## Copyright Content - All Rights Reserved

Registration Number 284666800
UK Cs


Front cover of the Book of Origins, Part II ORIGIN OF "SEMITIC" LANGUAGES

# ORIGIN OF "SEMITIC" LANGUAGES 

Original Research by:
ADEL S. BISHTAWI

## ORIGIN OF "SEMITIC" LANGUAGES

An introductory original etymological investigation of the prehistoric ancestral linguistic nuclei and monosyllables of "Semitic" languages, primarily based on Akkadian and Southern and Northern Arabic

## ADEL S. BISHTAWI



## TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS ..... iv
LIST OF TABLES ..... v
LIST OF CHARTS AND PLATES ..... vi
LIST OF SYMBOLS ..... vii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS ..... viii
PUBLICATIONS ..... ix
ABSTRACT ..... X
PART 1 NATURAL LINGUSITICS ..... 1
1.1 Introduction ..... 1
1.2 Characteristics of "Semitic" Roots ..... 4
1.3 Prehistoric Genius ..... 7
1.4 Linguistic Structure: LN, LU, DN, NC, SE, PE, LC ..... 11
1.5 Sources of "Semitic" Origins ..... 13
1.6 Cases and Situations ..... 14
1.7 Historical Considerations ..... 16
1.8 Proto-"Semitic" ..... 19
PART 2 BEYOND LINGUISTICS ..... 21
2.1 Historical Development ..... 21
2.2 Etymological Tracing of History ..... 22
2.3 Indicative Primary Roots ..... 26
2.4 Human Consciousness ..... 27
BIBLIOGRAPHY ..... 28
ARABIC ..... 28
ENGLISH ..... 32
TABLES ..... 35
CHARTS AND PLATES ..... 41

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 - Linguistic Clusters:
Page 35
$\ddagger h ̣ z \leftrightarrows z h ̣$
$\ddagger h z \leftrightarrows z h$
$\ddagger z n \leftrightarrows n z$
$\ddagger z h \leftrightarrows h z$

Table 2 - Lingusitic Clusters:
$\ddagger \mathrm{zm} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{mz}$
$\ddagger \mathrm{kn} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{nk}$
$\ddagger \mathrm{bz} \mathrm{\leftrightarrows} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{~b}$
$\ddagger \mathrm{r}$ ¢ $\leftrightarrows$ ṣr
Table 3 - Linguistic Clusters:
$\ddagger \mathrm{pg} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{gp} \rightarrow \ddagger \mathrm{bj} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{jb}$
$\ddagger \mathrm{fj} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{jf}$
すfk $\leftrightarrows \mathrm{kf}$
$\ddagger \mathrm{fq} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{q} f$
Table 4 - Linguistic Clusters:
$\ddagger$ 's'↔'š $\rightarrow \ddagger s^{\prime} \leftrightarrows ‘ s$
$\ddagger s ̌ g \leftrightarrows ~ g ~ g ̌ s ~$
$\ddagger \mathrm{s} \dot{g} \leftrightarrows \dot{g} s$

## LIST OF CHARTS AND PLATES

1- Linguistic Clusters $\ddagger ’ h ̣ \leftrightarrows h '$ ..... page 41
2 - Linguistic Clusters $\ddagger j \leftrightarrows \leftrightarrows$ ..... page 42
3 - Linguistic Clusters $\ddagger \underline{̣}$ ṣ $\leftrightarrows$ ș̣̣ ..... page 43
4 - Linguistic Clusters $\ddagger$ bp $\leftrightarrows \mathrm{ph}$ ..... page 44
5 - Linguistic Clusters $\ddagger \mathrm{pr} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{rp}$ ..... page 45
6 - Linguistic Clusters $\ddagger \mathrm{zm} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{mz}$ ..... page 46
7 - Linguistic Clusters $\ddagger \mathrm{kn} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{nk}$ ..... page 47
8 - Linguistic Clusters $\ddagger \mathrm{bz} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{zb}$ ..... page 48
9 - Linguistic Clusters $\ddagger \mathrm{gh} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{hg}$ ..... page 49
10 - Linguistic Clusters $\ddagger \mathrm{b}$ ḥ $\leftrightarrows$ ḥ ..... page 50
11 - Linguistic Clusters: $\ddagger h \mathrm{z} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{zh} ; ~ \ddagger \mathrm{hz} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{zh} ; \ddagger \mathrm{zn} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{nz} ;$ ..... page 51
$\ddagger \mathrm{zh} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{hz} ; \ddagger \mathrm{qn} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{nq} ; \ddagger \mathrm{jn} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{nj}$
12 - Linguistic Clusters: $\ddagger \leq ̣ n \leftrightarrows n s ̣ ; ~ \ddagger s ̣ ‘ \leftrightarrows ‘ s ; ~ \ddagger r s ̣ \leftrightarrows s ̣ ; ~$
$\ddagger \mathrm{dr} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{rd} ; \ddagger \mathrm{gr} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{rg} \rightarrow \ddagger \mathrm{jr} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{rj}, \ddagger \mathrm{kr} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{rk}$ ..... page 52
13-Linguistic Clusters $\ddagger j \leftrightarrows \leftrightarrows{ }^{\prime}$ (A plate) ..... page 53
14 - Linguistic Clusters $\ddagger$ ḥṣ $\leftrightarrows$ ṣḥ (A plate) ..... page 54
15 - Linguistic Integration (1) ..... page 55
16 - Linguistic Integration (2) ..... page 56
17 - Linguistic Integration (3) ..... page 57
18 - Linguistic Integration (4) ..... page 58
19 - Small words and small numbers (Eastern Numerals) ..... page 59
20 - Family of Western Arabic Numerals (1) ..... page 60
21 - Family of Western Arabic Numerals (2) ..... page 61
22 - Family of Western Arabic Numerals (3) ..... page 62

## LIST OF SYMBOLS

$\ddagger \quad$ Linguistic Clusters
$\leftrightarrows \quad$ Linguistic Units

* Roots both biconsonantals and monosyllabic root morphemes

Other symbols used in the Book
Trilateral Suffixed Specifier Extensions
Trilateral Prefixed Specifier Extensions
combined system indicating the entry is both a suffixed specifier extension and a prefixed specifier extension

Dual Nuclei
$\star \quad$ Nucleitic compounds

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

LN Linguistic nucleus
LU Linguistic unit
DN Dual nuclei
NC Nucleitic compound
PE Trilateral Prefixed Specifier Extension
SE Trilateral Suffixed Specifier Extension

## PUBLICATIONS

## Books:

Bishtawi, Adel S., The Book of Origins:
Volume I (English): Origin of the Arabic Numerals - A natural history of numbers, $3^{\text {rd }}$ Edition
AuthorHouse Publication 2010

Bishtawi, Adel S., The Book of Origins:
Volume I (Arabic): Natural Foundations of Arab Civilisation
Origins of Alphabets, Numeration, Numerals, Measurements Weights, Litigation and Money
Arab Institution for Studies and Publication 2010

Bishtawi, Adel S., The Book of Origins:
Volume II (Arabic): Origin of "Semitic" Languages
AuthorHouse Publication 2013

Bishtawi, Adel S., The Book of Origins:
Volume III: Origin of Religion Scheduled for 2015

Websites:
http://www.bishtawi.com
http://www.thebookoforigins.com

## THE BOOK OF ORIGINS

SECOND VOLUME

## ORIGIN OF "SEMITIC" LANGUAGES

An introductory original etymological investigation of the prehistoric ancestral linguistic nuclei and monosyllables of "Semitic" languages, primarily based on Akkadian and Southern and Northern Arabic


#### Abstract

This paper is intended to provide a comprehensive overview in English for the Arabic version of the second volume of the Book of Origins: Origin of "Semitic" Languages published by AuthorHouse in September 2013. The English version of the first volume of the Book of Origins - Origin of the Arabic Numerals: A natural history of numbers - was published in 2010 and followed in the same year by an expanded Arabic version that included new research on the origin of numeration, alphabets, measurements weights, litigation and money.

The new research involving the history of the Arabic numerals established their prehistoric origin and confirmed a linguistic link between small numbers and small words. The scope and depth of the multilayered research were expanded in an attempt to identify the origin of "Semitic" languages and, probably, the origin of natural linguistics.

The unity of what is traditionally called "Semitic" languages may be traced in the roots, in the inflections, and in the general features of the syntax. Almost a thousand years before the publication in 1781 of Repertorium fuer biblische und morgenlaendische Literatur, linguists studying certain features of Canaanite (Phoenician), Hebrew, Arabic, and Ethiopic noted the interrelationship of these languages. Other studies pointed to a prehistoric ancestral origin for these and more than sixty other languages, first named Ursemitische and later Proto-Semitic.

The research in the Origin of "Semitic" Languages confirmed that at one time in the remotest horizon of its history, the ancestral parent of "Semitic" languages consisted of a very limited number of biconsonantals and monosyllabic root morphemes, many of which were borrowed or adapted from the natural environment. The research suggests that biconsonantals, not triconsonantals as is widely believed, were the original roots of "Semitic" languages. Words expressing the basic needs of primitive man, such as water, food, hut, stone, danger, etc., could be several


thousand years older than the oldest attested Semitic language (i.e. Akkadian) or several tens of thousands.

Akkadian, Phoenician, Aramaic, and Arabic are formidable communicative tools, yet their biconsonantal roots, or linguistic nuclei, were found to be surprisingly small. Four hundred and thirty roots were identified in two categories - primaries and secondaries. Most are paired in units constituting the main body in the larger linguistic clusters, tens of which were listed and discussed in the Origin of Semitic Languages, and a selected number was presented in this paper along with tables, charts and supportive materials.

With what could be the greatest linguistic secret in history unveiled in the Origin of Semitic Languages for the first time in history, other important surprises may follow. Careful etymological analysis of linguistic nuclei, some of which were borrowed from animals and ancient environment, may present the true origin of scores of biblical names and ancient locations. Moreover, new windows can be opened on the various aspects of early societies to provide what appears to be a sufficiently clear picture of the their life, their first steps on the long road to civilisation, the origin of religion and, probably, the development of human consciousness.

## PART 1 NATURAL LINGUSITICS

### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

In certain extant literature, "Semitic" languages are sometimes described as a group of related languages originating in the "Near East" whose living representatives are spoken by people across much of the Middle East, North Africa and the Horn of Africa. The group includes several scores of languages the most widely spoken of which is Arabic, or more correctly Modern Arabic, a tongue of about 430 million people, and the prayer language of more than a billion additional people all over the world.

Edward Lipinski noted that "Semitic" languages were so named in 1781 by A.L. Schloezer because they were spoken by peoples included in Gen. 10, 21-31 among the sons of Sem. ${ }^{1}$ Though the description "Semitic" is considered "practical" by some, a number of scholars, past and present, have voiced certain concerns since "Semitic" allows for a considerable degree of confusion and misunderstanding. One of the earlier scholars is George Rawlinson who thought the name is both irrelevant and problematic. ${ }^{2}$ More accepted is the principle of unity of "Semitic" languages as evident in the roots, the inflections, the general characteristics of syntax and other features illustrated by Lipinski:

[^0]The Semitic languages, although their number amounts to about seventy, have a much larger layer of common elements in their phonology, morphology, syntax, and vocabulary than the Afro-Asiatic group as a whole. They also share certain common features in their evolution, easily recognizable in ancient and in modern forms of speech. These common elements and parallel developments, maintained despite lapse of time and spreading over new areas, strongly support the family-tree theory which regards the dividing process that affects a homogeneous language - in this case Proto-Semitic - as the main impelling power from which new idioms originated (p.43).

The linguistic daughters of "Proto-Semitic" have the oldest attested history. Certain texts in Akkadian and Eblaite date back to the middle of the third millennium BC in Iraq and northern Syria, while certain religious texts found in Egypt are believed to be 4400-4300 years old. However, alphabets are a relatively new invention, and the spoken language could be several thousand years older than the oldest epigraphical evidence discovered thus far. As "Semitic" languages are mainly attested in Iraq, Syria and Egypt, determining the original homeland of the speakers of the mother tongue, or "Proto-Semitic", has been considered "necessary for an understanding of the mutual relations and parallel developments of the historically documented Semitic languages" (Lipinski, p 43).

Some scholars suggested that identifying the original homeland of "Proto-Semitic" should take into consideration the linguistic relations between the different members of this family as well as between the various groups of the larger "Afro-asiatic" family. Perhaps more relevant is the conclusion that a better understanding of the relations of the attested "Semitic" languages can best be explained by identifying the ancient origin of all these languages, which should be older than old Akkadian, preserved on clay tablets dating back to about 4600 years.

As the greatest secrets of prehistoric human beings can be revealed in the deepest layers of identified ancient caves, so probably can be the oldest languages if their ancient roots are properly investigated. Rawlinson identified the roots of "Semitic" languages as bilateral or trilateral - i.e. composed of two or three letters,
"all of which are consonants". In modern literature, the roots presented as examples consist of bilaterals ( 'b"father") or trilaterals ( $m / k$ "milk").

Unfortunately, Arabic, an important family member, is generally described as "based primarily upon its system of triconsonantal roots". However, experienced scholars are usually more careful for good reasons. Says Lipinski, "The existence of biconsonantal roots in Semitic languages, besides the triconsonantal ones, cannot be denied, even apart from the roots that became biconsonantal in consequence of the dropping out of one of the radicals" (p. 207). He further added that the number of roots increases significantly if one accepts that only two of the three radicals of the triconsonantal roots are the main bearers of the meaning and that the third one had at one stage the task of a determinant or modifier. A page later he said: "Contrary to the traditional opinion, the basic stock of the Semitic vocabulary appears to consist of monosyllabic root morphemes."

The following contribution to the argument is intriguing: "The Semitic languages have nonconcatenative morphology. That is, word roots are not themselves syllables or words, but instead are isolated sets of consonants (usually three, making a so-called trilateral root). Words are composed out of roots not so much by adding prefixes or suffixes, but rather by filling in the vowels between the root consonants (although prefixes and suffixes are often added as well). For example, in Arabic, the root meaning, "write" has the form $k-t-b$. From this root, words are formed by filling in the vowels, e.g. kitāb "book", kutub "books", kātib "writer", kuttāb "writers", kataba "he wrote", yaktubu "he writes", etc. ${ }^{3}$

If one is to accept that the roots of "Semitic" languages are an important evidence of the unity of these languages, once must first determine the nature and the historical development of such roots. It has been suggested that these roots are composed of two or three letters, all of which are consonants. Also suggested above is the possibility that certain roots "became biconsonantal in consequence of the dropping out of one of the radicals", while it was also suggested that "words are composed out of roots not so much by adding prefixes or suffixes, but rather by filling in the vowels between the root consonants".

Two of the suggestions above are worthy of further investigation:

[^1]1) two of the three radicals of the triconsonantal roots are the main bearers of the meaning and that the third one had at one stage the task of a determinant or modifier,
2) the basic stock of the Semitic vocabulary appears to consist of monosyllabic root morphemes.

The second suggestion, though one of several suggested elsewhere, can be effortlessly supported by any student of Akkadian. However, the conclusion that "two of the three radicals of the triconsonantal roots are the main bearers of the meaning" is the closest thus far identified to the true nature of the bilateral "Semitic" roots and their trilateral extensions. Nevertheless, the vital question remains: Why so?

Though no examples were provided, "Semitic" roots can be identified as either the first and second, or the second and third radicals of original trilaterals. This should not conflict with the fact that a substantial number of roots consist of monosyllabic morphemes, but the core root appears to have been constructed of two letters suggesting that languages like Akkadian and Arabic combine two originally different prehistoric languages that will be identified later on.

### 1.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF "SEMITIC" ROOTS

The investigation of the origin of the Arabic numerals ${ }^{4}$ revealed their ancient history and confirmed the accumulative dynamic that transcends ages and applies to most fields of human knowledge developed, in the majority of cases, by necessity. It follows that ancient people needed to express the number "one" before they needed to express the number "ten" and "ten" before "fifty", etc. Yet, in a language like Arabic, the word for one - "wahid" (wāḥid) - and ten - "ashra" ('ašra) - consist of the same number of letters per word. If one preceded ten by hundreds or thousands of years, should it not consist of a smaller number of letters?

Etymological investigation revealed that the root of number one consists of two letters; more surprising was the discovery that all Arabic numerals have bilateral roots. The investigation was later extended to include more than nine thousand entries in Lisan A/ Arab, the most comprehensive Arabic dictionary. However, serious

[^2]inconsistencies emerged and it was found necessary to consult other "Semitic" languages, the most important of which was Akkadian - the oldest attested "Semitic" language - insuring the inclusion of both the oldest and youngest members of the "Semitic" family.

The conclusions of the systematic, multi-year etymological research into the origin of "Semitic" languages were presented in An Introductory Original Etymological Investigation of the Prehistoric Ancestral Linguistic Nuclei and Monosyllables of "Semitic" Languages, Primarily Based on Akkadian and Southern and Northern Arabic

In addition to wāḥid, Arabic contains 'had. A third word, ḥd (had), has a number of meanings that may appear different to "one", "single" or "only". Determining the bond that ties all these meanings requires the determination of the original meaning given to the root of these words - i.e. hd. On its own, the root has a number of meanings including "border", "a separation line", the "sharp edge of a sword or a dagger", "assigned punishment for certain crimes", and so forth.

Such a determination has to take into consideration the "primitive" natural environment in which prehistoric human beings began to develop language. A rough line drawn by a stick, a rock or a finger between two primitive huts in Eastern Africa or Southern Arabia would be considered "a border" or a "separation line". The line itself, when approximated, is similar to the sign for number one, still communicated in our time by holding the right index finger upright.

However, it can be suggested that the need for early human beings to claim a plot of land by separating it from other plots is an advanced concept of ownership. Therefore, the root hd appears to be the product of an advanced stage of early thinking. The need to employ the same root, hd, to describe the sharp edge of a sword or a dagger is likely to have come at a much later stage of development, probably involving the ability to use copper or bronze to make swords and daggers. The use of bladed weapons to punish the guilty could only have come at a much later stage of social development because punishment involves advanced moral and judicial concepts such as right and wrong.

What should be noted is that the root $h d$ may have been developed to express a single, easily defined meaning. Other related meanings may not have been added to the original meaning until such a time when the root was overloaded to
such a confusing degree that people were compelled to extend the root by adding a third letter, thus producing - for example - hdr. This trilateral has several meanings, so it may take some investigation to determine its connection with its root. One of them is "to descend", involving movement from a higher to a lower location, or from one type of terrain to another, or from one side of a border to the other. The trilateral hdd - "determine, or specify" - is another extension, the relationship of which to the original meaning of its parent should be clear. The trilateral $h d b$ "humping" - may appear to be an extension of hd, but the appearance is merely visual because it is an extension of a different root: $d b$. One of the meanings of $d b$ is "to crawl", and another "bear" (as in the animal). With a little imagination, a connection can be established between "humping", "crawling", and the way bears move.

It may be useful for semanticists to take into consideration that the need that gave rise to expanding the range of meaning of bilateral roots by adding a third letter is different from the need that gave rise to the invention or adaptation of original roots. The time difference between the two may be measured in hundreds or thousands of years. Early man should be assumed to have found the need to identify things and concepts that were vital for survival before identifying moral or literary concepts at a much later stage of development, most probably in another era. Such roots should be assumed to identity water "m'", food "kl", hut "pt", tree "'s"", stone/pebble "ḥṣ", danger "ḥt $\rightarrow$ hțr", important animals "b", fb", in addition to basic actionable roots such as cut "ṭq/qt", walk "mš", run "gr", sex "r, nk", hunt "ṣd", fear "bf", etc.

The accumulative logic of knowledge which implies that people knew one before ten or fifty before hundred should also imply that people invented, or adapted, two-letter words before inventing three-letter words. Researchers who claim that $h d r$ is a root should find it hard to explain the origin of $h d m$ and would find it even harder to establish a relational meaning between $h d r$ and $h d d$. The challenge is not to identify bilateral roots - hundreds of which are listed in Tahdīb al-Luǵa - but to identify the original meanings of bilaterals. Once achieved, a range of meanings for most roots can be established, and the process of identifying the relationship between roots and extensions can begin.

### 1.3 PREHISTORIC GENIUS

A more challenging undertaking is to establish the relationship between one root and another. Not all roots are monosyllabic morphemes, for a reason that will be explained later. Those that are have a unique feature that may be described as "revolutionary". Morphemes by design are not supposed to be broken up without losing all sense of meaning.

However, they can be reversed.
Faced with a limited number of roots and an increasing number of things, concepts and situations that needed to be identified and communicated, a genius began a revolutionary process involving the reversal of the monosyllabic root, thus producing another set of roots that doubled the number of roots available for use.

For example, the root $t q$ (طق) is a sound frequently heard in nature when branches are broken or rocks fall onto solid ground. When reversed, qt (قط) was used as a new container for additional communicative expressions added to the existing stock of vocabulary.

Al-Azhari of Tahdīb al-Lugga is probably the best authority on the tongue of 'Ariba, a distinguished ancient Arabian race who established great empires in Iraq, Syria and Egypt. ${ }^{5}$ Yet he failed to establish the link between the original root $q t$ and the reversed version $t q$, as is the case with most roots he examined due, in part, to his adherence to the explanations of pioneer lexicographers or interpreters of religious texts.

The root $t q$ is treated in Arabic dictionaries as little more than onomatopoeia, but in colloquial Arabic, which appears much older than Modern Arabic, it means, "to break", sometimes metaphorically as in tq raqabatu, "he broke his neck". The original meaning of $q t+$ is "to sever" or "to break". When the time came to distinguish between different types of cutting, the root was extended, creating qt "sever", qt!r "distil, extract (achieved in certain cases by cutting sugar cane)", q!̣ "killed" (qt/ appears to be a variation), and qțm "cut off" or "chop off". Qft is another extension used to describe the general act of cutting, but it is more accurately used to de-

[^3]scribe the picking of roses, cotton or bunches of grapes.
Individually, both $t q$ and $q t^{6}$ have identifiable ranges of meaning. At the same time, both combine to provide a wider range that should be confined, albeit sometimes loosely or by deduction, to the original meanings of the two roots. The two roots are considered in the Origins of "Semitic" Languages as a linguistic unit ( $q \cdot t \rightarrow t q$ ) in an interim list (pp.135-142) of more than 200 identified linguistic units combining both monosyllabic morphemes and original bilaterals.

In general, linguistic units made up of monosyllabic morphemes appear to be more disciplined and much easier to identify and group than their bilateral counterparts. They include some of the linguistic powerhouses of language such as $s \underset{/}{\leftrightarrows} / s$, $s m \leftrightarrows m s, r s \leftrightarrows \leftrightarrows s, d r \leftrightarrows r d$, etc. The fields they cover are wide-ranging and include inventions such as soap making (bṣ $\leftrightarrows \mathrm{spb}$ ), arithmetic (ḥs $\leftrightarrows s ̣ h), ~ i n d u s t r y ~(s ̣ n \leftrightarrows n s ̣), ~ a n-~$ gles and scales ( $\mathrm{zw} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{wz}$ ), and urbanisation ('m $\leftrightarrows \mathrm{m}^{\prime}$ ). Aspects of famine and shortages of food were allocated a number of units including $j \leftrightarrows \leftrightarrows j$ and $l h \leftrightarrows h /$. Snakes, the source of both fear and awe, were treated in two units, 'f $f f f^{\prime}$ and $h f \leftrightarrows f h$. An extension of $h f$ is hawf "fear", indicating that serpents were not considered a source of fear but fear itself.

In comparison, bilateral roots appear to be much older and more difficult to reconstruct, probably due to their ancient origin. In addition, a number of such units consist of the hamza, a short or soft $a$. This unique letter is extendable to a full $a, w$ or $y$, creating both remarkable flexibility and confusion. One reason why some extensions of words containing the hamza are difficult to identify and collect in units and clusters is the tendency of classical lexicographers to spread them out in many sections of extant dictionaries. ${ }^{7}$

[^4]Nevertheless, hamza units and clusters are rich in spirituality, feelings and other human qualities and concepts. Such units include 's $\leftrightarrows s^{\prime}$ ', $r \leftrightarrows r{ }^{\prime}$ ', ' $d \leftrightarrows d^{\prime}$ and '/ (il) $\leftrightarrows l$. A thorough analysis of the roots and extensions of the last unit reveal how the concept of God was formed, surprisingly perhaps, in prehistoric times. This, along with several similar units, will form the core of the Origin of Religion, the third and last part of the Book of Origins.

The unit ' $h \leftrightarrows \rightarrow$ 'has a wide range of meaning revolving around water and water holes. It is of particular interest due to three extensions: hayya "snake", hayat "life" and hawwa "Eve". The meanings of these three extensions would be considered to be within the unit's range of meaning, since water is essential for life. Due to their brisk movement, snakes appear to have been viewed as a symbol of life, while hawwa "Eve", like water, is life giving. Another prominent unit is ${ }^{\prime} r \leftrightarrows r{ }^{\prime}$ which has an extensive meaning range justified by the subjects it treats, including sex, sexual desire, the relationship between man and woman, child-caring, inheritance, fireholes (for cooking), motherly love and tending to children. As roots can be allinclusive by association, the meaning range of $r$ ' includes vagina, penis, and bottom. Bottoms are at the back of the human body, so extensions of this unit include wara' "behind, back", and 'rh "history", relating to events that took place in the past or "behind" current times. ${ }^{8}$ The unit with the most extensions is ${ }^{\prime} \leftrightarrows \check{s}$ ', the meaning

[^5]range of which centres on trees and the use of wood to build huts. The unit has certain characteristics similar to those found in bilateral roots, but it could alternatively be a monosyllabic morpheme - i.e. of Yemeni origin.

The wide meaning range of roots supports the possible conclusion that the two roots of linguistic units could not have been created at the same time. The time difference could be measured in tens, hundreds or even thousands of years. One of the roots is primary and the other secondary, but both were given the same productive powers. In certain cases, it is possible to identity the primary root easily. It usually expresses things that exist in the environment and has fewer available extensions, sometimes with vague or imprecise meanings that fall outside their expected meaning range.

Identifying a single letter and adding another to form the basic bilateral root may appear accumulatively natural. Identifying a monosyllabic morpheme as a root may appear advanced in primitive times, until one realises that these could be even more primitive than bilateral roots. One of the possible explanations for this is that many primary monosyllabic morpheme roots are human approximations of sounds heard in nature. One example is $t q$ but so is $h r, z q, h b, f h, h r, t b$ and many others. In such cases, the reversed root ceases to be a sound approximation and may instead qualify as a human invention.

The Yemeni origin of many monosyllabic root morphemes is betrayed by the inclusion of $g$ and $p$, two letters that were not used in Hijaz. Many other roots and extensions can be identified as Yemeni by examining references in Arabic literature to their Yemeni origin. The vocabulary stock of Akkadian includes both bilateral roots and monosyllabic root morphemes, but this ancient language provides the researcher with sufficient evidence to map the extensive influence of the Yemeni stock of vocabulary in Modern Arabic.

Some $g$ roots appear to have had an ancient migration to $k$, as is the case with $g r \rightarrow k r$ in Akkadian. ${ }^{9}$ However, in Modern Arabic the $g$ migration is not limited to $k$

[^6]but includes $j$ and sometimes $q$, creating extensive duplication in extant dictionaries. Likewise, $p$ migration in Modern Arabic is not limited to $f$ but includes $b$ as well, with equally extensive duplication. A number of important Hijazi words deemed "northern" were found to be of Yemeni origin, such as hasb $\rightarrow$ haṣb (an extension of $h \stackrel{s}{ })$, as well as many religious expressions attested in Akkadian. So far, 13 g linguistic units have been identified in Modern Arabic, migrated to more than 25 units (listed on page 270). The $p$ units are seven, with $14 f$ and $b$ migrations (p.284).Origin of "Semitic" Languages

### 1.4 LINGUISTIC STRUCTURE: LN, LU, DN, NC, SE, PE, LC

The reconstruction of the relevant stock of Modern Arabic vocabulary and the comparative referencing with specific available Akkadian stock revealed an elaborate linguistic structure consisting of six main parts:

1- Monosyllabic root morphemes and bilateral roots collectively described in the Origin of "Semitic" Languages as linguistic nuclei (LN): e.g. hr 'fall, descend, flows"
2- Linguistic units (LU) consisting of pairs of primary and secondary nuclei. They are identified by a special sign ( $\leftrightarrows$ ) symbolising their interrelationship: e.g. $h r \leftrightarrows r h$

3- Dual nuclei (DN) composed of two identical suitable roots: e.g. hrhr (a human approximation of the sound of flowing water)
4- Nucleitic compounds (NC) constructed of two different linguistic nuclei, characterised by having a literary meaning and a conventional meaning derived from or suggested by the literal meaning: $h r+n b$ ( $h r n b$ ) "carob" (Ak-
http://www.premiumwanadoo.com/cuneiform.languages/dictionary/index_en.php (accessed 09-092013)

[^7]kadian harûbu). ${ }^{10}$
5- Trilateral specifier extensions of the linguistic nuclei created by supplementing the linguistic nuclei with a third suitable letter. Trilateral extensions are of two types:
a) Suffixed specifier extensions (SE) constructed from linguistic nuclei followed by an additional suitable third letter: hrb"destroy, ruin".
b) Prefixed specifier extensions (PE) constructed from linguistic nuclei preceded by a suitable letter: nhr "hole, puncture, perforation, aperture, bore, tear", "nostril".
6- Linguistic Clusters (LC) which in standard cases group all the above parts, but may be limited to a linguistic unit and a few suffixed extensions. In most cases, components of the Linguistic Clusters depend on their availability in dictionaries, glossaries and other relevant references, but it is also possible to identify "missing" roots or to correct corrupted or misspelled trilateral extensions and nucleitic compounds. A special sign ( $\ddagger$ ) is given to Linguistic Clusters: $\ddagger$ bुr $\leftrightarrows$ rh.
It should be noted from reviewing the above unique construction that "Semitic" ('Ariba) languages are made not of individual words but of a unique family of clusters, the total number of which should reflect the total number of words contained in the clusters, and therefore, in a given language. If lexicographers list the primary root $h r$ and its suffixed specifier extensions under $H$, and the secondary root $r \underline{h}$ and its suffixed specifier extensions under $R$, they would be splitting an integrated linguistic unit in half. Moreover, the proper place of the prefixed specifier extension $n h r$ is under $H$, not under $N$. As prefixed specifier extensions number in the hundreds, they are scattered throughout dictionaries and linguistic works.

The same applies to dual nuclei and nucleitic compounds, but specifier extensions present a special challenge. It has been suggested "only two of the three radicals of the triconsonantal roots are the main bearers of the meaning and that the third one had at one stage the task of a determinant or modifier". This is true in

[^8]some but not in all cases. Prefixed or suffixed specifier extensions constitute the largest block of vocabulary. As almost all root extensions are radical trilaterals, linguistic nuclei are made either of the first and second letters, or the second and third letters. In certain cases, a trilateral can be a prefixed extension of a root as well as a suffixed extension of another. Meanings given in dictionaries of such a trilateral may include a mixture of the meanings of both roots, resulting in contradictory elements. One example is btt/ (bațal) "hero" or buțula "heroism", but also bațe/"delusory" and bațala "unemployment". "Heroism" is one of the meanings of $t /$ whereas "unemployment" is one of meanings of $b t t$. Other examples include $n$ 'š, 'jm, 'rn, wrq, ġrm, wqr, mḥn, 'nb, rd', fna, ḥma, 'jl, l'm, nṭq, kf', šr', brj and nqb.

### 1.5 SOURCES OF "SEMITIC" ORIGINS

The linguistic structure identified above is not the ideal but rather the actual structure. Had classical lexicographers of a language like Arabic been aware of the actual components of the language they treated, the number of "orphaned" entries in their works would have been a fraction of what is found in extant dictionaries. Place names, forenames, given names and other types of names may constitute a separate category but this is largely not the case in languages like Arabic or Akkadian. One of the reasons is historical, in the sense that users of the language had a limited number of words, which they had to use for all sorts of designations. In most cases, such names would have a meaning, including hundreds of surnames constructed from nucleitic compounds.

The 'Ariba family of languages is very ancient. Time and the extensive geographical spread of the speakers of these languages can be justifiably blamed for the considerable number of inconsistencies that challenge the researcher, but the age-old failure of linguists to identify the basic structure of 'Ariba may serve to throw a blanket of doubt over the value and soundness of many of their works. Several linguists of Arabic permitted the interchangeability of certain letters on no more grounds than personal taste or preference. This can result in a number of serious problems. For example, changing $s$ in certain roots to $s$ or $t$ to $t$ may destabilise entire linguistic clusters.

Many early linguists provided answers to important linguistic questions, but no one appears to have explained the reason for the dual or treble migration of entire

Yemeni clusters, thus adding hundreds of duplicates to dictionaries. Perhaps even more significant is the absence of a convincing explanation for the inclusion of four letters - $\underline{t}, \underline{d}, \underline{d}$ and $\underset{-}{-i n}$ the Modern Arabic alphabet that are absent in 'Ariba. This is not to deny that certain Arabs or Arabians may have used such letters, but if they did, their identity was not revealed. What is clear is that most of the words containing these letters have older versions incorporating the original letters, and many are attested in Akkadian. A number of linguistic units and clusters with extensions comprising one or more such letters were found to be migrations from original units and clusters, and many supposed trilateral roots had either very few extensions or none at all.

Nevertheless, the dictionaries of Modern Arabic appear to be the bedrock on which several millennia of linguistic layers have settled. Akkadian, on the other hand, has a clearer structure but its available stock of vocabulary is not adequately sufficient to reconstruct the "Proto-Semitic" language. As far as this research is concerned, both Akkadian and Modern Arabic are vital for achieving a comprehensive restructuring of 'Ariba. Consulting colloquial Arabic dialects may be considered mandatory for the attempt of such construction, especially that of the Sham (Syrian) dialect, characterised by its northern Arabic and Phoenician influence, and the Palestinian dialect which is primarily of ancient Yemeni origin.

### 1.6 CASES AND SITUATIONS

In all applicable instances, the researcher is advised to pay special attention to determining the case or situation of linguistic units and clusters. The case or situation of certain units and clusters can be clear or even obvious. For example, the case of the cluster $\ddagger j \leftrightarrows f j$ is hunger, including its causes, effects and the steps taken by the people of the time to overcome it. Once the case or situation is determined, the researcher acquires a decisive tool for excluding expressions not related to the case or situation of the unit or cluster studied. Careful attention in these instances is rewarding. For example, it may not be clear what connection there is between $j^{4}$ "hunger" and j'a (jía) "beer", until one realises that beer may have been first created because it contained heavily soaked oats that were considered inedible before the onset of famine. The connection between j' $j$ jū ) "hunger" and 'j ( 'jaj) "dusty storm" reveals the cause of famine - i.e. drought that allows wind to carry away
particles of parched soil.
Determining the case may help also in explaining certain contradictory expressions. For example, meanings of the primary hr include "fall", "descend", and "flows". The meanings of its suffixed extension hrb include "destroy" and "ruin". Yet, prosperity and good life are two meanings assigned to the secondary root rh, confirmed by its suffixed extension rha "soft, wet, plentiful". The unit $h r \leftrightarrows r h$ and the expanded structure $\ddagger h r \leftrightarrows r h$ concern neither ruin and destruction, nor softness, wetness nor prosperity, but rather objects that fall from the sky or high places, and substances that flow. Meteor showers can cause ruin and destruction, but rain showers can provide an abundant harvest and consequently prosperity. Another related extension is rhs "cheap", something to be expected in times of plenty. Furthermore, what could the connection be between $h r$ and its suffixed extension $h r^{2}$ "faeces"? Refuse falls from the body, like meteors or rain from the sky. What about nahirru (Akkadian: nostril, Arabic: minhr)? It is simply a hole, like any hole made by a falling object. ${ }^{11}$


#### Abstract

$11 \ddagger h r \leftrightarrows r h$ : Akkadian: *hr: harābu: G. to be(come) deserted Š. to devastate, lay waste Št. to be devastated; harādu (2): an onager, a wild ass, a wild donkey; harādu (D): to warn; hुarādu: to watch, to attend, to prompt (D) to warn, to alert (N) to be attentive, to watch out, to be careful; harāru, hुarāṣu, hुarû: to dig; ḩarāru+: gnarl; ḩarāru: to dig, to hollow out; harāsu: to itch, scratch; hुarāṣu: G. to subtract, deduct; to excavate; to make clear, become clear, to do accurately; to fix, define; to issue clear commands $D$. to reduce; to wrongly diminish Št. to calculate deduction, deduct $N$. to be subtracted, deducted; harāšu (1): G: to be in labour / labor, to reach the concluding stage of pregnancy; harāšu (2): G: to bind (on); D: to bring together, to collect, to plant (trees in a park); harāšu (3): G: to be silent / mute + / dumb + / tongue-tied +, to become mute, to lose the faculty of speech; D to silence, to hush, to make dumb, to deprive of speech; harbānāti: ruins, rubble; harbānu: desert dweller; harbatu: wasteland, ruins; harbītu: a ruin; harbu (1): deserted; n.: desert; harbu: plough; harbutu: untilled land; harbūtu: havoc, desolation; harharru: chain (Dual nuclei (DN), sound approximation); harīru: 3) a kind of garment or textile (harīru $\rightarrow$ Arabic harīr "silk" but Akkadian, with $h$, is probably correct because fibre comes out of the larvae, metaphorically, like faeces. Additionally, $h r$, originally "volcanic rocks" has no possible connection with silk or the making of silk fibre).


*rb: raḩāṣu: G. to destroy, devastate, trample; to rush, hurry Gt. to rush towards one another $\mathrm{D}=$ G N. to be devastated; raḩāṣu: G. to wash, bathe (v.i. \& v.t.) Š. to soak N. to be washed; raḩāṣu: G. to trust, rely Š. to make confident, cause to trust; raḩāṣu: G. to gather, hold a debate; rahbī̄qu +: far, far-away, distant (this is from *rḥ); rahișu: pile of harvest produce (especially straw); rēḩtu: 1) remainder, remnant, leftover, rest; rehû́*: to pour in, to imbue, to impregnate, to fertilize, to beget (Dt) to be(come) pregnant; rehû: 1) to pour out (river, liquid), to ejaculate / have sexual intercourse, (sleep) to flow over / to overtake -someone- ; 2) (man) to copulate, to inseminate, to make love / fuck / have sex / get laid; rēhu: remaining, leftover; subst.: rest, remainder; rēh̄tu: 1) remainder, remnant, leftover, rest; rehû*: to pour in, to imbue, to impregnate, to fertilize, to beget (Dt) to be(come) pregnant; rehû: 1) to pour out (river, liquid), to ejaculate / have sexual intercourse, (sleep) to flow over / to overtake -someone-; 2) (man) to copulate, to inseminate, to make love / fuck / have sex / get laid; rihiṣtu: destruction, devastation, flooding; rihiṣtu: inundation; rihūtu: 1) sperm, semen, pouring out insemination, ejaculation +, fishes: spawn; 2) personal name; rihûtu: progeny, sperm; [rihû̂tu amēlūti] (medicine): human semen, human sperm; [rihûtu alpi] (medicine): semen of ox / bull;

### 1.7 HISTORICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Statements such as "Arabic is based primarily upon its system of triconsonantal roots" are unfortunate since they are hard to understand without a clear and logical explanation for the presence of hundreds of biconsonantal roots. The claim that some biconsonantals are de-inflections from triconsonantals should be tested only if a reasonable number of examples were to be presented. What should be taken into consideration is that languages are accumulative by their very nature, and that the development of primitive languages was dictated by the need to communicate in order to maintain or improve the chances of survival and the welfare of early societies.

Lexically, triconsonantals are either suffixed specifier extensions or prefixed specifier extensions of linguistic nuclei or biconsonantal roots. Representing about $10 \%$ of total triconsonantals, prefixed extensions appear to have been favoured by priests, orators and poets. If the word is important or "distinctive", there is a good chance that it is a prefixed extension. The linguistic needs of divination, oration and poetry are relatively new compared to the need to communicate expressions related to necessities and matters of life and death. Yet, we also have the prefixed extension ' $k$ /"food", which raises the possibility that some prefixed extensions were created before suffixed extensions. It is also possible that the production of prefixed extensions continued long after the development of suffixed extensions.

What is clear is that suffixed extensions were the last building block of 'Ariba. Considering that the linguistic revolution represented by suffixed extensions appears to have been a means of satisfying the new communicative needs spurred by the advent of the agrarian era, ${ }^{12}$ it is puzzling to contemplate the reasons why no new building blocks were developed to communicate efficiently new things and ideas during the last 5,000 or more years.

It appears that agrarian and trade eras gave new powers to previously marginal tribes that controlled most of the agricultural land and trade routes across

[^9]Arabia, and the most important and convenient means to shift goods - i.e. camels. ${ }^{13}$ Like a deluge, the new tribes surged forth and took over the power and properties of the ancient Arabian tribes, forcing many to flee to Egypt, Iraq, Syria and Lebanon. A dark age lasting some 2,000 years appears to have descended on Arabia with varying exceptions in Najd, Mecca and sections of the eastern and southern parts of the peninsula.

During the $8^{\text {th }}$ and $9^{\text {th }}$ centuries, attempts were made by certain linguists to develop a new pentalateral building block, but this was basically an artificial creation and a step too far, since Arabic does not appear to have original quadrilateral or four-radical words. Words assumed at the time to have four radicals are in fact nucleitic compounds made of two bilateral roots. In extant dictionaries, these constitute the largest block after suffixed extensions. They include mrhm (marham) "ointment or a bitter type of ancient medicine"; 'rnb (arnab) - "rabbit"; nbrs (nabras) - "lantern"; and /wlb (lawlab) - "a type of ancient water or wine faucet". More than 2,000 compounds are listed, three quarters of which may have been minted by unknown linguists of the $8^{\text {th }}$ century or later, and claimed by some to have been an attempt at "swamping". ${ }^{14}$

Like their Assyrian counterparts some 2,800 years earlier, the $8^{\text {th }}$ century linguists of Iraq and Persia had to make do with the stock of vocabulary available at the time. The Assyrians had to rely on lexical and grammatical extensions and a much more intensive exploitation of bilateral roots (note the 50 or so 'h extensions in Akkadian), whereas those dealing with Modern Arabic expanded the available stock of vocabulary with metaphors, similes, elaborate linguistic imagery and the invention of hundreds of words or variations of words produced by the faulty dotting of previously un-dotted vocabulary. For these and other reasons, as many as 4,000 entries in Lisan Al-Arab may have to be eliminated from any possible project to

[^10]compile a comprehensive etymological dictionary of Modern Arabic.
An extensive comparative study appears to confirm that neither ancient Assyrian linguists nor Muslim linguists many centuries later appear to have been aware of the true structures of Akkadian or Modern Arabic. With a uniquely natural language like the 'Ariba, linguistic expansion is naturally easy if linguists are aware of its basic structure. Unfortunately, this does not seem to have been the case.

Al-Kitab of Sibaweh is remarkable for its content but perhaps more so because the famous author managed to produce 2,000 pages without knowing the main components of the language he used. However, many of the features of Modern Arabic were recognised in Hebrew and Canaanite (Phoenician). Some writers (like Shidyaq) considered Phoenician a sister tongue of Arabic, while Lisan al-Arab suggested in kan'that the Canaanites were a nation speaking a language similar to Arabic.

Arab historians have no doubt about the origin of their language - 'Ariba, regarded by Al-Azhari and many others to be of superior standard. Arab historians and genealogists differ on the fate of 'Ariba but they are almost unanimous in calling their tongue Arabic. Assyrians and Babylonians should be considered among the 'Ariba but they do not seem to have recognised Arabic as a language like theirs by distinguishing it as Arbittu.

Where did 'Ariba itself come from?
Some interpreters and genealogists claim that God himself made it. Linguistically, it appears to have ancient pre-historic dual origins: the language of 'D/'Dd, or Od (أد، أدد), and the language of 'D/'Dd or 'Ad (عد، عاد). ${ }^{15}$ The latter is cited several times in the Quran (prefixed extension of $r$ ' - "too see"), in reference to both a man and a tribe or people. There seems to be no doubt that Yemen was home to both man and people. Surprisingly, there is no mention of ' $D$ in the Quran.

Like most "Semitic" languages, Akkadian contains both languages, but the stock of ' $D$ is much smaller in comparison to that of its Yemeni counterpart. Surprisingly, no reference to ' $D$ was noted in Akkadian, but ' $D$ pertain to God or Godlike, by means of the power to hurl thunder (Akkadian: 'rigim Adad).

[^11]
### 1.8 PROTO-"SEMITIC"

In modern Western literature, "Semitic" languages are not attributed to God but to an unknown origin with differing opinions on the original location at which a homogeneous language, known as Proto-"Semitic", was supposed to have developed. There are several Proto-"Semitic" word lists, but it is not clear why they are described as Proto-"Semitic" when many are suffixed specifier extensions ('arś ["'ґ, bayt [*pt], may [*m'], etc.) - the last main construct of Semitic languages - or advanced prefixed specifier extensions such as ḥalīb (*|b), šalām (Im), śamš (*ms but more correctly *mš).

The fact that Akkadian and Modern Arabic contain all the main components of the two languages may indicate that a tribe or a group of tribes continued to live together or in relative proximity until their common language attained the type of maturity witnessed in Akkadian and Modern Arabic. This co-habitation appears to have continued until the decision to part ways was taken, either forcibly or voluntarily. The numbers of emigrants is unknown, but they appear to have been adequate to populate certain areas in Iraq, Syria and Egypt.

Akkadian is credited with a formidable communicative system but it is more "primitive" in its adherence to its biconsonantal roots than its Yemeni sister tongue, in which one finds on average more suffixed extensions per root than Akkadian. ${ }^{16}$ A very limited number of dual nuclei and nucleitic compounds are available in Akkadian vocabulary compared with hundreds in Yemeni, making them a linguistic treasure trove for the students of toponymy, botany, physics, agriculture and early inventions as well as for the students of the history of civilisation in general.

Identifying "Proto-Semitic" could be useful but the question that needs to be answered is where did "Proto-Semitic" and, inclusively, all "Semitic" languages, come from?

Unless one wants to claim that daughters are the mothers of their mums, one may conclude that triconsonantals represent the last major linguistic development of Semitic languages. This does not exclude the possibility that a linguist may iden-

[^12]tify what he or she believes to be a triconsonantal root. However, proving conclusively that triconsonantal roots do exist is difficult.

This is because Arabic, Modern Arabic, Akkadian, Hebrew and others are not synthetic languages made of a collection of words, but languages constructed from linguistic units and clusters. If the nuclei of most three-radical words cannot be identified, an explanation may be found by probing a number of possibilities. The letters $\underline{t}, \underline{d}, \underline{d}$ and $\underset{\sim}{z}$ are not identified in'Ariba. Most of the words containing these letters were identified, sometimes in the same dictionary or in Akkadian, with the substituted original letter. ${ }^{17}$ In a number of cases, words with these letters may have been inserted into dictionaries to provide credence for the same words present in important religious texts.

Other possibilities include the prevalent substitution of letters such as $\mathrm{s} / \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{t} / \mathrm{t}$, $\mathrm{d} / \mathrm{t}$ and others. Attention should be paid to words originally containing $g$ and $p$. They are expected to be migrated to $j$ and $f$, but a number of other letters are used instead, including $k, q$, and $\dot{g}$ for $g$ and $b$ for $p$. In all cases, except for the obvious, dotted words should be treated with suspicion. Careful scrutiny uncovered many mistakes in some of the most respected Arabic texts, several created by writers considered "authorities" in their fields.

Additionally, identifying prefixed specifier extensions is vital for layered morphological examination. This unique structure is probably one of the most important reasons for the almost universal failure to originate trilaterals in their biconsonantal roots. Many roots are poorly treated in extant dictionaries and scores are altogether ignored, whereas prefixed extensions are given special attention due to their religious, moral and social importance. Along with Syrian and Palestinian dialects, prefixed extensions can help to achieve a better determination of the original meaning or meanings of roots, without which efforts to associate most extensions with their parents may fall short of the necessary level of the understanding needed to determine the range of meanings of relevant linguistic units and clusters.

[^13]
## PART 2 BEYOND LINGUISTICS

### 2.1 HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

The historical development of the main building blocks of "Semitic" languages appears to be as follows:

1- Bilateral roots dominated by the hamza """;
2- Monosyllabic root morphemes;
3- Dual Nuclei mainly constructed from monosyllabic morphemes, with the possibility that some may have been split to produce bilaterals. Yemeni $z q z q$ - "chirp" and șawșaw ${ }^{18}$ (șaw is the root of the suffixed specifier extension ṣawt - "sound") may be two of them;

4- Original Nucleitic compounds: proof of the ancient development of nucleitic compounds may be found in constructions used to produce names for camels (gmm), Damascus (Dmšq but probably Dmšg - the literal meaning remains the same), Grhm (Gerham, the name of a famous tribe known to have ruled Mecca), Carmel (grml) and others. Another possible proof is that the nature of the construction appears specifically aimed at spoken rather than written communication;
5- Prefixed specifier extensions: it should be assumed that the development of this construction continued during the later era of the suffixed extensions because it appears favoured by priests and poets, with both enjoying a renaissance some 5,000 or more years ago;

6- Suffixed specifier extensions.

With about 430 million speakers and more than one billion Muslims, Arabic stands alone among the major languages in its need for an etymological dictionary. It was pointed out that Modern Arabic, like all other "Semitic" languages, is a language of linguistic units and clusters not of vocabulary. The only viable compilation of a suitable dictionary can be achieved by building it on a modified alphabetical arrange-

[^14]ment of clustered linguistic units. The fact that all extant dictionaries are built on word entries of various arrangements may explain the serious problems arising from dividing all linguistic units and the extensive disbursement of their prefixed and suffixed specifier extensions and nucleitic compounds under entries unrelated to their proper roots.

In the majority of cases, the successful completion of such a dictionary would be sufficient to serve as an etymological dictionary. Isolates and entries claimed to be of Persian or other origins should be thoroughly studied, as linguists of Persian origin do not appear to have been aware of the substantial Yemeni component of the language they treated, including linguistic units comprising $g$ and $p$ (both of which are in the Persian alphabet). They were also unaware of the outstanding structure of nucleitic compounds.

Compiling an etymological dictionary may seem an overwhelming task, but the number of linguistic units involved is surprisingly small. A preliminary list in the Origin of "Semitic" Languages contains 215 linguistic clusters, or 430 linguistic nuclei. Excluding unexpected surprises, the final list may be $+/-10 \%$ of the total at most. Reference to entries in Akkadian could be helpful for future students of both languages, as well as establishing a bridge between the oldest and the newest attested members of the Semitic languages.

Aside from the obvious failings, the works of several classical linguists and lexicographers should be admired. However, their heavy dependence on religious interpretations and poetry produces its own problems as both interpreters and poets do not appear to have sufficient knowledge of the basic blocks of the language. Linguistic nuclei, not poets and interpreters, are the most credible semantic reference. Absent the basic knowledge of the main parts of the language, a considerable part of what is offered in extant Arabic dictionaries is made of approximation, expansion, deduction and personal judgement.

### 2.2 ETYMOLOGICAL TRACING OF HISTORY

The linguistic nuclei stake a claim to much more than parentage to the languages of some of the greatest empires in history. Though deemed the oldest attested language, Assyrian's ancient age may be just a fraction of the age of its origin, which lies deep in pre-historic times. Like all other people before and after them, this na-
tion of what could be the first surviving tongue in today's world perished, but a chronicle of their history lives on in the small roots of the words they developed.

Careful examination appears to confirm that the cluster $\ddagger d n \leftrightarrows n d$ contains a record of the crossing of the Red Sea into Arabia in ancient times. *Dn - "close, near, approach" - is probably the description given to the Arabian side of the Red Sea when looking towards the horizon from the opposite side, or otherwise *nd - "counterpart, parallel". Some of the migrants seem to have perished during the crossing: $n d b$ (nadab) - "lament, wail" - hence Bab Al-Mandab, the "lamenting gate". The loss appears to have caused ndm (nadam) - "regret". It is also possible that some of them regretted leaving their original home, or was disappointed at finding out that the new home did not meet their expectations. ${ }^{19}$

The cluster $\ddagger b d \leftrightarrows d b$ appears to contain a similar record depicting a group arriving at a vast expanse of land that appeared to them for the first time: *bd "appeared" $\rightarrow$ bd' "beginning" $\rightarrow$ badiah "desert". These are the bedo "Bedouins", or "the people of the beginning". The root *bd has a number of extensions ending in hamza or a hamza converted to $a, w$ or $y$, making it eligible for consideration as an invention of the earlier ' $D$ people. The disciplined $\ddagger b d \leftrightarrows d b$ is most probably a construction of ' $D$, or the Yemeni people: possibly the oldest warring nation on Earth.

Many place names are not significantly altered to obscure their original name. Such names seem to mean something. 'Dn "Eden" is a suffixed extension of 'D or the people of ' $D$. When considering the possibility that Eden is the Garden of Eden, one has to take into account that some parts of Yemen are not as barren as one might think. Albeit for a few months, the Indian monsoon converts a dry elevated area into what is described even today as "Paradise". ${ }^{20}$ Confusion may arise when trying to locate the Garden of Eden in or around the city of Eden, whereas 'Dn is the home of ' $D$ or the people or tribe of ' $D$, believed to have been $A h q a f$ in today's Hadramawt. ${ }^{21}$

[^15]The cluster $\ddagger t m \leftrightarrows m t$ is crucial in understanding the concept of death in ancientia. Mawt "death" is a suffixed extension of *mt (originally $m t$ ) but it does not mean death as we know it. *Mt, literally, is "to extend". Death is not the end of life but the end of an extended line. Certain plants - when ingested - as well as scorpion stings are known to cause a deep coma, so it appears that it was not possible for ancient people to know whether the afflicted would recover, remain in this state permanently or rise again. This is one reason why ancient people did not bury their motionless loved ones. In another era, life and death were associated with breathing, as explained in the cluster $\ddagger p n \leftrightarrows n p$ when converted to $\ddagger f n \leftrightarrows n f$, and partly to $\ddagger b n \leftrightarrows n b$. Nfnf(nafnaf) or "air" is a dual nucleus, whereas $n f s$ "soul, a living person, breath" is a suffixed extension.

One may question the tendency to mix the meaning of the root with the meanings of their extenders. However, it should be understood that the range of meanings of the root appear to have many of the meanings separately specified in extensions at a later stage or a much later stage. In many cases, associating a prefixed specifier extension with its correct root depends on the determination of its root's associative properties. In a few cases, the reverse is true. For example *tm is "achieved, completed, performed", but it was found to have the unusual number of six prefixed extenders: htm "definite, inescapable, compulsory", htm "completed, end, final", 'tm "dark", qtm "gray, black", ktm "suppress, conceal" and ytm "orphaned". Only when the meanings of the extenders are carefully studied does it become possible to deduce that the word for death as we know it is *tm not *mt. Nevertheless, all these meanings fall within the range of meanings of the cluster $\ddagger t m \leftrightarrows m t$.

The small roots of the 'Ariba and other "Semitic" languages may hold the keys to unlocking some of the greatest secrets of early humanity. They can reveal the origin of $\dot{g} n a '$ "singing" as an emulation of the bleating of $\dot{g} n m$ (gnam) "sheep". These animals, domesticated some 8,000 years ago in Arabia, are also the origin of ǵna' "wealth" and ġanima "loot, booty".

The red lipstick of today is a synthetic material replacing a more ancient lipstick: *dm "blood". Adobe (țuba) "brick" can be revealed as an extension of t tb (ṭub) "turn over", an act performed when turning over clay moulds. Kalb "dog" is not a triconsonantal extension as is widely believed but the nucleitic compound $k / l b$, lit-
erally "mind (lib) eater (kl)". This meaning may not make sense until it is realised that rabies can cause anxiety, confusion and hallucinations. It is as if mad dogs "eat" the mind of persons they bites. However, rabbi is an elevation of *rb "bedouin chieftain, master", and should not be confused with *rp (*rf) "flutter, shelf". 22

As with many other clusters, Modern Arabic lexicographers confused $\ddagger b r \leftrightarrows r b$ with $\ddagger p r \leftrightarrows r p$. The meaning range of the former appears to be "the land, its owner and the people" as confirmed by rb' "clan, land, four". The meaning range of the latter is very curious since it appears to centre on distancing and elevation. The possible explanation is that the original concept was an image of a bird running away before flying. *Pr/*fr has more than 20 suffixed extensions specifying types of parting and distancing, including frj"cunt", from the action of "parting the legs". Firjar "drawing compass" is from the same root, so named because its two needles are parted before drawing. Soap, savon (Ar. ṣaboon) is from *sp "to pour, set in a mould", and is a secondary of the primary *bs "ember" and "see" in the Egyptian dialect, which is generally of Yemeni origin, hence the use by Egyptians of $g$ not $j$, just like Yemenis.

Bṣr "seeing, vision" should make the association of seeing and embers clear. Also clear should be the association of embers, or fire, with soap making. Unlike most Yemeni clusters, $\ddagger b s \leftrightarrows \leftrightarrows s b$ suffers from confusion, probably because lexicographers of Modern Arabic failed to realise that some of its words roughly describe the method of making soap, including burning wood to produce alkali $\rightarrow{ }^{*} q / \rightarrow q / i$. In today's usage, qli means, "to fry with oil", but originally it meant, "roasting" directly on a fire. In Akkadian qa/û is "to roast; to burn; to refine (a metal); to roast (grain); to burn, set fire". Akkadian qullitu is "roasted grain". Q/ also means "reduced, belittled, becomes smaller", a state to be expected due to shrinkage of burnt or roasted meat and certain other items.

### 2.3 INDICATIVE PRIMARY ROOTS

[^16]Students of anthropology, early human migrations out of Africa, the origins of languages and the impact of nature on the development of human knowledge and consciousness should probably concentrate on studying the relevant primary roots, for these appear to be the oldest linguistic inventions that remain in use today by speakers of "Semitic languages".

One may say that one linguistic eye of early human beings was set on their environment and the other on their own place in nature and the need to improve their chances of survival and living conditions, actions and activities recorded in secondary roots. Both are found in more than 200 clusters covering most of what was of importance in those distant times.

The linguistic needs of early human beings were limited. The number of things and cases they needed to communicate was relatively small, and the mental capacity to invent, repeat and process words and expressions was limited. This is evidenced in the collectiveness of the nouns they exchanged. For example, *' $n$ was the collective name of all animals except predators which were called * $b$ ', collectively identified by their droppings. In later times, distinction necessitated the development of specifiers. *B' was suffixed to b'r "dropping, dung", while predators were prefixed to $s b$. As *b' came to mean, "sell", it could be suggested that sex was not the first traded commodity but rather animal dung, obviously for fire. Interestingly, b'eer is "camel", so the best type of dung was probably that of camels. Also interesting is that some dialects have retained $b^{\prime} b^{\prime}\left(b u^{\prime} b u\right)$, a dual nuclei for "Boogie".

The time difference between the creation of primaries and secondaries is hard to estimate. In some cases, it could have been thousands of years, in others it could be tens of thousands of years. Contrary to traditional wisdom, thousands of years may lapse before the need arises to produce another root. What can be suggested is that the advent of the agrarian era enabled early societies to settle down after tens of thousands of years of foraging and moving from one location to another.

A record of the advent of the agrarian era appears to be contained in the cluster $\ddagger h d \leftrightarrows d h$, the result of which is evident in the prefixed specifier $n d h$ "plentiful, expansion, protruding belly". Though the creation of some bilateral roots may have continued during the early agrarian era (for example ' $m \leftrightarrows m$ '), the presence of a
relatively large number of specifier extensions related to agriculture and trade may have been spurred by new times of plenty.

### 2.4 HUMAN CONSCIOUSNESS

There is sufficient etymological evidence to suggest that the development of language may have been a prime cause for the development of human consciousness. This will be one of the topics treated in the third and last part of the Book of Origins. The other is the origin of religion, a subject treated in several clusters. The origin of "Semitic" languages may be the greatest linguistic secret, while researching the origin of religion may unveil the true etymologically supported origin of spirituality and the oldest creeds of man.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

## (Arabic)

## مراجـع بـالـعربيت

ابن اسحاق، محمد (ت. 101 هـ)، السيرة النبوية، حققه: أمحد المزيدي، دار الكتب العلمية (بيروت ع ع . . 1 ).

 . (Y...
ابن عبد ربه الأندلسي، أممد بن محمد، العقد النريد، تحقيق مفيد محمد قميحة، دار الكتب العلمية، (بيروت . (191ヶ
أبو منصور محمد بن أحمد الأزهري، تهنيب اللغة، حققه عبد اللهاملام محمد هارون، وراجعه محمد علي النجار، دار القومية العربية للطباعة، (القاهرة £ 197 1) .


الجاحظ، أبو عثمان بن عمرو بن بحر، البيان والتبين، تحقيق وشرح عبد السلام محمد هارون، مكتبة الخانجي،

الجاحظ، أبو عثملن بن عمرو بن بحر، كتاب الحيوان، تحقيق وشرح عبد السلام عمد هارون، الطبعة الثانية
الداني، أبو عمرو، المحكم في نقط القرآن، حققه الدكتور عزة حسن، دار الفكر المعاصر، بيروت - لبنان، دار

سيبويه، الكتاب، تحقيق عبد السلام عممد هارون، الطبعة Y، مكتبة الخانجي بالقاهرة، دار الرفاعي بالرياض، ( 19 人 )
الفراهيدي، الخليل بن أحمد، كتاب العين، ترتيب وتحقيق الدكتور عبد الحميد هنداوي (ع أجزاء)، دار الكتب


 المقدسي المعروف بالبشاري، شمس الدين أبي عبد الله عمدل بن أحمد بن أبي بكر البناء الشامي، أحسن التقاسيم

 ابن منظور، لسان العرب، دار المعارف (القاهرة).



الإتقان في علوم القر آن، السيوطي.
آثّار البلاد وأخبار العباد، القزويني.
المعارف، ابن قتيبة الدينوري.

الأخبار الطوال، أبو حنيفة الدينوري.
الأغاني، أبو الفرج الأصبهاني.
أساس البلاغة، الز خخشري.
الطبقات الكبرى، ابن سعد.
الكامل في اللغة والادب، المبرد المبرد
الكامل في التاريخ، ابن الأثير المؤرخ. الكشاف، الزخشري. الارين الان
الإكال، ابن ماكولا.
المنظم، ابن الجوزير
المواعظ والاعتبار بذكر الخطط والآثار، المقريزي.
تاريخ الرسل والملوك، الطبري.
تفسير القرطبي، القرطبي.
أسرار البلاغة، أبو بكر عبد القاهر ابن عبد الرمتمن الجر الجرجاني.
 خلاصة السير الجامعة لعجائب أخبار الملوك التبابعة، المارين نشوان الحميري. الأمثال، أبو عبيد القاسم بن سلام مر الـا زهر الأكم في الأمثال و الحكم، اليوسي. مقاييس اللغة، ابن فارس. البداية والنهاية، ابن كثير .
نوادر المخطوطات، عبد السلام هارون. إغاثة الأمة بكشف الغمة، المقريزي
 تاريخ البحرية الإسلامية في المغرب والأندلس، السيد عبد العزيز العايز سالم وأحمد غتار العبادي، (دار النهضة العربية، بيروت . (1979
ترتيب الأمالي الخميسية، مييي الدين العبشمي. حياة الحيوان الكبرى، الدميري.
خزانة الأدب، عبد القادر البغدادير اليريا
مرآة الجنان وعبرة اليقظان في معرفة حوادث الزينمان، اليافعي
المستقصى في أمثال العرب، الزيخشري.
معجم قبائل العرب القديمة والحديثة، عمر رضا كا كحالة.
جمهرة أنساب العرب، ابن حزم تاريخ الإسلام، الذهبي. ربيع الأبرار، الزغشري.
صفة جزيرة العرب، الممداني.
نسب قريش، مصعب الزبيري.

نهاية الأرب في معرفة أنساب العرب، القلقشندي. الأمثال، المفضل الضبي.
الأوائل، أبو هلال العسكري. الئري.
نفحة الريحانة ورشحة طلاء ألحانة، المحبي. أخبار الزمان، المسعودي. الأزمنة والأمكنة، المرزوقي رسالة في المناسخات والفرائض، ابن المنا الهائم. الروض الأنف، السهيلي. سير أعلام النبلاء، الذهبي. نزهة المشتاق، الأدريسي. شرح نهج البلاغة، ابن أبي الحديد معجم البلدان، ياقوت الحموي. وفيات الأعيان، ابن خلكان. ختصر تاريخ دمشق، ابن منظور . فصل المناسخات من شرح الكفاية (في علم الميراث)، ابن الهائم. الفصول في علم الفر ائض، ابن المائم. قلائد الجلجان في التعريف بقبائل عرب الز مانين، القلقشندي. الأنساب، الصحاري.
المتتخب في ذكر نسب قبائل العرب، المغيريري.
جمهرة نسب قريش وأخبارها، الزبير بن بكار .
طبقات النسابين، بكر أبو زيد.
عشائر العر اق، عباس العزاويا
العنوان في القراءات السبع، ابن خلف المِئ المرئ.
 معجم ما استعجم، أبو عبيد البكري. القرط على الكامل، ابن سعد الخير . الْيري

كثف الظنون، حاجي خليفة. الاشتقاق، ابن دريد. الحور العين، نشوان الحميريري ختار الصحاح، زين الدين الرازيري. الإنباه على قبائل الرواة، ابن عبد البد البر . الأعلام، الزركلي.
 المحيط في اللغة، الصاحب بالابن بن عباد.
المعاني الكبير، ابن قتيبة الدينوري.
النهاية في غريب المديث والأثر، ابن الأثير المحدث المين جمهرة اللغة، ابن دريد.

فوات الوفيات، ابن شاكر الكتبي.
بجمع الزوائد ومنبع الفوائد، الحافظ الهيثمي.
محاضرات الأدباء، الراغب الأصفها الأيا اليا
سمط النجوم العوالي في أنباء الأوائل والتوالي، العصامي. الإصابة في معرفة الصحابة، ابن حجر العسقلاني.

التدوين في أخبار قزوين، الرافعي.
الصحاح، الجوهري.
القاموس المحيط، الفيروزآبادي.
المخصص، ابن سيده. الوافي بالوفيات، الصفدي.
تاج العروس، مرتضى الزبيدي. تاريخ المدينة المنورة، ابن شبـة المبـي
تبصير المنتبه بتحرير المشتبه، ابن حجر المنر العسقلاني.
خلاصة الأثر في أعيان القرن الحادي عشير المري المار المحبي.

المختصر في أخبار البشر، أبو الفداء.
الاستيعاب في معرفة الأصحاباب، ابن عبد المار البر.
البدء والتاريخ، المطهر بن طاهر المقدسي.
الشعر والشعراء، ابن قتيبة الدينوري.
أنساب الأشراف، البلاذرين اليعري
تاريخ اليعقوبي، اليعقوبي.
ثامر القلوب في المضاف والمنسوب، الثعالثعالبي.
جمهرة الأمثال، أبو هالال العسكري.
المدخل إلى الهندسة في تفسير كتاب أقليدس، أبو القاسم أصبن ألـئ



نقوش ثمودية من السعودية، سلييلن عبد الرحمن الذييب، (الرياض 1999 ( 1 ).
 الهند، البيروني.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

## (English)

Alberuni's India, tr., Edward C. Sachau, London 1914.
Allen, James P., Middle Egyptian: An Introduction to the Language and Culture of Hieroglyphs, Cambridge 1999.
Arbel, Benjamin \& Jacoby, David, Intercultural Contacts in the Medieval Mediterranean, London 1996.

Arnett, William S., The Predynastic Origin of Egyptian Hieroglyphs, Washington 1982.
Aune, David Edward, The Westminster Dictionary of New Testament and Early Christian Literature and Rhetoric, Kentucky 2003.
Baldwin, John, Pre-Historic Nations; or, Inquiries Concerning some of the Great Peoples and Civilizations of Antiquity, New York 1860.
Barton, George A., Semitic and Hamitic Origins, Philadelphia 1934.
Bellamy, J. A., Arabic Verses from the First/Second Century: The Inscription of 'En 'Avdat, Journal of Semitic Studies (1990), Vol. 35, pp. 73-79.
Bellamy, J. A., The New Reading of the Namarah Inscription, Journal of the American Oriental Society (1985), Vol. 105, pp. 31-48.
Bennett, P. R., Comparative Semitic Linguistics, Winona Lake 1998.
Bennett, Patrick R., Comparative Semitic Linguistics: A Manual(Eisenbrauns 1998).
Biella, Joan Copeland, Dictionary of Old South Arabic, Sabaean Dialect, Harvard Semitic Series, no. 25. Chico, CA. Scholars Press 1982.
Bishtawi, Adel S., Origin of the Arabic Numerals: A Natural History of Numbers, Bloomington, IN. AuthorHouse 2011.
Bishtawi, Adel, Martyrdom of the Andalusian Nation, AIRP, Beirut, Amman 2000.
Bishtawi, Adel, Natural Foundations of Arab Civilisation: Origins of Alphabets, Numeration, Numerals, Measurements, Weights, Litigation and Money, AIRP, Beirut, Amman 2010.
Black, Jeremy G., George Andrew, Postgate, Nicholas, A Concise Dictionary of Akkadia, Wiesbaden 2000.
Bloom, Jonathan M., Paper Before Print: The History and Impact of Paper in the Islamic World, Winterthur, Del. 2001.
Breasted, James Henry, A History of Egypt from the Earliest time to the Persian Conquest, 1905, New York 1909 (Reprint: 2003).
Briffault, Robert, The Making of Humanity, London 1919.
Cantineau, J., Grammaire du palmyrénien épigraphique, Le Caire 1935.
Cherry, A., A Basic neo-Assyrian Cuneiform Syllabary, Toronto, 2003.
Chomsky, Noam, Language and Mind, New York 1972.
Chomsky, Noam, Language and Problems of Knowledge, Cambridge 1988.
Cooke, G. A., A textbook of North-Semitic Inscriptions, Oxford 1903.
Crump, Thomas, The anthropology of numbers, Cambridge, 1990.
Davies, Philip, R., In Search of 'Ancient' Israel, UK 2006.
De Villiers, Melius, The Numeral-Words: Their Origin, Meaning, History and Lesson, London 1923.
Diakonoff, I. M., Semito-Afrasian Languages, Moscow 1988.
Dijkstra, Klaas, Life and Loyalty: A Study in the Socio-Religious Culture of Syria and Mesopotamia in the Graeco-Roman Period Based on Epigraphical Evidence, Leiden 1995.
Donald, Hill, R., Islamic Science and Engineering, Edinburgh University Press 1993.
Dussaud, R., "Inscription nabatéo-arabe d'en-Namara," Revue archéologique, 2 (190), pp. 409-421. The research was also published in 1903 in Mission scientifique dans les regions désertiques de la Syrie Moyenne, pp. 314-22, Paris 1903.
Edwards, Ruth, Kadmos the Phoenician, Amsterdam 1979.
Ege, Otto F., The Story of the Alphabet, Baltimore 1921.
Eminent Orientalists, Asian Educational Services, 1992.
Encyclopædia Britannica (1911).

Faulmann, Karl, Das Buch der Schrift, Wien 1880.
Findlay, Ronald \& O'Rourke, Kevin H., Power and Plenty: Trade, War, and the World Economy in the Second Millennium, Princeton University Press 2007.
Foster, Charles, Mahometanism Unveiled, Vol. II, London 1829.
Gardner, Alan Henderson, Egypt of the Pharaohs: an Introduction, Oxford University Press 1964.
Gelb, I. J., Old Akkadian Writing and Grammar (Materials for the Assyrian Dictionary), no. 2. Chicago 1961.
Ghabban, A. I., Naqsh Zuhayr: Aqdam Naqsh Islāmī, Volume I, Arabia 2003.
Gleb, I. J., Glossary of Old Akkadian, Chicago 1957.
Goguet, Antoine-Yves, The Origin of Laws, Arts, and Sciences, and their Progress among the most Ancient Nations, (3 volumes), Edinburgh 1775.
Gray, L. H., Introduction to Semitic Comparative Linguistics, New York 1934.
Grohmann, Adol, From the World of Arabic Papyri, Cairo 1952.
Harris, Z. S., A Grammar of the Phoenician Language, New Haven 1936.
Hetzron, Robert (ed.), The Semitic Languages, London 1997.
Hitti, Philip. History of Syria: Inc/uding Lebanon and Palestine, Volume 1, New York 1957.
Huehnergard, J., A Key to A Grammar of Akkadian, Eisenbrauns 2005.
Krahmalkove, C. R., Phoenician-Punic Dictionary, Leuven 2000.
Krahmalkove, C. R., Phoenician-Punic Grammar, Leiden 2001.
Labat, René, Manuel d'Épigraphie Akkadienne, Paris 1976.
Lipinski, Edward, Semitic Languages: Outlines of a Comparative Grammar, 2nd ed., Leuven 2001.
Livingstone, Alasdair, State Archives of Assyria, Volume III: Court Poetry and Literary Miscellanea, Helsinki University Press 1989.
Lombard, Maurice, The Golden Age of Islam, American Elsevier 1975.
Lord Teignmouth, The Works of Sir William Jones, With a Life of the Author, 1807.
Martha T. Roth, (ed.): The Assyrian Dictionary of the Oriental Institute of the University of Chicago. 21 vols. in 26, Chicago 1956-2010.
Matthews, J. F., The Tax Law of Palmyra: Evidence for Economic History in a City of the Roman East, The Journal of Roman Studies, Vol. 74, 1984.
Mercer, Samuel A.B., Assyrian Grammar with Chrestomathy and Glossary, New York 1961.
Mercer, Samuel A. B., Assyrian Grammar, London 1921.
Meri, Josef, W., Medieval Is/amic Civilization: An Encyclopaedia, Rutledge 2005.
Moscati, Sabatino, An introduction to the comparative grammar of the Semitic languages: phonology and morphology, Wiesbaden 1969.
Müller, Hans-Peter, Ergative Constructions In Early Semitic Languages, Journal of Near Eastern Studies 54: pp. 261-271, 1995.
Rawlinson, Canon George, History of Phoenicia, London 1889.
Richard Caplice, Richard, Introduction to Akkadian, Rome 1988.
Roth, Martha T., (ed.), The Assyrian Dictionary of the Oriental Institute of the University of Chicago, (21 vols. in 26), Oriental Institute of the University of Chicago, Chicago 1956-2010.
Said, Edward, Orientalism, Penguin 2003.
Sonn, Tamara, Islam: A Brief History, Wiley 2011.
Warmington, E. H., The Commerce Between the Roman Empire and India, London 1974.
Wehr, Hans, A Dictionary of Modern Written Arabic, Beirut 1974.
Wheatley, Paul, The Places Where Men Pray Together: Cities in Islamic Lands, University of Chicago Press 2001.
Wickens, G. M., Arabic Grammar: A First Workbook, Cambridge, 1980.
Wickens, G. M., What the West Borrowed from the Middle East, pp. 120-126, in, Introduction to Islamic civilisation, Roger Savory, (ed.), Cambridge 1976.
Woodard, Roger D., The Ancient Languages of Mesopotamia, Egypt and Aksum, Cambridge University Press 2008.
Worthington, Martin, Complete Babylonian: Teach Yourself, London 2010.
Wright, William, Smith, William Robertson, Lectures on the comparative grammar of the Semitic languages, Cambridge University Press 1890.
Yassin, Bu-Ali, Khair Al-Zad min Hikayat Scheherazade, Damascus 1986 (Arabic).
Youssef, Ahmad Abdel-Hamid, Haikal, Fayza, From Pharaoh's Lips: Ancient Egyptian Language in the Arabic of Today, Cairo 2003.

Zarins, Juris, Early Pastoral Nomadism and the Settlement of Lower Mesopotamia, Bulletin of the American Schools of Oriental Research, No. 280. Nov. 1990.

## Websites:

A Bibliography of Semitic Linguistics - General References:
http://www.telefonica.net/web2/aulaorientalis/general_references.html http://www.bishtawi.com/ http://www.arabicnumerals.net/ http://www.thebookoforigins.com

## TABLES

Table 1- Linguistic Clusters: $\ddagger \mathrm{hz} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{zh} ; \ddagger \mathrm{t} \mathrm{z} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{zh} ; \ddagger \mathrm{zn} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{nz} ; \ddagger \mathrm{th} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{hz}$

| Linguistic unitUnit category | ḥzڭzḥ |  | ḩzGzh |  | $\mathrm{zn} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{nz}$ |  | $\mathrm{zh} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{hz}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Original |  | Original |  | Original |  | Original |  |
| Nuclei | *ḥz | *zḥ | *hzz | *zh | *zn | *nz | *zh | *hz |
| Suffixed extensions | ḥza | zḥb | hza | zhูa | zna | nza | zha | hz' |
|  | ḥz' | zḥh | ḩzb | zḩb | zn' | $n z^{\prime}$ | zhb | hzb |
|  | ḥzz | zḥr | hzj | zhh | znb | nzb | zhd | hzj |
|  | ḥzb | zḥ | hzz | zhr | znj | nzj | zhr | hzr |
|  | ḥzd | zḥk | hzz | zhf | znḥ | nzḥ | zht | hzz |
|  | ḥzr | zḥl | blz' | zhbm*mm | znh | $n z r$ | zhf | hz' |
|  | ḥzq | zḥm | hzf | zhnn | $z_{\text {nd }}{ }^{*} n m$ | $n z z$ | zhq | hzf |
|  | ḥzk | zḥn | hbzq |  | znr | $n z^{* * *}$ | zhk | hzq |
|  | ḩzl |  | hzzl |  | znt | $n z g$ gr | zhl | hzl |
|  | ḥzl |  | hbzm |  | znq | nzf | zhm | hzm*zm |
|  | ḥzm**** |  | hzz**n |  | znk | nzq |  | hzn*z |
|  | ḥzn |  |  |  | znm | nzk |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  | znn | $n z 1$ |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  | nzh |  |  |  |
| Prefixed extensions | Iḥz | 'zḥ | bḩz, whzz | rzh? | 'zn | ḥzn | mzh | $n h z$ |
| Dual nuclei | ḥzḥz | zḥzḥ | hbzḩz | zḩzh | - | - | zhzh | hzhz |
| Nucleitic compounds | ḥzbl | zḥzb | hzzbr | zhrı | znbr | - | zhdb | hzbr |
|  | + 6 | + 7 | + 10 | + 3 | + 10 |  | + 11 | + 11 |

* Indicates the trilateral is a prefixed extension of the superscripted root.
** Remaining nucleitic compounds extant in dictionaries but not listed in this table for space.
Please note that short vowels are not added to radicals. This should not represent an important problem since the first letter of most roots is vowelised by a short "a" and the second is silent. Meanings can be looked up in any standard dictionary.

Table 2- Lingusitic Clusters: $\ddagger \mathrm{zm} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{mz} ; \ddagger \mathrm{kn} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{nk} ; \ddagger \mathrm{bz} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{zb} ; \ddagger \mathrm{rṣ} \mathrm{\leftrightarrows ṣ}$

| Linguistic unit | $\mathrm{zm} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{mz}$ |  | $\mathrm{kn} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{nk}$ |  | bzG zb |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Unit category | Original |  | Original |  | Original |  | Original |  |
| Nuclei | *zm | *mz | *kn | *nk | *bz | *zb | *rs | *ṣr |
| Suffixed extensions | zmt | mza | knb | $n{ }^{\prime}$ | bza | zbj? | rṣa | ṣrb |
|  | zmj | mzj | knd | nkb | bzj? | zbd | rṣ̣? | ṣṛ |
|  | zmh | mjh | knr | nkt | bzh | zbr |  | ṣrb |
|  | zmb | mzd | knz | nkh | $b z r^{*}$ zr | zb ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | rṣd ${ }^{*}$ sd | s srd |
|  | zmr | $m z r$ | kns | nkh | bz ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | zbq | rṣ | srrt |
|  | $\mathrm{zm}^{*}{ }^{\text {c }}$ | $m z^{* *} z^{\text {d }}$ | knṣ | nkd | bzg | zbl | rs g ? | ṣr ${ }^{* * *}$ |
|  | zmq: zbq | $m z \dot{g}^{* z \dot{g}}$ | kn | nkr | bzq | $z b n$ | rṣf | ṣff |
|  | zmk | $m z q$ | knṣ | nkz |  |  | $r$ rspa ${ }^{12 q}$ | s ${ }_{\text {spq}}$ |
|  | zml | mzn | knš | nks | bzm ${ }^{*}$ zm |  | rṣm ${ }^{*}$ sm | ṣrm ${ }^{\text {srm }}$ |
|  | zmn*mn | mzh: mzh | kn'? | nkš | $b z n^{* z m}$ |  | rṣn | şry |
|  |  |  | knf | nks |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  | knm | nk ${ }^{\text {c }}$ |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  | knh |  |  |  |  |  |
| Prefixed extensions | 'zm | jmz? | skn, mkn | ḥnk | hbbz | 'zb, qzb, <br> $\left.n z b^{* n z}\right\|^{* z b}$ | krṣ, trṣ, hrs | ḩ̣̣, ḩsr |
| Dual nuclei | zmzm | mzmz | knkn | nknk | Bzbz | zbzb | rṣrṣ: rsrs | șrṣr |
| Nucleitic compounds | zmjr | - | knbl | - | bzmb | zbrj | - | ṣrdḥ |
| (sample) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

The primary ${ }^{*} z m$ is popular in Akkadian with many lexical and grammatical extensions including: zamār taknê: a hymn of blandishment; zamar: quickly, hurriedly, immediately; zamar: quickly, soon, shortly; zamarānu: suddenly; zamarānu: suddenly, all of a sudden; zamariš: quickly; zamāru (1): (literary): a song, a poem, an epic, an ode , music (stringed or vocal); zamāru (2): G. to sing Gtn. to sing repeatedly ; to play an instrument repeatedly $D$. to sing about sth. / s.o. Š. to make sing, to teach to sing.
Extensions of the secondary *mz appears to include: (1) mazā ' u: G: to squeeze, to press, to compress, to press. The meaning links nicely to the meaning range of "zm "constrict, surround, press". (2): mazāqu: G. to suck D. to suck out Š. to make suck [akin to Arabic. mazāq "taste" which could apply to different types of food and drink"]. (3) mazra'tu+: manor [a prefixed extension of *zr "seeds"]. (4) mazrūtu: basket; cultivation [a prefixed extension of "zr "seeds"]. (5) mazû: pressed; n. f. mazītu: cheap beer. (6) mazzassu, mazzāzu: a stand.

Note: A linguistic unit comprised of words of very different meanings like zamar "play the flute", mazāq "taste", mazû "press" and mazītu "cheap beer" may appear confused but it must be remembered that linguistic units and linguistic clusters are not concerned with what people use its words to denote but with the meaning range of the unit and cluster. Usually, the range consists of two main but related parts, one for each root. *Zm's range is "to press, constrict, surround". Zammarah "flute" is named so because the player presses his lips around the tip. 'Zmah "crisis" is named so because it constricts the person in crisis. ${ }^{*}$ Mz's original meaning range appears to be linked to making different types of wine (and beer in Akkadia); hence mzj "to mix" and mzz "bitter sweet". The fact that drinkers drink, or suck, from different containers enjoins the general meaning range of the unit. Also, please note that many primaries do not appear to have secondaries in Akkadian. It is possible that available attested texts do not include such secondaries. It is also possible that the early speakers of Akkadian did not find it necessary to reverse primaries and produce secondaries as lexical extensions were found adequate for their communicative needs. There is also suspicion that Akkadian linguists were not aware of the original building blocks of their language.

Table 3 - Linguistic Clusters: $\ddagger \mathrm{pg} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{gp} \rightarrow \ddagger \mathrm{bj} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{jb}, \ddagger \mathrm{fj} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{jf}, \ddagger \mathrm{fk} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{kf}, \ddagger \mathrm{fq} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{qf}$

| Linguistic unit | bj¢ $\ddagger \mathrm{jb}$ |  | $\mathrm{fl}_{\mathrm{j}=\mathrm{j}}$ |  | ${ }_{\text {fk }}$ ¢kf |  | $\mathrm{fq} \ddagger \mathrm{qf}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Unit category | $b g \leftrightarrows g b$ migration |  | $b g \leftrightarrows g b$ migration |  | $b g \leftrightarrows g b$ migration |  | $b g \leftrightarrows g b$ migration |  |
| Nuclei* | ${ }^{\text {jff }}$ | *jb | *kf | *qf | *fj | *bj | *fk | *fq |
| Suffixed extensions | jfa | jby | kfy | qfa | fja | bja | - | fqa |
|  | jf' | jb' | kf | qf' | fj' | - | - | fq' |
|  | jff | jbb | kff | qff | fjj | bjj | fkk | fqq |
|  | jft | jbt | - | - | - | bjh |  | fqh |
|  | jfh | jbj | - | - | - | bjd | - | fqh |
|  | - | jbh | kft | - | fir | bjr | fkr | fqd |
|  | - | jbh | kf̣ | qfh | fiz | - | - | fqr |
|  | jfr | jbr | kfb | qfb | fis | bjs | - | fqs |
|  | jfz | jbz | - | qfd | fis | - | fk' | fqs |
|  | jfs | jbs | kfr | qfr | $\mathrm{fj}^{\text {j }}$ | - | fkl | fq' |
|  | jfš | jbš |  | qfz | $\mathrm{fjl}^{\text {l }}$ |  | - | fql |
|  | jf ${ }^{\text {f }}$ | jb ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | kfs | qfs | fjm | bjm | fkn | fqm |
|  | jfl | jbl | - | qfš | fjn |  | fkh | - |
|  | jfn | jbn | - | qfs |  |  |  | fqh |
|  | - | jbh | - |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  | kfl | qf' |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  | kfn | qfl |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  | kfh | qfn |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | - |  |  |  |  |
| Dual nuclei | jfjf | jbjb | kfkf | qfaf | fijj | ${ }^{\text {bjbj }}$ | fkfk | fqfa |

[^17]


* Nuclei of migrated units are arranged in this table to assist in comparing original clusters with old migration and compatibles.

Examples of duplication taken from Lisan A/-Arab:
1- 'sm"dry bread"; ‘šm "dry bread".
2- g'šn"water polluted by animal droppings" also cited as "šn.
3- g'sk is a variation of 'sq"evening darkness".
4- ǵsm, ğs m"dark".
The compatibility issue appears to be related to the textual $\dot{g} s q, \dot{g} s ̌ n, s \dot{g} b, \dot{g} s l$, šg$\dot{g} f$ and $\check{s} \dot{g} /$ produced, it seems, by faulty dotting or undotting.

Comment
$\ddagger$ š‘‘‘š has a clear meaning range, the core of which is bird nests. Several extensions are derived directly from what primitive man observed while watching birds. From ‘s "nest", we have the suffixed extension š̌b "grass" reflecting materials used for nest building. Meanings of 'šr include "ten, clan, association", all related to the number of birds in nests and their interrelationship. *s , the secondary, is not simply a word but a concept of "dispersal", derived from the uneven construction of nests. It can apply to the dispersal of the Sun's rays as well as to the dispersal of people in all directions. Its extension šr "hair" is a clear resemblance of grass and twigs used for building nests. š sur "feeling" appears to be derived from the sensation felt when, for example, an insect crawls over hair, and ‘šq "attachment, love" was borrowed from the care of birds for each other. 'š and 's'š ('š'ūš) is slang for "cunt" in Arabic and Maltese, due to the relative similarity in the appearance of navels and nests. The prefixed extension of $\check{s}^{\prime}$ is $b s^{\prime}$ "ugly". Curiously, this concept was derived originally from the unusual untidiness of hair, but it later applied to all types of ugliness.

The meanings of s', a migration from š', include "set out, seek out" which involves a certain disbursement. From it, we have s'adah "happiness", indicating that foraging for food, water and other things was considered a source of happiness.

Akkadian: *'š $\rightarrow$ 's: esertu "concubine"; esēru "to confine, to surround (figuratively like in a nest).
š': šēlebu "fox" (because it can seek out), Modern Arabic, $\underline{t}^{t} l i b$, is a nucleitic compound, lit. Ib (lib/lub) "clever", s ' "seeker". Note that when š/s is replaced in Modern Arabic with $\underline{\underline{t}}$ the building of the linguistic nucleus changes. This can apply to all extensions and may seriously destabilise both the linguistic unit and the cluster.

## Linguistic Cluster *'h $\ddagger$ 'h’

'h"'water, water hole", $h^{\prime}$ "grove, a circular area"


|  | Suffixed Extensions |
| :---: | :---: |
| 'ḥd*hd | أحد: من الثنائي حد |
| wḥd ${ }^{*}{ }^{\text {hd }}$ | وحا: من الثنائي حا |
| wḥr | وحر: : بحالاة تكون في الصحاري |
| wḥš |  |
| wḥf | وحف: الكُشب الكثير |
| wḥl | وحل : الطين الرقيق |
| wḥm*̣m | وحبم: من الثنائي |
| wḥn | وحن: الطين المزلق |
| wḥy | وحي: إعلام في خفاء |
| w' ḥ (wāḥa) "oasis" | واحة: هستو طنة خصيبة في الصدحراء |


| Suffixed Extensions |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| حا | hal |
|  | hwa |
| حوب: | hawb |
| حوت |  |
| حوح: حوح: حؤْ | hawt |
| ح | hawaj ${ }^{\text {hj }}$ |
| حود. | ḥawd |
|  | ḥawz |
| حوز: حكّ | haws |
| حوس: | hawš |
| (1) | hawd |
|  | hawa |
| حرو | ḥawṭ |
|  | ḥrf'tr |
|  | ḥawq |
| حول | ḥawl |
|  | ḥawm |
| حبا: انحاهة. | ḥawn |
|  | ḥya |
|  | ḥyd |
|  | ḥyq |
|  | ḥyn |




Akkadian: huppu "a pit, a snake-hole"


$z m$ "tighten, strapped", $m z$ "bitter sweet"


Akkadian:
mazāqu: to suck, to suck out.
mazā $u$ : G. to press out, crush D. to rape (a woman) $\mathbf{N}$. to be pressed out. maziu : a metal vessel, a soup-pot.
mazû: pressed.
mazītu: cheap beer.
zamār taknê: a hymn of blandishment. zamar. quickly, hurriedly, immediately. zamarānu: suddenly, all of a sudden. zamāru. a song, a poem, an epic, an ode, music (stringed or vocal), to sing repeatedly; to play an instrument repeatedly.
zambūru: thyme? (Another word for thyume is hašānu).
zāmiru. nightingale.
zammeru: singer, musician.
zammukku, zammukú̇: New Year.
zamû: outer corner, corner pillar, angle.

$n k$ "have sex", kn"snuggle, quiet"
Linguistic Cluster $\% \mathrm{kn} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{nk}$

$b z$ "emerge, seep out", zb"penis, flow"
Linguistic Cluster $\% \mathrm{zb} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{bz}$




$b h$ "divulge, plenty", $h b$ "fall in love, seeds, a fruit"





The state or theme of the linguistic cluster $\ddagger j \leftrightarrows j$ is famine and hunger, its causes and the general impact of this recurring plight. It is clear from the meanings of the primary ' $j$ that drought was the main cause of famines the advent of which coincided with dust storms. A number of other linguistic clusters concerned with famine confirm that most famines occurred in winter. The background image is of southern Arabia and Egypt during a dust storm.


## The integration of linguistic clusters



Primaries and secondaries of linguistic nuclei can be treated as separate units and both types can be roots for various extensions. The linguistic nucleus ṣh "correct" is considered a secondary because it is a human concept.

## The integration of linguistic clusters



Primaries and secondaries of linguistic nuclei can be treated as separate units and both types can be roots for various extensions. The linguistic nucleus $h s$ "pebbles" is considered a primary because it is a natural element found in the environment.

## The integration of linguistic clusters



Primaries and secondaries of linguistic nuclei can be treated as separate units and both types can be roots for various extensions.
However, both primaries and secondaries are connected since a secondary is produced by reversing the primary root to be used as a new linguistic container for new meanings and extensions.

## The integration of linguistic clusters

$\ddagger h \stackrel{̣}{\ddagger} \leftrightarrows s ̣ h$


Primaries and secondaries of linguistic nuclei can be treated as separate units and both types can be roots for various extensions.
However, both primaries and secondaries are connected in a linguistic unit since a secondary is produced by reversing the primary root and used by speakers as a new linguistic container for new meanings and extensions.
Moreover, identifying a linguistic unit is essential for identifying a linguistic cluster and the state or theme represented by the cluster, such as sex, famine, calculation, building or many other themes.

## SMALL WORDS AND SMALL NUMBERS

The first volume of the Book of Origins Origin of the Arabic Numerals - A natural history of numbers confirmed the ancient origin of the numerals we use today. Further research established a clear link between small numbers and small words and the ancient origin of the words expressing number values.

Below is what can be considered the most important chart in the history of Eastern Numerals:

## THE FAMILY OF THE EASTERN ARABIC NUMERALS:



The Eastern Arabic numerals are hand and finger formations of the right hand, and remained so until the cipher was invented hundreds of thousands years later. To express the number ten and higher in the cipher system the hands and fingers of both hands were used.

Like the literary script, the numeral script of the Eastern Arabic numerals is right to left. When users of the Eastern numerals write down their numbers, they actually draw the hand and the finger formation of the specific number. It is like tracing the physical formations which appear to have remained largely unchanged since they were invented. .


## THE FAMILY OF THE WESTERN ARABIC NUMERALS

The Roman numeral system was adequate for the limited needs of Europeans. However, with increased trade and wealth, an increasing number of Europeans needed a better numeration system that can be used to calculate complex loans and interest. Likewise, the increased demand for navigation instruments for ships sailing to the New World made the smaller Arabic mumbers more suited than Roman numerals.

Europeans used a left to right writing system, and Arabic numerals had to be adapted to suit the literary system..

Recent research uncovered Andalusian documents with both Eastern and Western numerals. Here is a sample from a $12^{\text {th }}$ century Andalusian manuscript, with both Eastern and Western numerals lined right to left:


Three of the Western numerals are reproductions of their Eastern parents:.


Three more are produced by tilting the formations left:

Western Numerals
Action
Eastern Numerals


The seventh numeral was produced by reversing the shape upwards:


Numeral 8 is derived from two formations of numeral 5 :


Numerals 4 and 5 are "corruption" of the original Eastern numerals due, largely, to different reproductions in different manuscripts. Their history can be traced by examining the various available manuscripts:
v \& \& s \& 4
054535

Here is what can be considered the most important chart in the history of Western Arabic Numberals:



[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Lipinski, Edward, Semitic Languages: Outlines of a Comparative Grammar, 2nd ed., Leuven 2001, p. 21.

    2 "The Phoenician people are generally admitted to have belonged to the group of nations known as Semitic. This group, somewhat irrelevantly named, since the descent of several of them from Shem is purely problematic, comprises the Assyrians, the later Babylonians, the Aramæans or Syrians, the Arabians, the Moabites, the Phoenicians, and the Hebrews. A single and very marked type of language belongs to the entire group, and a character of homogeneity may, with certain distinctions, be observed among all the various members composing it. The unity of language is threefold: it may be traced in the roots, in the inflections, and in the general features of the syntax. The roots are, as a rule, bilateral or trilateral, composed (that is) of two or three letters, all of which are consonants. The consonants determine the general sense of the words, and are alone expressed in the primitive writing; the vowel sounds do but modify more or less the general sense, and are unexpressed until the languages begin to fall into decay. The roots are, almost all of them, more or less physical and sensuous. They are derived in general from an imitation of nature." Rawlinson, George, History of Phoenicia, London 1889, pp. 49-50. (Here).

[^1]:    ${ }^{3}$ http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Semitic_languages (Accessed: 24.09.2013).

[^2]:    ${ }^{4}$ Bishtawi, Adel S., Origin of the Arabic Numerals: A Natural History of Numbers, Bloomington, IN: AuthorHouse 2011. Chapters related to the origin of Arabic numerals were incorporated in Part 1 of the Book of Origins in Arabic: The Natural Foundations of Arab Civilisation: The origins of alphabets, numerals, measuresments, weights, litigation and currency, launched in London in 2010.

[^3]:    ${ }^{5}$ Says Ibn Khaldoun, "This nation is the oldest..., mightiest and most powerful of all on Earth, as well the nation that left us a great legacy. We have been told that they were the first Arab generation... They had kings and kingdoms. They controlled the Arabian Peninsula... and their dominance stretched to Sham (Iraq, Syria, Lebanon and Palestine) and Egypt... They include the nation of'Ad, Thamūd and Tassm" ( The Introduction, pp. 18-19).

[^4]:    ${ }^{6}$ Akkadian: qatû (1): (work, object, education) finished, ended, completed; qatû (2): 1) to come to an end , to finish (time, travel, life...), to be finished / completed (work, building...); 2) to be exhausted (person, resource), to run out (resource, drink...), to (almost) die / to be finished; 3): (stative): to be totally devoted to the king; qatû B : to end, to finish; (D) to bring to an end, to destroy; qatû. G. to be ended $D$. to bring to an end; to do in full; qātu. hand; paw; handle.
    ( http.//www.premiumwanadoo.com/cuneiform.languages/dictionary/index_en.php).
    ${ }^{7}$ For example, extensions of ' $h \leftrightarrows h h^{\prime}$ include 'hn, whn, why, diah, jawh, etc. Lexical and grammatical extensions of a unit like ' $r \leftrightarrows r$ 'are unusually difficult to group. $R$ ' "to see" produces odd constructions such as mr'äh "mirror", maraya "mirrors", tra'a" "transpire, appear", ro'ya "vision". The inclusive nature of ancient linguistic nuclei presents etymologists with challenges almost every step of the way. Mr' (originally $m^{\prime}$ ') "man, woman, boy, girl, son, daughter" is a prefixed extension of ' $r$ "sex, vagina, penis, bottom, etc." The reason for this inclusiveness is simple - they are all connected to sex or private parts. The fact that no plural exists for the singular $m r^{\prime}$ can be explained by the difficulty to pronounce such a plural if its construction is at all possible. " $R$ (yr) "penis" (Eros, erotica?)

[^5]:    is easier to group: 'yür. The claim that mar is Sumerian for "son" should be reviewed. Originally, Sumerian was an east African language spoken by the Sum, a creative and distinguished race, and one of five races who appear to have settled in Arabia or were known to the other races at the time. Toponymical evidence of the Sum exists in Somalia, a nucleitic compound: Sum, mal "fill, many, nation, creed [milla]"; Axum which appears to be another nucleitic compound 'k "hill", "Sum"; Sumharam, an ancient port in today's Sultanate of Oman where the Sum appear to have lived before all or some of them migrated to Southern Iraq and Najd. Two main tribes settled in Najd, Jadees (a prefixed extension of Jadd, a Yemeni tribe), and TTassam, a prefixed extension of Sum. Several words in Modern Arabic appear to relate to the Sum noting their creativity and love of merriment: mismar "nail", sumr "dark skin", Samar "merriment, especially at night" and samroot "tall". Two words stand unique and both are prefixed extensions, 'sm "name" and rsm "drawing or imprint". Many of the words claimed to be Sumerian have linguistic nuclei. Possible examples include, Alla Xul "evil God" $\rightarrow$ "Allah (*il) gūl (g'l) [monster]"; kasadu "arrive" $\rightarrow$ qaṣd (ṣd); sikaru "beer", Ar. sakar "intoxicated" (kr [originally gr] $\rightarrow$ takrir "repeat, distil"; nasaku "bite" (should be našk, from šk "thorn, to pierce"; salmu "black" $\rightarrow$ Akkadian šillu (šl), šulülu "shade, shadow". Like many other biblical names, /shmael appears to be a nucleitic compound, sum, I/ "senior, high". In this sense, s̈m (Shem) is a corruption.
    ${ }^{8}$ Akkadian: 'r. aritu: a pregnant woman; arû: to be pregnant, to conceive; arûtu: conception / being pregnant; eritu: a pregnant woman (or female animal); ir'emum: loved one, beloved, dear, darling; narāmu: 1) love, beloved (of a deity); 2) (personal name); 3) (deity) who loves; 4) love of / for: 5) (adverb). ${ }^{*}$ ? ra īmu: loved, beloved, loved one; rā imu: in love; noun: a lover, a well-wisher; ra intu: beloved, loved one, darling, dear (to the heart), sweetheart, honey (darling); rā imu: loving, in love, fond, amorous; a lover, an enthusiast (?), a well-wisher. [Comment: It appears that extend-

[^6]:    ers of both ${ }^{*} r$ and ${ }^{*} r$ ' are within the context of love, but reviewing other extensions of ${ }^{*} r$ ' may give the impression that it is the type of love a mother has for her child. R'm in Modern Arabic is "to feel for, feed". This is supported by another extension r'f "to take pity on, feel mercy for". The meaning range of ' $r \leftrightarrows r$ ' begins with sex but extends to the family and caring for children.
    ${ }^{9}$ A: Gerru (1), kerru: 1) way, road, path, thoroughfare, 2) caravan, 3) military campaign, march, 4) (religious) procession; gerru (2): lion cub, young of the lion, puppy; gerru mașṣartu: patrol; gerru šarri: royal road, royal way of life. B: kerrētu: marching song (?); kerru (1), karru, kāru: male sheep.

[^7]:    Semanticists attempting to identify the chain linking all these words and many others should take into consideration the original meaning of $g r$ "drag along, pull", its suffixed extension gra "run", and its prefixed extension 'gr "fee, till, plough". The common denominator for "way, path, caravan, military campaign, march, puppy, royal road, thoroughfare, procession, etc.," is that they all run or run along, whether physically or metaphorically. Prefixed extensions are usually distinguished by a number of qualities. To understand why 'gr is named so, the environment or era of its birth should be considered, in this case the advent of the agrarian era. Straight lines dug to plant oats or wheat can resemble little roads. A man employed to do this type of work is an 'kkar "ploughman" who is paid a fee ('jr $\rightarrow$ 'jra $\rightarrow$ 'gra). The plot in which he works is a 'kr "acre". Farming at one time was the largest source of employment, so much so that their profession came to denote all professions, hence kar "profession" in Damascene dialect.

[^8]:    10 Determining the original meaning of certain Nucleitic compounds can be enhanced by researching the target meaning. In this case hr means to "fall, drop" whereas $n b$ is "plant" (nabat). When ripe and hardened, the pods fall under the trees in large numbers, hence this simple and natural description of the sweet and nutritious fruit. The claim that "carat" is derived from carob appears to be incorrect. It is from $q r$, originally "to settle" but extended to mean a plot of land.

[^9]:    [rihûtu šabî̂]: semen of pig; [rihût $X$ ]: progeny of $X$, the offspring of $X$, the lineage of $X$, the descendants of $X$, the posterity of $X$; [rihût Šakan]: progeny of Šakan ( $=$ wild beasts); [rib̧ût Šulpaea]: progeny of Šulpaea (= epilepsy, an epileptic).
    ${ }^{12}$ Examples: Qmh "wheat", from *qm "eat"; saqa "irrigate", from *sq, flh "till", from *fl (originally *pl "to exclude" but should not be confused with *bl "wet"); ḥ̣d "harvest", from *scd, drs "flail", from *dr, $h b z$ "to bake bread", from *bz "rise, protrude".

[^10]:    ${ }^{13}$ A nucleitic compound: $g m$ "many, a great deal", $m /$ "fill, full", i.e., "the thing that can be filled with a great deal". Akkadian gammalu "a camel , a dromedary".
    ${ }^{14}$ A number of Arab writers have complained of severe "swamping" in many religious, historic and literary classical works, a phenomenon involving exhaustive verbosity and extensive duplication. A limited number of citations involving both classical poetry and prose appear to have been forgeries. The cases in which certain lexicographers accuse fellow lexicographers of confusing words and meanings are in the hundreds. However, some commentators have suggested that artificial production of hundreds of vague entries may have been prompted by the attempt to conceal the true origins of the language or cover mistakes due to faulty diacritical implementation especially in Kufa, Iraq.

[^11]:    ${ }^{15}$ The Mahriah (Mehri/Amhari) of Yemen is traditionally claimed to be the original tongue of the people of 'Ad. It is described as one of the six Modern South Arabian unwritten languages, and related to the southern branch of the western Semitic family. See: Alfadly, Hassan Obeird, Abdulla, The Morphology of Mehri Qishn Dialect in Yemen, Universiti Sains Malaysia, 2007. (Here).

[^12]:    ${ }^{16}$ Whereas Arabic has special names for 'm "uncle", hā/"maternal uncle", jaddah "grandmother", etc., Akkadian speakers resorted to compounds such as ah abi "uncle, father's brother", ah ummi "maternal uncle, mother's brother", ah-abi "a paternal uncle", ab abi "grandfather" umm ummi "grandmother", etc.

[^13]:    ${ }^{17}$ Examples: mtt: Arabic msl, Akkadian mišit, tnein: Akkadian šinā (originally with "s" from sin "tooth"), Arabic tinnien "dragon" (for its presumed two heads); dkr: Akkadian zakāru, 'hd. Arabic 'hz, Akkadian ahā̄zu; 'rọ "earth", Akkadian erșutu, z̧fr "nail, claw", Arabic ṣfr, Akkadian ṣupru, ẓl"shade", Akkadian șillu, etc. (Hundreds of other examples are provided in the Origin of"Semitic" Languages).

[^14]:    ${ }^{18}$ Both $z q z q$ and sawsaw mean "chirp". The presence of a number of duplicate linguistic clusters appears to confirm the dual origination of théAriba. Other examples include $\ddagger$ 'r $\leftrightarrows r^{\prime}$ and $\ddagger \mathrm{kn} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{nk}$ (both are concerned with sex, man/woman relationship and the fantily); hes $\leftrightarrows s ̣$ and $\ddagger \mathrm{d}^{\prime} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{d}$ (arithmetic); $\ddagger^{\prime}|\leftrightarrows|^{\prime} \leftrightarrows$ (God). In Akkadian șītu "utterance", words from the mouth"appears to be a suffixed extension of *saw. Suffixed extensions of *zq are several including: zaqānu, zaqāru, zaqātu and zaqnu. Both *'I (ilu, illilūtu) and *I (elīu, elû) are used and so is *'r (erṣetu, erṣutu, urkat, warka, arḩu) and *nk (naiāktu, nakādu, niāku).

[^15]:    19 *Dn is used in two well known nucleitic compounds: 'rdn "Jordan", literary "the near or low land", in reference to the Jordan Valley; Dn'/ "Daniel", literary "the one who approaches or is close to God". Another famous nucleitic compound is Satan. Only the Arabic version of the name šayṭn reveals its origin. Literary it means "the thing (šay) that rings ( $t n$ ) in the ear", in an attempt to explain the origin of "evil" thoughts or actions. Nucleitic compounds appear older than suffixed extensions, and it is possible that some like gammal (jammal) "camel" are more than 5,000 old.
    ${ }^{20}$ See the BBC's part II of Wild Arabia.
    ${ }^{21}$ Probably a nucleitic compound: $h d, m t \rightarrow h d r, m t$ "the extended slope".

[^16]:    ${ }^{22}$ Akkadian: rabbûtur: greatnsess, grandeur (of a god); rabûtu: greatness, grandeur, majesty, in addition to many other entries. Talmïdr. school boy, pupil, student, disciple. This is, probably, the origin of Talmud which appears to be a nucleitic compounds " $t / m d$ ": * $m d$ "extended, lengthened"; *t/ "to follow one prayer with another or one (religious) study with another" (TII, Lisan Al-Arab). Torah appears to be a "t" lexical extension of warra ('r'a) "to show, to explain, to point out". The root is $r$ ' "see" with the known prefixed extension 'ra ( r ') "I see" and $q r^{\prime}$ "read". In dialect, warrini (Damascene warinin) is "show me, explain to me". Nowrni "enlighten me" has a similar meaning but its nucleus is *$n r \rightarrow$ nar"fire" and noor "light". In both cases the origin of light is fire.

[^17]:    * Nuclei of migrated units are arranged in this table to assist in comparing primaries with primaries and secondaries with secondaries for systematicity of migration.
    Akkadian: pagru: 1) (human) body, self / person; 2) (human) corpse, (animal) carcass. (2) gapāru: G. to be superior D. to overcome Dt. to contend; gapnu, gupnu; (*iṣ): tree.
    The meaning range of this cluster is drought and some of its effects (poverty "fāgah", death, etc.,) as well as digging water holes for human consumption and irrigation, hence the numerous towns in many Arab countries named $K f r+$ or $K f a r+$ from the water holes dug thousands of years ago.

