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ON THE ETYMOLOGY OF LITHUANIAN *dangus*

Abstract. Traditionally the Baltic name of the ‘sky’ (Lith. *dangùs*, Old Pr. *dangus*) is explained as derived from the verb *deñgti* ‘to cover’, based on the assumption that the sky was conceived of as a kind of curved surface covering the world. However, this traditional approach has left two questions open until now: (1) how to explain the formation of the word *dangus*, which is more akin to that of an adjective than to that of a noun; (2) how to reconstruct the PIE prehistory of this Baltic lexical family. The aim of this paper is to discuss both the morphological and the semantic structure of the word *dangus* and to explain all its features, by proposing a new hypothesis on its origin and development.

Keywords: Lithuanian; etymology; historical linguistics.

Da empöre sich der Mensch! Es schlage
An des Himmels Wölbung seine Klage.
(AP)

I. Introduction

The Baltic name of the ‘sky’ shared by Lithuanian (*dangùs*) and Old Prussian (*dangus*) is usually regarded as a Common Baltic innovation, even if it was replaced in Latvian by another word (*debess* < ‘cloud’), and there seems to be broad agreement on its derivation from a verb ‘to cover’, directly reflected by Lithuanian *deñgti* and traced back to a PIE root **d^heng^h-* ‘to cover’. This view, which is repeatedly taught in most handbooks and etymological dictionaries, goes back at least to Johann Severin Vater (1821, 163), who derived Lithuanian *dangùs* and Old Prussian *dangus* from Lith. *deñgti*.¹ The motivation underlying this etymology is very often left implicit or taken for granted, as if the representation of the celestial vault as a kind of ceiling

¹ Vater (1821, 163): ‘das Wort *Dangus* komt her von *dangti* [sic], das ift, decken, gleichfam der Himmel ift eine Decke über der Erden’.

covering the earth or as a kind of sheet pulled over the world were so self-evident that it could be unnecessary to back it up with positive arguments. In this paper I certainly do not intend to challenge or disprove this traditional etymology, but to provide a more accurate assessment of its motivation on two points. First, the formation of the Baltic word **dang-u-* must be clarified, especially the function of the suffix **-u-* in what appears to be a deverbative formation. Second, the meaning conveyed by the root of Lithuanian *deñgti* should be specified more precisely, and parallels from other Indo-European languages should be sought to increase the plausibility of this etymology.

II. The formation of Baltic **dangus*

The correspondence between Lithuanian *dangùs* and Old Prussian *dangus* ‘sky’ allows for the reconstruction of a Common Baltic masculine noun **dangus*. In Modern Lithuanian, *dangùs* belongs to accentual paradigm 4 (AP 4, mobile-oxytone stress with circumflex root: acc.sg. *dañgy*, gen.sg. *dangaũs*), which is generally confirmed by the Old Lithuanian evidence, e.g. *dągùs* (DP 7₁₄, etc. [1599]), gen.sg. *dągaũs* (DK 7₁₇, etc. [1595]), *dąngaũs* (DP 252₁₀, etc. [1599]), loc.sg. *dąguia* (DK 60₁₅, etc. [1595]), *dąguie* (DP 7₃₉, etc. [1599]), etc. Traces of barytone stress (AP 1 or AP 2 with acute or circumflex root) are found in Daukša’s works (DK 1595 and DP 1599) and in the Anonymous Catechism (AC 1605), e.g. nom. sg. *dągus* (DK 163₉ [1595]), *dągus* (DP 79₃, etc. [1599]), gen.sg. *dągaus* (DP 39₄₉, etc. [1599]), loc. sg. *dąguie^a* (DK 30₁₃, etc. [1595]), *dąguie* (DP 87₃₀, etc. [1599]), *Dunguy* (AC 94₄ [1605]).² It is uncertain whether they can be regarded as sufficient proof for the existence of a barytone **dangus* (AP 1) or **dañgus* (AP 2), as sometimes argued in the secondary literature. The Old Prussian data are inconclusive, since the word is always spelled without a macron in the *Third Catechism* (1561): *dangus* (III 39₁₉, etc. [1561]), corresponding to *dangus* (EV 3), *dangus* (I 7₁₁ [1545]).

Lithuanian *dangùs* and Old Prussian *dangus* share the same meaning, both in its atmospheric (‘sky’) and religious application (‘heaven’). In Old Lithuanian, *dangùs* sometimes occurs in the plural with a collective meaning, probably due to the influence of other languages, e.g. Old Lith. *Tewe Mufu kuris effi dangufu* ‘Our Father who art in heaven’ (MŽ 23₆ [1547], inessive plural *dangufu*), cf. Latin *Pater Noster qui es in caelis* and Greek Πάτερ ἡμῶν

² Cf. Skardžius (1935, 159–161), Zinkevičius (1975, 25; 27), Mikulėnienė (2005, 187).

ὁ ἐν τοῖς οὐρανοῖς. In addition to their basic meaning (corresponding to German *Himmel*, Polish *niebo* or Latin *caelum*), both the Old Prussian and the Lithuanian words have an anatomical meaning: ‘palate, roof of the mouth’. In the Old Prussian *Elbing Vocabulary* (EV) the two meanings are separated as two different entries: the religious word *Hemel Dangus* ‘heaven, sky’ (EV 3) is placed between *Engel Rapa* ‘angel’ (EV 2) and *Geftirne Lauxnos* ‘stars’ (EV 4), whereas the anatomical word *Gume Dangus* ‘palate’ (EV 95) is placed between *Czunge Jnfuwis* ‘tongue’ (EV 94) and *Kele cofy* ‘throat’ (EV 96). The anatomical meaning is also known in a few Lithuanian dialects for *dangùs* (Alytus, Prienai, Vilkaviškis, and between Kelmė and Priekulė).³ It is tempting to regard the semantic duality of Baltic **dangus* as the reflex of a common basic meaning ‘vault’ from which one could derive the two special meanings ‘sky, heaven’ (‘celestial vault’) and ‘palate’ (‘roof of the mouth’). But it is also possible to explain it, to a certain extent, by foreign influences: German dialects of East Prussia use *Himmel* both as ‘sky, heaven’ and as ‘palate’; the same relationship exists in Polish between *niebo* ‘sky, heaven’ and *podniebienie* ‘palate’ as well as in Russian between небо ‘sky, heaven’ and нѣбо ‘palate’.

Traditionally, Lithuanian *dangùs* and Old Prussian *dangus* ‘sky, heaven’ are derived from a verb ‘to cover’ reflected by Lithuanian *deĩgti*. Even if this derivation has met with broad acceptance since the 19th century, it must be recognized that the derivational pathway [R(e)-VERB] → [R(a)-U-NOUN] (R = root) is not supported by other parallels in Baltic. In Baltic, **-u*-stem nouns can be of various origins.⁴ Some of them go back to neuter nouns (e.g. Lith. *medùs* ‘honey’ < PIE **med^hu*, still neuter in Old Prussian *meddo*, cf. Sanskrit *mádhu*), others are inherited from PIE as masculines (e.g. Lith. *sũnùs* ‘son’ < PIE **suH-nu-*, cf. Sanskrit *sũnú-*), others are likely to be secondary (e.g. loanwords like Lith. *tuĩrgus* ‘market’ ← Slavic **tũrgũ*, Russian *topr*, of unknown origin, or Lith. *midùs* ‘mead’ ← Gothic **midu*). The origin of Lithuanian *žmogùs* ‘man’ is controversial. Special mention should be made of the class of masculine **-tu*-derivatives, which has left a few traces in Baltic (e.g. Lith. *lietùs* ‘rain’ < PIE **leiH-tu-*, cf. the Latin type *gustus* ‘taste’). The suffix **-iu-* has a different structure: it is frequently used

³ Cf. ALEW (I 174).

⁴ See Skardžius (1943, 54–55) for Lithuanian and Endzelīns (1923, 325) for the few relics of **-u*-stems in Latvian.

in nouns denoting professions (e.g. Lith. *puõdžius* ‘potter’) or elsewhere (e.g. Lith. *vaĩsius* ‘fruit’, secondary forms like Lith. *ámžius* ‘age’, or loanwords like Lith. *karãlius* ‘king’). None of these models can be applied to *dangùs*, which is characterized by two main features: it displays *o*-grade in its root (**õ > ã*) and it is derived from a verb (*deñgti*). These features do not occur in any of the other **-u*-stem nouns, which invites us to look for a different origin.

There is in Baltic a productive formation of **-u*-adjectives. From an Indo-European point of view, **-u*-adjectives originally displayed zero grade (e.g. PIE **p_lth₂-ú-* ‘broad, wide’ > Sanskrit *p_rthú-*) and were integrated within the Caland system, in which they were linked, inter alia, to sigmatic abstract nouns (e.g. PIE **pléth₂-e/os-* ‘breadth, width’ > Sanskrit *práthas-*).⁵ In some cases, already at an early stage, they were secondarily connected with simple thematic verbs and could eventually imitate their vocalism, as in Sanskrit *svādú-* ‘sweet’ (< PIE **s_ueh₂d-ú-*) with irregular full grade probably due to the influence of *svádati* ‘to taste, to relish, to enjoy’ (< PIE **s_uéh₂d-e/o-*). This innovation is likely to be fairly ancient in Indo-European, as suggested by the fact that PIE **s_ueh₂d-ú-* is also reflected with the same vocalism in other Indo-European languages (Greek ἡδύς, Latin *suāvis*, Old Saxon *swōti*, Old High German *suozī*, Old English *swēte*); the verb PIE **s_uéh₂d-e/o-* itself also appears in Greek ἡδομαι ‘to enjoy oneself’. In the prehistory of Baltic, the Caland system ceased to be active (apart from a few relics) and **-u*-adjectives modified their formation rule, adopting **o*-grade and deverbative meaning. As a result, for example, PIE **p_lth₂-ú-* was replaced in Lithuanian by *platùs* (as if from PIE **ploth₂-ú-*), connected with the secondary verb *plė̃sti*, *plečìu* ‘to broaden, to expand’ (< PIE **pleth₂-*, only indirectly corresponding to Sanskrit *práthati*). In Lithuanian, the new derivational pattern [R(e)-VERB] → [R(a)-u-ADJECTIVE] enjoyed an outstanding productivity, as shown by the following examples:⁶

Lithuanian *brandùs* ‘ripe, mature, robust’ (← *brė̃sti* ‘to ripen’); *našùs* ‘fruitful, productive’ (← *nė̃sti* ‘to bring’); *rambùs* ‘slow, tardy, indolent’ (← *rė̃mbė̃ti* ‘to be lazy’); *smarkùs* ‘violent’ (← *smė̃rkti* ‘to submerge, to plunge’); *staigùs* ‘sudden’ (← *stė̃gti* ‘to

⁵ On **-u*-adjectives in PIE, see especially de Lamberterie (1990).

⁶ See Vanags (1994) for a thorough discussion of the ablaut relationships. Vanags shows that, if there is a variation between *a*- and zero-grade in Baltic adjectives of this type (like Lith. *smardùs* / *smirdùs* ‘stinking’), the former is ancient, the latter innovative (after *smirdė̃ti* ‘to stink’).

hurry’); *stalgùs* ‘greedy, avidious’ (← *stel̃gti* ‘to watch eagerly’); *stambùs* ‘large, thick, fat’ (← *stem̃bti* ‘to shoot out, to sprout’)

The type must have existed in other Baltic languages as well. Old Prussian has a few possible instances⁷ such as *āūgus* ‘stingy, greedy’ (III 87₆ [1561]), probably for **angus* (cf. Lith. *ėngti* ‘to torment, to tease’), maybe also *kārtai* ‘bitter’ (III 93₁₀ [1561]), obviously an *a*-stem nominative plural secondarily built on **kartus* (= Lith. *kartùs* ‘bitter’), and *preitlāngus* ‘sweet’ (III 87₅), based on **langus* (cf. Lith. *leñgvas* ‘easy’). Two other **-u*-stem adjectives are likely to be attested in Old Prussian, *gillin* ‘deep’ (III 101₁₂, acc.sg.fem. of **gilus* = Lith. *gilùs* ‘deep’) and *polīgu* ‘similarly’ (adverb in III 53₁₈, 115₂, 119₂₁, cf. I 13₁₂, II 13₁₂, or acc.sg. masc. *pollīgun* in III 69₄, *pollīgon* in III 105₂₂₋₂₃ = Lith. *lygùs*), but they do not exhibit **o*-grade in their root. In Latvian, **-u*-adjectives disappeared and, as a rule, were replaced by **-ja-* adjectives, e.g. Latv. *dziļš* ‘deep’ (from **giljas*) compared with Lith. *gilùs*. Some of these adjectives have preserved their characteristic **o*-grade, like Latv. *plašš* ‘broad, wide’ (from **platjas*) compared with Lith. *platùs*, Latv. *bruôžš* ‘ripe, mature, robust’ (from **brandjas*) compared with Lith. *brandùs*, or Latv. *drūošš* ‘bold, audacious’ (from **dransjas*) compared with Lith. *drqšùs*. The existence of the [R(a)-u] derivational model for **-u*-adjectives in Baltic is indisputable.

There may be various reasons why **-u*-adjectives have generally adopted **o*-grade in Baltic. It is not necessary to claim for Indo-European antiquity (e.g. by assuming secondary connection with the perfect stem). The reshuffling of the derivational model is likely to be purely Baltic (or Balto-Slavic). An influence of **o*-grade iterative verbs on **-u*-adjectives might be envisaged in some cases, e.g. Lith. *badùs* ‘prickly’ (cf. *badýti* ‘to prick’), *grasùs* ‘threatful’ (cf. *grasýti* ‘to threaten’), *kratùs* ‘jolting, rough’ (cf. *kratýti* ‘to jolt’), *taikùs* ‘peaceful’ (cf. *táikyti* ‘to mediate, to reconcile’), *valgùs* ‘hungry, having an appetite for eating’ (cf. *válgyti* ‘to eat’). It is undeniable that this secondary connection may have played a certain role in the productivity of this class of adjectives in Lithuanian, but this can hardly have been its original nucleus. One may assume that the connection with iteratives results from the characteristic **o*-vocalism, not the reverse.

One of the reasons for the extension of **o*-grade in the class of **-u*-adjectives can be that **-u*-adjectives often replaced **o*-grade simple

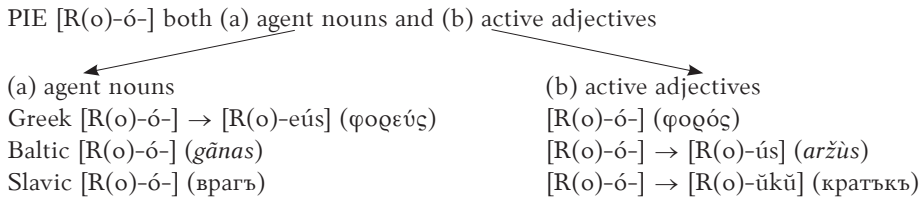
⁷ Cf. Trautmann (1910, 246).

thematic adjectives of the type PIE [R(o)-ó-] (cf. Greek φορός ‘bearing, carrying’). This hypothesis is not new and the shift of *-o-adjectives to *-u-adjectives is a process that has been well described in the secondary literature, by Skardžius (1943, 33), Zinkevičius (1981, 20), Hamp (1984), Vanags (1989) and Ambrazas (2011, 159), to mention just a few names. Originally, the PIE oxytone type [R(o)-ó-] was used to build agent nouns and adjectives with an active meaning beside barytone nouns of the type [R(ó)-o-], which had an abstract or passive meaning: this can be illustrated, inter alia, by Greek φόρος ‘the act of bringing, what is brought, tribute’ / φορός ‘carrying’. In PIE, the oxytone formation produced both agent nouns and adjectives with an active meaning. The Baltic languages seem to have split the two types. On the one hand, agent nouns were sometimes preserved as *-o-stems, e.g. Lith. *gānas* ‘shepherd’ (< PIE *g^{uh}on-ó- ‘the one hitting sheep to make them move forward’, cf. the verb *giñti* ‘to drive’), Lith. *vādas* ‘leader’ (< PIE *uod^h-ó- ‘the leading one’, cf. the verb *vēsti* ‘to lead’), Lith. *sārgas* ‘watchman, guard’ (< PIE *sorg-ó- ‘the protecting one’, cf. the verb *sérgēti* ‘to protect’) or even Lith. *úodas* ‘mosquito’ (< PIE *h₁od-ó- ‘the eating one’, cf. the verb *ésti* ‘to eat’). On the other hand, the corresponding adjectives massively adopted the productive *-u-inflection: a clear example is PIE *h₁org^h-ó- ‘rutting, in rut, excited’ (cf. Armenian *որի orj* ‘male’, o-stem) > Baltic *aržás → Lithuanian *aržus* ‘violent, lustful, libidinous’.⁸ The same split seems to have existed in Slavic, where [R(o)-ó-] agent nouns were sometimes preserved without substantial change (e.g. Old Church Slavic *врагъ* ‘foe’ < PIE *uorg^h-ó-, compared with the Lithuanian abstract noun *vaĩgas* ‘hardship, misery’), whereas [R(o)-ó-] adjectives were usually reshuffled as *-ũ-adjectives, themselves enlarged as *-ũ-(kũ)- (e.g. Old Church Slavic *краткъ* ‘short’ compared with Lith. *kartùs* ‘bitter’, both from PIE *kert- ‘to cut’).⁹ A striking parallel for this split between nouns and adjectives, although in the reverse direction, is provided by Ancient Greek, where the oxytone [R(o)-ó-] type was usually preserved in adjectives with an active meaning, but replaced in agent nouns by the productive formation in -εύς, compare Greek φορός ‘bearing, carrying’ (adjective) and *φορός → φορεύς ‘bearer, carrier’ (noun), τομός ‘cutting’ (adjective) and

⁸ Cf. Petit (2006, 356).

⁹ Matasović (2011, 68) for Common Slavic *vǫrgъ ‘foe’ and Meillet (1905, 324–328) for the Common Slavic adjectival suffix *-ũkũ.

*τομός → τομεύς ‘carver’ (noun). The parallelism in the evolution of this class of words is a textbook instance of morphological split:



In Greek, the innovation lies on the side of the agent nouns, in Baltic and Slavic on the side of the adjectives. The convergence between Baltic and Slavic is particularly remarkable and indicates that the change was already achieved, or at least was being developed, in Balto-Slavic. It is doubtless not without interest to observe that the distinction between nouns and adjectives, which was rather fluid in Indo-European, progressively came to form an organic boundary in this class of words both in Greek and in Balto-Slavic.¹⁰

The position of the Lithuanian noun *dangùs* in this system is intriguing. Taken at face value, the noun *dangùs* can be described as an agent noun (‘the one covering the world’ from *deñgti*), but formally it is much more akin to an adjectival form (**dangas* replaced by **dangus* ‘covering’). The contradiction we are facing here is only apparent and can be removed by taking into account the chronology of the morphological analysis. As already said, on the PIE level, the distinction between nouns and adjectives in this class of words was fluid (and probably more regulated by syntactic than by morphological parameters); this duality was certainly shared by the PIE form underlying the Baltic noun **dangus*, whatever its shape. But, at the Baltic stage, this form was certainly analyzed as an adjective: this is supposed by the fact that it was eventually reshuffled as **dangus*, which occurred only for adjectives. If it had been perceived as a noun, it would not have joined the *-*u*-class. If this analysis is correct, there is no alternative option than to assume that **dangus* (replacing **dangas*) was an adjective in Common Baltic and that this adjective, in a manner yet to be determined, was eventually used as a noun ‘sky, heaven’.

The most common way to change an adjective into a noun by morphological conversion (i.e. without additional morpheme) is ellipsis. Ellipsis can be

¹⁰ See the discussion in Vanags (1989, 116–117).

roughly defined as ‘the omission of a substantive that an adjective was originally paired with, so that the adjective alone remains in substantivized meaning’, as Höfler (2020, 182) puts it in a recent article. Globally speaking, two types of ellipsis can be distinguished, contextual and conventional ellipsis. Contextual ellipsis represents the omission of a substantive due to its previous mention in the immediate context. An English example provided by Höfler (2020, 184) can illustrate this type of ellipsis: *he gave me a glass of white wine, but I'd have preferred red*. The substantivized adjective *red* stands for *red wine* and the reason why the noun is omitted is that it was already mentioned before; it is easily recoverable from the context. On the other hand, conventional ellipsis represents the omission of a substantive that was not necessarily mentioned in the context, but whose semantic content can be recovered by means of a conventional knowledge shared by the speaker and the hearer. When I say in English *the dead never come back*, I suppose that everyone will understand it as *the dead men never come back*. Without any explicit specification, the adjective *dead* will be understood as referring to *men*. Over time, contextual ellipsis can become conventional and eventually result in lexicalization of the adjective as a fully-fledged substantive; at that stage the process of ellipsis is not perceived any longer. The French noun *l'automobile* ‘the car’ derives from *la voiture automobile* ‘the self-moving car, the car that moves by itself’, but I am not sure that every French speaker is aware of the ellipsis process underwent by the noun *voiture* ‘car’. Two points are particularly important for us here.

First, the meaning of the substantivized adjective may diverge more or less considerably from that of the underlying adjectival form, which results from the fact that it had to retrieve, or to assimilate if one prefers, the semantic content of the deleted noun. Sometimes, it has simply adopted the meaning of the noun it was originally paired with, as in Latin *dextra* ‘the right [hand]’ (e.g. Caesar, *De Bello Gallico* 1, 20, 5: *dextram prendit*) from *dextra manus* ‘the right hand’ (e.g. Caesar, *De Bello Gallico* 5, 44, 8: *dextram...manum*): *dextra* describes a kind of hand (*manus*), i.e. the meaning of the noun was transferred to the adjective, combined with the denotative meaning of the adjective which restricts its scope. It may happen that a substantivized adjective displays different meanings, depending on the noun it replaces. In Ancient Greek, for example, ἡ ξένη ‘the foreign one’ can easily be interpreted as ‘the foreign country’ (e.g. Xenophon, *Constitution of the Lacedaemonians*, 14, 4) or as ‘the foreign woman’ (e.g. Aeschylus, *Agamemnon*, 950), reflecting two different collocations (with γῆ ‘earth, country’ resp. γυνή

‘woman’). Sometimes, the meaning is less predictable and the substantivized adjective may acquire a specific meaning which does not reflect directly that of its components. Höfler (2020, 184) mentions Sanskrit *mahiṣá-* ‘buffalo’ (masc.) from the adjective *mahiṣá-* ‘tremendous’ (+ *mṛgá-* ‘animal’, cf. *mahiṣám mṛgám* in the RV 8, 69, 15): the meaning of the substantivized adjective is not compositional, which means that it cannot be predicted from the meaning of the adjective *mahiṣá-* ‘tremendous’ or from that of the noun *mṛgá-* ‘animal’.

The second point that should be pointed out here is that some of the morphological properties of the omitted noun may survive in the substantivized adjective, especially its gender. In French, for example, *l’automobile* owes its feminine gender to the noun *la voiture* (in *la voiture automobile*). In several Indo-European languages, the ‘right hand’ is a substantivized adjective, and, as a rule, it preserves the gender of the noun suppressed by ellipsis, feminine in Ancient Greek δεξιὰ ‘the right hand’ (< χεῖρ ‘hand’, fem.), Latin *dextra* ‘the right hand’ (< *manus* ‘hand’, fem.), Gothic *taihswa* ‘the right hand’ (< *handus* ‘hand’, fem.) and Lithuanian *dešinẽ* ‘the right hand’ (< *rankà* ‘hand’, fem.), but masculine in Sanskrit *dákṣinas* ‘the right hand’ (< *hástas* ‘hand’, masc.) and neuter in Hittite *kunnan* ‘the right hand’ (< *kiššar* ‘hand’, neut.). To put it differently, the gender of the substantivized adjective can give us a clue on the gender of the noun it was originally paired with. It goes without saying that the gender of the new noun may sometimes be modified by analogy, as in German *das Auto* (neut.), which, despite the feminine gender of its source, has joined the class of neuter nouns ending in *-o* (like *das Büro* ‘the office’, but *die Metro* owes its feminine gender to *die Untergrundbahn*).

These considerations can be applied to Baltic **dangus* ‘sky, heaven’, assuming that it goes back to a substantivized adjective. The structure we have to reconstruct is [COVERING + SKY], i.e. [**dangas*_{MASC} + NOUN_{MASC}] or [**dangus*_{MASC} + NOUN_{MASC}], and finally, via ellipsis of the noun, [**dangus*_{MASC}]. This idea is not entirely new and was already suggested, in less precise terms, by Mažiulis (PKEŽ²2013, 104–105). Already at first glance, the best candidate for the deleted noun could be **debesis* ‘cloud, cloudy sky’ (masc.), reflected by Lithuanian *debesis* ‘cloud’ and Latvian *debess* ‘sky, heaven’, dialectal also ‘cloud’, but the details of this option are yet to be determined. In a first approximation, one could hypothesize that a collocation [COVERING + SKY], concretely **dangus debesis*, was reduced via ellipsis to **dangus* ‘the covering one, the sky’. Several points, however, remain to be determined.

To begin with, the Baltic masculine noun **debesis* ‘cloud’ is usually traced back to the PIE sigmatic neuter **néb^hos*, gen.sg. **néb^heses* ‘cloud’,¹¹ securely reconstructed with the meaning ‘cloud’ on the basis of Sanskrit *nábhas* ‘humidity, cloud’, Greek *νέφος* ‘cloud’, and with the meaning ‘sky’ on the basis of Hittite *nepiš-*, Cuneiform Luwian *tappaš-*, Hieroglyphic Luwian *tipaš-* ‘sky’, Old Church Slavonic *небо*, Russian *небо*, Polish *niebo* ‘sky’. In Classical Sanskrit *nábhas* ‘cloud’ is sometimes used with the meaning ‘sky’ and already in Vedic Sanskrit the elliptic dual *nábhasī* means ‘sky and earth’ (e.g. *Atharvaveda* AVŚ 5, 20, 7 and 12, 3, 6). In Old Avestan, the plural *nabās* means ‘sky’ in a very archaic-looking passage (Y 44, 4):¹²

kasnā dərətā # zqmčā adē nabāscā
auuapastōiš # kē apō uruuarāscā
kē vātāi # duuqmaibīascā yaogət āsū?

‘Who holds the earth down below, and the heavens (above) (to prevent them) from falling, who (holds) the waters and plants? Who yokes the swift teams to the wind and the clouds?’

There is thus evidence for the use of PIE **néb^hos* both as ‘cloud’ and as ‘(cloudy) sky’; the metonymic link is relatively trivial and can be supported by a number of parallels (e.g. English *sky* ← Old Norse *ský* ‘cloud’, cf. Old English *scēo* ‘cloud’). It can be assumed that **néb^hos* in PIE had both meanings and was opposed, as the ‘cloudy sky’, to PIE **d̥iēu-* ‘bright sky, daylight, sky god’ (Sanskrit *dyáu-*, Greek *Ζεύς*, Latin *Iūpiter* ‘sky god’ and *diēs* ‘day’) and to its vṛddhi derivative **deǵuós* ‘god’ (Sanskrit *devá-*, Lithuanian *diēvas* ‘god’, cf. the Finnish loanword *taivas* ‘sky’). This semantic duality (cloud / sky), which is likely to be rather ancient in PIE, was probably inherited in Common Baltic and is still reflected nowadays by its *dissecta membra*, ‘cloud’ in Lithuanian *debesis* and ‘sky’ in Latvian *debess*. It is unnecessary to argue that Latvian *debess* owes its meaning ‘sky’ to the contact-induced influence of East Slavic *небо*, because the organic ties between the two notions are too strong and too well established in the Indo-European languages to make this assumption an absolute necessity.

¹¹ See NIL (p. 499–504). It is possible that Old Irish *nem* and Middle Welsh *nef* ‘sky’ also belong here (with assimilation **neb^hos* > **nemos?*), as suggested by Matasović (2009, 288), but a different PIE reconstruction **nem-os* is also possible.

¹² Text and translation from Humbach (1991, 157). Cf. Bartholomae (AIW, 1040), who translates *nabās* as ‘Luftraum, Himmel’.

Formally, PIE **nēb^hos*, gen.sg. **nēb^heses* was a sigmatic neuter. In Baltic, this archaic class of words was eliminated and its vestiges either joined the class of **o*-stems, e.g. maybe Lith. *vėidas* ‘face’ (if from PIE **uejd-os-*, Greek εἶδος ‘form, figure, shape’, but PIE **uejd-o-* is also possible, cf. Old Church Slavic видъ ‘appearance’),¹³ or were reshuffled as masculine **-i*-stems, like precisely gen.sg. **nēb^h-es-es*, on which a new masculine accusative **nēb^h-es-ṃ* > *dēbesj* was created, reanalyzed as an **-i*-stem (hence the new nominative *debesis*). The case of *mėnuo* ‘month’, acc.sg. *mėnesj*, is partly parallel, but more complicated and needs not be specifically discussed here. The question that remains unanswered at this stage is when the shift to the masculine gender took place. This question is not completely irrelevant, because the masculine gender of *debesis* can be regarded as the source of the masculine gender of *dangus* through the ellipsis process described above. If one concentrates on East Baltic alone, the masculine gender of Lithuanian *debesis* (Latvian *debess* is secondarily feminine) is not problematic; it can simply illustrate the loss of the neuter gender in that sub-branch of Baltic. But, if Old Prussian is also taken into account, the problem becomes much more difficult, since Old Prussian preserved the neuter gender, especially in the *Elbing Vocabulary*. The difficulty is obvious: if the masculine gender of Old Prussian *dangus* is explained as transferred from the noun it was paired with and if this noun was the reflex of PIE **nēb^hos*, this means that **nēb^hos*, or whatever form it may have taken in West Baltic, was already of masculine gender in Old Prussian. It follows that the shift of the Baltic reflex of PIE **nēb^hos* to the masculine gender was already implemented in Old Prussian, since it is supposed to explain the masculine gender of *dangus*, and cannot be routinely explained by the loss of the neuter gender, as in East Baltic. By necessity, any answer to this question can only be purely hypothetical, since we do not know how PIE **nēb^hos* may have looked in Old Prussian: it is not attested at all and the meaning ‘cloud’ is conveyed by another word (Old Prussian *wupyan*). Of course, in Old Prussian, the masculine gender of *dangus* ‘sky’ could simply be due to the influence of German *der Himmel*, but it would probably be better to find a common explanation for West and East Baltic. Alternatively, one could assume that, at the Common Baltic stage, ‘the cloudy sky’ acquired

¹³ The reconstruction of a thematic noun PIE **uejd-o-* was suggested to me by an anonymous reviewer.

the masculine gender by analogy with ‘the bright sky’ (Baltic **deivas*), both opposed to the feminine gender of the ‘earth’ (Baltic **žemē*).

The reconstruction of a collocation [COVERING + SKY], realized as **dangus*_{MASC} + *debesis*_{MASC} in the prehistory of Baltic, has an additional benefit. It may explain why the initial consonant of PIE **neb^h-* was changed to **deb-* in Baltic. Traditionally, the phonetic change **n- → *d-* is described as sporadic, or irregular, and paralleled by the case of Balto-Slavic **devīni* ‘nine’ instead of **nevini* (from PIE **(h₁)neṷ-ṇ-*). In the latter instance, the same process occurred both in Baltic (Lithuanian *devyni*, Latvian *devīni*) and in Slavic (Old Church Slavic *дѣвѣтъ*) and is thus likely to be of Balto-Slavic date, despite Old Prussian *newīnts* ‘ninth’ (III 35₅, cf. *newints* I 7₁, *newyntz* II 7₁), which could have ‘restored’ the initial nasal by analogy with German *neun*. Here, the initial consonant can be explained by internal analogy within the numeral system with the following number **desim(t)-* ‘ten’ (Lith. *dėšimt*, Latvian *desmit*, Old Prussian *dessimpts*, Old Church Slavic *десѣтъ* < PIE **dekm̥-*). This explanation cannot apply to Baltic **debesis*. The comparison with the Anatolian forms (Hittite *nepiš-*, but Cuneiform Luwian *tappaš-*, Hieroglyphic Luwian *tipaš-*) boils down to explaining *obscurum per obscurius*. It may be the case that the collocation [COVERING + SKY] was precisely the source of this change, if one assumes that the epithet-noun structure [**dangus + nebesis*_{MASC}] was modified to [**dangus + debesis*_{MASC}] through distant (progressive) assimilation. This is unverifiable, of course, but does not sound impossible.

A last point to discuss here concerns the accent of the Baltic form **dangus*. Assuming that it was originally based on a simple thematic oxytone adjective ([R(o)-ó-], we expect it to have inherited oxytone stress (**dangás*), which could appear to be faithfully reflected, in spite of the morphological reshuffling, in Lith. *dangùs*, acc.sg. *dañgu* (AP 4). As already mentioned, the barytone variant **dāngus* or **dañgus* is far from philologically secure. If real, it could be explained as secondary. Skardžius (1935, 140–144) has shown that in Daukša’s works **-u-*adjectives included both barytone and oxytone forms, e.g. on the one hand *áifžkus* ‘clear’ (e.g. DP 254₄ [1599]), *bráigus* ‘dear’ (e.g. DP 81₃₀ [1599]), *mėitùs* ‘beloved’ (e.g. DP 345₆ [1599]), *wėikus* ‘ready, willing’ (e.g. DP 30₃₂ [1599]) and on the other hand *baisús* ‘awful, dreadful’ (e.g. DP 4₁₉ [1599]), *laimús* ‘happy’ (e.g. DP 383₆ [1599]), *saldús* ‘sweet’ (e.g. DP 281₄₂ [1599]), *tamsús* ‘dark’ (e.g. DP 556₃₇ [1599]). There is a clear tendency for barytone **-u-*adjectives to adopt the productive oxytone stress pattern which is predominant in this class of words. This explains internal variations in the

language of Daukša, with doublets like *áifžkus* / *aifžkús* ‘clear’ (e.g. DP 254₄ resp. DP 2₁₇ [1599]) or *brágus* / *bragús* ‘dear’ (e.g. DP 81₃₀ resp. DP 541₄₇ [1599]); double stress is another indicator of this variation, e.g. *áifžkús* (DP 2₂₀ [1599]). The deep-set trend towards oxytone stress can be simply due to analogical extension or may have transited through the abstract noun in *-ùmas*, as supposed by Lazauskaitė (1998). It could then be assumed that, even if *dangùs* was already lexicalized as a noun at that time, it could have been influenced by this variation and have received secondary barytone stress (e.g. *dągus* DP 79₃, etc. [1599]) by analogy with the variation observed, e.g., in the adjective *brágus* / *bragús* ‘dear’. All this scenario, however, remains fragile, due to the uncertainty of the Old Lithuanian evidence.

III. The PIE prehistory of Baltic **dangus*

In view of the above, we can reconstruct a regular derivational pathway [R(e)-VERB] (*deñgti* ‘to cover’) → [R(a)-u-ADJECTIVE] (**dangùs* ‘covering’), lexicalized via ellipsis as [R(a)-u-NOUN] (*dangùs* ‘sky’). The point I would like to address now is the PIE prehistory of the verb *deñgti* ‘to cover’. For this purpose, it is necessary to begin with a brief overview of the Baltic family itself.

The Lithuanian verb *deñgti* (pres. *-ia*, pret. *-ė*) conveys the general meaning ‘to cover’ which can be applied to various situations: covering objects with a lid or another object, covering a table with a tablecloth, covering a space with a roof, covering a body with clothes, covering an expense with a sum of money, etc. The verb can be used about blankets of clouds covering the sky, which sometimes gives the impression that the connection between the noun *dangùs* and the verb *deñgti* is not entirely blurred, cf. Lith. *dangùs deñgiasi debesimis* ‘the sky is covered with clouds’ (LKŽ II 404, Bartninkai), cf. also *danguñ deñgtas* ‘covered by the sky’ about leaky roofs (LKŽ II 262, Dusetos, Joniškis, Kupiškis, Notėnai, Salos, Vilkaviškis). From the verb *deñgti* are derived a handful of nouns which reproduce its semantic spectrum, e.g. Lith. *dangà* ‘dress, clothes’ (e.g. *storà dangà* ‘solid garment’) or ‘cover’ (e.g. *sniėgo dangà* ‘blanket of snow’), *dañgalas* ‘cover, curtain’, *dañgtis* ‘cover, lip, roof’. Beside the transitive verb *deñgti* there is also an intransitive verb *diñgti* (pres. *-sta*, pret. *-o*) with a strong divergence of meaning ‘to disappear’ (probably from a basic meaning ‘to be covered’). The connection with Old Lithuanian *dingti* ‘to think’ (usually impersonal *man dinga* ‘it seems to me’) is unclear. The ALEW (I 212) supposes that the original meaning of this verb was ‘to look out’ (Germ. *hervorlugen*), then ‘to appear’, but, in comparison with *diñgti*

‘to disappear’, this sounds very much like a *lucus a non lucendo* etymology. Admittedly it still needs to be motivated more precisely than it has been up to now in the secondary literature.¹⁴

There is no verb corresponding to Lith. *deñgti* ‘to cover’ in Latvian. The Latvian nouns *danga* ‘curve, corner’ and *dañdzis* ‘crown; wheel rim’ (ME I 437) are likely to go back, because of the preserved nasal, to Curonian forms **dangā* resp. **dangīs* ‘curved objects’. If they derive from the verb ‘to cover’, it must be recognized that their meaning is slightly different and implies the notion of ‘curvature’, which is possible in Lithuanian, but not overriding. In Old Prussian, there is no verb **deng-*, but its vocalism could have influenced the noun *dangus* ‘sky’, sometimes spelled *deng-* (e.g. acc.sg. *dengan* III 133₈ [1561] beside the more common *dangon*, cf. also *dengenennis* ‘celestial’ III 49₂₀, etc.). The noun *dongo* attested once in the *Elbing Vocabulary* (EV 403) reflects **dangā*. Its meaning is difficult to establish, since it renders German *refe*, which has been interpreted either as *Reif* ‘circle’ or as *Refe* ‘stand for dishes, glasses’. The second solution is preferred since Nesselmann (1873, 31–32); more recently, Schmalstieg (2015, 282) proposed ‘part of a barrel or vat, the hoop of a barrel’.¹⁵ The bulk of evidence suggests that the original meaning of the Baltic root **deng-* was not ‘to cover’ defined in very broad terms, but more specifically ‘to cover a curved surface’. This precise meaning could be congruent with the specialization of **dangus* in reference to the sky dome (cf. German *Himmelswölbung*).

The Slavic languages furnish a noun **doǵà* ‘arc, arch’, often specialized as ‘rainbow’: Old Russian дѣга ‘rainbow’, Russian дуга ‘arc, arch’, Bulgarian дѣга ‘arc, arch, rainbow’, Serbo-Croatian дѹга *dūga* ‘rainbow’, Slovene *dōga* ‘stave, lag, rainbow’, Czech *duha* ‘arc, arch, stave, lag, rainbow’, Polish dial. *dęga* ‘scratch, rainbow, stave, lag’.¹⁶ From a formal point of view, Slavic **doǵà* is identical with Baltic **dangā*. No verb **deng-* ‘to cover’ has been

¹⁴ See also LEW (p. 88–89), SEJL (p. 114) without much detail. The meaning ‘to seem’ is ancient and also appears in Old Prussian *podīngai* ‘it pleases’ (Germ. *gefalle*, III 79₁₇ [1561]), *podīngan* ‘pleasure’ (Germ. *lust*, III 85₅ and 85₇ [1561]), *podīngausnan* ‘id.’ (Germ. *gefallen*, III 85₆ [1561]).

¹⁵ On Old Prussian *dongo*, see PJ (I 361–362).

¹⁶ Derksen (EDSIL, 114). See also Pokorny (IEW, 250), Trautmann (BSW, 44–45), as well as Vasmer (ĖSRJa, 549–550) for Russian, Machek (1971, 133), Rejzek (2001, 148) for Czech, and Snoj (2003, 115–116) for Slovene.

preserved in Slavic and the noun **doga* is completely isolated.¹⁷ There was probably a secondary link with the Slavic root **teg-* ‘to pull, to stretch’, which is suggested by the fact that Pol. dial. *dęga* is sometimes replaced by *tęga* in the same meaning.¹⁸ From a semantic point of view, the Slavic data confirm the original meaning of the family (‘to cover a curved surface’) and the specific application to atmospheric realities connected with the sky dome (cf. ‘rainbow’).

Traditionally, the Baltic family is traced back to a PIE root **d^heng^h-* ‘to cover’. The reconstruction of two aspirated stops is based mainly on Germanic material: Old Norse *dyngia* ‘heap’, also ‘separate room in a house for ladies to weave’, Old English *dung* ‘manure, muck, dung’, Middle High German *tunc* ‘room used for weaving activities’, Modern German *Dung* or *Dünger* ‘manure, muck, dung’, and different verbs reflected by Old English *dyngan* ‘to dung, to manure’, Old High German *tungen*, Modern German *düngen* ‘to fertilize with manure’, and, with a different meaning, Danish *dyng* ‘to heap up’.¹⁹

As we see, there is a great semantic diversity in the Germanic forms. Two different meanings can be distinguished: (1) ‘manure’ < ‘heap’, (2) ‘a kind of room used for weaving activities’ < ‘shelter, bower’ (?). Formally, it is possible to reconstruct two Common Germanic nouns, a masculine **dungaz* and a feminine **dungā*, which can be routinely traced back to PIE **d^hng^h-o-* or **d^hng^h-ā* respectively, both with barytone stress. The specialization ‘heap’ > ‘manure’ could be accounted for by assuming a semantic evolution ‘to cover’ > ‘what covers the soil, heap’, later specialized as ‘manure’, ‘dung used for fertilizing land’, but this remains uncertain. The specialization ‘room used for weaving activities’ could derive from ‘shelter, place covered by a roof, bower’, but there is little evidence to support this idea. In both cases, it is possible to cope with the divergent meanings by reconstructing a notion ‘to cover’, comparable to Lith. *deñgti*, but more general than the Balto-Slavic specialized meaning ‘to cover a curved surface’. Strikingly enough, among the different meanings of Latv. *danga* mentioned by the ME (I 437), we find: ‘a little room’ (‘ein Zimmerchen’), ‘a corridor in a building and also in a

¹⁷ This reminds us the case of Slavic **rōkà* ‘hand’, where, in a similar manner, Slavic has retained the noun, but lost the underlying verb, which, in turn, is preserved in Baltic (Lith. *rankà* ‘hand’ ← *riñkti* ‘to gather’).

¹⁸ Brückner (1927, 570).

¹⁹ See especially Bosworth (1848, 218, 221) and Cleasby, Vigfusson (1874, 111).

forest, also the narrow place between the kitchen and the exterior wall, where twigs, brushwood and wood stock are stored for cooking stove' ('ein Gang (Korridor) in einem Gebäude und auch im Walde, desgleichen der enge Raum zwischen dem Küchenraum und der Aussenwand, wo man Reisig und Holz für die Küche hält'), which seems to be not too far from that of Germanic 'room to weave, shelter, bower', although probably independently.

It is difficult to reconstruct for all these forms a common source deriving from a root 'to cover' and Seebold, in Kluge (2002, 221), might be right in suggesting that we are facing homonymy of different lexical families. One could, for example, come up with the idea that two separate meanings were originally distinguished, 'to cover, to pile up, to heap' and 'to bend', and that these two meanings have mingled at some point. Taken at face value, it seems to be the case that (1°) the meaning 'to bend' is predominant in Balto-Slavic, (2°) the meaning 'to cover, to pile up, to heap' is predominant in Germanic and (3°) the Lithuanian verb *deñgti* lies at the crossroads between the two meanings. Of course, this idea remains pure speculation as long as we have not supported it by positive evidence.

In his usual way, Pokorny (IEW, 250) reconstructs the meaning of the PIE root **d^heng^h-* as a mere accumulation of the semantic features of its historical descendants: 'to press, to bend, to cover, to lie on' (*drücken, krümmen, bedecken, woraufliegen*), without attempting to classify this diversity of meanings in a reasonable manner. To the forms already mentioned he adds Old Irish *dingid* 'to knead, to form, to press', but it is now commonly recognized that Old Irish *dingid* belongs to PIE **d^heig^h-* 'to knead, to form' and is parallel to Latin *figō* 'to form, to shape'.²⁰

Another set of forms, however, could be more directly compared to the Balto-Slavic family **deng-* 'to cover a curved surface, to bend' and to its application to atmospheric realities. In some Ancient Germanic languages there is a poetic name for the 'celestial body', which can be reconstructed as Common Germanic **tunglaⁿ* (neut.): it is reflected by Gothic *tuggl* 'celestial body, star', Old Norse *tungl* 'celestial body, moon', Old English *tungol* 'star', Old Saxon *tungal* 'celestial body, star'. There is also an archaic compound reflected by Old Norse *himin-tungl*, Old English *heofon-tungol*, Old Saxon *himil-tungal*, *heben-tungal*, *heban-tungal* and Old High German *himil-zungal* 'celestial body'. The correspondence is so precise that it is possible to

²⁰ Matasović (2009, 99).

reconstruct in Common Germanic not only the noun **tunglaⁿ*, but also the compound **hemen-tunglaⁿ*, **hemel-tunglaⁿ* ‘celestial body’.

The meaning of Gothic *tuggl* is not entirely certain; it occurs only once in a marginal gloss *uf tugglam* ‘under the celestial bodies’ (Galatians 4, 3), explaining the text *uf stabim þis fairhvaus* ‘under the elements of the world’ = Greek ὑπὸ τὰ στοιχεῖα τοῦ οὐρανοῦ ‘under the elements of the sky’ (cf. Lat. *sub elementis mundi*).

In Old English, *tungol* means ‘star, celestial body’ and is used either in the singular, as in the following instance (*Cotton Maxims* II 48–49):

Tungol sceal on heofenum beorhte scīnan, swā him bebēad meotud.
‘A star must shine brightly in the heavens as the Redeemer commanded.’

or more frequently in the plural, with a collective meaning, as in the following instance (Alfred’s translation of Boetius’ *De Consolatione Philosophiae* IV 39, 144–147):

Da wyrd hē þonne wyrçð, oððe þurh ðā goodan englas, oððe þurh monna sāwla, oððe þurh oðerra gesceafta lif, oððe þurh heofones tungal, oððe þurh þāra succena mislice lotwrencas.
‘Then he (God) works his providence either through the good angels, or through men’s souls or through the life of other creatures or through the stars of heaven or through the various tricks of the devils’

In Old Saxon, *tungal* is used twice in the *Heliand*, once in the singular in reference to the ‘moon’ (*Heliand* 3627):

Thiu is aftar themu mānen ginemnid / aftar themu torhten tungle.
‘It (= Jericho) has received its name from the moon, from this bright star’

once in the plural (*Heliand* 600):

Uui gisāhun is bōcan skīnan / hēdro fon himiles tunglun.
‘We have seen His sign shining brightly from the stars of heaven’

In Old Norse, *tungl* is used once in the *Poetic Edda* (*Vǫluspá* 40, 4) in reference to the ‘moon’:

Verðr af þeim ǫllom eina nokkorr / tungls tíúgariú trollz hami.
‘From all these one will come, destroyer of the moon, in troll-like shape’

In that meaning ‘moon’ it survives in Modern Icelandic *tungl* beside *máni*.

As far as I know, the simple noun **zungal* is not attested in Old High German and we only find the compound *himil-zungal* in the same meaning ‘celestial body’, as in the following instance (*Muspilli* 5):

Sô quimit ein heri fona himilzungalon, das andar fona pehhe.

‘Then comes one army from the stars of heaven, the other one from hell’

To sum up, the Germanic word **tunglaⁿ* often did not specifically refer to the ‘stars’ or to the ‘moon’, but more generally to any ‘heavenly body’ that can be seen in the firmament. In Ancient Germanic it had a markedly poetic connotation and went out of use in most modern languages, with the notable exception of Modern Icelandic, where it is still used nowadays in reference to the ‘moon’. From a formal point of view, **tunglaⁿ* can be projected back to a PIE prototype **d̥ŋḡ^h-lom*, i.e. a **-lo-*derivative of a PIE verbal root **deng^h-*. The comparison with Lith. *deñgti* ‘to cover’ and especially *dangùs* ‘sky’ was proposed long ago by Grienberger (1900, 210–211), but was almost unanimously rejected since then and fell quickly into oblivion. It is still condemned explicitly by Feist (1939, 482) and Lehmann (1986, 348), but is not even mentioned by De Vries (1962, 601), and it appears to have been completely ignored by Balticists of all times. A connection with Germanic **tungo* ‘tongue’ (< PIE **d̥ŋḡ^huā*, cf. Tocharian A *kāntu*, B *kāntwo*, Old Latin *dingua*) was supposed by Grimm (1844 II, 663), who claimed that stars owe their name to their resemblance with scythes or tongues, but this view can be rejected as ill-founded. It is equally unreasonable to derive Germanic **tunglaⁿ* from a PIE root **deng^h-* ‘to shine’, which is found nowhere except perhaps in Old Lith. *dingti* ‘to think’ (impersonal *man dinga* ‘it seems to me’). This idea, suggested by De Vries (1962, 601), sounds possible on paper, but remains based on shaky ground, as the evidence for the original meaning ‘to shine’ is limited precisely to our Germanic word.

All in all, the comparison between Germanic **tunglaⁿ* and Baltic **dangus* might be worth getting out of purgatory. Common to both of them is the connection to the celestial sphere covered by heavenly bodies. Whereas Baltic **dangus* can go back to a simple thematic adjective **dangas* < PIE **dong^h-ó-* with an active meaning (‘the covering [sky]’), Germanic **tunglaⁿ* reflects a concrete neuter noun **d̥ŋḡ^h-lom* ‘cover’. The neuter suffix **-laⁿ* (< PIE **-lom*) occurs in a few Germanic nouns referring to concrete realities, e.g.

Gothic *tagl* ‘hair’ (< PIE **dok-lóm*, cf. Old Irish *dúal* ‘braid’), maybe also *mail* ‘spot, blot’ (< Germanic **mai-laⁿ*), sometimes with an instrumental meaning, e.g. Gothic *þwahl* ‘bath’ (< Germanic **þwah-laⁿ*, from the verb *þwahan* ‘to wash’), Old High German *bihal*, Modern German *Beil* ‘ax’ (< PIE **b^hiH-lom*, cf. Old Church Slavonic *бити* ‘to hit’), Old High German *seil*, Modern German *Seil* ‘rope’ (< PIE **soh₂i-lom*, cf. Sanskrit *syáti* ‘to bind’), maybe also Old Norse *kjóll* ‘ship’ (< Germanic **keu-laⁿ*). Particularly interesting is Old Norse *skjól* ‘barn’ (Germanic **skeu-laⁿ*) derived from a PIE root **skeu-* ‘to cover’ (cf. Sanskrit *skunáti* ‘to cover’). The same meanings are found in other Indo-European languages as well, e.g. Old Church Slavonic *дѣло* ‘action’, *гребло* ‘paddle’, *оѣѣкло* ‘garment’, Greek *όπλον* ‘weapon’, *ξύλον* ‘wood’, *σκιλον* ‘arms stripped off a slain enemy, spoils’, Lat. *pīlum* ‘heavy javelin, pilum’, *filum* ‘thread’. In some cases, a collective meaning is perceptible and suggested by the variation with secondary feminines, e.g. Greek *φύλον* / *φυλή* ‘tribe’, Latin *filum* / Lith. *gýsla* ‘thread’; this collective meaning could also be present in Germanic **tunglaⁿ*.

It should be noted that, in this perspective, the meaning of Germanic **tunglaⁿ* and Baltic **dangus* would not be exactly identical, the former referring to celestial bodies covering the sky dome, the latter to the sky dome itself covering the world, but the denotation of the underlying root would be the same ‘to cover a curved surface’ and its application to the celestial sphere would be strikingly similar. From a formal point of view, this hypothesis would imply reconstructing the root of Baltic **dangus*, if cognate with Germanic **tunglaⁿ*, as PIE **deng^h-*, with initial voiced unaspirated stop, not as **d^heng^h-*, as is usually done. It must be recognized that the reconstruction of an initial aspirated stop **d^h-* is based exclusively on a handful of Germanic forms whose denotation is rather compatible with a basic meaning ‘to press, to pile up, to heap’ (e.g. English *dung*) than with ‘to cover a curved surface’. Even Old Norse *dyngia* ‘separate room in a house used for weaving activities’ can derive from a basic meaning ‘storage room’ and is not necessarily based on a meaning ‘room covered by a roof’.

At this point, the assumption that we are dealing with two different roots resurfaces and becomes more plausible. We have two different meanings (‘to press, to pile up, to heap’ / ‘to cover a curved surface’) and two different root structures (**d^heng^h-* / **deng^h-*), and there seems to be a clear correlation between the two levels of differentiation: **d^heng^h-* means ‘to press, to pile up, to heap’ (with initial **d^h-*, proved by Germanic **dung-* ‘heap, manure’) and

**deng^h*- means ‘to bend, to cover a curved surface’ (with initial **d*-, proved by Germanic **tung*- ‘celestial body’). For semantic reasons, it can be assumed that the Balto-Slavic family belongs to **deng^h*-, but it cannot be ruled out that a conflation with the other root **d^heng^h*- took place, which might explain some marginal meanings of Latvian *danga* and part of the semantic spectrum of the Lithuanian verb *deñgti*. Of course, we have in this matter to cope with a high degree of uncertainty: all this remains an etymological speculation which is exclusively based on Germanic material and could find in Balto-Slavic only a semantic justification.

DĒL LIE. *dangus* ETIMOLOGIJOS

Santrauka

Tradiciskai baltų kalbų ‘dangaus’ pavadinimas (lie. *dangùs*, pr. *dangus*) aiškinamas kaip veiksmažodžio *deñgti* derivatas, remiantis prielaida, kad dangus buvo suvokiamas kaip tam tikras išlenktas paviršius, dengiantis pasaulį. Tačiau šis tradicinis požiūris iki šiol palieka du klausimus atvirus: (1) kaip paaiškinti žodžio *dangus* darybą, panašesnę į būdvardžio negu į daiktavardžio; (2) kaip rekonstruoti praindoeuropietišką šios baltų kalbų leksinės šeimos priešistorę. Šio straipsnio tikslas – aptarti tiek morfologinę, tiek semantinę ‘dangaus’ pavadinimo struktūrą ir paaiškinti visas jo ypatybes, siūlant naują žodžio kilmės ir raidos hipotezę.

ABBREVIATIONS

AC – <i>Anonymus Catechism</i> , 1605 (Sittig 1929)	1966–1981)
AIW – <i>Bartholomae</i> 1904	ĖSRJa – Vasmer 1964–1973
ALEW – Hock et al. 2015	I – <i>First Old Prussian Catechism</i> , 1545 (Mažiulis 1966–1981)
AP – accentual paradigm	II – <i>Second Old Prussian Catechism</i> , 1545 (Mažiulis 1966–1981)
AVŚ – <i>Atharva-Veda</i>	III – <i>Third Old Prussian Catechism</i> , <i>Enchiridion</i> , 1561 (Mažiulis 1966– 1981)
BSW – Trautmann 1923	IEW – Pokorny 1959
DK – Daukša 1595	LEW – Fraenkel 1962–1965
DP – Daukša 1599	
EDSIL – Derksen 2008	
EV – <i>Elbing Vocabulary</i> (Mažiulis	

LKŽ – *Lietuvių kalbos žodynas*, 1941–
2002
ME – Mühlenbach, Endzelīns
1923–1925
MŽ – Mažvydas 1547–1570
NIL – Wodtko, Irslinger,
Schneider 2008

PIE – Proto-Indo-European
PJ – Toporov 1975–1990
PKEŽ – Mažiulis 1988–1997 [2013]
RV – *Rig-Veda*
SEJL – Smoczyński 2007
Y – *Yasna*

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