(fore)arm,' Nyali (i-)kón(-do) 'hand,' Swahili (m-)kono 'arm, forearm, hand, front paw.' [BA 297, AT 11]
- NILO-SAHARAN: Kunama kò'nà 'hand,' u-kun-kula 'armpit, elbow' (= armhole), Ilit kon 'hand,' Berta k'o η -k'olo $\eta \sim k^w \circ n$ -k''olo η 'elbow,' Teso (á-)kànì 'hand,' Masai (e η -)káíná 'hand.' [CN 5, AT 79, NSB]
- ?AFRO-ASIATIC: Chadic: Proto-West Chadic *hA-ganA 'arm, shoulder,' Angas gwon 'shoulder,' Bokkos kôŋ 'arm,' Sha ğaan; Cushitic: Iraqw kun(-day) 'foot.' [AT 86, OS 683]

- ?INDO-EUROPEAN: Proto-Indo-European *kon-t- \sim *kn-t- '10,' Germanic: Proto-Germanic *handu(-z) 'hand,' English hand.
- URALIC: Proto-Uralic (Rédei) *kon‰~ *kon‰ala 'armpit'; Yukaghir kun(-el)
 '10,' xanba 'hand'; Ugric: Hungarian hón ~ hón(-alj) 'armpit' (-alj 'that which is beneath'), Vogul kan(-l) 'armpit'; Finnic: Finnish kain (-alo), Votyak kun(-ul), Zyrian kon(-uvt), (-uvt 'that which is beneath'). [U 101, KR 178]
- DRAVIDIAN: Tulu kaŋkuļa 'armpit' (= arm-hole), Kannada kaŋkur£~ gaŋkəlu 'armpit,' Kota ganjguly. [D 1234, N 220]
- CAUCASIAN: Proto-Caucasian $*_{\sigma}Hw\underline{i}nA$ 'arm, shoulder,' Proto-Lezghian $*\overline{q}un$ 'shoulder,' Krytz qunä, Archi qIun. [C 156]
- YENISEIAN: Proto-Yeniseian *ken 'shoulder.' [Y 28]
- SINO-TIBETAN: Ancient Chinese *kēn 'shoulder'; Proto-Tibeto-Burman *kan 'arm.' [Y 28, TB 438]
- NA-DENE: Proto-Eyak-Athabaskan *gần 'arm,' Tanana gan, Tlatskanai okane, Ingalik gàn, Galice gaane? 'arm, branch,' Navajo gaan 'arm.' [SN, ND]
- INDO-PACIFIC: Tasmanian: Southeastern gouna ~ guna ~ gouana ~ wana 'arm, hand,' Parawen konene 'arm,' Jilim kanan 'left (arm),' Dumpu kiñen 'shoulder,' Gapun akan 'arm.' [T 83, FS 107, IP 820]
- ?NAHALI khanda 'shoulder,' akhandi 'finger.' [NA 59, 85; Kuiper believes khanda is probably a borrowing from Kurku.]
- ? AUSTROASIATIC: Vietnamese cánh \sim cành 'arm, branch, wing.'
- DAIC: Tai: Proto-Tai *xeen 'arm,' Dioi kien 'arm, sleeve,' Sek keen; Kam-Sui: Sui ćhin, Then khyin 'sleeve'; Ong-Be kan (mo) 'forearm,' gen (mo) 'upper arm.' [PB 379]
- AMERIND: Almosan-Keresiouan: Blackfoot kin(-ists) 'hand,' Kutenai kin, Kalispel axon 'arm,' Okanagan -aqan, Kwakwala -xaina 'shoulder'; Penutian: Tunica hkeni 'hand,' Chitimacha ?okun 'shoulder,' Sayula konik 'carry on the shoulder'; Central Amerind: Chichimec kan'a 'hand,' Otomi xí'nyí 'shoulder'; Chibchan-Paezan: Murire kana 'arm,' Bintucua guna 'arm, hand,' Guamaca guna 'arm,' Atanque guna 'hand,' Chimu aken 'arm'; Andean: Ona haken 'arm,' Tehuelche aken 'shoulder blade,' Simacu kanúxua 'shoulder,' Selknam k'ojjn; Macro-Tucanoan: Särä axkono 'shoulder,' Uaiana akono 'shoulder, armpit,' Omoa naxkono 'shoulder'; Equatorial: Piro kano 'arm,' Parecis -kano-, Canamari kano 'shoulder,' Timote -kiñem 'hand,' Mocochi kiñien, Tinigua kwana, Trumai kanap; Macro-Carib: Miranya gano-aga 'hand,' gano-múhtee 'armpit,' Coeruna kunia 'hand'; Macro-Panoan: Proto-Panoan *mï-kini 'hand,' Lengua kanyama 'armpit'; Macro-Ge: Bororo kana 'upper arm,' Camican guangäni 'arm,' Botocudo kinaon 'shoulder,' Opaie (či-)kã 'shoulder.' [AK 6, CP 4, AM 16, AMN

7 KATI 'bone'

- ?KHOISAN: /Xam /kuttən 'bone behind the ear,' //Ng-!'e ketn 'bone.' [BD 87, 326]
- NILO-SAHARAN: ?Berta k'ara 'bone,' East Sudanic: Nera $k \ni tii(n)$, Kenuzi $k \bar{l} d$, Kundugr koidu, Turkana ako-, Lotuko $-\gamma \bar{o} tyu$, Bari kuyu, Debri kwedu, Proto-Southeast Surmic *gigec. [ES 21, NSB, SES]
- AFRO-ASIATIC: Proto-Afro-Asiatic *qš 'bone'; Ancient Egyptian qś 'bone'; Semitic: Arabic qaṣṣ ~ gaṣṣ 'sternum'; Cushitic: Proto-Cushitic *(m-)qS 'bone,' Kambata miqqa-ta (qq < *qS); Omotic: Jeba ?úús-u (< *k'us), Badditu miqi-tē, Wolamo maqa-tta; Berber: Proto-Berber *ģs(j) 'bone,' Shilha ixs, Kabyle iģes, Tuareg eģēs; Chadic: Proto-Chadic k'g(j) 'bone,' Proto-West Chadic *ḥa-k'asi, Hausa k'āšī, Musgu keş'ke, Gerka γ as, Somrai guse η , Karbo kāso ~ kāsi. [CS 225, AA 11, N 219, OS 620, HF 12]
- INDO-EUROPEAN: Proto-Indo-European *kos-t 'bone'; Italic: Latin costa 'rib'; Slavic: Old Church Slavic kostĭ 'rib,' Serbo-Croatian kôst, Russian kost^j. [IE 616, N 219]
- ?URALIC: Samoyed: Kamassian kot 'rib'; Finnic: Mordvin kask
ă \sim kaske 'sacrum.' [N 219, SUL 492]
- DRAVIDIAN: Kurux $x\bar{o}c(-ol)$ 'bone,' Malto qoc(-lu). [D 1288]
- CHUKCHI-KAMCHATKAN: Proto-Chukchi-Kamchatkan $*(\chi) \partial t_A \chi \partial mV$ 'bone.' [CK 1]
- ?ESKIMO-ALEUT: Proto-Eskimo-Aleut *qat'i 'breast, ribs.' [EA]
- CAUCASIAN: Proto-Caucasian *kŏt^s'a 'kind of bone,' Proto-Dido *k'ot^s'u 'back of head,' Proto-Lezghian *k'at^s'a 'vertebra, shin,' Proto-Xinalug *kiz 'thigh, hip.' [C 116]
- BASQUE gar-khotx(e) 'nape' (gara ='skull').
- ?BURUSHASKI kanja 'back of neck, neck joint.'
- SINO-TIBETAN: Proto-Sino-Tibetan *kut 'bone,' Old Chinese *kwət. [SC 57] NA-DENE: Haida (s)kuts ~ (s)kuği 'bone,' Eyak q'ahš. [ND]
- INDO-PACIFIC: South New Guinea: Dabu kut 'bone,' Dibolug kute, Ngamai kuta, Kawam kutra, Parb kwod, Tunjuamu guat, Tokwasa kuart, Bangu kuar, Keladdar kadrowa. [SNG 9]
- AMERIND: Almosan-Keresiouan: Bella Bella k'ōd^zo 'bone, rib' (borrowing from Chinook?), Pawnee kīsu 'bone,' Wichita kīs?a, Acoma ya-gət^s'-əni 'rib'; Penutian: Chinook qot^so 'bone,' Northern Sierra Miwok kyččyč, Plains Miwok kəčəč, Yuki k'i?t, Wappo kúte 'rib,' Chitimacha kat^si 'bone,' Uspantec k'alk'aš 'rib'; Chibchan-Paezan: Binticua katia ~ kiasi 'rib,' Matanawi kisi, Atacameño kada 'bone,' Itonama čidiki, Chimu čotti, Colorado čide; Andean: Selknam q'ejt' 'breastbone,' Mapudungu kadi 'rib,' Genneken uguets 'bone,' Alakaluf akšiase 'rib'; Macro-Tucanoan:

Kapishana nya-kotsī; Equatorial: Caranga kaiču 'bone'; Macro-Panoan: Cavineña (epere-)'katse 'rib,' Komlek kadekotti 'bone,' Caduveo kodauek'o 'rib.' [AM 141, P 102, CP 23, AIW, AMN]

8 K'OLO 'hole'

- KHOISAN: ≠Au.//eî !kuru 'quiver' (n.), !Kung !koro 'hole,' !kuru 'quiver' (n.), !koro 'hole, grave,' !O-!Kung kolo 'hollow'; G//abake koro 'hole in tree,' (čui) kxolo 'nostrils' (= nose hole); /Xam !korro 'to be hollow,' /huru 'hole,' /ūru 'anus,' /'Auni !kuru 'quiver' (n.). [SAK 371]
- NILO-SAHARAN: Songhai nkoro 'buttocks'; Saharan: Kanuri kuli 'anus,' Teda kulo; Berta k'oŋ-k'oloŋ ~ k^won-k^woloŋ 'elbow' (= arm-hole, cf. the Kunama form below); Koman: Buldiit kul(ma) 'buttocks'; Kunama kura 'anus,' ukunkula 'armpit, elbow' (< *kan-kul 'arm-hole'); East Sudanic: Temein kukuruk(it) 'buttocks,' Nandi kulkul 'armpit,' So ukolkol 'armpit,' Gaam kura-n 'hollow (in ground).' [NS 4, CN 2, 5, ES 3, NSD 3, KER 432]
- INDO-EUROPEAN: Proto-Indo-European $*(s)k\bar{u}lo$ 'hiding place, back part'; Indic: Sanskrit $k\bar{u}lam$ 'rear of army'; Italic: Latin $c\bar{u}lus$ 'buttocks, anus,' $cl\bar{u}nis$ 'buttock, hip'; Celtic: Old Irish $c\bar{u}l$ 'back, rear,' Welsh *cil* 'back,' $cl\bar{u}n$ 'buttock'; Germanic: Proto-Germanic *hulo 'hole,' Gothic hulundi 'cave,' English hole, Swedish näs-håla 'nostril.' [IE 951]
- URALIC: Proto-Finno-Ugric *köl 'hole'; Ugric: Vogul kal ~ hal 'crack,' Ostyak köl ~ hul, Hungarian halok 'incision'; Finnic: Finnish kolo 'hole, crack,' Saami golo 'fissure,' Zyrian kolas 'crack,' Cheremis kongəla 'armpit,' Southern Estonian kaŋgel 'shoulder.' [U 101, 106, N 220, EU]

- JAPANESE-RYUKYUAN: Japanese kur 'hollow, scoop out.' [EU]
- DRAVIDIAN: Tulu kulligè 'buttocks,' kaŋkuļa 'armpit' (= arm-hole), Kolami kūla 'buttock,' ganjgūly 'armpit,' Gondi kula 'buttock,' kākri 'armpit,' Kannada kaŋkur ~ gaŋkəlu 'armpit,' Telugu kauŋgili 'breast,' tsaŋkili ~ tsakkili 'armpit' (= arm-hole), Malayalam akkuļam 'armpit, tickling,' Tamil akkuļ 'armpit,' akkuļu 'to tickle.' [D 1234, 2274, Supplement 30; N 220, NSD 3]
- CAUCASIAN: Proto-Caucasian *kHwārV 'hole, pit, ravine,' Proto-Nax *kōr 'window,' Proto-Dido *kurV 'ravine,' Proto-Lak *kuIru 'nest,' Proto-Dargi *kur 'pit,' Proto-Lezghian *kur 'pit, river,' Lezgi k'ul-ux 'backwards,' k'ul-ux-k'il 'hip, posterior, buttocks,' Kurin qula 'loins, buttocks.' [C 113, JR 58]
- SINO-TIBETAN: Tibeto-Burman: Proto-Tibeto-Burman *kor ~ *kwar 'hole,' *kali 'armpit, tickle,' Tibetan (West) kor 'hollow in the ground, pit,' Lushei khuar ~ khur 'hole,' kor 'ravine,' Dimasa ha-khor 'cave' (= earthhole), sisi-khor 'armpit' (= tickle-hole), Bodo ha-khor 'hole, valley,' Bur-

KOREAN kul 'cave.' [EU]

mese kălí 'tickle,' tshak-kăli ~ lak-kăli 'armpit' (= arm-hole, cf. the Telugu form above), Lakher kili 'tickle,' ba-kəli 'armpit.' [ST 265, 349, 350]

NA-DENE: Haida kunts-qul ~ kwun-zool 'nostril' (= nose-hole). [ND]

DAIC: Khamti kăle 'tickle,' kap kăle 'armpit' tsuŋ kări 'tickle,' Shan sop kălit 'armpit'; Tai: Proto-Tai *xru ~ *ru 'hole,' *xru ?daŋ 'nostril' (= hole nose). [PB 316, 410]

AUSTRONESIAN: Proto-Austronesian *kili 'shoulder,' *kilikili 'armpit,' Tagalog kili(ti) 'tickling,' kilikili 'armpit,' Cham kəlĕk 'tickle,' Fijian kili ~ kiri 'armpit,' Nggela kilikili 'tickle a tired pig to make it go.' [AN 80, 121, WW 187, PB 230, 410]

9 KUAN 'dog'

- KHOISAN: /Xam !gwãĩ 'hyena,' //Ng-!'e /xãĩ, /'Auni /kãĩn, Kakia /xãĩ, /Nu-//en /ūn, !Kung /gwí, !O-!Kung /gwĩ. [SAK 380, DB 48]
- AFRO-ASIATIC: Proto-Afro-Asiatic k(j)n 'dog, wolf'; Omotic: Haruro $k\bar{a}n\bar{o}$, Basketo kanā, Kullo kana, Gimira kjan, Kaffa kunānō, Mao kano; Chadic: Gamergu kenē, Jegu káń. [CS 189, N 238, UOL 175]
- INDO-EUROPEAN: Proto-Indo-European *kwon ~ *kun 'dog'; Phrygian kan; Greek $ku\bar{o}n$; Italic: Latin can(-is); Armenian $\check{s}un \sim \check{s}an$; Indic: Sanskrit ςvan ; Iranian: Avestan span; Tocharian $ku \sim kon$; Germanic: Old English hund, English hound. [IE 632, UOL 175, N 238, EU]
- URALIC: Proto-Uralic (Illich-Svitych) *küjnä 'wolf'; Finno-Ugric: Northern Saami gâidne 'wolf,' Udmurt kÿjon 'wolf,' Komi köin 'wolf'; Samoyed: Ostyak Samoyed kana(-k) 'dog' (probably a borrowing) [N 238, UOL 175, EU]
- TURKIC: Old Turkish qančiq 'bitch.' [EU]
- MONGOLIAN: Mongol qani 'a wild masterless dog.' [EU]
- TUNGUS: Proto-Tungus *xina 'dog,' Manchu (inda-)xun, Udej in'ai, Oroch inaxki, Evenki ina, inakin, Lamut ŋen, Orok ŋinda. [N 238, EU]
- KOREAN ka 'dog' (< kani). [N 238, EU]

GILYAK qan ~ kan 'dog.' [EU]

ESKIMO-ALEUT: Sirenik $qana\gamma a$ 'wolf.' [EU]

CAUCASIAN: Proto-Caucasian * $\chi H w \check{e} j e$ 'dog,' Proto-Avar-Andi * $\chi w o i$ 'dog,' Proto-Lezghian * $\bar{\chi} \ddot{w} \ddot{a} j a$ 'dog.' [C 212]

BASQUE haz-koin 'badger' (lit. 'bear-dog').

YENISEIAN: Proto-Yeniseian $k\bar{u}n \sim g\bar{u}n$ 'wolverine.' [Y]

- SINO-TIBETAN: Proto-Sino-Tibetan *qh^wīj 'dog,' Archaic Chinese *k^hiwən 'dog'; Tibeto-Burman: Proto-Tibeto-Burman *kwiy, Tibetan khyi, Kanauri kui, Thebor khui, Vaya uri, Chepang kwi, Karen gwi. [ST 159, UOL 175]
- ?INDO-PACIFIC: Pila kawun 'dog,' Saki kawuŋ, Wodani kawino. [FS 14]

?AUSTRONESIAN: Proto-Oceanic *nkaun 'dog.' [WW 60]

AMERIND: Hokan: Achomawi kuān 'silver fox,' Tonkawa 2ekuan 'dog,' North Yana kuwan-na 'lynx,' Yurimangui kwan 'dog'; Central Amerind: Jemez kiano, Isleta kuyanide, Taos kwiane-, Tewa tux^wana 'fox, coyote,' Zacapoaxtla it^skwiin-ti 'dog,' Chatina čuni, Popoloca kuniya, Ixcatec 2uniña, Chocho 2uña; Chibchan-Paezan: Guamaca kensi; Equatorial: Esmeralda kine; Macro-Ge: Came okong, Serra do Chagu hong-kon. [A 86, CAN, UOL 176, AMN]

10 KU(N) 'who?'

- KHOISAN: ≠Au.//eî kama 'when, if,' xa (interrogative particle), !Kung ka 'when,' !kũ(-de) 'who'; G//abake /kam 'when,' Naron kama 'when, if,' Nama hamo 'when,'; /Xam !ku(dɛxa) 'who,' xa (interrogative particle). [SAK 384, 388, 757, 764, UOL 70]
- NIGER-CONGO: Pam $k\bar{\partial}g\dot{e}$ 'which,' Dama $k\dot{a}2\bar{i}$ 'which,' Jukun $\dot{a}k\bar{e}$ 'what,' Proto-Bantu * $k\dot{i}\sim k\dot{a}$ 'which,' Swahili ga-ni 'what, why, what kind.' [BA]
- NILO-SAHARAN: Fur kii 'who,' ka 'what,' Daza ka 'which,' Masai ka 'which,' Didinga ŋani 'who' (< *kani ?), Liguri keneen 'who,' Nyala k-rem 'how many,' Shatt k-reñ 'how many,' Shabo kukne 'who.' [NS 149, CN 126, HF 12]
- AFRO-ASIATIC: Proto-Afro-Asiatic $*k(w) \sim *q(w)$ 'who'; Semitic: Proto-Semitic *kV 'how,' Arabic ka, Geez kama, Aramaic kə, Akkadian kima ~ ki 'how,' South Arabian ko 'how, why,' Mehri $\bar{u}k\bar{o}$ 'why'; ?Berber: Tuareg akken 'how,' Gdames (mə-)k; Cushitic: Proto-Cushitic *kw 'who,' Somali kú-ma 'who (masc.),' Oromo ka-mi 'who,' aka 'how'; Omotic: Kaffa kō-nē 'who,' Mao konne, Kullo hone, Wolamo ōne, Beja kāk(u) 'how'; Chadic: Proto-Chadic *k'(w) 'who,' Hausa k'à, Bura ga 'what,' Logone γ wani, Somrai kāna 'who,' Mubi gin. [N 232, UOL 70]
- INDO-EUROPEAN: Proto-Indo-European $kw_0 \sim kw_i$ 'who,' kw_0 (coordinating conjunction); Indic: Sanskrit kas 'who'; Iranian: Avestan $k\bar{o}$; Armenian o ($< kw_0$); Anatolian: Hittite kuiš 'who,' kuit 'what,' Luwian kui 'who,' Lydian qis 'who,' qid 'what'; Albanian k \bar{e} 'whose'; Italic: Latin quis 'who,' quis-que 'whoever,' quod 'what,' quam 'how, as,' quom 'when,' (arma virum)-que '(arms) and (the man)'; Celtic: Old Irish cia 'who,' cid 'what'; Germanic: Gothic hwas 'who,' English who, what, when, where, why, how; Baltic: Old Prussian kas 'who,' ka 'what'; Slavic: Old Church Slavic kbto 'who'; Tocharian: Tocharian A kus 'who, what.' [IE 644, N 232, EU, UOL 70]
- URALIC: Proto-Uralic (Rédei) $ke \sim ki$ 'who,' (Rédei) $ku \sim ko$ 'who, which, ?what'; Yukaghir kin 'who,' hon 'where,' hadi 'which,' hodier 'why'; Proto-Uralic (Illich-Svitych) $ke \sim ko \sim ku$ 'who'; Samoyed:

Yurak hu 'who,' huna 'where,' Tavgy kua 'which,' kuninu 'where,' kune 'when,' Selkup kutte 'who,' kun 'where,' Kamassian kaamõn 'when'; Ugric: Vogul kon 'who,' qun 'when,' Ostyak hõjə 'who,' hõtə 'what,' hun 'when,' Hungarian ki 'who'; Finnic: Finnish ken ~ kene ~ ke ~ ku ~ kuka 'who,' kussa 'where,' koska 'when,' Saami gi ~ gæ ~ gutti 'who,' goktĕ 'how,' Mordvin ki 'who,' Cheremis ke ~ kö ~ kü ~ kudõ, Votyak kin 'who,' kin-ke 'someone,' ku 'when,' Zyrian kin 'who,' kod 'which,' ko 'when.' [U 44, 46, N 223, 232, EU, KR 140, 191]

- TURKIC: Proto-Turkic *k'Em 'who,' *ka ~ *qa (interrogative base), Chuvash kam 'who,' Old Turkish käm 'who,' qa-ñu 'which,' qa-na 'where,' Old Uighur kim 'who,' qaju 'which,' qajda 'where,' Tatar kem 'who,' Karagas kum ~ kym, Jakut kim, Old Oguz qanda 'where.' [N 223, 232, EU, UOL 70]
- MONGOLIAN: Proto-Mongolian *kė-n 'who,' *ka 'where, whither,' Written Mongolian ken 'who,' qa-mi-ga 'where,' Khalkha xeŋ 'who,' xāna (< *kaga-na) 'where,' Kalmyk ken 'who,' xā (< *ka-ga) 'where, whither,' Moghol ken 'who.' [N 223, 232, EU]
- TUNGUS: Proto-Tungus *xa 'what, how, how much,' Nanai xaj 'what,' xadu 'how much,' xoni 'how,' Manchu aj 'what,' udu 'how much,' Udihe \bar{i} 'what,' adi 'how much,' ono 'how,' Even \bar{i} -räk 'how,' adi 'how much,' $\bar{o}n(i)$ 'how.' [N 232, EU]
- KOREAN ka (interrogative particle). [N 232, EU]
- JAPANESE-RYUKYUAN: Japanese ka (interrogative particle, indefinitizer), ka . . . ka (alternating conjunction), Ryukyuan ča 'what.' [EU]
- AINU ka (interrogative particle, indefinitizer), ka . . . ka (coordinating conjunction). [EU]
- GILYAK ka (interrogative particle), ko . . . ko (coordinating conjunction). [EU]
- CHUKCHI-KAMCHATKAN: Kamchadal k'e 'who' (genitive k'en), Chukchi mik \sim mek 'who,' req \sim raq 'what,' Koryak qej . . . qej 'either . . . or,' kur 'to be who?, to be what?,' Kerek jaq 'who, what.' [EU]
- ESKIMO-ALEUT: Proto-Eskimo-Aleut *ken 'who,' *qa- (interrogative pronoun), Aleut ki-n 'who,' qata 'where, whither, what,' qanangun 'where,' qanayam 'when,' qanagan 'whence,' Eskimo ki-na 'who,' Greenlandic qaŋga 'when,' qanuq 'how,' Siberian Yuit qafsina 'how many,' Alaskan Yuit -ka (question particle). [EU, EA 118, 121]
- CAUCASIAN: Proto-Caucasian k^{w_i} 'who, which,' Kurin ku- 'what,' Archi k^{w_i} 'who,' Avar k^{h_i} -n 'how.' [UOL 70, SC 149]
- BURUSHASKI $k\varepsilon$ 'if, when,' $k\varepsilon$ 'and,' $k\varepsilon \dots k\varepsilon$ 'both \dots and,' (men \dots) $k\varepsilon$ '(who)ever.' [B 231, 265]
- SINO-TIBETAN: Old Chinese *kjei 'how much,' Hruso $k^{h}i$ -nia 'how many,' $k^{h}i$ -mia 'how far.' [SC 149]

- NA-DENE: Haida gyis-to ~ kiš-to 'who,' $g\bar{o}su \sim guu(s)$ 'what,' gyinu 'where,' giisant 'when'; Tlingit kusu ~ gùsú ~ gū 'where,' kūnsa 'how much.' [ND]
- ?AUSTRALIAN: Maung gunuga ~ gigi 'what,' Tiwi kuwa 'who,' kamu 'what.' [RD 373, 376]
- NAHALI (nani) ka 'anyone' (nani 'who'), (nan) ka 'anything' (nan 'what'). [NA 92]
- AUSTROASIATIC: Munda o-ko-e 'who,' o-ka 'what,' če-le 'which'; Mon-Khmer: Vietnamese gi 'what,' Nicobarese či 'who,' či-n 'who, what,' kahä 'what,' čan ~ ču 'where.' [UOL 70]

AUSTRONESIAN: Proto-Austronesian *ku'a['] 'how.' [AN]

AMERIND: Almosan-Keresiouan: Kutenai ka 'where,' Wiyot gu- 'when, where,' Yurok kus 'when, where,' Passamaquoddy kek^w 'what,' Chemakum $\bar{a}\check{c}$ 'is 'what,' Quileute ak'is 'what,' qo- 'where,' Nootka ?aqi- 'what,' Bella Bella akoiqkan 'who,' Pentlatch kwonča 'where,' kwos 'when,' Upper Chehalis ka-n 'do what?,' Keres heko 'whither,' Quapaw ka 'what,' Ofo kaka 'what,' Wichita ?ēkiya? 'who,' Caddo kwit 'where,' Cherokee gago 'who,' Onondaga kanin 'where,' Seneca kwanu 'who,' Mohawk ka 'where'; Penutian: Tsimshian gu 'who,' Alsea qau, Kalapuya ūk, Coos qanč 'where,' Siuslaw gani, Klamath kani 'who,' ka 'which,' Bodega Miwok ?eke 'what,' ?eketto 'where,' Zuni kāk'i-pi 'when,' Tunica kaku 'who,' kanahku 'what,' ka?aš 'when,' Natchez kanne 'someone,' $g\bar{o}$ š 'what,' Huave xan 'who,' kev 'what,' Quiche xan 'when'; Hokan: Achomawi kī 'who,' Washo kudiŋa 'who,' kuŋate 'what,' kuŋa 'where,' East Pomo kia 'who,' k'owa 'what,' Chumash kune 'who,' kenu 'why,' Esselen kini 'who,' ke 'where,' Walapai ka 'who,' Seri ki?, Coahuilteco ka 'what,' Chontal kana? 'when,' Tlappanec gwana, Jicaque kat 'where,' Yurimangui kana 'what,' kuna 'where'; Central Amerind: Proto-Aztecan *kaan 'where,' *keem 'how,' *kee-ski 'how much, how many,' Nahua a2kon 'who,' Zacapoaxtla akoni, Yaqui hakuni 'where,' Isthmus Zapotec guna?, Mazatec k?ia 'when'; Chibchan-Paezan: Cuna kana 'when,' Miskito ajkia, Paya agini, Terraba kene 'where,' Tirub koñe, Totoro kin 'who,' Paez kim 'who,' kĩh 'what,' Catio kai 'who,' Moguex kina 'who, what,' Tucura karea 'why': Andean: Yahgan kunna 'who,' kanin(a) 'to whom,' kana 'where,' Tehuelche keme 'who,' ken 'which,' kenaš 'when,' kienai 'where,' Araucanian kam 'how,' Aymara kuna 'what,' kamisa 'how,' Iquito kanaka 'who,' Aymara kuna 'what,' kauki 'where'; Macro-Tucanoan: Ticuna karo 'where,' kejaito 'when'; Equatorial: Ayore gosi 'who,' Tuyoneri kate 'what,' Yaruro kanemo 'when,' Uru kanču, Wapishana kanum 'what,' Puquina kin; Macro-Carib: Yabarana ekkwarijawa 'when,' akətto 'where,' Witoto akö 'what,' Miranya kia 'where,' Faai kiati, Andoke koide 'who'; Macro-Panoan: Lule kine-kinema, Macca kat^sik 'who,' kona 'when' (rel.), Taruma gaga 'what,' Tacana ketsunu 'when,' kepia 'where.' [AM: G102; UOL 70, AMN]

11 KUNA 'woman'

- AFRO-ASIATIC: Proto-Afro-Asiatic *k(w)n ~ *knw 'wife, woman'; Omotic: Chara gänēts 'woman,' Kaffa genē 'lady,' Mocha gänē 'lady, woman,' Shinasha genā 'lady'; Cushitic: Proto-Cushitic *H-kwn 'wife,' Bilin ' '∂x^wina (pl. '∂k^win) 'wife,' Xamta eq^wen 'wife,' Dembia kiūnā 'wife,' Avija xuonā 'wife,' Oromo qena 'lady'; Semitic: Akkadian kinītu ~ qinītu 'one of the wives in a harem'; Berber: Proto-Berber *t-knw 'wife,' Tuareg tēkne 'wife,' Kabyle takna 'one of the wives in polygamy'; Chadic: Margi ŋkwà 'girl' (< *m-kwà), Igala ginum 'woman,' Makari gerim 'woman,' Logone gənəm 'woman.' [N 178, UOL 179]
- INDO-EUROPEAN: Proto-Indo-European *g^wen~ *g^wenā 'wife, woman'; Anatolian: Lydian kâna 'woman, wife,' Luwian wanā; Indic: Sanskrit gnā 'goddess'; Iranian: Avestan gənā 'wife'; Armenian kin (pl. kanai-k'); Greek: Mycenaean ku-na-ja; Albanian grue~ grua; Celtic: Old Irish ben; Germanic: Gothic qino, Old High German quena, English queen; Baltic: Old Prussian genno 'wife'; Slavic: Old Church Slavic žena; Tocharian: Tocharian B śana. [IE 473, N 178, EU, LC 922, UOL 179]
- TURKIC: Proto-Turkic *küni 'one of the wives in polygamy,' Old Turkic küni 'wife,' Kirghiz künü, Azerbaijani günü. [N 178]
- ESKIMO-ALEUT: Proto-Eskimo-Aleut *?as(i)na- 'woman,' Eskimo: Alaskan aganak, Greenlandic arnaq, Yuit arnaq 'female person, woman.' [EU]
- CAUCASIAN: Proto-Caucasian $*q(w)\ddot{a}nV$ 'woman,' Proto-Dagestan $*qonV(\bar{p}V)$. [EC, NSC 59]
- ?INDO-PACIFIC: Andaman Islands: Bea chána 'woman,' chana-da 'mother'; Tasmanian: Southeast quani 'wife, woman'; Mugil kanen 'mother.' [T 471, UOL 180]
- AUSTRALIAN: Warrgamay gajin 'female of human or animal species,' Gamilaraay gunijarr 'mother,' Ngaanyatjara ngunytju, Jalnguy guyŋgun 'spirit of a dead woman.' [RD 119, UOL 180]
- ?AUSTROASIATIC: Mon-Khmer: Nancowry $k\bar{a}n \sim k\bar{a}ne$ 'woman.' [UOL 179]
- AMERIND: Almosan-Keresiouan: Shawnee kwan-iswa 'girl,' Nootka ganəmo, Bella Bella ganəm 'woman, wife,' Lkungen kaŋi 'girl,' Spokane en-okhono 'wife,' Siletz qena?s 'grandmother,' Santa Ana k'uwi 'woman, wife,' Dakota hun 'mother,' Yuchi wa-hane 'old woman'; Penutian: Tsimshian hanāc 'woman,' Cayuse kwun-asa 'girl,' Yawelmani gaīna 'woman,' Konkow kónoj 'woman, wife,' Nisenan kono 'girl,' San Juan Bautista atsiaxnis, Lake Miwok ?unu 'mother,' Zuni k'anak^wayina 'woman,' Yuki aŋk'an 'mother'; Hokan: Chumash kunup 'girl,' Diegueño kux-k^wan^j 'mother,' xe-k^wan^j 'daughter,' Seri kuãam 'female,' koŋkáii 'wife,' Tonkawa k^wān 'woman,' Karankawa kanin 'mother,' Tequistlatec (4-)aga?no 'woman,

female'; Central Amerind: Proto-Tiwa *k^wiem 'maiden,' Papago hóoñigï 'wife,' Isthmus Zapotec gunáa 'woman'; Chibchan-Paezan: Boncota güina 'female,' Ulua guana, Pedraza konui-xa 'daughter,' Choco huena 'woman,' Paez kuenas 'young woman'; Andean: Simacu kaxkanu 'daughter-in-law,' Yahgan čou-kani-kipa 'young woman,' Kulli kañi 'sister,' Cholon akiñiu, Alakaluf ekin-eč 'woman,' Tsoneka na-kuna; Macro-Tucanoan: Nadobo kuñan, Särä kana 'mother'; Equatorial: Yurucare igũn 'girl,' ti-gũn 'daughter,' Cuica kuneu-ksoy 'girl,' kunakunam 'woman,' Proto-Tupi *kuyã, Guarani kuña 'female,' kuña-taĩ 'girl,' Guarayo ekuna 'woman,' Canoeiro kuña-tain 'small girl,' Kamayura kunja 'woman,' Guahibo kvantua 'first wife,' Amuesha kuyan-iša 'woman'; Macro-Carib: Palmella ena-kone 'mother,' Accawai kana-muna 'girl,' Muinane kini-ño, Miranya guaniu 'mother'; Macro-Panoan: Chama eg^wan-asi 'woman,' Lengua iŋ-kyin 'mother,' Sanapana küli-guana-man 'old woman,' ?Chacobo huini 'female,' ?Cavineña ekwa?a 'mother'; Macro-Ge: Suya kuña 'woman,' Cherente pi-kon, Capaxo konjan, Caraja hanökö. [AM 272, P 283, H 164, LC 922, AMN

12 MAKO 'child'

- ?NIGER-CONGO: Bantu: Ngoala maŋku 'child,' Yaunde moŋgo, Pande maŋga, Mbudikum-Bamum muŋke. [HJ II: 271]
- INDO-EUROPEAN: Proto-Indo-European *maghos 'young,' *maghu 'child, boy'; Iranian: Avestan maγava 'unmarried'; Celtic: Old Irish macc 'son'; Germanic: Gothic magus 'boy,' Old English magu 'child, son, man,' Swedish måg 'son-in-law'; Baltic: Latvian mač (gen. maga) 'small.' [IE 696, AB 371]
- DRAVIDIAN: Tamil maka 'child, young of an animal, son or daughter,' Malayalam makan 'son,' makka! 'children (esp. sons),' Kota mog 'child,' Toda mox 'child, son, male, daughter,' Kannada maga 'son, male person,' makan 'son,' magu 'infant, child of either sex,' Kodagu makka 'children,' Tulu mage 'son,' magalu 'daughter,' Telugu maga 'male,' Konda moga koro 'boy child,' gālu 'daughter' (< *mgālu), Pengo gār 'daughter,' Kuwi maka (vocative used to daughters and sisters in affection), Malto maqe 'boy,' maqi 'girl,' maqo 'small, little, young,' maqu 'young of an animal.' [D 4616, AB 371]
- CAUCASIAN: Proto-Caucasian *mik'wV 'small, young one,' Proto-Avar-Andi *mok'i ~ *mik'i 'small, child,' Proto-Dido *mik'V 'small, little,' Proto-Lezghian *mik'^wV 'young.' [C 151]
- SINO-TIBETAN: Tibeto-Burman: Proto-Tibeto-Burman *māk 'son-in-law,' Miri mak(-bo),' Burmese (sa-)mak, Lushei māk(-pa). [ST 324]
- INDO-PACIFIC: Southwest New Guinea: Jaqai mak 'child,' Aghu amoko, Madinava imega(-kaivagu). [SWNG 12]

AMERIND: Almosan-Keresiouan: Natick mukketchouks 'boy,' Beothuk magaraguis 'son,' Santa Ana -ma'kə 'my daughter,' Acoma magə 'girl,' Hidatsa makadištamia; Penutian: Cayuse m'oks 'baby,' Modoc mukak, Gashowu mokheta 'girl,' Santa Cruz mux-aš, Zuni maki 'young woman,' Yuki muh 'young,' Mixe mahntk 'son,' ?miš 'girl, boy'; Hokan: Achomawi mik-tsan 'child' (-tsan = dim.), Yana ?imx 'young,' Washo mèhu 'boy,' Chumash (Santa Barbara) mičamo 'boy,' amičanek 'girl,' Chumash (Santa Ynez) makčai 'daughter,' mak-isi-huanok 'girl,' Cocopa xmik 'boy,' Walapai mik, Maricopa maxay, Yuman maša-xay 'girl,' Tequistlatec (4a-)mihkano 'boy': Central Amerind: Tewa mogè 'young,' ?Otomi metsi 'boy'; Chibchan-Paezan: Cuna mači(-gua), Ulua muix-bine 'child,' Chimila muka 'son-in-law,' muka-yunkvir 'daughter,' Shiriana moko 'girl,' Nonama mukua 'daughter,' mučaira 'son'; Andean: Yahgan maku 'son,' makou-esa 'daughter-in-law,' Yamana māku-n 'son'; Macro-Tucanoan: Yeba mãkẽẽ 'child,' yimaki 'son,' Waikina maxkẽ 'child,' mehino 'boy,' Dyurumawa (ma-)maki '(small) child,' Coto ma-make 'boy,' Tucano muktuia 'boy, girl,' vimago 'girl,' dyemaxkî 'child,' Curetu si-magö 'daughter,' si-mugi 'son,' Waiana yemakə 'daughter,' Ömöa yemaxke 'son,' Ticuna mākan 'child,' Desana mague 'son,' Auake makuamẽ, Waikina make; Equatorial: Mehinacu yamakui 'boy,' Paumari makinaua 'boy, young,' -makhini 'grandson,' Marawan makibmani 'boy,' Uru mači 'daughter,' Caranga mač 'son,' Oyampi kunyã-muku- 'girl,' Maue makubdia, Tambe kusamuku 'young woman'; Macro-Carib: Yabarana mūku 'boy,' Galibi magon 'young of animals,' Cumanagote miku 'child,' Pavishana mu'gi 'daughter,' Taulipang muku 'son,' Accawai mogo; Macro-Panoan: Tiatinagua mahi; Macro-Ge: Apinage mäaukride 'girl,' Ramkokamekran mäggepru, Coroado meke-šambe 'son.' [AM 62, AMN]

13 MALIQ'A 'to suck(le), nurse; breast'

- AFRO-ASIATIC: Proto-Afro-Asiatic: *mlg 'breast, udder, suck,' Arabic mlğ 'to suck the breast,' Old Egyptian mnd (< *mlg) 'woman's breast, udder'; Cushitic: Somali maal- 'to milk,' Rendille maal-. [N 291, LN 291]
- INDO-EUROPEAN: Proto-Indo-European *melĝ- 'to milk'; Greek $\dot{\alpha}\mu\epsilon\lambda\gamma\omega$; Italic: Latin mulg-ēre; Celtic: Irish bligim 'to milk,' mlicht 'milk'; Germanic: Gothic miluks 'milk,' Old Norse mjolka 'to milk,' English 'to milk, milk'; Baltic: Lithuanian milžti 'to milk'; Slavic: Old Church Slavic mlěsti; Albanian mjellë; Tocharian: Tocharian A mālk-lune 'milking,' malke 'milk,' Tocharian B malk-wer 'milk.' [IE 722]
- URALIC: Proto-Uralic (Illich-Svitych) *mälye 'breast,' Proto-Finno-Ugric (Rédei) *mälke; Saami mielgâ 'breast, chest,' Mordvin mälhkä 'breast,' Vogul mägl (with metathesis), Hungarian mell, Yukaghir melu-t. [N 291, R 267]

- DRAVIDIAN: Kurux melkhā 'throat, neck' and Malto melqe 'throat,' Tamil melku 'to chew, masticate,' Malayalam melluka 'to chew, champ,' Toda melk 'mouthful,' Kannada mellu 'to chew, masticate, eat with a muttering sound,' melaku 'bringing up again for rumination,' Telugu mekku 'to eat, gobble,' Gadba mekkap- 'to eat like a glutton.' [D 5077, 5080]
- ESKIMO-ALEUT: Aleut *umlix* 'chest,' Kuskokwim *milugâ* 'sucks it out,' *mulik* 'nipple,' *milûgarâ* 'licks (or sucks) it; kisses it (a child).' [EU]
- CAUCASIAN: Proto-Caucasian *mVq'VłV 'throat, larynx,' Proto-Avar-Andi *maq̄'ala 'throat,' Proto-Dido *muq', Proto-Dargi *muq'luq' 'chute, gutter.' [C 142]
- AMERIND: Almosan: Lower Fraser məlq^w 'throat,' Nootka muk^w 'swallow,' Kwakwala mlχ^w-2id 'chew food for the baby,' mlq^wa 'moisten the fingers with the tongue,' Heiltsuk melqva 'chew food for baby,' melχv-baút 'lick the end of something,' Yurok mik'olum 'swallow,' Kutenai u2mqoł; Penutian: Chinook -mốkuī- 'throat,' mlq^w-tan 'cheek,' Wishram ō-mēqλ 'lick'; Oregon: Takelma mülk' 'swallow,' Tfalatik milq, Kalapuya malqmat 'lick'; Yokuts mōk'i 'swallow,' mik'-is 'throat,' Mixe amu2ul 'suck,' Zoque mu2k; Hokan: Yuma mal^jaqé 'neck,' Walapai malqi' 'throat, neck' Havasupai milqé 'throat,' Yavapai melqí 'neck,' Mohave mal^jaqé 'throat,' Akwa'ala milqí 'neck,' Paipai milqí; Chibchan: Cuna murki-makka 'swallow,' murgi murgi sae 'swallow food'; Andean: Quechua (Cochabamba) malq'a 'throat,' Quechua (Huaraz) mallaqa 'be hungry'; Aymara maλq'a 'swallow, throat' (a borrowing from Quechua?) Equatorial: Guamo mirko 'drink.' [P 239, AMN; this etymology is explored in greater detail in Chapter 11.]

14 MANA 'to stay (in a place)'

- ?NILO-SAHARAN: Tatoga min 'to stand,' Shabo maŋ-ka 'to sit.' [NSB, HF 12]
 AFRO-ASIATIC: Proto-Afro-Asiatic *mn 'to remain, be firm'; Ancient Egyptian mn 'to remain,' Coptic mun; Semitic: Proto-Semitic *'mn 'to be firm, safe,' Arabic 'munu 'to be loyal to someone,' 'manu 'to be safe,' Geez 'mn 'to be faithful,' Syriac 'amīn 'firm,' Classical Hebrew (n-)'mn 'to be permanent, safe'; Omotic: Gofa min 'to be firm, strong'; Cushitic: Oromo manā 'house, home,' Somali mīn; Chadic: Musgu mine 'to be.' [CS 38, N 287, UOL 192]
- ?KARTVELIAN: Georgian mena 'dwelling' (possibly a borrowing from Iranian languages). [N 287]
- INDO-EUROPEAN: Proto-Indo-European *men 'to remain'; Indic: Sanskrit man 'to linger, not budge from a place'; Iranian: Old Persian man 'to remain, wait for'; Armenian mnam 'I remain, wait for'; Italic: Latin man(-ere) 'to remain'; Tocharian: Tocharian A mñe 'waiting,' mäsk (< *men-sk) 'to be.' [IE 729, N 287, UOL 192]</p>

- DRAVIDIAN: Proto-Dravidian *man 'to remain in a place,' Brahui manning 'to become, be,' Malto mene, Kurux mannā, Kuwi man 'to be, remain, stay,' Konda man 'to be, stay, dwell,' Parji men 'to be, stay,' Telugu manu 'to live, exist,' mannu 'to last, be durable,' Malayalam mannuka 'to stand fast,' Tamil mannu 'to be permanent, remain long, stay.' [D 4778, N 287]
- TUNGUS: Evenki mänä 'to live settled, stay in camp for a long time in one place,' Negidal mänägä 'to remain.' [N 287]
- CAUCASIAN: Proto-Caucasian **li-ma(n)-* 'to stay, be,' Hurrian *mann-* 'to be.' [NSC 111]
- BASQUE min 'to place, set up, settle.'
- BURUSHASKI *mAn(-As)* 'to be, become.' [B 257]
- INDO-PACIFIC: South New Guinea: Makleu man 'to sit,' Jab mön; Central New Guinea: Siane min 'to stay, sit,' Gende mina 'stay,' Mogei mana(-munt) 'to sit,' Kuno amen(-nyint); Northeast New Guinea: Langtub min 'to stay'; Unclassified New Guinea: Waruna mana 'to dwell,' Gogodala mana 'to sit, stay.' [IP 65]
- AMERIND: Almosan-Keresiouan: Nootka ma- 'dwell'; Penutian: Tsimshian mān 'remain,' Kalapuya māni- 'wait,' Maidu ma 'be,' Zuni Zīma 'sit'; Hokan: Subtiaba -ama; Chibchan-Paezan: Cacaopera ima 'wait,' Puruha ma 'be,' Timicua -ma 'inside'; Andean: Cholona -man 'in,' Aymara mankxa 'inside,' Araucanian minu, Quechua ma- 'be,' Yahgan mani 'be,' jumanana 'live,' möni 'remain,' kamani 'stand'; Equatorial: Dzubucua mañe 'remain,' Otomi yamania 'live,' Paumari gamanani 'stand,' Coche xamnan 'be'; Macro-Carib: Yameo mune 'sit down,' Ocaina mūn2xo 'remain,' Apiaca umano 'wait'; Macro-Panoan: Cashinawa mana, Shipibo manei 'remain,' Chacobo man- 'wait,' Panobo manai, Lule -ma 'in'; Macro-Ge: Botocudo mēn 'remain,' Crengez moinj 'to sit,' Capoxo moinjam, Bororo amu ~ amī 'to rest,' Cayapo kaimaniun 'stand,' kaman 'inside,' Tibagi ema 'dwell,' [AM: G46, A 59, MG 99, AMN]

15 MANO 'man'

- ?NIGER-CONGO: Bantu: Mbudikum-Bamum -mani 'man,' Rwanda mana, Nyanja -muna, Ci-ambo -mna.
- NILO-SAHARAN: East Sudanic: Me'en mɛ?ɛn- 'person,' Maban mɛn̯nu, Tama ma, Ik am, Didinga mat^s 'male,' Merarit mo, Dinka mot^s, Maban: Mabang ma-šu 'person.' [ES70, NSB]
- AFRO-ASIATIC: Proto-Afro-Asiatic *mn 'male, man, person'; Ancient Egyptian mnw 'Min, a phallic deity,' Old Egyptian mnyw 'herdsman'; Omotic: Wolamo minō 'warrior,' Janjero monō 'people'; Cushitic: Proto-Cushitic *mn 'man,' Burji méen-a 'people,' Somali mun 'male,' Hadiyya manna 'people,' man-čo 'person,' Tembaro mana, Iraqw ameni 'woman'; Berber:

Zenaga uman 'kin,' Ghadames iman 'person,' Zwawa iman, Qabyle iman; Chadic: Proto-Chadic *mn(j) 'man,' Proto-West Chadic *mani 'man, husband,' Karekare men 'people,' Kanakuru minja, Bata māno 'man,' Musgu muni 'woman,' Logone mēni 'man, person,' Dari mānji 'person.' [AA 78, N 292, OS 801, LN 292]

- INDO-EUROPEAN: Proto-Indo-European *manu(-s) ~ *monu(-s) 'man'; Indic: Sanskrit mánu ~ mánuṣ 'man, person'; Iranian: Avestan *manus 'man'; Germanic: Gothic manna, Old High German man, English man (pl. men), woman (< wife + man); Slavic: Old Church Slavic moṣžī (< *mon-g-jo-), Russian muž 'husband.' [IE 700, N 292]
- URALIC: Proto-Uralic (Illich-Svitych) *mäńće 'man, person'; Ugric: Vogul mɛńći ~ mańśi (self-name), Ostyak mańt' ~ mońt' ~ məś ~ maś (selfname of one Ostyak clan), Hungarian magyar (self-name); Finnic: Finnish mies, Estonian mees. [U 114, N 292]
- DRAVIDIAN: Kolami $m\bar{a}s$ 'man,' $m\bar{a}c$ 'husband,' $m\bar{a}ca$ 'wife,' Naikri $m\bar{a}s$ 'man,' $m\bar{a}sal$ 'woman,' Naiki $m\bar{a}s$ 'husband,' $m\bar{a}sa$ 'wife,' Parji $ma\tilde{n}ja \sim ma\tilde{n}\tilde{n}a$ 'man,' Gondi manja 'man, person,' Konda $m\bar{a}si$ 'husband,' Kurux $m\bar{e}t \sim m\bar{e}t$ 'adult man, husband,' Tamil $m\bar{a}ntar$ 'people, men.' [D 4791; Illich-Svitych's comparison (N 292) is with D 4774: Tamil man 'king, chief, husband,' etc. The two are probably related.]
- JAPANESE-RYUKYUAN: Old Japanese (wo-)mina 'woman' (mod. onna). [SY] AINU $meno(-ko) \sim mene(-ko)$ 'woman.'
- CAUCASIAN: Proto-Caucasian *mVnxV 'man, male.' [NSC 116]
- YENISEIAN: Proto-Yeniseian *pix- 'man.' [NSC 116]
- INDO-PACIFIC: Bilakura munan 'man,' Warenbori mando, Osum aminika 'woman,' Ikundun mundu 'man.' [FS 92, 93, 106]
- NAHALI mancho \sim manco 'man,' man-ta 'men.' [NA 89]
- MIAO-YAO: Proto-Miao-Yao *hm ∂ n 'person,' Miao hmo $\eta \sim hmu\eta$ (self-name of the Miao), Yao man ~ myen ~ mun (self-name of the Yao). [PB 336]
- AMERIND: Almosan-Keresiouan: Bella Coola man 'father,' Pentlatch mān, Squamish man, Blackfoot no-ma 'husband'; Penutian: Coos ma 'person,' Kalapuya menami, Nisenan manai 'boy,' Rumsien ama 'person,' Hokan: Chumash s-mano ~ 4-mano 'man'; Chibchan-Paezan: Ayoman ayoman 'husband,' Warrau moana 'people'; Andean: Iquito komano 'father,' Yahgan imun- 'father,' yamana 'person'; Macro-Tucanoan: Yahuna meni 'boy,' manehē 'husband,' Yupua manape, Yuyuka yemane, Coto ömuna 'man,' Proto-Nambikwara *mīn 'father,' Kaliana mīnõ 'man, person,' imone 'father-in-law,' Wanana meno 'man,' manino 'her husband,' Waikina emeno 'man'; Equatorial: Guahibo amona 'husband,' itsa-mone 'person,' Callahuaya mana, Achual aišman 'man,' Marawan maki-b-mani 'boy,' Chamicuro θamoni 'my father,' Manao re-manao 'person,' Proto-

Tupi *men 'husband,' Guarani mena, Guajajara man; Macro-Carib: Apiaca moni 'boy,' Ocaina moon 'father,' Paravithana mei-moen 'son,' Miranya itse-meni; Macro-Panoan: Moseten moinči 'person,' Charrua itojman 'boy,' Guana emmanabie 'man'; Macro-Ge: Cayapo män 'person,' miän 'husband,' Chicriaba aimaman 'boy,' mamaŋ 'father,' Coroado kuoyman 'man.' [AM 154, AMN]

16 MENA 'to think (about)'

?KHOISAN: Sandawe mě:na 'to like.'

NIGER-CONGO: Fulup -maman 'know,' Mambila mini 'think,' Malinke men 'understand,' Bambara me, Proto-Bantu *màni ~ *mèni ~ *mèny ~ *màn 'know,' Namshi meĩ, Ibo ma, Mandyak me. [NC 28, KS 45, BA IV: 8, 12]

KORDOFANIAN: Tumale aiman 'think.' [NK 41]

- NILO-SAHARAN: Songhai ma 'understand,' Daza monər 'know,' Dinik mái, Lotuko mij, Proto-Daju *minaŋe 'to dream,' Shatt miniŋ, Ik miin-es 'to love,' Teso a-min. [KS 45, NSB, KER]
- AFRO-ASIATIC: Proto-Afro-Asiatic *man 'think, understand, wish, desire, count'; Semitic: Sokotri mnj 'wish,' Tigrinya tämännäjä, Arabic mnw 'understand,' Hebrew mānāh 'count,' Akkadian manū, Aramaic mənā; Cushitic: Somali mān 'mind'; Chadic: Angas man 'know,' Boleva mon, Masa min 'wish.' [N 281, AB 348]
- INDO-EUROPEAN: Proto-Indo-European *men 'to think'; Anatolian: Hittite me-ma-a-i (< *me-mn-eA-) 'to say'; Italic: Latin men(s) 'mind,' meminī 'to remember,' mon(-ēre) 'to remind, warn'; Indic: Sanskrit mányatē 'to think,' mánas 'mind'; Greek mimnēskein 'to remember'; Germanic: Gothic munan 'to think,' muns 'thought'; Baltic: Lithuanian menù, miñti 'to remember'; Slavic: Old Church Slavic mĭněti 'to count,' pa-meştĭ 'mind, memory'; Albanian mund 'I can'; Armenian i-manam 'I understand'; Tocharian: Tocharian A mnu 'thought,' Tocharian B mañu 'wish (n.), desire (n.).' [IE 726, N 281, AB 348]
- URALIC: Proto-Uralic (Illich-Svitych) *manV ~ *monV 'guess, speak, conjure,' (Rédei) *mon& 'say'; Yukaghir mon; Samoyed: Yurak maan, Tavgy muno 'say, command'; Ugric: Hungarian mon(-d) 'say'; Finnic: Finnish manaa 'to warn, admonish, curse, bewitch,' Estonian mana 'abuse, curse,' Saami moanâ 'to conjecture,' Mordvin muńa 'bewitch,' Cheremis mana 'speak, order.' [U 53, N 281, AB 348, KR 290]
- DRAVIDIAN: Tamil ma<u>n</u>u 'prayer, request, word,' Kannada manuve 'request,' Telugu manavi 'prayer, humble request,' Irula ma<u>n</u>i 'talk, speak,' Kota may<u>n</u>- 'talk, scold, abuse.' [D 4671, 4775, N 281]
- ?TURKIC: Turkish mani 'folk song,' Crimean Turkish manä 'folk song, melody.' [LN 281]

BASQUE mun 'medulla,' munak (pl.) 'brains.' [LC 916]

?BURUSHASKI minas 'story, tale.' [B 506]

- ?SINO-TIBETAN: Tibeto-Burman: Proto-Tibeto-Burman *r-miŋ 'name,' Tibetan miŋ,' Magari armin, Limbu miŋ, Garo miŋ 'to name,' Burmese mań 'to be named,' Mikir mon 'mind,' mun-t'i 'to think, understand, guess, assume, appreciate,' Midźu moŋ 'to summon.' [ST 83] Cf. also Proto-Tibeto-Burman *maŋ 'dream,' often in composition with Proto-Tibeto-Burman *ip 'sleep,' as in Nung ip-maŋ 'to dream,' Burmese ip-mak 'dream,' hmaŋ(-tak-mi) 'to be possessed (applied to somnambulism).' [ST 82]
- AMERIND: Almosan-Keresiouan: Shawnee menw 'prefer, like,' Laguna amū 'love,' Catawba mu?e 'wish,' Thompson iomin- 'have friendly feelings,' Okanagan iqamēn 'love,' Kalispel xāmenč, Spokane -manən 'wish,' Nootka māna 'try, test'; Penutian: Lake Miwok mēna 'think,' menaw 'try,' Bodega Miwok munu 'be hungry,' Patwin meina 'try'; Hokan: Chimariko mi?inan 'like,' Karok ?īmnih 'love'; Central Amerind: Chichimec men, Mixtec manī; Chibchan-Paezan: Chimila mojnaya 'wish,' Binticua meyuno 'seek,' Timucua mani 'wish,' Andaqui miña-za 'I sought,' Colorado munai 'love,' muna-ha 'wish'; Andean: Araucanian mañumn 'love,' Aymara muna, Sabella mē- 'seek,' Cholona men 'wish,' Quechua muna; Equatorial: Otomi manenianda 'love,' momene 'think,' Baure emeniko 'love,' Kamayura emanhau; Macro-Panoan: Lengua min- 'wish,' Mataco hemen 'love,' Vejoz humin, Mascoy emeni, Caduveo addemane 'do you love me?'; Macro-Ge: Kamakan mã 'seek,' Krẽye mã- 'wish, love,' Apinage amnõnmõn 'think.' [AM 270, AMN]

17 MI(N) 'what?'

- KHOISAN: ≠Au.//eî kama 'if, when,' G//abake /kam 'when,' Naron kama 'if, when,' Nama hamo 'when,' maba 'where,' Kxoe ma 'who, which,' /Nu-//en maba 'where.' [SAK 384, 757, 758, UOL 71]
- AFRO-ASIATIC: Proto-Afro-Asiatic *m(j) 'what, who'; Semitic: Akkadian $m\bar{n}n$ 'what,' mann 'who,' man-ma 'whoever,' Geez mi 'what,' Amharic min 'what,' Arabic man ~ min 'who,' mah-mā 'whatever,' Aramaic man 'who,' Classical Hebrew $m\bar{n}$; Ancient Egyptian m(j) 'who,' m 'what'; Berber: Tuareg ma 'what,' mi 'who,' Shilha ma(t) 'who, what,' $m\bar{t}$ 'who'; Cushitic: Proto-East Cushitic *ma? 'what,' Saho mi 'who,' mā 'what,' Somali máḥā 'what,' Oromo māni 'what,' -mi (interrogative particle), Sidamo ma 'what,' Darasa ma 'what,' māta 'who'; Chadic: Hausa mē ~ mī 'what,' Mocha ámo, Alagwa mi 'what,' miya 'who'; Chadic: Hausa mē ~ mī 'what,' Karekare mija, Margi mì, Bata mən, Ngala mena, Logone mini 'who,' Sokoro -ma (interrogative particle). [AA 77, N 300, UOL 71, LN 300]

- KARTVELIAN: Proto-Kartvelian *ma ~ *maj 'what,' *mi-n 'who,' Georgian ma 'what,' win 'who,' win-me 'whoever,' Chan mu 'what,' min 'who,' Svan maj 'what.' [KA 124, 135, N 300, UOL 71]
- INDO-EUROPEAN: Proto-Indo-European *mo- (base of interrogative adverbs); Anatolian: Hittite ma-ši-š 'how much,' mahhan 'when,' Luwian mān, Hieroglyphic Hittite mana 'if, when'; Celtic: Old Irish má 'if,' Middle Breton ma 'what'; Tocharian: Tocharian A mänt 'how.' [N 300, EU]
- URALIC: Proto-Uralic (Illich-Svitych) *mi 'what,' (Rédei) *m%; Yukaghir meneme 'something'; Samoyed: Tavgy ma 'what,' Yenisei Samoyed mii', Kamassian mo 'why'; Ugric: Vogul män 'which, what,' Hungarian mi 'what, which'; Finnic: Finnish mi ~ mi-kä, Saami mi ~ mâ, Cheremis ma ~ mo, Votyak ma 'what.' [U 54, N 300, EU, R 296]
- ?DRAVIDIAN: Kajkadi *midā* 'what,' Burgendi *mī*, Tamil (even-)um '(who)ever.' [N 300, UOL 71]
- TURKIC: Proto-Turkic *mi 'what,' Chuvash měn 'what,' miśe 'how much,' měnle 'what kind of,' Old Uighur $mu \sim m\ddot{u}$ (sentence question enclitic), Turkish mi (sentence question enclitic). [N 300, EU]
- MONGOLIAN: Mongolian $-\bar{u}$ (< *wu < *mu) (sentence interrogative), Monguor $amu \sim ama$ 'what.' [EU]
- TUNGUS: Tungus -ma (indefinitizer), (ēku-)ma '(what)ever.' [EU]
- KOREAN muõt 'what,' mjet 'how much,' Old Korean mai 'why.' [EU]
- JAPANESE-RYUKYUAN: Ryukyuan $m\bar{i}$ 'what,' -mi (sentence interrogative enclitic). [EU]
- AINU mak ~ makanak 'what,' makan 'what kind.' [EU]
- CHUKCHI-KAMCHATKAN: Proto-Chukchi-Kamchatkan *m-ənqV 'what,' *mke 'who,' *ma? 'when,' *miŋ 'which,' Chukchi mikin 'who', mi-k 'where,' Kamchadal min 'which, what sort.' [EU, CK]
- CAUCASIAN: Proto-Caucasian *ma (interrogative particle), Chechen mila 'who,' Bats me. [KA 135]
- BURUSHASKI $m\epsilon n$ 'who,' amin 'which,' $m\epsilon n$ (. . . $k\epsilon$) 'who(ever).' [L 265]
- YENISEIAN: Proto-Yeniseian *wi- \sim *we- 'what.' [Y]
- INDO-PACIFIC: Andaman Islands: Biada min 'thing,' Bale ming; Central Melanesian: Laumbe mina, Reef (kele)mengge 'this (thing)'; North New Guinea: Nyaura məndə 'thing, what,' Arapesh mane 'what'; Southwest New Guinea: Kati man 'something'; Central New Guinea: Matap mina 'what.' [IP 75]
- AUSTRALIAN: Proto-Australian *minha ~ *minya 'what,' Dyirbal minya, Pitta-Pitta minha, Gumbaynggir minya, Malyangapa minhaga, Yota-Yota minhe, Diyari minha. [RD 373, 376]
- NAHALI mingay 'where,' miyan 'how much.' [NA 91]

- AUSTROASIATIC: Munda: Kurku amae 'who,' Mundari ci-mae 'why'; Mon-Khmer: Mon mu 'what,' Sakai ma', āmai 'who,' Central Sakai mō, mā 'what.' [NA 91, UOL 71]
- AMERIND: Almosan-Keresiouan: Kwakwala m'as 'what,' Mandan mana 'who,' $matsw \varepsilon$ 'what,' Tutelo $m\tilde{a}$?tu 'when'; Penutian: Siuslaw $m\hat{n}\check{c}$, North Sahaptin mēn 'where,' mūn 'when' miš 'how, why,' Nez Perce mana 'what,' mine 'where,' maua 'when,' Patwin mena 'where,' Central Sierra Miwok manax- 'who,' mičy 'do what,' Northern Sierra Miwok mini 'where,' mi-tan 'when,' Bodega Miwok manti 'who,' San Jose Costanoan mani 'where,' San Francisco Costanoan mato 'who,' Chitimacha 2am 'what,' Atakapa ma 'where,' Choctaw mano 'when,' imato 'where,' Yuki im 'who,' Coast Yuki im 'where,' Wappo may 'who,' Chontal max, Yucatec ma-š, Tzeltal mač'a, Jacaltec mat^s(a); Hokan: Yana ?ambi, East Pomo am, Chumash muski, Cocopa makaya 'where,' Diegueño maap 'who,' ma?yum 'when,' maay 'where,' Mohave makač 'who,' maki 'where,' Yuma meki, Maricopa mekyenye 'who,' miki 'where,' Akwa'ala mukat 'who,' Karankawa muda 'where'; Central Amerind: Mazatec hme 'what'; Chibchan-Paezan: Tarascan ambe, Guamaca mai 'who, how,' Kagaba mai 'who,' mani 'where,' mitsa 'when,' mili 'which,' Cacaopera ma(-ram) 'where,' Matagalpa man, Bribri mĩk 'when,' Sumu manpat, Cabecar mãnẽ 'which,' Move ama 'where,' Chimila miki 'who,' muru 'when,' me-ma 'to where,' me-k 'from where,' Guambiana mu 'who,' Totoro man 'how many,' Paez manč 'when,' manka 'where,' manzos 'how often,' mants 'how many,' mau 'how,' Cayapa mu $\eta \sim$ maa 'who,' Allentiac men, Catio mai 'where,' Colorado moa 'who,' matuši 'when'; Andean: Sek xamanmi 'where,' Jebero ma? 'what,' Cahuapana ma-e 'what,' impi 'when,' Quechua ima 'what,' may 'where'; Equatorial: Guamo miku 'what,' Yurucare ama 'who, which,' Tinigua mné'á 'who,' Yuruna mane, Paumari -mani- (interrogative), Candoshi maya 'what,' Esmeralda muka, Timote mape 'when,' Turiwara maape 'when, where,' Saliba imakena 'when,' Tuyoneri menoka 'when,' me-yo 'where,' Guajajara mon 'who,' Guayaki ma 'what, how,' Guarani mba'e 'what,' mamo 'where,' Cofan mã-ni, Maripu manu(b) 'in which direction,' Kandoshi maja 'what'; Macro-Carib: Witoto mika, Miranya mukoka 'when,' mu 'whose,' Witoto-Kaimö muka which'; Macro-Panoan: Nocten emetta 'what,' mequie 'when,' Toba-Guazu mi 'who'; Macro-Ge: Caraho ampo 'what,' maneno 'when,' ampômẽ 'which,' Puri ya-moeni 'when,' Aponegicran muena 'what,' Cayapo mā 'where,' Umutina mašika 'where,' matuni 'why,' Krēye menõ 'who,' ampô-ny 'why,' Botocudo mina 'who.' [AM: G103, AMN]

18 PAL '2'

- NIGER-CONGO: Temne (kə)bari 'twin,' Mano pere '2,' Nimbari bala, Daka bara, Proto-Bantu *bàdí ~ *bìdí '2,' *bádì 'side.' [NC 48, KS 76, UOL 92, BA III: 21, 22, 43]
- NILO-SAHARAN: Nubian bar(-si) 'twin,' Merarit wírre '2,' Kunama báarè '2,' ibā 'twin,' Maba mbar '2,' Mesalit mbarrá, Tama warri, Baka brūe, Ilit ball-ame. [ES 119, KS 76, UOL 92, NSB]
- AFRO-ASIATIC: Omotic: Kafa barā 'other,' Mocha baro, Dime bal; Cushitic: Saho baray '2nd,' Oromo bíra; Chadic: Proto-Central Chadic *(kV-)bwVr '2.' [VB]
- INDO-EUROPEAN: Proto-Indo-European *pol 'half, side'; Indic: Sanskrit (ka-)palam 'half'; Albanian palë 'side, part, pair'; Slavic: Old Church Slavic polŭ 'side, half,' Russian pol 'half.' [IE 802, 986, IS 356]
- URALIC: Proto-Uralic (Illich-Svitych) *pälä ~ pole 'half,' (Rédei) *pälä 'half, side'; Samoyed: Yurak Samoyed peele 'half,' Selkup pɛle, Kamassian pjeel 'half, side'; Ugric: Hungarian fél ~ fele 'half, (one) side (of two),' Vogul pääl 'side, half'; Finnic: Saami bælle ~ bæle 'side, half, one of a pair,' Mordvin pel' 'side,' pele 'half,' Votyak pal 'side, half.' [U 67, IS 356, R 362]
- DRAVIDIAN: Proto-Dravidian *pāl 'part, portion,' Tamil pāl 'part, portion, share,' Malayalam pāl 'part,' Kannada pāl 'division, part,' Tulu pālu 'share, portion, part,' Telugu pālu 'share, portion,' Parji pēla 'portion.' [D 4097, IS 356]
- INDO-PACIFIC: Andaman Islands: Biada (*ik-*) $p\bar{a}\bar{u}r(-da)$ '2,' Kede (*ír-*) $p\bar{o}l$, Chariar (*nér-*) $p\delta l$, Juwoi (*ró-*) $p\bar{a}\bar{u}r$; New Guinea: Ndani bere, Sauweri pere; Tasmanian: Southeastern boula ~ bura, Southern pooalih. [T 331, VB]
- AUSTRALIAN: Proto-Australian *bula '2,' Proto-Pama-Nyungan *(nyuN)palV '(you) two,' *pula 'they two,' Ngiyambaa bulā 'one of a pair.' [RD 356, BB 7, 31]
- AUSTROASIATIC: Proto-Austroasiatic *2(m)bar '2'; Munda: Santali bar, Kharia (u-)bar, (am-)bar 'you two,' Juang ambar, Remo 2mbār '2'; Mon-Khmer: Khmu' bār, Bahnar 2bar, Jeh bal, Old Mon 2bar, Old Khmer ber, Sakai hmbar, Khasi ār, Riang (k-)ār, Palaung $\bar{a}r \sim a$, par 'you two,' Temiar bər(-nar) '2,' Central Nicobarese \tilde{a} . [PB 135, UOL 94]
- MIAO-YAO: Proto-Miao-Yao *(a)war ~ *(∂)wər '2,' Proto-Miao *way (< *war), Proto-Yao *(w)i. [PB 415]

DAIC: Mak wa 'twin,' Ong Be von '2.' [PB 415]

AUSTRONESIAN: Proto-Austronesian $k \mathfrak{s}(m) bal \sim (\eta) k \mathfrak{s}(m) bar$ 'twin,' Javanese këbar 'doubled,' këmbar 'twin,' Motu $h \mathfrak{e}$ -kapa 'twins,' Roro akabani '8' (= 4-pair). [AN 76, WW 227, PB 415]

AMERIND: Penutian: Wintun palo(-l) '2,' Wappo p'ala 'twins,' Atakapa happalst '2,' Huave apool 'snap in two'; Chibchan-Paezan: Chiripo bor '2,' Xinca bial ~ piar, Bribri bul ~ bur, Cacaopera burru, Sanuma -palo (repetitive), polakapi '2,' Cayapo pal^ju, Colorado palu, Atacameño poya; Andean: Quechua pula 'both,' Aymara paja '2,' Yamana sa-pai 'we-2' (sa= 'thou'), Yahgan (i-)pai '(we) two'; Macro-Tucanoan: Tuyuka pealo '2,' Wanana pilia, Desana peru, Yupua apara, Proto-Nambikwara *p'āl(-in), Catuquina upaua, Hubde mbeere, Ticuna peia; Macro-Ge: Caraho pa-'we-2-inc.' [AM 262, AMN]

19 PAR 'to fly'

- NIGER-CONGO: Proto-West Sudanic *pil 'to fly,' Serer fol, Same pere, Ewe flò 'to jump,' Yoruba fò 'fly,' Grebo fri, Igbo fé, Ijo fin. [KS 32]
- NILO-SAHARAN: Dinka par 'to fly,' Nubian fire 'to flutter,' Teso a-poror 'to fly,' Teda bur-ci 'to jump,' Songhai firi 'to fly,' Ik por-on, Maasai -biri, Majang pir. [KS 32, NSD 27, UOL 193, KER, HF 12]
- AFRO-ASIATIC: Omotic: Proto-Omotic *pyaRR 'to fly'; Ancient Egyptian p? 'to fly, flee'; Semitic: Aramaic parr 'flee,' Arabic farra, South Arabian ferfir 'wing,' Amharic barrara 'fly away, flee'; Cushitic: Beja fār 'jump, hop,' Boyo firy 'flee'; Berber: Shilha firri to fly,' Ait Izdeg afru; Chadic: Ankwa p'ār 'jump,' Angas piar 'jump, leap,' Buduma fər 'fly, jump.' [CS 366, AA 32, IS 346]
- KARTVELIAN: Proto-Kartvelian *p'er 'to fly,' Georgian p'er, Svan p'er; Proto-Kartvelian *prin 'to fly,' Georgian prin ~ pren, Mingrelian purin, Chan purtin. [KA 152, 190, IS 346]
- INDO-EUROPEAN: Proto-Indo-European *(s)per 'to fly'; Indic: Sanskrit parná 'feather'; Iranian: Avestan parəna 'feather, wing'; Slavic: Old Church Slavic peros 'to fly,' pero 'feather.' [WP II: 21, IE 850, IS 346, EU]
- URALIC: Yukaghir perie 'feathers,' perienze 'feathered,' perien 'have wings'; Proto-Uralic *parV 'to fly'; Ugric: Ostyak $p \circ r \sim pur$ 'to fly.' [IS 346]
- DRAVIDIAN: Proto-Dravidian *parV ~ *parV 'to fly, run, jump,' Tamil para 'to fly, hover, flutter, move with celerity,' Malayalam parakka 'to fly, flee,' para 'bird,' paru 'flight,' Kota parn- 'to fly,' Toda por, Kannada par 'to leap up, run, jump, fly,' Kodagu par 'to fly, leap,' Telugu paracu 'to run away, flee,' parika 'a kind of bird,' Kui pāsk 'to fly,' Kuwi prād 'to run away.' [D 4020, NSD 27, IS 346]
- ?TUNGUS: Evenki hār 'to soar.' [IS 346]
- GILYAK parpar 'to hover, fly about.' [EU]
- CAUCASIAN: Proto-Caucasian *p±rV 'to fly,' Proto-West Caucasian *pərə, Ubyx pərə, Abkhaz pir; Proto-Lezghian *pVr-, Udi pur, Archi parx, Proto-Avar-Andi *par-pV-; Proto-Caucasian *părVpăłV 'butterfly, moth,'

Proto-West Caucasian *parəpalə 'moth,' Proto-Lezghian *pa(r)pal- 'butterfly.' [C 162, 167; KA 152, 190]

BASQUE pimpirina 'butterfly' (< *pir-pir-).

- SINO-TIBETAN: Proto-Sino-Tibetan *phur ~ *bhur 'to fly'; Archaic Chinese *pjwər 'to fly'; Tibeto-Burman: Proto-Tibeto-Burman *pur ~ *pir 'to fly,' Tibetan 'phur-ba, Central Tibetan 'phir-ba, Nung əphr 'to shake,' khoŋ-phr 'moth,' Garo bil 'to fly,' Dimasa bir, ?Bahing byer, ?Abor-Miri ber. [ST 181, 398, NSC 152]
- ?INDO-PACIFIC: Baham paru-baru 'bird,' Kondo boro, Kare purupuru, Bunabun piropir 'butterfly.' [FS 8, 135]
- NAHALI aphir 'to fly.' [NA 59; according to Kuiper this is a borrowing from Kurku]
- AUSTROASIATIC: Munda: Proto-Munda *apir 'to fly'; Mon-Khmer: Mon pau, Khmer par, Bahnar par, Jeh pal, Vietnamese bay. [PB 482]
- DAIC: Tai: Proto-Tai *7bin 'to fly,' Dioi bin; Sek bil ~ 7bil; Kam-Sui: Proto-Kam-Sui *pwen ~ *bwen, Kam pen, Sui win ~ vyen, Mak vin; Lakkia pon; Ong-Be vin. [PB 394]

AUSTRONESIAN: Proto-Formosan *(maq)baR 'to fly,' *(mi-)poRpoR. [PB 394]

20 POKO 'arm'

?KHOISAN: Hadza upukwa 'leg, hind leg, foot,' ufukwani 'thigh.' [BD 247, 249]

- NIGER-CONGO: Dagomba boγo 'arm,' Gbaya baxa, Ewe abo, Zande bo, Proto-Bantu *bókò, Sotho le-boko 'arm,' ?Wolof, Gbaya buko '10,' ?Mossi piga, ?Tiv puwə, ?Grebo pu, ?Vere bo. [KS 4, NC 44, UOL 194]
- NILO-SAHARAN: Bagirmi boko 'arm,' Baka baka, Berta buá, Didinga iba. [KS 4, CN 3, UOL 194]
- INDO-EUROPEAN: Proto-Indo-European *bhāghu(s) 'arm, forearm, elbow'; Indic: Sanskrit bāhúh 'arm'; Iranian: Avestan bāzus; Armenian bazuk 'forearm' (a loan from Iranian languages, according to Pokorny); Tocharian: Tocharian A poke 'arm,' Tocharian B pauke; Greek pakhus 'elbow, forearm'; Germanic: Old English bōg 'arm, shoulder, bough,' English bough. [IE 108, UOL 194]
- DRAVIDIAN: Kurux $p\bar{a}kn\bar{a}$ 'to take up into one's arms,' Malto $p\acute{a}ke$ 'to take in the lap.' [D 4050]
- MONGOLIAN: Proto-Mongolian * $ba\gamma u$ 'upper arm.' [AD 20]
- BURUSHASKI: Hunza $b_{A\gamma u}$ 'double armful,' Werchikwar $b_{A\gamma}$ 'o 'taking or embracing in two arms.' [B 65, W 38]
- YENISEIAN: Proto-Yeniseian *boq 'hand, palm.' [Y 28]
- SINO-TIBETAN: Tibeto-Burman: Proto-Tibeto-Burman * $pow \sim *bow$ 'arm' (cf. English bough for a similar phonetic development). [TB 442]
- ?INDO-PACIFIC: Andaman Islands: Bea pag 'claw,' Bale poag; Tasmanian

pögaréna 'shoulder'; New Britain: Sulka paaga 'fingernail'; West New Guinea: Baham pag; North New Guinea: Nafri faxa; East New Guinea: Amara foka; Unclassified New Guinea: Tate faha 'claw.' [IP 858]

NAHALI boko ~ bokko 'hand.' [NA 74]

?AUSTROASIATIC: Semang pāk 'hand,' ta-pak 'to slap.' [NA 63]

- DAIC: Tai: Proto-Tai *2ba 'shoulder'; Sek va; Kam-Sui: Mak ha; Ong-Be bea; Li: Proto-Li *va; Laqua $mu\partial$ 'shoulder' (< $*mb(\gamma)a$). [PB 378]
- AUSTRONESIAN: Proto-Austronesian *(?a)-baγa' 'shoulder,' Proto-Formosan *qa-baγa-(a)n, Proto-Oceanic *(qa-)paγa, Mukawa kabara, Paiwa kavara. [AN 19, WW 187, PB 378]
- AMERIND: Almosan-Keresiouan: Mandan sūpaxe 'arm,' Dakota xupahu, Biloxi sõpka 'fin'; Penutian: Natchez ilbak 'hand,' Choctaw ibbok 'hand, arm,' Chitimacha pākta 'armpit,' Totonac paqni? 'arm,' Huastec pahāb 'hand,' Quiche sipax 'give'; Hokan: Yana dac-buku 'arm,' Salinan puku, Chumash pu, Cochimi ginyakpak, Mohave hivipuk, Havasupai vuy-eboka, Subtiaba paxpu; Chibchan-Paezan: Shiriana poko \sim boko, Cuitlatec poxja, Jutiapa paxa, Chiquimulilla pux 'hand,' Xinca pahal 'arm,' Paya bakapu 'give,' Cayapa pexpex 'arm,' Colorado pexpe, Mura apixi, Chimu pīk 'give,' Puruha pux; Andean: Culli pui 'hand,' Simacu bixi, Allentiac pux 'give,' Auca po 'hand,'; Macro-Tucanoan: Canamari pöghy 'hand,' Papury mbake, Tiquie (m)bake 'arm,' Kaliana kijapakuba, Catauxim ču-bakõ 'hand,' Proto-Nambikwara *pik'; Equatorial: Chamacoco pukẽ 'arm,' Turaha pogo, Camsa buakua-ha, Coche buakwače 'hand, forearm,' Ramarama i-pāŋua 'arm,' Karif bugalaga 'armpit,' Omagua poa 'hand,' Proto-Tupi *po, Yuracare popo, Kamaru bo 'arm,' Aruashi bu 'hand'; Macro-Carib: Muinane ono-bwi ki 'arm,' Mocoa apo, Ocaina oo?po 'hand, Tamanaco (j-)apa(-ri) 'arm,' Coeruna (ko-)ipai; Macro-Panoan: Chulupi pakat 'hand,' Suhin pakat-ai, Sanapana in-apheik, Charrua (is-)bax 'arm,' Toba apige, Chacobo baš 'elbow, forearm,' Proto-Tacanan *bai 'arm'; Macro-Ge: Botocudo po 'hand,' Proto-Ge *pa 'arm,' Kaingan pe, Chiquito (i-)pa, Guato (ma-)po. [AM 7, MT 46, AMN]

21 PUTI 'vulva'

- NIGER-CONGO: Mande: Malinke butu 'vulva,' Guro buri, Bobo-Fing bido, Bisa bid; Bantu: Luganda -butɔ 'womb,' Kunda -budu, Swazi -ŋgo-boti, Ki-sikongo -buti. [HJ, M]
- NILO-SAHARAN: Songhai: Gao buti 'vulva,' Djerma bute; Koman: Ganza pit, Koma bitt. [NS 145, NSD 59]
- AFRO-ASIATIC: Proto-Afro-Asiatic *pwt 'hole, anus, vulva'; Omotic: Ganjule pote 'vagina'; Semitic: Hebrew pot 'vulva' ("secret parts" in the King James Version, Isaiah 3:17); Cushitic: Somali fúto 'anus,' Darasa fīdo

'genitals,' Oromo fuği 'vulva'; Chadic: Jegu paate, 'vulva,' paato 'penis,' Angas fut 'hole.' [CS 381, IS 340, WM 64]

KARTVELIAN: Proto-Kartvelian *put' 'hole,' Svan put'u. [IS 340]

- INDO-EUROPEAN: Proto-Indo-European *puto 'cunnus'; Indic: Sanskrit pū́tau 'buttocks'; Italic: Vulgar Latin *putta 'girl,' Old French pute (mod. putain) 'whore,' Provençal puta(-na), Spanish puta; Germanic: Old Icelandic fuð 'cunnus,' Middle High German vut 'vulva,' Swiss German fotz \sim fotza, Swedish fitta, fod 'rear end' (dialectal). [WP II: 21, IE 848, SM 1013]
- URALIC: Proto-Uralic (Illich-Svitych) *putV 'rectum,' (Rédei) *put‰'rectum, colon'; Ugric: Ostyak pŭti 'rectum'; Finnic: Saami buttĕgĕ. [U 91, IS 340, R 410]
- DRAVIDIAN: Brahui pundū 'anus, buttocks,' pōs 'vulva,' Tamil punțai 'vulva,' pūru ~ pīru 'anus,' poccu 'vulva, anus,' Malayalam pūru 'buttocks, vulva,' Kannada pucci 'vulva,' Telugu pūda 'anus,' Tulu pūți 'vulva,' Kodagu puri, Kota pid, Toda pidy 'penis,' Kuwi putki. [D 4273, 4379, 4476, NSD 59]
 MONGOLIAN: Middle Mongolian hütü-gün 'vulva.'

JAPANESE-RYUKYUAN: Old Japanese $p^h \mathfrak{I} to$ 'vulva' (mod. hoto). [SY]

ESKIMO-ALEUT: Proto-Eskimo-Aleut *putu 'hole.' [EA]

CAUCASIAN: Proto-Caucasian *pŭt'i 'genitals (mostly female),' Proto-Nax *but' 'vulva,' Proto-Avar-Andi *but'a, Proto-Lak *put'i 'tube,' Proto-Dargi *put'i 'anus,' Proto-Lezghian *pot' 'penis.' [C 168]

BASQUE poto-rro 'pubis, vulva.'

- ?AUSTRALIAN: Luridya pudă 'vulva.' [VB]
- ?AUSTRONESIAN: Proto-Austronesian *betik 'vagina,' *puki 'vulva' (< *puti ?; cf. East Rukai pati 'vulva'), Ami puki, Tsou buki 'penis.' [AN 121, WW 231, 233, PB 417]
- AMERIND: Almosan-Keresiouan: Delaware saputti 'anus,' Mohegan sebud, Wiyot beš 'vagina,' Upper Chehalis -pš 'anus'; Penutian: Chinook puč, Yaudanchi poto 'penis,' San Juan Bautista lapus 'anus,' Southern Sierra Miwok pōtol; Hokan: Washo (d-)ībis 'vagina,' Karok vīθ, Diegueño hapīčatt, Tequistlatec (la-)bešu?; Chibchan-Paezan: Move butie, Paya pɛta-is-tapcca 'anus,' Chimu pot, Ayoman busi 'vagina,' Allentiac poru; Andean: Quechua upiti 'anus,' Yamana pūta 'hole,' Aymara p^hut^hu; Macro-Tucanoan: Gamella sebu 'vulva,' Uaiana mbitikope 'anus,' Uasöna hibitikope; Equatorial: Guahibo petu 'vagina,' Guayabero sil-f^huta 'vulva,' Kandoshi apčir(-ič), Toyeri apuit 'vagina,' Wachipairi ped, Piapoko af^hutani 'buttocks,' Tariana pāti-niawa 'vagina,' Warakena pēde 'clitoris,' Caranga piče 'vulva,' Uro piši, (cf. also such Equatorial forms as Siusi t^su-pote 'vagina,' Campa sibiči 'vulva,' šibiči 'penis,' Uro šapsi 'genital organ'); Macro-Carib: Jaricuna poita 'vagina,' Pimenteira pütze-maung, Waiwai boči 'pubic hair,' Motilon pirri 'penis'; Macro-Panoan: Cavineña

busu-kani 'anus,' Tagnani opet, Tiatinagua besi 'penis,' Panobo buši,' Lule pesu; Macro-Ge: Mekran putote. [AM 263, EQ 121, AMN]

22 TEKU 'leg, foot'

- NIGER-CONGO: Konyagi -tak 'heel,' Gurmana -duge, Jarawa -dudug-ul, Kikuyu -togigo. [HJ II]
- NILO-SAHARAN: Proto-Kuliak *tak'a 'foot, shoe,' takw 'step on, tread on,' So $t\varepsilon g$ 'foot'; Saharan: Daza dige 'leg,' Kanuri $d \partial \eta g \lambda l$ 'wade,' Kanembu $d\tilde{\varrho} \sim duu$ 'leg,' Berti taki 'thigh,' Karda dìgì 'foot.' [VB, NSB]
- AFRO-ASIATIC: Omotic: Male toki 'leg,' Koyra toke, Kachama tuke, Bambeshi tugɛ 'foot,' Nao tego 'to go,' Dime tiŋgo; Cushitic: Proto-East Cushitic *tāk-, Somali tag- 'to go,' Dahalo daka'a 'foot'; Chadic: Proto-West Chadic *tak- 'to walk with somebody, accompany,' Muzgum túgu 'foot,' Gollango taħ 'to go.' [VB, LN 255, OS 166]
- DRAVIDIAN: Proto-Central Dravidian $t\bar{a}k$ 'to walk,' Parji $t\bar{a}k$, Pengo $t\bar{a}\eta(g)$, Kui $t\bar{a}ka$. [D 3151, LN 255] Cf. also Telugu dekka 'hoof,' Naikri dekka, Konda deka, Kuwi dekka. [D 2970]
- CAUCASIAN: Proto-Caucasian $ti'H\underline{\check{a}}lq'^wV$ 'part of the leg,' Proto-East Caucasian $ti'weh^wV$ 'foot,' Proto-Dido $ti'q'^wV$ 'sole of the foot,' Proto-Lezghian $ti'elq'^wI$ 'shin, ankle.' [C 196]
- NA-DENE: Proto-Eyak-Athabaskan $t'ax \sim t'ah$ 'foot.' [DC]
- INDO-PACIFIC: Tasmanian tokăna 'foot'; Timor-Alor: Abui tuku 'leg, foot'; Halmahera: Ternate tagi 'to walk'; Central Melanesian: Savo tetegha 'foot, lower leg'; Tasmanian: Northeast tage(-na) 'to walk,' North taka(-ri), Southeast taga(-ra); North New Guinea: Arso taka 'foot'; Southwest New Guinea: Marind tagu 'to walk,' Telefol tek 'to go'; South New Guinea: Mombum itögh 'foot,' Bara togoi 'leg'; Central New Guinea: Ekari togo 'to walk,' Matap tag 'hip'; East New Guinea: Jegasa Sarau tegi 'foot.' [IP 80, T 458]
- AMERIND: Almosan-Keresiouan: Mandan dok'a 'leg,' Hidatsa idiki; Penutian: Siuslaw $ts\bar{l}k^w$ 'foot,' North Sahaptin $ta\chi p$ 'with the foot,' Nez Perce $te\chi \acute{e}2p$ 'foot,' Wintu t'ek- 'move,' Mixe tek 'foot,' Huastec t^s 'ehet 'upper leg'; Hokan: Jicaque tek 'leg'; Chibchan-Paezan: Borunca tek ~ dek 'walk,' Move dikeko, Atanque dukakana 'leg,' Baudo tači-kini 'foot'; Andean: Simacu tixea 'foot,' Yahgan kadek 'walk'; Macro-Tucanoan: Tiquie $do(\gamma)$ 'leg,' Wanana dexso 'thigh'; Equatorial: Tinigua diki 'foot,' Piaroa tsihẽpẽ, Wapishana čikep 'walk,' Arawak adikki-hi 'footprint,' Miguri guateke 'walk,' Guayabero tuk 'foot,' Yurucare tekte 'leg,' Guahibo taxu 'foot'; Macro-Carib: Bora take 'leg,' Andoke (ka-)dekkhe 'foot'; Macro-Panoan: Cavineña edači, Panobo taeg, Mayoruna taku, Amahuaca taku; Macro-Ge: Oti etage 'leg,' Cotoxo täxkatse, Camican tako-emaŋ 'walk,' Proto-Ge *t ε 'leg.' [AM 165, AMN]

23 TIK 'finger; one'

- NIGER-CONGO: West Atlantic: Fulup sik ~ sex 'finger,' Nalu te; North-Central Niger-Congo: Gur dike '1'; South-Central Niger-Congo: Gwa dogbo, Fon d`okpá Ewe d`eká; Bantu: Tonga tiho 'finger,' Chopi t^siho, Ki-Bira zika, Ba-Kiokwa zigu. [KS 55, UOL 91, HJ II: 295]
- NILO-SAHARAN: Fur tok '1,' Maba tok, Dendje doko 'ten,' Nera dokk-u '1,' Merarit tok 'ten,' Dinka tok '1,' Berta dúkóni, ?Mangbetu t'ɛ, Kwama seek-o, Bari to, Jur tok, Twampa d'è?, Komo d'é. [NS 103, CN 72, ES 83, KS 55, UOL 91, NSB]
- AFRO-ASIATIC: Proto-Afro-Asiatic *tak '1'; Semitic: Peripheral West Gurage təgu (əmmat) 'only 1'; Cushitic: Oromo toko '1,' takku 'palm (of hand),' Yaaku tegei 'hand,' Saho ti '1,' Bilin tu, Tsamai dōkko; Berber: Nefusa tukoḍ 'finger'; Chadic: Hausa (ḍaya) tak 'only 1,' Gisiga tēkoy '1,' Gidder te-teka, Logone tku 'first.' [AAD 3: 10]
- INDO-EUROPEAN: Proto-Indo-European *deik 'to show, point,' *dekm '10';
 Italic: Latin dig(-itus) 'finger,' dic(-āre) 'to say,' decem '10'; Germanic:
 Proto-Germanic *taihwō 'toe,' Old English tahe 'toe,' English toe, Old High German zêha 'toe, finger.' [IE 188, 191, EU]
- URALIC: Votyak odik '1,' Zyrian õtik. [U 138, EU]
- TURKIC: Chuvash tek 'only, just,' Uighur tek 'only, merely,' Chagatai tek 'only, single,' Turkish tek 'only,' teken 'one by one.' [EU]
- KOREAN (t)tayki '1, thing,' teki '1, guy, thing,' Old Korean tēk '10.' [EU]
- JAPANESE-RYUKYUAN: Japanese te 'hand.' [UOL 195]
- AINU tek ~ teke 'hand,' atiki 'five.' [UOL 195, EU]
- GILYAK řak 'once.' [EU]
- CHUKCHI-KAMCHATKAN: Kamchadal itygin 'foot, paw.' [EU]
- ESKIMO-ALEUT: Proto-Eskimo-Aleut *q(i)tik 'middle finger'; Eskimo: Kuskokwim tik(-iq) 'index finger,' Greenlandic tik(-iq) 'index finger,' tikkuagpaa 'he points to it'; Aleut: Attu tik(-laq) 'middle finger,' atgu 'finger,' $ta\gamma ataq$ '1,' Atka atakan. [EU, EA 121]
- YENISEIAN: Proto-Yeniseian *tok 'finger.' [VT]
- SINO-TIBETAN: Archaic Chinese *t'jek 'single, 1'; Tibeto-Burman: Proto-Tibeto-Burman *tyik '1,' Rai tik(-pu), Tibetan (g-)tśig. [ST 94]
- NA-DENE: Haida (s-)t^la 'with the fingers'; Tlingit t^l'eeq 'finger,' t^lek '1'; Eyak tikhi; Athabaskan: Sarsi tlik'-(aza), Kutchin (ĩ-)łag, Hupa ła?, Navajo łà?. [ND]
- INDO-PACIFIC: Tasmanian: Southern motook 'forefinger,' Southeastern togue 'hand'; West New Guinea: Proto-Karonan *dik '1'; Southwest New Guinea: Boven Mbian tek 'fingernail,' Digul tuk. [IP 37, SWNG 39, SNG 42, UOL 195]

- AUSTROASIATIC: Proto-Austroasiatic *(k)tig 'arm, hand'; Munda: Kharia ti?; Mon-Khmer: Riang ti?, Wa tai?, Khmer țai, Vietnamese tay, Proto-Aslian $*tik \sim *tig$. [PB 467, UOL 195]
- MIAO-YAO: Proto-Miao-Yao **nto2* 'finger'; Proto-Yao **do2*; Proto-Miao **ntai* 'point with the finger.' [PB 356]
- DAIC: Proto-Li *dlia η 'finger,' Northern Li tlea $\eta \sim the\eta$, Loi th $\epsilon \eta \sim \acute{c}ia\eta$. [PB 356]
- ?AUSTRONESIAN: Proto-Austronesian $*(tu)di\eta$ 'point with the finger.' [AN 140, WW 156, PB 356, UOL 195]
- AMERIND: Almosan-Keresiouan: Nootka $tak^{w}a$ 'only,' Bella Coola $t^{s'i}i^{2}x^{w}$ 'five,' Kalispel t^s'og^w 'point with the finger,' Kwakwala sok^w 'five,' Nitinat -tsog- 'in hand,' Cherokee sakwe '1,' Acoma 2iskaw, Pawnee uska, Mohawk tsi?er 'finger,' Hidatsa šaki, Winnebago sāk, Quapaw čak, Biloxi ičaki 'fingers,' Yuchi saki 'hand'; Penutian: Southern Sierra Miwok t^sik'a? 'index finger,' Wintun tiq-eles '10,' Nisenan tok- 'hand,' Mixe to?k \sim tuk' '1,' Sayula tu2k, Tzeltal tukal 'alone,' Quiche tik'ex 'carry in the hand,' Hokan: Proto-Hokan *dik'i 'finger,' Karok tīk 'finger, hand,' Achumawi (wa-)túči 'finger,' Washo tsek, Yana -t^s'gi- 'alone,' East Pomo bī'yatsūkai 'finger,' Arraarra teeh'k 'hand,' Pehtsik tiki-vash, Akwa'ala ašitdek '1'; Central Amerind: Nahua t^siikia?a, Pima Bajo čīč, Tarahumara sika 'hand,' Mazatec čika?ã 'alone,' Mangue tike '1.' Cuicatec diči '10'; Chibchan-Paezan: Chibcha ytiquyn 'finger,' ačik 'by ones,' Borunca e'tsik '1,' Guatuso dooki, Shiriana ĩthak 'hand,' Ulua tinka-mak 'finger,' Paez teeč '1,' Allentiac tukum '10,' Warrau hisaka 'finger, 1'; Andean: Cahuapana itekla 'finger, hand,' Jebero itökla, Alakaluf tākso '1,' Quechua sōk; Macro-Tucanoan: Siona tekua, Siona teg-li '5,' Canichana eu-tixle 'finger,' Ticuna suku 'hand,' Yupua di(x)ka 'arm,' Uasöna dikaga; Equatorial: Upano t^sikitik '1,' Aguaruna tikij, Murato t^siči 'hand,' Uru t^sī '1,' Chipaya zek, Itene taka, Guamo dixi 'finger,' Katembri tika 'toe,' Yuracare teče 'thumb'; Macro-Carib: Kukura tikua 'finger,' Accawai tigina '1,' Yagua teki; Imihita meux-tsekoa 'finger,' Trio tinki '1,' Ocaina dikabu 'arm': Macro-Panoan: Mataco otejji '1,' Tagnani etegueno 'finger,' Sensi (nawiš)-tikoe '1 (finger)' Cavineña eme-toko 'hand,' Moseten tak '10'; Macro-Ge: Botocudo (po-)čik '1 (finger),' žik 'alone,' Proto-Ge *(pi-)t^si '1 (finger).' [AM 110, MT 1, DL 56, AMN]

24 TIKA 'earth'

- ?NIGER-CONGO: Proto-Bantu *tàkà 'earth, mud, ground, soil,' Swahili taka 'dirt, refuse.' [BA IV: 87]
- ?NILO-SAHARAN: Berta $adok'o(\eta) \sim atok'o(\eta)$ 'mud.' [Bender 1989]

- KARTVELIAN: Proto-Kartvelian *tiqa ~ *diqa 'soil, clay,' Georgian tixa 'clay, dirt' (< Old Georgian tiqa), Mingrelian dixa ~ dexa 'soil, earth,' Chan (n)dixa 'soil.' [KA 94, N 69]
- INDO-EUROPEAN: Proto-Indo-European *dhghem 'earth'; Anatolian: Hittite te-e-kan; Indic: Sanskrit kṣam; Iranian: Avestan zậ Albanian dhe; Italic: Latin humus; Celtic: Old Irish dū 'place'; Baltic: Latvian zeme 'earth'; Slavic: Old Church Slavic zemlja; Tocharian: Tocharian A tkam. [IE 414, N 69]
- DRAVIDIAN: Tamil tukaļ 'dust,' Telugu $d\bar{u}ga\underline{r}a$ 'dust, dirt,' Kolami t $\bar{u}k$ 'dust, earth, clay,' Naikri tuk 'earth, clay,' Parji t $\bar{u}kud$ 'earth, clay, soil,' Gadba $t\bar{u}ku\underline{r}$ 'earth, clay.' [D 3283]
- JAPANESE-RYUKYUAN: Old Japanese tuki 'mud,' tuki 'land' (mod. t^suki ~ $t^{s}u\check{c}i$). [SY]
- BURUSHASKI $t\bar{t}k \sim tik$ 'earth, ground.' [B 351]
- YENISEIAN: Proto-Yeniseian *təq- 'clay, dirt,' Ket tag-ar 'clay,' Kot t^hag-ar 'dirt.' [SC 76]
- SINO-TIBETAN: Lushei diak 'mud,' Sho $d^{h}ek \sim dek$ ' 'earth.' [IST 221]
- NA-DENE: Haida $t^{l}ig \sim t^{l}ga \sim klik$ 'earth, ground' (cf. TIK 'finger' above for a similar shift of $t > t^{l}$ before *i*); Tlingit $(t^{l}it)tik \sim t^{l}iak-\bar{u} \sim klatk$ 'earth'; Eyak (Yakutat) $(tza)t^{l}kh$ 'earth.' [ND]
- NAHALI t^{s} ikal ~ sikal 'earth.' [NA 67; probably a borrowing of Kurku t^{s} ikal 'mud,' according to Kuiper.]
- Almosan-Keresiouan: Bella Bella $t = q'^w um$ 'dirty,' Nootka AMERIND: t^s'ak'umt^s 'earth,' Kwakwala dzogwa 'mud,' Squamish tíg^w 'muddy,' Lower Fraser s-t'iqəl, Seneca -tki- 'dirty,' Yuchi s'ak'5 'mud,' Hidatsa ihatsaki 'dirty,' Acoma há?ats'i 'land'; Penutian: Tsimshian ma?tks 'dirty,' Pokonchi t^sikot, Mam čokš 'earth,' Mixe mə?əts 'mud,' Sayula mo?ts, Ixil šok'ol, Quiche šoq'ox 'muddy'; Hokan: Shasta t^s'ik 'mud,' Achomawi teqade 'earth,' Diegueño taketak 'dirty'; Central Amerind: Cora t^si?it^sa, Hopi $t\bar{t}t^sk\bar{t}a$ 'earth,' Chatina t^suuh 'dirty,' Proto-Central Otomi t^s' o, Chinantec suh 'dirt'; Chibchan-Paezan: Xinca tuxa 'mud,' Binticua tikan, Bribri *ičuk* 'earth,' Rama *taki*, Cabecar *du-čeka* 'mud,' Guambiana *čig*, Allentiac toko, Cayapa tu 'earth'; Andean: Quechua č'iči 'dirty,' Pehuelche atek 'earth,' Tehuelche takhs 'dirty'; Macro-Tucanoan: Papury tixsa, Yupua tīxta 'earth,' Tucano dixta, Särä sixta, Canichana ni-čixiči, Nadobo togn 'mud'; Equatorial: Tinigua tokwana 'earth,' Caranga $t^s uxt^s i$ 'dirty,' Chamicuro t^sixta 'earth,' Cocoma tuguka; Macro-Carib: Yabarana ašikipe 'dirty,' Witoto sagope 'mud'; Macro-Panoan: Toba-Guazu toko 'dirty,' Lengua atits, Chulupi tīš 'wet ground,' Tacana ači 'dirty'; Macro-Ge: Chiquito tuki-s, Bororo txu, Chavante tika 'earth,' Apinage tugu 'dirty,' Cayapo tuk. [AMN]

25 TSAKU 'leg, foot'

?NIGER-CONGO: Bantu: Proto-Bantu *t^sàkù 'calf of the leg.' [BA 79]

- NILO-SAHARAN: East Sudanic: Jur čok 'foot,' Zilmamu šowa 'foot,' Nera šokna 'foot, claw,' Proto-Dinka-Nuer *t^sok 'foot'; Gumuz: Proto-Gumuz *t^sogwa, Proto-Koman *šok, Komo šawk^h, Twampa šòg, Kwama səŋk'. [VB, NSB]
- AFRO-ASIATIC: Cushitic: Beja sikwina 'foot,' Quara sukanā; Semitic: Hebrew šoq 'leg,' Arabic sāq; Berber: Shilha (ta-)zux(-t) 'foot'; Chadic: Proto-West Chadic *sAkA 'leg,' Bolewa šeke 'foot,' Fali sika. [CS 265, AA 34, OS 292]
- INDO-EUROPEAN: Indic: Sanskrit sak(-thi) 'thigh'; Iranian: Avestan hax(-ti); Celtic: Welsh heg(-ol) 'leg, shank.' [IE 930]
- URALIC: Yukaghir $t^s \sigma \gamma(-ul)$ 'foot, leg'; Ugric: Ostyak $s \check{a}g(-\mathfrak{o} \acute{n}t') \sim soh(-\mathfrak{o}t') \sim \check{s}og(-\mathfrak{o} \acute{s})$ 'back side of the leg from the heel to the bend of the knee (of a human being); back hoof (of a horse); Finnic: Saami $\check{c} \mathscr{R} w \check{g} a \sim \check{c} \mathscr{R} w \check{g} e$ 'hock of reindeer or other quadruped.' [U 92]
- CHUKCHI-KAMCHATKAN: Kamchadal $t^s\!k(\text{-ana}) \sim t^s\!ki$ 'foot, leg, paw.' [Swadesh 1962]
- CAUCASIAN: Proto-Caucasian *
č'<u>V[l]</u>k'^wV 'foot, hoof,' Proto-Avar-Andi *
č'ik'^wa 'foot.' [C 75, DC]
- BURUSHASKI: Hunza šak 'arm, forearm (of a human being); thigh, upper part of the leg (of an animal),' Werchikwar šak. [B 320, W 215]
- ?SINO-TIBETAN: Ancient Chinese $*ts^i wok$ 'foot,' Cantonese tsuk.
- INDO-PACIFIC: Andaman Islands: Onge t^sige 'leg,' Biada t^sag, Puchikwar t^sok, Juwoi čok; Central New Guinea: Mikaru saga 'foot,' Grand Valley Dani (ne-)sok '(my) foot'; East New Guinea: Korona sogo 'foot,' Sikube suku, Mafulu soge, Kambisa suga. [IP 80, T 458]
- AUSTROASIATIC: Munda: Kharia $d^z u \eta$ 'foot'; Mon-Khmer: Mon $t^{s} \ddot{o} \eta$ 'foot, leg,' Khmer $d^z v \eta$ 'leg, foot,' Temiar $d^z o \eta \sim d^z u k^n$, Mah Meri $d^z o g n$, Shompen čuk 'foot.' [VB]
- AMERIND: Almosan-Keresiouan: Proto-Algic *-sō?k-ani ~ -šō?k-ani 'hip,' Kutenai saq' 'leg,' Quileute $t-t^{s'}oq^w$ 'foot,' Squamish -čq' 'hip, side,' Okanagan $s-t^{s'}\bar{o}qan$ 'leg,' Yuchi go-čuko 'thigh'; Penutian: Nass asāx 'foot,' Siuslaw $t^s\bar{\imath}k^w$, Klamath č'ōg 'leg,' bo-sak-l' 'thigh,' Lake Miwok čúki 'hip,' Wappo čoke 'hip bone,' Zuni sak^wi 'leg,' Atakapa ?aška 'foot,' Huave $ts\bar{a}k$ 'leg,' Mam čog, Tzotzil čakil 'hip'; Hokan: Achomawi šakō 'leg,' Northern Pomo šaku, Eastern Pomo šāko, Kashaya šahku, Yana $d^z\bar{\imath}k'uwalla$ 'hip,' Mohave t^sakas ; Central Amerind: Mazatec $n-t^saku$ 'his foot,' Popoloca $t^s\bar{a}gu$ 'leg,' Mixtec t^saha 'hip,' Ixcatec t^saku 'leg,' Chocho t^sagua ; Chibchan-Paezan: Tarascan $t^sika-hta-kua$ 'thigh,' Murire sokua-

14. Global Etymologies

gete, Sabanero suaguet 'leg,' Binticua júkue, Andaqui sogua-para 'foot,' Itonama uj-sahua-no 'leg,' Jirajira a-sagan-ipipo, Timucua secah; Andean: Proto-Quechuan *čaki 'foot,' Yahgan čikan 'leg,' Alacaluf čekur 'foot'; Macro-Tucanoan: Särä tsagalo 'thigh,' Buhugana sakalo, Yuri sokehry 'hip'; Equatorial: Campa no-tsaki, Piaroa tsiha 'thigh,' Mocochi čuko 'leg,' Otomi čučuga 'thigh,' Chapacura čiki-či 'foot'; Macro-Carib: Trio sako 'leg,' Mocoa saku, Ocaina ï?žóóga 'foot'; Macro-Panoan: Toba-Guazu čagañi 'thigh,' Cavineña etsaka 'leg,' Sapiboca ečuxu 'thigh'; Macro-Ge: Botocudo žäk-merum 'tibia,' Masacara šüöku 'leg,' Kaingan (in)-t^{*}o '(my) leg.' [AM 165, AK 113, CP 114, AIW, PP 133, AMN]

26 TSUMA 'hair'

- KHOISAN: !Kung čum 'shell,' š'um 'skin,' Eastern \neq Hua č' $\bar{u} \sim t^{s}$ ' $\bar{u} \sim dt^{s}$ ' \bar{u} 'skin'; G//abake č $\bar{a} \sim$ čo 'skin'; /Xam t \tilde{u} 'shell.' [SAK 597, 807]
- NILO-SAHARAN: Nyangiya sim-at 'hair,' Nandi sum. [KER 445]
- AFRO-ASIATIC: Omotic: Proto-Omotic *somm- 'pubic hair'; Cushitic: Sidamo šomb-, Proto-Southern Cushitic *se?em- 'hair'; Old Egyptian zm&; Semitic: Proto-Semitic *šmġ 'fine hair shed by a camel'; Chadic: Hausa suma 'growth of hair.' [OL 47, CCE]
- CAUCASIAN: Proto-Caucasian $t^{s'}h$ wëme 'eyebrow,' Proto-Lezghian $t^{s'}em$, Proto-Nax $t^{s'}a-t^{s'}2Vm$. [C 70]
- BASQUE zam-ar(r) 'lock of wool, shock of hair.' [SC 12]
- YENISEIAN: Proto-Yeniseian ${}^{*ts} \mathfrak{sg}$ 'hair.' [SC 12]
- SINO-TIBETAN: Proto-Sino-Tibetan $*t^{sh}\bar{a}m$ 'hair'; Archaic Chinese $*sam \sim *sam$ 'hair, feather'; Tibeto-Burman: Proto-Tibeto-Burman *tsam 'hair,' Lepcha $\check{a}tsom$, Tibetan (?ag-)tshom 'beard of the chin' (= [mouth]-hair), Kanauri tsam 'wool, fleece,' (mik-)tsam 'eyebrow' (= [eye]-hair), Magari tśham 'hair, wool,' Burmese tsham, Lushei sam 'hair (of the head),' Dhimal tśam 'hide, bark,' Garo mik sam 'eyebrow,' Nung $\mathfrak{o}\eta$ sam 'hide.' [ST 73, 191, UOL 194, SS 23]
- MIAO-YAO: Proto-Miao-Yao $* sj\bar{a}m \sim * sj\bar{a}m$ 'beard, moustache.' [PB 307]
- AMERIND: Almosan-Keresiouan: Pawnee ošu 'hair,' Dakota šũ 'feather,' Woccon summe 'hair'; Penutian: North Sahaptin šomtai 'pubic hair,' Nez Perce simtey, Kekchi t^sut^sum 'feather,' ismal 'hair,' Mam tsamal, Quiche isumal; Hokan: Proto-Hokan *ĉ^hemi 'fur,' North Pomo t^sime 'hair,' Kashaya sime 'body hair, fur,' Northeast Pomo č^heme 'body hair,' Mohave sama 'root,' Cocopa išma 'hair,' Tlappanec t^sũŋ 'hair, root'; Central Amerind: Tubatulabal t^somol 'hair, head'; Chibchan-Paezan: Matagalpa susum 'beard,' Xinca susi 'beard'; Andean: Tsoneka čomki 'pubic hair,' Quechua sunk'a 'beard'; Equatorial: Caranga čuma 'hair,' Quitemo čumiči, Aguaruna susu 'beard,' Candoshi sosi. [AM 136, EQ 54, UOL 194, DL 4, AMN]

27 ?AQ'WA 'water'

- KHOISAN: Northern: !o !kung $k\tilde{a}\tilde{u}$ 'to rain,' !kung $k"\bar{a}$ 'drink'; Central: Naron $k"\bar{a}$ 'drink'; Southern: /kam-ka !ke $k"w\tilde{a} \sim k"w\tilde{e}$ 'drink,' $k\tilde{a}\tilde{u}$ 'to rain,' //ng !ke $k"\tilde{a} \sim k"\tilde{e}\tilde{i}$ 'drink,' $k\tilde{a}\tilde{u}$ 'to rain,' Batwa $k"\tilde{a} \sim k"\tilde{e}$ 'drink,' /auni $k"\bar{a}a$ 'drink,' Masarwa $k"\tilde{a}$ 'drink,' /nu //en $k"\tilde{a}$ 'drink.' [KE 261]
- NILO-SAHARAN: Fur koi 'rain'; East Sudanic: Nyimang kwe 'water,' So kwe?, Ik čue; Central Sudanic: Mangbetu éguo; Berta koi 'rain, cloud'; Koman: Kwama uuku 'water,' Anej agu-d 'cloud.' [NSB, KER]
- AFRO-ASIATIC: Proto-Afro-Asiatic (Illich-Svitych) *'q(w) 'water,' (Ehret)
 *ak'^w-; Omotic: Proto-North Omotic *ak'-, She k'ai 'wet,' Janjero ak(k)a
 'water,' Kaffa ačō, Mocha āč'o, Gofa haččā, Shinasha ač'č'o, Badditu
 wat^s'ē; Cushitic: Proto-Cushitic (Ehret) *-k'^w- 'to be wet,' (Illich-Svitych)
 *'qw 'water,' Agaw aq^w, Bilin 'aq^w, Xamir aq^wā 'drops of water,' Damot
 ag^wo 'water,' Proto-East Cushitic (Ehret) *k'oy- 'wet,' Hadiyya wo'o 'water,' Tambaro waha, Sidamo waho, Iraqw āha 'drink.' [N 139, EU, AM 87, CE 348]
- INDO-EUROPEAN: Proto-Indo-European (Pokorny) *ak^wā- 'water,' (Puhvel)
 *eg^w-, (Bomhard) *ek'^w-; Anatolian: Hittite eku-, Luwian aku-, Palaic
 aħ- 'drink'; Italic: Latin aqua 'water'; Germanic: Gothic ahwa 'river';
 Tocharian: Tocharian A yok- 'drink.' [IE 23]
- URALIC: Proto-Uralic (Rédei) *yoka 'river.' [R 99–100]
- JAPANESE aka 'bilge water.' [JP 100]
- AINU wakka 'water,' ku 'drink.' [JP 100]
- CAUCASIAN: Proto-Caucasian *-VqV 'suck,' Proto-Lezghian * $2o\chi^wa$ 'drink,' Lezghian χ^wa -l, Agul $u\chi as$, Proto-Lezghian * $2o\bar{q}^wa$ - 'rain,' Lezghian \bar{q}^wa -z, Rutul hus^was , Tsakhur jos^wi ; Proto-Nax *-aq- 'suck(le),' Chechen -aq-'suck'; Proto-Dargi *-uq- 'suck(le).' [C 3, 16]
- ?Burushaski $ha\gamma$ -um 'wet.'
- SINO-TIBETAN: Proto-Sino-Tibetan *Ku 'fluid, spill,' Newari $k^{h}wo$ 'river,' Khaling ku 'water,' Kachin $k^{h}u$. [NSC 43]
- INDO-PACIFIC: Awyu okho 'water, river,' Syiagha okho 'water,' Yareba ogo, Yonggom oq, Ninggirum ok. [FS 96, 134]
- AUSTRALIAN: Proto-Australian *gugu 'water.' [AC]
- AMERIND: Almosan-Keresiouan: Proto-Central Algonquian *akwā 'from water,' Kutenai -q^w 'in water,' Quileute kwāya' 'water,' Snohomish q^wa?, Caddo koko; Penutian: Nass ak^j-s, Takelma ug^w 'drink,' Wintun wak'ai 'creek,' Zuni k'a 'water,' Atakapa ak, Yuki uk', Tetontepec uu?k 'drink,' Yucatec uk' 'be thirsty'; Hokan: Chimariko aqa 'water,' Kashaya ?ahqha 'water,' q'o 'drink,' Seri ?ax 'water,' Diegueno ?axā, Quinigua kwa, Tonkawa ?āx, Tequistlatec l-axa?; Central Amerind: Proto-Chinantec *g^wa

14. Global Etymologies

'stream, river'; Chibchan-Paezan: Shiriana koa 'drink,' Chimila uk-, Binticua agu, Allentiac aka 'water'; Andean: Iquito aqua, Quechua yaku, Yamana aka 'lake'; Macro-Tucanoan: Auake okõa 'water, river,' Cubeo oko 'water,' Tucano axko; Equatorial: Amniape äkü, Quitemo ako, Uaraicu uaka 'wash,' Terena oko 'rain,' Chipaya ax^w 'wash'; Macro-Carib: Yagua xa 'water,' Witoto joko 'wash,' Macushi u-wuku 'my drink,' Waiwai woku 'drink,' Taulipang ai'ku 'wet'; Macro-Panoan: Lule uk 'drink,' Mayoruna uaka 'water,' Culino yaku 'water,' waka 'river,' Huarayo hakua 'wash'; Macro-Ge: Koraveka ako 'drink,' Fulnio waka 'lake,' Kamakan kwa 'drink,' Chavante kō 'water,' Aponegicran waiko 'drink.' [AM 87, AMN

ABBREVIATIONS

А	Andean, Greenberg 1987
AA	Afro-Asiatic, Greenberg 1963
AAD	Afro-Asiatic Dictionary, Diakonov 1981–
AB	Allan Bomhard, 1987
AC	A. Capell, 1956
AD	Anna Dybo, 1988
AIW	Mary Key, 1987
AK	Almosan-Keresiouan, Greenberg 1987
AM	Amerind, Greenberg 1987
AMN	Amerindian Notebooks, 23 vols., Greenberg 1981
AN	Austronesian, Dempwolff 1934–38
AT	A. N. Tucker and M. A. Bryan, 1957
В	Burushaski, Lorimer 1938
BA	Bantu, Guthrie 1967
BB	Barry Blake, 1988
BD	Bushman Dictionary, Bleek 1956
С	Caucasian, Nikolaev and Starostin 1992
CA	Central Amerind, Greenberg 1987
CAN	Central Amerind Notebook, Greenberg 1981
CCE	Vladimir Orel and Olga Stolbova, 1988
CE	Christopher Ehret, 1989
$\mathbf{C}\mathbf{K}$	Chukchi-Kamchatkan, Mudrak 1990
$_{\rm CN}$	Chari-Nile, Greenberg 1963
CP	Chibchan-Paezan, Greenberg 1987
\mathbf{CS}	Marcel Cohen, 1947
D	Dravidian, Burrow and Emeneau 1984
DB	Dorothea Bleek, 1929
DC	Dene-Caucasian, Nikolaev 1991

328

D. R. Leshchiner, 1989 DLEskimo-Aleut, Mudrak 1989 $\mathbf{E}\mathbf{A}$ East Caucasian, Starostin and Nikolaev 1975 \mathbf{EC} Equatorial, Greenberg 1987 EQ \mathbf{ES} East Sudanic, Greenberg 1963 EU Eurasiatic, Greenberg to appear F. Seto, 1988 \mathbf{FS} Η Hokan, Greenberg 1987 HFHarold Fleming, ed., Mother Tongue, 1986-HJ Harry Johnston, 1922 Indo-European, Pokorny 1959 IE Indo-Pacific, Greenberg 1971 IPV. M. Illich-Svitych, 1967 \mathbf{IS} Robert Shafer, 1974 IST $_{\rm JB}$ John Bengtson, 1986 JP James Patrie, 1982 $_{\rm JR}$ Johannes Rahder, 1963 Khoisan, Greenberg 1963 Κ KA Kartvelian, Klimov 1964 KE Khoisan Etymologies, Ruhlen 1987b KER Harold Fleming, 1983a Kongo-Saharan, Gregersen 1972 \mathbf{KS} Morris Swadesh, 1960 LCVaćlav Blažek, 1990 LNMande, Mukarovsky 1966 Μ ${\rm MG}$ Macro-Ge, Greenberg 1987 Macro-Tucanoan, Greenberg 1987 MT Nostratic, Illich-Svitych 1971-84 Ν Nahali, Kuiper 1962 NA NC Niger-Congo, Greenberg 1963 ND Na-Dene Notebook, Greenberg 1981 Niger-Kordofanian, Greenberg 1963 NK NNG North New Guinea, Greenberg 1971 Norman-Paman, Black 1980 \mathbf{NP} Nilo-Saharan, Greenberg 1963 NSNilo-Saharan, Bender 1980 NSB NSC Nostratic-Sino-Caucasian, Starostin 1991 NSD Nilo-Saharan–Dravidian, Greenberg 1986 OLVáclav Blažek, 1989 Olga V. Stolbova, 1987 OSΡ Penutian, Greenberg 1987

14. Global Etymologies

- Paul Benedict, 1975 \mathbf{PB} Paul Proulx, 1984 PPKároly Rédei, 1986-88 R Robert Blust, 1980 RBRD Robert Dixon, 1980 SAK Southern African Khoisan, Ruhlen 1987b S. Bhattacharya, 1966 SB \mathbf{SC} Sino-Caucasian, Bengtson 1991a Southeast Surmic, Fleming 1983b SES SMStuart Mann, 1984–88 Sergei Nikolaev, 1991 SNSouth New Guinea, Greenberg 1971 SNG Sergei Starostin, 1984 SSSino-Tibetan, Benedict 1972 \mathbf{ST} SUL Björn Collinder, 1957 Southwest New Guinea, Greenberg 1971 SWNG SYS. Yoshitake, 1934 Tasmanian, Plomley 1976 Т TBTibeto-Burman, Matisoff 1985 U Uralic, Collinder 1977 UOL Alfredo Trombetti, 1905 VBVáclav Blažek, 1988 V. N. Toporov, 1967 VT Werchikwar, Lorimer 1962 W Walter Müller, 1975 WM WP Alois Walde and Julius Pokorny, 1930
- WW S. A. Wurm and B. Wilson, 1975
- Y Yeniseian, Starostin 1984

REFERENCES

Anttila, Raimo. 1989. *Historical and Comparative Linguistics*. Amsterdam. Bender, M. Lionel. 1980. "Nilo-Saharan Comparative Wordlist," ms.

- ——. 1989. "Berta Lexicon," in M. Lionel Bender, ed., *Topics in Nilo-Saharan Linguistics*. Hamburg, 271–304.
- Benedict, Paul K. 1972. Sino-Tibetan: A Conspectus. Cambridge, Eng.
- ——. 1975. Austro-Thai: Language and Culture. New Haven, Conn.
- Bengtson, John D. 1986. "Toward Global Sound Correspondences," ms.
- ——. 1987. "Notes on Indo-European '10,' '100,' and '1,000,'" *Diachronica* 4: 257–62.

330

- ——. 1991a. "Notes on Sino-Caucasian," in Vitaly Shevoroshkin, ed., Dene-Sino-Caucasian Languages. Bochum, Germany, 67–129.
- ——. 1991b. "Some Macro-Caucasian Etymologies," in Vitaly Shevoroshkin, ed., *Dene-Sino-Caucasian Languages*. Bochum, Germany, 130–41.
- Bhattacharya, S. 1966. "Some Munda Etymologies," in Norman H. Zide, ed., Studies in Comparative Austroasiatic Linguistics, The Hague, 28–40.
- Black, Paul. 1980. "Norman Paman Historical Phonology," Bruce Rigsby and Peter Sutton, eds., *Papers in Australian Linguistics* 13, *Pacific Linguistics* A59. Canberra, 181–239.
- Blake, Barry. 1988. "Redefining Pama-Nyungan: Towards the Prehistory of Australian Languages," Yearbook of Australian Linguistics 1.
- Blažek, Vaćlav. 1988. "Additions to the Global Etymological Dictionary of Ruhlen-Bengtson 1988, part 2," ms.
- ——. 1989. "Omotic Lexicon in Afroasiatic Perspective: Body Part Cognates," paper given at the Second International Symposium on Cushitic and Omotic.
- ——. 1990. "Lexica nostratica: Addenda et corrigenda II," Archív orientální 58: 205–18.
- Bleek, Dorothea F. 1929. Comparative Vocabularies of Bushman Languages. Cambridge, Eng.
 - —. 1956. A Bushman Dictionary. New Haven, Conn.
- Blust, Robert. 1980. "Austronesian Etymologies," Oceanic Linguistics 19: 1–189.
 - —. 1988. Austronesian Root Theory. Amsterdam.
- Bomhard, Allan R. 1987. "A Sample of the Comparative Vocabulary of the Nostratic Languages," ms.
- Boyd, Raymond. 1978. "A propos des ressemblances lexicales entre langues niger-congo et nilo-sahariennes," Bulletin de SELAF (Paris) 65: 43–94.
- Burrow, Thomas, and Murray B. Emeneau. 1984. A Dravidian Etymological Dictionary. Oxford, Eng.
- Bynon, Theodora. 1977. Historical Linguistics. Cambridge, Eng.
- Campbell, Lyle. 1986. "Cautions about Loan Words and Sound Correspondences," in Dieter Kastovsky and Aleksander Szwedek, eds., *Linguistics across Historical and Geographical Boundaries*. Berlin, 221–24.
- 1988. Review of Language in the Americas, by Joseph H. Greenberg, Language 64: 591–615.
- Campbell, Lyle, and Ronald W. Langacker. 1978. "Proto-Aztecan Vowels: Part III," International Journal of American Linguistics 44: 262–79.
- Capell, A. 1956. A New Approach to Australian Linguistics. Sydney.
- Cohen, Marcel. 1947. Essai comparatif sur le vocabulaire et la phonétique du chamito-sémitique. Paris.

- ——. 1957. A Survey of the Uralic Languages. Uppsala.
- ——. 1977. Fenno-Ugric Vocabulary. Hamburg.
- Curr, E. M. 1886–87. The Australian Race. Melbourne.
- Dawkins, Richard. 1987. The Blind Watchmaker. New York.
- Dempwolff, Otto. 1934–38. Vergleichende Lautlehre des austronesischen Wortschätzes, 3 vols. Berlin.
- Derbyshire, Desmond C., and Geoffrey K. Pullum, eds. 1991. Handbook of Amazonian Languages, Vol. 3. Berlin.
- Diakonov, I. M., ed. 1981– . Sravnitel'no-istoričeskij slovar' afrazijskix jazykov. Moscow.
- Dixon, R. M. W. 1980. The Languages of Australia. Cambridge, Eng.
- Dolgopolsky, Aron. 1964. "Gipoteza drevnejšego rodstva jazykovyx semei severnoj Eurasii s verojatnostnoj točki zrenija," Voprosy Jazykoznanija 2: 53–63. [English translation in Vitalij V. Shevoroshkin and Thomas L. Markey, eds., Typology, Relationship and Time, 1986. Ann Arbor, Mich., 27–50.]
- Dybo, Anna. 1988. "Methods in Systemic Reconstruction of Altaic and Nostratic Lexics," paper given at the International Conference on Language and Prehistory, University of Michigan.
- Ehret, Christopher. 1989. "A Reconstruction of Proto-Afroasiatic," ms.
- Fleming, Harold. 1983a. "Kuliak External Relations: Step One," in Rainer Vossen and Marianne Bechhaus-Gerst, eds., Nilotic Studies. Berlin, 375– 421.
- ——. 1983b. "Surma Etymologies," in Rainer Vossen and Marianne Bechhaus-Gerst, eds., *Nilotic Studies*. Berlin, 525–55.
- Fleming, Harold, ed. 1986– . Mother Tongue. Boston.
- ——. 1990. "Omotica, Afrasiana and More: Ethiopia as the Ever-Flowing Vase," *Mother Tongue* 12: 22–30.
- Goddard, Ives. 1979. "The Languages of South Texas and the Lower Rio Grande," in Lyle Campbell and Marianne Mithun, eds., *The Languages of*

Native America: Historical and Comparative Assessment. Austin, 355–89. Golla, Victor, ed. 1984. The Sapir-Kroeber Correspondence. Berkeley, Calif.

Greenberg, Joseph H. 1953. "Historical Linguistics and Unwritten Languages," in A. L. Kroeber, ed., Anthropology Today. Chicago: 265–86.

——. 1957. "Genetic Relationship among Languages," in *Essays in Linguis*-

tics, by Joseph H. Greenberg. Chicago, 35–45.

- ——. 1963. The Languages of Africa. Bloomington, Ind.
- ——. 1971. "The Indo-Pacific Hypothesis," in Thomas A. Sebeok, ed., *Current Trends in Linguistics*, Vol. 8. The Hague: 807–71.

Collinder, Björn. 1949. "La parenté linguistique et le calcul des probabilités," Uppsala universitets årsskrift 13: 1–24.

- ——. 1981. "Amerindian Comparative Notebooks," 23 vols., Mss. on file, Green Library, Stanford University, Stanford, Calif.
- ——. 1986. "Nilo-Saharan–Dravidian Etymologies," ms.
- ——. 1987. Language in the Americas. Stanford, Calif.
- ——. 1990. "The American Indian Language Controversy," Review of Archaeology 11: 5–14.
- ———. To appear. Indo-European and Its Closest Relatives: The Eurasiatic Language Family. Stanford, Calif.
- Gregersen, Edgar A. 1972. "Kongo-Saharan," Journal of African Languages 11: 69–89.
- Guthrie, Malcolm. 1967. Comparative Bantu, 4 vols. Farnborough, Eng.
- Hock, Hans Henrich. 1986. Principles of Historical Linguistics. Berlin.
- Illich-Svitych, V. M. 1967. "Materialy k sravnitel'nomu slovarju nostratičeskix jazykov," *Etimologija 1965* (Moscow): 321–96.
- ——. 1971–84. Opyt sravnenija nostratičeskix jazykov, 3 vols. Moscow.
- Johnston, Harry H. 1922. A Comparative Study of the Bantu and Semi-Bantu Languages, 2 vols. Oxford, Eng.
- Kaufman, Terrence. 1990. "Language History in South America: What We Know and How to Know More," in Doris L. Payne, ed., Amazonian Linguistics: Studies in Lowland South American Languages. Austin, Tex., 13–73.
- Key, Mary R. 1968. Comparative Tacanan Phonology. The Hague.
- ——. 1987. "American Indian Wordlist," ms.
- Klimov, G. A. 1964. Etimologičeskij slovar' kartvel'skix jazykov. Moscow.
- Kuiper, F. B. J. 1962. Nahali: A Comparative Study. Amsterdam.
- Leshchiner, D. R. 1989. "Rekonstruktsija nazvanij častej tela v jazykax sem'i xoka," *Lingvističeskaja rekonstruktsija i drevnejšaja istorija vostoka* (Moscow) 1: 159–66.
- Lorimer, D. L. R. 1938. The Burushaski Language, vol. 3. Oslo.
- ——. 1962. Werchikwar English Vocabulary. Oslo.
- Mann, Stuart E. 1984–88. An Indo-European Comparative Dictionary. Hamburg.
- Matisoff, James A. 1985. "Out on a Limb: Arm, Hand and Wing in Sino-Tibetan," in Graham Thurgood, James A. Matisoff, and David Bradley, eds., *Linguistics of the Sino-Tibetan Area: The State of the Art.* Canberra, 421–49.
- Matteson, Esther, ed. 1972. Comparative Studies in Amerindian Languages. The Hague.
- Morpurgo Davies, Anna. 1989. Comments on "Models of Change in Language and Archaeology," by Colin Renfrew, *Transactions of the Philological Society* 87(2): 156–71.

- Mudrak, Oleg A. 1984. "K voprosu o vnešnix svjazjax eskimosskix jazykov," Lingvističeskaja rekonstruktsija i drevnejšaja isorija vostoka (Moscow) 1: 64–68.
- ——. 1989. "Eskaleutian Roots," in Vitaly Shevoroshkin, ed., Reconstructing Languages and Cultures. Bochum, Germany, 112–24.
- ——. 1990. "Kamchukchee Roots," in Vitaly Shevoroshkin, ed., Explorations in Language Macrofamilies. Bochum, Germany, 90–110.
- Mukarovsky, Hans G. 1966. "Zur Stellung der Mandsprachen," Anthropos 61: 679–88.
- Müller, Walter W. 1975. "Beiträge zur hamito-semitischen Wortvergleichung," in James Bynon and Theodora Bynon, eds., *Hamito-Semitica*. The Hague, 63–73.
- Newman, Stanley. 1964. "Comparison of Zuni and California Penutian," International Journal of American Linguistics 30: 1–13.
- Nichols, Johanna. 1990. "Linguistic Diversity and the First Settlement of the New World," Language 66: 475–521.
- Nikolaev, Sergei. 1991. "Sino-Caucasian Languages in America," in Vitaly Shevoroshkin, ed., *Dene-Sino-Caucasian Languages*. Bochum, Germany, 42–66.
- Nikolaev, Sergei, and Sergei Starostin. 1992. "A (North) Caucasian Etymological Dictionary," ms.
- Orel, Vladimir E., and Olga V. Stolbova. 1988. "Cushitic, Chadic, and Egyptian: Lexical Relations," paper presented at the International Conference on Language and Prehistory, University of Michigan.
- Patrie, James. 1982. The Genetic Relationship of the Ainu Language. Honolulu, Hawaii.
- Payne, David L. 1991. "A Classification of Maipuran (Arawakan) Languages Based on Shared Lexical Retentions," in Desmond C. Derbyshire and Geoffrey K. Pullum, eds., *Handbook of Amazonian Languages*, Vol. 3. Berlin, 355–499.
- Plomley, N. J. B. 1976. A Word-List of the Tasmanian Aboriginal Languages. Launceston, Australia.
- Pokorny, Julius. 1959. Indogermanisches Etymologisches Wörterbuch. Bern.
- Proulx, Paul. 1984. "Proto-Algic I: Phonological Sketch," International Journal of American Linguistics 50: 165–207.
- Rahder, Johannes. 1963. "Etymological Vocabulary of Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and Ainu, Part 5," Orbis 12: 45–116.
- Rédei, Károly, ed. 1986–88. Uralisches Etymologisches Wörterbuch. Budapest.
- Ruhlen, Merritt. 1987a. A Guide to the World's Languages, Vol. 1: Classification. Stanford, Calif.

- ——. 1987b. "Khoisan Etymologies," Chapter 3 of this volume.
- ——. 1988a. "The Origin of Language: Retrospective and Prospective," Chapter 13 of this volume. [Russian version in *Voprosy Jazykoznanija* 1 (1991): 5–19.]
- ——. 1988b. "Na-Dene Etymologies," Chapter 5 of this volume.
- ——. 1991a. "Amerind T'ANA 'Child, Sibling,'" Chapter 9 of this volume.
- ——. 1991b. "The Emerging Synthesis: A View from Language," paper presented at the International Conference on Genetics, Linguistics, and Archaeology, Florence, Italy, May 1991.

—. 1991c. "The Amerind Phylum and the Prehistory of the New World," in Sydney M. Lamb and E. Douglas Mitchell, eds., *Sprung from Some Common Source: Investigations into the Prehistory of Languages.* Stanford, Calif., 328–50.

- ——. 1992. "An Overview of Genetic Classification," in John Hawkins and Murray Gell-Mann, eds., *The Evolution of Human Languages*. Redwood City, Calif. [Also Chapter 1 of this volume.]
- Schmidt, Wilhelm. 1952. Die Tasmanischen Sprachen. Utrecht.
- Seto, F. 1988. Tropical Pacific Historical and Linguistic Selections, vol. 5. Tokyo.
- Shafer, Robert. 1965. "The Eurasial Linguistic Superfamily," Anthropos 60: 445–68.
- ——. 1974. Introduction to Sino-Tibetan. Wiesbaden, Germany.
- Shevoroshkin, Vitaly, ed. 1991. Dene-Sino-Caucasian Languages. Bochum, Germany.
- Starostin, Sergei A. 1982. "Prajenisejskaja rekonstruktsija i vneshnie svjazi enisejskix jazykov," Ketskij sbornik. Leningrad, 144–237.
 - —. 1984. "Gipoteza o genetičeskix svjazjax sinotibetskix jazykov s enisejskimi i severnokavkazskimi jazykami," *Lingvističeskaja rekonstruktsija i drevnejšaja istorija vostoka* (Moscow) 4: 19–38. [English translation in Vitaly Shevoroshkin, ed., *Dene-Sino-Caucasian Languages*, 1991. Bochum, Germany, 12–41.]
 - —. 1991. "Nostratic and Sino-Caucasian," in Vitaly Shevoroshkin, ed., Explorations in Language Macrofamilies. Bochum, Germany, 42–66.
- Starostin, Sergei, and Sergei Nikolaev. 1975. "List of Proto-Daghestanian and Proto-Nakh-Daghestanian (ND) Nominal Roots (with Extra-Caucasian Comparisons by Aron Dolgopolsky)," ms.
- Stolbova, Olga V. 1987. "Sravnitel'no-istoričeskaja fonetika i slovar' zapadnočadskix jazykov," in V. J. Porxomovskij, ed., Afrikanskoje istoričeskoje jazykoznanije. Moscow, 30–268.
- Swadesh, Morris. 1960. "On Interhemisphere Linguistic Connections," in Stanley Diamond, ed., Culture in History. New York, 894–924.

—. 1962. "Linguistic Relations across Bering Strait, American Anthropologist 64: 1262–91.

Thelwall, Robin. 1981. "Lexicostatistical Subgrouping and Lexical Reconstruction of the Daju Group," in T. C. Schadeberg and M. L. Bender, eds., *Nilo-Saharan*. Dordrecht, Netherlands, 167–84.

- Toporov, V. N. 1967. "Iz etimologii enisejskix jazykov," *Etimologija 1965* (Moscow): 311–20.
- Trombetti, Alfredo. 1905. L'unità d'origine del linguaggio. Bologna.
- Tucker, A. N., and M. A. Bryan. 1957. Linguistic Survey of the Northern Bantu Borderland, vol. 4. London.
- Walde, Alois, and Julius Pokorny. 1930. Vergleichendes Wörterbuch der indogermanischen Sprachen. Berlin.
- Wurm, S. A., and B. Wilson. 1975. English Finderlist of Reconstructions in Austronesian Languages. Canberra.

Yoshitake, S. 1934. The Phonetic System of Ancient Japanese. London.