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A COMPENDIUM

OF THE

COMPARATIVE GRAMMAR

OF THE

INDO-EUROPEAN, SANSKRIT, GREEK AND LATIN LANGUAGES.

AUGUST SCHLEICHER.

TRANSLATED FROM THE THIRD GERMAN EDITION

HERBERT BENDALL, M.A.

PART II.





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II. MORPHOLOGY.

A. ROOTS AND STEMS.

THE FORM OF INDO-EUROPEAN WORDS.

§ 80.

The Indo-European language is one of the highest morphological regularity, since, besides the adjunction of sounds indicating relativity, it is also capable of flexion, that is, of regular variation of the root itself for the purpose of expressing relativity; this variation of the root consists in the stepraising of its vowel (§ 2). The addition of sounds expressing relativity is found at the end only of a root, never at its beginning (the augment is an originally independent word, which only coalesces with the verb, and which can therefore disappear without detracting from the force of the word). Every Indo-European word actually employed in the language has a sound expressing relativity after the root, which, moreover, can also be reduplicated, e.g. da-dā-mi (I give): naked roots do not appear in Indo-European as words (secondary loss of sounds expressing relativity naturally does not come under consideration here).

The unique exception occurs in the vocative of those nouns which possess no stem-formative-element besides their case-suffix, as e.g. stem $v\bar{a}k$ - (speech, \sqrt{vak} , speak), nom. sg. $v\bar{a}k$ -s, gen. $v\bar{a}k$ -as, etc., but voc. $v\bar{a}k$. The vocative is, however, no real word, no element of a sentence, but a word which has

§ 80. assumed the form of an interjection, a gesture translated into sound. Very rarely (and even then due to relatively secondary processes) are relativity-sounds found in the root itself. This happens in the present form, as e.g. Gk. λαμβάνω, √λαβ (ἔ-λαβ-ον), μ is here a relativity-sound of the present; Lat. iungo, √iug (cf. iug-um), etc. The earlier forms had here also, probably, the nasal after the root-termination, v. post. 'Conjugation.' From this present-stem with medial nasal the nasalization has spread further to noun-stems (e.g. Gk. τύμπ-ανο-ν timbrel, √τυπ strike; Lat. iunc-tu-s, iunc-tura, √iug, etc.).

It is, therefore, a distinctive characteristic of the Indo-European language, that all words belonging to it have one and the same morphological construction; a regularly variable root and a regularly variable relativity-sound affixed thereto. The morphological formula for all Indo-European words is therefore R^x s^x (v. Introd. II.).

§ 81. Root-formation. The earliest component parts of the Indo-European words are the roots. By 'root' we generally understand the meaning-sound, the sound that conveys the force of the word in question (as 'to be' is e.g. the root of as-mi I am, as-ti he is, etc.). But the stem- and word-formative suffixes also in Indo-European have arisen from originally independent roots by coalescence with other roots. Thus every Indo-European word may be treated as a whole which has gradually grown out of several roots, at the least out of two; of these roots one (the first) is the root of the word (in the narrower sense of the word 'root' in which it is generally used), and bears the meaning unaided, whilst the others have sunk to the subordinate position of relativitysuffixes to this chief-root, and have become welded on to it; e.g. as-mi (I am), \sqrt{as} with meaning 'be'; the \sqrt{ma} , here weakened as a suffix to mi, expresses the relation of the 1st pers. (ma as an independent root means 'measure,' 'think,'

'man;' 'I'); as-ti (he is) $\sqrt{as} + \sqrt{ta}$ 'that' dem., 'he'; bhara-ti § 81. (he bears), \sqrt{bhar} (bear) + \sqrt{a} , here become a suffix, a root of demonstrative function, and ta (as in as-ti); vāk-s (speech n. sg.), \sqrt{vak} (speak), $+\sqrt{sa}$ demonstrative, here shortened to s, etc. In more simply constructed languages we can see the early steps still preserved, steps which we must pre-suppose in Indo-European (e.g. in the words adduced forms as ma, as ta, bhar a ta, vak sa). Since the suffixes of the Indo-European language arise thus from roots originally independent, it becomes clear why the suffixes, as regards step-formation, are treated in precisely the same way as the chief-roots (e.g. bhar- $-\bar{a}$ -mi'I bear,' with a of stem-formative sf. raised to \bar{a} , beside bhar-a-ti 'he bears,' without step-formation; ta-nau-ti 'he stretches,' beside ta-nu-masi 'we stretch,' etc.). The exact formula of the Indo-European word is therefore $R^x s^x$. We shall now treat of chief-roots, meaning-sounds, alone.

We have not hitherto any accurate investigation into the laws of root-formation in Indo-European. What sound-combinations occur in the roots of the Indo-European? Could roots change from one vowel-scale to another at a date as early as that of the Indo-European original language? What extension of meaning is permitted by a root, and in what cases must we assume original roots phonetically identical but nevertheless distinct? Several other similar questions hitherto unanswered might be proposed in this place.

Meaning-sounds or roots (chief-roots) are generally separable from the words which they now underlie. The Indo-European roots seem in the first period of the life of the original language to have possessed a sound-form still simpler than that shown by roots existing in the actual language, cf. e.g. $\sqrt{yu-g}$ beside yu (join), ma-t beside ma (measure), etc. In such cases what we see is probably the welding of a second root on to the first. Original reduplication also appears, e.g. ka-k (cook), gi-g (live). The origin of such secondary root-formations is in a great many

§ 81. cases due to the cohesion of the root and the addition which originally formed the present stem, e.g. \sqrt{man} (think) from ma, gan (be born) from ga, bhandh (bind) from bhadh, etc.; the nasal originally characterizes the present stem only. Hence we divide roots into primary and secondary.

It is an invariable rule that Indo-European roots are monosyllabic.

There is no distinction, as regards form, between the so-called verbal-roots (roots conveying a conception) and the so-called pronominal-roots (roots expressing relativity); the roots i, ka, ta, ya, e.g. are pronominal- as well as verbal-roots (i demonstrative, go; ka interrogative, be sharp; ta demonstrative, stretch; cf. Beitr. zur vergl. sprachforschung, ii. p. 92 sqq. 'wurzeln auf a im Indogermanischen,' by A. Schleicher. We get the root in its fundamental-form when we have taken from a given word all sounds expressing relativity and their possible influence upon the radical sounds (a process generally easy, but sometimes scarcely possible), and reduced the root-vowel to its fundamental-vowel, whenever it appears in a raised form in the word, e.g. da is the root of da- $d\bar{a}$ -mi (I give), vak of $v\bar{a}k$ -s (speech), div of daiv-a-s (shining, heavenly, God), dyu = div of dyau-s (heaven), su (bear, beget) of su-nu-s (son), ta of ta-m (him), etc.

Indo-European roots may be formed in any way provided they are monosyllabic. The following are the sound-combinations of the root:—

- 1. Vowel, that is, accurately speaking, spiritus lenis+vowel, e.g. a (dem. pron.), i (go), u (Sk. enjoy oneself, favour, Sclav., Lith., and Lat. ind-uere, ex-uere).
 - 2. Consonant+vowel, e.g. da (give), bhi (fear), bhu (be).
 - 3. Vowel+consonant, e.g. ad (eat), idh (kindle), us (burn).
- 4. Consonant+vowel+consonant, e.g. pat (fly, fall), vid (see), bhugh (bend).
- 5. Two consonants + vowel, e.g. sta (stand), pri (love), kru (hear).

- 6. Vowel+two consonants, e.g. ardh (wax), ark (shine; cele-§ 81. brate).
- 7. Two consonants + vowel + consonant, e.g. star (strew), stigh (ascend).
- 8. Consonant + vowel + two consonants, e.g. dark (see), vart (turn).
- 9. Two consonants + vowel + two consonants, e.g. skand (scandere).

In the case of roots of the form consonant +a+ consonant, or a+ consonant, even when these forms arise through step-formation from u and i, there occurs frequently a transposition of the sounds, so that a comes to be final, e.g. gan and gna (know, be born); mar and mra (die); ghar and ghra (shine, be yellow or green); par and pra (fill); ak and ka (be sharp); i, raised to ai, and ya (go); hu raised to hau, hav, and hva (call), etc. Likewise div and dyu (shine).

Note 1.—Transposition of consonants such as is assumed by Alb. Kühn, über Wurzelvariation durch Metathesis, Bonn, 1868, e.g. in vid (see) and div (shine), Sk. paç (bind), origl. pak, and Lat. cap (take), etc., I cannot consider proved.

Note 2.—In a complete grammar of Indo-European this chapter ought to contain a full list not only of those roots which can be proved to be Indo-European, but also of those which are peculiar to individual divisions or families (fundamental languages) of the Indo-European language.

Note 3.—Hindu grammar, which is in this respect still followed by many European philologists, assumes no verbal-roots in a. Hindu grammarians mark roots ending in a either (1) in the raised form (e.g. $dh\bar{a}$ put, $d\bar{a}$ give, instead of dha, da), or (2) give to the root final n and y, which arise from the formation of the present stem, and therefore originally belonged to a suffix (e.g. gan be born, instead of ga; $hv\bar{e}$ cry, instead of hva, hu; $r\bar{a}i$ bark, instead of ra), or (3) mark them with \bar{o} , which obviously does no more than indicate certain peculiarities of these roots in forming their tense-stems, since in really existing forms \bar{o} nowhere appears (e.g. $g\bar{o}$ sharpen, for ga, ag). Cf. Beitr. ii. 92 sqq.

§ 82. Stem-formation. From roots arise word-stems (themes), i.e. that part of a word which remains after we have taken away the terminations of conjugation and declension.

Stems are formed:

- 1. By the bare root raised or not. Since the root vowel occupies a certain step in the sound-scale, it may always appear as the substratum of a certain relation, and thus even by itself express a relation. This often happens in the case of verbs, e.g. ai-, i-, present-stem and root (go), 1 sg. ai-mi, 1 pl. i-masi; as-, present-stem and root (be), e.g. 1 sg. as-mi, 3 sg. as-ti, etc. This kind of stem-formation is less common in the case of nouns, e.g. n. sg. dyau-s, loc. div-i; dyau-, a raised-form from dyu=div (shine), is here a noun-stem (heaven), and likewise a root; $v\bar{a}k$ -s (speech), stem $v\bar{a}k$ -, is a step-form from \sqrt{vak} (speak), The expression of relativity by means of step-formation of the root-vowel is symbolical. Moreover the reduplication of the root (with or without simultaneous step-formation), for the purpose of expressing relativity, is of very early date, and, like the simple root, suffices to form a stem, e.g. stem da-da- in da-dā-mi, 1 sg. pres.; da-da-masi, 1 pl. pres., √da (give).
- 2. By additions made to the end of a simple or reduplicated root whatever step-formation it may occupy. These additions were (as we remarked in § 81) originally independent roots, which, at an earlier period of development in the life of the language, when the language consisted of roots alone, came to be joined to other roots as defining elements; these roots expressing relation gradually lost their independence, and became welded on to those roots which they helped to define more accurately, e.g. daiv-a, n. sg. daiva-s (diuos, deus), \sqrt{div} raised daiv, +a; $bh\bar{a}ra-ya-$, causative-stem fr. \sqrt{bhar} ($bh\bar{a}raya-ti$ he makes to bear), cf. a (pron. demonstr.); ya (relat.); vak-ta-, n. sg. masc. vak-ta-s (dictus), $\sqrt{vak}+ta$, cf. \sqrt{ta} (pron. dem.); vi(d)vid-vant-, pf. part. act. of reduplicated \sqrt{vid} (see) + vant, etc. Most of these stem-formative elements can be traced as

roots of general and weakened function, that is, as pronominal § 82. roots (thus e.g. a, i, u, ya, ta, ka, etc.).

Note.—By a hyphen - we indicate that the element with which it is used is always in that very place joined to another. Stem-formative suffixes are accordingly to be known by - at the beginning and end, word-formative sff. by - at the beginning (e.g. vark-a-s with sff. -a- and -s). The roots may, we think, be left uncharacterized; it would perhaps be more correct to write them with - at the end (e.g. vark-), but by leaving them thus uncharacterized we wish to distinguish them from those stems which may coincide with them in sound-form.

These are the methods of stem-formation from roots. language, however, did not remain stationary, but further stems began to be developed from these stems which were sprung directly from roots. Stems of the former kind we call primary stems, and suffixes which are used for their formation primary suffixes; stems of the latter kind, which presuppose other stems for their formation, we call secondary stems, and the suffixes used for their formation secondary suffixes. The latter partly coincide in form with the primary In the case of verbs, the same suffixes are added to the derived verbal-stems as to the underived, the verbal-stem being equivalent to a root, whether it be derived or primitive: it is, therefore, right to count all suffixes which are joined immediately to the end of verbal-stems (forming participles, nomina actionis, nomina agentis) as primary suffixes; e.g. -nt-(-ant-) in bhārayant-, pres. part. act. causative stem, is no less a primitive suffix than in bharant-, pres. part. act. of the stemverb. On the other hand, comparative- and superlative-suffixes, diminutive-formations, etc., which presuppose complete noun-stems, are secondary, e.g. Lat. diu-inu-s stem diuo- (diuos); facil-ior stem fac-ili-, \(\sqrt{fac} \); doct-ior- stem doct-o-, \(\sqrt{doc} \); whence again comes the stem doct-is-simo-, in which form -is- is a comparative-suffix (cf. doct-ius), and -simo- = -timo-, f.f. -tama-, the compounded superlative suffix; the stem doc-t-is-si-mo- has thus § 82. four stem-formative elements after the root. Moreover, vowel-raising may be combined with secondary stem-formation, e.g. Sk. stem dāiv-ika- (n. sg. masc. dāivika-s godlike) stem dēvá-, origl. daiva- (n. sg. dēvá-s, origl. daiva-s god).

The identity with pronominal roots of most elements used as stem-formative suffixes, including the most common ones, ta, ya, ka, etc., arises from the circumstance that this kind of root (i.e. a root whose originally more concrete meaning has sunk into a more general one, so that its meaning has been reduced to a relation), by bearing a general meaning, has become serviceable for the more accurate definition of other roots which convey more concrete meanings.

A further secondary means of stem-formation—one which is essentially distinct from those already mentioned—consists in—3. Composition of word-stems to form a new word-stem. Composition is much employed in Indo-European languages. (Cf. Ferd. Justi, über die zusammensetzung der nomina in den Indog. sprachen. Göttingen, 1861.)

Stem-formation by attachment of relation-elements is distinct from composition in that it originated in the period of the growing language, whereas composition does not occur till the language is actually formed, presupposing, as it does, readymade word-stems as its materials. Confluence or combination of words is likewise to be separated from true composition: in the case of the former words (i.e. elements of a sentence provided with terminations of case and person) become welded together, while the latter compounds word-stems so as to form a new stem.

Naturally this combination has not occurred till a later period in particular languages, whereas composition must perhaps be ascribed even to the Indo-European original language (the archaic stems svastar- sister, svakura- father-in-law, e.g. are probably compounded; so, too, must we assign to the compound stems of the aor. and fut a date as early as that of the original language).

Prepositions and the augment before the verb form the com- § 82. monest examples of combination or coalition of words once independent in our languages; they are adverbs which have grown on, i.e. they were originally cases, e.g. abs-tineo from abs and teneo; abs, like ex, etc., seems to be a gen. case; the looseness of the connexion shows itself in all cases, e.g. $\epsilon \kappa - \pi l \pi \tau \omega$ beside $\epsilon \xi - \epsilon - \pi \epsilon \sigma o \nu$, etc. Yet we find combination elsewhere also, e.g. Lat. quamuis, quamobrem, etc.; German frankenland (franken is gen. pl.), wolfsmilch (wolfs is gen. sg.), etc. Here the accent is the only mark of the combination.

True composition has the power of expressing a relation; it can give the new word a relation which is foreign to the component parts taken separately, and which originates only in and through their composition; e.g. μακρό-χειρ, longi-manus, i.e. 'whose hands are long, long-handed': here the possessive relation belongs to the composition; λογο-γράφο-ς 'word-writing' = λόγους γράφων; iu-dic- (iudex) = ius dicens 'indicating, saying justice,' etc. In the latter instances the former element of the compound acts as a case, though it has no case-suffix. A fresh relation of this kind can never be produced by combination; for combination is nothing but varied and facilitated utterance—nothing but union, by means of a common accent, of words previously separate; it cannot therefore have anything in common with stem-formation.

An exhaustive statement of Indo-European stem-formation does not lie within the range of this compendium, since it is intended to embrace only what is indispensable for beginners in comparative philology. The science of stem-formation is moreover full of difficulties, and requires in parts a more detailed discussion than can be contained in a work which is confined to the narrowest limits possible. Of this wide range we select therefore only a few parts, which we shall now proceed to discuss, viz.: 1. derivative verbal-stems; 2. noun-stems which are most nearly connected with the verb, i.e. participles and in-

§ 82. finitives, and a few other noun-stems which are allied to these, or seem to be otherwise noteworthy; 3. comparative- and superlative-stems; 4. stems of cardinal- and ordinal-numbers. The last section, although of subordinate value for the explanation of the construction of language, is appended on account of the high interest of the numerals from other points of view. Hence under this last head we pass over the morphological arrangement, and direct our attention exclusively to the function, by discussing the separate numerals one by one irrespective of their phonetic expression.

Note.—It is obvious that here, in the chapter on morphology, if we had wished to be consistent, no regard should have been paid to the functions of stems, and that, since stems are not yet words, no distinction should have been made between verbal-stems and Likewise, the treatment of stem-formation should include the stem-forms of tenses and moods as well as all other stem-forms. The formation of verb-stems (in the widest sense of the word) does not, of course, belong to the statement of word-formation (conjugation), in which only the subject of person-terminations is to be treated, because the latter are the only elements which make the verb-stem a real member of a sentence, a word. However, in order not to divide the subjectmatter in a way hitherto unusual, thereby rendering this work difficult to be used by students accustomed to earlier systems, we determine to leave the theory of tense-stems and moodelements to the section 'Word-formation' (conjugation), and under 'noun-stems' (in Part II.) to refer now and then to similarly formed verbal-stems.

Hitherto we have no thoroughly scientific arrangement of Indo-European stem-forms. As regards Part II. of our fragmentary exposition of Indo-European stem-formations, in which we shall have to produce at least a fair number of stem-formative suffixes, we shall for the present follow the example of G. Curtius (De nominum Graecorum formatione, Berlin, 1842) in adopting a phonetic principle of arrangement; that is to say, we shall treat successively (1) stems without suffixes; (2) the simplest vowel-suffixes; and (3) suffixes having one or more consonants. Under the last head the suffixes ya and va will come first; after them suffixes with so-called liquids; and, finally, those whose chief element is a momentary sound,

to which has been added the suffix as. Compound suffixes § 82. should strictly form the last division and be treated separately; however, since the question whether a given suffix is simple or compound cannot always be answered with certainty, and since, moreover, compound suffixes often very closely resemble simple ones in function and employment, we here treat compound suffixes under their first elements.

1. Formation of Derived Verbal-Stems.

§ 83.

On derived verb-stems generally.

Derived verb-stems, though presupposing noun-stems, are here treated before the latter, because, like primary verb-stems and roots, they frequently underlie noun-stems.

All verbs which possess no stem-formative elements, except those which serve for the formation of the tense-stems, have the form of stem-verbs; but those verbs which, in other forms than the present, show besides the root such elements as were not originally used for the formation of present- or other tense-stems, have the form of derived verbs.

At later periods of language-development, present-stem formative elements easily become united with the verbal-root so closely, that they even remain in forms other than those of the present tense, e.g. iu-n-g-o, \sqrt{iug} , where n is the present infix; yet perf. is iu-n-c-si for *iuc-si, even iu-n-c-tu-s for *iuc-tu-s, cf. iug-u-m: a verb does not however become in any way a derived one by this union.

Intensive verbs in Sanskrit and Zend must be considered as closely akin to verbs which are reduplicated in their present- or aorist-stems; as we do not, therefore, hold them to be derived, in the stricter sense of the term (they show no constant additional element), we cannot deal with them in this place, but shall do so later on where we discuss 'present-stem-formation.'

It cannot be denied that sometimes verbs which are obviously derived may assume the form of primary verbs, e.g.

§ 83. Sk. kršna-ti (behave like kršna-s), from subst. Kršna-s (proper n.); Goth. salti-th (he salts), pf. saisalt, from subst. salt (salt), whilst at others stem-verbs appear in the form of derived verbs, as e.g. Lat. habe-t, Goth. habai-th (3 sg. pres.), Lat. habē--bo (fut.), Goth. habai-da (pf.), which we can hardly consider derived, is conjugated just like decidedly derived-verbs, e.g. Lat. mone-t, f.f. mānaya-ti (causes to think), fut. monē-bo, \sqrt{man} (think), Lat. men (cf. Lat. me-min-i, primary verb from same root), stem of causative verb mānaya-; Goth. veihai-th (hallows), pf. veihai-da from veih-s (holy). In fact the forms of undoubted stem-verbs and those of clearly derived-verbs are so intermingled in certain of the existing languages, that from a purely morphological point of view a sharp and complete distinction between primary and derived verbal-stems is impossible, and not unfrequently it is still doubtful to which class a given verb belongs. Certain tense-stems often have the forms of derived-verbs, whilst others show those of the stem-verbs, e.g. Lat. vidē-mus (pres.) beside vidi-mus (pf.), etc.; v. 'Conjugation.'

Since we are here considering the form only, not the function of the words, we can arrange derived verb-stems only according to stem-formative elements, not according to the relations which they express. Hence we speak of stem-formation by means of ya, etc., not of intensive, causative, etc., verb-stems. We place first those formations which can be proved most archaic, and let follow in order those which occur in particular languages only of our family, and which must therefore in all likelihood, be considered as later formations.

It is often hard to pronounce with certainty what is the next underlying form in the case of derived verb-stems. We could not venture to decide off-hand whether, e.g. Sk. $bh\bar{a}r\dot{a}y\bar{a}-mi$, Gk. $\phi o\rho \epsilon \omega \cdot (\mu \iota)$, stem $bh\bar{a}raya$ -, Gk. $\phi o\rho \epsilon ye$ -, is formed by step-formation and by sf. -ya- from verb-stem Sk. $bh\dot{a}ra$ -, Gk. $\phi \dot{\epsilon} \rho \epsilon$ -, in Sk. $bh\dot{a}ra$ -ti, Gk. $\phi \dot{\epsilon} \rho \epsilon$ -(τ) ι (3 sg. pres.), or by means of sf.

-ya- from a substantive stem Sk. bhāra-, Gk. φόρο- (n. sg. Sk. § 83. bhāra-s, Gk. φόρο-ς).

Note.—The formation of the present-stem has been considered as the formation of a derived verb whenever it expresses an evident relation, as e.g. the passive or inchoative. This, however, is not admissible, were it only for the reason, that originally every kind of present-stem-formation represented a distinct relation. If this were not so, all verbs would exhibit one and the same present-stem-form. Besides there is no doubt that we count as 'derived verb-stems' only such formations as are not confined to the present-stem; and it would, moreover, be impossible to distinguish verbs as stem-verbs and derived-verbs.

Verbal-stems in original -ya- (-a-ya-) with root-vowel § 84. raised to first step, when formed from verbal-stems.

Verbal-stems in non-radical -ya- are found in all Indo-European languages, and must therefore be ascribed to a period as early as that of the original language (their function is manifold, especially causative, transitive, but also durative and intransitive). They naturally lean to verbal-stems and nominal-stems. The formative-element -aya- is probably to be broken up into -a-ya-, a being the final sound of the fundamental nominal- or verbal-stem, while ya is a very commonly used element in stem-formation (cf. pronominal \sqrt{ya} , of rel. and dem. functions). The root-vowel is regularly raised a step.

Indo-European original language. Only one kind of such verbs, and of this only a few forms can be traced, esp. the pres. (and what is akin to it), e.g. 3 sg. pres. $bh\bar{a}raya-ti$ (= Sk. $bh\bar{a}r\dot{a}ya-ti$, Gk. * $\phi\rho\rho\varphi\varphi(\tau)\iota$, i.e. $\phi\rho\rho\hat{e}i$; in Sk. with causative, in Gk. with durative function, from a stem $bh\bar{a}ra$, $\phi\rho\rho$, origh. $\checkmark bhar$, Gk. $\phi\rho\rho$ ferre); further future $bh\bar{a}raya-sya-ti$ (Sk. $bh\bar{a}-rayi-\dot{s}y\dot{a}-ti$, Gk. $\phi\rho\rho\dot{\gamma}-\sigma\epsilon\iota=*\phi\rho\rho\varphi\varphi-\sigma\varphi\varphi-\tau\iota$), and lastly the compound aorist $a-bh\bar{a}raya-sam$ ($\dot{\epsilon}-\dot{\phi}\rho\rho\eta-\sigma a$). So too $s\bar{a}da-ya-ti$ (he places)=Sk. $s\bar{a}d\dot{a}-ya-ti$, Goth. sat-yi-th, $\checkmark sad$ (sit); vaida-ya-ti (foretells)=Sk. $v\bar{e}d\dot{a}ya-ti$ (id.), Goth. (fair-)veiteith (looks to) for *veit-yi-th, $\checkmark vid$ (see, know), etc.

The correspondence between Gk. and Sk. makes it not unlikely that formations such as e.g. maran-ya-ti (dies, durative) from an abstract noun, n. sg. marana-m (whose final a, as often happens, has dropped out before sf. ya, \sqrt{mar} , die), were not foreign to the origh. lang. In the formation of the remaining tense-forms languages do not agree. Probably the simple agrist was not formed at all, and the perfect expressed by periphrasis. Sanskrit. E.g. bhāráya-ti, 3 sg. pres. causative vb. \(\sqrt{bhar}, \) either belonging to a noun-stem bhāra- (load), bhara- (bearing; or the act of bearing), or to a verb-stem bhara- (bhára-ti he bears); sādáya-ti, in the same way fr. \sqrt{sad} (sit), cf. stem sāda-(m. placing down, setting); vēdáya-ti (makes to know) similarly · fr. \sqrt{vid} (see, know), cf. $v\bar{e}da$ - (m. knowledge, holy writ); bodháya-ti (makes to know), \sqrt{budh} (know), cf. bodha-, pres.-stem and noun-stem, bodha-s (knowledge, instruction). Roots in -ar often have no step-formation, e.g. dāráya- and daráya-, \(\sqrt{dar} \) (burst, split); vāráya- and varáya-, \sqrt{var} (cover, choose). Further, before two consonants the step-formn. does not take place, e.g. kalpáya-, v kalp (be in order; kalpa-, adj. fitted, subst. m. order); indeed we actually find weakened root-syllables, e.g. grbháya-, √ grabh (grasp, akin to grbhá-s, gripe); mrdáya-, /mard (grind, both these examples belong to the more archaic language). Elsewhere also unraised a is sometimes found, e.g. damaya-, \sqrt{dam} (be tame, tame; cf. dama-s, the act of taming, breaking in), etc. Roots in i, u, have the 2nd step, e.g. $n\bar{a}y\dot{a}-ya-ti$, \sqrt{ni} (lead); $cr\bar{a}v\dot{a}-ya-ti$, \sqrt{cru} (hear). The perf. of these verb-stems is periphrastically formed by means of an abstract-form in ā and the perf. of an auxiliary verb, e.g. vēduyā--kakāra, lit. 'notionem feci'; the aorist does not belong to these stems in -aya-, but was formed from the reduplicated root. This reduplication has the force of a causal function, which

may be taken as a step-formation of the active, e.g. \acute{a} - $v\bar{i}vid$ -am, pres. $v\bar{e}d\acute{a}y\bar{a}$ -mi; other forms of these verbs lose ya, thus
the past formed from the future (the so-called conditional),

e.g. á-vēd-i-šyam, stem vēdáya-, etc. This belongs, however, § 84. rather to Indian special-grammar, as being peculiar to Sk.

Amongst stems clearly formed from nouns are yōktrá-ya-ti (binds round, embraces), noun-stem yōktra- (ntr. band); tulá-ya-ti (weighs), stem tula-, n. sg. tulá (fem. balance, scales), etc.

But before the -ya- the final -a- of the stem is not seldom lengthened to \bar{a} (v. supr. § 15, 2, a), e.g. $v\bar{a}sp\bar{a}-ya-t\bar{e}$ (weeps), stem $v\bar{a}spa$ - (tear), $l\bar{o}hit\bar{a}-ya-ti$ (reddens), stem $l\bar{o}hita$ - (red), $a\varsigma v\bar{a}-y\dot{a}-ti$ (wishes for horses), stem $\dot{a}\varsigma va$ - (horse), etc.; cf. $r\bar{a}g\bar{a}-ya-ti$ (behaves like a king), stem $r\bar{a}ga$ - (n. sg. $r\bar{a}g\bar{a}$ king), thus accompanied by loss of final n from the underlying nounstem. Similar lengthening in the case of i and u before g occurs (cf. § 15, 2, a), e.g. $pat\bar{i}-y\dot{a}-ti$ (desires a husband), stem pati- (husband), $as\bar{u}-y\dot{a}-ti$ (snarls, is angry), stem asu- (breath, spirit).

The a also is weakened to i, and then i is lengthened to \bar{i} , e.g. $putr\bar{i}-y\acute{a}-ti$ (filium cupit), stem putra- (son).

Moreover the stem-termination drops off altogether, e.g. putrakām-ya-ti (desires a son), stem putrá-kāma- (desiring sons, children; putrá-s son, káma-s wish, love). Here we must esp. mention the verbs in -anya which occur in the earliest Sans-krit (the Vēdas): they are formed from abstract nouns in -ana-(n. sg. -ana-m, ntr.), e.g. karaṇ-yá-ti (he goes), stem káraṇa-(going) \sqrt{kar} (go); bhuraṇ-yá-ti (quivers, is in motion), stem bhuraṇa- (adj. active), \sqrt{bhur} (quiver, move rapidly). Cf. Gk. examples such as $\mu a \rho a l v e i$ (makes to wither away), i.e. maranya-ti, \sqrt{mar} origh. (die).

To stems in s, -ya- is added immediately, e.g. tapas-yá-ti (chastises himself), stem tápas- (mortification); namas-yá-ti (worships), stem námas- (worship). Through the analogy of such forms arose a denominative-form in -sya-, which comes into use also where there is no noun-stem in -as-. In other than present forms, generally, the y only remains (e.g. fut. namasy-išyá-ti), yet this y also often disappears (namas-išyá-ti),

§ 84. so that these stems then coincide with those to be treated in § 85.

It is difficult to explain the suffix -paya-, which is added regularly to verbal roots in a, more rarely to other roots also, and further to monosyllabic, and also less frequently to other noun-stems in a; in function it corresponds perfectly to -aya-, i.e. -ya-. Before this sf. a is regularly lengthened to \bar{a} , or raised a step, e.g. $d\bar{a}$ -payá-ti, 3 sg. pres. caus. vb. \sqrt{da} (give); satyā-payá-ti (speaks truth), st. satyá- (true); ar-payá-ti, caus. \sqrt{ar} (rise, go); $\sin x - \sin x$ (makes to know), $\sin x - \sin x$ (learn) = $\sin x$, oright gan; also others show $\sin x$ instead of regular $\sin x$; hence fms. like $\sin x - \sin x$ and not to assume -apaya- as an element of formation, before which the final of the root must have been lost.

The attempts to prove the existence of this -paya- in other Indo-European languages seem to me unsuccessful on the whole, so that I prefer to consider it as a new formation in Indian, a view which is borne out likewise by the frequent occurrence of -paya- in the Prākrt. Probably they are compound-fms. (Benfey, kl. Sanskritgrammatik, § 123), containing a $\sqrt{pa}=ap$, meaning 'do, make,' cf. dp-as, Lat. op-us, Gk. πo - $\iota \acute{e}\omega$, f.f $p \ddot{a}yay \ddot{a}$ -mi, the latter (connected with \sqrt{pa} by means of a noun-stem * $\pi o\iota o$ -, i.e. $p \ddot{a}$ -ya-; cf. Sk. stem $d \ddot{a}$ -ya-, giving, masc. gift, \sqrt{da}) formed from this root; pa-ya- will then be a causative stem of this root, precisely in the same way as the causative $k \ddot{a} raya$ -, \sqrt{kar} (make), often appears in the function of the stem-verb.

Note.— $P\bar{a}l\dot{a}ya$ -ti, 3 sg. pres. caus. \sqrt{pa} (protect), is not immediately formed from the root, but from a noun-stem $p\bar{a}$ - $l\dot{a}$ (n. sg. $p\bar{a}$ - $l\dot{a}$ -s watcher, guard), and is therefore perfectly regular.

Greek.¹ Original -a-ya- has become *-a-yε-, *-ε-yε, *-o-yε-;

¹ For fuller details on derived verbs of Gk. and Lat., cf. Leo Meyer, Vergl. gr. d. Griech. u. Lat. Sprache, ii. 1 sqq.

according to recognized phonetic laws v is lost between vowels § 84. (cf. § 65, 1, e), e.g. τιμᾶ (honours)=τιμάει fr. *τιμαγε-τι fr. τιμή (bonour); $\phi o \iota \tau \hat{a}$ (goes frequently) = * $\phi o \iota \tau a \jmath \epsilon - \tau \iota$ fr. $\phi o \hat{\iota} \tau o - \varsigma$ (frequent going); $\delta a \mu \hat{a} = *\delta a \mu a \nu e \tau \iota$ (cf. $\delta a \mu - \nu \eta \mu \iota$) = Lat. doma-t, Sk. damáya-ti, Goth. tamyi-th (tameth), etc.; φορεί (bears, durative) = φορέει for *φορέγε-τι, origl. bhāraya-ti, stem φόρο- in φόρο-ς, or stem φερε- in φέρει fr. *φερε-τι, by raising of ϵ to o; $\partial \chi \epsilon \hat{\iota}$ (carries, lets ride) = $Fo\chi \epsilon y \epsilon - \tau \iota$, oright. vāghaya-ti, cf. ὄχο-ς (waggon), f.f. vāgha-s, and ἔχει, f.f. vagha-ti; $\dot{a}\rho\iota\theta\mu\epsilon\hat{\iota}$ (counts) = $*\dot{a}\rho\iota\theta\mu\epsilon\gamma\epsilon$ - $\tau\iota$ fr. $\dot{a}\rho\iota\theta\mu\dot{o}$ - ς (number); $oi\kappa\epsilon\hat{\iota}$ (dwells), f.f. vāikaya-ti, οἶκο-ς (house), f.f. vāika-s; ἀφρονεῖ (is senseless) fr. stem ἄφρον- (senseless): thus also from consonantal stems after analogy of vowel-stems, etc. These verbs in -eyeare much used in Gk. (in Lat., on the contrary, those in -a-). Further, γρυσοί (gilds) = γρυσόει fr. *γρυσογε-τι fr. γρυσό-ς (gold), etc. The less common verbs in -uye- are mostly formed from noun-stems in i, and are not therefore to be traced back to -a-ya, e.g. κονίω (make dusty) from *κονιω, *κονιγωμι, fut. κονίσω, stem κόνι- (κόνι-ς, gen. κόνιος, κόνεως, dust). Some of these derived verb-stems form presents also by means of -ska- (v. post. "Conjugation"), e.g. $\dot{\eta}\beta\dot{a}$ - $\sigma\kappa\epsilon$ - ι (becomes a man, pubescit) beside $\dot{\eta}\beta\hat{a}$, $\dot{\eta}\beta\dot{a}$ - $\epsilon\iota$ ($\ddot{\eta}\beta\eta$ manhood), where nevertheless we may perhaps assume that $\dot{\eta}\beta\dot{a}\sigma\kappa\omega$ is formed direct from stem $\dot{\eta}\beta a$ - (cf. however Lat.); ἀλδή-σκω (wax) beside ἀλδέω, etc.

Since in Gk., after sounds other than origl. a, -ya- is confined to the pres., the derived verbal-stems apparently formed by means of it will occur hereafter, i.e. where we speak of those verbs whose stem is the noun-stem without any further addition.

Note.—In Gk. stem-verbs often assume the form of derived verbs in certain tense-forms, e.g. $\pi \epsilon \rho \delta \omega$, but $\pi a \rho \delta \dot{\eta} - \sigma o \mu a \iota$, v. post. § 165.

Latin. In Lat., and, so far as we can see, in the other Italic languages, we find three forms caused by the splitting-up of

§ 84. the a of original -a-ya- into a, e, and through its being weakened to i.

1. -aya- is contracted into $-\bar{a}$ -, e.g. $s\bar{e}da$ -t (sets, settles) for $s\bar{e}d\bar{a}$ -t, *sēdayi-t, f.f. sādaya-ti, cf.√sed in sĕd-eo (sit); doma-t (tames)= Gk. δaμâ, Sk. damáya-ti; in 1 sg. -ayō, i.e. -ayāmi, becomes *ao, by elision of y, retained in Umbrian as au in subocau=Lat. *subuocao, *subuoco; this ao was then further contracted to ō, like Gk. -a ω fr. -a ψ (μ) to ω , e.g. $s\bar{e}d\bar{o}$ for * $s\bar{e}da\bar{o}$ -mi, * $s\bar{e}da\psi\bar{o}$ -mi, f.f. sādayā-mi; 2 sg. sēdā-s, f.f. sād-aya-si, etc.; perf. sēdā-ri, part. sēdā-tus. This formation is very common in noun-stems, also in those which end in i no less than those which end in a consonant, e.g. forma-t (shapes) fr. forma (shape); planta-t (plants) fr. planta (plant); fuma-t (smokes) fr. fumu-s (smoke), st. fūmo-; dōna-t (gives), st. dōno- (dōnu-m gift); formations from participles and the like in -to- are particularly common, e.g. canta-t (sings), st. canto- (cantu-s), past part. pass. of can-it (sings); facta-t (makes, intensive), st. facto-, part. of fac-it (makes); quassa-t (shakes, intensive) fr. quasso-, part. of quat-it (shakes), etc. Of this class are the forms in -tita-, -ita-, like factita-t (makes often), cf. facta-t, dictita-t (says often) beside dicta-t, stem dicto- (dīc-it says, \sqrt{dic}); uolita-t (flies, flits) beside uola-t; uocita-t (calls often) beside uoca-t (calls), etc. Further, piscā-tur (fishes) fr. pisci-s (fish); nomina-t (names) fr. nomen nomin-is (name); rēmiga-t (rows), stem rēmig- in rēmex, rēmig-is (rower) [prob. formed fr. stem rēmo- in rēmu-s oar, and ia weakened from ag (ag-ere)]; after the analogy of such forms arose a verbal-termination -igā-, e.g. cast-iga-t, lēu-iga-t, etc., even without a corresponding substantive. A list of verbs in -ā- in Oscan is given by Corssen, Zeitschr. v. 96 sqq.

Note.—In cases like son-ui beside sona-t (sounds) fr. sonu-s (sound), the derivational element is lost, cf. monui in 2.

2. -aya- is contracted to -ē-, e.g. monē-mus fr. *moneyi-mus, f.f. mānayā-masi, 1 pl. pres. caus. verb / man (think), moneo

(remind), i.e. mānayā for mānayā-mi, 1 sg. pres.; 1 sg. pf. monui, § 84. not *monē-ui; past part. pass. moni-tu-s, not *monē-tus (v. post. formation of pf. in Lat.); thus e.g. flāueo (am yellow) fr. flāuo-s (yellow); cāneo (am grey) fr. cānu-s (grey); salueo (am hale) fr. saluo-s (hale); flōreo (bloom) for *flōseo from consonantal stem flōs- (flōs, gen. flor-is for *flōs-is, blossom), etc. Underived verbs have very often assumed this form.

3. -aya- contracted to $-\bar{i}$ -, 1 sg. -io = -iyo, $-ay\bar{a}$ fr. $-ay\bar{a}$ -mi. e.g. sopio (make sleepy)=*sopiyo, f.f. svapaya for svapaya-mi, sopimus = *sopiyi-mus, f.f. svap-aya-masi, 1 sg. pl. pres. caus. verb \(\svap \) (sleep); perf. $s \lambda p \bar{i} - u i$, past part. pass. $s \lambda p \bar{i} - t u - s$; molli-mus (soften)=*molliyi-mus fr. molli-s (soft), therefore the i is origl. here, as in many other cases, e.g. fini-mus (we end), fīni-s (end); lēnī-mus (we smooth), lēni-s (smooth, mild), etc., yet others are by no means wanting where i is not caused by the termination of the underlying noun-stem, e.g. saeui-mus (we rage), saeuo-s (raging); equi-t (wants the stallion), f.f. akvaya-ti, cf. Sk. açvāya-ti; equo-s (horse), origl. akva-s, Sk. áçva-s; pūnī-mus (we punish), poena (penalty), etc. Examples like custōdī-mus (we guard), stem custōd- (custos guardian), may likewise be reduced to stems in i (custodi-), because in Lat. all consonantal stems follow the analogy of i-stems in most In this way, by means of i, verbs were formed from the part. (nom. agentis) ending in origl. -tar, Lat. -tor-, -turu-s, -retaining the archaic short form of origh. -tar (still found underlying secondary formations such as uic-tr-ic-, doc-tr-ina, fr. *uic-tor-ic-, *doc-tor-ina) - e.g. ēsuri-mus (wish to eat), i.e. *ed-tur-i-mus, f.f. ad-tar-ayā-masi, stem ēsor-=*ed-tor-, origl. ad-tar- (ed-o eat; cf. § 77, 1, b), par-tur-i-mus (wish to bear), fr. *par-tor- (par-io bear), etc.

Note.—Lat. has no verbs corresponding to those of Gk. in -ow: G. Curtius indicates their traces in 'Ueber die Spuren einer lateinischen o-Conjugation,' Symbola philologor. Bonnens. in honor. Fr. Ritschelii collecta, fasc. i. Lips. 1864, p. 271 sqq.

§ 84. In Lat. the forms of stem-verbs and derived-verbs are mixed in many ways. Often stem-verbs take the form of derived verbs in the pres.; under this head come many cases such as e.g. uenī-mus beside uēn-i, uen-tum, re-perī-mus beside re-p(e) per-i, re-per-tum. Verbs in eo show on the contrary a regular loss of the derivation-element in all stems except the pres., so that here the stem-verbs which assume -ē- (=-aya-) in pres. only (as e.g. sed-ē-mus beside sēd-i, sessum = *sēd-tum; uid-ē-mus beside uīd-i, uīsum=*uīd-tum, § 77, 1, b) cannot be distinguished from derived verbs which have lost the same element.

These derived verb-stems may form (in order to express inchoation) their pres. also by means of -ska- (v. post. formation of pres.-stem), e.g. in-uetera-sci-t (grows old), stem ueterā-= *uetesā- stem ueter- in uetus, ueter-is (old); flāue-sci-t, cf. flāue-t fr. flāuo-s; ob-dormi-sci-t (grows drowsy), cf. ob-dormī-ui, ob-dormī-tu-m, etc.

§ 85. Noun-stems used as verb-stems without change are found here and there in the languages. These formations are recent.

From this class of stems we must separate those verb-stems (mostly present-stems) which do not presuppose a noun-stem for their formation, though they coincide with one; e.g. tanu-from \sqrt{ta} , tan (stretch); bhara-, \sqrt{bhar} (ferre), etc.; an oright tanu-tai, 3 sg. pres. med., bhara-ti, 3 sg. pres. act., are not formed from a noun tanu-s (tenuis), bhara-s ($\phi o \rho o s$), but both are mere coincidences in their stem-formation. If these verb-stems had been derived from nouns, the characteristic suffix would have remained throughout, whilst in fact it forms only the present (or aorist), but does not exist in the other tense-stems. On the other hand, the formations now in question are closely connected with those treated of in the preceding paragraph, from which sometimes they cannot be clearly separated.

Sanskrit. Rare, e.g. löhitá-ti (is red) fr. löhita-s (red), etc. Greek. Here noun-stems are very often used as verb-stems

likewise, in that the present-stem is formed by means of -ya- § 85. (our class V. of Present-stem-formation), while the noun-stem appears pure in the other tense-stems. To this kind belong the numerous verbs in - $\zeta \omega$ and - $\sigma \sigma \omega$, e.g. $\epsilon \lambda \pi l \zeta \epsilon \iota$ (hopes), i.e. * $\epsilon \lambda \pi \iota \delta$ --ye-τι, stem $\epsilon \lambda \pi l \delta$ - (n. sg. $\epsilon \lambda \pi l \varsigma$ hope, gen. sg. $\epsilon \lambda \pi l \delta$ -oς); $\epsilon \rho l \zeta \epsilon \iota$ (strives), stem ἔριδ- (ἔρις strife; in these cases, however, ζ, like the δ of the corresponding noun-stems, might be simply = y, and thus $*\epsilon \lambda \pi \iota - y e - \tau \iota$, $*\epsilon \rho \iota - y e - \tau \iota$, be assumed as fundamental forms, cf. § 65, 1, c, note; yet ζ between vowels = y is in my opinion still doubtful); πεμπάζει (counts by fives), i.e. *πεμπαδ-γε-τι, stem πεμπάδ- (πεμπάς number 5, collection of five); μαστίζει (lashes), i.e. *μαστυγ-γε-τι, stem μάστυγ- (μάστιξ lash); πομφολύζει (bubbles), i.e. *-λυγ-γε-τι, st. πομφόλυγ- (πομφόλυξ bubble); άρπάζει (seizes), i.e. *άρπαγ-γε-τι, stem ἄρπαγ- (ἄρπαξ grasping), fut. in Hom. ἀρπάξω, i.e. *ἀρπαγ-σω, but subsequently άρπάσω, as though a stem *άρπαδ- underlay it, a confusion between -8- and -y- stems not uncommon, caused by the identity of the present-tense in each; σαλπίζει (trumpets), st. σάλπυγγ- $(\sigma d\lambda \pi \nu \gamma \xi \text{ trumpet})$, the nasal falling away before $\zeta = \gamma y$, just as it does before σ , cf. fut. $\sigma a \lambda \pi b \gamma \xi \omega$, i.e. * $\sigma a \lambda \pi \nu \gamma \gamma - \sigma \omega$, etc. From such cases arose the common terminations -1ζω, -aζω, which afterwards came to be used as independent terminations. like manner was developed the termination $-\sigma\sigma\omega$, which arose in the case of stems in τ , θ , κ , χ , e.g. $\beta \lambda / \tau \tau \omega$ (cut honey), i.e. *μλιτ-yω (§ 68, 1, b. f.), *μελιτ-yω, stem μέλιτ- (μέλι, gen. μέλιτ-ος honev); κορύσσω (fit with a helm), i.e. *κορυθ-γω, stem κόρυθ-(κόρυς, gen. κόρυθ-ος helm); κηρύσσω (proclaim), i.e. *κηρυκ-γω, stem κήρῦκ- (κήρυξ, gen. κήρῦκ-ος herald); ἰμάσσω (I lash), i.e. *ίμαντ-γω, stem ίμάντ- (ίμάς, gen. ίμάντ-ος strap); ἀνάσσω (am king), i.e. *ἀνακτ-yω, with loss of κ in the group κτy, st. ἀνακτ-(ăva£, gen. ăvakt-os lord), etc.

Noun-stems in s are seen in τελείει, τελέει, τελεί (completes), i.e. *τελεσ-ye-τι, stem τέλες- (cf. τε-τέλεσ-μαι pf. pass.) in τέλος, gen. τέλους, i.e. *τελεσ-ος (end); νεικείω, νεικέω (wrangle), i.e.

§ 85. *νεικεσ-γω, stem νεῖκεσ- (νεῖκος ntr. quarrel); εὐτυχεῖ (is happy), i.e. *εὐτυχεσ-γε-τι, stem εὐτυχέσ- (adj. n. sg. masc. fem. εὐτυχής happy), etc.

From origil. -an-stems arise verbs in -auvw, i.e. *-avyw, e.g. $\mu \epsilon \lambda alve\iota$ (blackens), i.e. * $\mu \epsilon \lambda av-ye-\tau\iota$, stem $\mu \epsilon \lambda av-$ (n. sg. masc. $\mu \epsilon \lambda as$, ntr. $\mu \epsilon \lambda av$, gen. $\mu \epsilon \lambda av-os$ black); afterwards this termn. extended also to stems which do not end in -av, e.g. $\lambda \epsilon v \kappa alve\iota$ (whitens), i.e. * $\lambda \epsilon v \kappa av-ye-\tau\iota$, stem $\lambda \epsilon v \kappa o-(\lambda \epsilon v \kappa o-s)$ white), etc.

A similar case occurs in verbs in $-\bar{\nu}\nu\omega$, i.e. *- $\nu\nu\omega$, *- $\nu\nu\omega$; here, however, ν is probably orighter from a present-formation in na (v. post., present-stem); e.g. $\dot{\eta}\delta\dot{\nu}\nu\epsilon\iota$ (sweetens), i.e. * $\dot{\eta}\delta\nu$ - $\nu\nu$ - ν - ι , f.f. $sv\bar{a}du$ - η - ι , stem $\dot{\eta}\delta\dot{\nu}$ - ($\dot{\eta}\delta\dot{\nu}$ - $\dot{\nu}$ sweet), f.f. $sv\bar{a}du$ -; $\dot{\iota}\theta\dot{\nu}\nu\epsilon\iota$ (straightens), stem $\dot{\iota}\theta\dot{\nu}$ -($\dot{\iota}\bar{\iota}\theta\nu$ - $\dot{\nu}$ - $\dot{\nu}$ straight); $\dot{\nu}$ - $\dot{\nu$

From r-stems arise e.g. τεκμαίρομαι (proclaim, infer), i.e. *τεκμαρ-yo-μαι, stem τέκμαρ (aim, mark); μαρτύρομαι (call to witness), i.e. *μαρτυρ-yo-μαι, stem μάρτυρ- (μάρτυς, gen. μάρτυρ-ος witness).

After stem-terminations in vowels y is entirely lost (as in $\phi'\omega$, earlier $\phi\nu'\omega$; $\partial\pi'\omega$, earlier $\partial\pi\nul\omega$, v. post. § 165), e.g. $\mu\epsilon\theta'\nu\epsilon$ (is drunken), i.e. * $\mu\epsilon\theta\nu$ - $y\epsilon$ - $\tau\iota$, f.f. madhu-ya-ti, stem $\mu\epsilon\theta\nu$ (ntr. mead); $\beta a\sigma\iota\lambda\epsilon\dot{\nu}$ - $(y)\epsilon$ - $(\tau)\iota$ (is king), stem $\beta a\sigma\iota\lambda\epsilon\dot{\nu}$ - $(\beta a\sigma\iota\lambda\epsilon\dot{\nu}$ sking); $\beta o\nu\lambda\epsilon\dot{\nu}$ - $\epsilon\iota$ (counsels) from an unused stem * $\beta o\nu\lambda\epsilon\nu$ -(formed like $\phi o\rho\epsilon\dot{\nu}$ -s bearer) and many more.

Frequently the noun-stem loses as a verb-stem the final vowel -o-, e.g. $\mu a \lambda \acute{a} \sigma \sigma \omega$ (soften), i.e. * $\mu a \lambda a \kappa - y \omega$, fut. $\mu a \lambda \acute{a} \not \kappa \omega$ = * $\mu a \lambda a \kappa - \sigma \omega$, stem $\mu a \lambda a \kappa \acute{o} - \varsigma$ soft); $i \acute{v} \not \zeta \omega$ (scream), i.e. * $i v y - v \omega$, fut. $i \acute{v} \not \zeta \omega = i v y - \sigma \omega$, cf. $i v \gamma \acute{v}$ (shriek); $\mu \epsilon \iota \lambda \acute{v} \sigma \omega$ (soothe, exhilarate), i.e. * $\mu \epsilon \iota \lambda \iota \chi - y \omega$, stem $\mu \epsilon \iota \lambda \iota \chi \circ \omega$ (uel $\lambda \iota \chi \circ \omega$); $\kappa a \theta a \imath \iota \omega$ (purify), i.e. * $\kappa a \theta a \rho - v \omega$, stem $\kappa a \theta a \rho \acute{o} - \varepsilon$ ($\kappa a \theta a \rho \acute{o} - \varepsilon$); $\delta a \iota \delta \acute{u} \lambda \lambda \omega$ (work cunningly), i.e.

*δαιδαλ-γω, stem δαίδαλο- (cunningly wrought); ἀγγέλλω (an-§ 85. nounce), i.e. *ἀγγελ-γω, stem ἄγγελο- (masc. messenger); ποικίλλω (adorn) fr. ποικίλο-ς (variegated); καμπύλλω (bend) fr. καμπύλο-ς (bent), etc.

Present-stems of similar derived verbs are also formed by means of the stem-formative suffix origl. -ska- (§ 165, VI.), e.g. μεθύ-σκει (makes drunk), f.f. madhu-ska-ti, stem μέθυ-(mead).

After labials occurs also the sf. origl. -ta- (§ 165, VII.) similarly used, e.g. ἀστράπ-τω (lighten) from ἀστραπή (lightening-flash); χαλέπ-τω (press hard) from χαλεπό-ς (hard), etc., with loss of the vowel stem-termination of the noun, provided these verbs are really derived.

As regards the verbs whose present-stem terminates in origl.

-asnu-, e.g. στορέννῦμι (spread) for *στορεσ-νῦ-μι, f.f. staras-nau-mi, f.f. of stem staras-nu, stem of remaining tenses στορες-, f.f. staras-,—a stem-form which frequently occurs also among nouns (v. post.),—for these verbs, which belong here by rights, v. post. under 'Present-stem-formation'; they appear as stem-verbs, because the noun-forms underlying them do not really exist in the language.

In Latin a few noun-stems are used as verb-stems; the present is formed, as in Gk., by means of -ya- (§ 165, V.); but the formation is confined to u-stems, e.g. statui-t (sets up), i.e. *statu-yi-t, f.f. statu-ya-ti fr. sta-tu-s (subst. standing); metui-t (fears) from metu-s (fear); acui-t (sharpens) from acu-s (needle); tribui-t (assigns) fr. tribu-s (division); minui-t (lessens) from a non-existent *minu-s (small), of which minus (smaller) for *minius, f.f. *manyans, is the comparative.

Verb-stems, formed by reduplication of the root, § 86. and addition of -sa- or -s- in other tenses than the present (called desideratives from their function).

s frequently appears as an element in stem- and word-formation, and must be traced back either to the pronominal \sqrt{sa} , or,

§ 86. as is more probable in the case in question, to verbal \sqrt{as} (esse).

Although these formations occur in Sk. and Zend only, yet they depend, like all reduplicated forms, on a very early method of expression, arising in that period of the language when the invariable roots possessed reduplication alone as a means of increasing their power of expressing relativity; Gk. forms such as γι-γνώ-σκω, μι-μνή-σκω, correspond with the Aryan languages at least in reduplication, and it is the reduplication of the root only that we consider ancient. We doubt therefore whether the method of formation belonging to the Aryan language, so far as we know it, should be assigned to the origl. language. Here perhaps the reduplication alone, without any special suffix, served to express desiderative relation.

Sanskrit (special grammars must be consulted for further details of Sk. desiderative-stem-formation). Before the s of the sf. there is found an auxiliary vowel i after most root-terminations (§ 15, f). The reduplication is completely retained only in cases of the simplest kinds of root, e.g. ár-ir-i-ša-ti, 3 sg. pres. (he wishes to go), √ ar (go; 3 sg. pres. r-nb-ti), cf. ap-ap-loκω (fit), at least the same root is reduplicated; otherwise, as is usual, only the initial consonant of the root or its representative according to sound-laws (v. post. formation of Perfect) remains with root-vowel, which is weakened to i whenever it is origl. a, e.g. $\acute{q}i$ - $\acute{q}\acute{n}\bar{a}$ -sa-ti (wishes to know), fut. $\acute{q}i$ - $\acute{q}\acute{n}\bar{a}$ -s-i- \acute{s} $y\acute{a}$ -ti, aor. comp. á-ģi-ģ'nā-s-i-šat, etc., √ģ'na transposed fr. origl. gan (know); didrk-ša-tē (wishes to see), √ darç, origl. dark, for *di-dark-sa-tai, ki-klp-sa-ti and ki-kalp-i-ša-tē, √kalp (be in order); some verbs lengthen the vowel of the reduplication-syllable (weakened from a), e.g. mi-mā-sa-tē, i.e. *mi-mān-sa-tai (considers, reflects), √ man (think); yú-yut-sa-ti (wishes to fight), √ yudh; ví-vik--ša-ti (wishes to enter), \sqrt{vic} , origl. vik; ki-kšip-sa-ti (wishes to throw), $\sqrt{k\check{s}ip}$ (throw), etc.

- 2. Noun-stems which are most closely connected with verb-stems § 87. (participles and infinitives) and also certain other noun-stems.
- I. The root without suffix is also a noun-stem.

 This formation occurs in Aryograecoïtalic only; it is foreign to Sclavoteutonic.

Indo-European original-language. To the Indo-Eur. origl. lang. have most likely to be ascribed such root-forms as e.g. bhar (bear), vid (see), yudh (fight), etc., in the functions of nomina actionis and nomina agentis. As verb-stems they occur in the simple aorist (§ 164), e.g. da-; in pres. (§ 165), e.g. as- (I. a), ai- and i- (II. a). Reduplicated root without sff. is either perfect-stem (§ 163), e.g. vi-vid-, da-da-; or pres.-stem as dha-dha-, da-da- (III.), or aorist-stem (§ 164).

Sanskrit. The root appears not unfrequently as a nomen actionis and nomen agentis, e.g. in infinitives, as dr_{ζ} - (dat. dr_{ζ} - \dot{e} to see), sad- (dat. \bar{a} - $s\acute{a}d$ - \bar{e} to seat oneself), kram- (dat. ati- $kr\acute{a}m$ - \bar{e} transgress); ya- (dat. \bar{a} - $y\acute{a}i$ fr.* \dot{a} -ya-ai come); rabh- (acc. $r\acute{a}bh$ -am desire, do); idh- (acc. sam-idh-am kindle), etc. Similar roots, acting as verb-stems likewise, are also used in ordinary Sk. as nomina actionis, e.g. yudh- (fem. battle), sam- $p\acute{a}d$ - (fem. happiness; sam- with, pad go); roots with a also raise it to \ddot{a} , e.g. $v\ddot{a}k$ (speech), \sqrt{vak} (speak). At the end of compounds such stems as coincide in form with roots and primary verb-stems are often found used as nomina agentis, e.g. dharma-vid- (knowing one's duty), etc. Roots in a lose it before most cases, or raise it to \ddot{a} , e.g. vicva-p- (loc. vicva-p-i) and vicva- $p\ddot{a}$ - (e.g. instr. pl. vicva- $p\ddot{a}$ -bhis), f.f. of stem vicva-pa- (all-protecting), \sqrt{pa} (protect).

The pure root-forms appear more rarely in this function without composition, e.g. dr_{ζ} - (eye, i.e. seeing), $\sqrt{dr_{\zeta}}$ (see); vi_{ζ} - (masc. cultivator, husbandman, man), $\sqrt{vi_{\zeta}}$ (enter, settle, cf. $v\bar{e}_{\zeta}$ -a- masc., $v\bar{e}_{\zeta}$ -man- ntr. house); div-, dyu- (m. f. heaven) with different scale-steps, e.g. div-i, dyav-i loc. sg., dyau-s n. sg., \sqrt{div} (shine);

§ 87. mah- (great), \sqrt{mah} (māh wax). Reduplicated roots without sf. are seen in Vēd. infinitive-stems such as *cicrath*- (dat. *cicrath*-ē), cf. reduplicated pres.-stem *cicrath*-, \sqrt{crath} (loosen).

In the stems vak- \tilde{s} - (dat. vak- \tilde{s} - \tilde{e}), \sqrt{vah} (uehere); $\tilde{g}\tilde{e}$ -s-(dat. $\tilde{g}\tilde{e}$ - \tilde{s} - \tilde{e}) and $\tilde{g}\tilde{i}$ -s- (dat. $\tilde{g}\tilde{i}$ - \tilde{s} -e), $\sqrt{g}\tilde{i}$ (conquer); stu-s- (dat. stu- \tilde{s} - \tilde{e}), \sqrt{stu} (praise) aorist-stems in s have been rightly detected (Benfey, kurze Sanskritgrammatik, p. 236, § 402, 2)—partly, indeed, non-existent in these forms, but yet possible; cf. e.g. \tilde{a} -stu-s-ma 1 pl. act. etc. The s is a relic of \sqrt{as} (be, v. post. § 169) added to the root. We adduce here certain other similar infinitive-stems formed from tense-stems, belonging to the more archaic (V \tilde{e} dic) language, although they partly retain suffixes or their remains; thus vyath \tilde{i} \tilde{s} ya- (dat. vyath \tilde{i} \tilde{s} ya) like fut. stem vyath \tilde{i} \tilde{s} ya-, \sqrt{vy} ath (be vexed, afraid); here -ya- is a suffix (v. post. § 170, Future Tense); mu \tilde{n} \tilde{k} - (acc. mu \tilde{n} \tilde{k} -am), whose n comes from pres. stem mu \tilde{n} \tilde{k} a- (e.g. 3 sg. mu \tilde{n} \tilde{k} a-ti), \sqrt{mu} \tilde{k} (loose, free).

Greek. The root appears as a noun in cases like $Fo\pi$ - (n. sg. $\delta\psi$ voice) = origl. vak-, Sk. and Zend vak-, $\sqrt{Fe\pi}$, origl. vak (speak); $\phi\lambda o\gamma$ - (n. sg. $\phi\lambda \delta\xi$ flame), $\sqrt{\phi\lambda e\gamma}$ ($\phi\lambda \dot{e}\gamma e\nu$ blaze); $Ze\nu$ -=* $\Delta\gamma e\nu$ -, $\Delta\iota F$ - (pr. n. of a god, origl. heaven; n. $Ze\dot{\nu}$ -s, gen. $\Delta\iota F$ - δs), root origl. div, dyu (shine), cf. Sk. dyau-, div-, etc. This happens more often at the end of compounds, as $\chi\dot{e}\rho$ - $\nu\iota\beta$ - (n. sg. $\chi\dot{e}\rho\nu\iota\psi$ water for handwashing), $\sqrt{\nu\iota\beta}$, origl. nig ($\nu\iota\zeta\omega$, $\nu\iota\pi\tau\omega$ wash); $\pi\rho\dot{o}\sigma$ - $\phi\nu\gamma$ - (n. sg. $\pi\rho\dot{o}\sigma$ - $\phi\nu\xi$ fugitive), $\sqrt{\phi\nu\gamma}$ ($\phi\dot{e}\dot{\nu}\gamma\omega$ flee); $\psi\dot{e}\nu\sigma\iota$ - $\sigma\tau\nu\gamma$ - (n. $\psi\dot{e}\nu\sigma\iota$ - $\sigma\tau\nu\xi$ lie-hating), $\sqrt{\sigma\tau\nu\gamma}$ -($\sigma\tau\nu\gamma$ - $\dot{e}\omega$, \ddot{e} - $\sigma\tau\nu\gamma$ - $o\nu$ hate); $\delta\iota$ - $\zeta\nu\gamma$ - ($\delta\iota$ - $\zeta\nu\xi$ double-yoked), $\sqrt{\zeta\nu\gamma}$ ($\zeta\dot{e}\dot{\nu}\gamma$ - $\nu\nu\mu\iota$ I yoke, $\zeta\nu\gamma$ - $\dot{o}\nu$ yoke); $\dot{a}\pi\sigma$ - $\dot{\rho}\dot{\rho}\dot{\omega}\gamma$ - (n. sg. $\dot{a}\pi\sigma$ - $\dot{\rho}\dot{\rho}\dot{\omega}\xi$ for * $\dot{a}\pi\sigma$ - $\dot{\rho}\rho\omega\gamma$ -s fragment), $\sqrt{F\rho\alpha\gamma}$ (break; cf. $\dot{\rho}\dot{\gamma}\gamma$ - $\nu\nu\mu\iota$, \ddot{e} - $\dot{\rho}\dot{\rho}\omega\gamma$ - α), etc.

Further, we might here adduce the infinitives of the compound aorist, as e.g. $\lambda \hat{v}\sigma a\iota$, $\lambda \hat{\epsilon}\xi a\iota$, which should probably be taken as locatives of stems $\lambda \hat{v}\sigma a$ -, $\lambda \hat{\epsilon}\xi a$ -, i.e.* $\lambda \epsilon \gamma$ - σa - (cf. $\chi a\mu al$, stem $\chi a\mu a$ -, and infin. in $-\mu \hat{\epsilon}\nu a\iota$, § 91, and in $-\hat{\epsilon}\nu a\iota$, § 93, a), scarcely as datives

of stems $\lambda \nu - \sigma$, $\lambda \epsilon \xi$, i.e. * $\lambda \epsilon \gamma$ - ς - (cf. Sk.); in any case however § 87. they contain the stem of the aorist compounded with oright \sqrt{as} (be), (e.g. $\tilde{\epsilon}\lambda \nu - \sigma a$, $\tilde{\epsilon}$ - $\lambda \epsilon \xi a$, i.e. * $\tilde{\epsilon}$ - $\lambda \epsilon \gamma - \sigma a$) as the stem of a nomen action which is unused except in this particular case.

Latin. Stems like nec: $(nex \, \text{murder})$, \sqrt{nec} ; duc- $(dux \, \text{leader})$, \sqrt{duc} ; with step-formation $l\bar{e}g$ - $(lex \, \text{law})$, \sqrt{leg} ; $p\bar{a}c$ - $(pax \, \text{peace})$, \sqrt{pac} ; $l\bar{u}c$ -, old Lat. louc- $(lux \, \text{light})$, \sqrt{luc} , origh. ruk; $u\bar{o}c$ - $(uox \, \text{voice})$, \sqrt{uoc} ; $r\bar{e}g$ - $(rex \, \text{king})$, \sqrt{reg} . Further, stems used at the end of compounds, e.g. iu-dic- (iudex judge), \sqrt{dic} ; con-iug- $(coniux \, \text{mate})$, \sqrt{iug} ; prae-sid- $(praeses \, president)$, \sqrt{sed} (sed-eo); tubi-cin $(tubicen \, trumpeter)$, \sqrt{can} (can-o); arti-fic- $(artifex \, \text{skilled workman})$, \sqrt{fac} [on weakening of a to i v. § 32, 2; on e interchanged with i v. § 38], and others show the root as a noun-stem.

II. Stems with suffix -a-.

§ 88.

This is one of the commonest formations; before the sf. -a-the root is sometimes raised, sometimes unraised.

Indo-European original-language. Already plenty of stems in -a- were existent, as yug-a-, cf. Sk. yug-a-, Gothic yuk, etc., \sqrt{yug} ; vid-a-, cf. Lat. vid-o-, e.g. pro-uidu-s; bhag-a-(god), cf. Sk. bhaga-, Zend bagha-, Pers. baga-, O. Bulg. bogü, \sqrt{bhag} ; bhar-a-, cf. Lat. fer-o-, e.g. ensi-feru-m; vark-a- (wolf), \sqrt{vark} ; daiv-a- (shining, god), \sqrt{div} (shine), etc.

Amongst verb-stems here belong all conjunctive-stems (§ 161), e.g. as-a-, pres. stem and \sqrt{as} ; moreover simple acrist-stems (§ 164), as bhug-a-, \sqrt{bhug} ; vavak-a-, \sqrt{vak} ; so too pres.-stems (§ 165) like bhar-a-, \sqrt{bhar} (I. b); srav-a-, \sqrt{sru} (II. b); thus here also, as in the case of noun-stems, partly with, partly without, raising of root-vowel.

Sanskrit. Stems in -a-, identical with verb-stems, are frequently used as nouns, e.g. nomina actionis like bháv-a- (masc. being, origin; cf. 3 sg. pres. bháva-ti), \sqrt{bhu} (become, be); bhár-a- (masc. burden; 3 sg. pres. bhára-ti), \sqrt{bhar} (ferre); $\acute{g}\acute{a}y-a$ - (masc. victory; pres. $\acute{g}\acute{a}y-ti$), $\sqrt{\acute{g}i}$ (conquer); $b\acute{b}dh-a$ -

§ 88. (masc. knowledge; pres. bódha-ti), \(\sqrt{budh} \) (know); \(bh\delta g-a- \) (masc. use, enjoyment; a pres. *\(bh\delta ga-ti \) or *\(bh\delta ga-ti \) does not occur), \(\sqrt{bhu}\delta \) (enjoy); \(bh\delta d-a- \) (masc. splitting), \(\sqrt{bhid} \) (split), etc. The datives of these nomina actionis serve for infinitives, e.g. \(bhar\delta ya, \) etc.; the accusatives, mostly repeated, for gerunds, e.g. \(gam\delta gamam \) (ever going), fr. \(gam-a-, \sqrt{gam} \) (go); so \(b\delta dh-a-m, \sqrt{budh} \) (know); \(bh\delta d-a-m, \sqrt{bhid} \) (split); \(st\delta v-a-m, \sqrt{stu} \) (praise); \(k\delta r-a-m, \sqrt{kar} \) (make, e.g. \(sv\delta d\delta -k\delta ram \) \(bhunkt\delta \) (having sweetened he eats'), etc.

Nomina agentis of similar form are found in e.g. plav-á-(masc. boat; pres. pláva-tē), \sqrt{plu} (float); kar-á- (adj. going; pres. $k\acute{a}ra$ -ti), \sqrt{kar} (go); vah-á- (adj. carrying; pres. $v\acute{a}ha$ -ti), \sqrt{vah} (uehere); $d\~ev$ -á- (shining, god), \sqrt{div} , dyu (shine); $g\~ev$ -á-(living; pres. $g\acute{t}va$ -ti), $\sqrt{g}\~ev$ (live), etc. This kind of stemform is preserved most frequently at the end of compounds or words syntactically combined, as arin-damá- (ari-m acc. sg.; foe-subduing), \sqrt{dam} , etc.

In composition with su- $(\epsilon \dot{v}$ -) and dus- $(\delta v\sigma$ -) adjectives of this kind act like participia necessitatis, e.g. su- $k\acute{a}r$ -a- (easy to be made), $du\check{s}$ - $k\acute{a}r$ -a- (difficult to be made), \sqrt{kar} (make), etc.

Feminines of the same kind are e.g. bhid- \acute{a} (splitting), \checkmark bhid (split; 3 sg. simple aor. \acute{a} -bhida-t); k š u d h- \acute{a} (hunger); m u d- \acute{a} (joy), $\checkmark m u d$ (enjoy oneself); $m r g a y \bar{a}$ (hunt), verb-stem m r g a y a-, 3 sg. pres. m r g a y a- $t \bar{e}$ (track, seek), etc.

Such noun-stems in -a- serve for periphrasis of the perfect, and in Vēd. also of the acrist, in many verbs, especially all derived verbs, by being placed, in the acc. sg. fem., before the perfect, in Vēd. also before the acrist of an auxiliary verb (kar make; bhu become, be; as be), e.g. st. bubādhiša-, 3 sg. pf. babādhišā kakāra or babhūva or āsa, cf. 3 sg. pres. būbādhiša-ti, intensive \sqrt{budh} (know); st. bādhaya- (e.g. bādhayā kakāra, 3 sg. perf.), 3 sg. pres. bādhaya-ti, caus. \sqrt{budh}; st. vida- (3 sg. perf. vidā kakāra, Vēdic acr. vidām akar), \sqrt{vid} (see, know), etc.

Greek. Here also nouns in -a- are common, as Fέργ-o- (neut. § 88. work), \sqrt{F} εργ (ἐργ-άζο-μαι I work); φορ-ό- (adj. bearing), φόρ-ο- (tribute), φορ-ά (fem. payment; quick motion), $\sqrt{\phi}$ ερ (ferre); τόμ-ο- (masc. cutting, piece), τομ-ή (cutting, stump), $\sqrt{\tau}$ εμ (τέμ-νω, ἔ-τεμ-ον cut); ζυγ-ό- (neut. yoke), $\sqrt{\zeta}$ υγ (bind together); φυγ-ή (fem. flight), $\sqrt{\phi}$ υγ (φεύγ-ω, ἔ-φυγ-ο-ν flee); πλόF-ο- (masc. voyage), $\sqrt{\pi}$ λυ (πλέF-ω sail); ρόF-ή (stream), $\sqrt{\rho}$ υ, origl. sru (ρέF-ω, origl. srav-āmi flow); σπουδ-ή (haste), $\sqrt{\sigma}$ πυδ (σπεύδω hasten); λοιπ-ό- (adj. remaining), $\sqrt{\lambda}$ ιπ (λείπ-ω, ἔ-λιπ-ον leave); ἀκ-ωκ-ή (point) reduplicated $\sqrt{\alpha}$ κ (be sharp), etc. These forms are mostly not distinguished from the pres.-stems φερε-, λειπε-, πλεFε-, except by the stronger step-formation of the root-vowel (perhaps in an unoriginal manner, cf. e.g. Sk. bhara- plava-, etc.).

In compounds also these nouns with suffix origl. -a-, are used, as in Sanskrit, e.g. $i\pi\pi\delta$ - $\delta a\mu$ -o- (masc. horse-taming); even the peculiar relation of these noun-stems after $\delta v\sigma$ - and $\epsilon \dot{v}$ - is not wanting, e.g. $\delta \dot{v}\sigma$ - $\phi o\rho$ -o- (hard to bear)=Sk. dur-bhar-a- (cf. supr.).

Concerning the infinitives of the aorist, as e.g. $\lambda \hat{v}\sigma a\iota$, $\lambda \hat{\epsilon}\xi a\iota$, which must be taken as locatives from stems like $\lambda \hat{v}\sigma a$ - and $\lambda \hat{\epsilon}\xi a-=*\lambda \epsilon \gamma -\sigma a$, v. supr. § 87.

Latin. Suffix -a- is found in uad-o- (ntr. uadum ford), \sqrt{uad} (go); fid-o- (fidus faithful), \sqrt{fid} ; iug-o- (iugum yoke) \sqrt{iug} ; son-o- (sonus sound), \sqrt{son} ; coqu-o- (coquos cook), \sqrt{coqu} ; merg-o- (mergus gull), \sqrt{merg} ; $u\bar{u}u$ -o- (adj. living), \sqrt{uiu} (live; 3 pres. $u\bar{v}u\bar{i}$ -t); $d\bar{v}u$ -o- (godlike), deo- (god) fr. * $d\bar{e}u$ -o-, *deiu-o-, origl. \sqrt{div} (shine); $r\bar{u}f$ -o- (red), \sqrt{rub} , ruf, origl. rudh (be red), etc.

A great many nouns of this sort occur at the end of compounds, as causi-dic-o- (causidicus), \sqrt{dic} ; miri-fic-o- (mirificus), \sqrt{fac} ; male-uol-o (maleuolus), \sqrt{uol} ; ensi-fer-o- (ensifer), \sqrt{fer} ; armi-ger-o- (armiger), \sqrt{ger} , ges, etc.

Not unfrequently stems of this kind appear with lengthened

§ 88. stem-terminations, although expressing masculine relations, as collēg-a beside sacri-lēg-o- (sacrilegus), \sqrt{leg} ; trans-fug-a beside pro-fug-o (profugus), \sqrt{fug} ; parri-cīd-a, \sqrt{caed} ; ad-uen-a, \sqrt{uen} ; indi-gen-a-, \sqrt{gen} ; agri-col-a, \sqrt{col} , etc. In Gk. a perfectly corresponding formation is e.g. εὐρύ-οπ-a. Feminines of this sort are mol-a (mill), \sqrt{mol} (molere grind); tog-a (upper garment), \sqrt{teg} (tegere cover), etc.

As a secondary suffix -a- occurs, mostly accompanied by step-formation of the stem-vowel, e.g. Sanskrit stem āyasā-(adj. iron), stem áyas- (iron); çaivā- (masc. Çiva-worshipper), stem çiva, (nom. propr. of the god); the secondary suffix -a-becomes amalgamated with final a when the underlying stem ends in a, so that practically no fresh suffix is here added; dāuhitrā- (masc. daughter's-son), stem duhitār- (daughter); mānavā- (masc. man), stem manū- (masc. prop. noun of the primeval man), etc.

Greek. e.g. in ἡγεμόνη (leader fem.), stem ἡγεμόν- (masc. ἡγεμών leader); ὅ-πατρο- (having same father), stem πατέρ-; here, as often, shortened to πατρ- before suffix -o-; ἀστ-ό- (masc. citizen, burgher), ἄσ-τυ (city), which has lost its termination before suffix -a-, etc.

Latin. Here belong cases like decoro- (decoru-s graceful, decent, adj.) fr. decus, gen. decor-is (ornament, dignity); honoro- (honourable) fr. honos, gen. honor-is (honour), and their like.

888a. III. Stems with suffix -i-.

Suffix -i- is on the whole rare. In Indo-Eur. ak-i- (eye) is capable of proof, \sqrt{ak} (be sharp, see; cf. Joh. Schmidt, d. wurzel AK, Weimar, 1865, p. 38); agh-i- (snake; cf. Sk. áh-i, Zend, až-i-, Gk. ĕχ-i-, Lat. angu-i-, Lith. ang-i-), \sqrt{agh} .

Sanskrit. Nomina actionis and agentis, without, and more rarely with step-formation, also with weakening of root-vowel, e.g. $k\acute{r}\acute{s}$ -i- (fem. ploughing), $\sqrt{kar\acute{s}}$ (plough); $s\acute{a}\acute{k}$ -i- (fem. friendship), $\sqrt{sa\acute{k}}$ (follow); lip-i- (fem. writing), \sqrt{lip} (smear); $y\acute{a}\acute{g}$ -i- (masc. sacrificer), $\sqrt{ya\acute{g}}$ (sacrifice); khid-i- (fem. axe), \sqrt{khid}

(split); $g\acute{u}k-i$ (adj. pure), $\sqrt{g}uk$ (shine); $b\acute{o}dh-i$ - (adj. wise), §88 a. $\sqrt{b}udh$ (know); gir-i (masc. mountain), $\sqrt{g}ar$ (be heavy), etc.; with reduplicated root, e.g. $g\acute{a}-gm-i$ - (going, hastening), $\sqrt{g}am$ (go); $g\acute{a}-ghn-i$ - (striking, slaying), $\sqrt{h}an$, i.e. ghan (slay); $s\ddot{a}-sah-i$ - (bearing), $\sqrt{s}ah$ (bear), etc.

Greek. e.g. *ὀκ-ι- (ntr. eye); retained in dual ὅσσε=*ὀκγε,
*ὀκιε), √ origl. ak (be sharp, see); πόλ-ι- (fem. city), origl. √par
(fill, be full); τρόχ-ι- (masc. runner), √τρεχ (τρέχ-ω I run), etc.

Latin. scob-i (scobis, scobs, fem. sawdust, shavings), √scab
(scabo scrape); trud-i- (trudis fem. punting-pole), √trud (trūdo push); ou-i- (ouis fem. sheep, cf. ὄF-ι-ς, Sk. ἀν-i-s, Lith. aν-i-s)
fr. a √u, av (perhaps in sense of 'clothe,' in which it appears in Lat. and Sclavonic), etc.

IV. Stems with suffix -u-.

§88b.

This suffix, though not very common, is yet on the whole commoner than -i-; in some languages it is much used, in others but little.

Indo-Eur. origl.-lang. āk-u- (adj. swift), \sqrt{ak} (be sharp, swift); prat-u- (adj. broad), \sqrt{prat} ; par-u- (adj. full), \sqrt{par} (fill); svād-u- (sweet), \sqrt{svad} ; ragh-u- (light), \sqrt{ragh} ; pak-u- (cattle), \sqrt{pah} (perhaps 'bind').

Sanskrit. The suffix -u- occurs very often, mostly in formation of adjectives, e.g. $\bar{a}\varsigma$ - \dot{u} - (swift), $\sqrt{a}\varsigma$ (reach), origh. ak; prath- \dot{u} - usually prth- \dot{u} - (broad), \sqrt{prath} (extend oneself, spread); pur- \dot{u} (much) for *par-u-, \sqrt{par} (fill; 1 sg. pres. pi-par-mi); $sv\bar{a}d$ - \dot{u} - (sweet), \sqrt{svad} (taste, smack); mrd- \dot{u} - (soft), \sqrt{mard} (crush), etc. Similar adjectives from stems of desiderative verbs are especially common (§ 83), e.g. $didrk\check{s}$ -u- (wishing to see), cf. $didrk\check{s}a$ - $t\bar{e}$ (wishes to see), $\sqrt{dar}\varsigma$ (see), origh. dark; dits- \dot{u} - (wishing to give), cf. ditsa-ti for *di-da-sa-ti (wishes to give), \sqrt{da} , etc. Substantives: e.g. $b\acute{a}ndh$ -u- (masc. relative), $\sqrt{b}andh$ (bind); bhid- \dot{u} - (masc. thunderbolt), $\sqrt{b}hid$ (split); tan- \dot{u} - (fem. body), $\sqrt{t}an$ (stretch), etc.

Greek. $\dot{\omega}\kappa$ - $\dot{\nu}$ - (swift) = Sk. $\dot{a}\zeta$ - \dot{u} -, origh. \sqrt{ak} ; $\pi\lambda a\tau$ - $\dot{\nu}$ -

§88 b. (broad)=Sk. prth- \dot{u} -, origl. \sqrt{prat} ; $\pi o \lambda$ - \dot{v} - (much)=Sk. pur- \dot{u} -, origl. par-u-, \sqrt{par} ; $\dot{\eta} \delta$ - \dot{v} -=Sk. $sv\bar{a}d$ - \dot{u} -, \sqrt{svad} ; $\beta a \rho$ - \dot{v} - (heavy) =Sk. gur- \dot{u} - for *gar-u-, origl. \sqrt{gar} (be heavy); $v\acute{\epsilon}\kappa$ -v- (masc. corpse) = Zend $na\varsigma$ -u-, origl. \sqrt{nak} (die); $\theta \rho a \sigma$ - \dot{v} - (daring), $\sqrt{\theta a \rho \sigma}$, $\theta \rho a \varsigma$ (be bold; ef. $\theta \dot{a} \rho \sigma$ - $\sigma \varsigma$ boldness), etc.

Latin. These stems have generally been completely shifted to the analogy of the *i*-declension, by an *i* having simply been added to the originally final u- e.g. tenu-i- (tenuis thin) from *ten-u-, f.f. tan-u-, origl. \sqrt{tan} (stretch); breu-i- (short) for *bregu-i- (§ 73, 1) from *breg-u-, cf. Gk. $\beta \rho a \chi$ - $\dot{\nu}$ -, root not otherwise traced; leu-i (light) for *legu-i- from *leg-u-=Gk. $\dot{\epsilon}$ - $\lambda a \chi$ - $\dot{\nu}$ -, Sk. lagh- \dot{u} -, origl. \sqrt{ragh} (cf. Sk. \sqrt{langh} spring, despise; rah haste), grau-i- (heavy) prob. for *garu-i- from *garu-u-, Gk. $\beta a \rho$ - $\dot{\nu}$ -, Sk. gur- \dot{u} -, origl. gar-u-; sudu-i- (sweet) for *suadu-i-, from *suād-u-, cf. Gk. $\dot{\eta}$ 8- $\dot{\nu}$ -, Sk. and origl. svād- \dot{u} -. The u-form has been retained in ac-u- (acus fem. needle), origl. \sqrt{ak} (be sharp); id-u- (fem. the 13th or 15th day of the month), probably from origl. \sqrt{idh} (burn, in sense of 'be bright,' thus lit. 'full-moon') and other stems of somewhat obscure derivation.

§ 89. V. Stems with suffix -ya-.

This suffix is very common; it occurs in all Indo-European languages. In Sanskrit by means of it the participium necessitatis is formed.

Like most stem-formative suffixes of Indo-European, the common primary and secondary relative suffix -ya- appears in several functions (cf. pronominal-root ya with demonstr. and relative function, e.g. in nom. sg. masc. Sk. ya-s qui, Lith. ji-s ille, is). Indeed the stem-formative elements of the more simply organized languages are applied in more ways than one; as also are the auxiliary roots which are loosely added to the end of the meaning-sounds (simple roots) of monosyllabic languages. The suffix -ya- has, of course, belonged, even in early times, to the Indo-European.

In Sk. this suffix forms regularly a participle of necessity; § 89. a function of which traces only are found in the other languages. It is a frequent phenomenon to find a certain suffix developing itself in a particular language, so as to become a regular kind of formation, with a peculiar function, whilst in the kindred languages it is otherwise employed; thus e.g. -ya-as the formation of the passive in Sk.; the nasalized present-stems in Sclavonian, Lith., and Gothic as intransitives and passives; -la-, origl. -ra-, as past part. act. in Sclav., etc.

1. -ya- as a primary suffix.

Indo-European original language.

It is hard to find examples which can with certainty be traced to the origl. lang. A perfectly trustworthy example of this suffix -ya- would be seen in madh-ya-, if it were certain that madh is the root of Sk. mádh-ya-=Gk. μ é σ o-, for * μ e θ -yo-, Lat. med-io-, Goth. mid-ja-. If we may venture to draw an inference for the origl. lang. from the correspondence of Greek and Sanskrit, we may ascribe to it yag-ya- also (to be revered, holy), \sqrt{yag} (revere).

This sf. is common in verb-stems, as e.g. in stems of derived verbs (§ 84) ending in -a-ya-, e.g. bhāra-ya-, \sqrt{bhar} ; here belong all optative-stems in -ya- (mostly raised a step to -yā-), e.g. stem as-yā- (§ 162), root and pres.-stem as; moreover many present-stems (§ 165 V.), as e.g. svid-ya-, \sqrt{svid} .

Sanskrit. The function of this sf. -ya- as a primary sf. is by no means exclusively that of a part. necessitatis, cf. e.g. vid-yá (fem. knowledge), \sqrt{vid} (know); $v\bar{a}k$ -yà- (ntr. speech), \sqrt{vak} ; etc. As a rule 1st step-formation of root-vowel occurs before this sf. when it forms a part. necessitatis, e.g. $k\dot{e}$ -ya-, $\sqrt{k}i$ (gather); $y\bar{o}g$ -yà and $y\bar{o}g$ -yà, $\sqrt{yu}g$ (iungere); $p\bar{a}k$ -yà- and $p\bar{a}k$ -yà-, \sqrt{pak} (cook); $h\bar{a}r$ -yà-, \sqrt{har} (take); garg-yà-, \sqrt{garg} (roar), etc.; but $v\dot{r}dh$ -ya-, \sqrt{vardh} (wax); $g\dot{u}h$ -ya- and $g\dot{o}h$ -ya-, \sqrt{guh} (hide), etc. Instead of the regular contraction to \bar{e} , \bar{o} , there occurs, in many roots in -i, and in all roots in -u, an unusual

§ 89. loosening of ai, au, into ay, av; e.g. ½áy-ya-, √ji (conquer); kšáy-ya-, kši (destroy) and stáv-ya-, stáv-ya- (2nd step), √stu (praise). For details of this formation see special Sk. gramm.

Stems of derived-verbs in -aya- only show the root-vowel raised before sf. -ya-, while the sf. of the verb-stem disappears, e.g. kōr-ya- fr. verb-stem kōraya- (steal), etc.

Greek possesses no regular participle in -ya-; -ya- as a primary suffix, not uncommonly in the same function as in Sk., nevertheless occurs in cases like $\delta\gamma$ - ι o- (holy), f.f. yag-ya-, cf. Sk. $y\bar{a}g$ -ya- (uenerandus), \sqrt{yag} (worship); $\sigma\tau\dot{\nu}\gamma$ - ι o- (detestable), $\sqrt{\sigma\tau\nu\gamma}$ ($\tilde{\epsilon}$ - $\sigma\tau\nu\gamma$ - ι o ν I detested); $\pi\dot{\alpha}\gamma$ - ι o- (firm), $\sqrt{\pi\alpha\gamma}$ ($\pi\dot{\gamma}\gamma$ - $\nu\nu\mu\iota$ fasten; $\pi\dot{\alpha}\gamma$ - ι os, masc. thing fixed, hill, frost); $\dot{\epsilon}\rho\epsilon\dot{\nu}\pi$ - ι o- (ntr. ruins), $\sqrt{\dot{\epsilon}\rho\iota}\pi$ (in $\dot{\epsilon}\rho\epsilon\dot{\nu}\pi$ - ω , $\dot{\epsilon}\rho$ - $\dot{\epsilon}\rho\iota\pi$ - τ o destroy); $\gamma\lambda\dot{\omega}\sigma\sigma a$ (tongue) for * $\gamma\lambda\omega\chi$ - $\gamma\alpha$ - (§ 68, 1, e, β), cf. $\gamma\lambda\omega\chi$ - ι ν , gen. $\gamma\lambda\omega\chi$ - ι ν os (point), $\mu\dot{\nu}$ 0 α 0 = * $\mu\dot{\nu}$ 0 α 0 (§ 26, 3; part, share), ν 0 α 0, cf. ν 0 α 0 (part); ν 0 α 0 (voice), i.e. * ν 0 α 0 (§ 68, e) origh. ν 0 α 0, etc.

Latin likewise has no regular participle in -ya-. The suffix appears often primarily, e.g. in ad-ag-io- (adagium proverb), \(\sqrt{ag} \) (say, cf. \(dio \) for *ag-io; \(\frac{9}{39} \); \(ex-im-io- \) (eximius excelling), \(\sqrt{em}, im \) (ex-im-o pick out); \(gen-io- \) (genius), \(in-gen-io- \) (ingenium), \(pro-gen-ie- \) (progenies offspring), \(\sqrt{gen} \) (gen-us, \(gi-g(e) no- \); \(in-ed-ia \) (fasting), \(\sqrt{ed} \) (ed-o); \(per-nic-ie- \) (destruction), \(\sqrt{nec} \) (nec-are, \(noc-ere \)); \(fluu-io- \) (river), \(\sqrt{flu} \) (flu-o); \(con-iug-io- \) (coniugium wedlock), \(\sqrt{iug} \) (iung-o, iug-um); \(ob-sequ-io- \) (obsequium obedience), \(\sqrt{sec}, \sequ \) (sequ-or); \(od-io- \) (odium hatred), \(\sqrt{od} \) (\(\frac{od-i}{o} \); \(sacri-fic-io- \) (sacrificium sacrifice), \(\sqrt{fac}; \) ob-sid-io- (obsidium siege); \(in-sid-ia \) (insidiae ambush), \(\sqrt{sed} \) (sed-eo), etc. These formations are sometimes hard to distinguish from secondary ones, e.g. \(con-iug-io-, \) which has to be traced back to the noun \(con-iug- \) (n. \(sg. \) con-iux \(spouse), \(rather \) than to \(\sqrt{iug}. \)

The suffix -iō-ni-, -iō-n- is probably a further formation made by means of sf. -ni-, e.g. leg-iōn-, leg-iōni-, fr. \sqrt{leg} (legere); reg-iōn-, reg-iōni- (direction, region), \sqrt{reg} (reg-ere make straight); ob-sid-iōn-, ob-sid-iōni-, beside the above-mentioned ob-sid-io-; con-tag-iōni-, -iōn-, beside con-tag-io- (touching), § 89. √tag (tangere touch), etc. Cf. suffix -tiōn-, -tiōni- under -ti- (§ 98).

2. -ya- as a secondary suffix.

-ya- is frequently used as a secondary suffix in every Indo-European language, and hence must have existed as early as the date of the original-language.

Sanskrit. E.g. div-ya- (adj. heavenly), st. div- (heaven); cún-ya- (canine), st. cun- (dog); pitr-ya- (fatherly), st. pitár- (father); rahas-ya- (secret), st. ráhas- (ntr. secrecy). Stems in -a lose their final a before -ya-, e.g. dhán-ya- (rich), st. dhána- (ntr. riches), etc. By means of step-formation of the underlying stem are formed stems like rtav-ya- (adj. seasonable) from rtù- (season); mādhur-ya- (ntr. sweetness), st. madhurá- (sweet); kāur-ya- (ntr. theft) st. kōrá- (masc. thief), etc.

This sf. is added to a nomen actionis in -tu- (v. post.); this -tu- is thereupon mostly raised to -tav-, but more rarely remains unraised. Thus by the raising of -tu- arises the compound suffix -tav-ya- so commonly used; with unraised -tu- arises the form -tvya-, which occurs in the more archaic period; from this latter there arises, by evaporation of the v from the group tvy, the sf. -tya- used in certain cases in the ordinary lang.; by loss of the y arises the form peculiar to the Vēdic lang. -tva-. These sff. -tav-ya-, -tv-ya-, -t-ya-, tv-a-, originally identical, have the same function as simple -ya-, namely that of a participium necessitatis.

Before -tav-yd- (or $-t\acute{a}v-ya$ -) most root-vowels are raised, thus all final vowels, and also medial i and u, e.g. $d\ddot{a}$ -tavya-, \sqrt{da} (give); \ddot{e} -tavya-, \sqrt{i} (go); $st\ddot{o}$ -tavya-, \sqrt{stu} (praise); $\ddot{k}h\ddot{e}ttavya$ -for $*\ddot{k}h\ddot{e}d$ -tavya-, $\sqrt{k}hid$ (split); $y\ddot{o}k$ -tavya- for *yog-tavya-, \sqrt{yug} (iungere); but pak-tavya-, \sqrt{pak} (cook); kar-tavya-, $\sqrt{k}ar$ (make), etc., without step-formation of root-vowel, because in Sk. a was felt to be a raised vowel, in contradistinction to its weakenings (§ 6). There is found also, in certain cases, the auxiliary vowel

§ 89. i, i, between the end of the root and the suffix, e.g. bōdh-i-tavya-, \$\sqrt{budh}\$ (know); \$grah-\bar{i}\$-tavya-, \$\sqrt{grah}\$ (take). Examples of the shortened form of the sff. are found in \$\text{Vedic }ki\$-tvya-, later \$ki\$-tya-, \$\sqrt{kar}\$ (make); therefore we must probably assume -tya-to have arisen from -tvya-, also in forms in -tya-, which have no parallel \$\text{Vedic }-tvya-, as e.g. in \$i\$-tya-, \$\sqrt{i}\$ (go); \$sti-tya-, \$\sqrt{stu}\$ (praise); \$bhi-tya-, \$\sqrt{bhar}\$ (bear), and the like. It is however strange to find such root-vowels unraised or weakened. \$\text{Vedic }kar-tva-\$ (faciendus, as ntr. subst. \$kar-tva-m\$ opus) is accordingly to be explained as formed from *kar-tv-ya-, stem \$kar-tu-\$ (v. post.) by means of \$-ya-\$; here \$y\$ has been lost, whilst \$v\$ is retained. The function of this form distinctly points to this explanation.

Since -iya- is identical with -iya-,—the vowel being lengthened before y, as happens frequently (§ 15, 2, a),—and since -iyamay moreover stand for -ya- (§ 15, 2, b), we may confidently assume that the participia necessitatis in -antya- correspond in their sf. to a fundamental form -an-ya- from *-ana-ya- (the loss of final a in -ana- before -ya- is regular, cf. § 14, 1, b), and therefore are formed by means of the same sf. -ya-, which we have already found used in this function, cf. bhrātr-īya- (brother's son, origly. 'fraternal') and pitr-ya- (paternal); parvat-iya- (hill-) from parvata- (hill), and rath-ya- (waggon-) from ratha- (waggon); etc. The sf. -iya- is thus=-ya-. This sf. -iya-=-ya- is added to a nomen action is in -ana- (as in -tav-ya-, -tv-ya-, it is to a similar one in -tu-; on nouns in -ana- v. post.), which, as aforesaid, regularly loses its final -a before -ya-. This sf. -aniya- also has the root-vowel almost always raised a step, e.g. stav-aniya-, \sqrt{stu} (praise); $\dot{g}ay$ -aniya-, $\sqrt{\dot{g}i}$ (conquer); $d\ddot{a}$ -niya-= $^*d\ddot{a}$ -aniya-, √da (give); but kar-anīya-, √kar (make); pak-anīya-, √pak (cook), etc. Verb-stems in -aya- lose this whole sf. before -anīya-, e.g. kor-anīya-, st. kor-aya- (steal).

In the Vēdic we find also sf. $-\dot{e}n$ -ya- thus employed; herein we can hardly fail to recognize a variation of f.f. -an-ya-; $\bar{e}n$

has arisen from an probably through the influence of the fol- §.89. lowing y, e.g. u_s -ė̄nya-, $\sqrt{va_s}$ (wish); yet we find also var-ē̄nya-, \sqrt{var} (choose) with accented root.

Greek. Here too -ya- as a secondary sf. is very common, e.g. πάτρ-ιο- (paternal), πατρ-ιά (f. race), from stem πατέρ-(father); σωτήρ-ιο- (saving), σωτηρ-ία (rescue), stem σωτήρ-(saviour); τέλειο- for *τελεσ-yo- (§ 65, 2, c; complete), stem τέλες- (ntr. sg. τέλος end); \dot{a} λήθεια, i.e. * \dot{a} ληθεσ-να (truth), stem άληθέσ- (adj. true); θαυ-μάσιο- (wonderful) for *θαυματ-ιο (§ 68, 1, c), stem θαῦματ- (ntr., n. sg. θαῦμα wonder); δίκα-ιο-(just), stem δίκα- (fem., n. sg. δίκη justice); πήχυ-ιο- (adj. elllong) from $\pi \hat{\eta} \chi v$ - (masc., n. sg. $\pi \hat{\eta} \chi v$ -5 cubit), etc. Here also, before sf. - ω -=origl. -ya-, the stem-termination o=origl. a is lost, e.g. οὐράν-ιο- (heavenly), stem οὐρανό- (masc., heaven); ποτάμ-ιο- (river-), stem ποταμό- (masc. river), etc. Here belong also the stems of participles and other consonantal stems used in fem. alone, like φέρουσα, i.e. *φεροντ-ya; λελουπυῖα, i.e. * $\lambda \in \lambda \circ \iota \pi \circ \sigma - \gamma a$, * $- \circ \tau - \gamma a$; δότειρα, i.e. * $\delta \circ \tau \in \rho - \gamma a$; $\mu \in \lambda a \circ \tau = \mu \circ \tau = \mu$ -ya, etc.

The form exactly corresponding to the Sk. part. in $-t\acute{a}v$ -ya- is in Gk. $-\tau\acute{e}o$ -, i.e. *- $\tau\acute{e}$ -Fyo-, e.g. δo - $\tau\acute{e}o$ -, Sk. $d\~{a}$ -tav-ya-, $\checkmark \delta o$ (give); $\iline i$ -i- $\acute{e}o$ -, $\checkmark \iline i$ (go); $\pi \lambda \epsilon \kappa$ - $\tau\acute{e}o$ -, $\checkmark \pi \lambda \epsilon \kappa$ (twist); $\theta \rho \epsilon \pi$ - $\tau\acute{e}o$ -, $\checkmark \tau \rho \epsilon \phi$ (rear); $\pi \epsilon \iota \sigma$ - $\tau\acute{e}o$ -, $\checkmark \pi \iota \theta$, pres. $\pi \epsilon \iota \theta$ - ω , aor. $\~{e}$ - $\pi \iota \theta$ - $o \nu$ (persuade); etc. Perhaps we ought to place here the forms in $-\sigma \iota a$ for $-\tau \iota a$, e.g. $\epsilon \iota \epsilon \iota \epsilon \rho \gamma \epsilon \sigma \iota a$ for $-\tau \iota a$, cf. $\epsilon \iota \epsilon \iota \epsilon \rho \gamma \epsilon \tau \gamma$ - ϵ ; $\iline i \epsilon \iota \epsilon \iota \epsilon \rho \gamma \epsilon \tau \gamma a$ may in other cases have also been developed from origl. sf. -ti- (§ 98).

Latin. -ya- as secondary suffix, e.g. in patr-io- (adj. patrius), fem. subst. patr-ia, from pater-, praetor-io- from praetor-, victor-ia from victor-, scient-ia from scient- (sciens), rēg-io- from reg- (rex); audac-ia from audac- (audax); princip-io-from princip- (princeps), nefar-io- from nefas, sacerdot-io- from sacerdot-, etc. Here also the oright final a of stem is lost before -ya-, e.g. domin-io- (dominium) from domino- (dominus), somn-io-

§ 89. (somnium) from somno- (somnus), colleg-io- (collegium) from collega, etc.

Note 1.—Adjs. in -tīuo-, as nā-tīuo-, ac-tīuo-, have been compared to Sk. -tavya-, though they do not coincide in function. From -tavya- is said to have arisen -taivya-, by insertion of i (from y following) into the preceding syllable, thence -taiva-, -teivo-, -tīuo-. However there is no very strong reason for identifying Lat. -tīuo- with Sk. -tavya-, a comparison which is moreover phonetically very doubtful. It is possible that they are new formations in Latin, from stem nāto-, acto-, etc.; cf. noc-īuo- beside nocuo-, and mortuo- for the form *mor-to-, which we should have expected.

Note 2.—In Latin the participium necessitatis ends in -endo-, earlier -undo-, e.g. dic-endo-, dic-undo-, etc. In the former part of this sf., en, un, hence earlier on, we may probably recognize the an of the Sk. an-iya-: the -do- is prob. the sf. -do- so common in Latin, e.g. cali-do-, uali-do-, timi-do-, etc., beside calēre, ualere, timere, etc.; in uiri-di- beside uirere, -di- appears. -do- probably is derived from the same verb-root da (Lat. dare, which has, however, apparently become confounded with origi. √dha 'facere'), which we see in crē-do, con-do, etc. Cf. formations like ira-c-un-do-, rubi-c-un-do-, uere-c-un-do-, fa-c-un-do-, in which the relation of necessity is not found,—a relation which is not really essential to forms in -un-do-, -en-do-, -n-do- (Corssen, Krit. Beitr. 120 sqq., and Krit. Nachtr. p. 133 sqq.); -bu-n-doin fur-i-bu-n-do, treme-bu-n-do-, must be treated as a part. necess. of oright of bhu, Lat. fu. Accordingly we recognize in -do-, the latter part of this sf., a new formation in Latin. scarcely assume that the f.f. -an-ya- (v. supr.) has in an exceptional way in the first place become *-an-dya- by insertion of d before y, as not unfrequently happens in the languages, e.g. middle-Lat. madius for earlier maius, Gk. ζυγόν, i.e. *δγυγον, Sk. and f.f. yugám; from which form *-an-dya- the loss of y would then have to be assumed in the same way as perhaps in minus for *minius, -bus sf. of dat. abl. pl. for *-bius (v. post. declension), so that e.g. coqu-en-do- (coquendus) would stand for *coquen-dyo-, *coquen-yo-, f.f. kakan-ya-=Sk. pakanīya- (G. Curt. Gk. Etym. 590 sqq.). However, as regards Lat., interchange of d and y is not capable of proof; on the contrary, this language shows a tendency towards accumulation of suffixes and suffixative composition with verb-roots, as e.g. -cro- (laua-cru-m, sepul-cru-m), √kar (make); -bo- (acer-bu-s, mor-bu-s, super-bu-s) for *bhvofrom bhu (be); here probably we must reckon -bili- (sta-bili-s, § 89. fle-bili-s, comprehensi-bili-s, flexi-bili-s) and -bulo- (sta-bulu-m, fa-bula), further formations of this-bo- (these forms are otherwise explained by others); -bro-, -bra- (candela-bru-m, light-bearer; in this example probably no one will deny the derivation of -bro-from \sqrt{bhar} (bear); uerte-bra, late-bra), from \sqrt{bhar} (bear); -gno- (mali-gnu-s), \sqrt{gan} (beget); -ig- (rem-ig-, n. sg. remex), \sqrt{ag} (drive, do).

VI. Stems with suffix -va-.

§ 90.

Stems with sf. -va- are found in every Indo-Europ. language; in Lat. and Sclavonic, amongst others, it is a favourite suffix. Stems in -van- are akin to these, and are seen especially in Sk. The sf. -vant- we treat hereafter separately.

Indo-European original language. Certainly demonstrable is ak-va- (masc. horse), \sqrt{ak} (run; cf. $\bar{a}k$ -u- quick).

Sanskrit. \acute{a} ç-va- (masc. horse), \sqrt{a} ç (cf. $\~{a}$ ç- $\'{u}$ - quick); $\~{e}$ -va- (masc. going), \sqrt{i} (go); $p\acute{a}d$ -va- (masc. way, waggon), \sqrt{pad} (go); pak- $v\acute{a}$ - (adj. cooked), \sqrt{pak} (cook); $\~{u}$ rdh- $v\acute{a}$ - (directed upwards, raised), i.e. *ardhva- (§ 7, 2), \sqrt{a} rdh (grow), etc.

-van- is akin, e.g. $p\acute{a}d$ -van- (masc. way), cf. $p\acute{a}d$ -va-; $m\acute{a}d$ -van- (intoxicating), \sqrt{mad} (become intoxicated); $\acute{r}k$ -van- (praising), beside $\acute{r}k$ -vant and rk-vá-, \sqrt{ark} (praise), etc.

Greek. On account of the loss of v in Gk. the sff. in question are hard to recognize. Clearly we may place here e.g. $\ell \pi \pi \sigma$ - (horse) for $\ell \kappa$ -Fo-=Lat. equo-, origl. ak-va-, etc.; $\pi \sigma \lambda \delta$ - (many, collateral form to $\pi \sigma \lambda \delta$ -) from $\ell \pi \sigma \lambda$ -Fo-, f.f. $\ell \pi \nu$ - $\ell \nu$ -, $\ell \pi \nu$ (fill); in some other cases the root cannot be further traced, as e.g. $\ell \pi \nu$ - $\ell \nu$ -=Lat. $\ell \pi \nu$ - $\ell \nu$ - (left); $\ell \nu$ - $\ell \nu$ -, Iôn. $\ell \nu$ - $\ell \nu$ -, Sk. $\ell \pi \nu$ - $\ell \nu$ -, etc.

The sf. -van- is seen in al- $F\acute{\omega}\nu$ - ($al\acute{\omega}\nu$ lifetime, time), a lengthening from a presupposed ai-van- (cf. Lat. ae-uo-, Goth. ai-va-, Sk. \acute{e} -va-), \sqrt{l} (go); perhaps also $\pi \acute{e}\pi$ - $o\nu$ - (n. sg. masc. $\pi \acute{e}\pi\omega\nu$ ripe) stands for * $\pi e\pi$ - $Fo\nu$ -, cf. Sk. pak- $v\acute{a}$ -, $\sqrt{\pi}e\pi$, origh. kak (cook).

Latin. The sf. origl. -va- is common; besides eq-uo- (horse)

§ 90. =origl. ak-va-; ard-uo- (steep) = Zend eredh-wa-, Sk. ūrdh-vá-; ae-uo- (ntr. lifetime, age) = Sk. é-va- (masc. going), occur many other formations like noc-uo- (hurtful), \(\sqrt{noc} \) (noc (noc-ēre hurt); uac-uo- (empty), \(\sqrt{uac} \) (cf. uacare be empty); per-spic-uo- (per-spicuous), \(\sqrt{spec} \) (specere see); de-cid-uo- (falling off), \(\sqrt{cad} \) (cadere fall); re-sid-uo- (remaining), \(\sqrt{sed} \) (sedēre sit); ar-uo- (ploughed, ar-uo-m ploughed field), \(\sqrt{ar} \) (arāre plough); al-uo- (fem. belly), \(\sqrt{al} \) (alere nourish), etc.

Here belong also formations in -īuo-, like nocī-uo- (hurtful); uacī-uo- (empty), captī-uo- (captive), etc., which are formed as if there were parallel forms *nocī-re, *uacī-re, *captī-re.

The suffix -vant-, forming a past part act., whose original existence is proved by the correspondence of the Aryan, Greek, and Sclavonic, is probably compounded of -va- and -nt-=-ant-(§ 101). With -vant- may be compared the origil. sf. -yant-, which also probably consists of -ya- and -ant- (v. post. 'Comparative'), and sf. -mant- (§ 91), which is similarly formed from -ma- and -ant-, so that we have a scale -ant-, -yant-, -vant-, -mant-, to which -an-, -yan-, -van-, -man-, and -a-, -ya-, -va-, -ma- are parallel.

The function of this -vant- is (like that of -mant-) that of expressing the 'having' the possession of something. The perf. part. and the perf. itself are in many languages expressed by means of possessive elements (e.g. Finnish, Magyar, the Cassia language, etc.), as is indeed the case also in the periphrasis by means of the auxil. verb 'have.' A form vi-vid-vant-, lit. 'having knowing or knowledge,' is not originally different, in point of suffix, from arkta-vant- 'bear-having.'

The sf. -vant-, which, as forming participles, is a primary sf., occurs also as a secondary suffix, e.g. Sanskrit áçva-vant- (provided with horses; n. sg. masc. áçva-vān, acc. sg. áçva-vant-am, gen. sg. áçva-vat-as, n. pl. masc. -vant-as, etc.), fem. áçva-vatī, i.e. -vat-yā (cf. § 15, c), with loss of n, as in similar cases; vásu-vant- (furnished with riches); vīrá-vant- (possessed of

heroes); pád-vant- (having feet), stem pad- (foot). The sf. § 90. -mant- is employed in similar functions, e.g. Sk. agni-mánt- (possessed of fire), v. post.

The sf. -vant- has also a special use in Sk., that of giving active force to past part., e.g. $krt\acute{a}$ -, $(\sqrt{kar}, make)$ ='made,' but $krt\acute{a}$ -vant- 'having made'; $bhagn\acute{a}$ - (broken), $\sqrt{bha\acute{g}}$, $bha\acute{n}\acute{g}$, but $bhagn\acute{a}$ -vant- 'having broken,' etc.

Greek. The suffix -vant- becomes -Fevt- (the digamma being retained; n. sg. masc. -Fevs, ntr. -Fev), fem. -Feoga, i.e. *-Fevya = Sk. -vatī, i.e. -vatyā, e.g. $\dot{a}\mu\pi\epsilon\lambda\dot{o}$ -Fevt- (having vines), $\ddot{a}\mu\pi\epsilon\lambda\dot{o}$ -(fem. vine); $\dot{i}\chi\theta\nu\dot{o}$ -Fevt- (having fish), $\dot{i}\chi\theta\dot{\nu}$ - (masc. fish); $\mu\eta\tau\nu\dot{o}$ -Fevt- (having wisdom), $\mu\dot{\eta}\tau\nu$ - (fem. wisdom); $\nu\nu\dot{\phi}\dot{o}$ -Fevt- (snowy), st. $\nu\nu\dot{\phi}$ - (snow, acc. $\nu\dot{\nu}\dot{\phi}$ -a), etc. Thus all stems follow here the analogy of stems in o-, origl. a-, which is also the case elsewhere in Gk. (e.g. in gen. dat., dual, v. post.); yet $\chi a\rho \iota$ -Fevt- (graceful), $\chi\dot{a}\rho\iota$ - (fem. grace), and perhaps some few others.

In Latin -vant- has become -vans-, and passed over to the analogy of a-stems, so that we must here assume a f.f. -vansa-, from which -vonso- and -vōso- must have arisen; this -vonso- has, however, throughout lost its v (the suffix could scarcely have been -ans-, since the loss of the v does not occur in this function of the suffix, and the existence of the full form of the sf. in the S.W. division of the Indo-European languages is moreover proved by the occurrence of the well-preserved form in Gk. -Fevt-); e.g. fructu-ōso-, lumin-ōso-, *forma-ōso-, whence (§ 37) formonso-, later formōso-.

We must now treat of the employment of the sf. -vant- (-vans-) in forming past part. act.

Indo-European original-language. e.g. vivid-vant-, \sqrt{vid} (see, know); dadha-vant-, \sqrt{dha} (set), etc. These stems coincided in the three genders.

Sanskrit. The oright sf. -vant- appears before the different case-suffixes as -vat-, -vās-, i.e. -vāns- and -us- (v. post. Declension); -vans-, from oright -vant-, became -vas- by loss of n

§ 90. before s, and this was weakened to -us- by loss of a (§ 6); -vās-, i.e. -vāns-, is a lengthening or step-formation of -vans-. The suffix is added to the reduplicated root, to the perf.-stem in its weaker form (v. post. 'Conjugation'), e.g. rurud-vánt-, \(\sqrt{rud} \) (weep), fem. rurud-úšī, from *-vantyā, *-vansyā, *-vasyā, *-usyā; \(tēn-i-vánt-\) from *tatn-i-vant-, with auxil. vowel i, \(\sqrt{tan} \) (stretch); the shortened st.-forms have not this i, e.g. dat. sg. masc. \(tēnúš-ē; \) n. sg. fem. \(tēnúšī, \) etc.; \(vid-vánt \) (knowing, origl. 'having seen'), with loss of reduplication of \(\sqrt{vid} \) (see, know), etc.

Greek. The original tof the sf. has been almost always preserved, while the n is lost; in masc. and neut. it is $-F \acute{o} \tau = -va(n)t$ -; in n. sg. -Fός for *-Foτ (§ 69), masc. -Fώς for *-Foτ-ς with compensatory lengthening. The fem. is -vîa, i.e. -usyā (§ 65, 2, c) from -vasyā, and this from -vansyā, f.f. -vantyā. This sf. is added to all perf.-stems ending (1) in case of simple perfects in the final letter of the root, (2) in the case of compound perfects in κ ; e.g. (1) $\lambda \in \lambda_0 i\pi - \delta \tau$ -, n. sg. masc. $\lambda \in \lambda_0 i\pi \omega_S = \lambda \in \lambda_0 i\pi - F_0 \tau$ -s, ntr. $\lambda \epsilon \lambda o \iota \pi \acute{o} \varsigma = *\lambda \epsilon \lambda o \iota \pi - Fo\tau$, fem. $\lambda \epsilon \lambda o \iota \pi - \upsilon \hat{a} = *\lambda \epsilon \lambda o \iota \pi - \upsilon \sigma y a$, √ λιπ (leave); likewise (2) *λελυκ-Fot- (n. sg. masc. λελυκώς, etc.), √λυ (loosen), etc. After roots ending in vowels perhaps the v of the sf. held its place longer; thus $\dot{\epsilon}\sigma\tau a$ -F $\dot{\sigma}\tau$ - (Hom.) from perf.-stem ἐστα- (ἔστα-μεν 1 pl.), √στα (stand); γεγα-Γότ-, perf.-stem γεγα-, √γα, γεν (pres. γίγνομαι become), etc. We must leave undecided the question whether the stems γεγα-Γώτ-, $\tau \epsilon \theta \nu \eta - F \omega \tau$, etc., retain in ω a relic of the former n in *-Foντ= -vant-, or whether we should see in it an unorighl lengthening from - $Fo\tau$ -.

Archaic forms show the root-vowel still un-raised, especially in fem. stems, e.g. $F\iota\delta\nu\hat{\imath}a$ (usually $\epsilon\hat{\imath}\delta\nu\hat{\imath}a$, st. * $F\epsilon\iota\delta$ - $Fo\tau$ -, from $Fo\hat{\imath}\delta a$, f.f. $viv\bar{a}ida$ 'I know,' $\checkmark vid$, see, know), i.e. *vid- $usy\bar{a}$ =Sk. $vid\hat{u}\tilde{s}\bar{\imath}$ from *vivid-vant- $y\bar{a}$.

Latin shows no such formation.

§ 91. VII. Stems with suffix -ma-, and sff. whose first element is -ma- (-man-, -ma-na-, -mant-; on secondary sf. -ma- cf. § 107,

where also are treated the sff. ma-ma- and -ma-ta-, which all § 91. of them form superl.); and especially the participle in -ma-, -ma-na-, of passive and middle use.

Participles in -ma-na- appear in the Asiatic and S.-European division of the Indo-European, in the Sclavo-Teutonic -ma- replaces it. Both forms we hold to be original, since it is common enough to find a simple and a compound suffix used alike.

-ma- is a frequent element in stem-formation (in word-formation it indicates 1 pers.). As a secondary suffix we shall find it employed to express the superlative.

Primarily it occurs e.g.

Indo-European. ghar-ma-(warm, heat), \sqrt{ghar} ; dhu-ma-, or probably dhau-ma-(smoke), \sqrt{dhu} .

Sanskrit. In $tig-m\acute{a}$ - (adj. sharp, pointed), $\sqrt{ti}\acute{g}$ (become sharp); $bh\~{\imath}$ - $m\acute{a}$ - (adj. fearful), $\sqrt{b}hi$ (fear); idh- $m\acute{a}$ - (masc. firewood), $\sqrt{i}dh$ (burn); ghar- $m\acute{a}$ - (masc. warmth), $\sqrt{g}har$; $dh\~{u}$ - $m\acute{a}$ - (masc. smoke), $\sqrt{d}hu$ (move); yug- $m\acute{a}$ - (ntr. pair), $\sqrt{y}ug$ (join), etc.

Kindred to this is sf. -man-, which apparently must be separated into -m-an-, i.e. -m(a)-an-, and is accordingly closely parallel to the participial -ma-na-.

Indo-European. e.g. $gn\bar{a}$ -man- (name), $\sqrt{gna} = gan$ (know); ak_rman - (stone), \sqrt{ak} , etc.

Sanskrit. In $\acute{g}\acute{a}n$ -man- (ntr. birth), $\surd\acute{g}an$ (gignere); $\acute{a}\varsigma$ -man- (masc. stone), $\surd a\varsigma$; $v\acute{e}\varsigma$ -man- (ntr. house), $\surd vi\varsigma$ (enter); $n\acute{a}$ -man- (ntr. name) for *gnā-man-, $\surd gna=gan$ (know); \acute{u} s-man- (masc. summer), $\surd u$ s (burn). With auxil. vowel i, in Vēd. also i (§ 15, f), it appears e.g. in star-i-mán- (masc. bed), $\surd star$ (sternere); dhar-i-mán- (masc. forma), $\surd dhar$ (hold); $\acute{g}\acute{a}n$ -i-man- (ntr. birth) beside $\acute{g}\acute{a}n$ -man-, from which it is distinguished by the i alone. Side by side we find $dh\acute{a}r$ -man- (masc. bearer; ntr. law) and $dh\acute{a}r$ -ma- (masc. right, duty); \acute{e} -man- (ntr. going) and \acute{e} -ma- (masc. id.), $\surd i$ (go), etc.

§ 91. -mant- is a secondary suffix, e.g. yáva-mant- (possessing barley), yáva- (barley); mádhu-mant- (possessing honey), mádhu-(honey); ýyótiš-mant- (shining), ýyótiš (light), etc.

-min- also is secondary, e.g. $v\bar{a}g$ -min- (possessing speech, eloquent) for $v\bar{a}k$ -min-, stem $v\bar{a}k$ - (speech); $g\bar{o}$ -min- (masc. cattleowner), $g\bar{o}$ - (cow, bullock) etc.

aç-man-ta- (ntr. furnace) must not be overlooked, from áç-man- (stone); cf. Lat sf. -men-to- and O.H.G. -munda-.

Greek. Sf. -ma-, e.g. in $\theta \epsilon \rho$ -μό- (adj. hot), $\theta \epsilon \rho$ -μή (fem. heat), $\sqrt{\theta} \epsilon \rho$ ($\theta \epsilon \rho$ -ομαι grow hot), origh. ghar (§ 64, 2, n); φλογ-μό- (masc. brand), $\sqrt{\phi} \lambda \epsilon \gamma$ (φλέγ-ειν burn); $\kappa \epsilon \nu \theta$ -μό- (masc. lair), $\sqrt{\kappa \nu \theta}$ ($\kappa \epsilon \dot{\nu} \theta$ - ω hide); $\kappa \rho \mu \dot{\nu}$ - (masc. planetus) for * $\kappa \rho \pi$ -μο- (§ 68, 1, a), $\sqrt{\kappa \rho \pi}$ ($\kappa \dot{\rho} \pi$ - $\tau \omega$, $\kappa \epsilon$ - $\kappa \rho \pi$ - $\omega \dot{\rho}$ s strike); $\tilde{\alpha} \nu$ - ϵ -μο- (masc. wind) with an inserted ϵ (§ 29) from origh. $\sqrt{\alpha} n$ (blow); $\chi \bar{\nu}$ -μό- (masc. sap), $\sqrt{\chi \nu}$ ($\chi \dot{\epsilon} F$ - ω pour); $\theta \bar{\nu}$ -μό- (masc. mind, spirit), $\sqrt{\theta \nu}$ ($\theta \dot{\nu}$ - ω fume); $\gamma \nu \dot{\omega}$ -μη (opinion), $\sqrt{\gamma \nu \rho}$ ($\gamma \iota$ - $\gamma \nu \dot{\omega}$ - $\sigma \kappa \omega$), origh. gan (to know); $\mu \nu \dot{\eta}$ - $\mu \eta$ (memory), $\sqrt{\mu \nu \rho}$ ($\mu \iota$ - $\mu \nu \dot{\eta}$ - $\sigma \kappa \omega$), origh. man (think); $\tau \bar{\iota}$ - $\mu \dot{\eta}$ (price, honour), $\sqrt{\tau} \iota$ ($\tau \dot{\iota}$ - ω (honour); $\sigma \dot{\iota}$ - $\mu \rho$ - (masc. fem. way, course, stripe), $\sqrt{\iota}$ ($\epsilon \dot{\iota}$ - $\mu \iota$ go), etc.

As secondary sf. also -μο- occurs, e.g. ἄλκι-μο- (strong), ἀλκή (strength); νόστι-μο- (belonging to return), νόστο- (masc. return); φύξι-μο- (whither one can flee, avoidable), φύξι- (fem. flight), etc.

The sf. origl. -man- appears in Gk. as -μον- and -μεν-, e.g. $\check{a}\kappa$ -μον- (masc. n. sg. $\check{a}\kappa$ -μων anvil)=Sk. $\acute{a}\varsigma$ -man-, beside $\check{a}\kappa$ -μή (point, sharpness); $\check{t}\delta$ -μον- (adj., n. sg. masc. $\check{t}\delta$ -μων, ntr. $\check{t}\delta$ -μον, skilful, belonging to later period), $\checkmark F\iota \delta$, origl. vid (see, know); $\tau \lambda \hat{\eta}$ -μον- (n. sg. $\tau \lambda \hat{\eta}$ -μων suffering, wretched), $\checkmark \tau \lambda a$ (endure, cf. $\tau \dot{\epsilon}$ - $\tau \lambda a$ - $\theta \iota$, $\tau \lambda \hat{\eta}$ -σομαι); $\gamma \nu \hat{\omega}$ -μον- (masc., n. sg. $\gamma \nu \dot{\omega}$ -μων knower), $\checkmark \gamma \nu o$ ($\gamma \iota$ - $\gamma \nu \dot{\omega}$ - $\sigma \kappa \omega$), origl. gan (know), cf. $\gamma \nu \dot{\omega}$ -μη; $\mu \nu \hat{\eta}$ -μον- (mindful), cf. $\mu \nu \hat{\eta}$ - $\mu \eta$, $\checkmark \mu \nu a$, origl. man (think), etc. In the form - $\mu \omega \nu$ - we recognize an unorigl. lengthening of the same sf., cf. $\kappa \epsilon \nu \theta$ - $\mu \dot{\omega} \nu$ (masc., gen. sg. $\kappa \epsilon \nu \theta$ - $\mu \dot{\omega} \nu$ - $\sigma \varsigma$ lair), $\checkmark \kappa \nu \theta$, raised to $\kappa \epsilon \nu \theta$ - $\omega \dot{\omega}$ (masc., gen. sg. $\kappa \epsilon \nu \theta$ - $\omega \dot{\omega}$), $\langle \theta \dot{\omega} \theta$ - $\omega \dot{\omega}$ (masc., gen. sg. $\theta \eta$ - $\omega \dot{\omega} \nu$ - $\sigma \dot{\omega}$), $\langle \theta \dot{\omega} \theta$ - $\omega \dot{\omega} \rho$, $\langle \theta \dot{\omega} \theta$ - $\omega \dot{\omega} \rho$, $\langle \theta \dot{\omega} \theta \rangle$, $\langle \theta \dot{\omega} \phi \rangle$, $\langle \theta \dot{\omega}$

Sf. $-\mu e \nu$, e.g. in $\pi \nu \theta$ - $\mu \acute{e} \nu$ - (masc., n. sg. $\pi \nu \theta$ - $\mu \acute{\eta} \nu$ bottom, foun- § 91. dation), $\sqrt{\pi \nu \theta}$, cf. O.H.G. bod-am; $\pi o \iota$ - $\mu \acute{e} \nu$ - (masc., n. sg. $\pi o \iota$ - $\mu \acute{\eta} \nu$ shepherd) = Lith. $p \ddot{e}$ -men- (n. sg. $p \ddot{e}$ - $m \ddot{u}$), root accordingly p i, perhaps a weakening from p a (protect).

Closely connected is the sf. - $\mu o \nu \eta$, e.g. $\phi \lambda \epsilon \gamma - \mu o \nu \dot{\eta}$ (inflammation), $\sqrt{\phi \lambda \epsilon \gamma}$ ($\phi \lambda \dot{\epsilon} \gamma - \omega$ burn); $\chi a \rho - \mu o \nu \dot{\eta}$ (joy), $\sqrt{\chi} a \rho$ ($\chi a l \rho \omega$ rejoice), etc.

Here too probably belong sff. - $\mu\bar{\iota}$ - ν - and - $\mu\bar{\iota}$ - ν -, e.g. $\dot{\rho}\eta\gamma$ - $\mu\hat{\iota}\nu$ - (masc., gen. sg. $\dot{\rho}\eta\gamma$ - $\mu\hat{\iota}\nu$ -os surf, breakers), $\checkmark\dot{\rho}a\gamma$ (in $\dot{\rho}\dot{\eta}\gamma$ - $\nu\nu\mu\iota$ break); $\dot{\nu}\sigma$ - $\mu\hat{\iota}\nu$ - (dat. sg. $\dot{\nu}\sigma$ - $\mu\hat{\iota}\nu$ - ι) and $\dot{\nu}\sigma$ - $\mu\hat{\iota}\nu\eta$ (strife), $\checkmark\dot{\nu}\theta$, Sk. and origh yudh (strive); also as secondary sf., e.g. in $\kappa\nu\kappa\lambda\dot{a}$ - $\mu\bar{\iota}\nu$ o- (masc. and neutr., name of a plant, cyclamen), from $\kappa\dot{\nu}\kappa\lambda$ o- $(\kappa\dot{\nu}\kappa\lambda$ o-s circle).

In Latin also the sf. origl. -ma- occurs, as Lat. -mo- (-mu-) in an-i-mo- (n. sg. animus spirit), origl. \sqrt{an} (blow); $f\bar{u}$ -mo-(fumus smoke), origl. \sqrt{dhu} (move); fir-mo- (firmus firm), probably Sk. \sqrt{dhar} (hold; cf. $fr\bar{e}$ -n-um bridle, from same root); for-mo- (formus warm), \sqrt{fer} (fer-ueo); al-mo- (almus nourishing), \sqrt{al} , nourish; an-i-ma (life), cf. an-i-mo-, origl. \sqrt{an} (breathe, blow); $f\bar{a}$ -ma- (fame)=Gk. $\phi\eta$ - $\mu\eta$, \sqrt{fa} (fa-ri say); for-ma (form), cf. Sk. dhar-i-mán- (v. supr.), etc.

§ 91. Sf. origl. -man-, Lat. -men-, is common; e.g. ger-men (ntr. germ, shoot), \sqrt{ger} , origl. ghar (be green); *gnō-men (nō-men, co-gnō-men name), \sqrt{gno} , origl. gan (know); sē-men (seed), \sqrt{sa} (sow), teg-men, teg-i-men (covering), \sqrt{teg} (cover); ag-men (troop, crowd), \sqrt{ag} (drive); solā-men (solace), verb-stem sola-(solari console); certā-men (contest, match), verb-stem certa-(certare struggle); molī-men (effort), verb-stem molī- (moliri undertake), etc.

This sf. is lengthened into -mōn-, e.g. in ser-mōn- (n. sermo masc. speech), \sqrt{ser} (arrange, put together; in ser-o, ser-tum); ter-mōn-, cf. ter-men, ter-min-o- (border), \sqrt{ter} , Sk. and oright ar (exceed, come to the end); often moreover increased by -to-, e.g. in co-gnō-mento-, in-crē-mento, teg-i-mento-, aug-mento- beside aug-men, seg-mento- beside seg-men, etc.; this -mento- is particularly common in case of derived verbs, e.g. armā-mento-, nutri-mento-, experi-mento-, etc. (ntr., n. acc. sg. -mentu-m); to this sf. -mōn- was added the suffix oright -ya- also, likewise attended by lengthening (or step-formation), whereby consequently arose sf. -mōnio-, f.f. -mānya-, which is mostly a secondary suffix, e.g. quer-i-mōnia (complaint), quer-or (complain); acri-mōnia (sharpness) from stem ācri- (ācer, ācri-s sharp); testi-mōnio- (testimony) from testi-s (witness); mātri-mōnio- (wedlock) from stem mātri-, from māter-, oright mātar- (mother), etc.

Participial suffix -mana-.

In do-European. -mana-, in the function of forming participles, appears originally annexed to the stems of the present, future (formed indeed by means of a present), aorist, and perfect, thus e.g. \sqrt{dha} , pres.-stem dhadha-, dhadha-mana- $(\tau\iota\theta\acute{e}-\mu\epsilon\nu\sigma$ -), fut. $dh\bar{a}$ -sya-mana $(\theta\eta$ - $\sigma\acute{o}$ - $\mu\epsilon\nu\sigma$ -), aor. dha-mana- $(\theta\acute{e}$ - $\mu\epsilon\nu\sigma$ -), perf. (from \sqrt{dha} this part. would coincide with the pres. part. in form), e.g. bha-bhar-mana- or $bhabh\bar{a}r$ -mana- from \sqrt{bhar} , perfect-stem bhabhar-, $bhabh\bar{a}r$ -.

Sanskrit. This sf. is here sounded -māna-, wherein we recognize an unoriginal lengthening or step-formation of origl.

-mana- (cf. Zend -mna-, Gk. -μενο-, Lat. -mino-, -mno-, all with § 91. vowel unraised), just as in Lat. -mōn-, -mōn-ia-, Gk. -μων- stand contrasted with sf. -man-, which is proved to be the original form by the correspondence of the languages. It occurs as part. med. and pass., added to present- and future-stems as well as to the perfect-stem (the latter however almost exclusively in the earlier stage of the language). Instead of this -māna- there mostly appears in those present-stems which do not end in stemformative a (except na), and in the perfect, a form -āna-, which appears to be a later, secondary form for -māna-, just as -ē for -mē, origl. -mai, in 1 sg. med., -a for -ma in 1 sg. act. pf. (v. post. Personal-terminations of the verb). The possibility that -āna- for earlier -ana- may be a sf. distinct from -mana- cannot nevertheless be denied, only in that case -na- would be expected rather than -āna-.

Examples. 1. Sf. -māna-, e.g. pres. bhára-māna-, pres.-stem bhāra- \sqrt{bhar} (bear); nahyá-māna-, pres.-stem nahyá-, in pass. function, med. on the other hand náhya-māna-, pres.-stem náhya-, \sqrt{nah} (tie), etc. Fut. dāsyá-māna-, fut. stem dā-syá-, \sqrt{da} (give); perf. sasr-māná-, perf. stem sasar- \sqrt{sar} (go); táa-māna- (Vēd.) with stem-termination a affixed to perfect-stem, according to analogy of other tense-forms; perf.-stem here $\bar{\imath}$ áa- for $\bar{\imath}$ á- from iyaá-, yayaá- (§ 6), \sqrt{ya} á (offer, worship).

2. Forms with -āna-, e.g. pres. lih-āná-, root and pres.-stem lih- (lick); çáy-āna-, pres.-stem cay-, çē- (çé-tē he lies), \sqrt{ci} ; kinv-āná-, pres.-stem ki-nu-, \sqrt{ki} (gather); yunāná- from *yu-na-āna-, pres.-stem -yuna-, \sqrt{yu} (join); dádāna-, pres.-stem dada-, dad-, \sqrt{da} (give), etc.; perf. dádrç-āna- (Vēd.), perf.-stem dadarç-, \sqrt{dar} ç (see); çiçriy-āná-, perf.-stem çiçri-, \sqrt{cri} (go); bubhuģ-āná, \sqrt{bhu} g (bend), etc.

In nom. sing. these sff. are masc. -māna-s-, āna-s; ntr. -māna-m, -āna-m; fem. -mānā, -ānā.

In Greek we find everywhere $-\mu \epsilon \nu o = \text{origl. -mana-}$ (n. sg. masc. $-\mu \epsilon \nu o - \varsigma$, ntr. $-\mu \epsilon \nu o - \nu$, fem. $-\mu \epsilon \nu o)$, and this in regular use after

§ 91. pres.-, fut.-, perf.-, and aor.-stems; e.g. pres. φερό-μενο-, pres.-stem φερε-, φερο-, origl. bhara-, bharā-, ν φερ, origl. bhar (bear); διδό-μενο-, pres.-stem διδο-, ν δο, origl. da (give); δεικνύ-μενο-, pres.-stem δεικνύ-, ν δικ (show), etc.; fut. δωσό-μενο-, fut.-stem δωσο-, ν δο; perf. λελυ-μένο-, perf.-stem λελυ-, ν λυ (loose); λελειμ-μένο- for *λελειπ-μενο-, perf.-stem λελειπ, ν λιπ (leave); simple aor. δό-μενο-, aor.-stem and ν δο-; λιπό-μενο-, aor.-stem λυπε-, λιπο-, ν λιπ; compound aor. λυ-σά-μενο, aor.-stem λυσα-, νλυ, etc.

The sf. origl. -mana- appears in early Gk. (Hom.) also in the function of a nomen action is or infinitive in loc. sg. fem. - μεναι (cf. γαμαί loc. from stem γαμα-), shortened to -μεν (also in Dôr. and Aiol. in verbal stems after the root-termination and aor. pass.), e.g. pres. ἔδ-μεναι, f.f. of stem ad-mana-, root and earlier pres.stem $\delta\delta$ -, oright ad (eat; the pres.-stem in use is $\delta\delta\epsilon$ -, $\delta\delta\epsilon$ -); άμυνέ-μεναι, άμυνέ-μεν, pres.-stem άμυνε- (ward off); φορή-μεναι, f.f. of stem bhāraya-mana-, pres.-stem φορη-, φορεε-, f.f. bhāraya-; fut. ἀξέ-μεναι, ἀξέ-μεν, f.f. of stem agsya-mana-, fut.-stem άξε-, i.e. *å $\gamma\sigma\epsilon$ -, *å $\gamma\sigma\gamma\epsilon$ -, f.f. ag- $s\gamma\alpha$ -, $\sqrt{a}\gamma$, oright ag (agere); pf. $\tau\epsilon\theta\nu\alpha$ - $\mu\epsilon\nu\alpha$, $\tau \epsilon \theta \nu \dot{a}$ -μεν, pf. stem $\tau \epsilon \theta \nu a$ -, $\sqrt{\theta \nu a} = \theta a \nu$ (die); $F \delta \delta$ -μεναι with lost reduplication, as Foida, f.f. (vi)vāida, f.f. of particip.-stem thus vivid-mana-, √ Fιδ (know); aor. simpl. δόμεναι, aor.-stem and √δο-; εἰπέ-μεναι, εἰπέ-μεν, aor.-stem εἰπε-, f.f. vavaka-, \sqrt{F} επ, origi. vak (speak); $\epsilon \lambda \theta \epsilon - \mu \epsilon \nu a \iota$, $\epsilon \lambda \theta \epsilon - \mu \epsilon \nu$, aor.-stem $\epsilon \lambda \theta \epsilon - (\hbar \lambda \theta o - \nu)$, ήλυθο-ν), $\sqrt{\epsilon}$ λυθ (come); aor.-pass. μ ιχθή- μ εναι, μ υγή- μ εναι, φανή-μεναι, etc. Cf. also § 93, a.

Note.—The (Vēd.) forms adduced by Benfey (Or. u. Occ., i. 606; ii. 97. 132) in Sk., such as $d\hat{a}$ -man- \bar{e} , cf. $\delta\delta$ - $\mu e \nu a \iota$, vid- $m\acute{a}n$ - \bar{e} , cf. $F\acute{\iota}\delta$ - $\mu e \nu a \iota$, as also the Zend fa-main- \bar{e} (\sqrt{fu} praise), are indeed datives of a neut. subst. stem Sk. $d\ddot{a}$ -man- (gift), vid- $m\acute{a}n$ -, Zend fa-fa-man- (praise); notwithstanding which we believe that we must adhere to our explanation as regards Gk., on account of the parallel participles in - $\mu e \nu o$ -, and moreover from want of evidence for the dat. sf. $a\iota$ belonging to consonantal stems in Gk. It is possible that the Gk. sf. - $\mu a \nu a$ - stands parallel to the

Aryan sf. -man-, besides the examples adduced—at least the two § 91. which I have met with (dāmanē and ctaomainē)—do not by any means correspond with the Gk. infin. in function.

Latin. The sf. origl. -mana- is retained only in relics, which yet show that it was once more generally used, and perfectly in accordance with Gk. analogy.

Substantives like alu-mno-, fem. alumna (nursling); vertu-mno-(Vertumnus, name of a god), probably from early Lat. *alo-meno-, \sqrt{al} (nourish); *uerto-meno-, \sqrt{uert} (turn), have lost the e of -meno-=- μ evo-=-mana-; the ending is here regularly added to the pres.-stem, just as in Sk. and Gk. The termination is added immediately to the final of the root in ter-mino- (bound), $\sqrt{\text{origl. }}$ tar; also $f\bar{e}$ -mina (woman) belongs here, though there may be some doubt as to the root of the word; further, da-mno- (damnum loss; Ritschl, Rhein. Mus. für Philol. N. F. xvi. pp. 304-308), pres.-stem and \sqrt{da} (da-mus, etc.; the change of meaning is shown by Ritschl in the passage quoted; perhaps also \sqrt{da} (cut) or dha (set, make) and not da (give), may here be fundamental, so that this has no bearing on the explanation of the form given by Ritschl).

The nom. pl. masc. of the sf., thus -mini- from earlier *-menei, *-menei-s (v. post. Declension), has remained as a periphrastic 2 p. pl. of med. pass., with auxil. vb. lost; the i for e (cf. Gk. -μενο-) is probably caused by following ni (§ 38), and here we find Lat. i corresponding to Gk. ε, as not unfrequently, e.g. in forms like homin-is, flāmin-is, and ποιμέν-ος. Accordingly Lat. feri-mini corresponds exactly to Gk. φερό-μενοι, f.f. of the stem bhara-mana-, pres.-stem feri-, origl. bhara-, √fer, origl. bhar. This -mini is simply added to tense- and mood-stems, also in the latest new-formations, e.g. pres. ind. amā-mini, monē-mini, audī-mini; opt. and conj. ferā-mini, moneā-mini, amē-mini, etc.; ama-bā-mini, ama-rē-mini, ama-bi-mini, etc.

The singular of this kind of the middle form, which in an earlier stage of the language probably coexisted with the other

- § 91. (v. post.) in all forms (thus e.g. a *feriminos sum, es, etc.), has been retained as 2 and 3 p. sg. imper. of the earlier lang., where it ends, however, not in os, but in o, probably after the analogy of the other real imperative endings in o (final s may be lost in Old-Lat., v. supr. § 79); e.g. fā-mino, frui-mino, progredi-mino, arbitrā-mino, profitē-mino, to which we must supply es or esto: thus the underlying forms are probably such as *fāminos esto, etc.
- § 92. VIII. Stems with sf. origl. -ra-.

Noun-stems with sf. -ra-, -la-, occur in the separate Indo-Eur. languages, and consequently it is certain that this formation belonged to the period of oright language. To show that l is a particularly common element in sff., it is enough to mention the diminutives in l (for Lat. and Gk. cf. L. Schwabe, de deminutivis Graecis et Latinis liber, Gissae, 1859). On -ra- as compar. sf., v. § 105.

Indo-Eur. origl.-lang. rudh-ra- (red), \sqrt{rudh} (become red); sad-ra- (seat), \sqrt{sad} (sit); ag-ra- (masc. field), \sqrt{ag} .

Sanskrit. Sf. -ra-, -la-, sometimes occurs with auxil. vowel i (§ 15, f). rudh-i-rá- (v. supr.); $d\bar{\imath}p$ -rá- (shining), $\sqrt{d\bar{\imath}p}$ (shine); kid-rá- (pierced; ntr. defect, flaw), \sqrt{kid} (split); $\acute{a}\acute{g}$ -ra- (masc. plain, field), $\sqrt{a}\acute{g}$ (go, drive); an-i-lá- (wind), $\sqrt{a}n$ (blow), etc.

 $\sqrt{\phi \nu}$ (beget, grow), etc. As primary and secondary sf. -ερο- § 92. often occurs, e.g. φανερό- (clear), $\sqrt{\phi a \nu}$ (φαίνω show); δροσερό- (dewy) from δρόσο-ς (fem. dew); φοβερό- (fearful), φόβο-ς (masc. fear), etc.; also in other sff., e.g. -νρο-, -ωρη-, -ωλο-, -ωλη-, -ιλο-, we find origh. sf. -ra-.

Latin. rub-ro- (ruber red), \sqrt{rub} , origh. rudh; scab-ro- (scaber rough), \sqrt{scab} (scabo scratch); sac-ro- (sacer holy), \sqrt{sac} (sancire); gnā-ro- (gnarus knowing), \sqrt{gna} (know); plē-ro-(full), \sqrt{ple} (fill); ag-ro- (ager field), \sqrt{ag} (agere); sella (stool) for *sed-la = \$\vec{e}\v

IX. Stems with sf. origl. -an-.

§ 93.

These stems occur in all Indo-Eur. languages, but rarely, it is true, in some of them, while in others they are very common—e.g. Teutonic; but I know of no example which we may confidently ascribe to Indo-European except vad-an- (ntr. water), and ak-an- (masc. stone; cf. Sk. ág-an- and Goth. aúhna-, which may very probably be derived from an older consonantal stem).

Sanskrit. $r\acute{a}\acute{g}$ -an- (n. sg. $r\acute{a}\acute{g}\acute{a}$, n. pl. $r\acute{a}\acute{g}\acute{a}$ n-as, loc. sg. $r\acute{a}\acute{g}\acute{n}$ -i, $r\acute{a}\acute{g}$ an-i, king), $\sqrt{ra}\acute{g}$ ($r\acute{a}\acute{g}$ -ati shines, rules); $sn\acute{e}$ -han-(friend), \sqrt{snih} (love); $v\acute{r}\acute{s}$ -an- (rainer; bull), $\sqrt{var}\acute{s}$ (rain) and other like nom. agentis; $\acute{a}\emph{g}$ -an- (masc. stone, rock), $\sqrt{a}\emph{g}$ (strike); ud- \acute{a} n- (ntr. water, not used in all cases), \sqrt{ud} (wet), probably arising from vad.

The very frequent Sk. sf. -in- is probably akin, e.g. primary

§ 93. in math-in- (beside mánth-an-, churning stick), \(\sqrt{math} \) (move, stir); exceptionally common as secondary sf., e.g. dhan-in- (rich), dhana- (ntr. possession), etc.

Greek. The sff. corresponding to origh. -an- are here not uncommon, e.g. $\tau \acute{e}\rho$ -εν- (n. sg. masc. $\tau \acute{e}\rho\eta\nu$ tender), $\sqrt{\tau}$ ερ ($\tau \acute{e}l\rho$ -ω rub); $\mathring{a}\rho\eta\gamma$ -όν- (masc., n. $\mathring{a}\rho\acute{\eta}\gamma$ -ων helper), cf. $\mathring{a}\rho\acute{\eta}\gamma$ -ω (help); $\mathring{e}\acute{l}\kappa$ -όν- (fem., n. $\mathring{e}\acute{l}\kappa$ -ών image), cf. \mathring{e} -οικ-a (perf. am like) and the like; more frequently still is found the sf. -ων-, which must be considered a lengthening or step-formation of -an-, e.g. $\mathring{a}\acute{l}\theta$ -ων- (glowing), cf. $\mathring{a}\acute{l}\theta$ -ω (kindle), $\sqrt{\mathring{l}\theta}$; κλύδ-ων (masc. wave, surge), $\sqrt{\kappa}\lambda\nu\delta$ (κλύζω rinse, wash); $\pi\acute{o}\rho\delta$ -ων (masc. farter), $\sqrt{\pi}$ ερδ ($\pi\acute{e}\rho\delta$ -ω fart), etc. In π ευθ-ήν (masc. inquirer), $\sqrt{\pi}$ υθ (π υν- $\theta\acute{a}$ νομαι, fut. π εύ(θ)-σομαι inquire); λ ειχ-ήν (scale), $\sqrt{\lambda}$ ιχ (λ είχ-ω lick), etc., we see the rarer -ην-=origh. -an-. As secondary sf. -ων- appears in $\mathring{a}\nu\delta\rho$ -ών (men's apartment), stem $\mathring{a}\nu\delta\rho$ - for \mathring{a} ανρ-, \mathring{a} -νερ- (n. \mathring{a} νήρ, gen. \mathring{a} νδρ-ός man); \mathring{i} ππών (masc. stable), \mathring{l} ππο- (horse), etc.

§93a. Latin. Sff. with short vowel are not very common, e.g. n. sg. a-sperg-o gen. -in-is (fem. besprinkling), stem thus -sperg-on-, -sperg-en-, √sparg (sparg-o sprinkle, scatter; a-sperg-o besprinkle); com-pāg-en- (fem., n. com-pāg-o fastening), √pag (pang-o fix, com-ping-o fix together); pect-en- (masc. comb; gen. pect-in-is), pect-o (comb); on the other hand, -ōn- is common, as in Gk. -ων-, e.g. ed-ōn- (masc., n. edo, gen. edōn-is eater), com-ed-ōn- (devourer), √ed (ed-o eat, com-ed-o eat up); com-bib-ōn- (fellow-drinker), cf. com-bib-o (drink with); ger-ōn- (bearer), cf. ger-o (bear, bring) and the like.

X. Stems with sf. -ana-.

The sf.-ana-, which in Sk., Zend, Gk., and Gothic forms stems used as infinitives, belongs to the period of the Indo-Eur. origl. language, in which formations such as bhar-ana-, \(\formathing bhar\) (bear); vagh-ana-, perhaps v\(\tag{a}gh\)-ana- (uectio, ntr. waggon), \(\formathing vagh\) (uehere), and the like must be presupposed. Cf. moreover the med. participles of Sk. and Zend in -ana-, -\(\tag{a}na\)- (\(\formathing\) 91),

which perhaps belong here; the Gk. pres.-stems such as in-ave-, §93 b. $\mu a \nu \theta$ -ave-, and Sk. e.g. iš-ana-, grh-āna- (§ 165, iv. b).

Sanskrit. Sf. -ana-, with root-vowel i, u accompanied by step-formation of root-vowel, forms nomina actionis and nomina agentis (also adjectivals). The dat. and loc. sg. of the abstracts in -ana- (-anāya-, -anē-) are used as infinitives, e.g. dat. gám-anāya, loc. gám-anē, stem gám-ana-, n. sg. gám-ana-m (ntr.), \sqrt{gam} (go); likewise bhár-ana- (bear, hold), \sqrt{bhar} (bear); bhéd-ana- (split), \sqrt{bhid} ; bháv-ana- (be), \sqrt{bhu} ; dána- (giving, gift), i.e. *dā-ana-, \sqrt{da} (give); kár-ana- (cause), verb-stem kāraya- (caus., \sqrt{kar} make), etc. The sf. appears as fem. also in this function, e.g. ās-anā- (stay), \sqrt{as} (sit); yāk-anā (begging), \sqrt{yak} (beg).

Nomina agentis of this form are e.g. $n\acute{a}y$ -ana- (ntr. eye 'the guiding thing'), \sqrt{ni} (lead); $v\acute{a}d$ -ana- (ntr. mouth, 'the speaking thing'), \sqrt{vad} (speak); $v\~{a}h$ -ana- (ntr. waggon, 'the carrying thing'), \sqrt{vah} (carry); $d\acute{a}\varsigma$ -ana- (masc. tooth, 'the biting one'), $\sqrt{da}\varsigma$ (bite); $n\acute{a}nd$ -ana- (masc. delighter), verb-stem nandaya-(delight), \sqrt{nand} (rejoice), etc. Fems. of this function are e.g. $\acute{g}an$ -anā (genetrix), i.e. * $\acute{g}an$ -anyā from masc. $\acute{g}\acute{a}n$ -ana-, verb-stem $\acute{g}anaya$ - (beget), $\sqrt{g}an$ (be born; beget), etc.

As adjs. are used e.g. *gval-aná-* (burning), \sqrt{gval} (burn); $c\bar{o}bh$ -aná- (pretty), $\sqrt{c}ubh$ (sparkle), etc.

Greek. Here belong the nouns in -avo-; thus neuters $\kappa \acute{o}\pi$ -avo-(pestle), $\sqrt{\kappa o \pi}$ ($\kappa \acute{o}\pi$ - $\tau \omega$, κe - $\kappa o \pi$ - $\omega \acute{o}$; strike); $\acute{o}\rho \gamma$ -avo- (tool), $\sqrt{F}e\rho \gamma$ ($\acute{e}\rho \gamma$ -ov work); $\acute{o}\chi$ -avo- (handle), $\sqrt{\acute{e}\chi}$ ($\acute{e}\chi$ - ω have, hold), $\delta \rho \acute{e}\pi$ -avo- (sickle), $\sqrt{\delta \rho e}\pi$ - ($\delta \rho \acute{e}\pi$ -oual pluck), etc.; $\tau \acute{\nu}\mu\pi$ -avo- (ntr. drum, cudgel) with nasalized $\sqrt{\tau \nu \pi}$ ($\tau \acute{\nu}\pi$ - $\tau \omega$ beat), which often happens in the stems of this formation used as pres.-stems; masculines, e.g. $\sigma \tau \acute{e}\varphi$ -avo- (crown) $\sqrt{\sigma}\tau \acute{e}\varphi$ ($\sigma \tau \acute{e}\varphi$ - $\epsilon \iota \nu$ gird, crown); $\chi \acute{o}\delta$ -avo- (Hêsuch. podex), $\sqrt{\chi}e\delta$ ($\chi \acute{e}\zeta\omega$ caco); feminines like $\mathring{\eta}\delta$ -ov $\mathring{\eta}$ (pleasure), $\sqrt{\mathring{a}}\delta$ ($\mathring{a}\nu\delta$ - $\mathring{a}\nu\omega$, $\mathring{a}\delta$ - $\mathring{\eta}\sigma\omega$, \mathring{e} -a δ -o ν please), oright svad; $\mathring{a}\gamma\chi$ -o ν (strangling, hanging), $\sqrt{\mathring{a}\gamma\chi}$, $\mathring{a}\chi$ ($\mathring{a}\gamma\chi$ - ω throttle, $\mathring{a}\chi$ - $\nu\nu$ - $\mu a\iota$ am pained), etc.; $\delta \rho e\pi$ - $\Delta \nu \eta$ (id. q. $\delta \rho \acute{e}\pi$ -avo ν); $\theta \eta \gamma$ - $\Delta \nu \eta$

\$93b. (whetstone, also θήγ-ανο-ν is attested), √θηγ (θήγ-ω whet); στεφ-άνη (encircling, crown), cf. στέφ-ανο-ς, etc. Adjectival, e.g. σκεπ-ανό- (covering), √σκεπ, cf. σκέπ-η (cover); iκ-ανό- (sufficient), √ίκ (ίκ-νέομαι, iκ-όμην come), etc.

Latin. A formation quite corresponding to origl. -anadoes not occur to me. As Gk. $\mu q \chi a \nu \eta$ appears in Lat. as māchina, we may probably place here the Lat. forms with sf.-ino-, -ina, whose i therefore, as often in Lat., is weakened from a; thus, e.g. $p\bar{a}g$ -ina (fem. leaf, page), \sqrt{pag} (fasten, join, pres. pang-o); sarc-ina (fem. bundle, load), \sqrt{sarc} (sarc-io patch, repair); dom-ino- (lord), fem. dom-ina, \sqrt{dom} (dom-o subdue, tame), cf. Sk. dam-ana- (taming, subduing).

§ 94. XI. Stems with sf. -na-.

These stems, used in all Indo-Eur. languages, are much employed as past part. pass., in meaning like those in -ta-.

As a regular formation this part. occurs only in certain Sk., Scl. and Teut. verb-stems, whereby its existence in Indo-Eur. is sufficiently proved.

In do-Eur. The frequent use of -na- in noun-stems appears from words such as svap-na- (masc. sleep), \sqrt{svap} (sleep); $st\bar{a}$ -na-(ground, place), \sqrt{sta} (stand).

Sanskrit. sváp-na- (as orig.); yaý-ná- (masc. offering, worship), \sqrt{ya} (offer, worship); ánna- (ntr. food) for *ad-na-

(§ 59, 1), √ad (eat); sthá-na- (place, ntr.), √stha (stand,—if § 94. it belong not to -ana-); secondarily in purā-na (adj. old) from purá (previous, earlier); mali-ná- (adj. dirty), from mala- (masc. ntr. dirt); phali-ná (bearing fruit), from phala- (ntr. fruit); the latter exx. coincide in form and function with past part. pass.

Latin. som-no- for *sop-no-=origl. svap-na-; common as secondary sf., e.g. pater-no-, uer-no-, salig-no- (stem salic-), etc.; also often with long ā, ē, ī before -na-, as font-āno-, stem font-, equī-no-, stem equo-, aliē-no- (§ 38) from stem alio-, canī-no-, stem cani-, bouī-no-, stem bou-, boui- (conson.-stems change to i-forms), doctrī-na, stem doctor-, doctri- from *doctori-, etc.

Suffix -na- forming past part. pass.

We reckon here those languages also which show only a few exx. or scattered traces of this use of sf. -na-.

Indo-Eur. The different uses in the different languages of -na- make it almost impossible to find many roots in which we can be sure that the p.p. pass. was formed from them by -na- as early as the time of the origl. lang. This was however undoubtedly the case with \sqrt{par} (fill), whose part. par-na- (full), masc. parna-s, ntr. parna-m, fem. parna, was already in existence. We cannot believe that this method of formation was confined to this one root.

Sanskrit. The formation in -na- is used in comparatively few roots, e.g. $p\bar{u}r$ - $n\acute{a}$ - for *par- $n\acute{a}$ - (§ 7), \sqrt{par} (fill); $st\bar{u}r$ - $n\acute{a}$ -for *star- $n\acute{a}$ - (§ 7), \sqrt{star} (sternere); bhug- $n\acute{a}$ -, $\sqrt{bhu\acute{g}}$ (bend); bhin- $n\acute{a}$ - for *bhid- $n\acute{a}$ - (§ 59, 1), \sqrt{bhid} (split), etc.

Greek. Not as a regular participial formation. Yet here

§ 94. belong adjs. like e.g. σεμνό- for *σεβ-νό- (§ 68, 1, c) 'revered,' √σεβ (σέβ-ομαι revere); ἀγ-νό- (worshipper, hallowed), √ἀγ (ἄζο-μαι revere); στυγ-νό- (hated, detested), √στυγ in ἔ-στυγ-ον (στυγ-εῖν hate); στεγ-νό- 'covered,' √στέγ in στέγ-ω (cover); δει-νό- 'feared,' √δι (fear, cf. δει-λό-ς cowardly, δέ-δοι-κα); ποθει-νό- 'longed-for,' verb-stem ποθεε- (ποθέω long for), etc. Substantivally used is τέκ-νο- 'thing born, bairn,' √τεκ (bear, cf. ἔ-τεκ-ον, τέ-τοκ-α).

Latin. Not as regular participial formation. Relics are e.g. $pl\bar{e}$ -no- (filled) $\sqrt{ple}=pla$, origl. par (fill); mag-no- 'increased,' $\sqrt{mag}=Sk$. mah (wax); $d\bar{o}$ -no- 'gift,' \sqrt{da} (give); reg-no- 'ruled thing,' \sqrt{reg} (rule), etc.

§ 95. XII. Stems with suffix -ni-.

Sf. -ni is much like -ti in use and function, but rarer. Like -ti it appears added to other sff. (cf. § 98, Lat. sf. $-ti\bar{o}$ -ni-). Generally speaking, there stand side by side the suffix-scales -na-, -ni-, -nu-, and -ta-, -ti-, -tu-. Sf. -ni- is origh.

Indo-Eur. ag-ni- (fire), \sqrt{ag} ?, is the only trustworthy example; yet it is highly probable that abstracts in -ni- were formed before the division of languages, because they occur in all Indo-Eur. languages.

Sanskrit. E.g. $gl\acute{a}-ni$ - (fem. fatigue, exhaustion), \sqrt{gla} (lose strength); $h\acute{a}-ni$ - (fem. abandonment), \sqrt{ha} (leave); $\acute{g}\acute{t}r-ni$ - (weakness from age) for *gar-ni- (§ 7), \sqrt{gar} (to age), etc., which all form their p.p. pass. in $-n\acute{a}$ -: all, however, do not take sf. -ni-, the majority take -ti-, e.g. $khin-n\acute{a}$ - (splitten), but khit-ti- (splitting, n.), \sqrt{khid} .

The datives of these abstracts in -ni-, like those in -ti-, can serve as infinitives.

Greek. Sf. -ni- is rare in Gk.; e.g. $\mu\hat{\eta}$ - ν i- ($\mu\hat{\eta}\nu$ i- ς , g. $\mu\hat{\eta}\nu$ i- ς , fem. wrath), $\sqrt{\text{origl.}}$ ma (think); $\sigma\pi\hat{a}$ - ν i- (fem. want), $\sqrt{\sigma}\pi a$.

Note.—Benfey, followed by Leo Meyer (Vgl. Gramm. ii. 141), explains the much-debated Gk. forms in $-\omega$, such as $\dot{\eta}\chi-\dot{\omega}$ (echo),

πειθ-ώ (persuasion, earlier φ), etc., voc. πειθοῦ, g. πειθοῦς from § 95. *πειθοος, etc., as stems in -ονι-, f.f. thus -ani- (*πειθ-ονι, whence πειθ-οῖ, as e.g. μείζω from μείζονα); G. Curtius (Erläuterungen, p. 50 sqq.) on the other hand, as stems in -οΓι-, probably rightly (cf. their Iôn. acc. in -ονν).

Latin. Masculines only, e.g. ig-ni- (ignis fire)=Sk. ag-ni-; $p\bar{a}-ni$ - (bread), \sqrt{pa} (cf. pa-sco); $p\bar{e}-ni$ - for *pes-ni- (§ 77, 1, a), $\sqrt{\text{origl. }pas}$ (gignere?), cf. Sk. $p\acute{a}s-as$ (ntr. $p\bar{e}$ nis), Gk. $\pi\acute{e}os$ for * $\pi e\sigma$ -os, M.H.G. $vis-ell\bar{i}n$ (penis); probably also $cr\bar{i}-ni$ -, $f\bar{u}-ni$ -, $f\bar{i}-ni$ - and $l\bar{e}-ni$ -, seg-ni-, the roots of which are difficult to trace.

XIII. Stems with sf. -nu-.

Indo-Eur. ta-nu- (stretched; body), \sqrt{ta} (stretch); su-nu- §95a. (one born, son), \sqrt{su} (bear, beget). The stems in -nu- are also used as pres.-stems (§ 165, iv. a), e.g. ta-nu-, \sqrt{ta} ; ar-nu-, \sqrt{ar} .

Sanskrit. ta- $n\acute{u}$ - (thin; fem. body), \sqrt{ta} ; $s\ddot{u}$ - $n\acute{u}$ - (son), \sqrt{su} ; $bh\ddot{a}$ - $n\acute{u}$ - (sun), \sqrt{bha} (shine); tras- $n\acute{u}$ - (fearful), \sqrt{tras} (tremble); grdh- $n\acute{u}$ - (greedy, eager), \sqrt{gardh} (seek, strive), etc.

Greek. Sf. -nu- is very rare, e.g. $\theta\rho\hat{\eta}$ -vv- (footstool), $\sqrt{\theta\rho a}$ ($\theta\rho\hat{\eta}$ - $\sigma a\sigma\theta a\iota$ seat oneself; $\theta\rho\hat{a}$ -vo- ς seat), origh. dhra, dhar (set, fix); $\lambda \iota \gamma$ -v ι - (fem. smoke, mist), root doubtful.

Latin. Sf. -nu- very rare, as in Gk.; te-nu-i-, like adjstems in u- generally (§ 88, b), has passed into the i-form; *te-nu-=origl. ta-nu-. Probably ma-nu- (fem. hand) belongs here, vorigl. ma (measure, shape).

XIV. Stems with sf. -ta-.

§ 96.

The participle in origl. -ta-, the past part pass comes under special notice here.

The element -ta- (cf. the pronominal root of like sound), one of the commonest sff. of our language, is multifariously used in stem- and word-formation (for the formation of the 3 pers. of the verb, probably also for the ablat. sg., as case-sf.). The sf. -ta- forms not only the adj. discussed hereafter, which must probably have had a more general meaning originally (cf. e.g. Sk. stem sthi-ta- 'standing,' \sqrt{stha} stand, like Gk. $\sigma\tau a$ - $\tau \acute{o}$ -; cak- $t\acute{a}$ - 'powerful, mighty,' \sqrt{cak} 'be able, capable'), and have been

§ 96. hardened into a regular means of expressing p.p. pass. only at a later period of the Indo-Eur. lang.—but nouns also substantivally used are formed by -ta-, e.g. Gk. κοῖ-το- (masc. couch, bed), κοί-τη (fem. id.), √κι (κεῖ-ται lies); φόρ-το- (masc. load, burden), √φερ (φέρ-ω bear); πό-το- (masc. draught), √πο (drink); ἄρο-το- (masc. ploughing), stem ἀρο- (plough); here belong nomina agentis masc., with stem termination raised to -τη-, as κρι-τή- (n. κριτής judge), √κρι (κρί-νω sift); δέκ-τη- (receiver), √ δεκ (Iôn. δέκομαι beside δέχομαι, receive); ποιη-τή- (maker, poet), verb-stem ποιη- (ποιέω make); προ-φη-τή- (prophet), √φα (φη-μί say); τοξευ-τή- (bowman), verb-stem τοξευ- (τοξεύω shoot arrows), etc., which end in -τα, sometimes in nom. case, in Hom.; Latin noxa (hurt), i.e. *noc-ta, √noc (nocere hurt); sec-ta (mode of action, sect), √sec (sequi follow); and in Zend, Scl., and Lith.

As a secondary sf. -ta- often occurs, thus in function of forming superl. (v. post. § 106), moreover in Gk. - $\tau\eta$ - (as primarily), forming nomina agentis, e.g. $\tau o \xi \acute{o} - \tau \eta$ - (bowman), $\tau \acute{o} \xi o$ - (bow, ntr.); $i\pi\pi \acute{o} - \tau \eta$ - and $-\tau a$ (horseman), $i\pi\pi o$ - (horse); $\pi o \lambda \acute{l} - \tau \eta$ - (burgher), $\pi \acute{o} \lambda \acute{l}$ - (fem. city), etc.; further often forming fem. abstracts, e.g. Sk. prthu- $t \ddot{a}$ (breadth), $prth \acute{u}$ - (broad); Gk. $\beta \iota o - \tau \acute{\eta}$ (life), $\beta \iota o$ - (masc. life); Scl. and Goth.

Sf. -ta- forms moreover one kind of pres.-stem (§ 165, vii.), e.g. Gk. $\tau \dot{\nu} \pi - \tau e$ -, $\sqrt{\tau \nu \pi}$; often it stands combined with other sff. also added. These combinations will be collected at the end of this section.

Indo-Eur. The sf.-ta-, forming the p.p. pass., occurs immediately at the end of the fundamental form of the root in case of stem-verbs, in case of derived verbs at the end of the verb-stem, e.g. da-ta- (datus), n. sg. masc. da-ta-s, ntr. da-ta-m, fem. da-tā, \sqrt{da} (give); kru-ta- (*clutus), \sqrt{kru} (hear); kak-ta-(coctus) \sqrt{kak} (cook); $s\bar{a}daya$ -ta- (fixed, set), stem $s\bar{a}daya$ -, \sqrt{sad} (sit), etc.

Sanskrit. Sf. -tá-, n. sg. masc. -tá-s, ntr. -tá-m, fem. -tá,

e.g. cru-tá-, \sqrt{cru} (hear); ma-tá-, \sqrt{ma} , man (think); ģńā-tá-, § 96. \sqrt{g} (know); bhr-tá-, \sqrt{bhar} (bear); yuk-tá-, \sqrt{yu} (join); bad-dhá- for *badh-ta-, \sqrt{badh} , bandh (bind); lab-dhá- for *labh-ta-, \sqrt{labh} (get); vištá- for *viç-tá-, \sqrt{vi} (enter), etc. The contact of the sf. with consonantal root-terminations brings many sound-laws into play (cf. §§ 58, 59, for details a Sk. special grammar). Several roots have auxil.-vowel i (§ 15, f), e.g. pat-i-tá-, \sqrt{pat} (fall); rarely \bar{i} , e.g. $grh-\bar{i}$ -tá-, \sqrt{grah} , grabh, (seize, grasp); stems in -aya- always have i, which is probably a relic of -ya-, e.g. $v\bar{e}$ di-tá-, stem $v\bar{e}$ daya-, or perhaps from a stem *vēd-ya- (make known) \sqrt{vid} (perceive).

Roots ending in nasals, which did not become amalgamated with the oright root vowel-termination till a later date, show their shorter primitive form before the sf., e.g. $ga-t\acute{a}-$, \sqrt{ga} (go), which appears mainly as gam; $ta-t\acute{a}-$, \sqrt{ta} , which appears mostly as tan (stretch), etc. On the other hand, e.g. $k\ddot{a}n-t\acute{a}-$, with nasal retained and root-vowel lengthened, \sqrt{kam} (love).

Before this sf. weakening or loss of root-vowel a is very common, e.g. kr- $t\acute{a}$ -, \sqrt{kar} (make); $pr \acute{s}$ - $t\acute{a}$ -, \sqrt{prakh} (ask); sthi- $t\acute{a}$ -, \sqrt{stha} (stand); hi- $t\acute{a}$ - for *dhi- $t\acute{a}$ -, \sqrt{dha} (set); $p\bar{t}$ - $t\acute{a}$ -, \sqrt{pa} (drink), etc.; $datt\acute{a}$ - for *dad-ta- retains pres.-reduplication (cf. 1 pl. pres. dad- $m\acute{a}s$ damus), \sqrt{da} (give). Particulars of this formation would be out of place here.

Greek. Sf. -τό-, n. sg. masc. -τό-ς, ntr. -τό-ν, fem. -τή; e.g. κλυ-τό-, $\sqrt{\kappa}$ λυ (hear); step-formn. of root-vowel remains the same as in pres.-stem, φευκ-τό-, 1 sg. pres. φεύγ-ω, $\sqrt{\phi}$ υγ (flee), at an earlier period ϕ υκ-τό- still existed; λ ευπ-τό-, pres. λ είπ-ω, $\sqrt{\lambda}$ υπ (leave); other pres. formns. however are not retained in these forms; σ παρ-τό-, $\sqrt{\sigma}$ περ (sow), pres. σ πείρω=* σ περ-γω; σ τα-τό-, $\sqrt{\sigma}$ τα (stand), pres. σ στημι; σ ε-τό-, σ ε (set), pres. σ ε-τό-η-μι; σ ε-τό-, σ ε (know), pres. σ ε-τύ-σκω; σ ε-τό-, σ ε (break), pres. σ ε-τύ-νυμι; σ ε-τύ-σκω; σ ε-σκω; σ ε-σκω

§ 96. complete -το-, e.g. ἀ-γνώτ- (n. ἀγνώς, gen. ἀγνώτ-ος unknown), cf. γνω-τό-; ἀβλής, ἀβλή-τ- beside ἀβλη-τό- (unstruck), and a few similar cases, wherein τ follows a long root-vowel.

Latin. Sf. -tw-, earlier -to-, n. sg. masc. -tu-s, earlier -to-s, ntr. -tu-m, earlier -to-m, fem. -ta, e.g. da-to-, \sqrt{da} (give); sta-to-, \sqrt{sta} (stand); i-to-, \sqrt{i} (go); di-ru-to-, \sqrt{ru} (destroy); in-clu-to-, \sqrt{clu} (hear); but $ex-\bar{u}$ -to-, \sqrt{u} (put on; ex-u-o put off), im-b \bar{u} -to-, etc.; coe-to-, \sqrt{coc} (cook); rup-to-, \sqrt{rup} (break); str \bar{a} -to-, \sqrt{ster} , stra (spread); passo- for *pas-to- for *pat-to-, \sqrt{pat} (suffer), etc.; (the sound-laws in eases where final consonants of roots come into contact with t of sf. -to- are treated of in § 77, 1). With active function, a tolerably common use of this sf., $p\bar{o}$ -to-(drunken), \sqrt{po} , origl. pa; pranso- for *prand-to- (having dined), \sqrt{prand} (prandere), etc. These participles are often used substantivally, e.g. stems dic-to- (dic-tu-m saying), $gn\bar{a}$ -to- ($n\bar{a}$ -tus son), fac-to-, $u\bar{o}$ -to-, etc.

Screip-to- (cf. Umbr. screih-to-) may come from the presscreib-o, scribo (write), like iunc-to- from iung-o (join). The lengthening of vowel in āc-to-, lēc-to-, strūc-to-, iūnc-to-, etc., not universally marked in pronunciation (Corssen, Aussprache und Betonung, i. 156, 158, sqq.), is a late-formation in Latin, or perhaps nothing more than a result produced by the influence of grammarians upon the language. In secū-to-, \sqrt{sequ} , sec, origl. sak, Sk. sak, etc. (follow); locū-to-, \sqrt{loqu} , origl. rak (speak); ū has been developed out of the v following guttural k (§ 71, 1), after the analogy of derived verbs; the origl. *sec-to- occurs clearly in e.g. sectari (Pauli, Geschichte der Lateinischen Verba in -uo, Stettin, 1865, p. 17).

Not unfrequently there occurs the auxiliary vowel i (§ 43), e.g. in uom-i-to-, \sqrt{uom} (spue), beside em-p-to-, \sqrt{em} (buy; for -p- v. § 77, g); gen-i-to-, \sqrt{gen} (produce), 1 sg. pres. gi-g(e)n-o; $am\bar{a}$ -to-, $sop\bar{i}$ -to-, $ac\bar{u}$ -to-, from verb-stems $am\bar{a}$ -, $sop\bar{i}$ -, $ac\bar{u}$ -, but mon-i-to-, auc-to-, etc., according to the class of stem-verbs, not *mon \bar{e} -to-, *aug \bar{e} -to- (moneo, augeo), yet $d\bar{e}l\bar{e}$ -to-, $su\bar{e}$ -to-, etc.

The sf. -ta- often occurs, as we have already remarked, as the § 96. first element of compound suffixes; thus in -ta-ta-, forming superl. in Gk. (§ 106); -ta-ti- in the Sanskrit (Vēd.) secondary sf. -tā-ti- (fem.), in which we have probably to recognize a further formation of the above-mentioned sf. -ta-, fem. -tā, which is used in a similar function to form abstracts, e.g. sarvá-tāti- (totality), st. sárva- (all); devá-tāti- (godhead), stem dēvá- (masc. god); vasú-tāti- (wealth), stem vásu- (possession), etc. The rarer sf. form -tā-t-, e.g. dēvá-tāt-=dēvá-tāti-; satyá-tāt- (truthfulness), stem satya- (true), etc., is clearly a shortening of -tā-ti-. With regard to sf. -ti- we shall see that even by itself it is shortened to -t- in Sk., Zend, Gk., and Lat.

In Greek this - $t\bar{a}t$ - is much used in a similar function in form - $\tau\eta\tau$ -, e.g. $\nu\epsilon\dot{o}$ - $\tau\eta\tau$ - (n. sg. $\nu\epsilon\dot{o}\tau\eta$; fem. youth), stem $\nu\dot{\epsilon}o$ -(new, young); $\phi\iota\lambda\dot{o}$ - $\tau\eta\tau$ - (love), $\phi\iota\lambda o$ - (dear); $\beta\rho a\delta\dot{v}$ - $\tau\eta\tau$ - (slowness), $\beta\rho a\delta\dot{v}$ - (slow); $\dot{\epsilon}\nu\dot{o}$ - $\tau\eta\tau$ - (oneness), stem $\dot{\epsilon}\nu$ -; $\pi a\nu\tau\dot{o}$ - $\tau\eta\tau$ - (universality), stem $\pi a\nu\tau$ -, etc. Thus here also, as in not a few other cases (e.g. gen. dat. dual.; before sf. - $F\epsilon\nu\tau$ - § 90), the consonantal stems follow the analogy of the a-stems. In Latin the sf. becomes $-t\bar{a}$ -ti-, $-t\bar{a}$ -t-, e.g. $d\bar{u}ri$ - $t\bar{a}ti$ - (hardness), $d\bar{u}ro$ -(hard; on i for o, v. § 40); anxie- $t\bar{a}ti$ - from anxio- (on ie for ii, v. § 38); ciui- $t\bar{a}ti$ -, ciui-; uetus- $t\bar{a}ti$ -, uetus, etc.

Note.—Acc. to Benfey (Or. und Occ. ii. 521 sqq.) Lat. salūtis from *saluot-, itself a shortening of *saluo-tāt-, like Zend haurvat- from haurva-tāt-.

A secondary sf. -ta-na- occurs in Sk. e.g. hyas-tana- (yesterday's), hyas (yesterday), to which Lat. -tino- in such forms as cras-tino-, sērō-tino-, closely corresponds; cf. Iran. -ta-na-, Zend -çanh-, Lith. -tina-.

Concerning sf. -ta-ma-, forming superl. like -ta- and -ta-ta-, v. § 108; on -ta-ra- used in comp. degree, v. § 105. It may be that the sff. -tar-, -tra-, which will be handled in the next section, are likewise contracted forms of -ta- and -ra- combined, for archaic abbreviations of the elements of suffixes are undeniable in some cases.

§ 97. Stems with sff. -tar-, -tra-; -tar- forms a nomen agentis and fut. part. act.; -tra- forms nouns which mostly signify an instrument.

That the nouns in origl. -tar- in Indo-Eur. were even at that period employed as pres. and fut. participles, we cannot prove with certainty, because those functions are found only in the Asiatic and S. European divisions of the speech-stem. There was no doubt originally only one formation, whose earliest form has held its ground in those nouns of this kind which are used as words of kinship, i.e. -tar- for all genders, n. sg. masc. and fem. -tar-s, neut. -tar-. This sf. is added immediately to the root, which mostly is raised one step; in case of derived verbs it is added to the verb-stem, e.g. $m\bar{a}$ -tar- (the 'female producer,' mother), \sqrt{ma} (produce, bring forth); pa-tar- (father), \sqrt{pa} (protect, rule); $bhr\bar{a}$ -tar- (brother), \sqrt{bhar} , bhra (bear, preserve); $d\bar{a}$ -tar- or perhaps da-tar (giver), \sqrt{da} (give); probably su-tar- (woman), \sqrt{su} (produce, bear), whence sva-sutar- (woman related, i.e. sister); gan-tar- (begetter), \sqrt{gan} (beget), etc.

The correspondence between the languages tends to prove that already in early times there existed a kindred form in *-tara- (for -tara- used to form comparative, v. post.), whence came -tra-; whilst -tar- represents persons, this -tara-, -tra- was used of things, and hence does not form nomina agentis, but usually indicates the instrument. Formations such as dak-tra-(tooth), \sqrt{dak} (bite); $g\bar{a}$ -tra- (limb), \sqrt{ga} (go); krau-tra- (ear), \sqrt{kru} (hear), etc., can scarcely have been wanting in the origlalanguage.

The origin of the suffix -tar-, -tra-, is obscure. We conjectured (§ 96), that it is composed of two suffixes -ta- and -ra-, as -mana- from -ma- and -na-; we might make an equation thus, -tar-: *-ta-ra- (tra)::-man-: ma-na- (mna). As -mana-, -man-, is raised to -māna-, -mān-, so also -tara-, -tar-, is raised in the languages to -tāra- (Lat. -tūro-), -tār- (Lat. -tūro-).

Sanskrit. Suffix -tar-, n. sg. -tā for -tar-s (§ 15, d), acc. § 97. sg. -tar-am, in words expressing kinship, e.g. pi-tár- for *pa-tar-(father), mā-tár- (mother), bhrā-tar- (brother), etc. The formations of this kind which were felt as nomina agentis are distinguished by a higher step-formation of -tar- to -tar- (n. sg. masc. -tā- for -tar-s, but acc. sg. -tār-am); this is also shared by svásar- (sister), for *sva-star-, *sva-su-tar- (literally kinswoman). The suffix -tar- belonging to nomina agentis is added to the end of the root. With the exception of medial a. the root vowels are raised one step before this suffix, e.g. dā-tár-(dator), \sqrt{da} (give). The fem. affixes -ya, e.g. n. sg. $d\bar{a}$ -tri, i.e. *da-tryā (§ 15, c), from *dā-tar-yā; instead of the primary form of the suffix, which has held its ground in words expressing relationship (mā-tar- fem., but may be masc. as well) also in feminines, a further formation has here worked its way in ; cf. forms such as pi-tr-ya- (fatherly), from pi-tar- (father); kar-tár-, √kar (make); pak-tár-, √pak (cook); bōddhár- for *bōdh-tar-(§ 59, 2), \(\sqrt{budh}\) (know), etc. Before this suffix, as e.g. in past part. pass. and elsewhere, many roots show an auxiliary vowel i, more rarely i, e.g. gan-i-tár-, \sqrt{gan} (beget); grah-i-tár-, \sqrt{grah} (seize), etc.

These stems in -tar- serve for a periphrastic future, in such a way that the masc. is used for all genders; in pers. 1 and 2 the nominative form of the singular has become stationary (thus passing over likewise into the dual and pl.), and is welded together with the pres. of the verb as (be), while the 3rd pers. does not require the verbal form, e.g.

- Sing. 1. dātāsmi from dātā asmi (I am [about] to give).
 - 2. dātāsi from dātā asi.
 - 3. dātá (rarely dātásti from dātá asti).
- Plur. 1. dātāsmas from dātā (we might have expected dātāras) smas.
 - 2. dātāstha from dātā stha.
 - 3. dātāras.

§ 97. In the earliest Sanskrit (Vēd.) these forms appear also accentuated on the root, e.g. då-tar-, etc., wherein we ought perhaps to recognize an earlier system of accentuation, since the rule is for accent and step-formation to go together.

Suffix -tra-, almost always neut., n sg. -tra-m, rarely fem., n. sg. -trā, e.g. crb-tra- (ear), \sqrt{cru} (hear); $car{d}$ -tra- (limb), \sqrt{ga} (go); cas-tra- (garment), \sqrt{vas} (clothe); cak-trā- (mouth), \sqrt{vak} (speak); $car{d}$ -tra- masc., and $car{d}$ -trā fem., acc. to sound-laws for $car{d}$ -tra-, -trā (tooth), \sqrt{dac} , $car{d}$ -coordinate. Also with auxil. vowel i, e.g. $car{d}$ -tra- (shovel), $\sqrt{car{d}}$ (dig), etc. Moreover the root sometimes appears furnished with the stem-termination a, as in pres., e.g. $car{d}$ -tra- (wing), $\sqrt{car{d}}$ (fly), pres. stem $car{d}$ -1 (3 sg. $car{d}$ -1); $car{d}$ -1 (plough), $car{d}$ -1 (split), pres.-stem $car{d}$ -1 (3 sg. $car{d}$ -1), etc.

Greek. The suffix original -tar- does not serve to express the future-relation; it appears as - \(\tau \rho \rightarrow \) in words of kinship, as -τηρ-, -τορ-, when forming nomina agentis, in the latter of which formations the feminine is distinguished by the affix -yahere also (cf. § 97). 1. Words of kinship, e.g. $\pi a - \tau \acute{e} \rho$ - (father, acc. $\pi a \tau \epsilon \rho - a$), $\mu \eta - \tau \epsilon \rho - (\text{mother, acc. } \mu \eta \tau \epsilon \rho - a)$; 2. nomina agentis, e.g. $\delta o - \tau \eta \rho$ - (giver, acc. $\delta o - \tau \eta \rho$ -a), also $\delta \omega - \tau \eta \rho$, $\sqrt{\delta o}$ (give); the fem. is formed from unraised suffix -tar-, δό-τειρα, i.e. * $\delta o - \tau \epsilon \rho - ya$, f.f. $da - tar - y\bar{a}$; $\sigma \omega - \tau \eta \rho$ (saviour), stem $\sigma \omega$, fem. σώ-τειρα, etc. Forms like γενε-τήρ, $\sqrt{\gamma}$ εν (beget), must probably be held to have stems in original a underlying them (cf. Beside these also is -τορ-=origl. -tar-, ρη-τορ-(speaker, acc. $\dot{\rho}\dot{\eta}$ - $\tau o \rho$ -a), $\sqrt{\dot{\rho}\epsilon} = \dot{\epsilon}\rho$ (speak); $Fi\sigma$ - $\tau o \rho$ - ($i\sigma \tau \omega \rho$, ἴστωρ knower, witness), $\sqrt{F\iota\delta}$ (know); δῶ-τορ- (δώτωρ Hom. Od. = $\delta \omega \tau \eta \rho$), etc.; φρά-τορ- (n. pl. φρά-τορ-ες), origh. bhrā-tar-(brother), has become removed from words of kinship in form as well as in meaning (member of a $\phi \rho \dot{a} \tau \rho a$). In - $\tau o \rho o$ - we see almost certainly a further formation from - \(\tau \rho \rho \), after the analogy of the a-stem, thus in $\delta\iota\dot{a}\kappa$ - $\tau o\rho o$ - (guide, Hom.); \dot{a} - $\lambda\dot{a}\sigma$ - $\tau o\rho o$ beside ἀ-λάσ-τορ- (malignant, avenger), $\sqrt{\lambda}a\theta$ (forget); a solitary

-τυρ-, -τυρο-, is found in μάρ-τυρ- (gen. μάρτυρος witness), § 97. μάρ-τυρο-, $\sqrt{}$ originally smar (remember).

The feminines in $-\tau\rho\iota a$ are distinguished from those in $-\tau\epsilon\iota\rho a$ only by the loss of the a of the suffix original -tar; from -tar-ya came -trya, i.e. -tria, e.g. $\pi ol\eta - \tau\rho\iota a$, verbal-stem $\pi ol\eta - (\text{make})$. The secondary formation by suffix -ya- is generally very common here, as e.g. from stem $\pi a - \tau \epsilon \rho$ - is formed a stem $\pi a - \tau \rho - \iota a$ (origin, race); $\sigma \omega - \tau \eta \rho - \iota a$ (saving), stem $\sigma \omega - \tau \eta \rho$ -; these secondary formations intruded into the fem. and supplanted the original stem in -tar- with few exceptions.

The feminines in $-\tau\rho l\delta$ - (n. sg. $-\tau\rho l\varsigma$) are either late-formations peculiar to the Greek, formed by means of a later suffix $-\iota\delta$ -, or (cf. G. Curtius Gk. Etym.³ p. 583 sqq.) $-\tau\rho\iota\delta$ - is merely a phonetic variation from $*\tau\rho\iota y$ -, so that here a suffix $-\iota ri$ - would have to be presupposed, e.g. $a\mathring{v}\lambda\eta$ - $\tau\rho l\delta$ - (flute-player, fem.), verbal-stem $a\mathring{v}\lambda\eta$ -; πa - $\tau\rho l\delta$ - (fatherland) from stem πa - $\tau \epsilon \rho$ -, etc.

The suffix original error appears as $-\tau\rho\sigma$, $-\theta\rho\sigma$ (neut.), $-\tau\rho\sigma$, $-\theta\rho\alpha$ (fem.); the aspiration is probably caused by the r, e.g. νίπ-τρο- (neut. washing-water) for *νιβ-τρο-, √νιβ, original nig (retained in $\nu l \zeta \omega$, wash,=* $\nu \nu \gamma - y \omega$, § 63, 1); $\tilde{a}\rho o - \tau \rho o - \tau$ (neut. plough), from verbal-stem $\dot{a}\rho o$ - (plough, in $\dot{a}\rho \dot{o}$ - ω , $\dot{a}\rho \dot{o}$ - $\sigma \omega$, $\dot{a}\rho \dot{o}$ - $\sigma a\iota$), $\sqrt{\dot{a}\rho}$. In $\bar{\iota}\bar{a}$ - $\tau\rho\dot{o}$ - (masc. healer), verbal-stem $\dot{\iota}a$ - ($\bar{\iota}\dot{a}o\mu a\iota$ heal); δαι-τρό- (masc. carver), cf. δαί-ομαι (divide), nomina agentis are formed in $-\tau\rho o$ - (cf. $-\tau o\rho o$ - above). Further $\beta \acute{a}$ - $\theta \rho o$ - (ntr. base, step), $\sqrt{\beta a}$, original ga (go); $\dot{\rho}\dot{\eta}$ - $\tau\rho a$ (fem. agreement), $\sqrt{\dot{\rho}}\epsilon$; μάκ-τρα (kneading-trough), $\sqrt{\mu}$ ακ (knead, μάσσω = *μακγω, generally softened into μαγ); φρά-τρα, Iôn. φρή-τρη (clan), $\sqrt{\phi \rho a} = \phi \epsilon \rho$, origh. bhra, bhar, cf. $\phi \rho \hat{a} - \tau o \rho = \text{origh. } bhr\bar{a}$ --tar-; κοιμή-θρα (sleeping-place), verbal-stem κοιμα- (κοιμάω put to rest), etc. The suffixes $-\tau\lambda o$ -, $-\theta\lambda o$ -, fem. $-\tau\lambda \eta$ -, $\theta\lambda \eta$ -, e.g. $\chi \dot{v}$ - $\tau \lambda o$ - (neut. liquor, fluid), $\sqrt{\chi v}$ (pour); $\theta \dot{v} \sigma$ - $\theta \lambda o$ - (neut. implement for Bacchus-worship), $\sqrt{\theta v}$, the σ appears in other § 97. formations also from this root; ἐχέ-τλη (plough-tail), verbalstem ἐχε- (cf. ἔχε-τε), √ἐχ (have, hold); γενέ-θλη (birth), stem γενε- (cf. γένε-σις, γενέ-σθαι, etc.), √γεν, must be treated as parallel forms of the above.

Latin. Words expressing kinship have suffix -ter-, whose e is lost in almost all cases; the nomina agentis in -tor-, with step-formation of original -tar-, like Greek - $\tau\eta\rho$ -; for the periphrasis of the future is used the suffix - $t\bar{u}ro$ - from *- $t\bar{v}ro$ -, f.f. - $t\bar{u}ra$ -, raised from original -tar- and + suffix -a-, as in suffix -tro-, f.f. -tra-, likewise frequently used. The suffix *- $t\bar{u}ro$ - occurs as fem. - $t\bar{u}ra$ in forming nomina actionis as well. The fem. - $tr\bar{i}c$ - is a further formation by means of -c-, and perhaps presupposes -tria-; a similar further formation is found in - $tr\bar{i}$ -no-, - $tr\bar{i}$ -na-; cf. with -tr- \bar{i} -c- such formations as - \bar{i} -uo-, - \bar{i} -no-.

1. Words of kinship, e.g. pa-ter, mā-ter, frā-ter (but sorōr-from *sosōr-, and this from *sos-tōr-, *svas-tār-, as in Sk. svá-sar-, acc. svá-sār-am); 2. nomina agentis, e.g. uic-tōr-, \(\sqrt{uic} \) (uinco, uic-tus); censōr- for *cens-tōr-, \(\sqrt{cens} \) (censeo); sponsōr- for *spond-tōr- (\ \ 77, \ b), \(\sqrt{spond} \) (spondeo); balnea-tōr-, verbalstem *balnea, which is not used, however; moni-tōr-, \(\sqrt{moni-tus} \) (monere); da-tōr-, \(\sqrt{da} \), etc.

Suffix - $t\bar{a}ra$ -, forming fut. part., e.g. da- $t\bar{u}ro$ -, \sqrt{da} ; uic- $t\bar{u}ro$ -, \sqrt{uic} , etc.; as a fem., forming nomina actionis, e.g. sepul- $t\bar{u}ra$ -, cf. sepul-tus (sepelio bury); $\bar{u}s\bar{u}ra$ (use, interest) for * $\bar{u}t$ - $t\bar{u}ra$ (§ 77, 1, b), cf. $\bar{u}t$ -or (use); $cens\bar{u}ra$ for *cens- $t\bar{u}ra$, \sqrt{cens} , etc.

Suffix -tro- (cf. Corssen, Krit. Beitr. 366 sqq.), e.g. in rōs-tro- (rostrum beak) for *rōd-tro- (§ 77, 2), \sqrt{r} ōd (rōdo gnaw); claus-tro- (lock, barrier) for *claud-tro- (§ 77, 2), \sqrt{claud} (claudo shut); $ar\bar{a}$ -tro- (plough), verbal-stem $ar\bar{a}$ - (plough), \sqrt{ar} , etc.; this suffix seldom appears as fem., as in fulgē-tra- (Plin.=fulgor brightness), verbal-stem fulgē- (shine, gleam).

Further formations of this suffix original -tar-. 1. Through -ya-, esp. -trio- and -tōrio, e.g. in pa-tr-io- from pa-ter; audī--tōr-io- from audī-tōr-; lēgā-tōr-io- from lēgā-tōr-; uic-tōr-ia

from uic-tōr-, etc. 2. Through -īc-, e.g. uic-tr-īc- from uic-tōr-, § 97. or rather from an older unraised form of the suffix original -tar-, which lost its vowel before -īc-; imperā-tr-īc- from imperā-tōr-; ex-pul-tr-īc- likewise from an unused *ex-pultōr-; pis-tr-īc- from pis-tōr-, \psi (pinso, pistus), etc. 3. Through -īna, e.g. pis-tr-īno- (pistrinum), pis-tr-īna from pis-tōr-, \psi pis doc-tr-īna from doc-tōr-, \psi doc, etc.

Note.—In some cases at least Lat. -bro- appears to be=Gk. - $\theta \rho o$ - (medial b corresponds of course by rule to Gk. θ ; cf. § 77, 1, c), which, as we saw, arose from - +po-, -tra- (cf. Leo Meyer, Vergl. gr. der griech. u. lat. Sprache, ii. 235, 241; Ebel, zeitschr. xiv. 77 sqq.; Kuhn, ib. p. 215 sqq.). If this assumption is well founded, this -bro-=f.f. -tra- has become mixed in Lat. with -bro- = f.f. -bhra- (\sqrt{bhar} bear; cf. supr. § 89, n. 2), precisely as in Lat. the root original dha has become confounded with root original da (§ 73, 2). As examples of Lat. -bro-=-trawe adduce cri-bro- (cribrum sieve), \sqrt{kri} (cf. $\kappa \rho l - \nu \omega$, $\kappa \rho l - \sigma \iota - \varsigma$) = O.H.G. hrī-tara, M.H.G. rei-ter, f.f. therefore krai-tra-; tere-bra (fem. borer), cf. τέρε-τρο-ν (id.); palpe-bra (eyelid) bes. earlier and more vulgar palpe-tra, as in Gk. φέρε-θρο-ν bes. φέρε-τρο-ν; tene--brae (darkness) for *tenes-brae, *temes-brae (§ 77, 1, a), *temes-θrae, =Sk. támis-rā (dark) for *tamis-trā=O.H.G. dins-tar, M.H.G. dims-ter, dins-ter (Kuhn, Zeitschr. xv. 238), f.f. tams-tra-from tamas-tra-. The mainstay of these explanations lies in consobrino- (consobrinus cousin on mother's side), which is explained as from *sosbrīno-, *sosθrīno-, *so-str-īno-, from stem *so-stor-= original sva-star- (sister). So that in consobrinus the t of svastar- would be retained, which is lost in soror=*sosor. Corss. (Krit. Nachtr. 186 sqq.), however, does not allow Lat. -bro-= -tro-; he explains -sobrino- from *-sor-bri-no- (§ 77, 1, a), and this from *soror-bri-no- (§ 77, 2). This view is supported by the Keltic, cf. siur, which points to an Italo-Keltic form *svasarwithout t. This difficult question has been handled at length by Ascoli, Studj. crit. ii. p. 33 sqq.; he pronounces in favour of Lat. -bro-=original -tra-. Cf. § 89, Lat. n.

XVI. Stems with suffix -ti-.

§ 98.

The suffix -ti- is often used to form verbal-substantives, which serve in several languages (Sanskrit, Zend, Sclavonian, Lithuanian) as infinitives and gerundives in certain cases. The

§ 98. suffix -ti- has besides—like suffix -a—the function of forming nomina agentis, but is more rarely so employed. The suffix is at home in all Indo-European languages, and was therefore already in existence in the original-language. It occurs also as a secondary suffix, cf. tā-ti- (§ 90), tū-ti- (§ 99) and the numeral (§ 109 sqq.).

Indo-European original-language. From each verbalstem might perhaps have been formed a nomen in -ti-, e.g. ma-ti- (thought), \sqrt{ma} ; bhu-ti- (ϕ \acute{v} - σ i- ς), \sqrt{bhu} (become, be); kak-ti- (coc-ti-o), \sqrt{kak} (cook); mar-ti- (death), \sqrt{mar} (die), etc.

In the function of a nomen agent is a certain example in the original-language is found in pa-ti-(lord), \sqrt{pa} (protect).

Sanskrit. The suffix -ti- forms:-

1. Nomina actionis feminina, e.g. $m\acute{a}$ -ti- (meaning, thought), \sqrt{ma} (man think); $sth\acute{i}$ -ti- (stand), \sqrt{stha} (stand); $cr\acute{u}$ -ti- (hearing), \sqrt{cru} ; $bh\acute{u}$ -ti- (being), \sqrt{bhu} (be); $p\acute{a}k$ -ti- (coctio), \sqrt{pak} (cock); $\acute{u}k$ -ti- (speech), \sqrt{vak} (speak); $y\acute{u}k$ -ti- (iunctio), $\sqrt{yu\acute{g}}$ (join), etc.

Infinitive functions are found in the dative of these nomina action is in -ti, thus $y \hat{u}k - tay \hat{e}$, etc.

2. Nomina agentis, e.g. $p\acute{a}$ -ti- (masc. lord), \sqrt{pa} (protect); $\acute{q}n\acute{a}$ -ti- (masc. kinsman), $\sqrt{\acute{q}}n\acute{a}$ from $\acute{q}an$ (gignere).

A shortening of this -ti- (cf. suffix $-t\bar{a}$ -t-= $-t\bar{a}$ -ti- \S 96) is found in suffix -t-, which occurs especially in those roots which terminate in a short vowel, e.g. $mah\bar{\imath}$ - $k\check{s}i$ -t- (ruling the land), $\sqrt{k\check{s}i}$ (rule); sarva- $\acute{g}i$ -t- (conquering all), $\sqrt{g}i$ (conquer); likewise -sru-t- (flowing), \sqrt{sru} ; -kr-t- (making, fashioning), \sqrt{kar} (make), etc.

In gerundive use we find a shortened instrumental from nomina action is in -ti-, i.e. -ty-a (from -ty-ā, v. post. Declension), which originally had probably a wider employment, but is confined in the actual state of the language to roots in i, u, and ar, and is moreover only used where prepositions have become welded on before them, e.g. $s\tilde{a}$ - $gr\dot{u}$ -tya, \sqrt{gru} (hear);

vi-fi-tya, \sqrt{fi} (conquer). If the root end in other sounds, the § 98. t of suffix -ti- is lost, so that -ya only remains; the cause of this loss may possibly be seen in the frequent position of t after consonants, and the weakened termination of the word due to the prefixed, originally adverbial, elements (the prepositions). A similar unusual loss of consonants in the case of person-terminations (v. post. in loco). E.g. \bar{a} - $d\bar{a}$ -ya from \bar{a} -da (take), \sqrt{da} (give); ni-vi-ya from ni-vi-c (settle down), \sqrt{vi} -c (go in), etc. Stems in -aya- lose this first a of the suffix, e.g. pra- $b\bar{o}dh$ -ya from stem pra- $b\bar{o}dh$ aya- (awaken, remind). Details of this formation would be out of place here.

In the earlier language this formation of the gerundive occurs also in case of uncompounded verbal-stems; on the other hand there are traces of the more complete -tya-, even after consonantal root-terminations (cf. post. -tvā used with uncompounded verbal-stems).

Perhaps -tya-, fem. -tyā, is a further formation of the suffix -ti-, e.g. in kr-tyā (deed, doing), \sqrt{kar} (make); i-tyā (going), \sqrt{i} (go); ji-tyā (gain, victory), $\sqrt{j}i$ (conquer); ha-tyā (slaying), \sqrt{ha} , han (kill), etc.

Greek. The suffix $-\tau\iota$ -, regularly $-\sigma\iota$ - (§ 68, 1, c), which has arisen from the earlier $-\tau\iota$ - (preserved in Dôric), is frequently used, and forms nomina actionis fem. from verbal-stems, e.g. $\mu\hat{\eta}$ - $\tau\iota$ - (wile), \sqrt{ma} (think); $\phi\acute{a}$ - $\tau\iota$ - (speech, report), $\sqrt{\phi}a$ (say), beside $\phi\acute{a}$ - $\sigma\iota$ - (speech, saying); $\phi\acute{\nu}$ - $\sigma\iota$ - (nature), $\sqrt{\phi}\nu$ (be, grow); $\pi\acute{e}\psi\iota$ -, i.e. * $\pi e\pi$ - $\sigma\iota$ - from earlier * $\pi e\pi$ - $\tau\iota$ - (coctio), $\sqrt{\pi}e\pi$ (cook); $\zeta e\hat{\nu}\xi\iota$ -, i.e. * $\zeta e\nu\gamma$ - $\sigma\iota$ - (joining), $\sqrt{\zeta}\nu\gamma$ (join); $\gamma\nu\hat{\omega}$ - $\sigma\iota$ - (knowing), $\sqrt{\gamma}\nu$ 0, etc.

Nomen agentis, e.g. $\pi \dot{\phi} - \sigma \iota$ (lord)=Sk. and original $p \dot{a} - t i$ -, \sqrt{pa} ; $\mu \dot{a} \nu - \tau \iota$ (seer), \sqrt{man} (think).

τ only has remained in $\dot{\omega}\mu o-\beta\rho\dot{\omega}$ -τ- (raw-eating), $\sqrt{\beta\rho o}$, $\beta o\rho$ ($\beta\iota-\beta\rho\dot{\omega}-\sigma\kappa\omega$ eat, $\beta o\rho$ -ά food), and perhaps in a few others.

- $\sigma\iota a$ fem. is a further formation through combination of a with - $\sigma\iota$ -=- $\tau\iota$ -, e.g. $\theta\upsilon$ - $\sigma\iota a$ (sacrifice), $\sqrt{\theta\upsilon}$ (sacrifice); $\delta o\kappa\iota \mu a$ - $\sigma\iota a$

§ 98. (test), verbal-stem δοκιμαδ- (δοκιμάζω for *δοκιμαδyω test), etc. Cf. Sk. -tyā.

Latin. The primary suffix -ti- has mostly been shortened to -t- in consequence of the confusion of the i-forms and the consonantal stems, e.g. $d\bar{o}$ -ti- (dos dower), \sqrt{da} (give); men-ti- (mens mind), \sqrt{men} (think, cf. memin-i); mor-ti- (mors death), \sqrt{mor} (mori); the i is retained e.g. in messi-, i.e. *met-ti- (harvest, § 77, 1, b), \sqrt{met} (metere); ues-ti- (cloak), root original vas (clothe).

Suffix -ti- appears as forming nomina agentis here too, in po-ti-, nom. sg. poti-s (powerful, capable), which however serves for all genders, Sk. and origl. $p\acute{a}$ -ti-, Gk. $\pi\acute{o}$ - $\sigma\iota$ -; cf. the compound of this poti-, com-po-ti- (compos), im-po-ti- (impos); further in super-sti-t- (superstes remaining over), \sqrt{sta} ; sacer- $-d\~{o}$ -t- (sacerdos), root probably original dha (set, do), which is confused in Lat. with da (give; thus 'sacrificium perficiens' or 'dans'; cf. Benfey in Kuhn's Zeitschr. ix. p. 106); com-i-t-(comes, mate), \sqrt{i} (go), etc. -ti- is kept whole in uec-ti- (masc. lever), which can scarcely have been derived from any other root except \sqrt{ueh} (originally carry), and originally probably meant something like uector (bearer, carrier).

A further formation of -ti- is -tio- neut., -tia fem., both generally secondary; thus here an o, origl. a, has been added to the earlier suffix, cf. Sk. -tyā; e.g. stem ini-tio- (beginning), primary formation from \sqrt{i} (go); but serui-tio- (slavery) from stem seruo- (slave); iusti-tia (justice) from iusto- (just); duri-tia and duri-tiē-, stem duro- (§ 38; on weakening of final -o to -i, § 40), etc.

For the formation of abstracts the suffix -ti- has regularly given way to -tiōn-, earlier prob. -tiōni-, e.g. coc-tiōn-, collīsiōn-from *līd-tiōn- (§ 77, 1, b; cf. collīd-o), sta-tiōn-, nā-tiōn-, etc. Note also the diminutives in -tiun-cula formed from these stems, e.g. ora-tiun-cula, sessiuncula, i.e. *sed-tiun-cula.

The suffix -tiōn-, -tiōni-, is probably (Leo Meyer, Or. und Occ. ii. p. 586) a further formation from -tyā-, Lat. -tiō-, -tia

(v. supr.), by means of suffix -ni-, cf. -tā-ti- from -ta-; the sff. § 98. -na-, -ni-, often indeed run parallel to -ta-, -ti-. As -tā-ti- was shortened to -tā-t-, so was -tiā-ni- to -tiō-n-; indeed in Latin the consonantal-stems are mostly like the i-stems.

XVII. Stems with suffix -tu- and kindred suffixes.

Stems in -tu- serve as verbal-substantives in Sk., Lat., Sclav., Lith.

Indo-European original-language. The suffix is § 99. undoubtedly original, and must probably have been in use in the case of each verb, as Sk., Lat., Lithuano-Sclav. testify to this employment, e.g. da-tu- or $d\bar{a}$ -tu-, \sqrt{da} (give); bhar-tu-, \sqrt{bhar} (bear), etc. These stems in -tu- were nomina action is capable of complete declension.

Sanskrit. The suffix -tu- forms nomina actionis, with step-raising of root-vowel u, i, medially and finally, whilst a is rarely raised except when it is final; after the auxil. vowel i was often introduced before this suffix. These stems serve in ordinary Sanskrit in the accusative, but in the older language of the Vēdas, in the dat. and gen. sing. also, as Infinitive, e.g. $d\hat{a}$ -tu-m, \sqrt{da} (give); $sth\hat{a}$ -tu-m, \sqrt{stha} (stand); $g\hat{e}$ -tu-m, \sqrt{g} (conquer); $g\hat{e}$ -tu-g-tu

Vēdic dat.; e.g. $d\hat{a}$ -tav-ē, \hat{e} -tav-ē, $k\acute{a}r$ -tav-ē, etc.; there is found a dative form also in $\bar{a}i$, e.g. $y\acute{a}$ -tav- $\acute{a}i$ (with two accents, a very exceptional circumstance), from \sqrt{ya} (go); $k\acute{a}r$ -tav- $\acute{a}i$, \sqrt{kar} (make); $y\acute{a}m$ -i-tav- $\acute{a}i$, \sqrt{yam} (subdue); moreover the gen. occurs, e.g. $sth\acute{a}$ -tō-s, \sqrt{stha} ; \acute{e} -tō-s, \sqrt{i} (go); $k\acute{a}r$ -i-tōs, \sqrt{kar} (go).

As ordinary nomina actionis there are in use e.g. r- $t\hat{u}$ (masc. definite time, season), \sqrt{ar} (go); $g\bar{a}$ - $t\hat{u}$ - (masc. going, place), \sqrt{ga} (go); $g\bar{a}$ - $t\hat{u}$ - (masc. singing), \sqrt{ga} (sing; 3 sg. $g\hat{a}$ -yati); $g\hat{a}$ n- $t\hat{u}$ - (masc. creation, being), \sqrt{ga} (beget).

§ 99. From this abstract in -tu-a participium necessitatis is formed by means of -ya-, v. supr. § 89.

-tu- rarely forms nomina agentis, e.g. $y\bar{a}$ -tú- (wanderer), \sqrt{ya} (go); $bh\bar{a}$ -tú (sun), \sqrt{bha} (shine), etc.

Suffix -tra-, near akin to suffix -tu-, and perhaps sprung from it; cf. -tya- beside -ti-, -tra- beside -tar-, -anta- beside -ant-.

A gerundive in -två (used in case of verbal-stems not compounded with prepositions) shows by its accent, and the weakening of the root-vowel, that it is formed from -tva-, not -tu-; it is an instrumental of a stem-form in -tva-. In the Ved. there appears also -tvi, which must therefore be taken to stand for *tvyā (§ 15, c), and this *-tvyā most prob. (Benfey, Kl. gr. § 389) by loss of a from *-trayā, *tra-y-ā is however likewise only another form of the instrum. sing., i.e. one formed through y according to the frequent stem-extension. In the Ved. also occurs the dat. from -tva-, viz. -tvaya. Exx. sthi-tvá, stha (stand; cf. infin. sthå-tu-m); dat-två, from present-stem dad, \sqrt{da} (give; cf. infin. $d\hat{a}$ -tu-m); $\hat{g}i$ -tv \hat{a} , $\sqrt{\hat{g}i}$ (conquer, infin. ģē-tu-m); bhū-tvā, √bhu (be, infin. bháv-i-tu-m); uk-tvā, √vak (speak; infin. vák-tu-m); kr-två, √kar (make; infin. kár-tu-m); pak-två, √pak (cook); the auxil. vowel i occurs, e.g. in vid-i-två √vid (know; inf. vét-tu-m); likh-i-tvá, or lēkh-i-tvá, √likh (scratch, write); korayi-tvā, verbal-stem koraya- (steal), etc.

Vēdic forms in $-tv\bar{\imath}$ are found in e.g. $kr-tv\bar{\imath}$, \sqrt{kar} (make); Vēd. dat. e.g. $ga-tv\bar{a}ya$, \sqrt{ga} (go); $dat-tv\bar{a}ya$ (cf. supr. $dat-tv\bar{a}$), \sqrt{da} (give); $kr-tv\bar{a}ya$, \sqrt{kar} (make), etc.

Suffix -tva- appears also in the function of forming a participium necessitatis (Benfey, Volst. gr. § 904; also in Böhtlingk and Roth's Dictionary), e.g. $k\acute{a}r$ -tva- (to be made; neut. work to do, task), \sqrt{kar} (make); $\acute{g}\acute{e}$ -tva- (to be gained, captured), $\sqrt{\acute{g}i}$ (conquer); $v\acute{a}k$ -tva-, $\sqrt{va\acute{k}}$ (speak); $sn\acute{a}$ -tva-, \sqrt{sna} (bathe), etc.

The suffix -tvá- (neut., n. sg. -tvá-m) is very frequent as secondary suffix, forming abstracts, e.g. nag-na-tvá- (nakedness)

from nagná- (naked); pati-tvá- (wedlock), from páti (lord, § 99. husband); panka-tvá- (πεντάς) from pankan- (five); bahu-tvá- (plurality) from bahú- (many), etc.

In Vēd. is also found -tva-ná- (neut.), a further formation by means of suffix -na-, in a like employment, e.g. sakhi-tvaná- (friendship) from sákhi- (friend); vasu-tvaná (wealth), stem vasu- (id.), etc.

Also suffix -tvan- occurs in stems which serve as adjectival nomina agentis, e.g. $k\dot{r}$ -tvan- (causing, effective, active), \sqrt{kar} (make); another stem, whose f.f. is kar-tva-rya-, serves as fem., nom. sing. $k\dot{r}$ -tvari; both stems occur side by side in $\acute{g}i$ -tvan-, $\acute{g}i$ -tvara-, fem. $\acute{g}i$ -tvari, i.e. $\acute{g}i$ -tvaryi (victorious), $\sqrt{\acute{g}i}$ (conquer); i-tvan-, i-tvara-, fem. i-tvari (going), \sqrt{i} (go).

Greek. Nomina actionis fem. like $\beta\rho\omega$ -τύ- (food), $\sqrt{\beta}\rho\sigma$ (cf. $\beta\rho\omega$ -τός, $\beta\rho\hat{\omega}$ - μ a, $\beta\iota$ - $\beta\rho\hat{\omega}$ - σ κω, $\beta\rho\hat{\omega}$ - σ ο μ aι); $\beta\sigma$ -τύ- (fem. crying), verbal-stem $\beta\sigma$ -, $\beta\sigma$ - ($\beta\sigma$ - σ); $\delta\sigma$ - σ - σ 0 (eat), originally from a stem $\delta\sigma$ -, which also occurs elsewhere; $\gamma\epsilon\lambda a\sigma$ -τύ- (laughter), stem $\gamma\epsilon\lambda a\varsigma$ - (cf. $\gamma\epsilon\lambda a\sigma$ -τός, ϵ - $\gamma\epsilon$ - σ 0); ϵ - ϵ - ϵ 0 (city), root original ϵ 0 (dwell), etc.

-σύ-νη stands for *-τυνη (like σύ for τύ; cf. § 68, 1, c) as a secondary suffix, cf. $\nabla \bar{e}d$. -tva-na-, Zend -thva-na-, e.g. δικαιο-σύνη (justice) from δίκαιο- (just); μνημο-σύνη (memory), stem μνῆμον- (n. sg. masc. μνήμων mindful), which has lost its final n before suffix -συνη, as occurs in other cases also, etc.

Latin. The suffix -tu- is a very favourite one, and serves regularly to form a nomen action (masc.), which is called supine in acc. and abl. sg., e.g. stă-tu-, n. sg. sta-tu-s (standing), acc. as supine sta-tu-m, abl. sta-tū, \sta (stare, sistere); i-tu-, \sqrt{i} (go); dic-tu- \sqrt{dic} (say); uic-tu- (as subst. victuals), \sqrt{uiu}, uig (uīuo live); tac-tu- (subst. touch), \sqrt{tag} (tango touch); cur-su- for *cur-tu- (subst. course), \sqrt{cur} (curro run); aes-tu- for *aed-tu- (heat, tide), root original idh (burn); ūsu-for *ūt-tu- (as subst. use), cf. ūt-or (use); gressu- for *gred-tu- (as subst. going, step), \sqrt{grad}, gred (gradior step); cāsu- for

§ 99. *cad-tu- (as subst. fall), \sqrt{cad} (cado fall), etc. Sound-laws of combination of t with other consonants are stated § 77, 1, b, 2. apparā-tu-, magistrā-tu-, son-i-tu-, audī-tu-, etc., are referred to derived verbs, which are moreover partly not in use.

Suffix -tva- is rare, e.g. mor-two- (dead), \sqrt{mor} (mori die); mu-two- (borrowed, interchanged), probably from a \sqrt{mi} (exchange), therefore for *moi-two-, which may be traced in other languages (e.g. Old Bulgarian $m\check{e}$ -na change, Lith. mai-na-s exchange); sta-twa (fem. statue), \sqrt{sta} (stand); $f\bar{a}$ -two- (fore-telling), \sqrt{fa} (fari utter).

As a secondary suffix, in formation of abstracts is found not -tu-, but -tū-ti- and -tū-don-, -tū-din-, further formation from -tu-(the latter is obscure in its second element), both fem., e.g. serui-tūti- (fem. slavery), stem seruo- (slave), gen. pl. serui-tūti-um (Plaut.); senec-tūti- (old age), stem senec- (senex old man); iuuen-tūti- (young age), stem iuuen- (earlier than iuueni-s youth, cf. Sk. stem yuvan-); uir-tūti- (manhood, valour), probably from *uiri-tūti-, stem uiro- (uir man). Concerning this suffix cf. Karl Walter, Zeitschr. x. 159. -tūdin- is more common, e.g. alti-tūdo (height), alto- (high); turpi-tūdo (loathsomeness, ugliness), stem turpi- (hateful, loathsome); consuētūdo for *consuēti-tūdo (§ 77; wont), stem consuēto- (wont), etc.

§100. XVIII. Stems with suffix -dhi-.

Not vouched for except in Aryan and probably in Greek; it is therefore doubtful whether it can be ascribed to a date so early as that of the original-language.

Sanskrit. In the earliest period of the language only a dat. fem. (v. post. Cases) of the suffix -dhi-, -adhi-, i.e. -dhyāi, -adhyāi, is added to the verbal-stem of the present; where this ends in a, -dhyāi only is added, in the other cases -adhyāi; e.g. yáġa-dhyāi, pres.-stem yaġa-, √yaǵ (sacrifice); sáha-dhyāi, pres.-stem sáha-, √sah (subdue, endure); piba-dhyāi, pres.-stem piba-, √pa (drink); mādayá-dhyāi, verbal- and present-stem mādáya-(cheer), √mad (rejoice); prná-dhyāi, present-stem prná-, √par

(fill); duh-ádhyāi, present-stem duh- (3 sg. med. dug-dhḗ for § 100. *duh-tē), √duh (milk); çay-ádhyāi, present-stem çē-, çay- (3 sg. med. çē-tē), √çi (lie, rest); vāvrdh-ádhyāi, intensive-stem vāvrdh-, √vardh (wax), etc.

The suffix appears added to the aorist-stem in $\acute{g}ar\acute{a}$ -dhyāi, cf. 3 sg. aor. \acute{a} - $\acute{g}ara$ -t, $\checkmark \acute{g}ar$ (become rotten, grow old; 3 sg. pres. $\acute{g}\acute{t}rya$ -ti, $\acute{g}rn\acute{a}$ -ti); huvá-dhyāi, aorist-stem huva- (present-stem Vēd. hava-), \checkmark hu (cry); probably also $gam\acute{a}dhyãi$, aorist-stem gama- $(\acute{a}$ -gama-t, present-stem $g\acute{a}kkha$ -, $\checkmark ga$, gam (go).

These forms serve as infinitives.

 $-\sigma\theta ai$ corresponds to this $-dhy\bar{a}i$; it is, however, difficult to decide whether the s has here been tacked on at the beginning, or whether it has been lost in Arvan, in which case -sdhyāi would be the general fundamental form; the y is lost, as frequently, in Greek. It is not unlikely that the σ in $-\sigma\theta a\iota$ owes its origin to the analogy of the medial forms in $\sigma\theta$ (- $\sigma\theta\epsilon$, $-\sigma\theta o\nu$, $-\sigma\theta \eta\nu$, $-\sigma\theta \omega\nu$); besides σ is a very favourite sound before dentals in Greek. Also as regards the final at, which does not appear elsewhere in Gk. as the dative suffix of i-stems, we may fall back on the analogy of the infinitive -eval, -ueval. form serves for the med. In Greek $-\sigma\theta ai$ only appears as a suffix, not $-\epsilon \sigma \theta a \iota$ (cf. the perfect), as in Sk. $-adhy\bar{a}i$. This $-\sigma \theta a \iota$ is added to the different tense-stems; e.g. pres. $\phi \epsilon \rho \epsilon - \sigma \theta a \iota = Sk$. bhára-dhyāi; τίθε-σθαι, δίδο-σθαι, αοτ. θέ-σθαι, δό-σθαι; fut. δώσε--σθαι, Sk. * $d\bar{a}sya$ - $dhy\bar{a}i$; perf. λελείφ-θαι for * λ ελει π -σθαι, f.f. *riraik-dhyāi, etc.

XIX. Stems with suffix -ant-, -nt-.

§ 101.

The suffix -ant-, when added to vowel-stems -nt-, forms active participles from the present-stems, and therefore also from the stems of the future (which is formed by means of a present-form of \sqrt{as}), and of the acrist. The suffix -ant-, -nt-, occurs in all Indo-European languages.

Indo-European original-language. Pres. as-ant-, pres.-stem and \sqrt{as} (be); bhara-nt-, pres.-stem bhara-, \sqrt{bhara}

§ 101. (bear); starna-nt-, pres.-stem star-na-, √star (strew, sternere), etc.; future dāsya-nt-, future-stem dā-sya-, √da (give); simple aorist vavaka-nt-, aorist-stem vavaka- √vak (speak); compound aorist diksa-nt-, aorist-stem diksa-, √dik (show), etc. These stems served originally for all genders.

Sanskrit. -ant- is added also to the pres-stem in -nu-(-u), whilst to other vowel-stems -nt- is added. The formation from a corist-stems is unknown except to the earliest language. Reduplicated-stems lose the n of the suffix, and thus end in -at-,-t-. In fem., as frequently, a stem further formed by -ya- is used, and this -ya-—in fem. therefore -yā-—is not seldom contracted to \bar{s} (cf. § 15, c).

Examples: $ad-\acute{a}nt$ -, root and present-stem ad- (eat); s-ant-, root and present-stem as-, the initial a is lost also in other forms of this root; kinv- $\acute{a}nt$ -, \sqrt{ki} (gather), present-stem $kin\acute{u}$ -; $tud\acute{a}$ -nt-, \sqrt{tud} (strike), present-stem $tud\acute{a}$ -; $n\acute{a}hya$ -nt-, \sqrt{nah} (tie), present-stem $n\acute{a}hya$ -; $yun\acute{a}$ -nt-, \sqrt{yu} (join), present-stem $yun\acute{a}$ -; but $d\acute{a}dha$ -t-, \sqrt{dha} - (set), present-stem $d\acute{a}dha$ -, etc. The n which is lost in most cases never appears at all in neut., e.g. ad- $a\acute{t}$, etc.; fem. ad- $at\acute{t}$, s- $at\acute{t}$, kinv- $at\acute{t}$, $tud\acute{a}$ - $nt\~{t}$ or tuda- $t\acute{t}$, $n\acute{a}hya$ - $nt\~{t}$, etc.

Future -syá-nt-, neut. -syá-t-, fem. -syá-nt\(\bar{i}\) or -sya-t\(\bar{i}\); e.g. kari\(\bar{s}yá-nt-, fem. kari\(\bar{s}yá-nt\(\bar{i}\) or kari\(\bar{s}ya-t\(\bar{i}\), \sqrt{kar} (make), future-stem kari\(\bar{s}yá-, i.e. \sqrt{kar} +auxil.-vowel i (\§ 15, f) and present-stem in -ya- of \sqrt{as} (be).

Examples of 2 aor. are (acc. to Benfey) e.g. $vrdh\acute{a}$ -nt-, \sqrt{vardh} (wax), aor.-stem vrdha-; $sani\acute{s}\acute{a}$ -nt-, \sqrt{san} (uphold, love), aor.-stem $sani\acute{s}a$ -, i.e. \sqrt{san} , aux.-vowel i and past tense of \sqrt{as} .

In nandaya-ntá-, verbal-stem nandaya-, al. lect. nanda-ntá-, present-stem nanda-, \sqrt{nand} (rejoice); faya-ntá (nom. propr. and in other meanings), present-stem faya-, \sqrt{fi} (conquer, capture), is probably a further formation of this suffix by means of a; the same holds good of fanta- beside fanta- (tooth; yet probably from fanta- fanta- (tooth; yet probably from fanta- fanta

of rajatá (white, neut. silver), cf. argento-, $\sqrt{ra\acute{g}}$, f.f. rag, arg § 101. (gleam).

Greek. -ovt- and -vt-; the ν is here fixed, and never lost; fem. *-ovtya, *-vtya, which in obedience to sound-laws becomes *-ovaa, -ouaa, -oa, with compensatory lengthening of the preceding vowel; e.g. $\dot{\epsilon}\acute{o}\nu\tau$ - (later $\ddot{o}\nu\tau$ -), i.e. * $\dot{\epsilon}\sigma$ -ov τ -, fem. $\dot{\epsilon}o\ddot{\nu}\sigma a$ = * $\dot{\epsilon}\sigma$ -ov τ -ya, $\checkmark\dot{\epsilon}$ s (be), present-stem $\dot{\epsilon}\sigma$ -; ϕ - $\epsilon\rho$ -v τ -, fem. ϕ - $\epsilon\rho$ -v σ a from * ϕ - $\epsilon\rho$ -v τ -a, * ϕ - $\epsilon\rho$ -v τ -ya, $\checkmark\phi$ - $\epsilon\rho$ -(set), present-stem τ (θ - ϵ -; $\delta\iota\delta\acute{o}$ - $\nu\tau$ -, $\checkmark\delta$ o (give), present-stem $\delta\iota\delta\sigma$ -; $i\sigma\tau\acute{a}$ - $\nu\tau$ -, $\checkmark\sigma\tau$ a (stand), present-stem ι ($\sigma\tau$ a-; δ - $\epsilon\iota\kappa\nu\nu\acute{\nu}$ - $\nu\tau$ -, $\checkmark\delta\iota\kappa$ (show), present-stem $\delta\epsilon\iota\kappa\nu\nu$ -, etc.

Likewise in the future, e.g. $\lambda \hat{\nu} \sigma o - \nu \tau$ -, $\sqrt{\lambda \nu}$ (loosen); future-stem $\lambda \hat{\nu} \sigma o$ -, etc.

Simple aorist, e.g. $\theta \dot{\epsilon} - \nu \tau$, root and aor.-stem $\theta \dot{\epsilon}$, (set); $\delta \dot{\epsilon} - \nu \tau$, root and aorist-stem δo - (give); $\sigma \tau \dot{a} - \nu \tau$ - root and aorist-stem $\sigma \tau a$ - (stand); $\phi \nu \gamma \dot{\epsilon} - \nu \tau$ -, $\sqrt{\phi \nu \gamma}$ (flee), aorist-stem $\phi \nu \gamma o$ -, $\phi \nu \gamma \dot{\epsilon}$ -, etc.

Compound aorist, e.g. λῦσα-ντ- √λυ, aor.-stem λῦσα-, etc.

The further formation in -ya which occurs in fem., appears also in the noun subst. $\gamma \epsilon \rho o \nu \sigma la$ (senate) = * $\gamma \epsilon \rho o \nu \tau - \iota a$, from stem $\gamma \epsilon \rho o \nu \tau - \iota v$. sqq.).

These formations have sometimes no corresponding verbs extant, e.g. $\gamma \acute{e}\rho$ -ovt- (old), $\sqrt{\gamma}e\rho$, Sk. $\acute{g}ar$, original gar (grow old); $\acute{e}\kappa$ - $\acute{o}\nu\tau$ -(willing), $\sqrt{\acute{e}\kappa}$, Sk. $va\varsigma$, original vak (will); $\mathring{a}\kappa$ -ovt-(masc. dart), $\sqrt{\acute{a}\kappa}$ (be sharp), cf. $\mathring{a}\kappa$ - $\mathring{u}\kappa$ -

Latin. -ent-, earlier *-ont-, -unt-, but mostly -nt-, because almost all present-stems in Latin end in vowels. The same stem serves for all genders; e.g. (prae)s-ent- (present) for *-es-ent, root and present-stem es; i-ent-, -e-unt-, i.e. *e-ont-, $\forall i$ (go), present-stem ei-; *uol-ont, uol-unt-, present-stem and $\forall uol$ (uol-t he wills), is retained in uolunt-arius beside the ordinary uol-ent-; uehe-nt-, \forall ueh (carry), present-stem uehe-, etc. Like all consonantal stems, these also in most cases revert

§ 101. to the analogy of the i-stems (uehentē-s, uehenti-bus, etc.). The further stem-form in -ya-, found in Sk., Zend and Gk. as fem., and possessing a yet wider range in Sclav. and Lith., is found substantively used in Latin, e.g. silent-iu-m, sapient-ia, licent-ia, abundant-ia, lubent-ia, prudent-ia, Constant-iu-s, Fulgent-iu-s, Florent-ia, Leuces-io-s=*Leucent-io-s (present *leuco, \langle luc, v. § 36), Prudent-iu-s, etc. No verbs are found parallel to such formations as frequent-, recent-, petulant-, dent-=Sk. dant- (tooth). Here belongs also parent-, as the aorist, to which its form and function point us (cf. § 36), is no longer extant (cf. parient-from the present stem).

The further formation by means of suffix -a-, Lat. -o-, is seen in argent-o- (neut. silver)—Sk. raga(n)tá-; unguento- (neut. ointment), cf. unguent- part., from present ungui-t, ungi-t (he anoints); fluento- (neut. stream), beside participle fluent-, present flui-t (flows).

§ 102. XX. Stems with suffix -as-.

Stems in origl. -as-, common to all Indo-European languages, serve mostly as neutral nomina actionis, more rarely as nomina agentis.

This suffix forms Infinitives in Sanskrit and Latin.

In do-European original-language. e.g. gan-as (genus), \sqrt{gan} (beget); ap-as (opus), \sqrt{ap} (do); man-as (mind), \sqrt{man} (think); nabh-as (cloud, sky), \sqrt{nabh} ; vak-as (voice), \sqrt{vak} (speak); krav-as (utterance, word), \sqrt{kru} (hear), etc.

Sanskrit. Substantives in -as-, before which root-vowels i and u are raised a step, e.g. $\acute{g}\acute{a}n$ -as (genus), $\checkmark \acute{g}an$ (beget); $m\acute{a}n$ -as (mind), $\checkmark man$ (think); $s\acute{a}d$ -as (seat), $\checkmark sad$ (sit); $v\acute{a}k$ -as (speech), $\checkmark vak$ (speak); $v\acute{a}s$ -as (garment), $\checkmark vas$ (clothe); $k\acute{e}t$ -as (mind), $\checkmark kit$ (think); $c\acute{a}v$ -as (ear), $\checkmark cv$ (hear); $c\acute{a}v$ -as (work), $\checkmark ap$, etc.

These substantives are mostly neut., like the above, but there occur also nomina agentis, e.g. $u\dot{s}$ - $\dot{a}s$ - (fem. dawn), $\sqrt{u\dot{s}}$ (burn); this stem had in the earlier language step-formation of the

suffix besides, e.g. acc. sg. uš-ás-am (the instr. pl. ušád-bhis § 102. arises from another stem of the same meaning, ušat-, ušant-; In the earliest Sanskrit adjectives of this form also occur (nomina agentis), e.g. tar-ás- (quick) beside tár-as (neut. quick advance), \(\sqrt{tar} \) (arrive at); \(ap-\delta s \) (active) beside \(\delta p-as \) This formation is founded on the present-stems of verbs; if they end in a, -s- only is added for -as-, i.e. the final a of the present-stem serves at the same time for the initial of the suffix (cf. the formation of pres. participle act., the 3 pl. pres., etc.); present-stems which do not end in a retain This form in dat. is used as infinitive, e.g. ģīvá-sē from pres.-stem $\acute{q}\acute{t}va$ -, 3 sg. pres. $\acute{q}\acute{t}va$ -ti, $\checkmark \acute{q}iv$ (live); $\acute{k}\acute{a}ra$ -sē, 3 sg. pres. kára-ti, √kar (go); dhruvá-sē, 3 sg. pres. dhruvá-ti, √dhru (be firm); kákšas (lustre, glance, eye), dative=infinitive kákšas-ē, pres.-stem kákša-, √kakš (see); pušyás-e, 3 sg. pres. púšya-ti, /puš (nourish; but in the pres. formation adduced, 'thrive'); $r\acute{n}\acute{g}\acute{a}s-\bar{e}$, pres.-stem $\acute{r}\acute{n}\acute{g}a$ -, $\sqrt{ar\acute{g}}$ (strive), etc.; but $\dot{a}y$ -as- \dot{e} , pres.-stem ai-, 3 sg. $\dot{e}ti$ for *ai-ti, \sqrt{i} (go).

Greek. $\mu\acute{e}\nu-\epsilon\sigma$ -, $\mu\acute{e}\nu-\epsilon\sigma$ (mind, bravery, anger), $\sqrt{\mu}\epsilon\nu$, origil. man; $\gamma\acute{e}\nu-\epsilon\sigma$ -, -os (race), $\sqrt{\gamma}\epsilon\nu$, original gan (beget); $F\acute{e}\pi-\epsilon\sigma$ -, os- (word), $\sqrt{F}\epsilon\pi$, original vak (speak); $\Breve{e}\delta$ -, -os (seat), $\sqrt{\epsilon}\delta$, original sad (sit); $\kappa\lambda\acute{e}F-\epsilon\sigma$ -, -os (sound, glory), $\sqrt{\kappa}\lambda\nu$ original kru (hear); $\pi\acute{a}\theta-\epsilon\sigma$ -, -os (suffering), $\sqrt{\pi}a\theta$ ($\Breve{e}\epsilon$ - π a θ -ov suffer); $\mu\acute{\eta}\kappa-\epsilon\sigma$ -, -os (length), $\sqrt{\mu}a\kappa$ (in μ a κ - $\rho\acute{o}$ - long); $\Breve{e}\rho$ e θ - $e\sigma$ -, -os (redness), $\sqrt{e}\rho\nu\theta$ ($\Breve{e}\rho\nu\theta$ - $\rho\acute{o}$ - red), original rudh (be red), etc.

The Sanskrit and Zend stem $u\check{s}$ -as-, $u\check{s}$ - $\bar{a}s$ - (dawn), corresponds in like function, however, with the raised stem of the Gk. stem f.f. aus- $\bar{o}s$ - (fem.), Lesb. Aiol. n. sg. $a\check{v}\omega_s$, with regular loss of s, Dôr. $\dot{a}\omega_s$, Ep. $\dot{\eta}\dot{\omega}_s$ from * $\dot{a}F$ - ω_s , $a\check{v}$ - ω_s , and this from * $a\dot{v}\sigma$ - ω_s , with lengthened a after the loss of the following sound, Att. $\dot{\epsilon}\dot{\omega}_s$ without this lengthening, and with the asp. prefixed to the beginning (§ 65, 2).

The suffix -έσ-forms adjectives (nomina agentis), e.g. ψευδές-, n. sg. masc. fem. ψευδής, neut. ψευδές (untrue), these adjectives

§ 102. appear especially as the second member of compounds, e.g. $\delta \xi \nu - \delta \epsilon \rho \kappa - \epsilon \sigma$ (sharp-sighted), $\sqrt{\delta \epsilon \rho \kappa}$, original dark ($\delta \epsilon \rho \kappa - \epsilon \rho \mu a \iota$, $\delta \epsilon - \delta \rho \rho \kappa - a$ see); $\delta - \lambda \eta \theta \epsilon \sigma$ (not hidden, true) beside $\lambda \hat{\eta} \theta \epsilon \sigma$, -os (forgetfulness), $\sqrt{\lambda} a \theta$ ($\tilde{\epsilon} - \lambda a \theta - o \nu$, escape notice), etc.

In ἀ-λήθεια (truth), i.e. *ἀ-ληθεσ-ια; εὐ-μένεια, Iôn. εὐ-μενέη (goodwill), from *εὐ-μενεσ-ια, f.f. asu-man-as-yā, cf. μέν-ος, oright man-as, and the like, we see a further formation of the suffix by means of -ya-.

Latin. E.g. gen-us (race), early Lat. *gen-os, Sk. ģán-as, \sqrt{gen} (gignere); op-us (work), early *op-os=Sk. áp-as; corp-us (body), root Sk. karp; foed-us, early foid-os (treaty), \sqrt{fid} (fido); iūs (right), f.f. *iou-os, \sqrt{iu} (join); pūs (matter), f.f. *pou-os, \sqrt{pu} (be foul; on these formations cf. § 36), etc.

Here also belong $r\bar{o}b$ -ur (strength), early $r\bar{o}b$ -us, gen. $r\bar{o}b$ -or-is =Sk. $r\dot{a}dh$ -as, gen. $r\bar{a}dh$ -as-as (vigour, wealth), cf. $r\bar{o}bus$ -tus, with change of s to r, etc. Fems. Ven-us, Cer-es, and probably also masc. cin-er- (ash), n. sg. cin-is; pulu-er- (dust), n. sg. pulu-is, as also adj. uet-us (old), gen. ueter-is.

Moreover the numerous masculines in $-\bar{o}r$, as $sop-\bar{o}r-(s\bar{o}p-\bar{i}re)$, root original svap; $od-\bar{o}r$, \sqrt{od} (ol- $\bar{e}re$ for *od $\bar{e}re$ § 72, 2), with lengthening or raising of the suffix (on r=s cf. 77, 1, e), f.f. e.g. of $sop-\bar{o}r$ - is therefore $svap-\bar{a}s$ -, etc. This $-\bar{o}r$ - is also used as a secondary suffix, e.g. $alb\bar{o}r$ - (whiteness) from albo- (white), etc.

In $aur\bar{o}ra$ (dawn), i.e. * $aus-\bar{o}s-\bar{a}$, the suffix original -as-, Latin - $\bar{o}s$ -, - $\bar{o}r$ -, is still further formed through -a- (cf. Greek * $a\dot{v}$ - $\sigma\omega\sigma$ -, Sk. $u\dot{s}$ - $\acute{a}s$ -, $u\dot{s}$ - $\acute{a}s$ -).

In nom. sg. alone the suffix is retained in fem. forms like $s\bar{e}d\bar{e}s$ (seat), i.e. * $s\bar{e}des-s$ (§ 39, 1), cf. sed-eo; $caed-\bar{e}s$ (overthrow, slaughter), cf. caed-o; $l\bar{a}b-\bar{e}s$ (slip, fall), cf. $l\bar{a}b-i$, etc. In most cases there are i-stems underlying these words (e.g. acc. $s\bar{e}de-m$, gen. pl. $s\bar{e}di-um$), a very favourite formation in Latin. This explanation of the n. sg. is supported above all by the parallel $s\bar{e}d-es-$, Gk. $\delta\delta-e\sigma-$ and Sk. $s\delta d-as-$. In Sclav. also and Teutonic the as-stems show parallel forms without this suffix; the Sclav.

shows suffixes -as- and -i- interchanged in some stems, just as § 102. in Latin.

The dative of such nouns in -as- -no longer felt to be a case, and hence shortened—serves as an infinitive in Latin; e.g. ueher-e, f.f. vaghas-ai, Sk. váhas-ē, present-stem uehe-, original vagha-, root original vagh; dicer-e, f.f. daikas-ai, present-stem dice-, f.f. daika-, \(\sqrt{dic} \); moner-e, f.f. manayas-ai, present- and verbal-stem monē-, f.f. mānaya-, root original man, etc. fieri, fierei (also fiere), both from *feies-ei, f.f. dhayas-ai, i has, as often, been retained beside \tilde{e} (e) = original ai. This form is in nowise distinct from the usual infinitive active (cf. L. Lange, über die bildung des lateinischen Infinitivus Praesentis Passivi. Denkschriften der philos. histor. Classe der Kaiserl. Akad. der Wiss. in Wien, Bd. x., and published separately there); fio has indeed mainly an active form; the root of this word is dha (set, do), and fio a present formation in -ya- of intransitivepassive function; the f.f. of fio is therefore *dha-yā-mi, in Sk. with unoriginal weakening of a to i and middle termination dhīya-tē from *dhaya-tē, or else the final-sound of the root is lost in Sk. and -iva- stands for -va- (§ 15, b). In either case the Sk. form is late and not original, and useless for the explanation of the Latin. From dha-yā-mi arose regularly in Latin *fe-io-mi, *feio, fīo; f.f. of fieri, fiere, is therefore *dhayas-ē; in fieri fi has become fi, not an original shortening, the older fieri being retained by Naeuius, Plautus, Pacuuius.

This formation is in Latin so closely joined to the pres.-stem that, except where the stem has the stem-addition -a-, it omits the -a- of the original suffix -as-, e.g. es-se (posse=pot-esse), f.f. as-s-ai (not *as-as-ai, which would have produced *ese-re, *ere-re), esse for *ed-se, f.f. ad-s-ai, \sqrt{ed} (eat); fer-re for *fer-se; uel-le for *uel-se (§ 77, 1, b); da-re, root and pres.-stem da; fo-re for *fu-re, \sqrt{fu} , u having become o under the influence of the r; $\bar{\imath}$ -re, early *ei-re, f.f. ai-s-ai, pres.-stem $\bar{\imath}$, ei, original ai, \sqrt{i} . The analogy of the present has here throughout exercised

§ 102. its influence, and has called forth these new formations peculiar to Latin (perhaps the forms cited were at an earlier period of the language *eses-e, *edes-e, *feres-e, *ueles-e, *eies-e, which would correspond exactly to Sk. forms like asas-ē, adas-ē, bharas-ē, varas-ē, ayas-ē).

This -se is added also to the perf.-stem in -is-, which is found in Latin only (v. post.), e.g. peperis-se, dedis-se, fēcis-se, etc. Forms like dixe, uexe, seem to be syncopated, like dixti for dixisti; possibly however they are older forms from the perf.-stem without -is- (v. post.), and thus stand for *didic-se, *ueueg-se. Whether the full suffix -es- = -as- (*didic-es-e, *dicsis-es-e) ever existed or not, depends on the antiquity of these formations.

Note.—Impetrasse-re, leuasse-re and the like (used only in case of derived-verbs in a, and peculiar to the earlier language only) are used as fut. inf.; I sg. would be *impetrasso, etc., cf. facesso, incipisso, etc. The peculiarity of these forms lies therefore not in the suffix, which is the usual one, but in the verbal-stem.

The infinitive forms of the medio-passive in Latin are hard to explain. The assumption of Bopp offends against the soundlaws (vgl. Gramm. iii. § 855, p. 273 sqq.); the form in -i (dici) is held by Bopp to be a curtailed form of the earlier -i-er (dic-i-er), whose er he thinks is a transposition of re=se (acc. of the reflexive; cf. amo-r = *amo-se), thus explaining dici-er from *dici-se; *dicī would correspond to Sk. forms like drc-é (§ 87), unless dicier were a shortening of *diceri-er from *diceri-re, *dicesi-se (i.e. *daikasai-svam), just as laudari-er is produced by dissimilation from *laudare-er, *laudare-re, *laudase-se, i.e. from inf. act. with se attached, which forms the middle voice in Latin. Notwithstanding that this view recommends itself in that it makes the inf. med. to be formed from inf. act. precisely as the med. generally was formed from the act. in Latin (*amari-se: amare:: *amo-se: amo), it is difficult to see the reason of the transposition of se, re, to er (from *laudare-se,

*dici-se, there would have arisen according to Lat. sound-laws § 102. perhaps a form *laudare-s, *dice-s or dici-s, like laudaris, 2 sg. med., from *laudas-i-se; or also *laudare-re, *dici-re or *dice-re). Pott (the last time in 'Doppelung, etc.,' Lemgo and Detmold, 1862, p. 266 sqq.) makes the division laudarie-r, earlier *laudasie-se, thus assuming no transposition of -se, -re, to -er; -sie he holds to be an earlier termination of the active -re. But how is -ie then to be explained? In legier and the like, Pott assumes loss of the first r in consequence of dissimilation; *agerie-r (this -rier is preserved in fer-rier), thence *agrier and agier by loss of the first r, finally *agie, agi [or perhaps *agīr, agī?; cf. sīs. Umbr. sīr, sī, from siēs]. Also Leo Meyer (vergl. Gr. der griech. und lat. Spr. ii. 124) explains legier from *legerie-r, *legesie-se; laudarier from *laudasie-se, which -sie, -sye, he holds to be "nothing else than a peculiar early infinitive-termination, which may perhaps be closely connected with Sk. -syâi, in Vēd. rauhishyâi [in our spelling rōhisyāi], —for rauhisyâi—(increase), and á-vyathishyâi,—for á-vyathisyâi (not tolerate)." But we hold with Benfey (v. supr.) these infinitives in -syāi to be inf. from fut.-stems rohišya-, vyathišya-. Leo Meyer, raising this objection himself, adds: "Possibly this infinitival sye or more fully esye is likewise an early dative of an old suffix formation asya, a further formation, by means of suffix ya, of the old suffix as, well known in the Lat. act. infin." Moreover Leo Meyer holds it conceivable that forms like ducier may be not shortened from *ducerier, but derived from stems like ducio- (f.f. daukya- therefore). We should then have to assume fundamental forms perhaps such as *daukyāi-svam [dat. +acc. of reflexive]. From this very uncertainty on Leo Meyer's part it is obvious that none of his conjectures are upheld by any decisive arguments. We should scarcely venture to maintain datives in i, e (ei), from a-stems in Latin; in the dative the forms in question could only have been *laudariō-r, *dūciō-r, earlier *laudasiō-se, douciō-se. Also the separ§ 102. ation of the med. (pass.) inf. from the act. will not approve itself Lange (in his above-named work) takes forms like legier as shortenings for *legi-fier, i.e. as compounded of the pres.stem legi- (legi-t), with infin. fiere, fieri; medial loss of f occurs e.g. in lupis for *lupois from *lupo-fios (v. post. Case); amaui for *ama-fui, amasti for *ama-fuisti (v. post. § 173, 2). Forms like amā-rier, da-rier, he explains from *ama-siere, *da-siere, i.e. from the present-stem and an infinitive *siere, f.f. *-syas-ai, for *esiere, f.f. asya-s-ai, formed from \sqrt{es} (be), pres.-stem *asya-(with passive function), like fieri from \sqrt{dha} , pres.-stem dhaya-. The present-formation in -ya- appears indeed in \sqrt{es} in Latin, but has a future, not a passive relation (v. post. § 165 Lat. V.). So also according to Lange ferrier is formed (f.f. therefore probably *bhar-syasai or perhaps *bharasyasai), whilst in other cases this *-sier, -rier, is added to pres.-stems only which end in a vowel (amā-rier, monē-rier, mollī-rier).

The forms $leg\bar{\imath}$, $amar\bar{\imath}$, are explained by Lange from *legies (from *legi-fiese), *amasies (from *ama-siese), with frequent loss of final s (§ 79), and contraction of ie to $\bar{\imath}$, like later $s\bar{\imath}m$, $s\bar{\imath}s$, for $si\bar{e}m$, $si\bar{e}s$. Thus from common fundamental forms have been developed (1) legier, amarier, with the s- of the presupposed *-fiese, *-siese, changed into r, and (2) $leg\bar{\imath}$, $amar\bar{\imath}$, where the s has been lost.

Accordingly in the Lat. inf. pass. also we should see nothing but infinitives in -se, because they all would be compounded with either infin. fieri, f.f. dhayas-ai, or *siere, f.f. (a) syas-ai. This view also is suspicious in some respects; above all we cannot conceive an inf. of \sqrt{es} (be) with passive function.

G. Schönberg (Zeitschr. xvii. 153 sqq.) has recently explained forms like amārie-r as dat. of stem *amāsi+se, from *amāsiai-se, forms like legie-r, on the other hand, as dat. of stem legi- (representing stem leges- of the act.)+se, from *legiai-se, thus separating the latter from as-stems, probably correctly, like Leo Meyer (v. sup.); he has recourse to an interchange of consonantal-

stems with *i*-stems, and of suffix -as- with suffix -i- (adducing § 102. examples). It must, however, be allowed that the like dat. forms of *i*-stems are otherwise unauthenticated.

Thus Latin infinitives passive (med.)—clearly a recent formation of the language—must probably be treated as not hitherto explained with certainty.

XXI. Stems with suffix -ka-.

§ 103.

The suffix -ka- (cf. pronominal-stem ka-) is not common primarily, but secondarily is on the contrary a very favourite one (e.g. in the function of forming diminutives, cf. Lud. Schwabe, de deminutiuis graecis et latinis liber. Gissae, 1859, p. 44 sqq.). The numerous other suffixes, whose principal element is k, need not be considered here, excepting -ska- (whose s, it is true, is obscure), because it formed one kind of present-stem as early as the original language (§ 165, VI.), e.g. ga-ska-.

Sanskrit. Very rare as a primary-suffix, e.g. in çuś-ka-(dry) for *suš-ka (§ 55, 2, n), √çuš (çúš-yati dries), original sus (cf. Lith. saús-a-s, Sclav. such-ŭ dry, Zend hus-ka-; dhā-ká-(masc. receptacle), √dha (set). As secondary suffix common, e.g. sindhu-ka- (adj. derived from Sindhu), stem sindhú- (nom. propr.); putra-ká- (masc. little son), putrá- (masc. son), etc.

Greek. Primary in $\theta \dot{\eta}$ -κη (store-place), $\sqrt{\theta \epsilon}$ (place, lay); very common secondarily (cf. Budenz, das Suffix κός im Griechischen. Göttingen, 1858), e.g. φυσι-κό-, φύσι-, θηλυ-κό-, θῆλυ-, καρδια-κό-, καρδία, λογι-κό- (if rightly separated thus) λόγο-, etc. Suffix -ισκο- here forms diminutives, e.g. παιδ-ίσκο-ς, παιδ-ίσκη, stem παιδ-, etc.

Latin. Here also but few primary formations can be pointed to with certainty, as pau-co- (adj. few), cf. Gk. $\pi a\hat{v}\text{-}\rho o\text{-}$ (small), Goth. fav-a (adj. few); lo-co-, early stlo-co- (masc. place), from \sqrt{stal} , stla, further formation from \sqrt{sta} . Secondarily very common, as in Gk., e.g. $ci\hat{u}i\text{-}co\text{-}$, stem $ci\hat{u}i\text{-}$, urbi-co-, stem urbi-, belli-co, stem bello-, etc.

§ 104. 8. Formation of Comparative- and Superlative-Stems.

COMPARATIVE-STEMS.

1. Suffix original -yans-.

This suffix is perhaps a variation from a still earlier -yant-, and akin to -ant-, -mant-, -vant- (§§ 101, 91, 90); in these suffixes also we see t frequently passing over into s, and this change seems to have taken place in the case of -yans- as early as the original-language, since a *yant- appears nowhere (e.g. vidvád-bhis, but yávīyō-bhis, i.e. *yavīyas-bhis). The suffix is a primary one, and is added directly to the final of the root. Like most primary-suffixes it is in its use confined to a few particular roots.

Indo-European original-language. E.g. nav-yans-, from nav-a- (new); magh-yans-, from magh-ant- or perhaps also magh-ara- (great); svād-yans-, svād-u- (sweet); āk-yans-, āk-u (swift), etc.

Sanskrit. In later Sanskrit the early form -yans- is retained as -yās- only after vowels, but in the earlier language ($\nabla \bar{e}d$.) also after consonants, in which case the later Sk. substitutes - $\bar{i}y$ ās- for -yās-, y being split up into iy (§ 15, b) and the short vowel being lengthened before y (§ 15, a). The Sk. form $-\bar{i}y$ ās- shows its modern date also by the fact that it is still wanting in a language so closely akin as Zend.

Suffix -yãs-; e.g. Vēd. náv-yãs- from náva- (new); Sk. bhá-yãs- from bhá-ri- (much); ýyá-yãs- (older) √ýya (grow old), positive not used; sthéyãs-, i.e. *stha-iyãs- or *sthā-iyãs-, from sthirá- (firm) for *stha-ra- (§ 7), √stha (stand); sphéyãs-, i.e. *spha-iyãs-, sphi-rá- (swollen), for *spha-ra-, √spha (wax, swell); pré-yãs- from priy-á- (dear), with root-vowel raised a step (or perhaps from an older root-form pra), etc.

Suffix -īyās-; e.g. vár-īyās- (better), vár-a- (good) and urú- for *var-ú (broad, wide); drágh-īyās-, dīrghá- (long) for *dargh-a-(§ 8), \stackstar{*} dargh (darh), *dragh, and with many other adjectives

formed with suffix -a-; gár-īyās-, from gur-ú- (heavy) for § 104. *gar-u- (§ 7), like it, from \sqrt{gar} ; lágh-īyās- from lagh-ú- (light); ág-īyās-, Vēd. from āg-ú- (swift), and so with other adjs. formed with suffix -u-; kšód-īyās- from kšud-rá- (small, scanty) from \sqrt{k} šud with step-formation; yáv-īyās- from yúvan- (young), \sqrt{y} u with step-formation; máh-īyās- from mah-ánt-, Vēd. mah-(great), \sqrt{m} ah.

As a secondary suffix $-iy\tilde{a}s$ - appears in certain cases only, e.g. $matiy\tilde{a}s$ - from mati-mant- (intelligent), $m\acute{a}$ -ti- (mind, insight, \sqrt{ma} + suffix -ti- + also -mant-), etc. These words are treated according to the analogy of the above-mentioned, as if e.g. mat were root of mati-.

Greek. The s of the suffix -yans- (the s is retained in the superlative, v. post.) is lost, and the y changed to ι or combined with a preceding consonant into $\sigma\sigma$, ζ (§ 68, 1, d. e), e.g. $\kappa\dot{\alpha}\kappa$ - ι ov- (n. sg. masc. $\kappa\alpha\kappa\dot{\iota}\omega\nu$) from $\kappa\alpha\kappa$ - \dot{o} - (bad), $\sqrt{\kappa\alpha\kappa}$; $\tilde{\epsilon}\lambda\alpha\sigma\sigma\sigma\nu$, i.e. * $\dot{\epsilon}\lambda\alpha\chi$ - ν - ν -, $\dot{\epsilon}\lambda\alpha\chi\dot{\nu}$ (light), $\sqrt{\dot{\epsilon}}-\lambda\alpha\chi$ -; $\tilde{\eta}\delta$ - ι ov- from $\dot{\eta}\delta$ - $\dot{\nu}$ -(sweet), $\sqrt{\dot{\eta}}\delta$, $\dot{\alpha}\delta$; $\tilde{\epsilon}\chi\theta$ - ι ov- from $\dot{\epsilon}\chi\theta$ - $\rho\dot{o}$ - (hostile), from $\dot{\epsilon}\chi\theta$ -, which serves here as a root; $\mu\epsilon\dot{\iota}\zeta$ ov-, i.e. * μ - μ - ν - ν -, from μ - ν - ν -, which serves here as a root; μ - ι 0v-, i.e. * μ - ν 0v-, from μ - ν 0v-, (great), ν 1e ν 1; ν 1ce ν 2v-, ν 2v- ν 3v-, ν 2v-, ν 3v- ν 4v-, ν 4v- ν 5v-, ν 4v- ν 5v-, ν 5v-, ν 6v-, ν 6v-, ν 8v-, ν 9v-, ν 9v-,

Latin. -yans- became -yons- and subsequently -iōs- (e.g. $ma(g)i\bar{o}sibus$; § 77, 1, a), later -iōr-; in acc. n. neut. the later language also shows still the old s in the form -ius, i.e. -yas with loss of the n. In Lat. the comparative is regularly formed by means of this suffix, which is therefore used as a secondary one also. E.g. *mag-iōr-, hence $m\bar{a}$ -iōr- (§ 77, 1, a), n. neut. $m\bar{a}$ -ius, but adverb mag-is for *mag-ius, mag-no- (great); $pl\bar{u}s$, plous (more) from *plo-ius= $\pi\lambda\varepsilon$ -iov, f.f. pra-yans-, \sqrt{pra} =par (fill), ple-ores (carmen Aruale) for *ple-ior-es, \sqrt{ple} =plo, original pra, compar. of $pl\bar{e}$ -ro- (plerus Cato, pleri-que), $pl\bar{e}$ -no- (full);

§ 104. leu-iōr-, i.e. *legu-iōr-, can come equally well from *leg-iōr-(§ 73, 1), √leg-, f.f. lagh, or, though less probably, from adjective-stem legu- in leui- (light), i.e. *leg-ui-, a further formation of *leg-u-, Sk. lagh-ú-, Gk. ἐλαχ-ύ-; min-ōr- (smaller), from a root min, stands for *min-iōr-, min-us for *min-ius-, f.f. man-yans-; doct-iōr- from docto- (doctus learned, √doc), which loses its final vowel only before the suffix, like all adjs. in vowels; facil-iōr-from facili- (easy to do; √fac), etc.

§ 105. 2. The suffix -tara- and -ra-.

The suffix -tara- is the ordinary comparative suffix in Sk., Zend, and Greek; it is also found here and there in the other languages. It is a secondary suffix; primary but rarely.

The suffix -tara- is very probably compounded of the two frequent stem-formative suffixes -ta- and -ra-; -ra- occurs also alone in the function of comparative formation, e.g. Sk. áva-ra- (lower), from áva (prep. of), ápa-ra- (hinder, latter), ápa (prep. of) = Zend apa-ra- from apa; cf. Lat. sup-eru-s, sup-er, inf-eru-s, inf-er (sup-er-ior, inf-er-ior, add to the older comparative element—which has lost its comparative force—the ordinary comparative suffix).

Indo-European original-language.

The suffix -tara- was, it seems, already applied to the function of forming comparatives from pronominal-stems and the like; thus an undoubted primitive stem is found in an-tara- (interior) from pronominal \sqrt{an} , stem ana- (demonstr.), where exceptionally the suffix is probably primary; moreover ka-tara- (uter), pronominal-stem and \sqrt{ka} - (interrog.).

Sanskrit. -tara- (masc. -tara-s, fem. -tarā) is added to the end of nominal-stems simply (used also in case of substantives); variant nom.-stems have their shorter stem-forms before this suffix, e.g. $p\dot{u}nya-tara$ - from $p\dot{u}nya$ - (pure); ka-tará- (uter, interrog.), ka- (quis); ya-tará- (uter, rel.), ya- (rel.); i-tara- (other), \sqrt{i} (is); $c\dot{u}k\dot{i}$ -tara- from $c\dot{u}k\dot{i}$ - (pure); $agnim\dot{a}t$ -tara-from $agnim\dot{a}nt$ - (being with fire); $vidv\dot{a}t$ -tara-, $V\bar{e}d$. also $vid\dot{u}\dot{s}$ -

-tara-, stem vidvant-, vidvans-, weakened to vidus- (part. pf. act.; § 105. knowing, cunning); dhani-tara-, Vēd. also dhanin-tara-, dhanin-(rich). In án-tara- (interior) -tara- is primary, \sqrt{an} , stem ana-(demonst.); -tara- is found after comparatives in -yans-, and after superlatives in -iš-tha- also, e.g. créštha-tara- from créstha-(best; cf. 'Superlative').

Greek. Suffix $-\tau e\rho o$ - = original and Sanskrit -tara-, e.g. κουφό- $\tau e\rho o$ -, κοῦφο- (light), πό- $\tau e\rho o$ - for κό- $\tau e\rho o$ - (uter) from root and pron.-stem πο-, κο- (quis), but after a short vowel preceding, with final o, original a, lengthened, e.g. $\sigma o \phi o$ - $\tau e\rho o$ -, $\sigma o \phi o$ - (wise); $\gamma \lambda \nu \kappa \dot{\nu}$ - $\tau e\rho o$ -, $\gamma \lambda \nu \kappa \dot{\nu}$ - (sweet); $\chi a \rho \iota F \dot{\epsilon} \sigma - \tau e \rho o$ - for * $F \epsilon \tau$ - $\tau e \rho o$ (§ 68, 2) from $\chi a \rho \iota F \epsilon \nu \tau$ -, in shorter form $\chi a \rho \iota F \epsilon \tau$, etc.

Cases like $\phi l\lambda$ - $\tau e\rho o$ - from $\phi l\lambda o$ - (dear) treat - $\tau e\rho o$ - as primary suffix, whilst in $\phi l\lambda a l$ - $\tau e\rho o$ -, $l\sigma a l$ - $\tau e\rho o$ -, $\mu e\sigma a l$ - $\tau e\rho o$ -, and the corresponding superlatives, $\phi l\lambda a l$ - $\tau a \tau o$ -, $\mu e\sigma a l$ - $\tau a \tau o$ -, etc., there is an underlying stem different from that of the regularly-formed $\phi l\lambda \omega$ - $\tau e\rho o$ -, etc.

Note.—Benfey (Or. u. Occ. ii. 656) assumes as a basis for this formation an early locative in as, since in Sk. in certain cases before -tara-, -tama-, the locative case occurs instead of the stem, e.g. aparāhņē-tara- beside -ņa-tara-, from aparāhņá-(masc. afternoon).

The termn. -έσ-τερο-, e.g. εὐδαιμον-έσ-τερο- from εὐδαῖμον(fortunate), appears to have been transferred from adjs. in -εσ-,
e.g. σαφέσ-τερο, σαφές- (clear), to other stems; whilst in
-ίσ-τερο-, e.g. λαλ-ίσ-τερο- from λάλο- (talkative), we can hardly
be mistaken in seeing a combination of the suffix -yans- in its
shortest form -is-, with the more recent comparative-ending
-tara- (cf. superlative -ισ-το-, and Lat. superlative in *-is-tana-,
-issumo-, as well as Lat. -is-tero-).

Latin. The suffix -tara- appears only exceptionally, e.g. in u-tero- for *cu-tero- or *quo-tero-, n. sg. masc. u-ter (whether, i.e. which of two), neut. u-tro-m, fem. u-tra, e of the suffix

§ 105. -tero-, original -tara-, being ejected; dex-ter- (right), cf. δεξιός, Sk. dákš-ina-; in-ter (between), cf. Sk. án-tara-, and the like.

In min-is-tero- (minister servant), Osk. min-s-tro- (lesser; gen. sg. masc. neut. minstreis is attested), and mag-is-tero- (magister master), Umbr. mēs-tro- (greater) from *ma-is-tro-, *mag-is-tro-, and probably in sin-is-tero- (sinister left), the suffix -tara- has been added to the comparative suffix -is- from -yans-, as in Gk. $\lambda a\lambda$ -lo-tepo-; in Sk. also the comparatives in -yans- and -ištha- were sometimes further raised by means of -tara- and -tata-.

§ 106.

SUPERLATIVE-STEMS.

For the purpose of expressing the superlative were used the suffixes -ta- and its compound -tama-, in Gk. and Erse also -mata-, and reduplication -tata-, in Erse also -mama-, all of which, as well as the simple -ta-, often appear in other functions also (cf. § 91). These are secondary suffixes often joined to the end of comparative-stems.

1. Suffix -ta-, alone used especially in ordinal-numbers (q. v.); added to the end of comparatives in original -yans-, it forms their superlative. The reduplication -ta-ta- occurs in Gk. as the regular superlative-formation beside comparatives in -ta-ra-.

Indo-European original-language. It is not easy to decide whether here we must suppose a complete magh-yans-ta-(μέγ-ισ-τος), to which the Goth. -ōs-ta- would seem to testify, and āk-yans-ta- (ὅκιστος), etc., or magh-is-ta-, āk-is-ta-, with -yans- shortened to -is-. The former assumption seems to me the best supported.

Sanskrit. Suffix -ta- added to the word-stem itself, e.g. in ordinals šaš-thá- (sixth), with -tha- for -ta- on account of the foregoing š (§ 59, 1), šaš (six), katur-thá- (fourth), with -tha-for -ta- (§ 52, 2), katur- (four).

After the comparative-suffix -yas- (-iyas-) -ta- appears as the

regular formation of the superlative, -yas- being subsequently § 106. shortened to -is-, but -is-ta- changed into -is-tha- (§ 59, 1); thus e.g. máh-ištha-, yáv-ištha-, lágh-iš-tha-, gár-iš-tha-, kšód-iš-tha-, etc., sthéštha-, sphéštha-, ýyéštha- are=*sthā-iš-tha-, *sphā-iš-tha-, *ýyā-iš-tha-; préštha- either stands for prē-ištha-, in which case the i of -is- would have disappeared in the \dot{e} , or, as I think more likely, an earlier \pra is underlying, and it must be divided *pra-is-ta- (cf. the comparative, § 104, with this superlative); in bhúyistka-, beside the comparative bhú-yãs-, -yis- has arisen for -is- by an unusual splitting-up of i to yi.

Greek. Suffix -70-=Sk. -ta- is common in ordinal numbers, thus $\pi\rho\hat{\omega}$ -το- (first), τρί-το- (third), τέταρ-το- (fourth), $\pi\epsilon\mu\pi$ -το-(fifth), εκ-το- (sixth), ενα-το- (ninth), δέκα-το- (tenth), είκοσ-τό-(twentieth), etc.

 $-\tau o = -ta$, when added to $-\iota \sigma = -yans$, forms superlatives to comparatives in -ιον-=origl. -yans-, e.g. κάκ-ισ-το-, ελάχ-ισ-το-, ηδ-ισ-το-, εχθ-ισ-το-, μεγ-ισ-το-, πλε-εχθ-ισ-το-, etc. (cf. § 104).

The reduplicated form of the suffix, -ta-ta-= Gk. $-\tau a-\tau o-$, appears as the regular superlative formation beside the comparatives in -ta-ra-; e.g. κουφό-τα-το-, σοφώ-τα-το-, γλυκύ-τα-το-, χαρι Εέσ-τα-το-, φίλ-τα-το-, φιλαί-τα-το-, εὐδαιμον-έσ-τα-το-, λαλίσ-τα-το-. These superlatives were formed, as the adduced examples show, corresponding to the parallel comparative forms in -τερο-, which may be compared (§ 105).

Latin. Suffix -to-, -tu-, = Sk. and original -ta-, rarely serves as superlative-suffix in Latin, where -mo-=Sk. -ma-, and -ti-mo-, -si-mo-, f.f. -ta-ma-, is preferred; e.g. quar-to- (fourth); quo-to-(which in order or number), stem and \sqrt{quo} , original ka-.

After -is-=-yans- is found not -to-, but only the representative of original -ta-ma- (q. v.).

2. Suffix -ma- and ma-ta- here and there in Gk.

§ 107.

I have not before me any perfectly certain example of suffix -ma- used to express the superlative in the original Indo-European; however, as -ma- appears in three divisions of the § 107. speech-stem in this function, it must be presupposed as existent in the original-language. Perhaps sapta-ma- (seventh) and akta-ma- (eighth) must be ascribed to the fundamental-language, because in these numbers this method of forming the ordinal is almost universal.

Sanskrit. Suffix -ma- forms the superlative in ava-má-(undermost, next, last), from áva- (as prep. 'from'), a pronominal-stem (demonstr.); madhya-má-, mádhya- (mid-); para-má-(furthest, last, best), pára- (removed, excellent); ādi-má- (first), ādi (beginning); sapta-má- (seventh), saptán- (seven); ašta-má-(eighth), ašta- (eight); nava-má- (ninth), návan- (nine); daça-má- (tenth), dáçan- (ten).

Greek. The superlative suffix $-\mu o$ -, f.f. -ma-, is not frequent, it forms $\delta \beta \delta o - \mu o$ - (seventh) alone, from $\delta \pi \tau \acute{a}$, with a remarkable softening of $\pi \tau$ to $\beta \delta$ in the stem of the word.

In $\dot{\epsilon}\beta\delta\delta$ - μa - τo - (seventh) we find suffix -ma-ta-, as in Keltic, which is seen unmistakably in $\pi\dot{\nu}$ - μa - τo - (last) also.

Latin. Suffix -mo-, f.f. -ma-, is a favourite means of forming superlatives, e.g. sum-mo- from *sup-mo- (highest), sup-, cf. sup-er, comparative; infi-mo-, cf. comparative infe-ro-; mini-mo-, cf. min-or-; moreover the ordinals pri-mo-, septi-mo-, deci-mo-.

In plūrimo- (most), earlier plūsimo-, plourumo-, ploirumo-, plī-si-mo-, a f.f. *pra-yans-ma- seems to be underlying; between s and m the auxiliary vowel u occurs (cf. s-u-m, § 43), later i (§ 43); thus by the usual shortening of -yans- to -is-, arose *plo-is-u-mo-, i.e. ploirumo-, and by coalescence of oi to ei, i (as in dat. abl. pl. of the o-stem, e.g. nouis, noueis from *nouois), *plīsimo-; in plourumo-, later plūrimo-, y may have been lost (as in minus for *min-yus), so that this form points back to a form *plo-yus-u-mo-, like plūs, plous, to *plo-yus.

§ 108. 3. Suffix -ta-ma- occurs in Sk., Zend, Gk., Lat. and Gothic, and dates therefore from the common original-language.

Indo-European original-language. Although the suffix -tama- was in existence, we can hardly point to any

word-stems provided with this suffix; a form nava-tama- (per-§ 108. haps beside nav-yans-ta-) may be merely conjectured.

Sanskrit. -ta-ma- is the regular superlative formation beside the comparatives in -tara-, thus e.g. púnya-tama-, ka-tamá-(one of many, interrog.), ya-tamá- (which of many, rel.) çúki-tama-, agnimát-tama-, vīçati-tamá- (twentieth) from vīçáti-, etc.

Suffix -tama- occurs also after comparatives in -yans-, and superlatives in -ištha-, e.g. ģyēštha-tama-.

Greek. Wanting.

The suffix original -tama- occurs somewhat seldom Latin. added directly to the root or stem of the adj.; but it is the regular means of forming superlatives, in which case it is added to the comparative in -yans-; f.f. -ta-ma-, i.e. Lat. -tu-mo-. -ti-mo-, after gutturals -si-mo- (§ 77, 1, d) is added to the root in maximo- (greatest), i.e. *mag-timo-, cf. mag-is, mag-nus; op-timo-, op-tumo- (best); ul-timo- (last); in-timo- (inmost), etc. Suffix -timo-, or more probably -simo- (cf. mac-simo-), is directly added to adj.-stems only when they end in r or l, stems ending in a vowel lose that vowel; thus ueter-rimo- for *ueter-simo-, from *ueter-timo-, stem ueter- (old; cf. torreo for *torseo and the like), pulcher-rimo-, stem pulchero- (beautiful); facil-limo- for *facil-simo- from *facil-timo-, unless indeed these forms be for *ueter-is-timo-, *facil-is-timo-, whence *ueterstimo-, *facilstimo-, *uetersimo-, *facilsimo- (cf. uellem from *uel-sem).

From the f.f. *-is-tama-, the combination of the comparative suffix -is-=-yans- with the -tama- of the superlative, arose next -is-tumo-, -is-timo-, retained in the archaic soll-is-timo-; from -is-tumo-, -is-timo-, arose -issumo-, issimo-, by regular assimilation, e.g. doct-is-simo-, etc. Cf. mag-is-ter, min-is-ter, which show the combination of the comparative suffix -yans-+-tara-(cf. § 105), and therefore stand parallel to superlative -yans-+-tama-, and the corresponding Sk. superlative formations. Cf. the suffix -timo- in other functions, mari-timo- (maritime), stem mari- (neut. mare, sea); fini-timo- (neighbouring), fini- (finis masc. bound); legi-timo- (lawful), stem lēg-, lēgi- (lex, fem. law).

§ 109.

4. Stems of Numerals.

STEMS OF FUNDAMENTAL NUMBERS.

Simple numbers 1-10.

1. Indo-European original-language.

The stem for the first numeral cannot be determined with absolute certainty, because the several Indo-Eur. languages differ greatly in the way they express the number one. Various stems in Indo-Eur. indicate the notion of the No. 1, but yet they are all alike formed from \sqrt{i} ; ai-na- has most in its favour, because it serves to indicate the number one in the two European divisions of the Indo-European, and is likewise found in the Aryan in another function.

Sanskrit. Éka-, probably a stem-formation by means of suffix -ka- from pronominal suffix i, or, what is not very different, a compound of ai from i with pronominal \sqrt{ka} .

Greek. Nom. sg. m. els, i.e. *év-s, ntr. év, gen. év-ós, fem. μla (cf. Leo Meyer, Kuhn's Zeitschr. v. 161 sqq., viii. 129 sqq., 161 sqq.; id. vgl. Gramm. der griech. u. lat. Spr. ii. 417 sqq.). Stem $\dot{\epsilon}\nu$ -, f.f. san-, is considered as standing for sam-, and this sam (cf. Lat. sim-plex, sem-el, sin-guli), after losing a final a, as corresponding to Sk. samá- (similar, like; a superlative of demonstr.-stem sa-). This view is especially supported by fem. μla , which probably stands for *\psi \mu la, i.e. $sm-y\bar{a}-=sam-y\bar{a}$ - (a ya-stem, fem. only, as frequently). It cannot well be doubted that èv- contains the pronominal-root sa-; however, we hold that the final n is a later formation in Greek, cf. stem $\tau l - \nu =$ original ki- (pron. interrog.), because a change of suffix -ma- to n is unexampled. So we conjecture for masc. neut. a stem sa-n-, developed from sa-, but recognize in fem. a f.f. sa-myā, thus varying from that of masc. and neut., i.e. a superlativestem in -ma-, fem. -myā, from same \sqrt{sa} .

Latin. Early Latin oi-no-, whence ū-no-, f.f. ai-na-, is, like

Sk. pronominal-stem \bar{e} -na- (this), a stem in -na- from demonstra- § 109. tivo-pronominal \sqrt{i} .

- 2. Indo-European original-language dua- or dva-; Sanskrit dva-; Greek $\delta vo-=dva-$; Latin duo- $=\delta vo-$ (duō-bus like ambō-bus is probably caused by the nom. dual duō, ambō, f.f. dvā, ambhā).
- 3. Indo-European original-language tri; -i- is a suffix and tar, tra, the root (cf. the ordinal); tr-i- is therefore probably shortened from *tar-i-, or perhaps from *tra-i- by loss of the a; the assumption that tri- is an archaic weakening from tra- is, I think, less likely; Sanskrit tri-, the fem. having the stem -ti-sar-, in which Bopp conjectures a reduplication, and which he imagines to have arisen from *ti-tar-; Greek $\tau \rho \iota$ -; Latin tri-.
- 4. Indo-European original-language katvar-; Sanskrit katvar-, shortened katúr-, fem. katasár- (clearly formed after the analogy of 3, according to Bopp compounded with it, in which case ka = `unum'); Greek $\tau\acute{e}\tau\tau a\rho$ -, $\tau\acute{e}\sigma\sigma a\rho$ -, for * $\tau\epsilon\tau Fa\rho$ -, $\kappa\epsilon\tau Fa\rho$ -, Dôr. $\tau\acute{e}\tau o\rho$ for * $\tau\epsilon\tau Fo\rho$ -, with τ =original k (§ 62, 1), Boiôt. $\pi\acute{e}\tau\tau a\rho$ -, Hom. and Aiol. $\pi\acute{e}\tau \nu\rho$ -, f.f. katur-, $\pi=\kappa$ (§ 62, 1), and σ before $\nu=\tau$, as in $\sigma\acute{\nu}$ for $\tau\acute{\nu}$; Latin quatur-, the best authenticated spelling quattur is unsupported etymologically (inscriptions have also quattor, quator).
- 5. Indo-European original-language kankan, an obviously reduplicated form; Sanskrit páńkan, with p=k (§ 52, 1); Greek πέντε, Aiol. πέμπε, π and $\tau=\kappa$ (§ 62, 1); Latin quinque.
- 6. Indo-European original-language. By combining the Zend khšvas on the one side with the Greek, Latin and Gothic form with final ks on the other, the resulting f.f. would be ksvaks for Indo-European (Ebel, Beitr. iii. 270; Zeitschr. xiv. 259 sqq.), which likewise seems to be reduplicated, perhaps original *ksva-ksva-; Sanskrit šaš, probably immediately from *kšakš for *ksa-ks (§ 55, 2); Greek and Latin with dissimila-

- - 7. Indo-European original-language probably saptan-; Sanskrit saptan-, later saptan-; Greek $\epsilon m\tau a$, i.e. *saptan-(a=an § 19); Latin septem, i.e. *septim. Bopp supposes that the m of septe-m has worked its way in from the ordinal septi-mo-, because it would be unlikely that n should change to m; possibly however an otherwise unusual sound-change is found in it, and we should not cut the Latin numeral adrift from the Erse and the Greek.
 - 8. Indo-European original-language. Stem aktu-; Sanskrit aštán-, later áštan-, probably after the analogy of 7 and 9, and astú- (the latter in the nom. acc. aštáu, probably shortened from *aktáv-as or *aktáv-as, apparently a dual-form, as also in Gk. and Lat.); Greek ὀκτώ, Latin octō, dual-forms arising just like Sk. aštáu through loss of the termination, in which respect the notion of 4+4 may have assisted; in ὄγδοF-o-, octāu-o-, the f.f. of the stem aktu- is unmistakable; it occurs also in Goth. and Lith.
 - 9. Indo-European original-language navan-; Sanskrit návan-; Greek èvvéa, i.e. * $\nu \epsilon Fa(\nu)$ with ϵ prefixed, and unoriginal doubling of initial consonant ν ; Latin nouem (on the m cf. 7).
 - 10. Indo-European original-language dakan; the conjecture that dakan stands for *dva-kan- (kan for kan-kan), i.e. 2×5 , is not proved, but it is too tempting to be passed by; Greek $\delta \epsilon \kappa a$, i.e. * $\delta \epsilon \kappa a \nu$; Latin decem, i.e. *decim (cf. 7).
- §110. The numerals 11-19. They were formed by joining the number 10 to the units; in some languages we clearly see a mere addition.

Indo-European original-language. Originally the two words would probably exist separately, e.g. perhaps 12 duā dakan; 13, tray-as dakan, etc.

Sanskrit. 11, źkā-daçan-, with lengthening of final a of § 110. stem źka- (one); 12, dvá-daçan-, dvā probably must be considered a dual; 13, tráyō-daçan-, later trayō-daçan-, n. pl. trayas+daçan-; 14, kátur-daçan-; 15, páńka-daçan-; 16, šō-daçan-; 17, sápta-daçan; 18, ašṭā-daçan-, with dual-form ašṭā; 19, náva-daçan-.

Greek. 11, εν-δεκα; 12, δώ-δεκα; from 13 the words originally separate are merely joined together, e.g. in τρισ-καί-δεκα, τρις must be taken as a shorter form for τρεῖς; 14, τεσσαρες-καί-δεκα, etc.

Latin. un-decim for *uni-decim; 12, duo-decim; 13, trē-decim, perhaps with older stem-form tra-, cf. ter-tius, or else tre- is a shortening from trēs; 14, quatuor-decim, etc.

The numerals 20-90 (the intermediate numerals do not need § 111. discussion here; they are clear in all languages, and mostly quite uncompounded). In Aryan and South-European 20-90 were expressed by means of units compounded with a substantive formed from daka-, mostly shortened or otherwise altered. Whereas in the North-European division units and tens are separate words, at most joined together. The contrast between the two closely-related branches of the speech-stem—Aryan and Graeco-italo-keltic—and the Sclavo-teutonic is here clearly shown (cf. Introduction, IV.). It is scarcely to be supposed that in the original-language composition had already taken place; but the tens and units would still be separate words.

Sanskrit. The tens were originally expressed by daça-ti-, daça-ta, the units being prefixed. Of daça-ti, however, -çati-and even -ti- only remains, of daça-ta- only -çat-; so strong is the tendency to diminution in words so much used.

20, vi-cati- for *dvi-dacati-, the nasal of vi = *dvi and the corresponding nasal of the two following numerals is obscure; perhaps we may detect in it the remains of a case-ending. It is shown by the Zend to be a late formation. 30, tri-cat-, probably for *trini dacata, whence probably the nasal arose

§ 111. which worked its way into 20 and 40 by analogy; 40, katvārī-çát-; 50, pankā-çát-; 60, šaš-ti; 70, sapta-ti-; 80, açī-ti-, a
form widely differing from the original; 90, nava-ti-, all with
-ti- for *daçati.

Greek. Except in 20, where likewise a form daka-ti appears, -κοντα appears as the second part of the compound, probably a neut. pl., f.f. dakan-tā, from a sg. *dakan-ta-m. εἴ-κοσι=*εἰ-κοτι (§ 68, 1, c), Hom. ἐείκοσι, earliest form Dôr. Feikati, Fikati; Fikati stands for *dvi-daka-ti, the length of i may have its origin in an earlier case-ending, whence may come also ei; ecikogi, i.e. e-Felkogi, with the frequent vowelprefix before consonantal beginning (§ 29, 2). 30, τριά-κοντα, i.e. *triā-dakan-tā, similarly with the following; 40, τεσσαρά--κοντα; 50, πεντή-κοντα; 60, ξξή-κοντα; 70, ξβδομή-κοντα, formed with the ordinal, like 80, ὀγδοή-κοντα, and probably also 90, ενενή-κοντα, Hom. also εννή-κοντα, which we should accordingly take for a shortening of ἐνενή-κοντα; ἐνενή-κοντα= Lat. nonā-ginta; the ordinal *ève-vo- from *è-veFa-vo-, it is true, presupposes a strong shortening; the suffix -vo-, as in Lat. -nō-no- (v. Ordinals), we must treat as having arisen from -µothrough assimilation to the initial sound.

Latin. Except -gin-ti in 20, -gin-ta generally appears, probably a neut. pl.; -gin-ti and -gin-ta stand for *degin-ti, *degin-ta, and these for *decen-ti, *decen-ta, the f.f. of these stems is dakan-ti-, dakan-ta-; c has here become g, even as uīcēsimus from a form *uicenti has stood its ground beside the unoriginal uīgēsimus. Accordingly 20, vī-gintī from *dvī-decin-ī (cf. Gk.; on the form, which seems to be a neut. dual, cf. Corssen, Krit. Nachtr. p. 96 sqq.); tri-gin-ta=*triā decintā, *triā becoming *triē, and this becoming trī, like s-yā-t, siēt, sīt (3 sg. opt., \(\sqrt{es} \)); 40, quadrā-gin-ta, with softening of t to d, for *quatuorā decintā; 50, quinquā-gin-ta; 60, sexā-gin-ta; 70, septuā-ginta from a stem septuo-, which does not appear elsewhere; 80, octō-ginta; 90, nōnā-ginta, from the ordinal, cf. the

Greek, with which the Latin essentially coincides in these for- § 111. mations.

Numerals 100-1000.

§ 112.

100. Indo-European original-language. Probably stem kan-ta- neutr., acc. n. sg. kan-ta-m, a shortening of *dakan-dakan-ta-, i.e. dakan-+ subst. dakan-ta- which forms the tens; we found it already shortened to kan-ta- (Zend -çata-, Greek-κοντα, Latin -ginta). (dakan-da)kanta- thus means *ten-ty, *δεκήκοντα, *decāginta. The n of kan-ta is kept in Lat., Kelt., Lith. and Goth., but is lost elsewhere.

Sanskrit çáta-; Greek έ-κατό-, έ can be nothing else than a diminished form of έν- (one); Latin cento-.

200-900. Originally expressed in two words. Sanskrit by two words, or by ordinary composition (e.g. dvē çatē or dviçata- neut.); Greek from stem κατο- or κοτο-, f.f. ka(n)ta-, cf. Sk. çata-, was formed a derivative in -ya-, before which according to rule (§ 89) the stem-termination is lost, thus *-κατιο-, *-κοτιο-, f.f. *-kat-ya-; in Dôr. -κατιο- remains unchanged, whereas elsewhere the *-κοτιο- passes regularly (§ 68, 1, c) into -κοσιο-. So from a hypothetical *τριā-κατā or -κοτā, f.f. triā kantā 300, arose Dôric τρια-κάτιο-, Attic τριā-κόσιο-, these forms being used as adjs. and in the pl.

The Latin proceeds in a way similar to the Greek, employing as it does the stem cento- as the second member of the compound adjectivally in the plural, e.g. 200, du-cento-, du shortened from duo; 300, tre-cento-; 500, quin-gento- for *quinc-cento-, with softening of c to g after n, as in 400, 700, 800, 900 (cf. -ginta); 600, sex-cento-; 900, nōn-gento-, from ordinal-stem nōno-. The numerals 400, quadrin-gento-; 700, septin-gento-; 800, octin-gento-, show an analogy, which perhaps may be traced to septin-genti; septin-, f.f. saptan-; octin- also corresponds to f.f. aktan-, cf. Sanskrit aštan-, and so also a stem quadrin- has arisen from quadro-, shortened from quatuor (cf. quadra-ginta). Pott (Zählmethode, p. 149) conjectures

§ 112. distributive in these forms, thus quaterni (quadrīni), octoni, etc.

1000. The Indo-European original-language seems not to have possessed a word to express 1000.

The two Aryan languages have a common word, Sanskrit sahásra- (masc. neut.), Zend hasanra- (neut.).

Greek χίλιο-, Hom. in compounds χίλο-, Boiôt. χειλίο-, Lesb. χέλλιο-, Dôr. χηλίο-, which points to a f.f. *χελγο-, i.e. gharya-, of obscure origin.

Latin. St. mili-, milli- (neut.), obscure.

STEMS OF THE ORDINAL NUMERALS.

- § 113. The ordinals are, except 2, superlatives, partly however with peculiarities distinguishing them from other superlatives. The forms of the Indo-European original-language for the most part cannot be restored, because the different languages frequently do not coincide in the choice of the suffix.
 - 1-10.
 - 1. Original-language probably pra-ma-, stem pra(before); Sanskrit pra-thamá- from pra- (as prep. 'before')
 +-thama-, with th for t (§ 52, 2); Greek πρῶ-το-, Dôr. πρᾶ-το-,
 from προ- + suffix -ta- (§ 106), and with step-formation or
 lengthening of stem-vowel; Latin prī-mo-, with suffix -mo(§ 107), probably from *pro-imo-, so that -imo- not -mo- has
 here been added, according to the analogy of other forms in
 *-timo-; according to Pott (Etym. Forsch. I.² 560) from
 *prīs-mo- (§ 77, 1, a), *prīs=prius, f.f. pra-yans, comparative of
 pra-, cf. pris-tino-, prī-die, for *prīs-die; according to Corssen
 (Krit. Beitr., 433) prī- is an archaic form (attested) = prae
 (prep. 'before'), which is however clearly a case form, and
 would scarcely have admitted a superlative formation, cf.
 Umbr. pru-mu- pro-mo-; it would perhaps be difficult to come
 to a certain decision on this point.
 - 2. Original-language (?); Sanskrit dvi-tiya-, i.e.

- *dvi-tya- (§ 15, 2, b), probably therefore a further formation by § 113. means of -ya- from *dvi-ta-; Greek δεύ-τερο-, a comparative (§ 105) δευ- appears to be a raised-formation from *du from dva; Lat. secundo- is formed not from stem dva-, but from √sec, seq (sequi); on the suffix cf. § 89, 2, n. 2.
- 3. Indo-European original-language probably tar-tya- or tra-tya-, -tya- being here also a further-formation of -ta-; Sanskrit tr-tiya, i.e. *tar-tya-, (§ 15, 2, b), as it appears to belong to the root of the stem tr-i-, i.e. tar or tra (v. supcardinal 3); Greek $\tau\rho i$ - τo -, with superlative suffix -ta-, which helps to form all other ordinals in Greek except 7 and 8; Aiol. τi - ρ - τo -; Lat. ter-tio-, like Sanskrit.
- 4. Original-language probably katvar-ta-; Sanskrit katur-thá- (tha=ta), also túr-ya-, tur-tya-, for *katur-ya-, with loss of initial and suffix -ya-, not elsewhere used by itself to form superlatives; we have already noted the combination of -ya- with -ta-; here also we see the frequent phenomenon of two suffixes occurring combined,—as here -t-ya-, i.e. -ta-ya-,—either of which can exercise the same functions as the compound; Greek τέταρ-το- for *τετ Γαρ-το-; Latin quar-to- for *quatuor-to-, quator-to- (on these forms cf. Corss. Krit. Nachtr., p. 298, 3).
- 5. Original-language probably kankan-ta- or perhaps already kan-ta-; Sanskrit panka-má-, Vēd. panka-thā-, with well-known suffixes; Greek πέμπ-το-; Latin quin(c)-to-.
- 6. Suffix -ta- throughout, which therefore must be ascribed to the original-language with certainty, thus perhaps ksvaks-ta-; Sanskrit šaš-thá-; Greek ἔκ-το-, probably for *έξ-το-, cf. Latin sex-to.
- 7. Indo-European original-language sapta-ma-, or sapta-ta-, or perhaps saptan-ta-?; Sanskrit sapta-mā-; Greek εβδο-μο- for *επτο-μο-, with irregular softening of mutes πτ into sonants βδ, according to the conjecture of G. Curtius and Leo Meyer (cf. Curt. Gr. Et.³ p. 488), through the influence of

- § 113. the μ , before which o forced its way as an auxiliary vowel at a later date (cf. Old Bulg. sed-mü for *sept-mü); archaic and poët. form έβδό-ματο-; Latin septi-mo-.
 - 8. Original-language perhaps aktu-ma; Sanskrit $a\check{s}ta-m\acute{a}$; Greek $\check{o}\gamma\delta\sigma Fo$, with the same weakening as in the case of $\check{e}\beta\delta\sigma-\mu o$, for $\check{e}\delta\kappa\tau Fo$, which, as Curt. conjectures, arose from $\check{e}\delta\kappa\tau Fo$, and whose weakening of $\kappa\tau$ to $\gamma\delta$ must be ascribed to the F (cf. No. 7); on the other hand $\check{o}\gamma\delta\sigma Fo$ and Latin octāuo- point to a common f.f. $akt\bar{a}v-a$ -, which is opposed to Curtius' supposition. The suffix here is therefore only -a-, which is added to the raised stem aktu- (consequently we must not assume either suffix -va- as in *par-va-, or still less -ma-changed into -va-).
 - 9. Indo-European original-language doubtful whether with suffix -ma- (nava-ma-), or with -ta- (navan-ta); Sanskrit nava-má-; Greek ĕva-το-, ĕvva-το-, probably shortened from *èveFu-το-; Latin nō-no- from *nou-no-, *noui-no-, probably from *noui-mo- by assimilation to the initial sound.
 - 10. Original-language doubtful, as in the case of 9, whether daka-ma- or dakan-ta-; Sanskrit daça-má-; Greek δέκα-το-; Latin deci-mo-.
 - 11-19. Originally by means of two words.—Sanskrit. Here, as in other compounds, the final a of the second element of daçan-, which has lost its n, serves likewise for an adjective-forming suffix, e.g. 11, ēkā-daçá-, from ἑkā-daçan-; 12, dvā-daçā-, etc. Here consequently we see suffix a also serving to form a superlative (as in Gk. Lat. *aktāv-a-, 8). Greek throughout -δέκα-το-; 11, ἐν-δέκα-το-; 19, ἐννεα-και-δέκα-το-. Latin. 11, un-deci-mo-; 12, duo-deci-mo-, and the remaining numerals by separate words.
 - 20-90. Originally by two words.—Sanskrit either with -tama-, e.g. 20, viçati-tamá-; 30, tricati-tamá-; or by suffix -a-like 11-19, with loss of final -t, -ti, e.g. viçá-, triçá-. Greek.

To -κοτι-, -κοντα-, was added suffix -το-, in such a way that § 113.
-κοτι- and -κοντα- were shortened to -κοτ-; hence arose *-κοτ-τοand by rule (§ 68, 2) -κοσ-το-, thus 20, εἰκοσ-τό-; 30, τριακοσ-τό-, etc. Latin. Suffix -tumo-, -timo-, added to the suffix
*-cinti-, *-cinta-, which loses its final; or rather to an earlier
*-centi-, *-centa-; thus *-cent-tumo-, and thence regularly (77,
1, b) -censumo-, -cēsimo-, and -gēsimo- with c softened to g.
E.g. 20, early vicensumo-, hence vicēsimo-, vigēsimo-, f.f. would
therefore be some such form as *dvi-(da) kanti-tama-; 40, quadra-gensimo-, -gēsimo-, etc.

100-1000. 100. Sanskrit çata-tamá-; Greek, with suffix -στο-, apparently through the analogy of -ιστο- (§ 106), formed from -το-, ἐκατο-στό-; Latin, according to analogy of the tens, cent-ēsimo-, as though -ēsimo- were the suffix (from *cent-tēsimo- would have arisen *censēsimo-, § 77, 1, b).

200-900. Sanskrit with çata-tamá-; Greek with -στο-(v. 100); e.g. 200, διακοσιο-στό-; Latin with centēsimo, e.g. 200, du-centēsimo-, octin-gentēsimo-, etc.

1000. Sanskrit sahasra-tamá-; Greek with -στο-, χιλιο-στό-; Latin with -ēsimo-, mill-ēsimo-.

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