# 2. Letters and Sounds

# 2.1. Alphabet

2.1.1. The next table shows the relationship between the letters of the Greek alphabet and its derivatives, the Latin alphabet and the (newer) Cyrillic alphabet.

GREEK	LATIN	CYRILLIC
A α Alpha	Аа	Аа
B β Beta	Вb	Бб, Вв
Γγ Gamma	C c, G g	Гг
Δδ Delta	D d	Дд
Eε Epsilon	Еe	Е е, Ё ё, Э э
Z ζ Zeta	Zz	Жж, Зз
Ηη (H)Eta	H h	Ии, Йй
Θ θ Theta		
I ı lota	li, Jj	
Кк Карра	Kk	Кк
Λλ Lambda	LI	
MμMu	M m	Мм
N v Nu	N n	Нн
Ξ ξ Xi		
O o Omicron	0 0	0 0
ПπРі		Пп
PρRho	Pp, Rr	Рр
Σσς Sigma	Ss	Сс
Тт Tau	Τt	Тт
Y u Upsilon	U u, Y y, W w	Уу
Φφ Phi		Фф
X χ Chi	Хх	Хх
Ψψ Psi		
Ωω Omega		
<i>F</i> Digamma	Ff	
Q Qoppa	Qq	

2.1.2. The Europaio Alphabet is similar to the English (which is in fact borrowed from the late Latin *abecedarium*), except that the **C** has a very different sound, similar to that of **G**. We also consider some digraphs part of the alphabet, as they represent original Europaio sounds, in contrast to those digraphs used mainly for transcriptions of loan words.

NOTE 1. The Latin alphabet was borrowed in very early times from a Greek alphabet and did not at first contain the letter **G**. The letters **Y** and **Z** were introduced still later, about 50 BC

NOTE 2. The Europaio names of the consonants are as follows - B, be (pronounced *bay*); Bh, bhe; C, ca (*Ga*); Ch, cha (*Gha*); D, de (*day*); Dh, dhe (*dhay*); F, ef; G, ge (*gay*); Gh, ghe (*ghay*); H, ha; K, ka; L, el; M, em; N, en; P, pe; Q, qu; R, er; S, es; T, te; V, ve; W, wa; X, xa (cha); Z, zet

2.1.3. The Latin character **C** originally meant **G** (probably due to Etruscan influence), a value always retained in the abbreviations *C*. (for *Gaius*) and *Cn*. (for *Gnaeus*).

NOTE. In early Latin **C** came also to be used for **K**, and K disappeared except before in a few words, as *Kal*. (Kalendae), *Karthago*. Thus there was no distinction in writing between the sounds [g] and [k]. This defect was later remedied by forming (from C) the new character **G**. **Y** and **Z** were introduced from the Greek about 50 B.C., and occur only in loan words in Europaio.

2.1.4. The Latin [w] sound developed into Romance [v]; therefore V no longer adequately represented [w] and latin alphabet had to develop an alternative. Europaio uses V mainly for loan words, representing [v], while W is left for the consonantal sound of u, although not always.

NOTE. V originally denoted the vowel sound u (oo), and F stood for the sound of our consonant [w] (like in Greek digamma). When F acquired the value of our f, V came to be used for the sound [w] as well as for the vowel [u].

2.1.5. The consonant cluster /ks/ was in Ancient Greece written as Chi 'X' (Western Greek) or Xi '\(\frac{1}{2}\)' (Eastern Greek). In the end, Chi was standardized as [kh] ([x] in modern Greek), while Xi represented /ks/. In Europaio, the X stands for [x], as in the Greek and Cyrillic alphabets, and not as in English.

NOTE. The Etruscans took over X from older Western Greek, therefore, it stood for /ks/ in Etruscan and Latin, and in most of the languages which today use an alphabet derived from the Roman, including English.



Map of the Writing systems of the world today. The Latin alphabet is clearly the most widely used in the World, as well as in IE languages, especially the European. [©]

### 2.2. Classification of Sounds

- 2.2.1. The Vowels are **a**, **e**, **i**, **o**, **u** and **y**. The other letters are Consonants. The proper Europaio Diphthongs are **ei**, **oi**, **ai**, **eu**, **ou**, **au**. In this diphthongs both vowel sounds are heard, one following the other in the same syllable.
- 2.2.2. Consonants are either voiced (sonant) or voiceless (surd). Voiced consonants are pronounced with vocal cords vibration, as opposed to voiceless consonants, where the vocal cords are relaxed.
- a. The voiced consonants are b, bh, c, ch, d, dh, g, gh, I, r, m, n, z, and j, w.
- b. The voiceless consonants are p, t, k, q, f, h, s, x.
- c. The digraphs **bh**, **dh**, **gh** and **ch** represent voiced aspirates, whereas **ph**, **th**, **kh** are voiceless aspirates. The last three are confined almost exclusively to words derived from Greek, and are equivalent to p+h, t+h, k+h, i.e. to the corresponding mutes with a following breath, as in English *loop-hole*, *hot-house*, *block-house*.
- d. The phonemes **r**, **l**, **m**, **n**, **i**/**j** and **u**/**w** can function both as consonants and vowels, i.e. they can serve as syllabic border or center. There is a clear difference between the vocalic allophones of the semi-vowels and the others, though: the first [i] and [u] are very stable, while /r,l,m,n/ are not. They cannot be pronounced more opened, hence the big differences among IE dialects.
- 2.2.3. The Mutes are also classified as follows:

Labials	p, b, bh, and <i>ph</i>
Dentals	t, d, dh and <i>th</i>
Velars	c, ch, g, gh, k, q and kh

- 2.2.4. The Liquids are  $\mathbf{I}$ ,  $\mathbf{r}$ . These sounds are voiced. The group  $\mathbf{r}\mathbf{h}$  represents the aspirated r, mainly in words of Greek origin. Other groups include  $\mathbf{r}\mathbf{r}$ , the alveolar trill, and its aspirated counterpart  $\mathbf{r}\mathbf{r}\mathbf{h}$ . There is also  $\mathbf{I}\mathbf{j}$ , the palatal lateral approximant.
- 2.2.5. The Nasals are **m**,**n**. These are voiced. The pair **nj** represents the palatal nasal (similar to the /n/ sound in English *onion* or *canyon*)
- 2.2.6. The Fricatives are  $\mathbf{s}$ ,  $\mathbf{h}$ . These are voiceless, but for the s before voiced consonants, where it is usually voiced. It is also possible to write mainly for loan words voiceless and voiced pairs: labiodentals,  $\mathbf{f}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ ; dentals,  $\mathbf{th}$  and  $\mathbf{dh}$ ; post-alveolar  $\mathbf{sh}$  and  $\mathbf{zh}$ . And also the alveolar voiced  $\mathbf{z}$ , and the dorsal voiceless  $\mathbf{x}$ .
- 2.2.7. The Semivowels are i/j and u/w. These are voiced.

NOTE. The semivowels are usually written with i and u. Only Europaio roots and their derivatives have j and w; as in *wlqo*, *werdho*, *jugo* or *trejes*. When there is a consonantal sound before a sonant, it is also written j or w; as in newn [newen]. More on this in § 2.9.4.

- 2.2.8. There are also some other frequent compounds, such as ks, ts, dz, tsh, dzh, ...
- 2.2.9. The following table will indicate the relations of the consonantal sounds:

	Labials	Coronals	Palatovel.	Velars	Labiovel.
Voiceless	р	t	k*	k	q
Aspirated	ph	th	kh*	kh	
Voiced	b	d	g*	g	С
Aspirated	bh	dh	gh*	gh	ch
Nasals	m	n			
Fricatives	f,v	s, <b>z, th,dh,sh</b> , <b>zh</b>		Х	
Liquids		r,l, <b>rr</b> , <b>lh</b>			
Aspirated		rh, rrh			
Approximant	W		j		

Note. Those in bold are not 'original' Europaio sounds. This does not mean that they weren't heard already in the early stages of the language, though; for example, s was pronounced z before voiced consonants (as in *nisdo*, nest); and th appears in the verb conjugation, possibly derived from old laryngeals.

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\*This sounds are usually represented in traditional transcriptions as independent letters. We believe that the opposition labiovelar/velar is constrained, either to an especial phonetic environment, either to the analogy of alternating phonetic forms. Therefore, they are in our system just different pronunciations of the same velar phonemes.

### 2.3. Sounds of the Letters

2.3.1 The following pronunciation is substantially that employed by the Indo-Europeans in what we call the III stage, at the time when the phonetic trends usually called satemization were probably beginning.

NOTE. This Europaio, as we already said, does not permit the phonetic splits among languages, because systematization, especially in the pronunciation basics, is needed, and satemization is deemed to have been only a logic phonetic trend. Thus, although we include features from dialects which are centuries younger, we need an older, more unitary pronunciation system.

#### 2.3.2. Vowels:

a: as in father
e: as in they
e as in met
i: as in meet
i as in chip
o: as in note
o as in pot
u: as in rude
u as in put

**a** as a in about \* **y** between u and i, like French u, German ü \*\*

NOTE 1. Because there are at least so many ways to mark vowel length and accent as writing systems, we have chosen a more practical way of writing - although it may bring some extra difficulty in reading Europaio texts -, avoiding the marking of both of them. In this book, though, long vowels are normally <u>underlined</u>, and accented vowels are in **bold** type.

NOTE 2. The sonants can also be lengthened, especially in the conjugation of verbs, giving thus  $\underline{\mathbf{m}},\underline{\mathbf{n}},\underline{\mathbf{r}}$  and  $\underline{\mathbf{l}}$ . The semi-vowels  $\underline{\mathbf{j}}$  and  $\underline{\mathbf{w}}$  can also have a prolonged pronunciation, having thus allophones  $\underline{\mathbf{iy}}$  and  $\underline{\mathbf{uw}}$ . For more details on this see § 2.7.2.

#### 2.3.3. Diphthongs:

ei as in vein

eu e (met) + u (put)

oi as in oil

ou as ow in know

ai as in Cairo

au as ou in out

<sup>\*</sup> Written a in Europaio

<sup>\*\*</sup> Not an original Europaio sound

NOTE. *je*, *jo*, *ja*, as well as *we*, *wo*, *wa* cannot be considered properly diphthongs, because *j*-and *w*- are properly consonants. Nevertheless, in **Eu-ro-pa-io** we consider *-io* a diphthong for syntax analysis.

#### 2.3.4. Triphthongs:

There are no actual triphthongs, as a consequence of what was said in the preceding note. The formations usually called triphthongs are *jei*, *joi*, *jai*; *jeu*, *jou*, *jau*; or *wei*, *woi*, *wai*; *weu*, *wou* and *wau*; and none can be named strictly triphthong, as there is a consonantal sound (*j*- or *w*-) followed by a diphthong. The rest of possible formations are made up of a diphthong and a vowel.

NOTE. *Triphthong* can be employed for syntax analysis, though. But a semi-vowel surrounded by vowels is not one. Thus, in **Eu-ro-pa-iom**, /euro'pajom/ there aren't any triphthongs.

#### 2.3.4. Consonants:

- 1. **b**, **d**, **h**, **k**, **l**, **m**, **n**, **p**, are pronounced as in English.
- 2. **n** can also be pronounced as guttural  $[\eta]$  when it is followed by another guttural, as English *sing* or *bank*.
- 3. **t** is always a plain *t*, never with the sound of *sh*, as English *oration*.
- 4. **g** always as in *get*. It has two possible pronunciations, simple velar and palatovelar. Compare the initial consonants in *garlic* and *gear*, whispering the two words, and it will be observed that before *e* and *i* the *g* is sounded farther forward in the mouth than before *a* or *o*.
- 5. **c** is pronounced similar to [g] but with rounded lips. Compare the initial consonant in *good* with those of the preceding example to feel the different articulation. **q** has a similar (but voiceless) pronunciation, as *c* in *cool*.
- 6. **j** as the sound of *y* as in *yes*, **w** as *w* in *will*.

- 7. **r** was possibly slightly trilled with the tip of the tongue (as generally in Romance or Slavic languages), but other usual pronunciations of modern European languages have to be admitted in the revived language, as French or (Standard) German *r*.
- 8. **s** is voiceless as in sin, but there are situations in which it is voiced, depending on the surrounding phonemes. Like with r, differing modern languages will probably pronounce this phoneme differently, but this will not usually lead to misunderstandings, as there are no proper Europaio words with z, only loan words.
- 9. **bh**, **dh**, **gh**, **ch** are uncertain in sound, but the recommended pronunciation is that of the Hindustani's "voiced aspirated stops" *bh*, *dh*, *gh*, as they are examples of living voiced aspirates in an IE language which is derived from Sanskrit, the earliest attested IE III dialect.

Note. There are several ways to generate breathy-voiced sounds. One is to hold the vocal cords apart, so that they are lax as they are for [h], but to increase the volume of airflow so that they vibrate loosely. A second is to bring the vocal cords closer together along their entire length than in voiceless [h], but not as close as in modally voiced sounds such as vowels. This results in an airflow intermediate between [h] and vowels, and is the case with English intervocalic /h/. A third is to constrict the glottis, but separate the arytenoid cartilages that control one end. This results in the vocal cords being drawn together for voicing in the back, but separated to allow the passage of large volumes of air in the front. This is the situation with Hindustani.

- 10. **x** represents the [x], wether with ach-laut, such as *kh* in Russian *Khrushenko*, or with ich-laut, such as *ch* in German *Lichtenstein*; but never like *ks*, *gz* or *z*, as in English.
- 11. **z**, **v**, **f**, **sh**, are pronounced as in English.
- 12. **zh** is pronounced as in English *leisure*.
- 13. **tsh** corresponds to English *ch* in *chain* and **tzh** to *j* in *jump*
- 14. The aspirates **ph**, **kh**, **th** are pronounced very nearly like the English stressed *p*, *c*, *t*.
- 15. There is also another value for **th**, which corresponds to English *th* in *thing*, and for **dh**, which sounds as *th* in *this*.

- 16. **rh**, **rr** and **rrh** have no similar sounds in English, although there are examples of loan words, such as Spanish *guerrilla*, or Greek *rhotacism* or *Tyrrhenos*.
- 17. **nj** is similar to /nj/ in English *onion* or *canyon*; and **lj** to /lj/ in English *million*.
- 18. Doubled letters, like **II**, **mm**, **tt**, etc., should be so pronounced that both members of the combination are distinctly articulated.

## 2.4. Syllables

2.4.1. In many modern languages, there are as many syllables in a word as there are separate vowels and diphthongs. This is not exactly so in Europaio. It follows, indeed, this rule too:

Eu-ro-pa-ios, wer-dhom, ne-was, ju-gom

Note. The semivowels  $\mathbf{w}$  and  $\mathbf{j}$  are in general written  $\mathbf{i}$  and  $\mathbf{u}$ , as we already said, when they are used in the formation of new words, i.e., when they are not original roots or stems. That is why the adjective 'European' is written Eu-ro-pa-ios, and so its derived nominalized inanimate form, 'Eu-ro-pa-iom' (the European language); and that is also why **Italia** is not written \*Italja; while **trejes**, three, or **newo**, new, for example, are written with  $\mathbf{j}$  and  $\mathbf{w}$ .

2.4.2. There are also (and very often) consonant-only syllables, though. It is possible to hear them in spoken English, for example in the word Brighton / brai-t'n/, where the final n can be considered vocalic. In these kind of syllables, it is one of the vocalic sonants, /r,l,m,n/, the one which functions as syllabic centre:

bh**r**-ghu, w**l**-gos, d**e**-km, n**o**-mn

NOTE 1. The words derived from these vocalic consonants differ greatly between modern IE dialects. For example,  $d\mathbf{n}$ - $gh\underline{u}$  derived in Proto-Germanic tungon, and later in English tongue, while in archaic Latin it was pronounced dingwa, then the Classic Latin lingua, which forms the modern English loan word linguistic.

NOTE 2. We maintain the old, difficult and somehow unstable sounds in search for unity. As this phonetic system will not be easy for speakers of modern IE languages, the proposed alternative pronunciation is to add, when needed, an auxiliary schwa [ə] before or after the sound. The schwa we are referring to is an unstressed and toneless neutral vowel sound. Thus, **wlqos** can be pronounced /wəlqos/ (as in Proto-Germanic \*wulfaz) or /wləqos/ (as in Proto-Greek \*lukos), or /dekəm/ and /nomən/ for **dekm** and **nomn**.

- 2.4.3. In the division of words into syllables, these rules apply:
- 1. A single consonant is joined to the following vowel or diphthong; as **ne-wo**, **me-dhjo**,...

- 2. Combinations of two or more consonants (other than the vocalic ones) are regularly separated, and the first consonant of the combination is joined with the preceding vowel; as *om-bhro*, *ok-to*, *pen-qe*, etc. but *s-qa-los*.
- 3. In compounds, the parts are usually separated; as *Fin-lendh-om*, *Dhan-merg*, etc.

## 2.5. Quantity

2.5.1. Syllables are distinguished according to the length of time required for their pronunciation. Two degrees of Quantity are recognized, *long* and *short*.

NOTE. In syllables, quantity is measured from the beginning of the vowel or diphthong to the end of the syllable.

- 2.5.3. A syllable is long usually,
- a. if it contains a long vowel; as, *ma-ter*, *dn-ghu*
- b. if it contains a diphthong; as, *Eu-ro-pa*, *mn-io*
- c. if it contains any two non-syllabic consonants (except a mute with *I* or *r*)
- 2.5.4. A syllable is short usually
- a. if it contains a short vowel followed by a vowel or by a single consonant; as, cei
- b. if it contains a vocalic sonant; as, /'rt-kos/, /no-m'n/, /de-k'm/
- 2.5.5. Sometimes a syllable varies in quantity, viz. when its vowel is short and is followed by a mute with I or r, i.e. by pI, kI, tI; pr, kr, tr, etc.; as, agri. Such syllables are called common. In prose they are regularly short, but in verse they might be treated as long at the option of the poet.

Note. These distinctions of long and short are not arbitrary and artificial, but are purely natural. Thus, a syllable containing a short vowel followed by two consonants, as ng, is long, because such a syllable requires more time for its pronunciation; while a syllable containing a short vowel followed by one consonant is short, because it takes less time to pronounce it. In case of the common syllables, the mute and the liquid blend so easily as to produce a combination which takes scarcely more time than a single consonant. Yet by separating the two elements (ag-ri) the poets are able to use such syllables as long.

### 2.6. Accent

- 2.6.1. There are stressed as well as unstressed words. The last could indicate words that are always enclitic, i.e., they are always bound to the accent of the preceding word, like *qe* or *we*; while another can be proclitics, like prepositions. The accent position can thus help to distinguish words.
- 2.6.2. In Europaio, each non-clitic word has one and only one accent. The possibility of secondary accents depends on the pronunciation.
- 2.6.3. The accent is free, but that does not mean anarchy. On the contrary, it means that each word has an accent, and one has to know -usually by way of practice- where it goes.
- 2.6.4. Usually, adjectives are accentuated on the ending; as in *Europaios*, *Angliskos*, while nouns aren't; as in *Europaios*, *Angliskos*. There are some other rules to be followed in the declension of nouns and in the conjugation of verbs, which will be later studied.

### 2.7. Vowel Change

2.7.1. Syllable creation is the most common of the various phonetic changes that the modern European languages have undergone all along these millennia of continuous separation. Anaptyxis is a type of phonetic epenthesis, involving insertion of a vowel to ease pronunciation. Examples in English are *ath-e-lete*, *mischiev-i-ous*, or *wint-e-ry*. It usually happens by adding first a *supporting vowel* or *transition sound* (glide, Gleitlaut). After this, in a second stage, the added vowel acquires a fix tone, becoming a full vowel.

2.7.2. The sonants form unstable syllables, and thus vowel epenthesis is very common. For example, dn- $gh\underline{u}$  becomes, as we have seen, tongue in English and dingua in archaic Latin, while wl-qos becomes wolf in English and lykos (probably from \*wluqos) in Greek ( $\lambda \dot{u} ko \varsigma$ ). In modern Europaio a possibly easier, although not recommended, pronunciation is obtained by adding an auxiliary schwa, either before or after the sonant.

The semi-vowels **y**, **w** are more stable than the sonants when they are centre of syllable (being then vowels, i or u). But they have also some alternating pronunciations. When they are pronounced *lento* they can be heard as **iy** or **uw**, what actually doesn't mean a vowel epenthesis, but an extended pronunciation. Thus, the alternating forms **medhijos** (which gives the latin *medius*) and **medhjos** (which gives the Old Indian *mádhyas* or the Greek *messos*) coexisted probably somehow freely in IE III times.

NOTE. With the creation of zero-grade stems, vocalization appears, as the original radical vowels disappear and new ones are added. So, for example, in **bhr**- (to carry, cognate of to bear), which can be reconstructed from modern languages as bher-, bhor- or bhr-. The same can be said of the semi-vowels j and w when they are syllable edges, being syllable centres - u and u - in zero-grades.

2.7.3. The laryngeals were a probable feature of the proto-language, in which there were possibly three aspirated phonemes. In this limited grammar there is no place for explaining these theories related to PIE (or, for some, to IE II), or even how these laryngeals (and which of them) influenced the vowel changes we encounter in IE III times. Let's only say here that the Hittite, which is the other known dialect of the second stage of the language, had laryngeal remains, while IE III only had some vowel changes of what could easily be a proof of a previous laryngeal-stage.

- 2.7.4. There are also some other possible vocalizations. Thus, in some phonetic environments, like two occlusives in zero-grade: **skp**, impossible to pronounce without adding a vowel, derives in lat. **scabo** or got. **skaban**. Although the solution to this consonantal groups is not generalized, as with sonants, we can find some general timbres, like **a**, **i** (especially in Greek and Baltoslavic, with following dental), or **u** (also considered general, like **a**, but probably influenced by the context, possibly when in contact with labial, guttural or labiovelar, as in **quqlos**, **circle**).
- 2.7.5. Vocalic prothesis (from Greek *pro-thesis*, *pre-putting*), is the appending of a vowel in front of a word, usually to facilitate the pronunciation. This kind of prothesis differ, not only among Europaio-derived languages, but also and frequently into the same language or linguistic group. Especially before **r**, but also before **I**,**m**,**n**,**w**, more or less systematically, a vowel is added to ease pronunciations. The timbre of the added vowel is neither related to a linguistic group or modern language, or even to the phonetic or morphological environment. It is therefore not a good practice in Europaio to add vowels.
- 2.7.6. Syllable losses are often observed in Europaio dialects, but has actually no relevance to the revived language. Syncope refers to the loss of an inner vowel, as with brief vowels in Gothic: gasts instead of ghostis; or after w, long vowel, diphthong or sonant in Latin: prudens instead of prowidens, corolla instead of coronala, or ullus instead of oinolos. Haplology, which consists of the loss of a whole syllable when two consecutive identical or similar syllables occur, as in Latin fastidium instead of fastitidium, or in Mycenic aporeu instead of apiporeu. Apheresis and Apocope haven't almost relevance for the Europaio studies.

### 2.8. Consonant Change

2.8.1. 1. The so called *mobile s* refers to the phenomenon of alternating word pairs, with and without **s** before initial consonants, in stems with identical meaning. Some examples are

(s)ten-thunder, strong noise - lat. tonare, ohg. donar, osl. stenjo.

(s)pek- look carefully, spy - lat. spectus, ohg. spehon, alb. pashë

(s)ker- cut - lat. caro,

(s)qalos- big fish - lat. squalus, ohg. whale

\*(s)teros- bull - gr. lat. tauros (from a cognate word), ger. steer.

NOTE. Some think it was a prefix in PIE (which would have had a causative value), while others maintain that it is probably caused by assimilations of similar stems (some of them beginning with an s-, and some of them without it). It is possible, however, that the original stem actually had an initial s, and because of phonetic changes (due probably to some word compounds, where the last -s of the first word assimilates with the first s- of the second word) it was lost by analogy in other situations. This would explain why in some languages both stems are recorded, and why there seems to be no pattern in the losing of initial s-, as each word would have had its own history in each language.

- 2. Before a voiced or aspirated voiced consonant, **s** was articulated as voiced, by way of assimilation. So in **nisdo**, *nest*, or **misdho**, *salary*. When *s* forms a group with sonants there is usually assimilation, but this trend is sometimes reversed by adding a consonant (as in lat. *cerebrum*, from /kerəsrom/).
- 3. The **s** between vowels is the most unstable, with different outputs depending on the dialects. Example of this is **snusos**, *daughter-in-law* (lat. *nurus*, ohg. *snur*), but the most common ones are roots endings -**s** with a declension beginning with a vowel, as in osl. *nebesa* (gr. *nefeos*), *cloud*, lat. *generis* (gr. *geneos*), *lineage*, or got. *riqizis* (gr. *erebeos*), *darkness*.

NOTE. In Germanic, as in Latin, the intervocalic -s- becomes voiced, and then it is pronounced as the trilled consonant, what is known with the name of rhotacism.

2.8.2. A sequence of two dentals is usually eliminated in all Europaio modern languages, but the process of this suppression differs among languages. It is supposed that this trend had already begun at the time of the IE II, and so Europaio probably had already some phonetic changes in these consonant groups - possibly still common to all dialects. As we have said before, in phonetics we prefer to sacrifice the search for purity for the sake of unity, and so in this case we look at the earliest situation possible. So, in forms such as **ed-tos** (lat. *esus*), **weid-tis** (lat *visus*) or **sed-tos** (lat. *sessus*), we won't usually represent any phonetic change, unless we take the word as a derivative loan word.

2.8.3. The manner of articulation of an occlusive or sibilant usually depends on the next phoneme, wether it is voiced or voiceless. So, for example, the voiced **ag**- *carry* gives voiceless gr. *aktos*, or lat. *actus*; the same happens with voiced aspirate, as in **legh**-, gr. *lektron*, lat. *lectus*, ohg. *lehter*; voiceless *p*- becomes -*b* for example in zero grade **pod**-, *foot*, which appears as -**bd**-, as in gr. *hepibda*.

## 2.9. Peculiarities of Orthography

- 2.9.1. Many words have a variable orthography.
- 2.9.2. In many words the orthography varies because of alternating forms, and so there are different derivatives; as in **domos**, *house*, but **demspotes**, *despot*, both from **dem-/dom-**, *house*.
- 2.9.3. In other situations, the meaning is different, while the words are written alike; as, **gher**, *grasp*, and **gher**, *like*

Sometimes, even the pronunciation is different; as, **gna**, which can be  $/g'n\underline{a}/$ , woman, or /g'ne/, to know

- 2.9.4. In some cases, however, it's the way we chose to write Europaio which affects how it is written. For example, the word **Italia** could have been written \**Italja*, but we chose to maintain the letter -**i** when possible. We only write **j** or **w** in some specific cases:
- 1. In roots and its derivatives; as, **trejes**, **jugom**, **sawel**, **newos**, etc.; and also when the original root has different pronunciations; as, **neu**, *shout*, but **nowentos** (and not \*nouentos), *shouting*
- 2. In lengthened stems; as in **ser**, *protect*, and **serw**<u>a</u>, *preserve*; and also in metathesized forms; as **nerwos** (from **neuro**-), sinew.
- 3. When there is a consonantal sound before or after a sonant; as, **newn**, *nine*; **stajr**, *fat*.
- 4. In endings (written generally with -i or -u), when the semivowel -i- is followed or preceded by another i, or the semivowel -u- is followed or preceded by another u; as in **sunuwom**, of the sons, or **bolijos**, big.
- 2.9.5. The old schwa is written with an a; as, pater, father; bhatis, appearance.
- 2.9.6. The forms with the copulative -qe are usually written by adding it to the preceding word, as in Latin -que, without dash.

- 2.9.7. The capital letters are used at the beginning of the following kind of words:
- a. the names of days, months, seasons and public holidays
- b. the names of people and places, including stars and planets
- c. people's titles, such as *Professor*, *Colonel* or *Director*.
- d. with North, South, East and West and its derivatives, in official or well-established place names.

## 2.10. Kindred Forms

Some of the most obvious correspondences in consonants between Europaio and Proto-Germanic may be seen in the following table, where Latin stays for comparison, and English for cognate words:

Europaio	Gothic	Latin	English
<b>bh</b> : bhr <u>a</u> t <u>e</u> r, bher	<b>b</b> : brodhar, bairan	<b>f</b> : frater, fero	brother (fraternal), to b (infer)
<b>c</b> : c <u>a</u> , cei	<b>q</b> : qiman, qius	gu/u: venio, vivus	to come (venue), quick (vivacity)
ch: lech, cher	hw/g/w: leihts, warmjan	f/gu/u: levis, formus	light (levity), warm (forceps)
d: dekm, ed	t: taihun, itan	d: decem, edo	ten (decimal), to eat (edible)
dh: dhe, dhers	d: du-, dear	f/d/b: feci, festus	to do (factor), to dare (manifest)
<b>g</b> : aug, gn <u>o</u>	k: aukan, kunnan	<b>g</b> : augeo, gnosco	augment, to know (ignorant)
<b>gh</b> : ghostis, delegh	g: gasts, laggs	h/g:hostis, longus	guest (hostile), length (longitude)
k: leuk, kerd	h/g: liuhadh, hairto	g: lux, cor(d)	light (lucid), heart (core)
<b>p</b> : pat <u>e</u> r, septm	f/b: fadar, sibun	<b>p</b> : pater, septem	father (paternal), seven (September)
<b>q</b> : leiq, qi/qo	hw/g/w: leihwan, hwas	<b>qu</b> : linquo, quis	leave (relinquish), what (quote)
t: wert, treies	dh/d: wairdhan, dhreis	t: uerto, tres	(to)ward (versus), three (trinity)