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Correspondences Between the Chinese Calendar Signs and the Phoenician Alphabet

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Correspondences Between the Chinese Calendar Signs and the Phoenician Alphabet

Julie Lee Wei1

Similarities between the Phoenician alphabet and the Chinese calender signs, the *tiangan dizhi*, or heavenly stems and earthly branches, have been remarked upon by a number of linguists. Besides some obvious similarities between the letters in the two sets, each set has 22 symbols. Are the similarities in symbols and the identical number of 22 mere coincidences? Are they anciently related and do they correspond one-to-one? Quite a few Sinologists and Assyriologists have grappled with this question, including Hugh Moran and David Kelley, Edwin Pulleyblank, and Victor Mair. In a recent article, "Early Contacts Between Indo-Europeans and Chinese," Mair stated that "The number of unquestionable, impeccable correspondences of symbols in the two sets sharing similar sounds and shapes is at least 15." (Mair 1996: 35). Earlier, Mair had disclosed, in an article entitled "West Eurasian and North African Influences on the Origins of Chinese Writing", his discovery that the two sets "display an almost perfect fit both graphically and phonetically" (Mair 1990), but due to other major commitments he has written on only a few of the correspondences.

The problem first intrigued me several years ago. Recently I took up the puzzle again, and as a result have now identified all the correspondences that have not been identified in the literature. Indeed, there is a one-to-one correspondence between the 22 letters of the ancient Phoenician alphabet and the 22 of the Chinese *ganzhi*, a correspondence that seems to have been established in the early years of the Shang dynasty. In addition to phonetic and graphic correspondence, I have found that they also correspond in meaning.

My findings are summarized in two tables (Table 1 and Table 2). It will be seen that I have assigned meanings to letters of the alphabet as well as to *ganzhi* letters whose meanings have hitherto been unknown or highly uncertain. How I have arrived at those

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meanings as well as at each of the 22 correspondences will be discussed, after some introductory remarks.

Correspondence or Coincidence?

In identifying the correspondences I have looked for a three-way resemblance in each pair of letters. In other words, any pair should resemble each other in sound, meaning, and symbol (grapheme). I have found that each of the 22 pairs has a three-way resemblance.

This study has followed to a large extent the three fundamentals of method used by Joseph Greenberg in his pioneering work, *The Languages of Africa* (Greenberg 1966). The first is, when seeking correspondences between words, that "the sole relevance is comparison of resemblances in sound and meaning in specific forms." The second principle is that of "mass comparison as against isolated comparisons between pairs of languages." The third principle is that "only linguistic evidence is relevant in drawing conclusions…" (Greenberg 1966:1).

However, the present paper is preliminary in that it falls somewhat short of "mass comparison". To some degree, "mass comparison" has been made to determine the meaning (as reflected by the symbol as well as by its most ancient, Hebrew, name) of each of the Phoenician letters of the alphabet. Several generations of scholars have done this by searching the Sumerian, ancient Egyptian, Babylonian, Assyrian, and other Semitic vocabularies (Diringer 1968: 195ff, Jensen 1969: 255ff), and the meanings they have attributed to the Hebrew names of the Phoenician letters have been based on this search. This surely would qualify as "mass comparison". On the Chinese side, I have searched Chinese dictionaries for the ancient meanings of the ganzhi characters. I have also examined ancient Sumerian and Egyptian symbols as well as Sumerian, Egyptian, Coptic and, to a less extent, Assyrian, Hebrew, and other dictionaries for words and symbols that match a given Chinese character in sound, graph, and meaning and then compared them with the meanings generally attributed to the Hebrew names of the alphabet and to the alphabet letter itself. In some cases, with the assistance of the sinograph, I have been able to arrive at a new explanation of the meaning of the Phoenician-letter-with-Hebrew-name (which will simply be called the Phoen/Heb letter).

	95.0	K EX	r Com	z ket /	, is	65 8	18 porte	, 12 Ly 10 2
Murk	6 (1)	mon eel alpha	/Gre	et externant	Phoenix	ar chiefe	chinette	chou,
1	Α	alpha	×	aleph	K,K	A	丑	chou, *hnrj∂w
2	В	beta	B	beth	9	\square	丙	bing, *pjianx
3	G	gamma	Γ	gĭmel	1,1	8.8	午	wu, *hmət
4	D	delta	45	dāleth	4.4	ū	J	ding, *ting
5	E	ep- silon		þе	き,ま	万		hai, *gə?
6	F	di- gamma	\$	waw	7,4,7	Ч	<u>亥</u> 戊	wu, *mu?h
7	Z	zeta	2	zayin	I,I	I.I	壬	ren, *nzjam
8	E, H	eta	η	ḥēth (kheth)	目.目	单	庚辰	geng,
9	Th	theta	θ	țĕth	⊕,⊗	A	辰	chen, *djon
10	I	iota	I	yod	₹, €	₹,5	己	ji, *kj∂?
ll.	K	Kappa	K	kaph	V.7	*,*	癸	gui, *khwi∂t
12	L	lambda	^	lâmed	6.2	Ħ	酉	you, *1jaw?
13	M	mu	m	mēm	3,4	14,44	47	mao, *mru
[4	7	пи	~	nún	7.7	}	2	yi, *?arjət
15	X, KS	xi	==	sāmekh	丰,丰	\$	辛	xin, *sijm
16	0	0- micron	0	'ain	0,0	\$.\$	宙	yin, *1j@n
17	P	Pi	77	pē	7.1	*	未	wei, #
18	Ts			șādhē (tsude)	E. M	4	戌	xu, *sjwat
19	Q	koppa	9	qõph	φ,9	十.中**	甲	jia, *krap
20	R	rho	2	résh	4.1	早	巴	si, *rjagx
21	S	sigma	٤٫٥	sin, shin	W,V	بخد	申	shin, *hljin
22	T	tau	τ	tāw	+, X	党	3	zi, *tsjə?

Table 1. Summary of the 22 correspondences.

In each case I argue for the meaning based on the evidence in Chinese, Sumerian, Egyptian, and Coptic, etc., as well as the extensive research already done by other scholars on the subject. (Coptic is later than the Shang dynasty, to which the 22 correspondences date, but since it is a descendant of ancient Egyptian and spells words with vowels, it can throw some light on Egyptian hieroglyphs, which are usually written without vowels.)

However, this study still falls short of sufficient "mass comparison" in that, where it has claimed, for a sinograph and Sumerian and ancient Egyptian words, a connection antedating the Phoenician alphabet, I have not had an opportunity to check my conclusions sufficiently against other ancient languages. Further work needs to be done to test my conclusions against the vocabularies of such languages as Hittite, Old Akkadian, Babylonian, Assyrian, Old Persian, and Sanskrit. On the other hand, since Sumeria and Egypt were dominant cultures, the existence of a word in their languages implies the existence of cognates or borrowings in many other contiguous or related languages, just as a word in Latin implies the existence of cognates or borrowings in many Romance and Germanic languages.

As for Greenberg's third fundamental principle of method, that "only linguistic evidence is relevant" in making conclusions about correspondences, I have hewed as closely as possible to it. However, since pictograms are part of the Chinese language as well as of Sumerian and ancient Egyptian, I take "linguistic" to include not only "sound [phonetic shape] and meaning" but also pictorial or pictographic (graphemic) evidence. Resemblance of pictograms can be construed in several ways:

- 1) Resemblance of pictorial shape: e.g., Phoenician $yod \ge$ has a shape resembling the Chinese letter $ji \stackrel{>}{\sim}$. This is geometric resemblance.
- 2) Resemblance of pictorial concept: Egyptian st and Chinese yin ())

 resemble each other in that each depicts an arrow entering a target, although the shape of the graph is different. This would be conceptual resemblance. One can represent "water" by a wavy line (as in Egyptian) or represent it by a drop of water), as in many American posters. The two would be conceptually different. Conceptual resemblance does not necessarily mean resemblance of the signification of the

Rot		e phoe		nord Uni	redering w	dand Sumeria	n arcient			German	other
A	aleph "bull"	K	A	丑	*hnrjaw "bull"			alpu "bull"			
В	beth "house"	9	M	丙	*pjiagx "mother"	ban-da 'mother"	ben-ti "breasts	bantu "mother"	Old Irish "ben "woman"	Scottish bairn	Arabic bint daughter
G	gimel "camel"	1	8	午	*hmot "tip"	gin	"angle"	akkadian gamalu		English camel	Chinese Jiam pointed
D	daleth "door"	Д		T	*ting "head"	du,dug "mouth"		daltu "door"			Greek delta "mouth"
E	he "fence"	#	27	亥	*gə? "boundar	y"				· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
F	waw "hook"	Υ	H	戍	*mu?h "halberd	mul '"spear'	marhu "spear" ua, pike	••			
z	zain "beam"	I	I	壬	ren,"bear "reel"	n" zin "life"	sa-t "beam"			English "reel"	IE *ret- "pole"
Н	kheth "fence"	Ħ	前	庚	*geng 'enclosu	gan,kan enclosu	khen			English "home "hamlet"	Portuguese curral kraal"
Th	teth "field"	0	4		irrigate		ten-t field"	1	Irish ir,"land	8	Latin terr "land"
I	yod "hand"	Ž	ζı)	己"	*kjð? regulate'	gid,gad "hand"	kap "paw"	kappu "hand"			
K	kaph "hand"	ν, γ	X X	癸	*khwiðt "reach"		kep (hand glyph)				
1	lamed "water-" pot"	6.2	B	酉	*1jaw? "store water	lud,"pot pitcher"	, nu ℧	rihu "pour water"	OldIrish sruth "stream"	English river	Latin rivu "stream"
M	mem "water"	ξ	44	4P	*mru "stream"	ma "water"	*maw "water"	mu			Latin mare,"sea"
N	nun "fish"	5.4	>	2	*?arjðt "stream"	lud "pot"	nu-t "water"				Latin rivus "stream"
X,, K5	samekh	¥, ‡	文	辛	*siam	gim	sma " "offer ings	zebu "saçri fice			
0		0,0	1	亩	*ljøn "to aim"		ar "pupil"	enu			
P	pe "mouth"	7.7	*	未	be,"ram" "taste"		ba "ram"				
Ts	sadhe "net"	4	卢	4.	*sjw∂t battle-ax	110		shetu net,sna	re"		Hebrew Lsude "to hunt"
Q.	qoph skin,hide	,P	+	甲	*krap "shell"		khaut "skin"		·	English coat	Latin cuti
R	resh "head"	A	早	2	*rjagx figure flead			resu "head"			
S	sin,shin "tooth"	W	754		ljin,*st fasten Lightning	hjin " "	s-tehen lightnin	shinnu		Eng.,grin	Latin IE*(s)-ten
T	taw "mark"	+, X	N	子	*tsja? "mark"			LOULD		-nundet	15" (S)-Len

Table 2. Comparisons of the meanings of the 22 correspondences.

pictograms. For example, Chinese $you \ \ \ \ \ \ \$ represents a jar pictorially. However, the dictionary meaning of the word $you \ \ \ \ \$ is not "jar" but "wine" or "irrigated field". The Egyptian $nu \ \ \ \ \ \$, also the pictogram of a jar, has among its meanings "internal organ".

3) Resemblance through a shared pictorial element: Phoenician 'ain O resembles

Chinese yin (also) because both share a small circle. This would be a subset of geometric resemblance.

Resemblance of sound and meaning, or sound and symbol, or of any combination of sound, meaning, and symbol could be simply due to chance or coincidence. However, the more languages in which a given resemblance is found, the smaller the probability that the resemblance is just due to chance or coincidence. Greenberg states:

Let us assume even that accidental resemblances between two languages can be rather high, say twenty percent. The chance that some single meaningful form will appear with similar sound and meaning is then 1/5. The chance that the same element will appear also in some third language is the square of 1/5, that is 1/25. In general, given n languages the chance that a resemblance will occur in all of them will be $(1/5^{n-1})$ (Greenberg: 3).

While Greenberg's work involved the possible occurrences of chance resemblances of a given word in numerous languages, the present paper also involves a different kind of chance occurrence. The present study advances the proposition that there is also a 22-fold correspondence, over and above the individual correspondences—that there are 22 interlinked three-way correspondences. I have not found out how one calculates such a probability, but it strikes me that the chances of an accidental coincidence would be extremely small.

When Were the 22 Correspondences Created?

First of all, a few words about the probable dating of the translation of the 22 letters of the Phoenician alphabet into the 22 letters of the Chinese calendar signs. (That there was

The Ten Heavenly Stems

甲	jia	"shell", "armor"
2.	уi	"stream", "water"
丙	bing	"woman", "female"
1	ding	"head", "man"
戊	wu	"halberd"
己	ji	"regulate"
庚	geng	"gate", "enclosure"
辛	xin	"offerings", "sacrifice"
4	ren	"beam","frame", "reel","to reel"
癸	gui	"rest"

The Twelve Earthly Branches

		•
チ	zi	"son", "seed", "mark", "writing"
丑	chou	"bull"
通	yin	"shoot","archery"
卯	mao	"water", "power"
辰	chen	"build dyke", "irrigate"
已	si	"figurehead", "worship"
午	wu	"noon", "silk"
未	wei	"taste", "ram"
申	shen	"belt-hook", "lightning, rain"
酉	you	"store water for irrigation", "wine
戌	xu	"battle-axe"
亥	hai	"boundary"

The 60-day cycle

甲子 jiazi

2里 yichou

为强 bingyin

了好 dingmao

戊辰 Wuchen

己巴jisi

Table 3. The Chinese calendar signs and the 60-day cycle.

an effort to translate and not merely to transliterate will be apparent shortly). The 22 calendar signs are divided into two sets, the ten heavenly stems (*tiangan*) and the twelve earthly branches (*dizhi*). By consecutively and continuously pairing letters from the two sets, we get a cycle of 60 names of days of the calendar (Table 3). This cycle is then repeated throughout the year and into the next year, year after year.

The earliest surviving records of the calendar signs are on Shang dynasty oracle shells and bones. The absolute dates of the reigns of Shang monarchs are still in dispute (Keightley: 255). According to traditional chronology, the Shang dynasty lasted 1766-1154 BCE. David S. Nivison, who has devoted 20 years to the study of Shang chronology, maintains that the Shang dynasty lasted 1554-1040 BCE (Nivison: 43-45). In his view, the Shang oracle shells and bones inscriptions (OSBI) date from about 1215. Some scholars give the period covered by the oracle shells and bones inscriptions as circa 1250-1050 BCE (Schuessler: ix).

There is evidence, however, that the set of ten tiangan (heavenly stems) date to the beginning of the Shang dynasty, if not earlier, for they appear in the names of Shang kings. Here I shall follow Nivison's chronology. In the traditional list of Shang kings, all but two of the ten tiangan letters appear in the names of the kings. Only bing and gui are missing. However, in Nivison's revised, augmented list of kings, bing appears in the name of King Wai Bing (r. 1541-1540), who appears to have been purged from the traditional list. Nivison maintains that gui is absent because it was the name of the founding king's father and was therefore taboo. Gui appears in the name of Di Gui, the last king of the previous, Hsia, dynasty, but Nivison agrees with D. K. Pankenier that Di Gui was a fiction. He never existed. My own conjecture is that gui may have been excluded because it meant "to exhaust" and "to end, to rest" (later written), certainly suitable for the name of the last king of the toppled dynasty, the proverbial tyrant Di Gui (albeit fictional).

In any case, since nine of the ten *tiangan* were used in Shang kings' names, we may reasonably presume that the 10 heavenly stems existed as a set as early as the beginning of the Shang dynasty, about the middle of the 16th century. We may then presume that the

22-letter Phoenician alphabet (or rather its precursor from Southwest Asia) was translated into the 22 Chinese calendar signs as early as circa 1550 BCE, if not earlier.

Constraints of the Author

of the 22 Correspondences

It will be seen from Tables 1 and 2 that the correspondences are not perfect fits. After identifying the 22 correspondences I had a continuing sense of dissatisfaction. I tried to re-shuffle the Phoenician letters and Chinese characters but failed to get a better fit. Was the set of 22 correspondences then a mere figment of the imagination? But then there were so many individually very good fits (to be demonstrated later). Were they all coincidences? Suddenly it occurred to me that the author of the 22 correspondences must have felt the same dissatisfaction after he/she completed them some 3,500 years ago. Anyone who has attempted the translation of one language into another will be familiar with that sense of dissatisfaction. Translation after all is compromise. And every one of the 22 correspondences reveals some compromise, in sound, meaning, or symbol.

"bus" in Hong Kong's Chinese newspapers. Then take proper names. "Roosevelt", for an example. The standard translation comes from Cantonese (whose usages often became the standard in Chinese as a whole because Hong Kong was at the forefront of East-West interaction)—the Cantonese translation of Roosevelt was Law-see-fook.

Here we have considered phonetic factors. But there may also be semantic ones at work, denotative or connotative. These may be religious, astrological, socio-political, moral, esthetic. Hitler was translated Shee-te-le that, "Rare (a pun)-unique-strangle", the "strangle" chosen deliberately from among possible homonyms, no doubt, to convey moral distaste. Chelsea (Clinton) is translated Chwe-er-shee that, "Little sparrow joyful", words chosen to register affection. But the translator had to replace initial "che" with "chwe" so as to get the word "sparrow". There may be taboos operative as well. Or a certain word may be chosen over another because of its preferred symbolism. Thus, the constraints on the translator are multiplied.

Yet these constraints would only be the normal constraints of translation. For in addition to them the Shang translator had also to observe the special three-way constraint of attempting to match sound, meaning, and pictogram for each letter of the alphabet. So unless we take into account all these constraints, we are liable to ask the impossible of our translator at the Shang court around 1550 BCE; that is, we will look for impossibly perfect fits in the 22 correspondences.

How did the Phoenician-Hebrew Names

Sound in 16th Century BCE?

Still another point to bear in mind is this: We cannot be sure of how the Semitic names of the alphabet sounded in the 16th century. The Hebrew names are the oldest names of the alphabet known to us, but our first evidence for them appeared very late, only in rabbinical texts! (Jensen: 286ff). Even so, the *ganzhi* are remarkably close to the sound of the Hebrew names. There are certain consistent differences, however, such as that final -t or -th in Hebrew corresponds to final -n or -ng in the Chinese. In both cases these are alveolar consonants. Usually, the Chinese final -n reflects the final -n in the corresponding Sumerian or Egyptian word. This suggests that anciently a Hebrew letter

such as *teth* or *beth* may have sounded closer to *ten* or *ben*, that is, they were alveolar stops rather than alveolar plosives.

Why Phoenician into Chinese?

It is also necessary to consider briefly this question before examining the 22 correspondences. We have here assumed that the proto-Phoenician alphabet was translated into Chinese, and not vice versa. Why this assumption? First, because there is strong evidence that the Phoenician alphabet was composed of signs derived mainly from Sumerian and ancient Egyptian signs, and the Sumerian and Egyptian civilizations were older than the Shang dynasty, when the *ganzhi* first appeared on oracle shells and bones as calendar signs.

Sumeria had urban centers by ca. 3400 and city-states with complex organization by 3200. The Sumerian language ceased to be spoken after 1900 BCE, having been supplanted by Old Akkadian. During the Shang dynasty, Old Babylonian and Old Assyrian were the major spoken languages of Mesopotamia (Caldwell 1974: v-3). In Egypt, the Archaic (First and Second dynasties), Old Kingdom, and First Intermediate periods lasted 3168-2035 BCE, before the Shang. The Shang dynasty began after Egypt's Middle Kingdom period (2035-1668) and about the beginning of the New Kingdom period (1550-1070) (Aldred 1987: 9). The Rhind Papyrus, c. 1600, is written in hieratic, a highly developed cursive script, and includes computations with complicated fractions, and solutions to problems involving two unknown quantities (Aldred 1987:91).

Also, since astronomy, astrology, and mathematics were developed in the Mesopotamian region well before the Shang dynasty, it is reasonable to assume that an innovative numbering and calendrical system would have been introduced from the Mesopotamian region into Shang China rather than the other way around.

Some scholars believe that the proto-Semitic alphabet was invented during the Hyksos period, ca.1730-1580 BCE (Diringer 1948: 214). Peter T. Daniels and William Bright place the creation of the Phoenician alphabet after 1200 (Daniels: 89, Fig. 4). Inscriptions found at Byblos (modern Jbail, Lebanon) have been assigned by some scholars to the 17th or 15th century and the next oldest evidence of the alphabet, the

Ahiram inscription, discovered at Byblos in 1923, has been assigned to the end of the 13th century (Jensen: 283ff).

Recent excavations in Banpo, Shaanxi Province, China, and other sites indicate that the earliest forerunners of the sinographs may have originated as far back as 6000 years (Jao: 9). But several factors were decisive in persuading me to lean towards the view that, as a set of signs (whether consonantal or calendrical), the proto-Phoenician alphabet was the older set, and translated into the ganzhi. One is that the Sumerian and Babylonian number system was based on 60, and the ganzhi involves a cycle of 60 numbers. (According to ancient historians, the Chinese sexagesimal cycle was adopted during the reign of Huangdi [circa 2697-2597 BCE, traditional chronology] [Tung: 51]). Another is that at least 16 of the Phoenician letters can be traced directly to either Sumerian or Egyptian precursor graphemes. Still another factor is the greater abstraction and simplicity of the Phoenician and proto-Phoenician list. The Chinese ganzhi are mostly still pictographic in OSBI whereas the letters of the Phoenician alphabet (or their precursors in the Northern Linear [Canaanite] scripts [Daniels: 89, Fig. 4]) have been largely stripped of pictorial content and reduced to simple geometric shapes. The Phoenician letters are less pictograms and more pure phonograms. They provide more speed, economy, and lower cost—that is, more efficiency—in learning and using the language. In this respect, they represent the more advanced technology of the day.

Thus, although each Chinese *ganzhi* character may have existed long before the proto-Phoenician alphabet, the *ganzhi* as a set would seem to be no earlier than the proto-Phoenician alphabet.

Abbreviations:

AD	The Assyrian Dictionary, edited by Ignace J.Gelb et al.
AMD	Amoy Dictionary, by Rev. Carstairs Douglas
Ball	Chinese and Sumerian, by C. J. Ball
OCP	A Handbook of Old Chinese Phonology, by William H. Baxter
BI	Bronze inscription
Budge	An Egyptian Hieroglyphic Dictionary by E. A. Wallis Budge

Julie Lee Wei, "Correspondences Between the Chinese Calendar Signs and the Phoenician Alphabet", Sino-Platonic Papers, 94 (March, 1999)

Cant. Cantonese dialect

Cihai Cihai Dictionary

DEZ A Dictionary of Early Zhou Chinese, by Axel Schuessler

GS Great seal script

HD Langenscheidt's Pocket Hebrew Dictionary to the Old Testament

Jiagu Jiaguwen Zidian (Dictionary of Oracle Bone Characters), by Xu

Zhongshu et al.

MSM Modern standard Mandarin

Moran The Alphabet and Ancient Calendar Signs, by H. A. Moran and D. H.

Kelley

OB Oracle-shells-and-bones script

OSBI Oracle-shells-and-bones inscriptions

RS Regular script

SC Scribal script

SD The Sumerian Dictionary, "B", edited by Ake W. Sjoberg

SS Small seal script

XY Xingyinyi Zonghe Dazidian (Epigraphical Dictionary of Chinese)

Note:

- 1. The word "related" will be used to mean "cognate", that is, traceable to a common ancestor. For example, English *bus* and Chinese *ba* ("bus") would be related, although no claim is made that the languages are genetically related.
- 2. The transcription of ancient Egyptian words will be that of E. A. W. Budge, who uses an *e* between Egyptian consonants merely as a convention, to make a vowel-less Egyptian word pronounceable.
- 3. Ancient forms of sinographs will be from the *Xingyinyi Zonghe Dazidian* and the *Jiaguwen Zidian* dictionaries, unless otherwise stated.
- 4. Modern Chinese words are represented by modern standard Mandarin, unless otherwise stated.
- 5. The reconstructed archaic sound of Chinese characters will be that of Schuessler's Dictionary of Early Zhou [1050-770 BCE] Chinese, unless otherwise stated.

6. Glosses or etymology on English words will be from Webster's New Collegiate

Dictionary or the Oxford English Dictionary, unless otherwise stated.

The Correspondences

Aleph $ot = \text{and } chou \ (*hnrjaw) \mathcal{L}, OB \mathcal{A}$.

For the identification of this correspondence we are indebted to Moran and Kelley (Moran: 69). They point out that the Hebrew *aleph*, "a bull", is "not the ordinary word for bull, but a special ancient word used for sacred cattle, corresponding to the Assyrian word *alpu*, 'a bull". They also point out that the last letter in the ancient Phoenician alphabet, *taw*, also indicates a bull; for the Aramaic *tor* means "oryx" or "ox", which in Arabic is *thaur*, in Greek *tauros*, and in Latin *taurus* (Moran:14).

Moran and Kelley also noticed that the Chinese calender sign \mathcal{A} *chou* is not a picture of a hand, as Chinese scholars have claimed, but a glyph of the head of an ox. They observe that *chou* \mathcal{E} , \mathcal{A} bears a close resemblance both to *aleph* \mathcal{K} and to the constellation \mathcal{K} in the Chinese lunar zodiac named niu ("ox") \mathcal{K} .

Moran and Kelley's book gives only the modern pronunciation of sinographs, not the ancient or archaic pronunciation. Much work has since been done on inferring earlier pronunciations. The ancient pronunciation of \mathcal{A} is reconstructed as *hnrj*w (DEZ: 85). This may seem phonetically unrelated to aleph, but it becomes plausible if we remember that 1) it is only an inferred pronunciation, not necessarily the actual pronunciation, and 2) the sounds n, l, and r were not distinguished in the ancient Chinese scribe's dialect (e.g., *lj*kw,*Crj*wk ["six"] $\stackrel{\sim}{\sim}$ and *nj*p ["inside"] $\stackrel{\sim}{\mapsto}$ were written with the same OB sign, viz. $\stackrel{\wedge}{\wedge}$, and n and l are still not distinguished in the dialects of Hunan and Hubei. Thus, if we pronounce *hnrj*w as *hlrj*w (if such theoretical constructs are at all pronounceable), we would get a phonetic shape much closer to aleph.

Another point to note is that the sinograph \mathcal{L} , \mathcal{A} occurs in several words today as a phonogram with the pronunciation of niu, which is the homophone of $niu \not\models$ ("ox"). These include the words $niu \not\models \mathcal{L}$ ("twist"), $niu \not\not\models \mathcal{L}$ ("a little girl"), and $niu \not\models \mathcal{L}$ ("button"). This indicates that anciently \mathcal{A} may also have had a sound that meant "ox".

Thus, since the sound, meaning, and graph of Hebrew aleph $\not \perp$ and Chinese chou

(*hnrjew) \mathcal{H} , \mathcal{A} are similar, this is probably a correspondence and not simply a set of coincidences.

Beth 9 (later Greek $\[Beth]$ and $\[Beth]$ and bing (*pjianx) $\[Fema]$, OB $\[Mem]$, $\[Mem]$, $\[Mem]$, $\[Mem]$ was a rotation of $\[Beth]$, a form of $\[Pem]$ (Mair 1990). From my list of correspondences (see Table 1), it would seem that the Semitic th sound corresponds to nasals in many Chinese words:

Mair's correspondence is accepted here because of the similarities of sound, meaning, and graph between $beth \, \mathcal{P}$ and $bing \, \mathcal{H}_1$. Beth \mathcal{P}_2 , Moran and Kelley point out, can mean "house", "temple", "daughter", "woman" in Middle Eastern languages. $B\check{a}\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{F}_2)$ is "maid" in Hebrew (HD: 50).

Chinese shi ("house") $\stackrel{?}{=}$ (OB($\stackrel{?}{\bullet}$), is the classical term for "wife" (i.e., "the person at home") and "to wive", "to marry" (XY: 343). Chinese nei ("inside", "within") $\stackrel{?}{\wedge}$ is also a classical term for "wife". Both are still used in literary Chinese. I shall argue that "woman", "female", and "vulva" were former, now lost, meanings of the logogram $bing[\stackrel{?}{\wedge}]$. If $bing[\stackrel{?}{\wedge}]$ meant "woman", and one's "woman" was referred to as "house" in China, bing ("woman") $\stackrel{?}{\wedge}$ and Hebrew beth $\stackrel{?}{>}$ would be similar in sound, meaning, and graph, a three-way correspondence.

and meaning, that in the early Shang dynasty their graphs were not distinguished. Thus bing would also have meant "within" and "woman" (i.e., "the person at home").

Chinese bi & means "vulva". Bi the, OB anciently meant "mother"; now it means "deceased mother", "ancestress", where bi resembles an ancient Greek form, and of beth or beta (Jensen: 452). Pint means "female". Ping (*pjiayh, see DEZ: 39 for the phonetic sign) ** means "paramour, mistress" and "to have a sexual relation with".

Also, fu (*bji? / *bjəgx) means "woman", "wife" (OCP: 758, DEZ: 179), and be and bi mean "sister" in Minnan (Southern Fujian) dialects, e.g., Amoyese (**). Because of the similarity of sound and meaning, I would maintain that all these designations for "woman" or "female" in Chinese were probably cognates. The graph bing is no longer a word for "woman" today, but "woman" (or "female", "mother", "daughter") was probably one of its meanings in early Shang times when the alphabet was translated into the calendar signs. As is well known, a sinograph can be polyvalent, both phonetically and semantically. A logogram could be used as a rebus or phonogram to generate many other words. Later on, classifier signs were added to distinguish the various meanings of a graph.

Chinese $bing \, \mathbb{N}$ is similar to Sumeran $ban \, \mathbb{N}$, a depiction of the two breasts of a woman (Waddell 1927: Plate II). It meant "to beget", "to create", "son", "daughter ", "young of man and animals". In Old Akkadian, banu is "engender"; banu is "begetter". In Babylonian bantu is "mother" (AD, "B": 80, 87, 94, 238). In Babylonian bintu is "daughter" (AD: B.238). In Ugaritic, bn is "son", "bt" is "daughter" (Gordon: 373). These meanings still survive in various languages, e.g., Arabic bint ("daughter of") and bin ("son of"); Persian -pur ("child of"), where the final r corresponds to -n. P. Anton Deimel in his $Sumerisches\ Lexikon$ gives the graphs \longrightarrow and \longrightarrow , again breasts, with ban(da) and dumu among the phonetic values, and the meanings "Mamma", "child", and "little" (Deimel: 53.273).

But is Chinese $bing \ \ \ \$ related to Sumerian $ban \ \ \$, female breasts, since the outer vertical lines in $bing \ \ \ \$ tend to be parallel rather than slanting inward? I would answer yes.

Deimel gives the signs \bigoplus and \bigoplus as composed of Sumerian udu ("sheep") + "udder" (\boxtimes), together meaning uz ("she-goat"). (Would Sumerian udu be related to English udder, German euter, and the IE base udh-, "udder"?). A variant Sumerian uz ("she-goat") sign is \bigoplus (Deimel: 44.213). These graphs for the udder are almost exactly like the Chinese graphs for $bing \bigwedge$, \bigwedge , \bigwedge (Jiagu: 1540). Deimel also gives the signs for "vulva", "father", and "mother" as \bigwedge , \bigwedge , with the phonetic values of addu and addu (Deimel: 54.274). All these Sumerian symbols are similar in shape and represent words in a word field, all related to gender and reproduction. The same graph, \bigwedge , \bigvee , slightly varied, can represent female breasts, the udder, or the vulva, with the associated meanings of "mother", "female", "vulva", "child", and "father".

Egyptian ben-ti da a meant "the two breasts of a woman". Benn meant "to copulate", "to beget", "to be begotten", "virile", "phallus" (Budge: 217). Egyptian bend and benben also mean "copulate" (Budge: 217) These Egyptian words are similar to Sumerian ban and ban(da) in sound and meaning.

Would Chinese $bing \ \ \ \ \ \$, which looks like Sumerian ban(da) (picture of female breasts) and the Sumerian graph for the udder, and also Egyptian ben-ti (picture of the two breasts) be related to the Sumerian ban(da) and Egyptian ben-ti logograms? I maintain that it is indeed related to the Sumerian and Egyptian. What further evidence do we have for this view?

There are many OB characters containing the bing $\mathbb N$ symbol in the Jiagu dictionary, but most of them are as yet undeciphered. As far as I can ascertain, one of the few Chinese words which contains the bing $\mathbb N$ symbol and still retains a vestige of these ancient meanings of bing (*pjinyx) $\mathbb N$ appears to be the word bian (*pjian) $\mathbb N$, whose semantic values include "whip", "pizzle of a male animal", "pizzle of an ox, dog, tiger, deer"(Cihai: 2037). The bing symbol is written twice here, denoting plural number. Various scholars cited in the XY dictionary interpret this symbol as a representation of the rump of a horse or buttocks of a man. I interpret the bing $\mathbb N$ symbol as simply a male symbol, here symbolizing horses or men. It resembles the Sumerian ad-da sign $\mathbb N$, which can mean male or female ("mother" or "father"). The lower $\frac{1}{2}$ graph is a well-recognized glyph of a hand ($\frac{1}{2}$) holding a stick or whip. OB

(now 更) has the modern Mandarin pronunciation of *geng*, meaning "change", but was probably formerly pronounced *bian* (使), also meaning "change" and "to take over (the control of men)" (*DEZ*: 195). Hence the male symbols *bing* 器 and a hand with a stick 为. The later SS form [(now), also containing the male symbol *bing* 中 together with a hand and a stick 为, however, is now pronounced *bian*, meaning "to urinate", "to defecate". Here there is a slight semantic shift, but the referents are still close to, if not within, the word field.

Furthermore, I interpret \(\) as a male symbol in the words $shi \)$, RS $\not \in \$ ("troops"), kuan ("functionaries") \(\hat{Q} \), RS $\not \in \$, and xue $\not \in \$ ("govern", an obsolete meaning) [XY: 1544]). The meaning of the symbol $\not \in \$ in these words is much disputed (XY: 0341, 0394, 1430). One view is that it is an abbreviation of $\not \in \$, a symbol variously interpreted as representing a bound prisoner (in sitting position, with head bent to the ground), a staring eye, and the buttocks of a man. Some scholars maintain that the eye symbolizes a man, man-servant, or minister. Others maintain that the buttocks symbolizes a male. It seems to me that when we are speaking of troops, servants, and men as the governed masses, or of horses being whipped, it would be more likely that the male would be represented by the male symbol (buttocks perhaps) rather than by the staring eye. I would maintain that the graph $\not \circ$ is a symbol of the male pudenda and that $\not \circ$ and $\not \circ$ are but variants of the bing $\not \circ$ symbol, which like the Sumerian $\not \circ$ symbol, may represent either male or female as begetter (see above).

These then are the evidence and the reasoning that lead me to the view that Chinese bing , Sumerian ban ("woman's breasts", "to beget", "daughter", "son") and Egyptian ben-ti ("woman's breasts") and benn ("to copulate", "to beget"), ben ("copulate") are related, since they are similar in sound and meaning.

Waddell maintained that Sumerian *ban* ("breasts", "beget", "daughter", etc.) was related to Egyptian *bann-t* (i.e., *bnt* ["breasts"]) and to Scottish *bairn* ("child") and other Indo-European words (Waddell 1927: 27). I would point out that *bing* ⋈ also has parallels in Celtic words for "woman"—Old Irish *ben*, New Irish *bean*, Welsh *benyw*, (Buck: 2:22); for "female"—Old Irish *ban-*, Welsh *benyw-*, (Buck: 2.24); and for "breasts"—Old Irish *bruinne*, Welsh *bron*, and Breton *brennid* (Buck: 4.40). Recent

archaeological diggings have indicated the probable presence of ancient Celts in the region west of China, in present-day Chinese Sinkiang (Barber: 135ff). Chinese ding ("man") \mathcal{T} also has parallels in Celtic: Welsh dyn ("man"), Breton den ("man"), Irish duine ("man"), where "man" means "human being" (Buck: 2.1). We also have Sumerian din ("man") (Ball: Sign-list, no. 21).

Still another indication that "woman" or "female" was a semantic value of the graph $bing \mathbb{N}$ is one noted by Moran and Kelley: The name for the constellation \square in the Chinese lunar zodiac, which resembles Hebrew $beth \mathcal{I}$ was named nu ("woman") \mathcal{U} .

Does an important word like bing ("woman", "female", etc.) survive in any other variant or cognate form in Chinese? It probably does. The surviving variant or cognate forms of bing probably include bi (*pjidax/h) ("mother" [obsolete], "deceased mother", "ancestress") \(\pi \mathbb{L} \), bi (*pjidax) ("vulva") \(\mathbb{L} \), and \(pin \) (*pjidax) ("female") \(\mathbb{L} \) (XY: 0165, see note by Li Jingzhai \(\mathbb{L} \) (\(\mathbb{L} \)); 947). Of particular significance is the reconstruction *pjidax/h (for both Chinese "mother" and "vulva") which corresponds to Sumerian \(ban-da \) and Egyptian \(ben-ti \), where the \(-da \) and \(-ti \) are feminine endings. For final \(n-da \) and \(n-ti \), the Chinese has \(-dx/h \), still recognizable as the feminine endings (recall that the \(bing \) grapheme is similar to both the Sumerian graphemes for female breasts as well as to those for the vulva).

Thus I conclude that bing (*pjinyx) $\$ was a glyph for "mother", "vulva", "female", "daughter", etc., and perhaps also for "within", in Shang times and would be similar to Phoen/Heb beth? in sound, meaning (as "house", "woman"), and graph.

Gimel
$$\uparrow$$
, \uparrow , \uparrow and wu (*hmət) \uparrow OB $\{ \}$, $\{ \}$, $\{ \}$.

What do we see as the most striking feature of the ancient forms of gimel 1, 1? Obviously their pointed shape. Most scholars believe that gimel means "camel", even though they agree that the Hebrew names of the Phoenician symbols may not reflect the original meaning of the symbols and were adopted merely as nicknames. In Egyptian demotic, gmwl means "camel". For camel we also have Akkadian gamalu, Hebrew gamal, Aramaic gaml-a, Arabic gamal, English camel, and French chameau. The African Nubian word for camel is kam (Vycichl: 341).

Chinese $wu \notin \mathcal{F}$, includes among its meanings "noon". The OB and BI forms of wu include $\mathbf{1}$ and $\mathbf{1}$ respectively, both depictions of pestles. The earliest oracle-bone form of wu, however, is $\mathbf{2}$ (RS $\mathbf{4}$), a skein of silk..

At first I matched the pestle glyph \uparrow with $gimel \uparrow$, \uparrow because of the pointedness. As for the reconstructed sound of $wu \not \uparrow$, Schuessler gives *nga?, while Baxter gives *nga?, all quite different from Hebrew gimel. This was puzzling. Looking again at the earliest glyph of wu, which is $\not \Diamond$, I suspected that there might be a different pronunciation. Indeed, this glyph $\not \Diamond$, a skein of silk, had two phonetic values, one being $*hm_{\eth}t$. This we know from the dictionary gloss (XY:1289):

This is followed by the gloss:

"餐所吐者為外。" "That which a silkworm spits out is called si [§]."

Since in the first sentence "That which a silkworm spits out is called hu [* $hm \ge t$]" and the second sentence says: "That which a silkworm spits out is called si [$\frac{k}{2}$]", it means that $\frac{k}{2}$ ($\frac{k}{2}$) was called * $hm \ge t$ or si, and this interpretation is borne out in the two modern pronunciations of the glyph $\frac{k}{2}$, mi and si.

Now, *hm\delta t resembles gimel in phonetic shape. It also resembles Egyptian qnbt. I believe that the pestle glyphs \dark and \dark were also pronounced something like *hm\delta t\$, in

the Shang translator's time and dialect or topolect (we can only assume that reconstructions are at best approximations of ancient pronunciation).

The glyphs for *hm*t \cline{b} , \cline{c} , all feature prominently a pointed tip, namely, "the end", "the extremity". Now mo \cline{c} ("end", "extremity") is reconstructed by Schuessler as *mat (DEZ: 427) and Baxter reconstructs mo \cline{c} , a word with the same phonogram, also as *mat (OCP: 777). But the Chinese dictionary states that mo \cline{c} was in classical Chinese interchangeable with wu \cline{d} (XY: 0691), and since wu \cline{d} is used as a phonogram in *hm*t \cline{d} , it would be reasonable to presume that wu \cline{d} and therefore mo \cline{d} (with which it was interchangeable) also had the phonetic value of *hm*t. In other words, *hm*t \cline{d} also meant *hm*t (mo \cline{d}) "end", "tip", "extremity", similar in meaning to gimel, "point", "angle", "corner". \cline{d} , meaning "noon" also means the highest point or tip ("noon").

Thus gimel 1 and wu (*hm δt) 7, 8 would be similar in sound, meaning ("point", "tip"), and graph.

Daleth \triangleleft , \triangleleft and ding (*tin) \mathcal{T} , OB \square , \uparrow .

E. G. Pulleyblank wrote about similarities between the Chinese ganzhi and the Phoenician alphabet in 1975 (although he has since rejected the notion that they correspond) (Pulleyblank 1996). Certainly, the first few letters would seem similar. $Daleth \triangleleft$ would then correspond to Chinese $ding \square (\intercal)$. Here again there are similarities in sound, meaning, and graph.

Scholars have conjectured that *daleth* means "door" or "mouth" (Jensen:282, Moran: 73ff). Assyrian *daltu* means "a door", "door of a house", "jaws of a crocodile", "gates of a city", "the door of life". Greek *delta* \triangle means "mouth" or "outlet of a river". Hebrew *dal* means "door", among other things (Moran: 73).

The $daleth \triangle$ graph probably derives from the Sumerian symbol for mouth or speech, (a, b), pronounced (a, b), or (a, g), (a, g)

The daleth \triangle graph also derives from the Sumerian symbol for head, \bigcap , pronounced sag (Ball: Sign-list, no. 62; Deimel: 43, no. 194). (I also agree with Ball that it is related to the Chinese word for head, shou, sau [Cant.] (*skhjagwx) \bigcap . Note Hebrew sar \bigcap ["head"] and sor \bigcap ["head of cattle"]). Daleth \bigcirc , \triangle is probably a simplification of the Sumerian \bigcap , which may be related to the Egyptian hieroglyph \bigcap , unem ("eat, devour") (Budge: cix).

Daleth \triangle the letter for d, is dant in the Ethiopic alphabet, where the -l- corresponds to a nasal consonant. Similarly, in the Chinese character ding (*tig) \square corresponding to daleth, the -l- corresponds to a nasal sound.

The glyph $ding \, \mathcal{O}$ looks like the Chinese graph for kou ("mouth") $\, \mathcal{O} \,$, $\, \mathcal{O} \,$. Kou ("mouth") $\, \mathcal{O} \,$ is also used metaphorically as "mouth of river" (similar to the Greek usage), "mouth of the alley", etc. "Door" and "mouth" (entrance) has a common meaning.

One of the meanings of *tig, \square , is "head", also later written $\mathcal{I}_{\overline{k}}$. Another meaning is "man," or "adult male". As we know, "mouth" is often synonymous with "person", as in the phrase "mouths to feed". And Chinese *tig, \square ("mouth" or "head"), also meant "person" for census, household registration, and military draft purposes. The pictogram for *tig, \square , is similar to daleth \triangle , both being abstract line contours of an orifice representing the mouth or the head.

*Tij, \mathcal{J} (OB \mathcal{D}) ("man"), is probably related to Sumerian din, tin ("male", "man"), represented by the sign \mathcal{M} (male pudenda) (Ball: Sign-list, no. 21). C. J. Ball maintained, however, that this Sumerian word and graph is related to Chinese chen (*djin) ("male servant") \mathcal{L} (OB \mathcal{L}) which is also most likely a symbol of the male pudenda. Parallels of din ("man") are also found in Celtic, as we have already observed.

Thus Phoen/Heb $daleth \triangle$ is similar to Chinese ding (*tiy) \mathcal{T} , OB \square in sound, graph, and meaning (as "door", "mouth" ["entrance"], "head").

He 🗦 , 🔰 , and hai (*ge7) 发 , OB J, 3 .

Here again sound, meaning, and graph are similar. Many scholars (Diringer 1948, Jensen 1969) believe that he = meant "fence." One of the meanings of Chinese hai = meant "boundary" (Cihai). Later hai ("boundary") was written meaning, very

close to "boundary", was "barrier", hai \mathfrak{F} , later written BS \mathfrak{F} (XY: 1967). Thus in sound and meaning hai \mathfrak{F} is similar to Phoen/Heb he ("fence") \mathfrak{F} . The glyph for hai, \mathfrak{F} , although similar to that for Phoen/Heb he \mathfrak{F} does not depict a boundary, but a root; for one of the meanings of hai is "root", later written \mathfrak{F} . All the same, he \mathfrak{F} and hai \mathfrak{F} , resemble each other in sound, meaning (as "fence", "boundary", or "barrier"), and graph.

Waw \mathcal{Y} , \mathcal{Y} , \mathcal{Y} and wu (*mugh/mu?h/*məw?h)/ \mathcal{X} , OB \mathcal{Y} . Although the archaic Chinese pronunciation of wu/ \mathcal{Y} is reconstructed as *mugh,*mu?h, or *məw?h (DEZ: 650), it was probably also pronounced wu as it is now pronounced in some dialects. On the ancient pronunciation of Chinese words Victor Mair writes:

Since next to nothing is presently known of ancient and archaic Sinitic morphology (except a smattering about affixes, pronominal cases, etc.) let us concentrate on phonology for now. The total phonological system of Sinitic consists of all the sounds customarily spoken in all of the branches, languages, dialects, and subdialects of that group. Because the vast majority of these sounds have never been recorded in sinographs (indeed, many of the morphemes conveyed by these sounds are not directly representable by the sinographs) ..., we have to get at these sounds by any feasible means, including...

- 1. ...careful observation and comparison of all the hundreds of Sinitic languages, dialects, and subdialects still being spoken today...
- 2. ...research on the borrowings of foreign words in Sinitic texts and the borrowing of Sinitic words in foreign texts.... (Mair: 1996)

Thus the inferred archaic pronunciations *mu?h / *maw?h (DEZ: 650) of wu/v^t were not necessarily the only pronunciations, since so little is known of ancient Chinese pronunciation among the many dialects. It is quite probable that some dialects

pronounced \mathcal{N} as wu (or something close to waw) and others as *mu2h / *m *w2h, since wu and mu sounds frequently alternate across dialects, as shown by the following words:

Now let us consider the pictographic composition and meaning of waw Y. Scholars tend to agree that waw probably meant "hook" (Moran: 77; Jensen: 282). "Hook" is among the several meanings of waw in Hebrew. Chinese wu is a halberd (combination of spear and battle-axe) with a hook at the end. Chinese wu (*mu?h) may be related to Sumerian mul ("spear") (Ball: 106), Egyptian marhu, markh ("lance", "spear") (Budge: 283) and Egyptian ua ("pike", "harpoon") (Budge: cxl, no. 43). Certainly Chinese wu ("hooked halberd") , Phoen/Heb waw ("hook) , and Egyptian ua ("pike", "harpoon") are similar in sound, meaning, and graph. Later renditions of waw are , y, but these may reflect much earlier forms.

Thus, there is similarity of sound, meaning, and graph between Phoen/Heb waw Υ and Chinese wu $\mathring{\chi}$, Υ .

Zayin I (ancient Greek forms \ddagger , \pm) and ren (nzjəm [DEZ: 507]) \pm , OB I. Here there is similarity in sound, meaning, and graph. The meaning of zayin I has been disputed (Moran: 79). Jensen agrees with those who maintain that zayin almost certainly means "weapon" (Jensen: 282). Moran and Kelley speculates that zayin corresponds to Sumerian zi, zin ("life", "soul", "living creature", etc.) (Moran: 79).

My interpretation of the meanings of Hebrew zayin \mathcal{I} and Chinese ren (nzj_0m) 1 follows.

The earliest meaning of $ren\ (nzj \ni m)$ I is not readily discoverable in Chinese dictionaries because it is not given under the character $ren \pm I$, I itself. (The Cihai is obviously the work of multiple editors, for the editor of one section is sometimes unaware that a problematic graph has been treated in another section.) $Ren\ I$ is hidden in the gloss of another word, the word $luan \mathbb{R} L$ (Cihai: 0030), whose surviving meanings include "disorder", "rebellion", "calamity", "confused". An obsolete meaning is "to order affairs". It has been noticed that this word $luan \mathbb{R} L$ means both "disorder" and

•2.1

attested meanings of "the west", "crime", "sorrow", "hardship", "pain", "a pungent taste" and "renewal through fasting and abstinence". It is also synonymous with xin (sinm) if ("new", "to renew").

There is strong evidence that $samekh \neq is$ related to the Egyptian hieroglyph which probably had among its meanings "herb", "grass", "vegetables", "corn", and "crop", and probably sem as one of its phonetic values. Here is some of the evidence for the sound sem and its meanings:

Budge gives about 18 different hieroglyphic forms for this word *sem*, 7 of them containing both the sign and the sign, but placed in various positions. In three of these 18 hieroglyphs for *sem*, the sign appears without the sign. Budge also gives *sim* as the corresponding Coptic word for *sem*.

First of all, a few words on Egyptian writing. Egyptian writing operates on the same essential principles as Chinese writing. The basic unit in ancient Egyptian is the pictograph, which can function as a word (logogram), a phonogram, or a semagram. A word typically has a phonetic component and a semantic component. The phonetic component consists of a sequence of phonograms, each typically representing a sequence of one to three consonantal phonemes. Vowels are generally unexpressed. This is followed by a semantic component consisting of a semagram (Loprieno: 12-13), called the "determinative" or "classifier" (corresponding to the "radical" in Chinese), which indicates the sphere or domain of the meaning of the word. A difference between Egyptian and Chinese is that the phonetic component in Egyptian is represented by consonants or syllables whereas it is syllabic in Chinese. Egyptian writing, like Chinese, may be written from left to right or from right to left, and from top to bottom. The

English *mere*, German *Meer*, etc. ["sea"]; and Sumerian *si* ["water"] would correspond to Chinese: Cantonese *soi* ["water"] * , English *sea*, Old English *sæ*, Dutch *zee*, and German *see*, etc. ["sea"].)

Although "fish" is generally the meaning assigned to nun, for "fish" is nun in Aramaic and late Hebrew, and nunu in Assyrian (Moran: 96), the glyph is probably derived from the ancient Egyptian phonogram for the consonant n, written as —, which means "water" (Loprieno: 15). Nun would be an abbreviation of —. In South Semitic: Proto-Arabic scripts, which date to as early as the 5^{th} and 6^{th} century BCE, alphabet letter n includes the forms —, —, which resemble Sumerian and Egyptian symbols for water (Jensen: 338).

 $Yi \ (*?arjot)$ also means "fish gut". This would also resemble the Hebrew meaning of nun, which is "fish". Nun was probably a semiticization of Egyptian nu-t ("water", "stream", etc.) and "fish" would be a close rendition of the Egyptian meaning, since fish may be regarded as a metonym for water.

Thus $nun \, 7$, $\frac{1}{7}$ and $yi \, (*?arj t) \, 2$, $\frac{1}{7}$ resemble each other in sound, meaning (relating to water and fish) and graph.

Samekh \ddagger , \ddagger and xin (sigm [South Fujian: Taiwanese] / *sjin) \ddagger , OB $\stackrel{?}{\Rightarrow}$, $\stackrel{?}{\Rightarrow}$. The meaning of samekh has hitherto been highly uncertain. Jensen says: "...samekh (a support? fish?)" Moran and Kelley speculate that it may be the Hebrew word samakh, "to lay a hand" on the victim of the sacrifice, "to support" or "lift up" (seemingly, a sacrificial carcass before the altar) (Moran: 98).

Schuessler reconstructs the archaic sound of $xin \not\ni as *sjin (DEZ: 683)$. However, the South Fujian: Taiwanese pronunciation $si\eta m$ is much closer to Hebrew samekh and may very well have been closer to the ancient pronunciation of xin than Schuessler's *sjin. Moreover, the South Fujian: Amoyese sound for xin ("dense and luxuriant foliage") $\not\ni$, which has $\not\ni$. $\not\ni$ as phonetic sign and was probably one of the semantic values of $\not\ni$, is sim. Therefore I shall refer to $xin \not\ni$, $\not\ni$ as $si\eta m$.

The original meaning of the glyph ∇ sigm is disputed (XY:1848). One scholar sees it as the depiction of a blade, believing it to signify crime and punishment. Sigm ∇ has the

signs \(\gamma\) and \(\begin{align*} \) stand for "water". The Chinese pictogram would be an impressive example of graphic wit. As a symbol of the male pudenda, it is more abstract and witty than the literal rendition of the corresponding Egyptian hieroglyph. Some versions of early North Semitic \(mem/mu\) suggest that it may have doubled as shorthand for the Egyptian pictogram of the phallus, but that may be reading too much into the proto-Phoenician symbol.

In any case, it is here argued that there is a three-way resemblance between Phoen/Heb *mem* and Chinese *mao*, in sound, meaning, and symbol.

Nun
$$\beta$$
, β and yi (*?arjət) λ , OB \langle , β , \langle .

There is frequent alternation between the r and n sounds in Chinese, for example, ren (Minnan nin) $\{ \pm \}$, ri (*njit) ("day") $\{ \pm \}$, and rou (* $nj \ni kw$) ("meat") $\{ \pm \}$. There are instances of the same radical being pronounced with initial -n or -r (e.g., $ru \not\equiv and nu \not\equiv ru \not\equiv and ru \not\equiv and$

Nu-t (one of many variant forms), also means "lake", "pool", "stream", "canal" (Budge: 349).

Chinese yi (*?arjət) \angle , \langle meant "a small stream" (XY: 0385), a meaning that is now obsolete. Its meaning as "small stream" or "water" is attested by the many OB characters having \langle , \langle as the classifier for water (Jiagu: 1090ff):

This water radical \int , the same graph as yi (*?arjət) ∂ , \int appears to be an abbreviation of Sumerian a, me, si, etc. ("water") $\int \int \int \int W$ (Waddell 1927: Plate IV; Deimel: 184.949). (Sumerian me [water"] would correspond to Chinese *hmi? [OCP: 761] / *me / *me? \mathcal{F} [reconstruction based on words with mei \mathcal{F} phonograms, DEZ: 408]["sea"],

Chinese mao, *mru, $\sqrt{7}$, SC $\sqrt{6}$, meaning "the Pleiades", "power", "nobility" (in relation to one's horoscrope). Ball points out that Sumerian mu ("man", "male") (from MU-SH=GUSH, GISH) corresponds to Chinese mou (* $m \ge gwx/*m \ge w$?) ("male of animals") \$\pm\$\pm\$ (Ball: 106). Mou ("male of animals") \$\pm\$\pm\$ may be a surviving variant of mao (which I have conjectured as "male pudenda") \$\pm\$\pm\$, just as \$pin\$ ("female of animals") \$\pm\$\pm\$ may be a surviving variant of OB bing \$\pm\$ (RS\pm\$), which I have conjectured to have originally meant "mother", "vulva", "female", etc.

In Egyptian hieroglyphs, procreation and seed are associated with water, as they are in the Chinese glyph mao, *mru, d b. Similarly, the male organ in ancient Egyptian hieroglyphs is used both as a procreative symbol associated with water, and as a symbol of power and authority, and simply as a phonetic sign (for met in Egyptian) as well:

Egyptian mu is "water"; mu means "water", "essence", "sperm" (Budge: 293); met means "phallus"; met ("seed") ; met ("inundation") ; met ("canal bank") ; met ("chief", "governor") ; met ("noon"); met ("noon"); met (related to English "middle" and Chinese *hmet, "noon"?); met (right, proper) (related to English meet["proper"]?); met ("a kind of cloth") (The \triangle represents a t sound; Budge: 331-32.)

Hebrew maor Trypmeans "pudenda"; mod This means "power", "strength", "force". These Sumerian, Egyptian, and Hebrew words are similar to Chinese mao (*mru) in sound and meaning. (There are also correspondences in Indo-European: for example, Old High German maht [power], Sanskrit medhra (phallus), Latin muto (phallus) [Buck: 4.492].)

Although mem is the name for ξ in the alphabet, it may be a later hebraization of Egyptian or Assyrian mu ("water"), and it may have been still close to the mu sound in the Shang period, as indicated by Greek mu and Chinese mao,*mru.

Phoen/Heb mem $\frac{2}{3}$ and Chinese mao (*mru) $\frac{1}{3}$, RS $\frac{9}{7}$ are then similar in sound and meaning ("water" and its associations). As to the graphemes, I would argue that there is a conceptual resemblance. Both depict a pathway of flow, the Phoen/Heb $\frac{1}{3}$ and the Chinese $\frac{1}{3}$, where in the Chinese the central channel ($\frac{1}{3}$) in $\frac{1}{3}$ suggests the phallus and flow, as well as the neck of a jar or water-pot and flow. In Sumerian, the

•

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酉、日 流
                                                         那 97.41.96
You (*lj \exists w?) liu (*lj \exists gw/*rj \exists w) liu (*[C]rj \exists w?) liu (*[C]rj \exists w?) liu (*[C]rj \exists w?)
              ("stream, flow") ("stream, flow") ("stream, flow")
("stream",
"store water",
"store water
                                                                      4P . dp
for irrigation",
                               liu (*ljəgw/*Crjəw)
                                                                       mao (*mru)
"irrigated field",
                                                                        ("water",
"wine")
                          ("[to let water] flow [into fields]",
                                                                  "male pudenda")
                             i.e., "to irrigate", "to store
                            [hold back] water [in fields]")
                      ("hold in reserve", "remain", "tarry", etc.)
                                                                     mao (*mru)
                                                                      ("Pleiades",
                                                                "power", "nobility")
```

Table. 5. Interpretation of mao 4 p , 4 (conjectured meanings are in bold-face).

phonetic value of liu (*(C)rj>w?) (now written 村), a near-homophone of you (*lj>w?) ("wine", "store water for irrigation", "irrigated field") 图 and liu (*rj>w) ("stream") 流し

A well-recognized meaning of mao (*mru) ϕ (later ϕ , ϕ) is "the Pleiades", symbolizing power and nobility (XY: 662). I maintain that in addition to the meaning of "the Pleiades", "power and nobility", the glyph ϕ also meant "male pudenda" as well as "testicles". Here the glyph of the top of a water-pot with two ears would have taken on the meaning of male pudenda through visual punning. The idea of visually associating the male pudenda with water, generation, power, and nobility would be related, if not derived from, the corresponding words and earlier scripts of Sumeria and Egypt, as will be shown. A comparison of the words I have just discussed and believe to be cognates are displayed in Table 5.

It is reasonable to assume that the plyph also represents the male pudenda because $mao \neq b$ has the alternate phonetic value liu and liu resembles luan ("egg", "testicles") $p \neq b$ (BIP) in sound. Moreover, since the latter glyph does not appear in OSBI, but only in bronze inscription script, we may presume that luan ("testicles") was earlier written as pudenda, since means "testicles", it is logical to assume that p = b meant the male pudenda, for by accentuating his meaning with the two lines, the scribe is simply saying: "I mean—this." This is like the Sumerian scribe when he wrote for "head" and for "mouth", "speech". In the latter he added the diagonal strokes to say: "I mean this—mouth."

P AB Aβ
"mouth" "head" "testes" "pudenda"

This interpretation of mao (*mru) $\[\] \] \] is clarified by the comparison in Table 5. The Chinese <math>mao$, liu (*mru /*[C]rjow?) $\[\] \] \] OB \[\] \] <math>\[\] \]$ suggest that these words and graphs were related to corresponding words and graphs in Sumerian and Egyptian. Sumerian mag ("great, high, exalted") is represented by the glyph of a phallus: $\[\] \]$ (Ball: Sign-list, no. 28) and the Sumerian "male" signs include $\[\] \]$ and $\[\] \]$ (Ball: Sign-list, no. 19). Ball cites as his source Fritz Hommel's Sumerische Lesestucke (1892). Sumerian ma, mu ("beget")(Ball: 102) correspond to Chinese mao, * $mru \in \[\] \]$ (depiction of male pudenda); and Sumerian ma, mu ("to rise, shine", of sun, stars) (Ball: 102) correspond to

Mem ξ , ξ and mao (*mru) \mathcal{GP} , \mathcal{OB} ψ , \mathcal{OB} .

Mem is generally thought to mean "water." Mu means "water" in Egyptian (Budge: 280) and Assyrian; mayim means "waters" in Hebrew (*hmə?, is "sea" in Chinese; mere is "a sheet of water" in Old English, mare "sea" in Latin, etc.). The Phoen/Heb glyph \{ is an abbreviation of Egyptian mu ("water") (Budge: 293), the sound of which has been reconstructed as *maw (Loprieno: 12). Chinese mao (*mru) is a depiction of what has been interpreted by Chinese scholars as two flaps or panels of an open door. C. J. Ball interprets it as the male pudenda, and I would concur (Ball: Sign-list, no. 26). However, it is a a door as metaphor (a door to generation). The \{ , \(\) symbol is a door symbol in the South Arabic alphabetic script (e.g., Thamudic and Safatene) (Jensen: 338) and I believe the resemblance between Chinese \(\) and the South Arabic symbols is not just an accidental coincidence.

The fact that the pot has only the top and not the bottom would indicate the meaning "flowing", "flowing out" or "pouring" of water or other liquid. Or it could simply be shorthand for a water pot, symbolizing liquids, including water, and actions such as flowing or pouring.

I maintain, therefore, that a lost meaning of mao, *mru, \$\dagger\$, is "water" or "water flowing", a meaning that would correspond with Hebrew mem ("water") and Egyptian *maw. This interpretation is supported by a number of facts. One is that \$\dagger\$ also had the

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Sumerian *lud*, *dug*, *duk* ("pot", "vessel", "to pour water", "to inundate" simplified to Sumerian bal ("to dig for water", Sumerian lud, dug ("pot", "jar", "pitcher", etc., "to pour water", "to draw up water") "to inundate"), corresponding to *a-bal* ("irrigation) South Semitic alphabet letter lawe, (Ball: Sign-list, no. 102) Babylonian dalu ("draw water from well"), [ba-al][BAL]=[da]-lu-u (AD: D.56)Mid-Assyrian dalu ("bucket used in irriga*bal=da-lu-u* (*AD*: D.56) ba-al ("to dig out water") tion", "irrigation with water drawn from (SD: "B": 10.11;10.1.3) well", "field irrigated by water drawn from well") (AD: D.56), and through interchange of -u- and -mu-, to Neo-Assyrian lummu ("a small pot"), and Hebrew lamed ("ox-goad") U, Uwhich in turn corresponds to Chinese *ljaw? \ , 西 (glyph of pot or jar, meaning "wine", "store water for irrigation",

Table 4. Interpretation of Hebrew lamed ℓ and Chinese you (*ljəw?) , 貞 .

"irrigated fields"), probably related to

Sumerian *lud*, *dug* ("pot", "inundate")

Egyptian nu ("pot", "liquids"), and

Akkadian rihu ("pour water", "inundate"),

Egyptian nu-t ("mass of water").

Dictionary tells us that dug. DUG=lu-um-mu, that DUG.DUG=lum-mu, na-as-pa-kum. and that Neo-Assyrian lummu meant "a small pot" (AD: IX.246). It appears then that Sumerian dug ("pot", "pitcher", "jug", "to pour water", "inundate", etc.) was read lummu in Neo-Assyrian, meaning "a small pot" (AD: L.246), just like Chinese characters taken over by the Japanese can have two pronunciations, a Chinese one and a Japanese one. Neo-Assyrian dates from the 10th to the 7th century (Caldwell 1975: 4). Neo-Assyrian lummu ("a small pot") was probably a cognate of Hebrew lamed \(\mathcal{L}\). Probably in the early Shang period, the letter \(\mathcal{L}\) (lummu, lamed, lawe) was still named Sumerian lud ("pot", "pitcher", "to pour out", "inundate", "irrigation") in the proto-Phoenician alphabet. The -u- sound in Sumerian lud, corresponding to South Semitic lawe, probably later became a -mu- or -m- sound, as in lummu and lamed. This interpretation is sketched in Table 4.

The Sumerian glyphs for "draw up water", "irrigation", bal , depict abstractly the top of a well or other water-drawing contrivance and a vessel (bottle, pitcher, pot, etc.) being lowered by a rope or pole to draw water. Lamed (Neo-Assyrian lummu) \(\ext{would be an abbreviation of those glyphs.} \) Notice that "pot", "jar" or other vessel for holding water, "to pour water", and "inundate" are all objects or actions implied by the word "irrigation". Lamed was probably a hebraization of an earlier name of the \(\ell \) glyph, which certainly also looks like an ox-goad.

That the Chinese did not translate *lamed* into a word approximating "ox-goad" but into **ljaw?* ("wine", "store water for irrigation", "irrigated field") indicates that *lamed* was originally Neo-Assyrian *lummu* ("a small pot") or a related form of *lummu*, probably after the early Shang period (the sound was probably still Sumerian *lud* in the early Shang). Greek *mu* also reflects an earlier (in this case, Egyptian or Assyrian) word for water, *mu*, rather than Hebrew *mem*. Thus *lamed* (related to Neo-Assyrian *lummu* and Sumerian *lud*) and *you* (**ljaw?*) , would have been, in proto-Phoenician, similar not only in sound (as evidenced by South Semitic *lawe*, Sumerian *lud*, Neo-Assyrian *lummu*, etc.) but also in meaning ("pot", "inundate", "irrigation"). As to graph, *lamed* (a ladle) and *you* (**ljaw?*) are pictorially similar in concept, since both are icons of a

31]. This appears to be similar to the frequent interchange of n, r, l, j, and nr among Chinese speakers or across Chinese dialects. E.g., yu ["fish"] is nr in some Hubei dialects.) Egyptian nu-t, Sumerian lud, and Chinese $*lj \ni w$? are similar in sound, meaning ("water-pot", "water" or "liquid"), and graph (a pot or jar), a three-way correspondence. Chinese $*lj \ni w$? like Sumerian lud, dug ("pitcher", "pot") also appear to have had two sounds:

- 1) *ljaw? (corresponding to Sumerian lud) \(\forall \) meaning "wine", "store water for irrigation", etc., and
- 2) *tsjew?, *dzjəw (corresponding to Sumerian dug, duk), as in (RS 声) ("wine"), and 一(RS 声) ("wine"[obsolete usage], "chief", "leader", etc.) (DEZ: 842, 1857). In the latter word, 一, the graph for wine also served as a phonogram for other words ("chief", "leader", etc.). But the graph is that of a wine or water jar or bottle, and Gao Hongjin高 中间 that the phrase *dzjəw-ren() meant "server of wine", "一点人,"in the Zhou Li (Zhou Rites) (XY: 1857). Furthermore, the graphs of *tsjəw?,如 and *dzjəw 中 resemble that of Sumerian lud, dug, 中 . (Ball: Sign-list, no. 14). Since there is resemblance in both sounds, in meaning, and in graph—a fourfold resemblance—one is led to the conclusion that the Chinese word was related to the Sumerian.

I show later on (under Phoen/Heb mem) that *lj*w? ("wine", "water stored",

"irrigation") also originally meant "stream", "water", "flow". This further supports

the belief that Akkadian rihu, Sumerian lud, dug, duk, Egyptian nu-t, nu, and Chinese *lj*w?

are all related, being similar in sound and meaning. (Budge points out that Egyptian n

had a n sound; that would correspond to Chinese lj-) (Budge: lvii).

The lamed glyph $\[\]$, $\[\]$ could be interpreted as an abstract depiction of a ladle or vessel (bucket, jug, pot, etc.) for scooping up water. Obviously it looks like a ladle or dipper. The lamed glyph $\[\]$ is probably a shorthand for Sumerian glyphs for bal ("to dig for water", "to draw up water") (Ball: Sign-list, no.102) and lud, dug ("pitcher", "pot", etc.), as shown in the diagram below. Chinese *lj\[\] is the picture of a jar, pot, or bottle, a symbol for "liquids", or "stored liquid" (hence the extended meanings, "water stored for irrigation", "irrigated field"). Obviously, $\[\]$ is faster to write than $\[\]$. The Assyrian

include "exhaust" ("reach to the end"), "the end", "return (home)", "to rest", "to cease", "empty", "full" (DEZ: 501; XY: 1973). Gui 🖟, 🂢 , is the last of the ten heavenly stems, and the meaning of "rest" or "full" would be an appropriate name for the last day of the ten-day week.

Moran and Kelley note: "As primitive counting is done on fingers and there are five fingers on a hand, we would get from this character [4x] 4x5 or 20, the numerical value of *kaph* in the Semitic languages." (Moran: 89).

Kaph $\[\]$, $\[\]$ and gui (*khwiət) $\[\]$, $\[\]$, resemble each other in sound and meaning ("hand", "hands reaching"). They also resemble each other in symbol because each represents a hand abstractly as a stick with three prongs ($\[\]$ and $\[\]$, of which $\[\]$ appears to an abbreviation). Thus, there is a three-way resemblance between $\[\]$ and $\[\]$ gui.

Lamed (South Semitic lawe) $\[\]$, $\[\]$ and you (*ljəw?) $\[\]$, $\[\]$, $\[\]$, $\[\]$. The meaning of lamed has been uncertain. Some scholars believe it means "ox-goad" (Jensen: 282). The sounds of lamed and Chinese *ljəw? are only similar in the initial l-. However, there is greater resemblance between the sounds of Chinese *ljəw? and lawe, the South Semitic variant of lamed (Jensen: 266, Fig. 222).

*Ljaw? (a glyph of a water or wine pot or jar, means "wine", "to store water for irrigation", "irrigated field" (XY: 1857). It is almost certainly related to Akkadian rihu ("pour water", "inundate") (Waddell 1927: 61), as well as to Sumerian lud, dug ("pitcher", "ewer", "pot", "jug") , which Ball points out (Ball: 102; Sign-list, no. 14), to duk ("pot", "bowl", "dish"), duk ("pour water", "inundate"), and duk ("open a canal") (Waddell 1927: 61, 62); and to Egyptian nu ("vase", "vessel", "pot", "what is fluid or viscous") and nut ("mass of water", "lake", "stream", "pool", "canal") (Budge: cxliii, 349). In Sumerian lud, dug, the l-, d- alternate and the -d, -g alternate. Sumerian n-, l-often alternate (Ball: 97) as they do in Chinese, both consonants being alveolars, and so it is not surprising that Egyptian n- in nu and nu-t would correspond to Sumerian l- in lud and Chinese l- in *ljaw? . (Egyptian hieroglyphs did not have an l phoneme in its consonantary. The l sound when it did occur was represented by n, r, j, or nr [Loprieno:

Kaph → , y and gui (*khwiət) 癸, OBX, ¾, BS介, SS共.

The Egyptian hieroglyph \bigcirc of the hand with palm down is pronounced kep (Ball: cviii); another \bigcirc of a dog's or lion's foot is pronounced kap. "Hand" and "foot" were probably often not distinguished in ancient times. Chinese zhi ("toe") is homophonous and synonymous with zhi ("finger"). In Chinese, the symbol \bigcirc is sometimes used for claw (which can mean "foot"), sometimes for hand (as in shou ["receive"] BS \bigcirc [XY: 0197]). Phoen/Heb kaph is very similar to the common Chinese OB sign for hand,

The Chinese XY dictionary cites Shuo Wen as saying that the SS radical $\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabular}{l}\begin{tabu$

The BI, probably later, form of gui depicts arrows, leading some Chinese scholars to interpret the earlier OB glyph as a picture of a weapon, later written (XY: 1090). This may have been one semantic value of the graph. The arrows probably reflect the later scribe's preference for the symbol of feet over hands. Arrows would symbolize "go/reach" while hands would symbolize "reach", and the word *tia ("toes") (XY: 1090). It is also written *tia ("go/reach") (XY: 1090). (RS (XY: 1090)).

I conclude that the word represented by ganzhi sign gui (* $khwi \delta t$) \searrow , \bigotimes (vis-a-vis Phoen/Heb kaph) is the one that was later written que , a word whose meanings

irrigated field. Since irrigation or watering a field is essential for farming or cultivation, it would explain why the glyph \mathbb{R} (\mathbb{R}) appears in words that mean "to farm", "to hoe" (or it may have served as a rebus that was pictorially appropriate).

Egyptian ten-t and tennau (Coptic thene) are two of the various words for "field" (Budge: 881, 882). Egyptian tena means "to embank", "to build the sides of a canal or dyke", and tena-t means "embankment", "dyke", etc. (Budge: 882). Egyptian tennu means "canal", "stream" (Budge: 882). These words are phonetically similar to Chinese *djan, and also fit well with the Chinese pictograph. They may be related. "Irrigated field" in Egyptian hieroglyphs is shti-t (Budge: 758), close phonetically to Hebrew tith, mud, clay, and may be related to it. A watered field would certainly be a field of mud.

Egyptian tenà, tenà-t, or tennu may also account for the two sounds of *djən, namely *djən and nung or nu/nou 農, 兵

Thus Phoen/Heb teth and Chinese $*dj \circ n$ would be similar in sound and meaning. They are also similar in graph in that both \bigoplus and \bigwedge represent land crossed by a pathway or waterway. Teth \bigoplus and chen $(*dj \circ n)$ would then be similar in sound, meaning, and graph.

Yod $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{7}{2}$ and $\frac{1}{2}(*kj=?)$ $\frac{1}{2}$, OB $\frac{2}{3}$, $\frac{5}{3}$.

The graphic resemblance between $yod \ 2$ and $ji \ (*kj \ ?) \ 2$ is close. Yod is commonly glossed as meaning "hand". Gid, gad, id is hand in Sumerian. Sumerian id also means "skill" and "power" (Ball: 82). Idu is "strength" in Assyrian and related Hebrew words mean "strength", "power", "the hand of the Lord", "to handle" (Moran: 87). $Kj \ 2$ has among its meanings "to sort silk threads" (later written $\ 2$). $Kj \ 2$ also means "regulator", "to guide", "to lead", meanings which imply strength and power emanating from the hand.

The sound of the proto-Phoenician letter yod may have been closer to Sumerian gid, and Chinese *kj entsignale ? may have resembled it. In any case the glide -y- and -j- are similar in the Hebrew and the Chinese.

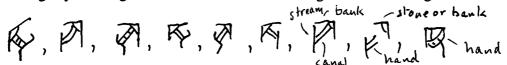
Hence yod \geq and $*kj \geq ? \geq , \geq$ are similar in sound, meaning, and graph.

Also, Chinese * $lj \ge w$? ("water-pot", "store water for irrigation") $\bigvee_{i=1}^{\infty}$, * $lj \ge d$ ("water-pot") and Sumerian lud ("water-pot") (Deimel: 99, no. 575.8) are similar in sound and meaning. This is important as I will soon argue that * $dj \ge n$ probably means "irrigated field", "raise an embankment, dyke", "irrigation".

As to the original meaning of the pictogram $*dj \circ n \not\models \emptyset$ we find in the epigraphical dictionary (XY:1855) the explanation of Li Jingzhai that "Chen \(\overline{k} \) means $chen \not\models \emptyset$, which is to say, $zhen \not\models \emptyset$ or $dian \not\models \emptyset$; to lay out, 'to farm'. It depicts a hand manipulating stone (\nearrow) ." The well-recognized OB glyph for "stone" is \nearrow , \nearrow . The OB glyph $\nearrow (now) \nearrow , han$) also has the meaning "cliff", or "the high bank along a stream or sheet of water" (XY:186).

Li Jingzhai probably comes close to the original meaning of *djank. I break down the glyph into its components as the OB logogram for "small stream" (yi) (XY: 0385, under *chuan*)) plus a glyph for "irrigated land" (()) or "waterway" (()) plus the OB logogram for "embankment" (han) (XY: 0186). The combined pictogram would mean "irrigated land", "irrigation canal", or "irrigation".

In some variants, the "canal" sign (\searrow) becomes a "hand" sign (\swarrow), and the resulting combined pictogram would be a hand raised towards an embankment, which would signify "raising an embankment" or "building a dam" or "irrigation":



It should be noted that the "stream," "waterway" sign \int (sometimes straightened to |) and \int seem to be derived from the Sumerian signs for "water", \int and \int (Deimel: 184, no. 949). The sign for irrigated land \int seems also to be derived from the Sumerian sign for "land along a canal" (Deimel: 39, no. 170).

"Raising an embankment", "raising an irrigation dyke", "irrigated field" or "irrigation" would then be the original meaning of the glyph. This meaning would survive vestigially in the word *chen* + ("to raise"). It may also survive in the word *dian* ("to raise", "to submerge in water", "to be submerged in water"). This *dian* + pictogram is composed of two logograms, *zhi* ("to hold") + and *tu* ("earth") + . "To submerge in water" or "be submerged in water" could be a description of irrigation or an

that the Phoenician teth sign \bigoplus is probably connected with land, field, or irrigated field (even though one of the semantic values of Sumerian \bigoplus is "sheep").

But what about the name of the sign, *teth?* Does it correspond to a Sumerian or Egyptian word meaning "land", "field", or "irrigated field"?

As we have observed, Hebrew -th often corresponds to Chinese, Sumerian, or Egyptian -n or -ng. For example, Hebrew beth in the alphabet corresponds to Chinese bing in the ganzhi and to Egyptian ben-ti. Hebrew teth therefore may correspond to Egyptian ten-t ("a plot of ground, field"), tenau ("fields") (Coptic thene), tena-t ("dyke", "dam") (Coptic thene ("ground", "earth") (Coptic eitn) (Budge: 881, 882, 838). Coptic thene ("fields") and Phoen/Heb teth (which I conjecture to be "field, land" or "irrigated field, land") would parallel Latin terra ("land") and Celtic tir ("land").

Let us now consider the OB form $\sqrt{}$, $\sqrt{}$ of the ganzhi letter chen (*djan) $\sqrt{}$. This pictogram has puzzled Chinese etymologists and has produced imaginative readings, including the explanation that it depicts hands manipulating a farm implement; upper and lower lips and teeth; vegetation emerging with vigor; a crab emerging out of its shell; and an emerging being signifying a woman's pregnancy (XY: 1855). More recently, it has been interpreted as "a scorpion in striking position as seen in profile" (Cook). The only interpretation I find plausible is that of Lin Guangfu $\sqrt{}$, who says that $*djan\sqrt{}$, who says that $*djan\sqrt{}$, who says that $*djan\sqrt{}$, and "to plough", "to hoe" $(nou)\sqrt{}$, where $(nou)\sqrt{}$, and "to plough", "to hoe" $(nou)\sqrt{}$, where $(nou)\sqrt{}$, and "to plough", "to hoe" $(nou)\sqrt{}$, where $(nou)\sqrt{}$, and "to plough", "to hoe" $(nou)\sqrt{}$, where $(nou)\sqrt{}$, where $(nou)\sqrt{}$, and "to plough", "to hoe" $(nou)\sqrt{}$, where $(nou)\sqrt{}$ is a preserved and $(nou)\sqrt{}$, where $(nou)\sqrt{}$, where $(nou)\sqrt{}$ is a preserved and $(nou)\sqrt{}$, where $(nou)\sqrt{}$ is a preserved and $(nou)\sqrt{}$.

Li Jingzhai 5×10^{10} pursues this line of thought when he maintains that *dj n (DEZ: 68) means "to farm" (tian, $[*din] \implies 10^{10}$) (XY:1055).

*Djən ("to farm") 辰 does seem to have two different sets of phonetic values, *djən and nong / nu / nou (*nuŋ) (as in 農 , 起). *Din 田 ("to farm") also has two different sets of phonetic values, *din and lui / nui (*ljed / *rjuej), close to nu / nou, since l and n were not phonemically contrasted. Examples are lui / nui ("water-pot") 型 and lui / nui ("lightning") 畫. This suggests that *djən 辰 and *din 田 may have been cognates.

Sumerian 田 also has also two phonetic values dab/dib and lu, similar to the Chinese.

The glyph \bigcirc , \bigotimes (teth) is probably related to Egyptian \bigotimes , which has the meanings "city", "town" (Budge: cxxvii). Egyptian \bigotimes also means "land," "field", for we have the signs: Taui ("the Two Lands", that is, Upper and Lower Egypt), ta-t ("land", "country"), \bowtie (Budge: 815). (Egyptian ta ["land," "earth", etc.] is probably related to Chinese tu [*tha?]["land," "earth"] $\stackrel{\bot}{=}$. Also, Egyptian repa ("temple estate" – land again) is \bowtie (Budge: 423). In these hieroglyphs the glyph appears as a classifier sign. The glyph appears frequently as a classifier with Egyptian words meaning "city", "town", "village", or "hamlet". For example: Tema ("town", "village") $\stackrel{\bigotimes}{\Longrightarrow}$; temái-t ("town", "village", "hamlet"), $\stackrel{\bigotimes}{\Longrightarrow}$ (Budge: 879). Again we see the "land" or "field" classifier sign. A village or hamlet would mean inhabited and cultivated land, with paths and canals or ditches, not wild land.

The glyph *teth* \bigoplus may also be an abbreviation the Egyptian sign \bigoplus which is a symbol for a plot of land with irrigation canals. Among its meanings are "district", "nome", "garden" (Budge: cxxvi. 47).

Phoen/Heb $teth \oplus$ is also probably related to the Sumerian glyph \bigoplus (Ball: Sign-list, no. 100), which has the pronunciation lu, dab, dib, in various meanings. It means "sheep", but also means "to hold", "to contain" (Deimel: 173). Dab, tab, dib has the meanings of "dwelling", "field" (Waddell 1927: 46). Dab, tab, dib also has the meanings of "pour out", "dam" (Waddell 1927: 46). Perhaps "dam" also means "to hold", "to contain" water in a field, hence \bigoplus ?

Both Phoen/Heb and Sumerian are very similar to Chinese tian (*din) ("land," "earth", "cultivated field," "to cultivate the land") an irrigated field. (*Din is probably also related to English till ["to cultivate the land"], another instance of English final -l corresponding to Chinese final -n; and to Welsh trin ["to till", Buck: 8:15—compare with Chinese *din], New Irish tir ["land"], and Welsh tir ["land"][Buck:1.21]. Chinese *din, meant both "land" and "to till". Chinese di [*diarh] ["earth", "land"] two would correspond to Celtic tir ["land"] and Latin terra ["earth", "land"].)

The conceptual similarity of these Sumerian, Egyptian, and Chinese glyphs, namely intersecting lines or pathways over space to suggest pathways, canals, or ditches, suggests

a room or other enclosure is represented by \bigcap as in *nei* ("inside") \bigcap , where \bigwedge means "enter".

Evidence supporting the conjecture that *k*ran | is related to *kw*ran ("gate", "barrier"), is also found in the BS graph han, *ganh | (modern |), which contains the "wooden staff", "to fend off" semagram | , which here serves also as phonogram, as well as the | ("gate") semagram. Han | means "hamlet gates", "hamlet" (or enclosure), "surrounding wall" (i.e., enclosure), and "to fend off" (XY: 1958). (Would han ["hamlet"] | be related to English home, hamlet, from Old English ham ["village"]?) Baxter gives *xan? for | , which has the same "staff" radical (OCP: 761), suggesting that the initial in *k*ran[*krang] | , may have been a velar fricative and therefore closer to kh- in Hebrew kheth.)

Furthermore, *karan is written in the scribal script, with the is, "building", "shelter", semagram, indicating that the later, Chou dynasty (1122-255 BCE) scribe understood is a some kind of enclosure or barrier.

In short, kheth | and geng (gen, *kran) | are similar in sound and meaning. Kheth | and geng | are also similar in graphs in that both have two parallel vertical lines joined by parallel horizontal lines. There is then a three-way resemblance in this correspondence.

Again, Hebrew final -th corresponds to a ganzhi final nasal, as noted above.

Scholars of the alphabet have found the meaning of teth problematic. Jensen says: "...teth (coil? tube? bale?)..." (Jensen: 282). Moran and Kelley surmise that teth means "mud", "clay", "potter's clay", tith in Hebrew. They may be close to the original meaning of Θ , as shall be explained.

holding up a staff, \checkmark , and that the glyph represents a weapon. This is plausible since \checkmark is a well-recognized graph for "hand" and \checkmark is a well-recognized graph for "staff". My own interpretation is close to his, as will be explained.

In C. J. Ball's volume, we find that the Sumerian glyphs \exists , \exists are pronounced gan, meaning "enclosure", "garden", "field" (Ball: Sign-list, no. 9). Elsewhere he says that kana, kan, and ka mean "a gate", and that kana and kan also mean "part of a gate", "a latch" (Ball: 88). Deimel has Sumerian ka, kan ("door", "gate") (Deimel: 49.234). The Sumerian gan ("enclosure") \exists , \exists glyphs are similar to Phoenician kheth ("fence") \exists , and Chinese hu (*ga?) ("gate", "door", "household") \exists , \exists . In Egyptian hieroglyphs, we find khent ["to be enclosed"), khen ("walled enclosure") \overrightarrow{b} , and khen ("the most private or sacred part of a building, house, temple, palace") \overrightarrow{b} (jin ["the most private part of a building, palace", "the women's quarters"] is the Chinese parallel, also comparable to Egyptian khent ["harem"]) (Budge: 575, 557). All these words are similar in sound and meaning, that is, all related to the concept "gate", "door", "barrier", "enclosure". They are plausibly all related to Hebrew kheth, interpreted as "fence".

meaning as luan (*ruans) ("to sort and reel", "to order"), and a reel is also a wheel. They are probably cognates. It is possible, then, that Chinese lun (*rjusn) ("wheel", "reel") (in , in , luan (*ruans) ("reel", "wheel") (in , in , luan (*ruans)), and ren, ("reel", "beam", "pole") (in , in , luan (*ruans)), and ren, ("reel", "beam", "pole") (in , in , luan (*ruans)), and English rotal, Sanskrit ratha, German Rad, French rouet, German Rolle, and English roll, all words with related meanings, namely "wheel", "wagon", "cylinder", "reel", "roll", where Chinese final -n and -m correspond to Indo-European -t, -th-, -d, or -l.

3) If Chinese ren ("beam", "reel") I is related to English rod ("beam") and reel, words derived from IE *ret, *rot ("pole", "trunk"), and to German Rad ("wheel"), which in turn is derived from IE *ret[h] ("run"), could IE *ret ("pole", "trunk") be related to IE *ret[h] ("run")? After all, a "beam" ("pole") was originally a log and a log rolls or runs.

To summarize, Phoen/Heb zayin I (Greek zeta \ddagger , \mp) and Chinese ren (*nzjəm) \pm are similar in sound, meaning ("beam", "reel", perhaps "axle"), and graph.

A number of scholars, including Sir Arthur Evans, have proposed that $kheth \not\models , \not\models ,$ means "fence" (Jensen: 282). This is probably correct. The Egyptian sign $\not\equiv \not\equiv ,$ with the phonetic value $\not\equiv ,$ means "fence" (Brunner: 67.42). The Phoen/Heb glyphs for $kheth \not\models$ are very similar to the Chinese OB glyphs $\not\models ,$ $\not\models ,$ which are the original forms of the word $hu \ (*ga?) \not\models (DEZ: 242)$, meaning "door", "gate", "house". I conjectured, as a first step, that $geng, gen \ (*kran, DEZ: 195) \not\models , \mid \uparrow \mid$ is related to $kheth \not\models ,$ $\mid \uparrow \mid$ and $hu \ (*ga?) \not\models , \mid \uparrow \mid$.

The Chinese dictionary meanings of geng (OB $\stackrel{?}{H}$) are varied (ranging from "musical instrument" to "silk rack") and do not include "fence", "gate", or "house" (Cihai). The interpretation of the elements in the glyph $\stackrel{?}{H}$ is disputed (XY: 404). One scholar, Li Yangbing $\stackrel{?}{H}$ however is cited as saying that the glyph depicts hands, $\stackrel{?}{H}$

- know that speech changes much faster than writing; therefore Egyptian writing may not accurately represent the actual spoken sound of the word at the time of the transfer. Thus Egyptian za-t ("pole") may also be related to Hebrew zayin.
- 4) Phoen/Heb zayin corresponds to Sumerian zi-n ("life") and Egyptian sen-t ("beam", "pole") while Greek zeta corresponds to Egyptian za-t ("beam", "pole"). It is highly probable that zayin I was originally the same word and symbol as Chinese ren (*nzjam) I since both are similar in sound, look almost identical, and both are alternately written as E. Thus both would have meant "beam", "pole", and English reel (German [Garn]-rolle), which we conjectured to be related to Chinese ren, may have derived from IE *ret, rot ("pole", "stem", "trunk") (Pokorny: 866).

Here are some further observations relating to Chinese ren ("beam", "frame", "reel"):

- 1) In Latin *rota* means "wheel". This is related to Sanskrit *ratha* ("wagon"), Old High German *Rad* and German *Rad* ("wheel"), French *rouet* ("spinning wheel"), German *Rolle* ("cylinder", "pulley", "reel", "spool", "coil of rope") and English *roll*. Here Latin -t- corresponds to Germanic -d and -l, and we have already pointed out the correspondence of Germanic -l and Chinese -n, and also of Hebrew -th and Chinese -n. In other words, all these alveolars tend to interchange. These Indo-European words for wheel are thought to be derived from Indo-European *ret[h]- ("run", "roll") (Buck: 10.76; Pokorny: 866).
- 2) In Chinese the common word for "wheel" is lun (SS) , which also means "to reel silk" (jun silpha) (XY: 1836). (The semagram lun , however, is generally understood to mean "gathering together [viz., sorting]" (bamboo strips" (i.e., records), an activity analogous to sorting silk threads). This word lun is not found in oracle bone script but only in the later small-seal script, which probably means that earlier it was written without the "chariot" classifier ($\frac{1}{4}$); that is, lun ("wheel") would have been written as ($\frac{1}{4}$). The dictionary tells us that this lun originally meant "to order" ($\frac{1}{4}$). In other words, lun meant "wheel" and "to order" or "to reel silk" (jun silpha). The reconstructed sound of lun is *rjunn (DEZ: 400). Thus, lun (*rjunn) is almost the same in sound and

reasons for this conclusion is that the symbol I, zayin in Phoen/Heb and ren in Chinese, is the sign for z (zeta) in the ancient Greek alphabet and is interchangeably used with the symbols \ddagger and \ddagger (Chinese ren) (Jensen: 452). The symbol \ddagger is also used interchangeably with \ddagger to represent \equiv (xi) in the ancient Greek alphabet. Later in this paper, I demonstrate that Phoen/Heb $samekh \ddagger$ is a symbol for "tree", "plant(s)". It is an abbreviation for such tree and plant symbols as Egyptian \ddagger ("tree") and \ddagger ("tree") (Budge: cxxiii, cxxi) and Sumerian se ("corn") \Rightarrow , \Longrightarrow (Deimel: 125, no. 669).

Here is my interpretation of zayin \mathbf{I} :

- ("herb", "plant", "to sprout", "to grow") (Ball: 133, 135), Sumerian zi, zi-n ("life", "living creature") (Moran: 79); to Egyptian sa-t (sau, sen-t) meaning "pole", "beam", "shaft", etc. (Budge: 583b, 635b, 675b); to Greek axon ("pole", "beam", "shaft", "axis"), and perhaps to Hebrew seren ("axle", an English word related to Greek axon) (HD: 236). These are also probably related to Chinese sheng (dialectal sen, sang, etc.) ("to grow", "life", "living being"). All these words are similar in sound and meaning.
- The Egyptian consonant sign is now transcribed z (Loprieno: 15), so Budge's transcription of Egyptian sa-t ("pole", "beam", "pillar") would be za-t. This would correspond with Greek zeta ‡, £, I (ancient Greek forms [Jensen: 452]). It is well-recognized that the Greek alphabet was borrowed from the Phoenician (Jensen: 453). Jensen cites Schwyzer as explaining that the final -a was added to Greek letters of the alphabet because the Greeks were averse to ending words with consonants, quoting Noldeke: "...the final -a is a purely Greek addition, so as to make the names pronounceable." (Jensen: 455). That would make the zeta originally zet, close to Egyptian za-t.
- 3) Egyptian za-t and sen-t ("beam", "pole") are similar to Hebrew zayin, especially since -t and -n often alternate across dialects and languages, both being alveolars (e.g., English run and IE*ret[h]- ["run", "roll"][Pokorny: 866]). Also, Budge gives Coptic coi (soi) as the word corresponding to Egyptian za-t ("pole", etc.), and coi contains the -i- (-y-) found in zayin, making the vowel a diphthong. We

would be similar in phonetic shape to $ren(*nzjam) \pm 1$. It is therefore reasonable to assume that luan(*ruans/*C-rons) was a cognate of $ren(nzjam) \pm 1$ and meant "to order [sort] and reel silk" in its original, pictorial, sense. (Sorting out threads was part of the reeling process.)

English reel is probably related to Chinese ren (*nzjom). Reel (Old English hreol) resembles Chinese ren (cognate *C-rons, *ruans) in phonetic shape. Note also the similarity between hreol and *C-rons. Final -l and -n are both alveolars, and there is evidence that other Germanic words ending in -l correspond to Chinese words ending in n (an extended discussion of this correspondence is outside the scope of this paper). Reel (hreol) and Chinese ren (*C-rons) also appear to have the same meaning ("spool" or "to spool").

The character ren(*nzjam) + 1, T also appears in other graphic forms in Chinese characters, shedding further light on its original meaning:

luan (SS form) ("to order") ci (BI form) ("testimony") ci (SS form) ("testimony") (XY: 0030; 1852).

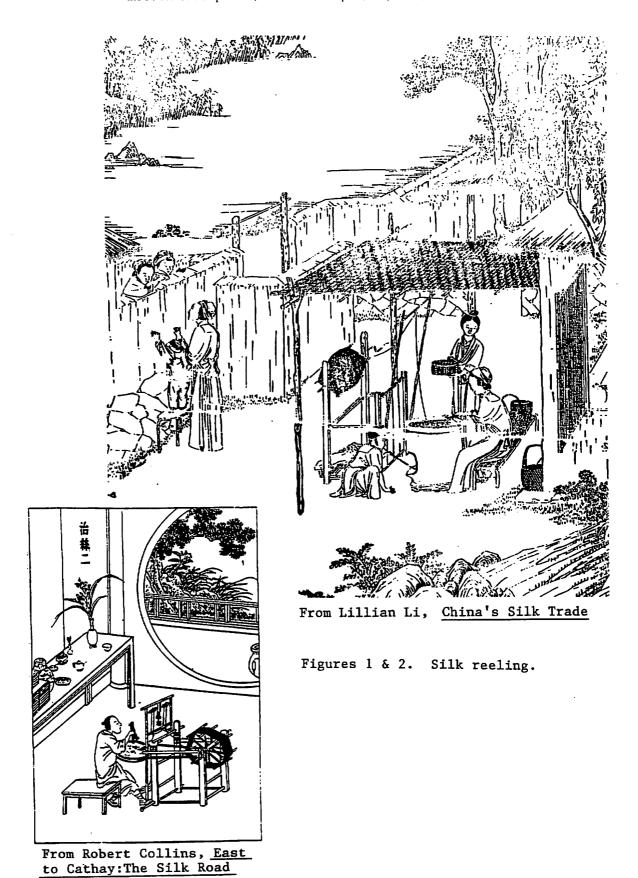
Here the forms of ren I appear variously as (a frame), (a rod or beam), and (again a frame). Ren I would then appear to have the meaning of "beam" or "frame". The meaning of "frame" would be consistent with the word ren (probably earlier written I or I, since radicals would be later additions to the grapheme), which means "frame for holding the warp" (XY: 1300). Here we see the element ren Ξ (I). Now, the frame consists of two vertical components with a rod or beam across them. My conjecture is that ren Ξ , I originally meant "rod", "beam", "pole" The IE base for "rod" ("beam") is given as *ret-, *rot- ("pole", "stem", "trunk") (Pokorny: 866), and Chinese ren (cognate *C-rons) resembles *ret-, *rot- in sound and meaning. I believe ren I (Ξ) originally meant "beam", "rod" because the beam or rod is common to all the forms of this pictogram in Chinese logograms and because the glyph I is probably related to the glyphs Ξ and Ξ , meaning "plant", "tree" (later extended to mean "beam", "rod", "pole", "pillar", "axle", "pulley", "reel", etc. in different languages). One of the

"order" in ancient texts. The word does not seem to appear in OSBI, but first appears in bronze inscriptions. A BS glyph for *luan* is \mathcal{J} , which is composed of several elements: one is a radical (classifier sign) for "hand", γ ; another the logogram for "silk", β ; another a different radical for "hand", δ ; and then the element γ . The dictionary quotes Li Jingzhai β as saying that the combined pictogram means "to put silk in order", for it depicts hands sorting out silk, and he says that the component is equivalent to the character $\frac{1}{2}$. But the dictionary does not give an explanation of that fits the graph γ (RS $\frac{1}{2}$). What then does γ mean? In the context of the other components of the pictogram, we may safely assume that γ in the context of the other spool) for reeling or winding silk thread from the silk cocoon. Obviously, γ looks like a reel or spool. Silk-reeling is an essential step in the silk-making process. It is described by the author of a book on silk-making early this century:

Cocoons peeled and selected for reeling were then boiled and brushed in a basin for about five minutes. In Shanghai, girls from eight to twelve years old were given the unpleasant and steamy task of tending these basins and finding the ends of silk loosened from the cocoons. The actual job of attaching the loose ends to the mechanically rotated reels was entrusted to older women. The thicker the silk thread desired, the greater the number of cocoons needed. After the silk was reeled, it was rereeled in order to make it more even. Finally it was packed in skeins to be shipped. (Li:29)

Figure 1 shows a woman reeling silk in old China. Figure 2 is another picture of silk-reeling. The cocoons are in a pan. What the reel does is pull or draw silk thread from the cocoon.

The word $luan[\frac{r}{2}]L$, has been reconstructed as *ruans (DEZ: 399) and *C-rons (OCP: 775). A guttural before an initial r- or l- seems to have been common in Central Asia. For example, Loulan was Kroran, and Rome was Hrome in some Central Asian languages. Making allowance for the initial guttural, as well as the frequent alternation between l and r and between n and l, and n and r, in Chinese words, *C-rons and *ruans



phonetic signs usually precede the classifiers. There can be redundancies or "complements", where the scribe uses extra phonograms or semagrams to clarify the sound or the meaning. Budge's dictionary adopts the convention of writing the hieroglyphs from left to right. He also puts an *e* between consonants when a word is written without a vowel, but the *e* is simply a convention employed to make the word readable, and does not represent any particular vowel.

In the first hieroglyph of sem above, the sign # comes first in the word, which leads one to suppose that is pronounced sem, since the pronunciation usually comes before the classifier. In the second example of sem above, the sign and the sign are used as classifiers to let the reader know that sem here means "herb", "grass", "crop", etc. Here are some more examples:

a) sem-t ("herbs", "vegetables")
b) semit ("herbs", "field produce")
c) sem ("to pile offerings upon an altar")
d) sem ("form", "image", "manner", etc.)
e) sem ("deed", "undertaking")
f) su-t ("corn", "grain", "wheat")
(Chinese su ‡, means "grain")
(Budge: 648, 666, 667)
g) sām ("a plant", "a flower")
h) simu ("field produce", "herbs")

(Budge: 645)
h) simu ("field produce", "herbs")

(Coptic sim (Budge: 647)

In example d), the sign comes first again, indicating that has the pronunciation sem. In example e) the sign seems to be used as a rebus, a redundancy here, in order to repeat that the word has the sound sem. Redundancies occur frequently, since, like Chinese, ancient Egyptian has numerous homonyms.

I conclude from these and other examples that the sign has a phonetic value sem (i.e., sm) meaning "grass", "herbs", "vegetables", "crop", "offerings on an altar" and "to make offerings on an altar" (the sign hasother phonetic values and other semantic

values as well). From here it is easy to go to the next step, which is to conclude that the glyph samekh ‡ is related to Egyptian ** since it looks like it and resembles it in sound.

Example f) above shows as the classifier "corn", etc. The glyph is probably shorthand for a number of glyphs for "tree", "plant", etc: ("tree"), ("spelt"), ("tree"). (Budge: cxxiii, cxxi). In Chinese the sinograph jie means "grass", and the sinograph feng means "luxuriant growth of grass, foliage, etc." (XY: 0017, 0016). Similar symbols appear in the Mediterranean region, for example, for h in Old Cretan, and in Cypro-Minoan inscriptions (Jensen: 104). The symbols would seem to have been trans-cultural symbols for grass, trees, vegetation, etc. in the ancient world.

It is also reasonable to conclude from the above and other instances, a) to h), for Egyptian *sem* that the sign also means "vegetables", "field produce", "corn", "grain", "wheat", since it looks like a plant and appears to be a classifier in the list of words. Budge says that Egyptian , *hen*, means "plant, vegetable, herb, dried up" (Budge: cxxii). As we shall see later, plants with bent stems are often symbols of cut plants or offerings (they are no longer standing upright in the field).

In Sumerian, *shim* means "scented plants and trees" (Ball: 135), *sham* means "herb", "plant", "to sprout", "to grow" (Ball: 133, 135), and *sim*, *sum* means "to present, offer" (Ball: 125). These words are very similar in sound and meaning to Egyptian *sem* (*sm*, "plants", "vegetables", "crop", "to pile offerings on the altar", etc.).

Let us now take a look at Chinese sigm, \P . Conceptually, this glyph would appear to be a combination of two pictorial concepts that appear in Egyptian: $sem^{H_{P}}$ and $hen^{H_{P}}$.

They are not necesssarily exclusively Egyptian, but may have been trans-cultural symbols for plants in ancient times:

Gao Hongjin (XY: 1848), a view that is plausible since they are close in graph and meaning. Here are variant OB forms of $sigm \neq and xin$ ("crime") $\Rightarrow as$ they appear in two OSBI dictionaries (Jiagu and XY), some of them standing alone and some as components of other words:

Various scholars cited in the XY and Jiagu dictionaries maintain that sigm , etc., shown in these glyphs, depicts a knife that is used to tattoo the foreheads of felons. That seems rather forced. The objects representing sigm clearly resemble plants. In example e), looks like an abbreviation of Egyptian hen. Examples b) , and f) have curved stems, reminiscent of the curved stems of Egyptian , and f) meaning "sacrifice", "offering" (Budge: cxxiii; 62,63). Obviously, plants offered as sacrifice are no longer standing upright in the field and will wilt and bend. And the bent plant would be a metaphor for sacrifice. Likewise the horizontal symbol of a tree or plant is also used in words meaning "to cut", "to cut down trees", as in shā, shāi ("to cut", "to cut down trees", as in shā, shāi ("to cut", "to cut down trees", as in shā, shāi ("to cut", "to cut down trees", as in shā, shāi ("to cut", "to cut down trees", as in shā, shāi ("to cut", "to cut down trees", as in shā, shāi ("to cut", "to cut down trees", as in shā, shāi ("to cut", "to cut down trees", as in shā, shāi ("to cut", "to cut down trees", as in shā, shāi ("to cut", "to cut down trees", as in shā, shāi ("to cut", "to cut down trees", as in shā, shāi ("to cut", "to cut down trees", as in shā, shāi ("to cut", "to cut down trees", as in shā, shāi ("to cut", "to cut down trees", as in shā, shāi ("to cut", "to cut down trees", as in shā, shāi ("to cut", "to cut down trees", as in shā, shāi ("to cut", "to cut down trees", as in shā, shāi ("to cut", "to cut down trees", as in shā, shāi ("to cut", "to cut down trees", as in shā, shāi ("to cut", "to cut down trees", as in shā, shāi ("to cut", "to cut down trees", as in shā, shāi ("to cut", "to cut down trees", as in shā, shāi ("to cut", "to cut down trees", as in shā, shāi ("to cut", "to cut down trees", as in shā, shāi ("to cut", "to cut down trees", as in shā, shāi ("to cut", "to cut down trees", as in shāi, shāi ("to cut", "to cut down trees", as in shāi, shāi ("to cut", "to cut down trees", as in shāi, shāi

The interpretation of sigm as "knife" would seem to have stemmed from the association of the pictogram with words meaning "crime" and "execution". And "execution" may have stemmed from the association of the pictogram with "sacrifice" and "sacrificial slaughtering" of animals—and of humans, as I shall indicate below.

Let us look at forms of the word shang r, OB r, which is the name of the Shang dynasty, in which the character sigm r appears. The following forms are from the earliest period, according to the Jiagu dictionary, though not necessarily in chronological order:

This character shang, n, etc., is composed of two elements, a lower one, which looks like the word sing n (RS n) and an upper one, the word sing in its various mutations. The "mouth" sign n is optional and will be put aside for the moment. In the dictionaries (XY, Jiagu) OB bing is said to depict a table because it looks like a table. It certainly resembles the Egyptian hieroglyph for "a stand for a vessel", n (Budge: cxxxi, no. 25) and the Sumerian sign for a table or stand n (as in gan [pictogram of pot on a stand] ["surplus", "plenty"]) (Deimel: 53.271).

I believe that the lower element is the word bing (*pjiagx) ("woman", "child", "to nurture", etc.) \(\pi \) used as a rebus for bing (*prjem?) ("respectfully petition," "supplicate", "respectfully present") \(\hat{p} \) and bing (*pjiagx) ("hold", "uphold", "preside over") \(\hat{p} \). Bing (*pjiagx) ("handle", "control", "authority") \(\hat{p} \) is written as \(\hat{h} \) or \(\hat{p} \) (Mathews': no. 5286), indicating that bing \(\pi \) and bing \(\hat{p} \) were homophones or nearhomophones. In bing ("handle"), we see bing (originally "vulva" or "ancestress") used as a phonogram (bringing to mind Egyptian met ["phallus"], also employed as a phonogram.)

A glyph that looked like an altar table and had the sound bing would have been most appropriate as a rebus for bing ("respectfully present", etc.) and bing ("hold", "uphold", "preside over").

The object or objects above the bing of glyph in the character shang are well recognized to be variants or abbreviations of the glyph sigm interpreted as a picture of a knife by Gao Hongjin and others (Jiagu and Cihai) but which I maintain to have been originally the depiction of a plant, symbolizing offerings (presentations) of produce or crop. The original meaning of shang would be "to present offerings on the altar", "presenting offerings on the altar" and the associated "sacrificing at the altar", "worshipping"; later the associated meaning of "execution", "punishment", etc. would have developed. Shang could also have meant "holding fast to [upholding] and presiding over sacrifices at the altar"—certainly a judicious choice of name for a ruling house.

Simultaneously, the graph shang could be understood as composing of two elements bing and yen if (here the kou ["mouth"] \Box element in is taken into account). Yen is composed of sigm \forall + kou \Box , the kou \Box added to accentuate the special meaning of sigm in this context. One of the meanings of yen is "the name of a sacrificial rite, the Telling [i.e., Reporting] Rite" (gao ji is "in which an accounting is given to ancestral and heavenly spirits (Jiagu: 222). Shang would then mean "offering, upholding and presiding over the Telling Rite". Shang, earlier pronounced syang, may be a phonetic mutation of sigm, since -n, -m, and -ng alternate across Chinese dialects and -n- and -ng- are often not phonemically contrasted in Hunan,

What is particularly interesting about the sigm glyphs (\nearrow , \nearrow etc.) in the word $shang \nearrow$ is that they appear together with the \mp glyph, reminiscent of the conjoint appearance of the \nearrow and \nearrow glyphs in Egyptian hieroglyphs that mean "field produce", "crop", etc. Since the shang glyphs show that \nearrow and \mp are both glyphs of the same word sigm the glyph \mp must mean and sound the same as the glyph \nearrow . And since \mp is the same sign as Phoen/Heb $samekh \mp$, \mp this is further evidence that $sigm \nearrow$, which has a sound similar to Egyptian $sem \not$, indeed means "field produce", "crop", "offerings placed at the altar", "sacrifice at the altar", "worship":

This is consistent with Kwang-chih Chang's observation that "the few identifiable names of high ancestors were generally sacrificed to on the $xin \stackrel{?}{\uparrow}$ day of the week." This would have been most appropriate since $xin (si\eta m) \stackrel{?}{\downarrow}$, simply meant "sacrifice on the altar."

That sigm referred originally to plants is indicated further by the word sigm (sim in the Amoy dialect [AMD: 434]) ($\frac{3}{7}$) meaning "dense and luxuriant", of grass or foliage, and sim (Amoyese) ($\frac{3}{7}$) meaning "fire-wood". Samahu (shamahu) in Assyrian means "growing thickly" (of vegetation) and "to flourish" (AD: 17:I:288), similar to sigm?

in sound and meaning. Hebrew *samekh* may be a corruption of Assyrian *shamahu*, or perhaps *samekh* and *shamahu* were reflexes of an earlier word. (I have been told by Victor Mair that the connection between grass or straw and sacrifice is quite evident in ancient Iranian, especially Zoroastrian, ritual, where the *barsom*, a bundle of reeds or straw, is always present. Cognate practices and terms also existed in ancient Indian rites.

Sj ηm ("offerings", "sacrifice") \forall may also have been used as a rebus for $sj\eta m$ \forall ("crime"). Could $sj\eta m$ ("crime", "hardship", "pain") be related to English sin (Old Norse synd), Ugaritic $\forall ht$ ("to sin") (Gordon: 535), and Arabic sum ("calamity") and sirra ("calamity", "harm", "sin", etc.)?

The semantic associations of $sj\eta m$ ("sacrifice") with "punishment" and "the law" have parallels in Egyptian hieroglyphs, for the glyph ### appears both as phonetic and semantic sign in the word sha-t ("knife", "butcher's knife") ### . (Budge: 730). It also appears in:

shāiṭ ("slaughter") and shāaut ("human sacrifices") shāiṭ ("slaughter") is "to kill" in Chinese [DEZ: 523].)

Moreover, sacrificial offerings are also associated with criminals and punishment (execution), since criminals and prisoners, especially if they are enemies, would be natural candidates for human sacrifice:

Menhu ("sacrificial priest," "slaughterer", "butcher", "executioner"), Menhu ("the dead", "the damned", "creatures slain for sacrifice"), Kheru ("enemy," "criminal"), Menhu (Budge: 303, 560, 561)

"Offerings" of vegetables and other field crops have become offerings of animals and humans, and the Egyptian sem, Hebrew samekh, and Chinese sigm would describe or denote not only plants and "offerings" but "sacrifice" and "slaughter", and from there it is a short step to the associations of "crime", "punishment", "the law" etc. as in the word pi ("crime", "to execute", "the law", etc.), where the sigm glph is not a phonetic sign but a semantic sign and a majestic one as well:

$$\overrightarrow{A}$$
 , \overrightarrow{b} i ("crime", "punishment") (XY: 1849)

Julie Lee Wei, "Correspondences Between the Chinese Calendar Signs and the Phoenician Alphabet", *Sino-Platonic Papers*, 94 (March, 1999)

Moran and Kelley are probably correct in their conjecture that Hebrew samekh is close in meaning to Hebrew samakh, "to lift up" a carcass at a sacrifice. Hebrew zabach ("to slaughter", "to sacrifice") and samach would seem to be cognates, perhaps dialectal variants. The z- in zabach may have a parallel in alternate pronunciations of Egyptian sem^{**} and other words related to sacrificial offerings. Thus the following (contrasted with other spellings of sem, etc., with initial $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx$ began with initial f(x), which is now transcribed as the consonant z (Loprieno: 15):

In short, Hebrew samekh ‡ would appear to be related in sound and meaning to

- 1) Assyrian samahu ("growing thickly", of vegetation)
- 2) Hebrew samakh ("to lift up" a carcass in sacrifice)
- 3) Hebrew zabakh ("to sacrifice")
- 4) Old Babylonian zibu ("food offering") (AD: 21:84)
- 5) Standard Babylonian zebu ("to slaughter", "sacrifice") (AD: 21:84)
- 6) Egyptian sem ("plants", "crop", "offerings on the altar")
- 7) Egyptian *sma* ("animal offering")
- 8) Sumerian shim ("scented plants"), sham ("herb", "plant")
- 9) Sumerian sum, sim ("to present", "to offer")
- 10) Chinese $si\eta m, \stackrel{?}{\neq}$, $\stackrel{?}{\vee}$ ("plants", "offerings", "sacrifice", etc.), and
- 11) Chinese $sigm \not\equiv used$ as a phonetic and/or semantic sign in words meaning "crime", "punishment", "the law", etc.).

Phoen/Heb samekh \ddagger and Chinese $si\eta m$ \forall would therefore have similarities in sound, graph, and meaning ("field produce", "offerings at the altar", "sacrifice").

'Ain
$$O$$
, o and yin $(*lj
in n)$ $ightharpoonup
ightharpoonup
ightharpoonup$

Julie Lee Wei, "Correspondences Between the Chinese Calendar Signs and the Phoenician Alphabet", Sino-Platonic Papers, 94 (March, 1999)

There is general agreement that 'ain o means "eye". Assyrian enu, inu, means "an eye", "a spring of water". Hebrew ayin also means "an eye", "a well", or "spring of water".

The Egyptian hieroglyph $ar \circ means$ pupil of the eye (Budge: cvi). 'Ain \circ is similar to $yin (*lj \ n) \oint_{S} pictorially in that both graphs have a small circle. In Chinese, "eye" often means "small circle", "small hole", as in English "eye of the needle".$

Archery implies the action of taking aim, and taking aim means use of the eyes; hence we have French viser ("to aim"), from Latin videre ("to see").

Moreover st is an Egyptian hieroglyph meaning "shoot, aim at, target" (Budge, cxiii); it is pictorially similar to yin, and would suggest that yin also formerly meant "to shoot", "to aim". The hieroglyph means "arrow", "shoot" (Budge: cxxxviii, no. 31) and would suggest a parallet meaning for yin (\exists) also an arrow.

Hence 'ain \bigcirc and yin \diamondsuit , \rightleftharpoons , \rightleftharpoons would correspond in sound, symbol, and meaning (relating to the eye).

Pe ? 1 and wei (be / bi [Amoyese]) 未, OB * .

Pe? is generally interpreted as meaning "mouth" (Jensen: 282). Assyrian pu is "mouth", and panu is "face" (Moran, 104). H. Grimme and I. Taylor believed that pe?, was derived from the Egyptian hieratic sign for "mouth", \bigcirc , \bigcirc (Jensen: 266; Diringer: 196, fig. 98). Among the later South Semitic scripts pe is written as \square , \square (Jensen: 338), similar to the Chinese logogram for "mouth", kou \square (OB \square).

The sound wei (be / bi / mei, etc.in various dialects) has among its meanings wei 未 (later RS 0 未) ("taste"); wei 未 ("not", "did not", "do not"); mei 女未("sister"), and mei ("sheep")羊木. The negative was pronounced with initial w, m, b, p, f, or v, in various dialects and at various periods (e.g. bu, fu, mo, wu, vu, as evidenced by π , 带,莫,勿,無).

Wei \ddagger is still pronounced be and bi in the Amoy and other southern Fujian dialects. Wei \ddagger was probably close to the pe 7 sound during our ancient scribe's time in his/her topolect since some of the southern Fujian dialects (e.g. Taiwanese) are known to have retained many archaic sounds. I therefore conjecture that the Shang pronunciation of wei vis-a-vis the alphabet was *be instead of Schuessler's *mjats (which may very well reflect certain other Shang topolects) or Baxter's *mits.

The Shuo Wen quotes various old texts to gloss wei (*be according to my conjecture) as "tasty", "mature", referring to farm crops and livestock. It cites Lü Shu 律書 as saying: "Wei (*be) 未 [now written 未] means that all things are mature and tasty."

"未者,言菌均 指成有滋味也" (Shuo Wen: 746). Taste, of course, relates to the mouth, and thus Phoen/Heb pe ("mouth") and wei (*be) intersect in meaning. *Be 未 ("mouth") was a homophone of *be 未 (RS 养) ("ram") (Shuo Wen: 879), a word with many positive associations. "Moral duty" (yi 義), "auspicious" (xiang 养), and "good" (mei 美) were some of the words containing the ram glyph (青). Thus be ("taste") as a translation of pe ("mouth") would pun with be ("ram"), with its rich symbolism. This day on the calendar may have been a day for worshipping the ram god, or an ancestor associated with the ram.

Pe 7 and wei (*be) \ddagger , \ddagger then, are similar in sound and meaning ("mouth", "taste"). Pictographically, pe 7 would resemble an element (the lower left quadrant) in the pictogram be \ddagger , just as 'ain O resembles an element (the small circle) in the pictogram *ljon \ddagger . Thus Phoen/Hebrew pe 7 and Chinese be \ddagger would have a three-way resemblance in sound, meaning, and symbol.

Sadhe (tsude) Z, M, Mand xu (sjwet / *smjit?) K, OB T, K.

Here there are resemblances of sound, symbol, and meaning between the Phoenician and Chinese. Earlier researchers such as Arthur Evans and E. Grumach have found *sadhe* baffling. Jensen says: "...*sadhe* (fish-hook? a flight of steps?)..." Moran and Kelley see the *sadhe* glyph as depicting an arrow. They theorize that it is related to Hebrew *tsud* ("to hunt"), *tsad* ("the hunt"), and Assyrian *sadu* ("hunt").

My interpretation is that the Phoenician letter \mathcal{E} , plooks like a man-made contraption, resembling a side view of a net or trap. Sumerian sad means "a net" (Ball: 122). Setu in Old Babylonian means "a net used for hunting or fowling", and Old Babylonian setu also means "hunter" or "fowler" (AD: 17.III.340). I believe the glyph sadhe corresponds to $s\bar{e}tu$ ("a net used for hunting or fowling"), a view not too far from that of Moran and Kelley.

The Chinese xu (*sjwat) $\rightarrow f$, is a weapon, likewise a contraption for capturing or killing, also composed of a staff and a head.

Moreover, Chinese *sjwət resembles Phoen/Heb sadhe, tsude, Hebrew tsud, tsad and Assyrian sadu, sētu in consonantal profile.

Thus there are resemblances in sound, meaning, and symbol between the Phoen/Heb and the Chinese.

 $Qoph \circlearrowleft$, \circlearrowleft and $jia \ (*krap) \circlearrowleft$, OB \dagger , stone inscription form \circlearrowleft . Victor Mair identified this correspondence (Mair: 1990). Qoph has been problematic and has been interpreted by some researchers as meaning "the occiput" or perhaps "a monkey" (Jensen: 282).

The symbols \P , \P are probably related to the Egyptian hieroglyphs \P and \P , symbols for "skin", "hide" (Budge: cxiii.55); also, \P is the hieroglyph for "limb", "flesh", with the sound f (Budge, cxiii, cix). Thus Egyptian \P , \P would be either an animal skin or a carcass (showing the tail).

Ka ("hide") is a word found in African languages, with mutations in sound: e.g.,

Ancient Egyptian kha (carcass of a sheep or goat), (kha may be related to

English carcass); khau-t ("skins", "hides") (Budge: 530), and khaut ("skins",

"hides") (Budge: 530), and khaut ("skins",

"hides") (Greenberg: 21). (Egyptian khaut is probably related to English coat, Middle Latin cota,

Frankish cotta ["coat"], Latin cutis, Old Norse hud, Old High German hut, English hide

[all words meaning "hide", "skin"] [Buck 4.12].)

Chinese jia (*krap) \dagger , \uparrow , \dagger means "shell", "armor", close in meaning, sound and symbol to the Egyptian words and glyphs for "carcass" and "hide". The multi-angled

shape of Egyptian would have been reduced to a circle for reasons of graphic economy—a circular shape is faster to draw than a many-angled one.

Resh
$$4$$
, 4 and $si(*rjagx/*slj*?) \in ,OB \checkmark , $?$.$

Here there is similarity in sound, meaning, and symbol between the Phoen/Heb and the Chinese. The word *resh* is generally taken to mean "head", "first", "chief", from Hebrew *rosh*, Assyrian *resu*, Aramaic *resha* (Moran: 110, Diringer: 219). The glyphs 4, 4 for *resh* resemble Sumerian *sag* ("the head", "chief", "front", etc.) (Ball: Sign-list, no.62).

 $Si\ (*rjagx)$ \neq is a logogram meaning "son" (RS \neq), representing head, body, and arms. Chinese \neq and \neq are similar to resh \neq in that all three represent the head by an abstract outline of a head with a stem. The phonetic value of Hebrew resh also has some resemblance to Chinese *rjagx.

According to the Jiagu dictionary si (*rjagx) was normally written as Q in OB script, but when used as a calendrical sign the letter Q (zi ["seed", "son"]) was substituted, with zi Q simultaneously taking the pronunciation of si (*rjagx) Q (RS Q). For in rites of worship (jisi Q \(2i \) a small boy was used to represent the presiding spirit of the ancestor being worshipped. As such he was the "head" of the ceremony (Jiagu: 19). No doubt a boy (zi ["seed", "son"] Q) was an auspicious symbol both for fertility and for planting and harvest.

Si (*rjagx) \neq probably had a semantic value si (*rjagx) ("to perform sacrificial rites", "worship"), later written $\nmid 2$. In any case *rjagx \neq , \nmid and *rjagx \nmid , \nmid would have been homophones, and *rjagx would therefore have been a most meaningful name for a calendar day.

Resh 4 and si (*rjagx) 7, 0, to would have a three-way correspondence in sound, meaning, and symbol.

Sin, shin (perhaps hljin) w and shen (*hljin) \$\dagger\$, OB\sqrt{\chi}, \big2, \$\dagger\$, BI \big2.

The meaning of Phoen/Heb *shin* W is generally thought to be "tooth". *Shinnu* is "tooth" in Assyrian. Moran and Kelley speculate on various other meanings: "unlucky", "hatred", "hairy", "he-god", "urine" and so on (Moran: 112). I believe Hebrew *shin* did indeed mean "tooth", or was an abbreviation of Assyrian *shinnu* ("tooth"). First, because some early alphabets draw various recognizable pictures of human teeth for *shin*. For example, *shin* is depicted on Maccabee coins (2nd-1st century), as W(Jensen: 295) The earliest *shin* glyph W would look like some kinds of animal teeth or the "teeth" of a saw. My second reason for believing that *shin* means "tooth" is because of the meaning of the corresponding Chinese *ganzhi* letter *shen* (**hljin*) K, which will be examined below.

The Hebrews pronounced this Phoenician s in two ways, as s and sh, the sh perhaps an hl sound (Healey: 30). This differentiation in the Hebrew is known to have taken place in later periods but may have been the case very early on, since the ganzhi letter corresponding to $shin \, \vee \, is \, *hljin \, \not \searrow \, .$ This does not preclude the possibility that Chinese $*hljin \, \not \searrow \, , \, \not \geqslant \,$ had several phonetic values.

The early glyphs for shen (*hljin) are, in chronological order, . . The original meaning is disputed. One version is that it means "to tie up [as with a belt or girdle]". Gao Hongjin, quoting Hsu Shen's Shuo Wen, maintains it is a symbol of lightning flashing in clouds (XY: 0018). Later attested meanings include "to stretch out", "to restrain", "to reiterate a command", "to declare", and so forth.

Are any of the interpretations of the original meaning correct? As a first step, I assumed the glyph to depict an object and not an action, a relation, an attribute, etc. I then decided that it was not an object in nature but, if an object at all, must be a manmade object. But what on earth could it possibly be? Hebrew *shin*—"tooth", "teeth"...it then occurred to me that the hooks in the object must be "teeth", and the object depicted must be...a buckle, a belt buckle, since *shen* (*hljin) \(\sqrt{\sqrt} \) written as *shen* \(\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sq

When subsequently I related the buckle conjecture to Dora Kuo of the Asian Art Museum of San Francisco, she took out a volume by Jenny F. So and Emma C. Bunker, Traders and Raiders on China's North Frontier, which showed Chinese belt-hooks of the Warring States period, 403-221 BCE. Indeed, there was a belt-hook that looked almost exactly like the shen glyph (So: 167) Here are sketches of two belt-hooks (which function as buckles) from the 5th century BCE, shown in So and Bunker's book:



Clearly, there are protuberances which we could call "catches", "teeth", or "fangs".

Later I found in the dictionary this note made by a commentator to the Li Ji (Book of Rites): "Teeth (chi 选) were originally called shen矣。!" "点本母失礼" (XY:1144).

Schuessler's reconstruction of the ancient pronunciation of shen ("teeth")埃引 is *hljin? (DEZ: 534), almost identical to *hljin ("belt") 与, **中, **Hljin 节, then, was probably an alternate graph or a cognate of *hljin? ("teeth") 奖引.

But why is a belt or girdle, *hljin ; 'the called a buckle (*hljin ;)? Was it a coincidence of sound? Could the buckle have once been named "belt" or the "belt" once named "buckle" through association? It then occurred to me that *hljin ("belt") might have meant "to fasten" or "fastener" and the belt-hook (buckle) would then apply to both belt-hook and belt. An analogy would be English "to tie" and "a tie".

Looking at shen (*hljin?) ("teeth") [2] again, I was reminded of a homophone, shen (*hljin?) [2], meaning "to smile", "to smirk" (Cihai). This *hljin? ("smirk") would be close in sound and meaning to English grin, which means "showing the teeth when smiling", "baring the teeth in pain", etc. English grin comes from Old English grennen ("gnash or bare teeth"). Then I looked at English clench (Middle English clenchen, Old English clencan). The stems clench- and clenc- resembles Chinese *hljin? ("teeth") in phonetic shape and meaning. Clench means "to close (the teeth or fist) firmly", "to grip tightly".

I think *hljin? ("teeth") \(\xi \xi \) and *hljin? ("smile", "smirk") \(\ni \xi \) were formerly the same word and related to English grin ("smile exposing teeth", "expose teeth") and English clench ("to close [the teeth or fist] firmly"). *Hljin ("belt-hook") \(\xi \) is probably a

cognate of *hljin? ("teeth") \sharp and meant "to fasten with teeth". *Hljin ("belt-hook") probably evolved from meaning "to fasten with teeth" to the meaning of "fasten", "buckle", and then to "girdle", "belt", and so on.

Chinese *hljin? ("teeth") \$\forall \, *hljin? ("smirk) \opin \opin \, and *hljin ("belt-hook") \$\forall \, resemble Assyrian shinnu ("tooth") in sound and meaning and they are probably related from a time before the creation of the 22 correspondences.

We have the expression "forks of lighting". This could just as well be "prongs (fangs, teeth) of lightning". In any case, the graph of shen (*hljin) ("teeth") also once meant "lightning" and from association, "thunder" (Jiagu: 1241). Even more interesting is that another OB logogram for "thunder" is lui (later written), composed of plus two signs (kou is the graph for "mouth" or "speech"), meaning that the lightning is speaking—thundering (XY: 1997). Lui ("thunder") was also written , where the dots appear to represent rain (Jiagu: 1241). Now ting (dien /*din) is another word for "thunder", probably a cognate of dian ("lightning", "thunder") (DEZ: 612). Dian and ting are probably related to English thunder (Old English tunor, IE. base *[s]ten-), and to ancient Egyptian s-tehen ("lightning", "storm") (Similar to Chinese *sthjin ["lightning"]) and tehen ("lightning") (Budge: 631b, 842a). Chinese lui ("thunder") would probably be related to English lightning (Old

English *leoht*, IE base **legwh*-), and Sumerian *nu* ("light")—— (Deimel: 23.115) (Chinese *lui* is *nui* in some dialects, e.g., Hubei).

Thunder, lighting, and rain would be Heaven or God in His most palpable, aweinspiring form. Thus the words for lightning, Chinese dian (*din) \$\frac{1}{2}\$, \$\frac{1}{2}\$ and shen

(*sthjin) \$\frac{1}{2}\$, \$\frac{1}{2}\$ neglish thunder, German Donner (and other IE *[s] ten- based words

for thunder or lightning), and Egyptian s-tehen, tehen ("lightning") may be related to

Sumerian i-din ("heaven") (Ball: 56), dingir, dir ("heaven", "God") (Deimel: 5.14) and to

Chinese tien (tin /*thin) ("heaven") \$\frac{1}{2}\$, since they are all similar in sound and meaning

(the last correspondence was pointed out by Ball).

Finally, the graph $\stackrel{\checkmark}{>}$, with the phonetic and semantic values of shen (*hljin) ("belthook") and dian (*din / shen / *sthjin) ("lightning", "thunder") also had the semantic value shen (*hljin) $\stackrel{\checkmark}{>}$, $\stackrel{\checkmark}{>}$ ("spirits of heaven", "ancestral spirits"). Shen (*hljin) $\stackrel{\checkmark}{>}$, $\stackrel{\checkmark}{>}$ was therefore a word most pertinent to the Shang calendar, whose main purpose was to maintain a schedule of sacrifices to the spirits of heaven and ancestors (Keightley: 283).

Phoen/Heb shin W would be similar to Chinese shen (*hljin / *sthjin) , in sound and meaning ("tooth", "belt-hook", "prongs of lightning"). There is moreover a conceptual resemblance between the pictographs. Each is a depiction of sharp protuberances, each a literal depiction of teeth or fangs. Thus there is a three-way resemblance.

Moran and Kelley interpret taw as meaning bull here, maintaining that alpha and taw, the first and the last of the letters of the Phoenician alphabet, correspond to the two bull's heads, Alam and Alad that C. J. Ball described as standing on either side of the gate to the temple or king's palace in Sumerian cities (Moran: 113). They also accept the interpretation that taw is probaby a cognate of thau, meaning "mark", in the Vulgate. Taw is generally understood to mean "sign", "mark", "cross".

Phoen/Heb $taw \uparrow$, \forall and Chinese ganzhi letter zi (* $tsj \ni$?) \circlearrowleft (DEZ: 862) are similar graphically in that both have a cross. The Chinese character zi (* $tsj \ni$?) \circlearrowleft , alternately

written in OB as \neq , means "son" and "seed". (Zi ["son"] \rightleftharpoons would seem to be related to Sumerian \circlearrowleft , \circlearrowleft ["male"] [Deimel: 14.89; Ball: Sign-list, 19].) The normal form of zi \rightleftharpoons is replaced in the ganzhi by the forms \circlearrowleft and \boxminus probably because these convey the religious and ceremonial function played by the small boy in ceremonies of ancestor worship. The small boy serves as a symbolic figure of the ancestor during the ceremonies (Jiagu). Both symbols for this ceremonial zi ("son") \rightleftharpoons and \rightleftharpoons seem to have been deliberately drawn in the shape of sacrificial cauldrons, again examples of visual wit. In the first graph \rightleftharpoons the cauldron with rising steam looks as if it has a head with hair and two legs. In \rightleftharpoons , what looks very much like the Sumerian sign for male \lnot now takes the shape of a cauldron.

Zi (*tsja?) ("seed") would be a suitable initial character for the tizhi (earthly branches) list of calendar signs, just as $hai \, \mathcal{F}_0$, \mathcal{F}_k would be an appropriate last letter of the list, since it means "boundary." (Similarly gui, * $kwiat \, \mathcal{F}_k$ punning with * $kwiat \, \mathcal{F}_k$ ["rest", "reaching the end"] is also appropriately the last letter of the tiangan [heavenly stems] list [see Table 3]).

Finally, zi (*tsjə?) $\begin{align*}{c}$, $\begin{align*}{c}$ also had a semantic value, later written $\begin{align*}{c}$, which means "letter" (as in "letter of the alphabet"), "writing", "mark", "name". Zi ("seed", "son") $\begin{align*}{c}$, $\begin{align*}{c}$ puns with zi ("mark", "letter", "writing", etc.) $\begin{align*}{c}$, $\begin{align*}{c}$ This character zi ("mark", etc.) $\begin{align*}{c}$ was used interchangeably with zhi (*tjəh) $\begin{align*}{c}$ and zhi (*tjəkh) $\begin{align*}{c}$ meaning "mark", "sign", "record", "remember" (Cihai: 1694, 1725; DEZ: 841, 842). And *tjəh was used interchangeably with ji (*ti) $\begin{align*}{c}$ ("sign", "mark" "remember", "record") $\begin{align*}{c}$ $\begin{align*}{c}$ $\begin{align*}{c}$ Another variant may have been ji (perhaps *djəp / *gjiəp) ("record", "calculate", "calculations", "strategy", etc.) $\begin{align*}{c}$ $\begin{align*}{c}$ $\begin{align*}{c}$ $\begin{align*}{c}$ ($\begin{align*}{c}$) $\begin{align*}{c}$ ($\begin{align*}{c}$) $\begin{align*}{c}$ ("to add to"), Sumerian ti) ("to count", "calculate") (Ball: 59, 138; Budge: 902).

These words for "mark", "record", *tsjə?字, *tjəh誌; and *tjəkh誌 may be reflexes of ji (*tsjik) ("footprint", "track") 是黄 and ji (*tsjək) ("footprint", "track") 是亦 . The words *kjəh言之 and *djəp / *gjiəp言 may be reflexes of ji (*kjə?)("to tie") 怎么,jie

(*tsit) ("knot", "notch") 意, and jie (*kit) 為意 ("to tie", "knot"). Footprints and knots were both marks or markers.

The initials of these Chinese words for "mark", "sign", etc., include reconstructed *tsj-, *tj-, and *dj-, which are similar in sound to t- in Phoen/Heb taw. Taw may have earlier had an initial closer to Chinese *tsj-, *tj-, or *dj-. The Egyptian word for "hand", for example, had two sounds, tet and tcha-t, indicating an alternation between initial t- and tch- (Budge: lx, cviii). Egyptian taus ("to cut into", "to engrave") also had an alternate sound tius (Budge: 867). There probably are other examples, indicating the tendency of t- and ti- to alternate.

Thus Hebrew taw +, \times and Chinese zi (*tsj = ?) y = 0, y = 0 would have similarities in sound, meaning ("mark"), and symbol.

With the last letter *taw* we conclude our examination of the 22 correspondences. All 22 have three-way resemblances, in sound, meaning, and graph. In seeking a resemblance in sound and meaning the ancient translator takes "meaning" in a broad sense, to include both literal and figurative meaning, as well as semantic, visual, and aural association. Ample use is made of verbal and visual punning. The sound of words in Shang times would have assumed a much greater significance than they do today since knowledge of writing was probably confined to only a handful of diviners and scribes. Hence the importance of homophones or near-homophones. The ancient translator has also taken "pictographic resemblance" in a broad sense, to mean not only geometric resemblance (similarity of shape) but also conceptual resemblance and resemblance through shared element. The resulting set of calendar signs is a thoughtful artifact, rich in verbal and visual play and signification. It is a foreign product introduced from the West, but one with Chinese characteristics.

Conclusion

One conclusion to be drawn from the 22 correspondences is that all of the *ganzhi* letters had meanings, although some of them are now lost. Likewise with the letters of the Phoenician alphabet. As we know, the English names of days of the week had meanings

that are now largely forgotten: Sun-day, Moon-day, Tiw (god of war)'s day, Wotan (chief of gods)'s day, Thor (Thunr, god of the sky and thunder)'s day, Fria (goddess of love)'s day, Saturn (god of agriculture)'s day, translated from the corresponding Roman deities. So too did the names of days of the Chinese ten-day week have meaning, which I have reconstructed and translated freely as follows: Jia ("hides") \P , hunting day; yi ("stream") Z, fishing day; $bing \ \P$, maid's day; $ding \ \P$, man's day; wu ("halberd") \P war-games day; $ji \ Z$, silk-sorting day; geng ("gate") \P , village fortifications day; $xin \ P$ sacrifices day; $jen \ E$, silk-reeling and weaving day; $gui \ P$, resting day. (Jen could have meant weaving, since $jen \ E$ also means the frame for holding the warp, and is paired with "weaving" in the word zhijen ["to weave"] E E E

Similarly, the 12 earthly branches have meanings that can be interpreted as designating activities (see Table 3). Besides designating activities the *ganzhi* could have also stood as symbols for patron deities, perhaps deified ancestors. For instance, wu ("halberd") could have also been a day to honor the god of war. Shen could have been a day of devotions to the god of thunder-lightning-rain. There is still the term Leiweng ("Old Man Thunder"), the Chinese version of Thor, Zeus, or Jupiter. The day after shen is you ("store water for irrigation"). Chou ("ox", "bull") could have stood for the bull deity, perhaps patron of agriculture and fertility. This would be analogous to the devotional calender of the Catholic church, where every day in the year is a feast-day for a different saint or a holy day. Patron saints of mundane affairs include St. Cecilia, patroness of music; St. Luke, patron of medicine; St. Christopher, patron of travellers, and so on.

Besides confirming Victor Mair's discovery of more than 10 years ago that the Phoenician alphabet and the Chinese calendrical signs correspond to each other one to one (Mair: 1990), the results of this study would be consonant with findings of recent researchers in many fields, such as archaeology, linguistics, anthropology, metallurgy, textiles, mythology, etc., pointing to ancient communication and interaction between Indo-European, Middle Eastern, and East Asian peoples (Mair: 1998). They would also confirm previous research by Tsung-tung Chang indicating that there is a large number of Indo-European words in the Chinese language (Chang: 1988). They would confirm the view of C. J. Ball and other earlier Assyriologists that the Chinese language

shares many words with the Sumerian and Akkadian languages. Peripherally, they would also confirm the view of L. A. Waddell that there are many Sumerian words in the Indo-European languages. And finally, they would seem to confirm Mair's theory, published in *Early China*, that there were probably Iranian magi at the Shang court (Mair: 1990).

Because this study has revealed a sizable number of words common to Shang Chinese, Germanic, Celtic, and other Indo-European languages, and to Sumerian, Akkadian, Assyrian, and Ancient Egyptian, we can only conclude that, since this is a study of a small number of words—22, the number of common words revealed here is only the tip of an iceberg.

A linguistic question raised by the results of this paper is: What is natively Chinese (Sinitic, Hannic) in the Chinese language, when so many words are shared with other peoples, basic words for body parts (e.g., "hand", "head", "mouth", "teeth", "pudenda"), for gender and kinship (e.g., "man", "woman", "child" "beget"), and for the natural world (e.g., "heaven", "lightning", "thunder", "grass", "earth", "land", "plants", "stream", "water", "bull")? Who borrowed from whom, where, and when? What is the origin of the Chinese language, or for that matter, of the Chinese people? These questions have been asked before, but they are raised again by the results of this study.

Another question is: Who brought the alphabet to China? Was it the Akkadians? The Phoenicians? The Iranians? Or some other people? Certainly quite a few of the Chinese ganzhi letters are closer to the Sumerian, Akkadian, or Egptian than to the later Hebrew names of the alphabet.

Although it is my belief that the many resemblances between the Phoenician alphabet and the Chinese calendar signs observed here are neither imaginary nor accidental, this study is nonetheless preliminary, and its presumptions, assumptions, and conjectures do require further study. Since resemblances can all too often be in the eyes of the beholder, it remains to be seen whether the 22 correspondences delineated here will stand up to examination by eyes other than my own.

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To my father Lee Chih-fu 李直夫 and mother Lay Juo-chao富若昭 I dedicate this paper.

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