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A

GRAMMAR

OF THE

GERMAN LANGUAGE

FOR

HIGH SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

DESIGNED FOR BEGINNERS AND ADVANCED STUDENTS

BY

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PREFACE.

THE author trusts, that this work embodies the results of philological research during the last twenty years, as far as it concerns German. Advance has certainly been made in the study of Phonology, of Accent, of Phonetics, and even in Syntax. This advance is largely due to improved methods of investigation. Our views of language in general have changed, certainly our views of the living languages, the study of which it would seem, is gradually being looked upon as a science and as worthy of serious pursuit.

From the works of Osthoff, Sievers, Paul, Kluge, Braune, and Sweet I have appropriated most of the new results and methods, which are accepted and popularized only too slowly. I have added a list of the books which have been of special help to me and which I consider absolutely necessary for a thorough study of German. Perhaps I should also have mentioned for Syntax: The fourth volume of *Grimm's* large grammar; *Vernaleken's deutsche Syntax*, and the Syntax in *Blatz's* and *Krause's* grammars.

Because the grammar contains no exercises, and because the illustrative sentences taken from the classics are not, as a rule, translated, it should not be inferred that it is intended only for advanced students of German. On account of the

strict separation of Accidence and Syntax, it is hoped that the grammar can be used in the beginning classes of preparatory schools.

The grammar was first announced as being prepared by Professor J. M. Hart, of the University of Cincinnati, and myself, but unfortunately for myself Prof. Hart's interest and labors became centred more and more in English work and he found himself obliged to withdraw from the undertaking at an early date. I have nevertheless not been deprived of his valuable counsel and suggestions, for which I herewith express my thanks.

I am moreover specially indebted to my colleague Professor G. P. Bristol, who has most faithfully read proof with me, has tried to Anglicize my unidiomatic English and has so frequently suggested changes and additions which were always improvements.

HAMILTON COLLEGE, *Clinton, N. Y., August*, 1884.

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   a. *Gotische Gram. von Braune.* 2. aufl.
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      (With a syntax.)
   d. *Altnordische Gram. von Noreen.*
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5. *Sweet's Handbook of Phonetics.* Macmillan. London.
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   (A large and a small edition. The large one has now a valuable index.)
7. *Grimm's deutsches Wörterbuch.* Hirzel. Leipzig.
   Out as far as "*Nothwendigkeit,*" with breaks sub G. and M.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

PART I. SECTION 1.

PAGE

ACCIDENCE 1–47

- PRONUNCIATION WITH ALPHABETS 1–5
- THE ARTICLES 6–7
- DECLENSION OF NOUNS 7–17
- DECLENSION AND COMPARISON OF THE ADJECTIVE 17–21
- NUMERALS 21–23
- PRONOUNS 23–30
- CONJUGATION 30–47
  - Weak Verbs 35–37
  - Strong Verbs 37–43
  - Anomalous Verbs 44–47

PART II. SECTION 2.

SYNTAX.

SPECIAL SYNTAX 51–130

- ARTICLES 51–55
- NOUNS 56–74
  - Gender 56–62
  - Singular and Plural 62–64
  - Cases 64–74
- ADJECTIVES 74–80
- NUMERALS 80–82
- PRONOUNS 82–96
  - Personal Pronouns 82–85
  - Reflexive and Reciprocal Pronouns 86

PAGE

Possessive Pronouns ... 86–88
Demonstrative Pronouns ... 88–91
Interrogative Pronouns ... 91–93
Relative Pronouns ... 93–95
Indefinite Pronouns ... 95–96
VERBS ... 97–118
Classification of Verbs ... 97
Auxiliary Verbs ... 97–99
Modal Auxiliaries ... 99–102
Voice ... 102–104
Tenses ... 104–110
Moods ... 110–112
Infinitive ... 113–116
Participles ... 116–118
Gerundive ... 118
ADVERB ... 119
PREPOSITION ... 119-130
CONJUNCTION ... 130

GENERAL SYNTAX ... 131–152

THE SIMPLE SENTENCE ... 131–135
THE COMPOUND SENTENCE ... 135–147
Coordinate Sentences ... 135–137
Subordinate Sentences ... 137–147
Substantive Clauses ... 137–138
Adjective Clauses ... 139
Adverbial Clauses ... 140–147
WORD-ORDER ... 147–154

PART II. ADVANCED GRAMMAR.

SECTION 1.

A. PHONOLOGY ... 157–193

Historical Notes on the Orthography ... 157–160
Analysis and Description of German Sounds ... 160–176
Ablaut, Umlaut ... 176–182
Grimm's Law, Verner's Law ... 182–189
Accent ... 189–193

PAGE

B. HISTORICAL COMMENTARY UPON THE ACCIDENCE.... ... 194–216

Noun-Declension..... 194–198
Adjective-Declension..... 198–199
Pronouns..... 200–208
Conjugation..... 208–216

C. HISTORY OF THE LANGUAGE..... 217–230

Characteristics of the Germanic Languages..... 217
Classification of the Germanic Languages..... 218
Classification of the German Dialects..... 219–221
History of "German"..... 221–228
The German Word-stock..... 228–230

D. WORDFORMATION..... 231–264

Derivation and Composition of Substantives..... 232–245
Derivation and Composition of Adjectives and Numerals.. 245–251
Derivation and Composition of Verbs..... 252–261
Derivation of Adverbs, Conjunctions, and Interjections.. 261–264

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS THAT REQUIRE EXPLANATIONS..... 265

SUBJECT-INDEX..... 266–270

WORD-INDEX..... ... 271–278

FIRST PART.

FIRST SECTION.

ACCIDENCE.

THE GERMAN ALPHABET.

1—2.

German type.	German script.	Name.	German type.	German script.	Name.
A a		ah	N n		en
B b		bay	O o		oh
C c		tsay	P p		pay
D d		day	Q q		koo
E e		(b)ay	R r		air
F f		ef	S ſ s ß		es
G g		gay	T t		tay
H h		hah	U u		(t)oo
I i		e	V v		fou(l)
J j		jot	W w		vay
K k		kah	X x		ix
L l		el	Y y		ipsilon
M m		em	Z z		tset

Ae ä Ä		ah-umlaut (h)ai(r)		tsay-hah
Oe ö Ö		oh-umlaut		tsay-kah
Ue ü Ü		oo-umlaut		es-tsay-hah (= ah)
Äu		au-umlaut (= oi)		

PRONUNCIATION.

The German sounds are here only very inaccurately represented by English words and letters. A full analysis is found in the second part, p. 160. The following description, with a few key-words, will suffice for the beginner; but it is meant to be only a popular description. As soon as the student begins to read, he ought to study Part II., p. 160–174.

3. ā as in Eng. *father:* Vater, Aal, Zahl. ă, not in Eng., but similar to Scotch *a* as in Sc. *hand, land:* Mann, Land, Hand.

4. b = Eng. *b*, but surd (= *p*) at the end of words: Bube, Haube, Dieb, Laub.

5. c, ck = Eng. *k:* Carl, Backe, Bäcker.

6. ch, not in Eng., but in Scotch as in *loch.* A single guttural sound. Two kinds: 1. Palatal (forward) after palatal vowels, after e, i, ö, ü, ä, ei, eu, and in the suffix -chen, *e. g.*, ich, Wächter, Blech, möchte, euch, Gerücht, weich, Mädchen, Mamachen. 2. Back-guttural after the other vowels, a, o, u, au, *e. g.*, ach, Dach, Loch, Buch, Bauch (betrog in N. G.). In Charfrei'tag and in foreign words = *k:* Chara'kter, Chor; also like sch in foreign words: Champa'gner, changie'ren, Chance.

7. d = Eng. *d*, but surd (= *t*) finally: du, doch, Bad, lud.

8. e, long, similar to Eng. *a, ay,* as in *pay, pate, rate;* short, like Eng. *e*, as in *met*, ē: gehn, Beet, wert; ĕ: recht, Wette.

9. f = Eng. *f:* hoffen, Hafen, führen, Flagge.

10. g = Eng. *g*, but surd (= *k*) finally: glauben, plagen, graben; but Tag, Zug, fragte, trug, Balg.

11. h = Eng. *h* if it stands initially: Hund, Hose, Hase. After a vowel and after a t it is silent: stehn, seh(e)n, sah, thun, That, Thal. See the dropping of h, p. 159.

12. ĭ similar to Eng. *i:* bin, finde, bringe.

ī or ie = Eng. *ee* in *fear:* vier, siegen, mir, dir, Igel, Biber.

13. j similar to Eng. *y:* jung, jagen, Jagd.

14. k, ck = Eng. *k:* Katze, Jacke, Haken.

15. l similar to Eng. *l:* Lage, lachen, wohl, Saal, bald.

16. m = Eng. *m:* Molch, Saum, ſchwimmen.

17. n = Eng. *n.* 1. Initially, finally, and before a dental: Nagel, nun, fein, ſenden, Fant, Fund. 2. In the stem-syllable before k, and combined with g like Eng. *ng* in *sing, singer:* Anfang, Sänger, Finger, Bank, ſenken, blinken; but an=ge=kommen, un=geheuer.

18. o = Eng. *o, oa,* in *hold, foal:* Bote, Boot, tot, rot, Loos, los, Thon (clay). o not in Eng., but short Sc. *o; e. g.:* Woche, Loch, Stock, Rock (not at all like Eng. *stock, rock,* but see p. 164).

19. p = like Eng. *p:* plagen, Kappe, Trapper, Galo'pp.

pf = *p* + *f:* Pfund, Napf, Sumpf, tapfer. In Eng. only in accidental juxtaposition, *e. g.,* "a cap for him," "stop for me."

ph in foreign words only = *f:* Philologie', Telegra'ph.

20. q always followed by u, similar to Eng. *qu:* quer, Quaſt, Quart, bequem.

21. r unlike Eng. *r.* 1. Trilled: Regen, Rache, fern, Furt, treu. This is the standard *r.* 2. Uvular or guttural in N. G., very much like the guttural ch, but sonant.

22. ſ, ſſ, s, ß = Eng. surd *s:* Haus, Mäuſe, Waſſer, Fluß, Muße, ſein; but initially and after a vowel it begins surd and ends sonant, as in N. and M. G. Standard unsettled. But see p. 175.

23. ſch = Eng. *sh* (surd): ſchicken, ſchenken, haſchen, Schlange.

24. ſt, ſp = ſcht, ſchp initially in the standard pronunciation and in S. and M. G. But in the middle and at the end of words, in N. G. also at the beginning of words = Eng. *st, sp;* ſcht, ſchp: Stein, Straße, Stuhl, Spaß, ſprießen; *st, sp:* haſt, wüſte, berſten, Wurſt, Weſpe, haſpeln. N. G.: Spieß, Stock.

25. t, th = Eng. *t*: hat, hatte, That, Naht.

26. ū = Eng. *oo* in *too*: Hut, Wut, Blume, Buch, Buhle. ŭ = Eng. *u* in *put*: Butter, ſtutzen, Gulden.

27. v = Eng. *f* in German words: Vater, Frevel, viel. v = German w in foreign words: Vika'r, vindizie'ren, Vata'nz.

28. w like Eng. *v* dento-labial: Wetter, Waſſer, warnen. After ſch labio-labial like u after q, but not quite like Eng. *w*: Schweſter, Schweiß, Schwelle. But see p. 170.

29. x in foreign words and chs, chſ = Eng. *x*: Alexander, Wachs, Fuchs, Füchſin, ſechs.

y = ü, which see.

30. z, tz = Eng. *ts*, as in *cats, rats*: Zunge, Zeug, Warze, Mütze, Pfütze.

c in foreign words before e, i, y, ä = *ts*: cerebral, Cäſu'r, Cika'de, Cyklo'p; but the spelling is unsettled: Ziga'rre, Zentner, Zenſu'r.

31. Modified Vowels (Umlauts).

ä long = Eng. *ai* in *fair*: Väter, Räder, ſtählern.

ä short = Eng. and Ger. ĕ: Hände, Wände, fällen.

ö not in Eng. It has the lip-position of o, the tongue-position of e: long in böſe, löſen, Herzöge; short in Böller, Zölle, Gerölle.

ü not in Eng. It has the lip-position of u, the tongue-position of i: long in Mühle, Bücher, Küchlein; short in Müller, Sünde, Büttel.

y = ü, as in Cya'n, Cypre'ſſe, only in foreign words.

32. Diphthongs.

ai (rare) and ei = Eng. *i* in *find*: Kaiſer, Mai, leiſe, weiß, bleiben. au = Eng. *ou* in *house*: blau, Haus, Maus.

äu and eu similar to Eng. *oi* in *exploit*: Mäuſe, läuten, Beute, heute.

Quantity of Vowels.

33. Vowels are long in an open syllable, *e. g.*, Ta-ges, ho-len, Bü-cher. They are also indicated: 1. By doubling, but only in the case of a, e, o: Saal, Seele, Moos. 2. By h after the vowel and after t: Hahn, Ohm, ihn, Thran, Thor. 3. By e after i: lieb, Tier, viel. 4. a and e are generally long before r, rt, rd: war, rar, der, wert, werden, zart, Pferd. Short in fertig (< Fahrt), Warte, Scharte, Herz, Schmerz.

34. The vowels are short before more than one consonant: handeln, bergen, Nacht, Gelübde, haſſen.

35. ß counts as a single consonant; it becomes ſſ medially (see "Rules," § 12), *e. g.*, Fluß — Fluſſes, Flüſſe; fließen — floß, gefloſſen. The vowel remains long before inflectional endings, *e. g.*, loben, lobſt, gelobt (but gehabt, gemocht); also in a closed syllable, when the stem-vowel stands in an open syllable under inflection, *e. g.*, Tag, Ta-ges; Zug, Zu-ges. But see p. 175.

Since ch cannot be doubled, there is no telling the quantity of the preceding vowel from the mere looks of the word: *e. g.*, long in Buch — Buches; Tuch — Tuches; brach — brachen; but short in Bach — Baches; lachen, wachen. As a rule, shortness may be expected.

36. The division into syllables differs somewhat from the English custom. The "Rules" § 26 show how words are divided at the end of a line. The following examples will illustrate sufficiently: ha-ben, ſuch-te, be-ehren, Bee-re, ver-irren, ge-irrt, Waſſer, Stra-ße, lö-ſchen, ro-ter, Fin-ger (but see 17), He-xe, Wei-zen, Hit-ze, Kar-pfen, be-ob-achten, nach-ſa-gen, be-glau-bi-gen.

37. German orthography is now regulated by the government, and the student who is to write German should provide himself with the official, Regeln und Wörterverzeichnis für die deutſche Rechtſchreibung in den preußiſchen Schulen. Berlin. It is a small convenient guide of 46 pages, with a quite full word-list. See 361, 2.

THE ARTICLES.

38. The definite article is der, die, das + *the;* the indefinite, ein, eine, ein + *one, an, a.*

The definite article declines:

	masc.	fem.	neuter.	common gender.
Sing. N.	der	die	das	*Plu.* die
G.	des	der	des	der
D.	dem	der	dem	den
A.	den	die	das	die

The indefinite article declines:

Sing. N.	ein	eine	ein
G.	eines	einer	eines
D.	einem	einer	einem
A.	einen	eine	ein

39. The articles are unaccented.

The definite article is the weakened demonstrative pronoun, which has chief stress. It retains the short original forms of the same. The indefinite article is the weakened numeral ein, which also has chief stress. To mark the demonstrative pronoun and the numeral, they are sometimes printed spaced or with a capital letter: Nur Einen Schritt, so bist du Frei, F. 4563; but Es war einmal ein König, F. 2212. Der Mohr kann gehn (Sch.). Es thut mir lang' schon weh, daß ich dich in der Gesellschaft seh', F. 3470–1.

40. Owing to their lack of accent both articles suffer aphæresis and apocope, and contraction with the preceding word, most frequently with a preposition: dem and das are, according to good usage, combined with the following prepositions: an, auf, bei, durch, für, hinter, in, über, um, unter, von, vor, and zu; *e. g.*, am, ans, aufs, ins, ums, vom, etc. In general, contractions with dissyllabic prepositions are rarer in the classics, common in the spoken language, which allows the contraction of den whether dative plural or accusative singular masculine with the above and also with other prepositions. Some such are even in the classics: in = in'n, F. 2429, „in Sessel," Lessing's Nathan, „in Sack," „in Kopf," „an Tag." In, um contain

long (see 389, 5) consonants and the article is not absent, as is generally explained. In conversation is heard: um Arm, von Bäumen, auf'n Feldern, mit'n Händen, durch'n Wald. The apostrophe in auf's, über's, etc., is not at all indispensable. Der, dative singular feminine, combines properly only with zu into zur.

41. Attractions of the definite article, especially of the neuter, to preceding words other than prepositions are common in the spoken language, *e.g.*, „ich will's Buch holen," „er hat sich's Bein gebrochen." „Bind't's Pferd hauß' an" (G.). „Und hast's Küssen verlernt" (F. 4485).

1. The aphæresis of „ein" common in the spoken language is also found in the written, *e.g.*, „Warf auf 'nen Stuhl die Handschuh" (Uh.). Bold abbreviations are these in Chamisso's, „'s war 'mal 'ne Katzenkönigin." The dropping of ein before mal is not unusual: „Es war mal ein Kaiser;" „Auch war mal ein Abt" (Bü.). Notice so'ne for so eine. The early N. H. G. (16th century) eim for einem (comp. M. H. G. *eime* for *eineme*), einn or ein for einen occur still in some South German dialects. In M. H. G. the aphæresis of "*ein*" is unheard of, while the definite article is much more pliant than in the present classical language. Apocope of the same is still allowable in certain S. G. dialects.

DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

42. *There are three systems of Declension, the Strong (Vowel, Old), the Weak (Consonant, n-Declension or New), and the Mixed.*

The strong declension (see **43**, 1*) has* (e)s *in the genitive singular; the weak has* (e)n *in all cases, singular and plural, except in the nominative singular; the mixed has* (e)s *in the genitive singular,* (e)n *in the whole plural.*

General Rules.

43. 1. Feminine nouns never vary in the singular.

2. The only case-endings are (e)s for the genitive singular and (e)n for the dative plural.

3. e in the case-suffix ought to stand in nouns ending in ſ, ß, ſch, z, d, t, ſt.

e is always dropped after el, en, em, er, chen, lein. In other cases it is optional. If the genitive singular has es, then the dative singular has e as a rule: Hauſes, zu Hauſe.

Distribution of nouns among these declensions according to gender:

1. The bulk of feminine nouns belong to the n-declension. No neuters at all.

2. To the strong declension belong mainly masculine and neuter nouns, and a few feminines.

3. The mixed declension includes a few masculine and neuter nouns.

Strong Declension.

44. We distinguish for practical reasons four classes, according to the formation of the plural:

1. No sign unless it be umlaut: das Wunder, die Wunder; der Vater, die Väter.

2. –e without umlaut: der Tag, die Tage; das Los, die Loſe.

3. –e with umlaut: der Sohn, die Söhne; die Kraft, die Kräfte.

4. –er always with umlaut: das Bad, die Bäder; das Haus, die Häuſer.

45. First Class.—*a.* No sign:

Sing.	N. der Spaten	das Gewerbe	der Engel
	G. des Spatens	des Gewerbes	des Engels
Plu.	D. den Spaten	den Gewerben	den Engeln

All other cases singular and plural like nominative singular.

b. With umlaut:

Sing.	N., D., A. der Faden	der Bruder
	G. des Fadens	des Bruders
Plu.	N., G., A. die Fäden	die Brüder
	D. den Fäden	den Brüdern

46. To this class belong:

1. Masculine and neuter nouns in *–el, –er, –en, –chen, –lein, –ſel*, *e. g.*, der Hebel, der Ritter, der Boden, der Hopfen, das Hündchen, das Kindlein, das Rätſel.

2. Neuters of the form Ge–*e*, *e. g.*, das Getreide, Geſchmeide.

3. The names of kindred in *–er*: Vater, Bruder, Tochter, Mutter, Schwager, all with umlaut. Also der Käſe.

4. Certain nouns, if they take *–n* in the nominative singular, as they may according to usage: der Felſen, der Brunnen, der Tropfen, der Schrecken (these so generally). The following not so frequently in the written language: der Funke(n), Balke(n), Friede(n), Gedanke(n), Gefalle(n), Hauſe(n), Same(n), Schade(n).

47. The nouns sub 1, in *–el, –en, –er*, are *o*-stems that lost the *e* of the plural in M. H. G. (see **434**, 3). Masculines in *–er* < *aere* < *âri* (originally *jo*-stems), those of the form of *vogel* retained their *e* longest. Atem (Odem), Brodem, Eidam, Broſam stand isolated. The plural, if it occurs, is the *–e* of the next class. Broſamen is more common than Broſame.

1. The nouns sub 2 are originally *jo*-stems, having *–e* also in the singular as the remnant of *jo*, O. H. G. *i*. Many have lost it and gone over into the next class, as if *–e* were sign of the plural. Käſe is treated like the preceding < O. H. G. *châsi* < *câsius* < Lat. *cāseus*.

2. All nouns sub 4, except Friede, Gefalle, and Gedanke, were weak in M. H. G., and are not yet fully established in the strong declension. Since usage is unsettled, they might all be put under the mixed declension.

48. The nouns of this declension that take umlaut, besides the names of kindred in *–er*, are Apfel, Acker, Boden, Faden (thread), Garten, Hafen, Hammer, Laden, Mangel, Mantel, Nagel, Ofen, Sattel, Schaden, Schnabel, Schwager, Vogel, *e. g.*, Sättel, Schnäbel, etc. Two neuters take it, Kloſter + cloister < *claustrum*, and Lager (camp). In none of these is there any cause that could produce umlaut as in *i* and *jo* stems or before *–ir*. Umlaut has arisen from analogy with these. Väter, Mütter, Brüder, Töchter had umlaut already in M. H. G. This way of forming the plural is on the increase, because it is so convenient and some way of indicating the plural seems necessary. Wägen, Läger, etc., still sound objectionable, but have no worse and no better claim to correctness than the above.

49. Second Class.—Plural **–e**, no umlaut.

Sing.	N., A.	Hund	die Drangſal	das Jahr
	G.	des Hundes	der Drangſal	des Jahres
	D.	dem Hunde	der Drangſal	dem Jahre
Plu.	N., G., A.	Hunde	Drangſale	Jahre
	D.	Hunden	Drangſalen	Jahren

50. To this class belong:

1. A small number of feminines in **–niß** and **–ſal**, *e. g.*, die Drangſal, Trübſal; die Finſternis, Betrübnis, pl. **–niſſe**.

2. Many masculines; some capable of umlaut, but without it. These may be considered exceptions to the third class: der Aal, Aar, Arm, Beſuch, Amboß, Dachs, Grad, Docht, Lachs, Halm, Luchs, Hund, Laut, Pfad, Punkt, Huf, Tag, Stoff, Thron, Verſuch, and a very few others.

3. Masculines in **–ig**, **–(i)ch**, **–ing**, **–ling**, **–(e)nd**, **–at**, **–is**, **–icht**, *e.g.*, der König, Gänſerich, Molch, Hering, Jüngling, Freund, Monat, Iltis (pl. Iltiſſe), Habicht.

4. Many neuters, among which monosyllabics; those with the prefix **Ge-**; in **–nis**, **–ſal**: das Jahr, Geſchenk, Gefängnis, Schickſal.

51. The feminines and neuters in **–niß** ended in M. H. G. in **–e** (**–niſſe**), both in singular and plural. The ending of the singular was lost in early N. H. G. Also **–e** of the neuters in **Ge–** was lost, and they really belong to the first class. (See **45.** *a.*, **47.**) Those in **–niß** and these are O. H. G. *jo*-stems. The monosyllabic neuters followed the masculine *o*-stems with **–e** in the plural (without umlaut sub 2), and can therefore never have umlaut. In O. and M. H. G. they were either uninflected or took **–er** (see **431**). The masculines sub 2 and 3 are *o*-stems, and come properly by their **–e** (see p. 195). The group sub 2 is on the decrease, because we cannot tell on the surface whether a noun has umlaut or not. To avoid the difficulty, several nouns form very anomalous plurals: der Bau, die Bauten instead of Baue. Of Mord, pl. Morde is rare, rather Mordthaten; of Schmuck, pl. Schmucke is rare, rather Schmuckſachen; Schluck, pl. Schlucke is seldom used, since it stands in the singular after a number, *e. g.*, drei Schluck Branntwein.

52. THIRD CLASS.—Plural -e, with umlaut.

Sing. N., A.	der Stamm	die Kuh	die Braut
G.	des Stammes	der Kuh	der Braut
D.	dem Stamme	der Kuh	der Braut
Plu. N., A., G.	Stämme	Kühe	Bräute
D.	Stämmen	Kühen	Bräuten

53. To this class belong:

1. The majority of strong masculine nouns, mostly monosyllabics: der Geſang, Gebrauch, Ball, Gaſt, Sohn, etc.

2. A number of feminine nouns: die Angſt, Art, Bank, Brunſt, Bruſt, Fauſt, Frucht, Gans, Gruft, Haut, Kluft, Kraft, -kunft in compounds, Laus, Luft, Luſt, Macht, Magd, Maus, Nacht, Naht, Nuß, Sau, Schnur, Stadt, Wand, Wurſt, Zunft; Ausflucht, Armbruſt, Geſchwulſt.

3. Das Floß, der or das Chor.

54. The old bulk of these nouns are *i*-stems. Their number has been increased by *u*-, *o*-, *jo*-, and *cons*-stems. Fuß and Zahn were originally *cons*-stems. Comp. Gr. *ποδ-ός*, L. *dent-is*. They appear as *u*-stems in Gothic, as *i*-stems in O. H. G. Nacht is also a *cons*-stem. Comp. L. *noct-is*. Isolated cases of its old inflection are Nachts the adverbial genitive and the dative plural in Weihnachten < *zen wihen nahten*. In Nachtigall + nightingale appears the genitive of its *i*-stem-inflection; compare also Bräutigam + bridegroom, lit. "bridesman." (See **489**, 5.) An isolated *u*-case is „Handen" < O. H. G. *hantum*, dative plural in abhanden, lost; vorhanden + "on hand." „Nöten" is an isolated dative plural; the nominative plural is obsolete. Compare the Eng. umlaut in mouse, mice; louse, lice; loft, lift, Ags. lyft, but Go. luftus; cow, kine, etc.

55. No neuters belong here except O H. G. *meri*, das Meer, die Meere, now according to 2d Class. Das Floß is O. H. G. masculine *i*-stem. Der and das Chor, borrowed from church-Latin "chorus," has joined the group sub 2. Das Boot, die Böte because it was also der Boot, a modern borrowed word < D. Die Boote is more elegant. Das Rohr, die Röhre is not good. Besides there is die Röhre, feminine singular, the pipe, tube.

56. Fourth Class.—Plural -er, always with umlaut:

Sing.	N., A.	das Rad	Irrtum
	G.	des Rades	des Irrtums
	D.	dem Rade	dem Irrtume
Plu.	N., G., A.	Räder	Irrtümer
	D.	den Rädern	den Irrtümern

57. To this class belong:

1. About sixty neuter monosyllabics: das Aas (Äser), Blatt, Dach, Fach, etc.

2. All in -tum, whether masculine or neuter: das Herzogtum, der Reichtum.

3. Some masculines, viz.: der Böſewicht*, Dorn*, Geiſt, Gott, Leib, Mann, Ort*, Rand, Strauch*, Vormund, Wald, Wurm.

4. A few neuters, with the prefix Ge-: das Gemach, Gemüt, Geſchlecht*, Geſicht*, Geſpenſt, Gewand*.

58. Only neuters had this plural -er at first. Of the sixty sub 1, some twenty form a different plural, and usage is unsettled; so do those sub 3 and 4 marked with a *. In the following a distinction is made in meaning between the different forms of the plural:

Sub 1, 2, 4,—

das Band,	Bande, ties,	Bänder, ribbons.
Denkmal,	-male, monuments,	-mäler, figurative sense.
Ding,	Dinge, things,	Dinger, coll., *e. g.*, girls.
Geſicht,	Geſichte, visions,	Geſichter, faces.
Gewand,	Gewande (poetic),	Gewänder (commonly).
Land,	Lande (poetic),	Länder (commonly).
Licht,	Lichte, candles (only),	Lichter, lights.
Schild,	masc. Schilde, shields,	Schilder (sign-board).
Stift,	masc. Stifte, pencils,	Stifter, institutions.
Tuch,	Tuche, kinds of cloth,	Tücher, cloths, shawls.
Wort,	Worte, words (their meaning),	Wörter, parts of speech.

Sub 3,—

der Mann,	Mannen, retinue,	Männer, men.
Ort,	Orten, D. pl. only,	Oerter, places, towns.

59. Trümmer occurs in the plural only. But a weak plural Trümmern occurs in the classics. Singular Trumm + thrum. „Häupten," as dative plural, is isolated in „zu den Häupten." Mann was originally a *cons*-stem, **mann*- (see Kluge's Dict.). The form Mann in fünfzig Mann is the real nominative plural of the *cons*-stem. Mensch was originally neuter, being an adjective O. H. G. *mennisco*. Das Mensch, die Menscher, now implies a slur, speaking of woman = strumpet (see Kluge's Dict.). -Wicht in Bösewicht was also once a neuter, + wight.

60. In early N. H. G. many of the neuters still occur without -er. Kindes Kind werden deine Werk preisen (B.). Kinder und Kindes Kind (erzählen) von dem Volk noch und seinen Scharen (Sch.).

The plural in -e is not elegant. Säbels, Jungens, Frauens, Fräuleins are more than colloquial, though found in the classics. This -s is strictly Low German, and identical with English *s*.

Weak or n-Declension.

61. Characteristics: (e)n in the plural and also in the singular of masculine, except the nominative.

	Masc.	Fem.
Sing. N.	der Bote	Whole *sing.* Zunge
G.	des Boten	
All through *sing.* and *plu.*		Whole *plu.* Zungen

Only feminine and masculine nouns belong to this declension.

Like Zunge decline all feminines, except: 1. Mutter and Tochter. 2. The few in -nis and -sal (see **50.** 1). 3. The strong of the 3d class (see **53**, 2).

62. Of the masculines belong here:

1. All of two or more syllables, except Käse and the doubtful strong ones sub 4, 1st class (see **46**).

2. The following which generally do not show the e, which belongs to them: der Bär, Bauer, Burſch, Fürſt, Fink, Geck, Geſell(e), Graf, Hageſtolz, Held, Herr, Hirte, Inſaſſe, Menſch, Mohr, Narr, Ochſe, Prinz, Pfau, Spatz, Sproß, Steinmetz, Thor (fool), Vorfahr.

3. Many nouns of foreign origin, which are difficult to tell from strong nouns, many of them names of persons and animals. They generally end in –t, –nt, –ſt, with the suffix –graph, –arch, –krat, –log(e), –nom, *e. g.*, Poe't, Bandi't, Israeli't, Patrio't, Architekt, Kome't, Plane't, Konſona'nt, Stude'nt, Phanta'ſt, Telegra'ph, Geogra'ph, Patria'rch, Mona'rch, Autokra't, Demokra't, Aſtrolo'g(e), Philolo'ge, Aſtrono'm, Oekono'm (polite for "farmer"); also Tyra'nn.

4. Some names of nationalities in –ar, and –er, *e. g.*, der Ll'ngar, Bulga'r(e), Tata'r, Baier, Pommer, Kaffer.

5. The adjective used as a noun when preceded by the article (see **220**).

Remark.—An isolated form is now „auf Erden." Erde was either weak or strong. But „in Ehren," „mit Freuden" are old datives plural (see **434**, 1). Notice the spelling Königin, pl. Königinnen.

Mixed Declension.

63. Characteristics: G. sing. (e)s, plu. (e)n.

Only masculine and neuter nouns belong to this declension, and very few have not double forms for genitive singular and for the plural. The following generally belong here:

1. Auge, Bett, Ende, Gevatter, Hemd, Lorbeer, Maſt, Muskel, Ohr, Panto'ffel, Schmerz, See, Stachel, Staat. Nachbar, Unterthan, Vetter sometimes retain in genitive singular the (e)n of their former declension.

Das Herz inflects G. des Herzens, D. dem Herzen, A. das Herz; allowing for its being a neuter, which always has nominative and accusative singular alike, it really comes under 1st Class, strong, sub 4 (see **46**). Schmerz rarely has Schmerzens. Der Sporn,

des Sporns, has taken an *-n* in the singular, but the old weak plural Sporen is still the rule, though Spornen occurs. Thronen, borrowed in M. H. G. < Gr.-L. *thronos*, is very rare. The plural of Dorn is either Dorne (old) or generally Dörner; rarely Dornen.

The mixed declension is quite modern, and does not exist in M. H. G.

2. Foreign nouns in *-or* (o long and accented in the plural, short and unaccented in the singular), *e. g.*, der Do'ktor, die Dokto'ren, der Profe'ſſor, die Profeſſo'ren. Also Inſe'kt, Intere'ſſe, Juwe'l, Statu't, and others.

Colloquially you hear sometimes *-n* after nouns in *-el* and *-er*: die Hummern, lobsters; Stiefeln, boots; but they are not to be imitated.

Declension of Foreign Nouns.

64. Those which are fully naturalized come under the declensions already treated of. It remains to speak of those not at all or partly naturalized, and their inflection is very irregular and complicated.

1. Those that retain their foreign inflection, *e. g.*, Jeſus Chriſtus, Jeſu Chriſti; Mari'a, Mariae; Modus, pl. Modi; Caſus, pl. Caſus; Cherub, pl. Cherubim; Conto, pl. Conti; Sackulum, pl. Sackula; Lord, pl. Lords; Tempus, pl. Tempora. Their number is decreasing.

2. Those which take a German plural ending, *-en* for instance, and do not inflect in the singular, *e. g.*: das Drama, pl. Dramen; Thema, pl. Themen; Individu'uum, pl. Individuen. Globus, Rythmus. But these are also found with *-s* in genitive singular, and then come under the mixed declension.

3. Nouns whose foreign plural ended in *-ia* take *-ien*: Studium, pl. Studien; Gymnaſium, pl. Gymnaſien. The ending of the singular may have been lost, and they have *-s* in genitive singular, as Adve'rb, Partici'p, Semina'r, Minera'l, Foſſi'l, pl.

Adverbien, Foſſilien, etc. Notice Pri'mas, Prima'ten; A'tlas, Atla'nten; Kli'ma, Klimaten. On the whole, there is a great deal of irregularity, and therefore freedom in the inflection of foreign words.

Declension of Proper Nouns.

65. 1. The names of nations and peoples are inflected both in the singular and plural. Those in –er (except Baier and Pommer, where –er is not suffix, denoting origin) go according to 1st Class (strong). All the others go according to the n-declension: der Hamburger, des Hamburgers, etc., D. pl. den Hamburgern. But der Sachſe, des Sachſen; der Preuße, des Preußen, all through.

2. Certain geographical names (see **147**), which always have the definite article, are treated like any common noun, *e. g.*, der Rhein, des Rheins; das Fichtelgebirge, des –es; das Elſaß, des Elſaſſes; die Schweiz, der Schweiz, etc.

3. Names of persons are uninflected if preceded by the article (an adjective or title between article and name makes no difference), *e. g.*, des Karl, des Kaiſers Karl, dem großen Friedrich. If the title follows the name, or if the name in the genitive stands before the noun upon which it depends, then the name takes –s, *e. g.*, das Reich Ludwigs des Frommen, des großen Friedrich's Generäle.

4. Names of persons, places, and countries without an article take a genitive in –es: Goethe, Goethes; England, Englands; Anna, Annas. But names of males ending in a sibilant, if inflected at all and an apostrophe is not preferred, and feminine names in –e, form a genitive in –ens, *e. g.*, Marens, Franzens, Martens, Sophiens. Surnames in a sibilant certainly prefer an apostrophe, *e. g.*, Muſäus' Volksmärchen, Opitz' Werke, Gauß' Tod. Names of places in a sibilant are constructed with von: die Reichsfreiheit von Ko'nſtanz, die Befeſtigungen von Pari's.

66. A dative and an accusative in -en of names of persons are hardly in use now, as *e.g.*, Schillern, Goethen, Klopſtocken. Christian feminine names retain them more easily than masculine, *e.g.*, Haſt du Marien geſprochen?

67. Plurals of names of persons are formed in various ways. The general rule is: -e for masculine and -e(n) for feminine names, *e. g.*, Heinriche, Marien; but also Brunhilde, Eliſabete. -s forms the plural of masculines ending in a vowel and of feminines in -a: Annas, Hugos.

68. 1. Here also belongs the plural of surnames denoting the members of the family, formed by -s if ending in a consonant not a sibilant; by -(e)n if ending in a vowel or a sibilant (occurs only in familiar language however), *e. g.*, Steinbrüggen, the Steinbrügges; Suhlings, the Suhling family; Rücks. Other endings for the plural, generally of foreign names however, are -ne, -nen: Cato, Catone; Scipionen, Ottone, and Ottonen; but the first n belongs to the stem of course. Compare L. *Scipio, Scipionis.*

2. Biblical names retain classical inflection: Evangelium Matthaei, in Jeſu Chriſto, Mariae Heimſuchung.

3. It should be borne in mind that the rule in the classical writers before Goethe's death is not the rule now. Lessing wrote des Luthers, des Melanchthons; Goethe, Leiden des jungen Werthers. The dative and accusative in -en are the rule in them, the exception now, Haben Sie Karlen geſchrieben, Wilhelmen geſucht?

DECLENSION OF THE ADJECTIVE.

69. *The adjective is inflected according to two systems of declension, the Strong and the Weak. It is inflected strong when there is no limiting word before it; weak, when there is an article or pronoun. It is uninflected in the predicate.*

1. STRONG:

	masc.	fem.	neuter.		common gender.
Sing. N.	guter	gute	gutes	*Plu.* N.	gute
G.	gutes	guter	gutes	G.	guter
D.	gutem	guter	gutem	D.	guten
A.	guten	gute	gutes	A.	gute

2. WEAK:

	masc.	fem.	neuter.
Sing. N.	der gute	die gute	das gute
A.	den guten	die gute	das gute

All other cases, *sing.* and *plu.*, guten.

Notice that the nominative and accusative singular of the feminine and neuter forms are alike.

70. After ein, kein, and the possessive pronouns the adjective is strong in the nominative singular of all genders and in the accusative singular of feminine and neuter, since it is like the nominative, *e. g.:*

Sg. N. ein großer Dichter, eine rote Kirsche, ein herrliches Gedicht
G. eines großen Dichters, einer roten Kirsche, eines herrlichen Gedichtes
D. einem großen Dichter, einer roten Kirsche, einem herrlichen Gedichte
A. einen großen Dichter, eine rote Kirsche, ein herrliches Gedicht.

71. Adjectives ending in *-el, -er, -en* as a rule drop the *e* of these suffixes when inflected, sometimes however the *e* of the case-ending *-en*, *e. g.*, edel, edler, edle, edles; mager, magrer, magre, magres; eigen, eigner, eigne, eignes; but heitern and heitren, edlen and edeln. Those in *-er* like to retain both *e*'s: heiterer, heitere, heiteres. Note therefore: Ein magrer Ochse, eines magern or magren Ochsen, etc.; der heitere or heitre Himmel, des heiteren, heitren, or heitern Himmels, etc.; mein eignes Haus, meines eigenen or eignen Hauses, etc. For hoch, hoher, hohe, hohes see **490**, 3, *b*.

72. The genitive singular masculine and neuter, *-es*, is now so regularly replaced by *-en*, that it should perhaps appear in the paradigm. Though strictly according to rule, *-es* has become the exception; *-en* has prevailed since the 17th century. Voss, Klopstock, and Grimm opposed it. Goethe favors it. Ein, kein, and the possessive adjectives never allow *-en* for *-es*; keines, never keinen Mannes.

COMPARISON OF THE ADJECTIVE.

73. Adjectives are compared by means of the inflectional suffixes –er and –(e)ſt, *e. g.:*

positive.	comparative.	superlative.
jung	jünger	jüngſt
ſchön	ſchöner	ſchönſt
reich	reicher	reichſt

Those in –el, –en, –er lose this e before the comparative –er; but retain it and lose the e of –eſt in the superlative, *e. g.*, mager, magrer, magerſt; dunkel, dunkler, dunkelſt. e in –eſt is as a rule retained after d, t, ß, ſe, z, rch, ß, and ſt, but not necessarily, *e. g.*, lauteſte, gewiſſeſte, ſüßeſte. Größte alone is classical, but in the spoken language ſüßte, heißte, kürzte, etc., are heard. „Hoch" retains the former h in the comparative höher, and h in nahe becomes ch: nächſt. See **490**, 3, *b*.

74. The umlaut generally takes place, but it is very difficult to tell when it does not. A not small number are doubtful, *e. g.*, blaß, geſund, fromm, etc. No umlaut take: 1. Those with the stem-vowel au, *e. g.*, lau, blau, etc. 2. Foreign ones: brav, nobel, etc. 3. Participles: beſucht, gewandt, etc. 4. Derivatives: ſtraſbar, ſchalkhaft, langſam, unglaublich, etc. 5. Bunt, blank, dumpf, falſch, flach, froh, hohl, hold, kahl, klar, lahm, laß, los, matt, morſch, platt, plump, raſch, roh, rund, ſanft, ſatt, ſchlaff, ſchlank, ſchroff, ſtarr, ſtolz, ſtraff, toll, voll, wahr, zahm, zart.

75. The comparative and superlative forms are declined just like the positive. Examples:

Größerer Spaß, größeres or größeren Spaßes, etc.; der größere Spaß, des größeren Spaßes, etc.; ein größerer Spaß.

Klarſtes Waſſer, das klarſte Waſſer, ein klarſtes Waſſer.

Edlerer Mann, der edlere Mann, ein edlerer Mann; eitelſter Burſch, der eitelſte Burſch, ein eitelſter Burſch.

Heiſrer Sänger, der heiſrere Sänger, ein heiſrerer Sänger; G. eines heiſreren Sängers, etc.; der heiſerſte Sänger.

76. 1. Irregular Comparison.

By the use of different stems:

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
gut + good	beſſer, adv. baß + better	beſt + best
viel	mehr + more	meiſt + most
	mehrer	mehrſt
gering or wenig	minder	mindeſt

Gut and viel are never compared regularly. Mehrer and mehrſt are due to double comparison. „Mehrſt," though occurring in Goethe and Schiller, is not classical. Mehr and minder are really not adjectives, but are used adverbially and substantively. „Baß„ (mehr, very, much) is now archaic. „Doch baß hetzt ihn der linke Mann" (Bü.). Fürbaß (onward); „baß" also means sehr, stark: „Das macht, er thät ſich baß hervor" (Sch.). „Und ward nicht mehr geſehn" (G.). Morgen ein mehreres = to-morrow (I will write) more.

2. Defective and Redundant Comparison.

a. There is a class of adjectives derived from adverbs and prepositions:

Adv. or prep.	Comparative.	Superlative.
(außer)	äußer	äußerſt
(hinter)	hinter	hinterſt
(inner)	inner	innerſt
(nieder)	nieder	niederſt
(ob[er])	ober	oberſt
(unter)	unter	unterſt
(vor, fort)	vorder	vorderſt

For the derivation of these adverbs, see **551**, 3. The superlative suffix -ſt is added to the comparative. This is due to their former full comparison, as for instance, O. H. G. pos. *hintaro*, comp. *hintarôro*, superl. *hintarôst*. The pres-

ent comparatives hintere, obere are not even now felt as real comparatives; äußer has a spurious umlaut; „öberſte" and „förderſte" are colloquial; „vorder" comes from „fort," O. H. G. *fordar;* compare Eng. *further*, which has nothing to do with *far*.

	Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
b.	(mittel) + middle	mittler	mittelſt
	(ehe, conj.)	(eher, adv.) + ere	erſt + erst
	(laß + late)		letzt + last
	(für)	(fürder, adv.)	Fürſt (subst.) + first

The first compares regularly like an adjective in -el. The positive occurs only in compounds now, and the comparative has the force of the positive.

NUMERALS.

77. Cardinals.

eins, + one
zwei, + two
drei, + three
vier, + four
fünf, + five
ſechs, + six
ſieben, + seven
acht, + eight
neun, + nine
zehn, + ten
elf, eilf, ölf, + eleven
zwelf, zwölf, + twelve
dreizehn, + thirteen
vierzehn, + fourteen
fünfzehn, + fifteen
ſech(s)zehn, + sixteen
zwanzig, + twenty
ein und zwanzig, + twenty-one
zwei und zwanzig, + twenty-two
drei und zwanzig, + twenty-three
dreißig, + thirty
ein und dreißig, + thirty-one
vierzig, + forty
fünfzig, funfzig, + fifty
ſechzig, ſechzig, + sixty
ſieb(en)zig, + seventy
achtzig, + eighty
neunzig, + ninety
hundert (das Hundert), + a hundred
(ein) hundert und ein(s), + a hundred and one
(ein) hundert und zwei, + a hundred and two
(ein) hundert (und) zehn, + a hundred and ten

(ein) hundert und zwanzig, + a hundred and twenty
(ein) hundert ein und zwanzig, + a hundred and twenty-one
(ein) hundert acht und achtzig, + a hundred and eighty-eight
zweihundert, + two hundred
dreihundert sechs und siebzig, + three hundred and seventy-six
tausend (das Tausend), + a thousand
(ein) tausend und ein(s), + a thousand and one
(ein) tausend drei und vierzig, + a thousand and forty-three
(ein) tausend einhundert or elfhundert, + a thousand and one hundred
ein tausend achthundert drei und achtzig or achtzehn hundert drei und achtzig, + one thousand eight hundred and eighty-three
drei(mal) hundert tausend, + three hundred thousand
eine Millio'n, + a million
eine Millia'rde, a thousand millions
eine Billio'n, + a billion

78. Inflection.

Fully inflected are only eins, zwei, drei, as follows:

	Masc.	Fem.	Neuter.
N.	einer	eine	ein(e)s
G.	eines	einer	eines, when used substantively.
N.	ein	eine	ein, like the indefinite article when used attributively.

„'s war einer dem's zu Herzen ging" (Ch.); „eins von beiden," one of two things.

N. zwei	G. zweier	D. zweien	A. zwei
N. drei	G. dreier	D. dreien	A. drei

79. Older inflections were masc. zween, fem. zwo. Zwei, the neuter, has crowded out the masculine and feminine forms, which may still be found in the older modern classics, and still in use in the S. G. dialects. Was zweien recht ist, ist dreien zu enge. Durch zweier Zeugen Mund wird allerwärts die Wahrheit kund (F., I. 3013). Zween die mit mir überfuhren

. . . . (Uh.). Zwo Hoſen eines Tuchs, cut from the same cloth. „Zwo Jungfern in den beſten Jahren“ (Gellert). The plurals zweie and dreie are in analogy with the strong noun and adjective declensions. From 4–12 the e in the plural represents O. H. G. *i* when they were *i*-stems, fünfe < *fimfi*. The only other case in which these numbers are inflected is the dative plural (in –en): auf allen Vieren kriechen, alle Viere von ſich ſtrecken; mit Sechſen fahren; zu Dreien. Zweier, zweien are according to the adjective inflection.

80. Ordinals.

The ordinals are formed from the cardinals by adding –te to the numbers from 2–19, and –ſte from 20 on.

(der) erſte, + first	ſechſte, + sixth
zweite, + second	ſechzehnte, + sixteenth
dritte, + third	zwanzigſte, + twentieth
vierte, + fourth	hundertſte, + hundredth
fünfte, + fifth	tauſendſte, + thousandth

Their inflection is that of adjectives; zweiter, der zweite, ein zweiter; G. eines zweiten. See 438, 1.

PRONOUNS.

81. Personal Pronouns.

	Common gender.			Special forms for gender in the singular.		
	I.	II.	III.	III.		
				Masc.	Fem.	Neuter.
Sing. N.	ich	du		er	ſie	es
G.	meiner	deiner	ſeiner	ſeiner	ihrer	ſeiner
	(mein)	(dein)	(ſein)	(ſein)		(ſein, es)
D.	mir	dir	ſich	ihm	ihr	ihm
A.	mich	dich	ſich	ihn	ſie	es
Plu. N.	wir	ihr	—		ſie	
G.	unſer	euer	—		ihrer	
	(unſrer)	(eurer)				
D.	uns	euch	ſich		ihnen	
A.	uns	euch	ſich		ſie	

The first and second persons and the plural of the third person are of common gender. The singular of the third person has a form for each gender.

82. In the genitive singular the longer forms in *–er* are common; the others are now archaic and poetic, *e. g.*, „Vergiß=meinnicht" (the flower). „Ich denke Dein," etc. (G.). The lengthened forms eurer, unſrer are not yet sanctioned, though common in the spoken language, and, especially eurer, not very rare in the classics, *e. g.*, „(Wie er) bei Tafel Eurer ſelbſt nicht achtet" (Sch.). „Dann bedarf es unſerer nicht„ (Sch.). The genitive singular neuter „es" occurs still in certain constructions, generally called an accusative: „Er hat es keinen Hehl daß . . . ." (Sch.). Ich bin es müde. Es nimmt mich Wunder. (See **183.**)

83. Reflexive Pronouns.

For the first and second persons the personal pronouns serve as such, *e. g.*, ich fürchte mich, wir freuen uns, ihr ſcheut euch. For the third person the forms are made up of the personal and the old reflexive pronouns:

	Masc. and neuter.	Fem.	Common gender.
Sing. G.	ſeiner	(ihrer, pers. pron.)	*Plu.* (ihrer, pers. pron.)
D., A.	ſich	ſich	ſich

84. The reciprocal pronoun has no special form; as such are used uns, euch, ſich, einander, meaning "each other," "one another."

The Possessive Pronouns.

85. The possessive pronouns are: mein + my; dein + thy; ſein, his, its; ihr, her; unſer + our; euer + your; ihr, their; Ihr, your; der meine + mine; der deine + thine, etc.; der meinige + mine; der deinige + thine, etc.

They are inflected like adjectives (see **69**); but the first

group, mein, dein, ſein, etc., like the indefinite article (see **38**), in which the nominative singular masculine and the nominative and accusative singular neuter are uninflected, *e.g.*:

		Neuter.	Feminine.
Sing.	N., A.	mein Tuch	deine Nichte
	G.	meines Tuches	deiner Nichte
	D.	meinem Tuche	deiner Nichte
Plu.	N., A.	meine Tücher	deine Nichten
	G.	meiner Tücher	deiner Nichten
	D.	meinen Tüchern	deinen Nichten

For the declension of der meine, der meinige, see the weak adjective, **69**, 2. The rest stand uninflected used predicatively and when they follow the noun (now archaic), *e. g.*, Was mein iſt, das iſt dein und was dein iſt, das iſt mein (B.). Du haſt das Herze mein, ſo ganz genommen ein (Song).

86. Euer, Eure, Seiner, Seine are often abbreviated into Ew., Sr., Se.: Se. Majeſtät, Ew. Wohlgeboren. Ihro is archaic, *e. g.*, Ihro Gnaden. It is an imitation of the old G. dero (see **89**). It does not occur before the seventeenth century. It stands for masculine and feminine singular and plural: Ihro Gnaden, Eminenz, Durchlaucht.

87. The possessive pronouns form certain compounds with wegen, halben, willen, and gleichen. Ex.: meinetwegen, ihretwegen, meinethalben, ihresgleichen, euresgleichen. The compounds with wegen and halben are really D. plu. meinen wegen, deinen halben. After n sprang up the excrescent t = meinentwegen, deinenthalben, current in the sixteenth century. These became the now classical meinetwegen, deinethalben, though the longest forms are still heard; also meinthalben, even meintshalben, occur, but they are not good. Meinetwillen < meinentwillen < meinenwillen are original accusatives, *e. g.*, um meinen willen = for my sake.

The origin of ihresgleichen, etc., is not so clear. Gleichen is without doubt the adjective used as a noun and governing a preceding genitive, which was at first the genitive of the personal pronoun and became later the possessive pronoun agreeing with gleichen (M. H. G. *sîne gelîchen*). But whence s? Is it the genitive sign -es in compound nouns, Liebesbrief, Mittagsſtunde, which was looked upon as a mere connective? (See **518**, 2.) In M. H. G. was a Gen. *mînes, dînes*, which with *mîner*, stood for

min, almost exclusively before *selbes*. But deinesgleichen is not old enough to connect with M. H. G. *dines selbes*.

Other compounds with the possessive, like meinesteils, meinerseits (see 552), are clearly genitives.

Demonstrative Pronouns.

88. These are: 1. der, die, das + the, that; 2. dieser, diese, dieses + this; jener, jene, jenes, that, + yon. The first, when used with the noun, differs only in accent and not in declension from the article (see **39**). When used substantively (without the noun) it declines:

	Masc.	Fem.	Neuter.	Common gender.
Sing. N.	der	die	das	*Plu.* die
G.	dessen	deren	dessen	deren
	des	der	des	derer (der)
D.	dem	der	dem	denen
A.	den	die	das	die

89. The spelling of „deß" for „des" is unwarranted. It implies that it is an abbreviation of „dessen," which it is not.

„Dero" is the O. H. G. form retained in certain phrases, as in dero Gnaden. Derentwegen, -halben, etc., are forms like meinetwegen, etc., but rarely lose the n before t. For their explanation see **87**.

	Masc.	Fem.	Neuter.
90.	dieser	diese	dieses and dies + this
	jener	jene	jenes + yon, that

These are declined like strong adjectives, and stand adjectively and substantively: diese Feder, dieses Tintenfaß, jener Baum. Jenes dort ist mein Buch.

91. Another group of demonstrative pronouns, sometimes called "determinative," consists of:

Masc.	Fem.	Neuter.
derjenige	diejenige	dasjenige, the, that
derselbe	dieselbe	dasselbe, the same
derselbige	dieselbige	dasselbige, the same
selber, selbst (uninflected), selbiger	selbige	selbiges, the same
solch(er)	solch(e)	solch(es), + such

1. The inflection of the first three is that of „der" and a weak adjective, *e. g.*, derjenige, desjenigen, demjenigen, etc. Their composition is apparent. -ig is the usual adjective suffix (see 525, 1).

In the 16th century der is still separated from ſelb-, jen-, and earlier the latter were even declined strong, der jener, dem ſelbem, but they soon followed the n-declension. „Der jene," from which „derjenige" developed, becomes obsolete in the 17th century. „Derſelbige" < „derſelbe.". Accent: de'rjenige, but derſe'lbe.

2. Selber is a stereotyped form like voller, and ſelbſt is a genitive singular of ſelb, M. H. G. *selbes*. The excrescent t appears first in the 16th century.

3. Solch is inflected like any adjective, even with -en in the genitive singular, *e. g.*, ſolchenfalls, ſolchen Glaubens. It may be uninflected, always if followed by ein and generally if followed by another adjective. An apostrophe after ſolch is uncalled for. Solch ein Mann, ſolch ſchöne Blumen. Eine ſolche Beleidigung kann ich nicht vergeſſen. Als er ſolches ſah . . . . (B.).

92. Interrogative Pronouns.

Wer + who; was + what; welcher + which; was für ein, what sort of.

1. Wer declines:

Masc. and fem.	Neuter.
N. wer	was
G. weſſen, wes	weſſen, wes
D. wem	——
A. wen	was

Weß or weſs: wes as beſſen : bes. See 89. The genitive lengthened by -en like bes > beſſen was not yet established in the 16th century. Wes is now archaic, except in compounds, *e. g.*, weshalb, weswegen. For weſſenthalben, see beſſent-, derenthalben, 87, 89.

2. Welch + which, what, declines strong. Before „ein" it is

always, and before an adjective it is often left uninflected, also in poetry when used adjectively: Welch Getümmel Straßen auf! (Sch.). Welch ein Gefühl (F. 1011). Welcher Mann war es?

3. Was für, was für ein, what, what kind of. „Ein" alone is inflected like the indefinite article if used adjectively; like a strong adjective if used substantively: „Was für Berge, was für Wüsten . . . . trennen uns denn noch?" (Le.). Was für ein Baum ist das? Was für Dinte ist dies?

93. Relative Pronouns.

1. Der, die, das, which, + that, who, declines like the demonstrative, but the genitive plural is never derer: Keiner siegte noch, der nicht gestritten hat (Bo.).

2. Welcher, welche, welches, + which, who, that, always declines strong: Das Buch, welches ich gelesen habe.

3. Wer, + who, whoever. The inflection is the same as that of the interrogative: Wer es (auch) sei, whoever it be.

4. Was, + what, whatsoever. The inflection is the same as that of the interrogative: Was er (auch) sagen mag, no matter what he says.

Indefinite Pronouns and Indefinite Numerals.

94. Anderer, andere, anderes, + other, different: der andere, die andere, das andere, die anderen. Declined like any adjective, used substantively and adjectively.

95. Einer, eine, eines, + one, the numeral with its derivatives kein, none, and einige, generally only plural "some."

Ein- is always strongly inflected and stands only substantively. Standing adjectively it is declined like the indefinite article (see **39**).

Kein is inflected like the indefinite article, but standing substantively is declined keiner, keine, kein(e)s: Keiner wird als Meister geboren (Prov.).

96. Etlich–, some; etwas, anything; wer, anybody; was, anything, something; welch–, some, any.

Etlich– and welch– are always inflected strong. The singular of etlich is rare, having the force of "tolerable," "some": mit etlichem Erfolge, with some success.

97. Compounds with je: jeder, every, each; jeglich, jedweder (= jeder) stand adjectively and substantively; jedermann, everybody; jemand, anybody; niemand, nobody.

Jeder, jeglich–, jedweder, each, every, are declined like strong adjectives. Jeglich and jedweder are not common now; they have the same meaning. Jedermann has only a genitive singular in –s. Jemand and niemand decline:

N. jemand
G. jemand(e)s
D. jemandem, –den
A. jemanden

The accusative and dative are N. H. G., taken from the adjective inflection. Though the classics are full of these cases, the best usage for the spoken language favors no case-ending for accusative and dative.

98. Man, one, any one. It is only nominative. The other cases are made up from ein– or wir. Man is old spelling for Mann, from which in M. H. G. it was not distinguished. Its corresponding possessive is sein: Man glaubt ihm nicht. Man kann seinen eigenen Kopf nicht essen (Prov.).

99. Nichts, nothing, allows of no further inflection. It is itself the genitive of M. H. G. *niht* = *ni-wiht* and *nio-whht*. Compare Eng. naught = na-wiht. Nichts, the genitive, stands for the emphatic combination *nihtes niht*, "not a thing" = gar nichts.

Zu nichte, mit nichten, "not at all," show still that nicht was once a noun fully inflected: Besser etwas denn nichts (Prov.).

100. As indefinite numerals it is customary to classify all + all; beide + both; beides + each or either; ganz, whole; lauter, "nothing but;" manch + many; mehr + more; mehrere, several; die meisten + most, the majority; die mehrsten (= die meisten); ein paar, a few, lit. "a pair;" sämtliche, all, altogether; das übrige, die übrigen, the rest; viel, much, many; wenig, little, few; ein wenig, a little.

Of these, all, ganz, manch, viel, wenig may stand uninflected. Otherwise they are inflected like adjectives: Viel Steine gab's und wenig Brot (Uh.). „Ganz Deutschland lag in Schmach und Schmerz" (Mosen). Das ganze Deutschland soll es sein (Arndt).

Lauter, mehr, ein paar, ein wenig are indeclinable.

CONJUGATION.

101. The verb varies for person and number; for tense (present and preterit) and mood (indicative and subjunctive). From the present stem are formed the imperative and the noun-forms of the verb, viz., the infinitive, present participle with the gerundive, and the past participle in -(e)t. According to the formation of the preterit we distinguish two great systems of conjugations, the "*strong*" and the "*weak*." The strong verbs form the preterit by substituting a different stem-vowel from that of the present, *e. g.*, geben — gab, tragen — trug; the weak, by adding -(e)te to the stem, *e. g.*, loben — lobte, glauben — glaubte.

102. The infinitive, the preterit, and the past participle are generally given as the "principal parts" of a verb. The infinitive represents the forms with the present stem. Knowing the preterit or the past participle, one can tell whether a verb is weak or strong. If the preterit ends in -(e)te the past participle ends in -(e)t; if the preterit is strong, the past participle ends in -en, *e. g.*, sagen, sagte, gesagt; saugen, sog, gesogen.

The infinitive and the past participle help form the compound tenses.

103. The following paradigms show the various inflections:

	WEAK.		STRONG.			
	PRESENT.	PRETERIT.	PRESENT.		PRETERIT.	
	Ind.	*Subj.*	*Ind. and subj.*	*Ind.*	*Subj.*	*Ind.*	*Subj.*
	ich lobe	lobe	lobte	finge	finge	ſang	ſänge
	du lobſt	lobeſt	lobteſt	fingſt	fingeſt	ſangſt	ſängſt
	er lobt	lobe	lobte	fingt	finge	ſang	ſänge
	wir loben	loben	lobten	fingen	fingen	ſangen	ſängen
	ihr lobt	lobet	lobtet	fingt	finget	ſangt	ſänget
	ſie loben	loben	lobten	fingen	fingen	ſangen	ſängen

	Imp.	*Inf.*	*Imp.*	*Inf.*
2. *sg.*	lobe (du)	loben	ſing(e) (du)	ſingen.
1. *pl.*	loben wir	*Pres. part., Gerundive.* lobend	ſingen wir	*Pres. part., Gerundive.* ſingend
2. *pl.*	lob(e)t (ihr) / loben Sie	*Past part.* gelobt	ſing(e)t (ihr) / ſingen Sie	*Past part.* geſungen

104. The personal suffixes are:

Sg. 1. p. –e, except for strong preterit.
2. p. –(e)ſt for both tenses and moods.
3. p. –(e)t for the present indicative. In the pres. subj. and in the pret. ind. and subj. the 3. p. is like the first.

Pl. 1. p. –(e)n for both tenses and moods.
2. p. –(e)t for both tenses and moods; also for the imperative.
3. p. –(e)n for both tenses and moods.

The retention or rejection of the thematic or connecting vowel –e– is treated later. See 118.

105. Imperative. The 2. p. sg. ends in –e in all verbs excepting those strong ones that have the interchange of

e—t or e—te in the 2. and 3. p. sg. pres. ind., *e. g.*, Traue, ſchaue, bete, bitte, grabe, hebe, but ſprich, friß, nimm.

106. Infinitive. It always ends in -en except in those weak verbs in which it is preceded by -el, -er: wandeln, wandern; also in ſein, thun, which are non-thematic verbs. See **449**, 2.

107. Participles. The present part. and the gerundive always end in -end: hoffend, helfend, ein Liebender, ein zu beweiſender Satz, a proposition to be demonstrated. They are declined like adjectives.

The past participle is formed by the prefix ge-, and the suffix -(e)t for weak verbs, the suffix -en for strong ones: lieben — geliebt, blättern — geblättert, tragen — getragen, ſingen — geſungen.

108. Ge- does not stand:

1. Before heißen, laſſen, ſehen, helfen, lernen (?), lehren (?), hören, when an infinitive depends upon them in a compound tense: Ich habe ihn gehen heißen, kommen laſſen, ſagen hören. For lernen and lehren, gelernt and gelehrt are better usage.

2. In the preterit-present verbs (= modal auxiliaries, see **134**) which form similar past participles, viz., können, dürfen, mögen, müſſen, ſollen, wollen. Man hat das wilde Tier nicht fangen können. See **113**.

3. In the past participles of verbs having inseparable prefixes, *e. g.*, verlaſſen, entſagt, bedeckt, gedacht, except freſſen < ver + eſſen and verbs in which b and g are no longer felt to be the prefixes be and ge (see **543**), *e. g.*, gefreſſen, geblieben < bleiben; geglaubt; geglichen < gleichen. See gegeſſen, **128**.

4. In verbs with the foreign ending -i'eren, *e. g.*, marſchieren — marſchiert; probieren — probiert. Even when these are compounded with separable Germanic prefixes, they take no ge-: ausmarſchiert, einſtudiert.

5. Worden < werden never takes ge-, when it is an auxiliary in the passive voice, *e. g.*, Er iſt gelobt worden.

Compound Tenses.

109. These are formed by means of the auxiliary verbs haben, ſein, werden; the last in the future active and the whole passive; haben and ſein in the active voice. As a matter of convenience the simple tenses of these auxiliaries are given here.

110.

PRESENT.		PRETERIT.		PRESENT.		PRETERIT.	
Ind.	*Subj.*	*Ind.*	*Subj.*	*Ind.*	*Subj.*	*Ind.*	*Subj.*
ich habe	habe	hatte	hätte	bin	ſei	war	wäre
du haſt	habeſt	hatteſt	hätteſt	biſt	ſeieſt	warſt	wäreſt
er hat	habe	hatte	hätte	iſt	ſei	war	wäre
wir haben	haben	hatten	hätten	ſind	ſeien	waren	wären
ihr habt	habet	hattet	hättet	ſeid	ſeiet	waret	wäret
ſie haben	haben	hatten	hätten	ſind	ſeien	waren	wären

Imperative.		*Inf.*	*Imperative.*		*Inf.*
2. *sg.*	habe (du)	haben	2. *sg.*	ſei (du)	ſein
1. *pl.*	haben wir	*Pres. part., gerund.* habend	1. *pl.*	ſeien wir	*Pres. part.* ſeiend
2. *pl.*	habet (ihr) / haben Sie	*Past part.* gehabt	2. *pl.*	ſeid (ihr) / ſeien Sie	*Past part.* geweſen

PRESENT.		PRETERIT.		*Imperative.*	
Ind.	*Subj.*	*Ind.*	*Subj.*		
ich werde	werde	ward, wurde	würde	2. *sg.*	werde (du)
du wirſt	werdeſt	wardſt, wurdeſt	würdeſt	1. *pl.*	werden wir
er wird	werde	ward, wurde	würde	2. *pl.*	werdet (ihr) / werden Sie
wir werden	werden	wurden	würden		
ihr werdet	werdet	wurdet	würdet	*Inf.*	werden
ſie werden	werden	wurden	würden	*Pres. part. Gerund.*	werdend
				Past part.	worden

111. 1. Haben has contracted forms for the 2. and 3. pers. sing.: haſt < *hâst* < *habest*; hat < *hât* < *habet*. The pret. has undergone the same contractions: hatte < *hâte* < *habete*, etc. The pret. subj. has umlaut due to the influence of strong and pret.-pres. verbs. In dialect the long con-

tracted forms of M. H. G., prevailing through the whole present, are still heard. In M. H. G. *haben* as auxiliary has the contracted forms; as an independent verb, the uncontracted.

2. Werden is a regular strong verb of the 3. class. It is the only verb that has retained the two pret. vowels, generally the vowel of the sing. prevailing over that of the plural. Ward is more common as independent verb; wurde, as auxiliary. In elevated style ward is preferable.

112. The **Perfect** is formed with the present of haben or ſein and the past participle, *e. g.*, ich habe getragen, I have borne; ich bin gefahren, subj. ich ſei gefahren, I have ridden. Perfect Infinitive: getragen haben, gefahren ſein, to have carried, ridden.

The **Pluperfect** is formed with the preterit of haben or ſein: ich hatte getragen, subj. ich hätte getragen, I had borne; ich war gefahren, subj. ich wäre gefahren, I had ridden.

113. The past participles without ge- accompanied by an infinitive (see **108**, 1, 2), the modal auxiliaries and weak verbs which followed their analogy, form such tenses as these: Ich habe ihn gehen heißen, I have ordered him to leave. Sie haben einen Rock machen laſſen, you have had a coat made or ordered a coat to be made. Der Knabe hat die Lektion nicht lernen können, the boy has not been able to learn the lesson. Er hat es nur ſagen hören, he has only heard it said. Der Nachbar hat den Bettler arretieren laſſen wollen (or wollen arretieren laſſen), my neighbor wanted to have the beggar arrested.

114. The **Future** ind. and subj. is formed with the present of werden and the infinitive, *e. g.*, ich werde tragen, ich werde fahren, I shall carry, ride.

The **Future Perfect** is formed with the present of werden and the perfect infinitive, *e. g.*, ich werde getragen haben, ich werde gefahren ſein, I shall have carried, ridden.

115. The first **Conditional** is formed with the preterit subj. of werden and the infinitive, *e. g.*, ich würde tragen or fahren, I should carry or ride.

The second or perfect **Conditional** is formed with the preterit subj. of werden and the perfect infinitive: ich würde getragen haben or gefahren ſein, I should have carried or ridden.

Passive Voice.

116. The passive voice is formed by werden and the past participle. The tense of the auxiliary with the past participle of the verb forms the corresponding passive tense. Werden forms its compound tenses with ſein and werden.

PRESENT: ich werde gelobt, I am praised, am being praised.
PRETERIT: ich ward or wurde gelobt, I was praised.
PERFECT: ich bin gelobt worden, I have been praised.
PLUPERFECT: ich war gelobt worden, I had been praised.
FUTURE: ich werde gelobt werden, I shall be praised.
FUTURE PERFECT: ich werde gelobt worden ſein, I shall have been praised.
1. CONDITIONAL: ich würde gelobt werden, I should be praised.
2. or CONDITIONAL PERFECT: ich würde gelobt worden ſein, I should have been praised.
IMPERATIVE: ſei (du) gelobt, be (thou) praised.
ſeid (ihr) gelobt / ſeien Sie gelobt } be (you) praised.
INFINITIVE: gelobt werden, to be praised.
gelobt worden ſein, to have been praised.

Weak Conjugation.

117. The weak conjugation forms the principal parts by suffixing –te or –ete in the preterit: loben, lobte, retten, rettete; by prefixing ge– and suffixing –t or –et in the past participle: gelobt, gerettet.

1. Verbs of this conjugation are with few exceptions derivative verbs, and most of them can be recognized as such by certain marks of derivation, such as suffixes (–eln, –ern, –igen, –ieren, –jen, –ſchen) or umlaut. (But there are a few strong verbs with umlaut: lügen, trügen, gebären, etc.).

118. 1. The connecting vowel always stands before t, whether personal suffix (3. p. sg. and 2. p. pl.) or in the participle and preterit, if the stem ends in b or t (th); if the stem ends in m and n, preceded by another

consonant which is not m or n, *e. g.*, er redet, ihr meldet, wir malteten, getröſtet, er atmete, ich zeichnete.

Those in m and n have lost an e before these consonants. Compare them with their nouns: Atem, Zeichen. Those in n are often treated like those in el, er, to which they really belong (see sub 3): zeichente, regente. But these forms are not elegant.

2. The connecting vowel stands in the 2. p. sg. present ind., also after stems in ſ, ſch. ß, ſſ, z, tz, besides the stem-endings sub 1, *e. g.*, du redeſt, malteſt, ſchmachteſt, rechneſt, reiſeſt, fiſcheſt, ſpaßeſt, faſſeſt, widmeſt, beizeſt, ſtutzeſt.

3. Verbs in –eln and –ern rarely show the connecting vowel e, *e. g.*, ich handelte, er handelt, gelächelt, wir wanderten. In the 1. p. sg. present ind. and subj., in the imperative 2. p. sg. they generally lose their own e, *e. g.*, ich wandle, wandre, ſchmeichle (du).

4. In solemn diction and in poetry any verb may retain the connecting vowel. On the other hand, the poet and the people take many liberties in the omission of it (sub 1 and 2). For instance, Das neue Haus iſt aufgericht't (Uh.). Seid mir gegrüßt, befreund'te Scharen! (Sch.). Red'ſt du von einem der da lebet? (id.). Gegrüßet ſeid mir, edle Herrn! Gegrüßt ihr, ſchöne Damen (G.). See F. 3217, 3557. In fact though such full forms as du fiſcheſt, raſeſt, faſſeſt, putzeſt, etc., are written, you generally hear du fiſcht, raſt, faßt, putzt, etc. This applies also to strong verbs, *e. g.*, du wäſcht, ſtößt, reißt.

5. The present subj. nearly always shows full forms, but the preterit ind. and subj. have coincided: daß du liebeſt, ihr liebet; daß ich liebte, redete.

Irregular Weak Verbs.

119. There are two groups of these verbs. One has a difference of vowel which looks like ablaut, the other has besides different vowels also a change in consonants.

1. The stems show nn or nd:

Inf.	Pret. ind.	Subj.	Past participle.
brennen	brannte	brennte	gebrannt
ſenden	ſandte	ſendete	geſandt

Here belong brennen, + burn; kennen, to be acquainted with, + ken; nennen, + name; rennen, + run; ſenden, + send; wenden, to turn, + wend, went. The last two have also a preterit ind. ſendete, wendete.

2. The stems show nk, ng. Here belong:

Inf.	Pret. ind.	Subj.	Past participle.
denken	dachte	dächte	gedacht
dünken	deuchte (deuchte)	deuchte	gedeucht
	dünkte	dünkte	gedünkt
bringen	brachte	brächte	gebracht

Strong Conjugation.

120. Strong verbs must have different stem-vowels in the preterit and present, since in this way difference of tense is expressed. But the vowel of the past participle may coincide with that of the present, as in geben, gab, gegeben V, fahren, fuhr, gefahren VI, halten, hielt, gehalten VII; or with that of the preterit, as in beißen, biß, gebissen I, biegen, bog, gebogen II, glimmen, glomm, geglommen VIII. The past participle ends in -en, and has the prefix ge-, *e. g.*, gestohlen, gerufen.

121. The personal suffixes are the same as in weak verbs. Compare liebte, liebtest, liebte, etc.; sah, sahst, sah, etc. The imperative 2. p. sg. has no ending when the present ind. has interchange of e-i, ie, *e. g.*, ich berge, du birgst, er birgt; imp. birg; brechen —brich; essen—iß. This interchange of e-i, ie occurs in III 8, IV, V; in verbs which do not have it there is no difference of stem-vowel in the imperative and the present, *e. g.*, halten—halt; schwimmen — schwimm. But often e is added in analogy with weak verbs, always when the verb is either strong or weak, *e. g.*, rufen — rufe VII; schlagen — schlage VI; always webe, bewege, erwäge VIII. In the last group there is of course no interchange of e-i, *e. g.*, du bewegst, er bewegt. When the stem ends in t, the suffix t in the 3. p. sg. is not added, or rather -tet passes into simple t. M. H. G. *giltet* > *gilt't* > gilt. Compare **118**, 4. *E. g.*, gelten — er gilt; fechten — er ficht; raten, rät. Special mention is made of these peculiarities under each class and verb. The preterit subj. always has umlaut and

the 1. and 3. p. sg. end in e, *e. g.*, ich ſah, du ſahſt, er ſah, etc.; but ich ſähe, du ſäheſt, er ſähe.

The verbs are best classified according to the ablaut-series. (See **393.**)

122. I. Class. Ablaut: ei i, ie i, ie.

1. Division: ei i i.

The stem ends in ß (ſſ), f, ch, t, d–t.

Examples: beißen, biß, gebiſſen; ſchleifen, ſchliff, geſchliffen; ſchreiten, ſchritt, geſchritten; weichen, wich, gewichen; leiden, litt, gelitten.

The following verbs belong here: beißen, + bite; bleichen (intrans.), + bleach, but also weak, always when trans.; ſich befleißen, to apply one's self; gleichen, to be + like, strong since the 17th century, in the sense of + liken it is still weak, a N. H. G. distinction, M. H. G. only weak; gleißen, + glitter, nothing to do with the rare gleiſen < gelihsen, to deceive, or „gleiſen" in entgleiſen < Geleiſe, track, to derail; gleiten, + glide; greifen, to seize, + gripe; greinen, + grin, rare and generally weak, grinſen, its derivative, has taken its place; keifen, to quarrel, is strong or weak, < L. G.; kneifen, to pinch, L. G. > N. H. G.; kreiſchen and kreißen, to scream, are related, both weak and strong, not H. G.; leiden, to suffer, + loathe; pfeifen, to whistle, + pipe < L. pipare; reißen, to tear, + write, draw; reiten, + ride on horseback; ſchleichen, to sneak (+ slick and sleek); ſchleifen, to grind, + slip, weak in the sense of " to drag, raze"; ſchleißen, + slit, split; ſchmeißen, + smite, throw; ſchneiden, to cut; ſchreiten, to stride; ſpleißen, + split, L. and M. G.; ſtreichen, to wipe, cross, + strike, etc., with very varying meanings; ſtreiten, to strive; weichen, to yield; compare weich, + weak, wicker; weak, it means to soak, soften.

2. Division: ei • ie ie.

Examples: gedeihen, gedieh, gediehen; reiben, rieb, gerieben.

Here belong: bleiben, to remain (+ leave); gedeihen, to thrive, the part. has a doublet, gediehen, thriven, gediegen, solid, pure; leihen, to borrow, + lend; meiden, to avoid; preiſen, + to praise, strong only since the 15th century, < Preis < M. H. G. *prîs* < O. Fr. *prîs* < L. *prĕtium*, analogous to Fr. *priser*; reiben, to rub (+ rive); ſcheiden, to separate; ſcheinen, + shine; ſchreiben, to write (+ shrive); ſchreien, to scream (?); ſchweigen, to be silent, weak in the sense of " to still a child; ſpeien, to spit, + spew; ſteigen, to climb; treiben, + to drive; weiſen, to point out, in the 16th century still weak; zeihen, to accuse (+ indict).

123. Notice the interchange of b–t in the first division, *e. g.*, ſchneiden, ſchnitt, geſchnitten; but not in the second, viz., meiden, mied, gemieden; ſcheiden, ſchied, geſchieden. (See 416.) When the stem ends in ß or ſ, the 2. p. sg. present ind. is heard merely as ending in ſt, whether spelt so or not. The full form –eſt stands only in elevated diction, *e. g.*, du ſchmeißeſt, beißeſt, befleißeſt dich; du weiſeſt and weiſt, du preiſeſt and preiſt. (See 118, 4.) Notice also the doubling of t and f in ſchreiten, ſchritt; ſtreiten, ſtritt; ſchleifen, ſchliff, etc.

124. II. Class. Ablaut: ie (ü, au) ŏ, ō ŏ, ō.

1. Division: ie (au) ŏ ŏ.

The stem ends in ß (ſſ), ch, f.

Examples: fließen, floß, gefloſſen; trieſen, troff, getroffen.

Here belong: verdrießen, to disgust, vex; fließen, + flow (+ fleet); gießen, to pour; friechen, + to crouch, creep (?); genießen, to enjoy; riechen, to smell, + reek; ſchießen, + to shoot; ſchliefen, to slip, rare, supplanted by its derivative ſchlüpfen; ſchließen, to close, lock; ſprießen, + to sprout; trieſen, + to drip; ſaufen, to drink (of animals), + sup and + sip.

2. Division: ie, ü, au ō ō.

Examples: fliegen, flog, geflogen; trügen, trog, getrogen; ſaugen, ſog, geſogen.

Here belong: 1. In ie: biegen, to bend; bieten, to offer, + to bid; fliegen, + to fly; fliehen, + to flee; frieren, + to freeze; fliehen, + to cleave, split; ſchieben, + to shove; ſtieben, to scatter; verlieren, + to lose; ziehen (zog, gezogen)), to draw.

2. In ü: küren (kieſen), + to choose; lügen, to lie; trügen, to deceive.

3. In au: ſaugen, + to suck; ſchnauben (ſchnieben), to snort, L. and M. G.; ſchrauben, to screw (+ ?), L. G. > late M. H. G.

2., 3. pers. sg. pres. show archaic forms sometimes in eu: fleußt, kreucht, fleugt. (See 406.) Of those in au only ſaufen has umlaut, viz., ſäufſt, ſäuft. The stem ending in ß, the 2. p. sg. may be du ſchießt, genießt. Notice the interchange of h–g in ziehen, zog, gezogen, but h is silent. (See 416.) Notice also the doubling of f: ſaufen, ſoff, etc.

125. III. Class. Ablaut: ĕ, i ă ŭ, ŏ.

1. Division: i ă ŭ.

The stem ends in n + cons. (d, g, t).

Examples: binden, band, gebunden; ſpringen, ſprang, geſprungen.

Here belong: binden, + to bind; dingen, to hire, originally and still at times weak, the isolated weak past part. bedingt is a regular adjective; dringen, to penetrate; finden, + to find; gelingen, to be successful; klingen, to be heard, resound; ringen, to struggle, + wring; ſchinden, + to skin, pret. ſchund; ſchlingen, to twine, + sling, it also has the force of the now lost ſchlinden, to swallow; ſchwinden, to disappear; ſchwingen, + to swing; ſingen, + to sing; ſinken, + to sink; ſpringen, + to spring; ſtinken, + to stink; trinken, + to drink; winden, + to wind; zwingen, to force.

2. Division: i ă ŏ.

The stem ends in mm and nn.

Examples: ſpinnen, ſpann, subj. ſpänne and ſpönne, geſponnen; ſchwimmen, ſchwamm, ſchwämme and ſchwömme, geſchwommen.

Here belong: beginnen, + to begin; rinnen, to flow, + run; ſinnen, to think; ſchwimmen, + to swim; ſpinnen, + to spin; gewinnen, + to win.

3. Division: e–i ă ŏ.

The stem ends in l, r + cons. except dreſchen.

Examples: helfen (hilft), half (hülfe, hälfe), geholfen; werfen (wirft), warf (würfe), geworfen.

Here belong: bergen, to hide, + bury, burrow; berſten, + to burst; dreſchen, + to thrash; gelten, to be worth, pass for; helfen, + to help; ſchelten, + to scold; ſterben, to die (+ starve); verderben, to spoil (intrans.); verderben (weak), to corrupt; werben, to enlist, woo; werden, to become, + worth; werfen, to throw (+ warp).

126. Notice the double preterits subj. (See 464, 3.) Sub 2, rinnen never has „ränne." The 3. division has generally and better ü, because you cannot tell „hälfe" from „helfe" by ear. Dreſchen and berſten, once belonging to the next class, have drö́ſche — dräſche, bärſte — börſte.

The 2. and 3. p. sg. present ind. have i instead of e. (See 403.) As to the suffix, berſten has du birſt, birſteſt, er birſt; gelten, du gilſt (pronounced gülſt), er gilt; werden, du wirſt, er wird; ſchelten like gelten.

127. IV. Class. Ablaut: ă,ĕ,ē — i, ie ā ō, ŏ.

The stem contains l, r, m after or before the root-vowel.

Examples: brechen (brichſt), brach (bräche), gebrochen; ſtehlen (ſtiehlſt), ſtahl (ſtähle, ſtöhle), geſtohlen.

Here belong: brechen, + to break; gebären, + to bear, bring forth; befehlen, to command; empfehlen, to recommend; erſchrecken (erſchrak), to be frightened; nehmen, to take, + nim; ſprechen, to speak; ſtechen, + to stick, stab; ſtehlen, + to steal; treffen (traf), to hit; kommen, kam, gekommen, + to come. (See **489**, 1.)

Befehlen and empfehlen belonged to the III. Class, and have double subjunctives, beföhle — befähle, etc. So has ſtehlen, ſtöhle — ſtähle. The umlaut in gebären is only graphic for ē < ĕ. Those in -ht and gebären have ie in 2. and 3. p. sg. present ind.: empfiehlt, gebiert. The rest have i: trifft, ſpricht; du kömmſt, er kömmt are quite common, but not elegant.

128. V. Class. Ablaut: i, ĕ, ē — i, ie ā ĕ, ē.

The stem ends in any sound but a liquid.

1. Division: e, ē — i, ie ā ĕ, ē.

Example: geben (giebſt, gibſt), gab (gäbe), gegeben.

Here belong: eſſen, + eat; freſſen, + eat (said of animals); geben, + give; geneſen, to recover; geſchehen, to happen; leſen, to read; meſſen, + to measure, + mete; ſehen, + to see; treten, + to tread; vergeſſen, + to forget; (weſen) war, geweſen, to be, + was.

2. Division: i, ie ā ĕ, ē.

Here belong: bitten, bat, gebeten, to ask, + bid; liegen, lag, gelegen, + to lie; ſitzen, ſaß, geſeſſen, + to sit.

The form of the 2. and 3. persons sg. of the present ind. of verbs ending in ſſ is -ßt; of those in ſ is ſt for both persons: du, er ißt, vergißt, frißt; du, er lieſt. But geneſen, du, er geneſt, has no ie, probably because genieſt would have coincided with genießt < genießen, genoß, II.; du ſitzeſt may be contracted > ſitzſt, pronounced merely „ſitzt." The participle of eſſen, viz., gegeſſen, has ge- twice, because geeſſen was contracted into geſſen very early. This is now colloquial. (See F. 2888, 4415.) Notice du trittſt, er tritt; du bitteſt, er bittet.

129. VI. Class. Ablaut: ă, ā-ă u ă, ā.

The stem-vowel is short before more than one consonant; also in buk.

Example: backen, (bäckſt), buk (büke), gebacken.

Here belong: backen, + to bake, in N. G. generally weak; fahren, to ride, + fare; graben, to dig; laden, to invite, and laden, + load; laden (strong),

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+ to load, and laden (weak), to invite, have been confounded since early N. H. G.; they are of different origin; ſchaffen (ſchuf), to create (weak, "to work"); ſchlagen, to strike, + slay; tragen, to carry; wachſen, to grow, + wax; waſchen, + to wash; (ſtehen), ſtund, ſtand (ſtünde, ſtände), geſtanden, + to stand, ſtund is still common in S. G.

Here belonged also formerly: heben (hebſt), hub, gehoben, to raise, + heave; ſchwören (ſchwörſt), ſchwur—ſchwor, geſchworen, + to sweat. Fragen (frägſt), frug (but never gefragen), "to ask," are frequently heard; also jagen (jägſt), jug, "to chase." The forms are still frowned upon by grammarians because they are "wrong," but the people use them just the same.

In the 2. and 3. p. present ind. ä is the rule excepting ſchaffen, ſchafft, which is under the influence of the weak verb. Notice du and er wächſt, du wäſchſt (pronounced wäſcht). Isolated participles: gemahlen, ground; mahlen is now weak, mahlen, mahlte, gemahlt, to grind; erhaben, lofty, < erheben, erhoben.

130. VII. Class. Characteristic is ie in the preterit, which is no ablaut, while the past participle always has the vowel of the infinitive.

For convenience we make two groups.

1. Division. The seeming ablaut is: ă, ā ie ă, ā.

a before more than one consonant, ie = short i before –ng.

Examples: fangen (fängſt), fieng, gefangen; braten (brätſt, brät), briet, gebraten.

Here belong: blaſen, + blow, + blare (?); braten, to roast, fry; fallen (fiel), + to fall; fangen (rarer fahen), to catch; (gehen), gieng, gegangen, + go, went, gone; halten, + to hold; hangen, + to hang; laſſen, + to let, cause; raten, to advise; ſchlafen, + to sleep.

Umlaut is the rule in the 2. and 3. p. present ind. Notice du räiſt, er rät; du, er bläſt; du hältſt (pronounced „hälſt"), er hält; du läſſeſt or du, er läßt. The umlaut in this whole class is late; in later M. H. G. they have it rarely. The "Rules" prefer the spelling i to ie, viz., hing, fing, ging.

131. 2. Division: au, ei, ō, ū ie au, ei, ō, ū.

Here belong: hauen, hieb (b < w), gehauen, + to hew; laufen, lief, gelaufen, to run, + leap; heißen, hieß, geheißen, to call, command, + hight; ſtoßen (ſtieß), to kick, thrust; rufen (rief), to call.

Only ſtoßen and generally laufen take the umlaut: du, er ſtößt; du läufſt.

Scheiden, once of this class, has gone into I; „geheißen," according to I, is sometimes heard, but must still be rejected as incorrect. Of this class there are a great many isolated participles of verbs that have changed conjugation, *e. g.*, beſcheiden, modest (but beſchieden, "ordered"); geſchroten, rough-ground; geſalzen, + salt; geſpalten, "split"; gewalzen, rolled, etc.

132. VIII. Class. Characteristic is o in the preterit and past participle, long or short according to the following consonants.

The verbs belonging here are stragglers from all the other ablaut-series. There must be therefore a number that are still afloat; that is, according to the usage of the period in which they are taken, they belong to their regular class or to this. Present usage in the spoken language always favors o — o, *e.g.*, ſchwören, ſchwor, geſchworen, VI; breſchen, broſch, gebroſchen, III; heben, hob, gehoben, VI, which have been assigned by us, however, to their proper classes. Lügen, II, and trügen, II, have sprung from liegen and triegen under the influence of the nouns Lüge, Trug. They might be classed here; as also küren, II, for kieſen; compare the noun Kur(-fürſt), elector.

133. The vowels of the present may be e, i, a, ä, ö.

The ablaut is most frequently e o o.

We count here: bellen (bellt, billt), to bark, III; fechten (fichtſt, ficht), + to fight, IV, III; flechten (flichtſt, pronounced flichſt, flicht), to braid, IV, III; pflegen, to carry on, undertake, V, IV, in the sense of "to be accustomed," "to care for," always weak; melken (melkt and milkt), + to milk III; quellen (quillt), to swell, gush, III; ſchellen (ſchillt archaic), generally ſchallen the weak verb, "to resound," weak = to cause to resound, ring, III; ſchmelzen (ſchmilzſt, ſchmilzt), + to melt, III; ſchwellen (ſchwillt), + to swell, III; weben (webſt), strong and weak, + to weave, V; bewegen (bewegſt), to induce, weak = to move, V; glimmen, to glow, III, 2; klimmen, + to climb, III, 2; gären (gärt), to ferment, also weak, IV; erwägen (erwägſt), to consider; wägen or wiegen (if ie, II), wägſt, wiegſt, + to weigh (-wägen, wiegen, -wegen are in M. H. G. the same word, V); rächen (rächt), + to wreak, sometimes has roch, gerochen, but is generally weak, IV; erlöſchen, intrans., to die out (of a flame), (erliſcheſt, erliſcht), but trans. löſchen, to extinguish, III; verwirren, to confuse, III, is generally weak, but has an isolated participle, verworren = intricate, complicated.

ANOMALOUS VERBS.

I. The Preterit-Present Verbs.

134. To this group belong the modal auxiliaries and wiſſen. They are originally strong verbs, whose preterits are used as presents. New preterits, past participles, and infinitives were formed weak. The infinitives, the present plural, and the new strong participle have the same vowel, sometimes with an irregular umlaut: können (inf.), wir können, können (past part.). The different vowels of the present in the sg. and pl. weiß, wiſſen; the subjunct., with umlaut, mag, möge; the lack of t in the 3. p. sg., er mag, are still traces of their strong conjugation. The weak preterit was formed without connecting vowel, and has umlaut in the subjunctive: mögen, mochte, möchte, gemocht. (See **119**, 2, and **454**, 3.) The strong participle in *-en* stands in the compound tenses, when an infinitive depends upon the auxiliary: ich habe ſchreiben müſſen, but ich habe gemußt. An imperative, the meaning permitting, is made up from the subjunctive, *e.g.*, wolle, möge.

135. 1. Wiſſen, I, to know, + to wit (wot, he wist).

Inf.	Pret. ind.	Subj.	Participles.
wiſſen	wußte	wüßte	{ wiſſend gewußt

The pres. ind. inflects: ich weiß, du weißt, er weiß, wir wiſſen, ihr wiſſ(e)t, ſie wiſſen. Subj.: ich wiſſe, wiſſeſt, wiſſe, etc. Imp.: wiſſe, wiſſet, wiſſen Sie.

2. Dürfen, III, to be permitted.

Inf.	Pres. sg.	Pret. ind.	Subj.	Past part.
dürfen	darf	durfte	dürfte	{ gedurft dürfen

Pres. ind.: darf, darfſt, darf, dürfen, dürft, dürfen. Subj.: dürfe, dürfeſt, dürfe, etc.

3. Können, III, to be able, + can.

Inf.	Pres. sg.	Pret. ind.	Subj.	Past part.
können	kann	konnte	könnte	{ gekonnt / können

Pres. ind.: kann, kannſt, kann, können, etc. Subj.: könne, könneſt, könne, etc. Imp.: könne, könnt, können Sie.

4. Mögen, V, IV, to be able, + may.

Inf.	Pres. sg.	Pret. ind.	Subj.	Past part.
mögen	mag	mochte	möchte	{ gemocht / mögen

Just like können.

5. Sollen, IV, + shall.

Inf.	Pres. sg.	Ind. and subj.	Past part.
ſollen	ſoll	ſollte	{ geſollt / ſollen

Pres. ind.: ſoll, ſollſt, ſoll, ſollen, etc.

This is almost entirely weak now. The vowel-difference in the pres. has been levelled away. Comp. Eng. shall, should.

6. Müſſen, VI, + must.

Inf.	Pres. sg.	Pret. ind.	Subj.	Past part.
müſſen	muß	mußte	müßte	{ gemußt / müſſen

Pres. ind.: muß, mußt, muß. Subj.: müſſe, etc.

This too is almost entirely weak.

7. Wollen, I, + will.

Inf.	Pres. sg.	Subj.	Ind. and subj. Pret.	Past part.
wollen	will	wolle	wollte	{ gewollt / wollen

Pres. ind.: will, willſt, will, wollen, wollt, wollen. (See **472**, 2.)

II. The verbs gehn, + to go, ſtehn, + to stand, thun, + to do.

136. 1. Geh(e)n.

Pres. ind.: ich gehe, du gehſt, er geht, wir gehn, ihr geht, ſie gehn. Subj.: ich gehe, du geheſt, er gehe, etc.

Imp. sg.: geh; pl., geht, gehen Sie. Part.: gehend.

Pret. ind.: ich gieng. Subj.: ich gienge.

Part.: gegangen. According to VII; from a stem "*gang.*"

2. Steh(e)n.

Pres. ind.: ich ſtehe, du ſtehſt, er ſteht, wir ſtehn, ihr ſteht, ſie ſtehn. Subj.: ich ſtehe, du ſteheſt, er ſtehe, etc.

Imp. sg.: ſteh; pl., ſteht, ſtehen Sie. Part.: ſtehend.

Pret. ind.: ich ſtand (ſtund). Subj.: ſtände (ſtünde).

Part.: geſtanden. According to VI; from a stem "*stand.*"

3. Thun.

Pres. ind.: ich thue, du thuſt, er thut, wir thun, ihr thut, ſie thun. Subj.: ich thue, du thueſt, er thue, wir thun, ihr thut, ſie thuen.

Imp. sg.: thu; pl., thut, thun Sie. Part.: thuend.

Pret. ind.: ich that, du thatſt, er that, wir thaten, ihr thatet, ſie thaten. Subj.: ich thäte, du thäteſt, er thäte, etc.

Part.: gethan.

The full forms with e of these three verbs are not used in the indicative. The h is merely graphic, and is not pronounced, *e. g.*, ich gehe is not ge-he, but gē or gē'e.

137. The **compound verbs** are not inflected differently from the simple verbs. Notice the position of the separable prefix and ge- in separable compound verbs: ich ſchreibe an, ſchrieb an; imp. ſchreibe (du) an, ich habe angeſchrieben, ich werde anſchreiben. The separable prefix stands apart from the verb in the simple tenses (pres. and pret.), but only in main clauses; ge- stands between prefix and verb, angeſchrieben, aufgethan. Ex.: Ich ſchreibe, ſchrieb den Brief ab, but während ich den Brief abſchrieb (dependent clause). In inseparable compounds notice the

participle has no ge : ich verſtehe, verſtand, habe verſtanden, werde verſtehn. (See **108**, 3.)

1. Notice a class of inseparable compounds derived from compound nouns. These have ge. They can be easily recognized by the chief stress falling on the first element: das Frü'hſtück, verb frü'hſtücken, frühſtückte, gefrühſtückt, to breakfast; der Ra'tſchlag, verb ra'tſchlagen, ratſchlagte, geratſchlagt, to take council.

138. Example of a **reflexive** verb, *e. g.*, ſich freuen, to rejoice:

Pres. ich freue mich, du freuſt dich, er freut ſich, wir freuen uns, ihr freut euch, ſie freuen ſich; ich freute mich, habe mich gefreut, werde mich freuen, werde mich gefreut haben.

FIRST PART.

SECOND SECTION.

SYNTAX.

SYNTAX.

139. For practical reasons we divide the Syntax into **Special** and **General Syntax.**

The **Special** treats of the function of the word, inflected or uninflected, in a sentence.

The **General** treats of the combination of words into a sentence, of the word-order, and of the combination of clauses into a compound sentence.

It is of course difficult to keep these two divisions separate, as in fact all the different branches of grammar. Thus the separation of inflection and function, of phonology and inflection, of word-formation and syntax is a violent one. The division into special and general syntax is the custom of French grammarians, who have succeeded best in freeing their grammatical system from the strait-jacket of Latin and Greek grammars.

SPECIAL SYNTAX.

The parts of speech are treated here in the same order as they are in the Accidence.

Syntax of the Article.

140. The use of the demonstrative pronoun as definite article is much older than that of the numeral „ein" as indefinite article. „Ein" was used where the definite article could not stand; hence the plural of ein Mann is still Männer. In O. H. G. the article is still lacking; its use spread in M. H. G., so that now it is almost a necessity.

Some General Cases of Absence of the Article.

141. Proper names, names of materials always when preceded by nouns expressing quantity and measure, have no article. Ex.: Goethe erreichte ein hohes Alter. Schiller ſtarb verhältnismäßig jung. Blei iſt weicher als Gold. Ein Pfund Zucker.

142. No noun preceded by a genitive can take an article: Des Denkens Faden iſt zerriſſen (F. 1748). Der alten Götter bunt Gewimmel (G.).

143. There is no article before nouns, connected by und, weder, noch, or unconnected, in certain set and adverbial phrases; in an enumeration of objects belonging to the same class or genus. Ex.: Geld und Gut. Haus und Hof. Mit Gott für König und Vaterland. In Saus und Braus. Sinn und Verstand verlier' ich schier (F. 2504). Nicht irdisch ist des Thoren Trank noch Speise (F. 301). Soll ich mit Griffel, Meißel, Feder schreiben? (F. 1732). Urahne, Großmutter, Mutter und Kind in dumpfer Stube beisammen sind (Schwab). Zu Tisch, zu Bette, Haus an Haus, Stein auf Stein. in Osten, gen Süden, von Norden.

144. All pronouns exclude the article, except solch, manch, welch, was für, which allow an indefinite article after them, and all(e), which allows the definite article after it; *e. g.:* Was soll all der Schmerz und Lust (G.). Welch ein geschäftig Volk eilt ein und aus (id.). Was für ein Landsmann bist du, Jäger? (Sch.).

145. An abstract noun, and any noun denoting profession, rank, position have no article in the predicate after neuter verbs; *e. g.:* Philokte't, der ganz Natur ist, bringt auch den Neoptole'm zu seiner Natur wieder zurück (Le.). Heiße Magister; heiße Doctor gar (F. 360). (Ich) bin Soldat, komme niemals wieder (Sch.), Eng., I am *a* soldier.

146. 1. In technical phrases some nouns and adjectives used as such take no article: Schreiber dieses, the writer of this; Kläger, plaintiff; Besagter; Gedachter; Obiges; Folgendes, etc. In headings: Ueber Anmut und Würde (Sch.). Casuslehre, Flexionslehre.

2. In folk-lore and folk-songs: Rotkäppchen, Little Red Riding-hood; Schneewittchen. Knabe sprach: ich breche dich. Röslein sprach: ich steche dich (G.). Thürchen knarrt. Mäuslein pfeift.

Article with Proper Nouns.

147. The rule is: no article before proper nouns just as in English.

1. Names of persons may take an article when the bearer is

well known and his name has become a common noun; to express familiarity and intimacy, also contempt; to mark gender and case more clearly (this applies also to names of places and countries); when the author's or artist's name is used for his work; before names of planets, of ships, of the characters of a play, of titles of books taken from a person. Ex.: Ein Waſhington, der Welfe, die Ottonen. Schiller's Tell and Wallenstein, Goethe's Götz and Lessing's M. von Barnhelm are full of examples of the second use (familiarity, etc.). Die Büſte des Sokrates. Wär ich dem Ferdinand geweſen, was Octavio mir war . . . (Sch.). Läßt ſich nennen den Wallenſtein (Sch.) (contempt). Devrient ſpielte den Nathan. Mein Freund hat den Corot verkauft (painting by Corot). Der Herkules iſt beſchädigt.

2. Names of countries and provinces which are not neuter take the definite article. Most of these are feminine and a few masculine, viz., compounds: der Breisgau, Rheingau, der Sundgau; also der Haag (+the Hague); der, das Elſaß. Feminines in -ei: die Türkei', Wallachei'; in -au: die Moldau, die Wetterau; in -mark: die Neumark, die Oſtmark; die Lauſitz, die Schweiz, die Krimm, die Levante, die Pfalz. Some neuters in -land: das Vogtland, das Wendtland, die Niederlande, pl.

3. Names of oceans, lakes, straits, rivers, mountains, and forests always have the definite article, *e. g.*, das Mittelmeer, die Oſtſee, der Bodenſee, der Belt, der Sund, der Rhein, die Donau, der Harz, der Speſſart, die Alpen, der Schwarzwald.

4. Names of the seasons, months, days of the week, of the streets of a city: „Der Winter iſt ein Ehrenmann" (Claudius). Im Januar, des Sonntags, auf or in der Kaiſerſtraße, im Frühling.

148. Appellatives have an article as in English: die Thräne quillt, die Erde hat mich wieder (F. 784). For exceptions see **141–146.**

149. Abstract nouns have no article when they denote a characteristic or state of mind: Mut zeiget auch der Mameluck;

Gehorſam iſt des Chriſten Schmuck (Sch.). Freude war in Troja's Hallen (id.) Krieg iſt ewig zwiſchen Liſt und Argwohn (id.). But when they denote an act or motion they are treated as appellatives. They may also take the article that has generalizing force, *e. g.*, Der Tod iſt der Sünden Sold (B.). Die Wahl ſteht dir noch frei (Sch.). Die Kunſt iſt lang und kurz iſt unſer Leben (F. 558–9). Die Botſchaft hör ich wohl, allein mir fehlt der Glaube (F. 765). Das war ein Schuß! (Sch.).

150. **Names of materials** have the generalizing article, which denotes the whole kind or substance, or an article that singles out a certain kind or quantity, *e. g.*, Der Wein erfreut des Menſchen Herz (B.). Das Gold iſt koſtbar. Die Steinkohle iſt ſchwarz oder braun. Without article: Silber und Gold habe ich nicht (B.). Blut iſt gefloſſen (Sch.). Laß mir den beſten Becher Weins in purem Golde reichen (G.).

151. **Collective nouns** take an article except when taken in a partitive sense: Was rennt das Volk? (Sch.). Weit dahinten war noch das Fußvolk (id.). Wir haben Fußvolk und Reiterei (id.).

152. All classes of nouns qualified by an adjective, by a genitive, by a relative clause, etc., take an article in the singular, excepting names of materials and any nouns standing in the predicate or in certain adverbial phrases. The plural has the definite article or none. Ex.: Der kleine Gott der Welt bleibt ſtets von gleichem Schlag (F. 281). Der Gott, der Eiſen wachſen ließ . . . (Arndt). Die Hauptſtadt von Frankreich. But (Sie) ſprachen laut voll hohen Sinns und Gefühles (G.). Nach alter Weiſe. Es gab ſchönre Zeiten als die unſern (Sch.). Der alte Barbaroſſa (Uh.).

153. The genitive preceding a noun always has the article except a proper name: In des Marmors kalte Wangen (Sch.). In des Waldes Mitte (id.). Schiller's „an Ufer's Rand" Goethe would have made a compound, „Ufersrand." Comp. „Bergeshöhle" and other compounds of Goethe.

154. The definite article stands for an Eng. possessive pronoun, when the possessor cannot be mistaken. There may or may not be a personal pronoun as object in the sentence. Ex.: Der Kopf thut mir ſo weh (Song). Habt ihr mir den Finger blos genommen? (Sch.). (Sie) rührt ihm leiſe die Schulter (H. and D. 4, 63). See **243**, 3.

155. 1. In S. G. the definite article is always applied to members of the family instead of the possessive pronoun. In N. G. no article is necessary as in Eng.: Grüß' den Vater und Vaters Brüder! (Sch.).

2. As with proper names so names of materials and abstract nouns often have the definite article in the genitive and dative merely to show the case: der Milch Waſſer vorziehen.

156. The definite article is used in German for the indefinite in English in a distributive sense: Butter koſtet anderthalb Mark das Pfund, a pound; dieſes Tuch koſtet 90 Pfennig(e) die Elle; fünfmal das Jahr or im Jahre. This "a" in Eng. represents the preposition "on," and is not the indefinite article.

157. Ein can stand in German before certain indefinite pronouns and neuter adj. where it does not stand in Eng.: ein jeder, ein jeglicher, ein ſolcher, ein mancher (better manch einer); ein feſtes, = a fixed sum; ein mehreres, = more; ein weniges, = little. Ich ſchreibe nächſtens ein mehreres.

Repetition of the Article.

158. Before each of several nouns of different gender the article must be repeated if it stand at all: Der Vater, die Mutter die gingen vor des Hauptmanns Haus (Song). If two nouns, connected by und, denote different persons the article should be repeated: Der Onkel und Pathe des Kindes war bei der Taufe zugegen (one person). But der Onkel und der Pathe . . . (two persons).

Both rules are often offended against by Luther, Goethe, and Lessing, and frequently in the spoken language: Wenn man den Maler und Dichter mit einander vergleichen will . . . (Le.).

The article before an apposition is treated as in English.

SYNTAX OF THE GENDER.

159. The grammatical gender of nouns is threefold, masculine, feminine, neuter. As to living beings, the nouns denoting males are masculine, and those denoting females feminine. Ex.: der Fuchs, Löwe, der gute Mann, Neffe, Knecht, Ochs, Bock; die Kuh, Ziege, Base, schöne Magd, die Sau, Stute.

1. Exceptions: nouns denoting the young of animals, diminutives, and das Weib, das Mensch (see **59**), das Frauenzimmer are neuter. Ex.: das Ferkel, Füllen, Kalb, Mädchen, Fräulein.

2. Either grammatical gender is ascribed to the names of the species without regard to sex. Neuter: das Pferd, das Schwein, das Schaf, das Reh. Fem.: die Nachtigall, Ameise, Biene, Maus, Ratte. Masc.: der Fisch, Hase, Dachs, Luchs.

160. Where the grammatical gender does not coincide with the natural, the following rules may be of service, based on the meanings of nouns and on their derivation. See **159**, 1.

GENDER ACCORDING TO MEANING.

1. Masculine are:

The names of the points of compass, of the winds, seasons, months, days of the week, of mammals (a few small ones like die Maus, die Ratte excepted), most of the larger birds, most fish, and stones.

Ex.: der Nord or Norden; Sommer; Februar, Augu'st; Montag, Sonnabend; der Esel, Löwe, Elefant; der Strauß, Adler, Storch; der Hai, Aal, Karpfen (all compounds with -fisch, of course, as der Walfisch, Klippenfisch); der Kiesel, Diama'nt, Feldspat.

2. Feminine are:

The names of most rivers, trees, plants, and flowers (in -e), insects, small singing birds, and nearly all derivative abstract nouns.

Ex.: die Weſer, Oder, Elbe; die Eiche, Tanne, Buche; die Nelke, Roſe, Rübe, Neſſel, Kartoffel; die Ameiſe, Wanze, Biene; die Nachtigall, Schwalbe, Lerche; also die Krähe, Eule. Die Liebe, Tugend, Jugend, Demut, Freundlichkeit, etc.

3. Neuter are:

The names of places and countries except those always having the article (see **147, 2**), collective nouns (particularly those with Ge–); most names of materials, including metals; of the letters of the alphabet; other parts of speech used as nouns, particularly of adjectives not denoting persons (see **169**).

Ex.: das ſchöne Spanien, „ein klein Paris," das Volk, Heer, Gebirge, Geſchütz; das Holz, Heu, Schmalz, Obſt; das Eiſen, Blei, Kupfer, Zinn; das W, Y; das Bummeln, „Das Wenn und das Aber," das Gute, das Wahre, das Schöne.

REMARK.—So many rivers are feminine because they are compounded with -aha (+ Lat. aqua): Weſer and Werra < Weserâ(h), Werraha; die Salza(ch). But notice der Rhein, Main. Die Schweiz, Türkei have the article really on account of their exceptional gender.

161. GENDER ACCORDING TO DERIVATION AND ENDINGS.

1. Masculine are:

Most monosyllabics by ablaut, *e. g.*, der Spruch, Sproß, Stich, Schirm; those in –er, –ler, –ner (denoting agents); in –el (denoting instrument); all in –ling; many in –en; dissyllabics in –e according to the n-declension; in –ich.

Ex.: der Schreiber, Künſtler, Pförtner; der Deckel, Hebel; der Fremdling, Günſtling, Säugling; der Segen, Degen; corresponding to Eng. –om, Buſen, Beſen; der Knabe, Löwe, Bote; Gänſerich, Wüterich, Fittich.

2. Feminine are:

Many dissyllabics (by ablaut) ending in –e; abstract nouns in –e, mainly from adjectives; in –ie, mostly foreign; many in

–t; all in –ei, –in, –ung, –heit, –keit, –ſchaft; some in –nis and –ſal; foreign ones in –age (see **163**, 5).

Ex.: die Größe, Höhe; die Sprache, Gabe: die Philoſophie, Galanterie; die Haft, Macht, Kraft; die Jägerei, Juriſterei, Melodei; die Freundin, Lehrerin; die Duldung, Widmung; die Freiheit, Frömmigkeit; Freundſchaft; die Wildnis, Fäulnis; die Blamage, Courage.

3. Neuter are:

All in –chen, –lein; most in –ſel, –ſal, –nis, –tum; nearly all of the form Ge–e or Ge– without e; some in –el.

Ex.: das Hündchen, Knäblein; das Rätſel, Überbleibſel; das Schickſal, Labſal; das Gedächtnis, Vermächtnis; das Königtum, Chriſtentum (only two masc., der Reichtum and Irrtum); das Gefilde, Gemälde; das Gebild, Geſchick; das Bündel, Geſindel, and the S. G. diminutives das Rindel, Bübel, etc.

On the whole the gender of nouns has changed very little in the history of the language. Ex. of changes are: die Sitte < O. H. G. *der situ*, already M. H. G. sometimes *diu site*. Die Blume was O. H. G. both masc. and fem. Die Fahne was O. H. G. *der fano*.

162. The following groups of nouns have varying genders, though some are of the same origin and have the same meaning. They should be fully treated in the dictionary, to which the student is referred. Only a few examples are given in each group.

1*st group*. The same form and meaning, but double gender (m. and n.); der and das Meter, Thermome'ter, Barome'ter, Bereich, Schrecken, Zeug, etc.

2*d group*. Double gender (m. and f.) with varying forms, but the same meaning and origin: der Schurz — die Schürze; der Trupp — die Truppe; der Quell — die Quelle; der Spalt — die Spalte.

3*d group*. Double gender, the same form in sg. and pl. if the plural be formed of both genders, but of different meaning and sometimes of different origin (the latter with *).

All adjectives: der Gute, + the good man; die Gute, + the good woman; pl. die Guten.

der Heide, heathen	die Heide, heath	pl. die Heiden
*der Bulle, bull	die Bulle (document)	die Bullen
der Erbe, heir	das Erbe, inheritance	die Erben
der Verdienſt, earnings	das Verdienſt, desert, merit	die Verdienſte
*der Geiſel, hostage	die Geißel, scourge	die Geißeln –ſeln
*der Meſſer, measurer	das Meſſer, knife	die Meſſer

There are perhaps forty in all.

4th group. Double gender, double plural, but different meaning and sometimes different origin (the latter marked *). Perhaps a dozen or more.

der Band, volume	pl. Bände	das Band, ribbon	pl. Bänder
*der Marſch, march	Märſche	die Marſch, marsh	Marſchen
der Schild, shield	Schilde	das Schild, sign-board	Schilder
*der Thor, fool	Thoren	das Thor, gate	Thore

GENDER OF FOREIGN WORDS.

163. Foreign words retain generally the original gender: die Pein < L. *pœna*, later *pêna*; das Kloſter < L. *claustrum*; der Kerker < L. *carcer(em)*.

Many have changed gender for various reasons. They were fully Germanized and followed German models according to ending or meaning, or they followed French (Romance) rules. Some changes are difficult to account for.

1. Examples of neuter nouns that became masculine, masculines that became neuter, and feminines that became neuter: der Pala'ſt, < *palatium*; der Balſam, < *balsamum*; der Mantel, < *mantellum*; der Preis, < *prĕtium*; der Punkt, < *punctum*. Neuter nouns in –at: das Konſula't, < *consulatus*; das Forma't, *formatum* or *–us*; das Ries, < V. L. *risma* (f.); das Kreuz, < *cruc(em)* (f.).

2. Examples of nouns that have changed gender in analogy with German words similar in meaning and ending: der Ziegel, < *tegula*; der

Marmor, *marmor*, n., on account of der Stein (see **160**, 1); der Körper, < *corpus*, n.; der Kada'ver, < *cadaver*, n., on account of der Leib, der Leichnam, and the many masculines in *-er*; die Nummer, < *numerus*, since die Zahl. Europa, Sparta, Athen, Troja, now all neuter (see **160**, 3).

3. Nouns in *-arium*, *-orium*, *-erium*, *-are*, became all masculine in analogy with H. G. words in *-er*, < *ære* < *ari*: der Alta'r, < *altare*; der Keller, < *cellarium*; der Psalter, < *psalterium*; der Weiher, < O. H. G. *wîwâri* < *vivarium*; der Piaſter, < It. *piastra*, f., < V. L. *plastrum*.

4. Neuter nouns, whose plural ended in *-a* in Gr. or L., became feminine in German from analogy with feminines in *-e*, < *ă*, and also through Romance influence: die Bibel, < *biblion*, V. L. *biblia*; die Orgel, < *organum*, *-a*; die Pfründe, < V. L. *provenda* (pl.); die Studie, < *studium*; die Prämie, < *præmium*.

5. Words in *-a'ge*, masculine and feminine in French, are all feminine in G., *e. g.*, die Baga'ge, die Blama'ge, die Coura'ge, etc. Die Schrift, < *scriptum*, die Pacht, < *pactum*, are due to analogy with G. nouns in *-t*, viz., die Fracht, Sicht, Schicht, Macht, etc.

GENDER OF COMPOUND NOUNS.

164. Compound nouns have the gender of the last noun: der Birnbaum, die Hausthür, das Schilderhaus, das Frauenzimmer (lady).

EXCEPTIONS: *a.* Many compounds with *-mut*: die Demut, die Wehmut, die Sanftmut; but der Hochmut, der Freimut, etc. They are, however, only seeming exceptions, *-mut* going back to compounds with O. H. G. and M. H. G. *-muot*, m., and *-muoti*, f. This has given rise to the double gender of the same noun: O. H. G. *hôhmuoti*, f. only, but M. H. G. *hochmüete*, *hochmuot*, f., and *hochmuot*, m.; die Demut, < M. H. G. *diemüete*, *diemuot*, always feminine: der Kleinmut, die Anmut, die Großmut; also der Großmut; always der Hochmut. For Armut, which is no compound with *-mut*, see **511**, 2, *a*.

b. Der Abſcheu seems an exception, because die Scheu is old and more common than der Scheu.

c. Names of cities and places are neuter even if ending in nouns of different gender: das ſchöne Hamburg, Lüneburg, Annaberg, etc.; but die Wartburg, Herrenburg, because these are castles, = Burgen, f., and not towns.

d. Der Mittwoch (Woche, f.) appears by the side of the legitimate die Mittwoch, already in M. H. G. It has followed the other days of the week, which are all masculine. (See **160**, 1).

e. Die Antwort had double gender in O. H. G., but the neuter was more common. Luther has still die and das Antwort.

CONCORD OF GENDERS.

165. This subject can be best treated under the head of concords as between noun and adjective, noun and pronoun, subject and predicate. The general rule that adjectives and pronouns take the grammatical gender of the noun to which they refer is only set aside when the grammatical gender does not coincide with the sex. In that case the pronoun or adjective can take the natural gender.

166. Mädchen, Mägdlein, Weib, Fräulein admit of this construction according to the sense, most commonly; not so, Kind, Frauenzimmer, Männlein, Söhnlein, and the other diminutives: Und schnell war ihre Spur verloren, sobald das Mädchen Abschied nahm (Sch.). Jenes Mädchen ist's, das vertriebene, die du gewählt hast (H. and D., IV. 210). Du gebenedeiete unter den Weibern (B.). Sie unglücklicher, Sie unglückliche, you unhappy man, woman. The adjective therefore also agrees with the sex.

Fräulein and the diminutives of names of females have „die" sometimes in colloquial language: die Fräulein, die Sophie'chen, die Dortchen (Dorothy). But „Ihre Fräulein Tochter" is quite common and correct: Ihre Fräulein Tochter . . . war ausgelassen (unrestrained) (G.).

167. Names in the predicate, not capable of forming a feminine from a masculine, like Lehrerin < Lehrer, Vorsteherin < Vorsteher, of course retain the grammatical gender, no matter what the sex of the subject: Sie ward . . . gleich mit besonderer Achtung als Gast behandelt (G.). But even predicate nouns capable of forming a feminine by suffix if used in the abstract sense, and not the personal, form an exception, *e. g.*, Herr, Meister sein or werden, "to be or become master of." Denn ich bin euer König (Sch.). Sie war der Verbrecher (id.).

168. The neuter pronouns es, jedes, das, alles may refer to a masc. or fem. noun, even to the plural and to a masc. and

fem. noun together: Sie kommen hervor ein Weib da, ein Mann . . . das reckt nun, es will sich ergetzen sogleich, die Knöchel zur Runde, = they stretch their bones for the dance, eager to enjoy themselves (in Goethe's „Totentanz"). Alles rennet, rettet, flüchtet (Sch.). Da mag denn Schmerz und Genuß, Gelingen und Verdruß mit einander wechseln wie es kann (F. 1756–8). Stillschweigend hörten sie (three persons) zu, indem jedes in sich selbst zurückkehrte (G.).

169. When adjectives are used substantively, the masculine and feminine denote sex, the neuter an abstract noun or thing: der Gute, die Gute, the good man, woman; das Gute, the good (abstract). Komm' herab, o holde Schöne, und verlaß dein stolzes Schloß (Sch.). Du hast Herrliches vollbracht (id.). Das Böse, das ich nicht will, das thue ich (B.).

SYNTAX OF SINGULAR AND PLURAL.

170. Names of persons and materials can take a plural only when they denote several persons, species, or kinds, viz., die Heinriche, die Berthas, die Öle (the various kinds of oil), die Gräser, die Fette, die Salze.

171. Abstract nouns do not as a rule admit of a plural, but as in English the plurals of such nouns were once quite common, viz., Minne, Gnade, Wonne, Huld, Ehre. Some of these plurals are left in certain phrases: in Ehren, zu Ehren; von Gottes Gnaden; zu Schulden kommen lassen, to be guilty of; Ew. Gnaden; die Herrschaften. Compare Eng. thanks, loves (in Shakspere), favors, regards.

172. To the sg. -mann in composition corresponds often -leute, pl. only, which in sense really corresponds to Mensch, Menschen, without regard to sex. Examples: Edelmann — Edelleute, gentry; Landmann, peasant, — Landleute, country folk: Ehemann, married man, — Eheleute, married people; but the pl. Ehemänner means "married men"; Fuhrmann — Fuhrleute, drivers, carters; Kaufmann — Kaufleute, merchants, etc. But Biedermann, hon-

est man; Ehrenmann, man of honor; Staatsmann, and a few more, form only the regular plural in -er.

173. For certain nouns which form no plural, plural compounds are used, some of which have also a singular.—*E. g.:*

das Feuer	die Feuersbrünſte
der Tod	die Todesfälle
der Rat	die Ratſchläge
der Dank	die Dankſagungen

174. Nouns only used in the plural are:

a. Diseases: Blattern, Maſern, Röteln.

b. Certain dates: Oſtern, Pfingſten, Weihnachten, Ferien, Faſten, in Wochen = in childbed.

c. Names of relationship: Eltern; Gebrüder, brothers, as Gebrüder Grimm, the brothers Grimm, but generally only in the names of firms; Geſchwiſter, brothers and sisters, rarely in the sg. = brother and sister; other nouns as Gefilde, Zinſen, Brieffchaften, Einkünfte, etc.

175. Masc. and neuter nouns denoting quantity, weight, extent, preceded by numerals, stand in the singular, but fem. nouns (except Mark) in the plural as in Eng., *e. g.*, 6 Glas Bier, 10 Faß Wein; „an die dreimal hunderttauſend Mann" (Song of Prince Eugene), 5 Fuß tief, 3 Mark 70 Pfennig(e), 70 × 7 = ſiebenzig mal ſieben mal (B.). Feminines: 3 Meilen breit, 10 Flaſchen Portwein, 12 Stunden. The coins, das Jahr, der Monat, Schritt generally stand in the plural, *e. g.*, 50 Pfennige machen 5 Groſchen, 3 Dukaten, 20 Schritte lang; yet also sing., 90 Jahr — gebückt zum Tode; 7 Monat(e) alt; but zehn Mark.

176. In older German the plural was used in all genders just as in Eng. That the singular was ever used came from the analogy of masc. nouns and "*diu marc*" with the neuter nouns, in all of which sing. and pl. would not be distinguished. See **431**, 2. The fem. of the n-declension never followed this analogy. For Mann see **59**. Compare the Eng. "a ten-year-old boy," now considered colloquial. "Year" is an old plural just like Jahr.

177. Notice the use of the singular in German for English plural in

such phrases as: unter dem vierten und fünften Grade nördlicher Breite (Hu.); der erſte und der fünfte Vers wurde(n) geſungen; die drei Schüler müſſen zur Strafe die Hand auf den Mund legen; viele haben das Leben verloren, many lives were lost or many lost their lives.

SYNTAX OF THE CASES.

NOMINATIVE.

178. The nominative is the case of the subject and of direct address: Mein Freund, die Zeiten der Vergangenheit ſind uns ein Buch mit ſieben Siegeln (F. 575–6). Mit euch, Herr Doctor, zu ſpazieren iſt ehrenvoll und iſt Gewinn (F. 941–2).

179. Neuter verbs and verbs in the passive voice which govern two accusatives in the active, are construed with a predicate nominative.

Such are: 1. Sein, werden, bleiben, dünken, ſcheinen, heißen (to be called), gelten, wachſen, ſterben, etc.: Des Himmels Fügungen ſind immer die beſten (Le.). Aller Tod wird neues Leben (He.). Er wird ein großer Prinz bis an ſein Ende ſcheinen (Sch.). Das allein macht ſchon den Weiſen, der ſich jeder dünkt zu ſein (Le.). These verbs denote a state or transition. Preceded by als the construction may be called an apposition: Allein er ſtarb als Chriſt (F. 2953). Ich komme als Geſandter des Gerichts (Sch.). Er gilt als ein reicher Mann, = He passes for . . .

2. Verbs of calling, thinking, making, choosing, scolding, viz., genannt, gedacht, angeſehen, gemacht, betrachtet, gewählt, geſcholten werden, and others: Wilhelm von Oranien wird der Schweiger genannt, Wilhelm von der Normandie, der Eroberer. Er ward ein Dieb geſcholten, als ein Taugenichts betrachtet. Ich darf mich nicht des Glückes Liebling ſchelten (Körner).

GENITIVE.

180. The genitive is used chiefly as the complement of nouns and adjectives, but also of the verb (object). The genitive with nouns expresses the most varied relations. The principal ones are briefly given and illustrated below. German does not differ from other languages.

1. *G. of origin*, cause, authorship, relationship: Das Wunder iſt des Glaubens liebſtes Kind (F. 766). Goethes Fauſt. Die Früchte des Baumes.

2. *Subjective G.*: Die Liebe Gottes, welche höher iſt denn alle Vernunft (B.). Der Geſang der Vögel. Das iſt der Kampf der Pferde und Fiſche (Hu.).

3. *Objective G.*: Der Anblick dieſer Gegend (Hu.). Die Erfindung der Buchdruckerkunſt.

The personal pronoun is rarely found in this construction. Instead of „die Liebe ſeiner" stands die Liebe zu ihm, gegen ihn.

4. *Possessive G.*: Des Fatums unſichtbare Hand (Sch.). Der Garten des Königs. Doch beſſer iſt's, ihr fallt in Gottes Hand als in (die) der Menſchen (Sch.). Sometimes the possessive pronoun is put after the G. in colloquial language. Lessing has it several times: Das ſchien der alten Artiſten ihr Geſchmack nicht zu fein (Le.). See **242**, 2.

5. *G. of quality* or *characteristic*: Der Jüngling edlen Gefühles (H. and D., IV. 66).

This G. and the preceding stand also in the predicate after neuter verbs: Selig ſind die reines Herzens ſind (B.). Einer Meinung ſein; des Todes ſein. Ein ſolcher Waſſerſtand war alſo e i n e s Alters mit den rohen Denkmälern menſchlichen Kunſtfleißes (Hu.).

6. *Appositive* or *specifying G.*: Der Fehler des Argwohns; das Laſter der Trunkſucht; die Sünde der Undankbarkeit. Karl erhielt den Beinamen des Großen.

This G. and that of characteristic are frequently supplanted by von + Dative: Eine Eiche von hohem Alter wurde vom Blitze getroffen. Dieb von (einem) Bedienten; Teufel von Weibe (Le.). See Prepositions, **303**, 15.

7. *Partitive G.*, dependent upon nouns of quantity, weight, measure; with numerals, various pronouns; comparative and superlative. Ex.: Thut nichts (= no matter). Er (der Mantel) hat der Tropfen mehr (Le.). Nun der Beſcheidenheit genug (id.). Dem reichte ſie der Gaben beſte, der Blumen allerſchönſte dar (Sch.). Fünf unſers Ordens waren ſchon . . . des kühnen Mutes Opfer worden (id.). Laſſt mir den beſten Becher Weins in purem Golde reichen (G.). Du ſchlugſt dich durch mit hundert achtzig Mann durch ihrer Tauſend (Sch.). Unſer einer kann ſich das nicht leiſten, = "One like (of) us cannot afford that."

181. In the spoken language and also in the classics (excepting poetry) this partitive G. has passed into mere apposition; especially after nouns of weight, measure; after numerals; after nichts, nicht, and the indefinite pronouns. Ex.: Ein Pfund Thee; drei Scheffel Korn. Etwas Schönes, nichts Böſes, viel Gutes are no longer felt as genitives. The adjec-

tive used as noun is governed independently of the pronoun or numeral. Ex.: Zeigt das verfälschte Blatt nicht, man wolle zu nichts Gutem uns verbinden? (Sch.). Das könnte zu etwas Schrecklichem führen (id.). From Luther to Lessing this G. is still quite frequent, and it still remains in certain phrases, *e. g.*, Hier ist meines Bleibens nicht, "I cannot stay here." Viel Aufhebens machen, "to make much ado." Wenn ich mit Menschen- und mit Engelzungen redete und hätte der Liebe nicht . . . (B.), literally "and had nought of charity." It is supplanted by von, aus, unter + D. See Prepositions, **303**. Wer von uns, unter uns?

Genitive Dependent upon Adjectives.

182. It stands after adjectives denoting possession and interest or lack and want; fulness or emptiness; knowledge or ignorance; desire or disgust; guilt or innocence; *e. g.*, fähig, *habhaft, sicher, teilhaftig, unfähig; bar, *los; *voll, *satt, leer, quitt, verlustig; kundig, *gewahr, unkundig; *müde, begierig; schuldig, ledig, etc. Ex.: Des langen Haders müde (Bü.). Des Leibes bist du ledig (id.). Des Gerichts schuldig (B.). (Hengste) begierig des Stalles (H. and D., VI. 313). Sie sind voll süßen Weins (B.). Du bist es doch zufrieden, Ritter? (Le.).

183. The adjectives marked * and others not given also admit of the accusative. In the last illustration „es" was felt as A., and therefore „das" is much more common. See Pronouns, **199**, 2. *E. g.*, Ich bin das satt, müde, "I have enough of it," "am tired of it."

The prepositions nach, von, etc., + D. frequently supplant the genitive, *e. g.*, „begierig nach dem Stalle" would be commoner; voll, rein sein von etwas.

Genitive after Verbs.

184. It may stand as nearer object, as remoter object, and adverbially.

As direct object after verbs with meanings similar to the adjectives in **182**; also achten, warten, harren, spotten, lachen, schonen genießen, sterben, pflegen, denken, vergessen, lohnen, verfehlen, brauchen, and others.

Ex.: Das Vergißmeinnicht. Ich denke dein (G.). Hungers sterben. Das lohnt sich der Mühe nicht, = It is not worth the trouble. Es sind nicht alle frei die ihrer Ketten spotten (Le.). Gebraucht der Zeit, sie geht so schnell von hinnen (F. 1908).

185. After verbs governing an A. of the person the G. of the thing stands as remoter object, such as judicial verbs, those with privative meaning, verbs of emotion; after many reflexive verbs with meanings similar to the adjectives in **182**, *e.g.*, zeihen, verklagen, freisprechen, beschuldigen, berauben, entladen, entlassen, entbinden, überheben, versichern, belehren, mahnen, and others; sich freuen, bedienen, erinnern, schämen, befleißen, erfrechen, sich wehren.

Ex.: Entlaßt mich meiner Ahnenprobe, ich will euch eurer wiederum entlassen (Le.). Wer kann mich einer Sünde zeihen? (B.). Jemand des Landes verweisen; eines Verbrechens anklagen, überführen, etc. Entschlage dich aller schwarzen Gedanken (Le.). Du darfst dich deiner Wahl nicht schämen (Sch.). But many of these genitives are supplanted by auf, über + A., and by A. alone.

186. Certain impersonal verbs expressing feelings, which are construed with the A. of the person feeling and with the G. of the cause and object of the feeling.

Ex.: Es ekelt mich, es reut, erbarmt, jammert, verdrießt mich; es lohnt sich. Darob erbarmt den Hirten des alten hohen Herrn (Uh.). Und da er das Volk sahe, jammerte ihn desselbigen (B.). But the nominative supplants here the A. of the person, and the A. the G. in the spoken language as a rule; „es" was again felt as A. See **183**. Ex.: Das gereut mich, dauert mich. Der Gerechte erbarmt sich seines Viehes (B.).

Adverbial Genitive.

187. It expresses place, time, manner, and other adverbial relations.

Ex.: Place: linker Hand, rechter Hand, aller Orten, "everywhere." Ich möchte (it is not likely that . . .) dieses Weges sobald nicht wieder kommen (Le.).

Time: dieser Tage, des Abends, „des Morgens in der Frühe."

Manner: trocknen Fußes, dry-shod; stehenden Fußes, immediately; vernünftiger Weise, reasonably. Sie kamen unverrichteter Sache zurück (without success).

A large number of these genitives have passed into adverbs, *e. g.*, flugs, rechts, morgens, abends, nachmittags.

For genitive after Prepositions, see **302**.

Genitive in Exclamations.

188. Interjections are followed by a genitive only when it denotes the cause or occasion of the exclamation. Wohl and weh(e) have often a dative of the person and a genitive of cause or origin: O des Franzosen, der keinen Verstand, dieses zu überlegen, kein Herz dieses zu fühlen gehabt hat (Le.). O des Glücklichen, dem es vergönnt ist, e i n e Luft mit euch zu atmen (Sch.).

Dative.

189. It is the case of the indirect object, less remote than the genitive. The nearer object can also stand in the dative, but is more remote than the nearer object (the direct one) in the accusative.

190. The dative stands as nearer object after intransitive verbs denoting: 1, approach and removal, similarity and dissimilarity; 2, pleasure and displeasure; 3, advantage and disadvantage; 4, command and obedience; 5, yielding and resistance; 6, belonging to, agreement, trust, etc. A large number of these verbs are compounds, viz., those with ent–, ver–, ab–, an–, auf–, bei–, ein–, mis–, nach–, vor–, voran–, wider–, zu–, and those with noun, adjective, or adverb: leid thun, wohlwollen, sauer werden, zustatten kommen, weis machen, zu teil werden, das Wort reden, "to defend," etc. 1, nahen, nachgehen, begegnen, gleichen, ähneln, zusehen, entsprechen, fehlen, entgehen, nachstehen; 2, gefallen, danken, genügen, behagen, huldigen, mißfallen, schmeicheln, lassen (to look), drohen, grollen, fluchen; 3, helfen, nützen, dienen, beistehen, frommen, wehren, schaden; 4, gebieten, befehlen, hören, gehorchen, folgen; 5, weichen, willfahren, widerstehen, widerstreben, trotzen; 6, antworten, erwiedern, gehören, eignen, beistimmen, zureden, trauen, glauben, vertrauen.

Ex.: Des Lebens ungemischte Freude ward keinem Sterblichen zu teil (Sch.). Straflose Freiheit spricht den Sitten Hohn (id.). Du redest ihm das Wort, anstatt ihn anzuklagen (id.). Das Stehen wird ihm sauer, It is hard work for him to stand. 1. Du gleichst dem Geist, den du begreifst, nicht mir (F. 512). Das zwingst du ihr (der Natur) nicht ab mit Hebeln und mit Schrauben (F. 675). 2. Einem Wirte läßt nichts übler als Neugierde (Le.), Nothing looks worse in a host than curiosity. So fluch' ich allem, was die Seele mit Lock- und Gaukelwerk umspannt (F. 1587). Der Landvogt grollte dem Tell. 3. (Sie) wehret den Knaben, she restrains the boys (Sch.). Der Knappe folgt dem Ritter. Gott hilft denen, die sich selber helfen. 4. Soll ich gehorchen jenem Drang? (F. 631). Du folgst mir doch bald nach (Sch.). Gehörst du dir? (id.). 5. Und die Gebilde der Nacht weichen dem tagenden Licht (id.). Wohl weißt du, daß ich deinem Zorn nicht trotze (id.). 6. Traue, schaue wem. Wem eignet Gott (Le.), To whom does God belong, = Who possesses him exclusively? Compound verbs: Ich habe dir nicht nachgestellt (F. 1426). Sehr gern steht Karlos dem Mini'ster nach (Sch.). Die Königin sah dem Kampfe zu (id.).

191. After transitive verbs the indirect object stands in the dative and the direct in the accusative (see **198**): Verhülle mir das wogende Gedränge (F. 61). Das Menschenrecht, das ihm Natur vergönnt (F. 136).

192. A dative still farther removed from the verb is the ethical dative, or dative of interest (on the part of the speaker or hearer). It is generally a personal pronoun.

Ex.: Geht mir, nichts weiter davon (Sch.), "Go, I tell you, no more of that." Die Türken haben dir alle Säbels mit Diamanten besetzt (Le.). (Sie) sind dir gar lockere, leichte Gesellen (Sch.). Die Uhr schlägt keinem Glücklichen (id.).

193. After impersonal verbs: es ahnt, beliebt, ekelt, geht, fehlt, gebricht, es graut, grauset, gelingt, liegt (mir) an etwas, kommt (mir auf etwas) an, schaudert, schwindelt, träumt, ziemt, and many verbs in **190** can be counted here: Dem Vater grauset's (G.). Es liegt mir viel daran, I care much for it. Dem Kaiser ward's sauer bei Hitz' und bei Kälte (Bü.).

Dative after Adjectives.

194. These have meanings similar to the verbs in **190**, *e. g.*, angenehm, ähnlich, eigen, feind, folgsam, dienstbar, gnädig, hold,

nachteilig, verbunden, zuträglich. Ex.: Das ſieht ihm ähnlich, = that's like him. Auch war der Anfang ihren Wünſchen hold (Sch.). Die meiſten ſind mir zugethan (id.), "devoted."

195. Substitution of preposition + case, both after verbs and adjectives.

Für, auf, an, gegen, über + accusative, mit and von + dative may replace the dative: Ich zürne auf dich, ich glaube an dich, vertraue auf ihn; bin freundlich gegen die Armen. Der Anzug (suit) iſt ſehr paſſend für dich, etc.

196. Verbs with unsettled constructions.

With a number of verbs usage is either unsettled or the classics still show two cases, while the spoken language has settled upon one, *e. g.*, now only es däucht mir, but es dünkt mich, classics have D. or A. after either. Glauben with D. only, or an + A.; but F. 3438: Ich glaub' ihn (Gott) nicht. Es ekelt mir and mich. Man bezahlt den Knecht (person), das Brot (thing), dem Bäcker das Brot. Ich rufe dir, I call out to you; ich rufe dich, I call you, etc.

197. The few reflexive verbs after which the reflexive pronoun stands in the dative are really transitive verbs, and the pronoun is the indirect object: Er bildet ſich etwas ein, "he imagines something," "is conceited." Ich darf mir ſchmeicheln (Le.); but see **190**, sub 2: Ich denke mir die Sache ſo.

Accusative.

198. The accusative is the case of the direct object after transitive verbs, including many inseparable compounds of intransitive verbs with be–, ent–, er–, ver–, zer–, durch–, hinter–, über–, unter–, um–, voll–, wieder–; such as befahren, befolgen, befeuchten, entkräften, entſcheiden, erfahren, erfinden, verlachen, vertreiben, zerſtreuen, durchſe'geln, hinterge'hen, überſe'tzen, umge'ben, vollbri'ngen, wiederho'len.

Ex.: Ihr ſeht einen Mann wie andere mehr (F. 1874). Verachte nur Vernunft und Wiſſenſchaft (F. 1851). Die Rüben haben mich vertrieben (Folk-song). Cook hat die Welt umſegelt. B. Taylor hat den Fauſt überſetzt.

199. Two accusatives may stand, one of the person and one of the thing, after verbs meaning to ask for, to inquire,

teach, to cause to do a thing or have a thing done, and similar ones, *e. g.*, fragen, lehren, laſſen, bitten. Ex.: Wer lehrte dich dieſe gewaltigen Worte? (Le.) Lehre mich thun nach deinem Wohlgefallen (B.) (thun = second acc.). Wollen Sie den Arzt nicht kommen laſſen?

1. After fragen, bitten, überreden, bereden, the two accusatives stand, as a rule, only when the accusative of the thing is a neuter pronoun, *e. g.*, ich bitte, frage dich etwas, nichts, viel. If the pronoun is lacking, then fragen nach + D., bitten um + A., überreden von or zu + D. or the G. without preposition is the prevailing construction: Haſt du nach ihm gefragt? Ich habe ihn darum gebeten.

Lügen ſtrafen, Wunder nehmen govern an A. of the person: Das nimmt mich Wunder, "I wonder at that."

2. But these pronouns, das, nichts, viel, stand for old genitives which were felt as accusatives. The construction was: Wunder nimmt mich des or deſſen, wonder seizes me on that account. (See 186.) Lügen is probably a G. of cause: Jemand wegen der Lügen ſtrafen. Lernen for lehren, though found in Goethe, is wrong.

200. Notice a choice of construction in certain cases, when the personal object is further defined by another case or preposition and case. The verbs that concern us here are such as ſchlagen, treffen, treten, ſtechen, and similar ones.

1. Dative of the person and accusative of the affected part: Ich waſche mir die Hände or meine Hände.

2. Dative of the person and preposition + A.: Ich trete ihm auf den Fuß, ſchlage ihm in's Geſicht.

3. Accusative of the person and preposition + A.: Wir ſchlagen den Feind auf's Haupt. Wir treten die Schlange auf den Kopf. The choice is between 2 and 3. But 2 is preferable after intransitive verbs; 3 after transitives.

201. These accusatives are both object-accusatives, but after verbs meaning to name, scold, regarding, and others of similar meaning, the second accusative is a predicate or factitive accusative, while the first is direct object, *e. g.*, after nennen, ſchelten, ſchimpfen, glauben, taufen, heißen (trans.).

Ex.: In tiefſter Seele ſchmerzt mich der Spott der Fremdlinge, die uns den Bauernadel ſchelten, "who call us by the nickname of 'peasant nobility'" (Sch.). Die Treue . . . iſt jedem Menſchen wie der nächſte Blutsfreund, als ihren Rächer fühlt er ſich geboren (id.). Noch fühle ich mich denſelben der ich war (id.). Ich achte ihn als einen Ehrenmann.

202. 1. After laſſen + ſein and werden a predicate A. by attraction is found instead of the predicate nominative, but the latter is the preferable construction, *e. g.*, Laß das Büchlein deinen Freund ſein (G.). Laß dieſe Halle ſelbſt den Schauplatz werden (Sch.).

2. For the passive construction, see **179, 2.** The verbs in **199, 1,** may retain the accusative (pronoun), also lehren. This would also admit an accusative predicate noun in the passive: Das Schlimmſte, was uns widerfährt, das werden wir vom Tag gelehrt (G.). Ich werde den Tanz gelehrt. But it is best to avoid all these predicate accusatives. They sound pedantic. Better say: Ich habe Tanzunterricht, Tanzſtunde. Ich werde immer wieder darnach gefragt, darum gebeten.

203. The inner or nearer object stands in the accusative called the "cognate." The noun has the same meaning as the verb. Its idea is generally included in the verb: Einen guten Kampf habe ich gekämpft (B.). Eine Schlacht ſchlagen, heiße Thränen weinen, etc.; Karten ſpielen, Schlittſchuh laufen. Gar ſchöne Spiele ſpiel' ich mit dir (G.).

204. Notice that the noun is sometimes replaced by an indefinite pronoun, was, es, eins, etc. Compare Eng. "to lord it," the unclassical "to come it over somebody." Aber die Eiferſucht über Spanien gewann es diesmal über dieſe politiſche Sympathie (Sch.). Die Götter halten es mit den Tapferſten (id.); ſich was rechtes (zurechte) laufen, ſpringen, tanzen, "to run, etc., a great deal." Lügen Sie mir eines auf eigene Rechnung vor (Le.). Ich ſchwatze eins mit (Le.). See also F. 3416.

205. After many impersonal verbs and some other verbs the logical subject stands in the accusative (see **186**). The verbs denote states of the body and mind: es dürſtet, hungert, ſchläfert, wundert, kränkt, verdrießt mich.

Here belong also es gibt, es hat, es ſetzt, es gilt: Dergleichen Stimmen gibt's (Sch.), "There are such voices." Es hat Gefahr wenn wir nicht gehen, "There

is danger . . . ". Es ſetzt Hiebe, Händel, Schläge, There is a fight, a quarrel going on, somebody is being whipped. Comp. French *il y a*.

206. After reflexive verbs the pronoun generally stands in the accusative: Entſchließe dich. Beſinne dich wo du biſt (Sch.). But see **185** and **197**.

Adverbial Accusative.

207. It denotes measure (amount), time, and place.

1. It denotes measure after verbs like wiegen, koſten, gelten; after adjectives like lang, breit, hoch, alt, wert, etc.

Ex.: Die Ruhe deines Freundes gilt es, "is at stake" (Sch.). Die Kiſte wiegt drei Kilogramm, zwei Zentner, fünf Lot, etc. Die Brücke iſt mehrere Tauſend Fuß lang, hundert ſechzig hoch und achtzig Fuß breit. Das Dorf liegt eine Stunde (an hour's walk) von der Stadt. Friedrich iſt einen halben Kopf größer als Dietrich.

The usage as to the case of the person with „koſten" is unsettled: Der Scherz koſtet mich or mir viel Geld. Grimm's Dictionary favors the A.

2. It stands with verbs of motion to express the distance and the way, the noun being often followed by an adverb.

Ex.: Weiche keinen Schritt zurück. Zwei Wanderer ſieht er die Straße ziehn (Sch.). Es zieht ein Haufe das ob're Thal herab (Uh.). Der Fels rollte den Berg hinab. Mit leiſen Schritten ſchlich er ſeinen böſen Weg (Sch.).

The A. of measure and distance supplanted the G. of an older period; that denoting the way is old. The G. still occurs frequently. See **181**.

208. The accusative of time denotes the duration and the moment of an action. The former is often followed by an adverb, lang, durch, über. Ex.: Der Bote kann den Augenblick hier ſein (Sch.). Er ſchläft den ganzen Morgen. Du haſt es Jahre lang bedacht.

1. Compare the G. of time (see **187**), which denotes a repetition of the action or a custom. The A. denotes a definite point of time or fixed period: (Der) ließ Betſtund' halten des Morgens gleich (Sch.). Sonnabends Nachmittags haben wir keine Schule (= custom). Nächſten Mittwoch haben wir keine Schule. Noch dieſe Nacht muß er Madrid verlaſſen (Sch.). The G. denoting duration of time is rarer now: Ein Gift das neun ganzer Jahre dauert (Le.). This may be partitive G.

Absolute Accusative.

209. This approaches the nature of an adverbial accusative. Ex.: Zu Dionys, dem Tyrannen, ſchlich Möros, den Dolch im Gewande (Sch.). Schon den Hals entblößt, kniet' ich auf meinem Mantel (Le.).

SYNTAX OF THE ADJECTIVE.

210. The adjective may be used attributively, predicatively, and substantively: der reiche Nachbar; der Nachbar iſt reich; der Reiche.

Attributive Use of the Adjective.

211. Some adjectives are only or mostly used attributively, as: 1, the superlatives and ordinals; 2, certain adjectives derived from adverbs: hieſig, dortig, ſeitherig, bisherig, *e. g.*, die hieſige Zeitung, but not die Zeitung iſt hieſig; 3, many adjectives in –iſch, –lich, –en: nordiſch, irdiſch, täglich, anfänglich, endlich, golden, ſeiden, ſilbern, gläſern.

1. If they do stand in the predicate, they must be inflected, and the noun may be understood, *e. g.*, die Lieferung iſt eine ſtündliche, not ſtündlich.

For the adjectives in –en and –ern, von + noun is substituted, *e. g.*, ein Becher von purem Golde. But in poetry the adjective is found: Der Stuhl iſt elfenbeinern (R.).

212. The attributive adjective is inflected and agrees with its noun in gender, number, and case: Mit ſüßer Koſt und friſchem Schaum hat er mich wohl genähret (Uh.). It may stand uninflected, however: 1. Before a neuter noun in N. (and A.) (very rarely before a masc. or fem.): Meine Mutter hat manch gülden Gewand (G.). Es iſt ein pudelnärriſch Tier (F. 1167). Frequently in certain phrases like „bar Geld", "cash"; „auf gut Glück". Rare: Groß Macht und viel Liſt (Lu.). Das Alter iſt ein höflich Mann (G.); „fremd und fremder Stoff" (F. 635.). 2. When it stands after the noun, mainly in poetry; commonly after coins, weights, and measures: Der Hauptmann führt im Schild ein

Röslein rot von Golde und einen Eber wild (Uh.). Ein Schwarm von Gäſten groß und klein (Bü.). Zehn Fuß rheiniſch, fünf Pfund flämiſch. In prose also, when the adjective or participle has adjuncts: Dort ein gutartiges, geſittetes Handelsvolk, ſchwelgend von den üppigen Früchten eines geſegneten Fleißes, wachſam auf Geſetze, die ſeine Wohlthäter waren (Sch.). 3. Of two adjectives the first stands uninflected in certain set phrases; when the two express one idea; in poetry, very frequently in Schiller: Die großherzoglich badiſche Regierung; das königlich preußiſche Zollamt. Weh dem, der an den würdig alten Hausrat ihm rührt (Sch.). Den falſch verräteriſchen Rat (id.). „In die weit und breite Welt" (G.). Schiller has „traurig finſtrer Argwohn"; „weltlich eitle Hoheit"; „O unglückſelig jammervoller Tag"; „mit grauſam teufeliſcher Luſt," etc.

1. Lauter, and generally eitel, both in the sense of "pure," "nothing but," are undeclined: Das iſt lauter Unſinn. But Compare „lauteres Waſſer" in the literal sense. Eſſet eitel ungeſäuert Brot (B.). (Eitel is archaic.)

213. The attributive adjective is inflected weak after certain limiting words, viz., after the definite article and pronouns declined like it; after ein, kein, and the possessives, excepting the N. sg. of all genders and the A. sg. neut. and fem. Ex.: der gute Apfelbaum (Uh.); zur glücklichen Stunde; zu jenem frohen Feſte; eines ſchönen Tages; an einem langen Aſte (Uh.); ſein grünes Haus (id.); eine arme Bäuerin (N. and A. sg.); ein ſeidenes Kleid (N. and A. sg.).

214. The adjective is therefore declined strong, when not uninflected (see **218**) and when not preceded by any of the above limiting words, mentioned in **213**, *e. g.*, Holde Sehnſucht, ſüßes Hoffen (Sch.). Stumme Hüter toter Schätze (Platen ?). Also after the uninflected pronouns welch, ſolch, viel, wenig, mehr, etwas, nichts, and after uninflected numerals. Ex.: Er gibt dem treuen Hirten manch blankes Stück (piece of money) davon (Uh.). Welch reicher Himmel (G.). Solch trefflicher Monarch (Sch.) (see **216**, 4; **221**).

215. The syntactical distinction between strong and weak inflection of the adjective, though very old, is by no means clearly drawn even now. The oldest inflection of the adjective is the so-called "uninflected," identical with the strong noun declension. When the pronominal endings spread over the adjective declension, forming the present strong adjective declension, the adjective probably was still declined strong even after a pronoun (ind. article). Of this there are traces from O. H. G. down to the 17th century. The n-declension of the adjective is a characteristic of the Germanic languages. Having less distinctive and fewer endings than the strong, it is natural that the adjective should be declined according to it, when preceded by a word which had the strong endings. This has given rise to the syntactical distinction and to the feeling that two strong forms should not stand side by side. When an adjective became a substansive or was used as such, it was always inflected weak, with or without article. This explains 221, 1. In Gothic the present participle and the comparatives were always inflected weak. In O. H. G. appear only a few strong comparatives and superlatives.

216. Unsettled usage as to strong and weak forms.

1. The strong genitive sg. m. and n. turned weak in the 17th century, which is now the prevailing form: „Hohes Muts" (Bü.); blut'gen Ruhms (Uh.). „Worte süßen Hauchs" (Sch.). The pronouns always remain strong, except jener, jeder, of which a weak form is rare, *e. g.*, jeden Volks (Uh.); jenen Tags (Bü.). This weakening is due to the feeling, that two strong forms should not stand together. See 215, 217.

2. After personal pronouns the rule is strictly the strong form, as the pronoun is not a limiting word. But as early as M. H. G. weak forms begin to appear. Usage now favors: after ich, du, er (in address), mich, dich *only* the strong form, *e. g.*, „du starker Königssohn" (Uh.); ich armer Mann; after mir, dir mostly the strong form; after wir, ihr the weak (if fem. always), *e. g.*, Wer nie sein Brot mit Thränen aß . . . der kennt euch nicht, ihr himmlischen Mächte! (G.). In „Gegrüßt ihr, schöne Damen! (G.), the comma makes a difference. After uns and euch (A.) strong and weak are equally frequent. After uns and euch (D.) strong and weak coincide of course: Man sollte euch schlechte Kerle beistecken (arrest) lassen. Euch faulen Burschen ist jetzt der Brotkorb höher gehängt.

3. In the vocative the rule now is strong form both in sg. and pl., *e. g.*, Unverschämter! wenn dich jemand gehört hätte (G.). Du, armer Geist (Sh.). The plural is still found weak, but rarely, as: Lieben Freunde, es gab bess're Zeiten als die unsern (Sch.).

In O. H. G. the weak form was the rule; in M. H. G., the strong in the sg.

4. After certain pronouns, pronominal adjectives, and indefinite

numerals, such as ſolche, welche, einige, etliche, alle, manche, keine, and others, there stands in the N. and A. pl. very frequently the strong form against the rule, but rarely in the G. pl. This strong form is the older. Even after dieſe and jene strong adjectives may be found in the classics. Ex.: Der Blumenhändler hat keine ſchöne Roſen mehr. Wo haſt du ſolche halb-verfaulte Birnen gekauft? After the G. pl. zweier and dreier the weak adjective is frequent, but in the spoken language these genitives are very rare: der Ankauf von zwei neuen Häuſern or zwei neuer Häuſer, and not zweier neuen (or -er) Häuſer.

217. If two or more adjectives hold the same relation to the noun, they have the same inflection. If the second adjective, however, be more closely related to the noun, forming a joint idea, then it usually stands in weak form in G. and D., not in N. and A It can often be formed into a compound noun, and has less accent than the first adjective: Er traktierte uns mit ſchlechtem roten Weine (= Rotwein); die Folgen blutiger bürgerlichen Kriege (= Bürgerkriege).

1. After certain adjectives like folgender, obiger, erwähnter, gedachter, etc., the second adjective, as a rule, is inflected weak in all cases: Genanntes unumſtößliche Prinzip, obiger anerkannte Satz.

The Adjective in the Predicate.

218. The predicate adjective is uninflected. If it stand inflected in the predicate, the noun is supplied and the adjective is looked upon as attributive: Die Kraft iſt ſchwach, allein die Luſt iſt groß (F. 2203). Dein Geſchäft iſt ein ſchwieriges (supply "one"); „des Poliziſten Los iſt kein glückliches."

The adjective (or participle) is also uninflected when it is an appositional or factitive predicate: Wir kamen glücklich an. Nun, das ſind ich dumm (F. 961). Der Glaube macht ſelig (B.).

219. Certain adjectives are only used predicatively. Some of these are really nouns, like feind, freund, heil, ſchade, not, nütze, ſchuld. Others, originally adjectives or past participles, have been restricted to this use, like habhaft, abhold, getroſt, anſichtig, verluſtig. All of them have not yet become full adjectives; and many, if with adjective form, are of late derivation: abſpenſtig, abhold, abwendig, ausfindig, handgemein. Ex.: Ottilie

konnte dem Mädchen nicht feind sein (G.). Ein schöner Mann, eine schöne Frau! ist der Direktor glücklich genug, ihrer habhaft zu werden, so . . . (id.). Die Knechte wurden handgemein.

1. In O. H. G. the adjective in the predicate is still inflected, though not always. In M. H. G. it is rarely inflected. In N. H. G. voller and halber are stereotyped strong forms used for both numbers and all genders: Die Nacht ist halber hin (coll.); „des Nachts um halber Zwölf" (student song). Voller Schmerzen und Krankheit (B.).

Substantive Use of the Adjective.

220. The adjective when used as a noun is inflected according to the rules already given for the adjective proper: Mit Kleinem fängt man an, mit Großem hört man auf (Prov.). Du Schwert an meiner Linken (Körner). Die Ersten werden die Letzten sein (B.). For gender see **160**, 3. No inflection is the rule in certain set phrases: Gleich und Gleich gesellt sich gern (Prov.). Jung und Alt, Groß und Klein, Reich und Arm, von Klein an, von Jung auf; also in the names of languages: Englisch, Französisch; mein geliebtes Deutsch (F. 1223). Wie heißt dies auf Italienisch? Er hat von Kind auf Norwegisch gekonnt. Also of colors: Grün, Blau.

221. Usage admits of many irregularities.

1. The weak form in the plural when no article precedes as Bedienten, Beamten, Schönen, Jungen, or rarely the strong form in the singular like any feminine noun, invariable in the sg.: der Schöne, instead of der Schönen (G. sg.). See **215**.

2. The strong or weak plural after alle, einige, etliche, etc.: alle Gelehrte, einige Gesandte.

3. After was, etwas, viel, etc., the weak form is rare. See **214**.

4 If an adjective precede an adjective-substantive and is inflected weak, the latter is of course weak; if the adjective is inflected strong, then the substantive may be either strong or weak. The latter form is perhaps more common for the neuter, the strong certainly for the masculine nouns: Nein, sie (das Weib) ist, o holde Schönen, zur Geselligkeit gemacht (G.). Die armen Verwandten sind gewöhnlich nicht willkommen. Hochgestellte Beamte sind entlassen. Der neue Bediente hat ein angenehmes Äußere.

Do not confound das Recht, law — das Rechte, the right thing; das Gut, property — das Gute, the good (abstract); (das) Schwarz, black (the color) — das Schwarze (the bull's eye of a target), etc.

Syntax of Comparative and Superlative.

222. These may be used just like the positive, only that the superlative is never used predicatively, *i. e.*, uninflected, excepting allerliebſt, *e. g.*, die Blume iſt allerliebſt. If it stands in the predicate, it is always weak, being preceded by the definite article: Dieſer Baum iſt der höchſte or dieſer Baum iſt am höchſten. These two should not be used indiscriminately, however, as they too generally are in the spoken language. The first is the strictly relative comparison; it can be strengthened by aller–, *e. g.*, der höchſte von allen, der allerhöchſte. The prepositional superlative should only be used when not so much the objects themselves or different objects are to be compared, but the same objects under different circumstances of time and place.

It is generally the "absolute" superlative, expressed by an adverbial phrase: Der Starke iſt am mächtigſten allein (Sch.), "The strong man is most powerful standing alone, unimpeded by the weak." Die Äpfel ſind auf der ſonnigen Seite des Gartens am reifſten. Als Booth Richelieu ſpielte, war das Theater am vollſten.

1. The "relative" superlative is generally preceded by the definite article, the "absolute" has, as a rule, ein or no article. Goethe is very fond of such an absolute superlative: Ein allerliebſtes Kind, a most lovely child. Dies deutet auf ein ſpäteſtes (a very late) Naturereignis (G.). Notice also: weil's die Wenigſten können (G.), because very few know how; der Fürſt, die Eltern, die neueren Sprachen, and other examples. They show absolute comparison with the definite article. The absolute superlative is best expressed by an adverb + adjective in the positive. The more common adverbs used are: ſehr, recht, höchſt, äußerſt, überaus, *e. g.*, eine höchſt angenehme Überraſchung, ein recht dummer Junge.

223. Any adjective can be compared by –er, –eſt, except those that are never used attributively (see **219**) and a few whose form seems awkward, like knechtiſch, herriſch, but the latter

are not absolutely excluded: Allein, weiß Gott, ſie war mehr ſchuld als ich (F. 2960).

224. When two qualities belonging to the same object are compared, mehr, weniger, minder are now used, but the classics are still full of the comparatives in -er.

According to Lehmann (L. Sprache, p. 206) Lessing uses mehr only once: Dieſe Ausrufungen ſind rhetoriſcher als gründlich (Le.). Present usage: Der Geſelle iſt weniger heimtückiſch als dumm. Der Soldat iſt mehr tapfer als klug.

225. Logically the superlative cannot be used of two objects, but it is so used much more frequently in German than in English, *e. g.*, Zwei Söhne, wovon ſie den älteſten . . . mit einem Pfeile erſchoß (Le.).

1. For the conjunctions denn, als, after the comparative, see **333**.

2. Notice the bold comparative in H. and D., IX. 311: Nun, iſt das Meine meiner als jemals. Such forms as der Deinigſte, etc., at the end of letters are rare. Leider is a comparative of leid (adj.), which became a noun very early.

SYNTAX OF THE NUMERALS.

226. The cardinals, used attributively, are indeclinable now, except ein, eine, ein. The G. and D. of zwei and drei now and then occur still: Zweier Zeugen Mund macht alle Wahrheit kund (Prov.). Here „zweier" shows the case; zwei Zeugen Mund would not be clear.

1. To express the year the cardinal is merely added to „im Jahr(e)" or to „in," as im Jahre achtzehn hundert ein und achtzig, or shorter, in 1813. The cardinal shows the year, the ordinal the month: Göthe ſtarb den 22ten März 1832; Hannover, den (1.) erſten Auguſt 1881.

2. The time is expressed in various ways. Answering to such questions as: Wieviel Uhr iſt es, welche Zeit iſt es or haben wir? wie iſt es an der Zeit? we say: Es iſt zwölf vorbei, aber noch nicht eins. Es iſt ein Viertel drei or auf drei, or ein Viertel nach (über) zwei (all mean a quarter past two). Es iſt drei Viertel drei or auf

drei or ein Viertel vor drei, = a quarter of three. Es ist halb zwölf, = half past eleven, on the same principle as viertehalb (see **229**). We can say: 20 Minuten nach zehn (past ten), zwanzig vor zehn (of ten). Der Zug fährt 3 Uhr 20 Minuten nachmittags ab. Wir wollen uns um fünf treffen.

227. Used substantively the cardinals are more frequently inflected, having a plural in *-e* (see **429**) and a dative in *-en* (see **79**): Es waren ihrer fünf(e), zwölf(e).

1. Colloquially this *-e* is very commonly used as far as 19 incl., even when the figure itself be meant, which stands in the feminine singular: Diese Acht(e) ist nicht gut gemacht. Diese Neun(e) steht schief. Elf ist die Sünde. Elfe überschreitet die zehn Gebote (Sch.).

2. Die Millio'n, die Billio'n, die Milliarde are regular nouns, and, unlike hundert and tausend, stand in the plural after the cardinals, *e. g.*, drei Millionen, but fünf hundert, sechs tausend. Das Hundert, das Tausend are common nouns, pl.: Hunderte + hundreds, Tausende + thousands: *e. g.*, zu Hunderten, a hundred at a time; bei Hunderttausenden die Menschen drücken (Le.).

228. „Beide" corresponds to Eng. "both" in form and use: Ist das Pferd an beiden Augen blind? It may have the definite article before it: die beiden Kühe, "both the cows."

1. The singular beid- means "either," "each" (of two). Beides läßt sich hören = either statement is reasonable; das Abendmahl unter beider Gestalt, the communion in either form; but the masc. and fem. are archaic. Denn zu einem großen Manne gehört beides: Kleinigkeiten als Kleinigkeiten und wichtige Dinge als wichtige Dinge zu behandeln (Le.). Beides has supplanted beide, *beidiu* (pl.), which are still common in the 16th and 17th centuries.

Notice beides — und = both — and. Beides, ein löblicher König und mächtiger Schwinger der Lanze (Bü.).

229. 1. Peculiar are the compounds of the ordinals with halb following them and selb preceding them: Viert(e)halb (3½), neunt(e)halb (8½), meaning das vierte nur halb or weniger ein halb, das neunte nur halb. Dreizehntehalb Faß = 12 Faß aber das 13te nur halb. Ags., Icelandic, Danish, and L. G. have the same forms, though in the two latter "half" precedes the ordinal. It does not go back to O. H. G. Selbander = er(selbst) der zweite, two of them; selbdreizehnt, himself the 13th, thirteen of them (G.); selbdritt, selbviert generally uninflected. Selbst zwanzigster (Le.). The cardinal is not common,

but Lessing has „ſelb fünfziger." This composition is more common than halb– in the modern dialects.

2. Notice also the cardinals in –er, as in den fünfziger Jahren—either "from 1850–60" or "from 50–60 years old." It is hardly classical. This –er occurs in the names of the unit, ten, etc.: der Einer, der Zehner, etc. See **507**, 1.

SYNTAX OF THE PRONOUNS.

Syntax of the Personal Pronoun.

230. 1. Du, sg., ihr, pl., are used in familiar intercourse in the family and among intimate friends, in addressing God, in sermons, in solemn discourses and in poetry. Ex.: Kennſt du das Land, wo die Citronen blühn? (G.). Blinder, alter Vater! du kannſt den Tag der Freiheit nicht mehr ſchauen; du ſollſt ihn hören (Sch.). Erhab'ner Geiſt, du gabſt mir, gabſt mir alles, warum ich bat (F. 3218).

2. Sie, 3. p. pl., is used everywhere else, even among relatives in some families; also when grown children address the parents: Wo wohnen Sie, wenn ich fragen darf?

3. This peculiar use of Sie sprang up early in the 18th century. It is due, no doubt, to the use of the singular Er and Sie in address, which were the height of politeness in the 17th century. Er and Sie are due to the use of Herr and Frau in direct address. In Chamisso's „Peter Schlemihl" the gray-coat always addresses Peter with „der Herr," *e.g.*, „Möge der Herr meine Zudringlichkeit entſchuldigen . . . ich habe eine Bitte an ihn." Herr, Frau, Ihre Gnaden, Eure Excellenz, Seine Majeſtät were followed by the "plural of majesty" (see **311**, 2): Herr Doktor wurden da katechiſiert (F. 3524). Fürs erſte wollen Seine Majeſtät, daß die Arme'e ohn' Aufſchub Böhmen räume (Sch.). Herr was reduced to mere „er" as early as M. H. G., *e.g.*, *er Sigfrid*; in the 16th century, „Werter er Pfarrer." This form encouraged the use of the pronoun er in direct address.

4. Ihr, in addressing one person, was early very respectful and has maintained itself in the drama, except in comedy, to this day, and might be called the "stage-address," and is due to Eng. and Fr. influence. See Schiller's Maria Stuart.

231. The gradation as to politeness and etiquette now is about as follows: 1. For princes and all persons of high standing, Ihre Gnaden, Eure Excellenz, Eure Majeſtät, with the verb in the pl. 2. Sie, addressing one or more persons, verb always in the pl., *e.g.*, dürfte ich Sie begleiten? 3. Ihr, pl. of du, and Ihr in the drama addressing one or more persons,

e. g., Spät kommt Ihr, doch Ihr kommt (Sch.). See F. 981, 988. 4. Er, Sie, addressing one person, now rare. 5. Du, ihr, as in **230**, 1.

232. The genitive of the pronouns of the 1. and 2. persons stands very rarely after nouns. Goethe has it once, „mein, des Geogno'sten," "of me the geognost," but it is common as the object of verbs, after adjectives and numerals: Ich bitt' euch, nehmt euch meiner an (F. 1875). The uninflected possessive mein, dein are by some interpreted as predicate genitives, *e. g.*, der Becher ist dein (Sch.). As it is much more probable that the possessive adjectives were used as genitives of the personal pronoun than *vice versa*, this interpretation is hardly correct. (See **441**, *a.*)

233. The personal pronouns always accompany the verb. In the imperative „Sie" always stands, but du and ihr only for emphasis: Liebet eure Feinde (B.). Bleiben Sie gefälligst. See F. 1908.

1. In poetry, colloquially, and in merchants' letters the pronoun is often not put: Bin weder Fräulein, weder schön, kann ungeleitet nach Hause gehn (F. 2608). See F. 3429. Ihr Wertes (viz., Schreiben) vom 18ten dieses (viz., Monats), habe empfangen. Notice the set phrases bitte, I pray; danke, thank you; geschweige (conjunction, "say nothing of"), before which ich has to be supplied. Thut nichts, der Jude wird verbrannt (Le.), no matter, the Jew . . .

2. Colloquially the subject, if a noun, may be repeated in the shape of a pronoun, as in Eng.: der Kirchhof, er liegt wie am Tage (G.). See **244**, 3.

234. The pronouns of the third person have demonstrative and determinative force. (Compare the cognate Latin *is, ea, id.*) Hence if they refer to lifeless objects or abstract nouns, they rarely stand in the G. and D. cases, but they are supplanted by the regular demonstrative pronouns or, if governed by prepositions, by da(r), hin, her + the preposition. Ex.: Dem Liebchen keinen Gruß! Ich will davon nichts hören (F. 2104). Habt euch vorher wohl präpariert (F. 1958). Allein ich glaub', du hältst nicht viel davon (viz., von der Religion) (F. 3418).

1. Also es (A.) is thus supplanted, when referring to an individual object: Wo liegt Paris? . . . Den Finger drauf (not auf es) das nehmen wir (Arndt). Nenn's Glück! Herz! Liebe! Gott! ich habe keinen Namen dafür (F. 3455–6), Kennst du London? Besuche dasselbe jedenfalls.

Concord of Pronoun and Noun.

235. The pronoun of the third person agrees with the noun which it represents in gender and number. The concord of the pronoun with the natural and grammatical gender has been treated, see **165**, **166**; also the neuter sg. es representing a plural and any gender, see **168**.

On the use of „es".

236. 1. Es is the *indefinite* subject of impersonal verbs denoting states of the weather and other natural phenomena, *e. g.*, es regnet, donnert, blitzt, ſchneit, hagelt, es hat gegla'tteiſt, es tagt, es wintert, es dunkelt, dämmert, taut, etc.

2. Es is made the *indefinite* subject of verbs, not really impersonal: Es ſchlägt elf; es brennt, es klopft, klingelt, es geht los, läutet; also in the passive and reflexive: es wird getanzt, geſungen, geſpielt; compare man tanzt, man ruft. Es geht, ſpielt ſich hier gut = it is good walking, playing here. Wohin ſoll es nun gehn (F. 2051).

a. Such an es is used by poets to give a vague, mysterious, ghostly impression. Schiller's „Taucher," Goethe's „Hochzeitlied" and „Totentanz" are full of them: Und als er im willigen Schlummer lag, bewegt es ſich unter dem Bette (G.). The es (treated so far) except in the passive and reflexive verb-forms cannot be omitted like, for instance, the expletive „es" sub 3, 5.

3. Es is made the *grammatical* subject of a verb, when the *logical* subject follows later: Es zogen drei Burſche wohl über den Rhein (Uh.). Es ſchritt ihm friſch zur Seite der blühende Genoß (Uh.). See F. 3490–1; 3674–77.

The logical subject cannot be another pronoun, *e g.*, es war ich, es waren Sie, as in Eng. "it was I," "it was you," which is a late construction.

a. In ballads and other folk-lore this es is not required and inversion is still possible, as was the rule in O. H. G., without es at the head of the sentence. For after all, es was here used not merely to denote an indefinite subject, but to account for an inversion which had no apparent cause. It is an "*expletive*" and superfluous as soon as any other part of the sentence stands at the head bringing about the inversion. It is oftenest translated by "there." German tales begin „Es war einmal . . . ", "There

was once . . . ". Sah ein Knab' ein Röslein ſtehn (G.). Stellt' ein Knabe ſich mir an die Seite (id.). The construction ich bin es, Ihr ſeid es, "you are it," as in Ags. and as English-speaking children still say, is already the rule in O. H. G. Nor can we say in German „ich bin er" and „Sie ſind er," but ich bin es, das bin ich, der bin ich, ich bin derjenige, welcher . . . , I am he who . . .

4. Peculiar is the impersonal „es giebt," "there are" or "is," which is not a very old phrase, but rare in M. H. G., in which es with pl. verb was even possible.

„Es" is here the indefinite subject and has taken the place of the more definite „das" or a noun, which "gave," "furnished," "produced" a certain thing. Hence „es giebt" is always followed by the accusative: „es giebt Schläge," "Somebody is giving or will give somebody a whipping." Ei, da gab's weſtfäl'ſchen Schinken (Scheffel). „Es giebt" is not well followed by a noun in the sg. denoting one object or individual, *e. g.*, Es giebt hier einen Hund, but by nouns in the pl., by abstract and material nouns: Es giebt keinen Zufall (Sch.). See F. 1118.

5. Es is used as the subject of impersonal verbs followed by an objective personal pronoun (D. or A.), denoting states of mind and body: Es dürſtet mich, es hungert ihn, es reut mich, es iſt ihm bange.

If the objective pronoun or any other part of speech precede the verb, es is not necessary, but it may be retained. Ex.: Ich ſchwöre euch zu, mir iſt's als wie ein Traum (F. 2040). Dir wird gewiß einmal bei deiner Gottähnlichkeit bange (F. 2050). Mir iſt ſchlecht zu mute, "I do not feel well."

6. Es stands further as indefinite predicate and as indefinite object. See **204**. In dieſem Sinne kannſt du's wagen (F. 1671). See further, F. 2012–14; 2080. Sie meint du ſeiſt entflohn; und halb und halb biſt du es ſchon (F. 3331–2).

In the last illustration and in similar ones es, if translated at all, may be rendered by "so": Sie ſind wohl müde? O nein, aber ich bin es geweſen, = I was (so).

Syntax of the Reflexive Pronoun.

237. The reflexive pronoun always refers to the subject: Es iſt der Lohn der Demut, die ſich ſelbſt bezwungen (Sch.). Die hat ſich jegliches erlaubt (id.).

1. The dative was already lost in O. H. G. In M. H. G. the use of ſich as dative is very rare. Luther's Bible is still full of the dative of the personal pronoun for the reflexive, *e. g*, Die Heiden da ſie das Geſetz nicht haben, ſind (ſie) ihnen ſelbſt ein Geſetz. Die Weisheit läſſet ihr ſagen, = wisdom will take advice. Gott ſchuf den Menſchen ihm zum Bilde. Lessing has: Wer ſich Knall und Fall ihm ſelbſt zu leben nicht entſchließen kann, der lebet anderer Sklav' auf immerdar. But this „ihm" stands only because there is already one ſich. It is very rare in the classics and does not occur in the spoken language.

2. Selbſt, ſelber strengthens the reflexive pronoun and prevents its confounding with the reciprocal. For examples see above. But ſelbſt (ſelber) is far from as common as the Eng. self (selves).

Syntax of the Reciprocal Pronoun.

238. As such are used uns, euch, ſich, both in the accusative and dative: Und (ſie) nickten ſich (D.) zu und grüßten ſich (A.) freundlich im Spiegel (H. and D., VII. 42). Wenn ſich die Fürſten befehden, müſſen die Diener ſich morden und töten (Sch.). . .

But if any ambiguity arises, as is frequently the case, the unvarying form einander or the inflected einer (der eine) den andern is used instead of them. In „Sie kratzten ſich," „ſie rauften ſich die Haare aus," ſich is ambiguous. Sich einander, euch einander are tautological, though often used. „Unter einander" is also unambiguous, *e. g.*, und lieben uns unter einander (B.).

Syntax of the Possessive Pronouns.

239. The possessive pronoun used adjectively agrees with the noun like any other adjective. See **212.** The uninflected forms mein, dein, ſein stand in the predicate and can be subjects only when used as nouns with or without the article, *e. g.*, Mein und Dein iſt alles Zankes Urſprung (Prov.).

1. Standing in the predicate, therefore, it is right to say: Das Buch iſt mein, meines, das meine, das meinige. As subjects referring to das Buch: Meines, das meine, das meinige iſt verloren, = mine is lost.

2. Care should be taken that the right possessive be used when persons are addressed with Sie, du, ihr (Ihr). Ihr refers to Sie, dein to du, euer (Euer) to ihr (Ihr), *e. g.*, Sie haben Ihre Frau Mutter verloren? Wohin

wird dich deine Vermessenheit noch führen? Durch des Mannes Übermut, den Ihr durch Euer Brautgemach zum Throne geführt (Sch.).

240. Of der, die, das meine (der, die, das meinige), when used substantively, der, die Meine, pl. die Meinen (with capital letters), denote persons, viz., friends, relatives, etc.; das Meine or das Meinige denote my property, duty, share, deserts.

Ex.: Der Herr kennet die Seinen (B.). Sie hat das Ihrige erhalten (her dowry). Kardinal! Ich habe das Meinige gethan. Thun Sie das Ihre (Sch.). Diesen Morgen, als ich Sie im Kreise der Ihrigen fand . . . (id.). "Ganz der Ihrige," „die Deinige," „die Deine" are proper letter-endings.

241. The possessive pronoun must be repeated like the article with nouns of different gender: Sein hoher Gang, seine edle Gestalt, seines Mundes Lächeln, seiner Augen Gewalt . . . (F. 3395–8).

242. 1. As sein and ihr are both reflexive (referring to the subject of the sentence) and non-reflexive (referring to another noun) an ambiguity may arise, which should be avoided by using the demonstrative pronouns instead; either dessen, deren always preceding, or desselben, derselben either preceding or following the noun. Ex.: Roland ritt hinterm Vater her mit dessen Schild und Schwerte (Uh.). „Mit seinem Schild" would have meant Roland's shield. Compare the following lines of the same poem, in which ihm prevents ambiguity: R. ritt hinterm Vater her und trug ihm seinen starken Speer zusamt dem festen Schilde. Compare Frau N. N. ging mit der Haushälterin und ihrer Nichte nach dem Markte, *i. e.*, Mrs. N. N.'s niece; but mit der Haushälterin und deren Nichte, *i. e.*, the housekeeper's niece. Es eifre jeder seiner (the father's) unbestochenen, von Vorurteilen freien Liebe nach (Le.).

2. The possessive of the 3. person is in the people's language often repeated for emphasis after a genitive of possession and also after a dative: „Meinem Vetter sein Garten." Comp. "John his mark." This is not to be imitated though it occur now and then in the classics and quite frequently in the 18th century: Auf der Fortuna ihrem Schiff (Sch.); des Illo seinem Stuhl (id.). Ihr artet mehr nach eures Vaters Geist als nach der Mutter ihrem (id.). See **180**, 4.

3. The definite article cannot precede the attributive possessive pronoun. Jener, dieser and such adjectives as obgedachter, erwähnter seemingly do, but such constructions as dieser dein Sohn, obgedachter mein Schreiber are rather appositional.

243. 1. By a license the possessives lose inflectional endings in such set phrases as occur in Ich möchte drum mein Tag nicht lieben (F. 2920). Mein Lebtag denk' ich dran (Sch.). Hab' ich dich doch mein Tage nicht gesehen (F. 4440). These phrases are in the transition stage to adverbs and the apostrophe may stand or not.

2. Sein is in proverbs and in one phrase „seiner Zeit" = "in due time," "in — time," still used for the feminine ihr, a remnant of the earlier periods, when ihr could not be used as the reflexive possessive: Sein Thor kennt jede Kuh (Prov.). Untreue schlägt seinen eigenen Herrn (Prov.). „Seiner Zeit" is an adverbial genitive, in which seiner has become non-reflexive so that it apparently stands at times for ihrer, unseres, etc. Reflexive: „Alles Ding währt seine Zeit" (Hymn); but non-reflexive: Sie war seiner Zeit (once) eine große Sängerin.

Compare the relation of Eng. "his" and "its." The latter sprang up in Shakspere's time. "Its" is the genitive of "it." In Sh. "his" stands frequently where later "its" is used.

3. The use of the German definite article where in Eng. the possessive is used, is by no means as strict and as common in the spoken language as the grammarians would have us believe. Take for instance: Mein armer Kopf ist mir verrückt. Mein armer Sinn ist mir zerstückt (F., I. 3383–6). Solang ich mich noch frisch auf meinen Beinen fühle, genügt mir dieser Knotenstock (F. 3838–9). See **154**.

In the 17th century „sich" was used also for all persons. "Simplicissimus" is full of this misuse.

Syntax of the Demonstrative Pronoun.

244. Der, die, das, always accented, points out without reference to nearness in time or space. It is generally well translated by "that," also by "this," and by a personal pronoun.

Ex.: Dem Volke hier (this) wird jeder Tag ein Fest (F. 2162). Aber, wie ich mich sehne dich zu schauen, habe ich vor dem (that) Menschen (Mephistopheles) ein heimlich Grauen (F. 3480–1). O glücklich der (he), den ihr belehrt! F. 1981). Der (for her) hab' ich die Freude verbittert (Bo.). Wehe dem, der Voltair(en)s Schriften überhaupt nicht mit dem skeptischen Geist liest, in welchem er einen Teil derselben geschrieben (Le.).

1. The genitives des, dessen, deren sg. fem., derer and deren, pl., are used substantively as follows:

a. Des is archaic, but occurs in compounds like deshalb, deswegen, dergeſtalt, etc., *e. g.*, Des freut ſich das entmenſchte Paar (Sch.). Wir ſind der keines wert, das wir bitten (Lu.), We are worthy of none of those (things), etc.

b. Deſſen, deren G. sg. fem. and G. pl., are used when they have the force of possessives (see **242**).

c. The present usage favors derer, G. pl., referring to persons and deren, deſſen referring to things. But the classics do not agree with this. Generally these forms are antecedents of relative pronouns. Ex.: Jetzo ſag' mir das Ende derer, die von Troja kehrten (G.). Hat das Kind ſchon Zähne? Es hat deren vier. Dort ſieht man die Güter derer (of the gentlemen, lords) von Wedeloh.

2. The lengthened forms in -en and -er sprang up as early as the 15th century both in the article and in the pronoun. Luther has „denen," D. pl., but the short genitives „des" and „der." In the 18th century they lost -er and -en again, owing, no doubt, to the desire of distinguishing between article and demonstrative, and between the substantive and adjective uses of the latter. Goethe has still „und von denen Menſchen die ſie beſonders ſchätzen." Present usage, however, requires the short forms of the pronoun, when used adjectively.

3. Notice the frequent emphatic force of the pronoun, *e. g.*, Vom Rechte, das mit uns geboren iſt, von dem iſt leider nie die Frage (F. 1978–9).

Dieſer, jener.

245. Dieſer points out what is near in time and space, jener what is remoter. Dieſer is "the latter," jener, "the former." They are used substantively and adjectively: Dieſes junge Frauenzimmer hat Gefühl und Stimme (Le.). Dieſer will's trocken, was jener feucht begehrt. Dies Blatt hier — dieſes willſt du geltend machen? (Sch.).

1. Das, dies like es, but less frequently, can be the indefinite subjects of neuter verbs. See **236**. *E. g.*, Das iſt die Magd des Nachbars. Das iſt ein weiſer Vater, der ſein eigen Kind kennt (Sch.). Dies iſt die Art mit Hexen umzugehn (F. 2518).

2. Dies und das, dies und jenes have the force of „irgend ein," *e. g.*, Wir ſind nicht mehr beim erſten Glas, drum denken wir gern an dies und das (Song). Und er ſtreckte als Knabe die Hände nicht aus nach dieſem und jenem (H. and D. V. 64).

3. Dieſer is strengthened by hier; der, jener and das by da, *e. g.*, Mit dem da werden Sie nicht fertig (Sch.). Jener, in the sense of "the other" and

" to come," „in jener Zeit", in jenem Leben. Shakſpere's Geſpenſt kömmt wirklich aus jener Welt (Le.).

246. When not referring to persons hier + preposition may take the place of dieſer, and da + preposition the place of der and jener, *e. g.*, Wer ſonſt iſt ſchuld daran als ihr in Wien? (Sch.). Davon ſchweigt des Sängers Höflichkeit (?). Hiernach (according to this) muß die Lesart eine ganz andere geweſen ſein.

1. Notice the two strong forms in Lessing's Alles dieſes, ſeine Erfindungen und die hiſtoriſchen Materialien, knetet er denn in einen fein langen, fein ſchwer zu faſſenden Roman zuſammen. For an das, was . . . , von dem, was . . . no daran was . . . , davon was . . . should be substituted, though this is done colloquially. „Wir dachten daran, was du jetzt anfangen würdeſt" is not elegant.

247. Der–, die–, das jenige is generally used substantively followed by a relative clause or a genitive. Used adjectively it stands for der, die, das when a relative clause follows, *e. g.*, diejenigen Menſchen, welche . . . The best usage accents der, die, das. Used adjectively it has only medium stress.

Ex.: Diejenigen der Knaben, welche ihre Aufgaben nicht gemacht hatten, mußten nachſitzen (stay after school). Liebet diejenigen, welche euch verfolgen (B.).

248. Der–, die–, daſſelbe denotes identity. It refers to something known or mentioned. It is used equally well substantively or adjectively. It can be strengthened by „eben": Mit aller Treue verwend' ich eure Gaben; der Dürftige ſoll ſich derſelben erfreuen (H. and D. II., 74–5).

1. Der nämliche also denotes identity, but is not written as one word. „Derſelbige" is rarer than derſelbe. War das nicht der Dienſtmann (porter) der die Auswanderer betrogen hat? Der nämliche.

2. Selbig without der is rare, *e. g.*, „zur ſelbigen Stunde" (B.).

249. Selb, ſelber, ſelbſt distinguishes one object from another. It strengthens personal and reflexive pronouns. It is made emphatic by eben, also in the phrase ein(er) und derſelbe. Selber and ſelbſt do not differ in meaning, but in use. Selber is

never made an adverb as ſelbſt is. Selber always follows the word it qualifies, though it need not stand necessarily directly after it: Ich ſelber or ſelbſt habe ihn geſehen. Wer zweifelt Nathan, daß ihr nicht (see **309**, 2) die Ehrlichkeit, die Großmut ſelber ſeid? (Le.) Wer andern eine Grube gräbt, fällt ſelbſt hinein (Prov.).

1. Selbſt has become also an adverb with the force of „ſogar," and then stands best at the beginning of the sentence, unaccented: Selbſt ein ſo himmliſches Paar (viz., Psyche and Amor) fand nach der Verbindung ſich ungleich (G.).

2. Notice the compounds daſelbſt, hie(r)ſelbſt, in that or this very place; also the force of „von ſelbſt" in: Die Mühle geht nicht von ſelbſt (of its own accord).

For ſelb with ordinals see **229**. Alone it is very rare, *e. g.*, weil er in ſelbem (im Pala'ſte) alle um ſich verſammelt hatte (Le.).

250. Solch means + "such." It describes what is pointed out. It is used adjectively and substantively: Hilfreiche Mächte! einen ſolchen (Weg) zeigt mir an, den ich vermag zu gehen (Sch.). Wo war die Überlegung als wir . . . ſolche Macht gelegt in ſolche Hand (id.).

1. The use of ſolch for the personal pronoun or der–, die–, daſſelbe is not good although found now and then in the classics, *e. g.*, Als ſie die Moos-hütte erreichten, fanden ſie ſolche auf das luſtigſte (see **300**, 2) ausgeſchmückt (G.).

2. For ſolch ein, ſo ein is a frequent equivalent. It is more common in the spoken language than ſolch ein. Lessing and Goethe are very fond of it, *e. g.*, So ein Dichter iſt Shakſpere und Shakſpere faſt ganz allein (Le.). Ich kann mich nicht, wie ſo ein Wortheld, ſo ein Tugendſchwätzer, an meinem Willen wärmen und Gedanken (Sch.).

„So ein" does not come from „ſolch ein," but from ein ſo before adjective and noun: „ein ſo hoher Turm" — „ſo ein hoher Turm," then „ſo ein Turm."

Syntax of the Interrogative Pronoun.

251. Wer, + "who," "which," and was, + "what," are used substantively only: Was kümmert es die Löwin, der man die Jungen raubt, in weſſen Walde ſie brüllt (Le.). Nun, wen lieben zwei

von euch am meiſten (id.). Was iſt der langen Rede kurzer Sinn? (Sch.).

1. Once the genitive after wer and was was common. Wer is almost entirely supplanted by welcher, and was by was für ein. But was + genitive, which generally looks like an accusative, still remains in phrases like Was Wunder(s) (Le.). Was des Teufels, Was Henkers. Was iſt Weißes dort am grünen Walde (G.). See **181, 188.**

2. Wem only refers to persons. When it refers to things or whole sentences wo(r) + preposition is substituted. Wozu der Lärm? (F. 1322). Woran erkennſt du den Angeklagten?

3. In the spoken language „was" is preceded by a preposition that does not govern the accusative: zu was, mit was; but womit, wozu are preferable. The classics have it too. Even für was, um was, durch was are supplanted by wofür, worum, wodurch. Zu was die Poſſe? (G.) Mit was kann ich aufwarten?

4. Was in the sense of warum and wie is originally an absolute accusative, *e. g.*, Was ſteht ihr und legt die Hände in (= in den) Schoß (Sch.). Was wird das Herz dir ſchwer (F. 2720).

5. Mark the interrogative adverbs: wo, + where; wann, + when; wie, + how; wo(r)– with preposition; warum, + wherefore, + why, only interrogative. For their etymology see .

252. Welch means + "which" and singles out the individual, though etymologically it inquires after the quality. It stands adjectively and substantively: Und welcher iſt's, den du am meiſten liebſt? (Sch.). Welches Ungeheure ſinnet ihr mir an? (id.).

In exclamatory sentences welch is originally interrogative, often followed by ein: Welch ein Jubeln, welch ein Singen wird in unſerm Hauſe ſein! (Song). See F. 742.

253. Was für, was für ein inquires after the nature and qualities of a person or thing. Was für always stands adjectively, was für ein adjectively and substantively. Was is separable from für ein. Lessing is particularly fond of this separation. Was für stands before the singular of a noun

denoting material and before a collective noun; before the plural of any noun. Was für ein inquires also after an individual.

Ex.: Was für Wein iſt dies? Was für Berge . . . trennen uns denn noch? (Le.). Was in Babylon ich dir für einen ſchönen Stoff gekauft (id.).

Syntax of the Relative Pronouns.

254. There being no original relative pronouns, the other pronouns were used as such or conjunctions like *so*, *dar*, *da*, *unde* (see below) connected coordinate sentences, one of which later became subordinate. The first pronoun used as a relative was der, die, das, in O. H. G. Welcher, wer, was developed into relative pronouns gradually. First they were made indefinite pronouns by means of the particle *so*, O. H. G. *so hwelich(so)*, *so hwer(so)*, *so hwas(so)* > M. H. G. *swelich*, *swer*, *swas* = whosoever, whatsoever > N. H. G. welcher, wer, was, which can be strengthened by nur, auch, immer (= ever). To say therefore that the interrogative is used as the relative is hardly correct, though, no doubt, the indirect question had its influence in the coincidence of the forms of the interrogative and indefinite relative pronouns. The demonstrative der, die, das introduced the coordinate clause, which afterwards became subordinate; and clause and pronoun were then called *relative*. Welcher is only of the 16th century.

255. Der and welcher are equivalent. After personal pronouns der is preferable. Euphony should decide which is to be used. Ein Frauenzimmer das denkt, iſt eben ſo ekel als ein Mann, der ſich ſchminkt (Le.). Welcher is preferable after derjenige. The following sentence is bad: Die, die die Mutter der Kinder war, iſt geſtorben.

1. Of the four relatives der, welch–, wer, was only welch– can also be used adjectively, the other three only substantively. The genitive of der, die, das is always deſſen, deren, sg. and pl., never derer, *e.g.*, Wer kein Geſetz achtet iſt eben ſo mächtig als wer kein Geſetz hat (Le.). Am Montag, an welchem Tage wir abreiſten . . . But this is not very elegant.

256. Der and welcher will take any antecedent soever. But wer, was, having sprung from indefinite and compounded pronouns, require none. Wer admits of no antecedent at all; was may have any other neuter pronoun, an adjective (preferably in the superlative), or a whole clause, *e.g.*, Für was drein geht und nicht drein (viz., ins Gehirn), ein prächtig Wort zu

dienſten ſteht (F. 1952–3). Alles was iſt, iſt vernünftig (Hegel). Was du ererbt von deinen Vätern haſt, erwirb es um es zu beſitzen (F. 682–3). Dem Herrlichſten, was auch der Geiſt empfangen, drängt immer fremd und fremder Stoff ſich an (F. 634–5).

1. Er, wer; der Mann wer; der, wer are impossible. But Goethe has (in the "Walpurgisnacht"), F. 3964: So Ehre dem, wem Ehre gebührt. The proverb says: „Ehre dem Ehre gebührt," the Bible „Ehre dem die Ehre gebührt."

2. Was referring to a substantive and welches referring to a whole clause are not present usage, though the classics use them so. Die Alten kannten das Ding nicht, was wir Höflichkeit nennen (Le.). Von früher Jugend an hatte mir und meiner Schweſter der Vater ſelbſt im Tanzen Unterricht gegeben, welches einen ſo ernſthaften Mann wunderlich genug hätte kleiden ſollen (G.).

3. If wer has a seeming antecedent the latter stands after the clause. The antecedent is nothing but the subject of the main clause repeated for emphasis in the shape of another pronoun. If, however, wer and its seeming antecedent do not stand in the same case, the latter is indispensable. Ex.: Wer Pech angreift beſudelt ſich (Prov.). Wer über gewiſſe Dinge den Verſtand nicht verliert, der hat keinen zu verlieren (Le.). Wer vieles bringt, wird manchem etwas bringen (F. 97). But Wer ein Mal lügt, dem glaubt man nicht und wenn er auch die Wahrheit ſpricht (Prov.). Wer da hat, dem wird gegeben (B.). The same is true of was: Was man nicht weiß, das eben brauchte man und was man weiß, kann man nicht brauchen (F. 1066–7). Früh übt ſich, was ein Meiſter werden will (Sch.). For the gender in this illustration see **168**.

4. The old short form wes is now archaic except in weshalb, weswegen: Wes Brot ich eſſe, des Lied ich ſinge (Prov.).

257. If the dative and accusative, governed by a preposition, do not refer to a person, wo, now rarely da, with that preposition, are generally substituted: Nichts iſt Zufall; am wenigſten das, wovon die Abſicht ſo klar in die Augen leuchtet (Le.).

1. So, the oldest relative conjunction, has now been crowded out from the spoken language, though it was very common in the 16th and 17th centuries: Die linke Hand, dazu das Haupt, ſo er ihm abgehauen (Uh.). Von allen, ſo da kamen (Bü.).

258. The relative adverbs wo, "where" and da (colloqui-

ally); da, wann, wenn, wo, "when"; wie, "as" take the place of a relative pronoun governed by a preposition when they refer to nouns denoting time, place, and manner.

Ex.: Kennſt du das Land wo die Citronen blühn? (G.). Es gibt im Menſchenleben Augenblicke, wo er dem Weltgeiſt näher iſt als ſonſt (Sch.). In dieſem Augenblicke, da wir reden, iſt kein Tyra'nn mehr in der Schweizer Lande (id.). „Die Art und Weiſe wie," "the manner in which." („Wie" is more forcible than „in welcher.") O ſchöner Tag, wenn endlich der Soldat ins Leben heimkehrt (Sch.).

1. This construction is old only with the demonstrative adverbs used as relatives, viz., *da*, *dâr*, *danne*. Allwo, allda, woſelbſt are archaic.

Syntax of the Indefinite Pronouns.

259. Ein and einige can precede a numeral generally followed by a noun. They mean "some," "or so," "odd": ein acht Tage, a week or so; einige vierzig Jahr, forty odd years. The order may also be: „ein Jahr fünfzehn."

1. Grimm thinks this phrase has lost „oder," as if it meant einen Tag oder zehn, ein Jahr oder fünfzehn. No doubt „einige vierzig Jahr" has lost „und" and stands for einige und vierzig Jahr.

260. Ein, etwas, was, wer, jemand, welche, einige can be strengthened by irgend (compounded of *is* + *hwar* and *gin* = "ever," "where," "you please," *gin* corresponding to L. *-cun*). For the origin of was, wer, welch, see **254**. Ach, wenn ich etwas auf dich könnte! "if I could influence you at all (F. 3423). Was anders ſuche zu beginnen (F. 1383). Die Jagd iſt doch immer was und eine Art von Krieg (G.). Hier ſind Kirſchen zu verkaufen. Willſt du welche? Haſt du irgend was verloren?

1. They stand generally only in the nominative and accusative. Einig is rare in the singular, and for it irgend ein is better used.

261. All-. The following examples show the many various forms of all-: all das Geld, all des Geldes, alles das Geld, was ſoll das alles?

1. Alle stood in M. H. G. only after prepositions as still now, *e. g.*, bei alle dem, "withal." Mir wird von alle dem so bumm (F. 1946). The form alle before the article and not preceded by a preposition, though very common in the classics and in the spoken language, is not so good as all or all with strong endings, *e.g.*, All der Schmerz (G.). All or alle in such phrases as der Wein ist all, "there is no more wine," has hardly been satisfactorily explained yet.

2. Notice the following meanings: Alle Stunden einen Theelöffel voll, "a teaspoon full every hour." The singular in the sense of "every" is rarer, auf allen Fall, in every case. Aller Anfang ist schwer (Prov.). Alles Ding währt seine Zeit, Gottes Lieb in Ewigkeit (Hymn). The singular in the sense of Eng. "all" is archaic, allen Winter (Logau, quoted in Grimm's Dict.), all winter. For all day, all night, we say best die ganze Nacht, den ganzen Tag. Notice also in aller Früh, "very early," in aller Stille, in alle Welt.

3. The plural of jeder, jedweder, jeglicher is rare. It is expressed by „alle." Even the singular of the last two is now archaic and rare.

262. Mancher does not differ from the Eng. "many" in use and force. Compare ein mancher, manch einer, mancher gute Mann, manch ein guter Mann, manche schöne Blume.

263. Viel and wenig, denoting the individual and used substantively denoting persons, must be inflected; if they denote an indefinite number, quantity, mass, they are generally uninflected. Denn viele sind berufen, aber wenige sind auserwählet (B.). Viel noch hast du von mir zu hören (Sch.). Zwar weiß ich viel, doch möchte ich alles wissen (F. 601). Es studieren viel Amerikaner in Deutschland.

1. Vieler, -e, -es denotes "various sorts," *e.g.*, vieler Wein; in composition „vielerlei Wein," "many kinds of wine."

A fuller treatment of the large number of indefinite pronouns and numerals belongs rather to the Dictionary.

SYNTAX OF THE VERB.

Classification of Verbs.

264. According to meaning and construction the verbs may be variously divided: 1, into independent verbs; 2, into the small class of *auxiliaries* proper and the *modal* auxiliaries. See **267**. Again: 1, into *personal* verbs, which can have any person, the 1., 2., or 3., as subject; 2, into *impersonal* verbs, which have the indefinite subject es, „es regnet." See **236**.

The personal verbs again divide: 1, into neuter or subjective verbs, as die Sonne ſcheint (see **179**); 2, transitive or objective verbs, the direct object of which stands in the accusative (transitive proper, see **198**) or in the genitive or dative (called also intrans., see **184**, **190**).

As subdivisions of transitive verbs may be regarded: 1, the reflexive verbs; 2, the causative.

The reflexives again: 1, into reflexives proper, which occur only as reflexives, *e. g.*, ſich grämen, to pine; ſich erbarmen, to feel pity; 2, into both transitive and intransitive verbs used reflexively, *e. g.*, ſich waſchen, ſich vereinen, ſich tot lachen.

The pronoun is always in the accusative.

1. Transitive verbs have often intransitive or neuter force, but there can be no direct object then. Das Pferd zieht den Wagen, but Die Wolken ziehen am Himmel. Personal verbs can also be used without a logical subject: Das Waſſer rauſcht, but Es rauſcht im Rohre. Also the modal auxiliaries occur still as independent verbs: Was ſoll das? but Wohin ſoll der Dieb geflüchtet ſein? See **267**.

Syntax of the Auxiliaries.

I. haben and ſein.

265. haben forms the compound tenses:

1. Of all transitive verbs: ich habe getragen, ich habe bedeckt, ich habe angeklagt.

2. Of the modal auxiliaries, of reflexive and impersonal verbs proper. Er hat es nicht gemocht, hat ſich gewaſchen, es hat geregnet, es hat mich gereut.

3. Of intransitive verbs that have no direct object, at most the object in the G. or D. Er hatte mein geſpottet, er hat mir geſchadet, er hatte gelacht, geweint, geſchlafen.

4. Of (intransitive) verbs of motion when the mere action within a certain space, the effort, and its extent are to be emphasized, without reference to direction, point of departure or destination. A. von Humboldt hat viel gereiſt, = was a great traveler. Der Stallknecht hat eine Stunde hin und her geritten. Die Vöglein haben geſungen und geſprungen. Das Lämmchen hat gehüpft, der Fiſch hat geſchwommen. Das Kleine (the little one) hat noch nie gegangen (has never walked). Sophie hat geklettert und ſich die Schürze zerriſſen. Der Schnellläufer hat ſchon längſt gelaufen (finished running long ago). Good usage favors: Die Uhr hat einmal gegangen aber jetzt ſteht ſie ſtill. Die Mühle, die Maſchine, das Rad hat gegangen, but iſt is frequently used.

5. Of ſitzen, ſtehen, liegen, anfangen, beginnen, aufhören. - But in S. G. ſein is more common and it is also found in the classics. Wo habt ihr geſeſſen, geſtanden? Wann hat die Schule angefangen?

266. Sein forms the compound tenses:

1. Of all verbs of motion, except some, which take haben, when action simply is denoted. See **265**, 4. These take ſein when the direction, points of departure, destination and arrival are mentioned. These circumstances are often expressed by inseparable and separable prefixes in compound verbs. Ex.: „Der Mai iſt gekommen." Er wird gefallen ſein, = he probably fell. Wir ſind ſchnell hinabgeſtiegen. Die Seefahrer ſind auf der Inſel Skye gelandet. Die Störche ſind nach Süden gezogen. Der Stallknecht iſt in einer Stunde hin und her geritten, = he rode to a certain place (there) and back. Die Feinde ſind entflohen, entlaufen, eingetroffen. Wir ſind ſchon mehrere Male umgezogen (moved).

2. Of certain verbs denoting a springing into being or passing away, a transition and development, growth and decay, often expressed by er–, ver–, zer–, and separable prefixes. Die Milch iſt gefroren (< gefrieren, but es hat gefroren < frieren, there was a frost). Das Seil iſt zerriſſen. Der Schnee iſt geſchmolzen. „Der Bruder wäre nicht geſtorben." Das Bäumchen iſt gewachſen. Die reichen Leute ſind im Kriege verarmt. Das Licht iſt erloſchen. Die Schale iſt geſprungen (cracked). Der Lehrling war eingeſchlafen (had fallen asleep). In the compound verbs it is just this prefix that called for ſein. Compare trinken — ertrinken, ſcheinen — erſcheinen, wachen — erwachen, hungern — verhungern, frieren — erfrieren.

3. Of ſein, bleiben, begegnen, folgen, gelingen, geſchehen, glücken, for which it is hard to account by meaning, but see **283**, 2. Ex.: Es iſt ihm nicht gelungen, geglückt. Das iſt ſchon alles dageweſen. Ein ſüßer Troſt iſt ihm geblieben (Sch.).

4. Haben has gained upon ſein in German, but not so much as English "to have" upon "to be." Folgen and begegnen were once generally compounded with haben. Also the tendency to use intransitive verbs as transitives, so strong in Eng., has increased in German. While in Eng. you can "run" a locomotive, a sewing machine, a train, a ship, in German führen, leiten, in Gang bringen, gebrauchen, or the verb of motion + laſſen or machen, will have to be used. Der Kutſcher hat uns ſchnell gefahren. Der Poſtillion hat den Wagen vorgefahren. Man konnte die Feuerſprütze nicht in Gang bringen.

5. The difficulty as to the use of haben and ſein lies after all mainly in the way in which a verb is used, transitively or intransitively, and in the meaning. The student should attend particularly to these points and not be too timid, as in many cases usage is by no means settled.

As to the omission of haben and ſein in dependent clauses, see **346**.

II. Special Uses of the Modal Auxiliaries.

This subject belongs really rather to the Dictionary, but the appreciation and translation of these verbs is so difficult that a brief treatment of them is given here.

267. 1. Können denotes ability: Der Fiſch kann ſchwimmen. Hier ſteh' ich, ich kann nicht anders (Lu.). Possibility: Ihr könntet ihr Werkzeug ſein, mich in das Garn zuziehen (Sch.). Knowledge, "to know how," its oldest meaning: Kannſt du Italie'niſch? Compare können, "to have learnt," then "to be able"; kennen (< *kanjan*, causative of kann—können), "to be acquainted with"; wiſſen, "to know."

2. Dürfen denotes: 1. Permission and authorization: Du darfſt auch

da nur frei erſcheinen (F. 336). Ohne Jagdſchein darf niemand auf die Jagd gehn. 2. "To have occasion to," "reason for," "need": Man darf den Schlüſſel nur zwei Mal umdrehen und der Riegel ſpringt zurück, "You need . . ." Du darfſt hinausgehen, die Luft iſt hier ſehr ſchlecht, "You have good reason to go out . . ." This force is the oldest, but rather rare now. 3. "To trust one's self to": Wer darf ihn nennen und wer bekennen: Ich glaub ihn (Gott) (F. 3433–5). This force has sprung from 1 and 2 and from the verb tar — türren + dare, whose meaning was embodied in darf — dürfen. On the other hand, it has nearly given up the original force of "need," "want," still apparent in 2, to its compound bedürfen. In some editions of the Bible dürfen, "to want," and tar — türren, "to dare," are still the rule. In later editions bedürfen and dürfen have been substituted for them. 4. The preterit subjunctive (potential, see **284**, 3) dürfte is used for a mild assertion: Die Nachwelt dürfte Bedenken tragen, dieſes Urteil zu unterſchreiben (Sch.), "Posterity very likely will . . ." Das dürfte zu ſpät ſein, "I fear very much, that is too late." Etiquette admits such redundant phrases as: Dürfte or darf ich mir erlauben, etc.

3. M ö g e n denotes: 1. In its oldest, but now rare sense except in dialect, "ability" and "power." This it has given up to „können." Compare its cognates "may" and "can" in Eng.: Ihr Anblick gibt den Engeln Stärke, wenn keiner ſie ergründen mag (F. 247–8), "although no one is able . . ." 2. Concession, no interference on the part of the speaker: Der Burſche mag nach Hauſe gehn (It lies with him, I have no objection). Wer mir den Becher kann wieder zeigen, er mag ihn behalten (Sch.). 3. Possibility, the action does not concern or influence the speaker; können means a possibility that lies in the ability of another person or object. Was für Grünröck' mögen das ſein (Sch.). Er mag das geſagt haben, er mag das thun, It is possible he said so, he may do it. Das Tier mag zehn Jahre alt ſein. With this force it supplants the potential and concessive subjunctives; if it stands itself in the subjunctive of the present or preterit, it supplants also the optative subjunctive. Ich wünſche daß die ganze Welt uns hören mag, hören möge. Möchte auch doch die ganze Welt uns hören (Le.). 5. From 2 springs the force of "inclination," "liking," "wishing." Was ſich verträgt mit meiner Pflicht, mag ich ihr gern gewähren (Sch.). Ich möchte daß er es nicht wieder erführe. Ich eſſe was ich mag und leide was ich muß (Prov.).

4. M ü ſ ſ e n, + must, denotes: 1. In its oldest sense, "to have occasion, room," "to be one's lot," "it is the case." A trace of this is left in the following uses: Mein Hund war ohne Maulkorb hinausgelaufen. Nun mußte auch gerade ein Polizi'ſt daher kommen (as luck would have it, a police-

man came along). Der Zufall mußte ihn grade hin bringen. Zum zweiten Mal soll mir kein Klang erschallen, er müßte denn (unless it should) besondern Sinn begründen (G., quoted in Sanders' Dict.). 2. Necessity of various kinds: Alle Menschen müssen sterben. Der Semne muß scheiden (Sch.). Ein Oberhaupt muß sein (id.). Das muß ein schlechter Müller sein, dem niemals fiel das Wandern ein (Song). Er muß sehr krank gewesen sein; er ist noch so schwach. The force of dürfen: Ich muß nicht vergessen, "I must not forget."

Brauchen + negative generally takes the place of müssen + negative when it denotes moral necessity. Das brauchst du nicht zu thun, wenn du nicht willst. Wohl dem, der mit der neuen (Zeit) nicht mehr braucht zu leben (Sch.).

5. Sollen, + shall, denotes: 1. Duty and obligation. Du sollst Gott deinen Herrn lieben von ganzem Herzen, von ganzer Seele und von ganzem Gemüte (B.). Du hättest da sein sollen, You ought to have been there. 2. Necessity and destiny: Diese Furcht soll endigen! ihr Haupt soll fallen. Ich will Frieden haben (Sch.). Ich weiß nicht was soll es bedeuten (Heine). Was soll das? What (is that) for? Darin sollte er sich täuschen, In that he was bound to be deceived, disappointed. 3. It denotes the statement and claim of another, "is to," "is said to": Das Meter soll acht Thaler kosten. Der Schatz der Nibelungen soll im Rheine liegen. Sieben Sträflinge sollen entkommen sein. 4. Sollte approaches the force of the conditional, + "should." Sollte er noch kommen, sag ihm, ich hätte nicht länger warten können. Sollte er auch wohl krank sein? Is it possible that he is sick?

6. Wollen, + will, denotes: 1. The will and purpose of the subject. Was wolltest du mit dem Dolche? sprich (Sch.). Ich will es wieder vergessen, weil Sie doch nicht wollen daß ich es wissen soll (G.). Wolle nur was du kannst und du wirst können was du willst. 2. "To be about," "on the point of." Ein armer Bauer wollte sterben (Nicolai). Es will regnen. Frequent in stage-directions, „will gehen," „will abgehn." Will sich Hector ewig von mir wenden? (Sch.). 3. The claim and statement of another, who "says" or "claims to": Der Zeuge will den Angeklagten gesehen haben. Du willst ihn zu einem guten Zwecke betrogen haben. Notice the ambiguity of such a sentence as Der Herr will es gethan haben, "claims he did it," or according to 1, "wills or wishes that it be done."

Wollen is really the most difficult to understand and use. It occurs in a great many more idioms with ever varying shades of meaning. Notice, *e. g.*, Es will verlauten, "it is spread abroad." Was will das sagen? = "What does that amount to?" "that is nothing." Ich will es nicht gesehen haben, I will act as if I had not seen it or "nobody shall see it," according to 1. Wenn der Schüler doch diese Regel lernen wollte, "if he only would . . . = conditional. Wollte Gott daß . . . , would to God that . . . Diese Feder will nicht, this pen does not write (well). But it is impossible to give all these meanings.

Still Eng. "will" is not far behind the German. Sollen and wollen should not be confounded with Eng. "shall" and "will" of the future, see 279, 8.

7. Laſſen, sometimes classed here, is really a causative auxiliary and never used as such without an inf., which stands as a further object. Keine Klage läßt ſie ſchallen (Sch.). Unverzüglich ließ er drei Batterien aufwerfen (id.). See **202**, 1. A second force is "to allow," "not to hinder." Der Gefangenwärter ließ den Gefangenen entwiſchen. Laſſen Sie das bleiben (= to leave a thing undone, not interfere).

For laſſen + reflexive, see **272**; in the imperative, see **287**, 4.

Remark.—Verbs of motion can be omitted, particularly when an adverb expresses the direction. Willſt du mit? Ich muß hin. Das Pack't ſollte fort (ought to be sent). Der Hut muß in die Schachtel. But all except müſſen and dürfen can be used as independent verbs, *i. e.*, no other verb need be supplied. There is no call for a verb in Was ſoll der Hut? (Sch.), "What is this hat (here) for? Notice that ſollen, mögen, and wollen are really the only ones that deserve the term modal auxiliaries, since they assist in expressing the mood. See 287.

THE PASSIVE VOICE.

268. The active voice needs no comment. Only transitive verbs form a complete passive. But transitives whose meaning admits only of an object of the thing, also intransitives and subjective verbs, form only the third person singular with the grammatical subject es or without it. Ihnen wird geholfen. Es wird gelacht und geſungen. Geſtern wurde geſpielt. Bei uns zu Hauſe (where I come from) wird viel Whiſt geſpielt.

269. In the transformation of the active into the passive voice, the direct object in the accusative becomes subject-nominative and the former subject is expressed by von + dative denoting the agent and by durch + accusative denoting means and instrument. Baumgarten erſchlug den Wolfen-ſchießen. W. wurde von B. erſchlagen. Der Brief wurde durch einen Dienſtmann beſorgt (through a porter). See prepositions, **304**, 2.

270. When a verb governs two accusatives both accusatives become nominatives with the verbs of naming, calling, scolding. Er wurde ſein Freund genannt. See **179**, 2.

1. With lehren and fragen the accusative of the thing may be retained, particularly if that accusative be a pronoun, *e. g.*, Das Schlimmſte was uns widerfährt, das werden wir vom Tag gelehrt (G.). For etwas gelehrt werden it is better to use unterrichtet werden; for etwas gefragt werden, better nach etwas gefragt werden. The accusative of the noun now sounds pedantic, though lehren in M. H. G. always retained the accusative in the passive. See 202, 2.

271. With a verb governing an accusative, a genitive, or a dative, the accusative becomes nominative in the passive, but the genitive and dative are retained. H. wurde des Hochverrats angeklagt. Deiner wurde gedacht (no grammatical subject) or es wurde deiner gedacht. Mir wurde gefolgt, *I* was followed.

1. The verbs folgen, helfen, gehorchen, ſchmeicheln, widerſprechen, danken often form a personal passive in the classics and in the spoken language, but it is very questionable whether this use should be imitated; certainly not by foreigners who are accustomed to this construction in their own language and are apt to make mistakes in the active and say „ich folge dich" if they hear or say „ich werde gefolgt, geſchmeichelt." Those who defend the personal passive appeal to the older accusative after helfen and ſchmeicheln.

272. The reflexive, encouraged by French influence, and man, es + active often replace the passive. For Es wird geſungen, gepocht stands Man ſingt, pocht. Da öffnet ſich das Thor, Then the gate is opened. Der Schlüſſel wird ſich finden, The key will be found. More frequent than the reflexive alone is ſich . . . laſſen, *e. g.*, Er wird ſich beſtimmen laſſen zu . . . , He will let himself be influenced to . . . , He can be induced to . . . Das läßt ſich leicht machen, That is easily done. Das läßt ſich hören, That is plausible. See 290. 3, *b*. It is clear from this that the German passive is less frequent than the English. The grammars boast more of the full and long compound tenses than actual usage justifies.

273. Origin of the Passive Voice.

1. In O. H. G. ſein (*sîn*, *wesan*), werden (*werdan*) were used to express the passive. Gothic alone shows traces of anything like a Latin passive, but even there the periphrastic form had to be resorted to. In M. H. G. the present is *ich wirde gelobet*; preterit, *ich wart gelobet*; perfect, *ich bin gelobet*; pluperfect, *ich was gelobet*. *Worden* was added to the perfect from the 13th century downward, but was not considered essential until the 17th century. The passive idea lies originally only in the past or passive participle and not in werden, which means only "I enter into the state of being „geliebt," „geſchlagen," etc. Compare the future, ich werde lieben, "I enter into the state of loving." The M. H. G. *ich bin geliebet*, *ich was* (*war*) *geliebet* are by no means lost. Only they are not called tenses now. Ich bin geliebt, das Zimmer iſt gefegt mean "I am

in the state of being loved," "the room is in a swept state," "has been cleaned," "is clean." The participles are felt as adjectives. Ich bin geliebt worden, das Zimmer iſt gefegt worden mean 'I have passed into the state of being loved," "the room has passed into the state of being swept." The transition into this state, and not the present state, but the fact or action are emphasized, hence the idea of *tense* is prominent. The fitness of the name of perfect passive for this form and not also for ich bin geliebt is apparent because ich bin geliebt worden is composed of ich bin (ge)worden (the perfect) + geliebt. In O. H. G. ſein still formed the present as "to be" now in Eng., but already in M. H. G. *werden* was the prevalent auxiliary (see above), while *sein* was prevalent in the perfect.

2. Perhaps the following examples will illustrate the force of the various forms:

Die Tochter iſt verlobt, is engaged to be married. Vom Eiſe befreit ſind Strom und Bäche (F. 903). Dieſer Keſſel iſt von Bergen begrenzt (Hu.) These three are not passive tenses. But compare: Zu dem Lächerlichen wird ein Contra'ſt von Vollkommenheiten und Unvollkommenheiten erfordert (Le.) (present tense). Dieſer Punkt iſt viel beſtritten worden (perf. pass.). The same difference between wurde + participle (= imperfect pass.) and war + participle (no tense), *e.g.*, Home'r war vor Alters unſtreitig fleißiger geleſen als jetzt (Le.). Die Häuſer waren feſtlich geſchmückt (no tense). Der Räuberhauptmann war ſchon gefangen genommen worden, als ſeine Leute herbeikamen (pluperfect pass.). Der Spio'n wurde ohne weiteres an einen Aſt geknüpft und erhängt (imperfect pass.).

Examples of the future and conditional perfects passive are very rare in the classics.

Syntax of the Tenses.

Simple Tenses.

274. The Present.

1. It denotes an action as now going on. Wie glänzt die Sonne, wie lacht die Flur (G.).

2. It is the tense used in the statement of a general truth or fact or custom, in which the idea of time is lost sight of. Dreimal drei iſt neun. Gott iſt die Liebe (B.). Borgen macht Sorgen (Prov.).

3. The historical present is used in vivid narrative for a past tense. Das zu Linz gegebene Beiſpiel findet allgemeine Nachahmung; man verflucht das Andenken der Verräters; alle Arme'en fallen von ihm ab (Sch.).

4. For the English perfect German (also French) uses the present when the action or state continues in the present time, but there is generally an adverb denoting duration of time qualifying it. Ex.: Nun bin ich ſieben Tage hier (G.). Zwei Tage gehen wir ſchon hier herum (id.). Ich bin allhier erſt kurze Zeit (F. 1868).

This use is by no means new in German or unknown in English, *e.g.*, "I forget why." "The world by what I learn is no stranger to your generosity" (Goldsmith, quoted by Mätzner). It is closely related to the present sub 2 and 3, and generally translated by "have been" + present participle.

5. The **future present**, that is, the present with the force of the future, is much more frequent in German than in English. Ex.: Nein, nein, ich gehe nach der Stadt zurück (F. 820). Wer weiß, wer morgen über uns befiehlt (Sch.).

It is a very old use of the present, from a time when the periphrastic future was not yet developed.

6. The English periphrastic present in "I am writing," "I do write" rarely has corresponding German phrases. For instance, thun is dialectic and archaic. Und thu' nicht mehr in Worten kramen (F. 885). A large number of present participles are looked upon as adjectives and stand in the predicate after ſein, but they do not form a tense (see **273**, 1). There is a difference between the simple present and ſein + pres. part. The former, if it occur at all, denotes an *act* of the subject, the latter denotes a *quality* of the same or of another subject. Ex.: Man nimmt Teil an etwas, one takes part in something. Jemand iſt teilnehmend, one is sympathetic. Die Farbe ſchreit is hardly used, but die Farbe iſt eine ſchreiende, the color is a loud one. Die Ausſicht reizt einen, immer höher zu ſteigen, the prospect entices one to climb higher and higher, but die Ausſicht iſt reizend, the prospect is charming. Compare the Eng. "charming," "promising," etc.

275. The Preterit.

1. It is strictly the "historical" tense, used in narration, when one event is related in some connection with another event, as following it or preceding it. Ex.: Cäſar kam, ſah und ſiegte. Er ward geboren, er lebte, nahm ein Weib und ſtarb (Gellert).

In the story of the creation in Genesis only the pret. is used until

chapter 2, verse 4, when the account is summed up Alſo iſt Himmel und Erde geworden, which has the perfect as it should have. See **276**.

2. It represents a past action as lasting, customary; also as contemporaneous with another action. Geſtern kam der Medicus hier aus der Stadt hinaus zum Amtmann (connect „hinaus" with „zum," not with „aus der Stadt") und fand mich auf der Erde unter Lottens Kindern, wie einige auf mir herumkrabbelten, andere mich neckten (G.). Kühn war das Wort, weil es die That nicht war (Sch.).

Compound Tenses.

276. The Perfect.

It is used to denote a past event as a separate act or independent fact. The act is completed, but the result of it is felt in the present and may continue in the present. Ex.: Ich habe genoſſen das irdiſche Glück (Sch.). Gott hat die Welt erſchaffen = God is the creator of the world, but Im Anfang ſchuf Gott Himmel und Erde (B.). Du haſt's erreicht, Octavio (Sch.).

1. In the best writers this distinction is generally observed, but not in the spoken language, in which the perfect is crowding out the preterit. As an illustration of the exact use of the tenses, particularly of the preterit and perfect, may be recommended the introduction to Schiller's Geſchichte des Abfalls der vereinigten Niederlande.

277. The Pluperfect.

It denotes a past action which was completed before another past action began. Ex.: Tilly hatte kaum ſeinen Rückmarſch angetreten als der König ſein Lager zu Schwedt aufhob und gegen Frankfurt an der Oder rückte (Sch.).

278. The Future.

1. It denotes an action yet to take place. Ex.: Was wird aus dem Kindlein werden? (B.). Der Kaiſer wird morgen abreiſen.

2. It denotes probability and should then not be translated by an English future as a rule. Ex.: Der Hund wird ſechs Jahre alt ſein (= iſt wohl or wahrſcheinlich), the dog may be or is prob-

ably six years old. Wer klopft? Es wird ein Bettler ſein, it is probably a beggar.

3. In familiar language it stands for the imperative implying confident expectation of the result. Du wirſt hier bleiben, You shall stay here. Du wirſt dich hüten, Take good care not to do it.

For the present with the force of the future, see **274**, 5.

279. The Future Perfect.

1. It is the perfect transferred to the future. Vergebens werdet ihr für euren Heldherrn euch geopfert haben (Sch.). More frequently than the future, the future perfect denotes probability: Wo wird er die Nacht zugebracht haben? (Le.), Where can he have spent the night? Es wird was andres wohl bedeutet haben (Sch.), It probably meant something else.

2. As the present can have future force, so the perfect can have future perfect force. Nicht eher denk ich dieſes Blatt zu brauchen, bis eine That gethan iſt, die unwiderſprechlich den Hochverrat bezeugt (Sch.).

3. In M. H. G., the future perfect is unknown and its force is expressed by *ge* prefixed to the present and by the perfect.

Guard against confounding the modal auxiliaries in German with the Eng. future. Approach to a future might be felt in wollen and ſollen, *e. g.*, Was wollen ſie denn herausverhören, wenn einer unſchuldig iſt? (G.). Der Reichstag zu Augsburg ſoll hoffentlich unſere Proje'kte zur Reife bringen (G.). See **283**, 4.

280. The Conditionals.

They are future subjunctives corresponding to the preterit and pluperfect subjunctive as the future corresponds to the present. As in all subjunctives, the idea of tense is not emphasized. Preterit subjunctive and I. conditional, pluperfect subjunctive and II. conditional are nearly identical in force, but preterit and pluperfect deserve the preference, particularly in the passive. In dependent conditional clauses the preterit or pluperfect subjunctive only can stand. In the main sentence

there is no choice between them and the conditionals. Ex.: Ohne deinen Rat würde ich es nicht gethan haben or hätte ich es nicht gethan. Was würdeſt du an meiner Stelle thun? Wäreſt du hier geweſen, mein Bruder wäre nicht geſtorben (B.).

281. The conditionals should be substituted for the subjunctive of the preterit and of the pluperfect: 1. When the force of the future is to be emphasized as in: Nähme der Kranke die Medizin regelmäßig ein, ſo würde das Fieber von dieſer Stunde an allmählich verſchwinden. Sie glaubten, ſie würden ſich leicht als Helden darſtellen (Sch.). 2. When the indicative and subjunctive forms coincide as is the case with certain persons in weak verbs: Auf einen Eid würde ich ihm nicht glauben. „Glaubte" might be pret. ind. Ihr würdet dies Rätſel mir erklären, ſagte ſie (Sch.). „Ihr werdet" could also be indicative future.

The Tense of Indirect Speech.

282. The rule is: The indirect speech retains the tense of the direct. Ex.: Die Bäume ſeien gebannt, ſagt er, und wer ſie ſchädige, dem wachſe ſeine Hand heraus zum Grabe (Sch.). Egmont beteuerte, daß das Ganze nichts als ein Tafelſcherz geweſen ſei. Der Knabe behauptete, er hätte es nicht gethan, wenn er nicht von ſeinen Gefährten dazu verleitet worden wäre. Er ſagte auch, er wolle es nicht wieder thun, wenn man ihm jetzt vergebe. Der Zeuge konnte nicht ſchwören, daß er den Angeklagten je geſehen habe.

1. But this rule is not strictly observed. If the main clause contains, for instance, a past tense, the other clause may take a preterit for the present, a pluperfect for the perfect, or a conditional for the future: Das wären die Planeten, ſagte mir der Führer, ſie regierten das Geſchick (Sch.). Ihr würdet dies Rätſel mir erklären, ſagte ſie (id.). Mir meldet (pres. for perf.) er, er läge krank (id.). If any ambiguity arises, as is not unfrequently the case, this license should not be indulged in. If the main verb is in the present, it is not well to substitute the preterit or pluperfect in the subordinate clause, because this license is due to attraction of tenses, viz., preterit in one — preterit or pluperfect in the other. Compare: Er beteuert, er ſei dagegen, he asserts, that he is opposed. Er beteuert, er wäre dagegen might be construed as meaning er würde dagegen ſein, which means "he would be opposed." Er beteuert, er ſei dagegen geweſen, he had been

opposed; er wäre dagegen geweſen might moreover be understood as having the force of the II. Conditional.

For the mood of the indirect statement, see 285. For further remarks on the use of tenses, see 284, also the General Syntax.

283. Origin of the Compound Tenses.

1. The compound tenses in all the living languages are products of the development of so-called *periphrastic* conjugation, which uses certain independent verbs denoting existence, possession, transition, or the beginning of an action, in connection with an infinitive, participle, or gerundive. The more the inflectional endings of the simple tenses of the earlier periods weathered, the more favorable were the chances for the growth of analytical and circumlocutory tenses. Compare the Latin *amor*, *amatus sum* or *fui*; *excusavi*, *excusatam*, *-um habeo* or *teneo* with French *je suis aimé*, *-ée*, *je fus aimé*, *-ée*; *je l'ai excusé*, *-ée*, *je l'avais excusé*, *-ée*. The Germanic languages have only two simple tenses. Gothic shows still a mutilated passive. But the future perfect and pluperfect active and passive sprang up within historic times from a combination of an independent verb with an infinitive or participle, which were at first felt only as predicate noun or adjective. The participle in O. H. G. could be inflected like any predicate adjective.

2. At different periods of High German there were different verbs which could be thus employed. Besides the modern auxiliaries haben, ſein and werden, in O. H. G. *eigan*, + to own. In Gothic *haban* + inf. was made to express the future, in O. H. G. *suln* (shall) and *werdan* + pres. part.; in M. H. G. besides these, *wellen*, *müezen*. Ich habe den Hut abgenommen or aufgeſetzt means originally I have, possess the hat in some state or position, viz., in my hand (taken off) or on my head (put on). The German order, too, shows this early construction much better than the English "I have taken off my hat." Compare the Latin *Excusatum habeas me rogo*, "Have me excused, pray," „Bitte, habe (halte) mich (für) entſchuldigt." Haben could only be used with transitive verbs, but losing the distinctive meaning of possession, it could combine with verbs having an object in the G. and D. and even with no object, viz., with intransitive verbs. Haben required the past participle in O. H. G. in the A., but ſein required it in the N. Sein could not, from the nature of its meaning, form the perf. or pluperf. active of any transitive verb, but only of intransitives denoting a continuance of a state (bleiben, ſein) or transition into another state, where it, however, collided with werden, used in the future. But notice that the idea of transition and change is in most verbs, here in question, due to the prefix. Sein + past participle could only mean existence in a certain state, at most the beginning or ceasing of an existence.

3. As to verbs of motion, their relation to these verbs is very intimate. When it is not, haben becomes the rival of ſein, as soon as the activity of motion is to be brought out and not the result. That ſein could be used with a past participle of a verb of motion at all, was partly brought about by its use with a present participle and infinitive. Such forms as vermutend, vermögend, nachgebend ſein, vermuten ſein are remnants of the use of *sîn* + pres. part. or inf. in M. H. G. We do not feel the participle or infinitive as such now. They form no tense.

4. Werden + pres. part. was in M. H. G. more common than werden + inf., but the

latter was the established future in the 16th century. From "I pass into the state of praising" to "I shall praise" is not a long step.

5. The conditionals formed with würde sprang up in the 14th century and were settled in the 16th, according to Grimm. In M. H. G. before the 13th century "*solde*," "*wolde*" were used as in the other Germanic languages, but these lacked the umlaut, and therefore were not easily distinguishable as subjunctives.

THE MOODS.

Subjunctive.

284. The indicative is the mood of reality, the subjunctive is the mood of unreality, contingency, possibility.

1. The imperative subjunctive helps to fill out the imperative for the third persons sg. and pl. and the first person pl. It is a strong optative, see sub 2.

Ex.: Alles ſchweige, jeder neige ernſten Tönen nun ſein Ohr (Song). Sehe jeder wie er's treibe, ſehe jeder wo er bleibe (G.). Seien Sie mir willkommen. Laſſen wir das, let us not do this. Gehen wir dieſen Paragraph(en) noch mal durch, let us go over this paragraph once more. Gehen Sie. Treten die Herren gefälligſt ein (rare).

Werde and ſei, ſeid really subjunctives, are used as imperatives in the second person. Werde munter, mein Gemüte (Hymn). Sei mir gegrüßt, mein Berg (Sch.).

2. The optative subjunctive expresses a wish or request. The present subjunctive implies confidence of fulfilment. Only the third person is used.

Ex.: Dich führe durch das wildbewegte Leben ein gnädiges Geſchick (Sch.). Dein Name ſei vergeſſen (Uh.). Gott vermehre die Gabe (G.).

The preterit subjunctive implies less assurance, and, like the pluperfect subjunctive, even no expectation of realization.

Ex.: O wären wir weiter! o wär ich zu Haus (G.). O ſähſt du voller Mondenſchein . . . (F. 386). Wäre er nur noch am Leben! (Implying „er iſt aber tot"). Frommer Stab, o hätt' ich nimmer mit dem Schwerte dich vertauſcht (Sch.). See also F. 392–7.

3. The potential subjunctive expresses an opinion as such, a possibility, a mild assertion of an undoubted fact (*diplomatic* subj.); it stands in questions, direct and indirect; in exclama-

tions. The preterit and I. conditional are the potential subjunctives of the present; the pluperfect and II. conditional, of the past.

Ex.: Ich reime, dächt' ich, doch noch so ziemlich zusammen, was zusammen gehört (Le.). Das ginge noch, "that might do yet" (id.). Wer wüßte das nicht? Everybody knows that. Hätte ich doch nimmermehr gedacht, daß er so groß werden würde (Le.). Wie ließe sich alles schreiben! (G.) (Implying „es ist unmöglich"). Fast hätte ich das Beste vergessen (id.). Beinahe wäre ich gegen einen Baum gerannt. Du hättest das gewußt? (Implying „ich glaube es nicht). Nicht, daß ich wüßte, not as far as I know.

See also the modal auxiliaries, **267**.

4. The **concessive** subjunctive denotes an admission, yielding, and supposition. Generally only in the third person of the present and perfect. It borders closely upon the optative and conditional.

Ex.: Es koste was es wolle (Le.). Es sei, "(it is) granted." Geselle, du seist ein guter oder schlimmer, leg' dich aufs Ohr (Uh.). See mögen, **267**, 3.

5. The **unreal** subjunctive stands in conditional sentences both in the premise and the conclusion, *i. e.* in the dependent clause and in the main clause, when the premise is not true. The preterit and pluperfect stand in the premise; the preterit, pluperfect, and the two conditionals in the conclusion. The preterit has present and future force, the pluperfect has future force only.

Ex.: Es ließe sich alles trefflich schlichten, könnte man die Sachen zweimal verrichten (G.). Ich wäre nichts, wenn ich bliebe was ich bin (id.). Wenn wir Geld bei uns gehabt hätten, so würden wir den Armen was gegeben haben.

The premise omitted or represented by an adverb, etc.: Ich thäte das nicht an Deiner Stelle = wenn ich an Deiner Stelle wäre. Wir wären des Todes. Ohne Alpenstock wäre der Wanderer in die Tiefe hinabgefallen.

The conclusion omitted: Ja wenn wir nicht wären, sagte die Laterne zum Mond. Da ging sie aus (Folk-lore).

285. The subjunctive is the mood of the indirect statement, in which the speaker expresses the ideas of another or

renders the speech of another in his own words. For examples and tense, see **282.**

The subjunctive in dependent clauses is treated under the head of "dependent clauses" in the General Syntax, which see.

Imperative.

286. It expresses a command and occurs only in the 2. p. sg. and pl. For the 1. and 3. p. pl., see **284**, 1. Eile mit Weile, Make haste slowly. Lehre du mich meine Leute kennen (Sch.). Bindet ihn (id.). Wartet ihr, indem wir voran laufen.

1. The pronoun is quite optional; only when there is a contrast, as in the last sentence (ihr — wir), it should stand. In the subjunctive it always stands.

The imperative is only used in the present and has future force, but by a license also a perfect imperative occurs: Beſen! Beſen! Seid's geweſen! says the apprentice when he wants the brooms to cease being watercarriers (G.).

287. Other verbal forms that take imperative force and a very strong one, are:

1. The infinitive: Maul (Mund) halten! Hold your tongue. Nicht anfaſſen! Do not touch.

2. The past participle: Die Trommel gerührt (G.). Friſch auf Kameraden, auf's Pferd, auf's Pferd! in das Feld, in die Freiheit gezogen (Sch.).

3. The present and future indicative: Georg, du bleibſt um mich (G). Du wirſt den Apfel ſchießen von dem Kopf des Knaben (Sch.). See **278**, 3.

4. The modal auxiliaries denoting a necessity, duty, can express imperative force, also laſſen. Du ſollſt nicht ſtehlen (B.). Kein Menſch muß müſſen (Le.).

Since the Eng. "let" shows no inflection, notice the German forms: Laß uns gehen, to a person addressed as du; plural Laſſt uns gehen. Laſſen Sie uns gehen, to a person addressed as Sie.

Infinitive.

288. It is a verbal noun and the present infinitive has neither voice, tense, nor inflection. The compound infinitive arose like the compound tenses (see **283**): gelobt werden, to be praised; gelobt worden ſein, to have been praised; gelobt haben, to have praised.

1. Notice the marked difference in meaning between the present of some of the modal auxiliaries + perfect infinitive, and the perfect or pluperfect + present infinitive. Ex.: Der Kutſcher will den Gefangenen geſehen haben = claims to have seen him, but hat ihn ſehen wollen = wanted to see him. Der Hauſirer muß vorbeigegangen ſein = must have passed by, but hat vorbeigehen müſſen, was forced to pass by, etc.

289. We distinguish between the infinitive *without* zu and *with* zu.

The former is the older construction. Being a noun, the infinitive always stood in the D. after zu in O. and M. H. G. But in early N. H. G., when it was no longer inflected, the prepositional infinitive gained ground and gave also rise to the gerundive (see **298**). Usage is in many cases still unsettled as to the use of zu. Its frequent use is the source of much bad style (see Sanders' „Hauptſchwierigkeiten" . . . sub Inf.). The cases where the infinitive has taken the place of the present participle are mentioned below under each head. In the gerundive alone the participial form has taken the place of the infinitive. See **298**.

The Infinitive without zu.

290. 1. It is dependent upon the modal auxiliaries. Der Bote will es aus aller Leute Mund erfahren haben. Man ſoll den Tag nicht vor dem Abend loben (Prov.). Also upon thun in quaint and dialect style, *e. g.*, Da thäten ſie ſich trennen (Uh.). See the speeches of Marthe and Margarete in F., I. Upon haben in the phrase gut haben. Du haſt gut reden, it is easy enough for you to talk. Er thut nichts als . . . , he does nothing but . . .

2. In certain phrases dependent upon some verbs of motion; also upon helfen, heißen (command), laſſen, lehren, lernen, machen, nennen. The verbs of motion are: ſpazieren reiten, fahren, gehen; ſchlafen gehen, ſich ſchlafen legen, etc. Heißt mich nicht reden,

heißt mich ſchweigen; denn mein Geheimnis iſt mir Pflicht (G.). Lehre mich thun nach deinem Wohlgefallen (B.).

3. Dependent upon certain verbs of rest: bleiben (most frequently), liegen, ſtehen (rarely); and upon verbs of perceiving: finden, fühlen (rarely), hören, ſehen; also haben. Stecken bleiben, to stick fast (intr.). Schlafen liegen. Wir fanden den Leichnam im Walde liegen. Wir ſahen den Führer über dem Abgrunde ſchweben. Der Tyroler hat gewöhnlich Federn am Hute ſtecken, der Engländer Bänder herunterhängen. Ich hab' es öfters rühmen hören, ein Komödia'nt könnt' einen Pfarrer lehren (F. 526–7).

a. Sein is still so used in dialect. Er iſt fiſchen, jagen, he has gone afishing, ahunting; er iſt fiſchen geweſen, he has been afishing. With all the verbs sub 3 and several sub 2 the present participle was once the rule in older German. Compare the participle in the predicate, **294**, 2.

b. After fühlen, hören, laſſen, ſehen the infinitive has either passive or active force, and often an ambiguity arises which should be avoided by a different construction. Wir haben es ſagen hören, We have heard it said. Die Dogge läßt ſich nicht necken, The bulldog will not be teased. Wir hören den Knaben rufen, calling and called (generally the first). Der Lohnkutſcher ließ uns nicht fahren, the hackman did not let us go, did not allow us to drive, did not have us driven. Der Meiſter ließ die Tochter nicht malen, did not allow her to paint and did not have her portrait painted.

4. As subject or predicate with ſein and heißen, to be, to amount to: Noch ei'nmal ein Wunder hoffen hieße Gott verſuchen (Sch.). Ein Vergnügen erwarten iſt auch ein Vergnügen (Le.).

The Infinitive with zu.

291. 1. It expresses the purpose of an action and in general the indirect object; also necessity and possibility after neuter verbs, *e. g.*, ſein, bleiben, ſtehen, when it has passive force. Die Sache iſt nicht zu ändern. Es bleibt noch viel zu thun. Das ſteht noch zu überlegen. Da treibt's ihn, den köſtlichen Preis zu erwerben (Sch.).

This is the old and proper use of the infinitive, originally a noun in the D. governed by zu. In N. H. G. um was added to express purpose, but it was really superfluous, though common in the spoken language. Um die Strömung abzuleiten gruben ſie ein friſches Bette (Platen). Wir leben nicht

um zu eſſen, ſondern wir eſſen um zu leben. The force of zu was much weakened when um could thus be added. Besides um, anſtatt and ohne can precede zu: anſtatt weg zu laufen, kam der Bär näher heran. Ohne ſich umzuſehen, lief der Dieb davon. But „um" should never be used except to express purpose. It is used too frequently. See sub 4.

2. It stands as direct object of verbs, often preceded by, or in apposition to, a pronoun or pronominal adverb + preposition. Ex.: Fang an zu hacken und zu graben (F. 2355). Niemand ſäume zu geben. Ich denke nicht daran, dir das zu gewähren.

In older periods of the language there was no zu in this case.

3. It stands as subject, in the spoken language, more frequently than without zu; there is no choice. Gefährlich iſt's den Leu zu wecken (Sch.). Eine ſchöne Menſchenſeele finden iſt Gewinn (He.).

4. As adjunct of nouns and adjectives, the latter often being qualified by zu and genug. „Die Kunſt ſich beliebt zu machen." Zu ſtolz, Dank einzuernten, wo ich ihn nicht ſäete (Le.). Du wäreſt blind genug, das nicht einzuſehn? . . . Bereit, dir zur Geſellſchaft hier zu bleiben (F. 1431).

After adjectives „um zu" is now far more common than zu alone. Ich bin zu alt, um nur zu ſpielen, zu jung, um ohne Wunſch zu ſein (F. 1546–7). Quite rare is als zu + infinitive.

5. For the independent use of infinitive, see imperative, 287, 1. With or without zu in elliptical expressions: Was thun, ſpricht Zeus (Sch.). Was, am Rand des Grabs zu lügen! (F. 2961).

Accusative with the Infinitive.

292. In this construction the logical subject of the infinitive stands in the accusative. The infinitive stands with or without zu. Ex.: Hier ruhet Martin Faulermann, wenn man den ruhen ſagen kann, der ſeinen Lebtag nichts gethan (Weckherlin, quoted by Blatz). Lügen, die man Lügen zu ſein weiß (Le.).

1. Accusative with infinitive was not rare in O. H. G. in the translations from Latin and Greek. It is largely due to foreign influence. In M. H. G. it is very rare. In

modern German it is discouraged by the best authorities, though Lessing uses it quite frequently.

2. The corresponding English constructions must therefore be rendered freely into German. I believe him to be my friend, Ich glaube daß er mein Freund iſt or Ich halte ihn für meinen Freund. German loses thus a compact construction.

The Infinitive as a Noun.

293. Some infinitives are felt as nouns only, *e. g.*, das Leben, das Anſehen, das Leiden. The infinitive used as noun generally has the article. Das Rauchen iſt hier verboten. Beim Überſe'tzen muß man bis an's Unüberſe'tzliche herangehn (G.). Der Erben Weinen iſt ein heimlich Lachen (Prov.).

Participles.

294. The participles are really adjectives derived from verbal stems. The present participle retains more of the verbal construction and force than the past, in which the idea of tense only appears in intransitive verbs.

The **present participle** has active force in all verbs and the noun is the subject of the action. Der lächelnde See, die aufgehende Sonne, das ſchlagende Wetter, "fire-damp." Both participles can be used as nouns, adjectives, and adverbs very much as in English. They stand in apposition in the predicate and as attributes.

1. Participles in which the noun is not the subject of the action, and those in which lies passive rather than active force, are still current, but not so frequent as in early N. H. G. They are not generally countenanced, *e. g.*, bei ſchlafender Nacht, "at night time," "when everybody sleeps"; eine ſitzende Lebensart, a sedentary habit of life; eſſende Waaren, eatables (better Eßwaaren); eine vorhabende Reiſe, an intended journey. Some of these can be defended: fahrende Habe, movables, chattels (intrans. verb); erſtaunende Nachricht, astonishing news (trans. verb); eine melkende Kuh (intrans. like „milchen"); die reitende Poſt, postman on horseback. Poetic are der ſchwindelnde Fels, the giddy rock. Von des Hauſes weitſchauendem Giebel (Sch.).

2. In the predicate appear now only such present participles as have become regular adjectives: bedeutend, important; reizend, charming; hinreißend, ravishing; leidend, in pain, ill health; dringend, urgent. See 274. 6.

3. In apposition: Kochend, wie aus Ofens Rachen, glühn die Lüfte (Sch.). Ich empfange kniecnd dies Geschenk (id.).

4. The participial clause with the present participle is only in very restricted use in German compared with English. It cannot express an action preceding or following another action, a cause, purpose, etc. It has usually the value of an adjective clause and can often be explained as in apposition. Der Arme, sich an mich wendend, sprach: Haben Sie Mitleid, mein Herr.

295. The past participle of a transitive verb has passive force; that of a verb which forms its compound tenses with sein has active force: der laubumkränzte Becher (Sch.); das hergeführte Volk (id.); die abgesegelten Schiffe; der durchgefallene (unsuccessful) Candida't.

1. But not all verbs that have sein in compound tenses can be thus used; the participle must denote the state produced by the action of the verb. Die gesegelten Schiffe, der gelaufene Knecht would not do. Der entlaufene Sklave means "the runaway servant." This force is clear from the origin of the compound tense with sein (see **273, 283**).

2. Seemingly a large number of past participles have active force, but they are either quite wrong or they can be explained as having had originally passive force. Thus: „Ungebetet ißt man nicht" (Gerok); „ungegessen zu Bette gehn" are as wrong as their English equivalents: One does not eat unprayed, go to bed uneaten. „Bedient" means "in service," "invested with an office," hence a servant, ein Bedienter. „Verdient," one who has merits, weil er sich um etwas or jemand verdient gemacht hat; eingebildet means conceited, taken up with one's self; ein verlogener Mensch, a man given to *lying*; versoffener Mensch, given to drinking, and many other compounds with ver-: verweinte Augen, eyes red with weeping.

a. That some are now felt as having active force cannot be denied, else the wrong use mentioned could not have sprung up: gott-, pflichtvergessen, forgetful of one's duty, of God; verschlafen, "one who slept too long"; vermessen, "presumptuous"; verlegen, embarrassed; besides the above.

296. The peculiar past participles of verbs of motion, which seemingly have active force, stand in a sort of apposition or as predicates with kommen, rarely with gehen. Ex.: Kam ein Vogel geflogen (Song). Da kommt des Wegs geritten ein schmucker Edelknecht (Uh.).

1. This use is by no means modern. Kommen and gehn are felt as auxiliaries. Compare verloren gehen.

2. Special notice deserves the past participle with heißen, ſein, and nennen, which has the force of an infinitive, but belongs under this head. Das heißt ſchlecht geworfen, That is a bad throw. Unter ehrlichen Leuten nennt man das „gelogen." Friſch gewagt iſt halb gewonnen (Prov.).

297. The participle appears in an absolute construction. The logical subject is left indefinite (Lessing is very fond of this). The logical subject stands in the accusative and with a few, like ausgenommen, eingeſchloſſen, abgerechnet, even in the nominative. Alle waren zugegen, der Pfarrer ausgenommen. Und dieſes nun auf Laokoon angewendet, ſo iſt die Sache klar (Le.).

1. Closely related to this construction is the absolute accusative + a past participle (see **209**) and in some cases there may be doubt as to which is meant. Und ſie ſingt hinaus in die finſtere Nacht, das Auge von Weinen getrübet (Sch.).

The past participle is in elliptical construction in the imperative, see **287**, 2.

The Gerundive.

298. It stands only attributively. In the predicate the old infinitive stands, which it has supplanted. Der noch zu verkaufende Schrank, the wardrobe which is still to be sold; but der Schrank iſt noch zu verkaufen, the wardrobe is still to be sold. See **289**, **452**.

Though the form is rather that of the gerund than of the gerundive, in construction it closely resembles the Latin gerundive. Hence the name in German.

SYNTAX OF THE ADVERB.

299. The adverb qualifies a verb, an adjective or another adverb. Ex.: Du haſt mich mächtig angezogen (F. 483). Die unbegreiflich hohen Werke ſind herrlich wie am erſten Tag (F. 249–50). Das iſt ſehr ſchön geſchrieben.

1. The adverbs of time and place often accompany a noun with the force of an attribute: Vor Jenem droben ſteht gebückt, der helfen lehrt und Hilfe ſchickt (F. 1009–10). Georg V. (der Fünfte), einſt König von Hannover, ſtarb im Auslande.

2. The adverb stands as a predicate: Die Schönen Zeiten von Aranjuez ſind nun vorüber (Sch.). Die Thür iſt zu (one can supply „gemacht"). Der or dem Miniſter iſt nicht wohl.

a. Do not confound gut and wohl. Except in a few cases, as in wohl thun, to do good, wohl does not qualify a transitive verb. We do not say in German wohl ſchreiben, wohl antworten, wohl anfangen in the sense of English "well." Er hat es wohl geſchrieben means "he wrote it, indeed, (I assure you)"; or it is concessive and can mean: "to be sure he wrote it, but then —." In the last sense wohl has no stress.

3. With adjectives or participles used as nouns that are felt rather as substantives than as adjectives or as derived from a verb, the adverb changes to an adjective: ein nah Verwandter > ein naher Verwandter; ein intim Bekannter > ein intimer Bekannter. But compare Goethe's famous line: Das Ewig-Weibliche zieht uns hinan.

300. An adverb may strengthen the force of a preposition by standing before or after the preposition + case. This is always the case when the adverb is the prefix of a separable compound verb: rings um die Stadt (herum), mitten durch den Wald, in das Dorf hinein, aus dem Garten heraus. Es ritten drei Reiter zum Thore hinaus (Uh.).

1. Mark the adverbs which are only adverbs and not adjectives: wohl, faſt, ſchon, ſehr, neulich, freilich, fruh (rare), ſpat (rare), bald, and others.

2. The uninflected comparative and superlative of adjectives serve also as adverbs. Notice the difference between auf + A. and an + D. Sie ſangen auf das beſte (Uh.), they sang as best they knew how. This is *absolute* superlative. Sie ſangen am beſten, they sang best of all, any. This is *relative* superlative.

SYNTAX OF THE PREPOSITION.

301. The prepositions express the relations of a noun to a verb or to another noun.

1. Prepositions are originally adverbs, and the distinction between prepositions, adverbs and conjunctions is only syntactical. Denn is, for instance, a conjunction = for, and an adverb = then, than; während is a conjunction = while, and a preposition = during. Prepositions could not originally "govern" cases. A certain case was called for independently of the preposition, then still an adverb. In Greek there are prepositions governing three cases, which shows how loose the connection between case and preposition was. In fact nearly all adverbs, old and new, can be traced back

to cases of nouns or pronouns. They are isolated or "petrified" cases, and as such could only stand in the loosest connection with the living cases, which they gradually began to "govern."

2. Prepositions can govern different cases in different periods of the language. The preposition has been partly the cause of the loss of case-endings. Its function becomes the more important the more uninflectional (analytical) a language becomes. It is one of the most difficult and subtle elements to master in the study of a living language. For another reason the preposition is very important, viz., the preposition + case has supplanted and is continuing to supplant the case alone, directly dependent upon a verb or noun. The two together are much more expressive and explicit than a case alone. In Die Liebe des Vaters, the genitive may be subjective or objective, but there is no ambiguity about die Liebe zum Vater, des Vaters Liebe zum Sohne.

Classification and Treatment of the Prepositions According to the Cases they Govern.

302. Prepositions governing the Genitive:

Unweit, mittels, kraft und während; laut, vermöge, ungeachtet; oberhalb und unterhalb; innerhalb und außerhalb; diesseits, jenseits, halben, wegen; statt, auch längs, zufolge, trotz.

These are all cases of substantives or adjectives (participles) and their number might be easily increased, *e. g.*, by bezüglich, with reference to; angesichts, in the face of; seitens, on the part of; inmitten, in the midst of, etc.

(The order is the one in which they are given in German grammars. The semicolon shows the ends of the lines of the doggerel.)

We comment in alphabetical order briefly upon those that seem to require comment. Often a mere translation will suffice.

1. Anstatt, an — statt, statt, + instead of. Draus (from which, from whose breast) statt der goldenen Lieder ein Blutstrahl hoch auf springt (Uh.). An Tochter statt, in daughter's stead. Statt sometimes with the dative. It also governs an infinitive like ohne, translated by "without + participle." See Infinitive, **291**, 1.

2. Außerhalb + outside of; innerhalb + inside of; oberhalb, above; unterhalb, on the lower side of, below. They are all more expressive than the simple forms. They rarely govern the dative.

3. Diesseit(s), jenseit(s), this side of, on the other side, beyond. Rarely with the dative.

4. Halben, halber, halb, on account of, + in behalf of. Follows

its case. Frequent in composition: deshalb, therefore; meinethalben, on my behalf; Alters halber, on account of age. Comp. wegen and willen.

5. Kraft, according to, by virtue of. Kraft des Gesetzes; kraft des Amtes. Formerly only in Kraft, *e.g.*, daß stets der liebste (Sohn) . . . in Kraft allein des Rings, das Haupt, der Fürst des Hauses werde (Le.). Comp. laut.

6. Laut, from, „nach Laut," lauts (Luther), means "according to,' "by." Laut Befehls, by command; laut des Testamentes, according to the last will and testament.

Plural nouns without articles in which the genitive could not be distinguished stand in the dative: laut Briefen, according to letters. Laut means literally according to a verbal or written statement; kraft gives a moral reason.

7. Mittels, mittelst (most common), vermittelst, by means of, with. Mittelst eines Hammers, eines Bohrers. It is more expressive than mit or durch. Rarely with the dative.

8. Ob, rare and archaic. With genitive if causal (on account of); with dative if local (above), and temporal (during). Da weinten zusammen die Grenadier' wohl ob der kläglichen Kunde (Heine). Ob dem Wald; nid dem Wald (Sch., *Tell*); ob dem Altare (id.).

9. Trotz, with genitive and dative, in defiance of, in spite of; in the sense of "in rivalry with," "as well as," always with the dative. Trotz des heftigen Regens fuhren wir ab. Die Sängerin singt trotz einer Nachtigall, as well as a nightingale. Comp. the forms zu or zum Trotze preceded by a dative: Mir zum Trotze fuhr er fort zu lesen, in defiance of me or to defy me he continued reading.

10. Unangesehen, setting aside, unbeschadet, without detriment to, ungeachtet, notwithstanding (very frequent). The last two also with a preceding dative; demungeachtet is felt as an adverb. These are very modern prepositions. Unweit, unfern, not far from, occur also with dative.

11. Vermöge, in virtue of, through, in consequence of, by dint of. Denotes a reason springing from a quality of the subject: vermöge seiner Redlichkeit, through his honesty. We could not say kraft seiner R.; vermöge (and not kraft) großer Anstrengungen, by dint of great efforts. (Perhaps from „nach Vermögen.")

12. Während, during. Sometimes with the dative: währenddem, meanwhile.

13. Wegen, on account of, both preceding and following the noun;

also with the dative. Wegen denotes also a motive and an impediment. Seiner Größe wegen konnte das Schiff nicht durch den Kanal. Der Müller war wegen seiner Stärke berühmt. Wegen from von — wegen, still common in „von Rechts wegen," strictly, in justice.

14. Willen, generally um — willen, denotes the purpose, the advantage or interest of a person. Um meiner Ruhe willen erklären Sie sich deutlicher (Sch.). Um des Sohnes willen, um meinetwillen, for the sake of or in the interest of the son, for my sake. Wegen, halben, and willen all appear with pronouns, and are used promiscuously.

15. Zufolge, as frequently with the dative, denotes the result, "in consequence of." Zufolge des Auftrages, in consequence of the commission; den Verabredungen zufolge, in accordance with the verbal agreements.

Prepositions governing the Dative.

303. Schreib: mit, nach, nächst, nebst, samt; seit, von, zu, zuwider; entgegen, außer, aus — stets mit dem Dativ nieder.

1. Ab, still used in the Alemanic dialect (Baden, Switzerland) as a preposition. In business style it denotes the place from which merchandise is delivered or the time after which anything is to be had: ab Hamburg, ab Neujahr, ab = "all aboard."

2. Aus denotes the starting point of a motion, the opposite of in + accusative, = "out of," "from": Aus den Augen, aus dem Sinn, "out of sight, out of mind": aus dem Fenster sehen, to look out of the window. Origin and descent: aus alten Zeiten, from olden times; aus Hannover, from Hanover. Material: aus Lehm, of clay; aus Mehl, of meal. Motive: aus Mitleid, Haß, from pity, hatred. Origin also in aus Erfahrung, from experience; aus Versehen, by mistake. Notice the idiom: aus Köln gebürtig, a native of Cologne, born in C.

3. Außer, outside of, beside, the opposite of in + dative. Denotes also exception and "in addition to." More frequent in the figurative than in the local sense, because außerhalb is more precise. Außer dem Hause, not at home; außer Hause speisen, to dine out; außer sich sein, to be beside one's self. Nur der Vetter war außer mir da. Mark once the genitive außer Landes gehen, to go to foreign parts; also the accusative in außer allen Zweifel setzen, to put beyond all doubt. (Setzen being a verb of motion.)

4. Bei. Original meaning is nearness, hence by, near, with: bei der Scheune, near (by) the barn; bei der Tante, near the aunt or at the house of

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the aunt; beim Zeus, by Jove; die Schlacht bei Wörth, the battle of W.; bei Tisch sein, to be at dinner; bei Tag und bei Nacht, by day and by night; bei (einem) Namen nennen, to call by name (but Friedrich mit Namen, Frederic by name); bei (rare) neunzig Gefangenen, about ninety prisoners; bei Strafe von zehn Mark, ten marks fine. Ich habe kein Geld bei mir, I have no money about me. The accusative stands in bei Seite legen, bringen, stellen, to lay, put aside. In M. H. G. after verbs of motion regularly the accusative, but in the spoken language now discarded, though still found in the classics.

5. Binnen, sometimes with genitive, expresses now time only, "within": binnen drei Jahren, within three years. < *be — innen.*

6. Entge'gen denotes approach, both friendly and hostile, towards and against; stands generally after its case. Wir gingen dem Freunde entgegen; fuhren dem Winde entgegen. With verbs of motion it frequently forms separable compounds and is really more adverb than preposition.

7. Gegenü'ber, opposite, facing; generally after its case; rarely gegen — über. Dem Schlosse gegenüber.

8. Gemäß, preceding and following its case, according to, in accordance with; really an adjective. Dem Versprechen gemäß, according to the promise; gemäß dem Gesetze, according to the law. It is more definite than nach.

9. Mit means "in company with," "with"; denotes presence, accompanying circumstances and instrument. Arm in Arm mit dir, so ford're ich mein Jahrhundert in die Schranken (Sch.). Mit Freuden, gladly; eile mit Weile, hasten slowly; mit Fug und Recht, justly (emphatic); mit der Zeit pflückt man Rosen, in due time . . .; mit Fleiß, intentionally; mit dem Pfeil, dem Bogen (Sch.). (See mittels, **302**, 7.)

10. Nach denotes originally a "nearness to," being an adjective (nahe); then "a coming near to," and generally corresponds to Eng. "after" in point of time, order. With verbs of motion (literal and figurative) "to" and "after." Nach etwas streben, sich sehnen, to strive after, long for; nach Mitternacht; nach dir komme ich, it is my turn after your; nach Berlin reisen. "In accordance with," not so expressive as „gemäß," in this sense often after its case. Nach den Gesetzen verdient er den Tod; dem Wortlaute nach, literally. Aim: nach etwas schlagen, schießen, to strike at, shoot at. Nach etwas schmecken, riechen, etc., something has the smell, taste of; nach etwas urteilen, to judge by; nach etwas or jemand schicken, to send for. (See zu and gemäß.)

11. Nächſt is the superlative of nahe (nach), and denotes very close nearness to in place, order, = + "next to." Zunächſt has no different force. Und nächſt dem Leben was erflehſt du dir? (G.).

12. Nebſt denotes very loose connection and connects also things and persons not necessarily belonging together; ſamt, on the other hand, only what naturally belongs together. Auf einer Stange trägt ſie einen Hut nebſt einer Fahne (Sch.) (a hat *and* a banner). < nebenſt < L. G. *nevens*.

13. Samt, mit ſamt, zu ſamt, "together with." Mich ſamt meinem ganzen Heere bring' ich dem Herzog (Sch.). See nebſt. It implies a close union, which does not lie even in mit.

14. Seit, older ſint, = + since, denotes the beginning of an action and its duration to the present moment. Seit dieſem Tage ſchweigt mir jeder Mund (Sch.). Er iſt herein ſeit mehreren Stunden (id.), it is several hours since he came in (into the city). Seit einigen Jahren zahlt er keine Zinſen, For several years he has paid no interest.

15. Von, "from," denotes the starting point of a motion or action in time and place. Its case is often followed by another preposition or by her. Von der Hand in den Mund; von Worten kam's zu Schlägen, from words they came to blows. Von Oſtern bis Pfingſten iſt fünfzig Tage. Origin: Walther von der Vogelweide. Fürſt von Bismarck. Herr von Schulemburg. Hence von in the names of persons denotes nobility: Herr von So und So. Von Jugend auf; von Grund aus, thoroughly; von Oſten her. Separation: frei, rein von etwas. Supplants the genitive: ein Mann von Ehre, von großen Kenntniſſen; der Pöbel von Paris. Denotes the personal agent: Wallenſtein wurde von Piccolomini hintergangen und von vielen Generalen im Stiche (in the lurch) gelaſſen. Notice: Schurke von einem Wirt (Le.). Cause: naß vom (with) Tau, vom Regen.

16. Zu denotes first of all the direction toward a person (but nach toward a thing) + "to": zu jemand gehen, kommen, ſprechen, etc. Sie ſang zu ihm, ſie ſprach zu ihm (G.). Zu ſich kommen, "come to"; etwas zu ſich ſtecken, to put something in your pocket. (This is its only use in O. H. G. In M. H. G. its use spread.) In dialect and in poetry it stands before names of cities and towns (= at). Zu Straßburg auf der Schanz (Folk-song). Ihr ſeid mein Gaſt zu Schwyz (Sch.).

In certain very numerous set phrases and proverbs zu stands before names of things. Direction: von Ort zu Ort, from place to place; zu Bett(e), zur Kirche, zur Schule, zu Grunde, zu Rate gehen = "take council";

many loose compounds with fahren; zu Fall, zu Statten, zu Schaden, zu Ende, zu Ehren kommen; zu Schanden, zu Nichte werden.

Place where?: „zu beiden Seiten des Rheins" (Song); zu Hause, zur Hand sein; zu Füßen liegen. Manner of motion: zu Land, zu Wasser, zu Pferd (zu Roß), zu Wagen, zu Fuß = Eng. "by" and "on." Transition or change: zum König machen, wählen, ernennen; zum Narren, zum besten haben, to make a fool of. Degree or size, numbers: zum Teil, in part; zu Hunderten, by the hundred; zu dreien waren wir im Zimmer, there were three of us in the room; zum Tode betrübt (G.), sad unto death. Combination of things: Nehmen Sie nie Pfeffer, Salz oder Senf zu (with) dem Ei? Oft hatt' er kaum Wasser zu Schwarzbrot und Wurst (Bü.). Notice the use of zu before nouns followed by hinein, heraus, etc.: zum Thore hinaus; zum Fenster heraus. Time (rare): Und kommt er nicht zu Ostern, so kommt er zu Trinita't (Folk-song). After the noun = "in the direction of," "toward": dem Dorfe zu, toward the village; nach dem Dorfe, to the village.

Prepositions governing the Accusative:

304. Bis, durch, für, gegen, ohne, sonder, um, wider.

1. Bis, till, until, denotes the limit in time and space. When denoting space it is followed by other prepositions, except before names of places. The nouns of time rarely have an article or pronoun. Bis Fastnacht; bis ans Ende aller Dinge; bis hierher und nicht weiter; bis an den hellen Tag; neunzig bis hundert Mark; bis Braunschweig. (Bis < *bi* + *az*, + Eng. by + at.)

2. Durch, + "through," denotes a passing through: durch den Wald, durchs Nadelöhr. Extent of time (the case often followed by hindurch): durch Jahrzehnte hindurch; die ganze Zeit (hin)durch. Cause and occasion, very much like aus: durch Nachlässigkeit, durch eigene Schuld. Means: durch einen Pfeil verwunden, durch einen Dienstmann besorgen, attend to through a porter. (Durch more definite than mit. See this and mittels. It denotes now no longer the personal agent.)

3. Für, + for, denotes advantage, interest, destination: Wer nicht für mich ist, ist wider mich (B.). Er sammelt für die Armen. Die Scheere ist kein Spielzeug für Kinder. Die Wahrheit ist vorhanden für den Weisen, die Schönheit für ein fühlend Herz (Sch.). Substitution and price: Da tritt kein anderer für ihn ein (Sch.). Mein Leben ist für Gold nicht feil (Bü.). Limitation: Ich für meine Person. Genug für dieses Mal. Ihr zeigtet einen kecken Mut . . . für eure Jahre (Sch.). Stück für Stück, point by point. In its old sense (local) only in certain phrases: Schritt für (by) Schritt, Tag für (by) Tag, Satz für (after) Satz. (See vor.)

4. Gegen denotes "direction toward," but with no idea of approach that lies in zu and nach. It implies either friendly or hostile feeling if persons are concerned = "towards," "against." Gegen die Wand lehnen; gegen den Strom schwimmen. Wenn ich mich gegen sie verpflichten soll, so müssen sie's auch gegen mich (Sch.). Gibt es ein Mittel gegen die Schwindsucht? Gegen Dummheit kämpfen Götter selbst vergebens. Exchange, comparison: Ich wette hundert gegen eins. Roland war ein Zwerg gegen den Riesen. Indefinite time and number: "towards." Der Kranke schlief erst gegen Morgen ein. Der Feldherr hatte gegen dreihundert tausend Soldaten. Gegen drei Uhr. Gegen once governed the dative almost exclusively and traces of it are still found in Goethe.

Gen is still preserved in „gen Himmel." Gen < *gên* < *gein* < *gegen*, + again. See entgegen, which implies a mutual advance.

5. Ohne, "without," the opposite of „mit," „bei." Mit oder ohne Klausel, gilt mir gleich (Sch.), "With or without reserve, it is all the same to me." Ein Ritter ohne Furcht und Tadel. In „ohnedem" is a remnant of the D. in M. H. G.; zweifelsohne of the G. occurring after the M. H. G. adverb *âne*, from. Etwas ist nicht ohne, there is something in it (Coll.). Ohne in Composition, see **489**, 3; + infinitive, see **291**, 1.

6. Sonder, "without," is now archaic except in set phrases like „sonder Gleichen," „sonder Zweifel," "without compare," "no doubt," + Eng. asunder. Once governed the accusative and genitive.

7. Um, "around," "about." Und die Sonne, sie machte den weiten Ritt um die Welt (Arndt). Und um ihn die Großen der Krone (Sch.). Her or herum often follows the case: In einem Halbkreis standen um ihn her sechs oder sieben große Königsbilder (Sch.). It denotes inexact time or number: Um Mitternacht begrabt den Leib (Bü.). Um drei hundert Hörer, an audience of about three hundred. (Gegen is rather "nearly," um means more or less.) But „um dreiviertel fünf" means "at a quarter to five." "At about" would be „ungefähr um" or „um ungefähr," *e.g.*, ungefähr um 6 Uhr. It denotes further exchange, price, difference in size and measure: Aug' um Auge, Zahn um Zahn (B.). Alles ist euch feil um Geld (Sch.). Um zwei Zoll zu klein. Er hat sich um zwei Pfennige verrechnet. Loss and deprivation: um's Leben bringen, to kill; um's Geld kommen, to lose one's money. Da war's um ihn geschehn (G.), He was done for. Wer brachte mich drum? (um deine Liebe) (F. 4496), Who robbed me of it? It denotes the object striven for: um etwas werben, spielen, fragen, bitten, streiten, beneiden, etc. The object of care, mourning, weeping: Wein' um den Bruder, doch nicht um den Geliebten weine (Sch.). Schade wär's um eure Haare (id.). Nicht um diese thut's mir leid (id.).

8. Wider, "against," always in the hostile sense. Denotes resistance and contrast: Was hilft uns Wehr und Waffe wider den? (Sch.). Es geht ihm wider die Natur, It goes against his grain; + Eng. "with" in withstand.

Prepositions governing the Dative and Accusative.

305. An, auf, hinter, in, neben, über, unter, vor, zwiſchen.

1. In answer to the question whither? they require the accusative. In answer to the question where? the dative. Pflanze die Bäume vor das Haus. Die Bäume ſtehen vor dem Hauſe.

2. In answer to the question how long and until when? they require the accusative. In answer to the question when? the dative: Im Jahre 1872 wurde Straßburg wieder als deutſche Univerſität eröffnet. Wir reiſen auf vierzehn Tage ins Bad.

3. When an, auf, in, über, unter, vor denote manner and cause, then auf and über always require the accusative, but an, in, unter, vor generally the dative, in answer to the questions how and why? Wir freuen uns über (= over) and auf (= looking forward to) ſeine Ankunft. Auf dieſe Weiſe, but in dieſer Weiſe. Der Bettler weinte vor Freuden über die herrliche Gabe.

The above general rules, as given in Krause's grammar, will be found of much practical value.

306. 1. An + **Dative.**

After nouns and adjectives of plenty and want: Mangel an Geld, reich an Gütern. After adjectives when the place is mentioned where the quality appears: an beiden Füßen lahm, an einem Auge blind. After verbs of rest, increase or decrease, and after those denoting an immediate contact or a perception: An der Quelle ſaß der Knabe (Sch.). Es fehlt an Büchern. Der Auswanderer litt am Wechſelfieber. Der Zigeuner führt den Bären an einer Kette. Den Vogel erkennt man an den Federn (Prov.). It denotes an office and time of day: am Theater, an der Univerſität, am Amte angeſtellt ſein, to hold an office at . . .; am Morgen, Abend; es iſt an der Zeit . . ., it is time . . . .

2. An + Accusative.

After denken, erinnern, mahnen and similar ones, and verbs of motion. Denket an den Ruhm, nicht an die Gefahr. Setzen Sie sich doch ans Fenster (near the window). Inexact number: an die drei mal hundert tausend Mann (as many as). From its English cognate "on" an differs very much in meaning. "On" generally is auf. See also **300**, 2.

3. Auf + "upon." For auf + Dative, see **305**, 1, 2, 3. It denotes rest or motion upon the surface.

Auf + Accusative.

Stands after verbs of waiting, hoping, trusting, etc., *e.g.*, auf etwas warten, hoffen, sich besinnen (recall), gefaßt sein, sich freuen (see **305**, 3), verzichten, (es) auf etwas wagen, hören. Here it stands generally for the old gen. without preposition. Ich kann mich auf die genauen Umstände nicht besinnen, I cannot recall . . . Der Hund wartet auf sein Fressen. Merke auf die Worte des Lehrers. Trotzt nicht auf euer Recht (Sch.). After adjectives denoting pride, envy, anger, malice, *e.g.*, eifersüchtig, neidisch, stolz, böse, erbost: eifersüchtig auf seine Ehre (Sch.); stolz auf seine Unschuld; erbost auf den Gefangenen (über would mean cause). Exact time, limit, and measure; often with „bis." Here belongs the superlative, see **300**, 2. Bis auf's Blut. Bis auf Speis' und Trank (Le.). Es ist ein Viertel auf drei, a quarter past two. Auf die Minu'te, Seku'nde, auf Schußweite, at shooting distance. Bis auf die Neige, to the last drop. Auf sieben schon eines wieder (Le.). (Nathan had "toward" or "as a return for" his seven dead sons one child in Recha.) Auf eine Mark gehen hundert Pfennige.

4. Hinter + "behind," opposite of „vor." See **305**, 1, 2.

It denotes inferiority: Die französische Artillerie stand weit hinter der deutschen zurück (ambiguous, either stood far back of the G. or was much inferior to the G.). Notice the following idioms: sich hinter etwas machen, to go at with energy. Ich kann nicht dahinter kommen, I cannot understand it. Es hinter den Ohren haben, to be sly (coll.); hinter die Ohren schlagen, to give a box on the ear; sich etwas hinter die Ohren schreiben, to mark well.

5. In + in, into (A.).

The German and English prepositions are more nearly identical than any other two. See **305**, 1, 2.

In + Accusative.

Denotes direction, including transition, change, division: Wenn der Leib in Staub zerfallen, lebt der große Name noch (Sch.). Deutschland zerriß auf diesem Reichstage in zwei Religio'nen und zwei politische Partei'en (id.).

6. Neben, near, by the side of. See **305**, 1, 2. < *eneben*, lit. "in a line with."

7. Über + over, above. See **305**, 1, 2, 3.

Über + Accusative.

After verbs denoting rule and superiority over, *e. g.*, herrschen, siegen, verfügen (dispose); laughter, astonishment, disgust, in general an expression of an affection of the mind, *e. g.*, über etwas lachen, erstaunen, sich . . . beklagen, sich . . . entrüsten, sich ärgern. (For an older simple genit.) Karl der Große siegte über die Sachsen. Das Testament verfügt über ein großes Vermögen. Wie stutzte der Pöbel über die neuen Livre'en (G.). Die Gefangenen beklagen sich über ihre Behandlung. Über sein Benehmen habe ich mich recht geärgert. It denotes time and excess in time, number, measure: Über's Jahr, a year hence, only in certain phrases, duration: über Nacht, die Nacht über. Den Sabbath über waren sie stille (B.). Über ein Jahr, more than a year (ambiguous, either "more than a year" or "a year hence"). Über drei tausend Kanonen. Über alle Begriffe schön, beautiful beyond comprehension.

When it denotes duration or simultaneousness, or when the idea of place is still felt, then the dative follows; when it denotes the reason then the accusative follows. This is clear when the same noun stands in both cases, as in Ich bin über dem Buche eingeschlafen, means "while reading it I fell asleep." Ich bin über das Buch eingeschlafen means "it was stupid, therefore I fell asleep." Über der Beschreibung da vergeß' ich den ganzen Krieg (Sch.). Schade, daß über dem schönen Wahn des Lebens beste Hälfte dahin geht (Sch.).

Notice von etwas and über etwas sprechen. Ich habe davon gesprochen, I have mentioned it. Ich habe darüber gesprochen, I have treated of it, spoken at length.

8. Unter + under. See **305**, 3.

In the abstract sense this rule holds good. It denotes protection, inferiority, lack in numbers (Dative, opposite of über), mingling with, contemporaneous circumstance (D.). It stands for the partitive genit. (= among). Unter dem Schutze. Der Feldwebel steht unter dem Offizier. Wer will unter die Sobaten, der . . . , he who wants to become a soldier (Folk-

song). Er iſt drunter geblieben, he did not reach the number. Cambrai öffnete ſeinem Erzbiſchofe unter (amid) freudigem Zurufe die Thore wieder (Sch.), Wer unter (among) dieſen (D.) reicht an unſern Friedland? (Sch.) (von dieſen would be "of these"). It denotes time when none of the exacter modes of expressing time is used: Wir ſind geboren unter gleichen Sternen (Sch.). Unter der Regierung der Königin Victoria = in the reign; während implies not a single act, but a commensurate duration, = during. Der Sakriſta'n ſchlief während der Predigt, but ging unter der Predigt hinaus. In „unterdeſſen," and other compounds of that class, indeſſen, etc., the gen. is probably adverbial and not called for by the preposition.

See zwiſchen.

9. Vor + before, in front of. See **305**, 1, 2, 3.

Vor + Dative.

Introduces the object of fear and abhorrence: Kein Eiſengitter ſchützt vor ihrer Liſt (Sch.). Vor gewiſſen Erinnerungen möcht' ich mich gern hüten (id.). Mir graut vor dir. Time before which anything is to happen or has happened: Der König iſt geſonnen, vor Abend in Madrid noch einzutreffen (Sch.). Vor dreißig Jahren, thirty years ago. Vor acht Tagen, a week ago. Hindrance and cause: Die Großmutter wird vor Kummer ſterben (Sch.). Den Wald vor lauter Bäumen nicht ſehen (Prov.). Vor Hunger, vor Durſt ſterben. Preference: vor allen Dingen, above all things; herrlich vor allen.

Vor and für are doublets and come from *fora* and *furi* respectively. In M. H. G. *für* + A. answered the question whither? *vor* + D. the question where? In N. H. G. they were confounded, even in Lessing very frequently, but in the last seventy years the present syntactical difference has prevailed. Goethe and Schiller rarely confound them

10. Zwiſchen.

"Between" *two* objects in place, time, and in the figurative sense. Rein muß es bleiben zwiſchen mir und ihm (Sch.). Die Wolkenſäule kam zwiſchen das Heer der Ägypter und das Heer Israels (B.). See **305**, 1, 2; also unter = among, sub 8.

SYNTAX OF THE CONJUNCTIONS.

307. The conjunctions are divided: 1. Into the coordinating, like und, denn, etc.; 2. Into the subordinating, *e. g.*, weil, da, als, etc. They are treated in the General Syntax, where see the various clauses.

GENERAL SYNTAX.

I. THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.

308. Subject and verb make up the simple sentence. This sentence may be expanded by complements of the subject and of the verb. The subject may be either a substantive, a substantive pronoun, or other words used as substantives. The attributes of the subjects may be adjective, participle, adjective pronouns, numerals. These are adjective attributes. Substantives, substantive pronouns, and the infinitive are substantive attributes. Their relation to the subject may be that of apposition and of coordination; or they may be connected by the genitive, or by preposition + case in subordination. Preposition + case is more expressive than the genitive alone, when the subject is to be defined as to time, place, value, kind, means, purpose.

The predicate is either a simple verb or a copula + adjective or substantive or pronoun which may be again expanded like the subject. The complements of the verb are object and adverb. The object is either a noun, substantive pronoun, or other words used as nouns. It stands in the accusative, dative or genitive, or is expressed by preposition + case. The adverb qualifies the verb, adjective, and other adverb. It is either an adverb proper or preposition + case of substantive or what is used as such. It may also be a genitive or an accusative.

309. As to form the main sentences may be divided as follows :

1. **Declarative sentences,** which either affirm something of the subject or deny something with regard to it. Affirmative : Kurz iſt der Schmerz und ewig iſt die Freude (Sch.). Du haſt Diamanten und Perlen (Heine). Negative : Das Leben iſt der Güter

höchſtes nicht (Sch.). Sie ſollen ihn nicht haben, den freien deutſchen Rhein (Beck).

1. The double negative is still frequent in the classics and colloquially, but it is not in accordance with correct usage now: Keine Luft von ſeiner Seite (G., classical). Man ſieht, daß er an nichts keinen Anteil nimmt (F. 3489) (said by Margaret, coll.). After the comparative it also occurs in the classics: Wir müſſen das Werk in dieſen nächſten Tagen weiter fördern, als es in Jahren nicht gedieh (Sch.).

2. After verbs of "hindering," "forbidding," "warning," like verhüten, verhindern, warnen, verbieten, etc., the dependent clause may contain „nicht„: Nur hütet euch, daß ihr mir nichts vergießt (G.). Nimm dich in Acht, daß dich Rache nicht verderbe (Sch.).

3. When the negative does not affect the predicate, the sentence may still be affirmative. Nicht mir, den eignen Augen mögt ihr glauben (Sch.). But nicht mir stands for a whole sentence.

2. **Interrogative sentences:** Haſt du das Schloß geſehen? (Uh.). Wer reitet ſo ſpät durch Nacht und Wind? (G.). Double question: War der Bettler verrückt oder war er betrunken? Glaubſt du das oder nicht? Willſt du immer weiter ſchweifen? (G.). Wer weiß das nicht?

For the potential subjunctive in questions, see **284**, 3.
For the indirect question, see **325**, 2.

3. The **exclamatory sentence** has not an independent form. Any other sentence, even a dependent clause, may become exclamatory: O, du Wald, o ihr Berge drüben wie ſeid ihr ſo jung geblieben und ich bin worden ſo alt! (Uh.). Das iſt das Los des Schönen auf der Erde! (Sch.). Was dank' (owe) ich ihm nicht alles! (id.). Wie der Knabe gewachſen iſt!

For the imperative and optative sentences, see **284**, 2; **286**.

310. Elliptical clauses generally contain only the predicate or a part of it, including the object or adverb. Guten Morgen! Gelt! Truly! Getroffen! You have hit it! Langſam! Schnell! etc. It is very frequent in the imperative, see **287**.

Proverbs often omit the verb: Viel Geſchrei und wenig Wolle. Kleine Kinder, kleine Sorgen; große Kinder, große Sorgen. See **309**, 3, in which the last examples are really dependent questions.

Concord of Subject and Predicate.

311. The predicate (verb) agrees with the subject in number and person.

Two or more subjects (generally connected by und) require a verb in the plural: Unter den Anwesenden wechseln Furcht und Erstaunen (Sch.). Doch an dem Herzen nagten mir der Unmut und die Streitbegier (id.).

1. If the subjects are conceived as a unit and by a license greater in German than in English, the verb may stand in the singular; also in the inverted order if the first noun is in the singular. Ex.: Was ist das für ein Mann, daß ihm Wind und Meer gehorsam ist (B.). Eh' spreche Welt und Nachwelt, etc. (Sch.). Da kommt der Müller und seine Knechte. By license: Sagen und Thun ist zweierlei (Prov.). Das Mistrauen und die Eifersucht . . . erwachte bald wieder (Sch.).

2. The plural verb stands after titles in the singular in addressing royalty and persons of high standing. In speaking of ruling princes the plural also stands. Servants also use it in speaking of their masters when these have a title. Ex.: Eure (Ew.) Majestät, Durchlaucht, Excellenz befehlen? Seine Majestät der Kaiser haben geruht, etc. Der Herr Geheime Hofrat sind nicht zu Hause. Die Herrschaft sind ausgegangen.

312. After a collective noun the verb stands more regularly in the singular than in Eng. Only when this noun or an indefinite numeral is accompanied by a genitive pl., the plural verb is the rule. In early N. H. G. (B.) this plural was very common. Die Menge floh. Alle Welt nimmt Teil (G.). Und das junge Volk der Schnitter fliegt zum Tanz (Sch.). Alle Menge deines Hauses sollen sterben (B.).

313. When the subject is a neuter pronoun, es, dies, das, etc., the neuter verb agrees with the predicate noun or substantive pronoun in number: Das waren mir selige Tage (Overbeck). Es sind die Früchte ihres Thuns (Sch.). Es zogen drei Jäger wohl auf die Birsch (Uh.). In this case es is only expletive. Wer sind diese?

314. When subjects are connected by entweder — oder, nicht nur — ſondern auch, weder — noch, ſowohl — als (auch), the verb has the person and number of the first subject and joins this one if the subjects are of different persons. The verb for the second subject is omitted. Entweder du gehſt (or gehſt du) oder ich. Teils war ich ſchuld, teils er. Subjects of the same person connected by the above correlatives; by oder, nehſt, mit, ſamt have as a rule a singular verb and the verb joins the second subject. Dem Volke kann weder Feuer bei noch Waſſer (Sch.), Neither fire nor water can harm those people.

315. If the subjects are of different persons, the first has the preference over the second, the second over the third. Moreover, the plural of the respective pronouns is often added. Der da und ich, wir ſind aus Eger (Sch.). Du und der Vetter, (ihr) geht nach Hauſe.

The adjective as a predicate or attribute has been sufficiently treated under the adjective, see **210–225.**

316. The noun as a predicate agrees with the subject in case; if the subject is a person, also in number and gender, but in the latter only when there are special forms for masculine and feminine. See **167.** Ex.: Die Weltgeſchichte iſt das Weltgericht (Sch.). Die Not iſt die Mutter der Erfindung (Prov.). Das Mädchen will jetzt Erzieherin werden, zuerſt wollte ſie Schauſpielerin werden.

1. If one person is addressed as Sie or Ihr, the substantive stands of course in the singular. „Sie ſind ein großer Meiſter im Schießen." Poetic and emphatic are such turns as: Regierte Recht ſo läget ihr vor mir im Staube jetzt, denn ich bin Euer König (Sch., spoken by Maria Stuart).

317. The substantive in apposition has the same concords as the substantive in the predicate, only the rule as to case is frequently found unobserved in the best writers. Was Venus hand, die Bringerin des Glücks, kann Mars, der Stern des Unglücks

ſchnell zerreißen (Sch.). Ihr kennet ihn, den Schöpfer kühner Heere (id.).

The apposition may be emphasized by nämlich and als: Ihnen, als einem greiſen Manne, glauben wir.

II. THE COMPOUND SENTENCE.

318. The **compound sentence** consists of two or more clauses, which may be **coordinate** (of equal grammatical value) or **subordinate** (one dependent upon the other).

Coordinate Sentences.

We may distinguish various kinds of coordinate sentences, which may or may not be connected by conjunctions.

319. Copulative Sentences. The conjunctions und, auch, desgleichen, gleichfalls, ebenfalls, and their compounds, desgleichen auch, ſo auch, ebenſo auch; nicht nur — ſondern auch; nicht allein — ſondern auch; ſowohl — als (auch); weder — noch indicate mere **parataxis.** Zudem, außerdem, überdies, ja, ſogar, ja ſogar, vielmehr emphasize the second clauses. Partitive conjunctions are teils — teils, halb — halb, zum Teil — zum Teil. Ordinal conjunctions are erſtens — zweitens, etc.; zuerſt — dann — ferner, endlich, zuletzt; bald — bald. Explanatory are nämlich, und zwar. **Ex.:** Die Müh' iſt klein, der Spaß iſt groß (F. 4049). Halb zog ſie ihn, halb ſang er hin (G.). Ich will weder leugnen noch beſchönigen, daß ich ſie beredete (id.). Nicht allein die erſten Blüten fallen ab, ſondern auch die Früchte (id.).

1. Notice that the adverbial conjunctions such as bald, zuletzt, dann, weder — noch, halb, teils, etc., always cause inversion. Some admit of inversion, but do not require it, *e. g.*, auch, erſtens, nämlich. The ordinal conjunctions and nämlich are frequently separated by a comma, then no inversion takes place. Erſtens iſt es ſo der Brauch, zweitens will man's ſelber auch (Busch).

320. Adversative Sentences. 1. One excludes the other (disjunctive-adversative): oder, or, entweder — oder, ſonſt (else),

andernfalls, otherwise. Ex.: Er (Wallenſtein) mußte entweder gar nicht befehlen oder mit vollkommener Freiheit handeln (Sch.). One contradicts the other (contradictory-adversative): ſondern, vielmehr, ſondern . . . vielmehr. The first clause contains nicht, zwar, freilich, allerdings, wohl. So wagten ſie ſich nicht in die Nähe der Feinde, ſondern kehrten unverrichteter Sache zurück (Sch.).

2. The second sentence concedes the statement of the first in part or wholly. The first may contain nicht, etc., as above; the second has aber, often in the connection aber doch, dennoch aber, aber gleichwohl; allein, übrigens; nur. Allein is stronger than aber.

Mark the contrast between aber and ſondern, Eng. but. Aber concedes, ſondern contradicts. Er war zwar nicht krank, aber doch nicht dazu aufgelegt, "but he did not feel like it." Er war nicht krank, ſondern er war nur nicht dazu aufgelegt (he only did not feel like doing it). Viele ſind berufen aber wenige ſind auserwählet (B.). Den Ungeheuern, den Gigantiſchen hätte man ihn (Corneille) nennen ſollen, aber nicht den Großen (Le.). Waſſer thut's freilich nicht (It is not the water that is effective in baptism), ſondern das Wort Gottes, ſo (which) mit und bei dem Waſſer iſt (Lu.).

3. The second sentence states something new or different or in contrast with the first without contradicting or excluding or limiting the same. It occurs commonly in narrative and may be called "connexive- or contrasting-adversative." Conjunctions: aber, hingegen, dagegen, übrigens, trotzdem, gleichwohl, indeſſen, etc. Die Beleidigung iſt groß; aber größer iſt ſeine Gnade (Le.). Es ſcheint ein Rätſel und doch iſt es keins (G.). Es iſt die ſchönſte Hoffnung; doch iſt es nur eine Hoffnung (Sch.).

321. Causal Sentences. One gives the reason or cause for the other. Conjunctions: d(a)rum, deswegen, daher, denn, nämlich, etc. The clause containing the reason generally stands second, the one beginning with „denn" always. Notice denn, "for," always calls for the normal order. Ex.: Soldaten waren teuer, denn die Menge geht nach dem Glück (Sch.). Eine Durchlauchtigkeit läßt er ſich nennen; drum muß er Soldaten halten können (id.).

322. Illative Sentences. One sentence is an inference or effect of the other. Closely related to the causal. Conjunctions: ſo, a'ſo, ſomit, folglich, mith'n, de'mnach, etc. Meine Rechte (right hand) iſt gegen den Druck der Liebe unempfindlich . . . ſo (then) ſeid ihr Götz von Berlichingen (G.). Die Sonnen alſo ſcheinen uns nicht mehr (Sch.).

Subordinate Sentences.

323. We shall distinguish three classes of dependent clauses, according to the logical value of the part of speech they represent:

1. **Substantive clauses**, with the value of a noun.
2. **Adjective clauses**, with the value of an adjective.
3. **Adverbial clauses**, with the value of an adverb.

Substantive Clauses.

324. The clause is subject: Das eben iſt der Fluch der böſen That, daß ſie fortwährend Böſes muß gebären (Sch.). Mich reuet, daß ich's that (id.). Predicate (N.): Die Menſchen ſind nicht immer was ſie ſcheinen (Le.). Object (A.): Glaubſt du nicht, daß eine Warnungsſtimme in Träumen vorbedeutend zu uns ſpricht? (Sch.). Was man ſchwarz auf weiß beſitzt, kann man getroſt nach Hauſe tragen (F. 1966–7). Dative: Wohl dem, der bis auf die Neige (to the very end) rein gelebt ſein Leben hat (He.). Genitive: Wes das Herz voll iſt, des geht der Mund über (B.). Apposition: Den edeln Stolz, daß du dir ſelbſt nicht genügeſt, verzeih' ich dir (G.).

325. As to their contents the substantive clauses may be grouped as follows:

1. Daß, or declarative clauses, always introduced by „daß." Schon Sokrates lehrte, daß die Seele des Menſchen unſterblich ſei, or die Lehre, daß die Seele . . . , or wir glauben, daß die Seele . . .

More examples in 324.

2. Clauses containing indirect questions : *a.* Questions after the predicate always introduced by ob; in the main clause may stand as correlatives es, das, deſſen, davon, etc. Er hatte nicht geſchrieben, ob er geſund geblieben (Bü.). (See F. 1667–70). *b.* Questions after any other part of the sentence, introduced by an interrogative pronoun, by an interrogative adverb, simple or compounded with a preposition, viz., wer, was, wie, wo, wann, womit, woher, wohin, etc. Ex.: Fraget nicht, warum ich traure (Sch.). See F. 1971. Begreifſt du, wie andächtig ſchwärmen viel leichter als gut handeln iſt? (Le.). Noch fehlt uns Kunde, was in Unterwalden und Schwyz geſchehen (Sch.). *c.* The question may be disjunctive, introduced by ob — oder; ob — oder ob; ob — ob. Ex.: Aber ſag' mir, ob wir ſtehen oder ob wir weiter gehen (F. 3906–7). Und eh' der Tag ſich neigt, muß ſich's erklären, ob ich den Freund, ob ich den Vater ſoll entbehren (Sch.).

REMARKS.—1. The mood in 1 and 2, according to circumstances, is either the indicative or the potential subjunctive. See the examples sub 1 and in **324.**

2. In „daß"-clauses the other two word-orders are also possible, but without daß: Sokrates lehrte, die Seele ſei unſterblich. Es wurde behauptet, geſtern habe man ihn noch auf der Straße geſehen.

3. When the subject is the same in both clauses or when the subject of the dependent clause is the object of the main clause, in short, when no ambiguity is caused, the infinitive clause can stand in place of daß + dependent order. Man hofft, das untergegangene Schiff noch zu heben. Die Polizei hat dem Kaufmanne befohlen, ſein Schild höher zu hängen.

3. Clauses with indirect speech—after verbs of saying, asserting, knowing, thinking, wishing, demanding, commanding. They either begin with daß with dependent order or they have the order of the direct speech. The subjunctive is the reigning mood. For examples and tense, see **282.**

4. Clauses containing direct speech, a quotation: Das Wort iſt frei, ſagt der General (Sch.). Der König rief: Iſt der Sänger da?

Adjective Clauses.

326. The clause is introduced by a relative pronoun or by a relative adverb. Nothing can precede the pronoun in the clause except a preposition. Unless the personal pronoun is repeated after the relative, the verb stands in the third person. Ex.: Du ſprichſt von Zeiten, die vergangen ſind (Sch.). Die Stätte, die ein guter Menſch betrat, iſt eingeweiht (G.). Der du von dem Himmel biſt, ſüßer Friede . . . (id.).

For use of the pronouns and more examples, see 255–258.

327. 1. The relative pronoun can never be omitted as in English. In several relative clauses referring to the same word, the pronoun need stand only once, if the same case is required; if a different case is necessary, the pronoun should be repeated. This is often sinned against, for instance by Schiller: Sieh da die Verſe, die er ſchrieb und ſeine Glut geſteht, instead of worin er . . . geſteht.

2. The relative clauses beginning with wer, was without antecedents are really identical with substantive clauses, *e.g.*, Da ſeht, daß ihr tiefſinnig faßt, was in des Menſchen Hirn nicht paßt. Für was drein geht und nicht drein geht, ein kräftig Wort zu Dienſten ſteht (F. 1950–3).

3. Case-attraction between relative and antecedent is now rare.

Als welcher, denoting rather a cause than a quality, is now archaic, but still quite frequent in Lessing's time. Äneas, als welcher ſich an den bloßen (mere) Figuren ergetzet, = "Æneas, since he delights . . ." (Le.). Von der Tragödie, als über die uns die Zeit ziemlich alles daraus (of *Aristotle's Poetics*) gönnen . . . "about tragedy, in so far as time has favored us . . ." (id.). „Da" in the relative clause is no longer usage. Wer da ſtehet, ſehe zu, daß er nicht falle (B.).

328. The mood depends upon circumstances. The potential subjunctive (of the preterit and pluperfect) is frequent after a negative main clause. Es iſt keine große Stadt in Deutſchland, die der Onkel nicht beſucht hätte (= did not visit). The subjunctive of indirect speech also stands. Die Regierung der Vereinigten Staaten beſchwerte ſich über die Landung ſovieler Armen, welche manche europäiſche Regierung fortſchicke.

Adverbial Clauses.

329. They are introduced by the subordinating conjunctions. The main clause often has an emphatic adverb, *e. g.*, alſo, dann, da, dahin, jetzt, daher, darum. So does not, as a rule, stand after main clauses expressing time and place, and generally becomes superfluous in English after main clauses of manner.

330. Temporal Clauses. 1. *Contemporaneous action* implying either duration or only point of time. Conjunctions: während, indem, indes (indeſſen), wie, da (all meaning "while," "as"); ſolange (als); ſo oft (als); ſo bald (als); da, wo (rare and colloquial) = when; wenn (wann is old) + "when," refers to the future; als, "when," refers always to the past with the preterit; weil, dieweil, derweil, = + "while," are archaic. Solange, ſo oft, ſobald are now much more common without „als."

Ex.: Ach! vielleicht indem (as) wir hoffen, hat uns Unheil ſchon getroffen (Sch.). Nur der Starke wird das Schickſal zwingen, wenn der Schwächling unterliegt (Sch.). Und wie (as) er ſitzt und wie er lauſcht, teilt ſich die Flut empor (G.). Als des Sanctus Worte kamen, da ſchellt er dreimal bei dem Namen („Sanctus . . ." is part of the mass) (Sch.). Es irrt der Menſch, ſolang' er ſtrebt (F. 317). Sobald die erſten Lerchen ſchwirrten (erſchien) ein Mädchen ſchön und wunderbar (Sch.). Das Eiſen muß geſchmiedet werden, weil es glüht (Prov.). Will mir die Hand noch reichen, derweil ich eben lad (= while I was loading the musket) (Uh.).

2. *Antecedent action, i. e.*, the action of the dependent clause precedes that of the main clause. Conjunctions: nachdem, after; da, als, wenn, after, when; ſeitdem, ſeit, ſeitdem daß (all mean + since); ſobald (als), ſowie, wie, as soon as; the adverb kaum + inverted order.

Ex.: Nimmer (no more) ſang ich freudige Lieder, ſeit ich deine Stimme bin (Sch.). Wenn (after) der Leib in Staub zerfallen, lebt der große Name noch (Sch.). Und wie er winkt mit dem Finger, auf thut ſich der weite Zwinger (id.). Kaum war der Vater tot, ſo kommt ein jeder mit ſeinem Ring (Le.). (Notice the inversion.)

Der König verließ Nürnberg, nachdem er es zur Fürsorge mit einer hinlänglichen Besatzung versehen hatte (Sch.).

3. *Subsequent action.* The action of the dependent clause follows. Conjunctions: Ehe, bevor, + "ere", "before"; bis, until, with or without daß.

Ex.: Nie verachte den Mann, eh' du sein Inn'res erkannt hast (He.). Bevor wir's lassen rinnen, betet einen frommen Spruch (Sch.). Bis die Glocke sich verkühlet, lasst die strenge Arbeit ruhn (id.). Ehe wir es uns versahen (unexpectedly), brach der Wagen zusammen.

a. The main clause may be emphasized by dann, damals, dann, darauf, and so, if it follows the dependent clause.

In 2 and 3 the potential subjunctive can stand.

331. Local Clauses. They denote the place and direction of the action of the main clause. They begin with wo, wohin, woher, and the main clause may contain a corresponding da, dahin, daher, hier.

Ex.: Wo Menschenkunst nicht zureicht, hat der Himmel oft geraten (Sch.). Die Welt ist vollkommen überall, wo der Mensch nicht hinkommt mit seiner Qual (id.). Denn eben wo Begriffe fehlen, da stellt ein Wort zur rechten Zeit sich ein (F. 1995–6). Kein Wasser ist zu haben, wohin man sich auch wende.

a. The demonstratives da, dahin, daher in the local clause are now archaic. Do not confound the relative clauses and indirect questions with the local clauses which generally refer to an adverb.

The potential subjunctive may stand in them.

Clauses of Manner and Cause.

332. *Modal clauses* express an accompanying circumstance and are therefore related to contemporaneous clauses. Conjunctions: indem, daß nicht, ohne daß, without, indem nicht, statt or anstatt daß, instead of. Ex.: Der Ritter ging fort, indem er auf den Gegner einen verächtlichen Blick warf. Ich bin nie in London, daß ich nicht das Museum besuchte (subj.).

1. They may have the potential subjunctive. But these clauses occur more frequently in the form of participial and infinitive clauses with

„ohne zu," „anſtatt zu": Al-Haſi, anſtatt zu empfangen, mußte zahlen. Er ritt fort ohne ſich umzuſehen.

333. *Comparative clauses* denote manner, degree, and measure. Conjunctions: wie, als, "as," "than" with the corresponding ſo, alſo, ebenſo (= so) in the main clause. After the comparative als, denn (rarely) + "than;" other forms: gleich-wie — ſo; ſo wie — ſo; just as — as, so. Wie denotes rather manner and quality, als the degree and quantity. When the predicates are the same the contracted form is quite common. Then wie denotes likeness, als identity.

Ex.: Ich ſinge wie der Vogel ſingt (G.). Danket Gott ſo warm als ich für dieſen Trunk euch danke (id.). Wie du mir („thuſt" understood), ſo ich dir (Prov.). Du biſt mir nichts mehr als ſein Sohn (Sch.). Der träge Gang des Krieges hat dem König ebenſoviel Schaden gethan als er den Rebellen Vorteil brachte (id.). Hatte ſich ein Ränzlein angemäſt't als wie der Doktor Luther (F. 2129–30) (als wie is colloquial). „Wie ein Ritter," "like a knight"; „als (ein) Ritter," "as a knight." Sein Glück war größer als man berechnet hatte (Sch.). Eines Hauptes (by one head) länger denn alles Volk (B.).

1. Specially to be noticed are the clauses with als ob, alswenn, generally followed by the potential or unreal subjunctive. For wenn + dependent order occurs also the inverted without wenn. Ex.: Ihr eilet ja, als wenn ihr Flügel hättet (Le.). Suche die Wiſſenſchaft, als würdeſt ewig du hier ſein; Tugend, als hielte der Tod dich ſchon am ſträubenden Haar (He.). But the indicative is possible: Und es wallet und ſiedet und brauſet und ziſcht wie wenn Waſſer mit Feuer ſich mengt (Sch.).

2. Denn is preferable after a comparative when several „als" occur. Wie is colloquial. Es fragt ſich ob Leſſing größer als Dichter denn als Menſch geweſen ſei. Nicht in the clause after als is no longer good usage, though common in the 17th and 18th centuries. Lessing has it very frequently. Ich lebte ſo eingezogen, als ich in Meißen nicht gelebt hatte (Le.).

a. Nichts weniger als means "anything but," literally "nothing less than that," generally felt by English speakers as meaning "nothing but," *e. g.*, Aber ich darf ſagen, daß dieſe Einrichtung der Fabel nichts weniger als notwendig iſt, *i. e.*, that this arrangement of the plot is anything but necessary (Le.). In „nichts als" = "nothing but," as after all negative pronouns, „niemand als du" = nobody but you, als has exclusive force, = "but."

3. Other correlatives are ſo einer — wie; der nämliche — wie; derſelbe — wie; ſolch-, ſo + positive adjective — wie (quality) and als (degree); after

zu, allzu + positive and after ein anderer stand als + daß or wenn, als and infinitive, *e. g.*, Er denkt zu edel, als daß er so etwas von uns erwarten könnte. Er ist der nämliche wie er immer war. Eure Versöhnung war ein wenig zu schnell, als daß sie dauerhaft hätte sein sollen (G.).

Notice the potential subjunctive after „als daß."

334. Under this head comes really the *proportional clause*, which expresses the proportion of the decrease or increase of what is asserted in the main clause. The conjunctions are the following correlatives: je — desto, um so (or um desto, rarely); je — je, = the — the; je nachdem (or nachdem or wie, rarely), according as. If the main clause stand first, its correlative is dispensable.

Ex.: Je mehr der Vorrat schmolz, desto schrecklicher wuchs der Hunger (Sch.). Je länger, je lieber (Prov.). Je mehr er hat, je mehr er will. (Je) nachdem einer ringt, nachdem ihm gelingt (G.), "The success depends upon the effort."

1. Je = ever; desto, "on that account," "hence," see **442**, *a*. Notice the dependent order in the first, the inverted generally in the second.

335. *Consecutive clauses* express the result or effect of the predicate of the main clause. Conjunctions: daß (sodaß), that; in the main clause, if any correlative, so, so sehr, dergestalt, derart, solch. Ex.: So verabscheut ist die Tyrannei', daß sie kein Werkzeug findet (Sch.). Er schlug, daß laut der Wald erklang und alles Eisen in Stücken sprang (Uh.).

1 The result may also be expressed in the form of a main clause or of an infinitive clause: Doch übernähm' ich gern noch ein'mal alle Plage, so lieb war mir das Kind (F. 3123–4). Ich bin zu alt, um nur zu spielen, zu jung um ohne Wunsch zu sein (F. 1546–7).

2. Mark the potential and unreal subjunctives of the preterit and pluperfect which may stand in these clauses: Vermeint Ihr mich so jung und schwach, daß ich mit Riesen stritte? (Uh.). Das Pferd war so lahm, daß wir schneller zu Fuß heim gekommen wären.

336. *Restrictive clauses* limit the value and scope of the statement of the predicate and border closely upon the conditional and comparative clauses. Conjunctions: nur daß, only

(that), außer daß, except that, in ſo fern (als), wofern, in wie fern, in ſo or in wie weit, in as far as, in as much as. The negative force is given also by the subjunctive and the normal order with the adverb denn or by es ſei denn, es wäre denn, daß, which is now more common.

Ex.: Wir waren gar nicht ſo übel dran, nur daß wir nichts zu trinken hatten. We were not at all so badly off, only . . . In ſo fern nun dieſe Weſen Körper ſind, ſchildert die Poeſie auch Körper (Le.). Er entfernte ſich niemals weit, er ſagt' es ihr denn (H. and D., IV. 42–3). Ich laſſe dich nicht, du ſegneſt mich denn (unless thou bless me) (B.). Ruhig (gedenke ich mich zu verhalten); es ſei denn, daß (unless) er ſich an meiner Ehre oder meinen Gütern vergreife (Sch.).

1. This is a very old construction, quite common in M. H. G. The negative force lies not in denn, but in the lost *ne* + the potential or concessive subjunctive. Denn < M. H. G. *danne*, is unessential. Compare M. H. G. *den lîp wil ich verliesen, si en werde mîn wîp* = my life will I lose, (she become not my wife) unless she, etc. *Swaz lebete in dem walde ez entrünne danne balde, das was zehant tot*, = Was im Walde lebte, das war auf der Stelle tot, es ſei denn daß es bald davon lief or gelaufen wäre (quoted by Paul). *Ne* disappeared as early as late M. H. G., particularly after a negative main clause. It is left in nur < *ne waere* = (es) wäre nicht daß. See Paul's M. H. G. gram., § 335–40.

337. *Causal clauses* denote the cause, reason, and means. Conjunctions: da, since, weil, because, indem = by + present participle in Eng. Correlatives, if any: da'rum, da'her, ſo, deshalb etc. Da'durch daß, da'mit daß express rather the instrument. Weil expresses the material cause; da the logical reason; „indem" is a weak causal and borders rather closely upon the contemporaneous „indem." Denn + normal order expresses a known or admitted reason. It is emphatic. See **320**.

Ex.: Das Schleppтau (hawser) zerriß, weil der Schleppdampfer (tug) zu ſchnell anzog. Mit dem beſten Willen leiſten wir ſo wenig, weil uns tauſend Willen kreuzen (G.). Jeden andern zu ſchicken iſt beſſer, da ich ſo klein bin (G.). Dir blüht gewiß das ſchönſte Glück auf Erden, da du ſo fromm und heilig biſt (Sch.). Richelieu wußte ſich nur dadurch zu helfen, daß er den Feindſeligkeiten ein ſchleuniges Ende machte (Sch.).

1. Nun, dieweil, alldieweil, maßen, ſintemal, and others, are rare and archaic.

2. The clauses with da'durch daß, da'mit daß border closely upon the substantive clause. Da, says Becker, denotes the real *and* logical reason, weil the logical only when the kind of reason is not emphasized. Weil stands in a clause that answers the question as to the reason. Warum wurde Wallenſtein abgeſetzt? Weil man ihn für einen Verräter hielt.

338. *Final clauses* express intention and object. Conjunctions: Dami't, daß, "in order that." Auf daß, und daß are archaic. In the main clause rarely stand darum, dazu, in der Abſicht, zu dem Zwecke (both followed by daß).

Ex.: Darum eben leiht er keinem, damit er ſtets zu geben habe (Le.). Dazu werd ihm der Verſtand, daß er im innern Herzen ſpüret, was er erſchafft mit ſeiner Hand (Sch.). Ehre Vater und Mutter, auf daß dir's wohl gehe und du lange lebeſt auf Erden (B.).

1. The reigning mood of this clause is the subjunctive. If the object is represented as reached, the indicative may also stand. Um zu + inf. forms a very common final clause; Man lebt nicht um zu eſſen, ſondern man ißt um zu leben.

339. *Concessive clauses* make a concession to the contradiction existing between the main clause and the result expected from it in the dependent clause. They are called also adverſative causal clauses. Conjunctions: obglei'ch (ob . . . gleich), obſcho'n (ob . . . ſchon), obwohl (ob . . . wohl), ob auch, ob zwar, wenn auch, wenn gleich, ob, all = "although." The main clause may contain de'nnoch, doch, nichtsdeſtoweniger, gleichwohl, but ſo only if it stands second.

Relative clauses with indefinite relative pronouns and adverbs, wer . . . auch (immer, nur), wie . . . auch, ſo . . . auch (noch); inverted clauses and those with the normal order, containing the adverbs ſchon, gleich, zwar, wohl, freilich, noch have also concessive force.

Ex.: Iſt es gleich Nacht, ſo leuchtet unſer Recht (Sch.). (Compare Obgleich es Nacht iſt, ob es gleich Nacht iſt . . .) Was Feuerswut ihm auch geraubt, ein ſüßer Troſt iſt ihm geblieben (id.). Mutig ſprach er zu Reinekens beſten (in favor of R.) ſo falſch auch dieſer bekannt war (G.). Ein Gott iſt, ein heiliger Wille lebt, wie auch der menſchliche wanke (Sch.). Erfüll' davon dein Herz, ſo groß es iſt (F. 3452).

Man kommt ins Gerede, wie man ſich immer ſtellt (G.). Dem Böſewicht wird alles ſchwer, er thue was er will (Hölty). Zwar weiß ich viel, doch möcht' ich alles wiſſen (F. 601).

1. Mark also the form of the imperative and und + inversion: Sei noch ſo dumm, es gibt doch jemand(en), der dich für weiſe hält. Der Menſch iſt frei geſchaffen, iſt frei, und würde er in Ketten geboren (Sch.).

2. Mood: if a fact is stated, the indicative; if a supposition, the concessive and unreal subjunctive. See examples above.

3. When certain parts of speech are common to both clauses, there may be contraction. Obwohl von hohem Stamm, liebt er das Volk (Sch.).

340. *Conditional clauses* express a supposition upon which the statement of the main clause will become a fact. If the supposition is real, the conditional clause has the indicative; if only fancied or merely possible, the potential subjunctive; if it implies that the contrary of the supposition is about to happen or has happened, then it has the unreal subjunctive of the imperfect or the pluperfect. Conjunctions: wenn, if; falls, im Falle daß, in case that; wenn anders, if . . . at all; also wofern, ſofern (such often difficult to distinguish from a concessive clause); wo, ſo (rare). The main clause may have da, dann, in dem Falle, and if it stand second, generally begins with ſo.

Ex.: Wenn ſich die Völker ſelbſt befrein, da kann die Wohlfahrt nicht gedeihn (Sch.). Wenn du als Mann die Wiſſenſchaft vermehrſt, ſo kann dein Sohn zu höh'rem Ziel gelangen (F. 1063). Wer miede nicht, wenn er's umgehen kann, das Äußerſte (Sch.). So du kämpfeſt ritterlich, freut dein alter Vater ſich (Stolberg).

1. Other forms of the conditional clause are the inverted order, the imperative, and the normal order with denn + subjunctive (= if . . . not, unless; see **336**, 1). Sei im Beſitze und du wohnſt im Recht (Sch.), Possession is nine points of the law. Dem lieben Gotte weich' nicht aus, find'ſt du ihn auf dem Weg (Sch.).

2. Wofern nicht, außer wenn, es ſei denn daß, if not, unless, denote an exception to a statement true in general. Der Wolf iſt harmlos, außer wenn er Hunger hat. See **336**, 1.

3. Sometimes the preterit ind. is substituted for the unreal subjunctive in the dependent or in the main clause or in both. Its force is

assurance, certainty. Traf ein Kürbis mein Geſicht, ach, ſo lebt' ich ſicher nicht (Gleim). Mit dieſem Pfeil durchſchoß ich Euch, wenn ich mein liebes Kind getroffen hätte (Sch.). O wärſt du wahr geweſen und gerade, nie kam es dahin, alles ſtünde anders (Sch.).

4. Contracted and abbreviated forms: Entworfen bloß iſt's ein gemeiner Frevel; vollführt iſt's ein unſterblich Unternehmen (Sch.). Wenn nicht, wo nicht, wo möglich are very common. Wir verſuchten ihn wo möglich zu beruhigen, wenn nicht ganz zu entfernen.

For the tenses see also 275–280.

WORD-ORDER.

341. We distinguish three principal word-orders according to the position of subject and verb:

1. **The normal**, viz., subject — verb.
2. **The inverted**, viz., verb — subject.
3. **The dependent**, viz., verb at the end.

(By "verb" we shall understand for the sake of brevity the personal part and by "predicate" the non-personal part of the verb, viz., participle and infinitive.)

342. The **normal** occurs chiefly in main sentences: Der Wind weht. It is identical with the dependent order if there is only subject and verb in the dependent clause. Die Mühle geht, weil der Wind weht.

343. The **inverted** order occurs both in main and dependent clauses: Geht die Mühle? Weht der Wind, (ſo) geht die Mühle. It occurs:

a. In a question.

b. In optative and imperative sentences.

c. In dependent clauses, mainly conditional and after als + subjunctive when there is no conjunction like wenn, ob, etc.

d. If for any reason, generally a rhetorical one, any other word but the subject, or if a whole clause, head the sentence.

e. For impressiveness the verb stands first.

Examples with adjuncts (objects, adverbs, etc.) added:

a. Schreibt der Freund? Bleibt der Diener nicht lange aus? Was ſchreibt dir der Freund?

But when the inquiry is as to the subject the normal order stands of course. Wer ſchreibt einen Brief? Was iſt der langen Rede kurzer Sinn? (Sch.).

b. Möge nie der Tag erſcheinen, wenn des rauhen Krieges Horden dieſes ſtille Thal durchſtoben (Sch.). For more examples, see **284**, 1, 2.

But the inverted order is not required: Die Zahl der Tropfen, die er hegt, ſei euren Tagen zugelegt! (F. 989–990).

c. Willſt du genau erfahren was ſich ziemt, ſo frage nur bei edlen Frauen an (G.). Wird man wo (= irgendwo) gut aufgenommen, muß man nicht gleich wiederkommen (Wolff). (Er) Strich drauf ein Spange, Kett' und Ring', als wären's eben Pfifferling'; dankt' nicht weniger und nicht mehr, als ob's ein Korb voll Nüſſe wär' (F. 2843–6).

Notice here the inversion after als alone, but dependent order after als ob. See **340**, 1; also F. 1122–25, 1962–3.

But for emphasis and to add vividness, the normal is still possible: Du ſteheſt ſtill, er wartet auf; du ſprichſt ihn an, er ſtrebt an dir hinauf (F. 1168–9). This is mere parataxis.

d. Die Botſchaft hör' ich wohl, allein mir fehlt der glaube (F. 765). Ernſt iſt das Leben, heiter iſt die Kunſt (Sch.). Mich hat mein Herz betrogen (id.). Wo aber ein Aas iſt, da verſammeln ſich die Adler (B.). Deines Geiſtes hab' ich einen Hauch verſpürt (Uh.). See also F. 860–1, 1174–5, 1236. Überſ'hen kann Caylus dies Gemälde nicht haben (Le.). Geſchrieben ſteht: „Im Anfang war das Wort" (F. 1224). See also **236**, 3.

1. The main clause, inserted in any statement or following it, has inversion according to this rule. Das, ſpricht er, iſt kein Aufenthalt, was fördert himmelan (Sch.). Wie ſeid ihr glücklich, edler Graf! hub er voll Argliſt an (id.). For emphasis the speaker can insert a clause uninverted: Denn, ich weiß es, er iſt der Güter die er dereinſt erbt, wert (H. and D., III. 53).

2. The coordinating conjunctions aber, allein, denn, nämlich, oder, ſondern, und standing generally at the head of the sentence, any adverb with the force of an elliptical sentence (zwar, ja, etc., having generally a comma

after them) call for no inversion. After entweder there is option. Ex.: Aber die Kunſt hat in den neueren Zeiten ungleich weitere Grenzen erhalten (Le.). Zwar euer Bart iſt kraus, doch hebt ihr nicht die Riegel (F. 671). Fürwahr! ich bin der einzige Sohn nur (H. and D., IV. 91). Ja, mir hat es der Geiſt geſagt (id., IV. 95). Denn die Männer ſind heftig (id., IV. 148).

3. When the dependent clause precedes, the main clause can for emphasis and very frequently colloquially have the normal order. Ex.: Hätte er die Urſachen dieſes allgemeinen Aberglaubens an Shakſpere's Schönheiten auch geſucht, er würde ſie bald gefunden haben (Le.).

c. Hat die Königin doch nichts voraus vor dem gemeinen Bürgerweibe (Sch.). Stehen wie Felſen doch zwei Männer gegen einander! (H. and D., IV. 229). Generally contains doch.

344. The dependent order occurs only in dependent clauses. The clause begins with a relative or interrogative pronoun which may be preceded by a preposition; with a relative or interrog. adverb; or with a subordinating conjunction. Ex.: Wenn ich nicht Alexander wäre, möchte ich wohl Diogenes ſein. Je mehr er hat, je mehr er will (Claudius). So ſtolz ich bin, muß ich mir ſelbſt geſtehen: dergleichen hab' ich nie geſehn (G.). Wie ſolche tiefgeprägte Bilder doch zu Zeiten in uns ſchlafen können, bis ein Wort, ein Laut ſie weckt (Le.). See also F. 2015–18, 2062.

345. The dependent order does not occur in main clauses, but it is not the only order of the dependent clause.

1. The verb precedes two infinitives. One may be the past participle of a modal auxiliary. Ex.: Kann ich vergeſſen wie's hätte kommen können? (Sch.). Daß ein Menſch doch einen Menſchen ſo verlegen ſoll machen können! (Le.).

a. But in this case and in other compound tenses the "verb" (*i. e.*, the personal part) may also stand between the participle and the other auxiliary or the infinitive, *e. g.*, weil der Kaufmann das Haus ſoll gekauft haben or gekauft ſoll haben (in poetry). Gekauft haben ſoll is the common order.

2. The normal order may stand:

1. In dependent clauses containing indirect speech. Er

glaubt, Shakspere habe Brutus zum Helden des Stückes machen wollen (Le.).

2. In certain clauses with negative force containing an enclitic „denn": es sei denn daß + dependent order. See **336.**

3. In substantive clauses: Gott weiß, ich bin nicht schuld (Le.). This is mere parataxis without conjunction.

346. The auxiliaries haben and sein are also frequently dropped in dependent clauses to avoid an accumulation of verbal forms, both in prose and poetry. Lessing, Goethe, and Klopstock, especially the first, drop the auxiliary very freely and skillfully.

Ex.: Wie unbegreiflich ich von ihm beleidigt worden (supply bin here or before beleidigt) und noch werde (Le.). Möglich, daß der Vater die Tyranne'i des einen Rings nicht länger in seinem Hause (supply hat) dulden wollen (id.).

347. The dependent order in main clauses is archaic and poetic. Ex.: Siegfried den Hammer wohl schwingen kunnt (dialect for konnte) (Uh.). Urahne, Großmutter, Mutter und Kind in dumpfer Stube beisammen sind (Schwab).

348. 1. The inverted order in the conditional clause and in a main clause for the sake of impressiveness has sprung from the order of the question. Compare, for instance: 1. Ist der Freund treu? (question). 2. Ist der Freund treu? (question). Gut, so wird er mir beistehen. 3. Ist der Freund treu (conditional clause), so wird er mir beistehen. 4. Ist mir der Freund doch treu geblieben! (impressive inversion).

2. The main clause has inversion when the dependent clause precedes, because it generally begins with an adverb like so, dann, etc. Gehst du nicht, so thust du Unrecht. Without so, the inversion really ceases. Hence we say, the normal order may still stand for emphasis. But so, etc., were so frequent that inversion became the rule. Inversion is therefore limited originally to the question and to the choice of placing the emphatic part of the sentence where it will be most prominent.

349. 1. The dependent order was in O. H. G. by no means limited to the dependent clause. Toward the 10th century it begins to become rarer in the main clause. In early M. H. G. it became limited to the dependent clause, so that now we may justly call it the "*dependent-clause order.*"

2. The verb at the end is, no doubt, a great blemish of German style—second only to the separation of the little prefix of separable compound verbs, which may turn up after many intervening parts at the close of the sentence. According to Delbrück, the dependent order—subject, object, verb—was the primitive one, still in force in Latin.

General Rules for the Order of other Parts of the Sentence besides Subject and Verb.

Position of the Predicate.

350. The predicate, be it an adjective, a substantive, participle, infinitive, or separable prefix of a compound verb or the first element of a loosely compounded verb, stands at the end of a main clause in a simple tense. The adjuncts of the predicate, such as objects, adverbs, stand between verb and predicate.

Ex.: Der Senne muß ſcheiden, der Sommer iſt hin (Sch.). Ihr ſeid ein Meiſter (id.). Er hat verlor'ne Worte nur geſprochen (id.). Kein Schild fing dieſen Mordſtreich auf (id.). Strafloſe Frechheit ſpricht den Sitten Hohn (id.). Geſtern fand ein Wagner-Conce'rt ſtatt.

In the dependent clause only the verb changes position, subject and predicate remain as in the main clause, and the adjuncts stand between them. For instance: Glaubt das nicht! Ihr werdet dieſes Kampfes Ende nimmer erblicken (Sch.), becomes Glaubt nicht, daß ihr dieſes Kampfes Ende je erblicken werdet.

351. In the compound tense the separable prefix immediately precedes the participle, be it in a main or in a dependent clause. Dreißig Jahre haben wir zuſammen ausgelebt und ausgehalten (Sch.). Die Cholera will (is about to) ü'berhand nehmen.

Order of Objects and Cases.

352. *a.* Case of a person before a case of the thing. Aber auch noch dann . . . fuhr der Kaiſer fort, den Ständen den Frieden zu zeigen (Sch.).

b. Case of a pronoun before a noun. Man beſtimmte ſie (them) dem allgemeinen Unwillen zum Opfer (Sch.).

c. The dative stands before the accusative; if both are persons, the accusative may stand before the dative. Er ſelbſt hatte dem Dienſte dieſes Hauſes ſeine erſten Feldzüge gewidmet (Sch.).

d. The accusative-object stands before remoter objects, a genitive or a preposition + case. But see also *a*. Man möchte ſagen, Voltaire habe ein Gefühl von der Wichtigkeit dieſer Perſönlichkeit gehabt (H. Grimm). Die Schülerin ſchrieb einen Aufſatz über den Winter.

e. As to pronouns, ſich stands generally before es, and both before every other pronoun. The personal pronoun stands before the demonstrative. The personal and ſich may stand before the subject, if it be a noun, in the inverted and dependent orders. Er hat ſich es angeeignet. Krummau (a proper name) nähert ſich ihm (Sch.). Wer darf ſich ſo etwas erlauben? Jenem den Weg zu dem böhmiſchen Throne zu verſchließen, ergriff man die Waffen ſchon unter Matthias (Sch.). Was ihm die vergrößerte Macht der Stände (estates) an Selbſtthätigkeit noch übrig ließ, hielten ſeine Agnaten (relatives) unter einem ſchimpflichen Zwang (id.). Hat ſich die Flotte ergeben? Haſt du es ihm wieder gegeben?

1. *c* also includes the personal pronouns: Wie komm' ich ohne Zeugen mich ihr nahn? (Sch.). The rules *a*, *c*, *d* are by no means strict.

353. For the position of the adjective, see the use of the adjective, **194**, **212**. Notice that what depends upon an adjective, participle, or infinitive precedes them. Die Engländer ſind ihrem Herrſcherhauſe ergeben. Zum Sehen geboren, zum Schauen beſtellt, dem Turme geſchworen, gefällt mir die Welt (G.). Wir baten ihn, den Brief auf die Poſt zu geben. (Shakſpere's Werke ſind) keine Tugendlehren, in Kapitel gebracht und durch redende Exempel erläutert (Le.).

Position of Adverbs.

354. In general, adverbs stand before the words they qualify. The modal adverbs nicht, etwa, zwar, ſchon, wol, etc., and the adverbs of time immer, ſchon, jetzt, nie, nimmer stand generally immediately before the predicate or in place of it if there is none. Dies Bildniß iſt bezaubernd ſchön (Mozart's Zauber-

flöte). Ein sehr heftiger Husten greift den Kranken stark an. Das schwere Herz wird nicht durch Worte leicht (Sch.). Schon viele Tage seh' ich es schweigend an (id.). Ich habe euch noch nie erkannt (B.). Hast du ihn noch nicht besucht? (Notice the opposite of the English order in "never yet," "not yet.")

355. An adverb of time stands before one of place, and both before one of manner. Ex.: Viele Bauern waren gestern nach der Stadt zu Markte gefahren. Wir fahren morgen *per* Eisenbahn nach Rudolstadt. Es tanzt sich auf diesem glatten Fußboden nicht sehr gut.

1. Of several adverbs of time or place the more general precede the more specific. Wir reisen morgen früh um 6 Uhr 59 Minuten ab. Der Polizist fand den Betrunkenen auf der Fahrstraße im Drecke liegen.

2. Adverbs of time precede objects when these are nouns, but pronouns precede all adverbs. Wir feiern bald den 4ten Juli, den Tag der Unabhängigkeitserklärung. Wir hoffen ihn morgen auf dem Bahnhofe zu treffen.

356. Only aber, nämlich, jedoch, and a few others, can separate subject and verb. Ex.: Der Richter aber sprach (Le.). Die Nachtigall jedoch singt wunderschön.

357. As to the position of the prepositions, they, with very few exceptions, precede the noun; when they follow the noun has been stated under Prepositions. See, for instance, **303**, 7, 8, 10.

Position of Clauses.

358. Dependent clauses have, in general, the positions of those parts of speech and of the sentence which they represent, *i. e.*, the substantive clause standing for the subject or object has the position of the subject or the object in the sentence, etc. No special rules are needed for them. When there are several dependent clauses, the last often takes for variety the normal order introduced by und.

The following examples show well-placed dependent clauses: Kein Kaiser kann, was unser ist, verschenken (Sch.). Versiegelt hab' ich's und verbrieft,

daß er mein guter Engel iſt (id.). Die Ehr', die ihm gebürt, geb' ich ihm gern; das Recht das er ſich nimmt, verweigr' ich ihm (id.). Als ich jünger war, liebte ich nichts ſo ſehr, als Roma'ne (novels) (G.). Richelieu wußte ſich dadurch zu helfen, daß er den Feindſeligkeiten zwiſchen beiden ein ſchleuniges Ende machte (Sch.). Mein guter Geiſt bewahrte mich davor, die Natter an den Buſen mir zu legen (mir before die Natter in prose) (id.). Der Menſch begehrt, alles an ſich zu reißen (G.). Wie glücklich iſt der, der, um ſich mit dem Schickſal in Einigkeit zu ſetzen, nicht ſein ganzes vorhergehendes Leben wegzuwerfen braucht (id.).

359. The rules given can hardly be abstracted from poetry. Even in prose they will be found frequently infringed. Rhythm, rhyme, and, in prose, emphasis control the order of words and allow of much choice. But students translating into German should adhere to the rules very strictly. It will be noticed that the German word-order coincides very nearly with the old English, and does not differ after all so much from the modern English word-order. The chief points of difference are the dependent order, the position of adverbs of time, which in English stand generally at the end, and the position of the adjuncts of adjectives, participles, and infinitives, which precede the latter instead of following them as in English.

1. The word-order required by certain conjunctions has been frequently mentioned in the General Syntax. See, for instance, **320**.

SECOND PART.

ADVANCED GRAMMAR.

FIRST SECTION,

CONTAINING PHONOLOGY, HISTORICAL COMMENTARY ON THE ACCIDENCE, HISTORY OF THE LANGUAGE.

A. PHONOLOGY.

Historical Notes on the Orthography.

360. The letters used in Germany are the strongly modified Latin (Roman), called "Gothic," in vogue all over Europe during the later Middle Ages, when printing was invented. Germany is the only nation of the first rank which retains them, and for this reason they may be justly called "German" now. In Denmark, Sweden and Norway they are also still in use to a certain extent. Italy, France, England and Holland abandoned the ugly "Gothic" alphabet very early and returned to the Roman. The German people and the more conservative among the scholars make the retention of the "German" letters a matter of patriotism.

1. An edition of Schiller in Latin type ruined a Leipzig publisher twenty years ago. Yet in the 18th century much literature was printed in Latin type. It is an interesting fact, stated by a correspondent of the "*Evening Post*," of New York, that the first German book published in America was printed in Latin type by Benjamin Franklin. It was a sectarian hymn-book, "*Harfe Zions*."

2. Nearly all German scientific books are printed in L. type to-day, because all scholars and civilized nations that would read such books are accustomed to this type. *Grimm* advocated it strongly and had all his books printed in it. *Koberstein's Literaturgeschichte; Bauer's, Krause's,* and *Wilmanns'* grammars are printed in it. That G. type was not banished from the schools by the new "Rules" is due to the personal prejudice of the Chancellor of the German Empire, who, not long ago, when a publisher sent to him a book in Latin type, returned it, because it was more troublesome for him to read than German type.

3. German children therefore still continue to learn to read eight alphabets and to write in four, viz., capital and small Latin script, and capital and small German script. In the Swiss schools German type and script have just been given up. The Latin type and script seem bound to prevail in Germany before very long.

361. The German alphabet represents the sounds of the language more adequately than the English does the English sounds, but that is not saying much. In no living language do the signs keep step with the sounds; they are always behind, nowhere more so than in English. But

in German also are several signs for the same sound and one sign may have to stand for several sounds. For instance, ch in „ach" and „ich," n in fünf, fand, fang, denote different sounds; ß, ſ, ſſ, ß stand for the same sound; also ă (short) and e. The long vowel is indicated by doubling in Saal, Boot, Beet; by h in Wahl, Wohl, Weh, and not at all in Buch, Fuß, Hut. And yet, while German spells more phonetically than English, its standard of spelling is as uncertain as the English, if not more so.

1. In 1876 an orthographical conference was called at Berlin, which was to discuss certain modifications and propositions aiming at uniformity, laid before them by R. von Raumer. They met and agreed upon certain rules, which proved, however, unacceptable both to the government and the public.

2. In 1879 and 1880 the various governments in Germany took the matter in hand and prescribed the spelling to be followed in their schools. Thus we have Prussian, Bavarian, Saxon, Austrian rules, but they vary very little. The kingdom of Würtemberg alone, with true Suabian tenacity, still clings to the old spellings. Some seven millions of children, therefore, now have to learn spelling according to these official rules. All new books introduced must be spelt according to them. Influential journals and periodicals have taken up the matter. The excellent new edition of the classics now appearing in *Cotta's "Bibliothek der Weltliteratur"* is spelt accordingly. While these "Rules" leave much to be wished for, yet no one can deny that some of them are a great step in advance. They change the spelling about as much as the five rules for modified spellings of the American Spelling Reform Association would change English spelling. This grammar is spelt according to the rules. We shall not give them, since they can be so easily obtained. For title of the speller, see **37**.

A few explanatory remarks are given on certain points.

362. Umlaut signs.

Of the numerous signs in M. H. G. only two are left, viz., e after and ¨ over the vowel; e is to be discarded now entirely even with capitals, after which it was generally put. Umlaut of ă was always e, not to be confounded with ĕ, which is old e. In N. H. G. ä has been put for e in words whose connection with words containing a was transparent. Vater, pl. Väter, but Vetter; alt, älter, but Eltern; Mann, Männer, but Menſch.

1. Dictionaries and encyclopedias often put ä, ö after ab, Ab, which is very annoying. Unfortunately none of the umlauts have a fixed place in the alphabet. They stand generally mixed up with a, o, u.

2. ă was ae, å, æ in M. H. G. ŏ was rarely marked; ŏ was oe, œ, ô; ŭ, also frequently not marked, was å, ue, û, å. The stroke over ⸗ is the remnant of o over u, which stood for the diphthong uo. This became û in N. H. G. (see 488, 4), hence the stroke.

363. On the marks to show length.

1. M. H. G. ie > i, but the sign ie of the old diphthong remained and was put also where i was lengthened as in kil > Kiel, spil > Spiel.

2. ℌ was used as a sign of length for several reasons. 1. It became silent as in ziehn, Schmäher, sehen, gedeihen. It stands frequently now, where an old j or w was dropped, as in blühen, Ruhe, drohen, Kuh, Stroh, but it is not pronounced. The preceding vowel was long originally, or became long according to the general vowel-lengthening. See 488,2. 2. O.H.G. *th* (= Eng. *th*) passed into *d*. This sign after the sound had changed appears still in the M. G. of the 12th and in the succeeding centuries, and stands not only for ḃ but also for t.

3. Since the 15th century many MSS. have regularly tℌ for t, and this tℌ was used indiscriminately whether the vowel after or before it was long or short, when printing was invented. In the 16th and 17th centuries tℌ was very frequent. Whether the breath-glide (aspiration) after t was then pronounced, and if so, whether it was appreciated and expressed by ℌ, is a question. *Paul* thinks this was the case. It would then be a development parallel to the Eng. *t* in *tch* for *ch* (= tsh). Certain it is that ℌ after t was no "*dehnungs*-ℌ" originally. In Wirth and Thurm, still in vogue, in older thanne (= Tanne), thisch (= Tisch), garthen (= Garten), ℌ could not be "*dehnungs*-ℌ." The grammarians of the 17th and 18th centuries began to consider it a dehnungs-ℌ and tried to limit its use. It has lost ground with every coming generation, and it is a pity that the official spelling does not abolish it entirely.

4. The doubling of vowels is the oldest method to show length. ü, i, and the umlauts are never doubled.

364. The use of initial capitals.

This is a self-imposed task of great difficulty and „Kopfzerbrechen." In the MSS. capitals were only used for the beginning of a paragraph, sometimes of each line; so also in the early printed books, in which the capitals were added by hand. In 1529 *Kolross* prescribed capitals for the beginning of every sentence, for proper names, for „Gott" and „Herr"

(Lord), as he says „Gott zu ehren und reverentz." Soon capitals spread over appellatives, then over neuter nouns, and then over the abstract. In the 17th century every noun and any part of speech that could possibly be construed as such got a capital. English can boast of some superfluous capitals in the names of the months, days of the week, points of the compass, adjectives derived from proper nouns, but German carries off the palm among the languages of civilized nations. The official spelling reduces capitals considerably.

365. The spelling of foreign words is in a hopeless muddle. There is no system and no rule. All that can be said is that there is a preference of one spelling over the other. The official spelling leaves much liberty.

ANALYSIS AND DESCRIPTION OF GERMAN SOUNDS.

366. In Part I. we have treated of the alphabet and the pronunciation of the letters in the traditional way. But this way is quite unscientific and is barely sufficient to start the student in reading. To describe the sounds of a language, however, is not an easy matter. If the instructor were acquainted with the Bell-Sweet system as presented in Sweet's "Handbook of Phonetics," Oxford, 1877 and in Sweet's "Sound-Notation," the matter would be comparatively easy and might be disposed of within small space. The system analyzes the vowels as well as the consonants according to the position of the organs, for nothing is more delusive than to "catch" vowels by the sound alone as is generally done. Sweet's Hdbk. gives specimens of German, French, English, Dutch, Danish, Icelandic, and Swedish, transcribed in Latin type, and if the student have a little perseverance, these transcriptions will be a great help to him in learning to pronounce any of the above languages.

The system uses none of those big Latin terms, which hide a multitude of inaccuracies and which are so much affected by philologians.

The Vowels.

367. 1. The most tangible quality of vowels is "roundness," produced by the rounding of the mouth-cavity in that region where the vowel is made. Pronounce ie of Biene, round it and you have ü of Bühne. Pronounce e of Beete, and round it and you have ö of Böte. Pronounce a of Falter, round it and you have o of Polter. In o is very little lip-rounding (labialization), but mostly cheek or inner rounding.

2. The second, but less palpable quality, of vowels is "narrowness." Its opposite is "wideness." A vowel is "narrow"

by the convexity of the tongue caused by a certain tenseness in it. It is "wide" when the tongue lies flat and relaxed. This is the difference between ī of Biene and ĭ of bin, between long ü of Mühle and short ü of Müller, between ō of Sohle and ŏ of ſoll, between the Eng. vowels of "mare" and "man," "sought" and "sot."

3. The third important element in producing vowels is the position of the tongue. Two positions should be distinguished, the vertical (height) and horizontal (forwardness or retraction). In each we distinguish three grades, viz., "high," "mid," and "low"; "back," "mixed," and "front." In the vowels of „liegt," „Licht," „lügt," „Lücke" the tongue is "high" and "front"; in the vowels of „Buch" and „Bucht" the tongue is "high" but "back." The table on next page shows the relation of the German vowels to each other and also to the English vowels.

Key-words for Vowels.

We give below some more key-words, some hints as to acquiring the sounds and some of the dialect-variations in pronunciation.

High Vowels.

368. 1. **u** (high-back-narrow round) is only long. Ex.: Hut, Tuch, Ruhe, Uhu. Short it is rare in S. G. Mutter, Futter. Since ū < *uo*, the second element still appears in S. G. as eh (in Gabe), but this pronunciation is not classical. See Hart's Goethe's prose, p. 40. Identical with Eng. *oo* in too, boot. Its length is either unmarked or indicated by h, *e.g.*, Tuch, Huhn, thun. It is never doubled.

2. *u* (high-back-wide-round) is identical with Eng. *u* in "full," but for a stronger labilization in G. Ex.: Mutter, Hunger, Spruch. It is always short. The *ŭ* pronounced by the extreme N. G. is rather like Eng. *u*.

TABLE OF ENGLISH AND GERMAN VOWELS.

NARROW.			WIDE.		
high-back	high-mixed	**i** high-front Biene E. bean	high-back	high-mixed	*i* high-front bitten E. bid
ʊ mid-back E. but	**eh** mid-mixed Gabe	**e** mid-front Seele E. sale	*a* (ˣ) mid-back Vater E. father	*eh* mid-mixed E. eye (eh[ih])	*e* mid-front Menſch E. men
low-back	**æh** low-mixed E. err, bird	**æ** low-front E. air	*a* low-back Sc. father	*æh* low-mixed E. how (æh[oh])	e_1 lowered mid-front Ähre *æ* low-front E. man
NARROW-ROUND.			WIDE-ROUND.		
u high-back gut E. woo	high-mixed	**y** high-front Mühle N. G.	*u* high-back muß E. pull	high-mixed	*y* high-front Müller N. G.
o mid-back ſo E. so	mid-mixed	**ø** mid-front ſchön, Goethe } S. G.	*o* mid-back Sonne N. G.	*oh* mid-mixed Fr. *homme*	*ø* mid-front ſchön, Götter } N. G.
ɔ low-back E. water	low-mixed	**œ** low-front Fr. *peur*	*ɔ* low-back E. not	low-mixed	low-front

3. **y** (high-front-narrow round). This differs from *u* by having the tongue-position of ī, that is, it is high-front, instead of high-back. Ex.: hüten, grüßen, Füße. Long all over Germany, but diphthongal in S. G. „Güte" = „Güete," which, like *ue* for ū, is not classical, though old. M. and S. G. rounding of ü is not so emphatic as N. G., so that ü sounds more like ī. Its length is sometimes shown by h, oftener unmarked. Ex.: Mühle, Stühle, Hüte, Tücher.

4. *y* (high-front-wide-round). This is N. G. short ü in Hütte, Flüsse, etc. S. G. short ü is only slightly rounded and rather the short of their long narrow ü, and therefore itself narrow. Extreme N. G. ü (in Bremen, Holstein, etc.) is rather "mixed" than front. The first ü (N. G., Hanover) is classical.

In the alphabet the ü-umlauts are represented by ü, üh, and y, as in Füße (short), Fühl (long), Myrte, Ly'rik.

369. 1. **i** (high-front-narrow). The same all over Germany. Ex.: Sieg, mir, vier, sieh. Before final *l* and *r* it is slightly diphthongal, showing a "vanish" or "glide" before the consonant. Viel, vier are not fīl, fīr, but, marking the voice-glide by $_{\wedge}$, fī$_{\wedge}$l, fī$_{\wedge}$r. (See Sweet's Hdbk., p. 133.) Always long. It is represented by i, ih, ieh, but generally ie. Ex.: Mir, ihr, Bier, stiehlt.

2. *i* (high-front-wide). Peculiar to Hanover and M. G., as in bin, Wind, Kind. The strict Low Germans of Holstein, Hamburg, Bremen lower this i toward e as in Eng., making it e[1], so that their Kind sounds much like *kent*. In S. G. neither *i* occurs. For it the medium long narrow i is substituted. Hence a S. G. pronunciation of Eng. little sounds like "leetle," while a N. G. has no difficulty with it. The wide *i* of Hanover and M. Germany may be considered classical. Always short. It is represented by i; by ie in vierzehn, vierzig, generally also in vielleicht.

MID VOWELS.

370. 1. **o** (mid-back-narrow-round). The regular German ō of Sohn, Thron, Hof. ŏ is S. G., as in hoffen, Loch, doch. ō is represented by o, oh, oo. Ex.: Mond, wohnen, Boot.

2. *o* (mid-back-wide-round). *ŏ* of M. and N. G., where S. G. has the narrow ŏ. Ex.: Sonne, toll, Stock. This and ō are perhaps the most difficult vowels for Eng. speakers. Do not lower *ŏ* to low-back, making it like Eng. *o* of stock, not. Eng. *o* is equally hard for N. G., as they too feel that the effect upon the ear is much the same, and they do not readily appreciate the difference in articulation.

The o-umlaut has very different shades in different parts of the country. The S. G. ö, whether long or short, is narrow (more "close"). The N. G. is wide (more "open").

3. **ø** (mid-front-narrow round) is both long and short in S. G. Long ö in böse, lösen, Goethe; short ö in Löcher, Köcher, Stöcke. S. G. ö is identical with Fr. *eu* in *feu*.

4. *ø* (mid-front-wide-round) is long and short in N. G. Long ö in schön, Möve, Löwe; short ö in Götter, Spötter, Störche. Do not confound ö with the vowels of Eng. bust, bird. The o-umlauts are represented by ö and öh; by eu in French words: Couleu'r.

Popularly speaking, S. G. ö is closer than N. G. ö. To acquire the sound it is best to start with ē as in „beete" and contract the mouth corners, in which the rounding mainly consists in this vowel, and „böte" will have to result. In ä the rounding is mainly in the lips (labialization).

In Berlin and M. G. there is a provincial pronunciation of ö which sounds very much like ē. It is caused by imperfect rounding and is by no means to be imitated.

371. 1. **e** (mid-front narrow) is easily produced. But guard against diphthongizing and widening it as in Eng. may, paid, pate. Ex.: Beet, weh, Thee, Reh. Pure Fr. and G. narrow ē sounds as if it were cut off short, and so it really is compared with Eng. ēi in say. Signs are eh, ee. Always long.

2. *e* (mid-front wide) is the common short *e* in Eng. and G. Ex.: Menſch, wenn, Zett(el).

ē (*e*$_1$) is slightly lowered toward the Eng. vowels of man, mare; for instance, Käſe, Ähre, wäre. Complete lowering to the Eng. vowel is provincial. Signs, *e*, *ä*, *äh*: wenden, Hände, Mähr. Distinguish therefore: Ehre — Ähre; Meer — Mähr.

3. **eh** (mid-mixed-narrow) is unaccented e and distinct from "long" and "short" *e*. It is more closely related to the Eng. "neutral" vowels of "cut" and "cur" than to any German vowel. Ex.: trage, glaube, Getränk, gewettet.

4. *a* (mid-back-wide). This has various sounds. In the city of Hanover *ā* is almost fully lowered to low-back. It sounds affected. The average G. *a* is almost identical with the *a* of Eng. father, only the latter, as I have frequently heard it, has the slightest trace of rounding.

The Austrian long *ā* has a very "deep" hollow sound. It is distinctly rounded and lowered, and is either low-mixed or low-front-wide-round. Signs, *a*, *aa*, *ah*: Tage, Saal, Wahl.

Diphthongs.

372. There are three of these, in which both elements are short and by no means the same throughout Germany.

1. The first is represented by ei and ai in the alphabet. The value of the signs is the same in N. G. and is *ăe'*. Its first element is not fully retracted and is exactly identical with the first element of Eng. "long" *i*. In S. G. the second element is clearly raised and even narrowed ī, and is better represented by *ai*. The first element of S. G. ai is clearly mid-back. (See Sweet's Hdbk., p. 133.)

2. The second diphthong, spelt au, is composed of *a* and *o* (short wide *o*) = *ao*, certainly in S. G. In N. G. the second element is, in my opinion, mid-mixed narrow-round, *i.e.*, the *e* of Gabe rounded.

3. The third diphthong, spelt eu, äu, rarely oi, is *oe'* (*e'* = *e* raised towards *i*) in N. G. and *oi* in S. G., *e. g.*, Freude, Gelaute. The former is classical. Any approach of eu towards ei is provincial and not elegant.

373. General Remarks on the Vowels. There are thirteen vowels, counting either N. G. or S. G. ö and not counting ä lowered mid-front. There are no "low" vowels in G. at all as in Eng. naught, not, snare, err, bag. All Eng. long vowels tend toward diphthongization, as in say, so, saw. The German vowels are pure single sounds and seem to an Eng. ear cut off short, See, so. Fr. and G. vowels are alike in this respect. They are strictly narrow. While German has no low-back-round vowels (saw, sot), the front-rounding is very emphatic, and the back-vowels are very fully back, yielding a full sonorous tone. See Sweet, p. 132.

The Consonants.

OPEN CONSONANTS.

374. 1. **H** (throat-open-surd) is the same in Eng. and G. It has always the articulation of the following vowel, and might be called therefore a surd vowel. Ex.: hat, Hut, hier, horch.

Sign: h. A h not initial is always silent, *e. g.*, gehen, geht, thun, Rathe'ber.

2. **R** (throat-open-sonant) is strongly "guttural," and the provincial N. G. pronunciation of r, rh, *e. g.*, in Regen, Neger, Bär, Furche.

For the regular, classical r (divided) see **377.**

375. 1. **kh** (back-open-surd) is the surd guttural spirant after back vowels, viz., *ā, ă, ū, ŭ, ō, ŏ.*

Sign: ch. Ex.: Loch, Macht, machen, Buch, Bauch. This is the Sc. *ch*, as in *loch*. After a, finally and before a consonant, it is more easily acquired than after u and before a front vowel. In S. G. dialect this is the only ch-sound, the front ch being unknown there.

TABLE OF GERMAN AND ENGLISH CONSONANTS.

	Throat.		*Back.*		*Front.*		*Point.*		*Point-teeth.*		*Blade.*		*Blade-point.*		*Lip.*		*Lip-back.*		*Lip-teeth.*	
	Surd.	Sonant.	Surd.	Sonant.	Surd.	Sonant.	Surd.	Sonant.	Surd.	Sonant.	Surd.	Sonant.	Surd.	Sonant.	Surd.	Sonant.	Surd.	Sonant.	Surd.	Sonant.
Open ..... (Spirants)..	H Hund	R rund N. G.	kh ach	gh Wage	jh ich	j liege jung		r rot M. & S. G.	th E. thin	dh then	s G. was	z E. ſagen N. G.	sh ſchön	zh Gage (foreign)		bh Waſſer S. G.	wh E. which	w E. water	f fand	v Wand N. G. E. vie
Divided....								G. ſ laſſ Haſſe				E. l								
Shut (Mutes, Explosivæ)..			E. & G. k Kind	g Gans			t Ton	d das			E. t	E. d			G. E. p	G. b				
Nasal.....				q E. & G. ſinge long				n fand				E. n				m E. & G. me mir				

376. In explanation of some of the terms it may be necessary to state the following. See Sweet, p. 31–35. *Throat* and *Back* are included in "guttural," but are formed by the root of the tongue and the soft palate. *Front*, *point*, *blade*, *back* refer to the tongue. "Front" means the front or middle of the tongue and the roof of the mouth (palatal). "Point" means the point of the tongue and the upper gums or teeth (alveolar, dental). "Point-teeth" means interdental. "Blade" is very forward "front." "Divided" means that the current of air is stopped in the middle of the passage and allowed to escape on the sides. *Surdness* (voicelessness) and *sonancy* (= voice, produced by the vibration of the vocal cords) apply to every consonant, though the liquids are not surd in German. *Shut* consonants or *stops* are so called from the entire closure of the passage. *Open* means no contact or closure, at most a narrowing of the passage. *Nasal* means closed mouth passage, but open nasal passage. h is a mere diacritic after k, g, etc.

2. **jh** (front-open-surd) is sometimes called the "palatal-guttural." It stands after the front (palatal) vowels (*i. e.*, after all vowels except a, o, u), including the diphthongs, ai ei, eu äu, and always in the suffix –chen. Ex.: Ich, euch, Bücher, möchte, leicht.

3. The sonants corresponding to *kh* and *jh* are *gh* and *j*; *gh* stands after back vowels, *j* after front vowels and initially. Ex.: Woge, Zuge; Ziege, Wiege, lügen, je, jagen, böge. But *gh* for g (back-shut-sonant) in this position, though very common, is not classical.

4. In the alphabet these four sounds are represented as follows:

kh by ch after back vowels, as above; by final g in N. G. after back vowels, not counting consonant suffixes, *e. g.*, Tag, Zug, bogst, magt, Jagd. See chs, **383**.

jh by ch after front vowels and consonants; always in –chen no matter what precede. Ex.: Licht, Furche, Storch, Mädchen, Mamachen, leuchten, euch, Molch, Milch. See chs, **383**. Also by g final or at the end of a syllable in N. G. after front vowels and consonants, not counting consonant suffixes. Essig, wollig, lügst, liegt, segnen, legst. Also by initial ch in foreign words before front vowels, *e. g.*, Chemi'e, Che'rub, Chiru'rg. See also **383**. Do not confound this sound with *H* + j (= y) in Eng. huge, hue.

gh by medial g after back vowels, *e. g.*, Lage, Bogen. See sub 3.

j by medial g after front vowels, liegen, Zeuge, güt'ger. But this sound of g is provincial even in N. G. and the "hard" one (= shut, stop) is preferable.

Regularly by j initial. In N. G. a strong friction (buzz) is heard as in Eng. ye, yew. Ex.: Jäger, jung. S. G. *j* is a mere *i*, je = *ie*, jung = *iung*. The latter is, no doubt, the better pronunciation. I have heard even a regular Eng. *j* (= *dzh*) in Bremen.

5. Sweet, I believe, was the first to notice a slight labial element after ch when preceded by u and au, indicated by *w*. Hence auch = *aokhw*. See **378**.

377. r (point-open-sonant) is the classical r of M. and S. G. Eng. *r* is rather "blade" (dorsal) than "point."

Popularly speaking, Eng. *r* is "rolled," G. *r* is trilled. The effect upon the ear is very different in the two *r*'s, though their articulation is not so dissimilar. See Sweet, § 109 and p. 134.

378. **s, z, sh, zh** (blade and blade-point) form a group of "sibilants" closely related to each other and to Eng. *th*, *dh* (point-teeth). They are very much alike in Eng. and G., and no description is needed to acquire the German. (For the different varieties see Sievers' Phonetik, § 15, 2, and Sweet's Hdbk., p. 39.) The N. G. sounds are more forward than the S. G. and Eng. Eng. *th* is farthest forward (point-teeth), then *s*, and then *sh*, on the palate. In *th* the current of air passes over the "point" (tip of the tongue), in *s* over the "blade" which is back of the point, and in *sh* over blade and point, presenting more tongue-surface. In the G. sounds a slight labialization is noticeable, marked by Sweet *shw*. It consists in a slight contraction of the mouth corners.

1. **s** (blade-surd) is represented by various letters of the alphabet (except in N. G.), viz., by ſ, s, ß, ſſ. Ex.: ſoll, Haus, Fluß, Waſſer.

2. **z** (blade-sonant) by medial and initial ſ, peculiar to N. G., as in leſen, raſen. Initial ſ begins surd, marked by Sweet s_{Λ}, as in $s_{\Lambda}ol$, but ends sonant. The standard is hardly fixed in favor of *s* or *z*. See **391**, 4.

3. **sh** (blade-point-surd) by ſch and ſ in the initial ſt, ſp of S. and M. G., as in Schlange, Schinken, waſchen, Stadt, Sprache. The first word would be = *shwlage*. By ch in foreign words, Champa'gner, Chika'ne. See **375**, 4. On ſt, ſp also **389**, 4.

4. **zh** (blade-point-sonant) occurs only in foreign words; by g in Charge, Gage, Page, Loge, Gensdarm. = j in Journal. In jovial j = j and frequently j in Journal = *dzh*, Eng. j. Compare Eng. azure, crosier, glacier.

379. **bh** (lip-sonant) is the S. and M. G. w, pronounced with the lips only. Blow to cool which would be surd *bh* and then intonate the breath (Sweet, p. 41). Do not confound with Eng. *w*, in which the back of the tongue is raised and

the cheeks are narrowed. S. G. w is less consonantal than Eng. *w*.

380. **f** (lip-teeth-surd), **v** (lip-teeth-sonant). The above sounds are "labio-labial." These are labio-dental. The passage is formed by the lower lip and upper teeth.

1. **f** is represented by f, v, as in Hafer, faul, Sclave, Frevel, Nerv, Paſſiv, Levkoje; by ph in foreign words: Philologie. For pf see **389**, 1.

2. **v** is represented by w in N. G., like Eng. and Fr. *v* but less energetically buzzed. Ex.: Wagen, Löwe, Schweſter. After ſch, however, w is often made labio-labial in N. G., as well as in M. and S. G. The pronunciation of v as *bh* or *v* between vowels is hardly classical, for instance, Frevel = *frevel* or *frebhel*. By initial v in foreign words, as in Vaka'nz, Vaſe, Vehi'kel, nervö's.

381. German l, t, d, n differ somewhat from the Eng. The place of contact (on the palate) in the G. sounds is much more forward than in the Eng. and the "point" of the tongue is used in the former while the "blade" is used in the latter. Eng. "well" is the shibboleth of the German speaking Eng., and G. „wohl" that of the Englishman speaking German. The difference should be thoroughly appreciated by all who wish to speak "pure" German.

1. **l** (point-divided) is represented by l, as in Licht, Fall, wohl, Falter.

German ll is peculiarly hard. Practise upon Welle, Walle, Halle, Wolle. See **376**.

Shut Consonants or Stops.

382. Next comes a group of sounds in which there is a complete closure of the mouth-channel. When the closure is opened an explosion takes place, hence their name "*explosivæ*." "Stops" is a less pedantic name. When the closure is far back, formed by the root of the tongue and the soft palate, we get the back-stops *k, g*, called also not so well "*gut-*

tural" and "*palatal.*" When the closure is forward, formed by the point of the tongue and the teeth, gums, or palate, as the case may be, we have the point-stops *t*, *d*, called also "*dental*" or "*lingual*," or "*alveolar.*" If the closure is made by the lips, we have the lip-stops or "*labials.*" The great difference between G. and Eng. stops, particularly of the surd, lies in the more energetic closure and explosion of the G., amounting almost to an **H** (aspiration).

383. 1. **k** (back-shut-surd) is represented by k, as in Katze, buk, Kragen; by ch: *a*, before e (in the same stem); *b*, in foreign words before back vowels. Ex.: *a.* Fuchs, sechs, Buchsbaum, wachsen; but wachsam. *b.* Chara'cter, Chaos, Cholera. But see **375**, 4; **378**, 3. Also by ck, ckk, with prolonged closure: Zucke, zurückkehren. By final g in S. G. and according to the standard pronunciation. See **375**, 4; **385**, 3; **20.**

This g is not strongly exploded, has no aspiration, and is called with final b and b. by German phonetists "*tonlose media*," by the people "hard" b, b. To English speakers it seems absurd to speak of a "surd" or "hard" *b*. We would call these sounds *p, t, k; i. e.* surd stops, unaspirated, slightly exploded.

a. Also by final g preceded by n, but only in N. G., as in lang, jung. See **386**, 1.

2. **g** (back-shut sonant) is represented by g initial and when doubled, as in gehen, sagen, ärgern, baggern, Egge. See **375**, 4.

384. 1. **t** (point-shut-surd) is represented by t, tt, as in Wette, heute, Tante, Hut; by th, as in That, Thal, formerly very common finally, as in Muth, Heirath, Heimath, which are now spelt without h. Also by b final, as in Tod, geschieb, sind, Kleid, Händchen. See **385**, 3. By dt only in Stadt and its derivatives, but formerly more frequent, as in todt, Brodt, geschieht, Erndte, which are now spelt tot, Brot, etc.

2. **d** (point-shut-sonant) is represented by b initial and medial, as in danken, der, Boden, Kleider, Widder.

385. 1. **p** (lip-shut-surd) is represented by p, pp (see **382**, but Eng. *p* before vowels is often as strongly aspirated, *e. g.*, pound, par, pat. Ex.: Pulver, Pracht, Haupt, Kappe, Wappen. Also by b final, as in Dieb, gab, lieb, hob, hobſt, web=t, lieb=t. See sub 3.

2. **b** (lip-shut-sonant) is represented by medial and initial b. For final b see sub 3. Ex.: Böſe, Bube, Ebbe, krabbeln.

3. Final b, b are therefore pronounced t, p all over Germany, and g as k according to the standard pronunciation, but not in N. G. See **383**, 1. For g after n see **383**, 1, *a*.

4. Before b, b, g, pronounced as surd stops, the liquids l, n, m are short, and not long as in English. Pronounce wilb therefore nearly with the *lt* of Eng. *wilt*, und with the *nd* of *hunt*, not of *hound*, *wild*.

Nasals.

386. The nasals are also "shut" consonants, but they are not stops (with explosion). The air passes through the nose, and we distinguish them according to the place of contact.

q is the "back-nasal-sonant" common to Eng. and G., as in Eng. bring, G. bringe, ſinge.

1. **q** is represented by n before k, before g in N. G., and by medial ng. Ex.: Trank, Wink, bange, lange, Finger. Final ng is **q** according to the standard, *e. g.*, Geſang, hing. For N. G. final ng see **383**, 1. Also by n of en, in, on, an, ent final in foreign words, as in Dauphin, balancieren, Avancement, Escadron, Bonbon.

This is an unsuccessful attempt of Germans at pronouncing the French nasal vowels, which are not at all identical with **q**; **q** does not exist in French. Though incorrect, this sound is given by the educated classes and by the stage.

387. **n** is the "point-nasal" (half-dental). For Eng. and G. *n*, see **381**. *n* is represented by n, nn as generally written, except where it becomes either guttural or labial by the proximity of guttural and labial consonants. (See **386**.) Ex.:

ſenden, Hand, Spinne, Bündel, manche, Tünche, wohnen, Thron, wandten = vantn.

388. **m**, the lip-nasal, is identical in Eng. and G. It is represented by m, mm: Mund, Stimme, warm; also by en after b and p, as in pumpen = *pumpm*, Treppen = *trepm*.

1. In untaught pronunciation not influenced by the letter, n is also pronounced as m before f, as in ſanft, fünf, Hanf, Zukunft, Zunft. Over-precise speakers pronounce as two full syllables words like blei-ben, Lumpen, ſin-den, ſin-gen, etc., but persons speaking naturally pronounce as stated above.

Compound Consonants.

389. These are composed of single sounds already described, but some of them seem to call for special mention. Their elements are closely joined together without any glide.

1. **pf** is composed of p and f, and is always represented by pf, as in Pfirſich, Kampf, Karpfen, Sumpf. But this pf is not pronounced except by a special effort. The current and "natural" pf is composed of a lip-teeth-stop and f. (This was first noticed by Sievers and Sweet.) The first element being formed by lower lip and teeth instead by lower and upper lips, as in a real lip-stop. Final pf is in N. G. commonly made into f, but it is not to be imitated.

2. **ks** is composed of the surd back-shut and the surd blade-open, as in Eng. Represented by r, as in Art, Text, Nixe, Alexander; also by chs and chſ, if of the same stem, as in Wachs, Ochſen. See **383**, 1.

3. **ts** is composed of the surd **t** (point-shut) and **s** the surd blade-open. Represented by z, as in Zunge, Ziel, Weizen, Warze; by tz, as in Sprützen, ſchwitzen, Katze; by c in foreign words before front vowels, as in Acce'nt, Civi'l, Recenſe'nt, Cölība't, etc.; by t in foreign words before i, as in Patie'nt, Natio'n, etc.

4. G. **ts** differs from Eng. **ts** in cats, hats in this respect. in G **ts s** is long, in Eng. **ts t** is long. In ſt = **sht** and ſp = **shp** (see **378**. 3) the first element is also short. In "natural" pronunciation final ıß in N G. is made into ß after n, rarely after r and l; so that ganz becomes Gans, Schwanz > Schwans. But this is not classical.

5. Though there are doubled letters, both vowels and consonants, there are no doubled sounds. Double vowels denote one long vowel, as in Saal, Staat, Moos, and double consonants are long energetic consonants, as in Wette, haſſen, Treppe, zerren, Treffer, Sonne, alle. But the consonants are not always long and short in G. in the same places where they are so in Eng. See, for instance, **385**, 4. Final consonants are short in German. Compare Mann, wohl, Hut with Eng. man, well, hut The Eng. sonant stops *d*, *g*, *b* are very long and their sonancy is very emphatic. This is not so in German. Compare Ebbe — ebb, Egge — dagger, etc.

ON A STANDARD OF PRONUNCIATION.

390. While Germans have a common literary language, they have not a common spoken language. German cannot boast of such authorities in pronunciation as French has in Paris, in the French Academy and in the Théatre Français. Provincialism, so strong in German politics and other institutions, is particularly strong in pronunciation. All sections of the country readily acknowledge the "*Schriftsprache*" as the common language of the country, but in pronouncing the same they claim the utmost liberty.

1. You can hear professors of the German language at the universities speaking in the purest dialect-pronunciation; so you can, preachers in the churches and representatives in the state-legislatures and in the „Reichstag."

2. The great authors of the classical period, Lessing, Goethe, Schiller, Klopstock, etc., pronounced the literary language with strong dialect coloring. One of Lessing's favorite phrases was: „Es kommt doch nichts dabei heraus," which he is said to have pronounced „'s kömmt doch nischtapei 'raus." Goethe was called "*Gēte*" by them. Compare Goethe's defence of dialect in „Aus meinem Leben" (Hart's Goethe's Prose, p. 19–20).

3. To dialect pronunciation are mostly due such bad rhymes as: Leute : Weite; ſchön : gehn; früh : nie; Höh': See; ferne : Gehörne; which occur in their poems. Platen, Rückert, and Bodenstedt carefully avoid these rhymes. In families of culture in Cologne you hear *dit* and *dat* for dies and das. In Bremen are still families who take pride in having the children learn the L. G. dialect first.

4. In Hanover, both in the city and in the surrounding districts of the province, the pronunciation is generally considered classical, and yet Hanoverian has three strong provincialisms: 1, ſt, ſp, which most Germans pronounce ſcht, ſchp; 2, they pronounce the sonant stop g as the spirant, while it should be pronounced as a surd stop just what all Germans make of b and d; 3, in the city itself a is made almost into long ä.

391. The only institution that claims to have a standard and tries to come up to it is the stage. The best theatres of Germany and the better actors, followed by a very small number of the cultured, strive after a dialect-free pronunciation. The standard set up by them decides the disputed points as follows:

1. Initial ſt, ſp are to be pronounced ſcht, ſchp. But only the initial. Never pronounce iſt — iſcht, biſt — biſcht.

2. Pronounce g surd: Berg = Berk, Weg = Wek, liegt = liekt.

3. Pronounce r trilled, not uvular or guttural, as in North Germany.

4. North and Middle Germans pronounce initial ſ and ſ between vowels as sonants; the standard is not quite settled, but will probably come to sonant ſ.

5. The rounded vowel should be fully rounded. The extreme N. G. pronounces u, o, ü (short) in Hagebutte, komm', Hütte too much like Eng. but, come, hut. The extreme S. G. likes to unround ü > i, ö > e.

6. Tag, Zug, Weg have long vowels, = tāc, zūc, wēc. See sub 2; also **488**, 2, *b*.

7. The lip-teeth w and not the S. G. labio-labial bh has the preference.

392. 1. But it is possible to have a dialect-free pronunciation and yet have dialect-accent, *i. e.*, "intonation," "modulation of voice." Very pronounced are, *e. g.*, the "accents" of Berlin, Vienna, Bavaria (München), Saxony, which can be distinguished without much difficulty even in a good pronunciation. The stage favors the North German "accent," particularly the Hanoverian, and this is at bottom what is meant by saying the Hanoverian is the best pronunciation.

2. There is another reason, however, why the N. G. pronunciation is "purer," as it is generally called, than S. G. The Low German dialects are farther removed from the classical language than the High German. The contrast is felt more in North Germany than in South Germany. The school and the educated make a stronger effort to acquire the standard pronunciation as far as there is any. The N. G. is more influenced by, and has a higher respect for, the written language. He pronounces according to the letter before him. Compare, for instance, b and p, which the Saxon calls a "soft b" and a "hard b."

3. Another reason for the purity of N. G. lies also in the political and intellectual predominance of the Northern half of Germany for nearly two hundred years. The speakers of S. G. dialects are divided between Switzerland, Germany, and Austria. The modern theatre also developed earlier in N. Germany than in S. Germany.

4. The Swiss too can speak dialect-free German when conversing with strangers, of whom they of course see a great many. They make then a special effort to drop their dialect, which is nearly as far removed from the written language as is a Low German dialect.

5. One thing is surprising, viz., that the excellent G. school-system has not more power to spread a common spoken language. It is true, the school does modify the dialect, but when the child has left school, its language relapses, as a rule, into pure dialect.

SOME PHONETIC LAWS, LIKE ABLAUT, UMLAUT, GRIMM'S AND VERNER'S LAWS, ETC.

Ablaut.

393. Ablaut is the gradation of vowels, both in stem and suffix, under the influence of accent. The vowels vary within certain series of related vowels called *ablaut-series*.

The ablaut of suffix-vowels, *e. g.*, of case-suffixes, is difficult to determine even for so early a period as O. H. G. or Ags. We shall speak only of the stem-vowel-ablaut.

The phenomenon of ablaut appears in all the I. E. languages and is characteristic of the Teutonic languages, only in so far as a very large system of verb-inflection has been developed. On the Greek ablaut, see Amer. Journ. of Phil. vol. I., No. 3, p. 281—, an article by Bloomfield.

394. Osthoff and Brugman have the credit of establishing as many as four grades or stages of ablaut, viz., *hochstufe*, strong and weak; *tiefstufe*, strong and weak, which may be called in Eng. *strong, medium, weak, zero.* They do not appear in every series. But the second has them all, viz., "*au*" strong; "*eu—iu*" medium; "*û*" weak; "*ŭ*" zero. The first two stand under the strong accent; the third under the secondary, the last in the unaccented syllable.

Why there should be a difference of vowel under the strong accent is not clear, but the fact of two grades is undeniable.

1. For the I. E or Parent-speech-period three series have been reconstructed with tolerable certainty and there are traces of several more. But the exact quality of the vowels can hardly be determined. o of the first I. E. series was probably unrounded, and more a than o, see **459**.

1. e—o, G. T. e, i—a, appears in I. to V.

2. ă—ā, G. T. a—ô, in VI., see **459**, 4.

3. ē—ô, O. H. G. ā—uo, in G. tât, That — tuon, thun.

We give the Germanic series in Branne's order. (See his Gothic grammar, followed also by Sievers in his Ags. and Paul in his M. H. G. grammar.)

395. * I. Ablaut-series.

	*1 *strong.*	2 *medium.*	3 *weak.*	4 *zero.*
G. T.	ai	ei	î	i
		î		
O. H. G.	ai, ei, ê	î		i, e
N. H. G.	ei (ie, i), ē	ei		i (ie), ē, ĕ.

Compare Gr. πέποιθα, πείθω, κλῖμαξ, πέπιθμεν; οἶμος, εἶμι, ἴμεναι, ἴμεν. ĭ is the zero stage, because the first element of the diphthong, e—o, has disappeared, while the second, the consonant element of the falling diphthong, has become a vowel.

* The figures I., II., etc., always refer to the ablaut-series: the figures 1, 2, 3, 4 refer to the ablaut stage.

Ex.: 1, *lêren*, lehren, < *laisjan*, to teach; *lêra*, Lehre, + Ags. *lâr*, Eng. lore; Leiſten + last (Kluge); pret. sg. of strong verbs of Cl. I. 2 and 3, pres. of verbs of Cl. I. 4, Liſt, lernen, with the words of 1, from the same √lxs. x represents the vowel that is to appear according to accent and is an unknown quantity in the root. 1, zeigen, Zeigefinger; 2 and 3, zeihen; 4, geziehen, verzichten, all from a √dxc. Compare L. *dīcere*. Notice the Eng. cognates show in 1, a, ō: ladder, wrote, last, lore, loaf; in 2 and 3: ī, rise, smite; in 4, ĭ: risen, smitten, list.

396. II. Ablaut-series.

	1	2	3	4
G. T.	au	ēu	û	ŭ
O. H. G.	ou, ô	iu, eo, io	û	ŭ, ŏ
N. H. G.	ō, ŏ	ie, eu	au	u, ō, ŏ.

All four grades still apparent in German. û bears the same relation to ēu, au as ī to ēi, ai. See above. Compare χέϝω, χοϝή, χυμός, χυτός.

Ex.: From the √lxk: 1, Lohe, flame. 2, Licht < *liht*, leuchten, + light. 4, Luchs + lynx (?). From a √klū: 2, Leumund. 3, laut < *hlût* + loud; 4, Ludwig, Luther, Gr. κλυτός, L. *inclūtus*. Again, 2, ſiech + sick, Seuche, and 4, Sucht. See the strong verbs of Cl. II. < √b'xd': 1, bot pret. of bieten. 2, bieten, Gebiet. 4, Bote, Gebot, Büttel + beadle. Eng. bid represents older *beodan* II. and *biddan* V. The corresponding Eng. vowels are very irregular.

397. III. Ablaut-series.

	1	2	3, 4
G. T.	a	ē, i	u before r, l, m, n
German	a, e (umlaut)	e, i	u, o.

As to 3 and 4, see 459, 3, *a*. The roots all end in r, l, m, n + cons.

Ex.: See the strong verbs of Cl. III. From the root of winden, wand, gewunden, + wind: 1, die Wand, wenden < **wandjan*, + Eng. wend, gewandt, wandern + wander, etc. 2, die Winde, Windel. < Germanic √bxrg. 1, barg pret. sg. 2, Berg, Gebirge, bergen. 3, 4, Burg, + burgh, borough, to burrow. Bürger, Bürge, borgen + borrow(?). Also + bury. Corresponding Eng. vowels in verbs before nasals are i in 2, a in 1, u in 4, *e. g.*, spin, span, spun. In nouns, etc., they are quite irregular, but generally also i, a, u, o.

398. IV. Ablaut-series.

	1	2	3, 4
G. T.	a, ê	ĕ	u
O. H. G.	a, â	ē, i	u, o
N. H. G.	ā	ē, ĕ, ie, i	ū, ŭ, ō, ŏ.

The roots end in a single liquid or nasal, or these stand before the vowels. ê, â are not yet explained.

Ex.: Verbs of Cl. IV., ſtehlen, ſtahl, geſtohlen. 1, Diebſtahl. < $\sqrt{\text{dxm.}}$ 1, zahm, zähmen + tame. 2, geziemen. 3, 4, Zunft. < $\sqrt{\text{b'xr.}}$ 1, die Bahre, + bier, barrow(?), ſich gebahren, die Gebärde, -bar. 2, gebären + bear, Eimer < *ein-ber*, Zuber < *zwiber* (see Kluge). 3, 4, die Bürde + burthen, die Geburt + birth, die Gebühr (?), gebührlich. Eng. cognates show generally ea, ō, *e. g.*, bear, bore.

399. V. Ablaut-series.

	1	2, 3, 4
G. T.	a, â	ĕ
O. H. G.	ă, ā	ĕ, i
N. H. G.	ā, ă	ē, ĕ, i, ie

Only two grades. The roots end in a single consonant, not a liquid or nasal.

Ex.: Verbs of Cl. V. < Germanic $\sqrt{\text{gxb.}}$ 1, gab, Gabe. 2, 3, 4, geben, gegeben, du giebſt, die and das Gift. Eng. vowels the same, + give, gave, gift.

400. VI. Ablaut-series.

	1	2, 3	4
G. T.	ô	a (o ?)	u
O. H. G.	uo	a, e	u
N. H. G.	ū, ŭ	a, e (umlaut)	ū, ŭ

4 Not in the past part., only in nouns. A difficult series.

Ex.: Verbs of Cl. VI. < $\sqrt{\text{pxr.}}$ 1, fuhr, führen. 2, 3, fahren, die Fahrt. 4, die Furt + ford. < $\sqrt{\text{mxl.}}$ 1, M. H. G. *muol* (now mahlte). 2, 3, mahlen, Mehl + meal, malmen, Malter. 4, Mühle + mill, Müller, Mull, Maulwurf + mole, by popular etymology < *moltwurf* + mould-warp.

Umlaut.

401. Umlaut is the modification of an accented vowel by an i (j) in the next syllable.

1. By it a, o, u become sounds lying nearer to i. In other words, back and mixed vowels become more like front vowels through the influence of front vowels. The tongue-position of back and mixed vowels changes to "front," while the rest of the articulation remains the same. This "fronting" is called by the Germans "mouillierung," *i.e.*, palatalization. Sievers' theory is that the intervening consonants were first affected and then the immediately preceding vowel. Such palatalized consonants are the Fr. l and n still in "*feuille*" <*folium*, *Espagne* < *Hispania*.

2. To understand umlaut we must go back to a period in which i (j) was still tolerably intact as in O. H. G. But there was only one umlaut marked in that period, viz., that of ă and its sign was e just like the original e now distinguished by ¨ = ĕ. In M. H. G. the umlaut of the other vowels appears and is unfortunately very irregularly represented. Sievers supposes that the consonants were already palatalized in O. H. G. and that they imparted their change to the vowel in M. H. G. But it is also very likely that the vowels were already palatalized in O. H. G., only the alphabet was not sufficient to show the change.

Ex.: *lamp—lembir*, Lämmer; *gabi* > *gaebe* > gäbe, pret. sbj.; *gast—gasti* > *geste*, Gäſte; * *ali-lantjo* > *eli-lenti* > *ellende* > elend, unfortunate because in an "other country;" *scôni* > *schoene* > ſchön; *angil* > Engel; *bôsi* > böſe, etc.

402. The extent of this phenomenon varies with the period and the dialect. Certain consonants have prevented umlaut. But we cannot enter upon a further discussion. Compare gebuldig, gewaltig. By umlaut, then, a > ä, e; o (=) > ö (=); u > ü (=); au > äu, eu, but this only seemingly in cases where au < ū, since ū passed into ū (iu) and this into eu, äu, according to 488, 5.

1. While in German umlaut is still a living principle, it is dead in Eng. and has been for some 8-900 years. Eng. only has isolated forms with umlaut, *e. g.*, mouse—mice, cow—kine, etc., that belong to no system of inflection or derivation in which umlaut serves as the expression of a function or meaning. We call the above examples "irregular" plurals.

2. There is no such thing as "rückumlaut" = "umlaut reversed," as the old grammarians called it. *e. g.*, in denken, dachte, gedacht. See 454, 3.

Interchanges of Vowels: e — i, ie; no Umlaut — Umlaut; u — o; ie — eu.

403. e — i (ie). 1, where e is original, that is G. T. and I. E. ĕ. ĕ passed into i before i (j) standing in the unaccented syllable, a process exactly analogous to umlaut; ĕ > i

also before a nasal belonging to the same syllable, generally before nasal + cons. The physiological reason for the latter change is not clear.

Ex.: The present of Cl. III., IV., V., see also the O. H. G. paradigm. The first p. sg. *nimu* may be due to analogy, but in O. H. G. and Ags. ë > i also before u and it may therefore be a phonetic transition. ſitzen, liegen, bitten have i all through, see **457**. 1, but Seſſel < *sezzal*. Feld—Gefilde < *gifildi*. recht—richten < **rihtjon*, + L. *rectus*. Feder—Gefieder; fern—firn < firni. Verbs of III. Cl.: finden, ſchwimmen. Geben—Gift < *gifti*.

2, i is original, but passed into ë before a, e, o in the next syllable or if the word ended in a consonant. i remained before i (j) and before w.

The cases of i > ë are not numerous. It is a High German and Old Saxon peculiarity. Eng. has still i.

Ex.: keck—erquicken + quick, quicken; leben + live, kleben + cleave, ſchweben belong to ablauts. I. with the zero grade. Verweſen, to decompose, compare L. *virus*, Skr. *vish-am*. Leber + liver. Pech + Eng. pitch < L. *pic-ë*. Steg < same root as ſteigen I.; Wechſel — + Lat. *vic-es*. er < *ir*, + Lat. *is*.

404. Umlaut — no umlaut.

Ex.: Verbs of VI. and VII. Cl., but in the latter mostly by analogy, *e.g., faru, ferst, fert* — fahre, fährſt, fährt. Alt—Eltern < *eltirôn*. Comp. + eldera. Adel < *adal* — edel < *edili*. Comp. + Ethel. Very numerous and the umlaut often more or less hidden.

405. u — o. In the stem-syllable u is always the older and passed into o before a, e, o. It was preserved like i before i (j), w and a nasal belonging to the same syllable.

This process is also one of assimilation similar to umlaut, called "*brechung*" by the older grammarians.

Ex.: See verbs of Cl. II., III., IV. in the past part. and compare with them the pret. pl. and nouns from the same stem, *e.g.*, Flucht, Zucht, Vernunft, Zunft. Sollte < *scolta* — Schuld; hold — Huld < *huldî*; hohl — Hülle, h < *hxl*. Gold — Gulden (a coin), but golden + golden by analogy; Bote — Büttel < *butil*. The transition before nasals is quite modern and M. G. Comp. Sonne < sunna; Sommer < sumer; Sohn < sunu; past part. of III. Before n + cons. (not n) u remains now, gefunden, Bund, geſunken, Ankunft.

406. ie (io) — eu (iu). iu being levelled away and ie standing for both io and iu, this interchange is not common now. Both iu and io < G. T. ĕu. ĕu > iu before i (j) and w, but > eo before a, e, o; and later eo > io > ie, ie. The process is ĕ > i and u > o in the same diphthong.

Ex.: Ablauts. and Cl. II., see **124**, Remark. Was da kreucht und fleugt (Sch.). bieten — Beute (?), Beutel (?).

Grimm's Law or the "*shifting of mutes*," Lautverſchiebung.

407. It concerns the so-called "mutes," b, p, f; d, t, th; g, k, ch, media, tennis, aspirates. This law was discovered by Rask, but first fully stated by Jacob Grimm. It includes two great shiftings, the first prehistoric, that is, General Teutonic or Germanic; the second, historical or German. The first is a peculiarity of the whole group and shared to very nearly the same extent by every member of the group; the second is a peculiarity of the German dialects proper, is partial both as to the number of sounds and of dialects affected. We very briefly represent the first shifting. See the author's article in the Amer. Jour. of Phil., vol. I., for a fuller account. Let y represent the sonant stops, z the surd ones and x the so-called "aspirate," which represents various sounds. The following formulas will be of use. G. is added now merely for illustration.

	Parent-speech, I. E.		G. T.		G.
I.	x	>	y	>	z
II.	y	>	z	>	x
III.	z	>	x	>	y

Notice I. E. is the oldest stage of the language reconstructed from the various I. E. dialects. You can substitute for I. E. any language but the Teutonic, provided you make allowance for any changes in that particular language, *e. g.*, d' has become f or d in Latin. By General Teutonic or Germanic is meant that stage which is reconstructed from all the Teutonic dialects. By G. we mean the written language of Germany; H. G. means South and Middle as opposed to Low German.

Substitute in each formula the labials, dentals, etc.

408. Form. I. 1. $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{d'}$. I. E. $d' = d +$ sonant aspiration (Ellis), "sonant affricate," this d' through G. T. dh (sonant spirant) > d > H. G. t, but dh remains in Go. and Scand., *e.g.*, I. E. * *d'ur–*, Gr. θύρα, L. *fores*, > G. T. * *dur–*, Eng. door > G. Thor — Thür, doublets.

2. $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b'}$. I. E. b' > G. T. bh, b > G. b, *e. g.*, I. E. $\sqrt{\text{b'xd'}}$, ablauts. II., Gr. πυθ– > G. T. $\sqrt{\text{bxd}}$, Eng. bid > G. bieten, bot, geboten. No German shifting of b > p therefore.

3. $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{g'^1}$. I. E. $g'^1 >$ G. T. gh, g > G. g, *e. g.*, < $\sqrt{g'^1u}$ (Skr. $\sqrt{\text{hû}}$ > G. T. $\sqrt{\text{gu–}}$), *gud–, Eng. God > G. Gott, "the being invoked" (see Kluge). No German shifting of g>k.

4. $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{g'^2}$, the second series of gutturals, the "labialized" > G. T. g, gw (w) if medial, > G. g, or zero if medial, *e. g.*, I. E. * *ang'²*, L. *angustus* > G. T. *angu–*, Go. *aggwus* > G. enge < *angi* < * *angwjo*. I. E. * *g'²ostis*, L. *hostis* > G. T. *ghast*, *gast*, + Eng. guest > G. Gaſt.

409. Form. II. x in G., see later.

1. $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{d}$. I. E. d > G. T. t, Eng. t. < $\sqrt{\text{dxnt}}$, to eat, I. E. *dont–*, L. *dent–s* > G. T. *tunth–*, Eng. tooth > Zahn, < *zand*. Before d the vowel has disappeared by apocope. The form is participial = "the eater" (Kluge). Comp. L. *edere* > Eng. eat > G. eſſen.

2. $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{b}$. I. E. b is very rare and examples doubtful.

3. $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{g^1}, \mathbf{g^2}$. I. E. $g^1 >$ G. T. k = G. k. < $\sqrt{\text{gxl}}$., L. *gelare* > G. T. * *kald*, Eng. cold, cool + G. kalt, kühl, ablauts. VI. I. E. $g^2 >$ G. T. kw, k = G. k, qu, *e. g.*, < $\sqrt{g^2\text{xm}}$, L. *venio* (< * *gvemio*) > G. T. *quëman*, Eng. come, + G. kommen, adj. bequem. The phonetic change of y > z consists in the loss of sonancy.

410. Form. III. x = G. T. surd spirant, I. E. z = unaspirated surd stop.

1. **z = I. E. t.** t through the transition stage t' = t + surd aspiration > G. T. th > H. and L. G. d, *e. g.*, L. *tertius* > G. T. *thridj–*, Eng. third, > dritte.

2. **z = p.** I. E. p > G. T. f, bilabial, Eng. f > G. f: L. *pisc-is* > G. T. **fisk-os* > Fiſch, + Eng. fish.

3. **z = k¹, k².** I. E. k¹ > G. T. h, kh, > G. h, ch. Ex.: L. *pecus* > G. T. *fëhu*, Eng. fee, > Vieh. I. E. k² > G. T. hw, h, Eng. wh, > G. w, zero = silent h. L. *sequ-or* > G. T. *sëhw-an* > ſehen, + Eng. see. L. *quis*, *quod* > G. T. *hwër*, *hwat* + Eng. who, what, > G. wer, was.

Verner's Law.

411. After the first shifting and when the accent was not yet limited to the root-syllable (see **420**, 2) a new phenomenon appeared, viz., Verner's Law or the "shifting of spirants." The G. T. surd spirants th, kh, f, s became sonant spirants and later sonant stops, when the immediately preceding vowel was unaccented. This affects only form. III., but the transition of sonant spirants into sonant stops is identical with the transition of the sonant spirants which sprang < sonant affricate according to form. I. See **408**. Hence there is an interchange of the following consonants: th — dh, d which became G. t; f — bh, b; kh, khw — gh, ghw, g, w; s — z, r. See **416**.

As to accent, see **420**. Students who know Greek can generally go by the Greek accent, which is often still the I. E.

Ex.: Gr. πατήρ > G. T. *fathar* > *fadhar* (Go.) > *fádar* (Ags.) > G. Vater, M. Eng. has again dh (through Norse influence?), but L. *fráter* > G. T. *brôthar*, Eng. brother > G. Bruder according to form. III. G. T. *líthon*, *laith*, but pl. *lidhon–*, part. *lidhan–*, Eng. loathe, > G. leiden (litt by levelling), gelitten. L. *sequ-or* > G. T. *sëhwan*, *sahw*, *sëgwum–*, *sëgwan–*, O. S. *sehan*, *sah*, *sâwum*, *giswan*, Eng. see, saw, seen (levelling) > G. ſehen, ſah, geſehen (levelling, h silent). G. T. *wësan*, *was*, *wërum–*, *wësan–* > Eng. was — were > G. war (levelling), waren, geweſen (levelling). Compare frieſen — fror (for, levelling) — gefroren.

412. In certain consonant groups the first shifting of Grimm's Law allows of modifications.

1. Original st, sk, sp remain, *e. g.*, L. *vestigium* + G. Steg, Stieg; L. sc in *poscere* + G. T. sk, Eng. and G. sh, ſch in forſchen, waſchen (see **457**, 4). L. sp in *spicere*, *speculum* + G. ſpähen + espy, spy.

2. Before t every dental has become s, every labial f, every guttural kh, ch, while t remains intact, but st can become ss by assimilation. Examples are very numerous.

Du weißt < *vaist* < **vaid*+*t*; L. *cap-tus* + G. -haft (but see Kluge); L. *noct-em* + G. Nacht + night; Macht + might < $\sqrt{mxg}$, from which mag—mögen, ablauts. VI.; gewiß < *wid-to' a past participle < $\sqrt{wxd}$, + L. vid-, + to wit, wist. The differentiation into st and ss is difficult to explain. Kögel ascribed it to accent, but see Kluge, P. and B. Beiträge, vol. VIII. A different origin has the st of Reſt, Raſt (of a ship), Gerſte, and a very few others, viz., < zd. For these see Kluge. See also **454**, 3.

THE GERMAN SHIFTING.

The second or German shifting we shall treat chiefly with a view to represent Eng. and G. cognates. We shall not treat of every dialect separately. It must suffice to say that upon the extent of shifting the classification of the dialects is based. See **480**. For a full account, see Braune's article in P. and B. Beitr., vol. II. In fact, to Braune we owe the best light that has been thrown upon this difficult subject. This second shifting, though coming within the historic period of the language, had been much less understood and more misrepresented than the first shifting. The material was very different from that of the first shifting and the result had to be different, though Grimm supposed that the first stage was reached again in H. G. Nor is there room to enter into the chronology of the various steps, though it has been tolerably settled. The latest shifting, th > d, we find still going on in the 12th century, and is the most extensive of all the shiftings. Geographically the movement began in the South and the farther North it spread the less it grew and the later it occurred. See **480**. We follow the order of the formulas. Where Eng. is identical with G. T., as is generally the case, the Eng. examples will at the same time illustrate the corresponding sounds and the cognates of Eng. and G.

413. Form. I. 1. G. T. **d** > G. **t**. Eng. dead—G. tot; do—thun; bed—Bett; steady—ſtetig; mother for M. Eng. moder—Mutter (see **411**); hoard + Hort.

a. Where Eng. d—G. b in a small number of words, there d has been restored in N. H. G. through L. or M. G. influence, M. H. G. showing t; or the word has come from L. G. into the written language. Eng. dumb

—bumm; dam — Damm; down — Düne; "Dutch" is L. G. > Eng., while G. deutſch belongs to form. III. After l and r are some cases of d — b, *e.g.*, wild — wild; mild — mild; murder — Mord. These are due to a change of Ags. th > d. Also after n, *e. g.*, wind — winden; bind — binden. These are due to a change of O. H. G. t > d.

2. Eng. b and g = G. b and g, see **408**, *e.g.*, bold — bald; beck — Bach; gold — Gold; garden — Garten. For mb — mm, see **490**, 4. But b and especially g have often disappeared in Eng. Compare hawk — Habicht; Haupt, < *houbit*, — head; Regen — rain; Wagen — wain. G. b — Eng. v, haben — have; lieben — love, etc.

3. G. T. **bb** > G. **pp**: Rappe < * *rappo*, G. T. *rabbo–*, but Rabe — raven. Knappe < * *knappo*, G. T. *knabbo–*, but Knabe — knave. Ebbe + ebb, is L. G.

4. G. T. **gg** > G. **ck**, but G. T. **gg** > Eng. **dzh** (–dge). **mugjô*, Ags. *mycge*, Eng. midge — G. Mücke. * *hrugjo*, Ags. *hrycge*, Eng. ridge — G. Rücken. Eng. edge — Ecke, bridge — Brücke, etc. Egge, harrow, is L. G.

5. y = sonant stop has sprung either from I. E. x = sonant affricate according to form. I. or from I. E. z = surd stop > G. T. surd spirant according to form. III. and Verner's Law, in both cases through a sonant spirant. Notice "affricate" is a double consonant, "spirant" is a single one. The process of G. T. y > G. z is loss of sonancy the same as I. E. y > G. T. z. Notice that consonants were doubled, *i. e.*, lengthened before West-germanic j, w, r, l, as the examples show, see **389**, 5.

414. Form. II. 1. G. T. **z** > G. **x**. G. T. t > G. ts (z, ß) and this remains when initial, after r, l, n and when sprung from tt, but becomes ȝ (Grimm's sign), supposed to have been a lisped s, and later s (ſ, ß), see **490**, 2.

In M. H. G. this ȝ and s never rhyme, hence they must have been different sounds. tt > ts is much later than t > ts.

Examples exceedingly numerous: tongue — Zunge; wart — Warze; holt — Holz; mint — Münze < L. *monēta* through * *múnita*; * *satjan* > Eng. set — G. ſetzen; whet — wetzen; wheat — Weizen; sweat — ſchwitzen; water — Waſſer; hate — Haß, haſſen, etc. All seeming exceptions can be explained in some way or other, *e. g.*, in foreign words introduced since the shifting: tar — Teer < L. G.; temple — Tempel < L. *templum*; tun

— Tonne > Keltic(?). The combination tr is an exception. Compare also ft, kht, st, **412**, 2. True — treu; bitter — bitter < G. T. *bitr-os;* winter — Winter. Hinter and unter are M. H. G. *hinder, under,* see **413**, 1, *a.* Words introduced before the shifting are Germanized, *e. g.*, plant — Pflanze < L. *planta;* tile — Ziegel < L. *tegula.*

2. G. T. p > G. pf, which remains initially, after m, and when sprung from pp, but passes into f after vowels and r, l.

Ex.: Eng. path — G. Pfad; pea(-cock) — Pfau < L. *pavo;* plight — Pflicht; swamp — Sumpf(?); rump — Rumpf; hop, hip — hüpfen; stop — stopfen; sleep — schlafen; hope — hoffen; sharp — scharf; help — helfen.

a. Where Eng. and G. p correspond, they indicate either L. G. or other foreign words introduced since the shifting, *e. g.*, pocks — Pocken; poke — pochen < L. G.; pain — Pein < L. *pœna;* pilgrim — Pilger < L. *peregrinus;* pulpit — Pult < L. *pulpitum.*

3. G. T. k > G. kh, jh (ch), except initial k and double k, which appears as t. Eng. has frequently palatalized its k into tsh, written ch, tch.

Ex.: Eng. like — gleich; bleak — bleichen; knuckle — Knöchel; knee — Knie; church — Kirche; cook, kitchen — Koch, Küche. Westgerm. kk — Eng. k — G. t: bake, baker — backen, Bäcker; waken — wecken; acre — Acker; naked — nackt.

a. The links between G. T. z and G. x are probably surd stop + aspirate, surd stop + spirant, spirant, *e. g.*, k > k + H > kkh, an affricate, > kh. kkh is still S. G., tth is the Irish pronunciation of Eng. th. The processes are identical with those of I. E. z > G. T. x. But G. x is a long consonant or an affricate, while G. T. x < I. E. z is a single, weaker consonant. Compare the present machen having a long and strong ch with Wacht; hoffen, Hanf with the initial f as in für, Feuer, vor. The latter corresponds to G. T. f, the former to G. T. p. See below.

415. Form. III. G. T. x > G. y. This shifting only took place in the dentals. G. T. th > G. d. Eng. thing — G. Ding; that — das; hearth — Herd; earth — Erde; brother — Bruder.

As to extent and time of this shifting, see p. 185. The process of the shifting of the G. T. surd spirant under the accent > G. sonant stop, final surd stop is identical with that of G. T. surd spirants unaccented > G. T. sonant spirant > G. T. sonant stop in certain positions. For this G. T. y > G. z, see **411**.

1. Eng. h, gh, f correspond to G. h, ch, f (v), but Eng. gh is often silent.

Ex.: Eng. floor — G. Flur; fowl — Vogel; heart — Herz; hart — Hirſch < *hirz*, ; might — Macht; fraught, freight — Fracht.

2. G. T. **hw**, Eng. **wh** — G. **w**. Ex.: Eng. which — G. welch; whelp — Welf.

3. All irregularities must be explained as before, either as due to levelling or to foreign origin. See **414**, 1. herd — Herde, L. G., but Hirte — shep-herd according to rule; throne — Thron < Gr.-L. *thronus*. The relation of Tauſend to thousand is not cleared up.

Eng. f — G. d, L. G., see **493**, 4. h before l and r has been lost in both languages. Comp. κλυτός, Ags. *hlûd* — Eng. loud, G. laut; < $\sqrt{krx}$, ablauts II. Lat. *cruor* — Ags. *hrea* — Eng. raw, G. roh.

THE INTERCHANGES RESULTING FROM THE SHIFTING OF G. T. SPIRANTS. See **411**.

416. Levelling has so largely done away with the results of Verner's law in German that what is left of them may be looked upon as isolated cases. They appear more in derivatives of the same stem than in the verb-inflection.

1. d — t most frequent: leiden — litt, gelitten; leiten; ſieden — ſott, geſotten. f — b: darf, dürfen, Notdurft — darben, verderben (?). h, ch — g: ziehen (h silent), Zucht — gezogen, Herzog. ſ — r: Verluſt, + loss — verlieren (levelling), verloren + forlorn; kieſen — Kur, erkoren.

417. Correspondences between Eng. and G. consonants outside of the shiftings.

1. Loss of n before spirants in G. T. and later. Before G. T. kh as in fahen (archaic for fangen) < *fanhan; dachte < *danhte, + thought, etc. Ags. — Eng. also before th and f, when G. has preserved n. Compare: tooth — Zahn; mouth — Mund; but south — Süd, of L. G. origin; soft — ſanft, but ſacht, of L. G. origin.

2. Eng. wr — G. r: Eng. write — reißen, ritzen; wrench — renken; wretch — Recke; wring — ringen.

3. Eng. w, r, l, m correspond to G. w, r, l, m.

4. For Eng. m — G. n, see **490**, 5. For Eng. mb — G. mm, see **490**, 4.

5. Eng. s (original s) — G. s: house — Haus; sink — sinken.

a. Eng. x — G. x, chs. The phonetic value of the sign is the same in both languages. The sign x, borrowed from Latin, stands for chs, ks, ds. Ex.: Eng. wax — G. wachsen; fox — Fuchs; axle — Achse; box — Büchse < Gr. πυξίς; box — Buchsbaum < L. *buxus*.

ACCENT.

418. We are following still the traditional method of treating of the accent, but, as a matter of fact, in speaking we never divide the word into the syllables or the sentence into the words as they are printed or written. Such a division is purely for the eye and artificial. We speak in "*breathgroups*," as Sweet calls them. Sievers uses "*Sprechtakt*," but "*Sprechtakt*" would be better. A breathgroup consists of a certain number of sounds that can be pronounced "in one breath," as we say. If one or two sounds have very strong stress then the number of "syllables" in the group is small, because the store of air is spent. If one syllable has only the amount of air spent upon a secondary or medium accent, then the number of syllables can be larger. Eng. and G. have a prevailingly falling rhythm, that is, the stress falls upon the initial sounds or syllable of a group. French is different. Its stress is very uniform and the predominant stress very difficult to place in the group. Excellent authorities, both French and Dutch, claim that the stress lies at the begining; other authorities, just as high, that it lies at the end of the group. The French groups are very long.

In G. and Eng. the amount of stress concentrated upon some part of the group varies, else there would be a great monotony as in French, but Fr. has a more varied intonation or "tone," which gives it an advantage over Eng. and G.

1. For very trustworthy division into breathgroups, see Sweet's transcriptions of Eng., G. and Fr. in his "Handbook." For the whole difficult subject of the synthesis of sounds, see Sweet and also Sievers' Phonetik, § 33. Notice that the principle of breathgroups is recognized when we speak of proclitics and enclitics. All syncope, elision, contraction, metre, assimilation take place according to this principle. When there are too many syllables to to be pronounced conveniently by one breath-impulse some are cut off and always according to a certain fixed rule varying with the different languages. Or if the sounds coming together in a group are very different we assimilate them to each other. This we call "ease of utterance" or "euphony."

419. We distinguish three degrees of accent or "stress," viz., *chief* (strong, primary), *medium* (secondary), and *weak*, marked respectively ˈ, ˌ, ˘. Thus: Aˈpfel, baˈnkbaˌr, Daˈnkba˘rkeiˌt.

1. "Weak" also includes "unaccented," when there are not syllables enough, *e. g.*, Dˈbstgaˌrte˘n, Aˈpfe˘lbauˌm. But when the word is very long

or in a group of several words we may distinguish not merely between weak and unaccented, but the variety of stress can be further marked by figures, *e. g.*, Bere'dsa˘mkei't (Be unmarked or $^{4\,1\,3\,2}$): Groß^{1}herz^{2}og^{4}tum^{3}, Ältertums^{1}kun^{4}de^{3}, Vierzig^{1}jähriger^{2}.

Accent in Uncompounded Words.

420. The chief accent rests in all uncompounded words on the stem-syllable (no matter if suffixes and inflectional endings follow). This syllable is always the first, *e. g.*, Va'ter, vä'terlich, fo'lgsam, Lä'cherlichkeit, Klei'nod, schmei'cheln, die Hu'ngernden.

1. Exceptions: lebe'ndig from le'ben; words in -ei and -ier, -ieren, *e. g.*, Malerei', benedei'en, vermaledei'en, studie'ren, Barbie'r; luthe'risch (long e), meaning "Lutheran," pertaining to that confession, but lu'ther(i)sch, of, pertaining to Luther; äthe'risch; a few derivatives in -ha'ftig (see **526**, 2); wahrha'ftig, leibha'ftig, sometimes teilha'ftig; also wahrschei'nlich, but see **422**, 2.

2. This limitation of the primary accent to the root syllable is a peculiarity of the Germanic languages. It is called the logical or "gebundene" accent. The other Indo-European languages have the "free" accent, which can fall on any syllable. The original accent must have been preserved in G. T. until after the shifting of I. E. z > G. T. x, because then the law of spirants (see **411**) went into effect.

3. The Teutonic element of Eng. has, of course, the same accent as G. and even the Norman-French element in Eng. has largely submitted to the Germanic accent, *e. g.*, sea'son < L. *satio'nem*; rea'son < L. *ratio'nem*; li'berty < L. *liberta'tem*. Compare the foreign accent in G. Saiso'n, raisonnie'ren, Qualitä't. It is to be noted that the two past participles and the pret. pl. were not stem-accented, originally, standing in contrast with the pres. and pret. sg. The accented suffixes we cannot enumerate.

Accent in Compound Words.

421. In compound words the chief accent rests upon the stem-syllable of the first component part if the second part is a noun (subst. or adj.); on the stem-syllable of the second part if this is a verb or derived from a verb: Fa'hrstra`ße, Na'chtwä`chter, Scho'ßhu`nd, lie'brei`ch, gna'de˘nvo`ll, Bei'trag, A'ntwort, Fü'rsprech, U'rteil, vo'rnehm, Mi'ßgunst; but verspre'chen, ertei'len, verne'hmen, betra'gen, vollbri'ngen, mißli'ngen, vollko'mmen.

1. This old principle should be understood even by the beginner, though to him there will seem to be many exceptions, which an advanced scholar will generally account for. A'ntworten, u'rteilen are no exceptions, because they are derived from the nouns

A'ntwort, U'rteil; nor are das Verla'ngen, der Befe'hl, verne'hmlich, because they are derived from the corresponding verbs. Vollko'mmen has the correct accent, because it is a past participle.

The prefixes are fully treated in the word-formation, which see.

422. The more striking exceptions are as follows:

1. A large group of words which have not become real compounds but have sprung from mere juxtaposition in orthography: Das Lebeho'ch, vivat; viellei'cht, Vielli'ebchen, Lebewo'hl, Vergi'ßmeinnicht, Hausna'rr, Hoherprie'ster, Langewei'le (but La'ngweil after the genuine compound Ku'rzweil), Jahrhu'ndert, Jahrze'hnt, dreiei'nig, Dreiei'nigkeit, aller- + -lie'bst, -e'rst, -hei'ligenfeſt, etc.; Dreifö'nigsfeſt. Their etymologies are apparent.

2. In a number of adjectives, most of them ending in -lich, and their derivatives, the chief accent has shifted from the original position to the syllable preceding the suffix: vorzü'glich, but Vo'rzug; vortre'fflich; abſcheu'lich, but A'bſcheu; ausdrü'cklich, but Au'sdruck; die Vortre'fflichkeit, die Ausſü'hrlichkeit, leibei'gen. In some the accent is uncertain, but the chief accent on the first element is preferable, *e. g.*, ha'ndgreiflich better than handgrei'flich; no'twendig, wa'hrſcheinlich, ei'gentümlich. A distinction is sometimes made between ei'gentümlich, "belonging to," and eigentü'mlich, "peculiar to." Notice offenba'r.

3. barmhe'rzig, full of pity, Kar- (formerly Char) as in Karfrei'tag, Good-Friday, Karwo'che, Holy Week (K a r-, + *care*, sorrow, but also Ka'rwoche), Frohnlei'chnam, Corpus Christi, perhaps because the meaning of the first element is no longer clear. Südo'ſt, Südſüdo'ſt, nordwe'ſtlich as in English.

4. In a large number of adjectives in which the first element denotes a comparison or a high degree, *e.g.*, himmelho'ch, as high as heaven, eiſka'lt, as cold as ice, fohlſchwa'rz, the accent may stand on the second element, but must remain on the first when the adj. is inflected. Steinrei'ch, "very rich," originally "rich in precious stones," ſtei'nreich, stony, are sometimes distinguished.

5. aller- is accented only in a'llerhand and a'llerlei, doubtful in several, as in a'llerſeits. all- is generally unaccented: allei'n, allmä'hlich, allgemei'n, but also A'llmacht, A'llvater, A'lltag and its derivatives, but also alltä'glich, as sub 4.

6. un-. For this prefix it is difficult to find a general rule. The best founded and most practical is this, based upon nominal and verbal compounds: Un- compounded with nouns and adjectives not derived from

verbs attracts the chief accent; if they are derived from verbs, then the stem-syllable retains its original accent, *e. g.*, u'nfruchtbar, u'nbankbar, u'nklar, U'nmenſch, but unglau'blich, unſä'glich, unentbe'hrlich, unvera'ntwortlich, unbegrei'flich. Notice, however, une'ndlich, ungeheu'er — u'ngeheuer. See *a*.

a. With regard to adjectives there is also a feeling approaching a principle, that un should have the chief accent, when a regular adjective exists, of which the compound with un- denotes the contrary or negation: brau'chbar, u'nbrauchbar, fi'chtbar, u'nfichtbar, etc. This feeling frequently unsettles the accent, as unverzei'hlich > u'nverzeihlich.

7. Ober- varies in accent in compounds consisting of three parts. When it belongs to the second part it has chief stress, and the third part secondary stress: O'berkiefer-verle'tzung, injury of the upper jawbone. But if the second and third form one subdivision and ober- denotes rank, then it has less stress than the third part and the second has chief stress: Oberſchu'lle'hrer = chief school-teacher; Ober-mu'ndſche'nk; Obergeri'chtsa'nwalt, chief attorney. But accent the first and last examples differently and they mean different persons, viz., O'berſchulle'hrer, teacher at a high-school; O'bergerichtsan'walt, attorney at a high-court of justice.

423. In compound **adverbs** the chief accent falls generally upon the second element, if they are compounded of a simple adverb and a preceding or following noun or pronoun; or if compounded of two adverbs, *e. g.*, bergau'f, ſtroma'b, jahrei'n, jahrau's, zuſo'lge, anſta'tt, hinü'ber, hervo'r, ſoſo'rt, dahi'n, dahe'r, überau's, überei'n, überhau'pt, vorha'nden, abha'nden.

1. This includes their derivatives ſoſo'rtig, zufrie'den, vorha'nden.

Exceptions are: 1, compounds which contain demonstrative and possessive pronouns, *e. g.*, de'mnach, de'rgeſtalt, mei'netwegen, etc.; a'nder- or a'nders-, -halb, -wärts, -geſtern, *e. g.*, a'nderswo, a'nderſeits, o'berhalb, hei'mwärts, vo'rwärts, vo'rgeſtern, etc.; de'mnoch, e'twa; 2, many compounds which are fused adverbial phrases and derivatives from compounds. They retain their original word accent, *e. g.*, a'ngeſichts, a'bſeits, na'chmittags, ü'bermorgen, zu'ſehends.

See the rhetorical accent, **426**.

424. For the **secondary accent** rules can be given only in derivatives and compound words.

1. Certain nominal suffixes have always medium stress.

a. Substantive suffixes: –at, –ut, –od; –heit, –richt, –in, –keit, –lein, –ling, –nis, –sal, schaft, –tum, *e. g.*, Hei'ma't, Klei'no'd, E'wigkei't, Fi'nsterni's, Trü'bsa'l, Kö'nigtu'm.

b. Adjective suffixes: –bar, –haft, –icht (?), –isch (?), –lich, –sam, –selig, *e. g.*, bella'gba'r, e'hrenha'ft, e'rdi'cht, he'rri'sch, la'ngsa'm, trü'bse'lig.

2. In nominal compounds the secondary stress falls upon the root-syllable of the second part, *e. g.*, Rü'dgra't, Fa'hrwa'sser, Au'ßensei'te, Ni'chterfü'llung, U'ngere'chtigkeit, le'bensmü'de, hi'lfsbedü'rftig.

3. In double compounds when one or both parts are again compounded the secondary stress falls upon the first or the only stem-syllable of the second part. But care must be taken in properly separating the parts, *e. g.*, Be'tt–vo'rhang, Re[1]'chnungs–a[4]'blage, Go'lb–be[2]'rgwe[3]rk, Pe'lz–ha'ndschu[5]h, Fe'ldma'rschall; but Ha'ndschu[5]h–ma'cher, Ru'ßbau[3]m–ho'lz, Schri'ftste[3]llerverei'n.

The misplaced medium stress would give no meaning at all, *e. g.*, Ru'ß–bau'mholz, because bau'mho'lz is meaningless. In Feu'erversicherungs–gese'llschaft secondary accent on –st'ch– is only possible, if there is such a thing as Feu'er–re'ttungsgesellschaft.

4. The foreign endings, of course, also cross this accentuation, *e. g.*, Bu'chdruckerei', U'nterse kretaria't, i'rrlichtelie'ren.

425. Unaccented are all inflectional endings, many prefixes and suffixes. The syllables generally contain e = eh.

426. The rhetorical accent (emphasis) can interfere with the placing of the various degrees of stress, but this does not differ from the English: da'rbei and dabei'; ei'nmal, einma'l. In Sch.'s Wallenstein occurs Ka'nn nicht sein, kann ni'cht sein, etc.

427. The accent in foreign words is as a rule foreign. Very few words have taken German accent when introduced since the O. H. G. period. Substantives in –ie and –ei, verbs in –ieren retain, for instance, the primary accent on these suffixes, *e. g.*, Magie', Theologie', Druckerei', studie'ren, hantie'ren.

B. HISTORICAL COMMENTARY UPON THE ACCIDENCE.

Comments on the Noun-Declension. 1. Vowel-Declension.

[*See table on next page.*]

There are two numbers, three genders. Only two cases have now endings, viz., G. sg. and D. pl., but other parts of speech still inflect for the N. and A. The number of cases was gradually reduced. In O. H. G. there is still an Instrumental.

428. 1. There were two large systems of declension according as the stem ended in a vowel or in a consonant. Vowel stems ended in o or in ô. We generally count here also the *i*- and *u*-stems, but they really belong to the consonant stems, since i and u have the functions of consonants as well as of vowels. Stems in o (*jo, wo*) belong to the I. E. e — o ablaut-series and are always masculine or neuter. Stems in ô (*jô, wô*) belong to the a — ô series and are always feminine. *jo, wo, jô, wô* are counted as separate classes, because j and w produced some peculiar changes. *u*-stems are very rare, since they soon became i-stems, *e.g.*, *sunu*, pl. *suni*, Sohne. There is only one neuter *i*-stem in O. H. G., viz., *meri*, das Meer + L. *mare*.

2. The consonant stems end in n, r, in a dental and in a guttural. The most frequent are the *n*-stems, to which went over a great many fem. nouns from the earliest times, *e.g.*, *zunga* + L. *lingua* for *dingua*.

3. J. Grimm fancied that there was strength in the vowel-declension and so called it "strong," the consonant declension he called "weak." The names have been generally accepted and though Grimm's reasons are fanciful the terms have the advantage of brevity.

4. The stem and case endings have been very much reduced according to certain principles called the "laws of finals" and the "rules of syncope." We cannot illustrate these here, as it would presuppose a knowledge of the older dialects. There was also a great levelling of cases, *e. g.*, the N. sg. fem. (*ô*-stem) took *a* from the A. sg. fem. Its own vowel had to go according to the law of finals.

429. *I*-Stems.

The paradigms of "kraft" and "gast" show which cases were entitled to umlaut. The sg. of the masc. very early took its G. and D. from the *o*-stems. The feminine was made invariable in M. H. G. since the apparent cause of umlaut had disappeared and since all other feminines, strong and weak, did not vary in the root-vowel.

Masculine.

	O-STEMS.			Jo-STEMS.		I-STEMS.	U-STEMS.
	O. H. G.		M. H. G.	O. H. G.	M. H. G.	M. H. G.	O. H. G.
	Short-stem.	Long-stem.					
Sg. N.	tac	fogal	vogel	hirti	hirte	gast	sunu
G.	tages	fogales	vogel(e)s	hirtes	hirtes	gastes	sunes
D.	tage	fogale	vogel(e)	hirte	hirte	gaste	sun(i)u
A.	tac	fogal	vogel	hirti	hirte	gast	sunu
I.	tagu	fogalu		hirt(i)u			
Pl. N., A.	tagâ	fogalâ	vogel(e)	hirte	hirte	geste	sun(i)u, –i
G.	tago	fogalô	vogel(e)	hirt(e)o	hirte	geste	sun(e)o
D.	tagum	fogalum	vogel(e)n	hirtim	hirten	gesten	sunum, –im

Feminine.

	A-STEMS.		I-STEMS.		N-STEMS.		T-STEMS.	JÂ-STEMS.
	O. H. G.	M. H. G.	O. H. G.	M. H. G.	O. H. G.	M. H. G.	O. H. G.	O. H. G.
Sg. N.	geba	gebe	kraft	kraft	zunga	zunge	naht, through	mâgin
G.	gebâ	gebe	krefti	krefte, kraft	zungun	zungen	the sg. and in	mâginna
D.	gebu	gebe	krefti	krefte, kraft	zungun	through	N. and A. pl.	mâginna
A.	geba	gebe	kraft	kraft	zungun	all cases sg. & pl.		mâginne
Pl. N., A.	gebâ	gebe	krefti	krefte	zungun			mâginne
G.	gebôno	geben	kreft(e)s	krefte	zungono		nahto	mâginno
D.	gebôm, ôn	geben	kreftim	kreften	zungôm, ôn		nahtum	maginnôm

Neuter.

	O-STEMS.	PL. –IR.			
	M. H. G.	O. H. G.	M. H. G.		
Sg. N., A.	wort	kalb	kalp	herza	herze
G.	wortes	kalbes	kalbes	herzin	herzen
D.	worte	kalbe	kalbe	herzin	all through
Pl. N., A.	wort	kalbir	kelbir	herzun	
G.	worte	kalbiro	kelber(e)	herzôno	
D.	worten	kalbirum	kelber(e)n	herzôm	

430. 1. A small group of fem. is interesting, because the sg. was levelled in favor of the longer umlaut-forms of the G. and D., while the pl. became weak at the same time. For instance, die Ente, the duck, inflected M. H. G. at first *ant, ente, ente, ant;* pl. *ente, ente, enten, ente.* Then it became *ente* for the whole sg., *enten* for the pl., as it is now. Similarly M. H. G. *bluot*, now die Blüte + blowth; *sûl*, now die Säule, column; *vurch*, die Furche + furrow, no umlaut in M. H. G.; *huf*, die Hüfte, this form "huft" with excrescent t, + hip, also Eng. with umlaut, + Ags. *hype; stuot*, die Stute, + stud. Thräne, Zähre + tear, Thür (?) + door, are originally plurals, that have become singulars. See Kluge.

a. In this way doublets could spring up, *e. g.*, M. H. G. sg. *stat, stete, stete, stat* furnished die Statt + stead, die Stadt, pl. Städte, city, and die Stätte, pl. -n, place, spot—all + Eng. stead. Statt only occurs in the sense of representation "in place of," anstatt, an seiner Statt, an Kindesstatt, to adopt as one's own child. Another such is M. H. G. *fart*—modern die Fahrt, pl. Fahrten, ride, and die Fährte, pl. Fährten, track, scent.

2. All nouns in -heit, -keit, -schaft and a large group of others were in M. H. G. still strong (mostly i-stems), but are now weak.

3. The modern fem. nouns in -in, pl. -innen, are also strong in O. H. G. The suffix *-in* < *-njâ*. See paradigm of *mâgin*. They had the fate of all fem. nouns, viz., invariable in the sg., generally -en in the pl.

431. Plurals in -er. See paradigm, p. 195.

1. This sign started from old *os*-stems corresponding to L. *genus, generis; corpus, corporis.* It is rare in O. H. G. in the sg., where it may have been even reintroduced from the pl. In the G. and D. pl. *-o, -um* are the regular case-endings. *-ir* therefore is really stem-ending, but it was too convenient a form for the pl. to escape being used as a pl. sign. Some eight to ten nouns are thus inflected in O. H. G. In M. H. G. *-er* spread and gradually formed a pl. even of masculines.

2. The word Ei is originally a *jo*-stem. The double plurals in -e and -er have sprung up from the apparent necessity of distinguishing sg. and pl. of neuters, which according to the law of finals had to lose all endings. Some nouns took e, some er, some both. In the latter a distinction in meaning developed. See **58** and the inflection of *wort* and *kalb*, p. 195.

2. Consonant Declension.

432. The masculine and neuter *n*-stems ended once in *-on, -jon*, the feminines in *-ôn, -jôn*. They correspond to the L. *homo, hominis; fulmen, fulminis; ratio, rationis.* As to their frequency in the Teutonic languages, see **478**, 5. The Latin declension shows also in the singular, how the case-endings were added; in O. H. G. these appear still in the pl., *e. g.*, in *herzonô* ô is sign of G. pl. What was therefore the mere stem-suffix has become a means of inflection in the course of time.

1. *r*-stems are the names of relationship, Vater, etc. They with the dental stems were forced into the strong, first into the *o*-, then into the *i*-declension for lack of case-endings, which could appear only in the G. and D. pl., viz., *fatero, faterum*. Already in M. H. G. the umlaut appears in the *r*-stems.

2. Nouns like Güte, Menge, Größe end in i or in in O. H. G.: *guoti, managi*, -in. That is, they were *jô*- and *jôn*-stems. They are all derivatives from adjectives, and those in in are later than those in i. In O. H. G. they had i or in throughout except in the G. and D. pl., which were *managîno, managîm* respectively. Therefore umlaut throughout. The in-forms had to coincide in time with the strong feminines in *-in(n)* at least in the sg. and therefore disappeared. They were rarely used in the pl. See paradigm of *magin*, p. 195.

433. 1. All feminines having now no inflection in the sg. and the old strong fem. having taken e(n) in the plural, it is difficult to tell the original vowel-stems from *n*-stems. It would be correct to summarize the changes that have taken place in them, thus:

All fem. nouns have become strong in the sg. and most of them by far, weak in the plural.

2. The fem. *ô*-stems (see paradigm) had already two cases in *-en*, viz., G. and D. pl., the other two were like the whole sg. It is not to be wondered at, then, if N. and A. pl. also took *-en* and thus a sharp contrast was formed between the sg. with no variation and the pl. with -en throughout. By this levelling and by the *jôn* (i and in) stems the loss of *-en* in the sg. of *n*-stems was brought about.

434. 1. *-n* in the D. and G. sg. is still frequent in the 16th century and is preserved in certain phrases and in poetry. Schiller's Wallenstein's Lager has Kirchen, Stuben, Sonnen. Festgemauert in der Erden (Sch.). See **171**.

2. The masculines in -e are the bulk of old *n*-stems in M. H. G. Some nouns have become strong, *e. g.*, Aar, Hahn; others have become weak, Hirte (originally *jo*-stem), Held (already in M. H. G.). See **61**.

3. As to the nouns in **46**, 1, in M. H. G. e was dropped after r and l in

the N. sg. and all through; after m and n only in the N. In modern G. no –t is the usage. See paradigm of *vogel*, p. 195.

435. 1. In O. H. G. were only four neuter *n*-stems, viz., *ôra*, Ohr; *ouga*, Auge; *herza*, Herz; *wanga*, Wange. In M. H. G. they inclined toward the strong and now the first three have joined the mixed declension; *wanga* has become weak and fem.; *namo*, der Name, was once neuter. Comp. L. *nomen*, *nominis*.

2. Interesting are die Biene + bee and die Birne + pear, in which the inflectional *n* has entered the stem. Compare the older *bîe*, *bir*. This entering of *n* into the N. of masculines is very common and has furnished the bulk of strong nouns, 1. class sub 1 and 4, 46, *e. g.*, Rücken, Galgen, Pfosten, Roggen, Schaden (but notice the isolated „es ist Schade," it is too bad). One can tell these by comparing them with their Eng. cognates + ridge, gallow(s), post, rye, etc., which show no *n*.

3. In der Heide < heidan + heathen; Christ + Christian < *kristen* < L. *christianus*; Rabe < *rabe* and *raben* + raven, n is lost as if it had been regarded an inflectional suffix and the nouns became weak.

4. In die Ferse < *fersana*, Ags. *fyrsn*; Kette < *ketene*, *chetina* + Eng. chain through Romance < V. L. *cadîna*, L. *catêna*; in die Küche < *kûchene*, *kuchîn* < V. L. *cucîna*, L. *coquîna* + Eng. kitchen; in die Mette < *metten*, *mettina* < V. L. *matîna*, L. *matutina* (hora) + Eng. matin, the n has also been lost and the nouns became weak.

Comments on the Adjective-Declension.

436. O. H. G. paradigm of *o*-stems:

	Masc.	Fem.	Neuter.
Sg. N.	BLINT, blintêr	BLINT, blintíu, –(i)ú	BLINT, blintaz
G.	BLINTES	blintera, –u	BLINTES
D.	blintemu	blinteru, –a	blintemu
A.	blintan	BLINTA, –e	BLINT, blintaz
Instr.	BLINTU		BLINTU
Pl. N.	blinte	blinto	blintíu, –(i)ú
G.	blintero	blintero	blintero
D.	blintêm, –ên	blintêm, –ên	blintêm, –ên
A.	blinte	blinto	blintíu, –(i)ú

437. The adjective was once declined like the substantive, when both were still "nouns." In the Teutonic languages the so-called "uninflected" forms are still the noun inflection, because **blindoz* > blind(t) just as **dagoz* > *tag*. The *strong* declension is the pronominal inflection, which in some cases coincided with the substantive declension. These cases and the uninflected forms are put in small capitals in the paradigm.

1. The adjective pronouns led the way in this coalescence of the two inflections into the one *strong* one. *blintêr* is only S. G., the uninflected alone occurs in M. and L. G.

2. The double forms *blintîu*, *blintîû* are perhaps due to *jo*-stems (Paul). *blintîû* could give M. H. G. blinde. The M. H. G. forms, both strong and weak, differ very little from the O. H. G. In the neuter pl. *blindiu* lasted long.

3. In O. H. G. the vowel-stems are reduced to *o*- and *jo*-stems.

The *jo*-stems are still recognizable by the umlaut which runs throughout, *e.g.*, ſchöne, böſe, träge.

4. The weak declension was exactly like the *n*-subst. declension. Now the sg. A. fem. and neuter are like the sg. N. just as in the substantives.

Comparison of Adjectives.

438. *-er, -eſt* represent O. H. G. *-îro, -ôro, -îst, -ôst.* The *o*-forms, are not frequent in O. H. G. *i* in *îr, îst* produced umlaut, which spread in M. H. G., so that even then the umlaut began to be looked upon as an essential part of comparison.

They were declined almost exclusively weak at first. e of *beȝȝere* (N. sg.) was lost just like the e of *vogele*, see p. 195.

1. It is generally stated that *-îro, -ôro* come from an I. E. suffix *-jans*, but how has never been made clear. It is probable that, since *-ôro* was at first attached only to *o*-stems, the *o* is secondary and due to the stem-suffix. The comparative-suffix seems to have been *-îs* and to this *-î-* was added for the superlative. But *-t-* is probably identical with the ordinal-suffix.

Irregular Comparison.

439. beſſer < O. H. G. *bezziro*, Ags. *betera*, beſt < *bezzist*, Ags. *betst*; mehr < O. H. G. *mêro*, Go. *maiza*, meiſt < O. H. G. *meist*, Go. *maists*; minder < O. H. G. *minniro*, M. H. G. *minre*, mindeſt represents O. H. G. *minnist*, M. H. G. *minnest*.

1. All contain the regular suffixes. beſſer comes perhaps from a stem *b'ad. baß is the regularly developed comparative adverb. Comp. M. H. G. *min, mê*, Ags. *min, mâ*. *r* disappeared according to the law of finals. Whether mehr is related to L. *magis, major*, is doubtful. minder has excrescent *b*. The O. H. G. *nn* shows that L. *minu-s* is its cognate. mindeſt is a N. H. G. superlative < minder.

2. Erſt is < O. H. G. *êristo*, comparative *êriro*. Ehe is a modern formation for the positive, + Eng. ere, erst. Letzt comes from a stem **lat*, from which Eng. late, later; last — latest; also + to let = "hinder." laß, tired. Letzt < *lezt, lat(i)st*, just as Eng. last < latest. See Kluge. Fürſt + first is < O. H. G. *furi* (adverb), *furiro, furisto*.

Comments on the Pronouns.

440. Personal Pronouns.

M. H. G. Common gender.

		I.	II.	III. refl.
Sg.	N.	ich	du, dû	—
	G.	mîn (mînes, –er)	dîn dîner	sîn sîner
	D.	mir	dir	(im)
	A.	mich	dich	sich
Pl.	N.	wir	ir	—
	G.	unser	iuwer	(ir)
	D.	uns	in	(in)
	A.	uns unsich	iuch iuwih	sich

III. person with form for each gender.

Sg.	N.	ër	siu	ëz
	G.	sîn, ës	ir, ire	ës, sîn
	D.	im(e)	ir, iro	im(e)
	A.	in, inen O. H. G. inan	sie	ëz
Pl.	N., A.	si(e)	si(e), sî	siu
	G.	ir (O. H. G. iro)		
	D.	in (O. H. G. im)		

1. The pronouns of common gender come from various stems, which as well as the inflections are difficult to analyze. *er, ſie, es* come from two stems i (< *ei* — *oi*) and *jâ*. For *es* < *ez* + Goth. ita, see 490, 2. Compare L. *is, ea, id*.

2. The pronouns were extended by two endings, –*er* and –*en*, in N. H. G. The G. sg. meiner, etc., are no doubt due to the influence of the strong adjective declension and to unſer, euer (G. pl.). The same endings appear in derer and denen, but these are later, since both *mînes* and *mîner* appear in M. H. G. sporadically. *iuch*, originally A., spread over D. like the reflexive "sich." *sîn* crowded out *es* (G. masc.) already in O. H. G. and *es* (neuter G.) has general force, not referring to a single object. N. H. G. Ihro is probably an analogous form with "dero" before a title and not

the old fem. G. sg. or pl. *iro* as generally stated. *ir* (G. pl.) was still the rule in the 16th century and as G. sg. still in the 17th. *deiner* was established later than *meiner* and *ſeiner*, which were the rule early in the 17th century.

441. Possessive Pronouns.

a. The possessive pronouns are of the same origin as the genitives *mein*, *dein*, *ſein*, etc., of the personal pronoun. They are most likely not derived from the latter as is generally stated, but rather the reverse. The adjective suffix *-in* < *īn* seems to lie in them attached to the primitive stems **ma*, **twa*, **swa*, which appear in all Indo-European languages. Comp. L. *meus*, *tuus*, *suus*, *mei*, *tui*, *sui*.

1. In O. H. G. the possessives were declined strong even when preceded by the definite article. In M. H. G. the weak declension came into use. The long forms in *-ig* sprang up late in the 16th century.

2. *Ihr*, her, their, however, is derived from the G. of the personal pronoun of the third person. It sprang up in the 12th century and was fully established in the 15th.

442. The Demonstrative Pronoun.

O. H. G.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Sg. N.	dê (thie), dër	diu	daz
G.	dës	dëra, -o	dës
D.	dëmu, M. H. G. dëm(e)	dëru, M. H. G. dër(e)	dëmu
A.	dën	dê, dea, dia	daz
In.	diu		diu
Pl. N., A.	dê, dea, dia	deo, dio	dei, diu
G.		dëro	
D.		dêm	

a. Sievers assumes two I.-E. stems, *to*, *tjo*; Paul only one, *to*, explaining i as due to the diphthongization of ê > ea > ia. *dê* without r is the older; r is the same as in *wer*, *er*, + L. *quis*, *is*. *to* is treated as o and i stem. *dê* < *thai*. dei is probably dual like zwei. O. H. G. *das* < G. T. *thata*, in which final t is a particle. The Instr. exists still in the isolated „beſto," + the in "the more," < *desde* < *des-diu*. des is the Gen.

443.

	O. H. G.		
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Sg. N.	dëse, dësê-r	deisu, diusiu	diz, dëzzi, diz
G.	dësses	dësera, derra	dësses
	etc.	etc.	etc.

dese is composed like a strong adjective of de and a particle sa. In the G. sg. both elements are inflected, generally only the second. *diz* has in z the neuter pronominal

suffix, but nothing else in it is explained. In M. H. G. the forms beginning with *di-* prevailed, always short. dieſ goes back to O. H. G. *diz*, but dieſes first appears as late as the 15th century. Hans Sachs still spells *diz*, *ditz*.

1. jen–er seems to contain the same suffix *–in* as the possessive pronouns. Its stem is limited to the Teutonic languages.

The origin of „ſelb" + self is dark.

ſolch + such is compounded of swa, so, ſo and lîch, like, –lich.

2. The pronominal stem *hi*, which appears also in the Eng. pronoun he, his, him, her, is hidden in heute < *hiudagu* (Instr.), heuer < *hiujaru*, heint (now dialectic) < M. H. G. *hînet* < *hînaht*, + to-night. It occurs also in the adverbs hin, her, + hi–ther. Compare L. *hi–c*, *hae–c*, *ho–c*.

444. Interrogative Pronouns.

O. H. G.	Masc. and Fem.	Neuter.	M. H. G.
N.	huër	huaz	wër, waz
G.	huës		wës
D.	huëmu		wëm(e)
A.	huën(an)	huaz	wën, waz
Instr.		huiu, hiu	wiu

a. From the stem *–ko* with k^{u} that was labialized in Latin and the Teutonic languages. Compare L. *quis–quid*, *quod*, which perhaps requires another I. E. stem *ki*. A. *huenan* is only O. H. G. and the ending is taken from the adjective declension.

1. wie < O. H. G. wiu, huiu, + why, how, comes from this stem, G. T. *hwa–*, I. E. *ko–*, + Go. *hwaiwa*, Ags. *hū*. But the phonetic relation between wie, why and how is not yet cleared up.

Eng. whom is really the D. + wem, but served as D. and A. very early.

2. welch < O. H. G. *huëlîh*, *wëlich*, + which < Ags. *hwylc*, lit. "how or what like."

3. weder + whether, now only conjunction, is still a pronoun in the 16th century. Formed by the comparative suffix –der < thar < tero from *ko–* the interrogative stem. Comp. Gr. κότερος, archaic form.

445. Indefinite Pronouns.

1. jeder, jemand, niemand contain the prefix *io*, *ie*, je, + ever. Io gave the original interrogative *weder* indefinite force, jeder < *iewëder* < *iowëder*. Like "either," it meant "one of two," "which ever you please." The end-

ing -er was confounded with the adjective-endings -er, -e, -es and the full forms jederer, jedere, jederes are preserved, though rare, down to the 17th century.

jemand is compounded of *ie—man*, niemand of *ni—ie—man*. As to d, see **491**, 2.

jeglich < *iegelih* < *io—gilîh*, "ever (the) like."

2. jedweder < *ie—dewëder*, "any one of two." It contains an element de, which is also in etlich, etwas. Its origin is unknown. kein < *dechein*. This also contains an obscure element *dech-*.

3. ander + other is a comparative like weder, < O. H. G. *andar* < *an—tero.

Comments on the Conjugation.

446. STRONG VERBS.

	O. H. G.		M. H. G.	
	Pres. ind.	*Subj.*		
Sg. 1.	nimu	nëme	nime	nëme
2.	nimis(t)	nëmes	nimest	nëmest
3.	nimit	nëme	nimet	nëme
Pl. 1.	nëmam(ês)	nëmêm(ês)	nëmen	nëmen
2.	nëmat, et	nëmêt	nemet	nëmet
3.	nëmant	nëmên	nëment	nëmen
	Pret. ind.	*Subj.*		
Sg. 1.	nam	nâmi	nam	næme
2.	nâmi	nâmîs	næme	næmest
3.	nam	nâmi	nam	næme
Pl. 1.	nâmum(ês)	nâmîm(ês)	nâmen	næmen
2.	nâmut	nâmît	nâmet	næmet
3.	nâmun	nâmîn	nâmen	næmen
	Imp.			
2. *sg.*	nim	*Inf.* nëman	nim	nëmen
1. *pl.*	nëmam(ês)	*Ger.* ze nëmanne	nëmen	ze nëmenne
2. *pl.*	nemat	*Pres. part.* nëmanti	nëmet	nëmende
		Past part. ginoman		genomen

447 WEAK VERBS.

	O. H. G.		M. H. G.	
Imp. 2. *sg.*	neri	salbo	ner	salbe
Pret.	nerita	salbôta, dâhta	nerte	salbete
Inf.	neren	salbôn	nern	salben
Part.	nerenti	salbônti	nernde	salbende
	ginerit	gisalbôt	genert	gesalbet

a. Grimm called a verb "strong" because it would form its preterit of its own resources, without the aid of composition. We retain the terms "strong" and "weak" simply because they are generally used.

448. Tenses.

There are only two simple tenses left in the Germanic languages, viz. the present and the "preterit" which corresponds in form to the "perfect" of the other I. E. languages. What we call "the subjunctive" is in form the optative, the suffix for which was *iê—i*, in an *o*-verb of course *-oi*. Compare the Greek φέροι—Go. *nimai*.

449. Personal suffixes. There were two classes. The primary were added to the present and the subjunctive mood, the secondary to the preterit and the optative mood. The O. H. G. 1. pl. in *-mês* is quite a mystery. The 2. p. sg. present in *st*, prevailing in O. H. G., has sprung from analogy with *nimis—tu* and the pret.-present verbs, *e. g.*, *canst*. "*bistu*" occurs in the very oldest sources.

1. The 1. p. sg. present is either u < o in nearly all verbs or m < *mi* in the few *mi*-verbs, *e. g.*, *nimu* but *tuom*. Peculiar is that the 2. p. preterit subj. has entered the preterit ind. The regular ending was *-t*, as still found in Gothic and in the preterit-present verbs, *e. g.*, Go. *namt*, G. du wilt, ſolt (archaic). The other personal endings are quite regular.

2. These suffixes were either attached to the bare stem as in the *mi*-verbs or by means of a connecting vowel generally called "thematic vowel," which was I. E. o—e for all strong verbs and in O. H. G. i, ê or ô for weak verbs.

450. IMPERATIVE. The 2. p. sg. has the syncopated form of short-stemmed verbs which once ended in *-e*: neme > nimi > nim. In

weak verbs the ending is amalgamated with the connecting vowel: *neri*, *salbo*. neri should become ner, but there was levelling in favor of the long-stemmed verb. The 1. p. pl. is exhortative. It is indicative.

451. INFINITIVE. This is a verbal noun ending in *-no-*. Perhaps an isolated accusative.

452. GERUNDIVE. It is confounded with the infinitive with which it has originally nothing to do. Suffix is *-nj-*; hence the double n. It was inflected like any noun. Since in modern German it has taken a construction similar to the Gerundive of Latin grammar, we have called it "Gerundive." The form with -t occurs, according to Weinhold, as early as the 12th century in Alemanic. *zi tuonne* and *zi tuonde* were confounded. In the latter form lies the modern construction, as in eine zu beachtende Vorschrift.

453. PARTICIPLES. The suffix of the present participle was -nt, a consonant stem, but afterwards a *jo-*, *jâ-stem*, hence *nemanti*. For the nouns Freund, Feind, Heiland, see **505**.

1. The passive participles are two verbal adjectives formed by means of *-tó-* and *-nó-* (both accented) from the verb-stems, not from the tense-stems. They were at first not limited, *-tó-* to weak verbs and *-nó-* to the strong. Compare *miss-* (the modern prefix miß- + Eng. mis-) < misto < *mith—tó the weak stem of the verb meiden, to avoid: gewiß < *gawiss* < **-witta* < **widtó*, from the stem of wiß, wissen; alt + old < al—tó- from the strong verb (Go.) *alan* + L. *alere*, to nourish. Besides in these and other isolated forms -tó- occurs in the past part. of the pret.-pres. verbs and in a class that had no connecting vowel, *e.g.*, gebracht, gedacht, etc., see **454**, 3. Compare Gr. *-τός*, L. *-tus*. *-no* is rare in non-Germanic languages; compare L. *dignus*, *plenus* + full.

2. *The prefix ge-*. It is the inseparable prefix *ge-* and belonged at first only to the participle of verbs compounded with it. But in simple verbs it could give the present the force of the future, it would emphasize the preterit or give it the force of the pluperfect and give the infinitive dependent upon a modal auxiliary the force of the perfect inf. Thus also in the participle it emphasized the completion of an act. Some participles very rarely took *ge-* in M. H. G., *e. g.*, *komen*, *worden*, *funden*, *lâzen*, *freezen*, *heißen*. „Gnade funden" is common in the Bible. The Patriarch in Lessing's *Nathan* uses it. Compare Eng. yclad, yclept.

454. Weak Verbs.

1. The connecting vowels are i(j), ê, ô in O. H. G. The original type of connecting vowel is supposed to have been ojo—ejo, but the reduction to ê (Go. ai) and ô is by no means clear. The large majority have i(j) < *ǫjo, but a not small number both of originally strong and weak verbs have none. The preterit is formed by the suffix *-ta*, now *-te*. Its origin is by no means settled. Paul reconstructs two suffixes, viz., *-dhê* and *-ta*. The Old Saxon forms *sagda*, *habda*, *libda* with corresponding participles can only come from $\sqrt{dhē}$, from which is also thun + to do. The majority of verbs take I. E. *-ta*, > *tha* > *da* > *ta* according to Verner's Law. See 411.

2. We distinguish originally three classes: 1, no connecting vowel in the preterit; 2, connecting vowel and short stem; 3, connecting vowel and long stem.

3. There was very early (in O. H. G.) a levelling between the 2. and 3. classes, because in short-stemmed verbs, in which no syncope could take place, j(i) caused doubling of the final consnant. This made them appear like long-stemmed ones. The first class has now been reduced to the three verbs denken, dünken, and bringen, see **454**, 2. Compare O. H. G. *denken, dâhta, gidâht; dunken, dûhta, gidûht; bringen, brâhta, gibrâht* Long â < ā nasalized < an. brauchen, fürchten, ſuchen, wirken (< würken) belonged here also. Eng. buy, bought, bought; work, wrought, wrought show still their origin in the gh before t. Bringen is of course a strong verb and so are *brûkan* (II.), *suochen* (VI.) as their ablaut shows. Beginnen belonged here perhaps too, since we find still in dialect begonnte (F. 3176). That these verbs never had any connecting vowel is shown: 1, by the change of the guttural stop > guttural spirant which takes place only directly before t; 2, by the umlaut in the pret. subj. For the M. H. G. forms are *denken, dâhte—dæhte, gedâht; dünken, dûhte—diuhte, gedûht; bringen, brâhte—bræhte, (ge)brâht.* dünken, dünkte, gedünkt begins as early as M. H. G. The present mir däucht is a N. H. G. formation from the preterit. That fürchten once belonged here is shown by the archaic form „furchte," *e. g.*, Der wack're Schwabe forcht' ſich nit (U.). Lessing has „furchte," < O. H. G. *furhten* (*vürhten*), *for(a)hta, gifor(a)ht* (the a is a secondary development).

455. The verbs in **119**, 1, are the only verbs that still sh the difference between the long and short-stemmed of the i(j)-class. They formed their principal parts in O. H. G.: *brennen, branta, gibrennit—gibrantêr; nennen, nanta, ginennit—ginantêr.* According to syncope **brannita*, **gibrannitêr* had to become *branta, gibrantêr.* The i that produced umlaut in *brennen*

gibrennit had disappeared from *brannita*, *gibrannitêr* and therefore there is no umlaut in brannte, gebrannt. The participle with umlaut was levelled away.

1. The umlaut in the modern pret. subj. is due to analogy with brächte, dürfte, etc. It is a Middle German feature. Even preterits indicative with e of rennen, brennen, nennen occur now and then in the classics. The levelling into ſenden, ſendete, geſendet; wenden, wendete, gewendet is not uncommon. Schiller has . . . die Grenze, wo er das von den Schweden eroberte Cham beremmte.

2. All other differences were levelled away, *e.g.*, M. H. G. *hæren, hôrte, gehœret—gehôrt*, becomes hören, hörte, gehört; fürchten, fürchtete, gefürchtet; ſprengen, ſprengte, geſprengt; füllen, füllte, gefüllt; decken, deckte, gedeckt.

3. A few isolated participles are left, such as geſtalt (ungeſtalt), getroſt (adverb), and others.

Strong Verbs.

456. The Present.

1. The interchanges of e—i; ie—eu; no umlaut—umlaut in the present and the umlaut in the pret. subj. are accounted for in the phonology. See 403. See also under each class of verbs.

2. The first p. sg. has followed the analogy of the forms that have e and of the verbs of VI. which had of course no umlaut in 1. p. sg., *e.g.*, O. H. G. faru, ferist, ferit. The contrast is now for all classes between 2. and 3. pers. sg. with i, ä, etc.: du fährſt, er fährt, du gibſt, er gibt and all the other forms with a and e: fahren, ich fahre, wir fahren, ihr fahrt, ſie fahren; geben, ich gebe, wir geben, ihr gebet, ſie geben. Formerly the contrast was between the whole pres. sg. and the whole pl. for Cl. III., IV., V. See paradigm, p. 203.

457. Of the numerous formations of the present-stem the following are still to be recognized by certain peculiarities:

1. I. E. *jo—je*, L. *capio, fugio*, German bitten V. < *bidjan* < **bedjan*, according to the interchange of e—i, but the participle gebeten < *bedan–*. Exactly like this ſitzen V., liegen V., but geſeſſen, gelegen. Also heben VI. and ſchwören V*l.*, *e.g.*, ſchwören < *swern* < *swerien* < *swarjan, swôr, swaran–*. Hence i, or in the last two, a umlaut through the whole present. This was once a large group. Here belonged for instance the class denken, dachte, see **454**, 3, + Go. *thankjan*.

2. The suffix *–n* (*–nw, nj*), which also entered the pret. if it was within the root. fragen < **frehnan*, Ags. *frignan*, but already weak in

O. H. G. erwähnen < an O. H. G. *(gi)-wahhinnen*, nn < nj. beginnen, rinnen and others have *nw*. Go. *standan*, German ſtund, ſtand—geſtanden; (gehen), gieng, gegangen, fangen, etc. Compare L. *tundo, tutudi*.

3. Reduplication, corresponding to Gr. *τίθημι* and *πίπτω*, is preserved in beben < bibên, to quake, and zittern, to tremble, both weak (Kluge).

4. **sk**, corresponding to L. -sco, in breſchen, forſchen, wünſchen, waſchen (see Kluge's Dict. for these words).

458. The Preterit.

1. *Reduplication*. There are traces of ablaut without reduplication, but generally the two occurred together. In Gothic are still verbs which have both. The reduplication consisted in the repetiton of the initial consonant + e or if beginning with a vowel by prefixing 'e. *e. g.*, Go. *haldan, haihald* (ai = ē in Gothic), *aukan, aiauk*. O. H. G. has only one clear example, viz., *ëta*, ich that. Compare L. *fallo—fefelli, tango—tetigi*. How the reduplicating syllable was lost, how it coalesced with the stem is not yet clear. Our VII. class includes the reduplicating verbs, that is, those still reduplicating in Gothic, though it is by no means certain that Gothic has preserved the original method of reduplication.

2. In O. H. G. the stem-vowel of the reduplicated preterit appears as ē and eo, *e. g.*, *râtan rēt, fâhan fēng* and *fëng* (fâhan < fanhan). *ē* by diphthongization > *ea* > *ia* > *ie; eo* > *io* > *ie*, so that already in M. H. G. we have *ie* as the regular vowel of the preterit. Examples: *stôzan — steoz, stioz*, M. H. G. *stiez—gistôzan; hloufan — hleof, hliof*, M. H. G. *lief — gihloufan*, N. H. G. laufen — lief — gelaufen; *fallan — fël* > *feal* > *fial* > *fiel* (M. H. G.) — *gifallan*, N. H. G. fallen — fiel—gefallen; *heizzan — hēz, heaz, hiaz*, M. H. G. *hiez—giheizzan*, N. H. G. heißen — hieß — geheißen.

3. However the vowel appearing in the pret. may have arisen, it is not *ablaut*. It never appears in derivatives as all the ablaut vowels do. Unterſchied is only a seeming exception, since it stands for the older „Unterſcheib," which was crowded out, because the verb went over into the I. Cl.

The Ablaut-series and the Verb-classes.

459. No one verb shows all the four stages of ablaut as they have been determined. See 394. The first five classes belong to the original I. E. e—o series, the VI. is the I. E. ă—ā, G. T. ă—ō series. To the latter series belong also the reduplicating verbs which have in the stem a + liquid + cons. (halten); ai (ei); and au, o.

In the first group ē corresponds to G. T. ē, i; o to G. T. a in the pret sg., for in I. and II. we must count i and u as consonants. The five classes can be grouped as follows:

1. *a.* I., II.: i and u as consonants in the pres. and pret. sg.; as vowels in the pret. pl. and part., viz.,

ē – i + cons.	a – i + cons.	i + cons.
ē – u + cons.	a – u + cons.	u + cons.

The stem ends in i or u + cons.

b. III., IV., V. have in the present ē – i + liquid or nasal + cons. (III.); e + liquid or nasal (IV.), or e + cons. (V.). In the pret. sg. they have a. The stem ends in a liquid or nasal + cons. (III.); in a single liquid or nasal (IV.); in a single cons. not liquid or nasal (V.).

2. I., II., III. have the weakest stages of ablaut in the pret. pl. and participle; IV. in the part. only; V. in neither. IV. and V. have a long vowel in the pret. pl., that is very difficult to account for. O. H. G. ā corresponds to G. T. ē, the length of which may be due to compensation, *e.g.*, *gégbum > gêbum. See **458**, 1.

3. A third grouping is possible according to the quality of the vowel, viz., I. to V. run in a system of unrounded vowels, VI. runs in a system of rounded.

a. u (o) in II. is either consonant in the accented stage (pres. and pret. sg.) or vowel in the unaccented stage (pret. pl. and past part.). u before r, l, m, n in the unaccented stage is also due to their double nature, according to which they serve as vowels or as consonants. *Nasalis* and *Liquida sonans* (Brugman) are represented in all the Teutonic dialects by ur, ul, um, un, a characteristic of the whole group.

4. VI. stands alone and contains rounded vowels. Its a cannot have been originally the same as the a of the other series. It was probably more o than a.

Levelling in the Preterit.

460. Tracing the classes from O. H. G. to N. H. G. we have to notice one great levelling in all the classes, viz., of sg. and pl. pret. This was started by VI. and VII., which had sg. and pl. alike. In IV. and V. the difference was only one of quantity. The sg. was short and the pl. was long. The sg. had to take a long vowel according to **488**, 2.

1. In Cl. II. G. T. au > ao > ô before dentals, before l, r, h, and finally

There were therefore already ð's in the pret. sg. The levelling was in favor of ð, but of ð before certain consonants (ff, ch, f, b — t). ð was already in the past part. < ŭ. Only I. and III. are left. But in I. î > ei according to 488, 5. The pres. and pret. had to become alike. The principle of ablaut was thus interfered with in I., and the levelling in the pret. was in favor of the pl. and part., viz., ĭ or ie according to the following consonants. III. is the only class in which the levelling was in favor of the pret. sg. Before nasal + cons. u stood in the pl. and part. A levelling in favor of the pl. was therefore not likely. In IV. and V., where such a levelling occurred, the pl. and part. had different vowels. Before l, r, + cons., to be sure, there was u in the pl., o in the part., but u — o stood in no ablaut-relation. But this levelling was the latest of all and we find none in S. G. dialects at the present day. In the written language of the 16th and 17th centuries it is rather rare; in the 18th it is the rule with not a few exceptions. Werden, ward — wurde, geworden is the only verb of III. in which the pl.-vowel stands by the side of the sg. But this verb stands isolated from the rest as an auxiliary verb. The pret.-pres. verbs have not suffered levelling except ſollen (see 471, 2), but these have stood in an isolated position toward all the other strong verbs from prehistoric times.

461. We give a few examples of the classes in their earlier stages. Space will not permit to trace each verb of each class. It would be easy to show what verbs have died out, what verbs have become weak, and what weak or foreign verbs have become strong. The stock of verbs belonging to each class varies with every period; in fact, it is ever varying. Compare, *e.g.*, jag, jug, frag, frug VI. (see 129), and the large number of doubtful ones in VIII.

462. I. Cl. O. (M.) H. G.	î	ei, ê	i	i
grîfan	greif	grifum	–grifan	
greifen	griff	griffen	gegriffen	
zîhan	zêh	zigum	–zigan	
zeihen	zieh	ziehen	geziehen	
snîdan	sneit	snitum	–snitan	
ſchneiden	ſchnitt	ſchnitten	geſchnitten	

1. The interchange of h—g, d—t according to Verner's Law, see 416. î > ei according to 488, 5. N. H. G. ĭ in the whole pret. by levelling. ei > ê before h, r, w. î represents both the medium stage G. T. ĕi and the weak stage î. ĭ is the zero stage.

463. II. O. H. G. iu — io ou, ô ŭ ŏ

triofan	trouf	trufum	–trofan
trieſen	troff	troffen	getroffen
kiosan	kôs	kurum	–koran
kieſen, küren	kos, kor	(er)koren	erkoren
siodan	sôt	sutum	–sotan
ſieden	ſott	ſotten	geſotten
sûfan	souf	sufum	–sofan
ſaufen	ſoff	ſoffen	geſoffen

1. The interchange of iu — io according to **406**; iu in the pres. sg. triufu, triufist, triufit, but pl. triofamês, etc., inf. triofan. For a period this iu, having passed > ü, became eu by diphthongisation. These forms are now archaic, ie prevailing through the whole present, see **124**. M. H. G. io > ie. G. T. au > ou, but > ao > ô before dentals, l, r, h and finally. The interchange of s — r, d — t according to Verner's Law, but levelled, as in ſchneiden I., in favor of t, in the whole preterit. In M. H. G. kiesen, kos, korn, gekoren for a while, but later, kieſen, kos, gekoſen; kieſen, kor, gekoren; now küren, kor, gekoren. See **132**.

2. In this series all the four grades of ablaut are represented. ou strong; io, iu medium; û the weak; ŭ zero. û > au regularly. û appeared in verbs that had the accent on the suffix. Compare **457**.

464. III. Cl. O. (M.) H. G. ĕ—i ă ŭ ŭ—ŏ

i, a, u before nasal + cons.; e — i, u — o before r, l + cons.

swimman	swam	swummum	–swumman
ſchwimmen	ſchwamm	ſchwammen	geſchwommen
fintan	fant	funtum	–funtan
finden	fand	fanden	gefunden
hĕlfan	half	hulfum	–holfan
helfen	half	halfen	geholfen

1. This is in N. H. G. the most primitive series. finden, fand, gefunden is already the G. T. series. In the second group (see **125**, 2) the secondary

transition of u > o is a M. G. feature. It takes place before nn and mm. The older transition from u > o before l, r + cons. is already O. H. G. See **405**.

2. The interchange of ë — i is regular (see **403**). It appears in III., IV., V. alike.

3. The double preterit subjunctive (see **125**) is due to the levelling of the indicative. The subjunctive was regularly formed with the vowel of the pl. and umlaut of the same. Now when the vowel of the sg. spread over the pl. it is natural a new subjunctive should be formed also by umlaut: fände, bärge. Wherever the new pret. subj. in ä did not approach too closely to, or coincide with, the present ind., it prevailed as in the first division: finde — fände, binde — bände, gelinge — gelänge. Where such a coincidence was the case, the old subjunctive is still in use and preferable as in the third division: berge — (bärge) bürge, sterbe — stürbe, werbe — würbe, see **126**. Befehlen and empfehlen of IV. belong here since in M. H. G. they were *bevelhen, enpfelhen*, containing l + cons. stehlen IV < steln has followed the analogy of III., 3, on account of ståhle, the regular subj. and stehle the pres. ind. The 2. division has ö for older ü just as it has o for u: gewünne > gewönne, but the new ones in ä are quite common except of rinnen, on account of rennen.

4. ë — i is the medium stage, a the strong; the weak and zero appear as u — o.

465. IV. Cl. O. (M.) H. G. ë—i ă ā ŏ

stëlan	stal	stâlum	–stolan
ſtehlen	ſtahl	ſtahlen	geſtohlen
koman, quëman	quam	quâmum	–koman
kommen	kam	kamen	gekommen

1. Here is again interchange of ë — i. ā prevailed in the pret. u > o regularly.

3. Queman > koman according to **489**, 1. It is possible that "koman" is the weak grade (see **471**, 2). ſtechen belonged originally to V.; it has no liquid. Before ch and ff the vowel is short, except in the pret. of course: ſtëchen, ſtäch, geſtöchen.

466. V. Cl. O. H. G. ĕ ă ā e

gĕban	gab	gâbum	–gĕban
geben	gab	gaben	gegeben
ĕzzan	âz, az	âzum	–ezzan
eſſen	aß	aßen	(ge)geſſen
bitten	bat	bâtum	–bĕtan
bitten	bat	baten	gebeten
wĕsan	was	wârum	–wĕsan
(ſein)	war	waren	geweſen

1. In ĕ the three lowest grades are represented, there was no liquid or nasal to represent the 3. and 4. grades. ă is the strong stage. The origin of ā is not certain. âz is perhaps from 'eaz, 'e being the reduplicating syllable. For bitten, see **457**, 1. In the part. the interchange of s — r was levelled away after the inf. as early as O. H. G.; in the pret. with the levelling of the vowels. Was is archaic in Feuchteerleben's: So (if) dir geſchenkt ein Knöpflein was. Interchange of ĕ — i as usual and quantity of ĕ depends upon the following consonants.

467. VI. Cl. O. H. G. a—e uo, ô uo, ô a

faran	fuor	fuorum	–faran
fahren	fuhr	fuhren	gefahren
heffen	huob	huobum	–haban
M. H. G. heben	huop	huobum	–haben
heben	hob, hub	hoben, huben	gehoben (er)haben

1. This series has only two grades, strong and weak-medium, see **400**. G. T. ô > uo > û. For e in heffen, heben, see **457**, 1. For a > o, see **489**, 3.

468. VII. Cl. Its verbs do not form an ablaut-series, see **458**.

469. VIII. Cl. Its verbs have mostly o for ă, ā in the pret. and the majority belong to III., IV., V. Some of these were unsettled very early, *e. g.*, M. H. G. *pflegen* IV. and V. For â > o, ô, see **489**, 3.

The Preterit-Present Verbs.

470. In these the meaning admitted the perfect to be used as a present. They are a primitive class. Compare Gr. *οἶδα, ἴδμεν*, Lat. *odi, novi*. With a few irregularities they can yet be assigned to the regular ablaut-series as has been done (see **135**). Weak preterits were formed without connecting vowel. Therefore umlaut in the subj. The stem-vowel is the same for the old pret. pl., the new preterit, the participles and the infinitive. The participles (see **453**, 1) were formed either weak or strong, generally weak. Since the infinitive is a new formation as well as some of the strong participles, and since as in gan—gunnen (gönnen) the strong participle was formed before there was an infinitive, it is hardly correct to say the infinitive is used instead of the part. in modern German: eigen, O. H. G. *gawizzan*, M. H. G. *gunnen, gegunnen, (er)kunnen* are strong participles. The others, dürfen, können, mögen, ſollen, were formed later. No doubt, participles like heizzen, lâzen, etc. (see **453**, 2), had their influence in the non-use of ge-.

1. The inflection of the present is that of the regular strong pret. They have even one very old feature, viz., in 2. pers. sg. t is used, the secondary ending, while in all other strong verbs the optative has entered the indicative, *e. g., nâmi*, but *tarst* (+ durst) *darft, scalt* (+ thou shalt), *maht*. st in *canst, anst* is a mystery. This t still occurs in the 16th and 17th centuries, du ſolt nicht ſtehlen (B.).

471. 1. O. H. G. weiz — wizzum I. corresponds exactly to Gr. *οἶδα — ἴδμεν*, in ablaut and consonants.

2. scal, scalt (2. pers. sg.), sculum, scolta IV.

It is possible that sculum is older than the long vowel of IV. ("stâlum"), for it may be the weak grade of ablaut, like -boran, sûfan.

3. O. H. G.	muoz	muost	muozum		muosa and muosta
M. H. G.	muoz	muost	müezen		muose, muoste
				subj.	müese, müeste
N. H. G.	muß,	mußt,	müſſen,		mußte, müßte.

Of the double form *muose — muoste* the former is the older and regularly developed. *muose* < *môt-ta, *muosta* has the suffix added once more. The umlaut that appears in M. H. G. and later in the pres. pl. and inf. is difficult to account for.

4. ſoll < schol < schal < scal. Why ſ < ſch? Compare O. and M. H. G. skal — sal, but always Schuld.

5. gönnen III. and taugen II. have become weak. They come respectively < *gan–gunnen*, in which g– is prefix, and < *touc–tugen*, to be fit, + Eng. do in "it will not do," "how do you *do*" (?).

6. eigen + own < *eigan* is the strong part. of a stem of which there appears only a pl. *aigum* in O. H. G. g according to Verner's Law. It belongs to the a — â ablaut-series like heiȝȝan — hêȝ — giheiȝȝan. tar — turren + dare has disappeared. Its meaning has passed into darf — dürfen.

472. 1. Notice that Eng. *must* is really a double pret.-pres. verb. must is the *weak* preterit used again as a present. wußte < weste, see **489**, 1. Compare Eng. to wit, wist, wot. See Skeat.

2. O. H. G. wili wilt, wili, pl. wellemês, wellet, wellent, pret. welta, inf. wellan. o appears already for e in this period (see **489**, 1). M. H. G. 3. pers. sg. is wilt, wil. N. H. G. willſt. This is really no pret.-pres. verb, but we have according to custom put it at the end of this class. It is really a mi-verb, whose ind. was lost. Compare L. *velim*.

Mi-Verbs.

473. ſein.

1. O. H. G. bim, bis(t), ist, birum, birut, sint. Subj. sî, etc. Inf. sîn, wësan V. Imp. wis, wesat, sît; pret. was; subj. wâri. In M. H. G. the pres. pl. runs: 1. p. birn, sint, sîn; 2. p. birt, sît, sint; 3. p. sint, sîn. In N. H. G. wir ſind < the 3. person; ihr ſeid < the subjunctive; ſie ſind is primitive, comp. L. *sunt, sint*.

2. Three stems have helped to form its conjugation, viz., √es–, √b'x–, L. *fui*, Gr. *φύω*, and the verb *wësan*. It would lead us too far to enter minutely upon the part each plays, but the development is not at all difficult to trace. Only r in *birum, birn* is a mystery, but it appears also in the reduplicating verbs of VII.

474. *gân, gên, gangan*, gehn, + go.

1. O. H. G. gâm, gâs, gât, gâm, gât, gânt; gêm, gês, gêt, gêt, gênt; the subj. only gê, gês, gê, etc. Imp. ganc, gât, gêt.

2. The verb gangan is of VII. The relation of â to ê is not clear. Kluge has shown that gên is compounded of ga (prefix) + √ī, L. *ire*. Then gêm < ga-im, gês < ga-is, etc. See his Dict.

475. *stân, stên, stantan,* ſtɛþn, + *stand.*

1. It inflects just like gên. standan, stuont — gistandan according to VI. A past participle gestân occurs also.

2. Both *gangan* and *stantan* show a secondary stem and a present-formation with n (see **457**, 1), which n also entered the preterit and the other forms.

476. *tuon,* tþun, + *do.*

1. O. H. G. tuom, tuos, tuot, tuom, tuot, tuont ; subj. tuo, tuos, tuo, tuom, tuot, tuon; pret. teta, tâti, teta, tâtum, tâtut, tâtum ; subj. tâti, tatîs, tati. M. H. G. subjunctive with umlaut. Past part. gitân.

2. *teta* is the pure reduplicated perf. te + ta, the stem. The pl. in â is probably ablaut of the almost lost series I-E. ê — ô, O. H. G. â — uo. Comp. Gr. *ῥήγνυμι — ἔρρωγα*. N. H. G. tþât < M. H. G. *tet* is archaic and has a curious spelling as if it were subj.

C. HISTORY OF THE LANGUAGE.

477. "German" belongs to the Germanic or Teutonic group of languages, which again is a member of the Indo-European group. To the latter belong the following: the *Aryan* (Sanskrit, etc.), the *Iranic* (old Batric and Persian), *Greek*, *Latin*, *Keltic*, *Slavic*, *Lithuanian*, *Germanic*, and perhaps as a separate member *Armenian*. Whether the Germanic languages are more intimately related with one member than with another is considered very doubtful by most authorities, though some think Slavic and Germanic so related.

478. Characteristics of the Germanic Languages:

1. Grimm's Law with Verner's Law (see **407—416**).

2. The double verb-inflection, one by ablaut, the other by composition. All the related Indo-European have ablaut to be sure, but none so extensively developed in the verb. The suffixes *-da*, *-ta* in the preterit are quite peculiar.

3. A certain "law of finals" showed itself in General Teutonic in the consonants, but the "law of final vowels" belongs entirely to the individual dialects. For instance: I.-E. **b'eroit* became G. T. **beroi*, Go. *berai* (e written for Go. ai). N. sg. masc. o-stems: G. T. **dagoz*, Go. *dags*, Scand. *dagr*, Ags. *dæg*, O. H. G. *tac*.

N. sg. fem.: I.-E. **gebâ* > G. T. *gebô*, Ags. *giefu*, but by levelling of Acc. and Nom. O. H. G. *geba*.

4. The limitation of the accent to the stem-syllable was probably General Teutonic, though Verner's Law shows that the Indo-European accent was preserved until the surd spirants in the unaccented syllable became sonant. Gr. πατήρ shows I.-E. accent, but G. T. *fathâr* > Go. *fadhar* > *fadar* > O. H. G. *fater*.

5. The spread of the n-declension, which in German is still going on. See **428**, 2.

6. The double adjective declension. The other I.-E. dialects decline adjective and substantive alike. The Germanic has, 1, a strong declension made up of substantive and pronominal case-endings; 2, a weak declension identical with the n-declension of substantives. See **437**.

Classification of the Germanic Languages.

479. The following is in our opinion the best classification.

I. EAST GERMANIC, viz., *Gothic*, the language of the Goths, who once probably occupied European Russia. The chief literary monument is part of the Bible translation made for the Westgoths by their bishop Ulfila (A. D. 310—381). The manuscript is of the sixth century.

a. In comparison with Anglo-Saxon and O. H. G. the language is "simple," but in spite of the great age of its literary monuments, it should be made the basis for the comparative study of the group only with great caution.

II. THE NORTH GERMANIC or SCANDINAVIAN LANGUAGES. Two groups: *East-Scandinavian*, viz., *Swedish* and *Danish*; *West-Scandinavian*, viz., *Norwegian* and *Icelandic*. Earliest literature of East-Scandinavian of the fourtheenth century consisting of laws. Runes of the 10th century. Rich literature of West-Scandinavian on Iceland, colonized by Norwegians, of the 12th century and earlier. The literary language of Norway, Sweden and Denmark is East-Scandinavian. Norwegian exists only in dialects. Icelandic is the state-language of Iceland.

III. WEST GERMANIC DIALECTS. *English* was very early isolated from the rest of the group, being the language of the early colonists in England, who were mainly Frisians, viz., Angles, Saxons and Jutes. The Frisians emigrated from their old homes on the coast of the North Sea from the Zuider Zee to the river Eider in Schleswig. The Jutes lived to the north of them. This settlement continued during the 5th and 6th centuries. In the 9th the Danish conquest occurred and in the 11th the great Norman conquest, which gave to English that great influx of Romance words and removed it still more from its cognate dialects on the continent. Literature beginning with the 7th century. Runes, Beowulf, Cædmon, etc.

a. The oldest dialects are, 1, Anglian, incl. Northumbrian and Mercian; 2, Saxon, the chief is West-Saxon; 3, Kentish.

480. The Continental West-Germanic dialects are divided according to Grimm's Law. The North and East-Germanic, and English only underwent the first shifting, that is, the General Germanic (Teutonic) shifting. The continental dialects shifted again, some more, some less.

Classification of the German Dialects.

1. The Low (or North) German shifted only th > d, compare Engl. "the" — Low German "de".

2. The Middle German shifted much more.

3. The South German (*Oberdeutsch*) shifted most of all.

a. "*High German*" if it is to translate "*Hochdeutsch*" is ambiguous, since many still make "hochdeutsch" include "*Oberdeutsch*" and "*Mitteldeutsch.*" *Nieder* (low), *Mittel* (middle), and *Ober* (upper, south) refer to the geography of the country only.

481. I. The Low German Dialects.

1. *Frisian.* Though the literature is only of the 15th and 16th centuries, the language shows a stage at least some 300 years older. Its territory (see **484**) has been largely encroached upon by Low Saxon and Frankish. It embraces still the northern provinces of Holland (West Frisian); Oldenburg and the Hanoverian county of Ostfriesland (East Frisian); North Sleswic with the islands off the western Sleswic-Holstein coast (North Frisian). But the modern dialects of the region described are strongly influenced by Low Saxon.

2. *Low Saxon.* Earliest literature the Heliand of the 9th century. Territory very large.

Draw a line from Düsseldorf to Cassel curving slightly southward; from Cassel to Quedlinburg to Posen and to the boundary of the empire. All that is north of this, except Frisian and Slavic in East Prussia, is Low Saxon. Two thirds of its territory is colonial, however. The Slavic conquests from the 6th to the 9th centuries had their western limit in the following line: Kiel, halfway between Brunswick and Magdeburg, Naumburg, Coburg, Linz, Klagenfurt. What is east of it is colonial for the German language, either for Low, Middle, or High German. About half of Germany and three fourths of Prussia therefore are on once Slavic territory.

a. Frisian and Low Saxon together are now often called "*Plattdeutsch*," which even in our day can boast of a poet, Klaus Groth (Holstein dialect), and of such a capital novelist as Fritz Reuter (Mecklenburg dialect) who died a few years ago.

3. *Low Frankish.* Literature: oldest the *Lex Salica*, very badly preserved, and fragments of a translation of the Psalms. Of the 12th century the "Eineide" by Veldeke, and in the 13th a very rich literature in Holland and Brabant. Territory: Holland (Dutch crowding out Frisian), the northern half of Belgium (Flemish), and the northern part of the Prussian Rhine Province. Dutch is now the only Low German literary language. Attempts are making to revive Flemish.

482. II. Middle German.

For this group draw about the following line, which will separate it from the South German dialects: From Nancy (but this is French) across the frontier with a curve north of Strassburg to Rastatt in Baden, through Heilbronn to Eichstädt, then north to Eger, from there directly eastward, but Bohemia is Slavic, of course.

Beginning in the west we have then:

1. *Middle Frankish* (according to Braune). Its territory consists chiefly of the Rhine Province, whose centre is Cologne. Very little literature.

2. *South Frankish* and *Hessian*. South and west of 1, and north of South German line. The eastern limit would be a line drawn from Cassel to Heilbronn. A rich and old literature: Isidorus of the 8th century. The great gospel harmony of Otfrid of Weissenburg. The Ludwigslied and much more.

3. *East* or *High Frankish*. East of 2. Eastern limit is the S. G. line from Eichstädt to Eger and a line from Eger to Cassel. Its old literary centre was Fulda. The larger monuments are Tatian, and Williram's paraphrase of the Song of Songs, about the year 900.

The next three are almost entirely on colonized territory, viz., 4. *Thuringian*, north of 3 and south of the Low German line; 5. *Upper Saxon*, chiefly the present kingdom of Saxony; 6. *Silesian*. 5. and 6. are east of the rest, but do not extend to the boundary of the empire, since there is a long stretch still Slavic, though with German written language. Their literatures belong to the M. H. G. period.

483. III. South German.

The southern limit towards the Romance dialects would be, roughly speaking, a line drawn from the lake of Geneva eastward to Klagenfurt in Austria and beyond, then directly north through Pressburg to Brünn. The eastern boundary is the Hungarian, the northeastern the Slavic of Bohemia and Moravia.

1. *Alemanic*, divided into: *a. Alemanic* proper, covering Alsace, the larger part of Baden and Switzerland. *b. Suabian*, covering the larger part of Würtemberg and Suabian Bavaria. The eastern limit would be a line from Eichstädt to Füssen. The literary centre was St. Gallen. Abundant literature of the 8th and 9th centuries. The "Benedictiner Regel." The Paternoster and Credo of St. Gallen. Vocabularius St. Galli. Murbach Hymns. "Christ and the Samaritan woman." The extensive works of Notker.

2. *Bavarian-Austrian*, covering the larger part of Bavaria and non-Slavic Austria. The oldest of all Old H. G. is the Glossary of Kero (740); the Glossary of Brabanus Maurus; the so-called "Exhurtatio" and the poem Muspilli, besides smaller pieces.

484. It is impossible for us to give here a description of the phonology of these dialects. Besides Grimm's Law the long vowels and the diphthongs are the chief criteria for their classification. Their territories have not remarkably changed. Note that Frisian has been driven out of Holland by Dutch and in Germany it leads a very precarious existence upon the islands off the coast of Hanover and Oldenburg, having been crowded out by "Plattdeutsch." Low German has also encroached upon Middle German territory in northeastern Germany. The only scientific description that we have of any modern dialect is that by Winteler of the Kerenzer dialect (Swiss-Alemanic).

History of German.

485. In point of time we divide the history both of the language and of the literature into three periods, viz., Old High-German till 1100; Middle High German till 1500; New High German since then, perhaps better till about 1800, because the literary language of the 18th century is already taking on an archaic character in comparison with the language of the last fifty years. See **487**, 3.

1. The literature of the O. H. G. period is entirely dialectic and clerical. We have one poem, unfortunately only fragmentary, the *Hildebrantslied*, that goes back in matter and meter to the period before the introduction of Christianity.

2. There has been much contention, whether there was a standard written language in the M. H. G. period. Lachmann and his school maintain that there was and that it died out with the decay of literature in the 14th century. But the opinion is losing ground. The reasons against are well stated in Paul's "Gab es eine mittelhochdeutsche Schriftsprache?" The literature was mainly lyrical and epic. Its climax falls in the 12th century. The chief differences between the O. and M. H. G. periods are: 1, the spread of umlaut; 2, the weathering of unaccented and inflectional vowels to mere e.

486. With the N. H. G. period begins the written language that became not suddenly, but gradually the standard literary language of Germany. In phonology it agrees with that of the East Frankish dialect, which is the M. G. dialect that is most closely related to S. G. Its territory was in

the very centre of Germany. Both this position and this relationship are two elements that help to account for its spread.

1. From this same centre started the Reformation. Luther's share in the establishment of the written language is generally not well stated and even overrated. Fourteen translations of the Bible had been published up to 1518 in H. G. alone, made from the Vulgate. The language was based upon the "*Kanzleisprache*," *i. e.*, the "official" language in which emperor and princes published decrees and laws and in which all government business was transacted.

2. There were at first several of these "Kanzleisprachen," differing more or less. We find traces of them as early as the 14th century. Those of Austria, Bohemia and Saxony were first amalgamated. It was this language that Luther used in his Bible translation, moulded by him, of course, as every man of genius will mould his mother-tongue. Luther, by birth a Low German, had come in contact with people of all stations, speaking Low and South German. No Bible, the circumstances being the same, translated into strict South German would and could have been accepted by North Germany. Again Luther had sprung from among the people and had a most hearty appreciation of folk-lore and all that is "volkstümlich," of proverbs, saws and songs. This made him a translator for the people. The proverbs of Solomon and the psalms are without doubt the most taking portions of his translation.

487. The spirit of the Reformation was one roused from the lethargy of the preceding centuries and ready for something new. Luther's New Testament appeared in 1522, the whole Bible in 1534. Besides the Bible the catechism, hymns, sermons and the numerous polemical pamphlets were written and read in the new language. With the Reformation began also the public school ("*volksschule*") and the first grammars and "*formelbücher*" appeared, written often by the lawyers, who, of course, favored the "Kanzleisprache." But last and foremost of all the *invention* of *printing* some fifty years before the Reformation made a common language possible.

1. The clerks would write and spell as they spoke, *i.e.*, according to their own dialect. Printing brought about a certain uniformity in the orthography. It spread the language to the most different parts of the country. About the year 1600, books were already cheap in comparison to the costly manuscripts. In 1523 a Bible was printed at Bâle, which had as appendix a sort of dictionary explaining the terms unfamiliar to the Swiss.

2. The struggle of the new language was hardest in Switzerland. Both Catholic and Calvinist objected to a Lutheran language. In North Germany it was favored by the fact that the whole North became Protestant en masse. Yet hymns were printed there in Low German for a long time. In the 17th century High German preachers came to the North. But through printing the writings of one man exercise a great influence upon the speech of his readers. Printing in fact has introduced into the development of language a certain stiff, artificial element that the written, and especially the unwritten, dialects do not have. The printed language has more of a fixed, stereotyped character than dialect. But on the other hand we must remember that the letters of the alphabet are not the language. They are only contrivances that represent speech very imperfectly, contrivances invented several thousand years ago, which we try to apply now to that most subtile institution—language, that has been changing and developing ever since.

3. The language of the 19th century differs not a little from the language of the 16th. The differences in forms and functions have been treated to some extent in Part I. The 17th century is a dark gloomy page in the history of Germany and almost a blank in its literature. In the first half of the eighteenth we see the beginnings of the classical period. Until then Latin was the language of the learned, and in the 17th and 18th centuries there was a large number of foreign words both in the written and spoken languages that were never assimilated, but driven out again by a school of literary men that started a revival of the love of old German.

The following are the more important and far-reaching sound-changes in the transition from M. H. G. to N. H. G.

488. A. VOWELS.

1. The further spread of umlaut by analogy (levelling).

Ex.: as a sign of the plural, see 48; in derivatives as in: gläubig, väterlich, brüderlich, Brüderchen, Töchterlein; in long-stemmed weak verbs as in: hören, hörte, gehört < hœren, hôrte, gehôrit — gehôrter (see 455, 2).

2. The lengthening of short accented stem-vowels in the open syllable, and of a and e before r, rt, rd. To this process the largest number of the present long vowels is due.

Ex.: Vogel, Hof — Hofes; gebähren (< bërn), gewähren, leben, weben, ſehen; Hahn—Hahnes; Thür, mir, wir, er, der (demonstrative), bar (but bärfuß); Herd, werde, wert, zart, Bart. Ur in the sense of "great" as in: Urgroßvater, otherwise short or long: Urlaub, Urſprung, but Urteil is always short. -art and -arz are unsettled still. Compare Härz, Wärze.

a. The short vowel is retained before more than one consonant and in a closed syllable, except before r (rt, rd). Ex.: hoffen, voll, rennen, Decke, wollen, faſt, etc., but mir, wir, as above.

b. This point of N. H. G. phonology is by no means all cleared up. Paul is the only one that has thrown any light upon it. See P. and B. Beiträge, VII. p. 101-. When through inflectional endings the stem-vowel is now in an open, now in a closed syllable, the standard pronunciation demands levelling in favor of the long vowel of the open syllable. For instance, das Glas, Glaſes, Glaſe, Glas, Gläſer, all with long stem-vowels. In N. G., however, Glas, Gras, Tag, Lob, (N. and A. sg.), are always short according to the law of short vowel in a closed syllable. N. and S. G. agree in the levelling between the sg. and pl. pret. of ablaut-series, IV. and V. in favor of the long vowel of the plural, *e. g.*, gab—gaben, faḥ—faḥen.

c. This principle may be stated in another way: N. H. G. makes a M. H. G. accented syllable containing a short vowel long, either by lengthening the vowel or by lengthening, *i.e.*, "doubling," the consonant, particularly if that consonant be t or m, and if a single consonant is followed by er, el, en.

Ex.: Stätte, Sitte, kommen, Sommer, Wetter; in the pret. and past part. of the I. and II. ablaut-series: ſchnitt — geſchnitten, ſott — geſotten. This change began in the M. H. G. period, starting from L. G. it spread over M. and over S. G. as late as the 16th century.

3. Long accented vowels are shortened before more than one consonant.

a. This process is not far-reaching, but includes also the long vowels sub 4, that have sprung from diphthongs. It started with the M. G. dialects.

Ex.: echt L. G., see **493**, 4, < *ēhaft;* dachte, brachte (see **454**, 3). Acht < *āhte;* Herr, herrſchen; horchen; ſing, hing, ging < *fienc, hienc, giene;* vier in the compounds vierzehn, -zig, viertel, etc., Mutter < *muoter.*

4. The simplification of the diphthongs ie > ī, still spelt ie; uo > ū; üe > ü long.

Examples very numerous: Blut < *bluot;* Mut < *muot;* Güte < *güete;* ſüß < *suoze;* führen < *vüeren;* blühen < *blüejen;* lieb; tief; always in the

preterit of Class VII. and in the present of Class II., viz., ritt, fiel, bieten, fieben, but see 3.

a. This also is a M. G. feature that was fixed upon the "Schriftsprache," showing itself as early as the 18th century. The S. G. dialects do not know it yet (see *Hart's Goethe's Prose*, p. 40, bottom).

5. The diphthongization of the long vowels î, û, iu (whether < G. T. ǒu or umlaut of û, value ü long) > ei, au, eu (äu), respectively.

Ex.: drei < *drî*, Weib < *wîp*; ei in the present of the I. Class; laut < *lût*; Haut < *hût*; Sau < *sû*; Häuſer < *hiusir* < *hûs*; Mäuſe < *miuse* < *mûs*; Treue < *triuwe*; euch < *iuch*; Leuchte < *liuhte*; er beut < *biutet*. The Eng. cognates, *e. g.*, the verbs of the I. Class write — wrote, shine — shone; loud, hide (< Ags. *hȳd*), sow, house, mouse — mice show that a similar diphthongization of long i and u has taken place. o in wrote, shone < Ags. *â* < *ai* corresponds to the old diphthong, M. H. G. ei as in schein, reiz, etc. Modern German ei therefore goes back to î in Heirat < hîrat; to ei in ſcheiden < *scheiden*; ai always goes back to ei, ai as in Mai, Kaiſer. au < û in Haus < *hûs*; but < ou in laufen < *loufen*; äu (eu) < iu < û by umlaut, in Häuſer < *hiusir* < *hûs*; but eu < iu (ĕu) in Leute < *liute*, heulen < *hiulen*; and another eu < ǒu umlaut of ou (< au) in Freude < *vröude* (< **frauwida*), beugen < *bǒugen* < *bougen* (< **baugjan*, ablauts. II.).

a. This is a S.G. feature, especially Bavarian, in which dialect it started about 1200. It spread over East Frankish and Upper Saxon in the 14th and 15th centuries and latest over Suabian. All the other dialects whether L., M. or S. G. do not know this change. "House" is still "*hûs*" in Bremen and in Bâle. The new diphthongs are still kept apart from the old ones in dialect, but the standard spoken language recognizes no difference.

489. The following changes do not affect very many words. They are mostly S. G. features and though quite old, the standard and the common spoken language do not agree upon all words. The former favors e and i, the latter ö and ü.

1. e, ĕ > ö in ergötzen (Classics still ergetzen), Hölle, Löffel, Löwe, zwölf (standard zwelf), ſchwören and a few others. Rarely e, ĕ > o or u after w: wollen < *wellen*; wohl < *wĕla*; kommen < *quĕman*. This is as old as O. H. G., however.

2. i > ü in Hülfe — Hilfe; ſprützen — ſpritzen; würdig; wüßte; Sprüchwort — Sprüchwort. i < ü in wirken + work and Kiſſen, but also still Küſſen + cushion.

3. â > ô, Ohnmacht, folk-etymology for Ohmacht < *âmaht*; wo < *wô*; ohne < *âne*; Monat < *mânôt*; and Dohle < *tâhele*. Compare Wahn and Argwohn.

4. Both S. and M. G. is u > o, û > ö, regularly before modern mm, nn and n + any other cons.

Ex.: Past part. and pret. subj. of Class III., 3.; Wonne < *wunne*; fromm < *vrum*; sonder < sunder; umsonst < *umbesus*; Sohn < *sun*. Compare Bronn (poetic), but Brunnen (why u is not clear); Mönch < münich

5. Before palatal g, ch e > i. By this -ig and -ich have become the only suffixes instead of O. and M. H. G. *ec, ac, ech, ach*, see 509.

Ex.: Fittich < *fettach*; Kranich < *kranech*, O. H. G. *chranuh*; fertig < *vertec*; Honig < *honec*.

490. B. Consonants.

1. The spread of sch for s before l, m, n, and w.

Ex.: Schlaf < *slâf*, + sleep; Schleim < *slîm* + slime; Schmeer < *smear; schmeißen < *smîzen*, + smite; Schnee < *snê*, + snow; Schnepfe < *snepfe*, + snipe; Schweiß < *sweiz* + sweat; schwimmen < *swimmen*, + swim. The Eng. cognates still show old s.

a. This is a S. G. feature, starting in the 15th century and extending over the M. G. and the colonized eastern L. G. dialects (Paul). In the 16th sch was substituted for s after r in a few words and later still in initial sp, st.

All these sch's are recognized by the standard pronunciation, but the S. and M. G. dialects know almost no limit in the use of sch. M. G. dialects substitute it even for ch, viz., misch for mich. See 391, 1.

b. S < sch also after r, *e.g.*, Hirsch < *hirz* + hart, Kirsche < *kirse* + cherry, herrschen < *hêrsen*. Since schp, scht are not recognized in the spelling of initial sp, st, Eng. st, sp, and G. st, sp correspond: Stadt, Statt, Stätte < *stat*, + stead; Spieß < *spiz* + spit.

c. This sch for s is not a phonetic change as is generally taken for granted. In the transition from O. > M. H. G. sc had become sch first before the front vowels, then before all the vowels and then before r. sc > sch before a palatal vowel is a phonetic transition called *palatalization* due to the following vowel and attended by loosening of the contact, and is known in Eng. and the Romance dialects as well. See Ellis' Early Eng. Pronunciation, p. 1154–. The transition-sound was no doubt the present Westphalian sjh, a double sound. At first only sc > sch in the above order, and not s > sch. The links were sk + pal. vowel > skj > sjh > sh.

d. Before vowels and r G. ſch corresponds to Eng. sh, *e. g.*, Schiff + ship; Scham + shame; ſchön + sheen; Schrot + shread, shroud; Schrein + shrine. When Eng. sc, sk corresponds to G. ſch, ſt, there is something wrong, due generally to foreign origin or influence, in one or the other. Compare Schule + school; Schaum + scum (Norse); Landſchaft + landscape (D.); Skandal + scandal (Fr.).

2. ʒ (< z < t, see **414**, 1) > s, written ſ, s, ſſ, ß.

This is a S. G. feature, beginning with final z in the 13th century, spreading over M. G. L. G. still like Eng.; notice the cognates. Ex.: was < *waz* + what; aus < *ûz* + out; Waſſer < *wazzer* + water; Binſe < *binʒ*, + bentgrass. Examples very numerous.

3. ch = kh (< old ch, cch and medial h) has become jh after front-vowels and after r, l, and n. See **375**.

This transition is not shared by S. G. The Eng. cognates show k or silent gh for I.-E. k: nicht < *niht* (= nikht) + not, nought; Wicht < *wiht* + wight.

a. ch before s in the same syllable > ks, the same in Eng. as early as Anglo-Saxon.

Ex.: Fuchs < *fuhs* + fox; Buchs < *buhs-boum*, + box; ſechs < *sehs* + six; Achſe < *ahse*, + axle; Axt < *acchus* + axe (t is excrescent).

b. Medial h at the end of a syllable is silent now, ſehen, ſieh—ſt, but ch still in Geſicht; fleucht — fliehen; hoch — höher; rauch still in Rauchwerk, furs, — rauh; ſchmähen — Schmach.

4. mb > mm, Eng. still mb: Lamm < *lamp* — *lambes* + lamb; Kummer < *kumber*, + to cumber.

5. m — n, Eng. still m. Beſen < *besem* + besom; Faden < fadem + fathom.

6. w < bh, the labio-labial bh has become labio-dental v in the standard-pronunciation; it has disappeared after ou, iu (now au, eu); in a few cases âw > au; after l and r it became b, beginning in the 14th century. Eng. cognates show a vowel + some silent letter.

Ex.: neu < *niuwe*, + new; ſchauen < *schouwen* + show; grau < *grâ* — *grâwes*, + gray; blau < *blâ* — *blâwes* + blue, due to Fr. *bleu*. Gerben <

garwen, + yare; Schwalbe < *swalwe*, + swallow; Narbe, a scar < *narwe*, + narrow, lit. "contracted surface;" gelb < *gel — gelwes*, + yellow. Some cases show doublets due to levelling in favor of the uninflected form: fahl — falb < *val — valwes* + fallow; Sper-ling + sparrow — Sperber < *sparwaere* + sparrow-hawk.

491. 1. Other transitions are not general enough to deserve special mention. It is important to distinguish real phonetic transitions and differences between the two periods in the history of the language due to levelling and analogy. The latter have been frequently treated in the comments upon the various inflections. See the levelling in the declension of fem. nouns, **433**, between sg. and pl. pret., **460**.

2. The disappearance of sounds by contraction ought also to be considered, *e.g.*, of j for which a merely orthographical h has been substituted (see **363**, 2) or of e in 3. pers. sg. pers. of strong verbs whose stem ends in t as schilt < schiltet. Examples of new sounds are e between î, uo, û and r as in Trauer < *trûre*, Geier < *gîr*; of t(b) after final n and s as in jemand < *ieman*, eigentlich < *eigenlîche*, Obst < *obez*, Art < *ackes*.

The German word-stock.

492. The following sources have furnished words and forms older than any occurring in the literatures:

1. *Runes, e.g.*, the famous inscription on the golden horn, which reads *ek hlewagastiz holtingaz horna tawidô* = I, Hlewagastiz (= lea-host?) of Holstein, made (the) horn.

2. The words borrowed by Fins and Laplanders before the race-migrations, when the latter were in contact with the Scandinavians, the former with the Goths in the South, *e. g.*, "*kununga*s," "king."

3. Words and proper names occurring in Latin and Greek authors, *e. g.*, the name "*Teutones*" would seem to go back to a period before Grimm's Law (see Kluge's dictionary); *glêsum* = amber, Ags. *glære*, + glass in all Germanic dialects; "*alces*" in Caesar = meaning "elk," O. H. G. *elch*, Ags. *eolch*; modern Eng. "elk" is reimported from Norse.

4. German has a much larger Germanic word-stock than Middle and modern English, because through the Norman conquest the Romance was engrafted upon old English and so many old English (Germanic) words died out. But compare the couplets calf — veal; deer — venison; sow, swine — pork; hunt — chase.

a. German, never having had to accept such a large foreign element, has treated foreign words very stepmotherly. English welcomes every stranger, at least our large dictionaries do, which contain as much as ten per centum of words that are no more English than they are German. A German, seeing such a dictionary with colored flags, steam-engines, animals, and what not, takes it for an encyclopedia. In German a foreign word has to undergo a long period of probation before it is accepted in the language and in the dictionary. Foreign words are collected mostly in the "*Fremdwörterbuch*," *i. e.*, Dictionary of foreign words.

493. The first larger influx of foreign words into German came through contact with Roman civilization, *e.g.*, Straße, Pfahl, Käſe, Küche, Kette, Münze, Keller, Fenſter; the second through Christianization: Kirche, faſtei'en, Kreuz, Engel, Prieſter, Pfaffe, predigen, and a great many others. These and other foreign words of the O. H. G. period were quite thoroughly Germanized. They took part in the shifting then going on and their accent was put upon the stem-syllable.

1. In later O. H. G. and in M. H. G. the chief source, from which foreign words came, were the crusades and the institution of chivalry; in later M. H. G. and early N. H. G., the revival of learning and the thirty years war, *e.g.*, Pala'ſt, Flinte, Tourni'er, Thron; in fact all older nouns in -ie'r and verbs in -ie'ren. Schiller's Wallenstein has many foreign words, *e.g.*, Armbruſt; malebei'en; Panier, Pulver, Pult.

2. In the last 200 years Germans have taken up, as all nations have done, a large number of words from Greek, Latin and the Romance languages, words which the progress of civilization calls for. But beginning with the M. H. G. period German has not been able to change the foreign accent, *e.g.*, the verbs in -ie'ren, even when this ending is added to German words as hofieren, ſtolzieren, hauſieren; Melodei' or -die', Baſtei', Bataillo'n, Balla'de, Ballo'n, Paſte'te; the many nouns in -ie'. Compare English which changed in its middle period the accent of nearly all Norman-French words, *e.g.*, reason, season, melancholy. Later te'legraph, but German Telegra'ph.

a. There has sprung up since 1870 a tendency in high official circles to banish foreign words, but it is not likely to meet with much success. The military system uses hundreds of them still.

The Postmaster-General of the German empire objected to Telepho'n, because he could not decide upon the gender, and so „Fernſprecher" was made the official word. A letter to be called for must have on it „Poſtlagernd," not "poste restante" as formerly.

3. One more large source of borrowed words has to be mentioned which began as early as the 15th century, viz., Low German and Dutch (also English). All words that contain "p," for instance, must be either foreign (Pappel, Panther) or non-High-German, because there can be no p

in H. G. (see **409**, 2). If the words do not come directly from Low German, they have been influenced by it and taken L. G. form.

Ex.: puffen, puſten, Pocke, Poſt, glatt, Plunder, Wappen. Words in gg, bb: Ebbe, Egge, Rogge, Flagge, Bagger, flügge.

4. Notice the many shipping terms: Flagge, Bord, Boot, Spriet, Leck, Wrack, Steven (v = w). Words in -cht for ft, *e.g.*, ſacht, H. G. ſanft; Schacht, H. G. Schaft; Schlucht for Schluft. The ending -chen is Low and M. German; -lein, South German. Fett for feiſt is L. G.

494. A small group of words was introduced twice, but at different periods, *e.g.*, Pfalz (O. H. G.), Pala'ſt (M. H. G.) < *palatium*, but see Kluge's Dict. Barge (O. H. G.), Tartſche (M. H. G.) + Eng. target < V. L. *targia* (if this is not originally German and belongs to the next group). Melodei was really borrowed, Melodie is a later doublet after the many nouns in -ie. Fehlen + to fail, fallieren, to fail (in business) < F. *faillir*.

1. Compare Eng. frail and fragile; quite — quiet; exploit — explicite. Many originally German words, adopted by another language, are borrowed again in a foreign form: Wagen — Waggon + Eng. wain — wagon; Spion < ſpähen — German Späher; Bivouak < *biwacht*, Beiwacht; die Garde, die Garderobe + guard, + wardrobe < warta, wartên — die Warte, der Wart + ward; Stuck < Ital. *stucco* and this from G. Stück, O. H. G. *stucchi*.

2. Besides isolated and obscure German words a large number of foreign words are exposed to "folk-etymology," because they are not understood. These have been collected by *Andresen* in his "deutsche Volksetymologie." (See also Palmer's Folk-etymology). Hederich < L. *hederacea*, ground-ivy. Abenteuer (archaic spelling even Abendteuer), < M. H. G. *aventiure* < Rom. *aventure*.

3. Vielfraß, wolverine < Norse *fjallfress* = moutain-bear, as if it were a great eater; Sündflut as if from Sünde and Flut, "the flood that came on account of sin," but it is from Sin — meaning "ever," "universal" as in Singrün, evergreen. Leumund as if it meant „Lügenmund" or „Leutemund," but < *hliumunt*, *hlium*, in which *-munt* is suffix, "hliu" < the same root as laut, loud + Gr. *κλύω*. See Maulwurf, **400**. Compare Eng. causeway < O. Fr. *chaucié* < L. *calciatam* (*viam*); country-dance < counter-dance, Fr. *contredanse*.

Hundreds of examples will be found in *Andresen* and *Palmer's* collections. The words in 494, 494, 1, have never been collected.

D. WORDFORMATION.

This chapter does not contain a complete German etymology. It aims merely at giving a brief, practical survey of the derivation of German words for students who know a little English and Latin. A knowledge of the older forms of some Germanic dialects cannot be expected from the student. For practical reasons only, the following subdivisions of the chapter are made.

495. We may distinguish four ways of forming and deriving words:

1. By ablaut without derivative suffix, see **496**, 1, 3.

2. By suffixing some element which was once perhaps an independent word.

3. By prefixing such element.

4. By composition of independent words.

496. The pronouns have roots peculiar to themselves and many adverbs are formed from the pronominal roots. Nouns (that is, substantives and adjectives) and verbs had probably the same roots, though it is customary to speak, in contrast to pronominal roots, only of verbal roots, from which nouns were formed later. We count as primitive all strong verbs and those nouns which have no apparent derivative suffix. From a $\sqrt{\text{b'xnd'}}$, in which x represents the vowel, that is to appear according to the various ablaut-grades, both nouns and verbs were formed. In G. T this root would be *band*. It furnished *binden*, *band*, *gebunden*, das Band, der Bund, der Band, das Bund (for Bündel). Both nouns and verbs had their stem-suffixes, of course. These made them into words. Roots are to the etymologist what x, y, z are to the mathematician. They are something unreal and abstracted from the actual phenomena of languages. No one ever spoke in roots. In a word, we distinguish the stem and the inflections. The stem minus the stem-suffix is the root. Of every root, noun and strong verb are not now extant, for instance, lieb, Lob, but weak verbs by means of the suffix *jo—je*, were formed from the same root, I. E. $\sqrt{\text{lxub'}}$, G. T. $\sqrt{\text{lxub}}$, *e. g.*, (g)lauben, loben. x appears as *e—i* in lieb, Liebe < *liuba*, **lëub-*; as *a* in (g)lauben, (er)lauben; it disappears in Lob, loben, the weakest or zero stage of ablaut. See **394**.

1. Formed by ablaut alone, we consider strong verbs, nouns of the same roots and nouns from roots that may have no strong verb extant.

2. The stem-suffix may have been *o*, *jo*, *i*, *u*, *â*, *jâ* (fem.), etc. We are inclined to look upon the *jo*-stems as derivatives because they suffered umlaut, *e. g.*, Bürge, Geſchütz. There is some reason for this because *jo*, *jâ*, *wo*, *wô* are not primary stem-suffixes, but for our purposes there is no harm in confounding the primary and secondary suffixes.

3. Examples of the derivation of verbs and of substantives by ablaut alone.

I. ablaut-series: beißen, der Biß; reich, Reib. II.: ſchließen, das Schloß, der Schluß; triefen, der Tropf, die Traufe; das Loch, die Lücke. III.: ſchwimmen, der Schwamm, der Sumpf (?), die Schwemme; der Schlund, der Ring. IV.: bergen, der Berg, die Burg, der Bürge; ſchallen, ſchellen, der Schall. V.: geben, die Gabe (rather *geba*), gebe or gäbe (adj.). VI.: graben, das Grab, die Grube; ich muß, der Hahn, das Huhn.

To the G. T. â — ô series: thun, gethan, die That. See 476, 2.

Derivation of Substantives

497. Derived by a late ablaut, also directly from a weak verb.

Ex.: Der Schund < ſchinden, = refuse; der Befehl < befehlen; der Handel < handeln; das Opfer <opfern; der Ärger < ärgern. Feminines in -e: die Winde + windlass < winden; die Fähre + ferry < *vern* < *faran*.

498. Derivation by Vowel-Suffixes:

1. e < î formed from adjectives, all feminine, *e.g.*, Größe < groß; Höhe < hoch; Schöne < ſchön*; Bälde < bald (now only adverb); Güte < gut — *guotî* < *guot*. î produced umlaut.

2. e < i < *jo* Hirte < Herde.

3. ei < *ie* < Romance *ie, ia*, always with chief-stress upon it, at first only in foreign words, then spreading very rapidly in N. H. G.

It is attached most frequently to nouns and verbs ending in -el, -er, -en, so that the ending was felt to be -erei, *e. g.*, Zauberei', Arzenei', Heuchelei, Jägerei. It denotes also a place of business: Druckerei, Bäckerei. It implies a slur, Juriſterei, Kinderei.

4. ie only in foreign words. It is the later form of *ia, ie*, and the nouns were formed after *î* had become *ei*.

Ex.: Aſtronomie', Ge`ographie', The`ologie', etc. -ie has crowded out the older -ei, or they appear together with a difference of meaning. Melodei — Melodie, both mean "melody"; Partei = party, faction — Partie = game, match, company, excursion; Phantaſei + fancy, — Phantaſie + phantasy.

DERIVATION BY CONSONANT SUFFIXES.

499. Liquids and their combinations.

l, generally el < O. H. G. *ul* (*al*), *il*. *il* produces umlaut. It is weak or unaccented. + Eng. le, + L. *-ul-us*. Majority of substantives are masculine.

Ex.: 1. l < *ul*, *al*: der Büh(e)l, Stahl, das Beil, Maul, die Seele.

2. el (< *ul*, *al*): der Wandel, Mangel, Nabel, Schnabel, Sattel, Nebel; die Fackel, Gurgel, Wurzel, Faſel, Schaufel.

3. el < *il*. Most of them denote means and instruments like the femnines < *ul*, *al*.

Ex.: der Beutel, Büttel (+ beadle), Löffel, Kegel + cudgel (?), Schlüſſel, Ärmel, Zügel. These are very numerous.

4. el, + Eng. -le, sign of diminutives, < *ila*, *ili*. Neuter gender. A S. German favorite from old times, now le, l, see Goethe's famous Schweizerlied.

Ex.: Bündel, Büchel, Rindel. Proper names: Friedel, Zacherl.

5. el in foreign words: die Orgel < V. L. *organa*; Teufel < διάβολος; das Siegel < L. *sigillum*; der Eſel < L. *asinus*; der Kümmel < L. *cuminum*.

500. l combined with other suffixes.

1. with s in ſel (weak accent), ſal (secondary accent) < *sal*, *is* + *al*, generally producing umlaut. Gender prevallingly neuter, but also a few fem. and very few masc.

Ex. of -ſel: der Wechſel, das Rätſel, Überbleibſel, Häckſel.

Ex. of -ſal: das Schickſal, das Labſal, das Scheuſal, die Saumſal, die Trübſal. Some have double gender.

2. -lein < *il* + *in*, secondary accent, very numerous, produces umlaut, noun always neuter. See **493**, 4. Now only in solemn diction and poetry.

Ex.: Kindlein, Lämmlein, Mägdlein, Söhnlein, etc. -elchen is rare: Büchelchen, F. 3779.

3. -ling < *ul*, *il* + *ing*, + Eng. -ling, weak accent, often with a depreciative force. Its second element was at first only added to nouns in -l, then *-ling* became the suffix.

Ex.: Fremdling, Findling + foundling; Jüngling + youngling; Wițling, Däumling; Mietling, hireling; Säugling + suckling; Schößling, Zwilling.

a. –lingen (en is Dative pl.) forms many names of places, Hamelingen, Gravelingen.

4. ler < l + er is a quite modern suffix. For er, see **507**, 1. It started with nouns that came from verbs in –eln or nouns in –el.

Ex.: Künſtler < künſteln; Schmeichler < ſchmeicheln; but Häusler < Haus; Tiſchler < Tiſch. Implies a slur, *e.g.*, Rechtler < Recht. Comp. Eng. hostler < hostel.

501. em, m, am, en < em. Of these m, en are unaccented and form no syllable; –em has weak accent, am has secondary. < O. H. G. *m, um, am,* + Eng. m, om. For em > en, see **490**, 5.

Ex.: der Baum, + beam; Traum, + dream; Zaum + team; Schwarm + swarm; der Atem (Odem, the biblical form), Brodem; der Boden, der Buſen, der Faden, der Beſen; der Eidam, der Broſam, in which am has been restored in place of older –em. das Wittum belongs here, but tum has crept in for older "*widem*," as shown in the verb widmen.

m is a suffix in –tum < √d'ā, see **515**, 5.

502. en, n, < O. H. G. *an, in* + Eng. en, n, on, in.

Ex.: der Dorn, + thorn; Hafen, + haven; das Korn, + corn; das Zeichen, + token, der Degen, + thane. Regen, + rain; Wagen, + wain, wagon. Often lost in G., compare der Rabe, + raven; die Wolke, + welkin; Küche, + kitchen; Kette, + chain. en of inf. is lost in English. In G. en has crept into the Nominative and changed the inflection, see **435**, 2. In some cases, *e.g.*, Korn, Zorn + Ags. *torn*, n is the participial suffix *–no*, see **453**, 1.

1. The –en of the weak declension really belongs here, since it forms nouns denoting the agent, for instance, from verbs, bieten, der Bote, des Boten. But we feel it now as an inflectional ending. See **432**.

–ner is not a real suffix. Compare ler, **500**, 4. In Redner n belongs to the stem < *redina, redinôn.* In others n is added by analogy: Glöckner < Glocke; Kirchner < Kirche; Pförtner < *portenarius;* Söldner < *soldenarius*, Sold.

2. en < *în*, a now rare diminutive except in composition in –lein, –chen. Ex.: das Füllen (Folen) + filly, foal; Schwein, + swine < G. T. *sû*; das Küken for Küchlein + chicken < from the same stem as "cock."

503. *nis, niss–*, forms neuter and fem. nouns, generally abstract ones denoting existence and condition, sometimes place, + Eng. –ness.

Generally from noun and verb stems, but also from adjectives: die Wildnis < wild, Finsternis < finster. It represents now older *–niss–* and *–nuss–*, Go. *–nassus*, and generally produces umlaut. *–niss*, *–nuss* are compounded of *n* + *issi*, issa and *n* + *ussi*.

Ex.: das Begräbnis, Gefängnis, Vermächtnis; die Erlaubnis, Kenntnis, Betrübnis.

504. *in, inn–* forms fem. nouns, denoting females, from masc. < M. H. G. *in, în, inne* < O. H. G. *innâ, în*, + L. *ina* in *regina*.

Ex.: Gott, Göttin; Fuchs, Füchsin + vixen; Hannoveraner, Hannoveranerin. Very numerous. Not extant in Eng. except in vixen, Ags. *fyxen*. To be translated by "female," "she–," "lady–."

1. –in has become (e)n and is attached to surnames having the force of the more elegant Frau + surname without suffix, *e. g.*, die Müllern instead of Frau Müller, die Spannhaken instead of Frau Spannhake.

505. –nd, end, (and, ant), really participial suffix (see **453**), + Eng. –end.

Ex.: der Freund + friend; Feind + fiend; Weigand, champion; Heiland, + *Heliand*, Saviour; Valant, but the cognate ant is foreign and has chief-stress, *e. g.*, Musika'nt, Ministra'nt. No participial ending in der Abend, der Eleka'nt.

506. –ng, –ing, –ung, < older *ing, ung*, + Eng. *ing, ng*, weak accent.

Ex.: der Häring + herring; der Schilling + shilling; das Messing, brass, Ags. *mâsling*.

1. n is lost in König, + king; der Pfennig (< pfenninc) + penny.

2. ung forms numerous fem. nouns from verbs. Like Eng. ing they denote mostly action The suffix is gaining ground. But Eng. nouns in ing are frequently best translated into German by an infinitive. Ex.: die Erfahrung, Bildung, Zeitung + tidings, Anfertigung + manufacture; Verdampfung, evaporation, etc. Riding + das Reiten; building, das Bauen.

8. ing and ung + er and en form many patronymics and names of places: Thüringen, Meiningen, Twiſtringen, Mohrungen, Hormung, Nibelungen, Merovinger, Zähringer, Lothringer. For er (see **507**, 2). –en is originally dative pl.

507. –er is of various origins.

1. It denotes the agent, < *ere* < *œre* < *âri*, + Eng. er, or, ary, + Lat. *–arius*.

It is attached to both nouns and verbs and is preceded by umlaut as a rule.

Ex.: Zauberer, Kämmerer, Schüler, Ritter, Schneider, Reiter, Tänzer. Very numerous.

a. Borrowed words not denoting the agent: Zentner, < L. *centenarius* + centenary, a hundred weight; Trichter < late L. *tractarius* (?), funnel.

2. –er denotes origin and home, attached to names of places and countries.

It was originally a Genitive pl., but of the same origin with the preceding: Thüringer, Berliner, Wiener, Schweizer.

3. –er without any particular force, and words with it are looked upon as primitive < *r*, *ur* (*ar*), *ir*, + Eng. r, er, re, + I.-E. –ro–.

Ex.: der Acker, Hammer, Sommer, Donner; die Ader, Feder, Leber, Schulter; das Futter, Leder, Wetter, Silber, Waſſer.

4. –ier in foreign words, *e. g.*, der Cavalier, Barbier, is identical with er sub 1, but is of Romance form, < L. *–arius*.

For –er as a sign of pl., see **431**.

508. Suffix –ter, der.

1. < *tar*, forms names of relationship + Eng. ter, ther, < I.-E. –t–r. It is unaccented. Ex. der Vater, Bruder, die Mutter, Schweſter, Tochter.

2. < *tara*, *tra*, *tira* + Eng. ter, der. Denotes Instrument. Not numerous, unaccented. + L. trum, G. τρον, τρια.

Ex.: Klafter, cord; die Leiter + ladder; das Gelächter + laughter; Laſter < *lahstar*, *lastar* < *lahan*, to blame. In the last word –ster is secondary

suffix. It appears also in der Hamſter, badger; die Elſter, magpie, which are of doubtful origin. Das Fenſter < Lat. *fenestra*.

der (ter) as comparative suffix, see **530**.

g, k, ich, ch.

g and k, Eng. g and k, it is difficult to separate from the rest of the stem. Nouns ending in them must be considered primitive.

509. –ich, sometimes spelt –ig, forms a few masc. nouns. It represents M. H. G. *–ech* and *–ich* < *uh, ah* and *ih* < *uk, ak, ik* + Eng. –ock, –k. See **489**, 5.

Ex.: der Bottich (+ buttock), der Habich(t) + hawk; Kranich + crane; Fittich, Teppich; das Reiſich, Reiſig, brushwood; der Rettig (–ich) + radish < L. *radic-em;* Molch < M. H. G. *mol*, + mole, but means lizard. der Eſſig (ig for ich), (+ Eng. acid) < L. *acetum*, through **atecum* (?). Rabi'schen is of later importation. Der Käfig, Käfich, does not belong here, but < *kevje* (> kefge) < L. *cavea*.

1. –icht = ich + t, for which see **512**, 2, forms a number of neuter nouns denoting fullness, plenty, frequency. Late suffix of 15th century. Das Dickicht, + Eng. thicket (but –et is Romance); das Kehricht, sweepings; das Röhricht, reeds. Der Habicht (see above).

510. –chen forms the common neuter diminutives and has crowded out –lein in the spoken language. See **493**, 4.

Compounded of ich, see above, and n < *in, īn*, see **502**, 2. Always produces umlaut. Has weak accent, + Eng. kin. Ex.: das Männchen, + manikin; Lämmchen, + lambkin; Würmchen, Mädchen, Veilchen.

d, t, z, ſ, ſch.

511. 1. –d– + Eng. –th, < G. T. –'th–, < I. E. –'t–.

Ex.: Der Tod, + death; Mund, + mouth; das (die) Nahd, + aftermath; die Bude, + booth; die Bürde, burthen. Not numerous in German. Where Engl. forms abstract nouns in –th, from adjectives generally, G. forms the same in –e: Wärme, warmth; Treue, truth; Tiefe, depth.

2. –de < *–ida, –idā*, unaccented; –od, –öde, –at, < *–ôta, –ôti, –uoti*, secondary accent, form neuter and fem. nouns.

Ex.: Die Fremde, Freude, Gebärde, Zierde, Begierde; das Getreide < *getregede* < *gitragida*, what is born on the fields, crops, grain. Das Gelübde, Gebäude, Gemälde.

a. Das Kleinod, jewel; die Einöde due to folk-etymology after Öde, desert, then wilderness = solitude, lone-ness. Der Monat + month < *mânot;* die Heimat, + home, native land; der Zierat, ornamentation. But Heirat, marriage < *hî* < *hîw* + *rât.* Die Armut belongs here, its ut < *uoti*, O. H. G *armuoti.* Wermut, + Eng. wormwood, has this suffix, but its root is doubtful. For –at in foreign words, see **163**, 1.

512. –t forms numerous fem. nouns and a few masculines, + Eng. t when preceded by surd spirants, see **412**, 2, < original t.

Ex.: die Kraft + craft; die Macht + might; die Trift + drift; die Flucht + flight; der Frost + frost; der Geist + ghost; der Gast + guest; die Mast, + mast (of animals); Gift, + gift; Gruft + crypt.

1. This –t forms other nouns, but it then corresponds to Eng. d, rarely th; mostly < I.-E. –t– before the accent, with which the suffix of the weak past participle is identical (see **453**, 1): die Furt + ford; der Wart + ward; Saat, + seed; That, + deed; die Flut, + flood; die Blüte, bloth; die Stätte, Stadt, + stead; der Mut, + mood; die Wut, + wood (mad).

2. Notice the excrescent t, which the many nouns ending in a spirant + t encouraged, *e. g.*, der Saft + *sap;* die Art + axe; das Obst < *obes;* in –schaft + –ship, –scape (?). After –ch, see **509**, 1. In foreign words, *e. g.*, der Pala'st, + palace; Papst, + pope; Morast, + morass.

3. –st in Kunst < können, Brunst < brennen, Gunst < gönnen is not clear. To call it "euphonic" does not explain. Arzt < O. H. G. arzât < late L. *archiater*, but phonetically not quite clear. Die Magd, Maid + maid < M. H. G. *maget, meit* has the suffix b–t, < G. T. th, derived from a masc. *magus*, "boy."

513. s, ß– is rare, + Eng. s, < *is–, es–.*

Ex.: Flachs + flax; Fuchs, + fox; Luchs + lynx (?); die Achse, + axle; die Hülse, pod; der Krebs < *crebeze* + crayfish, due to popular etymology, as if "cray-fish"; die Bremse, brake; die Hornisse + hornet; die Gans + goose.

514. sch– is of various origins, but generally inseparable.

< isk– comes the frequent adjective suffix –sch + Eng. ish, sh, *e.g.*, der Mensch < O. H. G. *mennisko*, an adjective; der Frosch + frog (see Kluge);

Welſch + welsh. In Hirſch + hart, ſch < s, z. In Kirſche + cherry < **ceresia* ſch < s. See **525, 4.**

a. -ſche is added to surnames to denote Mrs., but is quite colloquial, die Reinhardtſche for Frau Reinhardt, die Landwehrſche for Frau Landwehr.

NOUNS DERIVED BY NOMINAL SUFFIXES, WHICH CAN BE TRACED TO INDEPENDENT WORDS STILL EXTANT IN THE OLDER GERMANIC DIALECTS.

For earlier periods of the language this derivation would therefore properly come under the head of wordcomposition.

515. The suffixes are: -heit, -keit, -rich, -ſchaft, -tum. They all form abstract fem. nouns, chiefly from substantives and adjectives, except those in -rich and -tum, and have secondary accent.

1. -heit + Eng. -hood, -head. < O. H. G. *heit*, Ags. *hâd*, meaning character, nature, rank. In a few nouns it means "a body of," and has collective force. Very frequent: die Freiheit; Gottheit + godhead; Kindheit + childhood; Menſchheit, mankind; Chriſtenheit, Christendom.

2. -keit composed of -heit and the adjective suffix -ec or ic, to which it was attached in M. H. G. First ec-heit, ic-heit (> echeit, icheit) > ekeit, ikeit > keit, keit. -keit is attached only to adj. in -bar, -er, -ig, -lich and -ſam. Very numerous.

Ex.: die Dankbarkeit, Eitelkeit, Heiterkeit, Ewigkeit, Freundlichkeit, Einſamkeit. The derivation from adjectives in -ig is so common, that -igkeit was looked upon as the suffix and adjectives in -los and haft only form nouns in this way: die Ehrloſigkeit, Straſloſigkeit, Lügenhaftigkeit, Krankhaftigkeit. In -ig-keit ig has been restored in many nouns, after it had helped form keit, *e. g.*, Süßigkeit < *süezekeit*; Ewigkeit < *êwecheit*. See **489**, 5.

a. Mark the distinction sometimes made between nouns in -igkeit, -keit and -heit from the same adj. Die Kleinigkeit = trifle, die Kleinheit = littleness; die Neuigkeit = a piece of news; die Neuheit = newness; die Reinlichkeit, cleanliness; die Reinheit, purity, clearness.

3. -rich + Eng. -ric, -ry < O. H. G. *rîch* + L. *rex, régis*, forms a number of proper names. Denotes "powerful," "commanding." Ex.: Wüterich, blood-thirsty person, tyrant; Friedrich + Frederic; Heinrich + Henry; Wegerich, a plantain, lit. "ruler of the way."

a. -rich appears in the names for certain male birds. The oldest is Enterich + drake < *endrake*. This is certainly not identical with the above *-rîch*; it may have been shaped after it on account of *antreche*, O. H. G. *antrahho*, which cannot go back to *-rîch-*.

Gänſerich + gander, Täuberich, cock-pigeon, are N. H. G. forms after Enterich, < Ganſer, Tauber < Gans, Taube. Fähnrich, ensign, < older G. *venre*, *faneri*, has -ich by analogy. Fähnbrich may be due to D. *vendric* (Wiegand) < Fahne, flag. By folk-etymology der Heberich, from L. *hederacea*.

-reich comes under composition.

4. -ſchaft + Eng. -ship, shape < O. H. G. *scaft*, meaning character, being, creature; itself a derivative by t < G. T. $\sqrt{skap}$, from which to shape, ſchaffen. Forms mostly fem. abstract nouns and a few collectives.

Ex.: die Freundſchaft + friendship; Grafſchaft, county; Landſchaft + Ags. *landsipe*, + Eng. landscape (*scape* due to D. and Norse influence); die Geſandſchaft, embassy; Prieſterſchaft, priesthood; Verwandſchaft, relationship; Geſellſchaft, company.

5. -tum + Eng. -dom < O. H. G. *tuom*, *M.* and *N.*; Ags. *dôm M.* + Eng. doom = judgment, law, dominion, power. It forms neuter nouns from nouns, but neuters and masculines from adjectives. The nouns are abstract, but many denote domain and place.

Ex.: das Herzogtum + dukedom; Königtum, + kingdom; Heidentum, + heathendom; Heiligtum, sanctuary; der Irrtum, error, Reichtum + riches.

a. Mark a difference in meaning between nouns derived by means of heit, ſchaft, -tum from the same stem: die Eigenheit, stubbornness, peculiarity; die Eigenſchaft, quality; das Eigentum, property; die Chriſtenheit = Christendom; das Chriſtentum = Christianity; die Bürgerſchaft, all the citizens; das Bürgertum, citizenship; die Weisheit + wisdom; das Weistum, statute.

Derivation of Nouns by Means of Inseparable Prefixes.

516. The composition of nouns by means of independent parts of speech, such as prepositions and adverbs, will not be treated here except the composition by means of those prefixes, such as bei, ür, etc., which retained the strong form under the noun-accent, but wore down to a weaker form in the verb accentuation and thus became "inseparable." For the principle of accent, see **421**. Whenever the prefix of a noun is unaccented and has weak form, the noun is not old, but it is late and derived from the verb, except in one case, viz., the prefix *ge–*, *g–*.

This is really composition, but we treat of the subject here for convenience.

1. Aber– has the force, 1) of ober– über, from Dutch = excessive. It is rare. Der Aberglaube, superstition, die Aberacht; "*proscriptio superior*;" Aberwitz, conceit, presumption, imbecility, is M. H. G. *aberwitze*, *abewitze*, in which aber = abe, ab. O. H. G. *âwiwi*.

2) The force of **again toward, against.** It is depreciative: der Aberwandel, forfeit, back-sliding; Abername, nick-name; die Aberſaat, second-sowing; der Aberkaiſer=Gegenkaiſer, rival emperor. In this sense = after and both probably < *af, ab* + *-ar* and *-tar* respectively.

3. After- + Eng. after: not the first, not genuine, second, retro-, false: Das Afterblatt, stipule (in botany); die Aftermuſe, false muse; die Afterkritik, false, second-hand criticism; Afterwelt = Nachwelt, posterity; Aftermiete, subletting.

8. Ant- + Eng. an-, a-, am- in answer, acknowledge, am-bassador, + L. *ante-*, Gr. "*dvτί.*" Force: against, opposite, in return, removal.

Ex.: die Antwort, + answer; das Antlitz, face; der Antlaß, absolution; das Amt, office, court < O. H. G. *ambaht*, Go. *andbahti, and* + *bahto*, a servant, Eng. ambassador, embassy < Romance forms < Low L. *ambasta* < O. H. G. *ambaht*.

Unaccented it became ent (see **541**). Ant- has in some really old nouns given place to the ent- of verbs, *e.g.*, der Empfa'ng for older *ántvanc*.

4. Bei-, b- rare as old prefix, but common in modern compounds, consisting of preposition + noun, + Eng. by; in verbs be, + Eng. by-, be- < *bi, be*; see Kluge. Perhaps related to Gr. *ἀμφί*, L. *ambi*.

Ex.: das Beiſpiel, example < *bíspel*; die Beichte, confession < *bíhte* < *bigihte* < *bi* + *jehen*; der Beiſchlaf, cohabitation; der Beiſaß, + settler, unnaturalized comer; Beifuß, wormwood. The weak unaccented form be- is very common in late derivatives from verbs. In M. H. G. appear the doublets *bítraht* — Betra'cht; *bígraft* — begráft; *bíeiht* — beeiht.

5. Für- occurs only in one old noun, Fürſprech, mediator, attorney. In the 18th century für and vor were used indiscriminately and a great many compounds now have Vor- only. Unaccented Ver- sub 11.

6. Erz-, + Eng. arch-, means chief, original, great- < V. L. *arci-* < Gr. *ἀρχί-*.

Ex.: der Erzbiſchof + archbishop; Erzlügner, a great liar; Erznarr, arrant fool; Erzſpieler, professional gambler.

7. Ge-, g-, the traces of its accent are difficult to find even in the oldest stages of the Germanic dialects, though there are some in Ags. (found by Kluge) and in Go. There are none left in German. It is always unaccented. < O. H. G. *ga, gi*. Its connection with L. *cum, con*, is generally asserted, but is difficult to prove. Has intensive, generally collective

force. Nouns of the form Ge—e, < *ga—jo* are almost all neuter and very numerous.

Ex.: der Glaube + belief; der Geſelle; das Glied, die Geduld, die Gnade; die Gefahr; das Gebäude; Getreide; Geſchmeide; Gewerbe; Gebirge; Gehölze. G– appears before l, r, n.

8. Miß– + Eng. mis–. Force: negative, false, failure. For its origin see **453**, 1. In M. H. G. still an adjective, now inseparable, always accented prefix. Only one compound with its derivatives retains *misse–*, viz., Miſſethat + misdeed.

Ex: Very numerous: der Mißbrauch, die Mißernte, der Mißklang, der Mißmut, der Mißgriff.

9. Ur + Eng. or– only in "ordeal" and "ort," < older *us*, *ur*. Force: origin, great age, great–. Weak, unaccented form = er– in verbs and their derivatives. u always long except in Urteil. das Urteil + ordeal; der Urſprung, die Urkunde; der Urlaub, der Urgroßvater; die Urſache; der Urquell.

10. Un + Eng. un–, of like force, privative, + L. *in–*, Gr. *av–*, *a–*.

Ex.: die Unart, der Undank, die Ungunſt, der Unwille. In ungefähr un– stands for ohn–, < *ân gevære*, but in Ohnmacht, ohn stands for Ohmacht < *âmaht*, containing the obsolete â privative.

11. Ver–, fr– always in this weak form and unaccented like Ge–. Traces of early accent upon it very rare, none now. + Eng. for–. Rare in older nouns, very common in later nouns derived from verbs, see **516**, < O. H. G. *far*, *fir*.

Ex.: der Verluſt, die Vernunft, Frevel + Ags. *fræfele*; Fraß — freſſen; Fracht + fraught, freight (see Kluge's Dict.).

12. Zer occurs only in nouns derived from verbs. See therefore **546**. Ex.: die Zerſtreuung, Zerſtörung.

a. For drittel, viertel, see **532**, 2. Jungfer, maiden < *junc frouwe*, daughter of a noble family. Junker, young nobleman + younker < *junc-herr*. Jungfrau, virgin, is a modern compound. In such words as Adler, Wimper, Nachbar, Schuſter, and many others, the second elements are no longer felt; they are suffixes to all intents and purposes. See the dictionary for their derivation.

Composition of Nouns.

517. The second element is always a noun, in a few cases an adjective, but used as a noun. This noun always determines the gender and inflection of the compound. The first element always has the primary accent, the second the secondary accent. See **421**; **424**, 2. The first element may

be any other independent part of speech, a noun, adjective, verb, adverb, or preposition.

NOUN + NOUN.

518. The relation of the component parts is syntactical; the first element may stand in apposition to the second or it stands in case-relation to it.

In apposition: das Himmelreich, die Sommerzeit; many names of plants and trees, der Apfelbaum, die Heidelbeere.

In the G. relation: der Augapfel, der Königssohn, die Kuhmilch.

In the D. relation: der Schlaftrunk, das Tintenfaß, die Tanzstunde.

In the A. relation, including the objective Genitive: der Wegweiser, Herzog, Vatermörder.

In the Ablative relation of origin, material, cause: die Freudenthräne, der Westwind, die Stahlfeder.

In the Instr. relation, denoting instrument, means, connection: der Fußtritt, der Hufschlag, die Leimrute.

In the Locative relation, denoting place, association, even time: die Dachstube, das Zahnfleisch, Tagewerk, der Fußsoldat.

a. The earliest method of combining the nouns was that of attaching the second noun to the stem with its stem-suffix, that is, to the "theme." The vowels of the stem-suffixes became e in M. H. G. or were lost. A later way was that of joining the second noun to the Genitive sg. or pl. of the first noun. This way originated in the relation of noun and its dependent genitive. The sign of the G. sg. s, es was then added also to feminine nouns, which of course were not entitled to it.

1. Stem + noun. *Composition proper.*

a. With stem-suffix: der Tagdieb, der Hagedorn, das Tagelied, die Badereise, der Bräutigam, die Nachtigall, die Gänseblume. See the examples with en sub 2, since en was originally stem-suffix. See **502**, 1.

b. Without stem-suffix. Very numerous: der Wilddieb, das Jagdhorn, das Weltmeer, das Gartenhaus, das Handwerk.

2. G. sg. or plural + noun. Secondary composition. Case-endings: (e)s, er, en. en and er were also encouraged by the other cases in which they stood, *e. g.*, N. and A. pl. and in the other cases of the sg. of masc. weak nouns. Indeed (e)s and (e)n were gradually looked upon as connecting elements between two nouns and crowded out many compounds of proper composition.

Ex.: das Sonntagskleid, das Wirtshaus, der Landesherr; der Häuserverkauf, die Kinderlehre, die Männerwürde; der Ehrenhort, das Freudenfest, die Blumenlese, der Palmenbaum, Feigenbaum, der Eichenwald, der Sternenhimmel.

3. **s between fem. noun + noun. This began as early as the 12th century. –s is a favorite after nouns in t, particularly after the suffixes –t, –heit (keit), –schaft and –ung; and the foreign nouns in –ion and –tät.**

Ex.: der Geburtstag; die Freiheitsliebe, Heimatsliebe; der Freundschaftsbote; das Hoffnungsglück (G.); der Weihnachtsmann, der Hochzeitstag; das Missionsblatt, die Universitätshalle, der Liebesbrief.

ADJECTIVE + NOUN.

519. The adjective appears without stem-suffix, but see 522. The relation of adjective and noun is that of an attribute or of apposition.

Ex.: die Gutthat, die Weihnacht, Hochzeit; der Langbein, der Mitt(e)woch; die Mittfasten; die Jungfrau, die Gelbsucht, die Kurzweil; der Großmaul; der Bösewicht.

1. In many compounds the adjective is used as noun and is then inflected, generally in the weak G. pl.: die Blinden-, die Taubstummenanstalt, das Krankenhaus.

2. There is a small group of compounds in which the union of the elements is not intimate and the adjective is inflected, *e.g.*, die La`ngewe'ile, La`ngwei'le; Ho`hepriе'ster, der Ho`hepriе'ster; Geheimerrat, ein Geheimerrat (but also uninflected der, ein Geheimrat). Mitternacht is a secondary compound for the older *mitnaht* + midnight. For their accent, see 422, 1.

520. 1. NUMERAL + NOUN.

Ex.: der Dreifuß, das Viereck, die Einheere, der Zweikampf, der Zwieback, das Zwielicht + twilight, das Siebengestirn, die Erstgeburt.

2. ADVERB + NOUN.

Many of them are formed from compound verbs.

Ex.: die Wohlthat, die Herkunft, der Hingang, die Wollust, die Außenwelt, die Nichtanerkennung (= non-), die Abart, der Abgott, der Eingang.

3. PREPOSITION + NOUN.

The majority are formed from compound verbs. But not a small number are made directly of preposition + noun.

Ex.: die Anzahl, der Amboß, die Ansprache, der Aufgang, der Beiname, der Beitrag, die Durchfahrt, der Durchbruch, der Fürwitz or Vorwitz, die Gegengabe, die Hinterlist, der Inbegriff, der Mitmensch, der Nachkomme, das Nebengebäude, die Niederlage, das Obdach, der Oberkellner, die Oberhand, die Übermacht, der Umkreis, der Untersatz, die Unterwelt, die Vorwelt, der Widerwille, der Zuname, das Zwischenspiel.

4. Verb + Noun.

Very numerous. A few with the connecting vowel *-e*, which represents the suffix-vowel of weak verbs, older *ô*, *ê*.

Ex.: der Spürhund, der Singvogel, die Schreibfeder, das Lesebuch, der Lebemann, die Reiselust, der Leitstern. (See below.)

a. Osthoff (see his *Verbum in der Nominal Composition*) has proved that these compounds are not primitive in the I. E. languages, but that they are originally compounded of noun + noun, in which the first noun was felt to be, on account of its stem-suffix, a verb-stem, and this led to the formation of many compounds, in the Germanic, Greek, Slavic and Romance languages, by analogy. Thus Leitstern, + lode-star, does not come from leiten and Stern, though meaning „leitender Stern," but < M. H. G. *leitestern*, in which *leite* + lode is a noun = guidance, direction.

521. Compounds of more than two words. The accent deserves here special attention, see **421**; **424**, 3.

1. Three words, but only two parts: der Hei'ratsa`ntrag, der Mi'tgliedsschei`n, die Da'mpf-schi`ffahrt, steam-navigation, but Da'mpfschif-fa`hrt, steamboat-ride; der Fe'lhzugs-pla'n, der Ha'ndwerks-bu'rsche, die Le'bensversicherungs-gese`llschaft.

2. Four words and more. These are not common, much rarer than is generally supposed. Oberpolizei'gerichtspräsi`dent, Staa'tsschuldentilgungskommissio`nsbureau, office of the commission for the liquidation of state-debts; Stei'nkohlenbe`rgwerk, Generalfeldmarschall.

a. To get a quick survey of such a word, - ought to be inserted once at least in the first and second words and the last words might begin with a capital as in English.

b. The capacity of German for forming such compounds is generally exaggerated and that of English underrated. The custom of writing these long nouns as one word is very bad. We might just as well write them so in Eng., *e. g.*, *Fireinsurancecompany's-office*, and we should have the same compound. Official language, certain schools of philosophy and the newspaper are the main sources of such monstrosities. Moreover, the composition exists only for the eye. When we speak we do not divide according to words; we speak in breath-groups, see Sweet's Hdbk., p. 86-.

3. Similar to the compounds in **520**, 4, are such whole phrases as Ste'llbichei`n, rendez-vous; Thu'nichtgu`t, ne'erdowell; Tau'genichts, goodfor-nothing.

Derivation of Adjectives.

The comparison of adjectives, and the past participles come really under this head, but see **438** and **453**, 1.

522. Adjectives Formed by Ablaut.

These may be called primitive. See **496**. They fit into the ablaut-

series just as substantives and verbs do. All have lost stem-suffixes except the *jo*-stems, still recognizable by the umlaut and generally by the final e.

Ex.: reif, ſteif, dick; lieb, tief; blind, hohl, ſchön, kühn, dumm. With *–e*: enge, zähe, müde, böſe, träge.

ADJECTIVES DERIVED BY SUFFIX.

523. 1. *–el*, see **499**, roots generally obscure: eitel + idle; evil, übel; edel (+ Athel–, Ethel); dunkel.

2. *–em*, see **501**, rare. Ex.: warm + warm.

3. *er* < *–ar, –r*, rare, same as *ar* of nouns in **507**, 3. Ex.: wacker + watchful, brave; bitter + bitter; heiter, lauter, ſchwanger; ſicher < L. *securus*.

524. *–en, –n*, see **502**. Very frequent and of various sources, + Eng. en, n.

1. *en* < O. H. G. *an*, in a few words of doubtful origin.

Ex.: eben + even; klein, small + clean; grün + green; ſchön + sheen; fern + far; rein < $\sqrt{kr\bar{\imath}}$. It is late in albern < *alwære*, lüſtern, ſchüchtern, from adj. in *–er*, < *–ni, –njo*.

2. < *in, in*. Denoting material, "made of."

Ex.: golden for older gülden + golden; wollen + woollen; ſeiden, silken; ſilbern + silver; ledern + leather.

3. *ern* < *n* + *er*, due to the influence of er in such nouns as Silber, Leder and of er in the plural. Compare *–ler, ner* in nouns, see **500**, 4.

Ex.: ſteinern, of stone; flächſern + flaxen; thönern, of clay; hölzern, wooden; nüchtern (?), sober.

4. *en* < *an, in* < G. T. *–nó* in all strong past participles. Some fifty or sixty of these stand now "isolated," that is, separated from the verb still extant or the verb is obsolete. See **453**, 1.

Ex.: eigen + own VII. Cl., gediegen I. Cl. (old doublet of gediehen), pure; beſcheiden VII. Cl. (old doublet of beſchieden I. Cl.), modest; gelegen, convenient (verb obsolete); verlegen, embarrassed (v. obsolete); erhaben VI. Cl. (doublet of erhoben), lofty; beritten I. Cl., mounted; offen (?), open; trocken + dry, < $\sqrt{dr\bar{u}k}$.

525. 1. *–ig*, + Eng. *–y*, represents now both older *–ec, –ac* and *–ic*. See **489**, 5.

The umlaut could occur only in the adjective which had *-ic*. It is a living suffix and new adjectives are still being formed with it from any part of speech except verbs.

Ex.: traurig, blutig, häufig, gültig, ſpaltig, gewaltig; late formations: heutig, hieſig, obig, dortig. For ſelig, see **528**, 2, *a*. Manch + many, < *manec*. Its ch for g is L. G. (?).

2. ig + lich = iglich, once very common and attached where there was no *-ec*, *-ic*. It is now rather adverbial, see **554**, 2, and rare in adjectives, *e.g.*, ewiglich, gnädiglich.

3. **-ich t < *-eht*, *-oht*, *-ohti*, is more common in adjectives than in substantives. See 509.**

a. -ig and -icht furnish doublets, sometimes with a distinction in force. icht with i must be due to -ig with i, as it is very late.

Ex.: ſteinicht + stony, thöricht, foolish, nebelicht, foggy, ſtachelicht, prickly. -icht implies only a slight resemblance: ölicht, slightly oily — ölig, oily.

4. -iſch, -ſch + Eng. ish < older *-isk-*, implies a bad sense in contrast with -lich, as in Eng. ish and like. See **514**.

Ex.: kindiſch + childish, kindlich + childlike; bäu(e)riſch + boorish, bäuerlich, rustic; denotes origin: preußiſch + Prussian; bairiſch + Bavarian. Corresponds to *-icus* in adjectives derived from L.: komiſch, logiſch, philologiſch. See **514**.

5. -end in the present participle, see **453**; **505**.

6. -(e)t, the past participle, see **453**, 1.

But notice those that we no longer feel as participles: tot, laut, kalt, etc. Later formations: traut, zart.

526. Adjectives derived by the nominal suffixes -bar, -haft, -lich and -ſam, which were once independent nouns (see **515**). For accent, see **424**, 1, *b*.

1. -bar < M. H. G. *bære* < O. H. G. *bâri*, < the root of the verb gebären + Eng. bear. Should have become -ber, which really occurs in living dialects, but the levelling was in favor of the full form. Compare L. *-fer-*, Gr. φορός.

a. In meaning it corresponds to Eng. -able, -ible, -ful. It means: bearing, producing, capable of, and is attached only to nouns and verbs.

The only adjective to which it is attached is offenba'r, with the accent of the verbs offenba'ren, geba'ren.

Ex. very numerous: trennbar, separable; hörbar, audible; dankbar, grateful; ehrbar, honorable. Ur'bar < M. H. G. *urbor*, has the weak ablaut like the L. and Gr. forms given above.

2. –haft, a participle either from the root of haben + have, or L. *capere*, *captus* (Kluge).

a. It denotes "possessing," "similar to–," "approaching–." In meaning it corresponds frequently to Eng. –y (+G. ig), –ful, –ly. It is attached to nouns, adjectives and verbs and is sometimes increased by –ig.

Ex. numerous: fehlerhaft + faulty; schadhaft, harmful; lebhaft + lively; spaßhaft, funny; wa'rhaft, wahrha'ftig, truthful, true: schülerhaft + scholar-like, boyish; meisterhaft + masterly; leibhaftig, bodily, incarnate.

3. –lich < M. H. G. *lich* < O. H. G. *lîch*, + Ags. *–lîc* + Eng. ly, later again "like."

Originally an adjective, occuring only in compounds, but derived from the subst. Ags. *lîc*, O. H. G. *lîh* = body, form.

a. In both languages its earliest meaning is "like" or "similar to," then "appropriate," "adapted," finally it became very frequent and often without particular force.

b. The umlaut generally precedes –lich, but is not produced by it. It started originally in stems with i suffix and spread by analogy. This is the most frequent suffix and attached to substantives, adjectives, and verbs.

Ex. göttlich, godlike; ritterlich, chivalrous; traulich, familiar, devoted; fröhlich, merry + frolic; sterblich, mortal; beharrlich, persistent; begreiflich, comprehensible; erbaulich, edifying; glaublich, credible. For –iglich see **552**, 2.

c. er in leserlich, fürchterlich, etc., is due to analogy. These lengthened forms have crowded out the proper old forms leslich, fürchtlich. In certain adjectives the ending has been mistaken for –ig, and the spelling has followed this notion. abelig, billig, unzähhlig have the suffix –lich, but cannot now be corrected. allmählich is the official spelling, though frequently allmählig is met with < allgemach, gentle, manageable.

4. –sam < older –*sam*, originally a pronoun (+Eng. same), + Ags. –*sum*, + Eng. –some, + Gr. ὁμός, + L. *sim–ilis*.

It denotes originally identity, similarity, but has now no particular force, unless it be capacity, inclination.

Examples not so numerous, the suffix has lost ground.

Ex.: einſam + Eng. lonesome; langſam, slow; gemeinſam, common; arbeitſam, industrious; heilſam + wholesome; grauſam, cruel, + gruesome.

-voll, + ful, -los + less, come under composition, though in Eng. they might come under this head.

For -fach, -faltig, -fältig, see the numerals **531**, 1.

Derivation of Adjectives by Prefixes.

527. The prefixes in substantives have the same force and accent when attached to adjectives, but only aber, erz-, ge-, un-, ur- form immediate compounds. Adjectives with the other prefixes are derived from substantives, verbs, etc. Ex.: a'berflug, e'rzfaul, getreu', u'nnütz, u'ralt, etc.

Composition of Adjectives.

528. The second element is always an adjective or participle. The first element may be any part of speech and stands in the same relation to the second as it does in a compound noun. Accent and form of the first element are also the same. Some old past participles without ge- are preserved in composition, *e. g.*, trunken, backen, in wonnetrunken, intoxicated with delight; hausbacken + homebaked, homely.

1. ADJECTIVE + ADJECTIVE.

Ex.: tollkühn, dummdreist; dunkelblau; hochmütig < Hochmut (see 2, *b*); blauäugig, rotbäckig.

2. SUBSTANTIVE + ADJECTIVE.

Ex.: totkrank, *frei'beweiß, *goldgelb, liebeskrank, wonnetrunken, *mausetot, *federleicht, liebevoll, gedankenreich, hoffnungslos, freudeleer, todbleich, vorschriftsmäßig, amtswidrig, *blutjung, huldreich, *felsenfest. In those with * the noun expresses a comparison and has often intensive force. Notice -reich, los, voll have almost become suffixes.

a. Adjectives in -selig are of double origin.

1. The real adjective selig < Seele, +soul, as in glückselig, leutselig, gottselig.

2. selig < sal (see **500**, 1) + ig: mühselig, trübselig, saumselig < Mühsal, Trübsal, etc. It does not belong here at all.

b. A large class of adj. do not come under this head, *e. g.*, hoffärtig, ehrgeizig; many in -süchtig, as mondsüchtig, schwindsüchtig. They are derivatives of the compound nouns Hoffahrt (< *hôchvart*, ch and f assimilated), Mondsucht, Ehrgeiz.

3. Pronoun + Adjective.

Ex.: ſelbſtredend, ſelbſtgenügſam, ſelbſtlos, etc., only with ſelbſt–.

4. Verb + Adjective.

Ex.: wißbegierig, denkfaul; many with –wert and –würdig: dankenswert, liebenswürdig.

5. Numeral + Adjective.

Ex.: einäugig, zweieckig, zweiſchneidig, erſtgeboren, ei'ngeboren, only child.

6. Adverb + Adjective.

Ex.: hochgeprieſen, alt–, friſch–, neu–backen, wohlfeil, wohlgeboren.

7. Preposition + Adjectives.

Ex.: anheiſchig, einheimiſch, eingeboren, native, + inborn; abhold, überflüg, vo'rnehm, u'nterthan, vo'rlaut. fürlie'b does not belong here, für = as, „als", als lieb annehmen, anſehen. Compare zufrie'den, at peace, content.

Derivation of Numerals.

529. Zwei is probably an old dual. Zween < *zwêne* has the distributive suffix ni, + Eng. twain, twin, + L. *bini*. With zwo fem., < older *zwô, zwo*, compare M. Eng. twa, two, also feminine. The numerals, as far as 10 incl., can be easily compared with the cognates of other languages according to Grimm's and Verner's Laws. elf and zwelf contain perhaps a stem *lik*, ten, that appears in Slavic. They come from older *einlif, zuelif*. eilf is archaic. As to zwölf for zwelf, common in N. H. G., see **489**, 1.

1. The ending –zig, < *zug* + Eng. –ty, differs originally from zehn in accent, zehn < I.-E. **dékm*, L. *decem*. See Verner's Law.

2. Hundert, + hundred, is compounded of *hund* + *rath–*; the latter from the same stem as Rede, Go. *rathjan*, to count. *hund* alone means 100, compare L. *centum*, Gr. *ἑκατόν* according to Verner's Law. See further Kluge's Dict. Tauſend < older *tûsunt*, a fem. noun. It is not an I.-E. numeral like all the others. Root doubtful.

530. The suffixes for the ordinals are really the superlative suffixes –to, –sto. Only German and Icelandic use –sto. zweit– only sprang up in the 15th century. Instead of it was used, as in all Germanic dialects, ander + other, a comparative in –ter. Comp. L. *alter*. ander has not quite died out. Comp. zum erſten, zum andern und zum dritten Male, still used at auction. Ach Gott! wie doch mein erſter war, find' ich nicht leicht auf dieſer Welt den andern, F. 2992–3. anderthalb = one and a half; ſelbander = lit. himself the second,

i.e., two of them, of us. britt– has the short vowel of the stem "*thriu*," still in the neuter O. and M. H. G. *driu*. tt < dd < dj as in Go. *thridja*, Ags. *thridda*, + L. *ter-ti-us*. der Hundertſte was in O. H. G. *zehanzogôsto*, *zehanzug* being the other word for 100; really "ten tens." For erſt, letzt, Fürſt, see **439**, 2.

Numeral Derivatives and Compounds.

531. From cardinals.

1. MULTIPLICATIVES:

Suffixes –fach, –fältig, *e. g.*, dreifach, vierfach, vielfach. In O. H. G. –fach is only noun. –fach expresses a certain number of parts, divisions, = „Fächer." –falt,– faltig, fältig + –fold, expresses also variety besides quantity. It comes from the same stem as the verb falten + fold, and is quite old. –falt is archaic now. doppelt + double, is < French. t is "excrescent"; in compounds t does not appear: Doppeladler, Doppelgänger.

zwie– in zwiefach, zwiefältig, comes from older *zwi*, + Gr. *dí*–, L. *bi*–.

2. ITERATIVES:

–mal, rare –ſtund, ei'nmal, zwei'mal, drei'mal, manchmal; einma'l, "once upon a time." –mal is the noun Mahl + meal, O. H. G. *mâl*. Notice „abermal(s)", once more, adverb „aber" = "again;" ein(mal) für allemal. „eins" + "once," is seemingly the neuter N. or Acc., but it is a Gen. < older "eines," form which einſt with excrescent t, + once, "onst." „eins" is now rare and so is „ſtund." Uhland has „allſtu'nd" = all the time. Stund and halb are isolated now; mal is plural, being neuter (see **176**).

zwier, now rare, comes from older *zwiro*, *zwirôr* (r < ?)

532. From the ordinals:

1. Adverbs like erſtens, zweitens, etc., see **555**, 2.

2. FRACTIONS by –tel < Teil, Drittel, Viertel, Fünftel, one t is lost in writing, Zwanzigſtel. They are neuter, of course. „Dritteil", the full form is now archaic. „Zweitel" has not come up on account of the late origin of „zweite," „anderthalb" is used, see **229**. Notice der Zweitletzte, next to the last; der Drittletzte, third from the end.

See also syntax, **226–229**.

533. VARIATIVES are formed by –lei < M. H. G. *leie*, fem. meaning "kind," probably < Romance. The numeral preceding it is inflected like an adjective, mancherlei (G.), vielerlei; viererlei, four kinds, etc. But the compound is invariable.

Derivation and Composition of Verbs.

534. As primitive are regarded all strong verbs except preiſen, ſchreiben, which are foreign, and a large number of weak verbs, which are either very old, such as haben, fragen, or they are those whose origin is obscure or whose stem no longer appears in other primitive parts of speech, *e. g.*, holen, hoffen. All other weak verbs are derivatives except the originally strong that have become weak, *e. g.*, walten, mahlen, heben (see Kl.). They are derived from other parts of speech by means of e, the connecting vowel representing older *i*, *ô*, *â*, which unites the verbal inflections with the root or with those words from which the verb is derived. (This e may drop out.) The connecting vowel i or j (< jo) produced umlaut, which, since the j class was by far the largest of the three classes of weak verbs, was soon used through analogy as a common means of deriving verbs after umlaut had ceased to work. Besides the vowel e, there occur certain secondary suffixes, some of which have a peculiar force.

535. 1. Derivation with umlaut due, *a*, either to an old i or, *b*, to analogy, or, *c*, to the fact that there was an umlaut already in the noun-stem.

a. A large number from strong verbs of the II., III., IV., V., VI. ablaut-series with the strong ablaut, *i.e.*, with the vowel of the pret. sing., and from the reduplicating verbs with the vowel of the infinitive, *e.g.*, flößen < fließen, floß, gefloſſen < *flôzzan* < **flôtjan*, to cause to float, II.; ſenken < ſinken, ſank, geſunken, < *senken* < **sankjan*, to cause to sink, III.; zähmen + tame < *zemen* < **zamjan*, this < *zêmen*, IV., now a weak verb ziemen; legen < liegen, lag, gelegen, < **lagjan* + lay, V.; führen < fahren, fuhr, gefahren < *vüeren* < *fuorjan*, VI., to cause to go, to lead; fällen < fallen, fiel, gefallen, < M. H. G. *fellen* < **falljan*, to cause to fall, + fell; fürchten < Furcht; lähmen < lahm; töten < tot; tröſten < **trôstjan* < *trost* + trust.

b. pflügen < Pflug, bräunen < braun; zähnen < Zahn; bäffen < baff!; räumen < Raum; öffnen < offen.

c. grünen < grün; trüben < trübe.

Rem. 1. If the strong verb is intransitive then the derivative is transitive or causative; if transitive, then the derivative is intensive or iterative, *e. g.*, ſchwemmen < ſchwimmen, to cause to swim; ſetzen < ſitzen, to cause to sit; beten, to pray, < bitten (?), to ask for. The same principle prevails in English: to fall — to fell, to lie — to lay, to drink — to drench.

Rem. 2. j (or i) has caused certain changes in the final consonants of the stems because these were doubled before the "lautverſchiebung," and when doubled they shifted differently from the single consonants. For instance in wecken — wachen, decken — Dach, ck < kk < kj, but ch < k; in ätzen — eſſen, beizen — beißen, ſchnitzen — ſchneiden, hetzen — Haß, z, tz < tt, tj, but ß < t. Similarly ſchöpfen (for ſchepfen) — ſchaffen; henken — hangen, compare Eng. henchman; biegen — bücken; ſchmiegen — ſchmücken; geſchehen — ſchicken. Compare also Eng. drink — drench; stink — stench.

2. Derivation by e without umlaut.

These are late or if old, absence of umlaut is due to the fact that certain vowels did not suffer umlaut in certain positions or that the connecting vowel was ê or ô.

Ex.: bahnen < Bahn, fußen < Fuß, ackern < Acker, formen < Form, altern < Alter. Older are beten < *betôn* < *beta*, prayer; faſſen < *faʒʒôn* < *faʒ*; faſten < fastôn < fasta; bulden < *dultên* < *dult*. Notice the difference between: drucken, to print, drücken, to press; kranken, to be ill, kränken, to grieve; walzen, to roll, technical as in a rolling-mill, wälzen, to roll, revolve; erkalten, to grow cold — erkälten, to take cold.

536. Derivation by e preceded by a suffix, but e drops out after l and r.

1. –ch e n, intensive force, rare: horchen, listen + hearken < hören + hear; ſchnarchen + snore < ſchnarren.

2. –e l n, always preceded by umlaut if attached to other verbs. It is also attached to substantives and adjectives.

It has intensive, iterative force and, from association with the noun-suffix, diminutive and hence derisive force. Numerous in N. H. G. on account of the many nouns in –el. Generally umlaut.

Ex.: betteln + beg(?) < beten, bitten, pray, ask; ſchmeicheln, flatter < ſchmeichen (rare), smooth; lächeln, smile < lachen + laugh; kränkeln, be sickly < kranken, be sick; fröſteln, to feel chilly < Froſt; liebeln, to dally < lieben, lieb; frömmeln, cant < fromm, pious; handeln, to trade < Hand.

537. 1. –n e n + Eng. –n, on (rare).

Ex.: dienen, from the same stem as De- in Demut; lernen < the same stem as lehren; rechnen < O. H. G. *rehhanôn*, + Ags. *recenian*; warnen, + warn, < same stem as wahren (?); verdammen, + condemn, also contains –n < M. H. G. *verdamnen*, but < L. *damnare*. Compare zeichnen < Zeichen + token, regnen < Regen + rain, in which n belongs to the noun, see **502**.

2. –e r n, + Eng. –r, has intensive, iterative, and causative force. Rarely preceded by umlaut; not unfrequent both in Eng. and German.

Ex.: glitzern + Eng. glitter, < *glitzen* < *glîʒen*; flimmern < flimmen; glimmern + Eng. glimmer < glimmen; ſtottern < L. G. stötern < stöten, + H. G.

ſtoßen, + Eng. stutter; zögern < *zogen* < ziehen; ſickern + Ags. *sicerian*, to trickle.

a. Nouns both sg. and pl., adjectives and their comparatives in –er have started many of these verbs, *e. g.*, ſäubern, erweitern, blättern, räbern, ärgern < arg; fördern, to promote, fordern, to demand.

538. –ieren, –iren, of Romance origin, always accented, at first only in borrowed words, and then added to German noun-stems.

Ex.: Foreign words: fallieren + fail, regieren + reign, ſtudieren + study, hantieren, trade (rather from French *hanter* than from Hand, see Kluge). German stems: hauſieren, peddle; ſtolzieren, strut; halbieren. In Goethe's Faust: irrlichtelieren.

a. These were formed as early as M. H. G. in no small numbers, but were most numerous during the Thirty Years' War and the first half of the 18th century. Now they are excluded, except the oldest of them, from elevated style. These verbs are very numerous in the journals.

539. 1. –ſen, –eſen, + Eng. s, < O. H. G. –ison. Rare both in English and German.

Ex.: grinſen, + *grin*, < greinen,, M. H. G. *grînen;* grauſen < O. H. G. *gruwison* < stem *grû*, G. grauſam, Gräuel, + gruesome. grapſen + Eng. grasp.

a. –ſen is hidden in geizen < gîtsen < *gîtison* < subst. *gît*. Compare Eng. cleanse < clean. –ſen stands for –zen in gackſen < *gagzen*, muckſen < M. H. G. *muchzen*.

2. –ſchen. This is of double origin: 1) From –ſen, see **490, 1, *b***: herrſchen < *hêrsen* < *hêrison* < Herr, *hêrro;* feilſchen < *veilsen* < feil.

2) From –sk, L. *sc*, + Eng. sh, forſchen < *forsken;* perhaps in haſchen < *hafskôn, if that comes from a stem *haf–*. For more examples, see **457, 4.**

3. –zen < older –*ezen*. Has sometimes iterative and intensive force.

Ex.: duzen, ihrzen, erzen, to call thou, you, he; ächzen < ach, to groan; lechzen, to thirst, < *lechen* + leak; ſeufzen < *siufzen*, from the same root as ſauſen; ſchluchzen, to sob, M. H. G. *sluckzen* < ſchlucken.

a. –enzen in faulenzen < faul, is due to the influence of L. nouns in *–entia*.

4. **-igen.** This is a secondary suffix, starting with verbs derived from adjectives in -ig (see **525**), *e.g.*, würdigen < würdig, nötigen < nötig. It was felt to be a verbal suffix, hence: endigen < Ende, kreuzigen < Kreuz, reinigen < rein, huldigen < Huld. Quite numerous.

VERB FORMATION BY MEANS OF INSEPARABLE PREFIXES, viz.:

be-, ent-, er-, ge-, ver-, zer-, zer-. Always unaccented.

540. **be-, b-** before l, + Eng. be-. See Bei-, **516**, 4.

1. Be- has lost nearly all local force of "by," "near," "around," which is felt still in behängen, cover by hanging, beſchneiden, cut on all sides, to trim, but in these it approaches already its common force, which is intensive: bebauen, befragen, begehren, berühren, bedecken, berufen.

2. It makes intransitive verbs transitive: fallen—befallen + befall; reiſen (in einem Lande) — ein Land bereiſen, travel all over a country; fahren auf etw., but etwas befahren. This is its most frequent use.

3. In verbs from noun-stems it denotes "provide with," "make": beſchuhen, provide with shoes; bevölkern, populate; befreunden + befriend; betrüben, make sad; beſtärken, confirm. Notice certain participial adjectives which have no corresponding verb, *e.g.*, beleibt, corpulent; betagt, "full in years;" beleſen, well read; or they are isolated from the verb, *e.g.*, beſcheiden, modest; beſtallt, holding an office; beſchaffen, conditioned.

4. It has privative force still in benehmen, to take away; ſich begeben (with G.), to give up. Compare Eng. behead and M. H. G. *behoubeten*, for which now enthaupten. N. H G. behaupten strangely represents M. H G. *behaben* and *beheben*, for which once *behouben*, to maintain, assert.

541. **ent-, emp-** before f, < O. H. G. *int-*. See ant-, **516**, 3.

Its force is: 1. "Opposite," "in return;" in empfehlen, recommend; empfangen, receive; entgelten, pay back, restore; see sub. 2.

2. Contrary, "against," privative, "away from:" entgelten, suffer for; entſagen, renounce; entbinden, deliver; entſtehen, to lack (but see below); entdecken, entlaufen. From nominal stems: entgleiſen, run off the track; entthronen, dethrone; entvölkern, depopulate.

3. "Transition into," inchoative "springing from," "out of:" entſtehen, spring from, arise; entbrennen, to take fire, break out; entſchlafen, fall asleep. A quite common force.

542. er- < O. H. G. *ir, ar* + Eng. a-, see **516**, 9.

Force: 1. "Out from," "upward": erheben, arise; erwecken, awaken; erforſchen, find out; erfinden, to invent.

2. Transition into another state, inchoative like ent-: erkalten, grow cold; erblühen, bloom; erbeben, tremble. Many from adjectives: erkranken, to fall ill; erblinden, to become blind.

3. Completion and success of the action: erjagen, erbetteln, to obtain by hunting, by begging; very frequent. Compare Eng. arise, abide.

In certain forms: only pret. erſtarb, past part. erlogen, erpicht.

543. ge-, g- before l, see **516**, 7, + Eng. a-.

Force: 1. "Together" only in few verbs like: gefrieren, congeal; gerinnen, curdle; gehören, to belong; geleiten, accompany; gefallen, to please.

2. Frequentative and intensive: geloben, gedenken, gebieten, and finally no force at all as in the past participle and in verbs like: gedeihen, gelüſteln, geneſen, genießen. Numerous past part. from nominal stems, with the force of "provided with," see **540**, 4: geſtiefelt, in boots; geſinnt, disposed; geſtirnt, + starry.

544. miß-, + Eng. mis-, as to its force, see **516**, 8; as to its origin, **453**, 1.

Ex.: mißglücken, to fail; mißhören, to misunderstand; mißgönnen, to grudge.

545. ver-, fr-, < *ver, far, fir*, Go. fra, fr, + Eng. for-. Very frequent.

Force: 1. 'Through," "to the end," intensive, "too much:" verlieren, + lose, + forlorn; vergeben + forgive; veralten, grow antiquated; vergraben, hide by burying; verbergen, hide; verhindern, prevent; verſchlafen, + sleep too long; verkommen, to deteriorate; verblühen, fade; verzagen, despair; verfluchen, curse; verlaufen, scatter; freſſen, to eat (used of animals).

2. The opposite, the wrong, a mistake: verkaufen, verbieten, verführen; verlegen + mislay, but also (sub. 1) to publish (a book); verbauen, build wrongly; ſich verlaufen, lose the way; ſich verhören, to mishear; ſich vergreifen, to get hold of the wrong thing; (ſich) vergeben, to misdeal (in cards).

3. Waste and consumption of the object: verbauen, use up in building (see sub. 4); verſaufen, waste in drinking; verſpielen, lose, gamble away.

4. From nominal stems: "change into," "give the appearance of," "bring about a certain state of," *e.g.*, verglaſen, glaze, turn into glass; vergolden, + gild; verknöchern, ossify; verzuckern, cover with sugar, turn into

sugar; verarmen, grow poor; verſchlechtern, make or grow worse; verbauen (sub. 3), cover by building in front of.

a. ver- in past participles: verwandt, related, but of the regular verb = "applied;" verſchämt, bashful.

546. zer- < M. H. G. *zer-*, *ze-*, O. H. G. *zur*, *zar*, *zir*, + Go. *tus-*, + Gr. *δυς-* + O. Eng. to-brecan, zerbrechen. Least frequent of these suffixes.

Its force is: "separation," "scattering," "dissolution," "to pieces": zerhauen, cut to pieces; zergliedern, dismember; zertrümmern, dash to pieces.

1. If be- and ver- precede other prefixes, separable or inseparable, the verb is always an inseparable compound. Ex.: veru'nglücken, beri'chtigen, benachrichtigen. These come from the compound nouns Unglück, Eintracht, Nachricht. See **547**. Notice the difference between bevo'rmunden < Vormund (insep.) and bevo'rſtehen < bevor + ſtehen (sep.).

2. Notice such compounds as au'ferſtehen, a'nerziehen, voran'verkündigen, in which the second prefix is inseparable. The first and second do not occur in the simple tenses. Their past part. are auferſtanden, anerzogen. The pret. of the third is kündigte voraus, but the past part. is vorausverkündigt, without ge-. See **550**.

Compound Verbs.

547. The first element is either substantive or adjective or adverb or preposition; the second is always a verb. The important questions are accent and whether the compounds are separable or inseparable, or both; whether direct or indirect.

1. Indirectly compounded are the verbs derived from compound substantives and adjectives. They are inseparable and have noun-accentuation, *i. e.*, accent on the first element.

Ex.: he'rbergen < He'rberge, inn; ra'tſchlagen < Rat'ſchlag, council; wa'llfahrten < Wallfahrt, pilgrimage; frühſtücken < Frühſtück; argwöhnen < Argwohn, suspicion; bewillkommen < Willkommen.

2. That these are not genuine compound verbs their inflection shows. The seemingly strong verbs, as in ra'tſchlagen, heiraten, etc., are not inflected strong, but weak: ratſchlagte, geratſchlagt; heiratete, geheiratet. Note also: handhabte, gehandhabt, not handhatte, ha'ndhabt or handgehabt.

3. Under this head come also: 1. Verbs of which the compound substantive or adjective is no longer common, *e. g.*, wetterleuchten < *weterleich*; rechtfertigen < *rechtvertec*; bra'ndſchatzen < Brandſchatz. 2. A few verbs which

seem due to analogy with the above and formed by mere juxtaposition of adjective or substantive and verb, *e. g.*, lie'bkoſen, willfahren (accent doubtful), frohlo'cken, lie'bäugeln, wei'ſagen (as if it were from weiſe and ſagen, but it comes from the noun *wiżżago*, prophet). Principal parts: liebkoſen, liebkoſte, geliebkoſt; frohlocken, gefrohlockt.

548. All the other compound verbs are directly compounded, separable and accented on the first part excepting certain propositions, see **549**, which form the only genuine old compounds with accent on the stem-syllable of the verb. These and the verbs in **540–546** are the compound verbs proper with the original verb-accent.

1. Substantive + Verb.

The substantive is the object of the verb.

Ex.: ſta'ttfinden, hau'shalten, teilnehmen, dankſagen, preisgeben.

Note.—But for the fact that in certain tenses they are written together and the substantive is now according to the "Rules" to be written without capital, these verbs are no more compounds than the corresponding Eng. to keep house, take place, give thanks. As late as early N. H. G. these and the following groups were not treated as compounds.

2. Adjective + Verb.

The adjective is generally factitive predicate, *e. g.*, wahrnehmen, "take notice of"; totſchlagen, strike dead; freiſprechen, declare not guilty; vollgießen, -ſchütten, see **549**, 5.

a. A large number of compounds with substantives and adjectives occur only in certain forms, viz., in the two participles and in the infinitive used as a noun, *e. g.*, blutſtillend, pflichtvergeſſen, ſtillbeglückt, das Schönſchreiben, das Stillſchweigen.

3. Adverb or Preposition + Verb.

The adverb qualifies the verb expressing manner, direction, time. The preposition in this case has the force of an adverb. Exceptions below.

Ex.: hi'nſchicken, he'rholen, na'chmachen, vorau'sſetzen, zuſa'mmenkommen, wo'hlwollen.

549. Separable and inseparable compound verbs occur with durch, (hinter), über, um, unter, voll, wider, wieder.

a. Inseparable verbs compounded with these prepositions are transitive, and have the old accentuation of verb-compounds (see **421**). Here belong also all verbs with hinter–, wider– and a few with voll–, *e. g.*, vollbri'ngen. These verbs are nearly all old, but some new ones have been

formed after them. The force of the preposition has entered into and modified the meaning of the verb, so that if the simple or separable compound verb was intransitive the inseparable compound became transitive; if transitive, the compound developed a different meaning, generally figurative, often intensive.

The separable compounds have not the verb-accentuation and the force of the preposition remains literal and intact.

Very few verbs allow of both compositions.

1. durch– means + "through," "thoroughly," completion of the action, "filling with," "to the end of a fixed limit of time," du'rchbringen, crowd through, penetrate, carry to a successful issue, *e.g.*, die Kugel iſt durchgedrungen, the ball went through. Trans.: Die Kugel hat das Brett durchdru'ngen, the ball penetrated the board; „von dem Gefühle ſeines Nichts durchdru'ngen." In „Die K. iſt durch das Brett gedrungen" there is no compound. Du'rchſchauen, look through, etwas durchſchau'en, see through, understand thoroughly; durchta'nzen, to spend in dancing, du'rchtanzen, to dance through, to pass through dancing; du'rchſehen, to look through (a hole), hurriedly through a book; the inseparable durchſe'hen is obsolete, it would have the force of durchſchau'en, to understand thoroughly.

2. hinter, + behind. Separable compounds with hinter do not really occur in good style. In hi'ntergießen, –bringen it stands for hinunter = pour down, swallow. The inseparable compounds are always figurative and transitive, its force is the opposite of straight, "deceptive": hintergе'hn, deceive; hintertreiben, to prevent, circumvent; hi'ntergehen would mean the more usual hinterhe'r or hintena'ngehen, to walk behind.

3. über = *a*) separable: over, beyond, across = hinüber; *b*) in close compounds: transfer, covering, a missing, figurative sense, extent of a certain limit of time.

a. ü'berſetzen, cross, take across (a river); ü'bergehen, go over.

b. überzie'hen, cover with; überna'chten, spend the night; überſchrei'ben, head a column or chapter; überhö'ren, not to hear; überle'gen, consider; ü'berſchlagen = u'mſchlagen, tip, turn over; but überſchla'gen, calculate (expenses); überſe'tzen, to translate; überge'hen, pass over, skip; überſe'hen, overlook.

4. um. *a*. separable = around, about, again or over, upside down, change of place, loss of something, failure.

Ex.: u'mhängen (einen Mantel), put on, (ein Bild) change the place of a picture; u'mlaufen, overthrow by running; u'mkleiden, change clothing; u'mkehren, turn back; u'mkommen (viz., um's Leben), perish, u'mbringen, take the life of; ſich u'mgehen, take a roundabout course.

b. inseparable: literally denotes the encircling of an object, figuratively it has the force of hinter, deception: uma'rmen, embrace; umſchi'ffen, sail around, double; umkrei'ben, cover, drape; umge'hen, avoid, deceive.

5. unter, separable: under, down, among (with): u'nterhalten, hold under, down; u'nterbringen, provide for (figurative); u'ntergehen, go down, set.

Inseparable, figurative sense: unterha'lten, entertain; unterſa'gen (Dat.), forbid; ſich unterſte'hen, make bold; unterne'hmen, undertake; unterla'ſſen, leave undone; unterlie'gen, to be overcome by.

6. voll, separable: + full, always literally with verbs denoting pouring, filling and similar ones: vo'llbringen, vo'llgießen, vo'llſchütten (ein Gefäß), bring, pour a vessel full. Inseparable: "to the end," accomplishment: vollfü'hren, vollbri'ngen, execute; volle'nden, finish, compare Eng. fulfi'l; vollko'mmen (part.), perfect.

7. wider in the sense of "against" is always inseparable and unaccented, generally figurative sense: widerle'gen, refute; widerſtre'ben (with Dative), resist; widerſpre'chen, contradict (also Dat.); widerſte'hen, to resist.

8. wieder, separable: "again," "back": wie'derholen, fetch back; wie'dergeben, give back; wie'derſagen, say again. Very loose compounds. Inseparable: figurative sense only in wiederho'len, repeat; widerha'llen, widerſchei'nen also wie'derſcheinen, wi'ederhallen; usage is unsettled in these.

a. The difference in the spelling wider—wieder is quite modern.

550. Separable and inseparable composition with these adverbs is quite old, but in O. H. G. probably no distinction was made in force or meaning. Even now „Die Kugel hat das Brett durchbru'ngen" and „die K. iſt durch das Brett gedrungen" amount to quite the same thing. In fact separable composition is no real composition. Many still write the prefixes separately before the verb where any other adverb would stand. In M. H. G. the great majority of our modern separable compounds are not felt at all as compounds. Two things have brought about this feeling that they are such:

1. The substantives compounded with the same element as the verb, *e. g.*, U'mgang, Du'rchfahrt, A'bbruch, have lead us to associate um and gehen, durch and fahren, ab and brechen.

2. When a meaning different from the literal or common one was developed, verb and adverb were felt as belonging together, *e. g.*, etwas du'rchſetzen, to carry something through, to the end; vorſchlagen, to propose; nachſchlagen, to look up a reference, etc.

a. Very often there is no difference in meaning, but only in construction, between the simple verb + preposition and the close compound, *e. g.*, 1, Das Pferd iſt über den Graben geſprungen, = "The horse has jumped over the ditch," and, 2, das Pferd hat den Graben überſprungen, The horse has jumped the ditch. In 2, perhaps the act of the *leap* is emphasized, it did not *swim* across; in 1, the extent of the leap. But compare

also the other, not literal meaning of überſpri'ngen, viz., to skip, omit, in: Der Reiſende hat einen Poſten überſprungen, the traveller has skipped one item. Der R. iſt über den Poſten geſprungen would be meaningless.

Derivation of Adverbs.

The adverbs are derived from pronominal stems and from noun-stems.

551. The two suffixes **en** and **er**, < older *an(a)*, *ar(a)*, are attached to the stems.

ADVERBS FROM PRONOMINAL STEMS.

1. From the stem of the demonstrative pronoun:

a. From the stem *ta–tha*: dar, da + there, dann + then and denn, conj. "for," this double form is M. H. G., but the difference in meaning was only established as late as the 18th century, < older *danne, denne*, which have not been explained yet. Dannen < *dannana* stands only in „von dannen", hence. Deſto, see **442**, *a*; dort < *darôt*; doch + though (?).

b. From the stem *hi*: her + hither; hin, away; hier + here; hinnen, in von hinnen, hence. Hinten, heute, heint, heuer, see **443**, 2.

2. From the stem of the interrogative pronoun:

wann + when, wenn, if; wor–, wo + where < *wô, wâr*; von wannen + whence is rare. For wie + how + why, see **444**, 1. Waru'm < *wâr* + *umbe* or *wara* + *umbe* (?).

3. From the stem *swa–*: ſo + so; ſamt, zuſammen (?), ſonder, als, alſo, ſonſt < *sunst, sust, sus*. From various stems: oben, + above; unten, unter, + under; nid (rare), nieden + beneath; nun + now; außen, außer; innen, inner.

552. ADVERBS FROM NOUN-STEMS.

These adverbs are always cases of nouns, the Genitive being the most frequent. See **187**.

1. *Genitive:* abends, morgens, nachts, teils, flugs, derweil, dermaßen, nichts. s was looked upon as an adverbial ending and added to fem. nouns and even to other cases and whole adverbial phrases, *e.g.*, –ſeits in many compounds: die'ſeits, mei'nerſeits, allerdi'ngs (really a G. pl.), vo'rmals, unterwe'gs, e'hemals, allerwe'gen. Compare Eng. needs, now-a-days, always, sometimes.

2. *Dative:* zuwei'len, mitten, halben, traun (?), morgen (sg.?), abha'nden, vor-

ha'nden, zufolge, anſtatt. Compare Eng. to-morrow, o'clock, a year < on (in) the year, a day < on (in) the day, because, asleep, whilom.

3. *Accusative:* weg (e) + away; heim + home; mal, once; bieweil, + while; überhaupt, je, nie.

-weiſe following at first only after a Gen., later the uninflected noun: zwangsweiſe, by force, ausnahmsweiſe, exceptionally, ſtückweiſe, piecemeal. Compare Eng. nowise, otherwise, the while.

4. *Instrumental:* heuer, this year < *hiujaru;* heute, to-day < *hiutagu;* heint < *hinaht* (a Dat.?). See **443**, 2.

553. Derivation by suffix: -lings and -wärts.

1. -lings comes from the G. of nouns in -ling and is a late formation: rücklings, backward; blindlings, blindly. Compare Eng. sideling, headlong.

2. -wärts + ward is really the G. of an adjective *wert, wart.* It is very common after prepositions: heimwärts, homeward; waldwärts, towards the forest; abwärts, downward, aside; vorwärts + forward.

Adverbs from Adjectives.

554. Almost all adjectives can be used as adverbs.

Adverbs with a suffix:

1. -e, this is now rare but once very frequent < older -o, which was probably the A. sg. fem.: gern(e), fern(e), balde in Goethe's „Warte nur, balde Ruheſt du auch."

a. Remark here the doublets faſt — feſt, ſchon — ſchön, fruh (rare),— früh, ſpat (rare), — ſpät. Those without umlaut are the regularly formed adverbs from jo-stems. Those with umlaut are adjectives used as adverbs. In träge, böſe, etc., e does not go back to -o, but O. H. G. i < jo, since they are adjectives (*jo*-stems) used as adverbs and not transformed into adverbs.

2. -lich + -ly, is really no adverbial suffix, but the adjective suffix to which the adverbial e (< o) was added, *-liche, -liho:* treulich — treu + truly, faithfully; wahrlich — wahr, gütlich — gut, freilich, to be sure, — frei; bitterlich — adjective bitter.

a. The corresponding adjective in -lich is perhaps no longer in use. Compare freilich, to be sure — frei + free.

b. -lich has also been added to other stems: einſchließlich, hoffentlich, wiſſentlich.

555. Adverbs, cases of adjectives.

Genitive: 1. rechts, links, eilends, vergebens, stets + steadily.

2. *–t n s* from superlatives and ordinals: erstens, höchstens, meistens, drittens. *–ens* contains the inflection *–en* of the adjective.

a. Genitive with excrescent t. Such are felt as superlatives: jüngst, längst, nebst; einst (?), but in O.H.G. are doublets *einēst* and *einēs*. Compare Eng. once < *ânes* and dial. "onst"; also amidst, amongst, dial. "acrost." Pure Gen. in Eng. else < elles, unawares, etc.

Rem. The above explanation is rejected by *Lexer* in *Grimm's* Dict.

3. *Dative.* It is hidden in zwar < *zewâre*, lit. "in truth," to be sure. Einzeln, singly < *einzel* by suffix *–il* from *ein(as)* < *ein;* adj. einzeln–er. In adverbial phrases: am leichtesten, am schönsten. In M. H. G. this Dative was very frequent, *e.g.*, in *–lichen, –lingen*, etc.

4. *Accusative*, also in the comparative and superlative degrees: wenig, viel, genug, mehr, meist, besser, höchst, möglichst. In adverbial phrases: insbesondere, fürwahr, auf's reinste, schönste. See 300, 2.

a. Note also those preceded by prepositions: zuletzt, at least, neben (< *eneben*), zugleich, at the same time, fürba'ß or fü'rbaß, farther.

PREPOSITIONS and CONJUNCTIONS have the same origin as the adverbs, being originally adverbs.

Three classes of words may be comprised under the head of PARTICLES.

Prepositions.

556. 1. As old and simple prepositions may be regarded: ab, an, auf, aus, bei, vor and für (doublets), durch, gegen (+ again), in, mit, ob, zu, um (< *umbe*).

2. Derived by suffixes: *–er, –der, –ter*, mostly from pronominal stems and from the older forms *ar, dar, tar*, which are probably all three comparative suffixes: über, unter, hinter, wieder, außer. See 551, 3.

3. A number of nouns and adjectives in the various cases: kraft, unweit, während, mittels (mittelst), statt, längs, trotz, halben, wegen, willen, nächst, nebst, laut, nach, zwischen.

a. The number of prepositions governing the Gen. is really difficult to state, because, like many of the above and many others, they are really nouns with a G. dependent upon them, viz., zwecks, behufs, betreffs, seitens, etc.

557. Compound Prepositions are generally adverbs, but the following may be classed here:

1. Preposition (or adverb) + preposition or adverb: binnen < bi + innen, bis < bi + az (az + Eng. at), neben < *en + eben*. zuwider; entge'gen < *en + gegen* (t excrescent,) etc.

2. Noun + noun, or prep. + noun, or pronoun + noun: zufolge, several in -halb and -seit: außerhalb, jenseit, anstatt.

Conjunctions.

558. 1. From pronominal stems: For da, denn, so, wenn, wie, and others, see among adverbs, **551**. Aber, auch, und, oder, sondern, weder, show suffixes.

2. From nouns and adjectives: falls, gleich, ungeachtet, weil, während, and others.

3. Compounds: adverb and preposition: bevor, sobald, mithin, somit, daher, darum, and others.

4. Preposition or adverb + pronoun or adjective: indem, seitdem, sodaß, als daß, allein, entweder < *ein- de- weder*, one of two; nichsdestoweniger, nevertheless.

Interjections.

559. Interjections proper.

1. Joy is expressed by: ah, o, hei, juchhe, heisa, hurrah. Surprise: ei, potz, ha. Pain by: oh, wehe, au, ach, hu. Disgust: pfui, fi, bah. Doubt: hm, hem, hum. Commands to be silent are: pst, bst, sch; to stop or pay attention: brrr (to horses), heda, he, ho, holla, halloh.

2. Imitations of sounds in nature: plumps (fall), piff, paff, puff (shot), hui (whizz), bautz (fall), muh (cow), miau (cat), wau (dog), hopsa (stumble), bum — bum (drum).

3. Burdens of songs: Dudeldumdei, Juvivallera, schrum — schrum — schrum.

560. Certain regular words which have become exclamations, often oaths in much changed forms: Halt, Wetter, Donner und Blitzen, Potztausend, Heil, Bravo, O je, O jemine, Sapperment, Sakerlot, Mein Himmel, Donnerwetter noch einmal.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS THAT REQUIRE EXPLANATIONS.

Ags. = Anglo-Saxon.
(B.) = Bible.
(Bo.) = Bodenstedt.
(Bü.) = Bürger.
(Ch.) = Chamisso.
D. = Dutch or Dative.
(F.) = Hart's Edition of Goethe's Faust, Part I.
Fr. = French.
(G.) = Goethe.
Go. = Gothic.
Gr. = Greek.
G. T. = General Teutonic.
(H. and D.) = Hart's edition of Goethe's *Hermann and Dorothea.*
(He.) = Herder.
H. G. = High German.
(Hu.) = A. von Humboldt.
I.-E. = Indo-European.
L. = Latin.
(Le.) = Lessing.
L. G. = Low German.
(Lu.) = Luther's works excepting his translation of the Bible.
M. G. = Middle German.
M. H. G. = Middle High German.
N. G. = North German or North Germany.
N. H. G. = New High German.
O. Fr. = Old French.
O. H. G. = Old High German.
(Prov.) = Proverb.
(R.) = Rückert.
Rules = the official rules for spelling, see 37.
(Sch.) = Schiller.
S. G. = South German.
(Sh.) = Shakespere translated by Schlegel and Tieck.
(Uh.) = Uhland.
V. L. = Vulgar Latin.

< means "derived from," "sprung from," "taken from."

> means "passed or developed into," "taken into."

+ between a German and non-German word denotes common origin or "cognates." In other positions it means "accompanied or followed by."

* before a word means that that form of the word does not actually occur, but is conjectured or reconstructed.

: = : or : as : means a relation as in a mathematical proportion.

I, II, III after verbs indicates the strong verb-classes.

— between letters means "interchanges with," *e.g.*, ȝ — ȼ as in ȝoȝer — ȝoȼ or e — i as in nehmen — nimmſt.

SUBJECT-INDEX.

The numbers refer to the paragraphs. The umlauts have a separate place, ä after a, ö after o, ü after u.

Ablaut: nature of, 393; four grades, 394, 463, 2; 496; 497.
Ablaut series: and verb-classes, 122–129; I.-E., 394, 1; G. T., > O. H. G. > N. H. G., 395–400; 459–467; grouping of, 459.
Abstract nouns: article before, 149; no article, 145; 155, 2; plural of, 171; 62, Rem.
Accent: 417, 418; degrees of, 419; chief on stem-syllable, 420; 420, 2; 478, 4; Eng. in Norman-Fr. words, 420, 3; in compounds, 421–423; secondary, 424; rhetorical, 426; "free" in I.-E., 420, 2; in foreign words, 427, 420, 1; 424, 4; characteristic of Germanic Lang., 478, 4; = intonation, 392, 1.
Accidence: 38–138; Historical Commentary on, 428–476.
Accusative: office of, 198; after verbs, 198-206; two A. after verbs, 199; predicate in passive, 202, 2; cognate, 203; logical subject in, 205; after reflexive verbs, 206; adverbial, 207; difference between A. and G. of time, 208, 1; after adjectives, 207, 1; 183; absolute, 209; 297, 1; by attraction in the pred. after lassen, 202, 1; after prepos., 304–306.
Adjective: decl. of, 69–72; 436; origin of strong decl., 437; comparison of, 73–76, see comparison, compar. and superlat.; 438, 439; used as nouns, 220, 221, 181; gender of same, 160, 3; 169; 162, 3; G. after, 182, 183; D. after, 194; A. after, 183; 207, 1.
Attributive use of, 211–217; only used attributively, 211; uninflected used attributively, 212; in the predicate, 218, 220; as nouns declined strong, 214; G. sg. m. and n., 216, 1; declined weak, 213; 217, 1; as nouns, 221, 1; origin of double decl., 215; unsettled usage as to strong and weak decl., 216, 221; after indef. pron., 214; 216, 4; 181; after person. pron., 216, 2; two or more adj., 212, 3; 217.
In the predicate, 218, 219; only used in pred., 219; position of adjuncts of, 353; accent in certain compounds, 422, 1-7; derivation of, 522–528; used as adverb, 554.
Adjective Clauses: nature of, 323; 326–328; 339.
Adverbial Clauses: nature of, 323, 329; various kinds of, 330–340; see temporal, local, clauses of manner and cause (332–340), final (338), conditional, (340), etc.
Adverbs: origin of, 551–555; < G. of nouns, 187, 552; + prepos. supplanting the person. pron., 234; syntax of, 299, 300; after prepos. + noun, 300; adverbs which are only adverbs, 300, 1; 554, 2; adjective as, 300, 2; 554; comparison by, 223, 224; relative and absolute superl. of, 300, 2; nature of, 301, 1; interrogative, 251, 5; relative, 258, 326, 331; demonstrative, 327, 3; in local clauses, 331, a; position in a sentence, 354; order of adverbs of time, place, manner, 355; accent in compound, 423.
Adversative Sentences: coordinate, 320.
Affricate: 413, 5; 408, 1.
Alemanic: 483, 1.
Alphabet: printed and script, 1, 2; origin of the G. letters, 360; Latin letters in G., 360, 2; relation to G. sounds, 361.
Anglo-Saxon, see English.
Apposition: < G. of nouns, 181; 179, 1; 317, 7.
Articles: inflect. of, 38; accent of, 39; contraction with prepositions, 40; spelling of, 39; 41; syntax of, 140–158; nature of 140; general cases of absence of, 141–146; before proper nouns, 147; before abstract nouns, 149; before names of materials, 150; before collective nouns, 151; repetition of, 158. See A., def. and indef.
Article, Def.: infl. of, 38; attraction to preceding words not prepositions, 41; contraction with preceding prepos., 40; relation to Eng. possessive pron., 154, 243, 3; distributive for Eng. "a," 156.
Article, Indef.: infl. of, 38; aphaeresis of, 41; after certain pronouns, 144, 252; before certain pronouns, 157.
Austrian: 483.

Auxiliaries: of tense: infl. of, 110; use of, 265, 266; 283, 2; omission of, 346; in passive voice, 273.
Modal: see pret. pres. verbs; special uses of, 267; verbs of motion omitted after, 267, Rem.; imperative force of, 287, 4; + perf. and pres. inf., 283, 1; 290.

Bavarian-Austrian: 483, 2; 488, 5, *a*.
Bible: 486; 487.
Brechung: 405, Rem.

Capitals: initial, 364; in pronouns of address, 230.
Cardinals, see Numerals.
Cases: see individual cases, N., G., etc.; order of cases in the sentence, 352.
Causal Sentences: coordinate, 321; subordinate, 337.
Comparative: see comparison; use of, 222; by adverbs, 223, 224; conjunctions after, 333.
Comparative Clauses: 333, 1-3; with nicht, 333, 2.
Comparison: of adjectives, 73-76; 438; 439; irregular, 76, 1; defective and redundant, 76, 2; the suffixes, 73, 438; by adverbs, 223, 224, 222, 1; of two qualities of the same object, 224.
Compound words: accent of, 421-424; irregular accent of certain nouns, adjectives, and prefixes, 422; secondary accent in, 424; 521; see nouns, adj., etc.; 516; compared with Eng., 521, 2. *b*.
Compound tenses: 109-115; 283.
Concessive Clauses: 339.
Conditionals: formation of, 115, 283, 5; force of, 280, 281, 284, 5.
Conditional Clauses: tenses in, 280, 284, 5; nature of, 340; several forms of, 340, 1; word-order in, 343, *c*.
Conjugation: strong and weak, 101-103; 446, 476; weak, 117, 118, 447, 454, 455; strong, 120-133, 446, 456-469.
Conjunctions: classification of, 307; origin of, 301, 558.
Coordinating: copulative, 319; adversative, 320; concessive, 320, 2; causal, 321; illative, 323.
Subordinating: in temporal clauses, 330; in comparative clauses, 333; 334; in consecutive clauses, 335; in restrictive clauses, 336; causal, 337; final, 338; concessive, 339; conditional, 340.
Consecutive Clauses: 335.
Consonant-declension, see n-declension.
Consonant-stems: become *i*-stems, 54; 428, 2; 432, 1; 432-435.
Consonants: description of, 374-389; open, 374-381; shut, 382-385; nasals, 386-388; compound, 389; long, 389, 5; cons.-table, p. 167; see Grimm's and Verner's Laws; doubling or lengthening of, 389, 5; 413, 5; 488, 2, *c*.
Coordinate Sentences: 318; various kinds of, 319-322.
Copulative Sentences: 319.

Danish: 479, II.
Dative: office of, 189; as nearer object after intrans. and certain compound verbs, 190; as indirect object after trans. verbs, 191; ethical, 192; after impers. verbs, 193; after adj., 194; 190; supplanted by prepos. + case, 195; after prepos., 303, 305, 306.
Declension: of articles, 38; of nouns, 42-68; 428-435; of foreign nouns, 64, 62, 3; of proper nouns, 65-68; of the adjective, 69-72; of pronouns, 81-100.
Demonstrative Pronouns: 88-91; use of, 244-250; origin of, 442; supplanted by hier and da + prepos., 251, 2.
Dependent Clauses, see Subordinate.
Dependent order of words: 341, 344; in main clauses, 347, 349; the oldest order, 349, 2.
Dialect: and written language, 390; in M. H. G., 485, 2; in N. H. G., 486, 487; in the pronunciation of the educated, 390; and the public school, 392, 5.
Diphthongs: pronunc. of, 32; analysis of, 372; become single vowels, 488, 4 < long vowels, 488, 5.
Dutch: 481, 3; 493, 3.

East Frankish: 482, 3; 486.
Elliptical clauses and phrases: 310; 284, 5, Rem.; 287; 343, *d*, 2.
English: 479, III.; 492, 4; umlaut in, 402, 2.
Euphony: 418, 1.
Exclamation: G. in, 188, 309, 3; order of words in, 343, *e*; see interjections.

Final clauses: 338.
Flemish: 481, 3.
Foreign nouns: decl. of, 64; gender of, 163.
Foreign words: spelling of, 365; accent, 427, 420, 1; 424, 4; in G. wordstock, 492-494.
Fractions: 533, 2.
Frisian: 481, 1.
Future: formation of, 114; force of, 278; imperative force of, 278, 3; 287, 3; present with future force, 274, 5; condit. for subj. of, 281; origin of, 283, 4.

Gender: of nouns and their distribution among the declensions according to, 43; syntax of, 159-169; grammatical and sex, 159, 160; concord of the

same, 165–168; according to meaning, 160; according to endings, 161; doubtful and double, 162; change of, 161, Rem., 163; of compound nouns, 164; concord of, 165–168; between subject and predicate, 313, 316.
Genitive: office of, 180; various kinds of G., 180, 1–7; partitive G. passed into apposition, 181, 251; supplanted by prepos., 181; dependent upon adj., 82, 182; dependent upon verbs as nearer object, 184; as remoter object, 185; after impersonal verbs, 186; adverbial G. of place, time, etc., 187; supplanted by A., 207, Rem.; difference between A. and G., 208; after prepos., 302; in exclamations, 188.
German Dialects: classification of, 480–483; 484.
German Language: see *Schriftsprache*; history of, 478–494; relation to other Germanic languages, 480–486.
German Sounds: analysis of, 366–389.
Germanic Languages: relation to other I.-E. languages, 477; characteristics of, 478; classification of, 479–484.
Gerundive: 107; 289, Rem.; 398; 452.
Gothic: letters, 360; language, 479, 1.
Grimm's Law: 407–415; G. T. shifting, 407–410; G. shifting, 413–415; modifications of, 412.

Hessian: 482, 3.
High German: explanation of term, 480, 3, *a*. See South German.
Hildebrantalied: 485, 1.

Icelandic: 479, II; 329, 1; 530.
Illative Sentences: co-ordinate, 322.
Imperative: 105, 450; in strong verbs, 121; personal pron. in, 286, 1; future with imperative force, 278, 3; 287, 3; force of, 286; other verbal forms with the force of, 287; conditional and concessive force of, 339, 1; word-order in, 343, *b*.
Indefinite Pronouns: 94–100, 445; use of, 259–263.
Indirect Speech: tenses in, 282; mood in, 285; 325, 3.
Indo-European: 477.
Infinitive: 106, 451; nature of, 288; 290, 3, *b*; perfect, 288, 1; imper. force of, 287, 1; without and with ᵹu, 289–291; 291, 3–5; without ᵹu, 289, Rem.; after certain groups of verbs, 290; with ᵹu, do., 291, 1; as object and subject, 291, 2, 3; A. with, 292; as a noun, 293; governed by prepos. + ᵹu, 291, 1; inf. clause, 325, 2, Rem. 3; 332, 1; 335, 1; position of two, in dependent clause, 345, 1; position of adjuncts of, 353.
Instrumental: 194.
Interjections: 559, 560.
Interrogative Pronouns: 92, 444; use of, 251–253; D. supplanted by wo(r) + prepos., 251, 2.
Interrogative Sentences: 309, 2; indirect, 325, 2; disjunctive, 325, 2, *c*; word-order, 343, *a*.
Inverted order of words: 341, 343; in inserted main clause, 343, 1; origin of, in conditional and in main clauses, 348, 1; after certain co-ordinating conjunctions, 319; in a clause instead of *obgleich*, etc., 339.
I-stems: 52–55; 429.
Iteratives: 531, 2.

Jo-stems: 46, 2; 47; in adj., 437, 3; 496, 2; 522.

Kanzleisprache: 486, 487.

Labialization, 367, 1; 370, 4, Rem.
Language: written. See *Schriftsprache*.
Law of Finals: 478, 3.
Levelling: nature of, 491, 1; in the strong pret., 460; in the weak verbs, 454, 455.
Low Frankish: 481, 3.
Low German Dialects: 480, 1; 481; > H. G., 493, 3; their relation to the written language, 392, 1–3; 391.
Low Saxon: 481, 3.
Luther: 486, 487.

Middle Frankish: 482, 1.
Middle German Dialects: 480, 2; 482; 488, 3, *a*; 488, 4.
Middle High German: 485, 2; transition of sounds to N. H. G., 488–491.
Mi-verbs: 136; 449, 1, 2; 473–476.
Modal Clauses: 332.
Modal Auxiliaries. See Auxiliaries.
Mood: see subj., imper.; in adjective clauses, 328.
Multiplicatives: 531, 1.

N-declension: of nouns, 47, 61, 62, 432–435; of adjectives, 69, 213, 215.
Narrowness of vowels: 367, 2.
Negatives: 309, 1; double negative, 309, 1; in comparative clauses, 333, 2.
New High German: 485, 486.
Nominative: syntax of, 178, 179; predicate, 179; A. for, in predicate, 202, 1.
Normal order of words: 341, 342; in subordinate clauses, 345, 2; after co-ordinating conjunctions, 343, 2; when the subordinate clause precedes, 343, 3; 348, 2; 343, *c*; 358.
North German: see Low G.
Norwegian: 479, II.
Nouns: decl. of, 42–68; systems of noun-decl., 42; distribution of nouns among the three declensions according to gender, 43, 433; general rules for noun-decl., 43; strong decl. of, 44–60, 428–431; weak decl. of, 61, 62, 428, 2;

432; mixed decl. of, 63, 435, 1; use of cases, see individual cases; derivation of, 496–516; composition, 517–521. gender of compound, 164; accent of, 421, 422. See Number, Proper N., Foreign N., Abstract N., Compound.
Number: Singular and plural of nouns: pl. the basis of classification of strong nouns, 44; no sign, 45, *a*; umlaut, 45, *b*; -e, 49–55; -er, 56–60, 431; (e)n, 61–63; pl. in -s, 60; irregular, 51, 173, 173; double forms, 58, 162, 4; 431, 2; of abstract nouns, 171; nouns only in pl., 174.
Sing. or pl. after nouns of quantity, etc., 175; why sing., 176; sing. where Eng. pl., 177; sing. neut. of pronouns refer to masc., fem., and plural nouns, 168, 313.
Sing. and pl. of verbs: 311; pl. after a collective noun, 312; "pl. of majesty," 311, 2.
Numerals: 77; infl. of, 78; when inflected, 226, 227; cardinals, 77–79; pl. in -e, 227; in -er, 228, 2; ordinals, 80, 530, 532; indefinite, 100; derivation of, 529–533.

Old High German: 485.
Ordinals: see Numerals.
Orthography: division into syllables, 36; regulated by government, 37, 361, 2; historical notes on, 360–365; umlaut-signs, 362; on the marks to show length, 363; on use of capitals, 364; of foreign words, 365; government rules, 37.
O-stems: lose sign of the pl., 47, 51, 428.

Participial Clauses: 294, 4; 332, 1.
Participles: 102, 107, 453; use of, 294–297; position of adjuncts of, 353.
Past part. without ge-, 108, 113, 453, 2; 470, 528; isolated, 129, Rem.; 131, Rem.; 524, 4; imper. force of, 287, 2; passive force of, 295; active force of, 295, 2; 296; dependent upon kommen, heißen, etc, 296; of verbs of motion, 296; absolute construction, 297.
Pres. part., 274, 6; 283, 3, 4; 294; 453; in compound tenses, 283, 1, 2; 351.
Perfect: formation of, 112; force of, 276; with future perf. force, 279, 2; Eng. perf. — G. pres., 274, 4; imperative, 286, 1; infinitive, 288.
Personal Pronouns: 81, 82, 440; syntax of, 230–235; gender of, 81; use of, in address, 230–233; repetition of, 233, 2; omission of, 233, 1; supplanted by other pronouns and prepositions, 234; in the imper., 286, 1.
Phonology: 360–427; orthography, 360–365; analysis of sounds, 366–389; as standard of pronunc., 390–392; phonetic laws, 393–417; accent, 418–427.
Plattdeutsch: 481, 2, *a*; 484.
Pluperfect: formation of, 112; force of, 277; relation to Condit., 280, 281, 284, 5.
Plural: see Number.
Popular Etymology: 494, 2, 3.
Possessive Pronouns: 85–87; syntax of, 239–243; origin of, 441; compounds with, 87; used substantively, 240; repetition of, 241, 242, 2; relation to def. article, 154, 243, 3; supplanted by demonstr. pron., 242, 1; uninflected, 239, 243, 1.
Predicate, 308; concord of subj. and pred., 311–317; number of verb after collective noun, 313; when subjects are connected by conjunctions, 311, 314; person of verb when subjects are of different persons, 315; position of, 350, 351.
Prepositions: syntax of, 301–306; nature of, 301, 1, 2; 556; classification of, according to cases, and treatment of, in alphabetical order, 302–306; governing the G., 302; governing the D., 303; governing the A., 304; governing D. and A., 305; general position of, 357.
Present: infl. of, 103: of weak verbs, 118, 447; of strong verbs, 121, 456; O. H. G., 446; of pret.-pres. verbs, 134; uses of, 274; periphrastic, 274, 6; imper. force, 287, 3; formation of present-stem, 457.
Preterit: infl. of, 103; weak, 454; strong, 458; levelling in, 460; double subj., 125, 126, 464, 3; 129; of pret.-pres. verbs, 134, 470; force of, 275; relation to condit., 280, 281, 284, 5; ind. for unreal subj., 340, 3.
Pret.-pres. verbs: 134; 135; 108, 2; 267; 470–472.
Pronouns: inflection of, 81–100, 440–445; syntax of, 230–263; concord with noun, 165–168, 235; origin of, 496; position of, in the sentence, 352, *c*; neut. pron. refers to masc. or fem. nouns, 168; neut. pron. one of two accusatives, 199, 1, 2. See reciprocal, possessive, etc., separately.
Pronunciation: of letters, 1–37, 366; standard of, 390–392; disputed points in standard, 391; Hanoverian and N. G., 390, 4; 392, 1–3; dialect in, 390, 1–3.
Proper Nouns: decl. of, 65–68; article before, 147, 155, 1; gender of, 160, 2, with Rem.; 164.

Question: see Interrogative Sentences.

Reciprocal Pronouns: 84, 197, 206, 238.
Reduplication: nature of, 458; in VII. Cl.

of verbs, 130, 131; in the present, 457, 3.
Reflexive Pronouns: 83, 237; personal for, 237, 1.
Relative Clauses: see Adjective Cl.
Relative Pronouns: 93; use of, 254–258; origin of, 254; supplanted by adverbs and conjunctions, 257, 258, 326, 327.
Restrictive Clauses: 336.
Roundness of vowels: 367, 1; in S. G., 391, 5.
Runes, 492, 2.
Rückumlaut: 402, 2; 455.

Scandinavian, 479, II.
Schriftsprache: 390; 485, 2; 486, 487.
Sentence: structure of simple, 308; constituents of, 308; arrangement of, see word-order: various kinds of main, 309; 284, 2; 286; compound, see co-ordinate and subordinate.
Shifting of mutes: see Grimm's Law.
Shifting of spirants: see Verner's Law.
Silesian: 482, 6.
Singular: see Number.
Slavic: 477; 481, 2, Rem.; 482, 4-6.
Sonancy: 376.
South Frankish: 482, 2.
South German Dialects: 480, 3; 483; 488, 5, *a*; 489; 490, 1, *a*; relation to the written language, 391, 392, 4.
Suabian: 483, 2.
Subject: 308; concord of, and predicate, 311–317; position of subject and verb, 341, 356.
Subjunctive: kinds of, 284; potential, 284, 3; 325, 2, Rem. 1; 325, 2; 328; in conditional clauses, 340, 448.
Subordinate Sentences: 318, 323, 324–340; word-order in, 343, *c*; 344–346; 350, Rem.; omission of auxil., 346; position of, 358.
Substantive Clauses: 323–325; nature of, 323; various kinds of, 325; normal order in, 345.
Superlative: see Comparison; use of, 222–225; never uninflected, 222; absolute and relative, 222; applied to two objects, 225.
Surdness: 376.
Swedish: 479, II.
Swiss: 483, 1, *a*.

Temporal Clauses: 330.
Tenses: simple, 101, 103, 448; use of, 274, 275, 283.
Compound: 109, 112–116, 276–281; origin of, 283; position of separable prefix, 351. See the separate tenses.
Thuringian: 482, 4.
Time: modes of expressing time, 226; G. of, 187; A. of, 208.
Umlaut: signs of, 31, 362; as a sign of the pl., 45, *b*; 48; in comparison of adj., 74; in pret. subj. of strong verbs, 121; in the pres. of strong verbs, 127, Rem.; 129, Rem.; 130, Rem.; 131, Rem.; 404; nature of, 401; in Eng., 402, 2; spread of, 488, 1; in derived verbs, 535.
Upper Saxon: 482, 5.

Variatives: 533.
Verb: principal parts of, 102; infl. of, 103; personal suffixes of, 104, 118, 121, 449; classification of, 264; irregular weak, 119, 454, 455; weak verbs are derivative, 117, 1.
Reduplicating: 130, 131, 458; nonthematic, see mi-verbs; anomalous, 134–136.
Compound: 137; D. after, 190; A. after, 198, 547–550; accent in, 421; reflexive, 138; 197; 206; 236, 2; 264.
Impersonal: subject of, 236, 1, 2, 5; cases after, 186, 193, 205; G. after, 184–186; D. after, 189–193; D. or A. after, 196, 200; A. after, 198; two A., 199, 201; neuter, 179; trans., 191, 264; intrans., 264.
V. of motion: comp. tense of, 265, 4; 266; 283, 3; 290, 2; past part. of, 296; see Number, Predicate, auxil., pret. pres. verbs; person of, in relative clauses, 326; position of, 341, 350, Rem.; derivation of, 534–550.
Verner's Law: 411, 412, 416.
Voice: passive, infl. of, 116; construction in, 179, 2; 202, 2; 268–273; replaced by reflexive construction, 272; origin of, 273; in Go., 283, 1.
Vowel-declension: see Noun, strong; 428–431.
Vowels: quantity of, 33–35, 488, 2, *b*; analysis and description of, 367–373; vowel-table, p. 162; general remarks upon, 373; doubling of, 33, 363, 4; connecting v. in conjugation, 118; 449, 2; 454, 2, 3; in ablaut, 393–400; in umlaut, 401, 402, 404; interchanges of, 403–406; lengthening of, in W. H. G., 488, 2; shortening of, 488, 3; diphthongization of long v., 488, 5.
Vowel-stems: see Vowel-Declension.

Wordformation: 495–559; substantives, 495–521; pronouns, 496; adjectives, 522–533; verbs, 534–550; adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, 551–558; interjections, 559.
Word-order: 341–350; normal, 342; inverted, 343; dependent, 344. See these separate heads; in poetry and prose, 359.
Word-stock: 492–494.

WORD-INDEX.

It contains a list of the words, prefixes, suffixes, and letters treated of in the grammar. The numbers refer to the paragraphs. The umlauts have a separate place, ä after a, ö after o, ü after u.

A.

a, pronunc. of, 3; description of, 371, 4; quantity of, before r, rt, rb, 33, 488, 2; in ablauts, VI., 459, 4; in ablauts, I.-V., 459.
ab, prepos., 303, 1; 516, 1.
aber, 320, 2, Rem.
Aber-, 516, 1.
ae as sign of umlaut, 362, 2.
aeu as sign of umlaut, 362, 2.
After-, 516, 2.
-age, noun-suffix; fem. gender, 161, 2; 163, 5.
ai, pronunc. of, 32, 372, 1.
all, 100; def. art. after, 144; neuter, 168; use of, 261; accent, 422, 5.
aller- + superl., 222; accent, 422, 1, 5.
allerlie'bſt, 222; 422.
allmählich, 526, 3, c.
als, before a predicate noun, 179; in apposition, 317; before a relative pronoun, 327, 3; in comparative clauses, 333; after comparative, 333, 2; after adjectives, nichts, anders, 333, 2, a, 3.
alt, 453, 1.
-am, 501.
Amt, 516, 3.
an, 305, 3; 306, 1, 2.
ander, 94; 423, 1; 445, 3; 530.
anſtatt, 302; + zu and inf., 291, 1, Rem.
Ant-, 516, 3.
-ant, 505.
Antwort, 164, e.
Armut, 164, a; 511, a.
-at, 511, 2, a; in neut. foreign nouns, 163, 1.
au, pronunc. of, 32; analysis of, 372, 2; origin of, 488, 5.
auf, 305, 3.
auferſtehen, 546, 2.
a-umlaut, see ä, e.
Axt, 491, 2; 512, 3.
ä, pronunc. of, 31; 362; 371, 2, Rem. 3; see umlaut.
äu, pronunc. of, 32; 372, 3; origin of, 488, 5.

B.

b, pronunc. of, 4; description of, 385, 2; final, 385, 3; „hartes" b, 383, 1, Rem.; 392, 3; Eng. correspondents of, 408, 2; 413, 2; 490, 6.
b-, see be-; 557, 1.
backen VI., 129; in compos., 528.
-bar, 526, 1.
barmher'zig, 422, 3.
baß, 76; 439.
be-, 108, 3; see bei; 540, 1.
beben, 457, 3.
bedient, 295, 2.
befehlen IV., 127.
befleißen I., 122, 1.
beginnen III., 125, 2; 454, 3; 457, 2.
behaupten, 540, 4.
bei, prepos., 303, 4; in compos., 516, 4.
beid-, 100; use of, 228.
beißen I., 122, 1.
bequem, 409, 3.
bellen VIII., 133.
bergen III., 125, 3.
berſten III., 125, 3.
beſcheiden, 524, 4.
beſſer, beſt, 76, 1; 439.
bewegen VIII., 133.
bid (Eng.), 396.
biegen II., 124, 2.
bieten II., 124, 2.
binnen, 303, 5; 557, 1.
binden III., 125, 1.
bis, 304, 1; 557, 1.
bitten V., 128, 2; 199; 233, 1; 457, 1; 466.
blaſen VII., 130, 1.
bleiben I., 122, 2; + inf., 290, 3.
bleichen I., 122, 1.
braten VII., 130, 1.
brechen IV., 127.
brennen, 119, 1; 455.
bringen, 119, 2; 454, 3.
Bruder, 411.
Burg, 397; in comp., 164, c.

C.

c, pronunc. of, 5; in foreign words, 389, 3.
ch, pronunc. of, 6; 375, 4; 378, 3; 383, 1; description of, 375; quantity of vowel before, 35; Eng. correspondents of, 410, 3; 414, 3; 415, 1, 3; 490, 3; ch — g, 416.

-chen, 46, 1; 510; neuter gend., 161, 3; pronunc. of, 6; 375, 2.
-che(n), in verbs, 536, *a*.
Chriſt, 435, 3.
ch, chſ, pronunc. of, 29, 383, 1.
c, 14; 383, 1; Eng. correspondents of, 413, 4; 414, 3.

D.

d, pronunc. of, 7, 385, 3; description of, 384, 2; Eng. correspondents of, 410, 1; 413, 1, *a*; 415; d — t, 416.
-d, 511, 1.
damit, 338.
da(r), in relative clause, 327, 3; in local clause, 331, *a*; causal, 337; origin of, 551, 1.
daſs, 168; for Gen., 183; see der.
däucht, see deucht.
-de, 511, 2.
Dehnungs-h, 363, 3.
denken, 119, 2; 402, 2; 454, 3.
denn, causal conjunction, 321, 337; after comparative, 333, 2; in restrictive clauses, 336; origin of, 551, 1.
der, def. art., 38-40; demonstr. pronoun, 88, 442; lengthened forms in en, er, 244, 2; relat. pronoun, 93.
deren (G. pl.), 88, 93, 1; use of, 244, 1.
derent-, 87, 89.
der'rgeſtalt, 335.
derer, see deren.
derjenige, 91, 1; 247.
dero, 89, 442.
derſelbe, -ſelbige, 91.
derweil, 330.
deſs, deß, deſſen, 89.
deſto, 442, *a*; correlative of je, 334.
deucht, 119, 2; 454, 3.
deutſch, 413, 1, *a*.
dies, dieſer, 90; 443; use of, 245, 246; dies und daſs, jenes, 245, 2; supplanted by adverb + prepos., 246.
dieweil, 330; 552, 3.
dingen III., 125, 1.
doppel-, 531, 1.
dreſchen III., 125, 3; 132.
dringen III., 125, 1.
dritt-, 410, 1; 530.
durch, 304, 2; in comp. verbs, 549, 1.
dünken, 119, 2; 454, 3.
dürfen, 135, 2; use of, 267, 2; 416.

E.

e, pronunc. of, 8; description of, 371, 1-3; unaccented, 371, 3; 485, 2; sign of length, 33, 363, 1; sign of umlaut, 362; before r, rt, rb, 33, 488, 2; sign of plural, 47, 49, 51, 52; in cardinals, 227; in the adj.-suffixes -el, -er, -en, 71; connecting vowel in conjugation, 118; derivative e in verbs, 535, 536; secondary before r, 491, 2; e — i, ie, 127, 128, 403.
-e in nouns < adj., 498, 1; gender of such nouns, 161, 2.
-e in *jo*-stems, 46, 47, 51, 437, 3; gender of such nouns, 161, 3.
-e in adverbs, 554, 1.
edel, 404.
ehe, 76, 2, *b*; 439, 2.
ei, pronunc. of, 32; analysis of, 372, 3; origin of, 488, 5.
-ei, 498, 3; gender of such nouns, 161, 2.
eigen, 470, 471, 6.
eigentümlich, 422, 2.
ein, indef. art., 38, 41; after welch, was für, 92, 2, 3; indef. pronoun, 72, 95, 259, 260.
eingeboren, 528, 5, 7.
Einöde, 511, *a*.
eins, 531, 2; for cognate Acc., 204.
einſt, 531, 3; 555, 2.
einzeln, 555, 3.
eitel, 212, 1.
-el, noun-suffix, 46, 47, 499; gender of such nouns, 161, 1; 161, 3; adj.-suffix, 71, 523, 1; verb-suffix, 106.
elend, 401.
-eln in verbs, 536, *b*.
Eltern, 174, 404.
-em, 501, 523, 2.
emp-, 541.
empfehlen IV., 127, 464, 3.
-en, noun-suffix, 46; 47; 501; 502; indicates masc. gend., 160, 1; in the n-declension, 61, 62; in the pl. of foreign nouns, 64, 2, 3; in D. and A. of proper nouns, 66; in G. sg. of adj. for es, 72; 91, 3; 216, 1; in pronouns, 244, 2; 440, 2.
Adj.-suffix, 71; 211; 524; in the past part., 107; 453; 502; 524; in the inf., 106; 451; in adverbs, 551.
end (nd), in the pres. part., 107; in nouns, 505; in the gerund., 107.
-ens, 555, 2.
ent-, 541.
Ente, 430, 1.
Enterich, 515, 3, *a*.
entgegen, 303, 6; 557, 1.
entweder, 558.
-er, noun-suffix, 47, 65, 507; indicates masc. gend., 161, 1; 163, 3; as sign of plural, 56, 431.
Adj.-suffix, 71, 523, 3; in adverbs, 551; 556; compar. suffix, 79; 438; in the G. of pronouns, 82, 88, 244, 3; 440, 2.
er-, 542.
-erei, 497, 3, Rem.
erhaben, 129, Rem; 467.
-erlich, 526, 3, *c*.
erlöſchen VIII., 133.
-ern, adj.-suffix, 524, 3; adj. in —, uninflected, 211.
-er(n), verb-suffix, 537, 2.
erſchallen VIII. (erſcholl), 133.
erſchrecken IV., 127.
erſt, 76, 2, *b*; 439, 2.
erwägen VIII., 133.
erwähnen, 457, 2.

Erz-, 516, 6.
es, N. and A. sg. neut., 81; peculiar uses of, 236; gender, 168; replacing cognate A., 204; 236, 6; G. of masc. and neuter, 82; 183; A. supplanted by prepos., 234, 1; indefinite subject, 236, 1, 2, 4, 5; grammatical subject and expletive, 236, 3; 313; position of es (A.), 352, e; es (N.) and inversion, 236, 3, a.
essen V., 128, 1; 409, 1; 466.
Essig, 509.
etlich, 96.
etwas, 96; 199, 1; 260.
eu, pronunc. of, 32; analysis of, 372, 3; origin of, 488, 5.
eurer for euer (G. pl.), 82.
Ew., 311, 2.

F.

f, pronunc. of, 9; description of, 380; Eng. correspondents of, 410, 2; 414, 2; 415, 1; 493, 4; f—b, 416.
-fach, 531, 1.
fahen VII., 130, 1; 417, 1; 458, 2.
fahren VI., 129, 467; + spazieren, 290, 2.
fallen VII., 130, 1; 458, 2.
fast, 554, 1.
fangen VII., 130, 1.
faulenzen, 539, 3, a.
-fältig, 531, 1.
fechten VIII., 133.
fehlen, 494.
Feind, 219; 505.
finden III., 125, 1; 464.
flechten VIII., 133.
fliegen II., 124, 2.
fliehen II., 124, 2.
fließen II., 124, 1.
fort, 76, 1.
fr-, 545.
fragen, 129; 457, 2; construction after, 199.
Frauenzimmer, 166.
Fräulein, 166.
fressen, 108, 3; 128, 1.
frieren II., 124, 2.
frug, 129; 461.
Füchsin, 504.
füllen, 502, 2.
für, 76, 2, b; 304, 3; 516, 5.
fürchten, 454, 3.
fürlieb, 528, 7.
Fürst, 76, 2, b; 439, 2.

G.

g, pronunc. of, 10; 375, 3, 4; 391, 2; in foreign words, 378, 4; 383, 1, Rem.; after n in N. G., 383, 1, a; Eng. correspondents of, 408, 3, 4; gg, 493, 4; description of, 383, 3; see ge-.
gären VIII., 133.
ge-, g-, 516, 7; 543; in the p. part., 107, 108; 453, 2; 528; in nouns of neuter gend., 161, 3; in p. p. of comp. v., 546, 2.
gebären IV., 127, 398.
geben V., 128, 1; 466; impersonal, 205; 236, 4; 399.
gedeihen II., 122, 2.
gediegen, 122, 2.
gehen VII., 130, 1; 136, 1; 457, 2; 474; + inf., 290, 2; past part., 296.
gelingen III., 125, 1.
gelten III., 121; 125, 3; impersonal, 205.
gen, 304, 4.
genesen V., 128, 1.
genießen II., 124, 1.
gering, comparison of, 76, 1.
geschehen V., 128, 1.
geschweige, 233.
gessen, 128, Rem.
Getreide, 511.
getrost, 219; 455, 3.
gewinnen III., 125, 2.
gewiß, 412, 2; 453, 1.
gießen II., 124, 1.
Gift, 399; 403, 1; gender of, 162, 3.
-gleichen, 87.
gleichen I., 122, 1.
gleißen, 122, 1.
gleißen I., 122, 1.
gleiten I., 122, 1.
glimmen VIII., 133.
gönnen, 471, 5.
graben VI., 129.
greifen, I., 122, 1; 462.
greinen I., 122, 1.
grinsen, 122, 1.
gut, comparison of, 76, 1; 439.
gülden, 524, 2.

H.

h, pronunc. of, 11; description of, 374; Eng. correspondents of, 410, 3; 415, 1; silence of, 33; 363, 2; 491, 2; loss of, 415, 3; sign of length, 33, 363, 2, 3; h—hh, 73; 490, 3, b; h—g, 124, Rem.; 416.
haben, infl. of, 110; contracted forms, 111, 1; impersonal, 205; in comp. tenses, 265; 283, 1, 2; + inf., 290, 1.
haft, 526, 2.
halb-, before ordinals, 229, 1.
-halben, in comp. with pron., 87; prepos., 302, 4.
halber, 219, 1; prepos., 302, 4.
halten VII., 130, 1.
Hand, 54.
handgemein, 219.
hangen VII., 130, 1.
hauen VII., 131.
heben VI., 129, 132, 457, 1; 467.
Hehl, 82.
Hehe, 162, 3; 435, 3.
heint, 443, 2.
Heirat, 511, a.
-heit, 515, 1; indicates fem. gender, 161, 2.

helfen III., 125, 3; past part. of, 108, 1; 464; + inf., 290, 2.
heißen VII., 108, 1; 131, 458, 2; intrans., 179, 1; trans., 201; + inf., 290, 2, 4; + past part., 296, 2.
her, 443, 2.
Herr, reduced to „er," 230, 3.
heuer, 443, 2.
heute, 443, 2.
hin, 443, 2.
hinter, 306, 4; in comp. verbs, 549, 2.
Hoffahrt, 528, 2, b.
hold, 405.
hören, inst. of gehört, 108, 1; + inf., 290, 3.
Huld, 405.
Hundert, 226; 529, 2.
Hüfte, 430, 1.

I.

i, pronunc. of, 12; description of, 369, 1, 2; < ie, 488, 4.
-ich, 509; indicates masc. gend., 161, 1; 489, 5.
-icht, 509, 1; 525, 3.
ie, pronunc. of, 33, 3; see i; in reduplicating verbs, Cl. VII., 458, 2; 488, 3, a.
ie — eu, 124, 406.
-ie, noun-suffix, 498, 4; indicates fem. gender, 161, 2.
-ieren, verbs in, 108, 4; 493, 2; 538.
-ig, adj.-suffix, 525, 1-3; 489, 5; for -ich, 509; 526, 3, c.
-igen, 539, 4.
-igkeit, 515, 2.
-iglich, 525, 2.
ihr, poss. pron., 85; origin of, 243, 2; 441, 2.
Ihro, 86; 441, 2.
in, 306, 5.
-in, noun-suffix, 504; indicates fem. gend., 161, 2; 430, 3.
indem, 330, 1; 337.
-ing, 506.
irgend, 260.
-isch, adj.-suffix, 211; 514; 525, 4.

J.

j, pronunc. of, 13; 378, 4; description of, 375, 4.
jagen, 129.
je, 334.
jeder, infl. of, 97; 216, 1; 445, 1; in comp., 97; pl. of, 261, 3.
jedes, 168.
jedweder, 445, 2.
jeglich, 97; 445, 1.
jemand, 97, 260, 445, 1.
jener, 90; 443, 1; G. sg. of, 216, 1; use of, 245, 246.
Jungfer, 516, 12, a.
jung, pret., 129.
jüngst, 555, 2.

K.

k, pronunc. of, 14, 383, 1; Eng. correspondents of, 409, 3; description of, 383, 1.
kalt, 409, 3.
Kar-, 422, 3.
keifen I., 122, 1.
kein, 72; 95; 445, 2.
-keit, 515, 2; fem. gend., 161, 2.
kennen, 119, 1; 267, 1.
Kette, 435, 4.
kiesen II., 124, 2; 132; 411; 463.
Kleinod, 511, a.
kliben II., 124, 2.
klimmen VIII., 133.
klingen III., 125, 1.
kneifen I., 122, 1.
kommen IV., 127; 465; 489, 1; umlaut in pres., 127, Rem.; + past part., 296; 409, 3.
kosten + A. or D., 207, 1, Rem.
können, 135, 3; 267, 1.
Krebs, 513.
kreischen I., 122, 1.
kreißen I., 122, 1.
kriechen II., 122, 2.
Küche, 435, 4.
küren II., 124, 2; 132.

L.

l, pronunc. of, 15; description of, 381; 385, 4.
-l, see -el.
laden VI. and weak, 129.
lassen VII., past part. without ge-, 108, 1; 130, 1; constr. after, 199, 202, 1; 267, 7; + reflexive, 272; in the imper., 287, 4; + inf., 290, 2, 3, b.
laufen VII., 131; 212, 1; 458, 2.
laut, 396.
lauter, 100.
längst, 555, 2.
lehren instead of gelehrt, 108, 1; constr. after, 199; in passive, 202, 2; + inf., 290, 2; 395.
-lei, 533.
leiden I., 122, 1; 411.
leider, 225, 2.
leihen I., 122, 2.
-lein, noun-suffix, 46, 1; 500, 2; neut. gend., 161, 3; 493, 4.
Leitstern, 520, 4, a.
-ler, noun-suffix, 500, 4; indicates masc. gender, 161, 1.
lernen instead of gelernt, 108, 1; for lehren, 199, 2; + inf., 290, 2; 395.
lesen V., 128, 1.
leserlich, 526, 3, c.
let, in imper., 287, 4.
letzt, 439, 2.
Leumund, 396; 494, 3.
-leute in comp., 172.
-lich, adj.-suffix, 211; 525, 4; 526, 3; adverbial suffix, 544, 2.

liegen V., 128, 2; 457, 1; II., 132; + inf., 390, 3.
-lig, 526, 3, c.
-ling, noun-suffix, 500, 3; indicates masc. gender, 161, 1.
-lingen, 500, 3, a.
-lings, 553.
löschen, 133.
lügen II., 124, 2; 132.
Lügen strafen, 199, 2.

M.

m, pronunc. of, 16; description of, 388; Eng. correspondents of, 490, 4, 5.
-m, see em.
machen + inf., 390, 2.
Magd, 512, 3.
mahlen, 400.
Maid, 512, 3.
-mal, 531, 2.
manch, 100; 262; 525, 1.
Mann, 58, 59; in comp., 172.
Maulwurf, 400; 494, 3.
mehr, comparison of, 76, 1; 100; 439; used in comparat., 224.
mehrer, 76, 1; 100.
meiden I., 123, 2.
meiner, comparat., 225, 2.
meist, comparison of, 76, 1; 100.
melken VIII., 133.
Melodei, 493, 2.
Mensch, 59, 514.
messen V., 128, 1.
Mette, 435, 4.
minder, comparison of, 76, 1; 439; used in comparat., 224.
Mis-, 453, 1; 516, 8; 544.
mittelst, superl., 76, 2, b; prepos., 302, 7.
Mitternacht, 519, 2.
Mittwoch, 164, d.
mögen, 135, 4; 267, 3; 412, 2.
müssen, 135, 6; 267, 3; 471, 3.
-mut, in comp., 164, a.

N.

n, pronunc. of, 17; nature of, 386, 387; final n in foreign words, 386, 1, Rem.; short before sonant stops, 385, 4; n = q, i. e., "guttural" nasal, 386, and see nt, ng; before labial, 388, 1; lost in Eng., 417, 1; entered the N. of nouns of the n-decl., 435, 3; loss of, 435, 3, 4; 502; Eng. correspondents of, 490, 5. See -en.
nächst, 303, 11.
Nacht, 54.
-nd, 505.
neben, 306, 6; 557.
nebst, 303, 12; 555, 2.
nehmen IV., 127; (Wunder), 199, 1.
-ne(n), verb-suffix, 537, 1.
nennen, 119, 1; 455; constr. with, 201; 290, 2; 296, 2; 303, 4.
-ner, 502, 1; indicates masc. gender, 161, 1.
ng, pronunc. of, 17, 383, 1, a; 386, 1.
nicht, nichts, 99; 199, 1, 3; 309, 1; in comparative clauses, 333, 4; 490, 3.
nichts weniger als, 333, 2, a.
niemand, 445, 1.
-nis, 50; 51; forms neuter and fem. nouns, 161, 2, 3; origin of, 503.
nl, pronunc. of, 17; 386, 1.
noch nicht, 354.
nur, 336, 1.

O.

o, pronunc. of, 18; description of, 370, 1, 2; in ablauts, VI., 459, 4; < u, 405, 489, 4; < a, 489, 3.
ob, prepos., 302, 8; conj., 325, 2.
ober-, accent, 422, 7.
oe, as sign of umlaut, 362, 2.
Ohmacht, 489, 3; 516, 10.
ohne, 291, 1, Rem.; 304, 5; in comp., 516, 10.
o-umlaut, see ö.
ö, pronunc. of, 31; description of, 370, 3, 4; ö — e, 489, 1; < a, 489, 4.

P.

p, pronunc. of, 19; description of, 385, 1; Eng. correspondents of, 413, 3; 493, 3.
Palast, 163, 1; 494.
pf, pronunc. of, 19; description of, 389, 1; Eng. correspondents of, 409, 2; 414, 2.
Pfalz, 494.
pfeifen I., 122, 1.
pflegen VIII., 133; 469.
ph, pronunc. of, 19.
preisen I., 122, 2.

Q.

q, pronunc. of, 20; 409, 3.
quellen VIII., 133.
quëman, 409, 3.

R.

r, pronunc. of, 21; 391, 3; description of, 374, 2; 377.
Rabe, 435, 3.
raten VII., 130, 1.
rächen VIII., 133.
reiben I., 123, 2.
-reich, 515, 3, a.
reißen I., 122, 1.
reiten I., 122, 1; + spazieren, 290.
rennen, 119, 1.
-rich, 515, 3.
riechen II., 124, 1.

ringen III., 125, 1.
rinnen III., 125, 2; 457, 2.
Rücken, 413, 4.
rufen VII., 131; constr. after, 196.

S.

ſ, s, pronunc. of, 22–24; 391, 4; description of, 378, 1, 2, 3; in G. sg., 42; in the pl., 60; 67; in compounds, 87; 518, 2.
ſſ < ſt, 412, 2; in Verner's Law, 411, 416; Eng. correspondents of, 414, 1; 417, 5; 490, 2.
-s, noun-suffix, 513; in adverbs, 552.
ſacht, 417, 1.
-ſal, 50, 51; 500, 1; nouns of doubtful gend., 161, 2, 3.
-ſam, 526, 4.
ſanft, 417, 1.
ſaufen II., 124, 1; 463.
ſaugen II., 124, 2.
Säule, 430, 1.
ſch, pronunc. of, 23; description of, 378, 3; 389, 4; Eng. correspondents of, 412, 1; 490, 1; origin of, 490, 1; 514.
-ſch, 514; see -iſch.
ſchaffen VI., 129.
-ſchaft, 515, 4; fem. gender, 161, 2.
ſchallen, 133.
-ſche, 514, a.
ſcheiden I., 122, 2; VII., 131.
ſcheinen I., 122, 2.
ſchellen VIII., 133.
ſchelten III., 125, 3.
-ſchen, in verbs, 539, 2.
ſchieben II., 124, 2.
ſchießen II., 124, 1.
ſchinden III., 125, 1.
ſchlafen VII., 130, 1.
ſchlagen VI., 129.
ſchleichen I., 122, 1.
ſchleifen I., 122, 1.
ſchleißen I., 122, 1.
ſchliefen II., 124, 2.
ſchließen II., 124, 2.
ſchlinden III., 125, 1.
ſchlingen III., 125, 1.
ſchmeißen I., 122, 1.
ſchmelzen VIII., 133.
ſchnauben II., 124, 2.
ſchneiden I., 122, 1; 462.
ſchrauben II., 124, 2.
ſchreiben I., 122, 2.
ſchreien I., 122, 2.
ſchreiten I., 122, 1.
ſchweigen I., 122, 2.
Schwein, 502, 2.
ſchwinden III., 125, 1.
ſchwingen III., 125, 1.
ſchwimmen III., 125, 2; 464.
ſchwören VI., 129; 132; 457, 1.
Se-, 311, 2.
ſehen V., 128, 1; instead of geſehen, 108, 1; +inf., 290, 3; 410, 3; 411.
ſein, poss. pron., 85; not referring to subject, 242, 1; 243, 2; referring to indefinite subject, 98; seemingly for ihr, 243, 2.
ſein, infl. of, 110; 473, 1; in comp. tenses, 266, 283, 1-3; in passive, 273; + inf., 290, 3, a; +past part., 296, 2; +pres. part., 274, 6.
-ſel, 46, 1; 500, 1; mostly neut. gend., 161, 3.
ſelb-, ſelbſt, 91, 2; before numerals, 229, 1; 530; strengthens reflexive pron., 237, 2; use of, 249.
ſelbig, 248, 2.
-ſelig, 528, 2, a.
-ſen, in verbs, 539, 1.
ſenden, 119, 1; 455, 1.
ſich, 83; supplants personal pron., 237, 1; 243, 3, Rem.; position of, 353, c.
Sie, in address, 230, 2; 233.
ſieden, II., 124; 463.
Sin-, 494, 3.
ſingen III., 125, 1.
ſinken III., 125, 1.
ſinnen III., 125, 2.
ſitzen V., 128, 2; 457, 1.
ſo, relative adverb, 257; = wenn, 340; + ein, 250, 2; 333, 3.
ſolch, 91, 3; 443, 1; force of, 250; with ein, 144, 157; 333, 3.
ſollen, 135, 5; 471, 2, 4; force of, 267, 7; 279, 3; 283, 2, 5.
ſonder, 304, 6; 551, 3.
ſondern, 320, 2, Rem.; 551, 3.
ſonſt, 320; 551, 2; 551, 3.
ſp, pronunc. of, 24; 378, 3; 389, 4; 391, 1; Eng. correspondents of, 412, 1
ſpähen, 494.
ſpeien I., 122, 2.
ſpinnen III., 125, 2.
ſpleißen I., 122, 1.
ſprechen IV., 127.
ſprießen II., 124, 1.
ſpringen III., 125, 1.
ſt, pronunc. of, 24; 378, 3; 389, 4; 391, 1; Eng. correspondents of, 412.
-ſt, superl. suffix, 73; 438, 1; in ordinals, 80; 530; in nouns, 513, 3.
Stadt, 430, 1, a.
ſtechen IV., 127; 457, 2; 465, 1.
ſtehen VI., 129; 136, 2; 475.
ſtehlen IV., 127; 465.
ſteigen I., 122, 2.
ſteinreich, 422, 4.
ſterben III., 125, 3.
ſtieben II., 124, 2.
ſtinken III., 125, 1.
ſtoßen VII., 131; 458, 2.
ſtreichen I., 122, 1.
"strong," 428, 3.
ſtund, pret., 129; 136, 2.
-ſtund, 531, 2.
Stute, 430, 1.
Sucht, 396.
-ſüchtig, 528, 2, b.
Sündflut, 494, 3.
ß, pronunc. of, 22; 35.

T.

t, pronunc. of, 35; see th; Eng. correspondents of, 408, 1; 412; 413, 1; 414, 1; description of, 384, 1; in þ, 389, 3, 4; excrescent, 87; 91, 2; 491, 2; 512, 2, 3; stops into spirants before, 413.
-t, noun-suffix, 512; fem. gend., 161, 2; 163, 5.
-t, in the participle of weak verbs, 453.
-t, 2. pers. sg. in pret.-pres. verbs, 470, 2.
taugen, 471, 5.
Tausend, 226; 529, 2.
-te, suffix in ordinals, 80; 530.
-te, in pret., 117; 454, 1.
-tel, 532, 2.
-ter, noun-suffix, 508.
th, pronunc. of, 125; origin of, 363, 3; 384, 1.
that, 274, 6; 290; 476, 2.
Thor, 162; 408, 1.
thun, 136, 3; 454, 1; 476; as an auxil., 274, 6; 290, 1.
Thür, 408, 1.
tragen VI., 129.
treffen IV., 127.
treiben I., 122, 2.
treten V., 128, 1.
triefen II., 124, 1; 463.
triegen II., 133.
trinken III., 124, 1.
-trunken, 528.
trügen II., 124, 2; 132.
-tum, noun-suffix, 57, 4; mostly neut. gend., 161, 3; origin of, 501; 515, 5.
þ, pronunc. of, 389, 3; 414, 1; see ð.

U.

u, pronunc. of, 26; description of, 368, 1, 2; < uo, 488, 4; u — o, 405; +*nasalis* and *liquida sonans*, 459, 3.
ue, as sign of umlaut, 362, 2.
um, 291, 1, 4, Rem.; 304, 7; in comp. verbs, 549, 4.
un-, accent, 422, 6; 516, 10.
-ung, 506, 2; fem. gender, 161, 2.
unsrer for unser (G. pl.), 82.
unter, 306, 8, 10; in comp. verbs, 549, 5.
Unterschied, 458, 3.
Ur-, 516, 9.
Urbar, 526, 1.
u-umlaut, see û.
û, pronunc. of, 31; sign of umlaut, 362, 2; 368, 4; description of, 367; 368, 3, 4; < ûe, 488, 4; û — i, 489, 2.
über, 306, 7; in comp. verbs, 549, 3.

V.

v, pronunc. of, 27; 380, 1, 2; see f; 415, 1.
Vater, 411; 478, 4.
ver-, 516, 11; 545; in certain participles, 295, 2; 545, Rem.
verderben III., 125, 3.
verdrießen II., 124, 1.
vergessen V., 128, 1; past part. in comp., 295, 2, *a*.
verliegen, past part., 524, 4.
verlieren II., 124, 2; 416.
verwirren VIII., 133.
verworren VIII., 133.
Vieh, 410, 3.
viel, comparison of, 76, 1; 100; 199, 1, 2; 263.
voll-, 549, 6.
voller, 219, 1.
vollko'mmen, 421, 1.
von, 303, 15; 306, 7, Rem.
vor, 306, 9; 516, 5.
vorder, 76, 2.

W.

w, pronunc. of, 28; description of, 379; 380, 2; loss of, 417, 2; Eng. correspondents of, 410, 3; 415, 2; 490, 6.
wachsen VI., 129.
Wagen, 494, 1.
war, see *wesan* and sein.
ward, pret. of werden, 111, 2.
warum, 251, 4; 551, 2.
was, interrog. pron., 92; 444; use of, 251; + G., 251, 1; preceded by zu, mit, 251, 3; with für and ein, 253; force of warum, 251, 4; relat. pron., 93; 256; 256, 2; indef. pron., 96; 204; 260.
was < *wesan*, 466, 1.
waschen VI., 129; 412.
wägen VIII., 133.
-wärts, 553.
"weak," 428, 3.
weben VIII., 133.
weder, 444, 3.
-wegen, in comp. with pronouns, 87; prepos., 302, 18.
Weib, 166.
weichen I., 122, 1.
weil, 330, 1; 337.
weisen I., 122, 2.
welch, interrog. pron., 92, 2; 444, 2; with ein, 144; 252; relat. pron., 93, 2; 255, 256; indef. pron., 96, 260.
wetz, see wissen.
wenden, 119, 1.
wer, interrog. pron., 92; 251; 410, 3; 444; relat. pron., 93, 3; 254; 256; indef. pron., 96; 254; 260.
werden III., 125, 3.
werden III., infl. of, 110; 111, 2; 460, 1; in passive, 273; in comp. tenses, 283, 2-5.
werfen III., 125, 3.
wes, wessen, 87; 92, 1; 256, 4.
wesen, *wesan* V., 128, 5; 411; 466.
wider, 304, 8; 549, 7.

wie, 444, 1; in compar. clauses, 333; after comparative, 333, 2.
wieder, 549, 8.
wiegen VIII., 133.
willen, in compos. with pron., 87; prepos., 302, 14.
winden III., 125, 1.
wiſſen, 135, 1; 412, 2; 471, 1; 472, 1.
wo(r), supplants cases of interrog., and relat. pron., 251, 2; in local clauses, 331; origin of, 490, 3.
wohl, pronunc. of, 381; 489, 1.
wollen, 135, 7; 472, 2; special force of, 267, 6; 279, 3; 283, 5.
worden, past part., 108, 5.
Wunder, see nehmen.
wurde, 111, 2.

X.

x, pronunc. of, 29; 389, 2; 417, 5, *a*.

Y.

y, pronunc. of, 31.

Z.

z, pronunc. of, 30; 389, 3, 4; Eng. correspondents of, 409, 1; 414, 1; 490, 2.
Zahn, 409, 1.
zeihen I., 122, 2; 395; 462.
-zen, in verbs, 539, 3.
zer-, 546.
ziehen II., 122, 2; 416.
-zig, 529, 1.
zittern, 457, 3.
zu, 303, 16; before inf., 291; before an adjective, 291, 4; 333, 3.
Zunft, 398.
zwar, 555, 3.
zween, 79; 529.
zwei, infl. of, 78; form and gender of, 79; 529.
zwelf, 529; 489, 1.
zwie-, 520, 1; 531, 1.
zwingen III., 125, 1.
zwiſchen, 306, 10.
zwo, 79; 529.

ȝ, Grimm's sign, 414; > s, 490, 2.