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# THE <br> SCIENCE OF ETYMOLOGY 

BY THE<br>REV. WALTER W. SKEAT, Litt.D.<br>LL.D., D.C.L., PH.D., F.B.A.<br>ELRINGTON AND BOSWORTH PROFESSOR OF ANGLO-SAXON<br>IN THE UNIVERSITY OF CAMBRIDGE<br>AND FELLOW OF CHRIST'S COLLEGE

'Whoever devotes himself to the study of so comprehensive a science must try never to lose sight of two virtues: conscientiousness and modesty.'-Max Müller, Selected Essays, $188 \mathbf{1}$; i. 199.

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## PREFACE

The object of the present volume is to draw attention to some of the principles that should guide the student of etymology in general, and of English etymology particularly; in order that any one who employs an etymological dictionary may be able to do so with some degree of intelligence and to some profit. It is much easier to accomplish this at the present date than it was some ten or twenty years ago. The steady progress of the New English Dictionary furnishes us with innumerable and indisputable instances of the actual usages of English words, so that the mistakes which formerly arose from a very imperfect knowledge of their history have largely been corrected, and much that was once obscure has been made plain. Meanwhile, the great gains that have resulted from the scientific study of comparative philology as applied to the Indo-germanic languages have been properly formulated and tabulated, to the explosion and exclusion of many hasty inferences that were both misleading and mischievous. It is now possible to introduce science where once there was little but guesswork.

Such science is founded, as all science should be, upon the careful observation of the effects of well-ascertained laws, which have been laboriously evolved from the comparison of innumerable forms of words in many languages. A large number of such laws can now be positively and safely relied upon, because they rest upon the sure foundations of a careful study of phonetics. This study enables us to concern ourselves with something that is far more valuable than written forms, viz. the actual sounds which the symbols employed in various languages actually represent. The most important
of these languages is Latin, because the Latin alphabet has been so widely adopted. Hence it is that all serious attempts to assimilate the lessons and results which have been secured by the strenuous labours of modern philologists must needs begin with a knowledge of the sounds which the Latin symbols denoted in the first century. The first requisite is, in a word, the correct pronunciation of classical Latin, and the lesson is simple and easy enough. When once acquired, there is very little more to be learnt in order to understand the pronunciation of Anglo-Saxon, and the remarkably musical sounds of the Middle-English period, especially as employed by Chaucer, who was as great a master of melody as the famous Dante.

A sufficient knowledge of the Chaucerian pronunciation will then afford some guide to the more difficult and somewhat uncertain pronunciation of Tudor English; from which we may reasonably hope to glean some of the reasons why we spell many words as we do. Most of our modern spelling, except in the rather numerous instances where meddling pedants have ignorantly and mischievously distorted it, rests upon the spoken sounds used in the time of our great dramatists by the best actors of that period.

The indifferent attitude assumed by the millions of English speakers with regard to the obviously important subject of spelling can only be accounted for by their almost universal ignorance of the subject. Not ten (or even less) in a million of English speakers recognize the fact that our spelling was, once at least, founded on phonetic laws, and that the object of our ancestors was not, as many suppose, to write in accordance with ' etymology'-except when it was too obvious to be missed-but to represent the sounds of the spoken words. And of course, the 'etymological' spelling of Latin words was really based upon spoken sounds also; so that the reverence paid to Latin writen forms only carries us back to the phonetics of an earlier period, and furnishes one more
argument for teaching every child what the Latin symbols implied. The strenuous attempts that are but too often made to evade this plain duty are deplorable for the pupil, and discreditable to the teacher.

Perhaps I may here usefully introduce a practical suggestion, viz. that the reader who comes across a word in this book which he does not know how to pronounce is more likely to approximate to its true sound by pronouncing it as Latin than as modern English.

It is, in fact, a very grave reproach to all who speak the English language and employ its present spelling, that they will neither, on the one hand, admit of any improvements, nor, on the other, make the slightest attempt to understand the forms to which they cling. How, for example, have we come to employ such a symbol as ou to represent the sound of the ou in house? I purposely select this as being a question that admits of a fairly easy answer.

The word house is one of immense and incalculable antiquity. The early Teutonic form was $\bar{h} \bar{u}$, pronounced with a voiceless $s$, as at present, and with the Latin long $\bar{u}$, as in L. and Ital. lüna. We might spell it, phonetically, huus, denoting the length of the $u$ by repeating the symbol ; but our ancestors simply adopted the Roman $u$, and sometimes (by no means always) put a slanting stroke over it to denote vowel-length; in which case it appeared as hus, or else (without the stroke) as hus; which was also the spelling in Norse and in Old High German, and remains to this day in Swedish. The sound of the $\bar{u}$ was preserved till long after the Norman Conquest, and the spelling hus persisted till at least 1250 ; see the quotations in the N.E.D. Indeed the sound remained unaltered till very much later, and may be heard in the North to this day. But in the days of Edward I, the Norman scribes were extremely busy with their self-imposed task of editing and respelling the English language, which they studied with remarkable intelligence and zeal. They per-
ceived that the form hus was indefinite; there was nothing to show whether the $u$ was short or long; and they had decided (except in the case of $i$ ) to abandon the A.S. method of using a sloping mark above a vowel. They reserved the $u$ for the short sound, as in full, full, pullen, to pull; and then they cast about for a symbol for the long sound. The most obvious symbol was $u u$, but this was open to the practical objection that it consisted of four consecutive downstrokes, and was liable to be indistinct ; it might be read as $u u$, or $u n$, or $n u$, or even as $i m$ or $m i$, if the $i$ was not clearly marked with the sloping stroke which they frequently retained (from A. S.) for that purpose. Moreover, in words like the A. S. dún, a down, a hill, the matter was still worse ; they would have to write duun, which would be easily mistaken for dunu or dunn. In this dilemma, they naturally adopted the French symbol $o u$; and I pause for a moment to notice how characteristic this symbol is of French usage. It not only occurs, over and over again, in English words as spelt by Norman scribes, and in French itself, but even in such words of comparatively late introduction into English as soup, group, rouge, roulette, routine, tour, trousseau, \&c. And wherever else it occurs, it is still French. Thus caoutchouc and toucan are French spellings of Brazilian words; tourmaline, of a Cingalese one; patchouli, of an Indian one; marabout, of an Arabic one ; and so on.

Moreover, when the Norman respelt hus as hous, he only altered the symbol. The sound remained the same as ever, until the day came when every Middle English word written with $o u$ acquired a new sound, and changed imperceptibly, through infinitely small gradations, till it acquired the sound which it now usually has in the standard speech, a sound which has not been altered for some time past. We may hope that it will be permanent; but it is a simple fact that East Anglia influences the speech of London, and even the speech of the empire. I say no more.

We now know, accordingly, the whole story of house. ${ }^{1}$ The $o u$ really meant $\bar{u}$, and was adopted solely for phonetic and graphic reasons; but the pronunciation has since changed. The same explanation applies to the A.S. thū, thou ; $\bar{u} r e$, our ; sūr, sour ; fūl, foul ; sūth, south; mūth, mouth; lūs, louse; mūs, mouse; thüsend, thousand; $\bar{u} t$, out; lùtan, to lout (bow down) ; clūt, clout ; abūtan, about ; prūt, proud; $h l \bar{u} d$, loud; scrūd, shroud. But at the end of a word the scribes often wrote ow; hence we have $h \bar{u}$, how; $n \bar{u}$, now; $c \bar{u}$, cow ; brū, brow; būgan, to bow. Or they wrote own for oun, for distinctness; as in tūn, town; brūn, brown; dūn, down. Also (but at a later date) ower for our ; as in scuir, shower; būr, bower. In the A.S. un-cūth, E. uncouth, the old sound of the ou remains to this day.

By similar processes, the reader who has any regard for his native language may learn many things regarding spelling that are of high interest and value, and he may easily discover the solutions of such simple problems as the following, viz. why oak is spelt with oa, whilst broke has $o$; why sea differs from see; why modern English does not permit a $v$ to end a word (except Slav), but insists upon have, love, which are not distinguished, as to their vowel-sounds, from brave and grove; why height is written for hight, and eye for ie or ye or $y$ (all once admissible); why the German binden has a short $i$, whereas the English bind has a long diphthong; with innumerable other problems of a like kind. Perhaps it is worth while to add that the only safe guide to modern English grammar is Sweet's Anglo-Saxon Primer, supplemented by a moderate knowledge of the habits of Middle English.

The study of comparative etymology has, in fact, during the last thirty or forty years, made such great advances that the subject is already almost too vast to be fully compre-
${ }^{1}$ All but the final $e$. The M.E. form was hous; but at a later period a final $e$ was added, to assimilate the final -se to the final -ce in many words of French origin, such as silence, offence, and the like.
hended ; indeed, the only book that deals efficiently with all the Indo-germanic languages is the Comparative Grammar by Brugmann. And even this does not contain all that is required for the study of English; we further require books by experts in their particular departments, such as the AngloSaxon Grammar by Sievers, or the Old English Grammar by Wright, the Historical French Grammar by Toynbee, and very many more; seeing that, at every turn, we require exact particulars as to the operation of special phonetic laws. The object of the present volume is merely to point out some of these particulars, and to indicate some modes of solution; so that the student who actually undertakes to consult the various standard books may have some previous useful information, whilst those who are content to take etymologies on trust from good authorities may at least have some general notion as to what is being done.

In order to give greater unity to the results here indicated, I consider them all from an English point of view. My exact inquiry is, accordingly, how does this or that result illustrate or admit of comparison with modern English?

I begin, accordingly, by considering some general principles and useful Canons, as in Chapters I and II. In Chapter III, I deal with Romanic types, and the forms which they assume in the various Romance languages, and I give a few examples of Romance etymologies in Chapter IV. In Chapter V, I deal with old Teutonic types, and the resulting forms in various Teutonic languages. In Chapter VI, I consider the still wider subject of Indo-germanic types, with particular reference to such English words as are of native origin; followed, in Chapter VII, by particular examples in which English throws a valuable light upon other languages; for, indeed, it is high time that we should be awake to some sense of its great importance. Chapter VIII is chiefly occupied with examples of 'false analogy', by way of caution as to the snares that await the heedless. Chapter IX is meant to
remind us of the important Low German and Scandinavian words which we have borrowed to supplement those of native origin.

Chapter X contains an attempt to show the value of the Celtic languages, and to enumerate the most important of the Celtic words that are cognate with English.

Chapter XI deals, similarly, with Lithuanian and Slavonic, and Chapter XII with Armenian, Albanian, and Persian ; in order that the reader may gain at least a few useful general notions as to the kind of help which we may expect from consulting them, and as to their nature. Chapter XIII institutes a comparison between English and Sanskrit.

Chapter XIV, which I call A Philological Ramble, is, purposely, of a somewhat desultory character, and is meant to illustrate some of the ways in which the various Indogermanic languages throw light upon each other, and to show how many really valuable lessons can be drawn from considering even a single English word from various points of view.

Chapter XV contains a list of some of the more important English words that have cognate forms in several other languages, and must therefore be considered as being of an extraordinary and unknown antiquity. Nearly all are of the highest interest, and the various forms which they assume, according to the language which employs them, are of very great importance from a phonetic point of view. Each language has its own ways and peculiarities, and we can here quite easily compare them.

In Chapter XVI I give a few general results, and make a particular comparison between English and Hindi, in order to show explicitly that many words exist to this day in modern India, which have a common origin with words in use in modern England.

The attempt to explore, for purely etymological purposes, several languages with which my acquaintance is necessarily
slight, such as Irish, Lithuanian, Slavonic, and the rest, may seem to many to imply rashness; but it is rather in appearance than reality. For all my illustrations, without exception, are fairly well known, and are merely repeated from others who have given them already. I trust that I have nowhere advanced anything that is new, but only such things as are vouched for by experts who can be trusted. With very slight modification of language, I can say, like the immortal Chaucer when writing the preface to his treatise on the Astro-labe-' Considere wel, that I ne usurpe nat to have founde this werk of my labour or of myn engin; I nam but a compilatour of the labour of others, and have compiled it in myn English only for thy doctrine; and with this swerd shal I sleen envye.'

Moreover, I have been so fortunate as to obtain some assistance from masters of their subjects. Mr. Quiggin, Fellow of Gonville and Caius College, has been so good as to read my proofs of Chapter X, which treats of the Celtic languages. My account of Persian has been perused by Professor Browne, and my account of Sanskrit by Professor Rapson; and to all of these I am heartily obliged, though their attention was chiefly directed to the correction of obvious mistakes in spelling and the like, as the proofs were already in an advanced state before I submitted them. This of course implies that the responsibility is rather mine than theirs, and all blame for errors must fall solely upon myself.

My good friends, Mr. Henry Bradley, and the Rev. A. L. Mayhew, have kindly read the proof-sheets throughout, and made many useful suggestions. The interest which they have taken in the work has been a great encouragement.

For the Index of Words, which I have carefully revised, I am indebted to my daughter, Clara L. Skeat.

Cambridge, Jan. io, 1912.

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## ABBREVIATIONS AND SIGNS

A. F.-Anglo-French. Alb.-Albanian. Arm.-Armenian. A.S.-Anglo-Saxon. Av.-Avestic. Bret.-Breton. Corn.-Cornish. Dan.-Danish. Du.-Dutch. E.-English. F.-French. G.German. Gael.-Gaelic. Gk.-Greek. Goth.-Gothic. Icel.-Icelandic. Idg.-Indo-germanic. Ital.-Italian. L.-Latin. Lith.Lithuanian. Low G.-Low German. M. E.-Middle English. N. E. D. - New English Dictionary. O.-Old. O. F.-Old French. O. H. G.-Old High German. O. Ir.-Old Irish. O. Merc.-Old Mercian. O. N.-Old Norse. O. Pers.-Old Persian. O. Pruss.-Old Prussian. O. Sax.-Old Saxon. O.Slav.-Old Slavonic. Pers,Persian. Pol.-Polish. Port.-Portuguese. Russ.-Russian. Skt.Sanskrit. Span.-Spanish. Swed.-Swedish. Teut.-Teutonic. W.-Welsh.

* prefixed to a word indicates that it is a theoretical form, evolved according to known principles of development. It is chiefly used to denote primitive Romance, Teutonic, and Indo-germanic types.

Note on Indo-germanic gutturals. These are denoted in Walde by the following symbols. Palatals: $\hat{k} \hat{g} \hat{g} h$. Velars (without labialization): $q g^{g} g h$. Velars (with labialization): $q^{u} g^{\prime 2} g^{n} h$. For these I substitute the following, as being easier to write and print. Palatals: $k g g h$. Velars (without labialization): $q g(w) g(w) h$. Velars (with labialization): qw gw gwh.

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## CHAPTER I

## SOME GENERAL PRINCIPLES

§ 1. It must be very difficult for the general public to appreciate, or even to ascertain, the great advances that have been made of late years in the study of etymology. The methods now adopted have so entirely changed the aspect of the subject, that what used to be a matter of guesswork or arbitrary suggestion has been largely reduced to law and order. Etymology depends no longer upon barefaced and irresponsible assertion, but has been raised to the dignity of a science.
§ 2. The attitude of the public with regard to etymology, in the former half of the nineteenth century, was so extremely unintelligent that it would almost pass belief, were it not for the lamentable fact that similar notions still prevail to a deplorable extent. The prevalent idea was to set up some standard authority, which was usually Dr. Johnson's Dictionary, and to believe without question whatever happened to be there asserted. It was even esteemed an act of impiety to question his decisions. This is how the ridiculous derivation of beef-eater (which after all is merely derived, as the N.E.D. shows, from beef and eat), viz. from a wholly imaginary French form beaufetier, came into vogue, and was received with a tenacious reverence which admitted of no misgiving. Not to know this 'derivation' was considered as a note of ignorance; and to dare to doubt it was to incur pitying contempt. Chapter XXV of my Principles of English Etymology, Second Series, is entirely devoted to 'Some False

Etymologies'; and I there record quite a large number of puerilities of this character, which need not be here recounted. Some of these were actually put forward in the revered name of science. I remember, for instance, a time when some botanical 'authority' drew attention to the fact that harebell is a false name, because it should rather be called hairbell, with reference to the hair-like stem from which the bell depends. ${ }^{1}$ Surely science ought to refrain most carefully from the circulation of falsehood; the name was never meant to be scientific, but may rather be considered as expressing a natural inclination on the part of our forefathers to associate plants with the names of animals; I give some sixty examples of this habit at pp. 391-2 of $A$ Student's Pastime. This is by no means a solitary example of the harm done by the meddlesomeness of conceit. Another example occurs in the case of fox-glove (A.S. foxes glöfa, lit. fox's glove), which some wiseacre opined ought to be 'folks' glove', with reference to the 'little folks' or fairies. As far as I can discover, this notion was first put forward by Mr. Fox Talbot, who wrote a book on Etymologies in 1851 ; and I am told that there are some who admire the name, because it is 'so poetical'. But this does not alter the fact that it is entirely false. And, as the great aim of the present treatise is to inculcate sound principles, I am anxious to begin with the statement that the business of the student of language is to ascertain what were the actual forms of names in olden times, and not to be wise above what is written by inventing names which our forefathers ought to have employed. The philologist is not concerned with what ought to have been said; his business is to pursue strictly historical methods. It would be strange indeed if we were to extend similar methods to history; as, for instance, by asserting that

[^0]Anne Boleyn was never beheaded, because she ought not to have been. It must have been Henry VIII who suffered, as having better deserved such a fate.
§ 3. The fox-hunter does not content himself by guessing where the fox might be or ought to be; but employs his hounds to investigate his prey's exact position. Similarly, all etymology really depends upon thorough and careful search. In the case of difficult words, it may easily happen that, after all apparent sources of information have been exhausted in vain, a new fact or quotation may suddenly present itself, by which the solution is surely indicated. By taking care to be constantly on the look-out for this possibility of the occurrence of fresh evidence, and by waiting patiently till it appeared, I have been successful in discovering a considerable number of etymologies that were previously unknown. I give by way of example, the etymology of the interesting word Carfax, well known at Oxford as applied to a spot where four streets meet. The guide-books were once in the habit of informing the stranger that this curious word was derived either from the French quatre voies, 'four ways,' Lat. acc. pl. quatuor uias; or else from the French quatre faces, 'four faces.' Both these results are manifestly unsatisfactory; since neither -oies nor -aces could produce a final $-x$; neither are the phrases in question likely expressions to be used for the purpose. But in 1866 I was engaged in editing The Romance of Partenay for the Early English Text Society, and on coming to 1. 1819 of this poem, I found the expression-'No place ther had, neither carfoukes non But peple shold se ther come many one'; the sense being that 'there was no place there, nor any meeting of crossroads but people saw them well thronged'. Here is the form carfoukes, which agrees sufficiently well with carfox, an occasional old spelling of Carfax. Blount's Glossographia, ed. 1681, has:-'Carefox or Carfax, a Market-place in Oxford, so called.' This Romance of Partenay is translated
from the French; and on turning to the French original, I found:-'Lieu ny avoit ne carrefourg',' which at once gave the clue. Carfax, of which older forms are carfox and carfoukes, obviously represents the O.F. plural carrefourcs, later carrefourgs, from the popular Latin quadrifurcus, ' a place where there are four forks.' It is the right French word to the present day, though now reduced to the form carrefour. The final $x$ is now explained; it simply represents the O.F. cs. The solution, when once obtained, is obvious enough ; it was adopted in Wedgwood's Etymological Dictionary in 1878 , and is now common property. There is an excellent article on Carfax in the N.E. D., where Sir James Murray shows that Phillips, in 1662 , gave the explanation: 'Carefox, quasi quatrefour'; which fails to explain the $x$. But he was on the right track.
§ 4. My next example is intended to illustrate another point altogether, viz. the necessity of verification. It is seldom safe to accept an etymology that does not explain the sense of the word as well as the form ; and it has to be remembered that our older Dictionaries cannot always be trusted; they sometimes even assert the existence of forms that are wholly fictitious. Scientific principles demand that alleged facts should be tested wherever practicable; and nowhere is such scrutiny more necessary than in the establishment of an etymology. A good instance occurs in the case of the poetical word cark, which is used as a sb. by Spenser and as a verb by Tennyson. The former has :-
-' and downe did lay
His heavie head, devoide of careful carke'.-F.Q.i. I. 44.
And the latter:-‘Thee nor carketh care nor slander'; $A$ Dirge, l. 8, He probably took it to mean 'fretteth ; which is not quite correct.

Dr. Johnson, following Skinner, derived cark from the A. S. carc, sb., and cearcian, verb. Both are entirely wrong,
but for different reasons. As for the sb., it is wholly fictitious, and probably owed its existence to the very word which it professes to explain. Somner's A. S. Dictionary has: ' carc, care, becarcan, to carke or care for, to take care of.' But both words are unknown, and will remain so until some one produces a quotation in which they occur, which does not seem to have been done as yet. Even then, the difficulty as to the sense remains; cark has nothing to do with the sense of 'taking care of', but is only equivalent (or nearly so) to care when it has the sense of 'anxiety', if a sb.; or of 'to fill with care, to vex', if a verb. Once more, there is indeed such a verb as the A.S. cearcian, but it means 'to creak', or 'to make a disagreeable noise'; it passed, in fact, into the form chark, and Wyclif has the expression 'as a wayn charkith', where the Vulgate version of Amos ii. I3 has 'sicut stridet plaustrum '. It is obvious that this chark has nothing whatever to do with cark. Thus a little research soon shows that there is no pretence for assuming that there ever was any A.S. sb. or verb that has anything to do with cark. It is something to find that a way is positively blocked up, because this suggests trying to find another way out.
§ 5. Accordingly, in the first edition of my Etymological Dictionary, in 1882, I gave, in the Supplement, a conjectural derivation of cark from the Welsh carc, explained in Spurrell's Dictionary by 'care, solicitude'. Unfortunately, this is open to the grave objection that the derivation runs the other way ; for it was shown by Professor Rhys that Welsh contains a rather large number of words that were borrowed from Middle English ; and this W. carc is merely the English word done into Welsh spelling. Here, then, the way is again blocked up; and a new solution must be found. But one day, whilst examining the valuable work known as the Liber Albus, which was written in London and contains records of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, my attention was caught by the occurrence, at p. 224, of the word kark (or karke) no
less than thirty-one times, in the sense of 'a load' or 'large quantity', with reference to pepper, sugar, cummin, almonds, \&c.; whereas, on p. 225 , the same thing was expressed, twenty-one times, by la charge. Both pages are written in Anglo-French. The right solution is, accordingly, that cark is from the Old Northern French (or Norman) karke or carke, which is the exact equivalent, in that dialect, of the usual F. charge, a load, a burden. Spenser, accordingly, speaks of a man's head being free from the anxious burden of thought, and Tennyson's expression gains if we understand it to allude to one to whom neither anxiety nor slander is a burden. Both sound and sense are now accounted for. I published this result in 1884, in the second edition of my Dictionary, and it has been generally accepted. The usual sense of cark is a load or burden of care.
§ 6. The investigation of the history of cark has landed us in a question which deserves a further search, viz. the question of varying dialects. The Norman karke and the Parisian charge are doublets, i.e. varying forms of the same word. Both are verbal substantives, from the Late Lat. carricāre, to carry, to transport in a car, used by St. Jerome, and ultimately due to Lat. carrus, a car, primarily of Celtic origin. This Late Lat. verb was actually developed in three different ways. Sometimes it was contracted to carcäre, whence the North. F. kerkier, querquier (see the Supp. to Godefroy, s. v. charger) and the E. cark. Another derivative was the O.F. chargier, F. charger, to load (a car); whence E. charge. A third derivative was made by dropping the second $c$, giving carri'äre, whence the O. F. carier, charier, and the E. carry. The variation between the O. North. F. ca, and the O.F. (i.e. Old Central French) cha, both used initially in place of a Lat. ca, is very striking; and it is worth while to look round to find other examples. The modern Picard is a Northern F. dialect, closely allied to Norman, and abounds with examples. See Corblet's Glossaire
(1851), which has cabre, cabe, cape, a goat, F. chèvre; caboche, a great head (cf. F. chef), which is the origin of E. cabbage, orig. ' a head of cabbage', a word that is obviously of Picard origin; cacun, F. chacun; caine, cagne, a chain, F. chaîne, from L. catēna; cair, F. cher, from L. cārus, dear; caleur, F. chaleur, from L. acc. calōrem, heat, \&c. In all these cases Picard is nearer to Latin than the Parisian is. Much more important to us are the Picard or Norman forms that have found their way into English; such as the difficult verb to catch. Many Latin words were curiously altered as the centuries went by; so that, e. g., the Lat. caplāre, to try to catch, to chase, was turned into captiäre, which regularly became cachier or cacher in North. F., but chacier in O.F. elsewhere. From cachier we have borrowed the form to catch; but from chacier, the form to chase. Chacier, in French, is now spelt chasser, with the same sense. There are many more examples in which English similarly prefers the North. F. ca- to the F. cha-; it may suffice to mention caitiff, from O. North. F. caitif, Lat. captīuus, a prisoner, a wretch; not from O.F. chaitif (F. chétif). So also calumet, a pipe, is a Norman form, as distinguished from the F. chaume, a straw (hence, a pipe), which has given us the word shawm; both are from L. calamus, a reed. The capital of a pillar is a Northern form, as distinguished from chapiter, with the same sense; and the chapter of a book is a mere doublet of the latter. Car, as already mentioned, is related to the F. char, a car. Carnage is allied to the F. chair, flesh; and carrion is a doublet of the F. charogne, a carcase; all from the Lat. caro, flesh. The Lat. capsa, a chest, a box, is represented by the O. North. F. casse, E. case, and by F. châsse; and further, by the Ital. cassa, a chest, a cash-box, whence M. F. (Middle French) casse, 'a box, case, or chest . . . also a merchant's cash or counter,' Cotgrave; which we adopted, in the form cash, to mean a till for keeping money in; but it now means the money itself. Castle, O. North. F. castel, is a
doublet of chateau. To cater once meant to act as a cater or catour, a buyer, a provider, which is a docked form of the M. E. and O. North. F. acatour, from the O. North. F. acater, to buy; but the F. verb. is acheter. A caterpillar is the equivalent of the modern Norman dialectal form catepleuse, with the same sense; the literal sense of the latter is 'hairy she-cat', since cate is a fem. form allied to F. chat; and pleuse (for peleuse) is from the L. pilösus, hairy. The most striking example is cattle, O. North. F. catel, O. F. chatel, L. capitāle, lit. 'capital, property'; for we actually also employ the plural chattels. A kennel, in the sense of gutter, represents the A.F. (Anglo-French) canel; but the O.F. form was chanel, which is our channel, and there is yet a third form, viz. canal, which is very close to the Lat. canälis. The kennel for a dog is from Norman ken (cf. Picard kien), the equivalent of F. chien; the Late Lat. canile is explained as meaning 'domus canis' in a glossary. Norman also had the diminutive kenet, a little dog, which is also found in Mid. English. The last form I shall mention is the odd word cause-way, shortened from the older form causey-way; here causey is due to a North. F. caucié, O. F. chaucié, mod. F. chaussée, one meaning of which, according to Cotgrave, is ' the causey, bank, or dam of a pond or of a river'.

Observe how all these results depend upon the simple fact that Norman has ca-, ke-, where Parisian has cha-, chie-; when once a law is perceived, the rest is easy.
§ 7. The preceding examples have been mentioned merely to give an idea of the nature of some of the problems with which the philologist has to deal ; and it has already been suggested that his work must be conducted, not casually or by guess, but in accordance with fixed laws, due to careful deductions from actual observation. This prepares the way for considering the general principles upon which all etymological work must be conducted. In dealing with a given word, the usual course is to trace the history of its varying
forms from age to age ; and, as we frequently do not know what the original form of the word really was, we usually have to begin with the known, i.e. the modern, form, and trace its history backwards. If we can succeed in doing this so as to arrive at a form which is well known, and can be accepted as its original without further doubt, the end of the task is reached; and it will in such a case be quite easy to reverse the process, and trace its history downwards from the primitive type to the form with which we are all familiar. This is called the historical method, and depends for its success upon the completeness and the perspicuity of the word's records. In the case of terms derived more or less immediately from Latin and Greek, this can often be done easily enough, by any one who has learnt something of the structure of those languages. What are called 'learned words', i.e. words due to Latin or Greek scholars, who have introduced them into English as the result of their own reading, are usually transparent enough, and present but little difficulty. A very moderate acquaintance with Latin will solve such words as aberration, accumulation, or agriculture; and a little Greek will enable the student to understand the sense of amphibious and anthropology. It not unfrequently happens that the longest words are the easiest to account for. As to the large number of words of Latin origin which are current in modern English, see the long list in my Etymological Dictionary (1910), at pp. $766-8$, filling four long columns in rather small print; and note that many of these are primary words from which other derivatives can be formed; as, for example, the word describe, from which descriptive and description can be deduced.
§ 8. The ease with which such words as description or symptom can be accounted for is often, in practice, a subtle snare. The man who has received a 'classical education' is only too apt to conceive the erroneous idea that, in the matter of etymology, he has little or nothing to learn. He
may even be tempted to believe that words of native origin are of slight value, which is at once undiscerning and absurd, since they form the backbone of our language, and, as such masters of English as Tennyson and Bright fully realized, supply it with its chief strength and vigour. In addition to this, we have to remember the vast masses of French words with which English abounds. The French words of Latin origin alone fill nearly eight columns in my Dictionary, or nearly double the number of Latin ones; and those of Greek origin fill more than a column more. And if words of direct Latin origin can be easily traced, the same cannot always be said of such as came through French. What, for example, is the Latin form of ransom, venison, adroit, or culverin, words which are easy enough when their origins are once pointed out? And is it quite clear in what way menial and menagerie can be connected with the Lat. manēre, to remain? The fact is, rather, that the rules for deducing French forms from Latin ones are numerous and complex, and the perusal of such a book as Toynbee's Historical Grammar of the French Language may well suggest, even to the most confident, some reasons for assuming a humble attitude. It makes a difference whether a given French vowel, say $a$, is tonic, atonic, or pretonic; whether it is 'free' or 'blocked'; and whether it is followed or preceded by the 'Romanic yod'. Add to this, that the number of French words of which the origin is absolutely unknown is decidedly large.
§ 9. Another not uncommon delusion is that a knowledge of German will solve native English words ; the fact being that, of all the Teutonic languages, the modern German is usually the most remote from Middle English and AngloSaxon. German is a help indeed to those who have learnt Old English already, but it is very apt to mislead those who have not done so. For the purposes of etymology, the most useful Teutonic language is Gothic; and it is always advisable to trace native or Scandinavian words back to their A. S. or

Norse forms before attempting to compare them with German.
§ 10. I now come to the discussion of a far more important principle than any that has hitherto been mentioned. It is hardly too much to say that more has been discovered about the laws of etymology during the last fifty years than during the thousands that preceded them; and this has been done mainly by the application of a new principle, viz. that of strict attention to the exact pronunciation of languages as spoken; a matter which had previously been contemned as needless, or else left wholly unconsidered. It has come upon modern scholars with the force of a great and real discovery-for practically it is little less-that after all the only true living languages are the spoken ones; and that even what are called the 'dead' languages can be vivified if only they be pronounced aloud with the same sounds that they had when alive. We know the sounds of Greek and Latin with sufficient accuracy to understand their ways; and that is all that we want. By giving to the Latin vowels their Italian values, by sounding the Latin $c$ as $k$ under all circumstances, and the like, we can understand the origin of the principal sounds in all the Romance languages, i.e. in the languages that have descended from Latin. We can regain and reproduce the sounds of Old French, including Norman, and we can not only trace the apparent changes in the written forms of French from one century to another, but we can do far more; for we can really understand what such changes in the symbols signify, and how they came to be made. We truly understand the history of a given word only when we know how its sounds changed from time to time, the true subject of inquiry being the history of its pronunciation. All formal changes are meaningless till we know what each form signified; but when these written symbols are translated into actual sounds, we can verify the whole process, and fully perceive the absolutely astonishing precision
and regularity with which 'phonetic laws' are obeyed. Most languages have their own peculiarities of utterance, but there is a large number of sound-laws that are common to all, and they usually all follow the same direction. The Latin $c$ in centum having once been a $k$, it is easy to see how that sound of $k$ has been palatalized in the Ital. cento (with $c$ like the $c h$ in chair) ; or has become a th, as in the Spanish ciento; or was sounded as $t s$ in the Old Norman cent; or has become a mere $s$ in the modern French cent; but there is no reverse movement. Neither a $c h$, nor a $t h$, nor a $t s$, nor an $s$ has come to be sounded as $k$. There is no more difficulty as to the $k$-sound of the initial $c$ in Latin, before all vowels, than there is in Celtic. To this day the Welsh for 'a hundred' is cant; the Welsh ci, 'a dog,' is pronounced like the E. key ; and the Welsh cell, 'a cell,' is pronounced with an initial $k$, though it is, presumably, merely borrowed from the Lat. cella, like the Kil-in the Scotch Kilpatrick or the Irish Kilkenny. And it has to be remembered that the symbols of the Celtic alphabets are of Roman origin. The easiest proof of the original sound of the Latin $c$ is to note that the past tense of cadere, to fall, was cecidi. For either this cecidi must have been pronounced as kekidi, or else there is no such thing as reduplication of sound. Those who think it was pronounced as sesidi would have us believe that cadere was pronounced as sadere; for this is what the double $s$ of sesidi implies when the words are pronounced aloud.
§ 11. There is no greater help to the right knowledge of the sounds of most of the European languages than to learn the proper pronunciation of classical Latin, for the plain reason that so many of these languages themselves adopted the Latin alphabet; and they could hardly have done this without knowing what sounds the Latin characters were intended to signify. The odd thing is that many fail to perceive how it came about that, in England, and in the nineteenth century, Latin was sounded like English. It was
the natural result of pronouncing Latin and English alike at all dates. It began in Beda's time, in the seventh century (or earlier), when Northumbrian English was pronounced like Latin, and conversely, yet very differently from modern English ; and both have gradually changed together, ever since, pari passu. Chaucer, for example, pronounced Latin and English alike, at any rate as to the vowel-sounds; and he could not have pronounced either of them like modern English, because he had not the gift of prophecy, and could not tell what modern English would be like. Neither can we tell how English will be pronounced in the year 2000. All we know is that the sounds then employed will not be precisely those which we use now : it is likely that they will differ considerably. It is very difficult to bear always in mind the fact that spoken languages vary from decade to decade, and that even a stereotyped spelling has but little effect on many of the sounds, especially the vowels. The present spelling is not very different from that of Elizabethan days; but the changes in pronunciation since that date have been very serious. Well down to 1600 , and later, our word dame was pronounced as in modern French.
§ 12. Before concluding this chapter, I beg leave to refer the reader to a few authorities on this subject. The sounds of modern English, French, and German, as well as of Latin and Greek, are given in Sweet's Primer of Phonetics. My Primer of Classical and English Philology also gives the pronunciation of Latin ${ }^{1}$ and Greek, and shows how English has cognate forms in those languages, in accordance with Grimm's law ; and the principles of 'vowel-gradation' in all three languages are fully illustrated by comparison. ${ }^{2}$ The great work on the variations of English sounds from time to

[^1]time is that by Dr. Ellis, on Early English Pronunciation; it should interest the reader to know that he found the most helpful book to be William Salesbury's Account of English Pronunciation, as given in his Dictionary in English and Welsh, dated ${ }^{5} 547$. Salesbury here compares the English sounds with Welsh; and in ${ }_{5} 57$ he fully explained the Welsh sounds in another treatise. The Welsh spelling is so phonetic that his explanations are intelligible and valuable. Dr. Sweet's History of English Sounds gives a full account of our changing pronunciation from Anglo-Saxon times to the present day, and contains some valuable word-lists. His Handbook of Phonetics (not the same book as the Primer mentioned above) not only gives the sounds of spoken English, French, and German, but also those of Icelandic, Swedish, and Danish. A rather full account of the phonetics of AngloFrench, and some account of the pronunciation of Italian and Spanish, are given in my Principles of English Elymology, Second Series. For Anglo-Saxon, we have Cook's translation of the grammar by Sievers, which deals with the phonetics very carefully; as well as the excellent grammars of Old English and of Gothic by Professor J. Wright, in which particular regard is paid to phonology. We can further consult Mayhew's Synopsis of Old English Phonology. There is, in fact, no lack of good guides at the present day : and the opportunities for the study of pronunciation of the languages with which we have to deal, in order to understand how they actually sounded, are very different now from what they were a generation ago.

## CHAPTER II

## SOME USEFUL CANONS

§ 13. At p. xxviii of the Preface to my Dictionary, I give ten useful Canons, explaining that there is nothing new about them, and that their chief utility is due to the fact that they are so frequently disregarded, especially in books that are not of the latest type. I also give a few examples of their neglect, but it may be instructive to give a few more. I discuss each of them separately.
§ 14. Canon 1. Before attempting an etymology, ascertain the earliest form and use of a word; and observe chronology.

This has already been said above. Let us see what comes of disregarding so obvious a precaution. In Haydn's Dictionary of Dates, $13^{\text {th }}$ ed., 1868 , I find the following: 'Tram-roads, an abbreviation of Outram-roads, derived the name from Mr. Benjamin Outram, who, in 1800, made improvements in the system of railways for common vehicles, \&c.' Of course this edition is only an old one, but this does not matter, as the statement is continually being repeated. I saw it in a newspaper in 1910. At the very outset, the student of phonetics will doubt the story, because it contradicts the widely-spread phonetic law that, when a word is abbreviated, it is the stressed syllable that survives. The abbreviation for Isaac is not 'saac, but Ike; which makes short work of a favourite 'etymology' adopted by Anglo-Israelites, viz. that Saxon is contracted from 1saac-son. The contracted form of the latter would be Ike-son. So likewise the natural
abbreviation of Outram, if it be docked of a syllable, will not be Tram, but Out. But passing over this, let us examine the chronology. Now the E. D. D. quotes (s. v. Tram) from Heslop's Northumbrian Words (E. D. S., 1892-4) the following statement, 'The wages for the barrow-men is usually about twenty pence, or two-and-twenty pence a day, for each tram (that is to say) for putting so many loaden corves [baskets] as are carried on one sledge, or tram, to the pit-shaft'; Compleat Collier (1708), p. 39. In endeavouring to verify this quotation, I failed to find the Compleat Collier itself; but I found a facsimile reprint of it, and thus ascertained that the quotation is correct. It is obviously impossible that a man who was alive in 1800 could give his name to a sledge that was already called a tram in 1708 ! I believe the word to be of Scandinavian origin ; and, as for tracing its early use, I connect it with the tram, or wheelbarrow-handle, mentioned by Dunbar; see the account in my Dictionary. It is, indeed, to be regretted that the attempt has been made to associate the honoured name of Outram with an untenable etymology.
§ 15. The advisability of ascertaining the earliest form of a word ought to be obvious; but it can be made clearer by taking a few examples. It is very common for a word to lose a sound in the course of time and even to lose the symbol that stood for it; but by tracing the history backwards we can generally recover what was lost; and the recovery may make a great deal of difference. The common adjective raw once had an initial $h$; the A.S. form was $h r e ̄ a r w . ~ B u t ~ a s ~ a n ~ A . ~ S . ~ h, ~ b y ~ G r i m m ' s ~ L a w, ~ i n v a r i a b l y ~$ answers, in cognate words, to a Latin $c$ and Greek $\kappa$, we find related forms in the Latin crūdus, raw, and the Greek кр́́us, raw flesh. Neither of these relationships would have been possible, nor could have been detected, but for the restored $h$. It is just the same with the word to listen; it is connected with the shorter form list (Hamlet, i. 5. 22), A.S. hlyst-an,
to hearken to, from A.S. hlyst, sb., hearing. And since A. S. $y$ presupposes an earlier $u$, the base is hlus-, from the root KLEU, to hear, which gives the cognate forms seen in the Gk. $\kappa \lambda \dot{u}-\epsilon \iota \nu$, to hear, L. clu-ere, Skt. cru. Cf. Welsh clust, the ear ; Skt. ¢̧uṣtiṣ, obedience, lit. 'a listening to '. ${ }^{1}$ Here, again, until the initial $h$ is restored, none of these relationships can be perceived. This example is a convenient one for noting the Skt. $\varsigma$, which is a convenient symbol for denoting a sound that was once a $k$ (and cognate with L. $c$, Gk. к), but had come to be sounded as a sibilant, with a sound like the E. sh in shall, shrew. The number of instances in which we can only reason from 'restored' forms is so very great that it is needless to say more. As a very easy case, take the word best. As soon as we know that the A.S. form was betst, i. e. bet-st (also bet-est), we can see why best is the superlative of the comparative bett-er, M. E. bet-er, A. S. bet-ra, bet-era. Both are from a positive *bat, i. e. good, closely allied to $b \bar{o} t$, i. e. boot, profit, advantage. For the mutation of $a$ to $e$, cf. elder ; p. 181.
§ 16. Canon 2. Observe history and geography ; borrowings are due to actual contact.

The spoken sounds of a language must depend upon the speakers; and if we want to know all about the speakers of Old English, we must consult the history of England, which will tell us the essential points. The most important linguistic event was the Norman Conquest in 1066, of which one amazing result was that the Norman scribes, in the thirteenth century especially, took upon themselves to learn our language and to respell it for us; whilst, at the same time, they very greatly influenced our pronunciation. An extraordinary compromise was effected in the case of such a word as right, from the A.S. riht, in which the $h t$ was
${ }^{1}$ For a similar change of sense cf. the Avestic ushi, lit. 'the two ears ', whence the Pers. hüsh, ' understanding.' See p. I43.
pronounced like the Ger. cht in recht. The scribes invented the symbol $g h$ to express this guttural, but Norman dislike of it gradually prevailed upon the majority to suppress the sound itself! And we have continued for some centuries to submit to this singular arrangement, carefully suppressing the reason for it in all our schools. One cannot help hoping that a time will come when our schoolmasters will awake to a desire to overcome their own unscholarly ignorance of the history of our spelling, will endeavour to learn something about it, and will even go so far as to impart their new knowledge with befitting accuracy.

Geography has also to be considered. If we borrow foreign words, or foreign names for things, the knowledge of the things themselves must have reached us somehow. We do not borrow from foreign lands with which we have no dealings. Names cannot fly through the air like birds, but they can come over in ships. It is rather surprising to find an Arabic word like saffron appearing in our literature (as safran) as early as $\mathbf{1 2 0 0}$; but we merely got the word from France, where it was spelt safran in the twelfth century; and the French could easily have received it from the Mediterranean, since at that date the famous Venetian navy and commerce were already active in securing traffic with the East. The thing itself must have been familiar in England at an early date, as the early quotation shows; in fact, Saffron Walden in Essex had its name from the saffron that was early grown there. In all cases, the route by which a word reached us should be ascertained, if possible.
§ 17. Canon 3. Observe phonetic laws, especially those which regulate the mutual relation of consonants in the various Indo-germanic languages, at the same time comparing the vowel-sounds.

Something has been said about this already, but more may advantageously be said about consonants and vowels. The success and completeness of the comparison that has been
instituted between the consonantal systems of the Indogermanic languages leave little to be desired. Even such brief and partial tables as those given in my Primer of Elymology (pp. 80, 81) and in my Primer of Classical and English Philology (pp. 96, 97) give the more useful facts; but much more can be learnt from tables so complete as those prefixed (at pp. xxii-xl) to Walde's Lateinisches Etymologisches Wörterbuch. Take, e. g., the statement that the Indogermanic initial $d$ is usually represented by $d$ in Skt., Gk., Lat., Lithuanian, and Old Irish; but by $t$ in Gothic, A. S. (and English); and by $z$ in German. This is a law that is never broken except when there is some unusual cause for it ; of which the only one that here concerns us is that a Gk. initial $\delta$, if followed by $i$ (Eng. $y$ ), becomes $\zeta$, and the Lat. $d$, in the same case, becomes $\underset{\sim}{i}$, often written $i$ or $j$. This exception is chiefly made in order to cover the case of the interesting set of words presented by the Skt. Dyāus, 'the shining one,' Gk. Zєús (gen. Dtós), L. diès, 'day,' Diès-piter or Iū-piter (gen. Iou-is, Old Lat. dat. Diouei), Welsh dyw, 'day,' A. S. Tivw, a deity who was made to correspond to the Roman Mars. From the A.S. Tizw we have Tizees dxg, i. e. Tuesday, corresponding to the Jeudi (Iouis diés) of the French, as regards form, but to Mardi (Martis dies) as regards actual use. We have another derivative, through the French, in the word jovial, originally applied to the sanguine man who was born under the influence of the beneficent planet Jupiter. We have another set of related words in which the initial $d$ is undisturbed ; viz. Skt. dēvas, divine ; Gk. סios, divine ; L. dīuus, divine (whence E. div-ine) ; L. deus, God (whence E. deity, deify); and even deodar, 'divine tree,' for which see p. 21. The only Teutonic initial letter which can be admitted in connexion with these words, is $t$, as seen in Tuesday; the words jovial, divine, and deity come in only as borrowed words from Latin, and are not Teutonic at all. At the same time, two old fables, long believed, have been exploded. The former
is, that the L. deus is related to the Gk. $\theta$ eós, which happens to have the same sense, but is quite different in form, since $\theta \epsilon$ ós is for ${ }^{*} \theta \epsilon \sigma-o ́ s$ (cf. $\theta \epsilon \sigma$-фaros, divinely inspired) ; and an initial $\theta$ corresponds in Latin, not to $d$, but to $f$, as in $\theta$ ep $\mu$ ós, warm, L. formus, $\theta$ 'np, a wild beast, L. ferus, wild. The other fable used to connect L. diēs, 'day,' with A.S. dxg, 'day,' where again the coincidence in sense is accidental, and the vocalism is distinct as well as the initial consonant. Moreover, the original senses were different, since L. diēs is from the idea of 'brightness' or 'shining'; but day meant 'hot time', being allied to the Lithuanian dagas, 'hot season,' and Skt. dāh, 'to burn'; from the root dhegh, to burn. There are, in fact, two initial $d$ 's in Lithuanian and Skt., one of which goes back to an Indo-germanic D , and the other to a dr. The Lat. dies is connected with the former, and the A.S. $d x g$ with the latter; a fact which separates them at once. We must ever walk warily, if we are to avoid such traps as this.
§ 18. To make up for these failures, it may be well to give instances in which the Lat. and Gk. initial $d$ correspond, regularly, to the native E. $t$. Here are some of the most striking. ${ }^{1}$ 1. L. dom-āre, Gk. $\delta a \mu-a ̂ \nu$, to tame; E. tame; G. zahm. 2. Lithuanian darwa, derwa, resinous wood; E. tar. See 13 (below). 3. Skt. dūrvā, a kind of grass; Lith. dirwa, a cornfield; E. tare, darnel. 4. L. dūc-ere, to lead, conduct; E. tea-m, a family, set, animals harnessed in a row, whence teem, to be prolific; allied to tow, to pull along (a boat), tug, to pull, -ton, in wan-ton, M. E. wan-towen, uneducated, tie, a fastening. 5. Gk. סє́ $\rho-\epsilon \iota \nu$, to flay; E. tear, to rend. 6. Gk. סák $\rho v$, סák $\rho v \mu a$, a tear; O. Lat. dacruma, L. lacrima; E. tear, sb. From L. lacrima was formed the F. larme, so that F. larme and E. tear are cognate words, though they are strangely dissimilar. 7. Gk. Dé $\mu-\epsilon \iota \nu$, to build;

[^2]L. dom-us, a house; Goth. tim-r-jan, to build; E. tim-ber, building material; G. zimmer, a room. 8. Gk. ỏooús (acc. óóóra), a tooth, L. dens (acc. dentem), Welsh dant; E. tooth, Du. tand; G. zahn. 9. O. Irish do, prep. to ; E. to. 10. O. Lat. dingua, L. lingua, tongue ; E. tongue, which is cognate with F. langue. I I. Skt. dañças, a bite, a stinging insect, Gk. סákveıv, to bite; E. tongs, for seizing firmly, tang, the part of a knife that is firmly fixed in the handle; A. S. ge-teng-e, oppressive, close to, tōh, tenacious, E. tough. 12. O. Irish dün, a walled town (cf. E. down, a hill, not a native word, but borrowed from Celtic) ; Welsh dín, a hill-fort, din-as, a town; A.S. tün, an enclosure, E. town, the native equivalent of the borrowed down. 13. Skt. dāru, wood, dēva-dāru, 'divine tree, deodar' (whence E. deodar), Welsh derw, an oak; E. tree; also E. trough, lit. 'made of wood', from the Idg. base $d r u$-, wood. 14. O. Prussian druwít, to believe; A. S. trēowe, true, 'believed in,' E. true; whence also truce, an old plural, M. E. trevees; and further allied to trust. 15. Skt. $d v a \bar{u} u, d v a \bar{a}$, two; Gk. 8vo ; L. duo (whence F. deux, E. deuce); Welsh dau; Russ. $d v a$; E. two, allied to twain, twin, twine, twist, twig (a fork of a branch, hence, a shoot of a tree); G. zwei, two. In all these cases, the regularity of the change from $d$ to E. $l$ (G. $z$ ), is manifest.
§19. It is also highly necessary to consider the vowelsounds. It is not until the student becomes familiar with the laws of 'vowel-gradation', as chiefly exemplified in the infinitive, past tense, and past participle of all the strong verbs (such as drive, drove, driven), that the strictness of the laws which regulate the diversity of vowels is fully realized. We may connect a drove of sheep, or a snow-drif-t with the verb to drive ; but we must beware of allowing this set of vowels to vary beyond the prescribed limits of the modern $\bar{i}, \stackrel{\imath}{c}$, and $\bar{o}$; for the only outlying member of this group is the modern $e a(\mathrm{~A} . \mathrm{S} . \bar{x})$, which rarely appears.
§20. It is very difficult for the inexperienced to realize
the extraordinary regularity of the relations between the vowels in various languages. By way of specimen, I take the present Germanic values of the primitive Germanic diphthong ai. Corresponding to the primitive Germanic type *stainoz, ${ }^{1}$ 'a stone,' we find Goth. stains, A. S. stān, E. stone; Icel. steinn, Dan. and Swed. sten, ${ }^{2}$ Du. steen; G. stein. If there is any fixed law as to this matter, we might venture to suppose that the Germanic ar always appears as $a i$ in Gothic, $\bar{a}$ in A. S., $e i$ in Icel.; \&c. Let us inquire, and record what we find, indicating omissions (due to want of information) by a dash.

1. Germanic (or Teutonic) type *bainom, neut. 'a bone', also 'a leg'. Goth. -, A. S. bān, E. bone; Icel. bein, Swed. ben, Dan. ben (or been), Du. been; G. bein.
2. Teut. *daigoz, 'dough.' Goth. daigs, A. S: dāh (gen. $d \bar{a} g-e s$ ), E. dough (where the $u$ is due to the influence of other words in -ough); Icel. deig, Swed. deg, Dan. deig; Du. deeg; G. teig.
3. Teut. *graipöjan, 'to grope,' from Teut. base *graip-. Goth. -, A. S. grāpian, to grope, from gräp, a grasp, Icel. greip, a grasp, Swed. grep, a pitchfork, E. grope, verb; Dan. greb, a grasp, a pitchfork, Du. greep, a grasp, G. greifklauen, talons of a bird.
4. Teut. *haimoz, *haimiz, 'a home.' Goth. haims, a village, A. S. hām, E. home; Icel. heimr, an abode, Swed. hem, Dan. hjem (wherein a $y$-sound has been inserted after the $h$ ); Du . heem (also heim); G. heim.
5. Teut. *laimoz, 'loam.' Goth. -, A. S. lām, E. loam; Icel. Swed. Dan. -; Du. leem ; G. lehm (but O. H. G. leim).
6. Teut. *taiknom, neut., *taikniz, fem., 'a token.' Goth. taikns, A. S. tācen, tācn, E. token; Icel. teikn, Swed. tecken, Dan. tegn; Du. teeken; G. zeichen.
[^3]These six examples are enough to show that these various languages exhibit a highly remarkable regularity in their use of vowels.
§ 21. Beyond this, the formulae tell us a good deal about words that seem to be exceptional. Thus we find A.S. $b \bar{a} t_{\text {, }}$ a boat, Teut. *baitoz. But the Icel. is bätr, and the Du. and G. form is boot; all against rule. What, then, does it mean? Simply this, that the word was only in use in A.S. and English. The Icel. bātr was borrowed from the A. S. bāt, and the Du. and G. boot are both borrowed from E. boat. The Teut. *ainoz, 'one,' is perfectly regular ; Goth. ains, Icel. einn, Du. een, G. ein; so that the modern one might have been expected to rime with stone. It has actually kept this old sound to the present day in the compounds alone (all one), atone (at one), and only (for one-ly), but the word itself acquired a prefixed sound of $w$ in the fifteenth century (when the spelling won occurs), which lowered the sound of $\bar{o}$ to that of the 00 in cool, after which it was shortened to the 00 of foot, and then 'unrounded' to the $u$ in fun. When anything contradicts the formulae, we should try to find out the reason or reasons for it.

The word soap is perfectly regular as far as it goes. The A.S. is säpe (whence Icel. säpa was borrowed); the Du. is zeep, and the G. is seife; which proves that it is a true Teutonic word, the Teut. type being ${ }^{*}$ saipon, a weak feminine. The Latin sāpo (gen. sāpon-is) is so like the Teut. form that it must have been borrowed from one of the Teutonic languages. Indeed, Pliny says it was borrowed from Celtic, an obvious error for Teutonic. The F. savon is from Latin.
§ 22. Canon 4. In comparing two words, A and B , belonging to the same language, of which A is the shorter, A must usually be taken to be the more original word.

It is a rule in the Indo-germanic languages that words started from monosyllabic roots or bases, and were built up by the addition of suffixes. This is especially noticeable in

Latin, where we see at once that the adj. cärus is older than the derivative cāri-tāt-, nom. cāritās. It is often very necessary to know whether a verb is derived from a related substantive, or, conversely, the substantive from the verb. An example of complete confusion as to this matter occurs in Johnson's Dictionary, in which the verb to jest is derived from the 'Latin gesticulor', which is also given as the origin of gesticulate. The latter statement is correct, but the former is ridiculous, unless it means that gesticulate was shortened to jest in English, which was not the case. It is impossible that gest- could have been derived from gesticulor in Latin, because the formation of this verb shows that it is later, not earlier, than the use of the original syllable gest-. The matter is made still worse by the statement that, in English, the sb. jest is derived from the verb to jest, which is contrary to fact. All this confusion might have been saved by analysing the formation of gesticulor. Under the spelling gest, a more rational explanation of $j e s t$ is offered, proving the extreme carelessness with which etymologies are treated in the Doctor's famous work.
§ 23. Canon 5. In comparing two words, A and B, belonging to the same language, the older form can usually be distinguished by observing the sound of the principal vowel.

This has especial reference to words of native origin, and involves the theory of 'vowel-mutation', as explained in any Anglo-Saxon grammar. The sound of A.S. $\bar{e}$ (whence E. ee) is seldom original, but mostly arises from an earlier $\bar{o}$; because the A.S. $\bar{e}$ is (except in very rare cases) the 'mutated' form of A.S. $\bar{o}$. Thus goose (A.S. gōs) preceded the plural geese (A.S. gés) ; or must, at any rate, be accepted as a simpler form. Similarly, teeth is the pl. of tooth, and feet of foot; deem is derived from doom ; beech is from A. S. bōc, 'beech,' though the latter also came to mean 'book'; the verb to beet, i. e. to better, to mend, now only used in dialects, is from the
sb. boot, 'profit,' which is allied to the obsolete *bat, signifying 'good', which gave us better and best; steed, a stud-horse, is from stud (A. S. stōd), lit. a 'stand' of horses; cf. A. S. stöd, pt. t. of standan, to stand; speed, properly 'success', is from the A.S. spō-rvan, to succeed; breed, verb, is from brood; feed is from food; bleed is from blood (A. S. blöd). See Principles of E. Etymology, First Series, § 196; and the whole of Ch. XI in the same, for many more examples.
§ 24. Canon 6. Strong verbs, in the Teutonic languages, and the so-called 'irregular' verbs in Latin, are commonly to be considered as primary; related forms being derived from them.

Every one should learn by heart the seven conjugations of the English strong verbs. The easiest examples are the following. 1. Drive, drove, driven. 2. Choose, chose, chosen. 3. Drink, drank, drunk (orig. drunken). 4. Bear, bare (now usually bore), born. 5. Give, gave, given. 6. Shake, shook, shaken. 7. Fall, fell, fallen.

The A.S. forms of these verbs furnish the key to the 'gradations', or regular systems of vocalic variation, which pervade the whole of the native element in our language. They have their equivalents in other Teutonic languages, which can be used in the same way. I have given above ( $(20$ ) the Teutonic values of aI, the equivalent of the modern 0 in drove, the pt. t. s. of drive in Conjugation $\mathbf{I}$. Indeed, similar systems of vocalic variation occur, or once occurred, in all the Indo-germanic languages, though they are not always strictly preserved. My Primer of English and Classical Philology was expressly written for the purpose of comparing the vocalism of the English strong verbs with that of equivalent varieties of vowel-sounds in Greek and Latin. Chapter V is especially devoted to the consideration of our Conjugation I, that of the verb to drive; and as I have already given examples of the Teutonic ai ( $\$ 20$ ), I here proceed to give a few notes upon the Indo-germanic or,
which usually corresponds to it ；for Idg．o comes out as A in Teutonic．

I．Gk．oiora，I have seen，I know，has lost an initial $w$ ，and stands for foî̀a．Its equivalent is the Goth．wait，I know， A．S．wāt，M．E．woot，E．wot（with shortened vowel）；Icel． veit，Du．weet，G．weiss．（I have already shown that Gk． $\delta=$ E．t．）

2．Gk．$\lambda_{\epsilon}-\lambda o \iota \pi-a$ ，I have left，$\lambda o \iota \pi-o ́ s$, remaining．Cf．Goth． laihw，A．S．lāh，I have lent（left to another）；Icel．lān （contracted from＊leih－n，Noreen，§57），a loan．E．loan is not A．S．，but borrowed from Norse．

3．Gk．$\sigma$ roî $\chi^{-o s, ~ a ~ r o w, ~ a l l i e d ~ t o ~} \sigma \tau \epsilon i \chi-\epsilon \iota$ ，to go up，ascend， journey．Cf．Goth．staig，pt．t．of steig－an，to climb；A．S． stāg，pt．t．of stīg－an，to climb；whence was formed（by
 by）；Icel．steig，I climbed；M．Du．steeg，steep（obsolete）． As the A．S． $\bar{a}$ corresponds to G．ei，we see that the G．stieg， I climbed，is not the original form．In fact，the Old High German had steig；correctly．

4．Gk．$\gamma \lambda$ dot－ós，sticky substance，gum；A．S．clā－m，＇wet earth＇，hence，earthen－ware；prov．E．cloam，earthenware； Icel．kleima，to daub，to smear；Mid．Du．kleem，clay （obsolete）；prov．G．klei，clay，marl（Flügel）．The A．S．for clay is cl⿸户口g，from a Teut．type＊klai－jö，fem．，with mutation of $\bar{a}$ to $\bar{x}$ on account of the following $j$ ．

5．Gk．тoî －os，$^{\text {a wall，orig．a mud rampart ；Goth．daig－s，}}$ dough；A．S．dāg，E．dough；Icel．deig，Du．deeg，G．teig．

6．Skt．svēd－as，sweat（where Skt． $\bar{e}=\mathrm{Gk} . o$ ，as in Skt． véda $=$ Gk．oìoa，I know）；L．sūdor（for＊swoidor，with loss of $w$ ，and $\bar{u}$ for $o i$ ，as in $\bar{u} n a=o \neq \eta$, ，ace on a die＇）；A．S． swāt，Icel．sveiti，Du．zweet，G．schweiss．The A．S．swät would have given E．swoat，but it has long been obsolete； the present E．sweat represents the derived verb，viz．A．S． swētan，made from the sb．swāt by mutation of $\bar{a}$ to $\bar{x}$ ．The vowel was once long，so that sweat once rimed with heat，and
it is still pronounced sweet in Cumberland: 'See ye how's I's sweetan o'riddy', i. e. sweating already (E. D. D.).
§ 25. Canon 7. The whole of a word, not a portion only, should be accounted for; and any infringement of phonetic laws should be regarded with suspicion. It is extraordinary that this simple rule should be disregarded; yet it is not uncommon to do so. Thus Johnson derives barnacle, a kind of shell-fish, from A.S. bearn, a child, and $\bar{a} c$, an oak, which seems sadly irrelevant; but he does not in any way explain what the final -le means. Dapple he derives from apple, entirely ignoring the initial $d$. Bloat he derives from blow, to puff out; and here he ignores the final $\ell$. Another vagary is to avoid giving too little by giving far too much; as when he derives dangle from down and hang, which would give down-hangle, with a surplusage of ownh. Infringement of phonetic laws appears in his derivation of cove from the Latin cauus, hollow; for that would give cave (as, in fact, it did); and the change from $a$ to $o$ is unaccounted for. So also, when he derives the verb to drain from the French trainer, he forgets to quote any instance in which an English initial $d$ supplants a French $t$. The idea that our language was largely pervaded by 'corruption' is constantly in evidence; we see to what an extreme this can be carried when it is asserted, under bawsin, 'a badger,' that bawsinskin is a mere perversion of badger's skin, for which Dr. Johnson quotes Ezek. xvi. 10, 'shod thee with badgers' skin,' printing the words in italics as if it clinched the matter.
§ 26. Canon 8. Casual resemblances between words in two unrelated languages which cannot well be brought into connexion are commonly a delusion, not to be seriously regarded.

It would be strange if groups of similar sounds did not sometimes denote similar things in unrelated languages; and sometimes these chance resemblances are so near that the man who observes them cannot be persuaded that he has
made no discovery at all. This is a very subtle snare, to which many fall victims; the chief way to avoid it is to found the alleged etymology upon really strong evidence. Even then, one may be wrong, and the only wise plan is to abandon every assertion the moment that it is seen to be untenable. The chief value of phonetic laws is that they cannot be disputed; they often make short work of the most plausible arguments on the part of the guessers. In a large number of instances where a false guess has been made, there is often no reply to the searching question-have you accounted for the right value of the vowel-sound? To take an easy instance; when Minsheu derived girl from the L. garrula, he forgot that, however plausible his argument might be from a descriptive point of view, the shortened form of garr'la is not girl, but garl.
§ 27. As an example of a certain similarity in form and sense, I may instance one given in $N$. and Q. 3 S. x. 491, viz. E. caitiff and the Syriac khätuf, a robber. It was seriously proposed to derive the former from the latter. I have already explained that caitif is the Northern F. equivalent of the F. chétif, which khätuf fails to explain. Moreover, caitif originally meant 'a captive'; and robbers are mostly left too much at large.

Some false etymologies are only too well known, and seem to be ineradicable. One of the most mischievous is that of beltane, a name for Old May-day. It is simply the Old Irish bel-tene, 'fire-kindling'; from an old custom of kindling fires upon that day. The O. Irish bel, fire, is cognate with the A.S. $b \bar{x} l$, a blaze, Icel. $b \bar{a} l$, a flame, a funeral pile; Skt. bhālam, brightness, \&c.; and is further connected with the Celtic words for whiteness, whence we have derived our E. bald. But this explanation of 'fire' from its ' brightness' was far too prosaic to suit the antiquaries of the eighteenth century and later, who were never tired of repeating that the O. Irish bel really referred to the god

Baal, who was worshipped in Britain by fiery sacrifices; whence it was an easy step to the supposed existence here of 'the ancient Phoenicians' and their heathen Semitic rites. Sometimes they strengthened their case by appealing to our Tothills or Toothills, lit. 'look-out hills'; from the A.S. tōtian, to peep out; see Tool in the E.D. D. Here again, disdaining this explanation from a native source, they explained Toothill as meaning a high place for celebrating the Egyptian divinity Thoth; and, by combining these pieces of information, produced a theory of the recovered past in which they revelled with a wild delight; a theory which, as I fear, will long be seductive. For false etymologies have long lives, and die hard.
§ 28. I have already noted the frequent comparison of the English care, 'anxiety,' with the L. cūra, 'attention'; which is a common delusion. The vowel-sounds are quite different, and the initial sounds are really different also, as every one but the merest tiro knows. For an English initial $c$ is equivalent to L. $g$, and care, A. S. cearu, is the same as the Goth. kara, sorrow, O. H. G. chara, a lament ; further allied to the O. Irish gair, clamour, Welsh gawr, clamour, and further, to the Gk. $\gamma \hat{\eta} p v s$, voice, and the L. garrire, to chatter. The sense of the A. S. cearu was not that of 'attention', but of 'sorrow, lament, lamentation', as seen in the G. Charfreitag, Karfreitag, 'day of sorrow,' a name for Good Friday. In the North of England, the Sunday preceding Palm Sunday was formerly called Care Sunday, or otherwise Passion Sunday; see the account of it in Brand's Popular Antiquities.

A similar error is that of confusing the E. call with the Gk. калєiv; for in this case also the E. $c$ is equivalent to a Gk. $\gamma$ or a Celtic $g$, and the real cognate form is the Welsh galw, to call; whereas the Gk. кaлєiv, L. calāre, are cognate with the O.H.G. halōn, to summon, to call, G. holen, to fetch; for the right sense of кaлєiv is 'to summon'. From the
O. H. G. halōn was borrowed the F. haler, whence again the E. hale and haul, 'to fetch by force.' We thus see that call is allied to the W. galwo while калєì is allied to the F. haler ; so that the words are really quite far apart. But these facts will not convince those who are unable to understand phonetic laws or the true modes of formation of language. An uncontrolled and injudicious desire to adopt plausible analogies will always attract light and self-satisfied minds.

## CHAPTER III

## THE ROMANCE LANGUAGES

§ 29. It is highly desirable that the mutual relationship to one another of the various Indo-germanic languages should be rightly understood. But, before considering this subject, it may be well to contemplate a similar example of a set of related languages, formed upon a much smaller scale, and in much more modern times. This we can actually do, by considering the group known as the Romance languages, which, to a very large extent, owed their existence to Latin.

The Romance languages, excluding dialects, are seven in number, viz. Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, French, Provençal, Roumanian (or Wallachian), and Romaunsch. Important dialects are the Sardinian, which Schwan counts as a distinct language, though Diez includes it under Italian; as also those of Provençal or Southern French, the principal ones being the Gascon, the Limousin, the Lyonnais, and those of Béarn, Auvergne, and Dauphiné, and of the province of Languedoc, properly so called. In the north of France, Schwan enumerates seven principal dialects-the Norman, the Picard, the dialects of Lorraine, Burgundy, and Poitou, that of the Isle of France, and the Walloon, the last of which is spoken in parts of Belgium. The Romaunsch is spoken in the Swiss canton of Grisons, and is closely allied to the Ladin dialect of the Engadine; both are sometimes included under the title of Rhaeto-romanic.
§ 30. All these languages, with their dialects, are included, as has been said, under the general name of the Romance
languages, as being all of Roman or Latin origin ; or rather, as being spoken in countries over which the Roman dominion extended, whilst at the same time, the Latin language, though not in the purest form, was the chief medium of communication. This spoken Latin was by no means founded upon classical Latin or the language of books, but was the speech of everyday life, as employed by shopkeepers, soldiers, and market-women. In many places, Latin was thus introduced where it had never been spoken before, and did not always succeed in displacing all foreign elements; and, as this is a matter regarding which we have few available records, it is often difficult or impossible to account for some of the words in each of the languages. The chief help is the Dictionary by Ducange, which records many 'Late Latin' words of popular origin or abnormal formation, the forms of which sometimes solve rather difficult problems.
§ 31. To take an easy example. One of the commonest root-verbs in Latin is capere, to take; but it is not a very important word in Romanic (i. e. in the Romance languages), not appearing in French at all ; we find, however, Ital. capire, to contain, understand, Span., Prov., Port. caber, to have room for. (The Ital. for 'to take' is prendere.) The Latin frequentative form is captāre, whence Ital. cattare, to get, to obtain, regarded as a 'learned' word, which, like the Span. captar, to captivate, F. capter, is in somewhat limited use. Old Spanish had the more popular form catar, to catch sight of, hence, to view, to inspect, examine ; cf. Port. catar, vb., to search, and cata, sb., a search. But Ducange notes a popular Latin sb. captia, a chase, in use as early as 1162 , a verbal sb. due to an entirely new verb captiäre, to chase, wholly unknown to the Romans. And it was this new and popular form which was really adopted in daily use, and became the fruitful source of such common words as the Ital. cacciare, to hunt, chase, Span. cazar, Port. ca̧̧ar, to hunt, O.F. chacier (whence E. chase), F. chasser, Picard
cachier (whence E. catch), Prov. cassar, to hunt. We also find the allied verbal sb . in the following forms: Ital. caccia, Span. caza, Port. cą̧a, F. chasse, Prov. cassa, Romaunsch calscha, 'the chase.'
§ 32. The point to be particularly noted is this: that, starting from the modern forms, and reasoning backwards, we should probably arrive at the 'Romanic type' *captiäre as being the original form ; and with this (if we had no records of Latin) we should have to rest content. This leads at once to the highly important deduction that we cannot, by reasoning backwards, always be certain that we shall arrive at the true original form ; it may happen that we may come very near it without precisely hitting the bull's eye. This seems to me to be a matter of considerable moment ; for, in comparing the various Indo-germanic forms of a word, with the hope of arriving at the true 'Indo-germanic type', we can hardly be quite sure that there may not have been some deflexion from the original form at the outset. And, in such a case, as the said original form is absolutely inaccessible and unrecorded, we must be content with such a result as the evidence seems to conduct us to.
§ 33. The original Latin, or Late Latin form, such as *captiäre, from which various forms in the Romance languages can be safely deduced, is called the 'Romanic type'. If such a form actually exists in Latin, as in the case of nätiōnem, the accusative case of nātio, a nation, which so clearly appears in the Ital. nazione, Span. nacion, Port. nação, F. nation, Prov. nacio, Romaunsch naziun, Roumanian natsie, we call nātiōnem the Romanic type; or we may reduce it to *natiöne, as none of the dialects preserves the final $m$. If such a type goes back to a hypothetical form, we mark it with a preceding asterisk ; thus F. chasser is from the Romanic type *captiāre.
§ 34. The reason why some French words are very similar in form to the Latin, whilst others (such as chasser)
are somewhat difficult to trace, is usually due to the fact that the former belong to the category of 'learned' or 'book' words, whilst the others belong to the popular language. On this subject the reader should consult the illuminating preface to Paget Toynbee's edition of Brachet's Historical Grammar of the French Language. At p. 10 several words are noticed, such as the F. semaine, a week, battre, to beat, bataille, a battle, baiser, to kiss, \&c., which represent, respectively, the 'popular Latin' words septimāna, batuere, batālia, bāsiäre, which are totally different from the 'literary Latin' hebdomas, uerberāre, pugna, and osculārī. From these examples, and many more, he shows 'how incorrect it is to say that French is classical Latin, corrupted by an intermixture of popular forms; it is, on the contrary, the popular Latin alone'. The 'learned' words usually belong to a later date. It was in the sixteenth century that a large number of Italian words were introduced at the French courts, which led up to 'a mania for antiquity'. Men 'wished to reconstruct words already in being, and to bring the whole language nearer to the Latin type. Thus, for example, the Latin otiosus and vindicare had produced oiseux and venger; these reformers . . . prescribed the use of otieux and vendiquer instead.' Happily, there was soon a reaction, and many, but not all, of the intruding words were thrust out again.
§ 35. It must, however, be added, that all the Romance languages contain non-Latin elements, due to various circumstances in their national history. The very word French means 'Frankish', reminding us of the time when the Franks and other Germanic tribes over-ran Gaul, and practically destroyed the literary Latin employed by the more learned. They were ready to accept the popular Latin for their own use; but in the course of the process they introduced into it some words of their own, especially such as related to military affairs, viz. the O. H. G. halsberc, whence O. F. hauberc (E. hauberk), F. haubert; O. H. G. heriberga, whence F. auberge;
O.H.G. werra, confusion, strife, whence F. guerre. Our hauberk is simply the O. F. hauberc, borrowed. But we had no need to borrow the F. auberge, because we already possessed the word harbour, from the Norse herbergi, which is cognate with the O.H.G. form. The Italians, however, borrowed it in the form albergo, which reminds us that Italian likewise contains some German words. As to the O. H. G. werra, the Norman dialect adopted it in the form werre; for they were able to pronounce the initial $w$, which was, at that early date, still sounded as in English. Moreover, they brought the word to England, where it became the M.E. werre, and is still in use in the modern form war.
§ 36. After these preliminary remarks, I come to a more practical consideration. My great object, in the present work, is to show how to make use of an English etymological dictionary ; from which it is easy for one who uses it unintelligently to draw very false conclusions, however careful the instructions given in the book may be. I will suppose that the reader looks out a word of French origin, as such words are extremely abundant. What are the hints which will help him most, and what are the chief points which it is most useful to know? The most practical way for me to adopt is to select some examples, of various origins.
§ 37. And first, as to the numerous class which I mark as (F. -L.); i. e. French words of Latin origin. They are of all degrees of difficulty.

1. The word charm seems easy enough; it is from the O. F. charme. And the O. F. charme is from the L. carmen, a song; hence, an incantation. But it really raises an important question, viz. that of pronunciation. The modern F. charme is pronounced like sharm'; i. e. the initial sound is like the E. sh. But we cannot expect that $s h$ would become ch (as in church); it is like expecting water to run up hill, which is contrary to experience. Such changes are almost invariably from a more difficult sound to an easier one; and
$c h(=t s h)$ is more complex than $s h$. The difficulty vanishes when we realize that the O.F. and Anglo-F. ch had what we now regard as the common E. sound. The O.F. ch has become sh, but the Anglo-F. sound has not altered; the curious result being that, as regards this sound, English is older than French by many centuries. Precisely the same thing has happened in the case of initial $j(=d z h)$; the Anglo-F. $j$ was like our E. $j$ in $j o y$; whereas the O.F. $j$ has now the modern sound, as in F. joie. Here again, the E. sound is older by centuries than modern Parisian; since the O.F. $d z h$ has lost its $d$ in France.

It has already been explained how the Anglo-French and Picard initial $c a$ - keeps the L. sound, though the O. F. had cha-, che-; so that E. has carry where F. has charrier. Nearly all difficulties of this sort can be solved by chronology. The pronunciation of an E. word, when borrowed from F., depends upon the date of borrowing. I give several examples at pp. 12, 13 of my Principles of E. Etymology, Second Series; showing that chandler, chapel, and broach are far older borrowings than chandelier, chaperon, and brochure; that message and rage are older than mirage and rouge ; quart, than quadrille; feeble, than foible; hostel, than hotel; \&c.
§ 38. A curious example is medley, with a Norman $d$; it is far older than its doublet mélée. It is explained in Principles, $\& \cdot$ c., Second Series, p. 236. The Norman dialect had a habit of inserting $d$ after the combination $s l(=z l)$, so as to give $\operatorname{sdl}(=\mathrm{zdl})$, after which the $s(=\mathrm{z})$ fell away ; the $d l$ being left. Thus mespilum (Gk. $\mu \dot{\epsilon} \sigma \pi \iota \lambda o \nu$ ), a medlar, had the neut. pl. mespila, which, being treated as a fem. sing. (a common exchange), became O. North. F. mesle; whence *mesdle, medle (see Godefroy, Supp., s. v. nesple), meaning the fruit of the medlar-tree ; whence M. E. medler, a medlar-tree, mod. E. medlar. The Central French turned mespilum into nesple, nesfle, mod. F. nèfle; and it is not obvious, at first sight, that medle is an exact doublet of nèfle.

In the same way, from L. misculare, to mix up, we have the Anglo-French mesler, mesdler (Wace), medler, E. meddle, verb; F. méler. The pp. fem. was medlee; whence E. medley. So also the A.F. equivalent of the mod. E. male was masle (L. masculum), *masdle, madle; see Godefroy, Supp., s. v. mascle. And this enables us, in my opinion, to explain the derivative maslard, *masdlard, madlard, variant spellings of mallard, 'a wild drake.' Godefroy gives the spellings maslart (pl. maslars, which is regular in Anglo-French) and mallart; s.v. malart. And, under the spelling malarde, which occurs on the same page, where it is likely to be overlooked, he gives the form madlarde, explained as 'a wild duck'; feminine. This implies the masc. madlard, which is a correct Anglo-F. spelling, due to madle, 'male,' with the common masc. suffix -art, -ard; so that the idea of 'masculine' is repeated, by a common habit. The M. E. mavedelarde, about 1420 , quoted in the N.E.D., can be explained by this A.F.form. Upon the whole, I prefer this explanation to the theory proposed in Hatzfeld's F. Dict., that the mallard was named from the proper name Malart, from the O.H.G. Madalhard, 'donné plaisamment à un animal.'

Another very extraordinary result due to the same habit occurs in the case of the O.F. isle, 'an isle.' This similarly became isdle, idle, M. E. idle, ydle.
> ' In that water an ydle is, And in that ydle tounes of prys.' King Alisaunder, ed. Weber, l. 4856.

§ 39. The etymology of chance introduces us to a new principle. Of course it is equivalent to the modern F. chance ; but we must further consider the A.F. and M.E. forms, and we have to discover the Romanic type. The early M.E. forms are cheance, cheaunce, later chance, chaunce. The use of aun for an is common in A.F. and M. E., and due to the nasalization of the $a$ before $n$. Such nasalization is common in the modern F. an, en, in, on, un, but in A. F. it only occurs
in the case of $a n$. It is owing to this that the $a$ in dance, \&c., is variable, being sometimes pronounced like the $a$ in man, and sometimes like the $a$ in path. The form cheance suggests that a consonant has disappeared between $e$ and $a$, viz. $d$; it is from the L. type cadentia; for the L. cadere often means to happen, to befall, occur. This falling away of a consonant in the middle of a word (often of three or four syllables) is characteristic of French; and such a consonant usually precedes the vowel that receives the principal accent. There are very many examples of this character, where the consonant must be restored before we can arrive at the Romanic type. The consonants most frequently lost are $t, d$, or $c$. Examples are: round, O. F. roönd, L. ro( $t$ )undum; allow (2), to approve of, O. F. alouer, L. allau(d)āre; allow ( I ), to assign, grant, F. allouer, L. allo(c)äre. The last two examples show that we must be guided by the signification.
§ 40. In the case of many Latin trisyllabic types, accented on the first of the syllables, the second vowel invariably disappears. Hence, in many F. disyllables, we have to restore the medial vowel. Examples are: debt, M.E. dette, O.F. dette, L. $\operatorname{de} \bar{b}(i) t a$, fem., a sum owed, a sum due. The absurd spelling with $b$ was due to a silly pedantry that tried to restore the Latin written form, forgetting phonetic principles. It is rather significant that, after the O.F. dette had been forcibly turned into the M.F. (Middle French) debte, Tudor E. debte, the French had the sense to restore dette to its true form, but the like restoration was too much for ourselves to accomplish; so that debt is with us still. So also fable, F. fable, L. fāb(u)la ; couple, O. F. couple, cople, L. cōp $(u) l a$, a bond ; eagle, M. E. egle, A. F. egle, O.F. aigle, L. aqu(i)la; daunt, A. F. and O.F. danter, L. dom(i)tār (e), to subdue; marble, M.E. marbel, also marbre, O.F. marbre, L. acc. marm(o)rem, from marmor. Observe how marmre gave rise to *marmbre, and that to marbre.
§ 41. The above examples are quite sufficient to show how the forming of Latin types of F. words is largely a pro-
cess of restoration. These abbreviated forms resulted from the fact that the speakers of popular Latin in France were mainly Celts, who had habits of speech very different from those of the inhabitants of Spain and Italy. One effect was a great tendency towards abbreviation; as when the L. acc. vēnātiōnem was reduced to O.F. and M. E. veneison, which we have further reduced to venison or ven'son; and the L. acc. maledictiönem became O.F. maleison, E. malison. In a word like the L. acc. patrem, 'father,' the $t$ was 'voiced' to $d$ in the eleventh century, giving the form pedre, which is found in 1.2 of the very old French poem entitled Saint Alexis; and then the $d$ was further weakened till it at last disappeared, leaving the well-known F. pere as the only form in use.
§ 42. It will now be understood that the phonetic laws which govern the formation of French words are numerous and complex ; and must be studied in works that particularly explain them, such as Paget Toynbee's Historical French Grammar, Schwan's Grammatik des Altfranzösischen, Horning's Grammaire, prefixed to La Langue et la Littérature françaises, by K. Bartsch, or the Traité prefixed to the Dictionnaire général by Hatzfeld, Darmesteter, and Thomas. It is further necessary, for the purposes of English etymology, to study the peculiar habits of Anglo-French, of which I have given some account in the Second Series of my Principles of E. Elymology. We still have no dictionary of Anglo-French, nor any present likelihood of its being made ; and I know of no better Word-list than the one given, wilh references, at the end of my Notes on English Etymology.

As I have just been speaking of the excessive abbreviation of Latin words found in French, I may note that I have given many instances of syncope in English; showing that we ourselves have often further reduced the already brief forms. It is sufficient here to notice butler, A.F. botiller, a bottler; hamlet, a village, A.F. hamelet; Shakespeare's parlous for perilous, and the like.

## CHAPTER IV

## SOME SELECTED EXAMPLES

§ 43. I give here a few select examples of French words that offer considerable difficulty.

Afraid. This common modern E. word is really a respelling of affrayed, formerly in use as the past participle of affray, to frighten, to alarm, as used, for example, in Shakespeare, Romeo and Juliet, iii. 5.33-' that voice doth us affray'. The M. E. affraien, to frighten, was borrowed from the O.F. effraier or effreier, oldest form esfreer, to frighten, alarm, disturb, often used in the past participle, as in 1.438 of the Chanson de Roland. This verb arose from a curious blending of the Romance prefix es- (L. ex) with a Germanic root, giving the Low Latin form ex-fridāre, to break the king's peace, to cause an affray or fray, to cause a disturbance; compounded of the L. ex, out, and the Germanic frithu, peace, as found in the O.Sax. fridu, O. H. G. fridu (G. friede). Hence a disturbance caused by a breach of the peace was denoted in O.F. by effrei; whence A.F. effrai, affrai. In the Statutes of the Realm, i. 258, ' a breach of the peace' is expressed by affrai de la pees; which throws a clear light upon the origin of the Mod. E. fray, a docked form of the verbal sb. affray; cf. pages 43, 44 below.

Bolt, Boult, to sift meal. The oldest M.E. form is bulten, borrowed from the O.F. bulter, the same word as the Mod. F. bluter. There was an carlier O. F. buleter, representing a still earlier *bureter ; a form which can be safely inferred
from comparison with the O.F. buretel, a meal-sieve (see Hatzfeld's F. Dict. s. v. bluteau), and the Ital. burattello, a boulting-cloth for meal. Florio ( 1598 ) has the Ital. burattare, 'to boult or sift meal' ; from buratto, 'a sieve.' He also has burattino, 'a kinde of stuffe called Burato'; and Torriano adds buratto, burato, 'a boulting-stuff '; showing that the sieve took its name from the stuff of which it was made. It is believed that these words are connected with the F. bure, coarse woollen cloth; whence also the O. F. burel, and F. bureau.

Border. An older form bordure is retained in heraldry; and Caxton has bordeure. From the O. F. bordeüre, Late Lat. bordātūra, an edging; from an infin. *bordāre, to edge or border, due to the sb. bordus, a side, edge. This sb. is merely the Latinized form of the Teut. and A.S. bord, a board, also a ship's side, now spelt board.
§44. Bronze. From F. bronze; from Ital. bronzo. The ultimate origin is not given in N.E.D. ; but in my Notes on E. Etymology, I show that the suggestion in Hatzfeld's F. Dict. is correct, which connects the Ital. bronzo with the L. Brundusium, now Brindisi. Bronzo seems to be short for bronzino, ' made of bronze'; Florio translates it by 'brasen '. But bronzino really represents the L. adj. Brundisinum; and Pliny calls bronze by the name æes brundisinum. The real discoverer of this etymology was M. Berthelot, in his Introduction à la Chimie, pp. 275-279, and in his La Chimie au Moyen Age, p. 2 I. In the former work he suggests the etymology; and in the latter he supplies the evidence.
§ 45. Bullace. The M. E. form is bolace, from the O.F. belóce. The phonology is explained in my Notes, where I also give the Norman blosse, and the O. Southern F. pelosse; the Romanic type being *pilottja, for *pilottea, an adjectival form from pilota, a pellet; from L. pila, a ball. So that the sense is merely 'like a ball'; from the spherical shape.
§ 46. Bun. This is a word offering great difficulties; I give the full solution in my Notes. I suppose it to be

Southern F., not Northern. The M.E. bunne corresponds to Southern F. bugne (the form used at Lyons), mod. Prov. bougneto. Cotgrave gives the dimin. bugnets, pl., as a variant of beignets, bignets, 'little round loaves, buns.' Named from the rounded shape; M. F. bigne, Prov. bougno, a swelling. Curiously enough, its augmentative form is the modern E. bunion, M. Ital. bugnone.

The final F. -gne becomes $n$ in English; as in je règne, E. I reign (with silent $g$ ).
§ 47. Calm. From the sixteenth-century F: calme, which was merely borrowed from the Ital. calma, 'a calme or faire weather '; Florio. We also find Span. and Port. calma, but with a startling difference in the sense, which does not seem to have been stated with sufficient emphasis. For whilst the Span. calma means 'tranquillity', the Port calma means 'heat', and the adj. calmoso means 'very hot'. This goes far to prove the very ingenious explanation of the Ital. calma given by Diez, viz. that the $l$ is unoriginal, and was inserted by association with the L. calidus, hot ; the Ital. word should rather have been cauma, which is the word used in the Latin Vulgate version of Job xxx. 30 to signify the heat of the sun; which cauma is simply borrowed from the Gk. кav̂ $a$, heat. The Romaunsch cauma means 'a shady resting place', for cattle; and ir à cauma is 'to seek shelter from the heat', in strange contradiction to the L. usage. The mod.F. chómer, to be without work, to stand still, to do nothing (used, e.g. of the sails of a windmill), and the O. F. chomer, chommer, to leave off work, are certainly derived from L. cauma; the reference being to the cessation of work during the great heat of a summer's day. Mistral's mod. Prov. Dict. has some remarkable entries, viz. cauma, to be choked with heat, to repose ; caumo, chaumo, great heat ; caumas, in Toulouse calimas, great heat, a feeling of suffocation due to a South wind; caumo, chaumo, a shelter from the heat; chauma, cauma, Limousin calma, to repose, used of sheep during the heat of midday ; also, to do nothing,
to keep holiday; with other derivatives which it is needless to cite.
§48. Canopy. This (like calm) is a very interesting word, as helping to show the extraordinary influence upon the Romance languages exercised by the Vulgate version of the Bible. The use of this word depends upon a single text in the Apocrypha. The mod. F. has canape, but O.F. has the more correct forms conopé, conopée. Cotgrave gives: 'Conopée, a canopy, a tent, a pavilion.' From the L. cōnōpeum ; in Judith xiii. го. Borrowed from the Gk. $\kappa \omega \nu \omega \pi \epsilon \dot{\omega} \nu$, $\kappa \omega \nu \omega \pi \epsilon i o \nu$, an Egyptian bed with mosquito-curtains; so called because it kept out mosquitos and gnats. From the Gk. $\kappa \dot{\kappa} \nu \omega \psi$, a gnat, mosquito ; a word of doubtful origin. Prellwitz suggests a comparison with көิvos, possibly with the sense of 'sting '. If so, the source of canopy may have been cone.
§ 49. Censer. This word is chiefly remarkable for the complete loss of what was once its first syllable. Its history shows that it was a familiar contraction of the O. F. encensier, a vessel for containing incense. I mention this chiefly for the sake of drawing attention to the rather frequent loss of an unstressed syllable; note that the M.E. word has the principal stress upon the second $e$. The loss of a single unstressed vowel at the beginning of a word is the commonest of such abbreviations. Abbott's Shakespearian Grammar notes the poet's use of 'bove for above, 'nointed for anointed, scape for escape, larum for alarum, and many more; and frequently the whole of an unstressed syllable is dropped, as in 'cause for because, 'lated for belated, 'parel for apparel. Some of the shortened forms have become standard words, as in the case of fend, fender, for defend, defender ; sport for disport; splay for display ; cheat for escheat, \&c. The initial $e$ sometimes disappears in escape, and story (A. F. estorie) is really a doublet of history. Mend is short for amend, and stain for distain. The loss of an initial syllable, consisting of a single vowel, is so common that Sir James Murray found it advisable, for brevity's
sake, to coin the word aphetic to describe a word thus formed, and the word aphesis to describe the process of 'letting go'; Gk. ä $\phi \epsilon \sigma \iota s$, a letting go, dismissal. He gives as examples the prep. down (short for adown), squire for esquire, St. Loy for St. Eloy, limbeck for alembic, and 'tention for attention. It was because Dr. Johnson did not realize that the adv. down was short for $a$-down (A.S. of düne, 'off the hill') that, in the earlier editions of his Dictionary, he explained the sb. down by saying-' it is used now as if derived from the adverb; for it means ( 1 ) a large open plain or valley; and (2) a hill or rising ground, which sense is very rare.' Horne Tooke, naturally enough, promptly challenged both of these statements, denying that down ever meant 'a valley', and asserting that the sense of 'hill' was not only not rare, but the only sense in use.
§ 50. Some of the 'restored' forms are not always easy to guess. Thus the E. mend is short for amend, F. amender, L. $\overline{e m e n d a}$ re, to free from faults. Otherwise, mend suggests the idea of 'to fill with faults', the exact converse of what it really denotes. Lone, adj., is not easy, till it is found to be merely short for alone; and that alone meant 'all one', all by oneself. The word crewe entirely baffled me; it was Sir James Murray who discovered that, although the old sense of 'augmentation' can be explained from F. crue, creue (in Cotgrave), the modern sense of 'company of sailors', \&c., is best explained by help of the longer form acrew, accrew, or accrue; as when Holinshed says (Chron. iii. II35/r):-‘The towne of Calis and the forts thereabouts were not supplied with anie new accrewes [accessions] of soldiers.' Of course, various kinds of syncope have always been common, and examples abound; I mention it here only to call attention to the fact that abbreviation sometimes makes an etymology very difficult to discover; for we always want to know exactly how a word begins, and how it began in early times.
§ 51. The story of the cockatrice is told by Sir James

Murray, in the N.E.D., at some length and with very full particulars. I can only here indicate some of the results. ' The Ichneumon, an Egyptian quadruped, said to devour reptiles and crocodiles' eggs (which it searches for in the sand), is called by Pliny, Book VIII. 24 (35), § 88, the mortal enemy of the aspis and the crocodile. . . . From an early period, Western writers entertained the notion that this ichneumon was amphibious or aquatic.' Many new and contradictory fables arose about these animals; and sometimes the ichneumon, or the crocodile's enemy, was called by a name which in Latin was expressed by calcatrix, i.e. the treader or tracker, one who follows up traces, being, in fact, a Latin version of the Gk. ichneumon (i$\chi \nu \epsilon v \mu \omega \nu)$ ) from the verb i$\chi^{\nu \epsilon v \in \epsilon \nu, ~ t o ~ t r a c k . ~ C a l c a t r i x ~ b e c a m e ~ c o c a t r i z, ~ c o c a t r i s ~}$ in O.F., and cocatris in M. E.; mod. E. cockatrice. Then popular etymology confused cocatris with cocadrill, a spelling of crocodile, thus identifying the crocodile's enemy with the crocodile itself! But the fables did not end here; the cockatrice was further compared with the cock, whence emerged the story that a cockatrice was a serpent hatched by a venomous reptile from a cock's egg!
§ 52. Dismal. This curious word can only be understood by help of its history. Chaucer uses in the dismal to signify 'at an unlucky time'; literally, 'in the evil days.' Here 'evil days' is expressed by the A.F. dis mal, where mal means 'evil', and dis is the pl. of $d i$, a day, now only used in Lun-di, Mar-di, Mercre-di, \&c. Unlucky days were once superstitiously regarded, and they were called dismal days, the word days being added because the origin of dismal was forgotten, and it was taken to be an adjective like fat-al, \&c. The phrase dismal days was once common; and dismal came to mean gloomy, sad, and not merely ill-omened. The proof of this etymology was given by Mr. Paget Toynbee in 1891 , who obtained this result by reading M. Paul Meyer's notes upon Glasgow MSS. In describing a MS. marked Q. 9. 19
(fol. 100, back), the latter remarks that in a poem written in 1256 the phrase dis mal occurs, the words being written separately; and dis mal is explained to mean les mals jours. I published the explanation of the passage in Chaucer in 1888, and again in 1896, in a note to a second edition of Chaucer's Minor Poems; see the Glossary. But in 1888 it was only a guess. Minsheu first suggested a connexion between dismal and dies malus.

## CHAPTER V

## TEUTONIC TYPES

§ 53. It has been shown, in $\S 3^{2}$ above, that, by comparison of the various Romance languages, we can construct 'Romanic types' which will include all the forms actually found, and may be considered as their original; as when, for example, we construct the Romanic type *captiāre, to account for the Ital. cacciare, F. chasser, \&c. In precisely the same way we can construct 'Teutonic types' to represent the original Teutonic forms whence the known forms are descended. The first question is, of course, what is meant by the Teutonic languages? And in order to understand the matter properly, it is also necessary to consider the meaning of the Indo-germanic languages, of which the Teutonic languages form but a single branch.
§ 54. All the languages of the world have been distributed into large families, though it is not quite certain that this has been done with sufficient accuracy. They are of various degrees of importance, and amongst these families we may single out, as the two best known, the Semitic and the Indogermanic. One account of the Semitic languages distributes them as follows. (1) The Northern; including the old Assyrian or Babylonian in early cuneiform inscriptions; the Aramaic (a dialect of which became the ordinary language of Palestine shortly before the Maccabean age, when the New Hebrew remained as a language of the schools); and the Syriac (an Aramaic dialect); also, the old Phoenician,
the old Carthaginian or Punic, and the Hebrew. (2) The Southern; including Arabic, Hamyaritic (once spoken in S.W. Arabia); and Ethiopic, the ancient language of Abyssinia, the modern form being called Amharic.

The other best known family of languages is sometimes called the Aryan, ${ }^{1}$ and sometimes Indo-European, because it contains the most remarkable languages of India and Europe, and is fairly appropriate ; but the name now most in use is Indo-germanic. This last name gives too much prominence to Germanic, practically substituting Germany for the greater part of Europe ; but as it seems to be well established, it is best to employ it. It is therefore only necessary to define its meaning. The following is the list of groups of languages which the family includes.

The Indian group (Sanskrit, and many modern languages of India) ; Iranian (Persian, \&c.) ; Armenian; Greek; Albanian; Italic ; Celtic ; Germanic (or Teutonic) ; Baltic ; and Slavonic. Most of these have important subdivisions. For a brief account of them, see my Primer of English Etymology, p. 72. At the present moment, we are only concerned with the Germanic group, or, as I shall here call it, Teutonic. I confess that I prefer this on account of its vagueness, and as suggestive of the inclusion of other languages than German.
§55. This group has three chief divisions; the Western, containing English, Frisian, Dutch, and various dialects of German; the Eastern, containing Moeso-gothic (or Gothic), and the Northern, or Scandinavian languages, viz. Icelandic (or Old Norse), Norwegian, Swedish, and Danish. In practice, for the purposes of etymological comparison, it is best to consult the older forms of these languages rather than the modern. The most useful are: (Western) Old English, with its three main dialects, the Northumbrian, the Mercian, and the Wessex or Southern (commonly called

[^4]Anglo-Saxon); Old Friesic, closely allied to the preceding; Old Saxon; Old High German; (Northern) Old Norse; (Eastern) Gothic. Teutonic types are usually inferred from the comparison of the forms found in A.S. (Anglo-Saxon); O. Fries. (Old Friesic); O. Sax. (Old Saxon, or Saxon of the continent) ; O. H. G. (Old High German) ; O. N. (Old Norse, or Old Icelandic) ; and Goth. (Gothic, or Moeso-gothic, the Gothic of Moesia, in MSS. of the sixth century, and long extinct). There is no very old Swedish or Danish; but Middle Swedish and Middle Danish are often helpful. By such comparison a Dictionary of Teutonic types has been compiled, entitled Wortschatz der Germanischen Spracheinheit, by H. Falk and A. Torp, which forms the Third Part of the Vergleichendes Wörterbuch der Indogermanischen Sprachen, by A. Fick (Göttingen, 1909). The forms there given are a little less archaic than the forms given in Sievers' Grammar of Old English, but they practically mean much the same thing. Thus Fick gives the Teutonic type for the E . one as ${ }^{\text {* aina, }}{ }^{1}$ whereas Sievers gives it as *ainoz. The difference merely consists in these two unessential points; first, that Fick gives the Teutonic ending $a$, which is equivalent to the Idg. (Indogermanic) short 0 , whereas Sievers gives the more archaic 0 ; and secondly, Fick gives *aina ( $=$ *aina-) as the stem of the word without a case-ending, whereas Sievers adds the final $-z$ of the primitive Teutonic nominative case-ending, in the masculine gender of these $o$-nouns. This is only a matter of detail, and it is easy to change from one system to the other (if the gender is known); the really essential point is that the main part of the type was ain-, as to which no difference of opinion exists.
§ 56. Sievers gives a large number of Teutonic types; for, indeed, Anglo-Saxon is often an excellent guide to them.

[^5]Many can be safely inferred from A. S. and Gothic alone. I give a few examples.

1. E. one. A. S. $\bar{n} n$; O. Sax. èn; O. H. G. ein; O. N. einn; Goth. ains. Teut. type *ainoz.

In this case, it is easy to go further; for since the Teut. $a$ corresponds to Idg. (Indo-germanic) ŏ (Gk. o), the Idg. type is *oinos. From the latter were derived Gk. *oivos, found in the fem. oilv, the ace on a die; Old L. oinos, whence L. ùnus ; O. Irish oen, one.
2. E. stone. Since the word one was formerly pronounced like the on- in on-ly (one-like), it is not surprising to find that Chaucer rimes one and stone together. He says of Hercules (Cant. Tales, в 3296 )-

> Of Achelois two horn-es, he brak oon;
> And he slow [slew] Cacus in a cave of stoon.

It follows from this that we can obtain the forms for stone by the easy method of prefixing st to all the forms above. They are: A.S. stān; O. Sax. stèn; O. H. G. stein; O. N. steinn; Goth. stains. Teut. type *stainoz. There is, however, no Idg. *stoinos. Nevertheless, Gk. has the remarkable forms $\sigma \tau i a$, $\sigma \tau i o \nu$, both with long $\iota$, and both meaning 'a little stone'. The suffixes are different; but the stems only differ in gradation. As regards the vowel-sounds only, $\sigma \tau i-$ is a slightly weakened grade of the root-form $\sigma \tau \epsilon!$; and $\sigma \tau \epsilon l^{-}$: $\sigma \tau o t-:$ : A. S. drīfan (to drive) : A. S. $d r a ̄ f$ (he drove). Here $\sigma \tau \epsilon \iota$ exhibits the prime grade, and the Teut. stai- (for $\sigma \tau 0 \iota^{-}$) the second grade. Such relationship by gradation is not uncommon.
3. E. -teen (as in thir-teen); shortened form ten. A. S. tien (but Old Mercian tēn) ; O. Sax. tehan; O. H. G. zehan; O. N. tiu; Goth. taihun. Teut. type *tehun or *tehan; where a represents an obscure vowel, like the sound of the (written) o in cannon. Idg. type *dekm, *dekam; whence L. decem; Gk. $\delta_{\epsilon \in \kappa a ; ~ S k t . ~ d a c ̧ a . ~ W e ~ h a v e ~ h e r e ~ a n ~ e x a m p l e ~ o f ~ t h e ~ c h a n g e ~}^{\text {a }}$ from the 'classical' $d$ and $k$ to the Teutonic $t$ and $h$ respec-
tively; a change exemplifying what is known as Grimm's Law. That this change is regular, appears from such examples as L. duo, E. two; Gk. סákpv, E. tear ; L. dens (gen. dent-is), E. tooth; L. domare, E. tame; \&c. And again, from L. cornu, E. horn ; L. centum, E. hund-red ; \&c.
§ 57. Sievers shows, in an interesting way, how English substantives once had endings like those of Latin and Greek. There were Teutonic masculines in *-oz, corresponding to Latin masculines in -us, Gk. masc. in -os; and neuters in *-om, corresponding to L. neuters in -um, Gk. neut. in -ov. Also, Teut. feminines in ${ }^{*}-\bar{o}$, corresponding to L. fem. in $-a$ (once $-\bar{a}$ ) and Gk. fem. in $-\bar{a}$ (Attic $-\eta$ ). The traces of the Teut. suffix ${ }^{*}-o z$ are but slight; we infer it from the Goth. masc. nom. in $-s$, and the Icel. m. nom. in $-r$. The final unstressed $s$ easily became $z$, as in E. days, and even $-r$ (Primer of E. Etym., p. 85). In A. S., the Teut. *-oz and *-om are invariably dropped in the nom. case, but ${ }^{*}-\bar{o}$ is only lost in 'long' stems, i.e. when a long vowel appears in the preceding syllable; in 'short' stems it appears as $-o$ or $-u$, as in Teut. *karō, A. S. cearo, cearu, E. care.

Besides Teut. words in *-oz, *-ō, ${ }^{*}-o m$ (cf. L. bon-us, bon-a, bon-um), there are stems in *-joz, ${ }^{*}-j{ }^{-}{ }^{*}$ *-jom (cf. L. al-ius, al-ia, al-ium), and stems in *-woz, *-wō, *-wom (cf. L. sae-uus, sae-ua, sae-uum). The Teut. $-j$ - ( $-i-$ ) causes 'mutation' of a preceding vowel in A.S., and (except after $r$ ) also causes 'gemination' or repetition of the preceding consonant. Thus the Teut. *kunjom, 'kin,' becomes A. S. cynn, with mutation of $u$ to $y$, and a change from $n j(=n y)$ to $n n$. The Teut. $-w$ - often betrays itself in A. S. by its appearance in oblique cases, as in teoru, neut. 'tar,' gen. teor-zees; or it appears even in the nom., by analogy with the forms of the oblique cases, as in snā-w, 'snow,' gen. snā-wes. There is also an $i$-declension, and even a $u$-declension; but not many words belong to the latter. Examples are: E. hand, A. S. hand, Goth. handus, Teut. type *handuz; E. ford, A. S. ford, Teut. type *furðuz
or *furduz, cognate with L. portus (gen. portūs), a harbour ; E. son, A. S. sunu, Goth. sunus, Teut. type *sunuz; cognate with Skt. sünus, identical with the Gothic, except that, in Skt., the former $u$ is long.
§ 58. I here give a brief list of some Teutonic types, each preceded by the modern English word to which they gave rise. It is usual to mark these theoretical forms with a preceding asterisk, but as they are all of this character, it is here needless. The words are all substantives.
acre, akroz, m.
(whence) acorn, akranom, n.
angle (fish-hook), anguloz, m.
ape, apon-, m.
apple, apaloz, m.
arm (of the body), armoz, m.
arrow, arhwōn-, f.
ash (cinder), askōn-, f. \} asgōn-, f. $\}$
ash (tree), askoz, m.
awl, aloz, m.; alō, f.
back, bakom, n.
bairn (child), barnom, n.
bast, bastom, n.
bath, bathom, n.
bean, baunōn-, f.
bear, beron-, m. \} berōn, f.
beard, bardoz, m. \}
bardom, n. $\}$
beaver, bebruz, m.
bed, badjom, n.
(beech-tree), $b o ̄ k o ̄, f$. beech, $b \bar{k} k j o ̄ n$-, f. $\left.\begin{array}{c}\text { book, } b \bar{o} k, \text { f. (consonantal } \\ \text { stem). }\end{array}\right\}$
belly, balgiz, m.
bench, bankiz, m.
birch, berkō, f.
berkjōn-, f. $\}$
bliss, blithsjo, f.
blood, blödom, n.
bloom, blōmon-, m. n.
boar, bairoz, m.
board, burdom, n.
bolt, bultoz, m.
bone, bainom, n .
bough, bōguz, m.
bow (weapon), bugon-, m.
bread, braudom, n.
bride, brūdiz, f.
bridge, brugjōn-, f.
bristle, burstiz, f. burstōn-, f. $\}$
brook, brōkoz, m.
brōkom, n. $\}$
broom, brâmoz, m.
broth, bruthom, n.
brother, bröther, m.
burr, burzon-, m.
§ 59. There is much to be learnt from a consideration of even so small a collection of types as the above. English almost always drops the suffix, reducing disyllables to mono-
syllables, and trisyllables to disyllables, but is otherwise fairly conservative. Compare acorn with *akran-, angle with *angul-, apple with *apal-; and so on. But we should take particular notice of such vowel-changes as occur in bed from *badjom, beech from *bōkjōn-, belly from *balgiz, bench from *bankiz, and the like. All these vowel-changes are due to what is known as ' $i$-mutation', in German called umlaut. The change is due to the fact that the vowel in the first syllable is affected by that in the second, viz. the $i$ in *balgiz, *bankiz, or the $j$ (i. e. the German $j$, sounded like E. $y$, which is the consonantal sound very closely allied to $i$ ) in *badjom, \&c. When we arrange the vowels according to the musical scale, they take the order $u, o, a, e, i$, where $u$ is the lowest in tone and $i$ the highest. The word *badjom was reduced in Gothic (by the loss of $-0 m$ ) to badi, the final $j$ being actually vocalized, and the same form must have been known in prehistoric English. But the man who becomes very familiar with the form *badi may come in course of time to say bedi; because, knowing that he has to sound $i$ in the second syllable, he unconsciously somewhat raises the tone of $a$, by imperceptible gradations, till at last it becomes a clear $e$; and there it rests, because $e$ is so well known and so common. Neither is this the sole change; for there was also a strong tendency towards turning the $d j$ in oblique cases, such as the genitive *bedjes, into a mere double $d$, giving the form beddes; and this habit affected even the nominative, especially when the $i$ dropped off; so that *bedi became bedd. The gen. beddes, dat. bedde, with a nominative written as bed or bedd, are forms in actual use in A.S. MSS. Similarly *balgi- became *belgi-, or rather *belyi-; because the A. S. $g$ was pronounced as a $y$ before the vowel $i$. Hence A.S. belg, M.E. beli, bely, now written with ll. *Banki- became *benki-; and then-since $k$ before $i$ was regularly 'palatalized' so as to pass into the sound of $c h$ (as in church)-*benki became *benchi, benchĕ, bench. The 'mutated' form of $\bar{o}$ (long o)
always appears as $\bar{e}$; thus the Gothic fodjan, 'to feed,' was, in A. S., successively *födjan, *fédjan, fëdan, M. E. feeden, E. feed. Similarly, the fem. *bōkjōn- became *bökju, *bēkju, bèce, E. beech.

When the vowel in the first syllable was already $e$, only one change was possible, viz. it could be raised in tone to $i$. This happened in the case of 'birch', which had a double form; berk $\bar{a}$ became the O. Mercian berc, 'birch,' altered in A.S. to beorc, because A.S. preferred the curious 'broken' or diphthongal sound of eo whenever an rc followed. But *berkjön- became *birkjō-, birce; and the A. S. birce became birchĕ, E. birch. I may here notice that the hyphen (-) written after 'weak' forms ending in $n$ signifies that the theoretical form is incomplete. There must have been some vowel after the $n$ once, though we do not know how to write it. For the termination -an, so common in A.S. nouns of the - $n$ (or weak) declension, corresponds to the Lat. -inin hom-in- (hom-in-em), if masculine, or to the Lat. -ion- in nät-iòn- (nāt-iōn-em), if feminine.
§ 60. Most of the Teutonic substantives conform to such types as the above fairly well; but modern German often departs from them to an extent which invites consideration. Thus we have E. bed, but G. Bett (with $t t$ for $d d$ ) ; E. ape, but G. Affe; E. apple, but G. Apfel; E. thing, G. Ding; E. bath, G. Bad; E.brother, G. Bruder ; with other variations fully enumerated in Principles of Eng. Etym., First Series, pp. 509-14. This is due to what is called the 'second sound-shifting', which took place at a much later date than the 'first sound-shifting' which differentiated the Teutonic group of languages from the rest, as when, e.g. initial $c$ was changed into $h$ in such a word as the E. horn as compared with the Latin cornu. This second sound-shifting, which affected the Old High German alone, among all the Teutonic group of tongues, first appeared in the seventh century, when some of the High German dialects began to substitute $p$ for $b$,
$t$ for $d, k$ for $g$; whilst $t$ became ts (written $z$ ), $k$ became $h(c h)$, and $p$ became $f$ or $p f$. This process seems to have come to an end in the eighth century. Examples are: E. bolster, G. Polster ; but usually $b$ remains, as E. bed, G. Bett. E. daughter, G. Tochter. E. goose, O. H. G. kans ; but M. H. G. has gans, as in modern German, so that this change was not ultimately carried out. E. tame, G. zahm ; E. book, G. Buch; but initial $k$ is unaffected. E. ape, G. Affe; E. deep, G. tief; E. path, G. Pfad. The Teutonic types refer to a much more primitive period of linguistic history than this second sound-shifting, so that the peculiar High German consonants need not be considered in forming them. Nevertheless, the O.H. G. vowel-system is quite archaic, and must be taken into account.

It should be understood that the above remarks are merely of a general character, and leave unmentioned many important sound-changes. Particular information as to IndoGermanic and Teutonic sounds and their variations is fully given in Prof. Wright's Primer of the Gothic Tongue and Old High German Primer. See also his Gothic Grammar, his Old English Grammar, and his Historical German Grammar.

## CHAPTER VI

## INDO-GERMANIC TYPES

§ 61. We have already seen how 'Romanic types' can be constructed so as to include all the forms of a word that occur in the Romance languages. Thus the F. chasser, Ital. cacciare, and the rest, are all included under the type *captiàre ; and the F. nation, Ital. nazione, and the rest, are all included under *natione. We have also seen how 'Teutonic types' can be constructed to include all the forms of a word existing in the Teutonic languages. Thus the E. bed, Du. bed, and Gothic badi, are included under the type *badjom ; it being understood that the G. Bett does not go back to the prehistoric period, but was evolved, not far from A.D. 800 , from a form coincident with Low German. The reason why the formation of Romanic types is possible, is because the various Romance languages go back to a common original, which was a form of Folk-Latin, or Latin of the people ; though in some instances they have admitted words of a more learned character, the original forms of which are on record. Similarly, Teutonic types are possible, because the various Teutonic languages evidently go back to a common original, though such an original is not actually recorded, as it had its being in prehistoric times. We treat the Romance languages as being sister-languages, all descended from the same mother; and we similarly treat the Teutonic group of sister-languages, as being all from the same source.
§ 62. But we can take a much wider view than this, by considering such languages as Teutonic, Latin, Greek, and
the rest, as being related to each other in the same sisterly way. This great idea lies at the bottom of all modern philology; until it was grasped, no advance in the subject was made, or was even possible. It came from the discovery of Sanskrit, and may be dated as arising about $\mathbf{1 7 8 4}$, when the Asiatic Society was founded at Calcutta; or rather, perhaps, about 1829, when Jakob Grimm published his Deutsche Grammatik, which demonstrated the great value of the 'comparative method' in the study of philology. Previously to this, most of the ideas as to the relationships of various languages to one another were hopelessly wrong. There was a general idea among many that all English was derived from Latin, for no better reason than because this was true of many borrowed words; and further, that all Latin was derived from Greek, a position vigorously defended by the Rev. F. E. J. Valpy, in an undated book entitled Virgilian Hours. But, fortunately, Sanskrit was difficult to place ; and though the mistake was at first made of considering Latin and Greek as being derived from it, there was much in the latter languages that refused to be thus explained. The result was a reconsideration of the whole problem, resulting in the new and saner view that, although Latin had borrowed several words from Greek, these two languages stood, as to main words, in sisterly relation. In the same way, it was discovered that each of the Indo-germanic languages had a native stock of its own ; so that, speaking generally and neglecting occasional borrowings, they may be treated as if descended from a parent language, which existed at a wholly prehistoric and very early period. Just as Italian, Spanish, Provençal, and the rest are sister languages descended from popular Latin, so Teutonic, Celtic, Baltic, Slavonic, Latin, Greek, Sanskrit, and the rest go back to a common origin. One result of this is that they may be practically regarded as coeval, and that it is hardly safe to look upon one of these languages as being older than another.

Latin is as old as Greek, and the Teutonic element in English is as old as Sanskrit. The fact is that many are apt to forget the one all-essential consideration, that languages consist, properly speaking, of spoken utterances only, and that the representation of them by means of written symbols is conventional and inadequate. Written documents may tend to slacken the rate of change, but that is the most that they can do effectively. The existence of such records is a great help from an historical point of view ; but that is another matter. America existed before Columbus discovered it ; and some archaic form of Teutonic from which Anglo-Saxon is descended was spoken many hundreds of years before Angle, Jute, Frisian, or Saxon set foot upon the shores of Southern England. Greek was surely spoken at the time of the siege of Troy, long before it was written down, even in the poems of Homer. Iceland was colonized in 874, and Icelandic was spoken there in the ninth century; but the extant written documents are of the thirteenth century, four centuries later. The earliest Glossary containing Old English words goes back to the year 700, but English is not any older than Icelandic on that account. The period when a language is first written down affords no sure clue to the time when it was first spoken.
§ 63. Suppose that the sun is shining brightly behind a dark cloud, and throwing out from its lower edge several divergent rays. We see the rays emerge and separate, and we can conjecture the position of the sun, though its actual sphere is hidden from us. We may imagine that this hidden sun represents the original parent language of the Indogermanic races. It throws out rays as from a centre, but we see nothing of them till they at last emerge ; and one ray may possibly emerge at a point much further from the centre than the rest; for all depends on the shape of the cloud. That is just the case with a given ray, which we may call (if we will) Latin. We see it at last clearly enough, and can trace its course afterwards. And though we cannot see the
sun itself, the rays, if traced upwards and backwards, converge towards a point where we know that it must be. It is by a similar process that comparative philology conducts us towards an ultimate centre. All that we can do, then, is to take each language as we find it, and to trace it back as far as we can. The Teutonic types, constructed by comparing the various Teutonic tongues, take us back to prehistoric times and to a respectable antiquity ; and they can fitly be compared even with Greek and Latin and Sanskrit. Even actual Anglo-Saxon and Old Norse and Gothic forms can be used instead of them, in many cases, without vitiating the conclusions to be drawn; as will appear by taking a few examples.
§64. E. Bite, verb. The E. bite is one of the strong verbs, which are of the nature of Teutonic roots. The pp. bitten is still in use, but the old pt. t., $b \bar{a} t$, which should have given a modern E. bote, is obsolete. The scheme of Teutonic strong verbs is given at pp. 68, 69 of my Primer of $E$. Etymology. Bite, A. S. bittan, belongs to the first conjugation, in which the original diphthong of the prime grade was ei. And, as E. $b$ and $t$ correspond, respectively, to the Idg. (Indo-germanic) $b h$ and $d$, we see that bite is from the Idg. root *bheid; which may be taken as being the Idg. type (without a suffix). It only remains to find the cognate words in other languages. It has no Greek equivalent ; but it is obviously cognate (or intimately connected) with the Skt. bhid, a root meaning 'to split, to cleave, to pierce, to rend asunder '. The Skt. short $i$ merely belongs to another 'grade', viz. the weak grade seen in the A.S. pp. bit-en, modern E. bitten. The L. cognate verb is $f(n)$ dere, to cleave, with an unoriginal $n$ inserted in the infinitive, not found in the pt. t. fi$d-\bar{\imath}$ or the pp. fissus. We can therefore at once set down the result in this form. The E. bite, Skt. bhid, L. findere are all co-radicate (i.e. from the same root); from the Idg. type ${ }^{*}$ bheid. This is sometimes printed as $\sqrt{ }$ BHEID ; where $\sqrt{ }$ signifies 'root'.
§ 65. Similarly we can go through examples of the other conjugations; as below.

Conj. 2. Choose. The original diphthong of the root was $e u$. In the A. S. cēosan, the corresponds to Skt. $g$, Gk. $\gamma$, L. $g$; and the $e u$ varies to $a u$ and $u$; as tabulated (p. 69 of Primer). Hence the Idg. type is ${ }^{*}$ geus. The cognates appear in the Skt. jush (from *gus, *gush), to relish; Gk.
 taste. Thus choosing was the result of 'tasting'. See the Dictionary for further particulars.

Conj. 3. Drink. The Teut. type *drenkan has no cognates beyond the Teut. languages.

Thirst, sb. The sb. thirst has no root-verb in English, though we know that the $-t$ is only a suffix. But we can always, when there are cognates, make up an imaginary Teutonic verb, such as *thers-an (pt. t. *thars, pp. *thorsen), which will serve the purpose of exhibiting the gradations belonging to the conjugation. The Teut. root *thers corresponds to Idg. *ters, which is clearly represented by Gk. $\tau \hat{\rho} \rho \sigma-\epsilon \sigma \theta a u$, to become dry. In Latin, rs often becomes $r r$; hence *ters-a, terra, i.e. 'dry land'. The second grade *thors corresponds to L. *tors-; whence (with rr for rs before a causal suffix) torr-ēre, 'to dry extremely, roast,' torr-id-us, 'very dry,' E. torrid, and the pp. *tors-tus, shortened to tost-us, whence E. toast.

Conj. 4. Bear, vb. A.S. ber-an; Teut. type *ber-an, pt. t. *bar, pp. *bor-en. Idg. type *bher, Skt. bhar, Gk. $\phi \epsilon \rho-\epsilon \iota \nu$, L. fer-re; O. Irish ber-im, I bear; Russ. br-ate, to take, to carry ; Armenian ber-em, I bear ; Pers. bur-dan, to bear. With many derivatives.

Conj. 5. E. Eat. A. S. et-an ; Idg. type *ed. Skt. ad, to eat ; Gk. $\bar{\epsilon} \delta$ - $\mu \epsilon \nu a \iota$; L. ed-ere; Lithuanian $\dot{e} d-m i$, I eat. An interesting derivative is the Goth. fra-itan, to eat up, devour, contracted in A.S. to fretan, whence E. fret, said of a moth, \&c.

Conj. 6. E. Heave. A.S. hebban, for *hafjan (with mutation of $a$ to $e$, and the usual substitution of $b b$ for $f j$ ); Goth. hafjan, to carry, to bear. The A. S. $h$ corresponds both to Idg. $k$ and $q$; and $f$ to Idg. $p$. In the present case the Idg. type is *qap. Whether the Idg. initial is $q$ or $k$ is determined by the Lithuanian (or the Lettish) form; the former answering to Lith. $k$ and the latter to Lith. sz (pronounced as sh in show). In the present case we find, as a cognate word, the Lettish kampiu, I catch hold of. Other cognates are the L. cap-ere, to seize ; Gk. кá $\pi-\eta$, a crib, manger (to hold food for cattle; cf. L. cap-ax, capable of holding) ; and even Gk. $\kappa \dot{\omega} \pi-\eta$, a handle.

Conj. 7. E. Blow, to bloom, to flourish as a flower. A. S. blō-rean, to blow ; blō-ma, a bloom ; and (with added $s$ ) blōs-lma, a blossom. The Idg. type is *bhlō; or (with added s) ${ }^{*} b h l \bar{o} s$. From the former we have O. Irish blā-th, W. blaw-d, bloom ; from the latter, L. floss, a flower, whence the vb. flör-ère (for *fōs-ēre), to flourish, F. fleur-ir, E. flour-ish. Flower and flour are variants of the same word; both from A. F. flur (F. fleur) ; from the L. acc. flörem.
§ 66. Recapitulating the above examples, we have, as connected with the seven A.S. conjugations, the following Idg. types. 1. *bheid, to bite ; 2. ${ }^{*}$ geus, to choose ; 3. ${ }^{*}$ lers, to be dry ; 4. ${ }^{*} b h e r$, to bear ; 5. ${ }^{*}$ ed, to eat ; 6. ${ }^{*} q a p$, to seize, carry, lift ; 7. ${ }^{*} b h l \overline{0}$, to bloom. The difference between the conjugations really depends upon the vowel-sounds of the roots, which are all referred to the Greek values of the vowels, as that language has best preserved the vowel-sounds of the parent language. The 'root-vowels' are, respectively, as follows. I. $\epsilon \iota$; 2. $\epsilon v$; 3. $\epsilon$ (before two consonants) ; 4. $\epsilon$ (before $\lambda, \mu, \nu$, or $\rho$ ) ; $5 . \epsilon$ (before one consonant) ; 6. $a$, rarely $0 ; 7 . \bar{a}, \eta$, $\omega$ (all long).
§ 67. One great advantage of discovering the Idg. type is that some of the roots are prolific, and their numerous derivatives are instructive. A good example appears in the

Idg. *ten (*ton, *ton), to stretch. For this root we have evidence in the Skt. tan, to stretch, Gk. $\tau \in i v \in \epsilon \nu\left(\right.$ for $\left.{ }^{*} \tau \in \nu-j \epsilon \omega\right)$, L. ten-d-ere ; Goth. uf-than-jan, to stretch out ; O. H. G. den-en, G. dehnen, to stretch. Skt. has several derivatives. Gk. has té-tav-os (a reduplicated form), a strain, tension, whence E. tetanus; tóv-os, a thing stretched, a tone, note, as emitted by a stretched string. L. has not only tendere, to stretch, but ten-ère, to hold fast, connected with the idea of stretching tight or drawing tight, and the pp, tentus (from tenēre) is sometimes used instead of tensus, the pp. of tendere. Both verbs have numerous derivatives, as abs-tinēre, at-tinēre, con-tinēre, dē-tinēre, dis-tinēre, ob-tinēre, per-tinēre, re-tinëre, sus-tinēre; at-tendere, con-tendere, dē-tendere, dis-tendere, ex-tendere, in-tendere, ob-tendere, os-tendere, per-tendere, por-tendere, præ-tendere, prō-tendere, re-tendere, sub-tendere; whence many E . words have been formed which will readily suggest themselves. Other connected words are ten-ax, holding fast, whence E. tenacious; ten-on; ten-or; ten-uis, thin, whence E. tenuity; ten-er, slender, tender, whence E. tender, adj. ; and we have the same root in such E. words as tenable, tenant, tenement, tenet, tenure, tense, tightly strained, and the verbs to tend, to tender. Also a tent, or pavilion, a tenter, or frame for stretching cloth; tenter-hooks, \&c. Cf. also O. Irish tana, thin, tét, a stretched string (as of a fiddle); Welsh tant, a string, teneu, thin. The native E. word from this root is thin, cognate with W. teneu, L. tenuis, \&c. The A. S. form is thynne, which can be thus accounted for. From the Idg. *ten, Teut. *then, form an imaginary A. S. verb *then-an, to stretch (which may easily have once been real enough) ; pt. t. *than; pp. *thun-en. Then, from the weak grade *thun-, as seen in the pp., form the adj. *thun-joz, which is really the Teut. type of thynne. For the $j$ mutates the $u$ to $y$, and the $-n j$ - becomes $-n n$ - quite regularly, as in many other cases. Even thin has its derivatives, viz. the verb to thin, the adj. thin-nish, the adv. thin-ly, and the sb. thin-ness.
§68. In these examples, the Idg. type is rendered by a monosyllable, because the form of the Idg. infinitive mood is uncertain, and cannot well be added. But in the case of sbs. and adjs., we can often obtain the whole Idg. word.
E. Hen. A. S. henn, G. henne; Teut. type *han-jö, fem. The corresponding Idg. type is *kanja. The masc. form is A. S. hana, G. hahn; Teut. type *han-on- ; Idg. type *kanon-. Here -on- and $-j \bar{o}$ are the masc. and fem. agential suffixes ; and the base kan-is obviously L. can-ere, to sing, Welsh can-u, to sing; and the senses are 'male singer' and 'female singer '; though the feminine may have been formed from the male, which alone had, from the first, the sense of 'singer '.
E. Hare. A.S. hara; G. hase; Teut. types *hazon-, hason-; Idg. type, *kason-. The Old Pruss. sasnis, for *kasnis, a hare, also shows that the third letter was really $s$; and that the Skt. çaçás, a hare, was originally çasás, but was turned into çaçás by assimilation; whence by a popular etymology, as if it meant 'the jumper', came the verb $\mathcal{c}_{\boldsymbol{c}}$, to jump. But it is supposed to have been connected rather with the A.S. hasu, 'grey,' L. cānus (for *casnus, the $\bar{a}$ resulting from as; Walde quotes the old Pelignian casnar, old, i.e. grey-headed). It may be noted that all Idg. colour-names are extremely vague. The fact that the Skt. ¢̧açás was accented on the latter syllable explains (by Verner's Law ${ }^{1}$ ), the change from $s$ to $r$ in the A. S. form hara.

Holt, a copse, wood. A.S. holt, n.; G. holz; Teut. type *hultom; Idg. type *kldom. Here the $h$ corresponds to Gk. $\kappa$, the $u l$ to a vocalic $l$, rendered in Gk. by $\lambda a$, and the $t$ to Gr. 8. Thus the near equivalent of holt appears in the $\mathrm{Gk} . \kappa \lambda$ ádos, m., a twig, a branch, connected with $\kappa \lambda$ áє $\iota$, to break, break off. It would appear that a holt was a place resorted to for obtaining twigs, \&c., as firewood.

[^6]The above examples are sufficient to show that it is often possible to discover the Idg. forms of modern English words.

The correspondence of initial sounds in the dental and labial series is soon acquired; viz. that the E. $d$, $t$, th answer to Idg. $d h, d, t$; and that the E. $b, p, f$ answer to Idg. $b h, b, p$. But the guttural series are more complex, as there are really triple sets of them, known respectively as the palatal, middle, and labio-velar gutturals; so that it is necessary to consult the best authorities when we have to deal with them.

## CHAPTER VII

## THE VALUE OF ENGLISH

§69. I propose to show, in the present chapter, the great value of English in the scheme of comparative philology, quite apart from its extreme usefulness as a medium of communication and the proud position which it holds in literature. Next to Gothic, which has long been extinct, it presents, in its oldest forms, the best types of Teutonic words. This alone would render it necessary for all students of the Germanic languages to ascertain the best Anglo-Saxon forms, but English has a value even beyond this, as there are many instances, as I propose to show to some extent, in which it throws much light upon other languages, such as Latin, Greek, or Sanskrit. How this can be the case may best be seen by taking an example or two in which such a language as French can receive light from a Romance language much less widely used, such as Roumanian or Romaunsch.
§ 70. Since all the Romance languages are, to a large extent, from the same source, it may happen now and then that such a language as Roumanian, which is not often taken into much consideration, may sometimes supply a very useful form for comparison. Take, for example, the E. fringe, borrowed from the O.F. frenge (now spelt frange); with which we may compare the Ital. frangia, Span. and Port. franja. But the Roumanian form is frimbie, which at once suggests the probability that all these forms go back to a popular Latin *frimbia, which is nothing but a slight perversion of the Late L. fimbria. For, though the L. fimbriae is commonly used only in the plural, to signify 'threads', we find in the Vulgate version of Matt. ix. 20 the expression
'fimbriam uestimenti eius', the hem of his garment; and with this form as a guide, we find in Florio's Ital. Dict. the entry: 'Fimbria, the hem or skirt, a fringe, a welt,' \&c.; which puts the matter beyond all doubt, as regards the sense. Note, however, that the Ital. fimbria is not from the popular Latin, but is the equivalent 'learned form'; and perhaps the Ital. frangia was borrowed from French.
§ 71. Take again the E. word marmot, borrowed from the F. marmotte, assimilated to F. marmotte, fem. of marmot, a monkey, but really due to the Romaunsch name murmont, a marmot, lit. 'mountain-mouse,' from the L. acc. mürem montis, mouse of the mountain. Hence also the Bavarian murmentel, a marmot, and the perverted G. murmelthier (see Kluge).
§ 72. In like manner, if it be once admitted that native English (as being an excellent representative of Teutonic) is a sister language to Latin, Greek, Sanskrit, and the rest, it may easily happen that not only an Anglo-Saxon word, but even its modern representative, may help us to understand the origin of Latin or Greek or Skt. words. A good example is E. star, Mid. E. sterre (Chaucer). If we compare this with the L. stella, it is not difficult to see that the latter really represents *ster-la, and is a diminutive from an Old L. base *ster- or *stèr- ; cf. Gk. à $\sigma \tau \epsilon ́ \rho-o s$, gen. of $\dot{a} \sigma \tau \dot{\eta} \rho$ (whence E. aster-isk); also Gk. ävт $\quad$ ov, a constellation, whence the L. astrum was borrowed. But when we turn to Skt., the Skt. words are $t \bar{a} r \bar{a}, \mathrm{f} .$, ' a star,' and tāras, m. pl. 'stars'; and we can see at once that these words have lost an initial $s$, and stand for *stārā and *stāras respectively. The point is that, without any assistance from either Gk. or Latin, the E. star would have been sufficient to show what the original Skt. forms must have been.
§ 73. The above example is of no great consequence, as we had the Gk. and Latin forms to help us. It becomes much more interesting when it is the English word that offers
the best evidence, as may easily happen. It is high time that we woke up to a sense of this possibility, which has long been familiar to the student of comparative philology. After centuries spent in the contemplation of the 'derivation' of native English words from Latin, or Greek, or Hebrew, or some other impossible source, it is time to show, not that Latin and Greek can be 'derived' from English, but that English may be very helpful in determining the original forms of 'classical' words. Surely this ought to be a matter of some interest to a student of the English language.
§ 74. Take, for example, the common E. verb to bind; and let us see what can be done with it. We at once notice its likeness to the Skt. bandhas, a band, a tie, and the Skt. root bandh, to bind. But an E. $b$ answers to a Skt, initial $b h$; from which we at once see that the Skt, root was originally *bhandh, afterwards changed to bandh merely because a Skt. initial $b h$ becomes a simple $b$ when the syllable ends with an aspirate, such as dh. Both E. bind and Skt. *bhandhgo back to a root of the form ${ }^{*} b h e n d h$; see § 66 above. ${ }^{1}$ But what will happen in Latin? The $b h$ will be L. $f$, and the $d h$ will be $d$, and the root will be $*$ fend, with the sense 'to bind '. Obviously, this gives the derivation of the L. offendix, 'a band, knot'; where the prefix is the usual L. of-, a form of the prep. ob. Again, what will happen in Gk,? The Gk. root ${ }^{*} \phi \epsilon \nu \theta$ - must become ${ }^{*} \pi \epsilon \nu \theta$-, to avoid a double aspirate ; if to this we add the suffix $-\sigma \mu a$, we shall obtain ${ }^{*} \pi \epsilon \nu \theta \sigma \mu a$, which will regularly become $\pi \epsilon i \sigma \mu a$, the name of the cable or 'painter' by which ships were fastened up or bound to the land. Observe that in this case it is the English word which gives the real clue to the set of derivatives. There is indeed a Pers. bandan, 'to bind'; but this will not tell us whether the root begins with $b$ or $b h$, whereas the E . form is quite decisive on the point.

[^7]§ 75. The Gk. ф'ف $\gamma \epsilon \iota$, to roast, is easily understood by turning it into Anglo-Saxon. Corresponding to $\phi \omega \gamma$ - is the A. S. $b \bar{o} c$. But $b \bar{o} c$ is the pt. $t$. of the strong verb bac-an, 'to bake.' And, in fact, the E. bake (with its Teutonic cognates) is the only word that gives any light here; there is no such word in Latin, or Lithuanian, or anywhere else.
§76. The E. verb to brew is the A. S. breow-an, a strong verb; from the Idg. root *bhreu, of which the weak grade is *bhru, represented in Latin by *fru. This explains the L. dēfrutum, 'must boiled down'; lit. 'that which is brewed down'. The Thracian ф分тov, a kind of beer, is 'that which is brewed'. The long $\hat{v}$ is closely related to the short $v$, being considered as a weakened grade, but less weak than the common short $v$ of the 'weak' grade.
§ 77. The E. verb to brook, to put up with, is obsolescent and archaic; the M.E. form is brouken, to enjoy, to use; A.S. brūcan, to enjoy, to use. Compare L. fruī, to enjoy, pp. fructus, and the sb. frügēs, fruit. This determines the value of the Latin $f$, which may represent either Idg. $b h, d h$, or $g h$. In this case it represents $b h$, and the root is the Idg. *bhreug. The weakened grade is *bhrūg, as in L. frūg-es, A. S. brūc-an. And fruc-tus is for *frug-tus, the $g$ becoming $c$ before $t$. The Skt. bhuj, to enjoy, seems to have lost an $r$; the original form may have been *bhruj.
§78. The Gk. $\chi^{€ \lambda \iota \delta} \delta \dot{\omega} \nu$, 'a swallow,' has no obvious root in Greek. But English suggests that it means 'singer ', from the Teutonic *gel- (Gk. $\chi^{€ \lambda-}$ ), to sing. Cf. A. S. gellan, giellan, to sing aloud, to shout, mod. E. to yell (like G. gellen). The second grade is ${ }^{*}$ gal-, as in nightin-gale, 'the singer by night.' So that the -gale in the latter word gives the sense of the Gk. $\chi^{\epsilon \lambda}$ - well enough.
§ 79. The Gk. картós means 'the wrist'; but to get the root of it and the true sense, it is best to consult English. In Brugmann's Grundriss, and ed., § 675 , it is shown that $\kappa а р \pi-$ corresponds to A. S. hwearf, second grade of hweorf-an,
to turn; so that кapmós is named from 'turning', just as the E. wrist is allied to the verb to writhe, i.e. to twist about. Whir-l (for *whirf-le) is the frequentative of an equivalent Old Norse word, and means 'to turn round continually'.
§ 80. The L. lass-us, 'tired,' whence E. lassitude, is best explained by comparison with E. late. The E. late is the A. S. læt, late, slow ; from the strong verb to let, A. S. lext-an, to let alone, let go, forsake; in mod. E., 'to permit.' Lassus is for *lad-tus, let alone, forsaken; and so, helpless, tired out. The causal verb let, to hinder, is derived from the adj. late; lit. 'to make late'.
§ 81. The E. fold is helpful in explaining the Gk. $\delta \iota-$ $\pi \lambda a ́ \sigma t o s$, doubled. It is, literally, two-fold ; for $\pi \lambda a ́ \sigma-t o s$ is for * $\pi \lambda \dot{a} \tau-\cos$, 'folded.' Here the Gk. $\pi \lambda a \tau$ - is the weak grade of an Idg. *poll-, whence Goth. falthan, A.S. fealdan, to fold. The verb $\pi \lambda a ́ \sigma \sigma \epsilon \iota \nu\left(\right.$ for $\left.{ }^{*} \pi \lambda a \dot{a}-j \epsilon \iota \nu\right)$ is to mould, to form in clay or wax; whence the E. plastic and plaster.

But the most extraordinary use of the E. fold is the possibility of employing it to explain the word puttee, meaning 'a long strip of cloth wound spirally round the leg from the ankle to the knee'; see the N.E.D. It is the Hindi pattiz, a bandage, from the Skt. paṭi, a strip of cloth, allied to Skt. patas, a piece of cloth. The Skt. cerebral $t$ shows the loss of a preceding $l$, so that patas is for *palt-as, and is allied to fold. The puttee is folded round the leg several times.
§ 82. Since the A. S. $h$ corresponds to L. $c$, and the A. S. $\bar{o}$ to L. $\bar{a}$ (as in A.S. mōdor, a mother, L. māter), the A. S. $h l \bar{o}-r e a n ~ c o r r e s p o n d s ~ t o ~ L . ~ c l a ̄-m a ̄ r e . ~ T h e ~ L a t i n ~ w o r d ~ m e a n s ~$ 'to cry aloud', whence E. claim, ex-claim, pro-claim; but the E. low is far more primitive in sense, as it is strictly confined to denoting the sound uttered by cattle.
§ 83. The Gk. 'ॄpeitecv, 'to tear down,' is well illustrated by the expressive verb to rive, which is not a native E. word, but borrowed from the O. Norse riffa, the exact equivalent of $\epsilon$ - $\rho \epsilon i \pi \epsilon \iota \nu$. The same verb to rive further illustrates the L. rīpa,
a bank made by the riving stream, on each side of the rift caused by the course of the water. Hence, the Late L. rīpāria, a river-bank, also the river itself, Old F. riviere, Anglo-F. rivere, E. river. So that the E. river is now applied to the course of the stream, though formerly, like the Ital. riviera, it meant the bank caused by the stream, considered as a 'riv-er' or as riving the sides of its channel. Observe that the $v$ in the verb to rive is from the O.N. $f$; but the $v$ in river is from the corresponding L. $p$.
§ 84. One great value of English forms is that they preserve $s$ and $w$, both of which are so easily lost in Greek; indeed, the sound of the latter disappeared in Greek altogether at quite an early date, though traces of its use are found in Homeric verse. Persian and Welsh sometimes replace initial $s$ by $h$, as in Pers. haft, L. septem, E. seven; W. hen, O. Irish sen, L. sen-ex, 'old.' In like manner we find the rough breathing or aspirate in the Gk. é $\boldsymbol{\epsilon r} \boldsymbol{r}$, 'seven'; and in the O. Gk. ${ }_{\epsilon} \boldsymbol{e} \nu-o s$, , old.' A remarkable instance occurs in the Gk. av̉-os, 'dry,' Attic aṽ-os, where $s$ has been lost twice over, as is seen by comparison with Lithuan. saüs-as, 'dry.' This is further confirmed by the E. sere or sear, 'dry, withered,' Teut. type *sauz-óz, Idg. type *saus-ós. From the same root is the E. austere, O.F. austere, L. austerus, which is not a true L. word, but is merely borrowed from the Gk. av̉c-тпрós, making the tongue dry, harsh; hence, metaphorically, severe, austere ; from the Gk. aṽєıv, to make dry. Latin usually preserves the $s$, as in sulc-us, a furrow; allied to Gk. $\delta \lambda \kappa o ́ s$, a furrow, from the verb $\epsilon^{\epsilon} \lambda \kappa \epsilon \iota \nu$, to draw along, with reference to the plough. In this case E. preserves the name of the plough itself, viz. in the A.S. sulh, a plough, preserved to this day in Devonshire in the form zool.
§ 85. The Gk. $\epsilon ⺌-\epsilon \nu$, to singe, to burn, has lost an $s$, and stands for ${ }^{*} \epsilon \hat{\sigma} \sigma-\epsilon \nu \nu$. The cognate L. verb is $\bar{u} r$-ere, to burn, which certainly stands for * $\bar{u} s$-ere, as appears from the pt. $\mathrm{t} . u s s \bar{i}$ and the pp. us-tus. The same Idg. root *eus is
the origin of the A.S. $y$ s-lan, pl., hot embers; a word which is by no means lost, but appears in many Northern dialects as easles or isels; see the E. D. D. The Prompt. Parvulorum, compiled in 1440, has 'Isyl of fyre, favilla'. The dialect of modern Cumberland or Yorkshire affords just as good evidence for a Gk. ${ }^{*} \epsilon \mathcal{V} \sigma-\epsilon \iota \nu$ or a L. ${ }^{*} \bar{u} s$-ere as a Sanskrit Dictionary, which gives the root ush (for *us), to burn.
§ 86. English is at its best when we come to deal with the letter $w$, which is still preserved among us with its ancient pronunciation, though nearly every other Teutonic dialect pronounces it as $v$, which is also its sound in all the Romance languages. Latin had it also in early times, but it became a $v$ before the Romance languages were formed. In very early times Gk. had the sound, and denoted it by the symbol digamma ( $F$ ). Brugmann instances the Doric Feikatı, 'twenty,' L. uīginiti ; Fétos, 'a word,' cognate with L. $u \overline{0} x, \& c$. But the sound ceased in Greek, and the symbol $F$ went out of use at a very early period, except in so far as it survived in the L. F. But English has kept the sound to the present day in nearly every position; and in some dialects it has even encroached upon the domain of $v$, as in wery for very, once common even in London. Before $r$ it is no longer sounded, but is still written, as in write, wrinkle, wreck. Even these written forms are admissible as evidence, because the $w$ only appears in words where it was once heard. The E. words wall, wick (a village, town), and wine are of especial interest, because they were borrowed from the Romans at so early a date that their initial sounds preserve the Old L. $u$ as used in the forms uallum, uīcus, uinnum, i. e. with the sound as of $w$. In the Epinal Glossary, written about A. D. 700, we find the compounds fore-uuall, 'fore-wall,' and unin-ærn, lit. 'wine-shop', hence, 'a tavern'; but they were borrowed long before that, and brought over from the continent by the English invaders. Winn, 'wine,' also occurs in O. H. German, with the same initial sound as in English; but the mod. G.
has Wein, with $w$ as $v$. The A. S. uuic, 'a wick, village,' occurs in a Charter dated 740. All three words, in the eighth century, were written, in English documents, with initial $u u$. The evidence of Welsh is to the same effect ; the British used to prefix $g$ before a $w$ in borrowed words, as in gzeiced, 'a wicket,' small gate, borrowed from English; and the Welsh words for wall and wine are, respectively, gwal and gwin.
§ 87. Latin is of course very useful for restoring the Gk. forms that have lost a $w$; as, e. g. in the case of Gk. oै $\chi$-os, a chariot, allied to L. uehiculum, a vehicle, and ueh-ere, to carry. But Latin is not always available ; and in such cases English may serve. Take, for example, the Gk. $\boldsymbol{v}$ - oós, 'wet,' which is derived from an Idg. root *weg(w), with a 'labial' $g$, an assumption which is made for the purpose of connecting it (as no doubt it should be) with the L. $\bar{u} u$-idus, ' wet.' The initial $w$ is only found in the related Teutonic words, such as Du. wak, 'moist,' Icel. vök (gen. sing. and nom. pl. vak-ar), f. a hole, an opening in ice, lit. 'a wet place'; Swed. vak, a hole in ice. The Scand. $v$ was once a $w$; and at some early date, we borrowed this Scand. word in the form wak, and it is still known in our dialects. The E. D. D. quotes wake as an East Anglian word:-'I passed a wake, or open space in the ice, where the swans were swimming.' Gawain Douglas several times uses the adj. wak, in the sense of 'moist'. Thus he has-
'Als swift as dalphyne fysche, swymmand away In the wak sey of Egip or Lyby.'
The original line in Virgil (Aen. v. 594) is-
' Delphinum similes, qui per maria humida nando.'
It often happened, in winter time, that a vessel, sailing over a lake, had to make its way through thin ice, and thus left a track of open water behind it. This was called the wake, and afterwards became a general name for a ship's track.

Richardson quotes from Dampier's Voyages (1699) as follows:- 'in the wake of the ship (as 'tis called) or the smoothness which the ship's passing has made on the sea.' This furnishes a curious commentary on Homer's phrase $\dot{v} \gamma \rho \dot{\text { a }} \kappa \epsilon \in \lambda \epsilon v \theta a$, in Od. iii. 7 I , and elsewhere.
§ 88. The Gk. єuvis, adj., 'bereaved of,' is allied to the Skt. ünas, 'lacking, incomplete'; and further, to the Gothic wans, 'lacking,' and to the E. wan-t-ing. The -t- in the last word is due to the nom. neuter suffix of the Icel. van-r, adj., 'lacking'; the neuter form being van-t.

The Gk. vi $\delta \omega \rho$, water, and the L. unda, a wave, are related to the Lith. wandi, water, Slavonic voda, water, and to the E. water. From the Slav, voda comes the Russian vodka, brandy, or spirit.

The Gk. $\dot{v} \phi$-aivetv, to weave, is allied to E. weave, A. S. wefan.
The Gk. ${ }_{\epsilon}^{e} \lambda \iota \xi$, a twist, a curl, a spiral line, has certainly lost an initial $w$, as is remarkably shown by the allied A. S. wiloc, now misspelt whelk, the name of a mollusc with a spiral shell. The prov. E. name wilk is better; and some dialects even preserve the archaic form willok, as given in the E.D.D. Shakespeare has, in King Lear, iv. 6. 71, the following line :-' Hornes wealk'd, and waued like the enraged Sea'; for so it appears in the first Folio. Here wealk'd means 'convoluted', and needs no correction, or at any rate needs no $h$ after the $w$. It is probable that the poet found the expression in Golding's Ovid, where 'welked horns' occurs thrice, as noted in my Etymological Dictionary.

The lost $w$ at the beginning of the Gk. $\ddot{\epsilon}^{\rho} \rho \gamma o v$ is preserved in the cognate E. work, A. S. werc.

The E. witch-elm is so named from its pendulous branches; the A.S. name is wic-e, lit. 'bending', from wic-, the weak grade of the A.S. wīcan, to bend, to yield, give way. The Teut. base is *weik, answering to the Idg. root *reeig; and it is suggested that from this root we may derive the Gk. oiz $\gamma \iota \nu$, to open, which may have meant 'to cause to give way', in
speaking of a door. The usual pres. sing. is oily $\nu \nu \mu \tau$ (for ${ }^{*} o_{-}$ Fiyvvpı); with an aorist $\neq i \xi \xi a$. Cf. Skt. vij, to recoil, flee from. It seems probable that the root *weik, whence the Gk. єiketv, to yield, give way, is derived, may be a related form, with $k$ for $g$. Such variants occur occasionally.
§ 89. English is still more helpful in the few cases where Gk. has lost both $s$ and $w$ together, in words that once began with the combination sw. Modern English has two remarkable examples in the words sweat and sweet; and Chaucer has the word sweven, 'a dream,' which affords a third.

The E. sweat is really a verbal form, as it represents the A. S. swretan, derived from the sb. swāt, which should have given a modern E. swote; but this has long been obsolete, though it occurs, spelt swoot, in Chaucer, Cant. Tales, G 578. The Teut. base is *sweit, whence the second grade *swait (A. S. swāt). The Idg. root is *sweid; second grade *swoid; weak grade *swid. The weak grade gives us (with loss of $s w{ }^{1}$ ) the Gk. io- $\rho$ ós, sweat, and the Skt. svid, to sweat. The second grade occurs in the Skt. svedas, sb., sweat, and in the L. sūdor (for *swoidor), sb.

The E. sweet is the A. S. sweète, adj., from a Teut. type *swōt-joz; with the usual mutation of $\bar{o}$ to $\bar{e}$. The Teut. *swōt- answers to Idg. *swād-, which occurs in the Skt. svād-us, sweet, the L. suā-uis (for *suād-uis, with loss of $d$ ), and the Greek $\dot{\eta} \delta \dot{v} \dot{s}$ (with loss of initial sw, though the $s$ is indicated by the rough breathing).

Chaucer, in the Cant. Tales, в 3930 , has:- And eek a sweven upon a night he mette,' i.e. and moreover he one night dreamt a dream. This is from the A. S. swefn, a sleep, a dream. The Teut. base is *swef, to sleep, answering to the Idg. root *swep, to sleep, whence the sb. *swepnos, represented by the Skt. svapnas, sleep, and, in an altered form, by the L. somnus. From the weak grade ${ }^{*}$ sup (with $h$ for $s$ ) we have the Gk. virvos, whence E. hypnotize.
${ }_{1}$ The $s$ is represented, after a sort, by the rough breathing or aspirate.

## CHAPTER VIII

## LINGUISTIC ERRORS

§ 90. The chief rule by which modern philology is conducted is that phonetic laws operate with almost mathematical regularity, to an extent beyond what might have been expected. This seems to be particularly the case whenever words have been let alone, so as to develop their sounds naturally and regularly, changing from time to time quite imperceptibly, and always in the same direction. Many of our provincial dialects are in this case, and contain old words handed down from quite an early period, the forms of which are of great philological value. There is but little 'corruption', as it has been called, of popular words; it is only when the people adopt 'learned' words from without, that the temptation is presented of bringing them into a more acceptable form, as being more in accord with sounds that they know already. Such a word, for instance, as bronchitis is in common use by some doctor whom a poor man consults, and the patient's endeavour is not so much to understand it as to reproduce, approximately, the sound of it in a form which he can himself remember, such as brown-kitus or brown-litus or brown-typhus, all of which are in actual use. This is, after all, of no very great consequence, as the number of educated people who know the right sound of the word, even though many of these know nothing of its origin, is sufficiently great to preserve the word from alteration. The truth is, after all, that perversions of word-forms by those who are deemed illiterate or ignorant have seldom any great vogue, and can
at any rate usually be suppressed. The real perverters of language are rather to be found among the learned or educated, who, precisely because they have learnt more or less Latin or Greek, neither of which perhaps they know how to pronounce, are apt to think that they possess the clue to the formation of all the chief words in the English language. Such is not really the case, because there is much of it that can only be explained by help of Anglo-Saxon and AngloFrench, both of which are much neglected.

In particular, much harm was done by the pedants of the sixteenth century, who took upon themselves to respell many words on a wrong principle. Thus they inserted a $b$ in debt and doubt, because there was a $b$ in the Latin words from which the Old French dette and doute were derived! According to this extraordinary and absurd principle, we ought not to write challenge, but rather challumnge, in order to explain that challenge represents the L. calumnia. Luckily, they were ignorant of the fact. It would indeed be puzzling to know how to spell age, so as to denote its origin from aetāticum; perhaps etatice might have served the turn. It shows what comes of forgetting the only true principle of spelling, viz. so to write each word as to represent, as nearly as is convenient, its spoken sound. It is constantly being forgotten that our spelling was phonetic once, and is based upon phonetic principles; and no great harm came to it till the pedants took it in hand.

It is just the same with our place-names. As long as the inhabitants of a place are left to themselves, they will faithfully preserve the sound which fairly represents the original name, with such changes only as the lapse of time brings with it. But when the local antiquary tries to decipher it, being usually altogether ignorant of phonetic laws, he discovers an origin that is wholly false, and forces his new representation of it upon the makers of maps.
§ 91. Instances in which words have been perverted in
form by the populace or by the meddlesomeness of learned men need not be considered here. I will merely refer the reader to the Dictionary of Folk-Etymology by the Rev. A. Smythe Palmer, which records a large number of instances. Most of his instances are correct and instructive, though I should dissent from a few of them; and I further think that the case is somewhat over-stated, and that some of the alleged 'corruptions' are rather forced. His later and smaller work entitled The Folk and their Word-lore is, in my opinion, a better book, and represents the facts with perspicuity and fairness.

But there is yet another source of difficulty which requires continual care. Quite apart from the ignorance of the uneducated or the mistaken views due to inaccuracy on the part of the pedant, there is a large number of errors in the formation of language arising from blunders of a more venial kind and from unintentional mistakes. It is well to give some instances of this character, as they sometimes sensibly impair true phonetic development, and go to prove that, however inexorable phonetic laws may be in their regular operation, they are sometimes accidentally perverted by some outside influence. Etymology is full of traps of this character, which care and experience cannot always avoid.
§ 92. The commonest source of perversion is well known by the name of 'false analogy', viz. the drawing of a false conclusion from facts that are not fully understood. A few examples will make this quite clear.

Analogy in arithmetic means proportion, or the equivalence of ratios, and its practical application is called the Rule of Three. The ratio of 3 to 7 is the same as that $I_{5}$ to 35 , and is written in the form:-As $3: 7:: 15: 35$. Or, if only three terms are known, the fourth term (35) can be obtained by multiplying 7 by ${ }_{5} 5$, and dividing by 3 . The answer thus obtained must needs be correct. A similar analogy is often applied in the domain of language, but the answer is often
doubtful and may be quite wrong. If we say-As bear : bore : : wear : wore, we are employing the fact that bore is used as the past tense of bear, in order to discover the past tense of wear. But the first proportion itself is somewhat dubious, since the past tense of bear was once bare, which would lead up to a past tense ware. Such an analogy was once held to be correct, a fact which accounts for the expression in Luke viii. 27 -' and ware no clothes.' But, strictly considered, the argument is wholly fallacious; for it assumes what is untrue, viz. that the verbs bear and wear were originally both strong verbs, and belonged to the same conjugation. But history tells quite a different tale; for the A. S. beran, to bear, was indeed a strong verb, with the past tense bær, at a later date spelt bare; and bore was a new, and erroneous, past tense, due to confusion with the pp. bor-n. On the other hand, the A.S. werian, to wear, was a weak verb, with the past tense werede, or, at a later date, wered; a form which, had it been left alone, would now be spelt weared. As late as Chaucer's time, it was still wered; for he describes the Knight by saying that 'Of fustian he wered a gipoun'. And again, in the Monkes Tale ( $\mathbf{B 3 I}^{\mathbf{I}}$ ) he has the pp. wered :-' er that he had wered it half a day.' This clearly shows that there came a time when some speaker of English, by means of a specious but quite misleading chain of reasoning, came to the conclusion that the past tense of wear ought to be wore, and the pp. ought to be worn; a view which actually found ready acceptance and has been acted on ever since as if it were correct.
§93. There is a large number of similar instances; and their importance lies in the fact that, when once accepted, they have become 'correct'. Even when we know them to be wrong, we cannot mend them.

It is a general rule that all verbs of French origin, or indeed, of foreign origin generally, are conjugated as weak verbs, with a pt. t , and a pp. ending in $-e d(-d,-t)$. But
there are exceptions, due to false analogy, as in the case of strive, from the A.F. estriver. The pt. t. was originally strivede, but (by the influence of drive, thrive, shrive) its past tense became strove, with a pp. striven. Chaucer has the pt. t. stroof (Cant. Tales, a ro38). The verb to dive is likewise weak; but the pt. t. dove occurs in some dialects, and occurs in canto 7 of Longfellow's Song of Hiawatha. Many similar inconsistencies arise in the conjugation of verbs; thus the verb to hide, properly a weak verb, has acquired the strong pp . hidden, which is no older than the sixteenth century. It arose from analogy with ridden, the pp. of ride.
§ 94. Other grammatical errors occur in the declension of substantives. The plurals often go wrong, owing to various misunderstandings. Thus the plural of body was bodies; but bodies was sometimes respelt as bodice, after which it acquired a pl. bodices. Baize is a respelling of bayes, once the pl. of a cloth of a bay colour. Trace was once the plural of trait, and meant both of the straps or cords by which a vehicle is drawn along; but it can now only be used of one of them. We can hence explain quite easily more than one difficult passage in Shakespeare, especially one in Othello where the editors have altered the spelling without warrant, and, as it happens, needlessly. For Cotgrave explains the F. traict (as he spells it) by-'A Dart, Arrow, \&c. . . also, a teame-trace or trait [note this] . . . also, a lime, ${ }^{1}$ or line wherein a blood-hound is led, and staied in his pursute.' When the word trace acquired the same sense as trait, it also acquired this last sense of 'leash'. It also happened that, as recorded in Cotgrave, the verb tracer, to trace, had a by-form tracher, which became in English trash; and this form trash, when used as a sb., likewise acquired the sense of trace (of which it was a variant), and thus came likewise to mean 'a leash '; a sense which Nares duly notes, in his Glossary,

[^8]s. v. trash, as occurring in Markham's Country Contentments. The E. D. D. duly notes the occurrence of trash, in prov. E., in the sense of 'a cord used in checking dogs'. Hence Nares well explains the passage in The Tempest, i. ii. 81, where to advance is opposed to to trash, i.e. to hold back. In Othello, II. i. 312, the First Folio has 'whom I trace', i. e. whom I hold back, which is quite correct as it stands. Editors usually adopt Warton's emendation of trash for trace, in ignorance of the fact that the word admits of either spelling. This investigation helps to establish a fact which has already been noticed with respect to Norman French and Old French, viz. that different dialects of a language have different pronunciations of the same word; a principle to be borne in mind. Other plurals ending in -ce are brace (O. F. brace, the two arms, L. brāchia); deuce, 'two' on a die (F. deux, pl.); invoice, used as a singular, though it represents invoys, pl. of invoy (F. envoi); and quince, also used as a singular, though quins is the pl. of quin, also spelt coin (O. F. coin).

Another curious perversion occurs in the case of sledge (Mid. Du. sleedse), with the same sense as the older sled. This odd form arose from confusion with another sledge, derived from the verb to slay, with the sense 'to strike', which is now seldom used, except in our dialects, without the addition of hammer. Yet a sledge-hammer means 'mallet-hammer'; with a partially duplicated sense. This mode of explaining a word is not uncommon; when a word becomes obscure, a word of similar signification is added as a gloss. The usual example given of this is a curious one, viz. the placename Torpenhow ; where Tor, i. e. 'hill', when obsolescent, was explained by Pen, i.e. 'hill'; and when Torpen ceased to satisfy, it was explained by How, i. e. 'hill'. The words tor and pen are both Celtic ; how is Old Norse.
§ 95. The game of chess was called, in Late Latin, ludus scaccorum, the game of the shahs, or of the kings. The E. chess likewise means 'kings', being the plural of check,
a king. It was due to a peculiar way of forming the plural in Norman French, well explained by M. Gaston Paris in his Extraits de la Chanson de Roland, p. 13. He shows that when a Norman sb. ended in a labial or palatal sound, such terminal sound was lost before the $s$ which, when added, formed the plural. He gives as examples the words colp (blow), chief (head), eschec (check), blanc (white); the plurals being cols, chiés, eschès, blans. The Norman eschec is our 'check', lit. 'the king', of Arab-Persian origin; and eschès is our 'chess', lit. ' the kings'.

A similar grammatical habit explains other words as well. Thus the E. coney, cony, a rabbit, is not derived directly from the O.F. conil, a rabbit, but arose from the plural form coniz or conis, in which the $l$ was suppressed. So that cony was due to a mistake ; we did not realize the peculiarity of the F. plural formation.
§ 96. In several cases, a sb. was supposed to exhibit a plural form merely because it happened to end in $s$. This offered a direct challenge to such as had a turn for grammar to cut off the apparently superfluous suffix, so as to give the word a truly singular appearance; a ruthless method which was sometimes successfully adopted. Thus the A. S. byrgels, a tomb, became the M. E. byriels; hence our burial, with loss of $s$; and even the sense of the word was affected, as well as its form, by association with funeral. The A. S. rêdels, an enigma, should have become riddles; but it was shortened to riddle. The word pease, pl. peasen, from the A.S. pisa, borrowed from the L. pisum, has become pea, pl. peas. It is fortunate that cheese escaped this treatment, or it would now be called chee. Our word skate, when used as a fish-name, is correct; but the skate that traverses ice should be skates, with a pl. skateses or skatesen; from the Du. schaats, pl. schaatsen. We find in Todd's Johnson, a quotation dated 1695, referring to 'the nimble Dutchmen on their scatses'. The pl. of eaves (A.S. efese) is eaveses, spelt eueses in Piers
the Plowman, B xvii. 227 ; but few would now venture to use this justifiable form. The word alms has been preserved as a singular mainly by the phrase 'asked an alms' in Acts iii. 3. Riches had once a pl. richesses, as in Chaucer. A summons is a correct form, as far as the $s$ is concerned, though the verb is to summon, from the A.F. somoner, L. summonére; but the sb. represents the A. F. somonse, f., orig. the pp. f. of the above A. F. somoner, to summon.

Other words which have lost the final $s$, because it seemed to be a plural suffix, are cherry, from O. North. F. cherise, L. cerasus, Gk. кєpaoós; sherry, formerly sherris, as in Shakespeare, a word of Spanish origin; marquee, borrowed from the F. marquise, a large tent; barberry, from F.berberis, the suffix -beris (shortened to -beri) being ingeniously altered to berry. In addition to the word lea, a tract of open land, a meadow (A.S. lēah), there was also an independent word lease, leaze, a pasture, pasture-land (A.S. l̄̄es) ; and it is sometimes impossible to distinguish between the latter and leas, the pl. of lea. There was also a form leasore, a pasture, really due to the A.S. l̄eswe, the dative of l̄es, a leaze. Assets is merely the A.F. assez, lit. 'enough', in which the $z$ was pronounced like $t$; but it looks like a plural, and has frequently been treated as such by evolving from it a singular asset. When we speak of small-pox, few people recognize that pox is merely a peculiar spelling of pocks, the pl. of pock (A.S. poc), a pustule. Cherubim is the Hebrew plural of cherub; but, as this is not always recognized, it has sometimes been treated as a singular, with a pl. cherubims. French turned the final $m$ into $n$, and treated the word as singular ; Cotgrave has-'Cherubin, a cherubin. Rouge comme un cherubin, Red-faced, Cherubin-faced, having a fiery facies like a Cherubin.' Cherubs were generally painted red in early art, which explains the expression in Chaucer's Prologue, 1. 624: -'a fyr-reed cherubinnes face'; and Cotgrave shows that this had become proverbial.

Roe, i.e. fish's spawn, is really a mistake for roan (Icel. $h r o g n$ ) ; the $n$ was dropped because it was supposed to be the pl. suffix, as in shoon, pl. of shoe. The word mistletoe is a similar false form, as it represents the A.S. mistel-tān, lit. 'mistle-twig', from tān, a twig. This error arose from the use in M. E. of toon as the pl. of too, 'toe.' Chaucer says of Chaunticleer (C.T. в $405^{2}$ ) - 'Lyk asur were his legges and his toon.' But we must not explain effigy as being derived from the L. effigies, with the $s$ lost; for it arose in quite another manner. We simply borrowed it from the F. effigie; and this, in its turn, was a 'learned' form due to the L. acc. effigiem, or to the L. phrase in effigie.
§ 97. Some words exhibit a plural form twice over, as brethr-en, child-r-en, formed by adding een to the old plurals brether and child-er. As the words bodice and trace and cherubim are really the plurals of body and trait and cherub, it will be seen that bodices, traces, and cherubims are double plurals as regards their formation, though the fact is not apparent. The same may be said of invoices and quinces. Other double plurals that are not obvious are jesses, (perhaps) kexes, and ramsons. The strap round the leg of a hawk used in falconry was called in O.F. get or giet. As one was tied to each of the legs, the pair was denoted by the plural ges or gies, the $t$ being dropped before the $s$ of the plural, as in the case of chess (explained at p. 81). Hence the M.E. ges, pl.; the Book of St. Albans speaks of 'gesse made of leder', i. e. leather. Later, the pl. was jess-es, as in Spenser, F. $Q$. vi. 4. 19. The O.F. get was derived from L. iactum, acc. of iactus, a cast, a throw; because these straps were used in letting the bird fly. Kecks (also kex) is a name for the dried stalks of large umbelliferous plants, such as the wild parsnip or wild carrot; also used in the form keck, especially in the phrase 'as dry as a keck'. Hence it is possible that kexes stands for keckses, and is a double plural from keck. The etymology is somewhat uncertain; but the E.D.D.
shows that another name for a keck is keggas, which is the O. Corn. cegas, hemlock, allied to Welsh cegid, hemlock, words which were probably borrowed from the L. cicūta, hemlock, rather than cognate with it. At the same time, it is also possible that kecks was borrowed directly from keggas or the O. Corn. cegas, in which case it would be well to write it kex, and to regard this kex as a singular. Ramsons is a name for wild garlic. The A.S. name was hramsa, pl. hramsan. Ramson is the equivalent of this A. S. plural, showing that an $s$ has been superadded without warrant. In North Yorkshire it is correctly called rams.
§ 98. Some words existed in a plural form before we borrowed them, as is the case with brace, noted above; from the O.F. brace, L. brāchia, 'the two arms'; mod. F. brasse, a fathom, i. e. as far as the extended arms will reach. One way of detecting such words is to observe the gender. The L. brāchium is neuter, but the L. brāchia might easily be mistaken for a feminine singular ; and this mistake actually took place, with the result that the F. brasse is feminine. I proceed to give some further examples, showing that the forms battle, bible, chronicle, ensign, feast, joy, legend, manoeuvre, marvel, prune, veil, viand, are all plural forms, though not one of them has ever been recognized as such in English use.

Battle, M.E. bataille, bataile, O. F. battaille, f., is from the Folk-L. battālia, battuälia, neut. pl.; from L. battuere, to beat, defeat. We have preserved the verb in the form to batter.

Bible, F. bible, f., is from the ecclesiastical L. biblia, Gk. $\beta_{\imath} \beta \lambda i a$, neut. pl. of $\beta_{\imath} \beta \lambda_{i o \nu}$, a little book, dimin. of $\beta i \beta \lambda o s$, a book. The true sense is, accordingly, 'the books,' rather than 'the Book'; for it is a collection of many writings, of various dates.

Chronicle is spelt with a pedantically inserted $h$ after the $c$, due to the ruthless resolve to force upon us a Greek spelling which is found neither in M. E. nor in O. F., and so
to provide one more misery for every poor child who learns to 'spell', as the ironical phrase goes. If the pedants were so desirous of restoring the Latin and Gk. forms, we may fairly ask why they did not strike out the $l$; for surely no Greek could have put up with $\chi$ роикклá. The obvious reason is that they did not know that the $l$ was unoriginal, or else they did not dare to insult the spoken form to that extent. This is all of a piece with their pretentious mischievousness. The M.E. and O.F. form was cronicle, formed from an older trisyllabic form cronik-ë or croniqu-é by the insertion of an $l$ that helped to strengthen the final syllable so as to give it a clearer sound. The form cronik- $\ddot{i}$ was from the Late L. chronica (gen. chronicae), fem., 'a description'; altered into a feminine form from chronica, neut. pl., Gk. хроикка́, neut. pl., 'annals.'

Ensign, 'a flag,' M.E. and O.F.enseigne, f., is from the Late L. insignia, neut. pl. (used as a fem. sing.) from insigne, a standard, neut. of insignis, remarkable.

Feast, M.E. and O. F. feste, f., is from Late L. festa, f.; from L. festa, pl. of festum, neuter.

Joy, M. E. and O.F. joye, f., is from Late L. gaudia, f.; from L. gaudia, pl. of gaudium, neuter.

Legend, M. E. and O.F. legende, f., is from Late L. legenda, f., as in Aurea Legenda, the Golden Legend; from L. legenda, neut. pl. of the fut. pass. part. of legere, to gather, speak, tell.

Maneeure, maneuver, formerly manuevre, f. and m., is from Late L. manuopera, manopera; from manu-, declensional stem of manus, hand, and Late L. opera, f., work, L. opera, neut. pl. of opus, work. The older and simpler form was manure.

Marvel, M.E. mervaile, F. merveille, f.; from the Late L. miräbilia, 'wonderful things,' neut. pl. of miräbilis, adj., wonderful.

> Prune, F. prune, f. ; from L. prūna, pl. of prünum, neuter. Veil, M.E. and A. F. veile, f. ; from L. uèla, pl. of uèlum,
neuter, a sail, also a cloth or covering. The mod. F. is voile.

Viand, M.E. and F. viande, f.; from L. uiuenda, 'things to live by,' pl. of uīuendum, neut. of the gerundive part. of uīuere, to live.

Say, an obsolescent name for a kind of serge, can be similarly explained. It was borrowed from F. saie, f. ; from L. saga, pl. of sagum, neut., a cloth used for making the soldier's mantle also called sagum; adapted from the Gk. oáyos, a coarse cloth, a soldier's mantle.
§99. In the same way we have obtained words like entrails and temples (of the head) that are etymologically double plurals.

Chaucer has entraille (i. e. entrail with a pl. sense) from the O. F. entraille, entrails, f. ; from Late L. intrālia, a modification of Late L. intrānea, contracted from L. interānea, entrails, neut. pl. of interāneus, inward.

Temples, M. E., O. F., and mod. Norman temples, pl. of temple, fem. From a Late L. *tempula, modification of L. tempora, pl. of tempus, neuter. Cf. mod. F. tempe (with loss of $l$ ).

## CHAPTER IX

## LOW GERMAN AND SCANDINAVIAN

§ 100. Speaking generally, English is one of the Low German languages, as distinguished from the High German now in use as the literary language of Germany. But Low German (Platt-deutsch) is used more particularly of such German dialects as exhibit no High German forms, but are closely allied to Friesic, Dutch, and Flemish. Among such Low German dialects may be mentioned the dialects of Hanover and Bremen (as spoken by the populace), Altmark, Göttingen, Pomerania, some parts of Saxony, and Westphalia; of all of which various Glossaries have been published. To these we may add the East Friesic Dictionary by Koolman, which really contains Low German rather than Friesic. The most useful of these Glossaries is that known as the Bremisches Wörterbuch, published anonymously at Bremen in 1767 , and it may be taken as a type of the rest. Whenever a word is quoted in my Dictionary as 'Low G.', it is to this book that I refer.

The likeness of Low German to English is frequently so close that they are difficult to distinguish. Examples are: kringel, a cringle ; drillen (Saxon), to drill, to sow corn in rows; fipken (Westphalian), a small lie, a little fib; fobke (Saxon), a little fob or pocket; foppen, to fob off, cheat fuddeln, to work lazily, to lose time, to fuddle away time being an E. phrase in the eighteenth century, \&c. It not unfrequently happens that such E . words as these are not found in any early author, but seem to have been actually imported from abroad in modern times, which might very easily have been accomplished from such a port as Hamburg. The

Hamburg Glossary by Richey (1743) contains such words as bliusen, to blush; builgen, a billow; düsig, dizzy; drög, dry; dröhnen, to make a droning noise; emern, embers; flabbe, a broad hanging lip, as of some dogs; flage, a 'flaw', or sudden gust of wind ; grabbeln, to seize ; hüssen, to hush to sleep; klauen, a clew of yarn; kley, clay; klötern, to clatter; kluster, a bunch of hair; klute, a clot; krakken, to crack; lösig, lazy; raren, to roar ; räteln, to rattle ; rysen, to rise; schell, husk of fruit; sellen, to sell; slabbern, to slabber, as ducks do with their bills in water; slick, sludge; slump, a mishap; smöden, to smoothe; splyten, to split; stake, a stake; stubbe, a stub, stump; sweymen, to be giddy (as when one's head swims) ; to taltern ryten, to tear to tatters ; trampen, to trample ; trippeln, to trip along ; tröndeln, to roll, trundle ; tubbe, a tub; tüss, tush !; wicht, a wight, a creature ; wygelwageln, to be unsteady, to wiggle-waggle; wyren, wires; wrack, a wreck ; wrickeln, to wriggle ; wringen, to wring; wristen, the wrists, or the ankles.
§ 101. Of course, in many of these cases, the Low G. word is merely cognate with the English, as we find A.S. blyscan, to blush, dysig, foolish, dizzy, drȳge, dry, \&c.; and again, O. Norse bylgja, a billow, \&c. ; but these continental forms are extremely useful for comparison, and in some cases there is no trace of any corresponding term in Early English. The word fabby is first used by Dryden, and even the older form flappy does not occur till 1598 ; no doubt it is of imitative origin, from the verb to flap. In such a case the various allied continental forms afford useful evidence. Flaw, in the sense of 'a gust of wind', is almost certainly a sailor's word; it is not found before $1_{5} \mathrm{I}_{3}$, and was probably borrowed from the Swed. flaga (Widegren), sometimes used in this sense ; and the Hamburg flage is just the same word. Lazy is no older than $1_{549}$, and I can find no sure connexion between it and any word of native origin ; I take it to have been certainly an importation, as it is found
in Low G. and Dutch, and nowhere else ; for the G. lässig is from G. lass, which is E. late. The forms actually found are the M. Low G. lasich, also losich, idle, languid ; läösig (Altmark) ; Pomeranian läsig ; Hamburg lösig ; Du. leuzig ; Bremen laassam. It seems to be allied to loose. The word $t u b$ occurs in Chaucer, spelt tubbe; but I strongly suspect that the word was imported by Flemish brewers ; cf. West Flem. boter-tubbe, a butter-tub; melk-tobbe, a milk-tub (De Bo). For further discussion, see my Principles of E. Etymology, Ch. XXIV ; where the Dutch element in English is considered.
§ 102. In the same Chapter, I have further pointed out that many of the slang terms and Gipsy terms that were so freely imported in the sixteenth century certainly came to England from Holland and from Low German dialects, as we learn from Gascoigne and Ben Jonson, and I give a list of some fifty (presumably) Dutch words that occur in Shakespeare; but the list should be curtailed. However, there can be little doubt as to boor, burgomaster, canakin, deck (of a ship), deck (to cover), doit, fob (found earlier, as M. E. foppe), frolic, fumble (Du. fommelen, Low G. fummeln), gilder (guilder), glib, adj., groat, hoise (to hoist), hold (of a ship), holland, hoy, hull (of a ship), leaguer, a camp (Du. leger), loiter, manakin, minikin, mop, a grimace, rant, rover, ruffle, to be turbulent, snafle, snap, snip, snuff, to sniff, sutler, swabber, switch, trick, to delineate arms, uproar, waggon, wainscot. All these occur (as said above) in Shakespeare, and they all seem to be of Dutch origin.
§ 103. Going back to still earlier times, we come to words of Scandinavian origin, to the consideration of which I have allotted a chapter (Ch. XXIII) in my Principles, \&c., First Series. From the nature of the case, they are mostly older than 1050, as regards their introduction into the language, yet they were long considered, as some of them still are, as belonging to the dialects rather than to the literary language, and it is remarkable how late their appearance in books is
frequently found to be. We are sure, for example, that the verb to call (O. Norse kalla) was known in the year 993 , since it occurs in the poem on the Battle of Maldon; yet we find no more mention of it till the year 1225 (N.E.D.); and many such words first appear at much later dates. Thus gill, in the sense of 'deep glen', is certainly Norse, as the initial hard $g$ suggests; yet it does not appear till the year 1400. Cag, an older form of $k e g$, is first found in $145^{2}$, and $k e g$ itself in 1632.

Worthy of notice is the occurrence, in Scandinavian words, of a hard $k$ before $e$ and $i$, as in keel, keg, ken, kid, kilt; the $k$ can only remain hard in native English words beginning with $k i$ - when the original vowel was not really $i$, but $y$, as in kin (A.S. cynn), king (A.S. cyning), kiss (A.S. cyssan), kite (A. S. cyta). Final hard $g$ is also found in several of these words, as in bag, cag (above), daggle, drag, egg, egg, vb., leg, rag, sag, slag, wag; and most words that begin with sc or $s k$ are Scandinavian (unless they are French); as scalp, scant, scare, scathe, \&c., skid, skill, skim, skin, \&c. English prefers sh, as in shade, shaft, ship, \&c. Scandinavian words are rather numerous; the number of main words must be at least 700 , and may be more ; so that they must be considered as being of considerable importance. Many of our dialects, especially in the North and East, contain no inconsiderable share of them. Neither must it be forgotten that some of the words which we have borrowed from Norman French are ultimately of Norse origin; there are probably fifty such. The word Norman is in itself an instance of this; so are the verbs to abet and to bet.

A list of interesting compound words, of Scandian origin, is given in my Principles, \&c., First Series, pp. 477-80; the more modern of our Scandian borrowings are enumerated in the same, p. 480. A list of Dutch words is given in both editions of my Etymological Dictionary ; and a list of Scandian words in the larger edition only.

## CHAPTER X

## THE CELTIC LANGUAGES

§ 104. The number of English words of Celtic origin is by no means large, and the idea which once prevailed that some of them have come down to us from the time of the ancient Britons is now almost wholly abandoned. Most of the words borrowed from Welsh, Gaelic, or Irish have found their way into English in comparatively modern times; very few are found as far back as the Middle English period. The number of British words found in Anglo-Saxon is very small ; and excluding two or three that are obsolete, are only these following, viz. bannock, bin (a manger, a chest), brat (properly, a cloak, poor garment), brock (a badger), combe, crock, down (a hill), dun. Note also A.S. dry , a wizard; connected with Druid. Even of these, bannock, A. S. bannuc, is hardly Celtic ; it may have been a Celtic adaptation from the L. pānicium, a baked cake, or borrowed from Latin.
§ 105. It was once a fashion to make much of the word basket, because Juvenal and Martial have a L. form bascauda, which the latter says was British. But there is no historical connexion, and no proof that bascauda had, originally, that meaning, but rather that of washing-tray or brazen vessel. The Welsh basged is merely the English word in Welsh spelling, and the Welsh basgawd is a coinage made to represent bascauda. Moreover bascauda can easily be traced, as it became the M. F. (Middle French) bachoiue, 'a kind of flat-sided basket,' Cotgrave. The E. basket is not known
earlier than 1300, and was borrowed from the A.F. basket (pl. baskes), occurring in glosses upon A. Neckam's De Utensilibus, ab. 1200; see Wright, Vocab., i. 98, 11 r. The -et is the usual F. diminutive suffix, and the word seems to have been coined in England, as it is little known in France. If I may hazard a guess, it seems possible that it may be a dissimilated form of *bastet, formed from the E. bast (A.S. brest), the material of which matting and tool-baskets were made. The E.D.D. has bast, bast, mat made of bast, and bass, bast, matting, a workman's tool-basket.

Words of Welsh origin, mostly rather modern, are :bragget, coracle, cromlech, crowd (a fiddle), eisteddfod, flannel, flummery, gull (a bird), kibe, metheglin. Of Gaelic origin :-airt (?), capercailyie, cateran, clachan, clan, claymore, coronach, corrie, crag, duan, dulse, duniwassal, fillibeg, galore, gillie, inch (an island), ingle, kelpie, linn, loch, macintosh, ptarmigan, slogan, sowans, spleuchan, strath, tocher, whiskey. Of Irish origin:-banshee, colleen, cosher, Fenian, gallowglas, hubbub, kern (foot-soldier), lough, mavourneen, ogham, omadhaun, orrery, rapparee, shanty, shillelagh, skain (knife), spalpeen, tanist, Tory, usquebaugh. The word wheal, a mine, is Cornish.

The word macadamised is probably the most extraordinary compound in any modern or ancient language ; since mac is Gaelic, adam is Hebrew, ise is a Greek suffix, and $d$ an English one. It shows the astonishing power of wordformation which the English language possesses. Codling or codlin, as the name of an apple, is a surprising word; the suffix -ling, -lin is, of course, English; but Bacon spelt it quadling, and the M. E. form was querd-ling. I have suggested that querd, unknown in English, was borrowed from the Irish cueirt or cuirt, an apple-tree, given as the name of the letter $Q$ in the Ogham alphabet; but this word is of doubtful authority, and may have been fabricated.
§ 106. We have seen that the Celtic languages have
originated a certain number, though not a very large number, of English words. I propose now to take a more general survey of these languages, and to consider a question which our grammars never mention, viz. the cases in which they possess forms that are cognate with English, and so illustrate it by way of comparison. For example, brother is not only parallel with the L. frāter, but with the Gael. bràthair, Irish bráthair, and the W. brawd (pl. brodyr). This is a very interesting point to a philologist, as it helps to illustrate the sisterly relationship, already noted, of the Indo-germanic languages. Prof. Rhŷs, in his Lectures on Welsh Philology, enumerates, among the Celtic languages still spoken, Welsh, Breton, Irish and Gaelic and Manx (very closely related); and among the dead Celtic languages, Cornish, Pictish, and Gaulish. Of the Old Pictish only a few words are known.

The language with which the above group has the closest affinity is, apparently, Latin, especially as regards some grammatical points; and next to that, Celtic has some affinities with Teutonic, Slavonic being more remote. As regards the application of Grimm's Law, Celtic goes with Latin, and both here differ from Teutonic, as will be shown below. I now give some examples of Celtic words cognate with English, taking them in the English alphabetical order. It should be remembered that the list is by no means exhaustive. I use the abbreviations ' W.' for Welsh, 'Gael.' for Gaelic; \&c.
§ 107. A. Adder. This word has lost an $n$, and is short for nadder ; A. S. n仑̂eddre, but Goth. nadrs. Irish nathair, a snake, W. neidr.

All. Cf. Irish and Gael. uile, all, the whole; for *oljos. (W. oll, holl, goes with L. sollus, saluus.) All is from the Teut. type *alnoz, Idg. type *olnos.

Apple. Irish abhall, an apple; Gael. ubhal; W. afal; Bret. aval, an apple, avalen, an apple-tree. The W. $f$ is always pronounced as $v$; our $f$ is W. $\not f$.

Axce. Of Scand. origin ; Swed. and Dan. axel. A.S. has the more primitive eax (cf. L. axis). W. echel, an axis, axle-tree.
§ 108. B. The E. initial $b$ is also $b$ (for Idg. $b h$ ) in Celtic, Slavonic, and Lithuanian; but Latin has $f$, corresponding to Gk. $\phi$, Skt. bh.
*Bald. ${ }^{1}$ A word of Celtic origin; see my Dictionary.
Barrow, a burial-mound; A.S. beorh, a hill. Irish bri, a hill ; W. bre, a hill ; W. bry, high.
Be. O. Irish boi, (he) was; Gael. bu, (he) was; W. bod, to be ; L. fuit, (he) was; Gk. $\begin{gathered}\text { é- } \\ \text { v, was ; Skt. bhū, to be. }\end{gathered}$

Bear, vb. Irish beir-im, M. Ir. ber-im, I bear, carry (where $-i m$ is the ending of the first person present singular); W. cym-meryd, to take, accept (from *com-ber-, cf. L. con-ferre) ; L. fer-re, to bear, Gk. фép-elv, Skt. bhar.

Belly. Cf. Irish bolg, a bag, sack, the belly; W. bol, the belly; Corn. bol.
*Bile, secretion from the liver ; borrowed from F. bile, L. bilis. L. bilis may be for *bislis; cf. W. bustl, Bret. bestl, bile.

Birth. Irish breith, brith, birth; Gael. breith.
Bloo-m. Irish and Gael. blá-th, a blossom, W. blaw-d; L. $f \bar{o}-s$, a flower. All from the same root.
*Blue, borrowed from A. F. blu, blew, O. H. G. blāo, blue, livid. Cf. Irish blá, yellow ; L. fā-uus.
*Booth ; of Scand. origin. Irish and Gael. both, a hut ; Gael. bothan, a hut (Lowl. Sc. bothie) ; W. bod, a residence.

Bore, vb. Cf. Irish and Gael. bear-n, a gap, a crevice ; L. for-äre, to bore ; for-ämen, a small hole.

Воттом. Irish and Gael. bonn, foundation; W. bon, base ; L. fundus; Gk. $\pi v \theta \mu \eta^{\prime} \nu$ (for * ${ }^{*} v \theta-\mu \mu^{\prime} \nu$ ); Skt. budhnas, depth (for *bhudhnas).

[^9]*Brad, variant of brod, O. Norse broddr, a spike; O. Irish brot, Irish brod, a goad; W. brath, a sting; Corn. bros.

Break. Cf. W. brau, brittle, fragile.
Bright. W. berth, fair ; cf. Gk. фopкós, white.
Broth. Cf. Irish bruith-im, I boil; bruith, sb., boiling, broth; W. brwd, hot, brydio, to heat.

Brother. Gael. bràthair, Irish bráthair, O. Irish bráthir; W. brawd ; Corn. broder ; Bret. breur ; L. frāter.

Brow. O. Irish brá, pl. brái, an eyebrow; Gk. ò-фpús.
Buck, a male deer. Gael. boc, a buck; Irish boc, a hegoat ; W. brech, a buck, bwech gafr, a he-goat; Bret. bouc'h, a he-goat. (The Bret. $c$ ' $h$ means that the $c h$ is guttural, like the G. ch in ach; not the ch in church.)

Burst. Irish bris-im, O. Ir. briss-im, I break.
*Buss. The earlier word was bass, from F. baiser, to kiss. It is possible that the alteration to buss (sixteenth century) was due to the Irish bus, mouth, lip, W. bus, the lip ; cf. Irish bus-og, a kiss.
§ 109. C. The E. $c$ (with the sound of $k$ ) usually answers to the Celtic and L. $g$, Gk. $\gamma$, Skt. $j$ (or $g$ ). The word chin belongs here, as the A. S. form was cinn.
*Call ; from the O. N. kalla. W. galw, to call ; cf. Mid. Bret. galu, an appeal.

Chin; A. S. cinn. Irish gin, mouth; W. gén, jaw, chin, mouth ; Corn. genau (a pl. form), mouth; Bret. gén, cheek, genou, mouth ; L. gena, cheek ; Gk. $\gamma^{\prime} \nu-v s$, chin.

Corn. Irish grán; W. grawn, pl.; L. grānum.
Crane. W., Corn., Bret. garan, a crane; Gk. ý́pavos. See also the word Kin (below); § 113 .

Cow. The initial $c$ in cow is of quite exceptional character. It does not answer to the Idg. $g$ (L. $g$, Gk. $\gamma$ ), but to the Idg. gw (L. $u$, Gk. $\beta$, Celtic b). The cognate words are Irish and Gael. bó, a cow; W. buwe L L. bōs; Gk. ßov̂s; Pers. gäw ; Skt. gaus. The L. form is exceptional, as it ought to be *uōs; which shows that it is not a Roman word,
but was borrowed from Umbrian. Cf. nylghau, the name of a kind of antelope ; Pers. nìl gāw, 'blue cow.'
§110. D. The E. $d$ corresponds to the Idg. $d h$, which becomes $d$ in Celtic ; but Latin has $f$; and Gk, has $\theta$.

Deep. A.S. dēop; O. Irish domain (for *dubn-); W. dwefn ; Bret. don.

Door. Irish dorus; W.drws; Corn. daras; Bret. dor ; L. for-ēs, pl. ; Gk. Aúpa.

Dull. Cf. Irish, Gael., W., Bret. dall, blind ; Corn. dal; Goth. dwals, foolish. It is probable that the extremely difficult and much disputed L. fallere is cognate with dull and the Celtic dall, blind.
E. Ear, sb. Irish o; O.Ir. au, ó; L. auris ; Gk. oủs ; Lithuan. ausis.

Ear, vb., to plough. Irish ar-aim, I plough; W. ar, ploughed land (cf. W. arddu, to plough, ardd-wr, a ploughman) ; Lith. ar-ti, to plough; L. ar-āre; Gk. ảp-óєt̀ ; Russ. or-at(e), to plough.

Eat. W. ys-u (for *ed-tu, Stokes), to eat, to devour ; W. $y s-i g$, fretting, corroding ; L. ed-ere, to eat ; Gk. $\epsilon \bar{\epsilon}-\omega$, I eat.

Eight. Irish ocht; Gael. ochd; W. weyth; Corn. eath; Bret. eic'h, eiz; L. octo; Gk. ỏкт́㇒.

End. Irish ind, the head of an arrow or javelin (Stokes).
Ewe. Irish oi, a sheep ; L. ouis; Gk. öts ; Lith. awis.
§ 111. F. The E. $f$ answers to L. $p$. In Celtic, $p$ entirely disappears, so that the L. porcus, for example, is represented in Irish by orc. A $p$ appears, however, in some Welsh words, as pedwar, 'four,' where it does not correspond to Idg. $p$, but to the Idg. $q$, L. $q u$, as in L. quatuor, four. The exceptional words four and five will be considered last.

Father. A.S. freder; L. pater; O. Irish athir (for *patir) ; Ir. and Gael. athair.

Find. O. Ir. ét-aim (base *pent), I find.
Floor. A.S. flör ; Idg. stem *plār-; Celtic stem *lār-. Irish lár ; W. llawr ; Bret. leur. Cf. L. plā-nus, flat.

Foe. A.S. fāh; Teut. type *faihoz; Idg. type *poikos; Celt. type *oikos ; O. Irish oech, a foe (Stokes).

Ford. A. S. ford; Teut. type *furðuz, *furduz; L. portus, a harbour ; O. Breton rit (for *prit), a ford; W. rhyd, a ford; Corn. rid.

Furrow. A. S. furh; allied to L. porca, a ridge between two furrows ; W. rhych (for *prych), a furrow, a trench.

Four. The Idg. type is *qetwer- ; whence Skt. chatväras, Gk. (Ionic) rє́ $\sigma \sigma a \rho \epsilon s,($ Attic) тétrapєs, (Æolic) $\pi i \sigma v \rho \epsilon s$, L. quatuor ; O. Irish cethir, Gael. ceithir, W. pedwar. But Germanic has initial $f$; as in Goth. fidwor, A.S. féowor. See Wright, Gothic Gram., § 134 , note.

Five. The Idg. type is *penqe ; Skt. pañcha; Gk. Téveє (Æolic $\pi \epsilon ́ \mu \pi \epsilon$ ), Lith. penkıे; but with $q$ for $p$ in L. quinque; cf. O. Irish cóic (for *qonqe); W. pump; Goth. fimf; A. S. fiff (for ${ }^{*} \mathrm{fmf},{ }^{*}$ finf).

Full. A.S. full (for *fulnoz); Celtic type *(p)lānos; O. Ir. lán ; W. llawn ; cf. L. plēnus.
§ 112. G. The E. $g$ (Idg. $g h$ ) is also $g$ in Celtic.
Glow. A. S. glöwan, to glow; W. glo, a coal.
Goose. Irish géis, a swan. So also Skt. ham̃sas, a swan; but L. anser means a goose.

Yard. Here also belongs yard, an enclosure, North. E. garth. Cf. O. Irish gort, a field, lub-gort, a garden; W.garth, an enclosure ; Bret. garz, an enclosure.
H. The E. $h$ answers to Celtic and L. $c$, Gk. $\kappa$, Skt. $\varsigma$.

Hare. A. S. hara, G. hase; Teut. type *hazon-; Idg. type *kason-. W. cein-ach, a hare (for *kasin-ach) ; Skt. çaças, a hare.

Hart. W. carw, a hart ; Bret. karô; L. ceruus.
$\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{Ate}}$ W. cawdd, displeasure; coddi, to vex.
Haulm. W. calaf, a stalk; Bret. kolo, straw; L. calamus.
Haw, Hedge. A. S. haga, an enclosure; hecg, a hedge; W. cae, an enclosure, a hedge ; Bret. kaé, an enclosure, a quay, whence F. quai, E. quay.

Hazel. Teut. type *hasolo-; Idg. type *kosolo-, whence L. corulus (for *cosulus), O. Irish and W. coll, a hazel.

Heart. W. craidd, centre, heart; Bret. kreiz, centre; Irish cridhe, the heart; O . Ir. cride.

Heath. W. coed, a wood (O. W. coit); L. bū-cēlum, a cow pasture.

Hell. A. S. hel; allied to L. cella, a cell, cēlāre, to hide ; W. celu, to hide ; O. Ir. cel-im, Ir. ceil-im, I hide.

Hen. A. S. henn, fem. of hana, a cock, lit. 'singer'. C'f. Irish can-aim, I sing ; W. can-u, to sing ; L. can-ere.

Hide, verb. W. cuddio, to hide ; Corn. cudhe; Gk. кev́日elv.
Holly. A. S. holen; W. celyn, Corn. celin, Bret. kelen, Gael. cuilionn, Irish cuileann.

Horn. W., Gael., Irish corn ; L. cornu.
Hound. A. S. hund; W. ci (pl. cîn), a dog ; O. Irish cu (gen. con); L. can-is ; Gk. кvఱ́v (gen. кvv-ós).

Hundred. A. S. hund; L. cent-um; O. Ir. cét ; Ir. céad ; Gael. ceud; W. cant.
§113. I. Icicle. A. S. is-gicel, ' little drop of ice.' The form gicel is cognate with Icel. jökull, an icicle, dimin. of Icel. jaki, a piece of ice, which is cognate with Irish aigh, O. Irish aig, ice, W. ia, ice. Thus icicle $=i c e-i c e-l$.
K. The E. $k$ answers to Celt. $g$, L. $g$, Gk. $\gamma$.
$\mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{IN}}$. Cf. Irish gein, offspring, birth; W. geni, to be born, genid, birth; L. genus, Gk. révos, race. See C (above); §rog.
§114. L. The E. $l, m, n$ (and $r$ ) are not affected by Grimm's law.

Land. W. llan, an area (churchyard), gzwin-llan, a vineyard, lit. 'wine-land' or 'vine-land'; Gael. and Ir. lann, Early Ir. land, an enclosure, land ; Bret. lann, a bushy shrub, but the pl. lannou means 'plains', like the F. landes, which is borrowed from it. E. lawn is from F. lande, sing., a plain.

Lead, as the name of a metal. Ir. luaidhe; Gael. luaidh. An O. Irish gloss has: 'luaide, plumbum.' From a Celtic
type *loudiä (Macbain). The E. lead, A.S. lēad, is from a Teut. type *laudom; but it may have been borrowed from Celtic, instead of being cognate.

Leather. A. S. le才er; Teut. type *lethrom, n.; Idg. type *letrom; O. Ir. lethar ; W. lledr.

Leech, a physician. Cf. O. Ir. líaig, a physician; Ir. and Gael. leigh. The E. word may have been borrowed.

Lick, vb. ; L. lingere, Gk. $\lambda \in i \chi \epsilon \omega \nu$; O. Ir. lıg-im, I lick.
$\mathrm{L}_{\text {Ie, }}$ vb., to rest. O. Ir. laig-im, I lie down ; lig-e, a lying down; Gk. $\lambda_{\epsilon} \chi^{-o s}$, a bed.

Light. Cf. L. lūc-ère, to shine; Irish luach-air, brightness; W. llug, a gleam, llug-yn, a beam of light.

Loan ; from Icel. lān, a loan; from $l j \bar{a}$, cognate with A. S. lēon $=$ līhan, to lend, Goth. leihwan, to lend; cf. O. Irish léc-im, léic-im, I leave, relinquish (L. linqu-ere).

Some E. words beginning with $l$ began in A.S. with $h l$. In such a case the Celtic cognates begin with cl. See below.

Lean, vb., to incline. A.S. hlæ̈nan, to make to lean; cf. O. Ir. clóen, sloping; Gk. $\kappa \lambda i v \epsilon \iota \nu$, to bend.

Listen. Cf. A. S. hlystan, to hear ; M. Ir. cluin-im, I hear ; cluass, the ear; W. clywed, to hear ; clust, the ear; Corn. clewas, to hear.

Loud. A. S. hlüd. Cf. O. Irish cloth, renowned; W. clod, praise, fame.
§ 115. M. Mane. O. Irish mong, mane; W. mwong.
Many. O. Irish menice, frequent ; W. mynych, frequent.
Mare. Cf. Gael. and Ir. marc, a horse ; W., Corn., Bret. march, a horse.
$\mathrm{M}_{\text {ARK, }}$ a march, a boundary. A. S. mearc ; O. Ir. mruig, bruig; W. and Corn. bro, a country, region; L. margo, a boundary.

Me. Ir. mé; Gael. $m i$; W. and Corn. $m i$, I, me ; Bret. $m e$, I, me ; L. $m \bar{e}$; Gk. ${ }^{\epsilon} \mu \epsilon$ é.

Mead, a sweet drink. O. Ir. mid; W. medd; Gk. $\mu$ é $v$.

Mere, a lake. W., Bret. morr, sea ; Corn. mor ; Ir. and Gael. muir ; L. mare.
Milk, vb. A.S. melc-an, to milk ; O. Ir. mlig-id, later blig-id, he milks ; Gael. bleagh, to milk ; L. mulg-ēre.

Month. W. mis ; Bret. miz; O.Ir. mí (gen. mis) ; Gael. mios; L. mensis.

Mother. Gael. màthair ; O. Ir. máthir ; cf. W. modr-yb, an aunt.
§ 116. N. Naked. Cf. Gael. nochd, naked ; O. Ir. nocht; W. noeth; Corn. noth; Bret. nôaz; Celt. type *noqtos.

Needle. A.S. nर̂o-del, from Idg. root *snē; cf. O. Ir. sni-m, a spinning; Ir. sná-thad, a needle.
Nest. O. Ir. net; Ir. and Gael. nead; W. nyth; Corn. neid; Bret. neiz. Celt. type *nizdos.

New. O. Ir. nuide; Gael. nuadh; W. newydd; Bret. neves.

Night. Cf. Gael. nochd, to-night; O. Ir. in-nocht, to-night; W. tra-noeth, lit. 'beyond the night', on the morrow ; L. acc. noct-em.
Nut. A.S. hnutu. The A.S. $h n$ is cognate with Celt. cn. O. Ir. cnú, a nut ; W. cneuen (pl. cnau); Bret. knaoun, more usually kraoun, a nut.
O. Оath. A. S. $\bar{a} p$; Goth. aiths; Teut. type *aithoz; Idg. type *oitos; O. Ir. beth.
One. Teut. type *ainoz; Idg. type *oinos; O. Ir. ben; W., Corn. un ; L. ùnus.
§ 117. Q. It was shown, in § ro9, that the E. $c$ in cow answers to Idg. gww (Celt. $b$, Gk. $\beta$ ). This is also the equivalent of E . qu.
Quean. A.S. cwene; Goth. kwinō. Teut. type *kwenōn-; answering to Idg. type *gwenōn-. But the Idg. type is mostly ${ }^{\text {Fowenā }}$; cf. Boeotian $\beta$ ßavá, a woman (Attic rvví); Ir. and Gael. bean, O. Ir. ben, a woman; W. bun; Russ. jena.
Quick. A. S. cwic, cwicu, living ; Ir. beó, O. Ir. beó, bíu, living; W. byw ; Bret. béó, bêu; L. ū̄uus.
R. Red. Gael. and Ir. ruadh; W. rhudd; Corn. rud; Bret. rüz ; cf. L. ruber (for *rudher).

Ride. O. Irish ríad-aim, I travel (root *reidh-).
Right. Gael. reachd; O. Ir. recht, rect; W. rhaith; Bret. reiz. Idg. type ${ }^{*}$ rektos, from ${ }^{*}$ regtos (root ${ }^{*}$ reg).

But some E. words began with $h r$ in A. S., answering to Celt. cr. See below.

Raw. A. S. hrēaw. Cf. L. crū-dus, raw ; O. Irish crúaid, hard ; O. Ir. crú, cró, blood; W. crau, Corn. crow, blood (L. cru-or).

Riddle, a sieve. A. S. hridder, hrider; Gael. criathar; O. Ir. críathar ; Corn. croider ; L. crïbrum (for *krī-dhrom).

Roof. A. S. hrōf. Teut. base *krōf-; Idg. base *kräp-; Gael. crò, a sheep-cot, pen; O. Ir. cró, a hut; W. craw, a hovel. (The Celtic $p$ is lost.)
§ 118. S. The $s$ usually remains in Irish ; but the Welsh form often has initial $h$ in its stead.

Sad. The A. S. sed meant 'sated'. Cf. O. Irish sáith, satiety, sái-thech, sated; L. sa-tur, full.

Sallow, Sally, a kind of willow. A. S. sealh; L. salix; Gael. seileach; Irish sail, saileach; W. helyg, pl. of helygen, a willow; Corn. heligen, glossed salix.

Salt. W. hallt, adj., salt ; L. salsus. Cf. O. Ir. sal-ann, W. hal-en, hal-an, sb., salt.

Seed. O. Ir. síl (for *sé-lon), seed; W. hil, progeny ; cf. W. hâd, Corn. hâs, Bret. had, seed; Bret. hada, to sow.

Seek. O. Irish saig-im, sag-im, I seek after.
Send. Allied to Idg. *sentos, a way, as in O. Ir. sét (for *sent), a way, Bret. hent (for *sent), a way; W. hynt, a way.

Seven. L. septem; Ir. seacht; W. saith; Corn. seith; Bret. seiz. The Celtic forms had $k t$ for $p t$; cf. O. Irish secht $n$-, where $n$ was prefixed to a following word.

Shade. Gael. sgàth; O. Ir. scáth; W. -sgod in cy-sgod, shade ; Corn. scod.

Shear. Irish sgar-aim, I separate; O.Ir. scar-aim; W. ysgar, to part.

Sir. W. sedd, a seat; seddu, to be seated.
Smear. Allied to Gael. smior, smear, marrow; O.Ir. smir, marrow; W. mèr (for *smēr), marrow. Cf. A.S. smeoru, fat, grease.

Son. Cf. O. Irish suth, birth; from the Idg. root *seu, to beget, whence also Sow (below).

Sorrow. Cf. O. Irish serg, illness; serg-aim, I wither, decay.

Sow. W. hwech, a sow; Corn. hoch, a pig; Bret. houc'h, a hog. See Son (above).

Suck. O. Irish súg-im, I suck; L. sūg-o.
In some combinations, as $s m, s n, s p$, the initial $s$ may be lost ; cf. W. mèr, marrow, noted under Smear (above).

Smoke. O. Ir. múch, sb. ; W. mwg ; Corn. moc, smoke.
Snow. W. nyf, snow; L. acc. niu-em ; Gk. acc. viфа.
In the case of initial st (especially str), the $t$ may disappear in Celtic.

Star. Corn. steren (pl. stér), a star ; but W. seren, a star, pl. sèr.

Stream. O. Ir. srúaim, a stream ; cf. 'Skt. sru, to flow ; Gk. $\rho^{\prime} \epsilon \epsilon \iota \nu$ (for * $\left.\sigma \rho \in ́ f-\epsilon \tau\right)$ ), to flow.

The E. strath is derived from Gael. and Irish srath, a flat valley (with a river) ; cf. W. ystrad, a strath; L. strātum.

Stripe. Cf. O. Irish sríab, a stripe.
Initial sw appears as W. chw.
Sister. A.S. sweostor, affected by O. Norse syster; O. Irish siur (gen. sethar); W. chwaer ; Corn. huir ; Bret. c'hoar (i.e. with guttural ch); Celtic type *swesor ; L. soror ; Skt. svasā. Initial sw becomes O. Ir. s, W. chw; Brugmann, i. § 369 (7).

Six. The Idg. forms are *seks, *sweks. From *seks we have E. six, G. sechs, L. sex, Lith. szeszi; Pers. shash;

Skt. shash. From *sweks we have W. chwech; Corn. hweh, wheh; Bret. c'houéac'h; Gael. sè, sèa, sia; Irish sé.

Sweat. W. chweŷs, sweat, sb. ; Corn. whŷs ; Bret. c'houez.
§ 119. T. The E. $t$ answers to Celtic $d$, L. $d$, Gk. $\delta$.
Tame. W. and Corn. dof, tame, gentle ; Bret. don, gentle.
Tear, sb. Irish déar, O. Ir. dér, W. dagr, a tear; Corn. dager; Gk. סárpu.

Tear, vb., A.S. teran. Cf. W., Corn., Bret. darn, a fragment, a piece.

Ten. Ir. and Gael. deich, W. deg, L. decem, Gk. déka.
Тоотн. Ir. déad, O. Ir. dét; Gael. deud; W. and Bret. dant ; Corn. dans.

Town. A.S. tün, an enclosure ; cognate with Ir. dún, Gael. dùn, a fortress ; W. dìn, a hill-fort.

Tree. Ir. dair, an oak; W. and Corn. dar, oak; Bret. derf, derô, an oak.

Two. Ir. dá, Gael. dà, d̀̀ ; W. dau ; Corn. dew ; Bret. daou.
§ 120. Th. The E. th answers to Celt. $t$, L. $t, \mathrm{Gk} . \tau$.
Thatch. Cf. Ir. and Gael. tigh, teach, O. Ir. tech, a house ; W. ty (pl. tai), a house ; Corn. and Bret. ti, a house ; Gk. té $\quad$ os, a roof.

Thaw. Cf. W. toddi, to melt, dissolve ; tawdd, melted.
Thick. Ir. and Gael. tiugh; O. Ir. tiug; W. and Corn. tew; Bret. téb. Celt. type *tegus.

Thin. Ir. and Gael. tana; W. teneu; Corn. tanow; Bret. tanav; L. tenuis.

Thirst. Irish and Gael. tart, thirst, drought.
Thorp. O. Ir. treb, a building; W. tref, a homestead, hamlet ; Corn. trev, trê, a homestead, town.

Three. Ir. trí; Gael., W., Corn., Bret. tri ; L. trēs, n. tria.
Throstle. Irish truid, a thrush, trod, a starling; W. drudwy, a starling.
§ 121. W. The E. $w$ answers to Ir. and Gael. $f$, W. $g w$, Corn. gu, gw, L. $u$ (consonant).
$\mathrm{W}_{\text {ane, }}$ vb. A. S. wanian, from wan, adj., lacking; cf. Ir. and Gael. fann, faint, weak; W. and Corn. gwan, weak ; Goth. wans, lacking, wanting. Quite distinct from E. wan, colourless.

Well, adv., A. S. wel. Cf. W. gwell, better ; Corn. and Bret. gwell, better, gwella, best.

Widow. A. S. widwe; Ir. feadhb; O. Ir. fedb; W. grveddw ; L. uidua.

Wield. Allied to A. S. wealdan, to rule, govern. Cf. Gael. flath, a chief, prince ; O. Ir. flaith, a ruler ; also O. Ir. flaith, dominion, W. grolad, a country, region.

Wind, sb. W. gweynt ; Bret. gwent ; Corn. grvyns, gwens ; L. uentus.

Wood. A. S. vudu, oldest form widu. Cf. Irish fiodh, a wood, a tree, O. Ir. fid, a tree; W. grvŷdd, trees.

Wool. Allied to Ir. and Gael. olann (from a base *wlana) ; W. gwelan ; Corn. gluan ; Bret. gloan; L. lāna.

Wort, a plant. Cf. O. Ir. frém, a root; Irish freamh, a root, stock, origin (base wrd-mu-); W. gwreiddyn, a root; L. rādix (for *urādix). Also Icel. rōt (for *wrōt), a root.

Worth. Cf. W. grverth, value, a price.
§ 122. Y. In a few cases, the E. $y$ (initially) represents the Idg. $y$, frequently written $j$, i. e. with the German value.

Yard, an enclosure, is an exception, as the A.S. geard begins with Teut. $g$; see § 112.

Yeast. A. S. gist, Teut. base *yest-, from Idg. root *yes, to ferment. Cf. W. ias-u, to pervade with a quality.

Yoкe. A. S. geoc; Teut. type *yuk-om, n. W.iau, a yoke; Bret. géó, ieó; Irish ughaim, horse-harness.

Young. A. S. geong; Teut. *yungoz, *yuwungoz. Irish б́g, Gael. $\partial g$; O.Ir. bac; W. ieuanc; Corn. iouenc; Bret. iaouanc; L. iuuen-is, young, iuuenc-us, a young bullock.

Yew. In this word, the $y$ is a modern prefix ; cf. M. E. ew. A. S. īw; Teut. type ${ }^{*} i w-o z$, m. Cf. Ir. eo, yew; W. $y w, y w e n$; Corn. hivin; Bret. ivin. Celtic type *izoos.

## CHAPTER XI

## LITHUANIAN AND SLAVONIC

§ 123. Brugmann speaks of the Baltic-Slavonic branch of the Indo-germanic languages, thereby indicating that the Baltic and Slavonic groups are somewhat near akin. Baltic is used as a collective name for Lithuanian and Lettish, which are very closely allied; and both comprise a considerable number of slightly varied local dialects. The chief difference between these two languages is that Lithuanian usually preserves more archaic features than Lettish, and is the more important of the two. Indeed, it frequently presents forms of remarkable antiquity, though its records only go back to the sixteenth century. These languages are spoken in some parts of East Prussia and some of the extreme western provinces of Russia. The old capital of Lithuania was Vilna, now the capital of the Russian province of the same name. The Letts are now chiefly to be found in the Russian provinces of Courland and Livonia. There are also traces of a third Baltic language, now extinct, called Old Prussian, of which we possess some remnants belonging to the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.
§124. The Slavonic languages are spoken over a large area. They have been divided into a South-eastern and a Western group. To the former belong Russian (subdivided into Great Russian, commonly called Russian, White Russian, and Little Russian), Bulgarian and Illyrian (subdivided into Servian, Croatian, and Slovenian). To the latter (Western) belong Czech ${ }^{1}$ (or Bohemian), Moravian, and Slovakian ;

[^10]Sorabian (or Sorbian, or Wendish); and Lechish, which includes Polish and Polabian (or Elbe-Slavonian); but Polabian is now extinct. The most important of all Slavonic monuments is the language of the ninth century employed by the apostles Cyril and Methodius, sometimes called Old Bulgarian, though Miklosich calls it Old Slovenian. This became the ecclesiastical language of the Greek Church, often called Church Slavonic. Brugmann calls this Old Bulgarian by the name of 'Old Church-Slavonic', for which I substitute ' O. Slav.', i. e. Old Slavonic simply.
§ 125. The following approximate account of Lithuanian pronunciation is mainly from Brugmann.

Vowels: a $e i u, \bar{a} \bar{e} y \bar{u}, \dot{e} o$. Both $e$ and $\bar{e}$ are to be pronounced very open. Note that $y=i$. Also, $\dot{e}$ and $o$ are very close and always long. The vowels $q \in \dot{\xi} \psi$ do not differ in pronunciation from $a$ e $i u$; the hook beneath has only an etymological value, as it signifies that the vowel so marked was originally followed by a nasal. Initially and medially they are always long; finally they are sometimes long, sometimes short.

Diphthongs : ai ei au $\bar{a} i \bar{e} \hat{i} \bar{a} u$ ui oi $\ddot{e} \dot{u}$. The $o$ in oi is long. Pronounce $\ddot{e}$ as $\bar{e} e$ with a very open $e$; and $\dot{u}$ as $\bar{u} o$ with a very open $o$ or as $\bar{u} a$. (Note the three values of $e$, viz. $e, \dot{e}, \ddot{e}$.

In piktas, 'bad,' the accent denotes that the vowel (though stressed) is short. In várpa, 'ear of corn,' gẽras, good, the vowels are long. So also di dú éi are to be read with the former vowel long. The symbol $j$ represents the G. $j$, E. $y$. Nesselmann's Dictionary has the symbol $w$, pronounced as E. $v$ in the Lithuanian of Prussia, but as E. $w$ in one variety of the Lithuanian of Russia. Note the following consonants : $c=t s ; c z=\mathrm{E} . c h ; s z=\mathrm{E} . s h ; z$ zor $\dot{z}=\mathrm{F} . j(\mathrm{zh}) . \quad$ All consonants (except $j$ ) are liable to palatalization before palatal vowels. Palatalization before non-palatal vowels is indicated by writing an $i$ after the preceding consonant.

Nesselmann's Lithuanian Dictionary arranges the letters in the following order : a ai au e ci i o o ư u uijwtdcczd亡் (E. j) $k g \neq b l m n r s s z z \dot{z}$. The spelling is not always uniform.
§ 126. The following account of the pronunciation of Old Slavonic is from Brugmann. The vowel-symbols are : aeoǐ̆u ̆uy ě. Both $e$ and $o$ are open. Pronounce $\check{\imath}$ as a very close $\breve{e}$; $\breve{u}$ somewhat like the E. $u$ in $b u t$; $\check{e}$ as long $\dot{e}^{1}$; $y$ as long G. $u$ ( $i u$ in G. griun). Both $\varepsilon$ and $q$ are nasal vowels; the former $=\mathrm{F}$. in ; the latter $=\mathrm{F}$. on. The symbol $j$ is the G. $j$, E. $y$; the $v$ was at first like the E. $w$, later as E.v. By $c h$ is meant the G. $c h$ in $a c h ; s=$ E. $s h$; $z=\mathrm{F} . j(\mathrm{zh}) ; z=\mathrm{E}$. and $\mathrm{F} . z ; c=t s ; c=\mathrm{E} . c h$ in church (Lith. cz).

The Etymologisches Wörterbuch der Slavischen Sprachen by Franz Miklosich (Wien, 1886) is in roman type throughout. He gives his alphabet as follows: abcčdeêfgh chijklmnoprsštuvzžŭ (= Russ. ъ) y (= Russ. ы) $\mathfrak{1}$ ( = Russ. ь). This represents the Old Slavonic ; his ê is the same as the ě above, and does not occur initially. As indicating the sound of $c h$, he has $\operatorname{ch}(x)$; where $x$ represents the Gk. $\chi$. As to the three last letters, we may take as illustrations the three following examples. O. Slav. glazü, 'eye'; Russ. glazъ. O. Slav. synŭ, 'son'; Russ. synъ (in the transliteration by Miklosich), printed сынъ in the Russian Dictionary. O. Slav. znatr,' 'to know'; Russ. znatb. The first and third of these examples should be particularly noted, as implying that the Russ. final letters $\quad$ ъ and $ь$ represent the O. Slav. $\breve{u}$ and $\check{\imath}$ respectively.
§127. I proceed to give a few selected examples (not exhaustive) of Lithuanian and Slavonic words cognate with
${ }^{1}$ Not further explained ; if the Lith. $\dot{e}$ is meant, it is long and very close. It must be remembered that we are here dealing with an extinct pronunciation.
or closely allied to English ones; using the forms given by Nesselmann and Miklosich respectively. The O. Pruss. (Old Prussian) forms are from Die Preussische Sprache, by Dr. E. Berneker. In order to avoid the symbols $\quad \mathrm{b}, \mathbf{b}$, and $\mathbf{~}$, I print ' (e) and $y$ instead, in the case of Russian words, and $\breve{u}, \stackrel{i}{,}, y$ for O. Slav. words. The two former are mute in Russian; ' emphasizes a preceding consonant ; whilst ( $e$ ) may be compared to the mute $e$ in French.
A. Ale. Lith. alus; O. Pruss. alu.

Am. Goth. im ; O. N. im ; A. S. eom ; Lith. esmi; O. Slav. jesmı̆; Russ. esm(e), I am.

Apple. Lith. obolys, apple; O. Slav. ablŭko, jablŭko; Russ. jabloko; O. Pruss. woble.

Arm. O. Pruss. irmo; O. Slav. rame, 'humerus'; Russ. ramo.

Ash. Lith. uisis; Lettish ōsis ; O. Pruss. woasis; Russ. jasen(e); Polish jesion. (Here Russ. $j a=$ я.)

Aspen. O. Pruss. abse; Lettish apse (Brugmann); Lith. apuszis; Russ. osina, an aspen-tree.

Axle. Swed. and Dan. ax-el. Lith. aszis, an axle; O. Pruss. assis; O. Slav. osĩ; Russ. os(e) ; L. axis. (The dimin. suffix eel is here of Teut. origin.)
§ 128. B. The E. $b$ answers to Lith. and Slav. $b$, L. $f$, Gk. $\phi$, Skt. and Idg. bh.
$B_{\text {an. }}$. From an Idg. base ${ }^{*} b h \bar{a}$; cf. L. fā $-r \bar{i}$, to speak, fā-ma, a report. Cf. further O. Slav. ba-jati, to speak, Russ. bajat (e) ; Polish bajka, a fable.

Bare. A. S.bxr; Teut. type *bazoz; Lith.basas; O. Slav. bosŭ, barefooted.

Be. Lith. $b u-t i$; O. Slav. $b y-t i$, to be.
Bear, verb. Russ. brat(e), to take, seize, take away, also to carry (a gun); I pers. sing. pres. ber-u; bremja, a burden.

Beard. A.S. beard; Lith. barzda; Russ. boroda.
Beaver. Lith. bebrus; O. Slav.bebrŭ, bobrŭ; Russ.bobr'; Polish bobr.

Bell. A. S. belle, a bell ; bellan, to roar, E. bell-ow. Here the $l l$ probably arose from $l s$; cf. Lith. balsas, voice.

Birch. Lith. beržas, a birch-tree ; O. Pruss. berse; O. Slav. brêza; Russ. bereza; Pol. brzoza.

Blind. O. Slav. blęda, I wander (base *blend); Lith. blendżius, I become dim; Lith. pri-blinde, evening twilight.

Boon. Icel. bōn, a prayer; O.Slav. basnŭ, a fable, a spell, allied to bajati, to speak; see Ban above.

Bow, verb. A.S. bügan, to bend; Lith. baug-us, shy, timid.

Brother. Lith. broterẽlis (with é), a little brother (Brugmann) ; brotuszis, a cousin, child of one's father's brother; O. Pruss. brote; Russ. brat'; Pol. brat.

Brow. Lith. bruwis, the eyebrow ; Russ. brov(e) ; Polish brew.
§ 129. C. The English $c$ requires great care. Its ordinary equivalent is the Idg. $g$. But the latter was soon discovered to have at least two values, and stricter investigations proved that it had three. The Idg. languages originally possessed three distinct sets of gutturals, which have different equivalents in different groups of those tongues. Brugmann distinguishes these sets of gutturals by calling them palatals, pure velars, and labio-velars.

The palatal sound of $k$ is produced when the middle part of the back of the tongue approaches the back part of the hard palate, as in articulating the $k$ in the English kid.

The velar sound is produced when the hind part of the back of the tongue approaches the soft palate, as in articulating the $k$ in the German word kunst.

The labio-velar sound occurs when the velar sound is further accompanied by a rounding of the lips. The E. queen belongs to this last set.

Some writers (as Uhlenbeck) give to these three sets the names of palatal gutturals, middle gutturals, and velar gutturals.
§ 130. Examples of E. $c$ from a palatal Idg. $g$. It is by the Lithuanian form that the character of the original Idg. equivalent of the E. $c$ is determined; for in the present case Lithuanian has \%. The other equivalents of this $c$ are Skt. $j$, O. Slav. $z$, Gk. $\gamma$, L. $g$, Irish $g$. The following are examples:-

Comb. Idg. type *gombhos; Skt. jambhas, a tooth, jaw ; Lith. žamba, mouth (Brugmann); Lettish zōbs, a tooth; Gk. үó $\mu \phi o s$, a peg, $\gamma \boldsymbol{\mu} \phi \dot{\eta}$, a jaw; Russ. zub', a tooth. The comb is likened to a row of teeth.

Corn. Lith. žirn-is, a pea (round grain); Russ. zern-o, corn; O. Pruss. syrne ; Pol. ziarno; cf. L. grānum, a grain.

Know, Ken. Cf. Skt. jnā-tas, known, Gk. $\gamma \nu \omega$ - tós, L. (g)nō-tus; Lith. žinō-ti, to know; O. Slav. zna-ti, to know; Russ. znal(e).
§ 131. E. $c, k$; from a pure velar guttural. Examples occur in the following words:-

Crane. Gk. ý́pavos; W., Corn., Bret. garan ; Lith. gerwè, a crane; O. Pruss. gerwe; O. Slav. žerav̌̆, a crane, Russ. zuravil(e). The $c$ is not from an Idg. palatal $g$, because the Lith. word begins with $g$, not with z. And it is not from a labio-velar guttural, because the Celtic word begins with $g$, not with $b$; see below, § 132 .

Knead. A. S. cned-an. Allied to Russ. gnes-ti, to squeeze, press (1 pr. s. gnet-u). The Russ. $g$ shows that the Idg. $g$ is velar.
§ 132. E. $c$; from a labio-velar guttural.
Cow. A. S. cū ; Skt. gaus (nom.); Gk. $\beta$ oûs, an ox ; Irish and Gael. bó, a cow, W. buw ; Lettish gôvs, a cow ; Russ. govjado, oxen. The Gk. $\beta$ and the Celtic $b$ clearly show the labialized nature of the guttural.

Here belong the following words that begin with $q u$ :
Q. Quean. A. S. cwene; Goth. kwinō, a woman; Skt. gnā, a goddess ; Gk. $\gamma v v \eta$, a woman (Boeotian $\beta$ avá) ; O. Pruss. genna, Russ. žena, a woman; Pol. zona.

Quern. A. S. cwèn, Skt. -jāniṣ, a wife (only used at the end of a compound word). Allied (by gradation) to quean.

Quell. A. S. creellan, causal of cwelan, to die. Allied to Lith. gel-tǐ, to pain; O. Slav. žalü, pain; Russ. žalo, a sting.

Quern, a handmill. A. S. cweorn; Goth. kwairnus; Lith. gerno, a stone in a handmill ; Russ. žernov', a millstone.

Quick, adj. living, alive. Skt. jìvas, living; L. ūuus; Lith. gywas; Russ. živoj, alive ; Irish beb, W. byw, alive.
§ 133. D. The E. $d$ corresponds to the Idg. $d h$, Skt. $d h$, Gk. $\theta$, Lith., Slav., Celt. $d$, L. $f$ (initially), $d, b$ (medially).

Daughter. Gk. өuyát $\eta \rho$; O. Pruss. duckti; Lith. dukté; Russ. $\operatorname{doc}^{( }(e)$.

Day. A. S. dxg; allied to Lith. dag-as, hot time, autumn ; deg-ti, to burn.

Deal, a part, portion. Cf. Russ. délit (e), to divide, to part $(\hat{e}=\mathrm{b})$. With a different gradation, we find Lith. dalis, a share, Russ. dolja, a share.

Deep. A.S. dēop; Teut. type *deupoz. Lith. dubùs, deep, hollow; dùb-ti (1 p. s. pr. dumb-u), to be hollow; Russ. dup-lo, the hollow of a tree.

Deer. A. S. dēor, Goth. dius, a wild animal (a general term). Teut. type ${ }^{*}$ deus-om, a living creature, one that breathes. The root appears in Lith. dwes-ti, to breathe, whence dzwás-e, breath, a spirit; cf. dausa (pl. dausos), the air ; Russ. duch' (ch = G. ch), spirit, breath; Pol. duch. Allied to Gk. $\theta_{\epsilon}^{\prime} \sigma-\phi$ atos, divinely uttered, ${ }^{\ell} \downarrow \theta \in \sigma s$, inspired.

Deft, dexterous. Allied to A. S. ge-daf-en, fit, Goth. gadöbs, fitting, ga-dab-an, to befall, to be fit. Cf. Lith. dab-inti, to adorn, dàbnus, fair ; Russ. dobryj (or dobruii), good; dobro, goods, property.

Delve, to dig ; A. S. delfan. Russ. dolb-it(e), to chisel, to hollow out; O. Pruss. dalptan, a punch.

Do. A. S. dōn, to put, to do. Lith. dèti, to put; O.Slav. déti, to put ; L. fa-c-ere, to do ; Gk. $\tau i-\theta \eta-\mu \iota$, I place.

Door. A. S. duru. Lith. dùrys, durrys, pl., folding-doors;
O. Pruss. dauris; Gk. Aípa, a door. But Russ. dver(e), a door, answers rather to Gk. Aatpós, a door-hinge (Brugmann, i. §509) ; cf. Skt. $d v a \bar{r}$, a door.
§ 134. E. Ear, sb., Goth. auso; O. Pruss. ausins; Lith. ausis ; Pol. and Russ. ucho (ch=G. ch) ; L. auris.

Ear, vb., to plough. Goth. ar-jan; Lith. ar-ti, to plough; Russ. orat(e).

Eat. A.S. et-an; L. ed-ere; Lith. ed-mi, I eat; Russ. êst $(e)$, to eat ( $\hat{e}=\stackrel{b}{b}$ ) ; O. Slav. jadtr, food; Russ. jastva, food.

Eight. Goth. ahtau; Lith. asztoni, eight; O. Slav. osmı̆ (for *ost-mı̆, lit. 'eighth'), eight; Russ. ossmoj, eighth. Cf. Lith. aszmas (for *aszt-mas), eighth. The Russ. for 'eight' is vosem(e).

Eke. A. S. èac, also, ìecan, to increase; L. aug-ère, to increase; Lith. aug-li, to grow.

Eleven. A.S. endleofan, endlufon; O. Fries. elleva; Goth. ain-lif (from ain-, one, and -lif, remaining, left over). Lith. wëno-lika (from wen-as, one, and -lika, remaining, allied to L. linquere, to leave), is similarly formed.

Ewe. A. S. cowu; Lith. awis, a sheep; L. ouis, a sheep; Russ. ovtsa, a sheep. Cf. O. Pruss. aweins, a wether.
§ 135. F. The E. $f$ corresponds to Idg. $p$ (Gk. $\pi$, L. $p$, Lith. $p$, Slav. $p$ ).

Fallow, adj., of a pale brown. A.S. fealu; Teut. type '*falwoz. Lith. palwas, fallow ; Russ. polovyj, cream-coloured ; O. Slav. plavü, white; Pol. plowey, yellow.

Farrow, to produce a litter of pigs; from A.S. fearh, M.E. farh, a pig. Lith. parszas, a pig; Russ. poroz', a boar-pig. The weak grade appears in L. porcus.

Fist. A.S. fy yst. Cf. Russ: pjast(e), the fist; O.Slav. pesti (for *pensti); see Brugmann, i. § 647 (6).

Five. A. S. fîf; Goth. fimf; Lith. penkì ; Gk. $\pi$ tévte; Idg. type *pen(g)qe. Cf. Russ. pjat(e).

Foe. A. S. fäh, adj. hostile; Idg. type *poikos. Allied to Gk. $\pi \iota \kappa$ - oós, bitter ; Lith. piktas, unkind, bad.

Foul. A. S. $f \bar{u} l$; allied to L. $p \bar{u}-s$, matter ; Lith. $p u$-lei, pl., matter.

Full. A. S. full; Teut. type *fulloz, from *fulnoz. Lith. pílnas, full ; Russ. polnyj; cf. L. plēnus.
§ 136. G. The E. $g$ (like $c$ ) has three values; according as it represents Idg. $g h, g(w) h$, or $g w h$. See the remarks in § 129.

When it represents the palatal $g h$, the Lithuanian equivalent is $z$; otherwise, it is $g$. I consider first the $g$ from Idg. palatal $g h$. It corresponds to the Celtic $g$, L. $h$ (or $g$ ), Gk. $x$, Skt. $h$ (rarely $j$ ), Lith. z, Slav. z.

Gang. Icel. gang-a, to go; Lith. ženg-iù, I stride; Skt. $j a \dot{n} g h \bar{a}$, the lower part of the leg (Brugmann, i. § 617 ).

Gold. A. S. gold; O. Slav. zlato, Russ. zoloto.
Goose. A. S. gos (for *gons, from *gans); G. gans. O. Pruss. sansy, a goose ; Lith. z̃ãsis (for *žansis); L. anser (for *hanser); Gk. $\chi \eta{ }^{\eta} \nu$. The Slav. words should begin with $z$, but we find O. Slav. gqsĭ, a goose ; Polish gqsior, a gander, geś, a goose ; Russ. gus(e), a goose.

Some think that these Slav. words were borrowed from German.

In the following words, the A. S. $g$ has become $y$ in modern English.

Yawn. A. S. geonian, ginian, to yawn; from Idg. base *ghi. Lith. zo-ti, to gape (written zio-ti by Brugmann) ; Russ. zïat(e), zinut(e), to gape ; L. hi-āre.

Yellow. A.S. geolu; Teut. type *gelwoz; Idg. type *ghelwos. Lith. želwys, a green stem; žalas, žalias, green; žel-ti, to become green (said of plants) ; zal-oti, to become green, bear green shoots; O. Slav. zelenŭ, green; Russ. zelenyj, Pol. zielony, green ; Russ. zelie, herbs. Cf. L. heluus, light yellow.
§ 137. The E. $g$ answers to a velar guttural when Lithuanian (or Russian) has $g$ as its equivalent, or when Skt. has $g h$ (not $h$, except before Idg. $e, i$ ). Whether the velar
guttural is pure or labialized can sometimes be determined by the Gk. or the L. form.

The following examples seem to go back to an initial pure velar Idg. gh.

Get. Icel. get-a, to get; Goth. bi-git-an, to find, obtain ; cf. Russ. gad-at (e), to conjecture ; Lith. god-yti, to guess; L. -hendere, in pre-hendere, to seize.

Glad. A.S. gled ; allied to G. glatt, smooth; Lith. glod-as, smooth ; Russ. glad-kij, smooth ; L. glab-er.

Guest. A. S. grest; Goth. gast-s ; Russ. gost(e), a guest, alien; L. host-is, a stranger.
§ 138. H. The E. $h$ has likewise three values, according as it corresponds to the Idg. palatal $k$, the pure velar $k$, or the labio-velar $k$.

The Idg. palatal $k$ is easily known, as it is equivalent to Lith. sz, O. Pruss. or Slav. s, Skt. \&. The following are examples:-

Hare. A. S. hara; G. hase; O. Pruss. sasnis ; Skt. çaças.
Haulm, a stalk. O. Merc. halm; O. Pruss. salme, straw ; Russ. soloma, straw; L. culmus; also calamus, borrowed from Gk. кá入apos, a reed.

Heart. A. S. heorte. Lith. szirdis; Russ. serdce ( $c=t s$ ), a diminutive form; Pol. serce; Welsh craidd; Gk. карঠ̊ia; O. Pruss. seyr (cf. Gk. кฑ̂ן).

Hound. A.S. hund; Lith. sziu (gen. szuns); O. Pruss. sunis. Cf. Russ. and Pol. su-ka, a bitch. L. canis, Gk. кขஸ́v (gen. кvข-ós).

Housel, the eucharist. A. S. hūsl, Goth. hunsl, lit. 'sacrifice, offering, consecrated thing'. Teut. type *xwunt-slom, Idg. type *kwontslom ; allied to Lith. szwent-as, holy, Russ. svjatoj, holy; O. Pruss. swints, holy.

Hundred. A. S. hund; L. centum ; Lith. szimtas ; O. Slav. sŭto; Russ. sto.

Some English words that began with $h$ in A. S. have lost this initial. Examples are these :-

Lean, vb., to incline. A.S. hlænan, to cause to lean ; hlinian, to lean; L. in-clīnāre; Gk. кגiveıv. Cf. Lith. szlaitas, a declivity; sslëti, to lean.

Loud. A. S. hlūd. Allied to Gk. $\kappa \lambda v \tau o ́ s, ~ r e n o w n e d, ~ \kappa \lambda v ́ \epsilon \iota \nu$, to hear; Skt. crutas, heard, renowned, from cru, to hear. Lith. szlowe, glory, renown ; Russ. slava, glory; slyšat(e), to hear.

White. The word white belongs here. The Idg. initial was a palatal $k$, which was followed by $w$; and Idg. $k w$ $=$ Teut. hve. A. S. hwiit. Cf. Skt. ¢vit-ras (Vedic), white, çvètas, white; Lith. szrvilèti, to shine; Russ. svêt', light, sb. For other words beginning with $w h$, see § 140.
§ 139. But the E. $h$ arises from an Idg. velar $k$ or $q$, when the Lith. and Slav. forms begin with $k$. If, besides this, the L. and Gk. forms begin with $q u$, or with $\pi$ or $\tau$, the initial letter will be labio-velar, $q(w)$, and the E. word may be expected to begin with $w h$ (A. S. $h w$ ). I take first the cases in which the initial letter is a pure velar.

Harvest. A.S. hærf-est; allied to Gk. kapmós, fruit, L. carp-ere, to pluck; from an Idg. root *(s)qerp, whence Lith. kerp-ì, I shear.

Heap. A.S. hēap; Teut. *haup-. Brugmann takes the Teut. base to be *haup-n-, from Idg. *kaup-n-; the $p$ being preserved by the following -n-. Cf. Lith. kaupas, a heap; Russ. and Pol. kupa.

Hew, v. A. S. hēazoan; Teut. type *hauw-an. Cf. Russ. kov-at(e), to hammer, to forge ; Lith. kau-ti, to fight, kow-à, battle; Pol. kowal, a blacksmith.

Hide, sb., a skin. A. S. hȳd. Cf. Lith. kiautas, the soft skin of the grape (or of other fruits); O. Pruss. keuto, skin ; L. cutis.

Hill. A.S. hyll, a hill; L. collis, a hill. Cf. Lith. kalnas, a hill. The Russ. cholm' $(c h=\mathrm{G} . c h)$, a hill, seems to be borrowed from the Teutonic (A. S. holm, Dan. holm, G. holm, orig. a rounded eminence).

Whole. The initial $w$ is unoriginal. A.S. hāl. Cf. O. Pr. kailü-stiska-n, sound health (Brugmann, i. § 639); Russ. cêlyj, whole, entire ( $c=t s ; \hat{e}=j e ; y=u i)$.

Hurdee. A. S. hyrdel; cf. Icel. hury, a hurdle. Allied to Gk. кápt-a入-os, a (woven) basket; L. crāt-is, a hurdle ; O. Pruss. korto, a fence.

In the E. rawe, rick, the initial $h$ has been dropped; but they belong to this category.

Raw. A.S. hreaw; Teut. type *hrawoz (base *hrau). Allied to L. crū-dus, raw, Skt. kravyam, raw flesh, L. cru-or, blood; Lith. kraujas, blood; Pol. krew, Russ. krov(e), blood; W. crau.

Rick. M. E. reek, A. S. hrēac, a heap; O. Irish cruach, a heap. Cf. Lith. krüwa, a heap.
§ 140. Examples of E. wh from an Idg. labio-velar guttural.
Whale. A. S. hwoel; Teut. type *hwaloz. O. Pruss. kalis, a cat-fish; perhaps even L. s-qualus, a kind of sea-fish.

Wheel. A. S. hwēol, also hweogul, hweohol; a reduplicated form. Teut. type *hwegrelom, n., for *hwe-hwl-om; Idg. type * $q(w) e-q(w) l_{0-}$; Gk. кú-к入os, a wheel ; Skt. cha-kras, m., cha-kram, n., a wheel. Without the reduplication, we find Icel. hvel, a wheel, O. Pruss. kel-an, a wheel, Gk. $\pi$ ód-os, an axle, L. col-us, a distaff; O. Slav. kol-o, Russ. kol-eso, a wheel. The E. calash, F. calèche, G. kalesche, is from the Polish kolaska, a small carriage, dimin. of kolasa, a (wheeled) carriage.

While. A. S. hwi-l, a time; Swed. hvi-la, rest; allied to L. qui-ēs, rest. Cf. O. Slav. root *ki, to rest ; whence Russ. po-čit(e), to rest, po-koj, repose; Lith. pa-kajus, peace. The O. Slav. po, Lith. $p o, p a$, is a preposition, also used as a prefix.

Wно, interrogative pronoun. A.S. hwwa. Allied to L. quis, Gk. tis, Skt. kas, who? Lith. kas, who? Russ. kto, who ? čto, what? O. Slav. kito, who? Here -to is a suffix. So also E. whether, Gk. по́тєроs, Skt. kataras; Lith. katràs; Russ. kotoryj; Pol. ktory. So also E. where ; Lith. kur.
N.B. - The word white does not belong here; its initial letter was an Idg. palatal $k$, followed by $w$. See $\S$ I 38 above.
§ 141. I. I, pers. pronoun; A. S. ic, O. Norse $e k$; L. eg-o. Lith. asz, Lettish es, O. Pruss. es ; Russ. $j a(j=y)$; Pol. ja.

In, prep. A.S. in, L. in ; Lith. in, $i$; O. Pruss. en.
Is. A. S. is, Goth. ist; Lith. esti; O. Slav. jesti.
§ 142. K. From the same source as $c$; see §§ $\mathbf{1} 30-2$.
$\mathbf{I}, \mathbf{M}, \mathbf{N}$. These answer, respectively, to the Lith. and Slav. $l, m, n$. A few examples may suffice.

Lick, vb. A.S. liccian; cf. Lith. lèžiù, I lick; Russ. liz-at(e), to lick.

Lie, vb., to tell a falsehood; Russ. lgat (e), vb., $\operatorname{loz}(e)$, a lie.
Life, Leave. A. S. līf, life; l户̄ef-an, to leave behind; from the strong verb lifan in the compound be-lifan, to remain, G. b-leiben. The Idg. root *leip appears in the Greek $\lambda \iota \pi a p$ j́s, persistent, from the idea of adherence. Allied to Lith. lip-ti, to adhere to; Russ. lip-kij, sticky; Pol. lip-ki, sticky, lep, glue.

Light, sb. A. S. lēoh-t; Teut. base *leuh; Idg. base *leuk, whence Gk. $\lambda_{\epsilon v \kappa \text {-ós, white, bright, L. lūc-ēre, to shine. Cf. }}^{\text {, }}$ Lith. lauk-as, adj., marked with a blaze or white spot (as a horse) ; Russ. luč, a ray of light; O. Pruss. lauxnos, stars. Also Lith. lauk-as, sb., an open field; L. lūc-us, a grove, orig. 'a clearing'; E. lea.

Light, adj. (not heavy). Allied to Lith. lengwas, light; Gk. énaxưs; Skt. laghu-, light.

Loan. Icel. lān; from the verb $l j \bar{a}$, to lend, cognate with Goth. leihwan, to lend, L. linquere, Gk. $\lambda \in i \pi \epsilon \iota v$, to leave. Cf. Lith. $l i k-t i$, to leave; O. Slav. otŭ-lêkŭ, 'reliquiae.' From the same root is the important Lith. suffix -lika, remaining over, which illustrates the synonymous words eleven (one over ten) and twelve (two over ten). See §§ r34, 147.

Lock, sb. (of hair). A. S. locc; allied to Lith. lugnas. flexible, orig. 'bent', i.e. curled.

Meal, ground corn. A. S. mel-u, from Idg. root *mel, to grind. Cf. Lith. mal-ti, to grind; O. Slav. mel-jq, I grind; Russ. mol-ot(e), to grind ; L. mol-ere.

Meed, a reward. A. S. mēd, also meory; Goth. mizdō; O. Slav. mĭzda, Russ. $m z d a$; Gk. $\mu \tau \sigma \theta$ ós.

Mesh (of a net). A. S. max ; Icel. möskvi; allied to Lith. mezg-u, I weave, I knot.

Milk, vb. A. S. melcan. Cf. Lith. mìlsz-li, to milk; Russ. mel(e)zit(e), to milk.

Mind, sb. A. S. gemynd, from gemunan, to remember, Goth. mun-an, to consider. Cf. Lith. min-èti, to remember Russ. $m n-i t(e)$, to opine, to think.

Mother. A.S. mōdor ; Lith. moté; Russ. mat(e).
Murder. A. S. morđor; allied to L. mor-s, death, mor-i, to die. Cf. Lith. mir-ti, to die; Russ. mer-et(e), to die.

Naked. A. S. nacod. Cf. Lith. nigas, naked; Russ. nagoj; Pol. nagi.

Neat, cattle. A. S. nēat, a domestic animal; cf. Lith. nauda, usefulness.

New. A. S. nïwe; Lith. naujas, new, which is extended from the (older) Lith. nawas, new, cognate with L. nouus, O. Slav. novŭ, new ; Russ. novyj; Pol. nowey.

Night. A. S. niht; O. Merc. næht; L. nox (acc. noct-em). Lith. naktis ; O. Slav. noštì; Russ. noč(e); Pol. noc.

Now. A.S. $n \bar{u}$; Goth. $n u$; Lith. $n u ̀$ (whence $n u ̀ g i$, now) ; Russ. nynê (cf. Gk. vû- $\nu$ ).
§ 143. O. There are very few Lithuanian words under the English $O$.

One. A. S. ān; Goth. ain-s. Lith. wënas, one; O. Slav. inŭ, one ; O. Pruss. ains.

Other. A. S. ōder, Goth. anthar; Lith. antras.
Otter. A. S. otor; O. Pruss. udro; Lith. údra; Russ. vydra; Pol. zydra.
§ 144. P. The E. and Teutonic $p$ answers to $b$ in other languages. Examples are very scarce, because the Idg. $b$
seldom occurs initially. There is but one example in which the E. word depends upon the Lith. form.

Pool. A. S. $p \overline{o l}$ (where $\bar{o}$ is the second grade of $\breve{a}$ ). Lith. balà, a swamp; O. Slav. blato; Russ. boloto.

Qu. For examples of $q u$-words, see $\S \mathbf{1 3 2}$.
§ 145. R. Initial $r$ does not change.
Red. A. S. rēad; Lith. raudà, sb., red colour ; Russ. ruda, blood; Pol. rudawy, red.

Ruddy. A. S. rudig ; Lith. rùdas, brownish red; cf. Russ. ruda, blood (above).

Rye. A. S. ryge; Lith. ruggei (pl. sb.), rye; O. Pruss. rugis; Russ rož(e).

For the words raw, rick, which began with A. S. $h r$, see § 139 .
§ 146. S. Initial $s$ does not change, though we sometimes find O. Slav. $s$, Lith. $s z$, in place of palatal $k$; see § 138 .

Salt. A. S. sealt; Goth. salt; L. sāl; Russ. sol(e); Pol. sól.
Sear, Sere, withered. A. S. séar ; Lith. sausas, dry; cf. Russ. su ${ }_{\chi o j}$, dry; Pol. suchy.

Seven. A.S. seofon; Goth. sibun; Lith. septyni; Russ. sem (e) ; Pol. siedm.

Sew. A. S. sizvian; Goth. siujan; Lith. suti; Russ. sit(e).
Shall. A. S. sceal, I p. s. pr.; Goth. skal; Lith. skel-iù, skel-ù, I owe, I am liable.

Sister. Icel. systir ; Goth. swistar; O. Pruss. swestro; Lith. sesi (gen. sesers); O. Slav. sestra; Russ. sestra; Pol. siostra.

Sit. A. S. sittan ; Lith. sed-èti; Russ. sid-êt(e).
Six. A. S. six ; Goth. saihs; Lith. szeszi; Russ. گest(e).
Sleep, vb. A. S. slâepan; Goth. slëpan; cf. Lith. slab-nèti, to be weak, to be relaxed; O. Slav. slabŭ, Russ. slab-yj, weak; Pol. slaby.

Smock. A.S. smoc, smocc; Teut. type *smug-noz; Idg. type *smuq-nos (Brugmann). Cf. A. S. smog-en, pp. of $s m \bar{u} g$-an, to creep into; so called because 'crept into', or put
over the head. Cf. Lith. smunku, I glide, from smuk-ti, to glide, slip ; ismunku, I glide into; O. Slav. smyc-ati, to slip, to draw ; smuč-ati, to creep.

Snow. A. S. snāz ; O. Pruss. snaygis ; Lith. snëgas; Russ. snég'.

Son. A. S. sunu; Goth. sunus; Lith. sunùs; Russ. syn'; Pol. syn.

Sour. A. S. sūr; Lith. surus, adj., salt; Russ. surovyj, harsh, rough.

Sow, verb. A. S. sāwan, to sow ; allied to L. serere (pt. t. sē-uì) ; Lith. sè-ti, to sow; Russ. sê-jat(e), to sow.

Speed. A. S. spē-d (cf. spōwan, to thrive); Lith. spè-tas, leisure, convenient time, spe-ti, to be at leisure, to have opportunity ; Russ. spét (e), to ripen.

Spin. A. S. spinnan. Cf. Lith. pin-ti, to weave; O. Slav. $p q-t i$, to stretch out (with loss of initial $s$ ).

Spur. A. S. spora, a spur ; cf. Lith. spir-ti, to kick.
Stand. A. S. standan, allied to L. stā-re; Lith. sto-ti, to stand ; Russ. sto-jat(e).

Steer, sb., a bullock. A. S. stēor. Cf. L. taurus, a bull; O. Pruss. tauris, a bison; Russ. tur', an aurochs (with loss of initial s); Pol. tur.

Stone. A.S. stān; Goth. stains; Russ. stêna, a wall, a rampart.

Swine. A. S. swīn, a swine; Russ. svin(e) ja, a swine; svinoj, adj., swinish; svinka, a pig.
§ 147. T. The E. $t$ corresponds to Gk. $\delta$, L., Lith., Slav. $\dot{d}$. (Th represents a different sound.)

Tear, vb. A. S. teran; Lith. dir-ti, to flay; Russ. drat(e), to tear.

Ten. A.S. tien, tinn; L. decem; Lith. deszim-tis, Russ. desja-t (e) ; (both with a suffix ; cf. Gk. סéкa-tos, tenth). So also O. Pruss. dessim-ton, ten.

Тоотн. A.S. $\overline{\text { ōJ }}$; Goth. tunthus; O. Pr. dantis; Lith. dantis.

Tree. A. S. trēo; Goth. triu (gen. triwis); Lith. derwa, pine-wood; Russ. drevo, a tree; Pol. drzewo.

True. A. S. trēorve. Allied to Lith. $d r u$-tas, firm; O.Pruss. druwis, belief, druwit, to believe.

Twelve. A. S. twelf; Goth. twa-lif; resembling Lith. $d z e y-l i k a$, twelve (lit. 'two over', i. e. over ten). Cf. Lith. lëkas, remaining, lik-ti, to remain; see § 134 .

Two. A. S. twā ; Goth. twai; O. Pruss. dwai; Lith. dwi; Russ. $d v a$; Pol. $d w a$.
§ 148. TH. The E. th corresponds, initially, to the Idg. $t$.
That. A. S. pret; Goth. thata; Lith. tai, that, neut. of tas, the ; Russ. to, neut. of tot', that ; Gk. тó ; L. -tud (in is-tud).

Thigh. A. S. pēoh, thigh (thick part) ; cf. Lith. taukas, fat of animals, tùk- $t i$, to become fat; Russ. tučnit(e), to fatten.

Thin. A. S. pynne; O. Slav. tĭnŭkŭ; Russ. tonkï.
Third. A. S. pridda; Lith. trëczias; Russ. tretij; L. tertius ; Pol. trzeci.

Thorn. A. S. born ; Pol. tarn-ka, a sloe; Russ. tërn', a sloe-tree, blackthorn; cf. Pol. cierń, a thorn.

Thou. A.S. $b \bar{u}$; Lith. tù ; O. Slav. ty ; Russ. ty (tui) ; Pol. ty. Cf. O. Pruss. twais, thine ; Lith. tawas, thine ; L. tuus ; Russ. twoj.

Threat. A. S. prēat, a crowd, trouble, threat; L. trūdere, to push, to crowd ; Russ. trud-il(e), to trouble, disturb ; trud', labour ; Pol. trud, fatigue.

Three. A. S. prī, prēo; Lith. trys; Russ.tri; Pol. trzy.
Throstle, Thrush. A. S. prost-le, a throstle; cf. Lith. strazdas, a thrush (with initial s); L. turdus (for *turzdus), a thrush. Cf. also Russ. drozd', a throstle.
§ 149. W. The E. $w$ is equivalent to Lith. $w$, also written $v$, which was at first pronounced as $w$, but now mostly as $v$, though the sound of $w$ may still be heard. The O. Slav. $w$ seems to have early become $v$.

Wain. A. S. wegn ; cf. Lith. wež-u, I carry, wežimas, a wain; O. Slav. vez-q, I carry ; L. ueh-o.

Water. A.S. woeter; Goth. watō; Russ. voda; Pol. woda; Lith. wandi ; L. unda, a wave ; O. Pruss. unds, water.

Weather. A. S. weder. Cf. O. Pruss. wetro, wind; Lith. wètra, a storm ; Russ. vêtr', wind, breeze; Pol. wiatr.

Wed, sb., a pledge. A. S. wedd; Goth. wadi. Allied to Lith. wad-oti, to redeem a pledge.

Weir, a dam. A. S. wer, allied to werian, to defend, protect, dam up ; Lith. wer-ti, to open or shut ; su-wer-ti, to shut, close, už-zver-ti, to close; O. Slav. vrêthi, to close, za-vorŭ, a bolt, vora, an enclosure; Russ. za-vora, a bolt (the prep. $z a$ means 'after' or 'to').

Well, sb., a spring. A. S. wella; cf. G. welle, a wave, Lith. woilnis, a wave, Russ. val', a wave.

Whit, a thing. A. S. wiht; O. Slav. vestlt, a thing; Russ. vešč(e), a thing.

Widow. A. S. widuwe ; O. Pruss. viddewē ; Russ. vdova; Pol. wdowa.

Wield. A. S. ge-zvyldan, from wealdan, to rule, govern. Lith. wald-yti, Russ. vlad-êt(e), to rule, possess.

Will, vb. A. S. willan; Lith. wel-iti, to propose, to wish, wale, the will ; Russ. vel-êt (e), to order, command, volja, the will ; Pol. wola, sb.

Wit, vb., to know ; Wot, I know. A. S. witan, pr. t. ic wät ; cf. Lith. weid-as, the appearance, face; Russ. vid', the face, vid-êt (e), to see, véd-at(e), to know; Pol. wid, sight.

Withe, Withy. A. S. widig, a willow; Lith. weytis, a withe, žilwittis, a wiliow (from žill-as, grey); L. uītis, a vine.

Wolf. A. S. wulf; Lith. weilkas; O. Pruss. wilkis; Russ. volk' O. Slav. vlŭkŭ; Pol. wilk.

Wool. A.S. wull ; cf. Lith. wilna, wool ; Russ. volna; Pol. wetna.

Word. A. S. word; O. Pruss. wirds, a word; cf. Lith. zvardas, a name.

Worth. M. E. worthen, vb., to become, to befall ; A.S. weorすan. Cf. Lith. wers-ti, to turn (i p. pr. s. wert-u,
obsolete) ; wart-yti, to turn round; Russ. vert-êt (e), to turn round.
§150. Y. In some cases E. $y$ answers to Teut. $g$, as in yarm, yellow; see § 136. But in a few words English preserves the original Idg. $y$.

Ye. A.S. gē ; Goth. $j \bar{u} s$; Lith. jus ; Skt. yū-yam.
Year. A. S. gèar; Goth. jèr; Czech jar, spring; Pol. jar, early spring-corn, jarzyna, summer fruits; Russ. jar(e) $=$ ярь, spring corn, $j a r-k a$, a yearling ewe.

Yoke. A. S. geoc; Goth. juk; O. Slav. and Russ. igo (for *jügo); Lith. jungas, with $n$ inserted by association with the verb jung-li, to yoke.

Young. A. S. geong; Goth. juggs (for *jungs). Allied to L. iuuenis, young, Lith. jaunas, Russ. junyj, young.

## CHAPTER XII

## ARMENIAN, ALBANIAN, AND PERSIAN

§ 151. Among the Indo-European languages are some that we have not yet mentioned, such as Armenian, Albanian, and Persian. It is worth while to consider the question, whether any of these afford assistance to the etymologist whose special study is English. The result is almost negative, with respect, at least, to the two former ; a fact which will shorten the discussion.
§ 152. Armenian. There are numerous Armenian dialects, spoken in the extreme east of Turkey in Asia, in the neighbourhood of Mount Ararat, on the Persian border. The Armenian treated of by Brugmann is the Old or classical Armenian, chiefly of the fifth century or later, the remains of which are mostly historical and ecclesiastical, and of a monastic character, being largely translated from Syriac and Greek. The actual nature of this language was at first misunderstood, and it was regarded as a variety of Iranian or Persian, but it has been shown that it is so far independent that it must be classed by itself. Perhaps it may be regarded as associated with Persian on the one side, and Balto-Slavic on the other. The Old Armenian abounds with words borrowed from Persian, which to some extent disguises its occasionally independent character.
§ 153. The Armenian sound-laws are difficult and intricate, so that many of the words assume a disguise in which the connexion with the forms of other Indo-germanic languages is not easy to recognize. Nevertheless, it possesses many words that remind us of cognate forms in some other
language, enough to enable us to perceive that it belongs to the set.

For example, it turns the Idg. initial $s$ into $h$ (which is sometimes dropped). Corresponding to the L. sen-ex, Goth. sin-is, 'old,' we find the Arm. hin, 'old'; nearly coinciding with W. hen, 'old.' The Arm. evt'n, 'seven,' reminds us of the Gk. $\dot{\epsilon} \pi \tau$ á, Pers. haft, Goth. sib-un, all forms of seven. The symbol $t^{\prime}$ signifies an aspirated $t$, like the Skt. th.

The Arm. arj, 'a bear,' is like the Gk. äpктos, 'bear.' The Arm. lois, 'light,' is cognate with L. lux (gen. lüc-is); cf. E. luc-id (from French). The Arm. ail, 'other,' is like L. ali-us, O. Irish aile. The Arm. mard, 'man,' is like L. mort-älis, mortal; cf. E. 'a mortal.' The Arm. sterj (with E. j), 'barren,' answers to L. steri-lis, 'sterile.' The Arm. astt, 'star,' answers to L. stella; the prefixed $a$ is seen in the Gk. àтти́p. The Arm. mair, 'mother,' resembles the F. mère, and arose in a similar way, viz. from the loss of a $t$ between two vowels; cf. L. māter. In precisely the same way, the Arm. for 'father' is hair, where the $h$ is due to the fact that an original Idg. $p$ (as in L. pater) becomes $h$ in Armenian; cf. Irish athair, 'father,' in which the $p$ first became $h$ and then disappeared altogether ; moreover, in Ir. athair, the th is sounded as a mere $h$, so that Arm. hair and Ir. athair differ but little. So also Gk. $\pi$ évte, 'five '; Arm. hing.

The Arm. initial sw became $k h$ (Skt. $k h$ ), written $k^{\prime}$; hence the Idg. *swesor, 'sister,' became $k$ 'oir (with loss of intervocalic $s$ ) ; cf. Pers. $k h(w) \bar{a} h a r, k h ' a ̄ h a r, ~ s i s t e r, ~ W . ~ c h w a e r . ~$
§154. In one respect at least Armenian resembled Slavonic, viz. in turning the initial Idg. palatal $k$ into $s$. Hence, beside the Gk. карঠ-ía, 'heart,' we find Russ. serd-ce, 'heart,' with a dimin. suffix, and Arm. sirt, 'heart.' And beside the Gk. кáp-a, 'head,' we find, similarly, Arm. sar, ' head.'

Similarly, the Idg. palatal gh becomes Slav. z, as in Gk. $\lambda \in i \chi-\omega$, 'I lick,' Russ. liz-at(e), 'to lick'; cf. Arm. liz-um, I lick.
§ 155. But the most interesting examples are those in which Armenian somewhat resembles English. We know, for example, that (by Grimm's Law) the Idg. $b h, b, p$ become E. $b, p, f$; the Idg. $d h, d, t$ become E. $d, t, t h$; and the Idg. $g h, g, k$ (if palatal) become E. $g, k, h$. Now Armenian actually exhibits a very similar sound-shifting, in which several (about two-thirds) of the results coincide. This may be best shown by the following table:-

| Idg. | bh | b | p | dh | d | t | gh | g | k |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Eng. | b | p | f | d | t | th | g | k | h |
| Arm. | b | p | h | d | t | $\mathrm{t}^{\prime}$ | j | $\mathrm{c}(\mathrm{k}) \mathrm{s}$ |  |

I give a few examples in illustration.
Labials. bh: Idg. *bher, to bear; hence Arm. ber-em, I bring; O.Ir. ber-im ; A. S. ber-e; E. I bear.
$b$ : Lith. balà, a swamp, E. pool. Cf. Skt. ambu, water, Gk. ${ }^{\circ} \mu \beta \rho o s$, rain ; Arm. $a m p$ (gen. amboy), a cloud. (Examples of this change from $b$ to $p$ are extremely scarce.)
$p$ : Gk. пévтє, five; Goth. fimf, E. five; Arm. hing. Gk. $\pi \hat{\imath} \rho$; E. fire; Arm. hur.

Gk. $\pi \epsilon ́ \rho a \nu$, beyond; E. far ; Arm. hèri, 'far.' Gk. $\pi o ́ \delta a$, acc. of $\pi$ ous, foot; E. foot; Arm. otn (for *hot-n).

Dentals. dh: Idg. root *dheigh, to knead, form ; E. dough, a kneaded lump; Arm. dēz, 'a heap.' (For the change from $g h$ to $z$ see § I54.)

Gk. $\theta$ vyárךр ( $\theta$ from dh), a daughter; E. daughter; Arm. dustr.
$d$ : L.decem, ten ; E.ten ; Arm. tasn. L. ed-o, I eat; A.S. et-e, I eat; Arm. ut-em, I eat. L. nìdus (for *nizdus), a nest ; E. nest ; Arm. nist, a situation, position (G. Lage, Sitz).
$t$ : Lith. tankus, close, tight; E. tight, but prov. E. and M. E. thight; Icel. pēttr, water-tight (for *pihtr; Teut. type *pihtoz, for *penxtoz) ; Arm. t'anjr, tight.

Palatal Gutturals. gh: Gk. xєip, hand; Arm. jern. Gk. $\chi^{\iota \omega} \nu$, snow; Arm. jiun. Cf. Gk. $\chi^{o \lambda \eta ́, ~ g a l l ~ ; ~ E . ~ g a l l . ~}$
g: Gk. $\gamma \delta 0 v v$, knee; E. knee; Arm. cunr. Gk. €̈p $\gamma$-ov, work ; E. work; Arm. gorc. Gk. ä $\gamma \epsilon \iota \nu$, to drive; Icel. $a k-a$, to drive ; A.S. ac-an, to ache, E. ake (misspelt ache); Arm. $a c-e m$, I drive.
$k$ : Gk. к $\eta \rho$, кар $\delta$-ía, heart; E. heart; Arm. sirt. L. ac-us, a needle; Arm. as-etn, a needle.

The Idg. $w$, which remains as $w$ in English and Latin (L. u), usually becomes $g$ in Armenian. Cf. E. water ; Arm. get, a river. L. uinum (whence E. wine); Arm. gini. E. wit; Arm. git-em, I know. E. work; Arm. gorc.

We may further note the following resemblances :-
Idg. ${ }^{* e s}-m i$, I am ; A. S. eom, E. am ; Icel. em; Arm. em. E. crane; Arm. kriunk. E.quean; Arm. kin, a woman. E. cow; Arm. kov. E. un- (negative prefix); Arm. an-.
§ 156. Albanian. This language is very imperfectly known. It is the language of ancient Illyria, preserved in documents that, for the most part, only go back to the seventeenth century. Much difficulty has been experienced in separating the pure Albanian words from those which it has freely borrowed from Greek, Latin, Romance, Slavonic, and even Turkish. It has been calculated that, out of 5,000 words, only 400 prove to be of native origin. There is, however, sufficient evidence to show that the Old Illyrian was an independent descendant from the original Indo-germanic stock.

Brugmann gives the alphabet as follows:-
$a(g) b d d z d z \delta \vartheta e(\xi) \in f g g^{\prime} h \chi \chi^{\prime} i(\xi) j k k^{\prime} l \neq l^{\prime} m$ $n n^{\prime} \circ(\ell) p r \bar{r} s \not ̊ t t s t u(y) u(i i) v z \not \approx$. The vowels can be short or long. The symbol $\epsilon$ represents a murmured vowel ; $j$ is the E. $y$ (consonant). The vowels $a, \& c$., are nasalized; $t^{*}=\mathrm{E} . c h$ in church; $d z=\mathrm{E} . j ; s=\mathrm{E} . \operatorname{sh} ; z{ }_{z}=$ E. $z h$ (the sound of ge in rouge). $\uparrow$ and $\delta$ represent, respectively, the E. th in breath and breathe. The consonants marked with a dash (as $g^{\prime}$ ) are palatalized consonants, with a sound only used before palatal vowels (as $e, i$ ).
§ 157. It can hardly be said to throw any light upon

English. It is sufficient to mention some of its chief peculiarities.

Labials. The Idg. $p, b, b h$ answer to Alb, $p, b, b$, as in Slavonic and Lithuanian. Examples: pruš, a glowing coal ; cf. E. fros-t (and L. prū-na, for *prus-na, a live coal, pru-ina, for *prus-uina, hoar-frost). Gk. $\pi \in \notin \tau \epsilon$, five; Alb. pese. Alb. pat-a, I had; allied to L. pot-is, powerful. L. rap-io, I snatch; Alb. rjep, I pull away.
$b h$ : Alb. bate, a star (Skt. bhālam, splendour, from bhā, to shine). Alb. bā̄e, a burden, with $\bar{r}$ from $r n$; cf. E. bear, bairn. Alb. bar $\uparrow$, white; Goth. bairht-s, E. bright. Alb. bir, a son; cf. E. bair-n. Alb. bire, a hole; cf. E. bore, verb. Alb. $b u-\bar{r}$, a man (being); cf. Gk. фu-tóv, a plant, and E. be.

Dentals. The Idg. $t, d, d h$ become Alb. $t, d(\delta, \vartheta), d(\delta, \vartheta)$; $c f$. Lith. and Slav. $t, d, d$, O. Irish $t(t h), d, d$. Ex. $t$ : L. $t u$, Alb. ti; E. thou. L. trees, Alb. tre; E. three. L. noct-em, acc., Alb. nate; E. night.
$d$ : Alb. deg $\epsilon$, a twig (which, like E. twig, is related to Skt. $d v i$-, two, double). Alb. $\delta j e t e$, L. decem; E. ten. Alb. dru, a tree ; E. tree.
dh: Alb. dere, a door; cf. E. door. Alb. djek, I burn; Lith. degù, I burn; cf. E. day.

Palatal Gutturals. The Idg. $k, g, g h$ (palatal) become Alb. $s(\vartheta), z(d, \delta), z(d, \delta)$; much as, in Slavonic, they become $s, z, z$.
$k$ : Alb. vis, a place; cf. L. uīc-us, a village, whence E. wick.

$g$ : Alb. $\delta e m p$, a tooth; Gk. үó $\mu \phi o s$, a pin, peg; E. comb. Alb. deš-a, I loved (chose out); cf. Gk. रevo-тós, tasted; Goth. kius-an, to choose ; E. choose. The same change, from $g$ to $d$, sometimes occurs in Persian; and the Arm. deša is allied to Pers. düst, a friend. Alb. $l^{\prime} i \vartheta$, I bind; L. lig-o. Alb. $\delta a t \epsilon$, sour milk; Gk. $\gamma$ á $\lambda a$, milk.
gh: Alb. erô- $a$, I came; Gk. $\epsilon \rho \chi$-o $\mu a l$, I come. Alb. der, a swine, pig; Gk. रoîp-os, a young pig; perhaps we may
further compare Icel. griss, a young pig; whence prov. E. grice. Alb. dimen, winter ; Gk. $\chi \in \mu \mu \dot{\nu}$, L. hiem-s.

I do not give examples of velar gutturals. The Albanian equivalents are, however, quite simple, as the velar $q, g, g h$ answer to the Alb. $k, g, g$, whether they be pure velar or labio-velar.
§ 158. It is worth while to add that the Idg. $s$ (initial) is remarkably unstable in Albanian. It never remains as $s$, but appears as $\check{s}, h, g^{\prime}$, or $\mathcal{I}$. Thus Alb. šate, a hoe, is from the Idg. root ${ }^{*}$ sek, as in L. sec-āre, to cut. Alb. hel'k', I pull, draw, like the Gk. $\tilde{\epsilon} \lambda_{\kappa}-\epsilon \iota \nu$, to draw, is from the Idg. root *selk, to draw, whence also L. sulc-us, a furrow, A. S. sulh, a plough, Devonshire zool. Alb. g'arp- $\epsilon$, a serpent, is allied to L. serp-ere, to creep, Gk. $\tilde{\epsilon} \rho \pi-\epsilon \iota \nu$. Alb. g'atpe, butter, is allied to Goth. salb-ōn, to anoint, and to E. salve. Alb. g'a乡te, six, is allied to L. sex, E. six. Alb. g'ume, sleep, is allied to Gk. ü $\pi-v o s$, Skt. svap-nas, sleep, A. S. swef-n, a dream. Alb. Эi, a swine, is allied to L. sus and E. sow.

The Idg. w (E. w, L. u, consonant) becomes Alb. v. Hence we find Alb. vank, the rim of a wheel (cf. E. winch); Alb. ven', I weave (cf. E. weave); Alb. veš, I put on clothes (cf. L. uestis, clothing, and E. wear, verb) ; Alb. vis, a place (L. uīc-us).
§159. Persian. Persian is a language of the Indogermanic group, though at the present day nearly a third part of its vocabulary consists of Arabic words, belonging to the unrelated group of Semitic languages. There is a somewhat similar example in the case of Spanish, a language of Latin origin abounding in words of Moorish descent. The true nature of Persian is revealed by its earliest forms, of which there are two branches or sub-divisions, which may be called Eastern and Western Iranian. The Eastern Iranian, or Old Bactrian, is represented by the earliest portions of the sacred writing of the Zoroastrians, commonly called the Avesta, the language of which has been often called Zend, though the name (which means 'explanation' or 'com-
mentary') is unsuitable. Schlegel calls it Old Bactrian, and Brugmann names it 'Avestic', a title which I shall here adopt. It was originally deciphered by help of the strong resemblance which it bears to Sanskrit.

The Western Iranian is the Old Persian preserved in the cuneiform inscriptions of the Achaemenides, including Darius and Cyrus. This form of the language is simply called Old Persian.

Of much value is the later or 'Middle Persian' commonly called Pehlevi or Pahlavi, chiefly in use from the third to the seventh century, when much Aramaic (of Semitic origin) was mingled with the Persian element. The word 'Pahlavi' simply means 'Parthian'; from Pers. Pahlavī, an adjectival form derived from Pahlav, a later form of Parthava, whence the Gk. חap iia, Parthia.

Modern Persian is remarkable for its highly analytical character and the simplicity of its grammar, having no cases for the nouns, and (like modern English) no genders for them. It is a highly cultured language and widely used.
§ 160. The Persian is the sole Indo-germanic language that has adopted a wholly foreign, that is, an Arabic alphabet, with four letters added to denote the Pers. $p, c h, z h$, and $g$; but some of the letters only occur in Arabic words. I here give the transliteration of that alphabet as it appears in Palmer's Persian Dictionary.

The order of letters is as follows: $a(\bar{a}, i, \& c), b, p, t,. \dot{s}$ $[=t h], j, c h, h, k h, d, \dot{z}[=d h], r, z, z h, s, s h, s, \underset{\sim}{z}, t, \dot{\underset{z}{*}}$ [or z], ${ }^{\prime}, g h, f, k$ [or $\left.q\right], k, g, l, m, n, w(u), h, y(\bar{i})$. Fortunately, the most troublesome of these symbols seldom or never occur except in Arabic words, and will be here neglected, viz. $\dot{s}, h$, $\dot{\boldsymbol{z}}, \underset{z}{\boldsymbol{z}}, \underline{t}, \dot{\underset{\sim}{c}},{ }^{\text {. }}$. They are practically omitted in the Dictionary of Persian Etymology by Paul Horn (Strassburg, 1893), of which I shall make much use. I also omit $k(q)$. Horn's symbols do not all agree with Palmer's, and a few notes on these are necessary.

By the symbol $j$ is meant the English $j$ in $j e s t . \quad C h$ is the E. ch in church, which Horn (like Miklosich) denotes by $\boldsymbol{\ell}$. $K h$ is not the Skt. $k h$ (aspirated $k$ ), but represents the sound of the German ch in noch, for which Horn (like many others) uses the symbol $\chi$, as in Greek ; the modern Gk. $\chi$ is, in fact, thus pronounced, though in very early times it was like the Skt. $k h$. It is worth notice that the modern Pers. $k h$, though different in sound from the Skt. kh, usually answers to it etymologically, so that there is little practical difficulty in employing it. For sh (E. sh in she) Horn writes ss, as in Miklosich. The remaining symbols require no discussion. The $y$ is the E. $y$ (consonant), Germ. $j$. There is an excellent article by Prof. Rieu, in the Philological Society's Transactions for $\mathbf{1 8 8 0}$, on 'Phonetic Laws in Persian'. Observe, for example, that the original $k t, g t$, always become $k h t$ in Persian ; and $p t, b t$, become $f t$. I have also noticed examples in which $d t$ becomes st or sht. Thus the prefix $n i$-, down, and the base sad, to sit, give the Pers. nishashtan, to sit down; where $-\tan$ is the suffix denoting the infinitive.
§ 161. I denote Avestic (Old Bactrian) by the symbol 'Av.', for which Brugmann has 'Aw.' ; and Old Persian by 'O. Pers.', for which Brugmann has 'ap.', i. e. alt-persisch.

In transcribing Avestic, Brugmann uses such symbols as these :-å (English aw in awe) ; $q$ (nasalized $a) ; x$ (G.ch, Horn's $\chi$, Palmer's $k h$ ), for which I retain $k h ; \gamma$, 'voiced ' $k h ; \Varangle$ (E. ch in church); $\vartheta$ (more conveniently printed $\theta$, denoting the E.th in breath) ; $\delta$ (E.th in breathe); $\begin{array}{r}\text { (E. } s h\end{array}$ in she); $z(z h$, i.e. $z$ in azure). He uses the same symbols for Old Persian, omitting $\dot{a}, a, \gamma, \delta$, zै.
§ 162. I now give a rather full collection (all I could find) in which words occur which have common roots in Persian and English. I glean them from Horn's book, ${ }^{1}$ in which every item is numbered, and the numbers mentioned refer

[^11]to these. But I retain the spelling in Palmer's Dictionary, as, e.g. in such a word as bastan, to bind, for which Horn has besten.

Labials. The Idg. $p, b, b h$ answer to Av. and Pers. $p, b, b$ initially. Medially, either $b$ can become $v$. English has $f, p, b$; by Grimm's Law. (For Skt. words here quoted, see Uhlenbeck's Skt. Dictionary, where the related English words may be found.) Examples (in English order) are as follows:-
$p:$ E. $f$ : Pers. $p \bar{i} h\left(3^{6} 5\right)$, fat, grease ; Gk. $\pi i-\omega \nu$, fat; A. S. $f \bar{x}-t t$, fatted, fat ; E. fat.

Pers. pidar (286); E. father.
Pers. pahn (344), broad, wide; Av. paAana-, broad, wide (Horn) ; cf. Gk. $\pi \epsilon \tau$ тávvv $\mu$, I spread out ; E.fath-om, as far as one can stretch with extended arms.

Pers. par (293), a feather, a wing; Av. parona (Uhl.) ; Skt. parnam, wing, feather, leaf; E.fern. ${ }^{1}$

Pers. panj (328); Gk. тévтє; E. five.
Pers. pāi 28 r ), foot; L. pès(gen.ped-is); Aeolic $\pi$ ف́s; E. foot.
Pers. pū-sìdan (334), to rot; L. pu-tridus, putrid; A. S. $f u \bar{u}-l$, E. foul; Icel. fū-inn, rotten.

Pers. pur (294), full ; Skt. pürnas ; Lith. pilnas; E.full.
Pers. pari-, as in pari-r $\bar{u} z$, the day ( $r \bar{u} z$ ) before yesterday ; cf. pār-sāl, last year (3०3) ; Lith. pernay, adv., last year ; Mid. E. ferne yere, last year (Chaucer); A. S. fyrn, ancient, belonging to past time (obsolete).

Prof. Rieu remarks that, when an $r$ follows, the Pers. initial $p$ becomes $f$, as in English. I give two examples.

Pers. furākh ( 8 r 0 ), wide, ample; allied to Av. fräō, breadth, Skt. prathas, breadth; Gk. $\pi \lambda a \tau$ ús, broad. With a change of the final dental, we find Icel. flatr, flat, whence E. flat. See Skt. prathati in Uhlenbeck, and L. planta, the sole of the foot, in Walde.

Pers. firā (809), above, upon; allied to Skt. prā-, as in

[^12]prā-kāra-, an enclosing wall; and further allied to Skt. pra, adv., before, Gk. $\pi \rho \rho^{\prime}$, and to E. fore.

Compare also E. firman, borrowed (through Turkish) from the Pers. farmān, a mandate; O. Pers. framāna- (820), Skt. pramānam, a measure, scale, authority, decision.

In one instance only, a word beginning with E. $f$ answers to one beginning with Pers.ch; viz. Pers.chahār (452), four ; cf. Skt. chatvāras, L. quatuor, Goth. fidwör, E. four. The E. $f$ is here difficult to account for, though it occurs also in Gothic. See Wright's Gothic Grammar, § 134 , note.
§ 163. The Idg. $b$ is very scarce, and I know of no Pers. word beginning with $b$ from this source. But the Idg. $b h$ becomes $b$ both in Pers. and E., and there are numerous examples, among which may be mentioned the Pers. bang a narcotic drug, which we have borrowed; it answers to the Skt. bhangãa, hemp, the drug being made from the wild hemp (Cannabis Indica). See Horn, no. $23^{22}$.
$b h$ : Pers. and E. $b$ : Pers. bū-dan (233), to be (where -dan is the suffix denoting the infinitive mood); Skt. $b h \bar{u}$, to be ; E. be.

Pers. bur-dan (196), to carry; Skt. bhar-ati, he bears; E. bear, verb.

Pers. bār (156), a burden; A. S. bêrr, bèr ; E. bier.
Pers. bastan (219), to bind; banda, a servant, bandī, captivity; Skt. bandh (for *bhandh), to bind ; E. bind.

Pers. bū-īdan (240), to smell, būy, odour ; allied to Av. baoiòi-, sweet smell (Horn), Av. baooaitē, he perceives, observes, scents, smells (Uhlenbeck); Skt. budh, to awake, perceive, recognize, \&c. ; Skt. bōdhaya, to arouse, revive, make (a flower) expand, elicit (a perfume); Gk. $\pi \epsilon \dot{v} \theta$-o $\mu a \imath$, I inquire, A. S. bēodan, to inform, announce, command, bid ; E. bid, to command, bode, to foreshow ; all from Idg. root *bheudh.

Pers. burīdan (212), to cut, to cleave; Skt. bhrī, to hurt, injure, in the Rig-Veda (Uhlenbeck); L. fer-ire, to strike, for-āre, to bore ; E. bore: from the same root is Pers. bīl (257), a spade.

Pers. barz (198), stature, height; adj. tall, elevated (Richardson); Av. bar(ə)zant-, great, high (Brugmann, i. §608); allied to A.S. beorg, a hill, whence E. barrow, a tumulus, and to A. S. burg, E. borough. From the same Idg. root *bhergh is the Pers. bul-and, high.

Pers. bun (229), a basis, foundation (Richardson); Av. buna-, ground; Skt. budhnas (for *bhudhnas), bottom; Gaelic bonn, sole, bottom; A.S. botm ; E. bottom.

Pers. bāzū ( ${ }^{6} 67$ ), the arm; Skt. bāhus, the arm; Icel. $b \bar{o} g-r$, the shoulder, hence the bow (shoulder) of a ship; A. S. bōh, orig. an arm, hencẻ a bough of a tree; E. bough.

Pers. birādar (192), brother; E. brother.
Pers.abrū (64), the eyebrow; Gk.ỏфpús; Skt.bhrūs ; E.brow.
Pers. buz (213), a goat; Av. büza-; A. S. bucca, a he-goat, buc, a male deer; E. buck.
§ 164. Dentals. The Idg. $t, d, d h$ answer to the Av. $t, d(\delta), d(\delta)$ initially, Pers. $t(s), d, d$; and to the E. th, $t, d$ respectively.
$t$ : E. th: Pers. tunuk (397), brittle, slender, shallow; Skt. tanus, thin, slender ; L. tenuis ; E. thin.

Pers. tanidan (399), to twist, to spin; Skt. tan, to stretch out, extend; from Idg. root *ten, to stretch, whence also E. thin (as above).

Pers. tishna (388), thirsty (for *tirshna, the $r$ being lost); Av. tarshna-, thirst; Skt. trsh, to be thirsty, tarshas, thirst; Goth. ga-thairs-an, to be dry ; E. thirs-t.

Pers. $t \bar{u}$, thou ; E. thou.
Pers. tandar (396), thunder ; E. thunder.
But the Pers. word for 'three' has been sadly corrupted; the Skt. form is trayas, nom. pl. masc.; but the Avestic form began with $\theta r i$-, which (by loss of $r$, and change of $\theta$ to $s$ ) gave the mod. Pers. si, usually written sih. Hence also Pers. $s i z-d a$, thirteen (cf. Av. Aridasa, thirteenth); and Pers. sì, thirty (Av. Arisatem, thirty). See Horn § 759.
§ 165. Idg. $d$; Pers. $d$; E. $t$.

Pers. dām (530), a tame animal (not in Palmer). Richardson has däm, 'every kind of quadruped that is not rapacious'; dämak, 'a rabbit, hare, or any small animal that is not carnivorous'; cf. Skt. dam, to tame; O. Irish dam, an ox ; E. tame.
Pers. daridan (562), to tear; Gk. $\delta \bar{\epsilon} \rho-\epsilon \nu$, to flay; A.S. ter-an; E. tear, verb. Horn suggests that Pers. dard (550), pain, may be a related word; cf. A.S. teart, severe, acrid, mod. E. tart, sharp, which also seems to be related to A. S. ter-an, to tear.

Pers. $\operatorname{dah}(587)$, ten ; Lat. dec-em ; E. ten.
Pers. dandän (574), a tooth; Welsh dant ; Goth. tunth-us; E. tooth.

Pers. där(522), a gibbet; also, a tree, wood (Richardson); Skt. dāru, a beam, stick, also a species of pine, whence E. deo-dar; allied by gradation to Skt. dru-, wood, tree, and to E. tree.

Pers. dīv (598), a demon, a devil; Av. daevō, a demon; Skt. dèvas, divine, L. diuuus; A.S. Tîv, a deity, whence E. Tues-day.

Pers. $d \bar{u}$ (575), two ; L. duo ; E. two.
Here also belongs the E. adj. long (for *long). Pers. darāz (547), long (cf. Pers. dir, delay); Av. darzaa-, long, O. Pers. darga-, long; Skt. dìrghas; Gk. סò九 $\chi^{\text {ós. }}$. Also the Idg. nasalized form *dlo(n)ghos, Pers. dirang ; L. longus ; E. long.
§ 168. Idg. dh; Pers. and E. d. [Pers. dara, darah, darrah (560), a valley; Av. darenā, a hollow, glen, ravine. Horn connects this with E. dale, which is impossible, for dale requires the Idg. initial $d h$; whereas the Av. darenā is lit. 'torn,' hence, 'cleft,' as it is allied to Skt. dirnas, torn (from the Idg. root ${ }^{*}$ der, to tear); cf. Pers. darīdan (above), W. darn, a fragment, E. tarn, a mountain pool, 'separated.']

Pers. durusht (552), harsh, severe, rough; Av. dař̌is (darshis), vehement (G. 'heftig') ; Skt. dhrshtas, bold, forward, impudent ; Gk. $\theta$ parís, bold, $\theta a \rho \sigma-$-iv, to dare ; Goth. ga-daurs-an, to dare ; E. dare, pt. t. durs-t.

Pers. dukhtar (54I), daughter ; E. daughter.

Pers. dāgh (529), mark, scar (orig. of a brand) ; Av. daya-, Skt. dāh-as, a burning, branding, great heat, from Skt. dah, to burn (Idg. root *dhegh) ; Lith. dèg-ti, to burn, dag-as, hot time, autumn, Goth. dag-s, day (bright time), E. day.

Pers. dizh $\left(5^{6} 3\right)$, a fortress, castle (Palmer), daz, diz, fortress, castle, city (Richardson); Av. daeza-, in the compound pairi-daeza-, an enclosure, place walled round, whence Gk.
 rounding mound', since Av. pairi $=\mathrm{Gk} . \pi \epsilon \rho i$, and daeza$=$ a mound, wall of earth, cognate with Skt. dehhas, a mass, dēhī, a rampart; from the Idg. root *dheigh, to mould (L. fing-ere), whence also A. S. dāh, E. dough (kneaded mass).

Pers. dig (594), a pot, dēg (in Indian pronunciation); so called because moulded by the potter (cf. L. fig-ulus); from the Idg. root *dheigh, to mould; like dizh (above).

Pers. dād (518), justice, law ; cf. Av. and O. Pers. dā-, to set, establish, cognate with Skt. dhā, to put, place, set, A. S. dō- $n$, to do, to put, E. do. From the same Idg. root *dhé we have Gk. $\tau i-\theta \eta-\mu$, I place, $\theta^{\prime}-\mu-\iota s$, law ; and the E. dee-d, doo-m. The Pers. dād corresponds in form to E. deed, but in sense to E. doom.

Pers. dar (545), a door; E. door ; hence Pers. dar-bār, a prince's court, levee, lit. 'door of admittance', from $b \bar{a} r$, admittance, court; Anglicized as durbar.

Pers. durūgh (557), a lie, falsehood ; O. Pers. drauga-, a lie; Skt. drōhas, injury, perfidy, from druh, to seek to injure; cf. Skt. druh (nom. dhruk), injuring, as sb., an avenger, fiend, Icel. draugr, a ghost; cf. also O. H. G. triogan (G. trügen), to deceive, G. trugbild, a mocking phantom: Idg. root *dhreugh. Allied to G. traum, a dream (deceitful vision), E. dream. See Brugmann, i. §§ 68r, 690 ; Uhlenbeck, Skt. Dict. s.v. druhyati.
§ 167. Palatal gutturals. The Idg. palatal gutturals $k, g, g h$ answer to Pers. $s, z, z$; and to E. $h, k, g$.
$k$ : Skt. $\varsigma$ : Pers. $s$ : E. h. Pers. $\operatorname{sim}(764)$; for which

Richardson has saym, 'the neck-yoke of oxen'; Av. simä-; Skt. çamya , the pin of a yoke (Benfey); E. hame, one of the bent sticks round a horse-collar.

Pers. sum (745), a hoof; (perhaps) Av. safa-, hoof; Skt. çaphas, a hoof; A. S. hōf; E. hoof.

Pers. surū (734), a horn (Richardson); Av. srvā-, a claw, a horn; allied to Pers. sar, the head, Skt. sir-as, the head, and therefore to Skt. ¢ringam, a horn, Lat. cornu, E. horn.

Pers. sapid, safid (708), white ; Av. spaela- (with sp for $k w)$; Skt. çvētas, white, çvitras, white; Goth. hweeits, white ; E. white. (Here Idg. $k w=$ Skt. $\varsigma v=$ Av. $s p=$ Pers. $s(a) p$ $=\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{S} . h w$. )

Pers. sag (743), a dog (for *spag ?); Median $\sigma \pi a ́ к a, ~ a c c u s . ~$ (Herodotus, i. 1ro); in the dialect of Quhrúd, ispa; Av. span-; Skt. çvā (gen. çunas); Gk. kúva (accus.) ; E. hound.

Pers. sad ( $7^{2}$ 5), a hundred; Skt. çatam; L. centum; E. hund-red (where the suffix -red signifies by computation or rate).
§ 168. $g$; Pers. z; E. k. Pers. zādan (645), to be born ; $z a ̈ \bar{i} d a n$, to beget ; zāda, born, offspring ; from Av. zan, Skt. jan, to beget, L. gi-gn-ere ; cf. E. kin.

Pers. $z a \bar{a} n \bar{u}(648$ b), knee ; Skt. jānu ; L. genu ; E. knee.
Pers. zanakh (669), the chin ; Skt. hanu-, the chin ; Gk. $\gamma^{\prime} \varphi$ v-vs ; Lat. gen-a, the cheek; A. S. cin, chin ; E. chin (with $c h$ for $k$ ); G. kinn.

Sometimes this Pers. initial $z$ (from Idg. $g$ ) appears as $d$. Pers. dānistan (534), to know, is for *zānistan ; cf. Skt. jnā, to know, whence $j \bar{a}-n \bar{a}-m i$, I know (probably for ${ }^{*} j n \bar{a}-n \bar{a}-m i$, the $n$ of the root being dropped owing to the reduplication of -nā-) ; Skt. jnā-tas, known ; Lat. nōtus, known (for *gnōtus), infin. gnō-scere, to know, A. S. cnäw-an; E. know.

Pers. dūst (582), a friend, O. Pers. dauš-tar-, a friend, is allied to Skt. jush-tas, beloved, pp. of jush, to be pleased, to like, which is cognate with Goth. kius-an, A. S. cēos-an, to choose ; E. choose (with ch for $k$ ); G. kiesen.

In two instances the Idg. $g$ has been kept in Pers., because an $r$ or $l$ immediately followed.

Pers. giriftan (909), to seize; Av. grab, Skt. grabh, to seize ; E. grab.

Pers. gulūla (929), a bullet; cf. L. glomus, a ball; E. clerv, clue.
§ 169. gh: Pers. z; E. g. Pers. zahra (678), the gallbladder, gall, bile ; zarir, 'the yellow jaundice,' Richardson. Allied to zard $\left(65^{6}\right)$, yellow, Av. zairita-, yellow, Skt. haritas, yellow. From a shorter form zar (654), gold, Av. zairi-, yellow, Skt. haris, yellow, greenish; Gk. $\chi^{0 \lambda-\eta}$, gall ; E. gall. E. gold and yellow are also related.
§ 170. Velar gutturals. The velar gutturals (whether pure velar or labio-velar) fall together (or coincide) in Avestic and Persian. Thus the Idg. labio-velar gutturals $q(w), g(w)$, $g(w) h$ answer to the Avestic $k, g(j), g$; E. $h(w h), q u(c), g$.
$q(w):$ Pers. $k$ or $c h:$ E. $h$ or wh. Pers. $k i(h)(876)$, who; that ; cf. L. quod, that ; E. who, what. Pers. chi $(h)$ (451), what ; cf. L. -quid in ali-quid. [Av. katāra-, whether (of the two); Goth. hwathar ; E. whether.]

Pers. charkh (437), a wheel ; Skt. chakras, a wheel ; Gk. кíклоs; A. S. hweowol, hwēol; E. wheel.

Pers. chahār (452), four; Av. chäwärō; Skt. chatvāras; L. quatuor; Goth. fidwor ; E. four (in which the $f$ is exceptional) ; see p. 133.
$g(w)$ : Av. $g$ or $j$; Pers. $g$ or $z$; E. $c, q u$. Pers. gāw (888), a cow, whence Pers. nìl-gāw, 'blue cow,' E. nilghau; Skt. gaus ; Arm. kov ; A.S. cu ; E. cow.

Pers. zan (668), a woman ; Av. jaini-; Skt. jani-; Goth. kwinō; A.S. cweĕne; E. quean. (E. queen is a related word, but has a long A. S. vowel, as belonging to a stronger grade.)

Pers. $z \bar{\imath}$ (683), life ; zī-stan, to live; zhiv-ah or jīv-ah, quicksilver; O. Pers. and Skt. jīv, to live; Skt. jīv-as, adj., living, quick; L. uiuus; Goth. kwius, living; allied to A. S. cwi-c, E. quick.
$g(w) h$ : Av. and Pers. $g$; E. $w$ (unusual). Pers. garm
(911), warm ; Av. garzma-; O. Pers. garma-, warm ; Skt. gharmas, heat ; Gk. 日eppós ; Irish gorm ; E. warm. $^{\text {g }}$.
§ 171. Liquids. The Idg. $l, m, n, r$ remain unchanged in Pers. and E. ; except that Pers. $r$ may answer to E. $l$.
$l$ : Pers. lisìidan (954), to lick; Skt. lih (for *ligh), to lick ; O. Irish lig-im, I lick; A. S. licc-ian, to lick ; E. lick.

Pers. lab (953), the lip; L. lab-ium ; E. lip.
The E. loud, A. S. hlūd, has lost the initial $h$. It is allied to the Skt. crutas, heard, pp. of $\varsigma r u$, to hear ; and to the Pers. surüd, melody, song (735).
$m$ : Pers. marz (974), a region, country (Palmer); also, a limit, boundary of a country (Richardson); L. margo; A.S. mearc, a mark, limit, boundary ; E. mark ; O. H. G. marcha, a boundary (whence O.F. marche, E. march, a boundary).

Pers. maghz (986), marrow, pith, the brain; Av. mazga-, brain; Skt. majjā, marrow, pith; O. Pruss. musgeno, marrow; A.S. mearh (dat. mearge), with $r$ for $z$ (from $s$ ); E. marrow.

Pers. may (1003), wine; Av. må̀u, honey; Skt. madhu, honey ; Gk. $\mu$ étv ; E. mead.

Pers. muzd (978), a recompense ; Gk. $\mu \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ Oós ; Goth. mizdō; E. meed.

Pers. miyān (1004), the waist, the middle ; Av. mai̊̀yāna-, the middle, maiðya-, middle ; L. medius ; E. mid, middle.

Pers. māh (968), moon, month; Skt. mās, moon, month ; Gk. $\mu \dot{\eta} \nu$, L. mensis, month ; allied to E. moon, month.

Pers. mard (972), a man (lit. a mortal); allied to L. mort-alis, a mortal, A. S. morłor, E. murther, murder.

Pers. mādar (956), mother ; E. mother.
Pers. mūsh (995), a mouse ; A.S. mūs ; E. mouse.
$n$ : Pers. nākhun (ioi6), a nail, claw; Skt. nakham; Lith. nag-as, a claw; A.S. næg-el; E. nail.

Pers. nām (1022), name; A. S. nama ; E. name.
Pers. $n a ̈ f(1020)$, navel; A. S. naf-ela; E. navel.
Pers. ni-, prefix (1013), down; as in ni-shastan, to sit
down; A.S. ni-Jer, downwards, with the comparative suffix -der from the base $n i$-, down ; E. ne-ther.

Pers. nau (1045), new ; A. S. nīwe; E. new.
Pers. nuh (1056), nine; Av. and Skt. nava ; L. nouem ; E. nine.
$r:$ E. $r, l$. Pers. rubūdan (608), to seize, to rob (cf. ruftan, to sweep, to weed) ; Skt. lup, lump, to seize, to rob (pp. luptas) ; lōp-tra-, plunder, whence Hindi lūt, E. loot; L. rumpere, to break (pp. rup-tus) ; A.S. réofan, to break, rēafian, to despoil, to plunder; E. reave (whence be-reave); also G. rauben, O. H. G. roubon, to rob, whence O. French rober, E. rob.

Pers. rāst (603), true, straight, right (orig. set in order); O. Pers. and Av. rāsta-, correct, right; Skt. rāddhas, performed, prepared, ready, pp. of $r \bar{a} d h$, to achieve, prepare ; allied to this Skt. root is the Pers. ärāstan (ir), to set in order (hence, to adorn): Goth. ga-rēd-an, to provide, A. S. rēedan, to counsel, to interpret, to read ; E. read.

Pers. rakhsh-ïdan (610), to shine ; rūz (629), day ; rawshan ( 63 I ) , enlightened, manifest, clear ; rawshanī, light, splendour ; Skt. ruch, to shine; rōkas, brightness; rōchanas, shining; lōchanas, illuminating; lōchanam, the eye; L. lüc-ēre, to shine ; A. S. lēoh-t, light ; E. light.
§172. S. The treatment of initial $s$ in Persian is variable. If it occurs before a vowel, it sometimes becomes $h$, as in Greek and Welsh.

Idg. $s$; Pers. h. Pers. ham (IIO2), likewise; bi-ham, together; ham- $\bar{a} n$, that same; haminn, thus; Skt. sam, with; Gk. ä $\mu a$, together ; allied to Skt. sama-, same, Gk. ó $\mu o ́ s$, Icel. samr, the same; E. same.

Pers. haft (1098), seven ; Gk. éntá; L. septem; E. seven.
After the prefix $n i$-, down, this $s$ becomes $s h$ : Pers. ni-shas-tan (1033), to sit down; cf. Av. ni-shiō-aiti, to sit down; Skt. ni, down, sad, to sit ; L. sed-ēre, to sit ; E. sit.

Before $\bar{u}$, we find Pers. kh for s. Pers. khūk (510), a sow,
a hog; Av. hū-, a boar; Skt. sū-karas, a boar; cf. L. sūs, Irish suig, W. hwoch; A. S. sū, sugu, a sow ; E. sow.

Idg. sk- (initial); Pers. shik-.
Pers. shikäflan (787), to split, to cleave; (and without the s) kāftan, to split, to dig ; Gk. бка́т-тєı , to dig ; Lith. skap-oti, to shave ; Goth. skaban; A. S. scafan, sceafan ; E. shave.

Idg. $k s, s k$; Pers. sh. Pers. $\bar{a}$-shuftan (32), to be uneasy, to perturb, disturb; cf. Skt. kshubh, to be agitated, kshöbhas, agitation ; Lith. skubùs, hasty ; Goth. skiuban, A. S. scüfan, to push, shove ; E. shove.

Idg. sk; Pers. s. Pers. sāya (695), shade, shadow, protection; Skt. chhāyā, shade, shadow; also image, reflection, reflected light, glitter; Gk. $\sigma \kappa$ á, shadow; from the Idg. root *skei, to shine, whence also A. S. sci-nan, to shine ; E. shine.

Idg. sp. : Pers. isp, sip. Pers. sipardan (701), to trample on; apparently allied to Skt. sphur, to spurn, quiver, struggle ; cf. E. spur, spurn.

Idg. st: Pers. ist, sit, sut. Pers. īstā-dan (84), to stand; Skt. sthā, to stand ; L. stā-re; allied to E. stand.

Pers. sitāra (71I), a star; E. star.
Pers. sutūr ( 720 ), an animal, cattle; Av. staora-, a beast of burden; E. steer, a young ox.

Idg. sr; Gk. $h r$; Pers. $r$ (but Teut. str). Pers. rūd (627), a river, stream; O. Pers. rautah-, a stream; Skt. srō-tas, a current, stream, from $s r u$, to flow; Gk. $\dot{\rho} \in \hat{\epsilon}-\mu a$, a flow, rheum ; cf. G. stro-m, Du. stroo-m, E. stream.

Idg. sw ; Pers. khw, kh'. Pers. kh'āhar (501) written khwāhar, sister; Skt. svasar-; A. S. sweostor, Icel. systir; W. chwaer; E. sister. (The Teut. forms insert $t$ after s.)

Pers. kh'ay (khway) (513), sweat ; kh'aydan, to perspire ; Av. रvaeoa-, sweat; Skt. svēdas; W. chweys; E. swieat.

Pers. kh'ästan (497), written khwwāstan, to desire, to wish; allied to Skt. svad, to relish, swādu-, sweet ; E. sweet.

Idg. *sweks, original form of 'six' ; Pers. shish (783), six ; Skt. shash; L. sex ; E. six.
§ 173. W. The Idg. $w$ remains in English. In Avestic it is written as $v$, though the sound may have been $w$. It occurs as $v$ in Pers. in the following instance :-

Pers. varz (warz, Palmer), gain; varzīdan (197), to practise, exercise; Av. vareza-, a working; Gk. ëpyov (for F'́ $\rho \gamma$-ov), work ; E. work. Here the Av. and Pers. $z$ arose from Idg. $g$.

The sound must originally have been $w$, which passed into $g$ in Pers. in some words, before a short vowel. Pers. gard-īdan (886), to become; gard-ān, turning, revolving; gashtan, to turn, to become; Skt. vrt, to turn ; L. wert-ere; A.S. weord-an, to become; E. (obsolescent) worth, vb., to become (as in worth the day, i. e, evil be the day).

Pers. gurg (910), a wolf; Av. vehrka-; Skt. vrkas; Lith. wilkas ; cf. E. wolf.

Before a long vowel, the Pers. $v$ becomes b. Pers. bād ( 15 I ), the wind; Av. vāta-, wind ; Skt. vā, to blow; allied to L. uentus ; E. wind.

Pers. biva (263), a widow; Horn quotes Pehlevi vëpak (from *vēvak), a widow; Uhlenbeck quotes Av. við̀u-, viठ̀avā-, widow; Skt. vidhavā ; E. widow.

Pers. bäftan (168), to weave ; cf. the Idg. root *webh, to weave, as in Skt. $\bar{u} r n a-v a \bar{b} h i-$, a spider; Gk. í $\phi$-aiveıv, to weave; A.S. wefan ; E. weave.

Pers. bīd (25I), a willow; Av. vaeit-iš, a willow; Gk. ir- $\epsilon$, a willow; L. uit-is, a vine; A.S. wid-ig, a willow; E. withy, withe.
§ 174. Y. The Idg. $y$ (initial) is the E. $y$ (consonant); it appears in Pers. as $j$.

Pers. jugh (423), a yoke for oxen; L. iug-um ; E. yoke.
Pers. juwān, juvān (429), young; Av. and Skt. yuvan, young ; L. iuuen-is, young; allied to L. iuuen-cus, a heifer, A. S. geong, iung, young; E. young.
§ 175. I add a few words that begin with a vowel.
Pers. am (107), I am (Richardson) ; Av. ah-mi; Skt. as-mi
(for ${ }^{*} e s-m i$ ), from the root ${ }^{*} e s$, to be, with the suffix -mi representing the first personal pronoun; E. am. So also Pers. hast, (he) is (with prefixed $h$ ); Skt. as-ti; L. est ; E. is.

Pers. hüsh (IIII), understanding, intellect, the mind; the $h$ appears to be unoriginal ; from Av. uši $(=u s h i)$, lit. 'the two ears', hence, intelligence, understanding. If so, the Av. uši must be allied to Lith. ausis, the ear, Goth. ausō, A. S. ēare, E. ear.

Pers. hasht(1095), eight (with prefixed h) ; Av. ašta (ashta), eight; Skt. ashtau; L. octo; A.S. eahta ; E. eight.

Pers. $\operatorname{aranj}$ (14), the elbow ; Skt. aratni-, elbow ; Gk. $\begin{gathered}\text { A } \epsilon ้ v \eta, ~\end{gathered}$ L. ulna, A.S. eln, lit. 'ell', but orig. 'arm'; whence A.S. eln-boga, 'bend of the arm,' the elbow. Cf. E. ell, elbow.

Pers. hīzam (1117), timber, firewood (with prefixed $h$ ); Av. aes-ma-, firewood; Skt. ēd-has, fuel, from idh, to kindle (whence also idh-mas, fuel); A.S. $\bar{a} d$, a funeral pile, $\bar{a} s-t$, a burning, whence E. oast-house, a kiln.

Pers. bar (191), above, upon; Av. upairi ; Skt. upari, above; A.S. ofer; E. over.

I have excluded from this survey of the relationship of English to Persian all English words that are not native; thus the Pers. pukh-tan, to cook, is cognate with the Skt. pach, to cook, and the L. coquere; but the E. cook is not a native word, being merely a loan-word from Latin.

## CHAPTER XIII

## ENGLISH AND SANSKRIT

§ 176. The discovery and study of Sanskrit have done more for the science of comparative philology than anything else. In fact, Sanskrit has rendered it possible to formulate exact phonetic laws; and, what is equally important, to explode such derivations, previously arrived at, as did not wholly conform to all that an exact science demands. The extreme antiquity of the Sanskrit forms, and the large number of its symbols and sounds, proved, at the outset, to be somewhat misleading. It was not perceived at first that Sanskrit was not the parent language of the rest, but only, at best, an elder sister amongst them. It so happens that, instead of employing all the five short vowels which many of the Indogermanic languages actually possess, Sanskrit has reduced these five to three, viz. $a, i, u$. But it has now been shown that this is a defect of the language, which has not only confused $e$ with $o$, but has further confused both with $a$. A very little reflection will show the true state of the case. When we observe the elaborate fullness of the Sanskrit consonants, and the great variety of forms which their use involves, we may begin to suspect that all is not right with the vowels ; knowing, as we do, that all languages are subject to change and decay, so that strength in one direction is sure to imply weakness in another. We see the exact counterpart to Sanskrit in Greek. For the Greek vowels are so distinct and regular as to be better preserved than those of any other language in the whole group ; and we may expect, accordingly, that all is not right
with its consonants. And we find, as a fact, that Greek has lost the $w$ and $y$, and constantly drops an $s$ between two vowels. There is only one course to be pursued, viz. to combine all that these (and other languages) have preserved, and thus to form an imaginary parent language which is capable of representing the features of them all. This has been actually done, to a high degree of accuracy.
§ 177. To take a simple example. When we find, in Latin, such a pair of words as ed-ere, to eat, and od-or, a sweet smell, we can see at once that the true bases of these words are ed- and od-respectively ; a result which leaves not a shadow of a doubt that the identical imaginary roots $a d$, to eat, and $a d$, to smell, as given in the third edition of Fick's Vergleichendes Worterbuch (as far back as 1874), required reconsideration. It is true that there is a Skt. root $a d$, to eat ; but we must regard other languages, especially the L. ed-ere, the Gk. $\epsilon_{\delta-\epsilon \iota \nu}$, and the A. S. et-an (with its regular shifting of $d$ to $t$ ). Whilst, as to the base od-, we may compare the Gk. ${ }^{\circ} \zeta \zeta \epsilon \iota$, to smell, pt. t. ${ }^{\circ} \delta \bar{\delta}-\omega \delta-a$, ${ }^{\circ} \delta-\mu \eta$, scent, $\delta v \sigma-\omega \dot{\delta}-\eta s$, evil smelling. Compare also the Gk. $\mu$ évos, strength, with Skt. manas ; where the Greek form is the older one. So also the Gk. y'vos, 'race,' tells us that the Skt. janas has ja-for ge--
§ 178. The clearest proof of the fact that the Skt. $a$ is not always original, is afforded by the Skt. cha (also written $c a$, with $c=$ E. $c h$ ), the enclitic particle signifying 'and', which is identical with the L. -que, Gk. $\tau \epsilon$, and is evidently closely connected with the Skt. kas, 'who.' In the form cha the original $k$ has been 'palatalized', or has become $c h$, which, according to the experience of other languages, can only occur when a palatal vowel, such as $e$ or $i$, follows; just as, in English, the A. S. ceorwan (G. kauen) is now chew, and the A. S. cin (G. Kinn) is now chin; whereas the A. S. ic cann is now I can, the A. S. cocc is now cock, and the A.S. cudu is now cud. It is therefore clear that the Skt. cha was originally *che, with the same vowel as is found in Latin and Greek.

In precisely the same way the Skt. janas, race, is for *jenas, from *genas, *genos (Gk. $\gamma$ évos). The same change has taken place everywhere throughout the language, and explains at once such anomalous forms as the following, which are worth notice: Skt. bhar, to bear (Gk. ф'ि€єı, L. ferre, A. S. beran) ; Skt. as, to exist, be (Gk. $\dot{\epsilon} \sigma-\mu i$, I am, L. es-se, to be); Skt. jan, to beget (Gk. $\gamma \in \epsilon$-os, race, L. gen-us) ; Skt. madhu, honey, sweet drink (Gk. $\mu$ é $\theta v$, A. S. medu) ; Skt. madhyas, middle (L. medius), \&c. It is a curious fact that the short vowel $e$, which does not appear in Sanskrit at all, occurs in many Idg. roots, and is a favourite vowel in many languages. If, for example, we compare the Skt. vas, to abide, to dwell, to exist, with the A.S. wes-an, to be, we shall find that it is the English word which has preserved the true form of the Idg. root WES, to dwell; whereas the Skt. tells us what was the original sense of the word which is now used in such an abstract sense as $I$ was. Its primary meaning was simply ' I dwelt'. And I take this opportunity of remarking that English is the only modern language which has preserved to this day the true sound of the original Idg. W. Even the Latin $u$ (consonant) has become a $v$ in all the derived Romance languages ; and became so some 1,500 years ago. Another primeval sound, that of Idg. $y$, still occurs in English in a few words, such as yoke and young. Neither W nor Y is found in Greek; Sanskrit has the $y$, but has turned every $w$ into $v$.
§179. The comparison of English with Sanskrit is full of interest, for the reason that Sanskrit, with its vast vocabulary and its highly intelligible forms, throws a full flood of light upon a large number of English roots and words. But it will now be understood that the debt is not all on the one side, and that a second source of interest arises from the fact that English can often make the Sanskrit forms a good deal clearer than they might otherwise be.

The results that may be gathered from comparing these
languages are so many that I can only here point out some of the chief points of similarity or of contact. For this purpose I chiefly use Uhlenbeck's Etymologisches Wörterbuch der Altindischen Sprache (Amsterdam, 1898-9); in conjunction with Brugmann's Grundriss der vergleichenden Grammatik der Indogermanischen Sprachen (Strassburg, 1897).
§ 180. I make a few preliminary remarks about the Skt. symbols and sounds.

The Idg. vowels $a, \bar{a}, i, \bar{z}, u, \bar{u}$ are the same in Skt. But Idg. $a, e, o$ are all Skt. $a$. The Skt. $\bar{e}$ is always long, and represents Idg. ei, oi, ai. The Skt. $\bar{o}$ is always long, and represents Idg. eu, ou, au. The labials are Idg. and Skt. $p, b, b h$; where $b h$ is a $b$ followed by an aspirate or explosive sound: it answers etymologically to Gk. $\phi$. Skt. also had an aspirated $p$, written $p h$.

The dentals are Idg. and Skt. $t, d, d h$; where $d h$ is an aspirated $d$; it answers etymologically to Gk. $\theta$. Skt. also had an aspirated $t$, written th. It further possessed cerebral dentals, written $t, d, d h$, also $t h$; these sounds usually arise, respectively, from Idg. $l t$, $l d$ (or $z d, z, g$ ), ldh (or $z d h$ ), or from lth. We also find $t$ for $t$ after an sh (also written $s$ ).

As to gutturals, it is now admitted that the original Idg. language had three distinct sets of them, which have been called, respectively, the palatal gutturals, the middle gutturals, and the velar gutturals. In Skt., these three sets were reduced to two, by the coincidence of the two latter sets; so that we need only consider the palatal gutturals as distinct from the velar gutturals. The palatal gutturals are the Idg. $k, g, g h$, represented in Skt. by $\varsigma, j, h$. Here $\varsigma$ is a symbol for the palatalized $k$ when it takes the sound of $s h$; the $j$ is the E. $j$ in judge. There is also a Skt. $k h$, or aspirated $k$; Gk. $\chi$. The Idg. velar gutturals $q, g(w), g(w) h$ are represented in Skt. by $k$ or $c h, g$ or $j$, and $g h$ or $h$. Here $c h$ (also written $c$ ) = E. ch in church; it arose from having been originaliy
followed by one of the palatal vowels $(e, i)$. There is also a symbol written $c h h$ (or $c h$ ), which seems to have sometimes arisen from Idg. skh or sk; thus chhinad-mi, I cut off, is related to Gk. $\sigma \chi i \zeta \omega$, L. scindo, and Skt. chhāyā to Gk. $\sigma \kappa ı$ á.

Both Idg. $r$ and Idg. $l$ may become $r$ (initially) in Skt. The Skt. nasal $n$ is denoted by a different symbol according to the sound that follows it. Beside the usual dental $n$, we find the cerebral (or lingual) $n$, the use of which is due to the influence of an $r$ or $r$ or of $\operatorname{sh}(s)$ occurring in its neighbourhood, or else arises from Idg. $\ln$. Note also the $\dot{n}$, occurring before $k$ or $g$; and the $\tilde{n}$, occurring before $c h$ or $j$.

Skt. also has sonant liquids, written $r, l$, meaning $r$ and $l$ sounded alone, without the accompaniment of an apparent vowel. The Skt. $r$ represents both Idg. $r$ and Idg. $l$, both sonant liquids.
§ 181. The usual arrangement of the Skt. alphabet is as follows. The letters follow a strict order, viz. (I) vowels, sonants, long vowels and diphthongs; (2) gutturals; (3) palatals ; (4) cerebrals or linguals ; (5) dentals ; (6) labials ; (7) semi-vowels; (8) sibilants and aspirate. (1) $a, \bar{a}, i, \bar{i}, u$, $\bar{u}, r, \bar{r}, l, e(=\bar{e}), a i, o(=\bar{o}), a u ;(2) k, k h, g, g h, \dot{n} ;$ (3) ch (or $c$ ), chh (or ch), $j, j h, \tilde{n}$; (4) $t, t h, d, d h, n ;(5) t, t h, d$, $d h, n$; (6) $p, p h, b, b h, m$; (7) $y, r, l, v$; (8) $\varsigma, \operatorname{sh}$ (or $s), s, h$.

There is also a nasal symbol written as $\dot{m}$; as in ainsas, the shoulder, Gk. $\omega \mu o s$, Goth. ams. And a final aspirate, $h$, called visarga, representing an original $s$ or $r$.

For full particulars as to the history of the Skt. sounds and symbols, see A Manual of Sanskrit Phonetics, by Dr. C. C. Uhlenbeck ; London, 1898 (English edition).
§ 182. Labials. The Idg. and Skt. labials $p, b, b h$ correspond (by Grimm's Law) to the E. $f, p, b$ respectively.

Examples follow, in the English word-order.
$p:$ E. f. Skt. pāç-as, a tie, tether, snare, noose, fetter something that fastens), from a base ${ }^{*} p a k ; ~ G k . \pi a ́ \sigma \sigma a \lambda o s$,
a peg; a variant of the root (with final $g$ ) occurs in L. pangere, to fasten, Gk. $\pi \dot{\eta} \gamma-\nu v \mu$, I fasten ; $\pi \eta \gamma-$-ós, firm, strong; allied to Goth. fagrs, suitable, fit, fair; A.S. freg-er, fit; E. fair.

Further allied to L. pang-ere, to fasten (above), is the Goth. fähan (for *fanhan), to catch, of which the A. S. contracted form is fon, to catch, to seize, pp. ge-fang-en; whence the A. S. fang, a seizing, and E. fang, a claw.

Skt. pal-itas, grey; Gk. по入-tós, grey; L. pallidus, pale; Lith. palwas, pale yellow, fallow (in colour); G. falb; A.S. fealo, O. Merc. falu, pale red, yellowish; E. fallow, as in the phrase 'fallow deer'.

Skt. par-as, beyond, away, afar ; allied to E. far.
Skt. pr, to bring across, causal pāraya, to conduct across; Gk. ropevóoat, I travel, A. S. faran, to go, to travel ; E. fare. Other related words are ferry, ford, frith.

Skt. past-y $\bar{a}$, a homestead ; past-yam, a stall ; Goth. fast-an, to keep, hold fast ; E. fast, adj., firm, secure.

Skt. pī-vas, adj., fat, pī-van, swelling, full, fat; Gk. $\pi i-\omega \nu$, fat. From the related Idg. base *pei- we have Icel. feitr, fat; and the A. S. f fett, orig. a pp. meaning 'fatted '; cf. E. fat.

Skt. pitr, father ; L. pater; E. father.
Skt. paksh-ma, eyelashes ; paksh-malas, long-haired; A. S. feax, hair ; E. fax, as in Fair-fax, i. e. 'fair hair.'

Skt. pattram, patram, wing, feather (from pat, to fly); A. S. feder, wing, feather; E. feather.

Skt. pañkas, mud ; O. Pruss. pannean, morass; Goth. fani, mud; A. S. fenn ; E.fen.

Skt. parnam, a feather, a (feathery) leaf; E. fern.
Skt. pad, to fall ; also, to go to ; Icel. feta, to step, to find one's way; A.S. fetian, to bring, to fetch; also found in the form feccan, E. fetch. Allied to Skt. pad-am, a step, stride, and to E. foot.

Skt. piç-unas, adj., backbiting, slanderous, treacherous; A.S. fic-ol, deceitful ; E. fickle.

Skt. piya, to revile, to scoff; Goth. fijan, to hate, pres. pt. fijands, a hater ; A. S. fëond, a hater, an enemy ; E. fiend (the enemy).

Skt. parkaṭī, the wavy-leaved fig-tree, Ficus infectoria; L. quercus, an oak; Lombardic fereha, 'aesculus'; Icel. fura, a fir; A. S. furh-wudu, a pine-tree, lit. 'firwood'; E. fir.

Skt. $p \bar{u}$, to purify ; pāv-akas, pure, purifying, the purifier, fire ; allied to Gk. $\pi \hat{\imath} \rho$, fire; L. pūrus, pure ; A.S. fȳr ; E. fire.

Skt. pañcha, five; Gk. $\pi \epsilon \in \nu \tau \epsilon ;$ Lith. penkı̀; Goth. fimf; A. S. fiff; E. five.

Skt. prthus, broad, wide; Gk. $\pi \lambda a \pi \dot{s}$, broad; cf. Swed. flundra, a flounder (whence O.F. flondre, A. F. floundre, E. flounder). With a different final dental (viz. Idg. $d$ ), we find Icel. flat-r, flat, whence E. flat.

Skt. plu, to float, to swim; plutis, a flood; Gk. $\pi \lambda \omega \tau$ ós, floating, navigable; Goth. fiòdus, a river; A. S. fiöd; E. flood. Allied to A. S. fōwan, to flow. And perhaps further allied to A. S. flot-ian, to float ; E. float; and to A. S. flēot-an, to float; flēot, a ship, also, a collection of ships, E. fleet.

Skt. phēnas (perhaps for *spènas), foam. The è would regularly result from Idg. oi; allied to L. spūma (for *spoima), foam; cf. O.Pruss. spoayno, foam; and, as Idg. oi gives Goth. ai, A. S. $\bar{a}$, we have the same vowel-sound in A. S. fa$m$, whence E. foam, with loss of initial $s$.

Skt. puṭas, a fold; cf. Skt. paṭī, Hindī patṭī, a band, a bandage, E. puttee; the $t$ results from $l t$, so that the orig. form was ${ }^{*}$ pultas; allied to Gk. $-\pi \lambda$ áotos in $\delta t-\pi \lambda a ́ \sigma \iota o s$ (for ${ }^{*} \delta_{\iota}-\pi \lambda$ ár-yos), twofold, Russ. polotno, linen cloth; Goth. falth-an, to fold; E. fold.

Skt. pādas, a foot ; padam, a footstep; E. foot.
Skt. paras, forward, in front; purā, formerly ; pra, adv., before, Gk. $\pi \rho o ́ ;$ allied to E.fore, for .

Skt. pūrvas, preceding, former; allied to E. former, and to Skt. paras (above).

Skt. püya, to become putrid; pūyas, purulent matter; L. pūs ; A. S. fū-l; E. foul.

Skt.priyas, dear, beloved; Goth. freis, free(originally dear); A. S. frēo; E. free.

Skt. prushvā, ice; plush, to burn; plushṭas, burnt, also frozen; plöshas, a burning; L. prūna (for *prus-na), a glowing coal ; pruina (for *prusuiña), hoar-frost; A. S. frēos-an, to freeze, fors-t, frost ; E. freeze, fros-t.

Skt.pr, to fill; pp. pürnas, filled, full; Lith. pìlnas, full; Teut. type *fulnoz, full, whence A. S. full (with $l l$ for $l n$ ); E. full.

Skt. prataram, adv., further ; E. further.
§ 183. $b$ : E. $p$. Owing to the scarcity of initial $b$ in Indo-germanic, there are no examples of this change from Skt. $b$ to E. $p$ initially.

There are a few examples in which the Skt. $b$ appears as E. $b$, owing to the words in which they occur being purely imitative; so that, in fact, this coincidence is practically accidental.

Uhlenbeck notices the Skt. $b a b a b a \bar{a}$, a sound meant to denote the crackling of things burning, barbaras, stammering, and balbalākāras, a stammer; of similar formation to L. babulus, a foolish person, balbus, a stammerer, Gk. $\beta$ ápßapos, stammering, a barbarian ; E. babble, babbler. Skt. budbudas, a bubble ; cf. E. bubble. Skt. bambharālis, a fly, Gk. ßónßos, a humming ; E. bumble-bee.

The change from Idg. $b$ to E. $p$ may be exemplified by comparing Lith. balà, a swamp, with E. pool; and L. labium, a lip, with E. lip.

In the case of most of the words beginning with $b$ in Skt., the $b$ stands for the Idg. $b h$. Thus the Idg. root *bhendh, to bind, is represented in Skt. by bandh, in order to avoid the occurrence of two aspirated consonants ( $b h$ and $d h$ ) in the same syllable.
§ 184. bh: Skt. bh, b; E. b. Skt. bhan, to speak, declare ; A. S. ge-bann, a proclamation ; E. ban, a proclamation, a summons.

Skt. bryhant-, strong, large, from Skt. root barh, causal brimhaya, to augment; Idg. root *bhergh, whence also G. berg, a mountain, A.S. beorh, a mountain, hill, mound, funeral mound; E. barrow, a funeral mound.

Skt. bhū, to become, to be ; L. fu-ī, I was; A. S. bēon, to be; E. be.

Skt. bhallas (for *bherlas), a bear; A. S. bera, a bear; E. bear, sb.

Skt. bhr, to bear ; bhar-as, a bearing, burden; A. S. ber-an ; E. bear, vb.

Skt. babhrus, reddish brown; as sb., a kind of large ichneumon; Lith. bëbrus, a beaver; L. fiber; A.S. beofor; E. beaver. Idg. type *bhe-bhrus, reduplicated derivative of *bhru-, brown, tawny. Cf. A.S. brū-n, brown; E. brown.

Skt. bhāras, a burden, a load; A. S. bêer, a bier; E. bier.
Skt. bandh, to bind; Idg. root *bhendh; E. bind.
Skt. bhürjas, a kind of birch; E. birch.
Skt. bhrtis, support, maintenance, nourishment; closely allied to E. birth.

Skt. bhid, to break, pierce, divide; L. findere, to cleave; A. S. bītan ; E. bite.

Skt. bhud, to awake, to be aware of ; bōdhaya, to arouse, admonish, make known; Gk. $\pi \epsilon \dot{v} \theta_{0} \mu a \iota$ (for *фєن́ $\theta o \mu a \iota$ ), I enquire; A.S. bēodan, to command, bodian, to announce; E. bode, fore-bode, bid (to command).

Skt. bandhas, a fastening ; bandhakas, a rope; Icel. band, a bond; E. bond, band.

Skt. budhnas, the bottom, depth; A. S. botm ; E. bottom.
Skt. bāhus, the arm ; Gk. $\pi \bar{\eta} \chi{ }^{\prime}{ }_{s}$ (for $\left.{ }^{*} \phi \bar{\eta} \chi \nu s\right)$, the fore-arm ; A. S. $b \bar{o} g, b \bar{o} h$, arm, hence arm of a tree, E. bough. Idg. type *bhäghus.

Skt. bhuj, to bend; pp. bhug-nas, bent; A.S. būg-an, to bend, to bow; E. bow, vb. Also A.S. bog-a, a bow; E. bow.

Skt. $b h r a \bar{j}$, to shine, to glitter; allied to Goth. bairht-s, shining; A.S. beorht; E. bright.

Skt. bhrș̣tis, a point; sahasra-bhrș̣ti-, thousand-pointed; allied to A. S. byrst, a bristle ; E. bristle.

Skt. bhrätā (base bhrātr), brother ; E. brother.
Skt. bhrūs, brow ; A. S. brū ; E. brow.
§ 185. Dentals. The Idg. $t, d, d h$ answer, respectively, to E. $t$, $t, d$.
$t$ : E. th. Skt. tad, that; E. that. Cf. Gk. тó; L. -tud in is-tud.

Skt. toyam, water (base *tau); Icel. bey-ja, to thaw (become as water), pey-r, a thaw ; A. S. pawian, to melt ; E. thaw.

Skt. talam, a plane surface ; L.tellus, the earth ; A. S. pille, a slip of wood, thin board, flooring; E. thill, the shaft of a cart.

Skt. tanus, thin ; L. tenu-is; A. S. bynne; E. thin.
Skt. trtīyas, third ; L. tertius; E. third.
Skt. $t r$ sh, to be thirsty, trrshnā, thirst; A. S. byrst, thirst; E. thirst.

Skt. tul, to lift, weigh, ponder; tulā, a balance, scale, equality with; L. tollere, to lift; toleräre, to support, put up with ; A. S. polian, to endure, suffer ; E. dial. thole, to endure.

Skt. tri, three, nom. pl. m. trayas; L. trēs; E. three.
Skt. $t u$, to be strong; Gk. $\tau u ́-\lambda \eta$, a swelling; L. tu-m-ēre, to swell; A.S. $p \bar{u}-m a$, thumb (thick finger) ; E. thumb.

Skt. tan, to roar, resound; tanyatus, thunder ; A. S. pun-ian, to rattle ; bun-or, thunder ; E. thunder.

Skt. tarkus, a spindle ; L. torquère, to twist ; A. S. preeorh, perverse; Icel. pvert, neuter of pverr, perverse, transverse; E. a-thwart, thwart.
§ 186. Skt. $d$; E. t. Skt. dam (causal damaya), to be tame, to tame ; damas, a taming ; L. dom-āre, to tame; A.S. tam, tame ; E. tame.

Skt. dūrvā, a kind of millet-grass; Du. tarwe, wheat; Mid. E. tare-vetch, darnel-vetch; E. tares.

Skt. dar-anam, a splitting, där-aṇas, adj., splitting, bursting; dār-aya, to tear asunder; A. S. ter-an, to tear; E. tear, vb.

Skt. daça ; L. decem; E. ten.
Skt. damas, a house; L. domus, a house; Gk. $\delta \dot{\varepsilon} \mu-\epsilon \iota \nu$, to build; Goth. tim-r-jan, to build; A.S. timber, building material ; E. timber.

Skt. dif, to show; Gk. $\delta \epsilon i \kappa-\nu v \mu \tau$, I show ; Idg. root *deik; allied to Idg. root * deig, whence E. tok-en.

Skt. daḿm, to bite, daḿm̧as, a bite; Gk. $\delta a ́ \kappa-\nu \epsilon \iota$, to bite; A. S. tange, 'biter' or 'nipper', a pair of tongs; E. tongs.

Skt. dantas, a tooth; L. dent-em, acc.; Goth. tunthus, a tooth (with the vowel of the weak grade); Du. tand, a tooth; A. S. tṑ (for *tond), a tooth ; E. looth.

Skt. dāru, wood; a species of pine; dru-, wood; allied to Gk. $\delta \rho \hat{v}-\mathrm{s}$, oak; W. derw, oak; A.S. trēo; E. tree.

Skt. dēvas, divine; a deity; A.S. Tîw, the god of war; whence E. Tuesday.

Skt. $d r b h$, to make into tufts: darbhas, a tuft of grass; A. S. turf; E.turf.

Skt. dvau, two ; Goth. twai; A. S. twā ; E. two.
§ 187. Skt. $d h, d$; E. $d$. The initial Skt. $d h$ becomes $d$ when another aspirated letter terminates the syllable.

Skt. dhrsh, to dare; dhrshteas, bold; Gk. $\theta a \rho \sigma-\epsilon i \nu$, to be bold; Goth. ga-dars, I dare, ga-daursta, I durst; A.S. ic dearr, I dare, pt. t. dors-te ; E. dare, durst.

Skt. duhitā (for *dhughitā), daughter; Gk. өuyátŋp; A. S. dohtor ; E.daughter.

Skt. dah (for *dhagh), to burn, dāhas, burning, heat; allied to Lith. dagas, hot time, autumn; A. S. d $x g$, day (the bright time) ; E. day.

Skt. dhav, to run ; dhāv, to run, to flow ; Gk. $\theta_{\epsilon}^{\prime} \epsilon \nu$, to run, fut. $\theta \in \dot{v} \sigma o \mu a u$; A. S. dēaw, dew ; E. dew.

Skt. dhunis, rushing, roaring; dhvan, to roar, to resound; dhvanis, a noise, din ; A. S. dyne, a din ; E. din.

Skt. dhā, to place; Gk. $\tau i-\theta \eta-\mu$, I put; A. S. dōn, to put,
to do ; E. do. Hence Skt. dhāma, a fixed abode, also, usage, law, order ; A. S. dōm, a judgement ; E. doom.

Skt. dvār, f. a door (for *dhvār ; see Uhlenbeck) ; Gk. $\theta \dot{\rho} \rho a$, a door; A. S. duru, f., dor, n. ; E. door.

Skt. dēhas, a mass (from Idg. root *dheigh, to form); Goth. daigs, dough, from deigan, to knead; A. S. dāh, dough (gen. dāg-es); E. dough.

Skt. druhya, to seek to injure, druh-, nom. dhruk, an injurer, a fiend (Idg. root *dhreugh), drōhas, injury, treachery, perfidy; allied to Icel. draugr, a ghost, G. trugbild, a phantom, deceitful, vision, trügen, to deceive; also to Icel. draumr, a dream; O.Friesic $d r a ̄ m, ~ a ~ d r e a m, ~ b i-d r i a g a, ~ t o ~ d e c e i v e ; ~$ N. Friesic drōm, a dream, dreeme, to dream; a distinct word from A. S. dream, joy. The E. dream seems to be Friesic.

Skt. dhran, to resound (Uhl.) ; allied to Old Saxon drān, a drone, E. drone.

Skt. dhvr, dhvara, to bend, destroy (Brugmann says, 'to destroy deceitfully'), dhūr-tas, pp. fraudulent ; allied to Goth. dwals, foolish, A.S. dol, foolish, E. dull. Further allied to E. dzeell.

Skt. dhvaims, to fall to pieces, perish, pp. dhvastas; dhvastis, disappearance (lit. a perishing) ; O.H.G. tunst, a storm, vapour; A.S. dūst, prov. E. doust, dowst; E. dust (with shortened $u$ ).
§ 188. Gutturals. The palatal gutturals are the Idg. $k$, $g, g h$; represented in Skt. by $\varepsilon, j, h$; and in English by $h, k(c, c h), g$.
$k$ : Skt. $\varsigma$; E. h. Skt. $̧ a m y \bar{a}$, a stick, peg; Gk. кá $\mu a \xi$, a pole, rod; M.E. hame; E. hames, the bent sticks round a horse-collar.

Skt. ̧añk, to $^{2}$ hesitate ; L. cunctārī, to delay; E. hang.
Skt. çaças (for *̧asas), a hare; G. hase ; A. S. hara; E. hare.

Skt. दirsham, the head, allied to çiras, the head ; L. cernuus (for ${ }^{*}$ cersnuos), with the head forward, allied to cerebrum,
brain; Late A.S. hærnes, pl. (with $r n$ for $r z n$ ), the brains; prov. E. harns, the brains. Cf. Gk. kópaat, the temples.

Skt. çraddhā, confidence, lit. 'putting one's heart in.' The prefix crad- (Idg. *kred-) is allied by gradation to L. cord-, as in cord-is, gen. of cor, heart ; and to Gk. кapoia, A. S. heorte, E. heart.

Skt. çaranas, protecting ; ̧aranam, a shelter, a hut (base çar-, for *ker-, *kel-); Gk. калıá, a hut; L. cella, a cell; A. S. hel-an, to cover, to hide; A. S. hel (gen. helle), Goth. halja, hell (cell, prison) ; E. hell.

Skt. ¢̧arma, a shelter, protection; A.S. helm, a protection for the head; E. helm, helmet, allied to hell (above).

Skt. $\varsigma \bar{\imath}$, to lie, rest ; çēvas, dear, kind, friendly ; L. ciuis, a citizen ; A.S. hizvan, domestics; E. hind, a peasant.

Skt. ̧̧ānas, a hone; A. S. hān; E. hone. Cf. L. cōs, a whetstone.

Skt. çaphas, a hoof ; A. S. hōf; E. hoof.
Skt. ¢̧rngam, a horn; Gk. кópu $\beta$ ßos, highest point, top; L. cornu, horn; A.S. horn; E. horn. Further allied to Gk. $\kappa \epsilon \rho-a s$, horn ; A. S. heor-ot, a hart ; E. hart. Cf. L. cer-uus.

Skt. $̧ v a ̄$ (gen. çunas), a hound ; Gk. кv́шv (gen. кvvós); A. S. hun-d ; E. hound.

Skt. ¢̧atam, a hundred; Pers. sad; Gk. é-karóv ; L. centum ; E. hund-red (where -red means ' by computation').

Here also belongs Skt.çrath, to be loose, crathaya, to loosen; A. S. hreddan, to rid, set free ; E. rid.

Skt. çvit-ras, white, çvèt-as, white; from Idg. root *kweit. Skt. çind, to be white ; A. S. hwït, white ; E. white; root *kweid.
§ 189. $g$ : Skt. $j$; E. $k(c, c h) . \quad$ Skt. $j=\mathrm{E} . j$ in $j u d g e$.
Skt. jan, to beget, generate ; janas, neut., a race; Gk. $\gamma_{\text {ย́vos ; L. genus ; E. kin. }}$

Skt. jānu, the knee ; Gk. yóvv, L. genu; allied to A. S. cnëo ; E. knee.

Skt. jnā, to know ; A. S. cnāzean ; E. know.
Skt. jval, to blaze ; perhaps allied to A.S. col ; E. coal.
 camb, a comb, crest, ridge ; E. comb (row of teeth).

Skt. jirrnas, worn out, pp. of $j r$, to wear out, cause to decay, make old. It is supposed that this is allied to L. grānum, grain, corn, as being that which is 'worn down' by grinding in a mill ; cf. E. corn.

Sometimes the A. S. $c$ becomes M.E. ch, as follows:-
Skt. jambh, jabh, to snap at, seize with the mouth; A.S. ceafl, the jaw, pl. ceaflas, jaws, chaps, whence M.E. chavel, chaul, chol, later form jolle, the jowl ; E. jowl, jole.

Skt. jatharam, the belly, the womb (for *geltharam); Goth. kilthei, the womb ; A. S. cild, a child; E. child.

Skt. jush, to relish; L. gus-tāre, to taste; Gk. үєviopat, I taste ; A. S. cēosan, to choose ; E. choose.

In one instance the Skt. form begins with $h$ (as if from Idg. gh), where Gk. and L. have $\gamma, g$. Skt. hanus, jaw; Gk. $\gamma^{\prime} \nu v s$, chin; L. gena, cheek; Goth. kinnus, cheek; A. S. cin, chin; E. chin. See Brugmann, §704.
§ 190. $g h$; Skt. $h$; E. $g(y)$. Skt. haimsas, a swan; Gk. $\chi \dot{\eta} \nu$, a goose ; L. hanser, anser, a goose ; G. Gans; A. S. gōs; E. goose.

Skt. hēdas, anger (for *hēzdas) ; allied to Icel. geis-a, to rage, Goth. us-gais-jan, to terrify, scare ; A. S. gāst, a ghost; E. ghost (Brugmann, § 816, sect. 2).
A. S. initial ge becomes $y(y e)$ in modern English.

Skt. hirā, a vein; Gk. $\chi$ oo $\delta \dot{\eta}$, a string of gut, a cord; L. haru-spex, i. e. (probably) inspector of the entrails; Icel. garnir, guts; A. S. gearn, thread ; E. yarn.

Skt. hary-, to desire; Gk. रa $a$, joy, रaípєь, to rejoice; Goth. -gairns, desirous of ; A. S. georn, eager for; whence E. yearn.

Skt. haris, yellow ; haritas, yellowish, green; haritam, sb., gold ; allied to Gk. $\chi^{\lambda o} \eta$, young verdure of trees, L. heluus, light yellow, A. S. geolu, yellow ; E. yellow. Further allied to Gk. $\chi^{\circ \lambda \eta}$, gall, L. fel, A. S. gealla, E. gall.

Skt. hyas, yesterday, Gk. $\chi^{\theta}$ 's, L. heri; allied to L. hesternus, belonging to yesterday, and to A. S. geostra, yester-, as in E. yester-day.
§ 191. The Idg. $q$ or $k(w), g(w), g(w) h$, considered as velar gutturals, whether labialized or not, answer to Skt. $k$ or $c h, g$ or $j, g h$ or $h$. But a distinction is sometimes made in English, as below.
$q$ (not labialized) : Skt. $k$ (ch) ; E. $h$. Skt. krppanas, a sword, from the Idg. root *(s)qerp, to cut; Lith. kerpu, I shear, L. carp-ere, to gather; allied to A. S. hæerf-est, 'crop,' also harvest, autumn ; E. harvest.

Skt. kuchas, the female breast (from its swelling form) ; Lith. kaukas, a swelling, kaukaras, a hill ; Goth. hauhs, high; A. S. hēah; E. high.

Skt. küpas, a pit, a hole, well ; allied to L. cüpa, a tub (whence L. cuppula, a small cask, small vault, Ital. cupola, E. cupola) ; A. S. hȳf, a hive for bees; E. hive.

Skt. kütam (for *kultam), a horn, forehead, peak, top ; allied to L. celsus, high, culmen, a peak, top; A. S. holm, billow, sea, islet, hyll, a hill; E. holm, islet; hill.

Skt. kanakam, gold ; allied to Icel. hunang, honey; A. S. hunig; E. honey.

Skt. kētus, a light, a token of recognition, shape, form; allied to Goth. haidus, a way, manner; A.S. hād, state, quality; E. -hood, as a suffix in man-hood, \&c.

Skt. katas (for *kart-as, from the Idg. root *qert, to plait), a (woven or plaited) mat; allied to Gk. кápтa入os, a basket, A. S. hyrbil, hyrdel, a hurdle; E. hurdle.

Here also belong the following English words, which have lost an initial $h$.

Skt. kravis, raw flesh, krūras, wounded, sore ; allied to L. crū-dus, raw ; A. S. hrēaw, raw ; E. raw.

Skt. krp, form, appearance; L. corpus, form, body; A. S. -hrif, the belly (body), in the compound mid-hrif; E. midriff; where mid means 'in the middle'.
§ 192. In some cases the labialization is clearly shown in English, as the English word begins with wh (A. S. hwv) instead of with $h$.

Skt. kūrp-aras, the elbow, may be allied to Gk. $\kappa a \rho \pi-o ́ s$, the wrist, from a root signifying 'to turn', or 'to turn round', preserved in Goth. hwairb-an, Teut. *hwerf-, to turn ; here belongs E. wharf, with a wide range of meanings; also E. whir-l (for *whirvl).

Skt. chakras, chakram, a wheel ; Gk. кúклоs, a wheel; A. S. hweowvol, hweogol, contracted form hwēol, a wheel; E. wheel. These are reduplicated forms, from Idg. ${ }^{*} q(w) e-q(w) / \delta$-; without the reduplication, we find O. Slavonic kolo, a wheel, Icel. hvel.

Skt. chiras, lasting long; allied to L. qui-és, rest, and to Goth. hwei-la, a time; A.S. hwill, sb. a pause, a while; E. while.

Skt. kas, who; allied to Goth. hwas, who, A. S. hwā, E. who; compare also Skt. kar-hi, when, with A.S. hwwr, E. where.
§ 193. $g(w):$ Skt. $g$ or $j$; E. $c$ (without labialization). Uhlenbeck quotes the imitative Skt. verbs $g r-n \bar{a}-l i$, he sings, and jar-atē, it rustles, resounds, with which we may connect the Goth. kara, A. S. cearu, sorrow, grief, and E. care. A similar root appears in the Skt. garj, to roar, to growl (likewise imitative), which may be compared with the A. S. crac-ian, E. crack.

Skt. glaus, a lump ; closely allied to A. S. clēo-zven, clȳ-zven, a clew or ball of thread; E. clew.
§ 194. gw: Skt. $g$; E. $c, q u$ (with labialization). In the following words, English does not clearly show the labial initial.

Skt. garbhas, womb, embryo, offspring ; Goth. kalbō, a calf; O. Merc. calf; E. calf. Allied to the Gk. $\delta \in \lambda \phi$ ús, womb; which shows the effect of labialization (Brugmann).

Skt. gam, to go, to move; Gk. ßaivelv (for *ßáv-yetv); L.
uen-ire (for *guen-ire) ; Goth. kwim-an, to come; E. come. (The Gk., L., and Goth. forms all show labialization.)

Skt. gaus, m., a bull; Gk. ßoûs, an ox ; L. bōs; Irish bo; A. S. $c \bar{u}$; E. cow.

In the following forms, the labial initial is shown by the E. $q u$.

Skt. gnā, a divine female, goddess; Gk. $\gamma v v \dot{\eta}$, woman (Bœotian $\beta$ avá, with labialization) ; Irish ben (the same); Goth. kwinō, A.S. cwene, E. quean. (The E. queen is allied, with a different gradation.)

Skt. grāvā, a stone used for pressing out Soma-juice; allied to Lith. girnos, pl., the stones in a handmill ; Goth. kwairnus ; A. S. cweorn, a handmill; E. quern.

Skt. jīv, to live ; allied to Gk. ßios, life, L. uīuus, living, and A. S. cwic, living ; E. quick.
§ 195. $g(w) h$; Skt. $j$; E. $g$. Skt. jangh $\bar{a}$, the lower part of the leg ; Icel. ganga, to go, to gang ; E. gang.
$g w h:$ Skt. $g h, h$; E. $g$. There does not seem to be any clear example. But it is often assumed that the Idg. gwh occurs as initial $w$ in the E. word warm. The forms are: Skt. gharmas, sb., heat; Gk. Өєp ${ }^{\text {ós, warm; Lat. formus, }}$ warm; O. Pruss. gorme, heat; O. Slavonic gor-êti, to burn; said to be allied to A. S. wearm, warm, Icel. varmr, Du. and G. warm ; E. warm.

The Idg. gwh occurs at the end of a syllable in the following : Skt. lagh-us, swift, nimble, light (not heavy), Gk. è $\lambda a \chi u{ }^{v} s$, small, light, L. leu-is, light; A. S. lēoht (for *līh-t); further allied to Lith. lengzeas, light, and to E. lung. It also occurs in the Gk. vi $\phi$-a, accus., snow, L. niu-em, accus., Lith. snëg-as, A. S. snäze, E. snowv; but the cognate word does not appear in Sanskrit.
§ 196. The Skt. and E. liquids, viz. $l, m, n, r$, correspond initially, and in other positions. But in some cases, Skt. has $r$ for the English $l$.
$l$ : Skt. lōkas, free space; L. lūcus, a grove; A. S. lēah; E. lea.

Skt. lubh, to desire, long for, allied to Goth. liub-s, A. S. lēof, dear ; E. lief. Also to A. S. lufu, love ; E. love.

Skt. laghus, active, light (of weight); Gk. é $\lambda a \chi u ́ s, ~ s m a l l ;$ Goth. leihts, light (of weight); A. S. lēoht ; E. light.

Skt. lingam, a mark, token, sign ; allied to Lith. lygus, like, and to A.S. lic, form, shape, body, whence ge-lìc, adj., of similar shape, like ; E. like. Cf. G. g-leich.

Skt. lal (of imitative origin), to sport; lul, to move to and fro; lōlas, sb., a moving to and fro. A similar initiative root occurs in the L. lalläre; and in E. lull, lil-t.

Skt. lash, to desire, long for ; allied to Goth. lustus, A. S. lust, pleasure ; E. lust.

A few English words, as listen, loud, \&c., have lost initial $h$, corresponding to the Skt. $\varsigma$ (§ I80) from the Idg. palatal $k$.

Skt. $\varsigma r u$, to hear, listen to ; crutas, heard, known, famous, allied to A. S. hlūd, loud ; E. loud. Further allied to E. listen, A. S. hlyst-an, to listen, from A. S. hlyst, sb., hearing ; cf. W. clust, the ear, Skt. çruṣlis, willing service (obedience). In this case we have Skt. $r=$ E. $l$.

Skt. çraya, $\varsigma r$, to lean upon; allied to Gk. $\kappa \lambda i \nu-\epsilon \iota \nu$, to cause to lean, L. in-clināre, to incline, A. S. hlæ̈nan, to cause to lean, hlinian, to lean over. Here we again have Skt. $r=$ E. $l$. The Idg. root is *klei, whence also are A. S. hli-d, E. lid (of a box); A.S. hlā-w, hl̄̄zw, a slope, a hill, mound; E. low, a hill (in place-names). See further under $r, \S 199$.
§ 197. Skt. m, E. $m$. Skt. manus, a man, mankind; E. man.

Skt, many $\bar{a}$, the neck ; cf. A. S. manu, the hair on a horse's neck; E. mane.

Skt. majjā, marrow of bones; Avestic mazga- (the same), which has an older form of the base (Idg. type *mazgho-); Russ. mozg' ; O. Mercian merg ; E. marrow.

Skt. médas (for *mazdas), sb., fat ; A. S. mæst, mast, fruit of beech-trees, for feeding pigs ; E. mast. Cf. G. Mast, mast ; mästen, to fatten.

Skt. mah-as, greatness; mahā, great ; allied to Gk. $\mu \eta \chi a \nu \eta$, means, Goth. mag-an, to be able; E. may, might, vb.; might, sb.

Skt. mām, acc., me; E. me.
Skt. madhu, honey, hence, mead ; Gk. $\mu \epsilon \in \theta v$; E. mead.
Skt. mīdham, a reward (for ${ }^{*}$ mizdham); Gk. $\mu \tau \sigma \theta \delta \delta$, pay; A. S. meord, also mēd, reward; E. meed.

Skt. $m r d u s$, soft; O. Slav. mladŭ, soft; allied to Gk. $\mu \bar{\epsilon} \lambda \delta-\epsilon \iota \nu$, to melt ; A. S. meltan ; E. melt.

Skt. madhyas, middle; L. medius; Goth. midjis; A.S. midd; E. mid, middle.

Skt. $m r d h$, to grow weary ; probably allied to Gk. $\mu a \lambda \theta a \kappa o ́ s$, soft, mild ; and to A. S. milde, mild ; E. mild.

Skt. $m r j$, to wipe, stroke, clean out ; L. mulg-ère, to milk; A. S. melc-an, to milk; E. milk.

Skt. matis, thought, purpose ; L. menti-, declensional stem of mens, mind ; A. S. ge-mynd, remembrance, memory ; E. mind.

Skt. mās, moon, māsas, month; allied to Goth. mēna, moon, mēnōth, month ; E. moon, month.

Skt. mātā, mother; L. māter ; E. mother.
Skt. mūshas, a rat, a mouse ; L. mūs ; A. S. mūs ; E. mouse.
Skt. $m r$, to die, $m r t a-$, dead ; L. mor-ī, to die ; mort-, decl. stem of mors, death; A.S. mordor, murder; E. murther. (The form murder is from the Anglo-French murdre, which may have been taken from the A.S. form.)
§ 198. Skt. $n$; E. $n$. Skt. nakham, a nail ; A. S. nægel; E. nail.

Skt. nagnas, naked ; allied to Goth. nakwöths, A. S. nacod ; E. naked.

Skt. nāma, name ; A. S. nama ; E. name.
Skt. nabhyam, the nave of a wheel, the navel ; näbhis, nave, navel ; A. S. nafu, nave, nafela, navel ; E. nave, navel.

Skt. nīdas (for *nizdas, *ni-sd-as), a resting-place, a nest ; lit. ' place to sit down in ', from $n i$, down, and sad, to sit; L. nìdus (for *nizdus); A. S. nest; E. nest.

Skt. nitarām, adv., below; A. S. niðer, downward, neoすera, lower ; E. nether.

Skt. navas, navyas, new ; A. S. nirve ; E. new.
Skt. naktā, night ; L. noctem, acc. of nox ; O. Merc. næht; A. S. niht; E. night.

Skt. nava, nine ; L. nouem ; A. S. nigon; E. nine.
Skt. nāsā (dual form), the nose ; also nas-, nose ; allied to L. nārēs, pl., nāsus, sing. ; and to A. S. nosu, E. nose.

Skt. $n u, n \bar{u}$, now ; Goth. $n u$; A. S. $n \bar{u}$; E. now.
§ 199. Skt. $r(l)$; E. $r, l$. Skt. rup, to feel spasms, rōpaya, to break off; later form lup, to break, spoil, rob; L. rump-ere (pp. rup-tus), to break asunder; A. S. rēofan, to break, whence rēaf, spoil, and rēaf-ian, to rob; E. reave, especially in the comp. be-reave.

Skt. rudhiras, red ; Gk. є́pvepós, L. ruber ; allied to Goth, raud-s, A. S. rēad, E. red (with shortened vowel).
: Skt. rjus, adj., straight, right, just ; allied to L. rectus, right, A. S. riht, E. right.

Skt. rūkshas, rough, dry ; cf. A. S. rūh, rough, E. rough.
Skt. rēkhā, a streak, a line, from Idg. root *reikh, whence also G. Reihe, a row, and A. S. rāw, räew, a row, line, rank ; E. row. (Teut. type *rai $(g) w \bar{a}$, fem.)

In the following instances, English has initial $l$.
Skt. rōkas, brightness, ruch, to shine ; from Idg. root *leuk, to shine, L. lūc-ēre, to shine, Gk. $\lambda_{\epsilon v \kappa-\delta ́ s, ~ w h i t e ~ ; ~ A . ~ S . ~ l e ̄ o h-t, ~}^{\text {, }}$ light, brightness ; E. light. From the same root is (probably) Skt. lōk-as, a free or clear space, L. lūc-us (a clearing), a glade; Lith. lauk-as, an open field; A.S. lēah, a meadow, E. lea.

Skt. lih, to lick ; Gk. $\lambda \in i \chi-\epsilon \iota \nu$; L. ling-ere; Goth. bi-laig-ōn, to be-lick; also A. S. licc-ian, to lick (with $c c=k k$, from Idg. $g h n)$.

Skt. rip, to adhere, lip, to besmear, anoint; cf. Gk. äлєi申єıv, to anoint, $\lambda \iota \pi a \rho o ́ s$, fat; Goth. bi-leiban, to remain, A. S. libban (for *lif-jan), to remain, dwell, live; E. live. Closely allied
are the A.S. līf, E. life; and the A. S. léef-an, to forsake, E. to leave, from the A. S. sb. läf, a remainder.
§200. Skt. $s=$ E. $s$. The E.initial $s$ not only appears singly, as in salve, but also in many consonantal combinations, such as $s h, s k, s l, s m, s n, s q u$, $s t$, $s w$, which can better be considered separately. The symbol sh represents a simple sound, but etymologically it is unoriginal, and represents an earlier $s k$. The E. single $s$, followed by a vowel, will be treated first.

Skt, sarpis, clarified butter, Gk. $\bar{\epsilon} \lambda \pi o s$, oil, fat ; Goth. salbōn, to anoint ; A. S. sealf; E. salve.

Skt. ¢ush, to dry up (for ${ }^{*}$ sush, the change from $s$ to $f$ (pronounced $s h$ ) being due to the influence of the following sh); ¢ōshas, a drying up, decay; Lith. sausas, dry; A.S. sēar, dry ; E. sear, sere.

Skt. samas, even, similar, like, same ; Icel. samr, the same ; E. same. The strong grade appears in Skt. säma, neut., conciliation; Gk. $\eta_{\mu \epsilon \rho \sigma s, ~ m i l d, ~ A . ~ S . ~ s e ̀ m a n ~(f o r ~ * s o ̄ m i a n), ~ t o ~}^{\text {a }}$ satisfy, conciliate, also, to be like, to seem ; E. seem ; the last sense being chiefly due to Icel. sremiligr, whence E. seemly. Here (perhaps) belongs E. soft.

Skt. sapta; E. seven.
Skt. sabhā, an assembly, sabhyas, fit for an assembly; Goth. sibja, relationship; A.S. sibb, akin to, E. sib, related to, in the compound gos-sip, for god-sib, related in God, as a godfather is.

Skt. sich, siñch, to pour out, infuse, moisten; from the same root as A. S. sigan, to drop down, subside, and prov. E. sile, to filter.

Skt. svasā, a sister; A.S. sweostor; Icel. systir; E. sister.

Skt. sad, to sit; L. sed-ēre; A. S. sittan (for ${ }^{*}$ set-jan); E. sit.

Skt. shash, six ; E. six (original form obscure).
Skt. sūnus, a son; Goth. sunus; A. S. sunu; E. son.

Skt. sād-as, a sitting upon (as on a horse) answers in form to Lith. sodis, soot (as being settled upon), and to A. S. sōt, soot; E. soot.

Skt. sat-yas, true, actual ; sat, being, pres. part. of as, to be; Idg. type ${ }^{*}$ es-ont-, being; A.S. sö才 (for ${ }^{*}$ s-onth), true, söd, sb., the truth ; E. sooth.

Skt. sū-karas, a boar, a hog; where su - is allied to A. S. sugu, sūu, a sow ; E. sow.

Skt. su, to press out juice; hence the Idg. roots ${ }^{*}$ seu- $q$, ${ }^{*}$ seu-g, as in L. sūcus, juice, and sügere, to suck; cf. A. S. sügan, sücan, to suck, E. suck; and A. S. socian, to soak, E. soak.

Skt. süpas, broth, soup; allied to A. S. süpan (from Idg. root *seub), to sup up, to drink in, E. sup. An allied word is Icel. soppa, a sop, E. sop. (The E. soup is from F. soupe, from the verb souper, which was borrowed from the Low G. supen, allied to the A. S. süpan.)

Skt. samā, a year ; Avestic hama, in the summer ; allied to A. S. sumer, summer ; E. summer.

Skt. sanutar, adv. far away from ; allied to A. S. sundor, adv., apart, asunder; E. sunder, asunder.
§ 201. $S$ followed by a consonant.
Sk: Skt. sk (skh); E. sh. Skt. skhal, to stumble, to err ; allied to Lith. skil-ti, to owe, to be liable ; L. scel-us, guilt; A. S. sceal, I must, I shall, orig. 'I owe'; E. shall.

Skt. sku, to cover; A. S. scūa, shade; Icel. sk̄̄, a cloud, whence E. sky is borrowed, as shown by $s k$ in place of the A. S. sc, which always becomes E. sh.

The E. scu-m, from the same Idg. root ${ }^{*}$ skeu, is likewise of Norse origin. Allied to L. ob-scūrus, E. obscure.
$S m$. Skt. smi, to smile; cf. L. $m \bar{\imath} r-\bar{a} r \bar{\imath}$, to wonder at ; Swed. smi-la, to smile ; E. smile.

Sn. Skt. snā-va, a tendon; A. S. snō-d, a fillet ; E. snood.
Sp. Skt. sphürj, to rumble, rattle, to burst forth; Gk. $\sigma \phi a ́ \rho a y o s, ~ a ~ c r a c k l i n g ; ~ A . ~ S . ~ s p e a r c a, ~ a ~ s p a r k ~ t h r o w n ~ o u t ~ f r o m ~$
burning wood ; E. spark. Further allied to Icel. sprak-a, to crackle, and to A. S. sprec-an (to make a noise), to speak; E. speak.

Skt. sphāy, to grow fat, to increase ; sphātis, increase, prosperity ; A. S. spēd, success, E. speed.

Skt. $s p r h$, to be eager for, to long for ; Gk. $\sigma \pi \epsilon \rho \chi-\epsilon \iota \nu$, to drive on; allied to A.S. spring-an, to spring, to bound; E. spring.

Skt. sphur, to spurn, to spring, quiver, writhe ; L. spern-ere, to despise ; A. S. spur-nan, to spurn ; E. spurn.

St. Skt. stabh, stambh, to fix, establish, prop; stambhas, a prop, post; E. Fries. staf, firm, unmoved; A. S. slxf, a staff, prop ; E. staff.

Skt. sthā, to stand; L. stā-re; allied to E. stand. Allied further to Skt. sthitis, a standing, residence, station, abode; A. S. stede, a place; E. stead. From the same root we may further deduce the A. S. stō-l, a seat, chair, mod. E. stool; and even the E. stud (of horses) and steed.

Skt. stigh, to ascend; Gk. $\sigma \tau \epsilon i \chi-\epsilon \iota \nu$, to march; A. S. stig $g$ - an, to climb, whence A.S. stegeger, E. stair ; also A.S. stig-u, a pen for cattle; E. sty.

Skt. str, to scatter, bestrew ; L. ster-nere (pt. t. strā-uī), to strew ; allied to A.S. streowian, E. to strew, and to A. S. streaw, E. straze.

Sw (Skt. sv). Skt. svar-as, sound, voice, tone; A.S. swerian, to speak loudly, to swear ; E. swear; also A.S. andswerian, to speak in reply, E. answer; also A. S. swear-m, a noise of bees, swarm, E. swarm.

Skt. svid, to sweat, svēdas, sweat ; A. S. swēētan, to sweat, E. sweat.

Skt. svad, svād, to taste well, to relish; svādus, sweet; A. S. swēte, sweet; E. sweet.
§ 202. The most interesting examples are those in which the initial $s$ has been dropped in Skt., but preserved in English; as follows:-

Skt. k: E. sh (from sk). Skt. kavis, a seer ; L. cauère, to take heed; A. S. sceazuian, to look to ; E. show.

Skt. l: E. sl. Skt. lamb, to hang loosely, sink down; L. lab-äre, to totter, lāb-ī, to glide, slip down; Goth. slëpan, to sleep; A. S. slâpan; O. Merc. slëpan; E. sleep.

Skt. $n$ : E. sn. Skt. nägas, a serpent; A. S. snaca, a snake; E. snake.

Skt. $t$ : E. st. Skt. târā, a star; E. star.
Skt. sr, as in sru, to flow; here the sr became str in Teutonic ; cf. G. strom, Du. stroom, A. S. strēam ; E. stream.
§ 203. Skt. v: E. w: Idg. w. Skt. vah, to convey, causal vāhaya, to drive (a chariot) ; Goth. wagjan, to shake, Mid. Swed. wagga, E. wag, which is of Scand. origin. From the same root is A.S. wwgn, a wain; E. wain; cf. Skt. vahanam, a conveying, a ship. Also A. S. weg, E. way.

Skt. vajas, vigour ; allied to A.S. wacan, to come to life, wacian, to wake, watch; E. wake; also to A. S. weecce, a watch, a guard; E. watch.

Skt. val, to turn round; allied to Goth. walus, a round stick, a rod; and to E. wale (in gun-wale). From the same root (Idg. *wel) are wallow, welter.

Skt. valg, to leap, to bound, to dance; allied to A.S. wealcan, to roll, to walk ; E. walk.

Skt. vrt, to turn round, revolve, also to remain, abide; allied to A. S. weordan, to become, E. (obsolescent) worth, vb., to become ; also to the -ward in in-ward, out-ward, \&c.

Skt. vas, to dwell ; A.S. wes-an, to be, pt. t. woes, was; E. was.

Skt. vayam, we ; E. we.
Skt. vr, to cover, conceal, restrain ; vāraya, causal form, to keep back; Goth. warjan, to defend; A. S. werian, to defend, protect, also, to dam up, A.S. wer, a dam, a weir.

Skt. vas, to wear clothes; Goth. wasjan, to clothe; A.S. werian, to wear clothes; E. wear.

Skt. viras, a man ; A. S. wer, a man; E. wer- in wer-wolf, i. e. man-wolf.

Skt. vatsas, a yearling, a calf; Goth. withrus, a lamb; A. S. wedr, a wether; E. wether.

Skt. vij, to gush, also to recoil, flee from; A. S. wīc-an, to give way, yield, bend; A.S. wice, a bending tree, viz. the witch-elm or weych-elm; better spelt wich-elm; so named from its pendulous branches.

Skt. vidhavā, a widow; A. S. widuwe; E. widow.
Skt. vr, to choose, varas, choice, wish; L. uelle, to wish ; A. S. willan, to wish for; E. will, vb., will, sb., desire; cf. E. well, adv.

Skt. van, to wish, to gain, to win; A. S. winnan, to fight, gain; E. win. Hence also the inchoative form väñch, to wish; A.S. wūsc (for *wunsc), a wish, wȳscan, to wish; E. wish.

Skt. vā, to blow, vātas, wind; L. uentus, wind ; A. S. wind; E. wind. Also A. S. windzeian, to expose to wind, to winnow corn; E. winnow.

Skt. vid, to perceive ; Goth. witan, to know ; A. S. witan ; E. wit, to know.

Skt. vèda, I know ; A. S. wāt ; E. wot. From vid (above).
Skt. vètasas, a kind of (pliant) reed, from Idg. root *wei, to twine ; allied to L. uī-men, a twig, uī-tis, a vine; also to A. S. widig, a willow; E. withy and withe.

Skt. vi, apart, vitaram, adv., farther off; Goth. withra, against ; A. S. wider, against ; E. withers.

Skt.visham, poison; L.uirus (with $r$ for $s$ ); A.S.for-wisnian, to dry up, become shrivelled; E. wizened, shrivelled up.

Skt. vrkas, a wolf; Lith. wilkas; A. S. wulf; E. wolf.
Skt. vat, to understand, causal vālaya, to cause to understand, to inspire; L. uāt-es, a seer, prophet; A. S. wōd, mad (orig. full of divine frenzy) ; E. wood, adj., mad, furious.
§ 204. Idg. $y$ : Skt. $y$ : E. $y$. In a few English words, initial $y$ answers to Idg. $y$.

Skt. yū-yam, ye ; E. ye, you.
Skt. yas, to boil, pra-yastas, bubbling over; Gk. $\zeta \hat{\epsilon}-\epsilon \iota \nu$ (for * $\zeta \dot{\epsilon} \sigma-\epsilon \omega \nu)$, to boil, $\zeta \epsilon \sigma$ тós, fermented; A. S. gist, yeast; E. yeast.

Skt. yugam, a yoke; L. iugum; A. S. geoc, E. yoke.
Skt. yuvaças, young; L. iuuencus,_a heifer; Goth. juggs, young; A.S. geong, giung, iung; E. young. Shorter forms occur in the Skt. yuvan-, young; L. iuuenis.

In the word year the initial $y$ is probably original ; cf. Goth. jēr, a year, Avestic yār(e), a year; perhaps allied to Skt. $y a \overline{t a m}$, a course, $y \bar{a}$, to advance.
§ 205. In addition to the above words, in which the more usual correspondences between Sanskrit and English initial consonants are pointed out, there are, of course, several instances of related words that commence with a vowel. Some of the more important of these are noted below.
A. Skt. apa, off, away; cf. E. of, off. Hence the comp. aparas, hinder, further off; corresponding to E. af-ter, though the latter has a different suffix.

Skt. $a j$, to drive ; L. ag-ere, Gk. ä $\gamma$ - $\epsilon \nu$; Icel. $a k-a$, to drive ; A. S. ac-an, to ache, give pain ; E. ache, vb.

Skt. ajras, a field, Gk. áypós, L. ager; A. S. æecer, a field; E. acre.

Skt. anti, opposite, before; Gk. àví, against; L. ante, before; A.S. and-, prefix, whence E. an-in an-swer, E. ain a-long.

Skt. añkas, a bend, a hook; Gk. ä $\gamma \kappa \nu \rho a$, a bent hook; A. S. angel, a fish-hook, whence E. angle, to fish.

Skt. as-mi, I am ; Gk. $\epsilon i-\mu i\left(\right.$ for ${ }^{*} \epsilon \sigma-\mu i$ ), Æolic $\epsilon^{\epsilon} \mu-\mu i ́$, Icel. em, A. S. eom, E. am.

Skt. s-anti, third pers. pl. pres. (for ${ }^{*}$ es-anti, from the Idg. root *es, to be, L. es-se) ; L. s-unt; O. Northumb. ar-on (for *as-on-, *es-zn-), E. are.

Skt. irm-as, the arm ; L. arm-us ; A. S. earm; E. arm.
Skt. ichchhā (or icchā), a wish, ēsh-as, a seeking, a search, ish, to search after, desire ; A. S. äsc-ian, to ask ; E. ask.

Skt. aksh-as, an axle; L. ax-is; O. Norse öx-ull, dimin., an axis, axle; Swed. $a x-e l$; E. axle.
E. Skt. $a_{\S}-r i s$, an edge, $a_{\varsigma}-r a$ - (in compounds), an edge ; allied to L. $a c-i \bar{e} s$, an edge; A. S. ecg (Teut. type *ag-jā), an edge; E. edge. Further allied to L. ac-us (gen. ac-er-is), O. Northumb. eher, an ear of corn ; E. ear (of corn).

Skt. ush-ās, dawn ; L. aur-öra, dawn; allied to Icel. aus-tr, A. S. eeas-t, east ; E. east.

Skt. ad, to eat ; L. ed-ere ; A.S. et-an ; E. eat.
Skt. ashtau, eight; A. S. eahta; E. eight.
Skt. ōjas, might, ugras, mighty; L. augère, to increase; A. S. iecan, O. Merc. écan, to increase, eke; E. eke, vb.; also eke, adv.

Skt. ar-atnis, the elbow ; Gk. $\omega \lambda-\epsilon \in \eta$, L. ul-na, A. S. el- $\eta$, arm, also ell ; E. ell and el-bowe (bend of the arm).

Skt. ant-as, border, limit, end; A.S. end-e (Teut. type *and-joz); E. end.

Skt. avis, a sheep; Lith. arvis; L. ouis; A. S. corvu, a female sheep; E. ewe.

Skt. astí; Gk. écтi; L. est; E. is.
O. Skt. apa, off, away from; A. S. of; E. of, off.

Skt. anu, prep., along, towards, over ; Goth. ana; A. S. on ; E. on.

Skt. antaras, other ; Goth. anthar ; A.S. öder ; E. other.
Skt. udras, an aquatic animal; Gk. vi $\delta \rho a$, a water-snake (whence E. hydra) ; A. S. otor ; E. otter.

Skt. ud, up, out ; Goth. $\bar{u} t$; A. S. $\bar{u} t$; E. out.
Skt. upari, adv., above, over ; Gk. víє́p (whence E. hyper-, prefix) ; A. S. ofer ; E. over.

Skt. izf, to possess, to own ; Goth. aig-an, to possess; A.S. ag-an; E. owe, which formerly meant 'to possess'; hence E. own.

Skt. ukshan- (nom. ukshā), a bull; Goth. auhsa, an ox ; A. S. oxa (pl. oxan) ; E. ox (pl.oxen).
U. Skt. $\bar{u} d h a r$, an udder ; Gk. oủdap ; L. $\bar{u} b e r$ (for *ūdher); A. S. ūder; E. udder.

Skt. an- (before vowels), $a$-, negative prefix ; Gk. $a^{2}$-, $a^{-}$(as in an-odyne, a-byss) ; L. in- (whence F. and E. in-); A. S. un-, negative prefix ; E. un-.

Skt. adhas, adv., below ; adharas, lower ; allied to L. infrā, beneath, Goth. undar, under; A. S. under ; E. under.

Skt. upa, up; Goth. uf, under, ufarō, over ; further allied to Icel. and A. S. $u p p$, up (with $p p$ for $p n-$ ); E. $u p$.

## CHAPTER XIV

## A PHILOLOGICAL RAMBLE

§ 206. I propose in this Chapter to show how the various Indo-germanic languages help to illustrate one another in various ways, and how phonetic laws are required, at every turn, in order to explain fully the various forms of words that are etymologically related to each other. The method here adopted is purposely desultory, in order to show how the consideration of some particular point easily suggests the consideration of some other point, so that there is frequently a connecting link of some kind or other between words that, at first sight, appear to have nothing in common. The advantage of such an investigation is that it leads up to a great variety of results.
§ 207. Let us, for example, discuss the obsolescent word wot, in the sense of ( $I$ ) know or (he) knows, as being a word of very great antiquity. In the first place, we find that the A. S. form is $w \bar{a} t$, with a long $\bar{a}$. There is here a difficulty at the outset, for the A.S. $\bar{a}$ usually answers to modern long $\bar{o}$, as in the cases of $\bar{b} \bar{t} t$, a boat, $g \bar{a} t$, a goat, stān, a stone, and very many more. Just as the A.S. gāt, a goat, became goot (pronounced gaut, riming with taut) in Middle English, so did the A. S. wāt, I know, become woot (pronounced waut) in the same, and the A. S. hāt, hot, became hoot (pronounced haut). Even in the sixteenth century we find such spellings as wote, hote, hoot. But the vowels in wote, hote, were gradually shortened, until they at last rimed, as at present, with cot, dot, \&c. The reason for this is not very.clear, but it is probably due to the fact that, in English, there is a tendency
to shorten vowel-sounds under certain conditions, especially before dentals, and in disyllabic words. If, for example, we take such a sb. as cone (with long $\bar{o}$ ) and simply add the suffix -ic, the result is conic, with a more rapid utterance of the former syllable, causing vowel-shortening. Examples of this kind are very numerous, amounting to several score in number; cf. tone, tónic; cave, cávern; child, chíldren; code, códicil; coal, colly (coal-black); crane, cránberry; creed, crédit; croup, crúpper; dear, dárling; \&c. The shortening of the $o$ in M. E. hoot perhaps began in the derived adv. hotly, and in compounds such as hot-foot (speedily), hotspur; and was then easily transferred to the adj. hot itself. So also the shortening of the $o$ in wote may have begun in the common phrase wot not. At any rate, we know the result, and that the A.S. form wät had a long $\bar{a}$, corresponding to the $a i$ in the Gothic $i k$ wait, I know, to the $o i$ in the Gk. oi $\delta a$, I know, and to the $\bar{e}$ in the Skt. véeda, I know ; so that wot, Goth. wait, oiioa, and Skt. véda, are varying forms of the same word.
§ 208. Hence we draw new conclusions. The first is, that A. S. $\bar{a}$, Goth. $a i, \mathrm{Gk} . o b$, Skt. $\bar{e}$, are mere variants of one and the same diphthong, of which the Idg. form was oi. If these equations hold in one word, they must hold in others. Thus the Gk. pl. toi is Skt. $t \bar{e}$, Goth. thai, A. S. thā, M. E. tho, a word now obsolete, but common in Chaucer, with the sense of 'those '. The Gk. $\lambda$ oוnós, remaining, corresponds to the A.S. lāf, 'remainder,' still common in the Scottish lave, 'remainder,' where the E. $\bar{o}$ appears as Northumbrian $\bar{a}$, as in hale or hail for whole. The Gk. roîरos, a wall, orig. a wall of mud or earth, from the Idg. root *dheigh, to mould (L. fing-ere, Goth. deig-an), stands for * ${ }^{*}$ oixos, ${ }^{1}$ and is, letter for letter (or rather sound for sound) the same word as A.S. dāh (gen. dāg-es), E. dough. The Skt. spelling is dēhas, 'a mass,' body, and the Avestic form is -daezza-, found in the compounds $u z$-daēza-, a heaping up, and pairi-daëza-, a place

[^13]walled round, an enclosure, where pairi $=$ Gk. $\pi \epsilon \rho i$. This
 'a park', Latinized as paradīsus, and Anglicized as paradise.' It will be observed that the prefix is not the Gk. $\pi a p a$, but the Persian equivalent of $\pi \epsilon \rho i$; so that paradise is an enclosure surrounded by a wall of earth. A further equivalent of the A. S. $\bar{a}$, Goth. $a i$, Gk. oc, \&c., is the Icel. or O. Norse $e i$; this appears in the O. Norwegian deig-ja, Swed. de-ja, lit. a kneader of dough, also a milk-woman or female farm-servant, transferred into M. E. in the form deye; whence, with a French suffix -rie or -rye, was made the word deye-rye, a room for such a servant, now spelt dairy. We have also seen above that the root *dheigh gives the Lat. fig-, as in fig-ura, figure, and the Lat. $f(n) g$-ere with the insertion of $n$ in the pres. tense, the pt. tense, and the infinitive mood, the pp. being fic-tus (for *fig-tus); E. derivatives being figure, fiction, fictile, as well as feign (through the French) and fig-ment. It is not a little instructive to find that, from the same root *dheigh, we have derived such various words as dough, paradise, feign, fiction, fictile, figment, figure, and dairy.
§ 209. But we have by no means exhausted the lessons to be learnt from such a word as wot. For when we place it side by side with the equivalent Gk. oiòa and Skt. véda, we see that English has preserved the initial letter of the Idg. form *woida, which Skt. has turned into v, and Gk. has lost altogether. There was once a $w$ in Gk., denoted by the symbol $F$ (di-gamma), and it occurs in Homer, where it prevents an elision of a preceding vowel ; but it was lost at an early period, though English has preserved it to the present day. It is also preserved, as $v$, in all the Romance languages, in which it represents the Lat. $u$, which was also

[^14]once a w. ${ }^{1}$ It even occurs in three E. words borrowed from Latin at a very early period, viz. wick, a town (L. uic-us), wall (L. uall-um, a rampart), and wine, A. S. win (L. uinum). By help of L. and E. many a Greek initial $w$ may be restored; thus wick shows that the Gk. oikos was once Foikos; and wine, that Gk. oivos was once foivos. Similarly, the E. wain, A. S. weg-n, shows that oैXos is for fóxos; E. wallow, A. S. wealwian, allied to L. uoluere, that $\bar{\epsilon} \lambda \dot{v} \epsilon \iota \nu$ is for $F \in \lambda \dot{v} \epsilon \iota \nu$; Ewary, that ópá $\omega$ is for Fopá ; E. wear, to wear clothes, A. S. werian, Goth. wasjan, that ${ }^{\epsilon} \nu \nu \nu \mu \iota$ was once $F^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sigma-\nu v \mu \iota$; E. wether, orig. 'a yearling sheep', that ë́ros, a year, is for F'́тos (cf. L. uetus, old) ; E. wit, A. S. zeit-an, to know, that i $i \delta-\epsilon i v$, to see, is for Fiô-єiv; E. withy, allied to L. uitis, that itéa is for Fitéa; E. word, L. uerbum, that $\epsilon \ell \rho \epsilon \iota \nu$ is for Fєip $\epsilon \nu$, Homeric $F \epsilon \rho \epsilon \in \epsilon \epsilon \nu$, and that $\rho \dot{\eta} \tau \omega \rho$, an orator, a speaker, is for $F \rho \dot{\eta}-\tau \omega \rho$, from the same root *wer or *were; and E. work, that ${ }^{\text {E }}$ pyov is for Fépyov. Besides these, we have words of F . or L. origin, with $v$; thus vernal shows that éap, spring, is for F'́ap ; vesper,

§ 210. Again, we may regard the word wot from a grammatical point of view. The A.S. wāt belongs to a very limited class of verbs, viz. those that, whilst they may be translated or explained as having the sense of a present tense, are nevertheless, as far as form goes, representatives of a preterite; exactly as is the case with the Gk. oioa. Now when the first person oîo-a and the third person oid- $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}$ drop the final vowel, the two persons coincide in form ; and this is precisely the case with the Goth. wait, A. S. wāt, which means both 'I know' and 'he knows'. A similar coincidence of form is the invariable mark, in Gothic, A.S., and in English of the past tense of every strong verb, as in A.S. $d r a \bar{a}, \mathrm{E}$. drove, which can equally well be used for either the first person or the third. Very few such verbs have now

[^15]a present signification. There are, in fact, only five left; viz. I (or he) can; I (or he) dare; I (or he) may; I (or he) shall; and $I$ (or he) wot. ${ }^{1}$ There was once a sixth, viz. $I$ (or he) moot, which occurs in Middle English, with a late past tense most-e ; but only most-e now survives, in the form must, the old present moot being only preserved in the obsolescent phrase so mote it be, where mote is rather a subjunctive or optative form than an indicative. Similarly, the old present tense of ought has long been dead; he owe occurs, for the last time, in Caxton (1490). All these verbs are of great antiquity and much importance, being now freely used as 'auxiliary' verbs. The one which is least understood is dare, out of which popular ignorance formed a new third person of the form dares, ${ }^{2}$ much patronized by such as evolve English grammar out of their inner consciousness, instead of taking the trouble to study it historically, and who are therefore entirely unable to explain why the past tense is durs-t. The puzzle is to find out where the $s$ in durs- $t$ comes from ; and the answer is, simply, that it forms a part of the root. For the Gk. form is $\theta a \rho \sigma-\epsilon i v$, allied to $\theta \rho a \sigma-v$ s, bold, and to the Skt. dhrsh, to dare, from the Idg. root *dhers. The Gothic form is ga-daurs-an, infin., pres. t. ik ga-dars, I dare, and pt. t. ga-daurs$t a$, I durst. But A. S., like Latin, had the curious habit of turning $r s$ first into $r z$, and then into $r r$, when the $r s$ is final, and in certain other cases ; so that, as a fact, we find A.S. dearr, I (or he) dare; pt. t. dors-te. Note the usual A. S. 'breaking', i.e. the change of $a$ to $e a$ whenever two consonants follow, if the former consonant be $r, l$, or $h$; in the present case, the same consonant is doubled, but the result is the same. The Mid. E. form was simply dar, with only one $r$, the pt. t. being dors-tè or durs-tè; later forms were dare and

[^16]durst. The use of dares probably arose from the influence of such words as cares, fares, and stares, and the general use of $-s$ in the third person singular of the indicative; but there is really no good reason why we may not still use the old phrase 'he dare not do it'.
§ 211. The above change from $r s$ to $r r$ occurs not only in English, but in Latin also. Thus the L. curr-ere, to run, is from an Idg. base *qros- (see Walde), as seen in the sb. curs-us, a course; and from the same base we have the O. H. G. hros (G. Ross), a horse, and the A. S. hors, E. horse, i. e. 'the runner.' Again, the Idg. root *ters-, to be dry, as in the Gk. $\tau \epsilon \rho \sigma-\epsilon \sigma \theta a t$, appears also in the Goth. ga-thairs-an, to be dry, and in the Goth. thaurs-tei, A. S. thurs-t, thyrs-t, E. thirst, which has the vowel of the weak grade. From the same root we have the L. terr-a (for *ters-a), the dry ground, earth, and even the O.Irish tīr, W. tir, earth, land, whence Cantire, 'head of the land,' a promontory. The weak grade, tors-, appears in the L. torr-ēre, to dry up, to scorch, whence E. torrid and torrent ; the $s$ is preserved in the pp. tostus (for *torstus), whence the fem. tosta, O. F. tost-e, E. toast. Again, from the Idg. root ${ }^{*}$ ghers, to bristle, we have the Skt. hrsh, to bristle, and the L. horr-ère (for *hors-ère), to bristle, whence E. horrid, horrible, horror. Cf. E. gorse, A. S. gors-t, a prickly shrub. Another E. example occurs in the E. vb. to mar, from the O. Merc. -merran, as in the comp. $\bar{a}-m e r r a n$, to hinder, cognate with the O.H.G. merren, to hinder, to vex, and the Goth. ga-marz-jan, to cause to stumble: from a base *mars.
§ 212. Just as we thus find a change from $r_{1}$ to $r z$ and $r r$, so we find examples in which $l s$ becomes $l z$ and $l l$. Thus the hawse-hole in a ship is the round hole through which a ship's cable passes, and it is so named because it is in the fore part or 'neck' of the ship; from the O. Icel. hals, the neck, also, a part of the ship's bows. This is cognate with the O. Merc. hals, the neck, and with the L. collum (for *cols-um),
the neck, to which it exactly corresponds. So also the A. S. bell-an, to roar, preserved in the verb to bell, used of the sound made by a stag, and in the sb. bell, named from its loud sound, can be explained from a form *bels-an, allied to Lith. bals-as, voice, and Lith. bils-tu, I begin to speak.
§ 213. Returning to the word wot, with which this discussion began, there is yet one more point relating to it which has not been considered, viz. that the $\bar{a}$ of the sing. ic wāt changes to $\breve{\imath}$ in the plural wé wit-on. This is quite regular, as this change occurs in all verbs belonging to the 'drive' conjugation; the A. S. drïf-an, to drive, has ic dräf, I drove, in the pt. t. sing., ist person, but drif-on throughout the plural; with the pp. drif-en. The reason for this is known, as it is in accordance with Verner's Law ; the weakened vowel is due to the fact that, whereas there was a strong stress on the $\bar{a}$ in $d r \bar{a} f$, the stress in the forms drif-on, drif-en was originally upon the suffix, as shown by the accentuation of the corresponding forms in Sanskrit. For example, the A. S. bit-an, to bite, belonging to the same conjugation, is cognate with the Skt. bhid, to cleave, of which the pp. is bhin-nás (for *bhid-nás). It follows, that the past participle of every A.S. strong verb originally had the accentual stress upon the suffix; and consequently, that these past participles (except in the case of reduplicating verbs) invariably exhibit the weak grade of the root ; and the same grade occurs in the past tense plural of the verbs found in the conjugations to which belong to drive, to choose, and to drink. The verbs to bear and to mete, in the pt. t. pl., have forms peculiar to Teutonic.
§ 214. We have now seen instances in which rs has become $r r$; and it will be instructive to collect examples in which $s$ has become $r$. Verner's Law tells us that this occurs in some past participles of strong verbs, owing to the stress having originally been placed upon the suffix. Thus the A. S. cèosan, to choose, made the pp. cor-en (for *cös-en),
for which chosen was substituted in Mid. E.; so also lëosan, to lose, made the pp. loren, afterwards shortened to lorn, which is still in occasional use; and for-leosan, to lose entirely, made the pp. forloren, now spelt forlorn. So also frēosan, to freeze, made the pp. froren, for which mod. E. has substituted frozen; but Milton has frore, which is froren without the final $n$, and prov. E. has frorn (sometimes written frawn). The $r$ in the mod. E. learn and lore was also once $s$, as the history of those words shows. Learn is from the A. S. leornian, which represents a Teut. type *liznōn, allied to *liz(a)noz, pp. of *leisan, to trace out, of which the regular pt. t. lais actually occurs in Gothic, with the sense 'I know,' i.e. 'I have traced out.' Brugmann also calls attention to the Goth. laisjan (Teut. *laizjan), to teach, which is exactly equivalent to the A. S. lǣrran, to teach (G. lehren), M. E. léren, later lere, to teach, now obsolete. Closely allied to this is the Teut. type *laizā, fem. sb., 'teaching, doctrine,' A. S. lār, E. lore. It should be noted that, in the Goth. causal suffix -jan, the stress was once upon this suffix, not on the rootsyllable, which accounts at once for the change from $s$ to $z$, and from $z$ to $r$. Thus the Skt. $v r t$, to turn, had for its causal form vart-áyāmi, 'I cause to turn,' with the accentual stress on the second short $a$. So also Goth. hausjan (for *hauzjan), to hear, is the same word as the A. S. hieran, hÿran, O. Merc. hēran, to hear (with mutation of au to $\bar{i} e, \bar{y}, \bar{e}$ ), M. E. hēren, E. hear; and the Goth. wasjan, to clothe, is the A.S. werian, to wear clothes (with mutation of $a$ to $e$ ), E. wear. Another causal verb is the verb to raise or to rear, lit. 'to cause to rise.' The former of these (as the preserved $s$ shows) is of Scand. origin. The O. Icel. rīsa, to rise, had the pt. t . reis, 'I rose'; whence was formed ${ }^{1}$ the causal verb

[^17]reis-a, to make to rise, to raise. But the A. S. risan, to rise, had the pt. t. rās, E. rose; whence was formed the causal verb ${ }^{*}$ rāsian, ${ }^{*}$ rāzian, ${ }^{*}$ rārian, A. S. rāran (with mutation of $\bar{a}$ to $\bar{x}$, and loss of $i$ ), E. rear. So that raise and rear are exact equivalents, the former being the Norse, and the latter the native form. The A.S. wesan, to be, gives the pt. t. woes, E. I (or he) was; cf. O. Norse vas, Du. was, Goth. was (but altered in G. to war). The first person plural is Goth. wésum, but A. S. wêron, E. were; cf. O. Norse värum, Du. and G. waren. Compare the A. S. wāt, I know, wit-on, we know, already explained above (§213). The position of the accent in the Gk. $\mu$ röós, 'reward,' is original ; and at once explains the Goth. mizd $\overline{0}$, with the same sense ; the early A. S. form was meord (with $r$ for $z$ ), but another A. S. form was méd, E. meed; apparently for ${ }^{*} m \bar{e} z d-$, with total loss of z. The mod. E. hoard, A. S. hoard, is cognate with the Goth. huzd, 'hoard,' shortened from the Teut. type *huzdom, neuter; this fọm is probably related to the L. cus-t-ōs, a custodian or guardian of treasure ; and both may be derived from the Idg. root *qeudh, to hide, Gk. кeve $\theta-\epsilon \nu$, W. cudd-io, A. S. hȳdan (for *hūd-ian). Other words in which E. r represents an original $s$ are E. bare, allied to Lith. basas, bare-footed; berry, allied to Goth. basi, a berry ; burr (base *burs-), allied to bris-tle; deer, A.S. dëor, Goth. dius, neut., Teut. type *deuzom, neut., Idg. type *dheusom, 'animal,' from the Idg. root *dheus, to breathe. E. ear, A. S. éare, neut., Goth. ausō, Teut. type *auson-, neut.; cf. Lith. ausis, L. auris (for *auzis). E. gore, vb., from A. S. gār, the point of a spear ; Teut. type *gaizoz, masc. ; allied to the Gaulish Latin gaesum, a spear, a javelin. E. hare, A. S. hara, G. hase, Teut. type *hazon-, Idg. type *kason- ; cf. O. Pruss. sasnis (for *kasnis), a hare, Skt. çaç (for *¢asa), a hare. E. mire appears to be from the same root as moss. E. ransack is borrowed from the O. Norse rannsaka, to search a house; from rann, a house, abode, and sak-, allied to N. sockja, A. S. sécan, E. seek.

Here the Icel. rann is for *razn, the same as Goth. razn, which appears in A.S. in the transposed form ærn, whence the compound ber-ern (Luke iii. ${ }^{17}$ ), later bern, which is actually the mod. E. barn, of which the literal sense is 'barley-house', from ber-e, barley (Lowl. Sc. bear), and ærn, abode. E. sear, sere, withered, A.S. sēar, is cognate with the Lith. sausas, dry, Gk. av̉os (for * aaváós), dry ; cf. Skt. çush (for *sush), to dry up. E. twine, sb., A. S. twin, Du. tweern, G. zwirn, are all from a Teut. type *twiz-no- (for *twis-no-), i. e. double ; from the base twis- which occurs in the Goth. prefix twis-, double, L. bis (for *dwis), and in E. twis-t. The very form *twis-no-, Idg. *dwis-no-, occurs in the L. $b \bar{\imath}-n \bar{i}$ (with $-\bar{\imath}$ - for $-i s-$ ).
§ 215. But the commonest example of this substitution of $r$ for $s$ in English is seen in the usual suffix er which denotes the comparative form of an adjective. The E. elder is from the O. Merc. reldra, comparative of ald, old (the A.S. or Wessex form being ieldra or yldra, comparative of eald). These are formed, by mutation, from an older type *ald-ira, with $r$ for $z$, i. e. for *áld-iza; as proved by the appearance of this suffix in Gothic ; cf. Goth. jūh-iza, younger, comp. of $j u g g s\left(={ }^{* j u n g s}\right)$, young, \&c. Lastly, this $-i z a$ is for $-i s-a$, the $-i s$ - being preserved in the Goth. superlative suffix $-i s-t s$ $=$ Gk. -七б-тos, as in $\beta_{\epsilon} \lambda \tau-\iota \sigma \tau o s$, ' best' ; cf. E. -est in young-est. Gothic has also the remarkable forms maiza, 'more,' and maists, 'most,' corresponding to the A. S. māra, more, mēst, most ; showing that the $r$ in more represents a Teut. $z$ (for $s$ ), as in other comparative forms. The Goth. adj. maiza was accompanied by the adverbial form mais, more; which became A. S. $m \bar{a}$, because Old English always dropped a Teut. $s$ when absolutely final. Later, the A. S. māra, adj., and $m \bar{a}$, adv., became M.E. more and mo; and, the adverbial origin of the latter being forgotten, both these forms were used adjectivally, but with an altogether new discrimination, viz. that more was used to express 'larger in size', whilst mo
meant 'greater in number', a distinction which lasted, more or less clearly, till mo became obsolete, and more had to do duty for both. It is highly probable that mo went out of use because it sounded like the 'positive' form of mo-re, to the confusion of its sense. Very clear examples of the old Teut. forms of the comparative and superlative appear in the Goth. batiza, 'better,' and batists, 'best.' The former answers to the A.S. betera, E. better, and the latter to the A.S. betst, E. best; both with mutation of $a$ to $e$ on account of the following $i$. Neither in A. S. nor in Gothic does the positive appear, but the forms evidently depend upon a Teut. base *bat-, with the sense of 'good'; of which the second grade $b \bar{o} t$ occurs in A. S. as a sb., with the sense of 'advantage' or 'profit'; and remains in the E. phrase to boot. Even batoccurs in the Icel. bat-i, sb., improvement, and in the Icel. vb. bat-na, to grow better, improve, whence E. batten, to grow fat.

Perhaps the least obvious example of $r$ for $s$ occurs in the E. near, now used as a 'positive' adjective ; etymologically, it is equivalent to nigher, and is an old comparative. A. S. nēar is the comparative adverbial form due to néah, 'nigh,' and corresponds to the Gothic form nēhw-is in Romans xiii. II: 'nu nēhwis ist naseins unsara,' now is our salvation nearer.

## CHAPTER XV

## INDO-GERMANIC WORDS

§ 216. It can hardly have escaped notice that, in some of the preceding Chapters, in which English has been compared, successively, with Celtic, Lithuanian, and other languages, the same examples have often recurred. Such a word as brother not only occurs in Irish as brathair, but in Russian as $\operatorname{bral}(e)$, and in Persian as birādar. Such words are of especial interest, as they help to connect the various languages of the Indo-germanic family, and to show that they are all akin. A collection of some such words is here appended, though it does not claim to be at all complete. Types marked * are hypothetical. Thus, under Acre, 'Idg. *agros' signifies that such is, hypothetically, the original Indo-germanic type. The Idg. roots, such as *ag, may be found in the List at p. $75^{2}$ of my Etymological Dictionary.
§ 217. Acre. A. S. æecer ; Goth. akrs; L. ager; Gk. àpoós; Skt. ajras; Idg. *agros. Orig. sense (probably) 'pasture'; from the verb which appears as Icel. $a k a$, to drive ; L. agere ; Gk. ä $\gamma \epsilon \mathrm{cl}$; Skt. $a j$ (E. ache). Idg. root *ag.

Am. Idg. type ${ }^{*} e s-m i$, from * $e s$, to be. O. Northumb. am, A. S. eom, Icel. em ; Goth. $i m$; O. Ir. am ; L. $s-u m$ : Gk. $\mathrm{ei}-\mu{ }^{\prime}$; Lith. es-mı̀; O. Slav. jes-mi; O. Pruss. as-mai; Arm. em; Pers. $a m$; Avestic $a h-m i$; Skt. $a s-m i$. Thus $a m$ is ultimately from the Idg. ${ }^{*}$ es-mi.

Apple. A. S. reppel; Irish abhal; W. afal; Lith. obolys; O. Slav. jablüko; O. Pruss. woble.

Are. Idg. type *es-ent-i, from *es, to be. O. Northumb.
ar-on, A.S. s-ind-on, Icel. er-u; Goth. s-ind ; O. Ir. it; L. s-unt; Gk. eio-iv; Avestic h-ent-i; Skt. s-ant-i. Note O. Northumb. aron, Goth. sind; both from the Idg. *esenti.

Arm. A. S. earm; Goth. arm-s; L. arm-us, the shoulder ; O. Pruss. irm-o, arm; Russ. ram-o, the shoulder; Arm. arm-ukn, elbow; Avestic arrma-, arm; Skt. ìrm-as.

Axle. Icel. öx-ull, Swed. ax-el; cf. W. ech-el. Dimin. of A. S. eax, axle, axis; L. ax-is; Gk. ä $\xi-\omega \nu$; Lith. asz-ìs ; Russ. os (e) ; O. Pruss. ass-is; Avestic $a^{y}-a-$; Skt. $a k^{\zeta} \zeta$-as.
§ 218. Be. A. S. bēon, to be; O. Ir. bobi, he was; W. bod, to be; Lith. $b u$-ti, to be; O. Slav. $b y-t i$, to be; L. fo-re, pt. t. $f u-\bar{\imath}, \mathrm{I}$ was; Gk. фv́-oдat, I become ; Pers. $b \bar{u}$-dan, to be ; Skt. $b h \bar{u}$, to be ; Idg. root *bheu.

Bear, verb. A.S. ber-an; Goth. bair-an ; O. Ir. ber-im, I bear; Russ. $b r$-at $(e)$, to carry; Arm. ber-em, I bring, carry; L. fer-re; Gk. ф́́p-єıv ; Pers. bur-dan, to carry ; Skt. bhar-ati, he bears. Idg. root *bher.

Beaver. A. S. beofor; Corn. bef-er; Lith. bebrus; Russ. bobr'; L. fiber; Avestic bawris'; Skt. babhrus, a large ichneumon. Idg. type *bebhrus.

Bid, to command. A. S. bēod-an; Goth. biud-an; Lith. baud-ž̀iù, I punish, exhort; Gk. $\pi \epsilon \dot{v} \theta$-o $\mu a \imath, \pi v \nu \theta$-ávo $\mu a t, ~ I ~ a s k, ~$ learn, understand ; Skt. budh, to understand. Cf. E. bode.

Bind. A. S., Goth. bind-an; Lith. bend-ras, a partner with another, companion; L. of-fend-ix, a band; Gk. $\pi \in i \sigma-\mu a$, a rope, $\pi \epsilon \nu \theta$ - $\epsilon$ ós, a father-in-law ; Pers. bastan, to bind, bandī, captivity ; Skt. bandh (for *bhandh), to bind. Idg. root *bhendh.

Birch. A.S. beorc, birce; O. Pruss. berse; Lith. berzas; Russ. berëza; O. Slav. brěza; L. frax-inus, an ash; Skt. bhürjas, a kind of birch.

Botтом. A. S. botm ; Irish bonn, sole of the foot; W.bon, base, stock ; L. fundus ; Gk. $\pi v \not \theta \mu \eta \nu$; Pers. bun, basis, foundation; Avestic buna-, ground ; Skt. budhnas (for *bhudhnas), bottom.

Bough. A. S. bōh, orig. an arm (hence, arm of a tree);

## ERRATA

Page 184 line 20 for *bebhrus read *bhebhrus Page 186 line 22 before root insert Idg.

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Icel. $b \overline{0} g-r$, shoulder, bow of a ship; Gk. $\pi \bar{\eta} \chi$-vs, the fore-arm ; Pers. $b \bar{a} z \bar{u}$, the arm; Skt. bāhus, the arm.

Brother. A. S. brōðor; Goth. brōthar; Irish brathair; W. brawd; L. fräter; Gk. фрáтทр, one of a tribe; Lith. broterèlis, little brother; O. Pruss. brote; O. Slav.bratrŭ ; Russ. brat'; Arm. eגbair; Pers. birādar; Avestic brātā; Skt. bhrātā.

Brow. A. S. brū; Gk. ì-фpú-s; Lith. bruze-is; O. Slav. obrŭvй, brŭvı̆; Russ. brov(e); Pers. abrū ; Skt. bhrūs.
§ 219. Chin. A. S. cin; Goth. kinn-us, the cheek ; Irish gin, mouth; W. gên, jaw, chin, mouth; L. gen-a, cheek; Gk. $\gamma^{\epsilon} \nu-v s$, chin ; Lith. žan-das, jaw ; Pers. zanakh; Skt. hanus.

Сhoose. A. S. cèosan; Goth.kiusan; L.gus-tāre, to taste; Gk. $\gamma \in \dot{v}$-opau, I taste, $\gamma \in v \sigma$-тós, tasted; Skt. jush, to relish. Idg. root *geus.

Crane. A. S. cran; W. and Bret. garan; L. grūs; Gk. ク́єpavos; Lith. garnys, a stork; O. Slav. žeravı̌; Russ. žuravl(e); Arm. krunk.

Cow. A. S. $c \bar{u}$; Irish bó; W. buww; Russ. gov-iado, oxen ; Lettish giows; L. bō-s; Gk. ßov̂-s; Arm. kov; Pers. gāw ; Skt. gaus. The initial sound was, originally, that of the Idg. labio-velar $g$.
§ 220. Daughter. A. S. dohtor; Goth. dauhtar ; Lith. duktè ; Russ. doch(e) ; Gk. बvyárnן ; Arm. dustr ; Pers. dukhtar ; Skt. duhitā.

Day. A. S. $d æ g$; Goth. dag-s ; allied to Irish daigh, fire, dagh-aim, I burn; L. fau-illa, ashes; Lith. dag-as, hot time, autumn, deg-ù, I burn; O. Pruss. dagis, summer ; Pers. dāgh, scar (of a brand); Skt. dah, to burn, dāh-as, great heat. Idg. type *dhaghos.

Do. A.S. $d \bar{o}-n$, to put, to do; L. - $d \bar{o}$ (in con-dō, I put together); Gk. $\tau i-\theta \eta-\mu \imath$; Lith. dè-mi, I place; O. Slav. dề-ti, to put, place; Avestic and O. Pers. root $d \bar{a}$-, to set, establish ; Arm. $e-d i$, I placed ; Skt. $d h \bar{a}$, to set, put. Idg. root * $d h e \bar{e}$.

Door. A.S. dor, duru; Goth. daur ; O. Irish dorus; W.
drws; L. for-ēs, plural ; Gk. Oúpa ; Lith. dùrys, pl.; Russ. dver(e); Alban. derє; Pers. dar ; Skt. dvār.

Dough. A. S. dāh; Goth. daig-s, a kneaded lump; allied to L. fing-ere, to fashion, fig-ulus, a potter; Gk. тєíX-os, toî $\chi$-os, a wall (orig. of earth); Arm. dēz, a heap; Avest. pairidaeza, a place walled round, enclosure, park (paradise); Pers. dizh, daz, diz, a fortress, city ; Skt. dēh-ī, a rampart; dēh-as, a mass. Idg. type *dhoighos.
§ 221. EAr. A. S.ēare; Goth. auso; O. Ir. ō; O. Pruss. ausins; Lith. ausis; Russ. ucho; L. auris ; Gk. ov̉s; Avest. $u s ̌ i$, the two ears, hence, intelligence ; Pers. hüsh, understanding. Idg. bases *ōus, *aus.

Ear, vb., to plough. A. S. er-ian; Goth. ar-jan; Lith. ar-ti; Russ. or-at(e) ; Irish ar-aim, I plough; W. ar, ploughed land ; L. ar-āre; Gk. ảoóc, I plough. Idg. root *ar.

East. A.S. ēas-t; Lith. ausz-ra, dawn; L. aur-ōra, dawn ; Gk. $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ - $\omega$ s, Æolic av゙-ws, dawn ; Skt. ush-as, dawn. Idg. base *aus-.

Eat. A. S. et-an; W. ys-u (for *ed-tu), to devour; L. ed-ere; Gk. 厄ै $\delta$ - $\omega$, I eat ; Lith. èd-mi, I eat ; Russ. ês-l(e), to eat, éd-a, sb., eating; Arm. ut-em, I eat; Skt. ad, to eat. root *ed.

Eight. A.S. eahta; Irish ocht; W. weyth ; L. octo; Gk. ỏктө́ ; Lith. asztoni; Avest. ashta ; Pers. hasht; Skt. ashtau. Idg. type *oktōu.

Ell (Elbow). A. S. eln, an ell, a cubit (length from the elbow to middle finger-tip), eln-boga, el-bow ; Goth. aleina, ell ; L. ulna, elbow, cubit; Gk. $\begin{gathered}\lambda \\ \iota\end{gathered} \eta$, elbow ; Lith. al-kuné, el-kuné, elbow, fore-arm ; Pers. ar-anj, elbow; Skt. ar-atnis.

Ewe. A. S. eowu ; Ir. oi ; Lith. awìs, sheep; O. Pruss. awins, wether; O. Slav. ovitsa, Russ. ovtsa, sheep ; L. ouis ; Gk. ồis ; Skt. avis. Idg. type *owis.
§ 222. Fare. A. S. faran, to fare, go ; Goth. faran, to go, farjan, to travel ; (perhaps O. Slav. pirati, prati, to fly); L. ex-per-ior, I pass through; Gk. $\pi \epsilon \rho-a_{\omega} \omega$, I cross, traverse ;

Gk. торє́vo $\mu \mathrm{t} \boldsymbol{\imath}, \mathrm{I}$ travel ; Skt. pr, to bring across, causal pāraya, to conduct. Idg. root *per (*por).

Father. A. S. freder; Goth. fadar; O. Ir. athir (for ${ }^{*}$ patir) ; L. pater; Gk. $\pi a \tau \eta \dot{\rho} ; ~ A r m . ~ h a i r ; ~ P e r s . ~ p i d a r ; ~$ O. Pers. pitā ; Skt. pitā.

Feather. A. S. feder; allied to O. Irish ên (for *petn), a bird, W. adar, O. W. atar (for *petar), birds, W. aderyn, O. W. eterinn, a bird ; L. penna (for *petna, *petsna), a wing, pet-ere, to seek, attack (fly at); Gk. $\pi$ éтоцаи, I fly, $\pi \tau \epsilon \rho \dot{\partial} \nu$, a wing; Skt. patram, a wing. From Idg. root *pet, to fly.

Five. Idg. type *penq(w)e. A. S. fif (for *fimf) ; Goth. fimf; W. pump, O. Ir. coic; L. quinque; Gk. $\pi \in ́ \nu \tau \epsilon$, Æolic $\pi \epsilon ́ \mu \pi \epsilon$; Lith. penkl; Russ. pjat(e) ; Pers. panj; Skt. pañcha.

Fоot. A.S. fōt; Goth. föt-us; Lith. pad-as, sole of the foot; O. Slav. podŭ, the ground; Russ. pod", a hearth; L. pes (gen. ped-is); Gk. $\pi$ oús (gen. $\pi$ ofós); Doric $\pi \omega$ 's ; Arm. otn (for *hot-n, from ${ }^{*} p o t-n$ ), a foot ; Pers. $p \bar{a} \imath$; Skt. $p \bar{a} d-a m$, acc., foot. Idg. base *ped (*pod, *pöd).

Foul. A. S. $f u \bar{u}-l$, allied to Icel. $f \bar{u}-i n n$, rotten ; Lith. pul-er, pl., matter in a wound ; pu-ti (I pr. s. puwu), to rot; L. p $\bar{u}-s$, matter, pütēre, to stink; Gk. $\pi \hat{v}-o \nu$, matter, $\pi \dot{v} \theta-\epsilon \iota \nu$, to rot; Pers. pū-sidan, to rot; Skt. pūy, to stink, to be foul.

Four. Idg. type *q(w)etwer-. A. S. fēower; Goth. fidwor (for*hwedwor, see Wright, Goth. Gr., § 134, note); W.pedwar ; O. Ir. cethir ; Lith. keturi; Russ. chetvero; L. quatuor ; Gk.


Frost. A. S. frost, forst, from fréosan, to freeze (Idg. root *preus, (1) to burn, (2) to freeze) ; L. pru-īna (for *prus-wina), frost, prū-na (for *pruz-na), a glowing coal, prūr-īre (for *prūz-ìre), to itch ; Alban. pruš, glowing coals, warmth ; Skt. prusvā, frozen water, ice, plush, to burn.

Full. A.S. full; Goth. fulls (for Teut. *fulnoz); O. Ir. lán ; W. llawn; Lith. pìlnas; Russ. polnyj; L. plēnus ; Gk. $\pi \lambda \eta \dot{p \eta s}$; Pers. pur ; Skt. pūrnas.
§223. Goose. A.S. gōs (for ${ }^{*}$ gans); O. H. G. gans;
O. Ir. geis, a swan; O. Pruss. sansy; Lith. žasis ; L. anser
 gan-der.

Guest. A. S. grest, O. N. gestr ; Goth. gasts; Russ. gost(e), a guest, an alien; L. hostis, a stranger, an enemy. Idg. type *ghostis.
§ 224. Hart. A. S. heor-ot, her-ut; W. car-w, hart, horned animal ; Russ. serna, chamois ; L. ceruus, stag; cf. Gk. кєpaós, adj., horned ; see Horn. Teut. type *herut-, from a base heru-, meaning 'horn '; cf. Gk. кє́ $\rho$-as, horn.

Harvest. From the Idg. root *sqerp, to cut. A. S. hxerfest, autumn, orig. 'crop'; Lith. kerpù, I shear; L. carp-ere, to pluck; Gk. карт-ós, fruit, кр $\omega$ т $-\iota \iota \nu$, a sickle; Skt. kṛpānas, a sword.

Haulm, Halm. A. S. healm, a stalk; O. Pruss. salme, straw ; Russ. soloma, straw ; L. culmus, stalk; Gk. кá入auos, reed (whence L. calamus, W. calaf).

Heart. A. S. heorte; Goth. hairtó; O. Ir. cride, Ir. cridhe; W. craidd ; O. Pruss. seyr ; Lith. szirdis ; Russ. serdtse ; L. cor (gen. cord-is) ; Gk. карঠia, ки̂ן ; Arm. sirt.

Horn. A. S. horn ; L. cornu (whence, perhaps, Ir. and W. corn); allied to Gk. кép-as, horn, кó $-v \mu \beta$ ßos, top, tip (E. corymb) ; Skt. çringam, horn; also to Gk. káp-a, head, Arm. and Pers. sar, head, Skt. çiras, head. See Hart.

Hound. A. S. hund; Ir. cu (gen. con) ; W. ci (pl. ĉon) ; Lith. szui (stem szun-) ; Russ. su-ka, a bitch; L. can-is; Gk. кv́ఱv (gen. кvv-ós) ; Arm. šun; Skt. çvā (gen. çun-as). Also Pers. sag (§ ${ }^{167}$ ).

Hundred. A.S. hund (with suffix -red, i.e. 'rate of counting') ; Ir. cead ; W. cant ; Lith. szimtas ; Russ. sto; L. centum; Gk. éxaтóv; Pers. sad ; Skt. ̧̧atam.
§225. I. A. S. ic ; Goth. ik; O. Norse ek; O. Pruss. es; Lith. asz; Russ. ia ; L. ego; Gk. є́ $\gamma \dot{\omega}, \epsilon \in \notin \omega \dot{\nu}$; Arm. es ; O. Pers. adam; Skt. aham.

Is. A. S. is ; G. ist (from Idg. ${ }_{e s-}-t i, 3$ p. s. pr. of ${ }^{*} e s$, to
be) ; O. Norse es, later er ; Lith. esti, est ; Russ. est(e) ; L. est ; Gk. $\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sigma-\tau i$; Skt. asti. See Am, Are.

Kın. A.S. cynn ; Goth. kuni; Ir. gein, offspring, birth ; W. genid, birth (W. geni, to be born) ; L. genus; Gk. yévos ; Skt. janas. Cf. Pers. zäda, offspring. From Idg. root *gen, to beget.

Knee. A. S. cnèo; Goth. kniu ; L. genu; Gk. yóv ; Pers. $z \bar{a} n \bar{u} ;$ Skt. jānu.

Know. A. S. cnāwan (cf. O. Ir. gnāth, known, accustomed, W. gnawd, a custom) ; Lith. žinōti, to know; Russ. znat(e) ; Pers. dānistan (for *zānistan), to know; Skt. jnā, to know. Cf. L. (g)nōscere, to know, Gk. $\gamma \iota-\gamma \nu \omega ் \sigma \kappa-\epsilon \iota \nu . ~ I d g$. base *gnē (*gnō).
§ 226. Lea. A. S. lēah; Lith. laukas, an open field; O. Pruss. lauks, a lea; L. lücus, a grove (glade, clearing); Skt. lōkas, open space, region ; Idg. type *louqos; from *leuq, to shine.

Lean, verb. A. S. hlǣnan, to make to lean, hlinian, to lean; O. Ir. clóen, sloping ; Lith. szlèti, to lean, szlaitas, a declivity : L. in-clīnāre, to cause to bend; Gk. кגiveıv; Skt. critas, resting upon, cray, to lean on, rest on. From Idg. root *klei.

Lick. A. S. liccian, allied to Goth. bi-laigon, to be-lick; O. Ir. lig-im, I lick ; Lith. lëz-iù, I lick ; Russ. liz-at(e), to lick; L. ling-ere; Gk. $\lambda \epsilon i \chi$ - $\epsilon \nu$; Arm. liz-um, I lick; Pers. līs-īdan, lish-tan, to lick; Skt. lih, rih, to lick. Idg. root *leigh.

Lie, vb., to rest. A.S. licgan; Goth. ligan; O.Ir. laig-im, I lie down, lig-e, a grave; Lith. at-lag-ai, pl., fields lying fallow; Russ. ležat(e), to lie down; L. lec-tus, a bed; Gk. $\lambda \epsilon$ ' $\chi$-os, a bed. Idg. root ${ }^{*} \operatorname{legh}$.

Lief, Love. A. S. lēof, dear, lufu, love; Russ. ljub-it(e), to love, ljub-ov(e), love; L. lubet, libet, it pleases, lubido, libīdo, desire; Skt. lubh, to desire, lōbh-as, a longing for. Cf. Lith. laup-se, praise. Idg. root *leubh.

Life, Live, Leave. A. S. lif, life; libban, to live; be-lif-an, to remain ; $\bar{x} f-a n$, to leave behind. From the Idg. root *leip, to smear, to adhere; Lith. lip-ti ( I s. pr. $\operatorname{limp} p-\bar{u}$ ), to stick to ; Russ. lip-kij, sticky; L. lippus, blear-eyed (as if sticky) ; Gk. $\lambda_{i \pi-o s, ~ f a t, ~ a ̀ \lambda e i \phi \epsilon t \nu, ~ t o ~ s m e a r, ~ a n o i n t ; ~ S k t . ~ l i p, ~}^{\text {i }}$ rip, to anoint.

Light, sb. A. S. lēoh-t; Goth. liuh-ath; O. Ir. loche, lightning, luach-té, white hot (té =hot); W. llug, a gleam, lluch-ed, pl., lightnings; Lith. lauk-as, adj., marked with a blaze (as cattle) ; Russ. luč', a ray; L. lūc-ēre, to shine, lux, light ; Arm. lois, light ; Gk. $\lambda_{\text {evk-ós, white ; Skt. ruch, to shine, }}$ rōk-as, sb., light. From Idg. root *leuq, to shine.

Light, adj., not heavy. A. S. lēoh-t (for *līh-t); Goth. leih-ts (for *lenh-toz); Lith. lengw-as. Without the nasal $n$; Russ. lègk-ij; L. leu-is; Gk. $\epsilon-\lambda a x-v$ s, small ; Skt. lagh-us, ragh-us, active, light. Idg. root *leng(w)h.

Loan. O. Norse lān, a loan, from ljā, to lend. Goth. leihrv-an, to lend; O. Ir. léc-im, léic-im, I leave; Lith. lik-ti, to remain; L. linqu-ere, to leave ; Gk. $\lambda_{\iota \mu \pi \text {-áve } \epsilon \nu, \lambda \epsilon i \pi-\epsilon \epsilon \nu \text {, to }}$ leave, $\lambda_{o u \pi-o ́ s, ~ r e m a i n i n g ~ ; ~ S k t . ~ r i c h, ~ t o ~ l e a v e . ~ F r o m ~ t h e ~ I d g . ~}^{\text {I }}$ root *leiq ${ }^{w}$.

Loud. An initial $h$ has been lost. A. S. $h l \bar{u}-d$; O. Ir. cloth, renowned (cf. W. clod, fame) ; L. in-clu-tus, renowned, from clu-ere, to hear ; Gk. $\kappa \lambda v$-тós, renowned, $\kappa \lambda \hat{v}-\epsilon \iota \nu$, to hear ; Skt. cru-tas, heard, from çru, to hear. Cf. W. clywed, to hear ; O. Slav. sluti, to be renowned; Arm. lu (for *klu), audible; Pers. surūd, melody, song. Allied to E. listen. Idg. root ${ }^{*} k l e u$.
§ 227. Mark, a march, limit, boundary (more commonly $\mathrm{M}_{\text {ARch, }}$ from A. F. marche, O. H. G. marcha). A. S. mearc; Goth. marka; O. Ir. mruig, bruig, Ir. bru, border; W. bro, country, region; L. margo, boundary (whence E. margin); Pers. marz, a region.

Marrow. A.S. mearh; O. Pruss. musgeno; Russ. mozg' ; Avest. mazga-; Pers. maghz; Skt. majjā. Idg. base *mazg.

Me. A. S. mé, mec, acc. ; Ir. and W. mi, me ; Lith. manes, gen., man, dat., mane, acc.; Russ. menja, gen. and acc., mnê, dat. ; L. mei, gen., mihi, dat., mē, acc.; Gk. $\epsilon \mu o v ̂, \mu o \hat{v}, ~ g e n ., ~$
 gen. ; mahyam, mē, dat., mām, mā, acc.

Mead, a honeyed drink. A. S. medu; Ir. mid ; W. medd ; Lith. middus; Russ. med', Gk. $\mu^{\prime} \theta^{\prime} v$; Pers. may, wine ; Avest. maঠu, honey; Skt. madhu. Idg. type *medhu.

Meed. A. S. méd, meord; Goth. mizdō; Russ. mzda, meed, gain; Gk. $\mu \sigma \sigma$ ós, pay ; Pers. muzd, wages ; Skt. mīdham (for *mizdham), reward.

Mrd. A. S. midd; Goth. midjis ; Ir. mid- (as in mid-nogt, midnight) ; Russ. meždu, prep., between; L. medius; Gk. $\mu^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sigma o s$, Æol. $\mu^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \sigma \sigma o s ;$ Pers. míyān, the middle, the waist; Skt. madhyas, adj. Idg. type *medhios.

Milk, vb. A. S. melcan, str. vb.; O. Ir. blig-im, I milk; L. mulg-ère; Gk. $a_{-}-\mu \epsilon \lambda \gamma-\epsilon \iota \nu$; Lith. milsz-ti, to stroke, to milk; Russ. mel(e)zit(e), to milk, moloko, milk ; Pers. mush-tan, to rub (Richardson), from the Avestic root *marz-, to wipe (Horn); Skt. mrj, causal marj-aya, to wipe, rub, stroke, wipe away, remove. Idg. root *meleg.

Mind. A. S. ge-mynd, memory, mun-an, to think; Goth. ga-munds, remembrance; O. Ir. men-ma, thought, mind; Lith. min-èti, to think upon, at-mintis, remembrance ; Russ. mn-it(e), to think; L. mens (gen. ment-is), mind, me-min-i, I remember ; Gk. $\mu \nu$-áo $\mu a i$, I remember, $\mu \dot{\epsilon} \nu$-os, courage, wrath, $\mu \dot{\epsilon}-\mu o \nu-a$, I wish, yearn; Skt. man, to think, man-as, mind, ma-tis, thought. Idg. root *men.

Moon. A. S. mōna; Goth. mēna; Lith. mènui, moon, month ; Ir. mí, month ; W. mis, month ; Russ. més-jats', moon, month ; L. mensis, month ; Gk. $\mu \dot{\eta} \eta$, moon, $\mu \dot{\eta} \nu$, month ; Pers. māh, moon, month; Skt. mās, moon, month, māsas, month. Idg. root ${ }^{*} m \bar{e}$, to measure ; as the moon measures the months.

Mother. A. S. mōdor ; Ir. and Gael. mathair ; Lith. mote ; Russ. mat(e) ; L. māter; Gk. $\mu \eta{ }_{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta} \rho$; Pers. mādar ; Skt. mātā.
 L. $m \bar{u} s$; Gk. $\mu$ ûs ; Pers. $m \bar{u} s h$; Skt. mūsh-as ; Arm. $m u$-kn (cf. Skt. dimin. mūsh-ikas) ; Alban. mī.

Murder. A. S. morðor, from mord, death ; cf. G. mord, murder, death; O. Ir. marb, dead; W. marw, to die, marw, dead ; L. mor-i, to die, mors, death, mort-uus, dead ; Lith. mir-ti, to die, mirtis, death ; Russ. meret (e), to die, mor', the plague, smert(e) (for *sŭ-mert(e), death; Arm. mer்anim, I die, Arm. mard, a man (lit. ' mortal'); Gk. ßporós, mortal; Pers. murdan, to die, mard, a man; Skt. martas, a mortal, a man; $m r t a s$, dead, $m r t i s$, death, $m r$, to die. Idg. root ${ }^{*} m e r$, to die.
§ 228. Naked. A. S. nacod; Goth. nakwaths; O. Ir. nocht, Ir. nochd, W. noeth; Lith. nogas, older form nugas; Russ. nagoj ; L. nūdus; Skt. nagnas.

Name. A. S. nama; Goth. namō; Gk. ővoua. Also O. Ir. ainm (with a different gradation), W. enve; O. Pruss. emmens ; O. Slav. im६; Russ. imja ; Arm. anun ; Alban. emen. Also L. nōmen; Skt. nāma.
$\mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{Ave}}, \mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{Avel}}$. A. S. nafu (nabu), nafela (nabula); Lettish naba, navel ; O. Pruss. nabis, navel; Skt. nabhyam, nave of a wheel. Also Pers. näf, navel ; Skt. nābhis, nave, hub, also navel. Also (with a different gradation) O. Ir. imbliu, imliu, navel ; L. umbilīcus, navel, umbō, the boss of a shield; Gk.


New. A. S. nīree, nēowe; Goth. niujis; O. Ir. nuie, núide, Ir. and Gael. nuadh; W. neweydd; Lith. naujas ; Russ. novyj; O. Pruss. nawans ; L. nouus ; Gk. עéos ; Pers. naw ; Arm. nor ; Skt. navas, navyas.

Night. A. S. niht, neaht; Goth. nahts; O. Ir. nocht, Ir. nochd; W. nos; Lith. naktis; Russ. noch(e) ; L. nox (gen. noctis) ; Gk. víg (gen. vvкт-ós) ; Alban. nate ; Skt. nakti-, f. Idg. base *noq-t-.

Nine. A. S. nigon; Goth. niun ; O. Ir. nói (n) ; Ir. naoi; W. naw; O.Pruss. newints, 'ninth'; Lith. dewyni, m. (for *newyni, by the influence of deszimtis, 'ten '); Russ. devjal(e)
(for *nevjat(e), by the influence of desjal(e), 'ten'); L. nouem; Gk. évעéa ; Arm. inn ; Alban. nendє; Pers. muh; Avest. and Skt. nava.

Nose. A.S. nosu, also nasu; L. nārēs, nostrils, nāsus, nose ; Lith. nosis ; Russ. nos'; Skt. nāsā, fem. dual and sing., nostrils, nose. (The gradation varies.)

Now. A.S. $n \bar{u}, n u$; Goth. $n u$; L. $n u-n c$; Gk. $\nu v, \nu v \hat{v}-\nu$; Lith. $n u ̀$; O. Slav. $n y$-nê; Russ. $n y-n \hat{e}$; Skt. $n u, n \bar{u}$.
§ 229. Of, Orf. A. S. of; Goth. $a f$; O. H. G. $a b a, a b$; L. $a b$; Gk. $\dot{a} \pi \delta \delta$; Skt. $a p a$.

Quean. A.S. cwene, a woman (allied to cwèn, queen); Goth. kwinō (allied to kwēns, woman); Ir. ben; W. bun; O. Pruss. genna, woman; Russ. žena; Gk. yvvŋ, Boeotian ßavá; Arm. kin ; Pers. zan; Skt. gnā, a divine woman, allied to janī, a woman. The original initial sound was that of the Idg. labio-velar $g$.

Quick. A.S. cwic, cwicu; allied to the shorter type seen in the Goth. kwius; Ir. beo; W. byw; Lith. gywas; O. Slav. živŭ ; Russ. živoj; L. uīuus; Skt. jivaas. Cf. Gk. ßios, life ; Pers. $z \bar{i}$, life ; zīstan, to live ; jīvah, quicksilver. The initial sound is the same as that in quean (above).
§ 230. Raw. Initial has been lost. A. S. hrēaz. Allied to L. crū-dus, raw ; Skt. krū-ras, sore, cruel ; Ir. cru, blood; W. crau; Lith. kraujas, blood; Russ. krov(e), blood; L. cru-or; Gk. крє́as, raw flesh; Skt. kravyam, raw flesh.

Reave. A. S. rēafian, to despoil, from rēofan, to break; allied to Lith. rupas, rough, uneven, ruple, rough bark on trees; L. rumpere (pp. ruptus), to break; Pers. rubüdan, to seize, to rob; Skt. lup, lump, to seize, to rob (pp. luptas), rup, causal rōpaya, to break off. Idg. root *reup.

Red. A. S. rēad ; Goth. rauds ; Ir. and Gael. ruadh; W. rhudd; Lith. raudà, sb., red colour; Russ. ruda, blood; Pol. rudawy, red ; L. ruber ; Gk. є́pvepós; Skt. rudhiras. From the Idg. root * reudh, to be red.

Right. A.S. riht; O. Merc. reht; Goth. raihts; O. Ir.
recht, sb., right, law, rig-im, I stretch out; W. rhaith, sb., right ; L. rectus, pp. of regere, to rule ; Lith. ražyti, to stretch out ; Gk. ó $\rho \in ́ \gamma \epsilon \iota$, to stretch out ; Skt. rjus, straight, right, just. From the Idg. root *reg, to stretch out, straighten, rule.
§ 231. Same. A. S. same, adv., sam-, prefix, together; Icel. samr, adj., same ; Goth. sama, same, samana, together ; O. Ir. samail, a like shape, Ir. samhail, similar; W. hafal, similar; L. similis, like; Gk. ó ós, same, ó $\mu \mathrm{a}$ ós, like, ä $\mu a$, together; Russ. sam', self; Pers. ham, likewise ; hamān, only, that same, hamānā, like, again ; hāmūn, a (desert) plain; Skt. samas, similar, like, smooth, level ; samānas, similar; sam, together.

Seven. A. S. seofon, sibun ; Irish seacht, O. Ir. secht n- ; W. saith; Lith. septyni; O. Slav. sedmı̆; Russ. sem(e) ; L. septem ; Gk. énrá ; Arm. evt'n ; Alban. štate; Pers. haft; Avest. hapta; Skt. sapta. Idg. type *septom or *sepṭ̣.

Sew. A. S. sizvian; Goth. siujan; L. suere; Gk. - $\sigma$ vetv in ка $\sigma-\sigma v_{\epsilon} \epsilon \nu$, to sew together ; Lith. siuti; Russ. shit (e) ; Skt. siv. Idg. root *sieu or *siu.

Sister. A. S. sweostor ; Icel. systir ; Goth. swistar; O. Ir. siur, fiur ; W. chwaer ; O. Pruss. swestro ; Lith. sesi; O. Slav. and Russ. sestra ; L. soror ; Arm. k'oir ; Pers. kh'āhar ; Skt. svasā.

Sit. A. S. sittan ; Goth. sitan; W. seddu; Lith. sedèti; O. Slav. sedlo, a saddle, sésti, to sit; Russ. sêst(e) (i p. s. pr. sjadu); L. sedēre; Gk. ${ }^{\text {ésonat, I sit; Pers. ni-shastan, to sit }}$ down ; Skt. sad, to sit. Idg. root ${ }^{*}$ sed.

SIx. A. S. six ; Goth. saihs; O. Ir. sé; W. chwech; Lith. szeszi; Russ. shest(e) ; L. sex; Gk. ${ }^{\prime} \xi$; Pers. shash; Skt. shash. Idg. types *sweks, *seks.

Speed. A. S. spēd, from spō̃-an, to succeed ; Lith. spè- $t i$, to have opportunity; O. Slav. spê-ti, to succeed, Russ. spé-l(e), to ripen ; L. spē-s, hope, spa-tium, room, space; Skt. sphāy, to grow fat, increase; sphātis, increase, prosperity. Idg. root *spè, to increase.

Spurn. A. S. spurn-an, to kick against; Lith. spir-ti, to push against, kick; L. spern-ere; Gk. $\sigma \pi a i \rho-\epsilon \iota \nu$, to struggle ; Pers. sipardan, to trample on; Skt. sphur, to throb, to struggle. Idg. root *spher, *sper.

Stand.. A. S. standan, pt. t. stōd (base *sta-d) ; Lith. stat-yli, to place, set, sto-ti, to stand; Russ. stojat(e), to stand ; L. stä-re; Gk. $\begin{gathered}\text { é- } \sigma \tau \eta-\nu, ~ I ~ s t o o d ~ ; ~ P e r s . ~ s i t a ̄-d a n, ~ t o ~ s t a n d ~ ; ~ S k t . ~\end{gathered}$ sthā, to stand. Idg. root *sthā, *stā.

Star. A. S. steorra; Goth. stair-nō; Corn. steren, W. seren ; L. stel-la (for *ster-la); Gk. à-aríp; Arm. astt; Pers. sitāra; Skt. tārā.

Steer, a young ox. A. S. stēor ; Goth. stiur ; O. Pruss. taur-is, a bison; Russ. tur', aurochs; L. taur-us, a bull; Gk. тav̂pos; Pers. sutūr, an animal; Avest. staora-, a steer; Skt. sthūras, sthūlas, large, bulky.

Stream. A. S. stréam; Icel. straum-r (from the Idg. root *sreu) ; O. Ir. sruaim, sru-th, stream; W. fr $w-d$; Lith. sraw-èti, to flow; Russ. struja, a stream ; Gk. $\rho \in \hat{\imath}-\mu a$, a flow, flux, rheum, from $\rho \dot{\rho} \epsilon-\epsilon \iota \nu$ (for * $\sigma \rho \epsilon \in-\in \epsilon \nu$ ), to flow; Pers. rūd, O. Pers. rauta-, a river ; Skt. srōtas, a stream, river, sru-tas, flowing, streaming, pp. of sru, to flow. Idg. root *sreu.

Sweat. A. S. sw̄̈ét-an, verb, from swāt, sb. ; W. chwŷs, sb. ; Lettish swëd-ri, pl., sweat ; L. sūd-or, sb., sūd-äre, vb. ; Gk. $i \delta-\rho \dot{s} s$, sb. ; $i \delta i \omega$, I sweat ; Arm. k'irtn (for *k'idrn), sb. ; Skt. svèd-as, sb., from svid, to sweat. Idg. root *sweid.

Sweet. A. S. swëte (for *swöti-), adj. ; swōt-e, adv. sweetly ; Goth. sūt-s ; L. suā-uis (for *suād-uis); Gk. $\mathfrak{\eta} \delta$-v́s; Skt. svād-us, from svad, to be palatable. Idg. root *swad.

Swine, Sow. A. S. swin, a pig; sugu, sū, a sow; Goth. swein, a swine ; Ir. suig, a pig; W. hwoch; L. sūs, a sow, suinus, adj., related to swine ; Gk. îs, a sow; Russ. svin(e)ja, a swine, svinoj, swinish, svinka, a pig; Avest. $h \bar{u}$, a boar; Pers. khūk, a hog, sow, pig; Skt. sū-karas, a boar. Idg. root ${ }^{*}$ seu.
§232. Tame. A. S. tam ; Bret. and W. dof; W. dof $-i$,
to tame; L. dom-āre, to tame; Gk. $\delta a \mu-a ́ \epsilon \iota$, to tame ; Pers. dâm, a tame animal; Skt. dam, to tame.

Tear, vb. A.S. ter-an; W. dar-n, a fragment; Russ. $d r-a t(e)$ (1 p. s. pr. $d e r-u$ ), to tear ; Lith. dir-ti, to flay ; Gk. $\delta \epsilon \rho-\epsilon \iota \nu$, to flay ; Pers. dar-ìdan, to tear ; Skt. dir-nas, pp. cleft, rent, torn, dar-ì, f., a cleft. Idg. root *der.

Tear, sb. A.S. tearar, teagor; O. Northumb. wher; Goth. tagr ; O. Ir. dér ; W. dagr ; O. L. dacruma, L. lacrima; Gk. סákpv, đáкрг $\mu$ a.

Ten. A.S. $t \bar{y} n$; O. Merc. tèn ; Ir. and Gael. deich; W. deg; Lith. deszimti; Russ. desjat(e) ; L. decem; Gk. סéка; Arm. tasn; Alban. $\delta j e t \epsilon ;$ Pers. dah; Skt. daça. Idg. type *dekam.

That. A.S. pret, n., the ; Goth. pata, n., that ; Lith. tas, m., ta, f., the ; tai, that ; Russ. tot (e) (f. ta, n. to), that ; L. -tud (in is-tud, that); Gk. ró, n., the ; Skt. tad, it, that.

Thatch, sb. A. S. prec; O. Ir. tech, a house, Ir. teagh, Gael. teach, tigh, W. ty ; Lith. steg -ti, to thatch, stog-as, a thatch; L. teg-ere, to cover, tog-a, a garment; Gk. $\tau \in \gamma-o s$, $\sigma \tau \epsilon$ ' - os, a roof, $\sigma \tau \epsilon \mathcal{\gamma}-\epsilon \iota \nu$, to cover; Skt. sthag, to cover. Idg. root, *stheg, *steg, sometimes shortened to *teg.

Thin. A. S. pynne; W. teneu; Ir. and Gael. tana; O. Slav. tı̈nŭkŭ; Russ. tonkij; L. tenuis; Gk. tavaós; Pers. tunuk, slender ; Skt. tanus. From the Idg. root *ten, to stretch.

Thirst. A. S. pyrst, purst, sb., pyrst-an, vb.; Goth. thaurstei, sb. ; Ir. tart, thirst, tir, (dry) land; W. tir, land; cf. L. terr-a (for *ters-a), land, earth, torr-ère (for *tors-ēre), to dry up, scorch; Gk. $\tau \in \rho \sigma$-ouat, I become dry, $\tau a \rho \sigma o ́ s, ~ a ~ f r a m e ~$ on which to dry things ; Arm. $t^{\prime}$ arshami-m, I wither, become dry; Pers. tish-na, thirsty; Avestic tarsh-na-, thirst; Skt. $t r s h$, to be thirsty, trrshā, tr sh $\nsim \bar{a}$, thirst. From the Idg. root *ers.

Thou. A.S. $p \bar{u}$ : Goth. thu; Ir. and Gael. $t u$; W. $t i$; Lith. tù ; O. Slav. and Russ. ty ; L. tü ; Gk. $\sigma$ v́, Doric rv́; Arm. $d u$; Alban. $t i$; Pers. and Avest. $t \bar{u}$; Skt. tvam.

Three. A. S. prēo; Goth. threis ; Ir., Gael., W. tri; Lith.
trys; Russ. tri; L. très (n. tria); Gk. трєîs (n. тpia); Arm. erek' $^{\prime}$ (for ${ }^{*}$ trek' $^{\prime}$; Pers. sih, Avest. brāyö; Skt. trayas, masc. pl. Idg. type *treyes, n. pl. m.

Timber. A. S. timber, building material, whence timbrian, to build; Goth. timrjan, to build (from *timr-) ; O. Ir, dam, in dam-liag, a stone house, stone church ; Russ. dom', a house ; L. dom-us, a house; Gk. $\delta o ́ \mu-o s$, a house, $\delta \epsilon ́ \mu-\epsilon \iota \nu$, to build; Skt. dam-as, a house. From the Idg. root *dem, to build.

Tooth. A.S. tō (for *ton ${ }^{\prime}$ ); Goth. tunthus (from the weak grade); O. Ir. dét; W. dant; Lith. dant-ìs; L. dens (gen. dent-is) ; Gk. ỏdoús (gen. o̊ óóvr-os) ; Arm. a-tamn; Pers. dand-ān; Avest. dant-an-; Skt. dan, nom. m., acc. dant-am, later dantas, nom. m.

Tree. A. S. trēo, trēow, tree, timber; Goth. triu; O. Ir. dair, daur (gen. darach), Ir. darag, oak; W. derw, oak ; Lith. derwa, pinewood ; Russ. drevo, tree ; Gk. $\delta \rho \hat{\text { v̂s, tree, oak, } \delta o ́ \rho v, ~}$ spear; L. larix (for *darix), a larch; Alban. dru, wood; Pers. dār, wood, beam, tree (Richardson); Avest. dāuru, wood ; Skt. dāru, wood, a deodar.

Tuesday. A.S. Tizves dæg, the day of Tiw, the god of war. (The divinity Tize signified the same as the L. Mars, but the word is allied formally to L. deus and to Ju-piter ; also to L. diès, day.) O. Ir. in-diu, to-day, día, day; W. dyw, day ; O. Pruss. deizes, God (gen. deizv-as) ; Lith. dërv-as, God; Russ. divo, a wonder, miracle ; L. deus, God, dîu-us, Godlike ; diēs, day; Diès-piter, Iū-piter, Jupiter; Gk. Zeús (gen. $\Delta t$-ós), Jupiter, Zeus; Arm. tiv, day ; Pers. dèv, a demon ; Skt. dêvas, adj., godlike, sb., God, divā, by day, divyas, celestial, dyaus, sky, day. Idg. root *dyeu, *deizu, to shine (Uhlenbeck).

Two, Twarn. A. S. twegen, m., twā, f. and n.; Goth. twai, two ; Ir. and Gael. dá ; W. dau; Lith. dwi; O. Pruss. dwai; Russ. $d v a$; L. duo; Gk. $\delta$ óo, $\delta v v^{\omega}$; Pers. dū ; Skt. dvau, m., $d v \bar{e}, \mathrm{f}$. and n .
§ 233. Udder. A.S. ūder ; O. H. G. ūtar ; Lith. udróti, vb., to have a full udder ; L. ūber; Gk. ov̉Өap; Skt. üdhar.

Un-, neg. prefix. A.S. and Goth. $u n-$; Ir. and W. an-; L. in-; Gk. àv-, à-; Arm. an- ; Avest. an-, $a-$; Skt. $a n-, a-$.
§ 234. Warm. A. S. wearm; Ir. gorm, hot, gor-aim, I heat.; W. gzures, heat, warmth; Lith. garas, vapour; O. Pruss. gorme, heat; Russ. gorêt(e), to burn; L. formus, warm ; Gk. $\theta \epsilon \rho \mu$ ós, warm, $\theta \epsilon \in \rho$-opat, I become hot ; Arm. jerm (with $j=d z h$ ), warm ; Pers. garm, warm, garmī, heat; Skt. gharmas, heat. From the Idg. root *gwher, to glow.

Was. A.S. wwes, from wes-an, to be; Goth. was, from wis-an, to be; Ir. fos-aim, I rest, stay, dwell; W. ar-os (for *(p)ara-wos), to stay, wait; L. Ves-ta, goddess of the hearth or household ; Gk. ä $\sigma-\tau v$ (for *Fá $\sigma-\tau v$ ), a dwelling-place, city ; Skt. vas; to dwell. Idg. root *wes.

Water. A.S. woeter ; Goth. watō; O. Ir. fand, a tear ; Lith. wandil, water ; O. Pruss. unds, water; Russ. voda; L. unda, a wave; Gk. vี $\delta \omega \rho$ (gen. v̌ $\delta \dot{a} \pi o s$ ), water ; Arm. get, a river; Skt. ud-an-, water. Idg. root *wed.

Wax, vb., to grow. A. S. weaxan; Goth. wahsjan; allied to O.Ir. ós, uas, over, above ; uassal, uasal (for *oukselos), high ; W. uchel, high; L. aux-ilium, help (from aug-ère, to
 Skt. uksh, to grow up (perf. va-vaksh-a). Idg. root *aweg(w), *weg(w), in L. aug-ēre, with $s$ added.

Weigh, Wain. A.S. weg-an (pt. t. wæg), to carry ; Goth. ga-wig-an, to shake up, move about; Lith. wesz-ti (i pr. s. wezz-u), to carry ; Russ. ves-ti (i pr. s. vez-u), to carry, lead; L. ueh-ere, to carry; Gk. ó $\neq$ є́ $о$ ии, I am carried out; Avest. vazaiti, he carries; Skt. vah, to carry. Hence A. S. worgn, a wain; O. Ir. fén, a car ; Lith. wežimas; L. uehiculum; Gk. ö ${ }^{\prime}$ os ; Skt. vahitram, a boat. Cf. Russ. voz', a load. Idg. root *wegh.

White. A.S. hwīt; Goth. hweeits; Lith. szwidus, swidus, bright, shining ; Skt. çvind, to be white. Cf. also Russ. svêt', light, svêtat(e), to dawn; Avest. spaeta-, white ; Pers. sapid, white ; Skt. ̧vitras, white. Idg. root *kweid.

Who, What. What is the neuter form (A. S. hwoe-t) from $h w a \bar{a}$, who. A. S. hwoā; Goth. hweas; Ir. and Gael. co, who; W. prey, who, pa, py, what ; L. quis (n. quid), who ; Gk. тis (n. ri) ; Lith. kas, m., who (f. ka) ; O. Slav. kŭ-to, who; Russ. kto, who, chto, what ; Pers. chi, what ; Skt. kas, who (Vedic n. kad).

Widow. A. S. widuwe; Goth. widuwō; O. Ir. fedb, Ir. feadhb; W. gweddw; O. Pruss. widdeww ; Russ. vdova; L. uidua; Pers. biva ; Skt. vidhavā. From the Idg. root *widh, to lack.

Will, vb. A.S. willan; Goth. wiljan; Lith. weliti, to propose, to wish, wale, sb., will ; Russ. velêt (e), to order, command, volja, the will ; L. uelle (1 pr. s. uolo) ; Skt. vr, to choose, varas, choice. Idg. root *wel.

Win. A. S. winnan ; allied to W. greén, a smile (of pleasure) ; L. uen-us, desire, uen-erārī, to honour, uen-ia, favour ; Skt. van, to beg, ask for, honour. Further allied to A. S. wèn, expectation, and E. ween ; A. S. wunian, to dwell, and E. wont, custom. Idg. root *wen.

Wind, sb. A. S. wind; Goth. winds ; W. gweynt ; L. uentus. Formed, as a pres. part., from the Idg. root *wē, to blow ; cf. Goth. waian, to blow; O. Slav. véjati, to blow, vêtrŭu, wind ; Russ. vëjat(e), to blow, vêter', wind ; Lith. wèjas, wind; O. Ir. feth, wind; Gk. ä $\eta \mu \mu$, I blow, pres. part. acc. m. ä́ $\ell \nu \tau a$ (for $\vec{a}-F^{\epsilon} \nu \tau-a$ ), blowing ; Pers. bād, wind; Skt. vātas, wind, vā, to blow. Allied also to E. weather.
$\mathrm{W}_{\text {IT }}, \mathrm{vb}$. A. S. witan, to know, wāt, I wot ; Goth. witan, to know, wait, I wot. O. Ir. fiss (for *wid-tu-), knowledge (Stokes) ; L. uīd-ì, I have seen, I wot, pt. t. of uid-ëre, to see; Gk. oiô-a, I wot, from $i \hat{\delta}-\epsilon i v$, to see ; Lith. weizd-mi, I see, perceive, weid-as, the face; Russ. vid-êt (e), to see, vid', the look; véd-al(e), to know; Arm. git-em, I know ; Skt. vid, to perceive, vèd-a, I know. Idg. root *weid.

Withy, Withe. A. S. widig, a willow (hence the sense of pliant rod); W. gwden (from *weit-), a withe ; Lith. wytis,
a willow twig, a withe, žil-wittis, a willow (from zill-as, gray); Russ. vit (e), to wind, to twine, vêtv(e), a twig, vilsa, a withe; L. uìt-is, a vine, ui-ēre, to twine; Gk. ir-éa, a willow; Pers. $b \overline{i d}$, a willow; Skt. vé-tras, a large reed, a cane. From the Idg. root *wei, to wind.

Wool. A.S. wull ; Goth. wulla ; Irish olann ; W. grvlan ; Lith. wilna; Russ. volna [perhaps L. uellus, fleece, or less probably lāna, wool]; Skt. ūrṇā, wool.

Work. A. S. weorc, zeerc ; Gk. "̈py-ov, work, ö $\rho \gamma-$ avov, an implement ; Arm. gorc, work; Pers. warz, gain, acquisition ; warz-ìdan, to practise. Idg. root *werg.

Worth, vb., to become. (Obsolescent.) A. S. weord-an, to become; Goth. wairth-an; W. gwerth-yd, a spindle ; L. uert-ere, to turn; Lith. wart-yti, to turn hither and thither, to turn round; Russ. vert-èt(e), to turn, bore, vert-lo, an auger ; Pers. gash-tan, to turn, to become, gard-ìdan, to become; Skt. vrt, to turn, revolve, also to remain, abide, exist ; vrttis, course of action, conduct. Idg. root *wert.
§ 235. Yard, an enclosed space. A. S. geard, an enclosure; Icel. gardr (whence E. garth) ; Goth. gards, a house; O. Irish gort, a field, lub-gort, a garden ; L. hortus; Gk. ұópros, a court-yard. Idg. root *gher, to hold.

Ye. A.S. gé, nom., ye ; èower, gen., of you (whence your) ; èorw, dat. and acc., you; Goth. jūs, ye; Lith. jus, ye; Gk. $\dot{v}-\mu \mathrm{Ei} s$, ye ; Skt. $y \bar{u}-y a m$, ye.

Year. A. S. gēar, gèr; Goth. jèr ; Russ. jar(e), springcorn ; Bohem. jar, spring ; Russ. jarka, a yearling ewe ; Avest. $y \bar{a} r$-, year; Gk. $\tilde{\omega}^{\omega} \rho-o s$, a season, year, $\omega \rho-a$, season, hour. Cf. Skt. yā-tam, a course, past time.

Yearn, to long for. A.S. giern-an, from georn, adj., desirous ; Goth. gairnjan, from -gairns, desirous (Teut. root *ger). Allied to L. horior, I encourage, hor-tārī, to exhort; Gk. $\chi^{a \rho-a ́, ~ j o y, ~ \chi a i \rho-\epsilon \nu \nu, ~ t o ~ r e j o i c e ~ ; ~ S k t . ~ h a r y, ~ t o ~ d e s i r e . ~ I d g . ~}$ root *gher, to desire.

Yeast. A.S. gist; Du. gest, gist; W. ias, that which
pervades, $i a s-u$, to pervade with a quality; Gk. $\zeta \boldsymbol{\xi}-\epsilon \epsilon \nu$ (for * $\zeta \dot{\epsilon} \sigma-$ $\epsilon \iota \nu)$, to boil, $\zeta \epsilon \sigma-\tau o ́ s$, boiled, boiling hot; Skt. yas, yas-ya, to bubble, boil, heat oneself. Idg. root *yes, to ferment or boil.

Yellow. A. S. geolu; Lith. želweys, a green stem, žel-ti, to become green, zal-as, green ; Russ. zel-ie, herbs, zel-enyj, green; Gk. $\chi^{\lambda-o ́ \eta, ~ y o u n g ~ v e r d u r e ~ o f ~ t r e e s ~(a l l i e d ~ t o ~ G k . ~} \chi^{0 \lambda-\eta}$, gall, L. fel, E. gall); Skt. haris, yellow, hari-tas, greenish, yellowish. Idg. root *ghel.

Yoke. A.S. geoc; Goth. juk; W. iau; Lith. jung-as; Russ. ig-o; L. iug-um; Gk. گvy-óv ; Skt. yuģ-am. Cf. Skt. $y u j$, to join or yoke together ; L. iung-ere, to join. Idg. root *yeug.

Young. A. S. geong, giung; Goth. juggs (written for *jungs) ; Teut. *yung-oz, short for *yuwung-oz. Cf. L. iuuenc-us, a young heifer; W. ieuanc, young. Also (from the base *yuwen-), L. iuuen-is, young; Russ. junyj (with initial $j=y$ ).

## CHAPTER XVI

## SOME RESULTS

§ 236. The previous Chapter furnishes some interesting results. We find that many words were known to several of the Indo-germanic groups, and are to be found in Asia as well as Europe. We can, to a certain extent, distribute them into categories, as follows.
(a) Terms of relationship, and the like:-brother, daughter, father, mother, sister ; kin, widow. We may here add :guest, quean.
(b) Parts of the body, and the like :--arm, brow, chin, ear, elbow, foot, heart, knee, marrow, navel, nose, tooth ; tear, sb., udder (of a cow).
(c) Birds and animals :-beaver, crane, cow, ewe, goose, hart, hound, mouse, sow (swine), steer; feather (of a bird), horn (of an animal), wool.
(d) Seasons:-day, harvest, night, year. Natural objects, and the like :-apple, birch, bough, east, frost, haulm, light, moon, star, stream, tree, water, wind, withy (withe).
(e) Home and employments:-acre, axle, door, dough, lea, mark (a boundary), mead, nave (of a wheel), thatch, timber, wain, work, yard (a court), yeast, yoke.
( $f$ ) Miscellaneous substantives:-bottom, life, loan, love, meed, mind, murder, name, speed, sweat, thirst.
$(g)$ Some adjectives:-foul, full, lief, light, loud, mid, naked, new, quick, raw, red, right, same, sweet, tame, thin, warm, white, yellow, young.
( $h$ ) Numerals :-eight, five, four, hundred, nine, one, seven, six, ten, three, two.
(i) Pronouns:-I, me, that, thou, what, who, ye (you). Adverb :-now. Preposition :-of (off).
( $k$ ) Verbs :-am, are, be, is, was. Also :-bear, bid, bind, choose, do, ear (plough), eat, fare, know, lean, lick, lie (recline), live, milk, reave, sew, sit, spurn, stand, tear, wax (grow), weigh; will, win, wit, work, worth (become), yearn.
§ 237. This list is obviously imperfect, but it may suffice to give at least a general idea of the nature of the words that were most widely spread. Further information can easily be obtained from works that deal particularly with the civilization of the Indo-germanic peoples. This is hardly the place to enter into fuller particulars; otherwise, many words might be discussed having reference to interesting objects. To take a single obvious omission, I have not given the name for the horse, because the word 'horse ', though allied to the Lat. curs-us, a course, and curr-ere, to run, is not known outside the Teutonic languages. Nevertheless, there was a wide-spread name for it, showing that the animal was familiar to all the Indo-germanic tribes. We find, e. g. the Skt. açvas, Pers. asp, Gk. ǐkos, ïттоs, L. equus (fem. equa), O. Ir. ech, Gael. each, W. eb-ol, dimin., a colt; Lith. aszzwa, f., a mare, Goth. aihwa-, in the comp. aihwa-tundi, a 'horse '-bramble, i.e. a rough bramble, A.S. eoh, eh. But the A. S. name was only used in poetry; in common language the name was hors, which superseded the earlier synonym. Perhaps the form eoh (or eh) had become too attenuated; it represents an early Teut. type *ehw-oz, and the form that resulted from the loss of the nom. suffix -oz was not a happy one.
§ 238. I have also purposely omitted the word eye, owing to the uncertainty of its etymology. The L. oc-ulus, Russ. $o k-o$, Lith. $a k-i s$, Skt. $a k-s h i$, Arm. $a k-n$, 'eye,' suggest a Goth. equivalent *ago. But the actual Goth. form is aug. $\bar{o}$; and as the Teut. $a$ and $a u$ are never found to belong to varying gradations of the same vowel-sound, we cannot admit of any connexion (as to sound) between the Latin and
the Teutonic forms. An ingenious suggestion has been made that the orig. Teut. *agō was altered to aug $\bar{o}$ by association with the Goth. ausō, the ear. But this must remain a mere conjecture, from the nature of the case.
§ 239. I now pass on to a new consideration. It has been shown above, in Ch. XIII, that there is a considerable number of English words that have their equivalents in Sanskrit. It is true that Sanskrit is no longer a spoken language, but it has given rise to a large number of living words in the modern dialects of India. It follows that we ought to find in India, even at the present day, a goodly number of English words, or rather, their equivalents. The corresponding words are, however, necessarily much disguised, both by the 'soundshifting' from which the Teutonic languages once suffered, and from a difference of vocalization. The Englishman who listens to the talk of a native of India would probably fail, in almost every case, to perceive any relationship to his native tongue ; but the student of philology can nevertheless detect it, and the enquiry is of much interest. This subject has, in fact, been considered in 'Five Lectures delivered at the Queen's College, Benares, by C. M. Mulvany, M.A., B.Litt., sometime Fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford. Benares, published by the author; 1911.' Mr. Mulvany has been so good as to send me a copy of this book, because one of the authorities which he used was my Etymological Dictionary. He says that he has 'conveyed' his results from Brugmann, Fick, Horn, Prellwitz, Kluge, and others; and I now beg leave to 'convey' examples from his work to mine. The words which he gives are all to be found, he tells us, in Platt's Dictionary of Urdu and Hindi, and he calls them Hindi; but I only include such as are also given in the old HindustaniEnglish Dictionary by D. Forbes, LL.D., London, 1848. In nearly every case Forbes gives just the same words, with the same spellings. The numbers included below in a parenthesis refer to the pages of Mr. Mulvany's book.
§ 240. The H. (Hindi) $b h$ corresponds to the Skt. $b h$, and becomes $b$ whenever the Skt. $b h$ does so ; § 184. The following are examples of E . and H . equivalents :-
E. bind; H. bäñdhnā, to tie ; Skt. bandh, to bind, to tie (91).
E. bough; A.S. bōh, orig. 'arm' ; H. bā̀nh, the upper arm ; Skt. bähus, arm (87).
E. brother ; H. bhǟ ; Skt. base bhrātr (5).
E. brow; H. bhaun, eyebrow; Skt. bhrüs (14).
E. brown ; H. bhūrā, brownish; Skt. ba-bhrus (89).

The following are closely connected:-
E. $b e$; H. bhay $\bar{a}$, was; Skt. $a-b h a v-a m$, I was, first pret. of $b h \bar{u}$, to be (88).
E. bear; H. bhar, full as much as; Skt. bhar-as, adj., bearing, sb., burden, quantity, bulk, from $b h r$, to bear (88).
§241. The H. $j$ corresponds to Skt. j, Idg. palatal $g$; E. $c, k$.
E. kin; H. jan, a person, janā, a person, a son, jannal, birth ; Skt. janas, a race, Gk. $\gamma^{\text {évos }}$ (85).
E. know ; H. jānnā, to know ; Skt. jn $\bar{a}(85)$.
E. comb; H. jabrā, jaw; Skt. jambhas, a tooth, jaws (85) ; see § 189.

But sometimes the E c answers to Skt. and H. g, Idg. labio-velar $g$; see § 194.
E. calf; H. gābh, pregnancy, gābh-in, pregnant; Skt. garbh-as, embryo (85).
E. cow ; H. gāe, cow (printed $g \bar{a}, e$ by Forbes, where the comma within the word denotes a very light pause in the utterance of the word, requiring, as it were, a fresh impulse of breath); Skt. gaus, a bull (85).
In some words beginning with the same Idg. grv, E. has initial $q u$; and Skt. may have $j$.
E. quick; allied to H. $j \bar{\imath}$, life ( $j \bar{\imath} t \bar{a}$, alive, Forbes), $j \bar{i} n \bar{a}$, to live; Skt. jiv, to live (85).
§ 242. The E. $d$ answers to H. and Skt. $d h$, which be-
comes $d$ before another aspirate in the same syllable; or $d h$ when followed by Skt. $r$, which disappears.
E. dare; H. $d h i ̄ t h$, impudent, presumptuous (lit. daring); Skt. dhrshṭa-, bold, impudent (88).
E. day (hot time); H. dāh, sb., burning, dāhnā, to burn; Skt. dah, to burn, ni-dāgh-as, hot season (52).
E. eight; H. àth; Skt. ashṭau (6).
§243. The E. $f$ answers to H. and Skt. $p$. See § 182.
E. far; H. par-am, first; Skt. par-a-mas, farthest (81).
E. fang; allied to A.S. fön, to seize, L. pang-ere, to fasten, fix, set; also to H. pāsì, a net, tether, Skt. pāças, a tether, snare, from paç, to bind (35).
E. father ; H. and Skt. pitä (5).
E. fern; H. pān, a betel-leaf; Skt. parn-am, a feather, wing, leaf, betel-leaf (8r). The fern is here likened to a feather.
E. five; H. päñch; Skt. pañcha, five (80).
E. fold, sb. ; H. pa!tī, a bandage, Skt. patiz; allied to Skt. putas, a fold ; see § 182.
E. foot ; H. pāòn, feet, pl. of pair, foot; Skt. pādas, a foot ( I 5 ).
E. full; H. pūrā, full; Skt. pūrnas, full (81).
E. greedy; H. giddh, a vulture; Skt. grdhras, a vulture, from $g r d h$, to be greedy (48).
§ 244. The E. $h$ answers (in some cases) to H. $s$, Skt. $\varsigma$. See § 188.
E. hone; H. sān, a whetstone; Skt. ̧̧ānas, a whetstone (Uhlenbeck), $\varsigma \bar{a}, \varsigma i$, to sharpen (34).
E. horn ; allied to H. sing, a horn ; Skt. çring-am, a horn ; Gk. кópu $\mu$ ßos, highest point, кє́pas, horn (13).
E. hound; H. suān, swān, hound; Skt. çvā (gen. çunas), hound; Gk. кข́шv (29).
E. hundred; A. S. hund ; H. sau ; Skt. ¢̧atam (29).
§245. E. marrow; H. maghz (Forbes); Skt. majjan.
E. me; H. main, I ; Pers. man, I; Skt. mäm, mă, me, acc. (II).
E. mind ; H. man, mind ; Skt. manas, mind (18).
E. mother ; H. māa ; Skt. mātā (5).
E. mouse ; H. mūs; Skt. mūshas (19).
E. murder ; cf. H. marnā, to die ; Skt. maras, death (12).
§ 246. E. nail ; H. nakh, finger-nail ; Skt. nakham (13).
E. naked; H. nañgā, naked; Skt. nagnas (85).
E. navel; H. näbh (Mulvany); Skt. näbhis (13).
E. nine; H. nau; Skt. nava (6).
E. over ; H. ūpar, above ; Skt. upari, above, over (12).
§ 247. E. seven ; H. sāt; Skt. sapta (6). See §200.
E. sew; H. sūt, thread; Skt. sütram, thread, from sīv, to sew (8).
E. six ; H. chha ; Skt. shash (I I).
E. son; cf. H. sut, a son; Skt. sutas, a son, from sū, to beget, whence also sünus, a son (8).
E. sow ; H. sūar, a wild boar ; Skt. sū-karas, a boar (6).
E. sweet; H. sawäd, relish, flavour; Skt. svādas, (good) flavour (5).
§ 248. The E. $t$ answers to H. and Skt. $d$; § 186.
E. tear, vb.; H. darār, a crack, rent (Forbes); Skt. daranam, a splitting.
E. ten ; H. das ; Skt. daça (78).
E. tooth; H. dānt ; Skt. dantas (85).
E. two; H. do; Skt. $d v \bar{a} u, d v a \bar{a}(85)$.

The E. $t h$ answers to H. and Skt. $t$; § 185).
E. thin; H. tan, the body, person (cf. tannā, to stretch);

Skt. tanus, adj., thin; as sb., the body, person (79).
E thirst; H. tis, thirst (cf. tishna, thirsty, Forbes); Skt. $t r s h$, to thirst, trshn $\bar{a}$, thirst (80).
E. thou ; H. $t \bar{u}$; Skt. tvam, thou (79).
E. three; H. tïn; Skt. tri, acc. trin (79).
§249. E. zuarm. Supposed to be allied to the Skt. gharmas, heat (§ 195) ; cf. H. ghām, sunshine (51).

But the E. $w$ usually answers to Skt. $v$, H. $b$.
E. was, from A. S. wes-an, to be, cognate with Skt. vas, to dwell, remain, whence vas-tyam, a dwelling, house ; cf. H. bas- $\sqrt{\text { a }}$, a village (22).
E. wear; A. S. werian, Goth. wasjan, to clothe; cf. Skt. vas-tram, a garment; H. bas-tar, garments (24).
E. wether; Skt. vat-sas, a yearling, a calf; H. bachhrā, a calf ( 20 ).
E. wind, from the root *wè, to blow, Skt. vā ; Skt. vā-tas, wind; H. $b \bar{a} o$, wind ( 17 ).
The E. $y$ sometimes answers to Idg. $y$ (Skt. $y$, H. $j$ ).
E. yoke; Skt. yugam, a yoke, a pair; H.jug, a pair (85). Cf. H. $j \bar{u}, \bar{a}$, a yoke (Forbes).
E. young; Skt. yuvan-; H. jazān, young (35).
§250. The above sixty examples are quite sufficient to prove the point, viz. that some Hindi words are still in use in India which are really the precise equivalents of modern English ones, and may be derived from the same Indogermanic types, in spite of such differences (introduced by a long lapse of time) as now appear. And there are other words which, though not precisely equivalent, are derived (both in English and Hindi) from the same Indo-germanic root, and are therefore cognate. I beg leave to recapitulate the results, giving the English form in roman type and the Hindi in italics.

The following may fairly be considered as equivalent or allied; note that there is sometimes a change in the sense.

Bind, bañdhnā; bough, bā̄nh; brother, bhā̄̄; brow, bhauñ; brown, bhūrā; calf, gābh (pregnancy); comb, jabṛā (jaw); cow, gāe; day, dāh (a burning).

Eight, $\bar{a}!h$; father, pitā; fern, pän (betel-leaf); five, pā̀nch; fold, patṭī; foot, pair; full, pūrā.

Hone, sän; hound, swān; hund(red), sau; kin, jan (person); know, jānnā; marrow, maghz; me, maïn (I); mind, man; mother, māi ; mouse, mūs ; nail, nakh; naked, nañgā ; navel, näbh; nine, nau'; over, üpar.

Seven, sāt ; six, chha; sweet, sawād (s., relish) ; ten, das ; tooth, dä̀nt; two, do ; thin, tan (s., person); thirst, tis; thou, $t \bar{u}$; three, $\bar{i} \dot{n}$; wether, bachhr $\bar{a}$; wind, $b \bar{a} o$; yoke, jug (a pair); young, jawān.

The following words are allied. Be, bhay $\bar{a}$ (was); bear, bhar (full as much as, orig. burden); dare, dhith (impudent); day, dāh (a burning) ; far, param (first); fang (that seizes), pāsì (net, tether); greedy, giddh (vulture); horn, siñg; murder, marnā (to die) ; quick, jìtā (living) ; sew, sūt (thread); son, sut; sow, sūar (boar); tear, darār (a rent); warm, ghām (sunshine); was, bastī (village); wear, bastar (garments).
§ 251. I pass on to another subject. All the examples hitherto given have been chosen from native English. But our language abounds with foreign words, notably French and Latin; indeed, the words of Latin origin are very numerous. These Latin words may be divided into two sets, viz. such as are cognate with or allied to native English words, and such as are not so.

An example of the former set is the word corner, a derivative from the L. cornu, which is co-radicate with horn. In such a case, we learn nothing new as to the cognate forms, since they have already been considered under the form horn, under which head cognates are also given in my Etymological Dictionary. Similarly grain is allied to the E. corn ; course, to the E. horse ; critic, to the A. S. hridder, a large sieve, and to the E. riddle, used in the same sense. Other less obvious cases may be cited, which soon bring us back to roots that are not really new to the student of the native portion of the language. Examples (taken at random) are ex-cel and col-umn, from the root *kel, to rise up, appearing again in the E. hol-m; colour, from the L. col-or, orig. 'a covering, allied to cēl-āre, to hide, to cover up, and to the E. hell, hall, and hull (a husk); pure, L. pu$-r u s$, allied to the Skt. p $\bar{u}$, to purify, and to the great purifier called fire; and so on. Of course such examples are numerous, and many are interest-
ing ; but I have no space to enlarge upon them. The student who desires to find more may learn a good deal by endeavouring to do so.
§ 252. On the other hand, we have words that introduce us to new roots, words to which our native language affords neither clue nor help. I give a few examples.

Candle; a very early borrowing from the L. candēla, from candère, to shine; allied to the Skt. chhand, to shine. The form of the root appears to be *sqend.

Case; F. cas, L. cāsum (acc.), from cad-ere, to fall ; allied to Skt. $̧$ ad, to fall off or out. Root *kad.

Chalice; A. F. chalice, L. calicem (acc.), nom. calix, a cup; allied to Gk. $\kappa \dot{v} \lambda \iota \xi$ (with $v \lambda=$ Idg. l?), a cup, Skt. kala̧̧as, a jar, a cup. Further allied to calyx, Gk. kádvg, cup of a flower, Skt. kalikā, a bud. Usually derived from the root *kel, to hide (cover); but this must be abandoned, as the Skt. $k$ can only be due to a velar guttural, such as $q$.

I purposely refrain from going further, because the chief object of this work is to discuss the native element of the language. Moreover, the etymologies of words of this class can be found without any difficulty in the usual authorities; see the Latin Etymological Dictionary by Walde, the Greek one by Prellwitz, and Giles's Manual of Comparative Philology. It is worth notice that several well-known and prolific sources occur in the classical languages which are absent from Teutonic. A striking example appears in the case of the Latin dare, to give (whence date, donation, con-done, \&c.), which is cognate with the Russ. $\operatorname{dat}(e)$, to give, Gk. $\delta i \delta \omega \mu$, I give, Skt. dadāmi, I give, Armen. ta-m, I give, Alban. $\delta a ⿱ ⺊ \neq$, I gave. The allied Teutonic words should begin (as in Armenian) with $t$; but they are not forthcoming.
§ 253. The list of Idg. Roots in my Etymological Dictionary furnishes a considerable number of pairs of co-radicate words, i. e. pairs of which one member is of native origin, and the other is borrowed from Latin and Greek. Thus
from the root *ag, to drive, we have the Gk. agony and the E. ache; with many more. I here cite a considerable number of these, which furnish good exercise for the etymologist. If he is, in any case, in doubt, he will usually see his way if he consults the account which I give of the root referred to. I quote the above as-' $A g$-agony, ache', mentioning the native word last. The following is the list which I propose for verification.

Ag-agony, ache. Ak-acme, edge. Al-altitude, old. Angh-anxious, anger (Norse). Anq-anchor, angle (to fish). $A r$-arable, ear (to plough). Aweg(w)-augment, eke. Bheid-fissure, bite. Bher-fertile, birth. Bher-perforate, bore. Bheu-physic, boor. Bhlē-flatulent, bladder. Bhlōflower, blossom. Bhreg-fragile, break. Bhreu-ferment, barm (yeast). Dam-daunt, tame. Deizu-deity, Tuesday. Dem-domicile, timber. Der-epidermis, tear (v.). Deukduke, team. Dhé-fact, deed. Dheigh-fiction, dough. Dhers-thrasonical, dare. Dhren-threnody, drone. Dhrwestheology, deer. Ed-edible, fret ; \&c.
§254. The same list frequently gives a considerable number of words, often very diverse in appearance, that can all be traced back to the same root without much trouble. Thus the root * $a k$, to be sharp, has given us the following words through Greek:-acacia, acme, aconite, acrobat, acrostic; also, through Latin or French :-acid, acumen, acute, acrid, ague, aglet, eager ; and lastly, the following native words :ear (of corn), edge, awn, egg (to instigate, of Norse origin). Similarly, from the root ${ }^{*}$ es, to be, we have the following :suttee (Skt.) ; ontology (Gk.); absent, present, essence, entity (L.); am, art, are, is, sooth (E.). Of course, in such a word as ontology, the root *es only accounts for onto-; but that is the more essential part of the word.

The languages in the following Index are arranged in alphabetical order, as follows:-Albanian. Anglo-Saxon. Armenian. Breton. Cornish. Dutch. English. French. Gaelic. German. Gothic. Greek. Hindi. Irish. Italian. Latin. Lithuanian (with Lettish). Old Norse. Old Prussian. Old Slavonic. Persian. Polish. Portuguese (with Provençal). Romaunsch and Roumanian. Russian. Sanskrit. Spanish. Swedish. Welsh.

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nos, 192.
nyf, 102. nyth, 100. oll, holl, 93. pedwar, 96, 97, 187. pump, 97, 187. pwy, pa, py, 199. rhaith, IOI, 194. rhudd, IOI, 193.
rhych, 97.
rhyd, 97.
saith, IOI, 194.
sedd, seddu, IO2, 194.
> seren, 102, 195.
> tawdd, 103.
> teneu, 103, 196.
> tew, 103.
> ti, 196.
> tir, 196.
> toddi, 103.
> tranoeth, 100.
> tref, ro3.
> tri, 103, 196.
> ty, io3, 196.
> uchel, 198.
> un, 100.
> wyth, $96,186$.
> ysgar, 102.
> ystrad, 102.
> ysu, ysig, 96, 186.
> yw, ywen, 104 .


The science of etymology.



[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ According to the New English Dictionary, this silly conceit was encouraged by Lindley.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ I recall the statement on p. 9 of this Primer, that the Latin long 0 ( $\bar{o}$ ) sometimes had the 'open' sound.
    ${ }^{2}$ Grimm's Law and vowel-gradation are explained in my Primer of English Etymology.

[^2]:    ${ }^{1}$ See Principles of F. Ftymology, First Series, § $11 \%$.

[^3]:    ${ }^{1}$ Theoretical types are indicated by a preceding asterisk.
    ${ }^{2}$ The $e$ is long (sten); so it might be written steen.

[^4]:    ${ }^{1}$ Aryan is now used to include only the Indian and Iranian groups.

[^5]:    ${ }^{1}$ Of course the asterisk is omitted by Fick as needless, since all the forms given are theoretical.

[^6]:    1 Verner's Law is that the non-initial Teut. $t h, f, h$, and $s$ became, respectively, $d, b, g$, and $r$ whenever the position of the accent, in the Idg. word, did not immediately precede these sounds.

[^7]:    ${ }^{1}$ The root belongs to the third English conjugation; Teut. bind- (for *bend-), because $e$ becomes $i$ in Teutonic before $n d$.

[^8]:    ${ }^{1}$ Also liam, i. e. a leash ; from O. F. liem L. ligāmen, a tie,

[^9]:    1 I include a few words that are not native English; they are marked with an asterisk.

[^10]:    ${ }^{1}$ Pronounced $c h e c h$, in which the former $c h$ is like the E. $c h$ in $c h e c k$, but the latter ch like the G. ch in pech, 'pitch.'

[^11]:    ${ }^{1}$ Horn very seldom quotes the corresponding Germanic forms. They must be sought elsewhere, viz. in Uhlenbeck and Brugmann.

[^12]:    ${ }^{1}$ A. S. fearn, which should give E. farn; cf, Farnborough, Farncombe (Surrey), Farndale, Farndon, Farnhain, \&c.

[^13]:    ${ }^{1}$ Greek admits but one aspirate in a syllable.

[^14]:    ${ }^{1}$ The $i$ in paradise is due to the Gk. form. It represents the Avestic $a \bar{e}$, Idg. oi . The ou in E. dough represents the A. S. $\bar{a}=$ Goth. $a i=$ Idg. oi. So the diphthongs are equivalent.

[^15]:    ${ }^{1}$ Even the most perverse of those who sound the L. $u$ as $v$ forget themselves, and pronounce it as $w$ in suädere and suäuis.

[^16]:    ${ }^{1}$ We say $I$ (or he) will; but will is an altogether exceptional verb; the A.S. ic (or hē) wile'shows a mixture of subjunctive forms in the present indicative singular' ; Sweet (A. S. Primer).
    ${ }^{2}$ It first appears as daryth (in 1533).

[^17]:    ${ }^{1}$ Such is the practical rule. Of course, it really means that the causal verbs usually (not always) exhibit the same gradation of the vowel-sound as also occurs in the past tense singular of the related strong verbs.

