

# The languages (Indo-European and non-Indo-European) and their written sources

## 1. Indo-European languages

### 1.1. Anatolian

The Anatolian languages of ancient Asia Minor — Hittite (written in cuneiform), Luwian (cuneiform and hieroglyphic), and Palaic — are attested in documents from the Boghaz-Köy archive of the second millennium B.C. The oldest Hittite cuneiform texts can be dated by paleographic features (their ancient ductus) to the period of the Old Hittite Kingdom (first half of the second millennium B.C.) and include royal inscriptions: the oldest, that of King Anittas (18th century B.C.: Neu 1974), the Annals of King Hattusilis (17th century B.C.: Imparati 1965), and the Will of King Hattusilis I (Sommer and Falkenstein 1938); there are also historical inscriptions (that of Zukrashi: Otten 1953) and others from KUB and KBo (see Laroche 1971). Also composed in the Old Hittite period is the early variant of the Hittite Laws (Friedrich 1959; Imparati 1964). An archaic form of the language similar to that of Old Hittite is found in many ritual and mythological texts: the Myth of Telepinus (KUB XVII 10; XXXIII), the metrical text about the god Pirwa (Bo 6483: Otten 1951), a burial song (also metrical) (KBo III 46), hymns to the sun (KUB XXI 127-34, XIV 74), a building ritual (KUB XXIX 1), royal burial rituals (Otten 1958), the Prayer of Mursilis II in a Time of Plague (Goetze 1929), and others. Archaic features are also preserved in Middle Hittite texts such as the Text of Madduwattas (Otten 1969): see Heinhold-Krahmer et al. 1979. In the Late Hittite period (14th-13th centuries B.C.), Hittite texts show significant influence from spoken Luwian (for instance, Luwian words marked with the special cuneiform Glossenkeil sign ◀).

Luwian is attested in cuneiform texts, chiefly rituals, of the time of the Hittite Kingdom as well as in later hieroglyphic inscriptions of southern Asia Minor and northern Syria, written in their own hieroglyphic script (Laroche 1960:I; Meriggi 1966-1975).

Palaic is known from fragments, chiefly of mythological and ritual texts, found among the Hittite cuneiform inscriptions (Kammenhuber 1969a).

The later Anatolian languages of Asia Minor are descendants of Hittite and Luwian: these are Lydian and Lycian, attested in alphabetic documents of classical times (Houwink ten Cate 1961, Gusmani 1964, Heubeck 1969, Neumann 1969, Laroche 1974; cf. also Zgusta 1964a).

## 1.2. Indo-Iranian (Aryan) languages

The earliest evidence of an Indo-Iranian dialect is Mitannian Aryan, attested in the form of Indo-Iranian words and deity names contained in Hittite texts, chiefly texts about the training of horses (Kammenhuber 1961, Mayrhofer 1966).

The oldest actual texts in an Indo-Iranian language are the Old Indic texts of the Rigveda, written down in Indian syllabary in the first millennium B.C. but composed much earlier, probably in the second millennium B.C. The oldest hymns of the Rigveda were probably composed before the entry of Indo-Aryan tribes into northwest India (Aufrecht 1955, Elizarenkova 1972, 1982). The archaic Vedic language that represents the earliest form of Indic is also used in the Atharvaveda (M. Bloomfield 1899, Elizarenkova 1976). The later literary form of the language is often simply called Sanskrit (*samskr̥ta*- 'perfected').<sup>1</sup>

Sanskrit literature in the broad sense also includes archaic prose texts of religious and philosophical content, later than the Vedic texts: the Brahmanas and Upanishads (see Van Buitenen 1962, Satya Shrava 1977). The ancient juridical tradition is reflected in numerous texts, of which the best known are the Laws of Mana (*Mānava Dharma Śāstra*): see Nārāyaṇ Rām Āchārya 1946. Sanskrit continued to be used as a literary language parallel to the spoken Middle Indic Prakrits from which today's Indo-Aryan languages evolved: Hindi, Bengali, Panjabi, Sindhi, and others (Bloch 1934).

A separate branch of Indo-Iranian is the Kafir, or Nuristani, languages spoken in the mountainous part of Afghanistan (Nuristan, earlier Kafiristan). These are unwritten languages: Kati, Ashkun, Waigali, Prasun (Strand 1973, Grjunberg 1971, 1980; for individual languages see Morgenstierne 1929, 1949, 1954, Fussman 1972). Related to the Kafir languages are the Dardic languages, which fall into two subgroups, Central Dardic (Dameli, Pashai, Gawar-Bati, Shumashti, and others) and Eastern Dardic or Dardic proper (Phalura, Kashmiri, Shina, Garwi, and others): Èdel'man 1965.

The other branch of Indo-Iranian is Iranian, of which Avestan and Old Persian are attested in ancient documents. The hymns of the Avesta, written in Avestan (which has Eastern Iranian dialect traits), were composed in the second and first millennia B.C. but written down in alphabetic writing much later, in the first millennium A.D. The four major parts of the Avesta that have come down to us are the Yasna — which includes the Gathas, hymns attributed to Zarathustra (Humbach 1959) — the Vispered, the Videvdāt (or Vendidad), and the Yashts (hymns), as well as fragments (Geldner 1886-1895). Old Persian, which represents the Western Iranian dialect type, is known from cuneiform documents of the Achaemenid period (6th to 4th centuries B.C.), historical in

1. [Sanskrit citations in this book are largely from Vedic. Hence they are usually identified as simply Sanskrit, abbreviated Skt. — JN.]

content (Herzfeld 1938, Cameron 1951, Brandenstein and Mayrhofer 1964). Median is the language of the Medes (8th to 6th centuries B.C.), reconstructed from individual words (personal names and tribe names) found in Assyrian and Greek sources and in Old Persian inscriptions (see Mayrhofer 1968).

The Middle Iranian languages are divided into eastern and western groups. Eastern Iranian languages include Khotanese Saka (texts of the first millennium B.C. from Central Asia: Bailey 1945-1956, 1951), Sogdian (Benveniste 1940, Henning 1940, Mackenzie 1976, Livšic and Xromov 1981:347-514), Khwarezmian (Frejman 1951), and Bactrian (Humbach 1966-1967, Steblin-Kamenskij 1981:314-16). Western Iranian languages include Middle Persian, or Pehlevi, attested in numerous texts from Sassanid Iran (Henning 1955), and Parthian (texts from Central Asia: Diakonoff and Livšic 1960, Gignoux 1972, Diakonoff and Livšic 1976).

Modern Iranian languages of the eastern group include Ossetic of the Caucasus, with two dialects, Iron (eastern) and Digor (western), considered to be derived from Scythian, which is known from individual words and personal names in the writers of classical antiquity (Abaev 1949); Yagnobi in Central Asia, a direct descendant of Sogdian; Pashto or Afghan; Munji (and its Yidga dialect); and the Pamir languages: Shugni, Rushan (and dialect Khuf: Sokolova 1959), Bartang, Oroshor, Sarikoli, Yazgulami, Ishkashim (and dialect Sanglechi), and Wakhi (see Paxalina 1959, Grjunberg and Steblin-Kamenskij 1976). Western Iranian languages include modern Persian, Tajik, Kurdish, Baluchi, Tat, Talysh, Ormuri, Parachi, and several dialects of central Iran (see Morgenstierne 1929-1938).

### *1.3. Armenian*

Classical Armenian (Grabar) is known from numerous texts going back to the fifth century A.D., including Bible translations and original texts such as the History of Armenia by Moses of Khorene, both of which include fragments of older texts from the prehistoric period of Armenian (Schmitt 1981:215ff.). There are two main groups of Armenian dialects: eastern (in the Transcaucasus) and western (Meillet 1936).

### *1.4. Greek*

The earliest form of an ancient Greek dialect is Mycenaean, known from Cretan and Mycenaean documents in the Linear B script dating to the 15th-13th centuries B.C. (Morpurgo 1963, Ventris and Chadwick 1973). The oldest texts of the next period are the Iliad and the Odyssey of Homer. The main dialects of

ancient Greek are Attic-Ionic (including the Ionic dialects of Asia Minor and the Cyclades as well as Euboean and Attic), Achaean, including Aeolic and northern Achaean (Thessalian, Boeotian, and Aeolian of Asia Minor and Lesbos), and southern Achaean (Arcadian on the Peloponnese, Pamphylian or Cypriot on Cyprus; this dialect is close to Mycenaean); Doric and Northwest Greek (spoken in Laconia, Messenia, the Argolid, the islands of Aegina and Crete and other Aegean islands, and Corinth and Megara). See Buck 1910, Bechtel 1921-1924, Schmitt 1977; also Risch 1979a.

### *1.5. Phrygian*

Phrygian is known from inscriptions from the first half of the first millennium B.C., from northwestern Asia Minor. A few of these are early inscriptions dating back to the seventh century B.C., written in an archaic script similar to the early Greek alphabet; most are later inscriptions of the Roman period, written in the ordinary Greek script of the time (Gusmani 1958, O. Haas 1966, Diakonoff and Neroznak 1977, Neroznak 1978).

### *1.6. Tocharian*

The Tocharian languages are attested in texts from the second half of the first millennium A.D., at the easternmost periphery of Indo-European speech in Eurasia, in Eastern Turkestan [Xinjiang]. There are two languages, conventionally called Tocharian A (East Tocharian) and Tocharian B (West Tocharian). Most of the texts are translations of Sanskrit Buddhist documents, but there are a few original texts: business letters, monastic administrative texts, accounting documents (Sieg and Siegling 1921, 1949-1953, W. Thomas 1964).

### *1.7. Albanian*

Albanian, in the western Balkan peninsula, as attested from the 16th century A.D. There are two main dialects: Geg (northern, in Albania and Kosovo) and Tosk (southern): see Desnickaja 1968, Solta 1980.

### *1.8. "Ancient European" languages*

The term "Ancient European" will be used to include the dialectally and areally related Indo-European languages of Europe from the end of the second millen-

nium B.C. to the beginning of the first millennium B.C. (Krahe 1951, 1954, 1959, 1962).

*1.8.1. Italic languages.* This is a family of languages of the Apennine Peninsula of ancient times, including the Latin-Faliscan and Osco-Umbrian subgroups, and attested in documents from the first millennium B.C. (Vetter 1953, Solta 1974):

Latin (originally the language of Latium and Rome) and the closely related Faliscan (the dialect of Falerii in southern Etruria) are attested in inscriptions going back to the sixth century B.C., written in a Greek-derived alphabetic script. The oldest Latin is attested in several inscriptions (Ernout 1950:274ff.),<sup>2</sup> Saturnian verse, and the works of early Roman authors (Plautus, Terence).

The Osco-Umbrian subgroup includes the dialects of the Oscans (inscriptions in Samnia and Campania), the Volsci, the Umbrians, and other Sabellian tribes. The most important Umbrian document is the bronze Iguvine tablets (from Iguvium): Poultney 1959, Vetter 1955, Ernout 1961. At the beginning of the present era the Osco-Umbrian languages yielded to Latin.

Venetic. A distinct Indo-European dialect known from brief inscriptions of the fifth to first centuries B.C. in northeastern Italy (Beeler 1949, Krahe 1950, Untermann 1961).

Illyrian. Known from brief Messapic inscriptions from Calabria and Apulia (southern Italy). Illyrian is also known from onomastics of the Italic peninsula, the northwest Balkan peninsula, and adjacent regions (Krahe 1955, Mayer 1957-1959; cf. Tronskij 1953:57-59).

*1.8.2. Celtic languages.* The Celtic languages fall into two groups: continental Celtic and insular Celtic. On the evidence of Celtiberian inscriptions, speakers of continental Celtic dialects lived in Iberia from the first half of the first millennium B.C. (Lejeune 1955a, Tovar 1961, Untermann 1961a), and in Gaul (modern France) in Roman times, from which there are a number of short inscriptions in Gaulish. Other groups of Celts lived in central Europe: southern and western Germany, the Alpine regions, Pannonia, Italy, and the Balkan peninsula. Insular Celtic, found on the British Isles, includes the Goidelic and Brythonic dialect groups. Goidelic includes Old Irish, attested in Ireland in the Ogam script from the fourth century A.D. and in later texts in the Latin alphabet, as well as Scots Gaelic and Manx. The Brythonic group includes Welsh (Old Welsh is attested in glosses and written documents from the 11th century A.D.), Cornish, and Breton, brought to Brittany by immigrants from Britain in the 5th century A.D. (Old Breton glosses go back to the eighth to eleventh centuries: Jackson 1953).

2. The Praenestine fibula (allegedly from 600 B.C.), formerly considered to be the oldest Latin inscription, has recently been shown to be a forgery created in the 19th century (see Guarducci 1980, Pfister 1983).

*1.8.3. Germanic languages.* The Germanic languages are usually divided into three groups: Scandinavian (or North Germanic), East Germanic (Gothic), and West Germanic. North and East Germanic are put in a single Gothic-Scandinavian group by some investigators. The earliest attested Scandinavian language — the language of the ancient Scandinavian runic inscriptions — is still close to Proto-Germanic (Makaev 1965). The oldest texts in Old Icelandic (Old Norse) are collected in the Elder Edda (Neckel 1962), a parchment manuscript miscellany of old songs compiled in Iceland in the 13th century but composed much earlier. Old Icelandic also has an extensive prose literature and skaldic poetry. In about the middle of the second millennium A.D. Old Icelandic (Old Scandinavian) split into West Scandinavian (Norwegian and Icelandic) and East Scandinavian (Swedish and Danish) (M. Steblin-Kamenskij 1953).

The primary representative of East Germanic is Gothic, whose oldest document is a Bible translation done by the bishop Wulfila in the 4th century A.D. Gothic was spoken in eastern and southeastern Europe in lands belonging to the Byzantine sphere of influence. There is evidence for the presence of Goths in Byzantium itself, as well as on the Crimea (in the form of a Crimean Gothic word list: Žirmunskij 1964:85-102).

West Germanic (or South Germanic if opposed to a Gothic-Scandinavian branch) includes Old English (or Anglo-Saxon, with texts from the 7th century A.D.), Old Frisian, Old High German (texts from the 8th century A.D.), and Old Saxon (texts from the 9th century), the earliest representative of the Low German dialects. English and Frisian make up an Anglo-Frisian subgroup, opposed to High German dialects, while Low German is intermediate between these two. The earliest poetic texts in West Germanic languages include the Old English epic of Beowulf (Irving 1968, 1969, Wrenn 1973), the Old High German Song of the Nibelung (Körner 1921), and the Old Saxon epic Heliand (Behaghel 1933). The descendants of these languages are modern English, German, Flemish, and Dutch (the latter from Low German dialects).

*1.8.4. Baltic languages.* There are two groups: West Baltic, represented by Old Prussian (with written texts from Prussia in the 14th-18th centuries A.D.: Mažiulis 1966-1981), which subsequently yielded to German, and East Baltic, including Lithuanian and Latvian (texts go back to the 16th century; see Zinkevičius 1980:I.15-18).

*1.8.5. Slavic languages.* There are three groups: East Slavic (Russian, Ukrainian, Belorussian, with early documents going back to the 11th century); West Slavic (Polish, Slovincian-Kashubian, Czech, Slovak, Sorbian, and extinct Polabian); and South Slavic (Bulgarian, Serbo-Croatian, Slovene, and others), with early texts in Old Church Slavic (translations of Greek texts beginning in

the 11th century A.D.: the Zographensis and Marianus Gospel translations in the Glagolitic alphabet, and in the Cyrillic alphabet the Savvina Kniga of Gospel readings, the Sinai Psalter, the Suprasliensis collection of lives of saints and prophets, and others).

## 2. Non-Indo-European languages in adjacent parts of Eurasia

### 2.1. Ancient Near Eastern languages

**Hattic.** The non-Indo-European language of the indigenous population of northeastern Asia Minor, attested in the form of fragments in Hittite texts. Extinct since the early second millennium B.C. (Kammenhuber 1969).

**Sumerian.** A non-Indo-European language of Mesopotamia, attested in early pictographic and cuneiform texts going back to the 4th and 3rd millennia B.C. Subsequently yielded to Akkadian. There is evidence for different periods in the history of Sumerian, which point to changes in phonetics and grammatical structure.

**Elamite.** A non-Indo-European language of southwestern Iran (the mountain valley of the eastern Tigris, modern Khuzistan), with hieroglyphic and cuneiform texts going back to the beginning of the second millennium B.C. Yielded to Old Persian by the first millennium (Diakonoff 1967, Reiner 1969).

**Hurrian-Urartean.** A non-Indo-European language family, attested from the third to first millennia B.C. in various parts of Southwest Asia: upper Mesopotamia, northern Syria, Asia Minor, the southern Transcaucasus, and northwest Iran. The earliest appearance of the Hurrians in the Near East (specifically, northern Syria) was in the mid-third millennium B.C., at which time in the vicinity of Ebla (modern Tell Mardik) there flourished a powerful Semitic-speaking state with Hurrians as one of its ethnic components. The earliest Hurrian texts date from the second half of the third millennium. The Nawara inscription, from the valley of the Diyala, an eastern tributary of the Tigris, was written in Old Akkadian for the Hurrian king Arižen (or Ari-šen or Atal-šen): see Diakonoff 1967:114, Wilhelm 1982). The oldest Hurrian document in Hurrian proper is an inscription from Urkish in northern Mesopotamia, also written in Old Akkadian cuneiform of the same kind (see Diakonoff 1967:6-7, Haas et al. 1975:24). In the second millennium B.C. there are many Hurrian texts from Mari, Boghaz-Köy, and Ugarit (the latter using two different writing systems: a syllabic logographic type and a consonantal-syllabic one of the ancient Semitic type). Hurrian was the main language of the Mitannian kingdom of Mesopotamia in the mid-second millennium B.C. The El Amarna archive yielded an extensive Hurrian text in the form of a letter from the ruler Tushratta to the Egyptian Pharaoh Amenhotep III from the early 14th century

B.C. (Speiser 1941, Laroche 1978).

A later Hurrian dialect is Urartean of the Kingdom of Van in the southern Transcaucasus, written in Assyrian cuneiform. The texts date to the first half of the first millennium B.C. (Melikišvili 1960, Diakonoff 1971).

## 2.2. *Semitic languages*

A family of Near Eastern languages attested in written texts from the 2nd millennium B.C.:

East Semitic comprises Akkadian, with Babylonian and Assyrian dialects, spoken in Mesopotamia and adjacent regions. The following stages are distinguished for Akkadian: Old Akkadian (24th-22nd centuries B.C.); Old Babylonian (in southern Mesopotamia) and Old Assyrian (in the middle Tigris and the Cappadocian tablets from Asia Minor), from the beginning of the 2nd millennium B.C.; Middle Babylonian and Middle Assyrian (16th-11th centuries B.C.); Neo-Babylonian and Neo-Assyrian (10th-8th centuries B.C.). The Akkadian inscriptions used a cuneiform script of Sumerian origin, with some changes adapting it to Akkadian dialects.

West Semitic languages from the eastern Mediterranean area (Palestine and Syria). These include the Canaanite subgroup: Paleo-Canaanite or Eblaite (spoken in northern Syria and attested in recently discovered inscriptions from Ebla dated to the mid-third millennium: Pettinato 1975, Gelb 1977); Moabite, represented in one lengthy inscription of the king Mesha (11th century B.C.); Phoenician, with inscriptions beginning in the second half of the second millennium B.C.; (ancient or Biblical) Hebrew, with documents from the end of the second millennium B.C.; and Aramaic, attested in many inscriptions beginning in the first millennium B.C. Several different Aramaic dialects are distinguished: West Aramaic (Nabatean, Palmyrene, Judeo-Palestinian, Samaritan, and others) and East Aramaic (Syriac, Mandaic, and others). The oldest inscriptions in the West Semitic languages are in a linear script of the consonantal-syllabic type going back to an early Semitic prototype.

The Ugaritic language of ancient Ugarit (modern Ras-Shamra, Syria) forms a separate branch within West Semitic. Its texts, dating to the mid-second millennium B.C., are written in a distinct consonantal-syllabic cuneiform.

South Semitic languages include (epigraphic) South Arabian dialects (with texts from the first millennium B.C.); their modern forms Mehri, Shahari, and Soqotri; classical Arabic; Geez (or Classical Ethiopic) and the modern Ethiopic languages Amharic, Tigre, Tigrinya, Harari, and others.



### 2.3. *Ancient Egyptian*

The language of ancient Egypt, attested in hieroglyphic documents from the end of the fourth millennium B.C. on: Old Egyptian, Middle Egyptian, and Late Egyptian (the latter from the mid-second millennium B.C.). The continuation of Egyptian is Coptic, the language of the Egyptian Christians, written in a script derived from Greek uncial writing; it is an extinct language, preserved only in liturgical contexts. Egyptian, together with Semitic and several language families of Africa — Berber, Cushitic, and Chadic — makes up the Afroasiatic family (see M. Cohen 1947, Diakonoff 1965, 1975).

### 2.4. *Caucasian (or Paleo-Caucasian) languages*

Kartvelian languages. This is a language family of the southern Caucasus, consisting of four related languages: Georgian (with texts going back to the fifth century A.D.), Mingrelian, Laz (or Chan), and Svan.

Abkhaz-Adyghe (Northwest Caucasian). Languages of the northwestern Caucasus, including Abkhaz (with Abaza), Adyghe, Kabardian, and Ubykh.

Nakh-Daghestanian (Northeast Caucasian). Languages of the eastern Caucasus. There are two branches. The Daghestanian branch consists of the Avar-Andi-Tsez group (Avar, Andi, Botlikh, Godoberi, Karati, Akhvakh, Bagvali, Tindi, Chamali, Tsez, Khvarshi, Ginukh, Bezhta, Hunzib); the Lezghian group (Lezghi, Tabassaran, Agul, Rutul, Tsakhur, Archi, Kryz, Budukh, Xinalug, Udi); Lak; and Dargi. The Nakh branch consists of Chechen, Ingush, and Batsbi (or Tsova-Tush).

### 2.5. *Dravidian languages*

This is a family of 23 languages spoken for the most part in the southern Indian subcontinent. There are seven major languages: Telugu, Tamil, Kannada, Malayalam, Gondi, Kurukh, and Tulu. Tamil, Telugu, Kannada, and Malayalam have written traditions going back to the beginning of this era. Before the arrival of the Indo-Aryans in India the Dravidian languages were spoken over most of the Indian subcontinent, including the northwestern part; they were displaced by Indic, with which they were in contact for a long period (see Burrow and Emeneau 1961).

## 2.6. *Munda languages*

A group of languages spoken in India (chiefly its central part) and forming a branch of Austroasiatic, a large family of mostly Southeast Asian languages.

## 2.7. *Uralic languages*

A family with two branches, Finno-Ugric and Samoyedic. The Finno-Ugric languages are divided into Ugric (Hungarian in central Europe, and Ostyak and Vogul [also sometimes known as Khanty and Mansi] in western Siberia) and Finnic, the latter with subgroups: Finno-Permian (Komi [or Permiak and Zyrian] and Votyak [Udmurt]); Balto-Finnic (Finnish, Veps, Vote, Estonian, Livonian, and others in northeastern Europe); Volgaic (Moksha Mordvin, Erzja Mordvin, Hill Cheremis [Mari], and Meadow Cheremis [Mari]); and Lapp [Saami]. See Hajdú 1975.

## 2.8. *Altaic languages*

Many scholars group the Turkic, Mongolian, and Tungusic languages together as Altaic.

The Turkic languages are attested in written texts from western Siberia (the Yenisei-Orkhon inscriptions) and Central Asia dating to the seventh century A.D. and written in a Turkic runic script derived from Sogdian (Kononov 1980) and reflecting the Old Turkic (or Old Uigur) language. Turkic languages fall into several subgroups: Chuvash; Southwest or Oghuz Turkic; Northwest or Kipchak; Kirghiz-Altay; and Southeastern (Uigur).

The Mongolian languages include Mongol proper as well as Buriat, Kalmyk, and others such as Oirat, Dagur, and Monguor.

The Tungusic languages include Manchurian and Jurchen (the Manchurian or southern branch) and Evenki, Even, Negidal, Solon, and the languages of the Amur subgroup (the Tungus or northern branch).

## 2.9. *Paleoasiatic (Paleosiberian) languages*

This is a grouping of genetically unrelated languages of indigenous ethnic minorities of Siberia. Four language families are included in Paleoasiatic: Chukchi-Kamchatkan, Eskimo-Aleut, Yukagir, and Ket-Assan (Yeniseian). The latter group includes several languages of western Siberia extinct since the 17th

to 19th centuries (Kott, Arin, Assan, and others) as well as Ket, spoken on the middle and upper Yenisei.

Also included in Paleoasiatic is the language isolate Nivkh (Gilyak).

### 2.10. Chinese

Chinese is attested in texts written in pictographic script from the second millennium B.C. The oldest texts come from northern and central China. The phonetic forms of Old Chinese words have been reconstructed by comparative analysis of the modern dialects and analysis of words borrowed into other Asian languages — Japanese, Korean, Vietnamese, and others (Karlgren 1940). Old Chinese forms are cited in the transcription of Karlgren 1923, 1940. Modern Chinese forms are in *pinyin*.

The territory of Chinese speech forms the easternmost limit of the non-Indo-European languages which have come into contact with Indo-European dialects in the course of the Indo-European migrations.