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# ARTICLEV. <br> COMPARATIVE PHONOLOGY: OR, THE PHONETIC SYSTEM[ OF THE INDO-EUROPEAN LANGUAGES. 

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[Completed from Vol. XVII., from page 302].
2 d . The phonetic force of the different Greek letters, in alphabetic order; or a synoptical view of the capacities of the Greek letters, for a variable manifestation of different equivalent sounds in the Sanskrit.
A. This represents the Sanskrit a, illustrations of which will be, of course, unnecessary.

It is sometimes euphonic, and so not a radical part of the stem of a word; as in $\dot{\alpha} \sigma \pi a i \rho \omega$, to gasp, compared with бтаípu. In à $\sigma \tau \epsilon ́ \rho o \pi \eta ~(=\dot{a} \sigma \tau \eta \rho+\delta \check{\psi}$ ) lightning, (and also $\left.\dot{\alpha} \sigma \tau \rho a \pi \eta)^{\prime}\right)$ compared with $\sigma \tau \dot{\varepsilon} \rho \sigma \pi \eta$, we have, on the contrary, a full and contracted form of the same word, which might readily be mistaken, but for etymological reasons, for an instance of a euphonic. Like the Sanskrit a, the Greek a shaded off in kindred or derived forms, in different dialects, into almost all the other vowels: as $\epsilon$, Ionic $\epsilon \rho \sigma \eta \nu$ for ${ }^{\kappa} \rho \sigma \eta \nu$;
 otpotós for $\sigma \tau \rho a \tau o ́ s$.

In the Doric dialect, a was almost as great a favorite in all consonantal forms, as in Sanskrit; and it abounded greatly also in the forms of the Eolic dialect. In the different dialectic forms of the genitive of vav̂s, a ship (Sansk. navas, Lat. navis), as Doric vaós, Ionic $\nu \eta o ́ s ~ a n d ~ \nu \epsilon o ́ s ~ a n d ~$ Attic $\nu \in \omega$, we see the radical vowel a represented by a variety of kindred vowels.
B. This is equivalent to the Sanskrit $b, b h, g$, $j$, and $v$.
(b) Specimens of this kind will be unnecessary.

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(bh) bhar to carry, קaनtá̧凶.
This aspirate is, however, most commonly represented by $\phi$ in Greek.
(g) gô, a cow, $\beta$ oûs ; ${ }^{1}$ gâ, to go, $\beta a i v \omega$ (pure stem $\beta a$ ); gurus heavy, Bapús.
(j) jyâ, a bowstring, $\beta$ bós, a bow.
(v) vrish, to irrigate, $\beta \rho \epsilon \chi \omega$.

The sound of the Greek $B$ was softer than ours, more like indeed, as in the Modern Greek, our v than b; or, as in Spanish, medial between the two. Before $\rho$, it was substituted in the Æolic dialect for the ordinary aspirate, as in $\beta \rho o ́ \delta o v ~ f o r ~ \dot{\rho o ́ o ́ o \nu ~ a n d ~} \beta$ рáкos for $\dot{\rho}$ áкos. It was also epenthetically inserted before $\rho$ after $\mu$, as in $\mu \epsilon \sigma \eta \mu \beta \rho i a$, for $\mu \in \dot{\epsilon} \sigma \eta$ $\ddot{\eta} \mu \epsilon \rho a$; and ${ }^{\alpha} \mu \beta$ ротоs for ${ }^{\prime} \mu \rho о \tau о \varsigma$.

It was interchangeable in the different dialects, with the following consonants:
(1) $\pi$; as in $\beta a \tau \epsilon i \nu$ for $\pi a \tau \varepsilon i \bar{\nu}$, to tread. Before $\tau$ in verbal forms, according to the law of the harmonization of mutes in Greek (smooth with smooth, middle with middle, etc.), $\beta$ is regularly changed to $\pi$, as in $\tau \dot{\epsilon} \tau \rho \iota \pi т a l$ for тét $\rho \iota \beta$ тau Compare the change of b to p in Latin before s and t , as in scripsi and scriptum from scribo.
(2) $\phi$; as in $\beta \rho i ́ y e s$ and $\beta \rho$ v́you compared with $\phi \rho u ́ y e s . ~ C f$. Lat. fremo and $\beta \rho \epsilon ́ \mu \omega$; and balaena, a whale and фá̀auva.
(3) $\gamma$; as $\gamma \lambda \eta_{\eta}^{\prime} \chi \omega \nu$ for $\beta \lambda \eta \dot{\eta} \chi \omega \nu$, penny-royal. Compare, also, Bapús and Lat. gravis; and also ßáخavos an acorn and glans.
(4) $\delta$; as $\dot{\text { ó }} \delta \lambda \lambda_{o ́ s}^{(D o r i c) ~ f o r ~ o ̀ ~} \beta \in \lambda o ́ s$, an obelisk.
(5) $\mu$; as Bpotós for $\mu \rho o t o ́ s$ by metathesis for $\mu$ optós, Sansk. marttas (mri, to die) Lat. mortuus (morior). Cf. $\mu \tilde{u}^{\rho} \rho-$ $\mu \eta \xi$ an ant, and Lat. formica; and also $\mu о \rho \mu \omega$ a bugbear, and formido, fear.
I. This corresponds with the Sanskrit g, h, j, k (and $\mathrm{ch})$, gh, and c .
(g) gaûs, the earth (stem gâ), r̂, Archaic raia; sthag, to cover, $\sigma \tau$ té $\gamma \omega$, Lat. tego.

[^0](h) hanus, the jaw, réves, Lat. gena.
(j) jânu, the knee, yóvu, Lat. genu ; jan to beget, yevodia;
aj to drive, äyw; yaj to sacrifice, to worship, dácos.
(k) kan (cf. also chad and chand of same sense) to shine, yaváo.
(gh) ghas, to eat, yávecov, an eating-house.
(̧) paç, to bind, $\pi \eta^{\prime} \gamma \nu \nu \mu \nu$, stem may.
In the Greek itself it was interchangeable with $\beta, \delta, \kappa, \lambda$. Thus for $\beta$, compare $\beta \lambda \lambda_{\eta}^{\prime} \chi \omega \nu$ and $\gamma \lambda \lambda^{\prime} \chi \omega \nu$; for $\delta, \gamma \hat{\eta}$ and $\delta \hat{u}$
 móncs.
4. This is equivalent to the Sanskrit $\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{dh}, \mathrm{j}$, and g.
(d) dakshas, right (as right-handed) $\delta e \xi{ }^{\prime}$ ós ; dvau, two, $\delta$ view; dam, to subdue, $\delta a \mu{ }^{2}{ }^{\prime} \omega$.
(db) dhâman, a house, סó $\mu$ os.
(j) jiv, to live, diaıтa.
(g) guh, to conceal, $\delta u u^{\omega}$ and $\delta$ íves, to get into, to put on. Cf. Lat. induo and exuo.

It is interchangeable in various dialects with different letters in Greek.
(1) In the Жolic dialect with $\beta$, as $\sigma \alpha{ }^{\prime} \mu \beta a \lambda o \nu$ for $\sigma \alpha \nu \delta a-$ $\lambda o \nu$.
(2) In the Doric, with $\gamma$, as $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$ aia and $\gamma \hat{\eta}$, Doric $\delta \hat{a}$ and also $\gamma \hat{a}$. Cf. also $\delta \nu \dot{\prime} \phi o s$ as a parallel form of yúdos. So $\Delta \eta \mu \eta^{\prime} \tau \eta \rho$, Ceres, is formed from $\Gamma \eta+\mu \eta^{\prime} \tau \eta \rho$.
(3) In the Ionic, with $\zeta$, as in Zeús and $\Delta$ eús; with $k$, as $\delta a i \omega$ and $\kappa a i \omega$; and with $\sigma$, as $\dot{\partial} \delta \mu \dot{\eta}^{\prime}$ and $\dot{\partial} \sigma \mu \eta^{\prime}$.
(4) In the Attic dialect, with $\tau$, as in $\delta \alpha^{\prime} \pi \iota \varsigma$ and $\tau \alpha \dot{\pi} \pi \eta s$. It became also euphonically in the Attic in verbal forms $\sigma$,
 for épetठтal; as in Latin we find fissum for fidtum.
E. This represents the Sanskrit a, e, i, v.
(a.) api, to or towards, èmí ; ahis, a snake, éxes; jarat an old man, yé $\rho \omega \nu$ (stem repovt); ana, in, d $\nu$ and $\operatorname{eis}$ for èvts, (cf. Lat. in and with Sansk. antar among Lat, inter).

(i) pippali, pepper, тé $\pi \in \rho \iota$ (Lat. piper).
(v) varman, an arming, ép $_{\rho} \mu \mu a$ (Lat. arma); vam, to vomit, $\dot{\epsilon} \mu \dot{\epsilon} \omega$. Cf. vas to wish and $\tilde{\epsilon} \kappa \omega \nu$ for $F \hat{\epsilon} \kappa \kappa \omega \nu$, Lat. invitus.
$E$ is sometimes euphonic, as in è $\lambda$ aरús small, Sanst. laghus, light. In ékaróv one hundred, the initial $\dot{\epsilon}$ is not euphonic, but is an abbreviation of the numeral $\epsilon i s$ for $\overline{\text { ens }}$, one $(=$ $\ddot{\text { er }}$ + кatóv. Cf. Lat. centum, Sansk. çatam). In the 正olic dialect, $\epsilon \iota$ was exchanged for $\eta$, as кฑ̂vos for кeivors aud $\kappa \hat{\eta}$ for êcế
Z. Its equivalents in Sanskrit are d and y.
(d) dam, to conquer (Lat domo. Cf. dominus and damnum) $\zeta \eta \mu l a$, loss, damage. Cf. $\delta a \mu \dot{a} \omega$ to subdue.
(y) yu and yuj, to bind, or join together, दєíguver; yava, barley, $\zeta_{\epsilon ́ a}$ for $\zeta_{\epsilon ́ F a}$
$\boldsymbol{Z}$ does not represent in Greek the combination, as might be supposed, of $\delta \varsigma, \tau \varsigma$, and $9 s$, etymologically, but of $\delta_{\delta}$ and भı. Thus $\sigma \chi i \zeta \omega$ is for $\sigma \chi i \delta \omega \omega$ (stem $\sigma \chi \delta \delta$ ); $\sigma \tau i \zeta \omega$ fut. $\sigma$ 隹 $\omega$ (stem $\sigma \pi / y$ ) is for $\sigma$ i'yw ; (cf. Lat. instigo, Germ. stechen, Eng. stick) ; and $\mu e i \zeta \omega \nu$ is for $\mu$ éy $\omega \omega \nu$. It is also sometimes equivalent when initial to the simple Sanskrit y; as in $\xi_{-}$ yóv (Lat. jugum) a yoke, and yuga equal ; and $\zeta$ eúrovem to join (Lat.jungo) Sansk. yuj to bind. In a few cases $\zeta$ repre-
 Dionysius, who yet himself represents $\zeta$ as being pronounced as $\delta$, says that it arose from $\sigma \delta$. In the Doric dialect, it was indeed so written, so that $Z \epsilon$ 's was in Doric Kסés; but the analysis of its origin, as representing an earlier form $\delta \iota$ or $\gamma b$, is alike its true historical and phonetic analysis. Z early sank in sound into soft s, and was by Lu-
 pós and $Z \mu u ́ \rho \nu a$ for $\Sigma_{\mu \nu ́ \rho \nu a . ~}^{\text {a }}$
$Z$ was interchanged in Greek, when initial, by the Dorians, with $\delta$, and, when medial, by the Tareutine Greets with $\sigma \sigma$; as, with $\delta$, in the Doric forms $\delta u y{ }^{2} \nu$ and $\delta o \mu \cos ^{\circ}$ for $\zeta u y o v ~ a n d ~ \zeta o \mu o ́ s ; ~ a n d ~ w i t h ~ \sigma \sigma ~ i n ~ t h e ~ T a r e n t i n e ~ f o r m ~ \lambda a x t i o-~$ $\sigma \omega$ for $\lambda a \kappa \tau i \xi \omega$.
H. This is equivalent to the Sanskrit a. Thas the Sansk. sâmi half, Lat. semi, is in Greek $\dot{\eta} \mu \mathrm{b}$ - ; in which form the $\eta$ represents the Sansk. long â, and the accompanying aspi-
rate represents the Sanskrit and Latin sibilant. So $\dot{\eta} \delta{ }_{0} \mathbf{c}^{\prime}$ compares with Sansk. svadus, sweet, Lat. suavis; and $\boldsymbol{\eta} \pi a \rho$ the liver, with Sansk. yakrit, Lat. jecur.
Q. This is equivalent to the Sanskrit $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{dh}$, and gh.
(t) tij, to put together, Icrүáve, stem Sor.
(d) duhitri, a daughter, Múyat $\eta \rho$; dvar, a door, Iúpa.
(dh) dhûma(s), smoke, Iu $\mu$ ós (Lat. fumas) ; indh to burn,

(gh) gharma, heat, Sepuós. For a similar change of another guttural into a lingual, compare $\tau i$ 's with the Vedic kis, Lat. quis.
$\Theta$ was interchanged, in the different Greek dialects, with various letters : as $\sigma$, Doric $\sigma$ áw for Máso to see; $\phi$, Æolic $\phi \eta^{\prime} \rho$ for $S$ in $\rho$, a wild beast (cf. Lat. fera, German thier, Eng. deer) ; $\delta, \psi$ visos poetic form of $\psi$ нeíoos, a lie; the aspirate, as Sapú in Homer and Pindar for ${ }^{\circ}$.
I. This is equivalent to the Sanskrit $a, e$, and the halfvowel y.

(e) vêtra, a reed (from vê to weave) itéa for Firéa, Lat. vitis, Eng. withe.
(y) mahigas comp. of mahat great ( $\mu e ́ y a s$ ) comp. $\mu$ eí̧ $\omega \nu$ for $\mu$ érıuv.
$I$ was exchanged sometimes in Greek for $c l$, as in $e^{\prime} \lambda \eta \eta$ compared with $\ \lambda \eta$, a band, and iorl $\eta$ (Ionic) compared with éoria, for Feotla, the hearth of a house (cf. Lat. vesta).
K. Its equivalents in Sanskrit are k, ç, ch, g, h.
(k) krî to distinguish, $\kappa p l \nu w$ (Lat. cerno, cretus and crimen) ; kapâlas, the skull, кeфa入̀'; kathinas, a bowl, кátavos.
(¢) çangkhas, a shell кórरِ $\eta$; çiras, the head, кópa; çru to hear, $\kappa \lambda$ úv (Lat. inclytus and gloria) ; daç to bite, $\delta a ́ \kappa \nu \omega$; daçan ten סérea; diç to show סelkvopl (Lat. dico and digitus) ; çad to fall, cacd down (Lat. cado, to fall and caedo to fell, or cut down).
(ch) cha, and, кe (and $\tau \epsilon$ ) ; chay, to go кio.
(g) gaura, yellow, $\kappa \iota \rho$ pós (Lat. gilvus, German gelb, Eng. yellow).
(h) hal, to hollow, Noithos (Lat. coelum, Germ. hohl, Eng. $69^{\circ}$
hole, hollow and hell) ; hard and hridaya, the heart, кथिp and кароía.
$\boldsymbol{K}$ is interchangeable in Greek :
(1) with $\pi$; as Æolic $\kappa \hat{\omega} s$ and $\kappa \dot{\sigma} \tau \epsilon$, Attic $\pi \omega \hat{s}$ and $\pi \dot{\sigma} \boldsymbol{\tau} \epsilon$.
(2) with $\tau$; as móкca, Doric form of $\pi o ́ \tau \epsilon$, and $\tau \hat{\eta} \nu o s$ Doric of $\kappa \in i=i v o s$.
(3) with $\gamma$ and $\chi$; as in кvártт (Old Attic) to scratch and $\gamma \nu a ́ \pi t \tau \omega$ (New Attic), and $\dot{\rho} \notin \gamma \chi \omega$ to snore, Attic $\dot{\rho}$ éyкc. So in the Doric $\dot{\alpha} \tau \rho \in \chi$ és occurs for $\dot{\alpha} \tau \rho \in \kappa \epsilon \in, s$, which in Pindar is àт $\rho \epsilon \kappa \eta{ }^{\prime}$ s.
L. This is equivalent to the Sanskrit $\mathrm{l}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{d}$, and even to the half-vowel y by assimilation.
(l) lih (Vedic rih) to lick, $\lambda \in i ́ \chi \omega$ (German lechen, Eng. lick) ; sphal to waver, $\sigma \phi a ́ \lambda \lambda \omega$ (Lat. fallo).
(1) anyas, another, ä入 $\lambda$ os for ä $\lambda$ cos (Lat. alius, ${ }^{1}$ ollus and ille Gothic alja). In Prâkrit, as in Greek, the half-vowel y is assimilated, and the word is there annas.
(r) rich, to leave, $\lambda_{e} i \pi \omega$, stem $\lambda_{k} \pi$ (Lat. linquo, stem liq). So, contrarily, Sansk. lup and lump, to break, is equivalent to Lat. rumpo, perf. rupi ; and Sansk. ruch to be bright, to the Greek $\lambda_{\text {eunós bright, (Lat. lux, luceo, illustris etc). }}^{\text {en }}$
(d) dîpa a lamp, $\lambda$ á $\mu \pi a s$ (where the root is also nasalized).
(y) Vid. ä̀ $\lambda \lambda o s$, above; and so $\beta a ́ \lambda \lambda \omega$ is for $\beta a ́ \lambda \iota \omega$.
$L$ is interchangeable in different dialects with various let-
 Compare double forms $\pi \nu \epsilon \dot{u} \mu \omega \nu$ and $\pi \lambda \epsilon^{\prime} \mu \omega \nu$; and also the Spanish nivel and French niveau, as derived from Lat. libella (diminutive of libra) a level. (2) In the Attic, with $\rho$, as vaúкрароs for vaúкдароs, the chief of a division of citizens. (3) In the Æolic, with $\delta$, as $\delta a^{\prime} \phi \nu \eta$ and $\lambda \dot{d}^{\prime} \phi \nu \eta$ the laurel. Compare in Latin oleo to smell and odor fragrance.
M. $M$ is simply equivalent to Sansk. $m$ and $s m$. As examples of m , see samâ together, ä $\mu a$ (Lat. simul and similis) and sami half, $\eta \mu c$ (Lat. semi) : of sm, smi, to laugh, $\mu \epsilon^{i} \delta \dot{\alpha} \omega$ (for $\sigma \mu \epsilon \delta \dot{\sigma} \omega$ ). It is interchanged in the 压olic with

[^1]$\beta$ and $\pi$, as $\delta \pi \pi \pi a$ for $\begin{array}{r}\mu \mu \mu a \\ \text { and } \beta \rho o t o ́ s ~ f o r ~\end{array} \rho o t o ́ s ;$ and in the Attic with $\nu$, as $\nu \nu \nu$ for $\mu \nu \nu$ (cf. Lat. num and $\mu \omega \nu)$.
$N$. Its equivalents in Sanskrit are $n$ and $\mathrm{sn}, \mathrm{jn}, \mathrm{m}$ and s .
(sn) snushấ, a daughter-in-law, vuós for ovvoós (Lat. nuras) ; snu, to flow, $\nu \in ́ \omega$ (for $\sigma \nu \epsilon ́ F \omega$ ) fut. vev́б $\omega$.
论s the mind; Lat. nosco for gnosco; and Eng. know.
(m) $M$ final in original forms is everywhere changed in Greek to $\nu$ : as in the person-endings, for the first person, of the imperfect active, and of the first and second aorists passive; the nominative case-ending of the 2 d declension neuter (Greek oov, Sansk. -am, Lat. -um) ; and the accusative singular and genitive plural endings in $\nu$; in all of which respects, the Latin more nearly represents the original form
 $\pi \delta \dot{\sigma} \iota \varsigma$ ) is for $\pi \delta \sigma \tau \mu$ Sansk. patim; and $\pi \sigma \delta \hat{\omega} \nu$ is for $\pi o \delta \hat{\omega} \mu$, Sansk. padâm.
(s) Final $s$ in Sanskrit is often represented by $\nu$ in the Greek equivalent, as in the plural active suffix $-\mu \in \nu$ (Doric $-\mu e s)$ Sansk. -mas, Lat. -mus for the first person of verbs; and so in the 2 d and 3 d person dual endings - $\tau 0 \nu$ and $-\tau \eta \nu$ for Sansk. -thas and -tas.
$N$ is exchanged, especially in the Æolic dialect with $\lambda$ and $\mu$.
E. The equivalents of this letter in Sanskrit are ksh and sh.
(ksh) akshas, an axle, ă $\xi \omega \nu$ (Lat. axis).
(sh) shash, six, ef (Lat. sex).
For initial $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ the Dorians used sometimes $\sigma \kappa$, as $\sigma \kappa i \phi o s$ for $\xi$ íos.
O. This represents the Sanskrit a, as dhâman, a house, סónos (Lat. domus); akshas the eye, őкos and ö $\sigma \sigma \epsilon$ for original örce (Lat. oculus) ; avis a sheep, ǒis for oFis (Lat. ovis.) Like $a$ and $\epsilon$, the letter $o$ is sometimes euphonic, as in òкé $\lambda \lambda \omega$ compared with $\kappa \epsilon^{\prime} \lambda \lambda \omega$ (Lat. cello, celer etc.); ò $\delta \dot{\prime} \rho o \mu a \iota$ with $\delta$ ópoual (cf. $\delta$ ón pain and $\delta u s$ hard Sansk. du to suffer painy ; and ojpéy Sansk. râj Lat. rego.
$O$ was interchanged in the Alolic dialect with $a, \epsilon, v, \omega$; and in the Doric with oc: as with
(a) Æolic orporós, for otpatós an army ;
" • b̆ $\nu \omega$ for ằ $\nu \omega$ upwards;
(є) " édoutes for b$\delta 0 \nu \tau \epsilon s$ the teeth;

( $\omega$ ) " öpa for $\begin{gathered}\omega \\ \text { pa a season: }\end{gathered}$
(ou) Doric moia and Ionic moln for móa grass
$O$, sometimes called a movable $o$, is often substituted in derived forms for a radical vowel, as in $\lambda$ óyos from $\lambda$ éra,
 Cf.in Latin socius from sequor, sodalis from sedeo, nodus from necto.
II. The equivalents of $\pi$ in Sanskrit are $p, b, v, k$.
(p) pitar a father $\pi a \pi \eta \eta^{\prime} ;$ parâ farther $\pi a \rho a ́ ; ~ a p a ~ f r o m, ~$ ànó (Lat. ab).
 $\pi n 9$.
(v) varâhas, a boar, тópкos (Lat. porcus and verres).

$\Pi$ is interchangeable in Greek with $\gamma$, as خamapós and $\lambda$ aүa oós, slack ; with $\kappa$, as $\pi \sigma^{\prime} \sigma o s$ and Ionic кoбós; with $\tau$, as $\pi \epsilon ́ \varphi \tau \epsilon$ and Æolic $\pi \epsilon ́ \mu \pi \epsilon$; and with $\beta$ and $\phi$ as $\beta$ ád $\lambda \omega$ and $\pi \dot{a} \lambda \lambda \omega$ (cf. Lat. pello, palpo and palpito) ; and $\sigma \pi o ́ \gamma \gamma o s$, Attic $\sigma \phi_{0} \gamma y o s$, a sponge (cf. Lat. fungus).
P. This letter represents the Sanskrit r, dr, sr, bh, vr, ghr.
(r) urus, wide, eùjús ; ar to rise, ò $\rho \nu v \mu \iota$ Lat. orior.
(dr) draksha, a grape, $\dot{\rho} a^{\xi} \xi$ (Lat. racemus, Fr. raisin, Eng. race and raisin).
(sr) sru, to pour forth, $\dot{\rho} \epsilon \in \omega$ for $\sigma \rho \in ́ F \omega$.

(vr) vri, to cover, $\rho$ puós the rind.
(ghr) ghrân, the nose, $\dot{\rho}$ ís gen. puvós.
$P$ is interchanged in the Æolic dialect with $\sigma$, as oitop for
 rúp for $\nu \in \kappa u ́ s$. (Cf. Lat. arbor and arbos, honor and honos, and eram for esam, imperf. of sum). It was also prefixed sometimes in the Æelic dialect with $\beta$, to represent what was in
other dialects the aspirate, as $\beta$ pó $\delta o \nu$ for $\dot{\rho} \delta \dot{\delta} o \nu, \beta \rho i \zeta a$ for $\dot{\rho} i \zeta a$, etc.

In the Attic it was interchanged with $\lambda$, as ournoós for ourn $\lambda_{o ́ s . ~ C f . ~ i n ~ s a m e ~ w a y ~ L a t . ~ l i l i u m ~ a ~ l i l y, ~ w i t h ~ \lambda e i p o o v . ~}^{\text {sen }}$ It was also sometimes transposed by metathesis, as cáptos for кра́тos.

The letter r was called by the ancients the canine letter, as it is a continuous rolling $r$-sound that an angry suarling dog makes.
$\Sigma \Sigma \Sigma$ is equivalent to c a and s in Sanskrit.
(ç) çarkaga, candied sugar, $\sigma a ́ x \chi a p o \nu . ~(L a t . ~ s a c c h a r u m, ~$ Germ. zucker, Fr. sucre.)
(s) stabh to press together and stambh to support, orei$\beta \omega$ and $\sigma \tau e ́ \mu \beta \omega$; sphal, to deviate $\sigma \phi a ́ \lambda \lambda \omega$ (Lat. fallo, Fr. faillir, Span. faltar, Eng. fail, fall, fell, falter, false, fault.)

Its dialectic interchanges are with $\delta, 9, \tau, \pi \tau, \xi$, the aspirate, and $\rho$ : as with $\delta$, Æol. and Dor. ${ }^{i} \delta \mu e \nu$ for $i \sigma \mu \varepsilon \nu$; with A, Dor. áyacós for áyaisós ; with $\tau$, Æol. and Dor. $\tau v$ for $\sigma \nu$; with $\pi \tau$, $\pi \epsilon \in \sigma \sigma \omega$ Sansk. pach, to cook and collateral form

T. Its equivalents in Sanskrit are $t$, th, dh , ch and k .
(t) anti over against, àлti (Lat. ante) ; pat to fy $\pi$ пєтонац; tan, to extend, $\tau \in i ́ \nu \omega$ for $\tau$ év $\omega$.
(th) asthi, a bone, ò oréov (Lat. os for oss, for ost) ; sthâ to stand ${ }^{\prime} \sigma \tau \eta \mu$, stem $\sigma \tau a$; sthiras, fixed, firm, $\sigma \tau e \rho \in o ́ s$.
(dh) dhâ, to place, $\tau \operatorname{di} \eta \mu$, stem Se.
(ch) cha, and, $\kappa \epsilon$ and $\tau e$.
(k) kas, who, tís Lat. quis. So, té $\sigma \sigma a p e s$ is for kévoapes, for кéт Fapes, Sansk. catvâras, Lat. quatuor (pronounced as
 chan, five, Lat. quinque.

The following are its dialectic interchanges: 9, $\sigma$ and $\pi$. For $\mathcal{S}$, compare aints and Ionic aűtıs; for $\sigma, \sigma \nu$, and Æol. $\tau v$. (For a similar change in the modern languages compare Lat. stratus, part. of sterno, Span. strada, Germ. Strasse, Eng. street ; and Germ. essen with Lat. edo, Gr. $\mathfrak{\epsilon} \sigma \$ i \omega$, Eng.eat.)
 Compare similarly $\sigma \pi o v \delta \dot{\eta}$ and Lat. studium zeal; táws, a
peacock and pavo; and also in Latin itself hospes and howtis, the primary meaning of both of which is the same, a stranger.
r. $r$ corresponds with the Sanskrit a, $u, v, s v$.
(a) sam, with, $\sigma u ́ v$; nakhas, a nail, b̌v
(u) upari, above, ivéf ; udan water, v̈ $\delta \omega \rho$, stem v̈ $\delta a \pi$.
(v) dvau, two, $\delta \dot{v} \omega ;$ vê and vap to weave, ípaivo; tram, thou, $\sigma \dot{v}$ (Lat. tu); çvan, a dog, $\kappa \dot{\prime} \omega \nu$. (So cf. Lat. suus, Sansk. svas). As with $i$ and $j$, so $u$ is but a vowelized form of $v$, or, which is the same thing, $v$ is but a hard consonantal form of $u$.
(sv) svapnas, a dream, vinvos.
In the Greek dialects $v$ was interchanged with $a, b, a, \infty$, ou. For (a) compare $\sigma$ áp $\xi$ and Æol. $\sigma \dot{v} \rho \xi$, as also $\tau \in ́ \sigma \sigma a p e s$ and Æol. тíoupes; for ( $\iota$ ) see фevtev́v and poet. фıtíw: for
 $\lambda i ́ v \eta$; and for (oc) रpucós and Жol. xpoccós.
$\Phi$. The equivalents of $\phi$ in Sanskrit are bh, p, ph, v.
(bh) bhut to be, ф $\dot{v} \omega$ (Lat. fui and fore) ; bhid to divide, $\phi \epsilon i \delta \delta o \mu a \iota$ (reflexive), (cf. German beissen, Eng. bite); bhâ, to shine, фaive (cf. $\phi \eta \mu i$ and Latin for and facio); bhar and bhri, to bear, ф'́peo; bhuj, to turn or bend, фeúryos, stem фuy (Latin fugio).
(p) pâl, to love, $\phi \iota \lambda \in \in \omega$; prâna breath, spirit, $\phi \rho \eta^{\prime} \nu$.
(ph) phullan, a blossom, фúdxov.
(v) svas his, $\sigma$ фós, Lat. suus.
$\Phi$ is interchangeable in Greek with $\pi$ and 9: with $\pi$, as Æol. $\sigma \pi$ óryos for $\sigma$ фóryos, and, in the Doric, é $\pi$ горкє́ouц oc-
 also $9 \lambda i \beta \omega$ and $\nVdash o l$. . $\phi \lambda i \beta \omega$.
X. The letter $\chi$ represents variously the Sanskrit h, kh, g, çr.
(h) hrish, to rejoice $\chi$ aipoo; hyas, yesterday, $\chi$ I's ; lih to lick, $\lambda \in i ́ \chi \omega$.
(kh) khola(s) wavering, $\chi \omega \lambda$ ós ; nakhas a nail òvv乡, gen. öños.
(g) garhan, an enclosure $\chi$ о́pтos (Lat. hortus and cohors; Eng. cohort and court) ; gaura, $\chi^{0 \lambda \eta}$ bile.
(çr) çrat, credit, xpáo to lend (Lat. credo $=$ çrat + dâ Sansk.).

The interchanges of $\chi$ in Greek are in the Ionic with $\kappa$

 ŏpus a bird for öpuisos.
$\Psi$. As $\psi$ represents the combination of any one of the labials with $\sigma$, its equivalents are of the same general sort with theirs. In ǒ $\psi$ the voice (Sansk. vachs Lat. vox) it represents the Sansk. chs.
$\Psi$ was interchanged in Greek with $\sigma \pi$, as $\sigma \pi a ́ \lambda c o \nu$ for $\psi$ án $\lambda_{\llcorner o \nu}$; with $\sigma \phi$, as by the Dorians and the Syracusan Greeks
 There are also some correllate forms in $\psi$ and $\xi$, as $\psi \dot{\alpha} \omega$ and گíw.
$\Omega$. This letter is representative of the Sanskrit a, v, y.
(a) âsus, quick, ஸ̌ứs: çvan a dog, кírov.
(v) vâra, time, ©̈pa (Lat. hora, Fr. heure, Germ. jahr and uhr, Eng. hour and year); van to sell, ఉ̀véopac (Lat. vendo).
(g) yat, ís (for $\dot{\omega} \tau$ ).

The Greek interchanges of $\omega$ are with $a, a v, o v, o$ : with


 $\lambda \dot{\eta}$, a wound.

3d. Special Pathological Affections of the Greek.
I. Digammation.
II. Sibilation.
III. Aspiration.
IV. Reduplication.
V. Nasalization.

These affections of words, while pertaining more or less to the three classical languages in common, have a special relevancy to the Greek in respect to their influence on the forms of the language, or the prominence with which they appear, as special features of it.
I. Digammation.

The digamma, or double-gamma, $F$, was originally the
sixth letter of the Grecian alphabet. It corresponded to the Pheuician Vau and the Latin.F. In some old Peloponnesian inscriptions in the Laconic or Doric dialect, this character, is found representing it. The Laconians, indeed, and especially the Laconian colonists of Heraclea in Southern Italy, and the Cretans, showed much more fondness for retaining the dlgamma, in either its natural form, or as softened into $\beta$, than most of the other Greeks. The name digamma was given by both the Greek and Roman grammarians to this character, because its form was that of two gammas united, one above the other, in one compound symbol. From the great fondness of the Æolians for this letter, it was often called the Æolic digamma. It was used at first by all the Greeks; or, in other words, it was one of the characteristics of the Pelasgic or Pioneer period of Greek development; and, as it is not found in any Attic or Ionic inseriptions, it must have fallen very early into disuse by the Ionian race.

It was probably pronounced very much like our $w$ in its softened form; for Dionysius says, that it sounded like ov. Its corresponding vowel is $v$; and it is often changed into it, as in the diphthongs $a v$ and $\epsilon v$; which at times originate in this way, as well as ov, when not formed by lengthening o, to represent a contracted form. Thus $\beta o u ̂ s, \nu a \hat{s}$ and $\pi \lambda \epsilon \dot{\sigma} \sigma \omega$, fut. of $\pi \lambda e ́ \omega$, are for $\beta \dot{\prime} F_{s}$ (Lat. bos for bovs, gen. bovis) $\nu_{\alpha} F_{\varsigma} \pi \lambda \epsilon \in{ }^{\prime}{ }_{\sigma \omega}$.

As the digamma lost its distinct symbol, it underwent several interesting transformations, such as the following:
(1) It was sometimes, when initial, weakened into a mere breathing, as $\tilde{\epsilon} \sigma \pi \epsilon \rho o s$ for $F \epsilon \sigma \pi \epsilon \rho o s$ (Lat. vesper and Hespe-
 (Lat. vestio to clothe).
(2) It was changed by the Laconians, and some others of the Dorian family, into $\beta, \gamma$, or $\phi$, as,
 $\beta \hat{\omega} \epsilon \iota \nu$ to see, for $F i \delta \epsilon \iota \nu$, later, $\epsilon^{\ell} \delta \epsilon \iota \nu$ (Lat. videre). Biксать twenty for Feiкatı, later, eǐкoб兀 (Sansk. vinçati).
 yıt'́a a willow, for Fıt'́a, later, itéa (Lat. vitex).
(3). It was changed in some cases to o, as in Oituros and Beíturos for Fíturos, a Laconian town, also called Túros.
(4). It was sometimes softened into $\nu$, as in $\nu a \hat{u} s$ for $\nu a ́ F_{s}$.
(5). It was completely rejected, as in ëap for Féap Lat. ver; oikos for Foíkos, Lat. vicus. Cf. 'Ita入ós and 'Ita入ia (Italy) for Fitands etc. Lat. vitulus: so called on account of its fine oxen.

Some words originally beginning with two consonants, the first of which was the digamma, have remaining but a mere weakened form of one of them, as Sansk. svadus, sweet, Gr. $\dot{\eta} \delta u{ }^{\prime}$ s for $\sigma F \eta \delta \delta^{\prime}$. (Cf. Lat. suavis, where the original sv are both represented ; and also Sansk. svapnas, sleep, (Gr. v̈тvos for $\sigma F$ 'úrivos, Lat. somnus for sopnus for svopnus). Thus, by the comparison of many Sanskrit forms and their Latin equivalents with kindred forms in Greek, which are now aspirated or contracted, or otherwise marked as having once had a fuller form of another sort, we assure ouraelves absolutely of the fact, that the archaic form of the Greek was itself also digammated.

It is clear, that in Homer's time many words had the digamma, which afterwards lost it. The concurrence of two vowels in the radical part of a word would make a hiatus, ${ }^{1}$ particularly disagreeable to a Greek ear; which both poets and prose writers would seek carefully to avoid. In the case of words that at first had the digamma, such a hiatus did not originally exist, of course, when the preceding word ended in a vowel; and, in the absence of the digamma, accordingly, they are still found occurring together, as when it
 same reason, the influence of the lost $F$ of a once digammated word is still felt, in making with a preceding consnnant the vowel originally followed by them both, although one of them is now wanting, long by position.

The following are some of the most important specimens of Greek words that were beyond doubt once digammated :

[^2](1) Initially.

áv $\delta a ́ v \omega$, to please, for Fav $\delta a v \omega$.
ă $\sigma$ тv, a city, for Faotu (Sansk. vastu from vas to dwell). $\epsilon \notin a \rho$, spring, and $\eta \boldsymbol{\eta} \rho$ for $F_{\epsilon ́ a \rho}^{\prime}$ (Persian behâr, Lat. ver). $\epsilon i \delta \omega$, to see, for $F i \delta \omega$ (Lat. video, Sansk. vid).
$\tilde{e}^{\prime} \nu \nu \nu \mu h$, to clothe for $F_{\epsilon}^{\prime} \sigma \nu \nu \mu c$ (Lat. vestio, Sansk. vas).
$\dot{e} \lambda \lambda \omega$, to seize, for $F$ ' $\lambda \lambda \omega$ (Lat. vello).
épyov, work, for $F^{\prime}$ épyov (cf. Sansk. vay to bestir one's self).
 and Hesperia, cf. Sansk. vas to cut off and vasati night. $\dot{\varepsilon} \sigma \tau i a$, the hearth, for $F_{\epsilon \sigma \tau l a}$ (Lat. vesta; Sansk. vas, to dwell). iov, the violet, for Fiov (Lat. viola).
tos, poison, for Fios (Lat. virus, Sansk. vishas).
is, force, for Fi's (Lat. vis, pl. vires for vises).
itéa, a willow for Firéa (Sansk. vêtra a reed Lat. vitex).
oikos, a house, for Foîkos (Sansk. vêsas, Lat. vicus).

oivos, wine, $\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { for Foivvos, Cretan Boîvos (Lat. vinum; cf. } \\ \text { Sansk. vêna beloved). }\end{array}\right.$


idos, own, peculiar $\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { for } F i \delta i o s \text { (Sansk. vidh, to separate, Lat. } \\ \text { viduus, divido and individuus). }\end{array}\right.$ $\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { ős, and 3d pers. pronoun ov̂, ot̀, ẽ for } \sigma \text { Fós, } \sigma \text { Fồ etc. Cf. } \\ \text { suus and sui, sibi etc. in Latin. }\end{array}\right.$
(2) Medially.
$\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { aiés, aiév and aicl, always, for ai } F \epsilon l \text { (Lat. aevum and aï } \omega \nu, \\ \text { Sansk. êvas, a moving or going). }\end{array}\right.$
Boîs, an ox, for BóFs (Lat. bos gen. bovis, Fr. boeuf Eng. beef and beeves).
$\kappa \lambda \eta t s$, a key, for $\kappa \lambda \eta F$ (s. (Lat. clavis, Fr. clén).
$\lambda a l o ́ s$, left, for $\lambda$ al Fós. (Lat. laevus).
$\lambda \in i o s$, light, for $\lambda \in i$ Fos. (Lat. levis, Eng. lift, lever, etc.).
$\sigma a ́ o s$, safe, for $\sigma a ́ F o s$. (Lat. salvus, Eng. safe).
бкаıós, left, for бкаıFós. (Lat. scaevus, Germ. schief, Eng. skew).
$\nu \epsilon \dot{o ́ s}^{\prime}$ new, for $\nu \epsilon$ Fós. (Lat. novus, Sansk. navas).
öis, a sheep, for öFis. (Lat. ovis, Sansk. avis).

Doric $\ddot{\omega} \beta \in a,{ }^{1}$ with which compare $\ddot{\omega} \in a$, in Epicharmus).
Between two vowels, therefore, an original digamma often dropped quietly out of sight; leaving not a trace behind it of its former existence. Thus $\pi \lambda \epsilon \in \omega$ is for $\pi \lambda \epsilon F \omega(\operatorname{root} \pi \lambda \nu$, and, when gunated, $\pi \lambda_{\varepsilon v}$ ) Sansk. plavâmi, I wash; and $\kappa \lambda$ ai $\omega$ Attic $\kappa \lambda$ á $\omega$, to weep, fut. $\kappa \lambda a \dot{v} \sigma o \mu a \mu$, is for $\kappa \lambda a F \iota \omega$, Sansk. çravayâmi. Other words of this sort are $\pi v \in \dot{\epsilon} \omega$, pure stem $\pi v \nu$; $\nu \epsilon \epsilon \omega$, stem $\nu v ; \dot{\rho} \dot{\epsilon} \omega$, stem $\dot{\rho} v$; and Tié stem $9 \nu$. The analysis of this class of forms is this : the final $v$ of the stem was lengthened to $\epsilon v$, as a mode of strengthening it; but $\epsilon v$ before vowels became, in early Greek, $\epsilon F$, from which finally $\boldsymbol{F}$ dropped away, as everywhere else in the language, because distasteful to the cultivated Greek sense. The different stages, accordingly, through which the stem $\pi \lambda \nu$ went, may be thus represented : $\pi \lambda \nu-\pi \lambda \epsilon \nu-\pi \lambda \epsilon F-\pi \lambda \varepsilon$.

## II. Sibilation.

S is a sui generis sound, which, like the sponge, mediate, as it were, between a vegetable and an animal, or the bat, between birds and quadrupeds, occupies a sort of middle ground between a consonant and a vowel; uniting the characteristics of them both. While various letters, found in some languages, are wanting in others, as the letter v or w , or the French $u$, like, also, the compound consonants, termed the nasal ng and the guttural ch, not to speak of more still ; no language fails to possess the sibilant s. Its two chief sounds are the soft and hard, or its s- and zsounds. With ch in some languages, as the German, and $h$ in others, as ours, it forms a softened compound-sound, in which it appears in its most agreeable form, at least to modern ears, and which was not known at all to the ancients.

[^3]S often occurred initially in Greek, and was pronoonced, in such cases, with its sharp sibilant sound; but it was as little pleasing to the Greek ear as to the French ; and on this account, it was so frequently excbanged for the rough breathing in many words, whose original stems possessed it; as in


When occurring in the middle of a word, it is manifest that it had a very soft sound, as it so often fell out from weak-

 $\nu \in \sigma o s$.

In Latin, between two vowels, and at the end of words, when it formed a part of their original stem, it passed into $\mathbf{r}$; so weak was its sound, or rather its power of retaining its own permanence; as in Papirius for original Papisius, Valerius for Valesius, honor and arbor for honos and arbos, and generis and foederis, genitives of stems originally ending in s , as genes and foedes. So eram is for esam, imperf. of sum - for esum (i); and corpus is for corpos, for subsequent corpor, as the stem. Compare, also, honor and honestus, robur and robustus, arbor and arbustum.

The term assibilation is used to denote the combination of the sibilant with the varivus mutes, as in ps , ts, and ks , gz and dz. In Greek, this assibilation is represented by the compound letters $\psi$ and $\xi$, occurring in all parts of words, as the beginning, middle, and end. With regard to $\zeta$, see previous page.

The graphic symbols $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ and $\psi$ were added by Simonides, in the times of the Persian wars (в. с. 500), to the Greek syllabarium.

The final s, so often found affixed, in the classical languages, at the end of nominal and adjective bases, in the nominative, and called properly the gender-sign, represents the Sanskrit personal pronouns he and she (Sansk. sa, he; sâ, she; tat, it. Cf. $\delta, \dot{\eta}, \tau 0$, and Germ. sie, she; and Eng. he and she). This affix is a sign, at once, to the eye, that personality is predicated of the noun receiving it; it carries with itself a vitalizing force. The tendency to the imperso-
nation, in thought, of material objects, is very strong indeed, in not only poetical natures as such, who love to see and to feel the reflection of their own vitality, from every mute form of beauty around them; but also, especially, in the early, impressible, and imaginative period of a nation's first intellectual life.

## III. Aspiration.

The influence of climate on the tendency to aspiration, in any language, is very great, aud even, in fact, determinate, it would seem, of the whole taste and tendency of a people in that direction. "Nowhere," says Benary," is a simple dialectic difference, in the use of aspiration, more significant than in Germany ; so that, he who should go from the highlands of that country in the centre, to the low plains of the north, might mark, quite well, the successive steps of decline, in its use, from his starting-point, until, on arriving at Denmark, all traces of its use would disappear." So, in Italy, the Sabines who lived among the mountains, were specially fond of aspiration ; while the Romans, dwelling on the broad plains of Latium, were averse from ${ }^{1}$ it.

Each of the three cardinal classes of mutes, the gatturals, labials, and linguals, has its own aspirate. The aspirates may be classified as follows :

1. The Guttural Aspirates.
(1) The Greek. The rough breathing ${ }^{\text {a }}$ and $\chi$.
(2) The Latin. H and ch (of Greek origin).

2d. The Labial Aspirates.
(1) Greek, $\phi, F$ (obsolete).
(2) Latin, f, ph (of Greek origin).

2d. The Lingual or Dental Aspirates.
(1) Greek, $9, \sigma$.

[^4](2) Latin $s$ and th (of Greek origin).

The genuine aspirates, except s, are of coarse all double sounds, consisting of some mute, as the stable element, and an added breathing; so that they correspond, among consonants, to diphthongs among vowels. The Greek is rich in this class of mixed consonants, as it is also in diphthongal mixtures among vowels; while the Latin is poor in them both; and the Slavic languages are almost wholly destitute of them. The original forms of the aspirates were for the guttural, gh ; for the labial, bh ; and for the dental, dh. Curtius classifies the Indo-European languages, in five divisions, ${ }^{1}$ in respect to the phenomena of their aspirates.

1. The Sanskrit ${ }^{2}$ by itself : exhibiting the original basee, in the aspirates $\mathrm{gh}, \mathrm{bh}$ and dh , of the whole system of aspiration, in any and all languages; and yet gh often settles in Sanskrit, into mere h, as lih for ligh. Gr. $\lambda \in l$ l $\omega$, Lat. lingo: and mahat great, for maghat, Gr. meyas, Lat, magnus.
2. All those languages, which, by giving up the breathing. remove the difference between the medial aspirates and the medials themselves in given forms; as the Zend, whieb, while sometimes retaining the aspirates, at other times weakens them to medials, as in $\mathrm{gh}, \mathrm{bh}, \mathrm{dh}$, weakened to g , b , d .
3. That embracing the Germanic languages, which has with the same characteristics as those that mark the second class, an additional tendency to a strengthening of the mate element of the aspirates, as of g in gh into k ; of d in dh into $t$; and of $b$ in bh into $p$.
4. The Greek in all its dialects with its tenues aspirated, instead of the original medial aspirates ; in which it is the exact counterpart of the second and third classes.
5. The Italic languages having only the two aspirates, $h$ and $f$.

To the above schedule, drawn so well by Cartius, might

[^5]be added, properly, for an absolutely complete view of the aspirates.
6. The Slavic languages, as the end of the scale, and the antipodes in its particulars of the Sanskrit: being nearly wanting in aspirates of any kind.

The stronger the aspiration, the more is the mute itself, which is aspirated, covered up by it ; and the weaker the aspiration, the inore distinct the sphere and scope of the mute.

The following are some of the more noticeable principles, pertaining to the aspirates:
§1. Since the aspirates possess, as a class, a special nature of their own, in common; they are more readily exchanged for each other, in passing from one language or dialect of the same language to another, than are the other mates.
§ 2. The stronger the aspirate, so much easier the exchange.
l. Aspirates in Greek.

1st. What the aspirates represent, as their originals or equivalents.

The rough breathing in Greek represents
(1) The Sanskrit sibilant, as its equivalent. Instances abound, as
sanskit.
sarp, to creep, sad, to sit, sam, with, together,

LATIN. GREEK.
serpo and repo, sedeo, cum and simul, $\tilde{a} \mu a$.
(2) An obliterated s medial as $\eta \mu a l$ for $\eta \sigma \mu a u$
(3) v , or the digamma $F$. See digammation. So also,
 Жо. ё̀vєка Iопіс еїшека.
(4) It sometimes represents both an obliterated sibilant and digamma, as in ẽ for $\sigma F_{\epsilon}^{\prime}, \dot{\eta} \delta$ ús for $^{\prime} \sigma$ Faסús. So compare éós, ös and $\sigma$ фós, his, as various equivalent forms to the one Sansk. form svas, Lat. suus. "Idios likerwise is claimed by some as for $\sigma$ Fidos, from same root, as Sansk. svas, own.
(5) The half-vowel y initial. Thus ofs, the relative adj.
pronoun, represents the Sansk. yas, who ; $\boldsymbol{\eta} \pi a \rho$, gen. $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\boldsymbol{\eta} \pi a т о \text {, }}$ for $\ddot{\eta} \pi a \rho \tau \sigma \Omega$, Sansk. yakrit, from yakart, Lat. jecur ; i $\mu \in i \in \widehat{S}$, for $\dot{\nu} \mu \mu \in i \bar{s}$, for original $\dot{v} \sigma \mu \in i \hat{s}$, Sansk. yusma; and $\ddot{\eta} \mu \in \rho o s$, tame Sansk. yam to restrain; and ä ${ }^{\circ} \omega$, for äyuc (cf. äycos), Sansk. yaj to worship.

2d. The effects of aspirates on letters immediately preceding them.
(1) A hard mute $(\pi, \kappa, \tau)$ is changed into the corresponding aspirate $\phi, \chi, I$, by an aspirated vowel succeeding it.

§2. At the end of a word, whether the conjunction oc-
 ö $\lambda \eta \nu$.
(2) The alliteration of two aspirates of the same kind, in successive syllables, displeased the Greek ear; so that one of them may be said to have annulled the other, or rendered it impossible; as, in all reduplicated forms of verbs in $-\mu$, like $\tau \uparrow \eta \mu \iota$, and likewise reduplicated perfects generally, as $\pi \in$ філ $\quad$ кка.
II. Aspirates in Latin.

There are but two aspirates in Latin, $h$ and $f$.
1st. The following facts exhibit the function of $h$, in Latin.
(1) It may represent any one of the following Sanskrit aspirates $\mathrm{h}, \mathrm{bh}, \mathrm{gh}: \mathrm{h}$, as beri for hesi, yesterday (cf. besternus), Sansk. hyas; bh, as mihi for mibhi, Sansk. mabhyam; and gh, as hospes a guest Sansk. ghas, to eat.

It belongs only to vowels and to them as succeeding it, and is found indeed in the middle of words, only between two vowels, as in nihil and traho; but its possession of its place, or of any phonetic power in it, is so very feeble, that it is readily removed, for the convenience of a contracted form, as in nil for nihil and vemens for vehemens; while for prosodial effect it is treated, when occurring between two vowels, as if it did not exist at all.
(2) lts conversion with s, when in conjunction with it, into $x$, has analogies of a parallel and illustrative sort in the Sanskrit.

When $h$ is reduplicated in Sanskrit, it becomes some-
times g , as in hâ to leave, which becomes gahâmi, instead of hahâmi (cf. Sansk. hri to seize, Gr. ұeip and Lat. gero); and so, in the middle of a word, hs becomes ks, as in mêxyâmi, for maihsyami, fut. of mih to urinate (cf. Lat. traxi and vexi perf.'s of traho and veho). In both Greek and Latin, g is often the equivalent of the Sanskrit h , as in $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$ évos, Lat. gena, Sansk. hanus; द̌由́v and ego Sansk. aham ; and, as in these instances we have for the guttural equivalent the medial mute $\gamma$, so, in the following instances, we have likewise the smooth mute $\kappa$ representing the Sanskrit h: rapdia, Lat. cor(d), Sansk. hard, brid and hridaya, and necto Sunsk. nah.
(3) H is not so much a consonant as a breathing. It differs from the sibilant, physiologically, only in being a breathing through the whole open mouth, with the tongue at rest on its base and the teeth apart; while the sibilant is a breathing through the teeth, in a nearly closed state, with the tongue against the upper teeth. H and s are therefore both breathings and differ, only in the different positions of the tongue and teeth. . The sibilant and aspirate have accordingly an etymological, as well as phonetic, parallelism with each other; and the sibilant, as has been abundantly shown, fades away readily in the Greek into the aspirate.
(4) Ch, although found in Latin, is not properly a Latin combination.

It occurs seldom and is resolvable: (1) sometimes into a specimen of wrong orthography, in imitation by the Latin grammarians of the Greek, who, as the founders of the всіence of language, as of so many other sciences and arts, gave law to the Romans in all matters of theoretic and formal criticism ; and (2) into the resulting form of a contraction.

Ch occurs in a few proper names as Bacchus (Bářos) and Gracchus. The strictly Roman words, in which it is found, are the following four: pulcher, misspelled for pulcer, the original form, which, like the Gr. фiv $\boldsymbol{v}^{2} \mathrm{ov}$, a leaf, ( pl . foliage) represents the Sansk. phullan, a blossom; brachium, which is but the Latinized Greek word $\beta_{\rho \rho \chi}{ }^{\ell} \omega \nu$, Sansk. bahu ; inchod, which is coutracted, as old manuscripts show,
from incoho; and sepulchrum, in which the suffix -chrum is misspelled for -crum, meaning the place or the means of any given act described in the root, as in the words lavacrum (lavo) and fulcrum (fulcio). Cicero spells the word, sepulcrum, and states directly that the ancients did not aspirate words. Inchoo is regarded by some, as a strictly Greek word (èv $\chi$ ćvvv $\mu \iota$, to gather in heaps, i.e. for building). Benary conceives of it, in the light of its original form incoho, as contracted, like tralo in his view for traveho, from an original form incoveho (in+con+veho), to bear together: the loss of the radical syllable ve being accounted for by syncope, as in nôram for noveram. If Benary's analysis be accepted, we shall have but three verbal roots in Latin, in which $h$ occurs, as the final letter of the stem - traho, veho, and coho ; and these will be still farther reducible to but one ultimate form, veho (Sansk. vah to bear cf. Gr. ó $\boldsymbol{q}^{\epsilon} \omega$ ). Leo Meyer ${ }^{1}$ however, laughs at such a derivation of trabo (as tra-veho) and derives it, like the Gothic dragan (Eng. draw) and German tragen, from the Sanskrit dragh to stretch out, to lie on the ground, to be weary (cf. Germ. tráge idle). With this he compares also Sansk. dírgha long, Gr. סo $\lambda$ óós and Sanks. darh, to be long. But Meyer, in his notions of the origin of traho, stands, it is believed, by himself.

Since the aspirate combines in Sanskrit with the medial mutes, as well as with the soft, that is, with $d$ as well as with $t$; and $b$ as well as $p$; and $c$ as well as $k$; it was probably weaker than in most of the cognate languages.

2d. The function of $F$ in Latin.
(1) F is a much more positive, definite, aspirate than h . It occurs in combination with 1 and $r$; is capable of being doubled (as in effero) and maintains its position between t.wo vowels against any and all tendencies to contraction. It occurs almost entirely in the beginning of words, and seldom in the middle.
(2) It is equivalent, etymologically, to several Sanskrit aspirates, as $\mathrm{dh}, \mathrm{ch}, \mathrm{h}, \mathrm{bh}$; and to the unaspirated letters, $m, p, d v$.
(dh), inferus from infra, Sansk. adharâ (s) lower, comparative form of adhas below. Cf. also the superlative forms in the two languages adhamas and infimus; the Latin form throughout being nasalized. In Afer also Africa and Africus, $f$ is equivalent to the same consonant in the same word, adharâ(s), meaning the lower or inferior place or places.
(ch) fundo (root fud) Sansk. chut to pour forth. Gr. $\chi{ }^{\epsilon} \omega$ fut. $\chi \in{ }^{\prime} \sigma \omega$ : (cf. also Gr. $\chi 0 \lambda \eta$ and fel, the gall-bladder).
(h) rufus (cf. ruber) Sansk. rohitâs Gr. ÉpuIpós (with which compare also Sansk. rudhira blood).
(bh), fremo, to murmur Sansk. bhran, Gr. $\beta \rho \notin \mu \omega$; fanum a temple, for fagnum, (like finis for fignis from figo) Sansk. bhaj to honor.
(m) formica, Gr. $\mu \dot{v} \rho \mu \eta \xi$. The Greek equivalent Benary regards, as immediately corresponding with the Sanskrit root mush, to steal, which in the Greek form is reduplicated, so as to express the idea more strongly: the $-\eta \xi$ being in his view a mere denominative suffix, like eex in Lat. senex gen. senis. Compare in same way frendo to gnaw (pure stem fred, as in supine fresum for fredtum) and Sanskrit mrid (with which also for a double equivalent of same root, cf. Lat. mordeo, like repo and serpo in Latin, compared with Sansk. sarp, to creep, Gr. ép $\rho \omega$ ).
(p), foeteo, Sansk. puy, to be corrupt or fetid, Gr. $\pi \mathcal{T}$ Sa, (cf. also Sansk. puyan corrupt matter, Gr. $\pi \hat{v} 0 \nu$ and Lat. pus). Compare similarly fodio to dig and Sansk. budh to find out (that is, physically,) and Gr. BuTós depth, the root
 $\beta a$ aús).
(dv), fores, Sansk. dvâr, a door, Gr. Iúpa. So festus, in the word infestus (the preposition in having only a directive or objective force), compares with the Sansk. word dvish to hate.

The Latin however, it must be remembered, is essentially averse from aspirates. Many are the examples of their rejection in Latin, compared with equivalent forms in Greek and Sanskrit, as

| latin. puto, | GREEK. <br>  | sanskrit. budh. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| patior, |  | bâdh. |
| crepusculum, | кгє́фяа, | kshapas. |
| carrus, a wagon, |  | char, to move. |
| domus, | סо́ноя, | dhâman. |
| fido, | $\pi \in \iota T \omega$ (pure stem $\pi \iota \rightarrow$.) | bandh. |
| fugio, |  | bhuj. |
| sex, | E $\xi$, | shash. |

## IV. Reduplication.

Reduplication, like nasalization, is a mode of strengthening the symbol of a thought, or thing. The use of strengthened forms was an early feature of language, abounding in the Sanskrit and Greek, and of frequent occurrence also in Latin; but occurring less and less in derived languages, as we get farther and farther from their primeval sources. As the Latin generally preserves, with the Sanskrit, more of the same simple strong characteristics, which they thereby both indicate to have belonged to their common mother-tongue, than does the Greck; its departure to a wider degree than the Greek from its original, in this respect, is to be ascribed probably to the direct practical tendencies of the Roman temperament, which did not relish double forms of the same thing, or multiplied modes of reaching the same end.

While human sensibility is instinctively averse from monotony, and the human organism generally recoils from mere iteration of any kind; there is yet manifestly a strong tendency, as appears not only in the first syllabication of infants, but also in the confirmed usage of all nations, to a repetition of the same consonantal sound in the utterance of many words, although the repetition is usually connected with some attending vowel-modification. The reiteration of a given sound intensifies it, as does that of a word or syllable, by not only drawing the hearer's attention to it more strongly; but also by showing that the speaker thinks, from his purposed repetition of it, that it deserves to do so.

Reduplication abounds in Sanskrit and occurs，as in Greek，in the present active of many verbs，and also in the preterite，as a sign of past time；and even a retriplication of the root sometimes occurs in Sanskrit，as bhibhibhid， from the simple base bhid to divide（German beissen，Eng． bite，cf．Lat．findo，as a strengthened form）．

1st Reduplication in Greek．
（1）A reduplication of the stem occurs，as a mode of strengthening it，in the present tense，and those tenses which are derived from it，of some verbs．
 $\mu \varepsilon \nu$ ）for $\mu \iota \mu \dot{\epsilon} \nu \omega$ ，and $\pi i \pi \tau \omega$ for $\pi \iota \pi \varepsilon \dot{\tau} \tau \omega$ ．So $\tau i, \eta \eta \mu \iota, \delta i \delta \omega \mu \iota$ and $\tilde{i}_{\sigma \tau \eta \mu}$ are reduplications of the stems $9 \epsilon, \delta o$ ，and $\sigma \tau \alpha$ ． Other examples are such as $\mu \iota \mu$ éo $\mu a$, ，to imitate；$\mu \epsilon \rho \mu \eta$ ． $\rho i \zeta \omega$ ，to be anxious ；$\pi ⿰ 丿 \rho \phi \dot{\rho} \rho \omega$（stem $\phi \nu \rho$ ，to mix），to gleam， from which comes tópфupa，purple（referring to the constant play of light upon it）；in all of which words，their own very repetitionsness of sound is a good image of the repetitious－ ness of the act，which they denote．

In such reduplicated words，the verb is strengthened in two ways：by the repetition of the stem itself as such，and also by the consequent lengthening of the verb－form as a form．

Some reduplications，in both Greek and Latin，manifest clearly a simple onomato－poetic origin，as mere syllabica－ tions，in human speech，of repetitious sounds previously heard in nature ；as $\mu о \rho \mu \dot{v} \rho \omega$ ，Lat．murmuro，to murmur ；дa入aré $\omega$ ， to babble ；кахлá̧๗（stem $\left.\chi^{\lambda} a \zeta\right)$ ，to dash or plash；so Lat． susurro（simple stem sur reduplicated），to whisper．

Of the reduplicated verbs in Greek，when not onomato－ poetic，or，like $\mu \varepsilon \rho \mu \eta \rho i \zeta \omega$ ，ideopoetic，it may be said，as of $\delta_{i} \delta \omega \mu l, \tau i A \eta \mu l$ ，etc．，that they are among the most common words in the language；whose emphasis，being somewhat impaired by the constant familiarity of their use，is quite restored by the intensification of their form．Many also，if not most of them，are but copies of similar forms，in earlier languages，as $\delta i \hat{\delta} \omega \mu \boldsymbol{h}$ Sansk．dadâmi，and $\tau i \backslash \eta \mu \nu$ ，Sansk． dadhâmi．

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An exhibition of the attending changes that occar, in some of the common instances of reduplication in Greek, will perhaps be of service. In $\delta i \delta \omega \mu l$ (stem $\delta o$, Sansk. da) the reduplicated vorvel $o$ is changed to short $\iota$; so as to compensate for the added length of the word, and also so as to throw the reduplicated vowel into the shade, compared with the stem-vowel; while, similarly, in order to make the stemvowel still more prominent, or to increase its relative, dynamical effect, as containing in itself all the sense of the verb, as such; as well as for the further purpose of preventing the concurrence of three short vowels; the short stemvowel o is lengthened into $\omega$. The same analysis, step by step, will resolve the changes that have occurred in $\tau i=\eta \mu \mu$, stem $I \varepsilon$, except that, in addition to those made in $\delta i \delta \omega \mu \mu, \mathcal{S}$ is changed, in the reduplicated syllable, into its corresponding sinooth mute $\tau$, as two initial aspirates cannot succeed each other in two successive syllables. Apply also the same analysis to ï $\eta \mu l$, stem $\tilde{\varepsilon}$ (Sansk. yâ, to send away), and $\beta i \beta \eta \mu \mu$, stem $\beta a$ (Sansk. ga) as also in $\beta a i \nu \omega$ for $\beta$ ávis), in which form the stem is nasalized. The form $\bar{i} \sigma \pi \eta \mu$ is for the more normal form $\sigma i \sigma \tau \eta \mu \iota$, and this for the fuller form still $\sigma \boldsymbol{i} i-$ $\sigma \tau \eta \mu$, stem $\sigma \tau a$; with which compare Lat. sisto (for full form sistami) reduplicated from stem sta, as in sto, stare,
 special changes have occurred: the dropping out of a radical letter of the stem ( $\tau$ ) and the exchange, as in so many other instances in Greek, of the initial sibilant for the aspirate.
 the final $\nu$ of the reduplicated syllable has been dropped, and the $\epsilon$ of the stem syllable ( $\gamma \varepsilon \nu$ ) rejected, as in other reduplicated consonantal stems, as $\pi i \pi \tau \omega, \mu i \mu \nu \omega$, etc.; instead of being lengthened as in the vowel stems. In $\pi i \pi \tau \omega$ for $\pi \epsilon \tau \pi \epsilon ' т \omega$ and $\mu l \mu \nu \omega$ for $\mu \epsilon \nu \mu^{\prime} \nu \omega$, there are the same changes as in $\gamma^{\prime} \gamma^{\prime}$ ронац.
(2) The reduplication occurring in the form of the Greek perfect, consists regularly in doubling the initial consonant of the stem, with the vowel $\epsilon$ appended to it; which, unless it be the stem-vowel itself, as in $\nu^{\prime} \epsilon \mu \omega$, perf. $\nu \epsilon \nu_{\epsilon}^{\prime} \mu \eta \kappa a$, is adopted
as a compensative shortening inwardly of the increased volume of the word outwardly, as in $\lambda \dot{\text { éduca }}$ from $\lambda \hat{v} \omega$ and $\boldsymbol{\gamma}^{\prime} \epsilon$ rрaфa from rри́́фш. If the reduplicated stem be a vowel-stem, as in the contract verbs, the final vowel of which is always short (on the principle that a vowel before another vowel is short), that short vowel is lengthened, as in тєна́⿱宀, тeтінпка;
 which is rejected in all the moods besides the indicative, redaplication is retained in them all. In stems beginning with two consonants or a double consonant, except a mute preceding either $\lambda, \mu, \nu$ or $\rho$, the reduplication amounts only to the usual augment $\epsilon$ in form, as in $\zeta \dot{\omega} \nu \nu \nu \mu \iota$ perf. $\epsilon \zeta \omega \kappa a$. Those beginning also with $\rho$ prefix $\epsilon$, and at the same time double the initial $\rho$, as in $\dot{\rho} i \pi t \omega$, perf. ěé $\dot{\rho} \dot{\iota}$ a. Such forms as $\zeta \epsilon^{\prime} \zeta \omega \kappa a$ and $\dot{\rho} \epsilon \in \rho ф$, however normal in their type, the Greek ear could not abide. Some few verbs also, instead of the usual syllable of reduplication, prefix $\epsilon$ lengthened into $\epsilon$, as in eì $\lambda \eta \phi a$ perf. of $\lambda a \mu \beta \dot{\beta} \dot{\nu} \omega$, instead of $\lambda \in ́ \lambda \eta \phi a$ (for the explanation of which see previous part of this Article, page 704 Vol. xvi. (1859).
In those few peculiar perfect forms, which change the stem vowel into an o-sound in reduplication, as ế $\begin{aligned} & \pi \pi a \\ & \text { perf. }\end{aligned}$
 the facts which at first sight appear to be so anomalous, are
 each for $F^{\prime} \lambda \pi \omega, F_{\epsilon}^{\prime} \rho \gamma \omega$ and $F_{\epsilon}^{\prime} Э \omega$, respectively; and their proper perfect forms for the second perfect tense, from such digammated originals, would be $F_{\epsilon}^{\prime} F_{\epsilon} \lambda \pi a, F_{\epsilon}^{\prime} F \eta \rho \gamma a$ and $F_{\epsilon}^{\prime}-$ Fivan. With the digammas dropped, there would be a hiatus at once caused by two vowels of the same kind in conjunction, which was the most offensive form of hiatus to a Greek ear: a difficulty which could in no way be relieved so well, as by the change of $\eta$ to $o$; e and $\eta$ being compound vowels formed from $a+c$ ( $\eta$ differing from $\epsilon$ as having two measures of $a$ in its composition, since $\epsilon$ is $a+\iota$, and $\eta$ is $a+c+a$ ); while $o$ is a compound vowel also formed from $a+u$. The vowel $o$ was as special a favorite with the Greeks, in changed forms and derived forms, as was the
vowel a with the Romans. The perfect éoura from eikes to seem (from eikos, one with itself, likely; Sanskrit êkas for aikas one; Lat. aequus; cf. also lorew, to make like, and Icos, equal), would be, reduplicated without change, elestca. But the © of the reduplicated syllable must fall out, by the rule that that must be shortened; and the e of the stem-syllable $e c$ is changed readily, as in so many other cases in Greek (as in the perfects of $\mu \notin \nu \omega, \delta_{\epsilon} \rho \kappa о \mu a \iota, \lambda e i \pi \omega$ etc.), to o. In the form
 ing from $F_{\epsilon}^{\prime} F_{\eta}$ Ia, the unchanged normal archaic form : the cbange of the reduplicated vowel ( $\epsilon$ ), after the dropping of the digammas, into $\epsilon \iota$ which, contrary to the usual rule, is the lengthening instead of the shortening of the vowel of redrplication, and which was probably done for the sake of adding strength to a base of so weak a consonantal character - 9 (much weaker than any of the others enumerated); and the same phonetic instinct, which would suggest or rather demand the lengthening of the reduplicated vowel, would demand, for the preservation of the proper relative vowel-weight of the stem-vowel in the form, the lengthening of that also from o as the new vowel naturally selected for it to a.

The Attic reduplication, so called, differs from the common form of reduplication, in repeating the entire initial syllable, instead of merely the initial consonant with $\epsilon$ : the radical syllable also at the same time being emphasized, as such by the lengthening of its vowel, as in ápripouca, perfect of ápóa, etc.

2d. Reduplication in Latin.
This verbal affection is not of so wide a scope in Latin, as in Greek or Sanskrit. In Sanskrit, there are three distinct preterite forms: the first, answering in form to the Greek and Latin imperfect; the second, to the Greek perfect; and the third, to the Greek aorist. Yet neither one of these three perfects is generally used, to represent the completeness of an action ; and their parallelism with the corresponding tenses named in Latin and Greek, is one of form instead of being one also of sense. The first preterite, like the Greek imperfect in form, is marked by the augment (a); the second, like
the Greek perfect, is marked by reduplication; and the third, like the Greek aorist, is marked by $s$ and the augment.

In Latin the perfect and aorist are combined in the same form, commonly denominated the perfect, and discriminated in practice only by the sense of the context. While there are several modes of forming the Latin perfect - as by the use of the auxiliary verb,-fui, which is indeed the prevailing mode of forming it (being hardened in the first and fourth conjugations into -vi; and often also in the second, in which it is otherwise softened into -ui; and sometimes even in the third); and also by the addition of $s$ to the verb-stem, as in the Sanskrit third preterite and Greek aorist, - many instances are foond in the different conjugations, except the fourth, of its formation also by the reduplication of the stem.

A few instances occur in Latin of words possessing a reduplicated form, in themselves; as sisto, stem sta (cf. sto, stare) ; gigno, stem gen, (perf. genui); both of which verbs are causative in their force: sisto meaning to cause to stand, and gigno to cause to be, or become ( $\gamma$ ( $\gamma \nu o \mu a t$, stem $y \in \nu$ ). So bibo has for its stem bo (cf. $\pi i \nu \omega$, stem $\pi o$, fut. $\pi \dot{\prime} \sigma \omega$ ); sero, for seso, (Gr. $\sigma \in l \omega$ and $\sigma \epsilon v \in \omega$, to hurl about, Sansk. su and s $\hat{u}$ ), has the stem se. Memini is a reduplication of the root men, to think (Sansk. man, as also in Lat. moneo. Cf. reminiscor, mens and Minerva, goddess of wisdom ; and also $\mu \nu a ́ o \mu a \iota, ~ \mu ' ́ v o s ~ a n d ~ \mu \eta ̂ \nu ı s) ~ P o p u l u s ~ i s ~ b u t ~ p l u s ~(\pi o \lambda u ́ s, ~$ ef. $\pi \lambda$ 'є́s) reduplicated, to signify a great number. Jejunus (cf. ìáa, to be empty and inanis) seems to be a reduplicated derivative from the same root with ivcia.

While in Greek the vowel of the reduplicated syllable is $\epsilon$, it may be, in Latin, as in Sauskrit, o or u; as in momord;, spopondi and tutudi, perfects of mordeo, spondeo, and tundo.

As the perfect denotes a past act, viewed as complete in present time, there is certainly a theoretic propriety, in expressing its sense by a reduplication; as the calling up of something already past into the present again, is making it repeat itself: appearing first in its own occurrence as a fact, and secondly appearing again in the announcement of it
anew to those, who did not see it themselves but who learn it from the testimony of another.

Before the light of Sanskrit philology was obtained, the Greek augment ('ं) was analyzed by the best scholars, like Buttmann, as but a form of reduplication, shortened by the rejection of the initial consonant. But the discovery of the Sanskrit augment (a), as well as that of the reduplicated preterite in Sanskrit, dispelled at once such a theory.

In German, as in some English derivatives also from it, repetitious forms of words occur, which are instances indeed of reduplication, but which occar only in the lower strata of the language, as zigzag, hurly-burly, criss-cross, hurry-scurry, hocus pocus (hoc est corpus), helter skelter (hilariter et celeriter). Such forms have no grammatical or lexical significance of their own.

## V. Nasalization.

The one letter most frequently used in all languages, to strengthen the stem of a word, is n ; which contains in it also, because of its own phonetic strength, the idea of negation in all languages. Even our very words negation (neaio), and deny (de+nego), do but echo it again to us, as it appears in the words no, neither, nor, never, nay, not, none ; Latin ne, non (archaic nenu), nullus (ne+ullus), nihil (ne +hilum), neuter (ne+uter), nunquam (ne+unquam); Gr. $\boldsymbol{m}$, $\mu \eta$; French ne and non; and German nicht (not), nie and nimmer (never), nein (no), and niemand (no one). So in Greek the same negative nasal appears in the preposition $\dot{a} \nu \epsilon v$, without, and the abbreviated particles ava, ar and the inseparable prefix $\nu \eta$-, which is but a strengthened form of ava abridged; and the Latin negative prefix in-; the German preposition ohne without, and the English prefixes of negation in- and un-. In Sanskrit and Zend we find na, not, and in Sanskrit also mâ and Persian me (Gr.
$\mu \eta$ ). $N$ is a stronger nasal than $m$ and is accordingly, as we have shown, the prevailing base of negative words in the different languages. There are properly three nasal liquids $\mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{ng}$, which abound in Latin and Greek, as also in German and English. Examples of the nasal ng in Latin are ango, inquam, anxius; in Greek клayrvi, ărye入os; and in English, anger, with which compare for difference of sound the word singing; in the pronunciation of which, the $g$ soand does not duplicate itself upon the next syllable. The soft sound of ng, in such words as singing, ringing, etc., occars abundantly in German ; and, while it is not found in Greek and Latin, it does belong to the Sanskrit.

Ng may be accordingly analyzed, as a guttural nasal, as in English longer, Lat. longus; and as a palatal or resonant nasal; and this of two kinds: hard, as in English words swinging and hanger; and soft, as in words strange and mangy. The English and French nch, as in Eng. haunch and French blanche, forms a dental nasal, as in German the word manch does a lingual nasal, where nch has a sound peculiar to that language. At the end of words in French, as in bon, bien, nom, $n$ and $m$ have a very light sound as palatal nasals.

The class of stems strengthened by nasalization, or by the insertion or addition of $n$ to them, with or without an accompanying vowel, is that of verb-stems. The tenses thus strengthened are in each of the three classical languages, as a general fact, only the present and the derived tenses. In Latin however jungo preserves its nasalized stem throughout all its forms; with which compare the simple stem jug, as seen in jugum, and also both the strengthened and simple stems, as combined in $\zeta \epsilon u^{\prime} \gamma \nu \mu \iota$ fut. $\zeta$ cúgw etc. In Lat. words fingo, pingo, and stringo, the nasalized stem prevails throughout the verb, except in the supine stem.

The nasal is added to the stem in two ways, in reference to the place of its connection: (1) At the end of the stem. Specimens of its addition at the end of a vowel-stem are $\delta \dot{v}$ $\nu \omega, \kappa \rho i \nu \omega, \tau l \nu \omega$, stems $\delta \nu, \kappa \rho \zeta \tau \tau$; and at the end of a consonantal stem are $\delta a ́ \kappa \nu \omega, \kappa \alpha ́ \mu \nu \omega, \tau \epsilon \in \mu \nu \omega$, stems $\delta a \kappa, \kappa a \mu, \tau a \mu$. As,
in Latin, cerno, sperno, and sterno are cases of metarhesis, their simple roots being cre, spre and stra, they are not to be reckoned as verbs having consonautal stems. (2) In the middle of the stem; as, in Latin, in findo, fundo, linquo, pango, pungo, rumpo, vinco.

Roots are nasalized also in different modes and to different degrees, as to the volume and effect of the nasal addition made to their weight:
(1) By the addition of mere $\nu$ to them, which is the exclusive mode in Latin; as in tiva fut. $\tau i \sigma \omega, \tau \notin \mu \nu \omega$ fut. $\tau \in$ $\mu \hat{\omega}$ for $\tau \epsilon \mu(\epsilon \in \sigma) \omega$.

When the root-vowel is short, as in the stems $\lambda_{a} \beta, \lambda_{a} 9$ : $\lambda a \chi, \mu a S, \pi \cup S, \phi u \gamma$, a double nasalization occurs : the simple nasal $\nu$ being inserted before the final consonant as well as the nasal appendage $a \nu$ after it; as in $\lambda a \mu \beta a ́ v \omega, \lambda a \nu Y a ́ v e$,
 beautifully suggests, the nasal of the stem syllable is a sort of fainter phonetic reflection of the nasal ending added to it
(3) By adding $\nu \epsilon$ : as in кvvé $\omega$ fut. кvow; iкvéopas fat. işo$\mu a \iota$; Buvé $\omega$, etc.
(4) By adding $\nu v$. This class of strengthened verb-forms in Greek should be viewed, in connection with their equiralent forms in Latin : as

## greer.

 ఢeúrvu $\mu$ (stem $\zeta \nu \gamma$. ) $\pi \dot{\gamma} \gamma \nu v \mu \iota$ (stem $\pi a \gamma$. ) $\left\{\begin{array}{c}\sigma \kappa \in ́ \delta a v \nu v \mu \iota, \text { (cf. } \sigma \kappa i \delta \nu \eta \mu \mu, \text { chid, and khid, } \\ \sigma \chi i\} \omega \text { and } \kappa \epsilon \delta \dot{\delta} \zeta \omega .) \quad \text { to divide. }\end{array}\right.$
In this class of verbs, while the nasal is inserted before the gattural in Latin, it is placed in Greek after it and syllabicated with a vowel, that it may be placed there.

All the vowel sounds are capable of receiving, in various modern languages, a nasal quality. In French we bave a nasal a-sound, broad, and flat, as in ange and linge; and a nasal u-sound in both French (un) and Portuguese (um): as also a nasal o-sound in French (bon); and a nasal i-sonnd in Portuguese (im).

Nasalization, on a larger or smaller scale, is one of the inner forces to be found at work in all languages, ancient and modern, and occurring, not only in Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin, but also in the German and English.

## B. The Latin.

1st. Benary's classification, in brief, of the fundarnental principles of its special phonetic system.

After what has been said, in detail, in different parts of this Essay, on the phonetic elements and laws of the Latin language, it will not be necessary to enlarge the separate features of the general view, here furnished by Benary. The outline is indeed brief but comprehensive, and well worthy of study as a whole. The first half of the first volume published by him (in 1837), which is all that has yet appeared from his pen on the subject, is occupied with the subject of diphthongation; and the remaining half with that of aspiration.

These, then, are the special peculiarities of the phonetic system of the Latin, as grouped by him into one view, and are bere thus formally quoted, on account of their value, as a group in one whole.
I. Disinclination to diphthongs.
II. The small range of aspiration.
III. The limited use of consonantal combinations, in initial and medial syllables.

1V. The counterbalancing influence of consonants and vowels.
V. The weakening of final letters, after consonants, as well as after vowels.

2d. The phonetic force of the Latin letters in alphabetic order.
A. This represents the Sanskrit a, and the Greek $a, \epsilon$, and $\eta$.
(a) Sansk. sara, salt ; ü $\lambda \mathrm{s}$; sal.
(є) êvoos and évlautós, a year; annus.
( $\eta$ ) ä $\rho \pi \eta$, a sickle; harpa. ${ }^{1}$

[^6]In composition it is changed into the different vowels, $e$, i, u.
(e), inermis (in+arma); imberbis (in+barba); aspergo (ad+spargo). So even au may be changed to e, as in obedio (ob+audio).
(i) incido (in+cado); insilio (in+salio).
(a) insulsus (in+salsus).

In reduplicated forms it changer also in the tone-syllable, into $e$ and $i$, as fefelli perf. of fallo, and tetigi and cecidi of tango and cado.
B. It is equivalent to the Sanskrit bh, b, g and p.
(b) bhû, to be, imperf. abhavam; -bam -bo, imperfect and future tense-suffixes, in the Act. voice of Latin verbs. So Sansk. barbara, foolish, barbarus.
(g) gô, gen. gavas, a cow; bos ( $\beta$ ồs). G in Sanskrit is however more often represented by g in Latin than by b ; while $\beta$ occurs, as its equivalent, much more frequently in Greek than in Latin.
(p) plu, to move, to flow ; bullo, to bubble; Gr. $\beta \lambda$ úw.
lt represents the Greek $\beta, \pi, \phi$.
( $\beta$ ) bos; $\beta$ oûs; bulbus; $\beta$ o $\lambda$ ßós.
( $\pi$ ) bibo (stem bo, reduplicated) ; $\pi i \nu \omega$ fut. $\pi \dot{\sigma} \sigma \omega$ (stem $\pi o$ ), to drink. So, buxus, the box-tree and núgos. Compare in the same way in Latin publicus with its archaic form populicus from populus ; and in German Burg, and in Eng. -burgh and burgher and burgess with múpyos.
$(\phi)$ Compare the following equivalent forms in the two languages : balaena, a whale, and фáخaıva; orbus, bereft, ò $\rho$ фavós, later ópфós ; ambo, both, ă $\mu \phi \omega$ (cf. ambi- and $i \mu \phi i)$; nebula, a cloud, $\nu \in \phi \not{ }^{\prime} \lambda \eta$.

Its changes in Latin are the following :
(1) Before the labial aspirate f, b passes sometimes into $f$, as offero for obfero; sometimes it changes into $u$, as aufugio for abfugio; and sometimes it is rejected, while its previous existence is recorded in the lengthening of the preceding vowel, as in āverto for ăbverto and āvello for ăbvello.
(2) Before $s$ and t, it is commonly softened into $p$, as
scripsi perf. of scribo, and nuptus from nubo. In one case however it becomes s before si by assimilation, as jussi for jubsi, perf of jubeo. In compound words, as obtendo, subtraho, etc., heterogeneous sounds are endured in combination in Latin contrary to the law of homogeneonsness required in concurrent vowels so universally in Greek and occasionally at least in Latin.
C. Its equivalents in Sanskrit are $\mathrm{c}, \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{ch}, \mathrm{h}, \mathrm{k}$ and v .
(¢) çana, hemp; cannabis, кávvaßıs; çarnis, a horn, cornu (кépas) : çarabha, a crab, carabus, ќ́paßos.
(g) gala, the neck; collum.
(ch) char, to go, and châras, a course; curro and cursus: chil, to cover; celo.
(h) hard, hrid and hridaya, the heart; cor(d) (к $\hat{\rho} \rho$ and карঠ(a) : hal, to hollow; coelum, (коілоs).
(k) karavah, a crow; corvus ( $o ́ \rho a \xi)$ ) : kar and kri, to make, creo, to create, (cf. cresco).
(v) bhavayâmi (causative form of bhû, to be), I make; facio (for faciami): jiv, to live; vixi (for vicsi) and victum, perf. and supine of vivo.

C is equivalent to $\kappa, \gamma, \chi, \pi$, in Greek.
(к) caro, flesh, кр'́as: cygnus, a swan, кv́кขos.
(y) conger, an eel, yórypos: caneo, to glisten, yaváw.
$(\chi)$ cedo, to depart, $\chi$ á $\omega$ : corium, skin, $\chi o ́ \rho \iota \nu: ~ s c i n-$ do, to divide, $\sigma \chi$ ¿ $\zeta \omega$ : credo, to believe, $\chi$ рáw.
( $\pi$ ) linquo, to leave $\lambda \epsilon i \pi \omega$ : Cf. lupus, a wolf, $\lambda$ úкоs.
In the Latin itself, c sometimes changes into g ; as, contrarily, $g$ sometimes becomes c. See the supines of verbs in -go, as cinctum, junctum, rectum, from cingo, jungo, rego , for the change of g to c ; and for that of c to g , quadringenti, quingenti, etc., and negligo, negotium etc.

So long as the Latin remained pure, c had the hard sound of $k$ even before the vowels $e$ and $i$; and in later times, as we learn from Quinctilian, c was pronounced in such names as Caius and Cnæus, as G. No distinction in fact was made archaically between c and g ; and c occupies the same relative position in the Roman alphabet that $g$ does in the

Greek and Phoenician. The graphic symbol $g$ was not introduced into the Roman alphabet, until five hundred years and more had passed from the founding of the city. Spurius Cervilius devised it (A. U. c. 523), in order to represent the medial guttural sound, for the soft sound of which $c$, as well as qu, both pronounced as $k$, were kept. Prodigium is accordingly for prodicium, from prodico, to tell beforehand; so congruo and ingruo, thought by many to be compounds of con and grus, in and grus, are probably but contracted forms of concurro and incurro; compare also dulcis and indulgeo. The fact that several words have double forms interchangeably in c and g , as vicesimus and vigesimas, -centi and -genti, in the various cardinal numbers for handreds; and the change of c to g , in some compound words as negotium (nec- otium), or in derived ones, as digitas from root dic (cf. dico and disco Gr. Selrovuc), shows that the sound of $c$ wavered at times at least between $k$ and g.

C, like $g$ and like $v$ also sometimes, combined with $s$ is changed to $\mathbf{x}$; while in some perfects in s the guttural entirely disappears, as in tersi from tergo for tergsi.
D. The equivalents of $d$ are in Sanskrit d, dh.
(d) dam, to subdue; domo (cf. dominus and domina; Eng. dominion, domineer, domain, dame, dam, damsel, Madam).
(dh) dhâman, a house; domus.
Its Greek correspondents are $\delta, \zeta, 9, \sigma$.
( $\delta$ ) סéćкa, ten ; decem.
(弓) ऍпнia, damage; damnum.
 ti $\ddagger \eta \mu$, , stem $\uparrow \epsilon$, Sansk. dhâ, German thun, Eng. do.)
( $\sigma$ ) $\mu$ é $\sigma o s$, middle, medius. Cf. also $\rho$ óoov and rosa, a rose.

Its peculiarities in Latin are the following :
(1) Before $c, p, r, t$, it is regularly assimilated to those letters, as in accedo, appello, arrideo and attendo. It is also
often assimilated before $f, \mathrm{~g}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{s}$; as in sella for sedla (for sedela), fossa for fodsa, agger for adger, etc.
(2) Before $t$, it changes in the middle of words by assimilation into s, as in rastrum for radtrum (from rado), and rostrum for rodtrum (rodo), and est 3d pers. sing. present of edo to eat, for edt. In some words, after the change of the d to $s$, the $t$ wholly disappears, as in morsum (for morstum) for mordtum, from mordeo; and so pensum (for penstum) for pendtum from pendo; and risum for ridtum.
(3) In nominative forms d drops out before the gendersign s, as laus for lauds, frons for fronds, pes for peds, vas for vads and lapis for lapids.
(4) D has wholly disappeared from the ablative singular of nouns where it once existed, as the case-characteristic of the ablative in all the different declensions; as in domino for dominod, sermone for sermoned: forms found in archaic inscriptions, which yet have left no trace of their previous existence upon the present state of the language, except in the prosodial fact of the elongation of the final vowel of the ablative, as in $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{o}, \mathrm{u}$ and e terminal, of the 1st, 2d, 4th and 5th declensions.
(5) D, original in archaic forms, became afterwards sometimes 1 , as in lingua for dingua (ef. German zunge, Eng. tongue) and lacrima for dacrima ( (бáкрица). So compare levir and $\delta a \eta \eta^{\prime} \rho$ for $\delta a F_{\eta} \rho$, and Ulysses and 'OBúarevs. Compare also lignum, wood (for burning) and $\lambda$ cyvús flame-smoke, with Sansk. dah, to burn and $\delta a i \omega$, to kindle.
(6) D followed by u in archaic forms was afterwards represented by b, as in bellum for archaic duellum; bis, archaic dvis (Gr. $\delta i$ s for $\delta$ Fis); and also bonus for duonus.
(7) Di and J were correlated in some forms in Latin; as Diana and Janus; dies, deus, Jovis and Juno. In the derived languages the Latin di is abundantly thus represented.
E. This letter represents the Sanskrit a, i, y.
(a) ad, to eat ; edo.
(i) îr to go ; erro, $e_{\epsilon} \rho \dot{\rho} \rho \omega$ (cf. îra and $\stackrel{\epsilon}{\epsilon} \rho a$, the earth).
(y) yam, to obtain ; emo (cf. $\left.\nu^{\prime} \mu \omega\right)$.

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It corresponds with $e$ and $\eta$ in Greek.
( $\epsilon$ ) кévtpol, a point from кévetelv, to prick; centrum (Eng. centre).
( $\eta$ ) ${ }^{\text {np }} \boldsymbol{p}$ s, a hero: heros.
In several words the double forms of the present and preterite roots, apparently occurring, by some inexplicable metathesis, within the bounds of the Latin itself, are wonderfolly parallel with similar double forms of the same roots in Sanskrit : as cerno, perf. crevi (Sansk. kar and kri); sterno, perf. stravi (Sansk. star and stri). So compare Sansk. sarp and srip, to creep and Lat. serpo and repo.
$E$ is often changed in Latin in compound and derived forms into $\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{o}$ and u .
(i) pertinax (per+tenax); contineo (con+teneo)
(o) extorris (ex+terra); socius (sequor); sodalis (sedeo); toga (tego) ; vortex (verto).
(u) In genus (Gr. yévos, stem yeves) the proper stem of the word is genes and the present genitive generis is for genesis. In pulsus (part. of pello) for pelsus, for peltus, as likewise in sepultus part. of sepelio, and also in avulsus part. of avello and tugurium, from tego, we see similar specimens of the same change. E also interchanges sometimes with u in double forms, as dejero and dejuro, pejero and perjuro.
F. F represents several Sanskrit letters, as already shown under "Aspiration" (p. 839).

Its Greek equivalents are $\mathcal{A}, \chi, \beta$.
(9) fera, a wild beast; श्रोp : ferveo, to be hot; Sépo.
 pare frenum, a bridle, and $\chi$ alıuós; and funis, a rope and $\sigma \chi$ oivos.
( $\beta$ ) fremo, to roar; $\beta \rho \dot{\varepsilon} \mu \omega$ : fascino, to bewitch; $\beta$ вабкаivo. Cf. also rufus and ruber, and French siffler with Lat. sibilare, as also Lat. frater and Eng. brother. It is sometimes hardened in derived forms in Latin into b; as in the suffixes -ber, -brum and -brium. Thus saluber (salus+fero) means literally bearing health; and candelabrum, a candlestick, is literally
something bearing a candle. Cf. likewise the imperfect and future tense-endings -bam and -bo, with the preterite suffix -ui and -vi (fui) : all from same root as Sansk. bhû, to 'be.
G. T'he equivalents of $g$ in Sansk. are $g, g h, j, f, h, y$.
(g) gaudeo, to rejoice; garv : garrio, to chatter; grij, or grí: gilvas, yellow; gaura (cf. German gelb, Eng. yellow with gilvus).
(gh) ganea, an eating-house for gasnea; ghas, to eat.
(j) genu, the knee; jânu: gelu, cold; jalas.
(¢) gloria, glory and inclytus, renowned ; çravas, (cf. Gr. $\kappa \lambda$ éos for $\kappa \lambda \hat{\text { en }}$ Fos).
(h) gena, the cheek (yévus); hanu(s): so also ego (è⿰亻́) and Sansk. aham (for agham) : and nego (=ne+aio), to deny; ah, to say: and anguis, a snake; ahis.
(y) geminus, twin; yamas and yamanas, united, from yam, to unite (Gr. $\gamma$ a ${ }^{\mu}{ }^{\text {é } \omega \text { ) }}$

Its correspondents in Greek are $\gamma, \chi, \beta, \kappa$.
( $\gamma$ ) genu, the knee; yóvv: gyrus, a circle; yupós.
( $\chi$ ) gutta, a drop; $\chi$ é $\omega$ fut. $\chi$ ধí $\sigma \omega$, adj. $\chi u$ ós: gero, to bear;
$\chi \epsilon i p:$ ango, to squeeze ; ă ${ }^{\prime} \chi \chi^{\omega}$.
( $\beta$ ) glans, an acorn; $\beta a a^{\lambda}$ avos.
( $\kappa$ ) guberno, to govern ; $\kappa v \beta$ epváco.
$G$ becomes $c$ before $t$, as in lectus and rectus for legtus and regtus. The law of homogeneousness in consonantal combinations prevails in the middle of words, in Latin as in Greek : smooth with smooth; middle with middle; and rough with rough, as scriptus for scribtus, etc. With a succeeding s, $g$ becomes $x$, as in rexi (reg-si), maximus (magsimus); or disappears before s, as mulsi (for mulg -si). As an initial letter occurring in combination with other consonants, it is found only with 1 and r. Before $n$ it has entirely disappeared from the beginning of many words once possessing it, as in navus (Fr. naïve) and nosco and nascor, originally gnavus, gnosco and gnascor; although it reappears again in compound forms, as ignavus (in+gnavus) and agnosco.
H. H represents Sansk. h; as hiems, wintry storm; himan (cf. $\chi \in i \mu a$ ) : also veho, to carry; vah. Its equivalents in Greek are the aspirate, as horror and óp posofée ; and $\chi$, as hortus and $\chi$ ópros, veho and ó $\chi$ ' $\omega$; hirundo and $\chi^{€ \lambda} \delta \delta \dot{\omega} \nu . \mathrm{H}$ is but a light breathing, and so light that two vowels enclosing it between them are affected by their juxtaposition, just as if it were wanting: the first being made short by the second, according to the usual rale, that a vowel before anuther vowel is short.

It changes before $t$ into c ; as tractus from traho and vectus from veho. So mactus agrees with Sansk. mah in its root; as do also magnus, magis and major, for magior (cf.


The sign $H$ was used as a sign to represent the aspirate by the Greeks, before being used, as it came to be in the end, as the sign for double $\epsilon$, or $\eta$; and it was accordingly placed, at the outset, after the smooth mutes $\pi, \kappa_{,} \tau$, to indicate the aspiration of them, afterwards indicated by the symbols $\phi, \chi$, 4. When used as a whole simply to designate the vowel $\eta$, it was also divided and one half of the symbol $F$ shortened for convenience into '. was used to denote the rough breathing; while the other half I shortened into the smooth breathing, and turned from the proper cursive direction of the letter, to indicate that its force did not go over upon it, was used to discriminate as such every initial vowel that was not aspirated.
I. and J. I is often the equivalent of the Sanskrit a, and $i$, and $\hat{e}$.
(a) ignis, fire ; agnis: in, into and in ; ana : imber, a shower; abhra: invîlus, unwilling; vas, to wish.
(i) is, he ; i, the demonstrative particle i (cf. also idem the same and Sansk. idam, he, it); eo, ire, to go; i, to go: viginti, twenty; vinçati.
(e) vitis, a vine; vêtra, a reed.

J is equivalent to Sansk. y, as jungo, to join; yu and yuj : juvenis, a youth ; yuvan.

The Greek correspondent of j is $\zeta$, which was not pro-
nounced, as commonly in this country, as if ds, but as dsh or j or zh ; and the ancients spoke admiringly of its soft liquid sound.

I in compound and derived forms in Latin is often substituted for other letters, as for $a, a e, e, o$ and $u$. It is the substitute of a in inč̌do (in+cado); ae, in incīdo (in+caedo) ; e, in retineo (re+teneo) ; o, in illico (in+loco) ; $u$, in consilium (from consulo) and exsilium (exsul). I represents the short vowel-sounds in Greek a, e, o. (a) digitus; סáктu入os: catinus, a bowl; káravos. (e) piper, pepper, $\pi e ́ \pi \epsilon \rho \mathrm{~L}$ (o) canis gen. canis, a dog; кv́凶ע, gen. кvvós.

J sometimes falls out of the middle of words as in obex for objex (objicio) and ails, 2 d pers. present of aio, or ajo, for ajis. $J$ is the consonantal counterpart of the vowel $i$, as $v$ is also of $u$.

As the Greek $v$ was pronounced like the French $u$, the corresponding vowel of Latin forms, from the same root as Greek forms containing it, takes i in its place, to which the short French u-sound is very similar. The letter y accordingly has received from this fact the alphabetic name y Grec, in French.
K. K was employed in the earliest period of the Latin, as the equivalent of the Greek $\kappa$; at which time c represented the Greek $y$ in sound as well as in its alphabetic place and its symbolic form (inverted). When subsequently a new symbol for $g$ was invented, $c$ supplanted $k$ in use; and $k$ in consequence fell into disuse, except in a few abbreviated forms as Kal . for calendae, etc.
L. L is equivalent to Sanskrit l, n, r. d.
(1) labor, labi, to fall and labo, āre; lab and lamb: libet and lubet, it is pleasing; lubh : ligo, to bind ; lig.
(n) alius, another; anyas.
(r) lyra (Gr. $\lambda u ́ \rho a$ prob. at first $\lambda u ́ \delta \rho a$; ru, to sound forth and rudrî, an instrument) : laedo, to injure; radh; lateo, to be concealed ; rah, (cf. Fr. rossignol and lusciniolus). So the terminations -alis and -aris are radically the same.
(d) lignum, wood (to burn) ; dah, to burn: levir, a 72*
bwother in law (Gr. $\delta a n \not \rho \rho$ for $\delta a F \eta \eta_{\rho}$ ) ; dêvri : mel, honey; madhu. So lingua was originally dingua. Cf. also the double forms in Greek $\delta a ́ \phi \nu \eta$ and $\lambda$ ć́ $\varphi \eta$, a laurel, and Lat. oleo, to smell and odor; also, Lat. amylum, starch and Fr. amidon.
As 1 could not remain doubled at the end of a word, it was removed, in the nominative, from the end of the stems inell, honey, and fell, gall.
M. M has for its Sanskrit equivalent m. Cf. machinor, to contrive, etc.; Sansk. mah (Gr. $\mu \eta \chi$ ауáoцац, Eng. make, Fr. maçon, Eng. mason.

M interchanges with $n$, as immanis and immitto for inmanis and in-mitto. $M$ also corresponds as a final letter, in the declension of both verbs and nouns, with $\nu^{1}$ in Greek (Sansk. m) ; since the Greek ear would not tolerate m, at the end of words. Before $s$, it is assimilated in one case to s; as pressi, perf. of premo, for premsi. Usually when m and $s$ would occur together in the perfect of verbs, $p$ is enphonically inserted between them, as prompsi, perf. of proino (= pro+emo) : and sumpsi perf. of sumo ( $=$ sub+emo). Cf. for similar epenthesis of $p$ in French, dompter, to subdue (Lat. domitare), and in English tempt (Lat. tento).
$M$ interchanges in Latin in some instances with $b$ and v , as hibernus (hiems) and promulgo for provulgo ; with which compare also globus and glomus.
N. The Sansk. equivalents of $n$, are $n, s n, j n$.
( $n$ ) neo, to spin and necto, to connect together; nah, to knit: nasus, the nose; nâsa(s).
(sn) no, to swim, and nato; snâ: nix, nivis, snow; snavas (from verb snu, to pour forth).
(jn) nosco (for gnosco), to know ; jnî.
N in Latin corresponds sometimes with $\tau$ in Greek; as pinus, a pine, Gr. mítus: planus, broad, Gr. $\pi \lambda a \pi u ́ s$.

In composition with I and $\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{n}$ is assimilated to them, as

[^7]colligo for conligo and corruo for conruo. So also ullus is for unlus, for unulus; and corolla for coronla for coronola. Before s, as in trans, n often disappears, as in trado (trans +do), traduco, and traho, and tracto its derivative (supposing traho to be for tra + veho). So in elephas (for elephants) and gigas (gigants), and adamas (adamants), the letters nt have been dropped out before the gender-sign, as always in Greek ${ }^{1}$ when the gender-sign is retained. The disappearance of $n$, in the perfect and supine forms of verbs, which contain it in the present and imperfect tenses, as in fundo, pungo, tango, is not, of course, to be explained, as a matter of euphonic necessity or convenience. Such verbs have their pure stems, which are found, as in Greek, in the preterite tenses, nasalized in the present and imperfect tenses, as likewise in the Greek in both voices.

Other words besides verbs are sometimes thus strengthened in Latin, as ambi (à $\mu \phi$ ) Sansk. abhi ; and inferus, sup. infimus; Sansk. adhas, low, comp. adharâs, sup. adhamas.
O. O is equivalent to Sansk. a, â, âu.
(a) os(s), a bone ; asthi.
(a) vox, voice; vâch(s).
(âu) octo, eight; ashtâu.
Its correspondents in Greek are $\boldsymbol{o}, \boldsymbol{\omega}, \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$.
(o) nomen, a name; ŏ $\nu о \mu a$. ( $\omega$ ) ago; ă $\gamma \omega$. (є) oliva, the olive, è̉aia, and oleum, oil, ểalov.

O is frequently interchanged with $\mathbf{u}$ in derived forms: as scrmunculus, diminutive of sermo(n); exsul (ex+solum); cultum (sup. of colo) ; robur, gen. roboris; publicus (for populicus) from populus; vult (for volit) from volo; and also homo and humanus. So, the ancient name of Modena was Mutina.

It sometimes interchanges with $e$, in the same word, as

[^8]vertex and vortex (verto); vester and voster (vos). It is in derivatives sometimes changed to $i$, as in cognitus (cognosco).

By way of adding more weight to the stem-vowel, other vowels, and especially e, are changed to o, in derived forms, as so often occurs also in Greek: as socius (from sequor); sodalis (sedeo); procus (precor); solium (sedeo); modus (metior); nodus (necto). These changes occur chiefly, in both Latin and Greek, in the case of nouns ' derived from verbs.
P. Its Sanskrit equivalents are p, v, b. (p) palus, a marsh; palvala(s): pingo, to paint; pij and pinj. (v) porcus, a pig; varâha(s). (b) puto, to consider; budh : pestis, a plague; bêdhâ.
$P$, when initial, can be followed only by 1 and $r$ of all the consonants. Its euphonic insertion between $m$ and $s$, in perfect and supine forms, has been already described. Its Greek correspondents are $\pi, \phi, \tau, \kappa . \quad(\pi)$ palma, the hand; талáuך. ( $\phi$ ) pars, a part, фápбos, from фáp $\omega$, to divide. ( $\tau$ ) pavo, a peacock; tá́s. ( $\kappa$ ) lupus, a wolf; $\lambda$ úkos.
$P$ is interchangeable in Latin with $b,{ }^{2}$ as scripsi perf. of scribo; with $\mathbf{v}$, as opilio and ovilio ${ }^{3}$, a shepherd from ovis, a sheep; and with $t$, as hospes and hostis, each having for their primary signification, a stranger.
Q. Q and qu represent Sansk. k, ch, p, ç. (k) quis, who; kas: quatio, to shake; kvath, to agitate. (ch) co-
 ro for quæso, perf. quæsivi ; chesth, to seek. (p) quinque, five, panchan ( $\pi$ évte $\pi$ férce): (̧) equus, a horse; açvas.

[^9]Its correspondents in Greek are $\pi$, as sequor, to follow ; ëтонає: and $\tau$, as quis, who; $\tau \iota s$ (for $\kappa \iota s$ ). With reference to the interchangeableness of q , or any other guttural, with p, or any other labial, in Sanskrit or Greek, compare with other examples previously cited, proximus (for propsimus) ; vixi (vivsi) and nix (nivs). So tabeo, to pine away, corresponds with rikew and French suivre with Lat. sequi.

Qu is not a diphtlong in Latin, as in German and English. It had only, as in French, the simple sound of k. The vowel n was added, simply to make it capable of articulation. In early forms a similar combination of $u$ with $g$ occurred, as tinguo, unguo and argueo, first forms of tingo, ungo, and urgeo. So in French we find guérir, guider, etc.; and in English, guide, guard, etc.
$Q$ in $q u$, before another $u$ and also before $t$, becomes $c$; as secutus for sequutus (sequor) and secundus for sequundus. So is it with relictus from relinquo and coctus from coquo and concutio for conquatio and cujus, gen. of quis (for quojus). In one word, inquilinus for incolinus, a reverse change occurs; and in quum with its double form cum, we have two different spellings of the same word with the same pronunciation.
R. Its equivalents are in Sanskrit $\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{l}$; and various consonantal combinations with r , as $\mathrm{pr}, \mathrm{dr}, \mathrm{sr}, \mathrm{kr}$.
(r) res, a thing; ras: rex, a king; raj: rodo, to gnaw; rad: rheda, a carriage, rathas.
(l) rumpo, to break; lup and lump.
(pr) re- and red- back; prati.
(dr) racemus, a cluster of grapes; draksha(s).
(sr) rivus, a brook (cf. $\hat{\rho} \epsilon \in \omega$ for $\sigma \rho \hat{\rho} F \omega$ ); sru, to pour forth.
(kr) rideo, to laugh; krîd.
Before s, r is sometimes rejected, as lepus for lepors (o being also euphonically changed to $\mathfrak{u}$ ); flos for flors, mus for murs ; pulvis for pulvers ; cinis for ciners; in which cases $s$ is the gender-sign. So hausi perf. of haurio is for haursi and haesi for haersi. But in such neuter forms as jus, corpus, foedus etc. the s is to be analyzed as a substi-
tute for r : and radical r is accordingly often changed to s , before nominal and adjective suffixes; as flosculus for florculus and corpusculum for corporculum; scelestus for scelertus and rusticus for rurticus: while before $t$, especially in supines, radical r often becomes $s$; as gestum for gertum (gero), questus for quertus (queror) and ustum (uro) for urtum.

R is often assimilated before 1 and s: as puella, for puerla for puerula; libellus for liberlus; and pellucidus for perlucidus: as also gessi for gersi (gero) and ussi (uro) for ursi.

It is sometimes inserted into words by epenthesis, as in sero perf. sevi (Gr. $\sigma e l \omega$, Sansk. su, German saën) and in the genitive plurals of nouns -arum, -orum, -erum for aüm, oüm, eüm, Gr. $\alpha \omega \nu$ etc. So brachium compares with Sansk. bahu and frango with bhanj.
$R$ is often the representative of an original $s$ in Latin : as ara for asa; eram for esam quorum for quosum (Sansk. kâsûm) dirimo for disemo; diribeo for dishibeo. So compare nasus and naris. In German and English likewise r and s often interchange : as German war, frieren, hase, eisen ; Eng. was, freeze, hare, iron.
S. S represents Sansk. s, ç, ch, sv, ksh. (s) scando, to climb; skand. (¢) saccharum, sugar; çarkaga. (ch) obscurus ( $\sigma \kappa$ có, $\sigma \kappa o \not o ́ s$ and $\sigma \kappa o ́ t o s$ ); chhâyâ ( sv ) soror for sosor, a sister; svasri and svasar. (ksh) sipo, to cast away; kship.

The correspondents of s in Greek are the aspirate, as super and $\tilde{v} \pi \epsilon \rho ; \sigma$, as studeo and $\sigma \pi \epsilon \dot{\delta} \delta \omega$.

In some cases s initial is found in roots wanting it in Greek, as scalpo and $\gamma \lambda \dot{u} \phi \omega$, scruta and $\gamma \rho u ́ r \eta$; and, vice versa, it is not found in some roots where in Greek it does occur, as fallo and $\sigma \phi a ́ \lambda \lambda \omega$.

S is dropped in the nominative from the end of any stem, where it would otherwise be doubled, as as (for ass) gen. assis and os (for oss) gen. ossis. It is also often dropped in the middle of compound words as diduco, dimico, divello for disduco etc.

For the interchange of $s$ and $r$, see letter $r$.
$S$ is assimilated before $f$, as differo for disfero; and it assimilates to itself in many cases, a preceding $b, d, m, r, t$, as jussi (for jubsi), cessi (cedsi), pressi (premsi), gessi (gersi), confersus (confetsus, for confettus).

S sometimes represents in Latin an original d, as esca and esculentus and est, he eats, from edo, to eat, for edca
 Lat. rosa and jóoov and Sansk. madhyas and $\mu$ éoos.
T. The Sanskrit equivalents of $t$ are $t$, st, sth, dh. ( $t$ ) tendo, to extend; tan. (st) tono, to thunder; stan (cf. ETévtop, famous for his loud voice). (sth) taurus, a bull; sthiras. (dh) terra, the ground; dhara.

T is assimilated to s, as quassi perf. of quatio for quatsi and missum for mitsum (for mittum). $T$ is also often suppressed before $s$, as in the nominatives mors, mens, dos, for morts, ments, dots and the perfects misi, sensi for mitsi and sentsi. T becomes sometimes d in derived forms, as quadra and quadraginta from quatuor, and so mendax, deceitful from mentior, to lie.

In the middle of a word before two vowels the first of which is $i, t$ was in the later period of the Latin language pronounced with a sibilant sound, as is evident from the double spelling ci and ti used in such cases, as in nuntius and nuncius.

U and V. U represents Sansk. u, vor kv and a. (u) sub, under (intó) ; upa. (kv) ubi, where, for cubi, as in alicubi (alius+cubi, or ubi); kva.

U is sometimes hardened into its corresponding consonantal form $\mathbf{v}$, as gavisus, perf. form of gaudeo. Sometimes it is shortened into e or i , as bacillus, dimin. of baculus (for bacululus) ; and so tabella (for tabulula) dimin. of tabula; and familia formed from famulus. Other vowels frequently change in derived forms to $u$, but $u$ seldom
changes to them as in cultum sup. of colo; insulto and exsulto from salio, compounded with in and ex.

The equivalents of $v$ in Sanskrit are $u, v, b, k$. ( $u$ ) vacca a cow ; ukshan, an ox from vah, to carry. (v) veneror, to worship: van; via, a way; vah, to go. (b) valeo, to be strong; bala, force. (k) vermis, a worm; krimi.

Its correspondents in Greek are the digamma $F$, as vinum (oivos for Foìvos); and $\beta$, as volo ( $\beta$ oúnomal).
$V$ is properly a labial differing from $f$, only as being somewhat harder. The two sounds compare phonetically, as in English the two sounds of th, in think and rather, or bath and bathe. After a vowel and before a consonant, especially $t$, it changes often into $u$, as lautum for lavtum (lavo), nauta for navta; cautum for cavtum. And so also, vice versa, after a consonant and before a vowel or $t$, it changes into $u$, as docui for docvi and solutum for solvtum. In some words $v$ drops out and the previous vowel is lengthened as votum supine of voveo, for vovtum and oblītus, part. of obliviscor, for oblivtus. In a ferv cases it is changed, in combination with s into a guttural, as vixi, victum for vivsi and vivtum from vivo; and nix (for nivs) gen. nivis. In forms like jūvi, fôvi, mōvi, cāvi etc., there is a contraction of the full original forms, which were juv-vi (juv- being the verb stem and -vi the tense-ending, composed of the tense characteristic v and the person-ending i ), and fơv-vi, mov-vi, cav-vi etc. V, when occurring in a syllable which was afterwards contracted, changed to $u$, as nen for neve, seu for sive, nauta for navita.
X. Its Sanskrit equivalent is ksh as axis ( $a \xi \omega \nu$ ), an axletree; aksha: and its Greek correspondents are $\xi$ and, in proper names sometimes, $\sigma$ and $\sigma \sigma$ : as sex, six ; $\bar{\epsilon} \xi$ : Ajax and Aüas, Ulixes and 'Oסva $\begin{gathered}\text { és's. }\end{gathered}$

X represents, as a compound consonant, cs, gs, and sometimes vs, ps and ts.
(cs) vox: (gs) rex: (vs), connixi perf. of conniveo for connivsi and fluxi perf. of fluo, for flavsi: (ps) proximus, superlative of propior, for propsimus : (ts) nixus for nitsus from nitor.

In one word at least the use of $x$ seems to be altogether arbitrary ; senex, gen. senis. The author can think of no euphonic analysis that will explain it.
$X$ in the preposition ex changes into $f$ by assimilation before $f$, as effero etc.

The change of $x$ to ss or sc is noticeable in a few words, as lassus (for laxus) and lascivus (for laxivus).
Y. This letter was not introduced until a late period into the Latin alphabet; and it was then confined to words borrowed from the Greek, in which $v$ had been previously used. As the Greek $v$ was in pronunciation the modern French $u$, its representation by $y$ in Latin, in the middle of words, was very natural.

Z was borrowed from the Greek, and used only to denote foreign words.

No one who has not undertaken to compass the whole subject of phonology, for himself, in its many internal elements and external relations; and to subject its facts and difficulties to a thorough analysis of his own; and to adjust the results of his manifold investigations in all their separate and combined aspects into a barmonious scientific system, adequate to the wants of so great and so complicated a subject, - can have any just. idea of the amount of earnest, varied and repeated thought and research required for its proper development. No one will welcome more gladly than the author, the sound of another's blast, drill or hammer, in these vast and but partially worked mines of scholarly exploration. His own effort has been, to throw a true and strong light on matters hitherto lying out of the field of scholastic vision, in this country; and to him who shall give them a brighter and fuller illumination, no one shall shout with more gladness : All hail!

[^10]
[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Labinly often represent gu:tarals in a comnate language, as a degenerate form of them, as in Niul. $\pi / \mathrm{s}$, who ; Attic $\tau$ ls ; Sansk. kis; Lat. quis.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ From this same stem alter also is formed : (-ter being a comparative saffix, Gr.-тfoos; as also in the prepositions inter, praeter, propter and subter); and also aliquis ( $=$ nlins + quis).

[^2]:    ${ }^{1}$ The hiatas of two vowels in juxtaposition was far less offensive to the Latin ear, than to the Greek, and less even to the Greek than to the Indian.

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[^3]:    ${ }^{1}$ The Elolians and Dorians kept the digamma in the beginning of many words (as 灰olic Ftios a year, Doric Fizos, own, pecaliar), and the Heracleans in Magns Graecis preserved it in many inscriptions, in words, in which it does not occur in any of the other dialects, or exhibit any signs of having occurred; while as strangely they have omitted it in many words, in which it does occur in the other dialects. Ahrens, Vol. IL., p. 42.

[^4]:    ${ }^{1}$ Says Cicero "aversus a vero." Oration IV., in Catilinam \$9. The very $a$ in aversus is a for $a b$, from. How emptr, therefore, Webster's remark ander this word, that "it is absurd to speak of an affection of the mind exerted from an object." It is surely the most natural thing in the world, to speak of a state of foeling, as turned away from a given object.

[^5]:    ${ }^{1}$ Zeitschrift Der Sprachforschung, Vol. II., pp. 328-334.
    ${ }^{2}$ The scale of aspirates in Sanskrit, while redacible to the simple elements above stated, is fall of varied forms of them, as $\mathrm{gh}, \mathrm{kh}, \mathrm{ch}, \mathrm{chh}, \mathrm{jh}$, as well s $\mathrm{bh}, \mathrm{ph}, \mathrm{dh}$ and th, and compoand consonantal aspirates as ksh, chch, chehh, nchh, nth, ddh, dbh, mbh, dhr, sth, srh, kshm, chchliy, chchhr, ddhy, etc.

[^6]:    1 The harp gets its name from its being sickle-shaped; and it is of the same root with harpoon and the harpies.

[^7]:    ${ }^{1}$ So in French also, $m$ often changes to $n$, as colonne, a colamn (columna); sentier a path (Lat, semita).

[^8]:    ${ }^{1}$ When such a combination would occar in nominal bases as vs, ves, or, ps, in Greek, the rule is, if the gender sign is retained, to reject the other letters of the combination as $\gamma$ (yas ( $\gamma$ ifayrs) ; or, to reject the gender-igu and keep final vor $\rho$, and lengthen the vowel preceding it, by way of compensation, as $\pi \quad$ ouhy
    

[^9]:    ${ }^{1}$ In German, and correspondingly in English, there are many instances of a change of the stem-vowel of verbs, to indicate distinctions of time.
    

    * So, Latin apotheca becomes, vice versa, French bontique.
    - Cf. Lat paaper and French pairre ; and also German vater and Lat. pater.

[^10]:    Erratuk. - On page 691 (Vol. XVI.), of previons article, lines 2 and 80, for word dadAmi, I place, read dadhámi.

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