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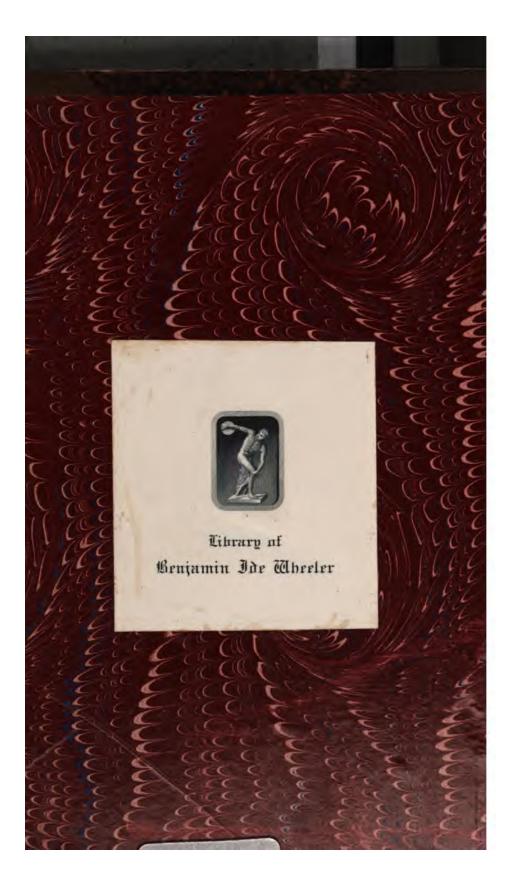
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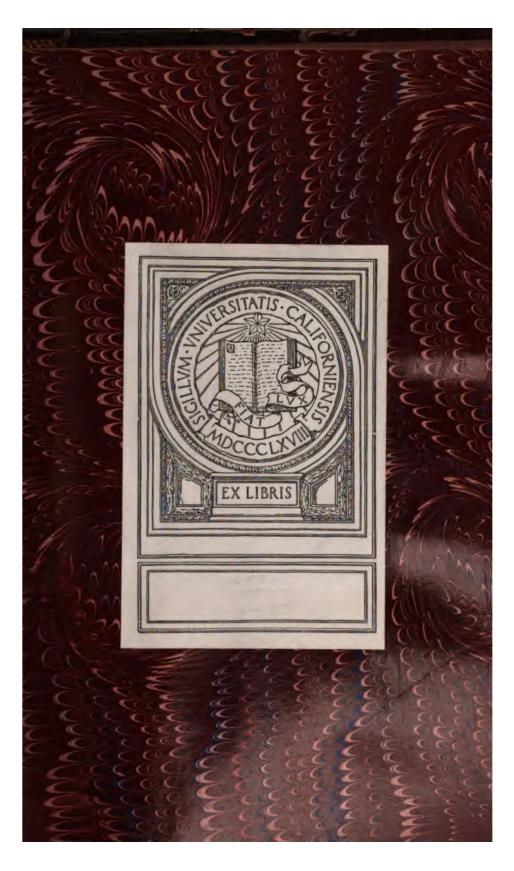
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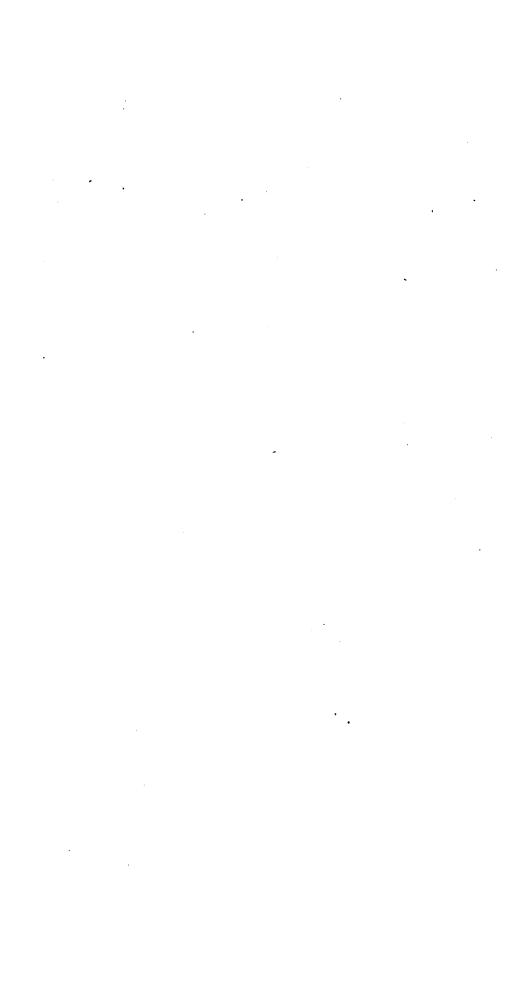
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# TRANSACTIONS

OF THE

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1892.

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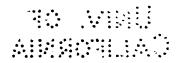
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## TRANSACTIONS

OF THE

# AMERICAN PHILOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION.

1892.

I. — On the Narrative Use of Imperfect and Perfect in the Brāhmaṇas.

By Prof. W. D. WHITNEY, YALE UNIVERSITY.

In the classical Sanskrit, as is well known, imperfect and perfect and agrist are virtually equivalent tenses, freely coördinated in narration. In the Veda, on the other hand, while the imperfect has the same value as later, that of a simple past tense without further special implication of any kind, the aorist is restricted throughout to the proximate past, or answers very closely to our perfect with have; and the perfect is differently treated in the two grand divisions of Vedic text, the mantra or sacred song and formula (chiefly hymn-text), and the brāhmana or later expository literature (represented especially by the treatises called Brāhmaṇas). In the former of these divisions, the perfect has a bewildering variety of values - that of a simple past or preterit, that of a proximate past (like the aorist of the same period), and that of a present; in the latter division, it has lost the second of these three values, and has nearly lost (save in certain residual and increasingly infrequent cases) the third; its general use is, as later, that of a narrative tense, equivalent to the imperfect. In all the Brahmanas, imperfect and perfect are both used in narration, in part separately and in part together; and the usage of different

# 6 . . . . . . . . . . W. D. Whitney.

Brāhmaṇas, and even of different parts of the same Brāhmaṇa, is considerably different. The matter is one of some interest in the history of development of Sanskrit syntax. In the first edition of my Sanskrit grammar I was able to make (§ 822) only a very brief and general statement respecting it; in preparing to give this statement more precision in the second edition, I was led (particularly as being able during a part of the time to do no more serious work than this) to note in considerable detail the usage of the different Brāhmaṇa texts; and it seems worth while to report here the results with some fulness. Delbrück, to be sure, in his Vedic Syntax (1888), has treated the subject, at greater length than it comported with the plan of my grammar to do; yet he is very far from having exhausted it, nor can I in all points approve the way in which it has been handled by him.

I limit myself throughout, of course, to *brāhmaṇa*-material proper, or expository prose, to the exclusion of all *mantra*-material, whether metrical or non-metrical, and whether constituting part of a Brāhmaṇa or merely quoted in its text.

We may best begin our examination with the Sāma-Veda Brāhmaṇa known as the Pañcavinça or Tāṇḍya (or Tāṇḍya-Mahā) Brāhmaṇa, because that shows less mixture of the two tenses than any other work of its class. In it the imperfect is used almost exclusively in narration; out of near 1450 narrative tenses only 11 are perfects (about 1 to 130). Their distribution through the text is (omitting book i., which is made up entirely of *mantra*-material) as follows:

Narrative Imperfects and Perfects in the Pañcavinça Brāhmaņa.

ii.	4 i.	o p.	x.	53 i.	ıр.	xviii.	37 i.	o p.
iii.	2	0	xi.	46	0	xix.	32	0
iv.	47	0		103		xx.	77	0
v.	18	0	xiii.	105	3	xxi.	67	0
vi.	83	0	xiv.	118	I	xxii.	24	0
vii.	138	0	xv.	61	0	xxiii.	<b>26</b> ,	0
viii.	158	0	xvi.	47	0	xxiv.	38	2
ix.	70	0	xvii.	32	٥	xxv.	47	3
							1433 i.	11 p.



Of the eleven perfects, four (at x. 5. 7: xii. 13. 11: xiii. 4. II: xiv. I. 12) are cases of uvāca, 'he said,' used in reporting the words of an ancient sage (we shall see hereafter that this is not uncommon): e.g. 'O Drta, son of Indrota (thus said [uvāca] Abhipratārin, son of Kakṣasena), those who go to the top of a great tree, what becomes of them then?' remaining seven are mingled with imperfects in the same passage: thus, at xxv. 6. 4-5, we have an imperfect followed by two perfects, and at xxv. 10. 17-18, two imperfects followed by a perfect, in each case without any traceable difference of meaning; at xxiv. 18. 2 (1 i. followed by 2 p.), we might conjecture a distinction of continuous (i.) and momentary (p.) action, if this were not unsupported by the usage elsewhere of the treatise, and by that of the other Brāhmaṇas, and accordingly lacking all plausibility. At xiii. 6. 9, again, are two perfects among imperfects: 'that demon Dīrghajihvī (long-tongue), sacrifice-slayer, used (i.) to lick down the sacrifices; her Indra had (i.) no hope of slaying by any magic Now there was (p.) a handsome man, (māyā) whatever. Sumitra, a Kutsa; to him (Indra) said (i.): "call her to thee"; he called (i.) her to him. She said (i.) to him: "surely that have I not heard (p.), but it is somehow pleasing to my heart (?)."' And then between them they mastered and slew her (i.). The first perfect here might be imagined to have a motive, the direct narrative being broken in upon by a statement of something that at the time was true; yet this has too little support anywhere to be accepted. other, a perfect in personal statement, is against the prevailing analogy; and the sense is obscure and the reading doubtful; the printed text has nā 'hāi 'va tan nu çuçruba (which might be meant for either queruve or querava); but the commentary quotes and explains of it only the one word aha. The same story is told, at much greater length and in less decent fashion, in the other great Sāma-Veda Brāhmaṇa, the Jāiminīya or Talavakāra (i. 161-3); but there is nothing there to cast any light whatever upon the point here in question.

I add the list of perfect forms with present sense for this Brāhmaṇa, in order to complete the tale of perfects, and lest

I may have erred in classifying one or another of them, as the distinction is not always altogether clear. They are:  $d\bar{a}dh\bar{a}ra$ , vii. 4. 7: x. 3. 13; 5. 3: xi. 5. 12; 10. 11: xii. 9. 16: xiii. 4. 2: xxiii. 28. 6. —  $\bar{a}nace$ ,  $cal{a}e$ , iv. 6. 7: vii. 6. 9, 10: x. 12. 10: xi. 1. 4: xvi. 6. 14. —  $d\bar{a}d\bar{a}ya$ , x. 5. 2: xiii. 11. 23: xv. 2. 3. — dadrce,  $cal{a}e$ , xii. 2. 7: xxv. 12. 5. —  $j\bar{a}g\bar{a}ra$ , x. 4. 4. — pupuve, vii. 3. 1. — bheje, xx. 16. 1: in all, twenty-two occurrences, from seven roots, or twice as many occurrences as of the narrative perfects. Such a relation between them is not found in any other text.

In the Tāittirīya-Samhitā, again, in the brāhmana-parts of it (constituting about three-fifths of the text), we find a similar predominance of imperfects (about 70 to 1), and a similar lack of clear distinction in their use. The two tenses are distributed in the different books (omitting the fourth, which is mantra only) as follows:

Narrative Imperfects and Perfects in the Tāittirīya-Samhitā.

Here also, as above, the majority of perfects are cases of uvāca, used of the words of a quoted authority: thus, at ii. 6. 28, 'Keçin Sātyakāmi said (uvāca) to Keçin Dârbhya, "tomorrow at the sacrifice I [thou?] shall use," etc.; other examples occur at v. 4. 22; 6. 68 (tad rsir abhyanūvāca): vi. 4.  $5^2$ ; and at vii. 4.  $5^4$  (repeated at 5.  $4^2$ ) such an  $uv\bar{a}ca$ follows an imperfect in the same narration. At i. 7. 2, uvāca, 'said he,' is used eleven times, in a colloquy between two sages; and a single imperfect is associated with them: 'then they two proceeded to talk about (i. páry avadatām) the cow.' Once more, at vi. 6. 22-8, in a brief similar colloquy, we have uvaca twice, and papracha, 'he asked,' once. But also in the words of one of the collocutors in this story we find a perfect and an imperfect coördinated: "in truth (? satyād) the Sṛñjayas perished (p. párā babhūvus)," said (p.) he; "verily the sacrifice was (i. āsīt) to be established in the sacrifice, that the sacrificer might not perish."' Here a distinction between momentary and continuous action might again be conjectured; but (as already pointed out) that distinction is in innumerable cases disregarded, and never attains to expression; whence its recognition here is not to be admitted. Again, at v. 3. 81, we have a perfect and an imperfect together in the same sentence: 'this construction Yajñasena Cāitriyāyaņa knew (i.e. 'devised'; vidām cakāra, p.); by it he acquired (i.) cattle': here might be possible a distinction between an act and its after consequences, such as we have glimpses of, but no more than that, elsewhere. The only remaining passage where the two tenses are in any way mixed is vi. 1. 6, where, in the midst of the legend of Kadrū and Suparnī, narrated in (some 30) imperfects, comes in a single perfect, as follows: 'the divines (brahmavādin) say: "in virtue of what truth did gāyatrī, being the least of the meters, compass (párī 'yāya, p.) the face of the sacrifice? Even because she formerly (adás) brought (i.) the soma, therefore did she compass (i.) the face of the sacrifice," 'etc. (with imperfects only). Here is, to be sure, a break and parenthesis in the story, and we are tempted to render the perfect as if it were an aorist, 'hath compassed'; but that also is a proceeding which finds too little support elsewhere, and the case is a problematical one. same perfect, párī 'yāya, it may be added, is found alone with the same sense in three other passages, namely v. 1. 82; 2. 31; 3. 24, where we should expect rather the imperfect (as we actually have it in vii. 5. 88). In vii. 3. 18 we find the perfect ānrcús contrasted once with the present árcanti and once with the future arcitáras, and are again tempted to render 'have sung,' as a perfect used in aoristic sense (perhaps because no agrist from this verb occurs elsewhere); but I do not know why 'sang' would not be equally accordant with Sanskrit usage. Finally, at vi. 1. 118, we have the perfect tatāna, but it is used in the exposition of a Rig-Veda verse in which the same form appears, and is doubtless only a transfer of this.

Of perfects used in present sense this text has twenty-six occurrences, from five roots: namely,  $d\bar{a}dh\bar{a}ra$ , i. 7.  $2^{1,2}$ : ii. 5.  $7^{6}$ ; 6.  $2^{2}$  (2): v. 1.  $10^{5}$ ; 2.  $7^{8}$ ,  $10^{4}$  (5); 6.  $5^{1\cdot2}$  (5); 7.  $9^{2}$ :

vi. 6.  $7^{2,3}$ : vii. 2.  $4^3$ . — dodrāva, i. 5.  $1^4$ . — bibhāya, ii. 3.  $3^4$ . — ānaçe, ii. 5.  $4^8$ . — dadrçre, vi. 4.  $2^4$  (2).

On the whole, the Taittiriya-Samhita shows no real example of the substitution of perfect for imperfect as narrative tense, nor any clearly marked distinction between the two tenses in the scattering instances where the perfect is used.

In the Tāittirīya-Brāhmaṇa (of which decidedly the larger part, about as 8 to 5, is *brāhmaṇa*-material), the case is somewhat different. In two of the last chapters the perfect is used instead of the imperfect in narrative, and its proportional frequency is accordingly raised much higher, up to about 1 to 20. The scheme of distribution is as follows:

### Narrative Imperfects and Perfects in the Tāittirīya-Brāhmaņa.

i. 1	159 i.	o p.	i. 8	17 i.	o p.	iii. 3	17 i.	2 p.
2	19	0	ii. 1	94	0	. 8	36	1
3	51	0	2	264	2	9	55	I
4	77	0	3	155	8	10	7	26
5	139	7	7	54	I	II	27	21
6	86	0	iii. 1	104	0	12	61	2
7	36	0	. 2	63	3		1521 i.	74 p.

In this statement are omitted ii. 4–6, 8 and iii. 4–6, which are *mantra* only; also iii. 7, which contains no example of either tense.

More than three-fifths of all the perfects, it is seen, occur in iii. 10 and 11. And the largest body of them is found together in iii. 11. 8, in the legend of Nachiketas, on which the Katha-Up. is later grafted (see these Transactions for 1890, vol. xxi. p. 89-90); this is told in 16 perfects, among which, however, are intercalated 4 imperfects. The change of tense is not unmotived; a change of time underlies it. Twice it is Death's inquiry of the boy as to his personal experience: 'Arriving, [Death] asked (p.) him: boy, how many nights hast thou abode (aorist) here? Three, answered (p.) he. What didst thou eat (i.) the first night?' etc. The distinction here for the first time illustrated is an important and constant one; the tenses of personal narration are agrist and imperfect, the former corresponding to our perfect, or proximate past, the latter to our simple preterit, or indefinite past; the perfect is not favored for either use. The other two imperfects express the after result, outside the story, of something told in the story: thus, 'Death told (p.) him the nāciketa fire, and thereafter his good works were not exhausted (i.) . . . and he overcame (i.) the second death.'

Of this latter ground of change from perfect to imperfect we suspected above an instance in TS. (v. 3. 81); but it cannot be illustrated by examples from other texts sufficient to give it the character of an established rule. There are, indeed, in the treatise now under discussion, and in the next section (iii. 11. 987) to the one quoted above, five similar cases; some one performed (p.) a certain meritorious act, and after it followed (i.) such and such a recompense. Then, again, in the following chapter (iii. 12; its narrative tense is otherwise exclusively the imperfect) is one more similar instance (584): 'these Aruna Āupaveçi knew (p.); by them he overcame (i.) reproach, also all evil'; but then unfortunately it is added that 'he went (p.) to heaven,' which goes far toward destroying our confidence in the relation surmised to be intended between the two preceding tenses.

There is at iii. 10.  $9^5$  another plain case of a quoted imperfect in personal narration among perfects; a student says, 'thus my teacher [formerly] told (i.) me'; and the same alternation is made at iii. 2.  $9^{16}$ , though the statement quoted is not a personal one. In ii. 2.  $7^8$  (repeated at 115), on the contrary, where a perfect appears in personal quotation among imperfects, we are doubtless to understand it as one of the common cases of perfect used as present: 'those [gods] in yonder world thirsted (i.); they said (i.): verily (val; printed the first time as if kl) we subsist upon ( $upa jij\bar{v}vima$ ) a giving from yonder.'

In the two or three remaining instances of perfects and imperfects used together no difference of meaning seems recognizable: they are i. 5. 9 (6 p. interspersed among 26 i.): ii. 3. 10<sup>1-8</sup> (3 i. followed by 8 p.); 7. 18<sup>8</sup> (1 p. followed by 1 i.). Elsewhere the perfect is used alone. In iii. 10. 9<sup>9-15</sup> we

Elsewhere the perfect is used alone. In iii. 10. 9<sup>10</sup> we find three groups of them (twelve in all), and in 1185 another

group (of eight): all plain cases of the substitution of perfect for imperfect as narrative tense. Again, in iii. 2.  $5^4$  (repeated at 3.  $6^1$ ) are two such perfects (two imperfects follow in 3.  $6^3$ , but they belong to a different story). The remaining examples are single perfects; they are found at i. 5.  $2^1$ : iii. 8.  $6^5$ ; 9.  $15^3$ .

In this text I have noted of perfects having value as presents only two, with six occurrences: namely,  $d\bar{a}dh\bar{a}ra$ , i. 4.  $5^4$  (2): iii. 2.  $8^8$ ; 7.  $2^5$ .— $dadr_{i}e$ , ii. 1.  $2^{9,10}$ ; besides  $fij\bar{i}vima$ , as quoted above.

Of the Tāittirīya-Āraṇyaka only a small part is brāhmaṇa-material: namely, i. 22-26, 31 (in part), 32: ii. 1, 2, 7-18: v. (all): vi.—ix. (the Tāittirīya-Upanishad, all): x. (the Yājñikī-Upanishad) 13-14, 63-64. In this the narrative tenses are not numerous, and the perfects are to the imperfects about as 1 to 9. They are thus distributed:

#### Narrative Imperfects and Perfects in the Taittiriya-Āranyaka.

i. 23. 30 i. 0 p. v. 72 i. 1 p. ix. 10 i. 11 p. ii. 
$$1-2$$
 12 0 viii. 9 0 x. 0 2  $156$  i.  $17$  p.

At x. 63, two perfects are used together in narration; in all the other cases of the occurrence of perfects, they are mixed with imperfects. And everywhere there is no distinct difference of value between the two tenses, unless it be (as there is reason to conjecture elsewhere) a preference for beginning a bit of narrative with a perfect or two, and then continuing it with the other tense. Thus, we find one perfect followed by an imperfect at ii. 15 and v. 4<sup>12-13</sup>; and in ix. 1-6 we have five groups of two (once three) perfects followed by two imperfects. In ii. 7 is found a single introductory perfect followed by nine imperfects; but after the first two of these occurs a second perfect, if the viçus of the printed text is for viviçus (the commentary unfortunately gives no help in determining the point); its reason would be wholly obscure.

Of perfects used as presents I find no example.

In the Māitrāyaṇī-Samhitā a little more than half (about as 7 to 6) of the material is *brāhmaṇa*. In it the proportion of perfects to imperfects is not far from the same as in the Tāittirīya-Samhitā, or as 1 to 64. Their comparative distribution is shown in the following table (in which the purely mantra-chapters are omitted):

Narrative Imperfects and Perfects in the Maitrayant-Samhita.

i. 4	19 i.	ıp.	ü. 4	100 i.	o p.	iii. 10	69 i.	o p.
5	32	I	5	144	3	iv. 1	63	0
6	180	I	iii. 1	45	I	2	138	5
7	24	2	2	53	5	3	50	0
8	94	•	3	53	5	4	39	0
9	99	0	4	60	0	5	87	I
10	131	2	5	0	0	6	67	7
11	61	0	6	83	1	7	75	0
ii. 1	71	0	7	70	0	8	52	0
2	75	0	8	150	0	,	2237 i.	25 D
3	12	0	9	41	0		5/ 1.	33 P.

From all this material very little that is of value for the relation of the two tenses is to be won, especially because there is very little mixture of them in the same narration. In a few cases there appears to be a simple substitution (always a brief one) of the perfect for the imperfect as tense of narration: such are i. 7. 3 (p. 112, l. 3: 2 p.; perhaps rather used as presents); 10. 12 (152. 1: 2 p.): ii. 5. 1 (47. 13: 3 p.): iii. 2. 7 (27. 7: 3 p.); 3. 2 (33. 7: 2 p.), 9 (42. 16: 2 p.): iv. 2. 10 (33. 14: 2 p.); 6. 6 (88. 8 ff.: 5 p.); and single perfects at i. 4. 12 (62. 4); 5. 8 (76. 16): iii. 1. 3 (3. 20); 2. 3 (18. 2); 3. 9 (42. 11); 6. 5 (65. 12): iv. 2. 2 (24. 5); 6. 2 (79. 18). In a number of these passages it is the actions of sages that are reported (oftenest with vidām cakāra); but the cases do not seem to form a class, such as was surmised in the Tāittirīya Samhitā. Once (i. 5. 8) the perfect is in quoted words; not, however, relating personal experience.

In the remaining cases, a single perfect is associated with one or more imperfects. Thus, in i. 6. 13 (107. 16), among ten imperfects, a perfect (vidām cakāra, 1 sing.) of personal assertion, which is so opposed to all analogies elsewhere that

it might seem to call for emendation; in ii. 5. 11 (63. 13), ānaçe after one imperfect (used as pres.? cf. iii. 2. 3 [18. 2]); in iii. 2. 8 (28. 3), a perfect (uvāca) after four imperfects; in iv. 2. 2 (23. 6), a perfect (vidām cakāra) followed by two imperfects; and 6 (27. 13), the same, by four; at 5. 4 (69. 1), the same, by one; and in 6. 3 (80. 16), a perfect among four imperfects, without any possible reason for the alternation.

Here again, as in the Paficavinça-Brāhmana, the perfects with present value are (if I have not misestimated any of them) more numerous than those with imperfect value, being thirty-six occurrences, from ten roots: dādhāra, i. 8. I (115. 7), 9 (128. 17): ii. 5. I (48. 2): iii. 2. 2 (16. 15), 6 (23. 13), 6 (25. 3), 9 (30. 10, twice); 7. 4 (80. 11), 5 (81. 10); 8. 9 (108. 2): iv. 3. 7 (45. 19, 20); 5. 4 (69. 5, 6); 8. 8 (116. 4, 5, 7, 9, 12, 13). — yoyāva, ii. I. 10 (12. 3): iv. 4. 3 (53. 13), 4 (54. 12). — lelāya, i. 8. 6 (123. 12): ii. 2. 3 (16. 21). — dadrçe, -çre, i. 10. 6 (146. 7): iv. 4. I (50. 13). — vivyāca, i. 8. 8 (128. 7); 10. 12 (152. 5). — ānaçe, ii. 5. 5 (54. 6): iii. 2. 9 (30. 6). — duduhre, iii. 3. 4 (36. 9): iv. 7. 4 (98. 14). — āçāte, iii. 8. 2 (93. 15). — āpa, iii. 9. I (112. 7). — jagrāha, iii. 9. 2 (115. 16).

In the Aitareya-Brāhmaṇa the perfects are decidedly more numerous, being to the imperfects about as 1 to 4, as is shown by the table that follows:

Narrative Imperfects and Perfects in the Aitareya-Brāhmaņa.

i.	116 i.	6 p.	iv.	186 i.	3 p.	vii.	30 i.	139 p.
	183	_	v.	97	6	viii.	29	51
iii.	347	7	vi.	92	49		1080 i.	266 p.

In the first five books the proportion of perfects (about I to 35) is not markedly different from what we have found hitherto; then the perfects increase rapidly, and in the last two books are even the great majority. The difference is owing to the substitution, on a large scale, of the perfect for the imperfect as preferred narrative tense. Thus, in the seventh book, where are found the majority of the whole number of perfects, it is especially the long story of

Çunahçepa (13-18) that gives them their predominance, being told throughout in (114) perfects. This narrative also includes (after emending in 14. 8 prapnot to prapat, as palpably required by the sense, and as ÇÇS. in its version of the legend correctly reads; ÇÇS. has also, just before, prāpa for the blundering prapat) two imperfects, one of which is fully motived, being of personal narrative in quotation: 'he, assenting, addressed (p.) his son: my dear, he (Varuna) verily [long ago] gave (i.) thee to me' (14. 8). The other imperfect also (16. 1) marks a change of time: '[now at this time] Viçvāmitra was (i.) his invoker'; but it is not one which causes otherwise than in rare and exceptional cases a change of tense (so at 15. 7 just above: 'he had [p.] three sons); and in iii. 49. 5 a perfect appears to be used in a similar way among imperfects ('[now] Bharadvāja was [p.] a lean long gray man; he said [i.]' etc.).

The imperfect of personal narration is further exemplified in vii. 27-34, where a story at second hand, in the words of one of the characters, is in (13) imperfects, distributed among the (21) perfects of the general narrative. Again, in iii. 48. 9 is a quoted imperfect (1st sing.) in a story told in perfects; and, at v. 29. 1, 2, two imperfects alternate with two perfects with a similar distinction. Also at vi. 14. 4 we have an imperfect in quotation, 'ye called to me,' between perfects; the imperfect, however ('when at that time gāyatrī brought [i.] the soma'), with which the little legend begins, is unusual and, for aught we can see, unmotived. In ii. 19. 2, the solitary perfect in the midst of ten imperfects seems intended only to help the etymology (Parisāraka from pari sasāra). Then in a few passages a change to perfect (abhyanūvāca) occurs when after a narration in imperfects it is stated that a seer made a verse about the matter: so in ii. 25. 5; 33. 6: iii. 20. 1; but the second of these passages has also another perfect introducing the story; and the last has an unmotived perfect at the end.

In one or two places the Brāhmaṇa text (which is often faulty, as compared with the other treatises of its class) plainly calls for emendation. Thus, at vi. 1. 1, 2, where

-asarpat apparently occurs twice in a crowd of perfects, it is to be changed once to a participle,  $-\bar{a}sarpan$ , and once to a present,  $-\bar{a}sarpati$ ; and, in vi. 14. 10, -avayus must be -aveyus ( $ava+\bar{i}yus$ ): the imperfect  $abrav\bar{i}t$  a little earlier in the same story seems wholly unmotived.

In the remaining passages where the two tenses are mixed, either no reason or only a very doubtful one for the alternation can be alleged. Thus, in i. 18. 1-2 (2 i. followed by 5 p.); 21. 16 (2 i. and 1 p.; but the former probably a virtual quotation of RV. expressions): ii. 36. 2 (1 p. in the midst of 14 i.): iii. 22. 8 (uvāca and abruvan side by side; in the analogous passage a little above, in 21. 4, only the i. is used): iv. 8. 3 (1 p. na dadhṛṣatus, 'they had not the courage,' among many i.); 17. 5 (1 p. following 1 i.): vi. 15. 11 (1 i., abravīt, among several p.); 18. 1-2 (1 p. among 6 i.); 33. 1-4 (3 i. between 2 p.); 34-35 (a jumble of 12 i. and 8 p. in the same story): viii. 10. 1 (an alternation of 4 ajayan i. with 7 yetire p., and a jīgyus p. at the end).

We may note finally the passages where the perfect alone is used, taking the place of the imperfect as narrative tense. Simple perfects are found in iii. 12. 5 (abhyanūvāca): iv. 27. 9 (uvāca): v. 33. 3 (do.); 34. 3 (āsa): vi. 20. 17 (do.): vii. 10. 3 (ruroha); groups of them in v. 30. 15 (2 p.): vi. 24. 16 (3 p.); 30. 7-15 (10 p.): vii. 1. 6-7 (3 p., emending cakrāmat before tam to cakrāma): viii. 21-23 (41 p.); 28. 18 (3 p.).

Of perfects with present value are found twenty-one, from four roots (dādhāra, which never has anywhere any other than the present sense, making the considerable majority of them): thus, dādhāra, iv. 12. 8: v. 4. 15; 5. 3; 6. 12; 8. 3; 12. 11; 13. 4; 16. 16; 17. 2; 18. 15; 19. 2; 20. 15; 21. 5. — dīdāya, i. 28. 9: ii. 40. 2; 41. 4: iii. 8. 2: iv. 11. 8. — bibhāya, v. 15. 9; bībhāya, v. 25. 17. — vivyāca, iv. 12. 8.

In the Kāuṣītaki-Brāhmaṇa the relation of the two tenses is different from anything thus far noticed, the perfects being to the imperfects nearly as 3 to 5. Their distribution in detail is as follows (omitting xi., which contains no example of either tense):

Narrative Imperfects and Perfects in the Kausstaki-Brahmana.

i.	II i.	6 p.	xii.	18 i.	10 p.	xxii.	9 i.	Iр.
	12	4	xiii.	0	6	xxiii.	8	15
iii.	5	I	xiv.	9	0	xxiv.	13	3
iv.	7	2	xv.	20	3	xxv.	5	0
v.	8	I	xvi.	6	5	xxvi.		6
vi.	63	15	xvii.	I	0	xxvii.	0	2
vii.		10	xviii.	7	I	xxviii.	2	29
viii.	4	2	xix.	3	0	xxix.		9
ix.	7	0	xx.	3	0	xxx.	2	17
x.	I	0	xxi.	8	1			149 p.

Among all these tenses, however, there are but two wellmarked instances of the expression of a distinction of time: namely, in ii. 9 and vii. 4, where an imperfect is found in quotation among perfects. In a few instances may be conjectured to appear the tendency (recognized above, but especially below, in CB.) to introduce a story with perfects and finish it in imperfects: such are found in i. 1; vii. 6; xii. 1; but they are offset by contrary cases, of introductory imperfects, in vi. 13-14; xii. 3; xxiii. 2; xxx. 6. Passages in which the two tenses are mixed without any apprehensible reason for the alternation are i. 2; v. 3 (the solitary perfect here should perhaps be emended to ajaksus, i.); vi. 10 (1 p. among 14 i.), 15 (3 p. and 4 i. alternately); viii. 8; xv. 2 (uvāca and abravīt alternating twice); xxi. I; xxiv. I; xxviii. 2, 4; xxix. 1. For the sake of uniformity, the remaining occurrences of perfects may also be noted: we find single ones in iii. 8; iv. 4; vi. 14; viii. 1; xv. 1; xviii. 9; xxii. 4; xxix. 2; xxx. 1, 3, 9, 9; and groups in xiii. 3 (6); xvi. 1 (2), 9 (3); xxiii. 5 (3); xxvi. 5 (6); xxvii. 7 (2); xxviii. 1 (12), 2 (3), 3 (2), 4 (4), 8 (2); xxx. 5 (6).

Of perfects used as present I have found no examples in this Brāhmaṇa.

Of the Çatapatha-Brāhmaṇa, the immense extent, and the number and discordance of the phenomena, make the exhibition of the latter a matter of no small difficulty; it would be impossible without great expenditure of time and space to set them all forth, as in the case of the works already treated;

nor would the result repay the labor. Taking the whole text together, the imperfects outnumber the perfects only in the proportion of 2 to 1; but the relation of the two tenses is very different in different books, as the subjoined table shows:

Narrative Imperfects and Perfects in the Catapatha-Brahmana.

i. 291 i.	306 р.	vi.	547 i.	21 p.	xi. 198 i.	259 p.
ii. 180	192	vii.	281	13	xii. 123	65
iii. 308	196	viii.	462	30	xiii. 132	26
iv. 209	178	ix.	214	91	xiv. 250	337
v. 121	70	x.	319	106	3635 i.	1890 p.

The work begins (i., ii.) with the perfects even somewhat outnumbering the imperfects; and it ends (xi., xiv.) in the same way; while in some of the intermediate books (especially vi.viii.) the preponderance of imperfects is so great (more than 20 to 1) as to remind us of the Brāhmanas first described here. While there are numerous passages in which either tense is used to the exclusion of the other, the two are also on a very large scale mixed together, and chiefly without discoverable reason; in the great majority of cases, no difference of tenserelation is to be apprehended. But the use of the imperfect in quotation, in personal narrative, shows itself (though the examples are fewer than were to be wished, and there are exceptions) to be a pretty well established rule. There seems also to exist an inclination to begin a narration with one or more perfects, as if to give it a proper setting, the details of it then following in imperfects; but this is far from being a rule - even the contrary sometimes occurs, and in the majority of instances the same tense holds throughout. apparent indifference as to the use of the two tenses does not go to the extent of total disregard of consistency; where there is a recurrence of the same passage, or of one closely similar, there is sometimes a striking accordance in the sequence of tenses used, such as to raise the question whether there could not have been, after all, some sense of a difference in the mind of the authors, even though we have not been skilful enough to discover it.

Most of the examples of the imperfect of personal narration occur in book XIV. (also Bṛhad-Āraṇyaka Upanishad). best is found in XIV. vi. 7. 1-4 (BAU. iii. 7. 11). It is in the account of the noted contest between Yajñavalkya and the other leading Brahmans at the court of king Janaka as to who is superior in sacred knowledge, which is given consistently throughout in perfects (near a hundred of them, the majority being repetitions of uvāca). Uddālaka, in his part of the discussion, introduces a narrative of his own former experience as a student, and this is told in imperfects: 'Now Uddālaka Āruni questioned (p.) him: Yājňavalkya, said (p.) he, we [formerly] dwelt (i.) among the Madras in the house of Patañcala Kāpya, studying the sacrifice. He had (i.) a wife possessed by a Gandharva. This [Gandharva] we asked (i.): who art thou? He said (i.): Kabandha Atharvana. He [the Gandharva] said (i.) to Patañcala' . . . and so on, to the end of the story.

In an earlier section (3) occurs another legend so nearly akin with this that the two seem like two versions of the same tale: 'Now Bhujyu Lāhyāyani questioned (p.) him. Yājñavalkya, said (p.) he, we went about (i.) as wanderers (caraka) among the Madras. As such we came (i.) to the house of Patañcala Kāpya. He had (i.) a daughter possessed by a Gandharva. This [Gandharva] we asked (i.): who art thou? He said (i.): Sudhanvan Āngirasa. When we asked (i.) him about the ends of the worlds, then we said (i.) to him: what became (i.) of the Pārikshitas? what became (i.) of the This I ask of you, O Yājñavalkya: what became Pārikshitas? (i.) of the Pārikshitas? He (Yājñavalkya) said (p., as part of the general legend): he (the Gandharva) doubtless said this (p. again; we should have expected rather i.): they went (i.), of course, where the horse-sacrificers go.' What follows is rather problematical. Yājñavalkya seems himself to take up and continue the story of the Gandharva: 'Where, I pray, do the horse-sacrificers go? [you proceeded to ask him; and he answered as follows: this world is . . . (the description may be omitted); them Indra, having become an eagle (suparna),

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>The Kanva text of the Upanishad is the one meant in the parallel references.

handed over (i.) to Vāyu (the wind-god); Vāyu, putting them within himself, made them go (i.) to the place where the Pārikshitas were (i.). Somewhat in this way, verily, did he (the Gandharva) extol (p.; this accords with the p. used of the Gandharva above) Vāyu; therefore Vāyu is, etc. Whether the fault be Yājñavalkya's or the Gandharva's, Bhujyu gets no real answer to his question as to where the horse-sacrificers go; but he is at any rate silenced, for the section ends with 'then Bhujyu Lāhyāyani held his peace' (p., as part of the general narration).

Further on in the same book, at XIV. vi. 10 (BAU. iv. 1), is a long passage showing distinctions of the same kind between alternating perfects and imperfects. It is a colloquy between Yājñavalkya and Janaka, told in perfects, as usual, but with change to imperfect whenever one of the collocutors himself has something past to narrate. ' Janaka the Videhan held a session (p.); then Yājñavalkya came up (p.). Said (p.) Janaka the Videhan: O Yājñavalkya, for what purpose hast thou set out (aor.)? seeking cattle, [or] things with subtile conclusions? Both, O great king, said (p.) he; what any one told (i.) you, that let us hear.' We might have expected here an aorist, 'what any one has told you,' but the tense is adapted to that of the king's reply, and, as imperfect, denies the uniqueness and recency of the communication. The king answers: 'Said (i.) to me Udanka Çāulvāyana: breath verily is the bráhman. — [Y. goes on.] As one having a mother, a father, a teacher might say, so Çaulvayana said (i.) this: namely, breath is the brahman; for what would there be of any one without breath? but did he tell (i.) you its support [and] firm standing? — He did not tell (i.) me. — One-footed verily is that, O great king.' Then, after some further exposition, we have, as conclusion of this part of the story: 'a thousand [cows] with an elephant for bull I give [thee], said (p.) Janaka the Videhan. Said (p.) Yājñavalkya: my father was of opinion (i.) [that] one should not take without having instructed (i.e. should not accept reward for a trifling service); who again told (i.) you what?' And then the same series of tenses is repeated five times more, in reporting and answering what so many different Brahmans had said to Janaka.

Further on, at XIV. ix. 1. 8 (BAU. vi. 2. 5), we find again a motived change from perfect to imperfect in a quotation: 'he said (p.): Acknowledged of me is this boon; but what thou didst say (i.) in the presence of the boy, that tell to me.' The only admissible alternative here would have been the aorist of proximate action.

An example of mixed character is found in an extremely curious bit of legend at XIV. viii. 15. 11 (BAU. v. 14. 8). Janaka appears to have recognized in a working elephant a former sage, and is astonished to find him in such a condition—transmigrated instead of absorbed or happy in heaven: 'As concerns this, Janaka the Videhan said (p.) to Budila Açvatarāçvi: Since now thou didst then call thyself (i.) a knower of the gāyatrī, how, having become an elephant, dost thou carry?—Because, O great king, I did not know (p.!) its mouth, said (p.) he.' Here the change from the perfect of the general narrative to the imperfect in the first quoted words is perfectly normal; but the perfect (vidām cakāra) in the transformed sage's reply is anomalous, and very difficult to explain.

In another passage further on (XIV. ix. 1. 11; BAU. vi. 2. 8), a perfect appears in quoted words: 'how that this wisdom hitherto abode (p.) not with any Brahman soever; it, however, I will communicate to you.' Here, too, according to the analogy of other similar passages, we should expect instead either an aorist or an imperfect, even though it is not a personal experience that is narrated.

This is all the material of the kind contained in the fourteenth book. But the same shift of tense for a similar reason is met with also in some of the other books.

Thus, in XI. iii. 1, we find Janaka and Yājñavalkya again in colloquy, with perfects as the tense of narration: 'Janaka the Videhan questioned (p.) Yājñavalkya: dost thou know, etc. . . . He (Yājñavalkya) said (p.): at that time, truly, nothing whatever existed (i.) here; so then this alone was offered (i.) — truth in faith. — Thou knowest the fire-offering, O Yājñavalkya; I give thee a hundred cows, said (p.) he.'

Again, at XI. v. 1, the story of Purūravas and Urvaçī is told throughout in perfects; but a pair of imperfects come in at the only point where one of the characters has something past to express: thus (paragraph 7), 'to him the other made reply (p.): . . . O Purūravas, go away home again; hard to be won, like the wind, am I; verily thou didst not do (i.) what I said (i.) . . .; thus she spoke (p.) to him.' distinct an example as one would wish. But another equally clear is found in XI. vi. 1, in the legend of Bhrgu's visit to the other world (translated by Weber, Z.D.M.G. ix. 240-241, and Ind. Streifen, i. 24-26). In this, again, the general narrative tense is the perfect; but an imperfect occurs four times, namely whenever the words of any of the characters introduced are quoted: thus, 'they said (p.): Thus, indeed, did these fasten (i.) upon us in yonder world; upon them we now here fasten in return' - and so on (the same phrase repeated three times more).

In the first paragraphs of XI. v. 5 occurs another series of four imperfects of personal narrative, when the gods give Prajapati an account of what they have been doing to get rid of the darkness with which the Asuras had afflicted them: 'they said (p.): verily the Asuras, O reverend one, intercepted (i.) us with darkness as we were going upward to the heavenly world; we resorted (i.) to a session, etc. The example is a less satisfactory one, inasmuch as the introductory part of the legend is in mixed perfects and imperfects (three of each); what follows, however, is in perfects only (nine). The aorist of proximate time is not used in the quotation because of the itemized and successive character of the narration (compare the similar case in TB. iii. 11. 8, above, p. 10; and in CB. xiv. 6. 10, p. 20, l. 23); in his answer, Prajapati sums it all up in a single aorist: 'he said: ye have been going on (aor.) with sacrifices of incomplete ceremony,' etc.

At XII. ii. 2. 13, we are told of one who lived (p.) as Vedic student with a teacher, and 'his teacher asked (p.) him: Boy, how many did thy father think (i.) the days of the year to be? — Ten, said (p.) he,' and so on.

At XIII. iv. 2. 3 we have an imperfect in quotation between

two perfects: 'Thus said (p.) Bhāllabeya: verily, of two colors this horse may be, black and red; he originated (i.) from Prajāpati's eye.... Then said (p.) Sātyayajñi,' etc.

In the first books of the Brāhmaṇa are also to be found a few examples. Thus, at I. vi. 2. 3: 'either the gods intimated (p.) it to them or they of themselves conceived (p.) it: go forth (said they); we will go to the place from whence the gods attained (i.) the heavenly world.' Further, at I. vi. 3. 17, we have an imperfect in quotation among mixed narrative tenses; and at I. ix. 1. 26 and II. ii. 3. 7 the same where there is no including narration. Once more, at III. i. 1. 4: 'thus said (p.) Yājñavalkya: we went (i.) to approve for Vārṣṇya a place of sacrifice to the gods; then Sātyayajña said (i.): verily this whole divine earth is a place of sacrifice to the gods.'

But the early books, as well as the later (see the passages quoted above), offer occasional exceptions to the general rule. At I. vii. 3. 26 an imperfect and a perfect are found together in a passage introduced by 'here now these say,' but which perhaps need not be regarded as a proper quotation; and as of the same character may plausibly be reckoned two perfects at I. ix. 1. 25, in telling of something that was 'overheard by the rshis'; and one in a proverb (nivacana) at II. iv. 4. 4. Also, at II. v. 2. 25, cakrma is repeated, in an aoristic sense, from a mantra-passage which is undergoing explanation. But quqruma at I. ii. 5. 26 and vi. 4. 11 seems like a remnant of aoristic value from the Vedic use of the tense; and so does babhaktha (emending to kim ma å babhaktha? cf. kim mahyam abhākta AB. v. 14. 2) at I. ix. 2. 35.

Finally, at XII. ix. 3. 7 are found a series of imperfects in quotation; but the case is an involved one. In the first place, there is also an imperfect among the preceding (10) perfects of the narrative in which the quotation occurs; and then the quotation runs off into a long preachment, in which its real character appears to be lost sight of, and mixed perfects and imperfects occur. Thus: 'He said (p.): how wilt thou manage? [The other] said (p.) this: with the Asuras in the beginning was (i.) this sacrifice, the sāutrāmaṇī; it went (i.) forth unto the gods; it came (i.) to the waters; the waters

welcomed (i.) it; for that reason people [now-a-days] welcome a superior who has arrived.' This practical observation appears to mark the transition to general narrative style; and the text proceeds: 'they (the waters) said (p.) to it: Come, reverend one. It said (p.): I am afraid; lead me forward. Of what art thou afraid, reverend one? — Of the Asuras. — So be it. — The waters led (i.) it forward; for that reason,' etc.

These are all the examples which have been noted in the text; but they seem, especially when taken in connection with the analogous examples from other texts given above and below, quite sufficient to establish the usage as a rule. That the shift of tense is not merely a shift made for the purpose of marking a change of time is shown by the fact that, where the general narrative is in imperfects, a quotation shows the same tense. Thus, at VIII. vi. 3. I we find the quoted imperfect apaçyāma, 'we saw,' among narrative imperfects; and similar cases are quotable from other books and from the other Brāhmaṇas: for example, ÇB. I. vi. 4. 4. MS. i. 10. 16 (156. 6): iii. 8. 6 (102. 14); they are not rare.

But a kindred case is found at V. i. 4. 8: 'the Gandharvas verily in the beginning yoked (p.) the horse; so then he [virtually] says: let them who in the beginning voked (i.) the horse yoke thee to-day.' In such passages as this there is no real quotation, but a quasi-one; the cause of the shift of tense appears to be a change of the point of view: if, as seen in direct relation to the present, so and so happened formerly, the imperfect is preferred for its expression. seldom the change of point of view is effected by a 'because': for example, at I. i. 1. 16 (the first example in the Brāhmana of mixture of the two tenses): 'the Asuras and Rakshases prevented (p., raraksus) them; and because they [then] prevented (i.) them, they are [now] called Rakshases.' Cases of this kind are not infrequent: see, for example, further I. i. 3. 5; iv. 1. 34; 5. 12; viii. 1. 26-7 (in narration of the same facts at viii. 1. 7 the perfect was used): II. i. 2. 15; iv. 4. 2; v. 2. 1: III. v. 1. 23; viii. 2. 17; 3. 11. It is, however, rather a tendency than an established usage; one is tempted to explain by it many imperfects among prevalent perfects; but the perfect is also found instead. For example, in I. i. 3. 4: 'because he lay (p., qiqye') enveloping this all, therefore he [is] by name Vrtra' (and similarly at IV. ii. 4. 19); we might here, to be sure, conjecture the sense to be 'therefore he was called Vrtra,' but this would not apply at I. vi. 3. 9, where āhus, 'they call him,' is expressed; and at I. vi. 3. 10 an imperfect after 'because' is combined with a perfect in the main clause: 'so then, because he said (i.) "increase thou with Indra as enemy," for that reason Indra slew (p.) him.' Doubtless such counter-cases are not rare; no attempt has been made to collect them.

When perfects and imperfects are used in the same story, it often seems (as noted above) that perfects are preferred as introduction, they passing later into imperfects. This has still less the value of a rule (and there are examples of a contrary character, with imperfects first: thus, II. iv. 2. I ff.: III. vi. 2. 2 ff.: IV. i. 5. I ff.: VII. iii. 2. I4: XI. 2. 3. 7 ff.), and would not be worthy of any attention save that the cases are so frequent: thus, we find them in the first book at i. I. I6-7: ii. 4. I ff., 8 ff., 17 ff.; 5. I8: iv. I. 22-3; 4. 8: v. 2. I8, 20; 3. 2 ff., 21 ff., 23 ff.; 4. 6 ff.: vi. I. II; 4. I ff., II: ix. I. 24 ff.; 2. 34-5; and they are met with in similar numbers in the other books.

By way of illustration of the general mode of distribution of the two tenses in parts of the text where the perfects predominate, we may go on and review their remaining occurrences in the first book. Passages in which both occur without any recognized ground for their alternation are as follows: ii. 3. I-5, 6-9; 5. I-II: iii. 3. I3-6: iv. I. I0-I8 (I i. among 19 p.), 34-5; 5. 8-I3: v. 2. 6: vi. I. I-8; 2. I-4; 3. I-22, 35-7: vii. I. I; 2. 22-4; 3. I-9, 26; 4. I-8: viii. I. I-I8 (in I-9, 29 p. only). Then we find single perfects in i. I. 7, 9; 2. 3, 7: ii. I. 6: iii. I. 5: v. I. 7: vi. 3. 26: vii. 3. 28; and groups of them in i. 2. I3 (2); 3. 4-5 (6); 4. I (3), I4-I7 (I4): ii. 5. 24-6 (II): iv. I. 40 (3): v. I. 20 (3): vii. 3. I9 (5). Single imperfects occur in iv. 5. 3: v. 3. 5: vi. 4. 21 (in a quotation): and groups (oftenest 2 together) in i. I. 17; 3. 8-9; 4. I8: ii.

4. 6: iv. 2. 1, 5-8: v. 3. 4, 9-13 (2 in each paragraph): vi. 1. 9-10; 2. 5, 7; 3. 28; 4. 8, 9, 12, 17: vii. 2. 25-6; 3. 20, 22; 4. 14: viii. 1. 24, 26-7; 2. 8, 10-13: ix. 3. 11: not a few of these last are capable of being brought under the principle of preference for an imperfect when the past is directly compared with the present.

Per contra, we may take the sixth book as an example of the predominance of imperfects (25 to 1, as in some of the Brāhmaṇas first examined). Here there occur 286 imperfects, or more than half the number in the whole book, before a single perfect makes its appearance; then are found, in ii. 1. 37, two perfects, no reason for the change being discoverable. The same is the case with a perfect in iii. 1. 15, and with five in v. 4. 4-8; but one in v. 1. 7 is the repetition of a mantraperfect quoted from VS. xi. 54; and, of two in viii. 1. 14, one is a similar case (from VS. xii. 34), and the other doubtless adapted to it. The remaining cases are of the two tenses mixed, without perceptible ground: they occur in ii. 2. 17-20 (3 p. and 1 i.); 3. 2, 4, 6 (uvāca 3 times among many i.): iii. 1. 31 (1 p. among 4 i.): vi. 3. 2, 3 (3 p. with 4 i.).

A fair example of the unmotived alternation of the two tenses is found in II. ii. 4, of which a part may be here translated by way of illustration:

1. 'In the beginning verily this [universe] was (p.) Prajāpati alone. He considered (i.): how now may I have progeny? He toiled (i.); he performed (i.) penance; he from his mouth generated (p.) Agni. So because he generated (i.) him from his mouth, therefore is Agni a food-eater. He who thus knoweth this Agni as food-eater, a food-eater verily he be-2. So indeed him of the gods he thus generated (i.) in the beginning (agre); therefore is he Agni; Agri, namely, is, they say, the same as Agni. . . . 3. He, Prajāpati, considered (i.): verily I have generated (aor.) from myself this one, namely Agni, as food-eater; surely there is no other food here than myself — whom by all means may he not eat! Made bald indeed at that time was (p.) the earth; the herbs were (p.) not, nor the forest-trees; that was (p.) in his mind. 4. So then Agni turned (p.) about toward him with opened mouth; of him, frightened, the own greatness departed (p.); speech indeed [was] his own greatness; the speech of him departed (p.). He sought (p.) in himself an oblation; he rubbed (i.) himself up; so, since he rubbed (i.) himself up, therefore both this is hairless and this (his two palms?). There he found (p.) either a ghee-oblation or a milk-oblation; but either is nothing but milk. 5. That (oblation) did not conciliate (p.) him; mixed with hair, indeed, was (p.) it; he sprinkled (i.) it out, saying: suck quickly (osam dhaya); then the herbs (osadhayas) came (i.) into being; therefore are they called herbs. He rubbed (i.) himself up a second time; there he found (p.) another oblation, a ghee-oblation or a milkoblation; but either is nothing but milk. 6. This conciliated (p.) him; he was in doubt (i.): shall I make oblation? or shall I not make oblation? His own greatness addressed (p.) him: make oblation! He, Prajāpati, knew (p.): my own (sva) greatness speaks (āha) to me; he made (i.) oblation, saying svāhā ('hail!'); therefore oblation is made with saying *svāhā*. Thereupon went (p.) up he who burns there (the sun); thereupon came (p.) forth he who cleanses here (the wind); thereupon, again, Agni turned (p.) about [and] away. 7. He, Prajāpati, by making oblation, both had (i.) progeny and saved (i.) himself from death, from Agni who was going to eat him; he who, knowing thus, maketh the agnihotra libation, hath progeny by that very progeniture by which Prajāpati had (i.) progeny, and just so saveth himself from death, from Agni who is going to eat him.'

Here are 19 perfects and 15 imperfects, quite miscellaneously shaken up together; the cases in which we might say that the imperfect is used by preference when the past is directly viewed from a contrasted present are spoiled by their occurrence in company with others of which that explanation does not hold good. In the remainder of the chapter (brākmaṇa), the two tenses (14 i., 17 p.) are found rather more distinctly in alternating batches.

An example of the repetition in more than one place of an apparently arbitrary alternation of tenses may be cited from III. i. 4. 3-4: 'By the sacrifice [it was that] the gods con-

quered (p.) this conquest which is this conquest of theirs. They said (p.): How may this of ours be inaccessible to mortals? They, having sucked the savor of the sacrifice as bees might suck out honey, having milked dry the sacrifice, having blocked (?) [it] with the sacrificial post, disappeared (i.). So then, as they blocked (yup, i.) with it, therefore it is by name post  $(y\bar{u}pa)$ . This verily was (p.) heard of by the seers. They collected (i.) the sacrifice, just as this sacrifice is collected.' . . . While the last two of the imperfects here might be held to admit of explanation by the principle already stated, the other, 'disappeared,' seems wholly coordinate with the perfects that precede and follow. Yet the passage is repeated with the same tenses at III. ii. 2. 2, 11, 28; iv. 3. 15; and in part at vii. 1. 27; while at I. vi. 2. 1-2 it is given more fully (with repetition of the story, down to 'disappeared,' in precisely the same words, as what the seers 'heard of'), but with a different ending: 'That [sacrifice] they began (p.) to seek after; they went on (p.) praising [and] toiling,' etc.: we might ascribe these last two perfects to the absence of direct antithesis with the present which was found at the close of the version first quoted.

Again, we have at I. vii. I. I a brief sequence of tenses which is repeated at III. iii. 4. 10: 'When the gāyatrī flew (i.) toward Soma, then of her while taking it a footless archer, having taken aim at her, cut off (p.) a feather, either of the gāyatrī or of Soma; that, falling, became (i.) a parṇa-tree.' At VIII. ii. 4. I-I5, the alternation of āpnot (i.) and ucca-kramus (p.) is repeated fifteen times; and that of akṣarat (i.) and jajāire (p.) made in XIV. i. 2. 19 occurs again in 3. II and 3. 15. In I. ii. 3. 6-7, there is several times a regular change from what the gods did (i.) to what followed (p.) as consequence. At I. v. 2. 6; vi. 3. 35-7: IV. iv. I. 16-7, the two tenses seem to be distributed respectively to the two parties concerned in the action.

To set off against such cases as these, on the other hand, we sometimes meet with manifest inconsistencies. Thus, in II. v. 1. 1-3, in a legend of the staple kind about Prajāpati, told in mixed tenses, we have 'he considered' twice in imper-

fect (āikṣata) and once in perfect (īkṣām cakre), and 'he created' twice in each tense (asrjata and sasrje); in II. v. 4. 6-7 are used three perfects in opposition to the analogy of preceding and following sections, and against the principle recognized by us above of employing an imperfect when something past is contrasted with something present as the ground of the latter or the like. But, though such examples are doubtless to be found here and there, they are certainly not frequent.

There is but a beggarly array in this Brāhmaṇa of perfects with present value, namely twenty-five occurrences, of three forms: dadrçe, I. iv. 1. 29: vi. 4. 5, 13, 15(2), 19, 20. II. iii. 4. 22: iv. 2. 7(2); 4. 20. VI. iv. 2. 8. XI. i. 5. 1, 4: ii. 4. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7; 5. 3. XIV. viii. 15. 4. — dīdāya, I. iv. 1. 32; 3. 7. — dādhāra, XIII. i. 4. 3.

Of the immense Jāiminīya- or Talavakāra-Brāhmaṇa (as yet existing only in manuscript) the text is in great part so corrupt and doubtful that the numbers for the two tenses can be given only approximately. Omitting the most doubtful cases (and reckoning the Upanishad-Brāhmaṇa, of which the familiar Kena-Upanishad is a fragment, as a last book; it is as well entitled to the place as the concluding book of the Çatapatha-Brāhmaṇa), the numbers are as follows:

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Narrative Imperfects and Perfects in the Jāimintya-Brāhmaņa.
i. 1280 i. 335 p.
ii. 1294 i. 501 p.
iii. 2324 309
iv. 544 i. 200 p.
5442 i. 1345 p.
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The general proportion of imperfects to perfects, it will be seen, is very nearly as 4 to 1, and the differences between different parts of the text, though not altogether inconsiderable, are yet only of minor consequence, not comparing at all with those in some of the other texts (as ÇB., or AB., or even TB.). The mode of distribution of the two tenses is also quite other than that in the Çatapatha-Brāhmaṇa. In the vast majority of cases, each tense is used by itself, only the imperfect in one narration, only the perfect in another; the cases of their mixture are comparatively few, and, where they do occur, usually no reason whatever can be seen for the

alternation. Of a tendency to the introductory use of perfects (as doubtfully recognized especially in ÇB.) there is no distinct trace. But instances of the change from perfect to imperfect when some one's words come to be quoted are by no means rare.

A few examples may be given (one from each book), thus: i. 19. 'If there were no water, with what wouldst thou make oblation? He said (p.): At that time verily there existed (i.) nothing at all; then this was offered (i.): [namely] truth, in faith. [The other] said (p.) to him,' etc. (we had the same passage above, p. 21, from CB.).

ii. 390. 'Then they flung (p.) him into the fire. Then came (p.) Vasistha. He said (p.): what said (i.) my son when flung in? They said (p.) to him: "O Indra, bring ability to us, as a father to his sons (SV.)"; just so much was (i.) uttered by him, then they flung (i.) him into the fire. He (Vasistha) said (p.),' etc.

iii. 64. 'They said (p.) to him: He ascended (i.) indeed to the heavenly world, reverend sir. He said (p.): Is there nothing whatever left of him here? They said (p.) to him: There was (i.) just this horse's head, with which he told (i.) this to the Açvins; but we do not know what became (i.) of it. Search for it [said he]. Then they searched (p.) for it,' etc.

Of examples like these there are as many as thirty in the whole text, and the cases are sufficiently well marked to show that the rule which we have already inferred from the other texts was at least becoming a prevailing one. We cannot call it established or absolute, for there are also a few instances (I have noted nine) of a perfect in quotation, usually among or with other narrative perfects, but in a couple of cases with shift from narrative imperfect to quoted perfect: e.g. in i. 283, where (not without considerable emendation) we read: 'Prajāpati created (i.) the gods; after them was created (i.) death, evil. Those gods, approaching Prajāpati, said (i.): Why hast thou created (aor.) us, if thou wast (p.) going to create (anvavasraksyann āsitha) after us death, evil? To them he said (i.),' etc.

I have not noted over half-a-dozen examples in this work of perfect-present, all of them forms found elsewhere in the same use, as dādhāra, dīdāya, ānaçe.

The facts in the Gopatha-Brāhmaṇa also require to be noticed, notwithstanding the inferior character and textual inaccuracy of that work. Rejecting doubtful cases, the imperfects are to the perfects as somewhat less than 3 to 1.

Narrative Imperfects and Perfects in the Gopatha-Brāhmaņa.

i. 1	176 i.	39 p.	i. 5	37 i.	22 p.	ii. 4	12 i.	9 p.
2	98	51	ii. 1	70	4	5	40	5
3	27	39	2	59	8	6	37	27
4	12	25	3	58	I		626 i.	230 p.

I have noticed but two cases in which a reason for the variation of tense can be suggested: in i. 4. 24, an imperfect in quotation among many narrative perfects—a clear case; and in i. 3. 8 doubtless a similar one, but the passage is corrupt, and calls for much emendation.

A single example of perfect-present, dīdāya, has been noticed at ii. 3. 5.

The Chāndogya-Upanishad may also not less properly be included in an inquiry like this than some of the other Upanishads which form parts of Brāhmanas, and so have had their statistics given above. It is a well-marked and peculiar case, showing for the first time a great predominance of perfects, namely as more than 4 to 1: thus—

Narrative Imperfects and Perfects in the Chandogya-Upanishad.

i. 6 i. 76 p. iv. 10 i. 87 p. vii. 3 i. 4 p. ii. 6 o v. 4 63 viii. 0 
$$\frac{47}{72 \text{ i.}}$$
  $\frac{47}{319 \text{ p.}}$ 

For the most part, the two tenses are held distinct, a narrative using either the one or the other throughout; the narratives in imperfects are found in i. 4; ii. 23; iii. 1-5, 19; iv. 17. Real mixture of the two tenses occurs only in one passage, v. 1. 12, where a single imperfect, akhidat, appears among twenty perfects (the perfect of khid is nowhere met with, but one sees no reason why it might not have been

formed here). Then there are a number of passages where imperfects are used in quotation in a narrative carried on in perfects: so in iv. 4. 2 (1 i.), 4 (3 i.); v. 3. 4 (1 i.), 6 (1 i.), 7 (I i., where the tense indicates a considerable interval between the time of this and that of the preceding sentence); vi. 2-3 (13 i., with a single perfect of the general narration among them in 2. 2, omitted by Böhtlingk in his translation). The chapters vi. 2-7 contain one long preachment; and possibly it is on this account, and because their being a real quotation had been lost sight of, that vidām cakrus (p.) occurs 4 times in 4. 5-7; if not, the perfect here is anomalous. The perfect anuçaçāsa is also used twice in quotation, in iv. 9. 2; 14. 2, where we should expect an agrist rather. viii. 11. 3, a perfect, uvāsa, appears in quotation, but of a current popular saying, and therefore no real exception. example of perfect in present sense is to be met with in this Upanishad.

On summing up now the results of the inquiry, we have to confess that they are of a more negative and doubtful character in many respects than we could wish. Still, certain points are brought to light with a fair degree of clearness. The use of the perfect with the value of a present must be viewed, so far as I can see, as a continuation of one of its earlier values as exhibited in mantra; and it stands well up to the use of the same tense for past narration in some of the earlier texts - being twice as frequent as the latter in the Pañcavinça-Brāhmaṇa, almost precisely as frequent in the Māitrāyanī-Samhitā, and nearly as frequent in the Tāittirīya-Samhitā; but it grows rarer, becomes attached especially to certain individual words, and finally disappears. As for the use of the tense with true perfect value (= the Vedic aorist), that makes no figure at all; it is nowhere distinctly recognizable; the cases are purely sporadic, and hence everywhere doubtful; for we also meet occasionally an imperfect where we should decidedly expect an aorist, and these may perhaps be of the Delbrück, in his Vedic Syntax (§ 170; pp. 298same sort. 300), treats of what he calls "the perfect as past tense in non-narrative use" — that is, in (Vedic) aoristic sense translating his examples with 'have,' as true perfects; but I cannot accept his interpretation and version; the cases seem to me those of mere narrative use, such as might exhibit imperfects instead of perfects — with the possible exception of the last, from TS. vii. 3. 18, which has been quoted above (p. 9) as a doubtful instance, possibly but not necessarily (Vedic) aoristic.

The leading and most conspicuous fact is the increasing use, either by substitution or by association, of the perfect as equivalent to the imperfect in narration. There is no brāhmana-work in which the two tenses are not found together in story, although in some the perfects are sprinkled in very scantily, and although the telling of a whole legend with perfects instead of imperfects occurs either not at all or hardly in the (presumably) earlier texts and parts of texts. all barriers are broken down, and, the other values disappearing, the perfect gets the use which it maintains through the classical period of the language as a purely narrative tense, exchangeable in almost all situations with the imperfect. We have thought to catch glimpses here and there of attempts made to differentiate the two tenses instead of confounding them with one another as simply equivalent. But we have been every time disappointed, with a single exception — that the perfect is on the whole excluded from personal use; that a quotation, even in a narrative carried on by perfects, is felt to call for imperfects. Even this is by no means an established rule; exceptions to it are found in almost every treatise, from the oldest to the youngest; but it is at least a distinctly prevalent usage. We have the more right to lay stress upon it, inasmuch as the native grammar sets up for the classical language a kindred distinction, forbidding the perfect to be used in narrating such facts as have been witnessed by the speaker: that is to say, in the narration of personal experience (compare Speijer's Sanskrit Syntax, p. 247 ff.). How much attention is paid to the rule in the classical literature is another question; so far as I have myself noticed, it is mainly disregarded, and perfect and imperfect and agrist and (most frequent of all) passive participle used predicatively are jumbled miscellaneously together. But the existence of such a rule is a voucher for the recognition by highest authority for the later language of that distinction which is seen growing up in the Brāhmaṇas.

One thing more is to be added, in order to complete the history of the Brāhmaṇa perfect: the perfect participle, active and middle, which in mantra has the whole range of senses that belong to its tense, inherits that one of the three which in Brāhmaṇa is not shown by the tense, and becomes a truly perfect participle, to be rendered by 'having done' and the like. This is an extremely curious fact, and it has happened to escape the notice of Delbrück (Vedic Syntax, p. 375 ff.), who describes the participle as simply past (although he translates it throughout with the auxiliary 'have'), and who further recognizes certain exceptions, having value as present, all of which I think I have proved (Am. Journ. Philol., Oct., 1892; vol. xiii., p. 293) to be misinterpreted by him.

Examples are far from infrequent in all the Brāhmanas; a few may be quoted here, to illustrate the usage. bahur bhavaty āçvena tustuvānah, 'he is multiplied who hath praised with the acva[-sāman]' (PB. xi. 3. 5, and so in very numerous other passages in this work with tustuvāna); indro 'surān hatvā 'kāryam cakrvān amanyata, 'Indra, having slain the Asuras, thought himself to have done a thing that should not be done' (ib. xxii. 14. 2); yó vāi bahú dadivān bahv ijānd 'gnim utsādāyate, 'whoso, having given much and sacrificed much, lets his fire go out' (MS. i. 8. 6; p. 123. 18); crnvánti hāi 'nam agnin cikyānam, 'they hear of him as having built his fire-altar' (ib. iii. 1. 3; p. 4. 17); yáthā vāmám vásu vividānô guhati tādrg evá tát, 'that is as if one, having found valuable treasure, hides it' (TS. i. 5. 28); çváḥ-çvo 'smā ījānāya vásīyo bhavati, 'from one morrow to another it goes better with him who has sacrificed' (ib. ii. 5. 41); yávān hí jaksúsīr várunó 'grhnāt, 'for Varuna seized on them when they had eaten the barley '(CB. II. v. 2. 16); pitáram prosúsam ágatam, 'a father who arrives after having been absent on a journey' (ib. XII. v. 2. 8). I know of no real exceptions, although the cases are not all so clear and marked as these. In the later language this participle is almost entirely lost.

## II. - On Semitic Words in Greek and Latin.

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#### INTRODUCTORY REMARKS.

TIME was when even respectable scholars like Guichard (1606), THOMASSIN (1697), COURT DE GÉBELIN (1775), Jo. A. ERNESTI and others, believed the Hebrew language to have been the mother tongue of all ancient and modern languages. the lingua primaeva.1 Following the lead of earlier Jewish commentators,2 they attempted to prove this assertion by such arguments as these: (1) That the nouns and proper names before the confusion of tongues were of a distinctly Hebrew origin, e.g. ארם ('ādām), 'man,' or הבל (hébel), 'breath, transitoriness.' It did not occur to them that these names were formed by the Hebrew nation, and thus of no high antiquity. (2) That there are in almost all languages traces of Hebrew words, which they considered a convincing proof of the common origin of all. (3) By an historical exegesis of Gen. ii. 23. Thus they tried to derive every Greek, Latin, and German word from a Semitic prototype. Such hypotheses have been advanced even by men of the nineteenth century; e.g. Mathias Norberg 8 derived έθνος from Dy ('am), 'people,' with epenthesis of  $\theta$ ;  $\lambda \acute{e} \gamma \omega$  by metathesis from  $\langle q\bar{o}l \rangle$ ,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Étienne Guichard 'Harmonie étymologique des langues, où se démontre que toutes les langues sont descendues de l'hébraïque' (Paris, 1606); Louis de Thomassin 'Methóde d'enseigner la grammaire ou les langues par rapport à l'Écriture sainte, en les réduisant toutes à l'hébreu' (2 vols. Paris, 1690–93) and 'Glossarium universale hebraïcum' (Paris, 1697); Court de Gébelin 'Le monde primitif, analysé et comparé avec le monde moderne' (9 vols. Paris, 1775–1784); Johann August Ernesti 'De vestigiis linguae hebraïcae in lingua graeca, Opuscula philologica critica' (L. B. 1762), 178 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Onkelos and Targum Hierosolymitanum ad Gen. xi. 1; also Josephus, Antt. 1, 4; 10, 2.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Opuscula, II. Dissertationes 15 and 16 (Londini Gothorum, 1818).

voice, μυθέω as well as βασιλεύω from the same σως (māšál), 'to liken and to rule'; again, J. Braun' derives πνεῦμα from Hebr. Διος (ρἔνῶπ), Λάμος from Lamech, and Καινεύς from Kain.

Shortly after the discovery of the Sanskrit language scholars sought to find a genetic connection between this and the Semitic languages, e.g. Adelung (Mithridates I. 149-76), comparing Skt. ādima, 'first,' with Hebr. The rājā, 'king' with Hebr. The (rōš, rēš), 'head, prince.' There are, it is true, even to this day not a few philologists—and among them some authorities deserving the highest respect—who hold that correspondences enough have been found between Indo-European and Semitic roots to prove the ultimate connection of these two families of language. Here we have to mention above all

- I. Rudolf von Raumer, 'Ueber die Urverwandtschaft der semitischen und indoeuropäischen Sprachen.' The main substance of von Raumer's arguments consists in a series of correspondences between weak or geminate Hebrew roots and Indo-European words; and he claims respecting them that, both in number and in degree, they are altogether beyond what could be explained as the result of chance or of anything but genetic connection. This claim is by no means to be admitted, says an authority such as Whitney (Proceedings of Phil. Assoc., 1876, 27). A few examples may suffice to illustrate his method of procedure: Hebr. In  $(b\bar{u}b)$ , 'be hollow' = puppis. Again, ISI  $(b\bar{u}k\bar{u}h)$ , 'cry, shed tears, drip' =  $\pi\eta\gamma\acute{\eta}$ ; ISI  $(n\bar{u}b\acute{u}\acute{u})$ , 'pour out, bubble forth,' with
- 4 Naturgeschichte der Sage; Rückführung aller religiösen Ideen, Sagen, Systeme, auf ihren gemeinsamen Stammbaum und ihre letzte Wurzel (München, 1862).
  - <sup>6</sup> No such Hebrew word is known to me; perhaps he meant מנואל, penu-el.
  - 6 W. D. WHITNEY, 'Language and the Study of Language,' 394.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> In his 'Gesammelte Sprachwissenschaftliche Abhandlungen,' 1863, pp. 461-539, and its four 'Fortsetzungen,' pp. 24, 35, 18, and 22, published Frankfurt a. M. in 1867, 1868, 1871, 1873; also his answer to Schleicher's critique in 'Herr Professor Schleicher in Jena und die Urverwandtschaft der semitischen und indoeuropäischen Sprachen, ein kritisches Bedenken,' 1864, pp. 17; 'Sendschreiben an Herrn Professor Whitney über die Urverwandtschaft,' etc., 1876, pp. 20; Zeitschrift für vergleichende Sprachforschung (= KZ.), 22, 235-249.

νάπη; ΓΙΟ (sāgár), 'lock up,' with sacer. Had Raumer known Assyrian he would have found a great many more examples, e.g. βέλος and Assyrian bēlu, pl. bēlē, 'implements of war,' etc.

- 2. More scientific than Raumer's are FRIEDRICH DE-LITZSCH'S studies.<sup>8</sup> But he has given up for many years the views proposed in his book, and no longer believes in the possibility of establishing proof for a connection between Semitic and Indo-European.
- 3. Also Ernst Nöldechen's <sup>9</sup> attempt to prove that the two great families are descendants of the same parent speech, has not gained its point. His comparison of such words as (kĕfīr), 'young lion,' and caper (he-goat); במל (néfel), 'untimely birth, abortion,' and Skt. napan (read napāt), Lat. nepos, 'grandchild'; באר (rādám), 'sleep soundly,' and Latin dormio; ארכן ('arbá'), 'four,' and the Skt. arbha, 'lowly, few'; ארבן (iāçā'), 'go out,' and Skt. vais, 'become light' (rise, said of the sun), class him with Raumer and others. 10
- 4. James F. McCurdy published in 1881 his views on 'the Aryo-Semitic Speech' (Andover, pp. 176), in which he claimed to have made an advance upon any of his predecessors in the same inquiry. In the first place, the morphology of the Proto-Semitic as well as of Proto-Aryan roots is fully discussed; secondly, it is postulated that if the two families of speech were ever one, the only evidence of their identity is to be adduced from their expressions for primitive and simple ideas. The method employed in the book is to take such elementary notions, and see how they have been expressed in the two systems of speech. Some few instances

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Studien über indogermanisch-semitische Wurzelverwandtschaft' (Leipzig, 1873, pp. 119; II. edition, 1884).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Semitische Glossen zu Fick und Curtius,' Marburg, 1876 and 1877 (2 Programme, Q. pp. 94).

<sup>1) &</sup>quot;Ein' indogermanisch-semitisches Urvolk mit ausgebildeter Rede oder gar Mythos ist überhaupt nicht zu erreichen; wir gelangen, höchstens, um mit Renan zu reden zu zwei nackten Kindern, welche nahe bei einander geboren wurden und schon bald nach ihrer Geburt sich völlig trennten. Nur die naturwissenschaftliche Ethnologie kann eine Urverwandtschaft beider Rassen beweisen, wenn solche je existirte" (F. Delitzsch in Zarncke's Lit. Centralblatt, 1877, col. 791, 792).

will show this method: I-E. bhas, 'shine,' is compared with Hebr. ביצה (bēçāh), 'egg,' primary notion being that of 'whiteness, shining; 'also Arabic bášara, 'be joyful' (literally 'have a smooth, unwrinkled face'), and Hebr. שם (bāsār), 'flesh,' belong to this same root; again, Hebr. בשל (bāšál), 'cook.' is connected with Lat. frigo, Greek φρύγ-ω, 'roast' (p. 127). But Skt. bhrij, Lat. frigo, is =  $bhrzg\bar{o}$  or bhrzgo. marš is connected with Assyrian marçu (מרץ), 'be vexed, suffer, suffer patiently' (p. 139); or Skt. sad, 'go' (Greek οδός), with Arab. cádda, 'turn aside,' Hebr. ٦٤ (cad), 'side' (p. 149); 11 with this goes also TDL (caidd), 'go up or down, proceed, march,' and perhaps צדק (çādáq),12 originally 'go straight on, do right.' The best part of McCurdy's book are cc. I. and II. containing a good résumé of 'the past and present treatment of the subject,' and 'criteria of relationship' (pp. 1-52). Had he remembered the warning of Gesenius, 18 he would have seen that most of these so-called root-affinities are purely a matter of chance, and in many cases the result of false interpretation of Semitic or Indo-European words. These similarities of sound are utterly unavoidable on account of the comparatively small number of human sounds of articulation.

5. Here belongs also August Uppenkamp's Programm Der Begriff der Scheidung nach seiner Entwickelung in den semitischen und indogermanischen Sprachen.' As regards method, judgment, and sobriety, it is by far the best attempt to prove a genetic relationship between the two families. In many of his comparisons he follows his predecessors Raumer, Nöldechen, and, above all, McCurdy (pp. 129-136), of whose treatise he does not seem to be aware; but it will not do to connect Hebr. About 125 (kālāh), 'com-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> But the primitive meaning of  $\lnot \lnot \lnot \ifmmode 2 \ifmmode 2 \ifmmode 3 \ifmmode 2 \ifmmode 3 \ifmmode 4 \ifmm$ 

<sup>12</sup> On אברק see E. KAUTZSCH, 'Ueber die Derivate des Stammes im Alt-Testamentlichen Sprachgebrauch' (Tübingen, 1881).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>18</sup> Geschichte der Hebräischen Sprache und Schrist' (2<sup>te</sup> Auflage, Leipzig, 1827), p. 67.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> Beilage zum Programm des königl. Gymnasiums zu Düsseldorf für das Schuljahr 1890-91 (Bonn, 1891, pp. 39, Q.).

plete, be complete,  $(k\bar{o}l)$ , 'whole,' with Greek  $\kappa a \lambda \delta \hat{s}$ , 'beautiful' (p. 31 and rem. 2).

Many other attempts in this direction have been made in the past, some in a very superficial fashion, others with the use of scientific methods, 15 to establish the relationship between the Semitic and Indo-European languages. 'The oftenasserted relationship between their beginnings does not at present offer any appreciable promise of valuable light to be thrown upon their joint and respective history. The whole fabric and style of these two families of language is so discordant that any theory which assumes their joint development out of the radical stage, the common growth of their grammatical systems, is wholly excluded' (WHITNEY, Language and the Study of Language, 307). It cannot be denied that even scholars, like G. I. Ascoli, F. W. Vignoli (Myths and Science, 31), and others, believe that the Semitic language-group originally belonged to the Aryan family, or, at least, that there is an ultimate relationship of the two. But the number is yet greater of those who regard the asserted proof as altogether nugatory. It was very natural to suppose that the languages of the two races which, with the single exception of the Egyptians and the Chinese, have formed and moulded human civilization, who have been near neighbors from the earliest times, and who, moreover, seem to bear a great physical resemblance to one another, can be nothing else than two descendants of the same parent speech. these endeavors have wholly failed. It is, indeed, probable, says Nöldeke, 16 one of the best critics of this question, that not only the languages of the Semites and of the Indo-Europeans, but also those of other races, are derived from the same stock; but the separation must have taken place at

<sup>16</sup> A. RAABE, 'Gemeinschaftliche Grammatik der Arischen und der Semitischen Sprachen; voran eine Darlegung der Entstehung des Alfabets' (Leipzig, 1874, pp. 132). — JULIUS FÜRST, 'Lehrgebäude der Aramäischen Idiome mit Bezug auf die Indogermanischen Sprachen' (Leipzig, 1835); 'Hebräisches und Chaldäisches Wörterbuch' (Leipzig, 1861). — JUL. GRILL, 'Ueber das Verhältniss der Indogermanischen und Semitischen Sprachwurzeln; ein Beitrag zur Physiologie der Sprache' (ZDMG. 27, 425-60). — PAUL BOETTICHER, 'Wurzelforschungen,' 1852.

so remote a period that the changes which these languages underwent in prehistoric times have completely effaced what features they possessed in common, if such features have sometimes been perceived, they are no longer recognizable. It must be remembered that it is only in exceptionally favorable circumstances that cognate languages are so preserved during long periods as to render it possible for scientific analysis to prove their relationship with one another.<sup>17</sup>

The great Semitic scholar, W. GESENIUS, was almost the first <sup>18</sup> to see the error, into which his predecessors had fallen, of reconstructing an Aryo-Semitic parent speech. He showed that many of their conclusions were drawn from wrong premises, their results based on vague and unscientific combinations. He correctly maintained that the Semites had, at a very early period, come into contact with the Egyptians <sup>19</sup> as well as with the Greeks, whence it would naturally follow, that the Greeks had adopted many words

17 The following is an instance of the manner in which we may be deceived by isolated cases. 'Six' is in Hebrew DD (523), almost exactly like the Skt.' and Modern Persian 3a3, the Latin sex, etc.; but the I.-E. root is sweks, or perhaps even ksweks, whereas the Semitic root is sidt, so that the resemblance is a purely accidental one, produced by phonetic change. Compare also the Egyptian 3i3, which goes back to sids (ZDMG. 46, 127, rem. 5). Many years ago Gesenius, p. 66 of his Geschichte, said: WW (123), sex, sechs, and DDW (120at), septem, sieben, are the result of chance. Prof. A. WEBER, however, in a discussion of Joh. Schmidt's lecture, 'A testimony for the prehistoric migrations of the Indo-European tribes' (read before the Stockholm-Copenhagen Congress of Orientalists, 1890, and since published in the Abhandlungen der königl. Preussischen Akademie der Wiss. zu Berlin, 1890, under the title of 'Die Urheimath der Indogermanen und das europäische Zahlensystem,' pp. 56, Q.), draws attention to the fact, in proof that the Germanic tribes must in their original seats have been in close and neighborly relation with the Semites, (1) that the words for six and seven (and only these!) are common to both the Indo-European and Semitic languages, and (2) that the Indo-European tribes reckoned time originally by the moon ('the measurer'). See Trübner's Oriental Record, 3d series, I. 5, p. 153, rem. — LAGARDE believed εξ, six, and the Avestan forms to have been borrowed from the Semitic (G.G.Nachr. 1891, 178), while, on the other hand, έπτά cannot be brought into relationship with DIV (3e½a²), seven (F.üb. 38).

<sup>18</sup> The same views, expressed by Gesenius, are found two centuries earlier in S. Bochart's 'Opera Omnia,' *Hierozoicon*, I. and II., and *Phaleg* (Lugdun. Batav. 1692).

<sup>19</sup> See e.g. ZDMG. 46, 102-132.

and names of Semitic products and articles of trade, musical instruments, and precious stones, at the time when the Phoenician colonists and merchants imported these articles into Greece and its neighboring countries. It cannot be denied by students of ancient history and geography that the names of many of the oldest and most important seats of culture in ancient Greece can only be satisfactorily explained as derived from the Semitic; that, therefore, the Semitic nations, especially the Phoenicians, must have wielded great power and influenced to a large extent the early history of the forefathers of Homer and Herodotus.

The student who examines the Greek word-stock borrowed from the Semites must, however, beware lest he consider as borrowed the onomatopoetic or mimetic words common to both families,<sup>20</sup> or those in which the sameness or similarity of meaning follows readily from the nature of the kindred sounds, according to the universal type of human speech. Neither sameness nor similarity establishes a genetic relationship, to the direct proof of which the agreement also in grammatical structure is essential.

The small list of Greek words borrowed from the Semitic as given by Gesenius, Gesch. 66 ff., was accepted with a few changes by Movers,<sup>21</sup> Renan,<sup>22</sup> and Aug. Müller.<sup>28</sup>

Minor additions were also made by Th. Benfey,24 Fried.

<sup>20</sup> Examples of such onomatopoetic stems are given by GESENIUS, 'Geschichte,' 67; Hebr. Grammar (Engl. Transl., Andover, 1884), p. 5, to which many more could be added, e.g. Mandshu shun and Engl. sun; Mandshu sengi (blood) and Latin sanguis; North American potomac (river) and  $\pi \sigma \tau a \mu bs$  (Sayce, Introd. to Sc. of Lang. I. 149); Egyptian hum and Semitic  $x\bar{a}mdm$  (DDI), 'be warm'; Egyptian p and Sem. I'D (p) = to fly; Egyptian p and Greek p and (both = widow); or Germ. Scheune and Coptic seune (= barn), ZDMG. 46, 106; p and p are p and p an

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>21</sup> Article 'Phoenizien' in Ersch und Gruber's Allgemeiner Encyclopaedie, III. Section, Vol. 24, pp. 358 ff.; also his work 'Die Phoenizier,' especially Vol. II. no. 3 (Berlin, 1856).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>22</sup> 'Histoire générale et système comparé des langues sémitiques,' quatrième édition, Paris, 1863 (= R.), pp. 204-211.

<sup>28 &#</sup>x27;Semitische Lehnworte im älteren Griechisch' (BB. 1, 273-301).

<sup>24 &#</sup>x27;Griechisches Wurzellexikon,' 1839-42 (abbreviated B.).

Müller,26 H. L. Fleischer,28 and above all by Paul De LAGARDE,<sup>27</sup> the Scaliger of the nineteenth century. In his 'Mittheilungen' (= 31), 2, 356, Lagarde writes: "Die aus dem semitischen in das griechische eingedrungenen Wörter verfolge ich seit 40 Jahren. Ich hoffe was ich über sie weiss, noch vorlegen zu können." It is a great pity that his sudden death (Dec. 22, 1891) made this promise impossible; for no one was better fitted to do such a work than Lagarde, a perfect master of language and literature. It was - by the way - also Lagarde who first pointed out the connection between the Assyrian and the Cyprian (X. arm. 154 rem.), a fact entirely overlooked by recent writers on the Cyprian dialect. Mention must also be made of François Lenor-MANT'S treatment of Greek words from the Semitic in his article, 'The Kadmos legend and the Phoenician settlements in Greece.'28 His statements, however, have to be carefully examined, and his results are sometimes faulty and not exact. It is therefore best for one not acquainted with both families of language not to rely too much on Lenormant's criticisms. PAUL SCHRÖDER in his book 'Die Phonizische Sprache' (Halle, 1869), and A. v. KREMER's paper on 'Culturgeschichtliche Beziehungen zwischen Europa und dem Oriente' (Wien, 1876), have some remarks on the subject under-discussion. E. Ries' dissertation 'Quae res et vocabula a gentibus semiticis in Graeciam pervenerint, quaestiones selectae' (Vratislaviae, 1890, pp. 59) is not very satisfactory, and shows a lack of acquaintance with the literature on loan-words.

<sup>26</sup> KZ. 10, 267, on έλέφας; 319, on olvos. Kuhn's Beiträge, 2, 490, on ξίφος, rαῦρος, ρόδον.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>26</sup> In his additions to Levy's 'Wörterbuch über die Targumim und einen grossen Theil des rabbinischen Schriftthums,' 1881.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>27</sup> A list of Lagarde's contributions to this branch of science will be found under the heading of 'abbreviations.'

<sup>28 ·</sup> La légende de Cadmus et les établissements Phéniciens en Grèce,' Annales de philosophie chrétienne, 1867, pp. 1-24, 93-110, 178-203, 269-279, 325-335, and reprinted in his 'Les origines de la culture' (1876). He considers as very old loan-words, occurring already in Homer, χρυσός, κυπάρισσος, φῦκος, χιτών, μύρρα (cf. μύρομαι), τιθαιβώσσω; βοῦς he explains as the I-E. word for ox, bull; while ταῦρος, Latin taurus, is borrowed from Aram. Κηιπ (tōrā); το (māšdl) = βασιλεύς.

VANIČEK'S 'Fremdwörter im Griechischen und Lateinischen' (Leipzig, 1878, pp. 81) is still valuable for the mass of literature it contains, although otherwise without much merit. O. Keller's remarks on Greek and Latin words from the Semitic in his two books: 'Thiere des klassischen Alterthums' (Innsbruck, 1877), and 'Lateinische Volksetymologie nebst einem Anhange über griechische Volksetymologie' (Leipzig, 1891) are to be used with caution and distrust.<sup>29</sup>

On Greek proper names and names of cities and countries JUSTUS OLSHAUSEN has written some excellent articles; other contributions have been made, of late, by A. Sonny in the *Philologus*, Vol. 48; and H. Lewy in Fleckeisen's *Neue Jahrbücher*, Vol. 145, 177–191.30

H. EWALD's views on the connection between the Semitic and Indo-European families of language are found in his 'Abhandlung über den Zusammenhang des Nordischen (Türkischen), Mittelländischen, Semitischen und Koptischen Sprachstammes' (G. G. Abh. Vol. X, 1862, pp. 80, Q.). Shortly before this, in 1861, KAULEN had published his book 'Die Sprachverwirrung zu Babel.' Ewald and Kaulen were severely criticised by POTT in his 'Anti-Kaulen, oder mythische Vorstellungen vom Ursprunge der Völker und Sprachen; nebst Beurtheilung der zwei sprachwissenschaftlichen Abhandlungen Heinrich von Ewald's' (Lemgo und Detmold, 1863). R. F. GRAU'S 'Semiten und Indogermanen, in ihrer Beziehung zu Religion und Wissenschaft' (2te Auflage, Stuttgart, 1887, pp. 261), and J. Röntsch's 'Ueber Indogermanen und Semitenthum, eine völkerpsychologische Studie' (Leipzig, 1872, pp. 274) do not enter into a discussion of the linguistic affinities, and do not therefore concern us.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>29</sup> The former book contains a great deal of instructive and learned material, for which we must be thankful to Keller; but his etymologies from the Semitic are usually "an den Haaren herbeigezogen." A review of his 'Volksetymologie' is found in A.J.P. XIII. 228–235.

<sup>89</sup> Rhein. Mus., Neue Folge, 8, 321-340; Hermes, 14, 145 ff.; Monatsberichte der Berliner Akademie der Wiss., 1879, 555 ff.; F. HITZIG, Rhein. Mus. 8, 601 ff., attempted in vain to overthrow some of Olshausen's results. Hitzig is followed by ALEX. ENMANN, 'Kritische Versuche zur ältesten griechischen Geschichte, I.. Kypros und der Ursprung des Aphroditekultus' (Mémoires de l'Académie Impériale des Sciences de St. Pétersbourg), 1886, pp. 85, Q.

FRIEDRICH MULLER<sup>31</sup> believes that Semitic and Indo-European are two entirely different families of language, showing no connection whatever; all words, therefore, common to both, are either onomatopoetic or borrowed by the one from the other. Fr. Hommel,<sup>32</sup> on the other hand, following A. v. Kremer, proposed the theory that certain words common to both families have been borrowed in early pre-Semitic and pre-I.-E. times either by the Semites from the Indo-European nations or vice versa; that these prove the primitive neighborhood of the two great families, which, however, are not originally related to each other. The examples adduced are six:—

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Pre-I.-E. staura, Pre-Sem. tauru (bull).
Ι. ταῦρος,
2. κέρας (cornu),
                         karna,
                                           qarnu (horn).
                    "
                         laiwa,
                                     "

 λῖς, λέων,

                                           babi'atu (lion).
                    "
                                     46
                         gharata,
                                           xarūdu (gold).

 χρυσός,

                                     ..
5. silber
                                           tarpu (silver).
                         sirpara,
                                     "
6. olvos.
                          waina,
                                           uainu (wine).88
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Joh. Schmidt, 'Die Urheimath der Indogermanen,' p. 9, rejects Hommel's statements, and denies a common origin of these six words as the result of close neighborhood in very early times; he believes, however, that Latin raudus = Sumerian urud (copper) and  $\pi \hat{\epsilon} \lambda \epsilon \kappa v_S = Assyrian pilaqqu$ , Sumerian balag show some connection between the Indo-European and Semitic races, and that there are, besides, certain affinities in their numerical systems. An original connection between Indo-European, Semitic, and Hamitic is assumed by MARTIN SCHULTZE 34 and CARL ABEL. 35

- <sup>81</sup> Indogermanisch und Semitisch,' Sitzungsberichte der Wiener Akademie, Philos.-Histor. Classe, Bd. 65 (1870), 1-21; especially p. 6.
- 82 'Die ursprünglichen Wohnsitze der Semiten' (Beilage zur allgem. Zeitung, 1878, no. 263); 'Arier und Semiten' (1879). On the relation between the I.-E. and the Semitic, see also Pott in 'Techmer's Zeitschrift,' 3, 251 ff.
- 88 See O. SCHRADER, 'Sprachvergleichung und Urgeschichte,' Jena, 1883, pp. 111, 146–149; also II. edition, 133 ff.; F. MAX MÜLLER, 'Biographies of Words' (1888), passim, says 'the so-called Semitic loan-words, bull, horn, lion, gold, silver, and wine, in Greek, lend themselves as well to an Aryan as to a Semitic etymology.'
  - 84 'Indogermanisch, Semitisch, und Hamitisch' (Berlin, 1873, pp. 36).
- 85 'Einleitung in ein aegyptisch-semitisch-indo-europaeisches Wurzelwörterbuch' (1887), and 'Wechselbeziehungen der ägypt., indo-europ. und semit. Etymologie' (Leipzig, 1889).

The following chapters treat of about 400 Greek and Latin words, which have been considered by various writers as borrowed from the Semitic, Egyptian, and other Eastern languages. More than one-half of these must be rejected because they are either genuine Indo-European, or, at least, cannot be traced to an Eastern home. According to Wharton the percentage of borrowed words in Greek (proper names excluded) is only 24, while in English 75, in Persian 62, in Latin 14, chiefly from the Greek. In classical Greek, down to 300 B.C., there are about 41,000 words, of which perhaps 1000 are foreign.

Of the GREEK ALPHABET I need say but little, it being admitted by all that its origin is to be sought among the Phoenicians, which also explains the names of the letters. Herodotus 5, 58, 2, indeed, says: the oldest alphabet used by the Greeks was, as the saying goes, brought from Phoenicia by a certain Oriental, Kadmos, 36 and thus called the Kadmean or Phoenician. It had only sixteen letters (καδμήΐα Whether the Phoenicians were the inventors of the alphabet, as they were its disseminators, is yet an open question, and does not concern us here.87 I do not agree with Super (l.c. 509) that 'aleph probably became first alepha and then alpha, under the influence of the recessive The -a is rather based on the analogy of γράμμα, 88 and the letters need not have been adopted from an Aramean people. Like the Phoenicians, the Greeks saw that there were at least five vowels, and they had the courage to use Céσει, as vowel-signs, the consonant signs of the Semites,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>85</sup> On Kadmos see J.H.U.C. no. 81, 76.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>37</sup> See C. W. Super, 'On the early history of our Alphabet' (Bibl. Sacra, 1892, 496 ff.), and the literature cited, to which should be added such standard works as: F. Lenormant, 'Sur la propagation de l'alphabet phénicien dans l'ancien monde' (Paris, 1866, pp. 132); A. Kirchhoff, 'Studien zur Geschichte des griechischen Alphabets' (Gütersloh, 1887); F. Hommel, 'Geschichte Babyloniens und Assyriens,' pp. 50-57; Pietschmann, 'Geschichte der Phoenizier,' pp. 242 and 285 ff.; C. Schlottmann's excellent article, 'Schrift und Schriftzeichen,' in E. Riehm's Handwörterbuch des biblischen Alterthums, II. 1416–1431; P. de Lagarde, 'Symmicta,' I. 113-116; Brugsch, 'Aegyptologie,' 41 ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>38</sup> P. Schröder, Phönizische Sprache, 30-31; and Geo. Hoffmann, 'Über einige phönikische Inschriften,' p. 6, rem. 1 (G.G.Abh. Vol. 36).

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א, ה, ה, י, and י, for which they had otherwise no use. remains of the Phoenician alphabet corresponds from  $\beta-\tau$  to the consonants of the Greeks.39 'Iωτα originated from Hebr.  $\forall$  (iād), Greek  $\omega$  for Semitic  $\bar{a}$  occurring quite often; 40 the  $\tau$  instead of  $\delta$  (by the side of  $\lambda \acute{a}\mu\beta\delta a$ ) is due to 'Auslautsstellung.' 41 — Zăjin became  $\zeta \hat{\eta} \tau a$ , after the analogy of the following  $\eta \tau a$  (=  $\Pi \Pi$ ) and  $\theta \eta \tau a$  (=  $\Pi \Omega$ ), which latter may also have influenced partly the  $\tau$  of  $l\hat{\omega}\tau a$ . — Greek  $\neg$  and  $\Sigma$  were originally two distinct consonants, I going back to çādē and  $\Sigma$  ( $\sigma$ ) to  $\tilde{sin}$ .  $C\bar{a}d\bar{e}$  and  $\tilde{sin}$  served to represent the same s-sound in Greek, at first indifferently; later, some Greeks preferred 5, others 5. The inscriptions of Abu Simbel belong to the first, those of Miletus and Naucratis to the second group (see Rhein. Mus., 44, 467-77). The name σίγμα is = Hebr. Τάρτ (šiķmāh, Jag. J. 4, 383). Doric σάν may be the nominative-dual of the genitive שון) שון i.e. šajin-šēn);  $\xi$  is derived from Semitic Sāmek, originally = ks, and was pronounced \( \xi\_{\epsilon} \).42

In his explanation of  $\epsilon$ ,  $\epsilon$ ,  $\phi$ ,  $\chi$ ,  $\xi$ , and  $\psi$ , Super seems to have followed throughout Clermont-Ganneau, who by his 'loi de la contiguité' derives F from E, X from T,  $\Psi$  from T, and  $\Phi$  from P, after P had been relegated to the end of the alphabet after tan. Notice should have been taken of P. Gardhausen's article, 'Zur Geschichte des griechischen Alphabets,' in *Rhein. Mus. für Philologie*, Vol. 40, 598–610, and that of P. Hirschfelder, *ibid.* 42, 209–225, and 44, 467–77, an answer to P. A. Gardner's contribution toward our knowledge of 'The Early Ionic Alphabet' in *Journal of Hellenic Studies*, VII. 220–239.

<sup>89</sup> Fag. M. IV. 370 ff.

<sup>4)</sup> E.g. Οὐλῶμος for שלם (lōlām), Mattonus for אולם (mattān), -ιαθων for און (tatān), etc.

<sup>42</sup> On this important question see Bochart, *Phaleg*, 451; Wallin, ZDMG. 9, 60; J. Olshausen, Monatsberichte der Berliner Akademie, 1879, 566, 567; Lagarde, 'Symmicta,' I. 114; 'Armen. Studien,' §§ 1680 and 1687; Fag. M. 1, 69 and 152; 4, 370 ff.; Paul Haupt, G.G.Nachr. 1883, 99, rem. 4; A. Müller in Stade's Zeitschrift, 11, 267-8.

The system of transliteration of the Semitic sounds, adopted in this article, is that proposed by Prof. Paul Haupt in the Beiträge zur Assyriologie und Semitischen Sprachwissenschaft, I. 247-67, viz.:  $\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{i}$ ;  $\mathbf{J} = b$ ;  $\mathbf{J} = g$  (Arabic  $\mathbf{Z} = j$ );  $\mathbf{J} = d$ ;  $\mathbf{J} = h$ ;  $\mathbf{J} = u$ ;  $\mathbf{J} = z$ ;  $\mathbf{J}_1$  (i.e. unpointed Arabic  $\mathbf{Z}_1$ ) = h;  $\mathbf{J}_2$  (i.e. pointed Arabic  $\mathbf{Z}_1$ ) = x;  $\mathbf{J} = z$ ;  $\mathbf{J} = z$ .

Raphé (i.e. the spirant sound) of the  $\square$   $\square$   $\square$   $\square$  has been, with the exception of  $\square$ , indicated by a stroke beneath the letters, viz.:  $\underline{b}$ ;  $\underline{g}$  (also = Arabic  $\underline{c}$ );  $\underline{d}$ ;  $\underline{k}$  and t;  $\square$  with raphé is written  $\underline{f}$ .

Dagesh forte is indicated by the doubling of the letter.

The long vowels are marked by a stroke above the vowelletter; Ščųā, simple and compound, by , while the commonly called short vowels receive no special mark at all.

The word-accent is indicated by the acute over the syllable which has the summit-tone.

Examining the list of loan-words, we find that in general Greek  $\beta=3$ ;  $\gamma=1$ , later sometimes =  $\mathbb{Z}$  and  $\mathbb{Z}$ ;  $\delta=\mathbb{Z}$ ;  $\iota=\mathbb{Z}$ ;  $\kappa = 7$ ,  $\lambda$ , and  $\Delta$ ;  $\lambda = 5$  and occasionally = 1 (cf.  $\lambda \in \pi \rho a$ );  $\mu = 5$ ;  $\nu=1$ ;  $\nu\nu=\Pi 1$ ;  $\pi=\Omega$ ;  $\rho=\Pi$ ;  $\sigma=\Omega$ ,  $\forall$ ,  $\forall$ ,  $\Sigma$  (also  $=\sigma\sigma$ ), and  $\Gamma$  $(\tilde{v}\sigma\sigma\omega\pi\sigma\sigma)$ ;  $\sigma\sigma=\vec{v}$  and  $\Pi\vec{x}$ ; and  $\tau=\Pi$ , also = Arabic;  $\phi=\vec{D}$ and  $\bar{\Delta}$ ;  $\chi = [\Pi]$ ,  $\bar{\Delta}$ . H. Ewald 48 and P. De Lagarde 44 have proved that, on the whole, in earlier Greek, Semitic n was transcribed by  $\tau$ , and by  $\theta$ . Cf. 'A $\sigma \tau \acute{a}\rho \tau \eta =$ ראר ('aštōret, a corruption for 'astart); βαίτυλος = בארת : Βήρυτος = בארת (Bě'ērōt, of which Latin Puteoli is simply the translation); Kiτιον = בלשתים (kittīm); Παλαιστίνη = בלשתים (Pělištīm, Lag. 'Symmicta,' I. 114 and J. üb.). 'Αταργάτις = ΚΠΣΠΠ (Tar'atā), corrupted into Δερκετώ; Ταίναρον, from Hebr. Tannūr (Zend. tanūra), a promontory of Laconia, containing iron ore;  $\lambda_i \beta a \nu \omega \tau - \dot{o}_S = \dot{c}_I$  (cf.  $\Lambda_i \beta a \nu \dot{\omega} \nu = \dot{c}_I \dot{c}_I$ ); κασύτας = κυίσο  $(ka\check{s}\check{u}\check{e}t\bar{a})$ , etc. — On the other hand, for  $b=\theta$  we have  $\mu\acute{a}\lambda\theta a=$ מלט (mélet, but ??),  $\partial\theta \dot{\phi} \eta = \gamma$ אטון ('ēṭūn); the Punic name  $\Theta o \rho \pi \dot{a} \theta$ 

<sup>48</sup> Hebr. Gramm.8 § 47, rem.

<sup>44</sup> Ges. Abh. 255, 256; 'Agathangelus,' 141.

= שרפט ;  $Ka\theta \dot{a}\nu a$  (Catina) on Sicily = המנה.  $K\dot{\omega}\theta\omega\nu$ , the name of the second harbor of Carthago, mentioned by Schröder (Phön. Sprache, 171, 28) and A. Müller (BB. 1, 282) as = מון (qāṭōn), is the same as the good Greek κώθων, 'bottle, flask,' which the shape of the harbor resembled. 45 - In later time the order was reversed, Semitic  $\Pi$  being transcribed by  $\theta$ , Thus we have  $\mu \dot{o}\theta a\xi$ ,  $\dot{a}\beta \dot{a}\theta \mu a\tau a$ ,  $\theta \dot{c}\beta \omega \nu o\varsigma$ , etc.; and **b** by τ. LXX.  $\Gamma o \theta o \lambda i a = מחליה (A \theta a \lambda i a, Athalia), i.e. 'whose Lord$ is Jehovah,' from a root gatala, 'be ruler, lord';  $\Gamma o\theta o \nu i \eta \lambda =$ עתניאל (Οθνιηλ), with a variant כ for ג (cf. λίτρον-νίτρον); the original may have been לחליל, 'whose Lord is God.' a case of dissimilation. 46 — שם became au, e.g.  $Taeta\iota\theta\dot{a}=$  $(tabjet\bar{t}\bar{a}) = \delta o \rho \kappa \dot{a}$ ς, Acts ix. 36; Ταλιθά (κοῦμ, var. κοῦμι) = Aram. שלימא, fem. to שלים, youth (Mark v. 41), דס κοράσιον (\$.\$rm. 2229, \$ag.\$. 1, 228); σατανᾶς (Matt. iv. 10) = NIDD (saṭanā, stat. emph. to TDD, sāṭān =  $\delta\iota\dot{\alpha}\beta\circ\lambda\circ\varsigma$ ).

ק and  $\Box$  in earlier Greek were usually transcribed by κ, e.g. κάδος, κίδαρις, κίταρις, κλωβός, κύπρος, σίκερα, φῦκος; Κύρνος (Corsica) = Old Phoen. אוֹם (qéren, qŭrn, Kiepert, 256); Μυκήνη, from Hebr. מכנה (měkōnāh, fem. to מכנה, mākōn, 'settlement,' Kiepert, 158, rem. I; Ries, 6, 7); but also by χ, especially in later Greek, e.g. χάραξ, χαυ(ν)ῶνες; Uruk = 'Ορχόη; שברים (Καšdīm, later Kaldu) = Χαλδαῖοι; Χνᾶ = 'Ορχόη; בנכן (Καἰεḇ) = P.Ν. Χαλέβ; Χόλοιβος (Periplous of the Red Sea) = Arab. Κυlάib; בנכן = Χελαιών (Lagarde, 'Onom. Sacra,' 62, 5 = consummatio); Μάλχος = 'Μελχι-σέδεκ), while in earlier Greek, Μάλικα (= ); Μοσόχ

<sup>46</sup> Geo. Hoffmann, 'Über einige phönikische Inschriften,' 6, rem. 1. — On Bochart's peculiar views on  $\kappa \dot{\omega} \theta \omega_r$ , see his *Phaleg*, 469.

<sup>46</sup> Βεθφογορ = DDND (Josh. xiii. 20); Nεεσθάν = [NDN] (2 Kings xviii. 4); Λευιαθάν = [NDN] (J. üb. 188 and 205); 'Εμάθ (sometimes incorrectly  $\Lambda l\mu d\theta$ ) = NDN (J. üb. 238). In the New Testament we have  $B\eta \theta \epsilon \sigma \delta d$  (John v. 2) = NDNND ( $\delta \bar{\epsilon} l$  xes $d\bar{a}$ ), 'house of grace,' or according to Westcott and Hort =  $\beta a\theta l$   $\delta a l\theta a$  = NNND ('olive-house');  $M d\rho \theta a$  = NNDD ( $m \bar{a} r \bar{\epsilon} l \bar{a}$ ), Lady (Luke x. 38), statemph. to ND, fem. to ND, Lord, which we find in  $\mu a \rho a \nu a \theta \bar{a}$  (I Cor. xvi. 22, the Lord cometh, J. a. 39), read  $\mu a \rho a \nu a - \theta \bar{a}$ , i.e.  $\mu a \rho a \nu a \bar{a}$ , the Lord,  $+ \theta \bar{a} = d\theta \bar{a}$ , with initial aphaeresis of + l l l l (Nöldeke-Wellhausen). — In Joseph. Antl. 3, 10, 6, we have + l l l l + l l l + l l l + l l + l l + l l + l l +

(= TΦD, méšek), the Móσγοι of classical authors and Μέσγοι of the church fathers, Χοδολλογομορ = בדרלעמר Assyr. Kudur lagamara. Sometimes they were rendered by y, e.g. γόης, γοσσύπιον. — Semitic Π was represented in Greek by κ, e.g. κέραμος (= בולף ; κόλλυβος = אוד ; Κάμειρον = המר (Argillosa, Bochart, Ph. 366; Ries, 44); Malaca = מלחה; Calacene = כלח ; Κάρραι = הלך (צ'ag. אוֹ. ו, 228) ; Κιλικία = הלך (3.ub. 57, rem. 1); also the Homeric Κιμμέρ-ιοι, from ΤΣΠ, their huts being called ἄργιλλαι (Neue Jahrbücher, 1892, 180, no. 3); others =  $\Box$  (Gömer, Gen. x. 2 and Ez. xxvii. II); — or by  $\gamma$ , e.g.  $\neg D \cap (x\bar{e}fer) = \Gamma \epsilon \beta \epsilon \rho \epsilon$ , Josh. xix. I3; — by  $\chi$ , especially in later Greek: 'Αμμόχωστος = Assyr. Ammihadašti (Esarhaddon) becoming aµµo-, after the analogy of αμμος, ψάμμος (ἀμμόχρυσος), and χέω; it appears also in theVenetian Famagusta; χαλβάνη; χαλκός (?); χείμαρρος; χρυσός; -also by spiritus asper and lenis, e.g. "Αννων= [137] (Hannon); βδέλλα=ΠϽΤΞ; Νεέλ, from ΤΠΙ (nixil for naxal), prototype of Neilos (Z. üb. 140, rem. 1); 'Ωλήν (the Lykian poet and prophet) >  $\Box$  ( $h\bar{o}l\bar{e}m$ ), 'a prophetic dreamer'; ' $\Omega\pi\iota\varsigma$  (in Ephesus), from הובית (hōf-īt), fem. to אור, 'coast, shore'; the goddess appears in Greek as 'Ακτία, just as Apollon as "Aκτιος (Lewy);  $\tilde{a}\beta\rho a$ ;  $\tilde{a}\mu\epsilon\theta\nu\sigma\tau$ ος;  $\tilde{a}\mu\omega\mu$ ον;  $\tilde{a}\rho$ ιζος, etc.—  $\Pi$  (nx) appears as νν, e.g. μάννα, from ΤΠΙΣ, ὅπερ θυσίαν οἱ Ἑβραῖοι καλοῦσι (Theodoret, 2, 630). — I was transcribed by γ or κ, e.g. רבר שהדותא (iĕgár sahadūṭā, 🎖 ag. 🛍 בי 2, 147); Gadeira, Phoen. Gādēr; Kaunlos (גמל); Κιμμέριοι (המו), and, according to Lewy, also Κρόνος > Hebr. gārōn (גרון), constr. state gĕrōn ('throat,' from a verb meaning 'to swallow').  $\longrightarrow$  is represented by  $\pi$  (la $\sigma\pi\iota\varsigma$ ) or  $\phi$ , e.g. αλφα;  $\Sigma \dot{\alpha}\pi \phi \epsilon i \rho a$  ( $\Box D = sapp \bar{i}r$ , after the analogy of  $\Sigma a\pi \phi \dot{\omega}$ ), κέλυφος; κεκρύφαλος (?); κόλαφος, and κολαπτήρ (Stowasser, but?). —  $\Sigma$  was rendered either by spiritus lenis,  $\gamma$ , or  $\kappa$ ; thus αγόρ, αρραβών, Agylla (= Caere), from Semitic ענל ('āgōl, fem. 'agúlla, 'round, rounded'); also 'Αχολλα · πόλις Λιβύης  $\Gamma$ ομόρρα = ממרה;  $\Gamma$ αράφ = Arabic 'drafun (Dioscor. 2, 140). κακκάβη. —  $\mathbf{Y}$  is very often represented by  $\sigma \tau$ , e.g.  $\dot{a}\lambda \dot{a}\beta a\sigma \tau \rho \sigma \varsigma$ ; διστός (but ?); στύραξ; Βόστρα, Μεστραίμ = Hebr. Miçraim;

thus Latin castrum became in Arabic qaçr, and stratum = Arabic çrāţun;  $\lambda\eta\sigma\tau\dot{\eta}s$  = Arabic laççun or liççun (Fränkel, 248; ZDMG. 29, 423; 32, 409; G.G.Anz. 1865, 735; Lagarde, 'Semitica,' I. 47). It was also rendered by  $\sigma$ , especially at the beginning of words,  $\Sigma\iota\delta\dot{\omega}\nu$ ,  $\Sigma\alpha\rho\dot{\epsilon}\phi\theta$  (Jos. Antt. 8, 13, 2) =  $\Sigma\dot{\alpha}\rho\epsilon\pi\tau\alpha$  (Luke iv. 26), and  $\Sigma\dot{\alpha}\rho\alpha\pi\tau\alpha$  (Steph. Byz.);  $\Sigma\dot{\epsilon}\rho\iota\phi\sigma$ , etc. — I was transcribed mostly by  $\zeta$ ; in the case of  $\nu\sigma\sigma\omega\pi\sigma\sigma$  =  $\Sigma$  Müller (BB. 1, 285) suggests that the brevity of the first vowel in Greek, having the accent, accounts for  $\sigma\sigma$  =  $\Sigma$ .

# To save space I have employed in this article the following ABBREVIATIONS.

- A.-S. = Anglo-Saxon; Arm. = Armenian; Arab. = Arabic; Aram. = Aramean; Hebr. = Hebrew; I.-E. = Indo-European; Idg. = Indogermanic (Indogermanisch); Lith. = Lithuanian; O.H.G., M.H.G., and N.H.G. = Old, Middle, and New High German; O.N. = Old Norse; Phoen. = Phoenician; Skt. = Sanskrit; Sem. = Semitic; Slav. = Slavonic.
- A.J.P. = American Journal of Philology (Baltimore, Md.); B. = Th. Benfey, Griechisches Wursellexikon (2 vols. 1839-42); BB. = Bezzenberger's Beiträge zur Kunde der Idg. Sprachen (Göttingen, 1877 ff.); G. = Gesenius, Geschichte der hebräischen Sprache und Schrift; G.G.Abh. = Abhandlungen der Königlichen Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften zu Göttingen; G.G.Anz. and G.G.Nachr. = Göttingische Gelehrte Anseigen and IDEM: Nachrichten; Hdt. = Herodotus; I.F. = Indogermanische Forschungen (vols. I. and II., Strassburg); J.H.U.C. = Johns Hopkins University Circulars; KZ. = Kuhn's Zeitschrift für vergleichende Sprachforschung (Berlin, 1852 ff.); LXX. = The Greek Translation of the Old Testament; Mém. = Mémoires de la société de linguistique de Paris (Paris); R. = E. Renan, Histoire générale et système comparé des langues sémitiques (4º édition, Paris, 1863); ZDMG. = Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft (Leipzig).
- L.B. = Paul de Lagarde, Gesammelte Abhandlungen (Leipzig, 1866); L.B.m. = IDEM: Armenische Studien (Göttingen, 1877); L.p. = IDEM: Anmerkungen zur griechischen Übersetzung der Proverbien (Leipzig, 1863); L.T. = IDEM: Reliquiae iuris ecclesiastici antiquissimae graece (Leipzig, 1856); L.üb. = IDEM: Übersicht über die im Aramäischen, Arabischen uhr Hebräischen übliche Bildung der Nomina (Göttingen, 1889); Lag. M. = Lagarde, Mittheilungen (4 vols., Göttingen, 1884-91); B.T. = P. Boetticher (Lagarde), Rudimenta Mythologiae Semiticae (Berolini, 1848).
- Baudissin I. and II. = W. W. Graf Baudissin, Studien zur semitischen Religionsgeschichte (Leipzig, 1876 and 1878); Boch(art) H. I. and II. = S. Bochart, Hierozoicon, parts I. and II. : IDEM Ph. = Phaleg (Lugduni Batav. 1892, F.); Bradke = P. von Bradke, Methode und Ergebnisse der arischen Alterthums-Wissenschaft (Giessen, 1890); Curt(ius)<sup>5</sup> = Georg Curtius, Grundzüge der griechischen Etymologie, 5<sup>te</sup> Auflage (Leipzig, 1879); (Curtius) Studien = Studien zur griechischen und lateinischen Grammatik, herausgegeben von Geo. Curtius, 10 Bände (Leipzig, 1868-78); Enmann = Alex. Enmann, Kritische Versuche zur ältesten griechischen Geschichte, I. Kypros und der Ursprung des Aphrodischultus (St. Pétersbourg, 1886); Fick<sup>4</sup> I. = August Fick, Vergleichendes Wörterbuch der indogermanischen Sprachen I. (4<sup>te</sup> Auflage, Göttingen, 1890); Fränkel = S. Fränkel, Die aramäischen Ferendwörter im Arabischen (Leiden, 1886); Gruppe = O. Gruppe, Die griechischen Culte und Mythen in ihren Beziehungen zu den orientsischen Religionen, I. Band (Leipzig, 1877); Hehn = Victor Hehn, Cultivated plants and domestic animals in their migration from Asia to Europe (English translation, London, 1891);

Helbig = W. Helbig, Das homerische Epos aus den Denkmälern erklärt (Leipzig, 1884); Jubainville = H. D'Arbois de Jubainville, Les premiers habitants de l'Europe (2º édition), I. Paris, 1889: Keller = O. Keller, Lateinische Volksetymologie und Verwandtes (Leipzig, 1891); Keller, Thiere = IDEM, Thiere des klassischen Alterthums (Innsbruck, 1887); Kiepert=H. Kiepert, A Manual of Ancient Geography (London, 1881); Lewy=H. Lewy's article in Fleckeisen's Neue Jahrbücher, 1892, vol. 145, 177-191; Löw = Im. Löw, Aramäische Pflanzennamen (Leipzig, 1881); Meltzer = O. Meltzer, Geschichte der Karthager, I. Band (Berlin, 1879); Ed. Meyer l. = Ed. Meyer, Geschichte des Alterthums, Band I. (Stuttgart, 1884); G. Meyer3 = Gustav Meyer, Griechische Grammatik, 2te Aufl. (Leipzig, 1886); the references to these two books are to the paragraphs. Movers = F. K. Movers, Die Phoenizier (Breslau, vol. I. 1841; Il. 1849-56); Müllenhoff = K. Müllenhoff, Deutsche Alterthumskunde, I. (Berlin, 1870); Pietschmann = Rich. Pietschmann, Geschichte der Phoenizier (Berlin, 1889); Pott3 = A. F. Pott, Etymologische Forschungen auf dem Gebiete der indogermanischen Sprachen, 2te Aufl. (Lemgo, 1859, 1861); Prellwitz = W. Prellwitz, Etymologisches Wörterbuch der griechischen Sprache (Göttingen, 1892); Pusey, Daniel = E. B. Pusey, Daniel the Prophet, nine lectures delivered in the Divinity School of the University of Oxford (New York, 1885); Ries = E. Ries, Quae res et vocabula a gentibus Semiticis in Graeciam pervenerint, quaestiones selectae (Vratislaviae, 1890); Saalfeld = A. Saalfeld, Tensaurus Italo-graecus (Wien, 1884); O. Schrader<sup>2</sup> = O. Schrader, Sprachvergleichung und Urgeschichte, 2te Auflage (Jena, 1890); Schröder = P. Schröder, Die Phonisische Sprache, Entwurf einer Grammatik, nebst Sprach-und Schriftproben (Halle, 1869); Schumann = C. Schumann, Kritische Untersuchungen über die Zimmtländer; Ergänzungsheft 73 zu 'Petermann's Mittheilungen' (Gotha, 1883, pp. 53); Stade I. and II. = B. Stade, Geschichte des Volkes Israel (2 vols., Berlin, 1887 and 1888); Stowasser 1. and II. = J. M. Stowasser, Dunkle Wörter, Erste und zweite Reihe (Wien, 1890 and 1891); Uppenkamp = A. Uppenkamp, Der Begriff der Scheidung nach seiner Entwickelung in den semitischen und indo-germanischen Sprachen (Bonn, 1891); Vaniček = A. Vaniček, Griechisch-lateinisches etymologisches Wörterbuch (2 Bände, Leipzig, 1877); Weise, Lehnworter = O. Weise, Die griechischen Wörter im Latein (Leipzig, 1882); Wiedemann A. Wiedemann, Sammlung altägyptischer Wörter, welche von klassischen autoren umschrieben oder übersetzt worden sind (Leipzig, 1883).

The other abbreviations can easily be understood without a special key.

### I. - RELIGION.

The great influence of the Oriental nations in shaping the religious belief, rites, and customs of the Greeks has been recognized by almost all writers on Greek history. Consequently a great many Greek words belonging to this class have been derived from the Semitic, a few of which will be discussed in this chapter; while others, especially the names of divinities, will be reserved for another occasion.

Thus βαίτυλος, Lat. betulus, 'a meteoric stone, held sacred because it fell from heaven,' is connected with the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See especially E. Curtius, 'Alterthum und Gegenwart, gesammelte Vorträge.' II. 55-72, and O. Gruppe, 'Die griechischen Culte und Mythen.'

Hebr. בית־אל (bēt-'ēl, Phoen. bēt-'ül).2 The κάβειροι are Τιτάνες, θεοί μεγάλοι, χρηστοί, δυνατοί (Macrob. Saturn. III. 4) = Sem. בירים (kabbīrīm), 'potentes.' Ships were regarded as their invention, and a sculptured image of one of the Cabires was placed on every Phoenician wargalley, either at the stern or the stem of the vessel (Hdt. 3, 37). These κάβειροι are the בני אלהים (běnē 'elohīm) = 'elohīm. The youngest of the Cabeiri was Ešmūn ('the eighth'), whose name Lenormant, after Bochart, has identified with that of the Greek hero Ἰσμηνός.<sup>3</sup> The images referred to are called πάταικοι (Hdt. 3, 37), a name derived by some from the Egyptian Ptah, the god of creation,4 while the majority of scholars connect it with the Hebr.-Phoen. pittuḥīm ( \( \square ') = 'sculptures.' \( \square \) Bochart believed that the name could also be from Hebr. TDD (batax), 'confidere, securum esse.' — 'Ορτός · βωμός · Κύπριοι is compared by O. Hoffmann to Arabic iriún, 'hearth' (BB. 15, 99, no. 298), while in his 'Griech. Dialekte,' I. 122, he derives it much better from  $\delta \rho$ - $\nu \nu \mu \iota$ ,  $\delta \rho$ - $o \varsigma$ . —  $\Sigma \acute{a} \pi \iota \theta o \varsigma \cdot \theta \nu \sigma \acute{a} \cdot \Pi \acute{a} \phi \iota o \iota$  is perhaps = Hebr. ΠΣΙ (zebah, Assyrian zebu), 'sacrifice.' — If τà

<sup>2</sup> Gesen. 'Monum. ling. Phoen.,' 384; Ed. Meyer, I. § 205; Pietschmann, 206; Stade, I. 456; Keller, Thiere, 265-6. J. Halévy (Mélanges de critique, 425) derives the Greek from אור (betūl) = 'young man.' Baltudos is explained as = Phoen., 'abaddīr (אבארייר), which Boch. Ph. 708 changed to 'eben dīr) = 'lapis sphaericus.' See also Rev. de l'hist. des religions, 3, 31, and compare the 'saxum silex' and 'Jupiter lapis' of the Romans.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Mém. 4, 89; Wiedemann, 'Hdt.'s zweites Buch,' 235-6; Ries, 4-5; on E3mūn and the Cabires, see also Tiele, in Rev. de l'hist. des religions, 3, 197; Brugsch, 'Aegyptologie,' p. 25, \$.r. p. 1.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Kenrick, Phoenicia, p. 235, following Movers. Berger, Mém. 4, 354, believes also that Greek *Hephaistos* is from the same Egyptian word; but see BB. 2, 155; 18, 141; Fick. I. 414.

<sup>5</sup> So Bochart, Rawlinson, Ed. Meyer, I. § 58. According to Tiele the Hebrew form is paţṭaḥīm, 'formateurs.' Bochart also explains Axieros, the Phoen. Ceres, from ΥΤΚ ('axazī-'ereς), contracted into 'axi-'ereς = 'holding the earth,' while Axiokersos and Axiokersa (= Pluto and Proserpina) are = ΥΤΙ ΤΙΚ (='axazī-qereς, whence 'axi-qereς, qereς, meaning 'excidium, mors,' Jer. xlvi. 20); the correct etymologies for these words are given by Sophus Bugge, 'Altital. Studien,' 45; Fick, BB. 3, 168; Darmesteter and Bréal in Mém. 4, 90 and 142. Planta, 'Gramm. der Oskisch-umbrischen Dialekte,' I. 489 ff.

μυστήρια, 'the mysteries, religious celebrations,' are really from TAD (sātár), 'cover, veil, hide,' as Keller, 356, ingeniously teaches, they must in form correspond to a Hof'al המתר (mŭstår). But how are we to account for μυστικός. μύστης, and μυσταγωγός, which cannot be separated from μυστήριον and yet belong evidently to μυέω? still a mystery about the word, which even Keller cannot Keller had long been forestalled by Levy in his 'Chaldäisches Wörterbuch,' II. 55, col. 2; but see the warning of Fleischer, ibid. p. 568, col. 2: "Bei der zweifellos ächt griechischen Herkunft der Wörter μύστης und μυστήριον von μυέω (μύω), μύζω ware selbst die blosse Hindeutung auf die 'zuweilen' versuchte Ableitung des letzteren Wortes von שחם besser unterblieben." The Greek passed into Modern Hebr. as מסמרין (mistirīn). One might just as well accept in good faith Jacob Wackernagel's humorous translation of μυστήριου by "Mauseloch' (from a stem μυσ), proposed to offset Kretschmer's rendering of βαλάντιον by 'Wurfspiess' Professor Gildersleeve calls my attention (from  $\sqrt{\beta a \lambda a}$ ). to the fact that this playful etymology of μυστήριον from  $\mu \hat{v}_s$  and  $\tau \eta \rho \hat{\epsilon} \omega$  is found as early as Athen. 3, p. 98, D; cf. also Ar. Vespac, 140. — The human sacrifices σύβακγοι Keller derives (p. 191) from a Phoen, word corresponding to Hebr. שוחה (šūxāh), 'cleft, depth' (from the verb šūāx, 'be deep'). Lewy, in a review of K's book,6 refers the Greek to חשש (šābáx), which in the Pi'el and Hif'il means 'to calm, pacify,' e.g. the waves (Ps. lxxxix. 10; lxv. 8); or the anger (Ps. xxix. 11). If the word has to be derived from a Semitic etymon, we might just as well connect it with paw(2) (měšubbāq), Pu'al of つば, 'forsake, cast out,' thus = 'cast out, forsaken'; or with Hebr.  $\sqcap \exists i \ (zebah)$ , 'sacrifice.' all these etymologies are έτοιμολογίαι. — I cannot agree with Keller, that διάβολος in the meaning 'Satan' is but a popular metamorphosis of zěbūl or zěbūb in Ba'alzěbūl or Be'elzěbūb.7 -The song of the Sirens did not attract the attention of Curtius, nor did Scylla and Charybdis disturb his mind.

<sup>6</sup> Woch. f. Klass. Philol. 8 June, 1892, col. 626.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> See A.J.P. XIII. 233-4, and Lewy, l.c., col. 625.

The pit of Acheron, the shades of Hades, the terrible hellhound and the Elysian fields, were equally unknown to him as far as they concerned his etymological studies. Vaniček has σκύλλα (for \*σκυλ-ja, after Pott, KZ. 5, 255) = 'tearing asunder'; Postgate translates χάρ-υβ-δ-ι-ς by 'a yawning gulf,  $\sqrt{\text{CHAR.}^8}$  "A $\iota\delta$ - $\eta$ - $\varsigma$ 9 is derived from  $\dot{a}$  privat. +  $\epsilon\iota\delta$  by Vaniček, 962; or considered = Aleίδης, KZ. 27, 276; and 'Ηλύσιον πεδίον (for εαλνυ-σιον), is connected by Fröhde, BB. 3, 298, with O.N. vallu for \*valnu in völlr, 'plain,' cf. Ida völlr (Grimm, 'Mythologie2,' 783); while Vaniček, p. 60, makes 'Ηλύσιον ( $\sqrt{\epsilon}\lambda$ -νθ) = "Aufstieg; Ort, wohin die Seelen aufsteigen," quoting Fick's statement in KZ. 19, 251. These etymologies are all wrong according to old and new author-Σειρηνες, the ensnaring damsels, are not to be connected any more with  $\sqrt{svar}$ , 'sound,' nor with  $\sigma \epsilon \iota \rho \dot{\eta}$ , 'rope,' as Vaniček and others have made us believe; nor are they = \*Συέριενες, 'dont le nom est dérivé de Σείριος = \*sver-io-s, un des noms du soleil,' as D'Arbois de Jubainville thought,10 but  $\sum \epsilon \iota \rho \hat{\eta} \nu$  is =  $i \pi$  \tag{3\ir} (\sir\text{sir-h\vec{e}n}), 'song of favor,' i.e. 'bewitching song'; compare אבן הן ('eben-hēn, Prov. xvii. 8), 'a stone of favor, magic stone.' 11 If so, šīr-ḥēn must be an abbreviation of běnōt šīr-hēn (cf. Eccles. xii. 4), 'the daughters of the enchanting song.' But the clever etymologist has overlooked the fact that, many years ago, Bochart derived σειρηνές from שׁרֹד, 'quod cantionem sonant, quia navigantes λιγυρη θέλγου-בנות יענה cur pro תנים (tannīm), i.e. draconibus et בנות יענה (běnōt ja'ěnāh), i.e. struthionibus Græci sirenes habeant, minus pateat, nisi Sirenes crediderint esse θρηνηλικά ζωα' (H. ii. 830, 6). 12 Scylla, Lewy (*ibid*. 184, 10) derives from Hebr. שבולה (šakkūlāh), 'a ferocious, tearing animal,' properly 'one bereft of young.' Scylla, according to Stesichorus, was the daughter of Lamia, 18 who was robbed by Hera of all her chil-

<sup>8</sup> A.J.P. III. 336.

<sup>9</sup> For the spiritus asper see Keller, 213.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> Mém. 3, 331.

<sup>11</sup> Lewy, 181, no. 4.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> Also Lewy's etymology of Leto  $(\Lambda d\tau \omega)$  is found in Boch. H. I. 1073.

<sup>18</sup> Whose name some future etymologist may derive either from לדם (lāhām), 'to devour,' or from אמה (lō' 'ammāh, older lā' 'ammāh)='no (longer) א

dren, and then retired to a lonely cave, becoming a rapacious monster; Scylla may have been originally identical with Lamia, or rather an epithet of her.  $X \acute{a} \rho \nu \beta \delta \iota_{S}$  is also found in Syria, and is perhaps connected with Hebr. In (văr 'óḥed), 'hole of perdition, abyss.' Bochart, Ph. 523, explained

mother.' Lamia's loss of her children brings to our mind the similar fate of Nιόβη, a named derived by Lewy (l.c., 190) from the Semitic \*ni-'ijiobāh, 'the lamentation of those hated (by the gods), or from \*ně čịābāh (אוֹבה), the hated one' (ptc. fem. of Nifial). Both etymologies are very improbable, as is also F. Max Müller's derivation of the name from Skt. \*Nyava, 'snow,' KZ. 19, 42 f. Crusius Khein. Mus. 47, 61 (rem. 2) says: 'Nib- $\beta\eta = \nu\epsilon_0$ -, nomen epicum est; per hypocorismum (cf. Πόλυ-βος, 'Εκά-βη), a \*Nεόβαια vel Νεοβούλη derivandum est.' Keller, Thiere, 259, believes that the legend of Nisos and his daughter Scylla is only the Greek rendering of the Samson-Delilah story of the Old Testament. Samson was a Nazarite = Najwpaîos = Hebr. Něçīr-'elohīm. This Něçīr passed into Greek as Nîcos. Again, he says, the legend of Nisos being changed into an eagle, is due to the confusion of the similar sound of the two words Něçîr (Nisos) and Hebr. neser, 'eagle.' But he does not say when and where this confusion was likely to have occurred; whether we have to put it to the account of the Greeks, or to credit the Semites with such a stupid mistake. Such etymologies carry us back to the days of Gerard Croese, the Dutch Quaker, who strove to prove, in a Latin work written about 1704, that the songs of Homer were nothing but adaptations into Greek verse of the narratives of the Bible (The Jewish Quarterly Review, Vol. 5, 170-4). Homer is derived from Hebr. 'omer (אומר), 'the speaker, the teller of narratives.' The names 'Iliad and Odyssey' were added later by Pisistratos. The τυφλὸς ἀνήρ is not 'the blind man,' but connected with to/ēl (בֿפֿל), 'framing words.' Thus Hesiod is a compound name of Hebr. אוניים), 'framing words.' Thus Hesiod is a compound name of Hebr. אוניים (בּּנְמֹא), and  $\psi \delta \eta =$  a counsellor in song.' Achilles is derived from  $\forall \exists k \ (\hat{a}kdl)$ , 'eat, devour' (cf. Iliad, 1. 87), and his Myrmidons are from מורה מועד (moreh mored), 'rebelling and stumbling.' The whole Greek Pantheon is from the Semitic, e.g. Apollo from 'Jou (vofel), 'tower'; Zeus from v, i (seh, ies), 'this one is the existing one'; Juno = יונה (iōnāh), 'dove' (which, however, according to J.arm. 7. 53, is probably from the Persian yana). Διώνη would then be = די יונה (dī  $i\bar{o}n\bar{a}h$ ) = 'mistress of the dove,' that bird being specially assigned to her. Mercury from משרכה (mairāķāh), 'battle-array'; Juno from משרכה (gonāh), 'a dove.' Pallas from XD (pele'), 'wondrous,' which is not more wonderful than Keller's derivation from Δ (pālát), 'to save'; nor is the etymology of 'Aθήνη from ΙΠΚ ('ātan'), 'strong,' worse than Keller's comparison of the name with the Semitic Ate. - Prof. Hommel's well-known etymology of Greek Aphrodite from Hebr. Astoret appears to me very improbable, because the Hebrew presents a Massoretic vocalization after the analogy of the Greek. This is clearly shown by the plur. lastarot, presupposing an original singular lastart, and by the fact that the other Sem. dialects show forms corresponding to this original Hebr. singular. I shall take up this question more fully in a special paper on Proper names from the Semitic and Eastern languages. Maass, Hermes, 25, 4052, mentions Σκύλλα, a hypocoristic form of Σκυλάκη.

Scylla = Phoen. סקול, 'exitium,' and Charybdis = חור־אובר  $(x \bar{o} r - \dot{o} b e d) =$  for amen perdition is. The 'H $\lambda \dot{v} \sigma \iota o \nu \pi e \delta \dot{v} o \sigma e d e$ Homer, Lewy tells us, is the 'Elīsāh (אלישה) of Gen. x. 4; but he is not willing to identify it with "Aλaiσa = Halaesa (Cicero) as Eng. 2012. 2, 261, does. 14 If Lewy's etymology of Ἡλύσιον πεδίον were correct, what then is to become of the 'Αλήϊον πεδίον, which is evidently a good Greek word, notwithstanding Ebers' etymology from the Egyptian (see Gutschmid, 'Kleine Schriften,' I. 383). 'Αχέρων, Pott (BB. 8, 49) interpreted as 'perhaps joyless.' H. Fox Talbot (Trans. Soc. Bibl. Archaeol., London, II. 188) remarks: 'Acheron is evidently the Hebr. אחרון ('axărōn), the west, because since the sun ends there his career, the west was connected by the ancients with the abode of the departed spirits. Another meaning of the Hebr. אחרון was To these I would add the name of ultimus, postremus. Atropos, one of the Fates, which I conjectured was originally a name for Hades, meaning, as Assyrian erçit lā tārat = land without return.' Thus Lewy's § 11 (l.c. p. 184) contains nothing new, especially as he must have been acquainted with p. 169 of Gruppe's book, and Movers, I. 437. One cannot help thinking, in this connection, of Croese's etymology of  $\Sigma \tau \dot{\nu} \xi$ , the original form of which he says was undoubtedly Syx or Tsyx or Tsys, from Hebr. בית, 'to kindle.' Talbot (ibid.) derived "Aιδης from the Assyrian bīt EDI, or, as he read it, hadi (=בית עד ), 'the house of eternity.' But there is no such word in Assyrian with the meaning of eternity.

14 On אל See also Ed. Meyer, I. § 282, rem., where, with Schulthess and Stade, he explains it as meaning Carthage, or the whole shore of North Africa. If so, the name of Elissa, the founder of Carthage, is coined after the name of the town (like Roma-Romulus). Meltzer's oversceptic views (I. 90 ff.) are to be modified according to Gutschmid, 'Kleine Schriften,' II. 64 and 89. M. H. Derenbourg (Mélanges Graux, 236) recognizes in 'Esisāh the Greek Alohis, and Oberhummer, 'Phoenizier in Akarnanien,' compares it with fāhis (but ef. Fick, I. 543, 'Hhis=fáhis=Vallis). See also J. Halévy, Rev. des études Juives, XVII. (34) 161 ff.; and Bochart, Ph. 472, who believed still in Elissa as a real sister of Dido, explaining it as = NUN N, 'virgo dei,' an etymology about as good as that of 'Aσκλήπισε (Aesculapius), from 'Cisāh see further Wilson in Presbyt. and Ref. Review, i. 258-9, and A. Dillmann, ibid. 3, 770.

The ideographic expression referred to by Talbot is KUR-NU-GI-A = erçit lā tārat (see above). Talbot continues: 'Again, we see, especially in line 7 of the inscription relating the descent of Istar into Hades,15 that this place is called in Assyrian bīt 'eribus, which has passed into the Greek as έρεβος.' But this line 7 reads ana bīt ša eribu-šu zummū, '(she went) to the house whose entrance was bolted.' Talbot is by no means the only one who derived έρεβος from the Semitic ('éreb), 'evening, darkness,' literally 'entrance or setting of the sun.' Others have done this before and after him. So Kiepert, 15, rem. 1; Müllenhoff, I. 119; Sonny (Philologus, 48, 561) and Jubainville, Mém. 3, 348. Gutschmid, 'Kleine Schriften,' II. 14, connects with this Hebrew noun even the name of the Homeric 'Ερεμβοί.16 To these Kiepert, Lc., adds εὔρωπος, 'darkness'; others also Εὔρῖπος, 17 the narrow strait of Eubœa; and everybody, of course, Εὐρώπη, 18

15 In Vol. IV. pl. 31 of the 'Inscriptions of Western Asia, edited by Sir H. C. Rawlinson.' — It is astonishing that 'Ορφεύς, Doric "Ορφης, usually compared with Skt. Ribhu, has not yet been explained as a Semitic word. It is well known that the singer's great anxiety for his wife made him turn around to ascertain whether the beloved was indeed coming. Now Hebr. and (ioref) means 'neck,' and נתן שרף is = 'to turn away, around,' which in some way or other may have become on Greek soil 'Ορφεύς, "Ορφης. Of course this etymology is not yet 'allem Zweifel überhoben.' I can well imagine the surprise of F. Max Müller when he read in the American reprint of his book, 'India, what can it teach us,' added to his words 'some indirect relations have been established between Hermes and Sarameya, Dionysos and Dyunisya, Prometheus and pramantha, Orpheus and Ribhu,' the following note by the learned American editor: 'I am very strongly inclined to regard these names as Kushite or Semitic; Hermes from DIT, 'the sun'; Dionysos from dyan, 'the judge,' and nisi, 'mankind' (a statement appropriated from H. Fox Talbot, on which see A.J.P. XIII. 235); Orpheus from Orfa, the Arabic name of Edessa; Prometheus from προ and μανθάνω. These etymologies almost excel those of Paulus Cassel ('Paulus oder Phol.' 1890), making Hödur = Hades; Hermodur = Hermes; Baldr = Sardanapal, Pallassar (!); Phol = Apollo and also = Vali.

16 But Ed. Meyer, I. § 176, says: 'The name of the Arameans seems to be found in the 'Ερεμβοί of Homer (Od. 4, 84; Strabo, 16, 4, 27; 1, 2, 34); perhaps also in the 'Αριμοι of Il. 13, 783.'

17 Bezzenberger in BB. 4, 329: "Εὐρίπος und Εὐρώπη gehören zusammen. Εὐρίπος = Meerenge oder Strasse von Europa."

18 On Εὐρώπη see J. H. Voss, Uckert, J. Oppert, Kiepert, etc.; and, again, F. Hitzig, ZDMG. 9, 758, and KZ. 6, 408; also F. arm. 1779. Asia and Africa are likewise of Semitic origin; see Kiepert, § 15, and J.H.U.C. 81, p. 76.

'Europe,' i.e. mat ša ereb šamši, 'the land of the setting sun.' as the Assyrians called it. If έρεβος were really borrowed from the Semitic, "und das dürfte heute keinem Zweifel mehr unterliegen" (Lewy, 184), the Greeks must have done so at a very early date, for it gave rise to the adjective ἐρεμνός (for \*έρεβ-νός, as σεμνός for \*σεβ-νός, KZ. 23, 312), which cannot be separated from it. To me this Semitic etymology is very doubtful, in view of the fact that the Greek corresponds to Armenian erek (evening), Skt. rajas, Gothic riquis (darkness, O.N. rokkr). 19 — The Hebrew 'éreb, 'west,' corresponds to the Homeric expression πρὸς ζόφον and the later Greek of the country Έσπερία (cf. the modern 'Occident,' the Italian 'Ponente'). Πρὸς ζόφον, 'westward,' is derived by Savelsberg 20 from κυέφας, which gradually became γυόφος, δυόφος, and then  $\zeta \phi \phi \sigma s$  (with  $\nu$  elided); but Joh. Schmidt<sup>21</sup> confesses that we know nothing positive concerning the biography of this obscure δνόφος. Bochart, H. I. 517, and Müllenhoff, I. 119, derived the Greek from the Semitic נְמַלּוֹן (cafon), literally 'a dark, obscure place.'22 This This seems to have given rise to several Greek names. Thus the western region of Armenia (= 'Arminia, an artificial contraction of the two names Ar[rarat] + Min[ni], made by the Persian conquerors for the sake of convenience, M. J. Darmesteter; see A.J.P. XII. 383) reaching to the Euphrates is called Sophene (Σωφηνή or Σωφα-

<sup>19</sup> J. arm. 717; Lag. 'Baktrische Lexikographie,' 8: "Zu ν rav, da ξρεβος bekanntlich bei Homer nie Aufenthalts-, sondern stets Durchgangsort der Seelen ist (vergl. den *limbus patrum* der Kirche).' Hübschmann, 'Arm. Stud.' 30, 99 (KZ. 23, 22); also KZ. 21, 263; 22, 264; 23, 338; 25, 110, 161; G. Meyer², §§ 6, 193; Curtius<sup>6</sup>, 480; Fick<sup>4</sup>, I. 11, 117, 526.

<sup>20</sup> KZ. 16, 57, after Pott2, II. 1, 807; also Curtius5, 705-6.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>21</sup> KZ. 25, 150. Professor Bloomfield kindly calls my attention to Meringer's explanation of δνόφος as δ-νοφος ('Zur Geschichte der indogermanischen Declination,' in 'Sitzungsberichte der Wiener Akademie,' Vol. 125, II. 40).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>22</sup> From [DX (çāfán), 'cover, conceal.' To the Semites the dark district was the north; to the Greeks, the west. On ζόφος see also Gruppe, 101. Connected with it is ζέφυρος, according to Curtius<sup>5</sup>, 706; Buttmann, 'Lexilogus,' I. 120; and F. Max Müller, 'Techmer's Internationale Zeitschrift,' I. 215 f., against whom, however, see Gruppe, l.c., and KZ. 29, 576, rem. 1. G. Meyer² and Johansson consider it an obscure, difficult word. In Od. 5, 295, etc., ζέφυρος means 'stormy, violent'; it is of all winds the swiftest. Now, Arabic záfara means 'to blow, be swift.' Can there be no connection between the two words?

νηνή, Armenian Dzoph, Syriac Çōfān, J.a. 69, 20; J.arm. 1070), and to be derived from this Semitic noun; so also the name of the island of Siphnos (Ries, 52; Keller, 200 and 239<sup>23</sup>) Tυφῶν 1) in the meaning of θάλασσα (Plutarch, Isis, 32) is connected with Arabic tūfān, and thus with Hebr. 152. The Greeks could not write Θυφῶν (cf. θρίξ, τριχός, J.a. 87); 2) as a proper name of the god Tυφῶν it is = Phoen. zĕfōn. This latter passed into Greek, and became the name of the dark enemy of the gods of the light (Lichtgötter), or the north wind. In later time τυφῶν (τυφώς) became the designation of a special wind. Hesiod, Theog. 871 ff., calls the winds the children of Typhoeus. On the relation between Typhoeus and Typhon see Gruppe, 534 and 577. The translations of this name by 'draco' or 'ophites' (Malala, Chron. 8, 197) are due to a popular confusion of 152 with 552 (cefā),

28 Keller also derives Persephone from [DX77] (peri-cafon), 'the hidden fruit,' i.e. "die Frucht des im Boden verborgen gewesenen Samenkornes"; and H. Lewy considers Πρίαπος, used in Lampsakos (=ΠΟΒ)=Λαπσαχος=Λάψακος) as a surname of Dionysos as = Hebr. ר־ים (Pēri-jājāh) = 'the fruit is sweet' = εἴκαρπος, a well-known epithet of the god (Preller, I.8, 584). If so, why not go a step further and derive also Dionysos from the Semitic? Διόνυσος stands for Διοστυσος. Διος, of course, belongs to Zeus (Mém. 3, 299; KZ. 29, 123; 30, 88). Gruppe and others have maintained that -rusos is of Semitic (Phoenician) origin, but they have not been able to prove it. It is agreed upon by all that Dionysos and his worship is of Asiatic, perhaps Semitic, origin. Now, in Ex. xvii. 15, we find Jehovah-nissi = the Lord my banner, as the name of an altar. This Hebr. Di (nes) was probably borrowed from the Assyrian nisu, properly 'sign,' then also 'name,' from našū, 'to raise.' Could not this -vuoos be of like origin? We know that Dionysos is called 'Idw in several oracles (cf. Baudissin, I. 211 ff.). Thus Jehovah-nissi, perhaps a banner-cry of his followers, became on Greek soil Διος (= ΤΤΤ) rugos = Deus Nyssaeus, as he is called also. According to F. Max Müller, the Greek is = Skt. \*Dyunisya.

Tuppe, Philologus, 48, 487, following Fürst, 'Hebrew Lexicon,' s.v. PDL. He compares Cyprian  $\Sigma \delta \rho = T \hat{v} \rho \sigma$ , or, perhaps better,  $\Sigma \omega \rho$ , Appian calling the founder of Carthage  $Z \hat{\omega} \rho \sigma$  (J. Olshausen, 'Berliner Akademie, Monatsberichte,' 1879, 555-86). On  $C \bar{u} r T \hat{v} \rho \sigma$  see also Pietschmann, 61, rem. 2.  $T a \hat{v} \rho \sigma$ , the mountain range in Asia Minor, is also from the Aramaic The Hebr. The (Fag M. 1, 60; Kiepert, 20), as well as the name of the island of Syros (Ries, 54). Yea, even Sarpedon ( $\Sigma a \rho \pi \eta \delta \omega r$ ) contains this word, if we can believe Lewy that the proper name is = The ( $C \alpha r \rho \sigma d \sigma r$ ), rock of salvation (l.c. 186, no. 15). On this proper name Tiele has some interesting remarks in Rev. de l'hist. des religions, 2, 139. Hebr.  $\Sigma = \tau$  also in  $T \Delta r v \sigma r \sigma r$ 

or rather אַפּעוני (ctf 'oni), 'serpent.' 25—Kiepert, § 246, speaking of Hispania, says: 'The name of West Country =  $E\sigma\pi\epsilon\rho ia$ , originally of wider application and including Italy, was still in use side by side with Iberia, at least in poetic parlance, and from this appears to have come the name Hispania, commonly used in Italy for the whole peninsula.' I do not agree with the eminent geographer, but believe Hispania to be of Semitic origin. We know that the Phoenicians traded largely with Italy and Spain, and that in this way the Greeks may have gained their first knowledge of the Western countries. 'Eσπερία was used for all the country west of Greece. Therefore I consider Έσπερία, 'west-country,' as the translation of a Hebr.-Phoen. DX = DV, from which is derived  $\sum \pi a \nu i a$ , or with R prostheticum IDUN = Hispania. - Sonny, Philologus, 48, 561, connects κέρβερος, 'the hell-hound,' with Semitic ערב ('éreb) in the meaning of 'the dark one.' 26 That ארב should have been borrowed under both forms epeBos and κέρβερος would not be so strange; many languages have borrowed a word twice in different form and meaning.27 Nor is the development of a spiritus lenis into  $\kappa$  so very seldom; cf. e.g. Καμάρα, Καμαρία, and ἀμάρα (channel, trench, Lobeck, Path. I. 107);  $\partial \rho \phi \phi \dot{\eta}$  and  $\kappa \phi \rho \psi \phi \dot{\eta}$ ;  $\partial \rho \phi \pi \eta$  and  $K \phi \phi \phi \pi \eta$ ; καβεδ (LXX.) = כבד ( $\mathfrak{Z}$ . $\ddot{\mathfrak{u}}$ b. 77).  $\Sigma \omega \rho \eta \kappa =$ ורעה (ibid. 85). 'Αταργάτις = ΚΠΣΠΠ  $(Tar^i \underline{a} \underline{t} \overline{a}) = \Delta \epsilon \rho \kappa \epsilon \tau \omega$  (3. arm. 846; 3 ag. 33. 1,77); Slav. arbaz = Mod. Greek  $\kappa a \rho \pi o \nu \sigma \iota a$  (cucumber, watermelon); Greek ὄστεον = Slav. kosti; Hypanis-Kuban; Alanic name Aspar and German Gaspar, Kasper; the cultivated peartree is called ὄγχνη in Homer, κόγχνη in Hesych; Armenian kapar from Syriac auara, 'lead.' ZDMG. 46, 239, no. 52; also Fränkel, 95, 150, 151, and Meringer, p. 41 of his article, cited in note 21. The combination of  $\kappa \epsilon \rho \beta \epsilon \rho \sigma_S$  with Skt. cabala (carbara) = 'dog of the night,' has been rejected

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>25</sup> Wiedemann, Hdt. 513. The controversy between Gruppe and Ed. Meyer on 'Ba'al-Zephôn, *Philologus*, 48, 488, 762; 49, 751-2, does not concern us here.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>26</sup> Following Welcker, 'Trilogie,' 130, rem., and 171, from \* Ερέβερος; Preller, 'Griech. Mythologie,' I.<sup>2</sup> 634; Jubainville, Mém. 3, 348; Gruppe, 113, rem. 17.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>27</sup> Thus 'ward' and 'guard,' French 'cause' and 'chose,' and many other examples, given in list vii. of the Appendix to Skeat's 'Dictionary.'

by O. Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 596 and 614; Gruppe, 113–115, and others; see, however, Pott<sup>2</sup>, III. 1028–9; Bartholomae, BB. 15, 211; Professor Maurice Bloomfield's article 'The two dogs of Yama in a new rôle'; <sup>28</sup> and F. Max Müller's elaborate announcement of these contributions in the London Academy. <sup>29</sup> What the relation is between  $\kappa \acute{e}\rho \beta e \rho o s$  and  $\kappa \acute{o}\beta a \lambda o s$  (a form like  $\kappa \acute{o}\nu a \beta o s$ , KZ. 23, 267) on the one hand, and the Sanskrit word on the other hand, I cannot exactly define; nor is this necessary for the etymology of  $\kappa \acute{e}\rho \beta e \rho o s$ .

## II. - HUMAN BEINGS, PROFESSIONS, AND TRADES.

 $\Lambda \epsilon \omega_s$ , 'people,' is derived by Bochart, H. i. 507, 14, and I.g. VIII., from the Semitic (lž'ōm); this was changed in later time to  $\lambda a \delta s$ . Lenormant, p. 334 of his article in the Annales de philosophie chrétienne, 1867, combines it with Semitic רצה (rāʾāh), 'lead, conduct'; also 'feed, govern, rule'; in the passive, 'to be led'; the people, he says, are properly the flock of the ποιμένες λαῶν. For the I.-E. etymology see Curtius<sup>5</sup>, 362; BB. 3, 319; 6, 111, 114. — Γειώρας, 'immigrant, stranger' (LXX. and later writers), is compared to Aram. ציורא (giōrā) by Bochart, H. i. 577, 49; \$.üb. 97, 14; and others. Theodoret has γειώρας προσήλυτος (ΙΙ. 266). - 'Aβάθ (Hesych.) διδάσκαλος · Κύπριοι was long ago corrected by Gesenius into  $\partial \beta \hat{a} = \text{Syr. RDR } (\bar{a}bb\bar{a})$ ; also cf. the New Test. 'Aββâ· ὁ πατήρ (Mark xiv. 36). Ries, 42, still reads åβάθ, and compares Hebr. אבות, אבות Late Greek ἀσκάνδης, 'messenger, courier' = Mandean κτικινικι = ἄγγαρος, 1 occurs also in Babylonian as (amelu) ašgandu for

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>28</sup> 'Contributions to the interpretation of the Veda' = Journ. Am. Or. Soc. 15, 163. On  $\kappa\delta\beta$ ahos see Havet, Mém. 6, 21.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>29</sup> Aug. 13, 1892, p. 134. See also Ernst Windisch in *Lit. Centralblatt*, 1892, no. 51, col. 1835-6.

<sup>1&</sup>quot;Αγγαρος = άγγελος, F.arm. 2203; Keller, 328, whence also, according to Ceci, 'Appunti Glottologici,' 1892, Latin 'ambulare' under the influence of ambire, through a reconstructed \*angulus; see, however, Stowasser, II. 25, III. 10, rem. On dσκάνδης compare also Fleischer in Levy's 'Neuhebräisches Wörterbuch,' I. 280, col. a. B.s. 32, no. 15; Jensen in Zeitschrift für Assyriologie, 7, p. 174.

(amelu) aškandu, an official, from šakanu (100); cf. Bochart, H. i. 537, 10; F.a. 186, 26; F.arm. 18, 208. ἀστάνδης is an entirely different word, according to Th. Nöldeke, G.G.Anz. 1871, 155. — Liddell and Scott derive yons, 'enchanter, priest,' from γοάω, thus properly 'a wailer, howler,' following Aufrecht and Curtius<sup>5</sup>, 477, no. 642, rem. Prellwitz, s.v., connects it with yoos, 'lamentation,' Skt. hávas, 'call,' etc. 3. üb. 112, rem. 1, suggests that the Greek originated from the Semitic [77] (kohên). Hesychius has κοίης (κοίην)· ίερεὺς καβείρων ὁ καθαίρων φονέα, οὶ δὲ κοής; see also Bochart, H. i. 517. -Máyos, Lat. magus, 'wizard, magician,' from the Babylonian emgu, 'wise' (= Assyrian emqu, √סמק, 'be deep'); Lenormant; Justi, 'Geschichte Persiens,' 68. Pott<sup>2</sup>, III. 990, considers the word as I.-E. from the  $\sqrt{mag}$  (Lat. magnus) = 'great, venerable'; so also Bötticher (= Lagarde), 'Arica,' 22, 58, and 3. arm. 106, 1513, where nothing is said of a Semitic root. On Old-Persian magus, whence Aramean אשנושא, which, in its turn, returned into Neo-Persian as مغر شا, see Nöldeke's excellent article, 'Griechische und aramäische Fremdwörter im Persischen' (Sitzungsber. Wien, Akad. Phil.-Hist. Classe, 1892, Abh. XII. 37). — Μαγγανεία,<sup>2</sup> 'jugglery' (properly 'incantation'), Aristoph. and Plato, from מנגינה (mangīnāh, Lam. iii. 63), Σ.r. XXXVIII.; whence also μάγγανον, Latin mango, mangones (Keller, 103-4), μαγγανεύω, 'juggle'; Engl. 'manganel, mangle.' The Greek returned in later time again to the Syriac, and thence to the Arabic (Fränkel, 135).8 — Προύνικος, 'runner, messenger, porter,' was derived by Bochart, H. i. 794, from אַרונקא (prouneka), Persian paruānah, 'servant'; but 3.a. 77, 26, and A. Müller, BB. I. 300, reject

<sup>8</sup> M. Darmesteter, Mém. 3, 68, compares Avestan mañgala; on the Armenian, see ZDMG. 46, 245, no. 78. Meillet, Mém. 7, 166, has 'μάγγανον δέ μηχανή.'

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this etymology. — Wharton (Lat. Loan-words, p. 185) derives latro, 'steward, hireling,' from the Greek \*λάτρων (cf. λάτρις), and this again from the Hebr. \*nōtēr ( ), 'guardian, keeper.'4 If so, then also λάτρις (Theogn.), λατρεία (Pindar), λατρεύω (Solon), λάτριος, and λάτρον, must be derived from the Semitic. Wharton, however, overlooks the fact, pointed out by Ewald and Lagarde, that in classic Greek a Semitic 2 is represented by  $\theta$ . This makes the combination impossible. An I.-E. etymology is given by Curtius<sup>5</sup>, 363, no. 536, rem.; Fick4, I. 120, 532, 539. — Κιξάλλης, 'pirate, robber, footpad' (Democr. apud Stob. Flor.), from שלל (šālál), 'rob, plunder'; R. 208, 'par un redoublement analogue à celui de τιθαιβώσσω; ou comprend que le nom des pirates et de la piraterie soit venu de Phéniciens.' But it is very difficult to see how a nominal form of שלל could yield κιξάλλης. 5 Savelsberg, KZ. 16, 70, rem. 3, quotes Koen, who posits the form \*κισσάλης, which became κιξάλης or κιξάλλης (C.I.G. 3044, 19), just as κιρσός, κρισσός, through Ionic change of σσ to ξ, became κριξός.' I am very thankful to Professor Smyth for the following remarks: As for an Ionic change of  $\sigma\sigma$  to  $\xi$ , this will scarcely hold. -ξός in διξός and τριξός is of course from -κτίος, and not directly equivalent to -ττός. In Ionic inscriptions recording Karian names the Karian  $\xi$  has been changed to  $\sigma\sigma$ : so Halikarnassos, 238, 240 (Bechtel's collec-Βρύασσις, Iasos, 104, 2, 17, 20, has been corrected on the stone to restore the Karian spelling. Brugmann, 'Studien,' 7, 342, writes: 'Κιξάλης stands for \*(σ)κι-σκάλ-ης, and has the same root as Lat. scelus, crime.' I prefer by far this etymology to the one suggested by Renan. — Μαστροπός, 'pander, bawd (Lat. leno), μαστροπεύειν, Lat. masturbo' (Keller, 76 and 197) 'vocabulum a Semitis petitum, nam

<sup>\*</sup> For change of n to l, cf. λίτρον = νίτρον, 'natrum' = Hebr. nēţēr; Assyrian billu, Hebr. l' בל' (bēlō), a corruption for ה' ב', J. Oppert ad Ezra iv. 13; = Ethiopic tēndt (Paul Haupt), whence bandta, 'pay tribute' (Proc. Am. Or. Soc., 1887, LII. rem. 1); δέλτα (ΚΠ), Eth. dent; Assyrian kallatu, 'bride,' Arab. kanāt; Labynetos for Nabynedos (Nabuna'idu); Greek δάφνη, 'laurel, bay-tree,' became Arab. difia and this Spanish adelfa.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Raumer, II. 'Fortsetzung,' 20, no. 5, connected this Hebr. word with συλ-άω, 'rob, plunder'; σῦλον, 'plunder.'

istairab, cuius participium est mustairib obscoene locutus est, appetivit marem' (3.r. XXVI.). Müller, BB. 1, 292, justly rejects Lagarde's etymology. I.-E. derivations are proposed in Wölfflin's Archiv, I. 107; Breslauer Studien, 4, 80; Prellwitz, 192. — Euvoûyos is derived from הנוך in Zeitschrift für Assyriologie, I. 20, rem. 2; the Greek, again, passed into Syriac as 'ewnūksa (Acts viii. 27), ZDMG. 32, 748. — Castrare, from castor (κάστωρ, properly 'scratcher,' 'Kratzer,' BB. 18, 281), is taught by Keller, 285, and Stowasser, II. 6-7; but W. Meyer-Lübke, I.F. I. Anzeiger, 121 f., warns against this etymology. Could the words be derived from the Hebr. קצר (qāçár), 'cut,' the 2 becoming as a rule -στ- in Greek and Latin? It is, however, better to connect it with Skt. castra, 'knife.' - An interesting example for the difference of transliteration of dentals in early and late Greek is the following. Utica, 'Ιτύκη (in Africa), is the Greek writing for להולק (ittūq).6 It denotes, like Arabic 'atīq, the old town, in distinction from Carthage, the new town, the qarta-hadasta, and shows in its form a very old vocalization.7 From this same verb, in the meaning 'to set free' (Lane, 'Arabic Dictionary,' s.v.), I derive μόθαξ, which is simply the partc. pass. mūtaqun, 'a man set free, a libertus.' It is usually said that μόθαξ is a secondary formation from  $\mu \delta \theta \omega \nu$ . I do not believe that they are related to each other; μόθαξ belongs to the post-classic Greek, when  $\Pi$  was rendered by  $\theta$ , and  $\nabla$  by  $\tau$ . —  $\Lambda \beta \rho a$ ,

'female companion, bonne, slave' (Menander) = Aram. אחברא μαζτα'), \$.τ. ΧΧVΙ., Hesych. ἄβρα, δούλη, παλλακή · ἄβραι, νέαι δοῦλαι. Fick, KZ. 22, 216, considers it a Macedonian word, and compares Latin ebrius, 'tender.' See, however, Müller, BB. 1, 283; Keller, 196-7. 'Αβαριστάν · γυναικιζομένην. Κύπριοι, may belong to this ἄβρα, though Meister, 'Griech. Dialekte, II. 326, and O. Hoffmann, BB. 15, 47, following Schmidt, KZ. 9, 299, refer it to άβρός, 'delicate' (cf. νεβρός); see also BB. 7, 81. — The most difficult word in this class is παλλακή, παλλακίς, 'concubine,' Lat. paelex (pellex). The masculine  $\pi \hat{a} \lambda \lambda a \xi$  is a make-up of the Greek grammarians (Ammonius and Lexx.).8 Παλλακίς occurs as early as Homer, Il. 9, 449 and 452; Od. 14, 202 (ωνητή  $\pi a \lambda \lambda a \kappa i s$ );  $\pi a \lambda \lambda a \kappa i \gamma$  (Hdt.), and  $\pi a \lambda \lambda a \kappa i s$ , are opposed to the γυναίκες γνήσιαι, 'conjuges legitimae' (Pott<sup>2</sup>, II. 2, 863-4). Demosth. LIX. 122, tells us what the  $\pi a \lambda \lambda a \kappa \eta$  was to the Into Latin the word passed under the form paelex, which became pellex by a popular analogy after pellicere, 'to seduce.'9 The relation between  $\pi a \lambda \lambda a \kappa \eta$  (-is) and Hebr. פילנש (pīlegeš and pillegeš, Aram. פילקתא) has been a great puzzle to many students. There are those who do not admit any connection between the two nouns. Benfey compared πάλλαξ with Skt. bāla, bālaka, 'child, boy.' Vaniček, 527-8, does the same, adding also Engl, 'fellow.' Other etymologies are proposed by Bezzenberger in BB. 1, 295-6; Fick, ibid. 6, 237, and 18, 134; 'Wörterbuch'4, I. 481; Prellwitz, 237; Fröhde, BB. 17, 308; Curtius<sup>5</sup>, 'schweigt sich aus.' None of these writers believe in a connection with the Hebrew noun. Again, others have claimed that the Semitic was borrowed from the Greek. Thus Michaelis, 'Supplem. ad Lex. Hebr.' no. 2034; Ewald, 'Hebr. Gram.'8 279; 10 Movers, III. 1, 81; R. 200; Gutschmid, 'Kleine Schriften,' II. 5, and Stade, I. 380, rem. 3. On the other hand, Semitic origin of the Greek is maintained by G. 65; Lottner in KZ. 7, 165; Pott2, II. 3,

<sup>8</sup> In late inscriptions it is registered by Dittenberger, Sylloge<sup>2</sup>, 586, no. 396, 7, παλλήκων (gen. plur.) = μελλέφηβοι (Nauck, 'De Arist. Byz.' 88 ff.).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> A.J.P. III. 171; BB. 5, 84; Rhein. Mus. 38, 544; Keller, 77 and 167.

<sup>10</sup> In G.G.Anz. 1862, 371, Ewald suggested an Armenian origin of the noun.

403 f., and J.r. XXVI. A. Müller, BB. 1, 295, leaves the question undecided. I believe that the Hebrew form was borrowed from the Greek παλλακίς (παλλακιδ-). says that Hebr. pilleges stands for older pallagis, which is exactly the Greek form. The biography appears to be the following: παλλακή, though occurring in written literature later than παλλακίς, seems to be in reality the earlier form, borrowed directly from the Phoenicians, who carried on a trade in female slaves, used as concubines. The Semitic form would be #בנה (pallagah), the feminine to an intensive form like gannāb, 'thief,' etc. This \*pallāgāh is a derivative of the verb (pālág), 'separate,' thereby indicating that the bearer of this name was separated from the real family, was a slave, a concubine. Thus we have the verb giving the noun פלנה; this passed into Greek as  $\pi a \lambda \lambda a \kappa \eta$ ; the latter became on Greek soil παλλακίς, and returned again to the Semites as פֿלכתא, whence Aram. פֿלנש (מָצֹּנִם ).11

## III. - COUNTRY, LAND, AND SEA.

According to Lewy, 178, ala, 'land,' and Ala, the name of the island Colchis, are connected with Hebr. 'א ('ī), from אוֹי, 'dwell, live'; cf. Assyrian  $E = b\bar{\imath}tu$ , 'house, dwelling.' In Hebrew the noun means 1) coast, coast land, 2) island. Compounds of this 'k are Ebusus, now Ivisa, one of the Balearic islands = island of firs (Phoen. 'i-būsīm), rendered by the Greeks  $\Pi \iota \tau v o \hat{\imath} \sigma \sigma \sigma$  (Kiepert, p. 266; Meltzer, 482, rem. 2); Imaxra, on Sicily, between Centuripa and Herbita = 'Y' (Schröder, 101, rem. 6); while Máκαρα, on the same island, is the Semitic אוֹם בּי promontory of Melqart,' the later Heracleia. Speaking of Melqart (= Melek-qart) =

<sup>11</sup> As a curiosity I will mention that Elias Levita explained the Hebrew as a compound of 15th (half) and 15th (wife).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Compare, on the other hand, Johansson, BB. 18. 4; and H. Weber, KZ. 10, 250, who derives the Greek from  $l = {}^{\circ}go{}^{\circ} + \text{suffix} - {}_{f}a$  and prefixed a-, separating it entirely from  $\gamma a i a$ , whose Epic form it is said to be *metri gratia* (Liddell & Scott).

Mάκαρ,<sup>2</sup> Keller, 187, following Gutschmid and Olshausen, combines with it also Melikertes and Meleagros.<sup>8</sup> — Τὸ ἔλος (Cyprian) Lewy, I.F. I. 510, correctly combines with Hebr.  $lat{l}$ il,  $lat{l}$ in the meaning of 'highland,' as against Meister's, 'Griech. Dial.' II. 208, 'El-land' (i.e. land of God El). — Πάγος, 'mountain-peak, rocky hill,' is derived by Pott², II. 4, 556, Curtius<sup>5</sup>, and others, from  $\sqrt{\Pi}$ AΓ in  $\pi \acute{\eta} \gamma \nu \nu \mu \iota$ , etc., properly

 $^2$  Weise, Rhein. Mus. 38, 540, derives Макара from Hebr. המכו (māķār), 'to sell.'

<sup>8</sup> Also Thebes is a κῆσος τῶν μακάρων, a city of Melqart. — On Malqar see also Tiele in Rev. de l'hist. des religions, 1, 77 and 2, 137, rem. 1. — Malka, tor 'Hρακλέα ' Αμαθούσιοι, stands, according to Schröder, p. 101, for Μαλικας = Maλικαρ = מלקרת; but much better compare Syriac Malka (Hebr. מלך, mélek). This was the name of Heracles in Sidon and Tyre, just as Malk Ba'al in Palmyra (Greek Μαλαχβηλος, Lat. Malagbelus, Pietschmann, 185, rem. 3). The objections raised by Enmann, p. 9, rem., against the identification of Mákap, Makp, and Melgart are futile. Even Zeds μειλίχως is but the Hellenic mask of the terrible Moloch (prop. mélek), greedy of human sacrifices (Weise, Zeitschr. f. Völkerpsych. 13, 243; Keller, 188; Gruppe, 348 and 402). Pott<sup>2</sup>, II. 3, 543, compared it with μελίσσω, while Preller, 'Mythologie's, 129, says: Ζεύς μειλίχιος = 'the friendly Zeus,' as opposed to Zevs μαιμάκτης = 'the hostile, angry Zeus.' The word, however, has nothing to do with Greek μείλιχος (BB. 3, 298). Not only are Maλίκα, Μελικαρτ-, etc., derived from the Semitic, but even 'Ηρακλής, 'who is none but the Syrian Sun-god Archal or 'Apxaheds, another type of Melqart,' is to be derived from Semitic (rakdl), 'go around, wander' + article ha(l) (Keller, 218; 236-7). What satisfaction would K. have felt, had he known that also in the Assyrian inscriptions we meet with *irkallum*,  $\sqrt{2} = ragdl$ , 'march,' as the name of one of the dei inferi. But until better proof has been adduced, I prefer to say with Ed. Meyer, I. § 192, rem.: "Herakles ist zunächst ein echt hellenischer und von den Griechen eifrig verehrter Gott, den dieselben allerdings dem phoenizischen Melqart gleichsetzten." 'Ηρακλήs and 'Αρχαλεύs are two entirely different words. The latter, no doubt, is derived from the Semitic verb, referred to by Keller, who might also have added ארקל ('arqāl) of Ps. xix. 6, 7 (3.1. 8-9). The etymology of 'Hρακλη̂s is by no means established. P. Kretschmer, in 'Aus der Anomia,' believes still in the old etymology of 'H $\rho a + \kappa \lambda \hat{\eta} s =$ Hera-glory, although F. Weck (see A.J.P. VII. 265) long ago showed that -κλήs has nothing to do with  $\kappa\lambda\epsilon$  ( $\kappa\lambda\epsilon$   $\rho$  os =  $\rho$   $\rho$  a  $\rho$  but is a termination equal to Latin -culus (Paterculus); I will say, however, that Professor Bloomfield reminds me of Έτεοκλης = Skt. satya-gravas; also cf. Hesych. 'Ηρύκαλος, and Wochenschr. f. Klass. Philolog., 1890, 98; F. arm. 2084; Lag. 'Agathangelus,' 140. — Many years ago G. Croese derived Persephone from D'D, PD (pérec panim), 'rebellious in countenance.' Minos, he says, is probably the same as Abraham (from באה, נוץ = 'flourishing for a hundred years'); Deucalion is = מאה, ויץ ('small. yet exalted'), and Heracles, the strong (from לארך, לארך)= 'the one who scoffs for a long time.'

= 'that which is fixed or firmly set,' as opposed to the 'loose It occurs as the name of a mountain near Smyrna. This etymology is preferable to Lagarde's combination with Arab. fajj, X.r. XXXVII., after Freytag, 'Lexic. Arab.' IV. 39. Also see Boetticher, 'Wurzelforschungen,' p. 11.-'Piov, 'peak of a mountain, promontory' (Homer), is also connected by J.g. VIII. with Aram. ri's, 'head, summit.' This was rejected by Müller, BB. 1, 296, but upheld anew by its author in his M. 1, 116, rem. 1. Sophus Bugge, BB. 3, 12; Fröhde, ibid. 17, 304; KZ. 22, 267; Fick4, I. 132; Prellwitz, 274; and G. Meyer<sup>2</sup>, 29, derive it from the I.-E. √*Frso*, found in Lith. virszùs, 'summit'; Old Slav. vrichu, virchu, Lat. verruca, Skt. vársman, 'summit'; in addition to which Leo Meyer (KZ. 15, 18) quotes three passages from Homer, Il. 8, 25; 14, 154; and Od. 9, 191, where the word occurs with initial digamma, thus establishing the I.-E. etymology. — Χηραμός = χειά, 'hole, cleft, gap' (Homer), is combined by Freytag ('Lexicon Arab.' I. 480, b) with Arabic horam, in which he is followed by 3.r. XXXVII., 'petrae fissuras rupturasque habentes.' But this is rather doubtful, and I fully agree with A. Müller's remarks, BB. 1, 290. Also see Postgate's etymology in A.J.P. III. 336. — G. 66 mentioned Hebr. 72 (kar), 'fat pasture-land,' whence Ionian κάρ, κάρα, κάρνος, and P.N. Kaρίa = Caria, in Asia Minor (Fürst, 'Lexicon,' 692). — 'Oaσις (Hdt. 3, 26), 'region in the desert, plain,' is the Egyptian (Coptic) Uah, 'station, resting-place,' a name given to the oases from their situation in the midst of the desert. form avaous, Strabo, II. 130, is merely an attempt at a Greek etymology, as if from αὖω, αὐαίνω. The common word for ŏaσις in Egyptian is ut, which has nothing to do with the Greek (Wiedemann, 15); there is, on the other hand, in Egyptian the stem àa, 'isle, coast,' which could also mean M. Renan, p. 205, derived the Greek from the Arabic *yadi*; but this, Professor de Lagarde informed me, was "sicher falsch." -- Of late it has become the fashion to. assume for many difficult Greek words Semitic origin. Keller, 253, apparently following J. H. H. Schmidt, 'Griech. Synonymik, I. 648, derives  $\pi \in \lambda a \gamma o s$ , pelagus, 'ocean, sea,'

from the Semitic לבל, 'to flow' (?); פלנ (péleg), 'canal'; but the Semitic verb never means 'to flow,' nor the noun 'ocean, sea'; while, on the other hand, there is no passage proving  $\pi \in \lambda a \gamma o \gamma$  in the meaning of 'canal, river.' Uppenkamp, 21, too, has Hebr. pělaggāh, 'river, brook' = Arab. falaq, 'cleft' = Greek  $\pi \epsilon \lambda a \gamma o s$ , 'ocean.' The primitive meaning of של is 'divide, separate,' whence בלנ (peleg, Assyrian palgu), 'canal or river,' as a means of separating (like our English 'brook'). I prefer by far Bezzenberger's combination of  $\pi \in \lambda a y o s$  for  $\phi \in \lambda a y o s$  with M.H.G. bulge = 'wave'; O.N. bylgja, etc. (BB. 4, 335; Fick4, I. 493). To the Greeks  $\pi \dot{\epsilon} \lambda a \gamma o s$  was the expansion, the wide open sea (= Lat. aequor). - Keller also derives χείμαρρος, 'torrent, forest-stream,' from Semitic TOT (xāmár), which, in Ps. xlvi. 4, is used of water in the meaning of 'bubble, swell.' See, however, Fick4, I. 151, 576. — Καταρράκτης, Lat. cataracta, 'a cataract,' is usually combined with καταδρήγνυμι. But Xag. 3. 1, 205-6, says: 'καταδράκτης (Arrian) and cataracta (Ammianus) are from  $\sqrt{177}$  (kāráx), whence karx, Aram. plur. karxājā, 'canals for irrigation.' (kěrāxā), with article אורדום (kěrāxětā); this was changed to kěrāxtā, 'water-gates.' A masculine form we find in Σπασίνου  $\chi \dot{u} \rho a \xi$  (=  $\kappa a \rho a \chi s$  =  $k a r \bar{a} x$ ). The whole region was called Χαρρακήνη, on account of its many water-gates. The form καταβράκτης, of course, would ultimately be the result of a popular analogy to καταδρήγνυμι. — There are in Greek two nouns  $\phi a$ : one =  $\mu \eta \lambda \omega \tau \dot{\eta}$ , 'sheepskin with the wool on,' or a garment made of it, and connected with öis, 'sheep'; and another, which is the Greek transliteration of the Aram.  $i\bar{i}$ ,  $\bar{a}$ , plur. aiatā, 'edges, pinnacles' 4 = Hebr. אצאאא, then also 'the edge, seam of a dress' (Moschus, 2, 123); ZDMG. 32, 753; G.G. Nachr. 1881, 405; Zag. J. 1, 80. Bezzenberger, on the other hand, combines of a, 'seam, border,' with Skt. as (ās-n-ás), Lat. ōs, ora; and Kluge (Paul and Braune's Beiträge, 8, 522) adds A.-S. ōr, ora, 'border, beginning'; also see Joh. Schmidt, 'Pluralbildungen der Indogerm. Neutra,' 117. — Fürst, 'Lexicon,' 374, derives πυραμίς, 'pyramid,' from an

<sup>4</sup> Also Lat. pinna is from the Sem. مالات (pinnah), G. 66.

Egyptian *p-iram*, and this from the Sem.-Arab. *haramun*, 'a pyramid,' from \$\sim\$77, 'be high.' 5

# IV. — THE HOUSE, ITS PARTS AND SURROUNDINGS.

M. Renan, 206, says: 'τιθαιβώσσω parait venir de ΨΣ¬ (džbáš) + prefix  $\tau \iota$ -.' In Homer it means 'to build, make a nest'; of bees also, 'to make honey-combs' (Od. 13, 106). This, of course, must have been its primitive meaning, if the word is to be derived from the Semitic (děbáš, 'honey, honey-comb'). I do not agree with Renan, and consider A. Müller's objections (BB. 1, 298) as a convincing proof against it. — Materials used for building purposes are ἄγουρος, γύψος, and πλίνθος. "Ayoupos, 'brick,' is mentioned by J. arm. 4, 11 = Arm. agour = Persian āgur; all from Assyrian agurru.\(^1\)— Γύψος, gypsum (the Latin from the Greek accusative γύψον), 'plaster, mortar,' is derived by Blau (ZDMG. 25, 542) from Arabic jibs; Prellwitz quotes Persian jabs. The best gypsum was imported from Syria, a fact which points to an Eastern home. Fränkel (p. 9), however, believes that the Arabic was borrowed from the Greek. In Egyptian we have argabasa, which, according to Bondi, p. 29, is from the Semitic אלנביש ('elgābīš, Ezek. xiii. 11; Job xxviii. 18), LXX. γαβίς = ΔΣΙ = κρύσταλλος. — Πλίνθος, 'brick, tile,' is usually connectedwith O.H.G. flins, 'quartz, flint'; A.-S. flint, German Flinte, Swedish flinta, Slavonic plinuto.2 Georg Hoffmann, in ZDMG. 32, 748, and in Stade's Zeitschrift für die alttestamentliche Wissenschaft, 2, 72, § 19, explains the Greek word as a me-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Weise (BB. 7, 171), too, considers the Greek an Egyptian loan-word; but Erman, *ibid.* 337; Wiedemann, Hdt. 468; L. Dickermann (*Proc. Am. Or. Soc.* 1890, XXV.); Brugsch *et al.* hold it to be a genuine Greek word. See also BB. 5, 85; Gruppe, I. 67; Gutschmid, 'Kleine Schriften,' I. 223; and on Latin perramus, Keller, 128.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Literally = 'enclosure, encasement,' and collectively = 'backed clay, bricks' used for encasing the walls, kiln-brick. This Assyrian word passed also into Arabic through the medium of the Aramean.

KZ. 22, 110, no. 3; 30, 450; Curtius<sup>5</sup>, 279; G. Meyer<sup>2</sup>, 203; Fick<sup>4</sup>, I. 487;
 Prellwitz, 257. I.-E. etymol. for τιθαιβώσσω proposed by Henry, Mém. 6, 43.

tathesis of  $\lambda \pi \iota \nu \theta = \lambda \beta \iota \nu \tau = \text{Semitic libral} (גובות), Assyrian$ libittu, construct. state libnat). Perhaps the Greeks learned brick-making from the Phoenicians. Latin plinthis, plinthidis. is borrowed from  $\pi \lambda i \nu \theta i \varsigma$ , -iδος, the dimin. of  $\pi \lambda i \nu \theta o \varsigma$  (Lat. plinthus). Quite ingenious is O. Schrader's remark on p. 315 of his 'Sprachvergleichung und Urgeschichte.'2: "Das lat. plumbum (\*plomfo) vergleicht sich genau dem griechischen πλίνθος 'Barren,' 'Ziegelstein,' wenn man sich entschliesst, dieses Wort auf eine Grundform \*plentho zurückzuführen oder  $\lambda \iota$  als Vertreter sonantischer Liquida anzusehen (vergleiche G. Meyer<sup>2</sup>, p. 66 f.); das sächliche Geschlecht des lat. plumbum erklärt sich durch die Analogie der übrigen Metallnamen im Lateinischen."—The Septuagint and late Greek  $\beta \acute{a}\rho\iota\varsigma$ , 'a large house, tower, palace' =  $\pi \acute{v}\rho\gamma o\varsigma$ , is from the Hebr. הירה (bīrāh), 'the same,' G. 66. — Κασας, or κασης, 'felt, carpet or skin to sit upon, a saddle' (τοὺς κασάς, 'housing'), is compared by Sophocles, 'Dictionary,' s.v., with Sem. -= καλύπτω, σκεπάζω. — Il. 5, 387, we read χαλκέφ δ' έν κεράμφ δέδετο τρισκαίδεκα μήνας, 'thirteen months he lay bound in a strong prison.' The Scholiast on this passage says: oi γάρ Κύπριοι τὸ δεσμωτήριον κέραμον καλοῦσι. Theon, in Progymn., chapter 'concerning law,' has: εἴ τις λέγοι τὸν κέραμον ἀντὶ δεσμωτηρίου, καθάπερ Κύπριοι; see also 'Etym. Magn.' 98, 31. O. Hoffmann (in Bezzenberger's Beiträge, 15, 87, and 'Die Griechischen Dialekte, I. 119) does not know how to explain it. The noun, evidently assimilated to κέραμος,3 'potter's earth,' is borrowed from the Sem. בהרם (xērem), 'prison,' I.F. I. 506. — The late Greek κουπήϊου, καμάρα ή ἐπὶ τῶν ἀμάξων γινομένη (Hesych. II. 525, no. 3834, Mor. Schmidt), Latin cupa, cupula = fornix rotundus, whence 'tent, chamber' (Num. xxv. 8); cf. Arabic qúbbatun, 'tentroof, vault, tabernaculum, and Cyprian  $\kappa \dot{\nu} \beta \eta \nu a = \sigma \kappa \dot{\eta} \nu \omega \mu a$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Concerning κέραμος, 'potter's earth,' Hehn, 441, says very significantly: 'As Corinth was a chief seat of Phoenician culture, there may be in the statement that the potter's wheel was invented by the Phoenicians (Hyperbios, Schol. to Pind. Ol. XIII. 17), a hint as to the origin of the potter's art among the Greeks.' Could κέραμος, which admits of no good I.-E. etymology, be connected with Sem.

— A noun of the greatest interest is λέσχη, 'meeting-place.' Pott<sup>2</sup>, II. 1, 814, and KZ. 26, 188, derives it from λέγειν, or perhaps from a verbum *desiderat*, with  $\sigma =$ 'place intended for talking'; cf. λέσχης, ἀδολέσχης. He is followed by Curtius<sup>5</sup>, 364; Savelsberg, KZ. 16, 364,  $\lambda \epsilon \sigma \chi \eta$  for  $\lambda \epsilon \gamma j \eta$ ; see also KZ. 26, 188; Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 497, rem. 2. Roscher, 'Curt. Studien,' 2, 132, 2, has: 'λέσχη for \*λέσκη, √λεγ or λακ (cf. λάσκω).' Thurneysen, KZ. 30, 353, compares Irish lesc, 'lazy,' and Ger. 'leer' (= empty). Wackernagel, ibid. 33, 39, explains λέσχη for λεχσ-κη (Brugmann, 'Gr. Gram.'2 162). On the other hand, Bochart, Ph. 437; Ewald, 'Hebr. Gram.' 8 § 51 b, and Lagarde, 'Psalterium memphiticum,' p. 155,5 derive the Greek from the Hebr. לשכה (liškāh), an etymology accepted by O. Schrader and many others. — Greek μάνδρα, 'fold, stable,' is explained by Brugmann, 'Grundriss,' 2, § 151, p. 433, from Skt. mandirá-m, 'habitation, room'; see also Schrader2, 183, 501; Fick4, I. 107, 509, who connects it with μάνδαλος; Bradke, 189, rem. 2. In late Greek the word means 'convent, monastery,' and in this meaning it was derived by \$.r. XXXVII. from the Arab. maxdar (Hebr. אוֹב, xāçēr),6 'place of habitation.' A. Müller

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Curtius, *ibid.*, is inclined to derive from the √λεγ also the name of the Λέλεγες. Kiepert combines it with the Sem. Ψ΄ (*lāidg*, to 'stammer'), "da die Leleger im Munde semitisch redender Völker einfach Barbaren, i.e. Nichtsemiten sind." See, however, ¶ag.∰. 3, 29. Ries, 8, is undecided. Jubainville, 171, *et passim*: Les Lélèges sont des Égypto-Pheniciens.

<sup>6 &#</sup>x27; Xānūtā Syris idem est quod halli3kāh = ἡ λέσχη (Reg. IV. 23, 11; Ezek. xl. 44), Hebraeis et ἡ ταβέρνα, Acts xxviii. 15 (unde nos Zabern, Engl. "tavern," effinximus), Graecis.' See my 'Semitic Glosses to Kluge,' 43.

very appropriately considered this combination impossible; and yet the Greek may be derived from the Semitic. have in Aramean mědár (corresponding to Arab. dār, 'house'); this was borrowed by the Arabians, where we have madaratun, 'village habitation,' whence  $\mu \dot{\alpha}(\nu) \delta \rho a$  could easily have been formed. Madarsuma, a place in Numidia = מרר עצומא (mědāt băçūmā), 'fortified habitation,' is mentioned by Schröder, 89. - Μέγαρον, 'hall, room,' is usually connected with μέγας. because it commonly signifies a large room or house, which, however, is by no means always the case. 7 g.r. XXXVII. writes: 'μέγαρον eodem quo tugurium<sup>8</sup> refero, ad τι (gūr), scilicet.' Phoen. māgūr and Latin magalia are also to be added (Bochart, Ph. 469-70). Stowasser, III. 5-6, believes that also Lat. e-migrare, im-migrare, and migrare are borrowed from the Greek, just as the latter was borrowed from a Semitic Another word is τὰ μέγαρα, also μάγαρα, 'underground caves,' sacred to Demeter and Persephone, into which young pigs were let down on a particular day in the Thesmophoria. This is to be connected with מערה (měʾārāh), 'cave,' . ערר√, Lag. 'Symmicta,' II. 91. From the same Semitic word Meltzer, 72 and 442, and J. Halévy, 'Mélanges de critique,' 144, derive the name Méyapa, while Geo. Hoffmann ('Über einige Phönikische Inschriften,' 6, rem. 1) compares

lotting' (for the vowels compare Κιμμέριοι, from ΤΣ), gōmer). It would be a partc. Qal of mānāh. Or, this mōnéh, says Lewy, could also be a partc. Hifūl of τΣ' (iānāh) = 'the oppressor,' which would explain why Mlνωs is called δλοόφρων, Od. 11, 322. The form Mlνωs might go back to a word sounding like Punic \*mūnē. See also Ries, 57-8. But Ed. Meyer, I. § 192, rem., justly warns against such etymologies: "Weit problematischer sind noch die mythologischen Combinationen, die in der Regel jeder soliden Begründung ermangeln. Minos für phönizisch zu halten liegt kein Grund vor." On the other hand be it said that the I.-E. etymologies for Minos proposed by Kuhn, KZ. 4, 91; Misteli, ibid. 17, 192; Benfey; Johansson, BB. 18, 44, and others from the Skt. mānus are equally unsatisfactory (cf. Gruppe, 104-5; Schrader², 588, 596, 598, and 614; KZ. 29, 537). BB. 12, 140, explains Minos by the Lykian minohā. On Windischmann's and Eckstein-Kuhn's etymologies of Radamanthys, see Gruppe, 99.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Curtius<sup>6</sup>, 328; Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 497; an I.-E. etymology of μέγαρον is proposed by Johansson, BB. 18, 36. Fick<sup>4</sup>, I. 512, compares Lith. méga, 'partition'; German, 'Gemach.'

<sup>8</sup> Curtius<sup>5</sup>, 186, tug-urium from tego.

the Carthaginian Méyapa..with שלב" (migrāš), "wegen der sachlichen Uebereinstimmung; vergleiche die Verstümmelung Carthada from קרתחרשת." — Movers, I. 292, and Müllenhoff, I. 119, derive σηκός, 'hut, fold, tent' (compared by Leo Meyer with German 'Zwinger') from Hebr. and (sukkāh), 'fold.' Much better it is, however, to combine the noun with σάττω (= zwingen, G.G. Nachr. 1892, 313), etc., from √svāk, 'to secure, make firm'; G. Meyer<sup>2</sup>, 221; BB. 12, 240. Curtius<sup>5</sup>, 161, compares Lat. saepe. See also H. D. Müller, BB. 13, 314; and Sophus Bugge, ibid. 14, 66. — Σιρός (not σειρός), 'pit, vessel for keeping corn in' (Eurip. frg. 4, D), 'pitfall,' Lat. sirus, is connected with and (sirāh), 'kettle, cistern,' 2 Sam. iii. 26; cf. F.a. 210, 23; F.arm. 1702. Bochart, H. II. 595, 3, derived the Greek from Hebr. TIN ('āçár), 'hide, stow away.' — Χάραξ, 'a place paled in, palisaded place,' is from רך (kārāk), 'a city, fortified and walled round, a citadel' (Gesenius, 'Wörterbuch,' 9 401); cf. Σαρακμῶβα (Ptol. and Steph. Byzant.); Jug. II. 1, 205, derives it from see also Rev. des études juives, 20, 297, and, on the other hand, Postgate in A.J.P. III. 336. — Εμβολος, means 1) a. 'peg, stopper,' connected with ἐμβάλλω, and 2) 'portico, porch' (late Greek). In this latter meaning it is derived by Geo. Hoffmann (Über einige Phönikische Inschriften, 12, rem. 1) from Syriac אבולא ('abbūlā). — Κίων, 'pillar '= Hebr.. (kījjūn), 'pedestal statue' (Amos v. 26).9 But Aug. Müller (BB. 1, 290) has already argued that the Hebrew, being a ἄπαξ εἰρημένον, can hardly be taken into consideration. The translation of kijjūn by 'statue, pedestal' is only a surmise, not to be accepted. It has been shown that the correct reading in Amos v. 26 is בין (kēṇān, or rather kaijiāṇān), a word borrowed from the Assyrian kāmānu (kaimānu, pronounced in later time kēuānu), which in II. Rawlinson, 32, 15, col. e-f, is mentioned as the name of the planet Saturn. The planet was called kāmānu, 'true, durable,' because of its

<sup>9</sup> Movers, I. 292; Müllenhoff, I. 69; J.R. 13, 31; see, however, J.Rrm. 2000; and again, Jag. 33. 2, 356; O. Schrader², 497; D'Arbois de Jubainville, Mém. 3, 349, considers στύξ, άτλας, and στήλη as translations of this Semitic κιιμίπη.

slow motion. Κίων is connected with Arm. siun (3. arm. 2000; Hübschmann, 'Arm. Stud.' 49, 251; A.J.P. VI. 439), while G. Meyer<sup>2</sup>, 115, and Fick, BB. 1, 333, consider it =  $*\sigma\kappa\epsilon i\omega\nu$ . comparing M.H.G. schie, 'stake, fence-post.' 10 - Μάνδαλος, 'bolt' = Hebr. מנעול (maniūl), the same J.r. XXXVII. A. Müller, BB. 1, 291, rejected this etymology of Lagarde. Since then, however, it has again been explained as borrowed from the Semitic, and, I believe, correctly. We have in . Assyrian medilu = ma'dalu (עדל, bolt, lock) = 'bolt,' which could easily have been borrowed as μάδαλος, μάνδαλος, through Syriac אָדְלא, although Frankel, 19, rem. 1, maintains that the Syriac is undoubtedly borrowed from the Greek. Vaniček, 663, derives the noun from a √μανδ, 'hem, hinder'; μάνδαλος, = 'a hindrance, a bolt.' — 'Αριζος (Hesych.) τάφος · Κύπριοι. = 'grove, ditch' = חריק (hārīç), Hamaker, 'Miscell. Phoen.' 301; Ries, 42; BB. 15, 70. — The most doubtful word is γέφῦρα, 'path, way' (Homer), Lakonian διφοῦρα; later = 'bridge.' In Homer always in the plur.; later in sing. and plur.; = Hebr. gěšūr (שור); Lenormant; Hitzig (ZDMG. 1854, 747); 3. üb. 65; through the Aramean gĕtūr. 12 The Homeric γέφυρα was 'a dam, a path.' The Semitic denotes a beam, as well as the beam, thrown across the river, serving as a path, a bridge. An I.-E. etymology from  $\sqrt{gaf}$ , gauf, was proposed by Kuhn in KZ. 1, 132 ff. G. Meyer<sup>2</sup>, 48; Johansson, KZ. 30, 414, rem. 2, and BB. 18, 28, refrain from discussing its origin. 18 — Bochart, H. II. 500, 25, also derived λαβύρινθος from Hebr. ערבלות ('arbělūt), by metath-

<sup>10</sup> Also σκητή, 'tent' (Dor. σκάτα), has been connected with Arab. sakinum, 'habitaculum, mansio' (Bochart, H. I. 465; Raumer, 'zweite Fortsetzung,' 14); it belongs, of course, to O.N. skaunn (a poetic name for 'shield'), BB. 4, 348; also 18, 65 and KZ. 30, 431.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> See Delitzsch and Haupt's Beiträge zur Assyriologie, I. 5; A.J.P. VIII. ≥90. There could well have been a Hebrew noun (maˈdal) like maːḥar, etc., from which the Greek could have been borrowed.

<sup>13</sup> For φ from Semitic 3 is quoted 'Αφροδίτη from 'A3tōret, 'Attōret;' Russian Feodor for Theodor; Hebr. ΔΙΨ (3ūm), 'garlic' = Arab. tūm, vulgar Arabic fūm (G.G.Nachr. 1883, 97, rem. 3).

<sup>18</sup> The Gephyraeans, one of the pre-hellenic tribes of Boeotia in the valley of the Asopos, were probably Phoenician invaders (Kiepert, 155); they are identified

esis of  $\lambda$  and  $\rho$ , for which he quotes the following examples: calasiri = 'toga talaris,' from Hebr. קרסל (garsōl), Vulgate tali; κλήρος from ΔΙΙ (gōrāl), and βήρυλλος from Aram. בלור (billōr); but λαβύρινθος is evidently connected with Greek λαύρα, λαύριον. Κλήρος is not from the Hebr. gōrāl; and for βήρυλλος see below, c. XXII. As for calasiri, Greek καλάσιρις, 'soldier' (Hdt. 2, 164; 7, 89; 9, 32), and 'garment' (Hdt. 2, 81), it is mentioned by Pollux, Onomast. 7, 16, as an Egyptian noun; although thus far not met with in Egyptian literature. 14 As a synonym of λαβύρινθος Bochart quotes σήραγξ, 'hollow, cleft,' which he derives from the Hebr. ΣΤΕ (sārág), 'perplexum est.'—As a curiosity I will add that Lenormant derived χόρτος, hortus, from the Hebr. ΨηΠ (xāráš, 'plough'); xōreš, 'forest, mountain-forest,' or from Hebr. חרת (xèret, proper name of a forest in Judah). But this is nonsense; cf. Stokes, BB. 11, 70, = Celtic gort ('field'); also Fröhde, ibid. 10, 301; O. Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 421. 15 — On έσχάρα, 'hearth, fireplace,' and Syriac X7DD (kaskěrā), see 3. arm. 1116; ZDMG. 46, 240. Prellwitz compares Slav. iskra, 'spark' (from \*esklırá), N.H.G. 'schorn-stein'; see also O. Schrader², 191 and 500; and Zubaty, KZ. 31, 15, rem. 2. The Syriac may have been borrowed from the Greek. On Latin escharosus compare Keller, 71.

with the Hebr.  $gibb\bar{v}\bar{r}m$  (מברור), 'the strong ones'; by others with Hebr.  $kaftor\bar{r}m$  (מברור). The most natural would be to connect them with the  $g\bar{e}s\bar{u}r\bar{r}$  (מברור) = 'the Gentiles.' See also Hitzig, ZDMG. 9, 747, and Bochart, Ph. 454; Fick's, I. 34 and 401. Jubainville, 191, explains the word as = 'builders of bridges.'

14 Kiepert, Manual, derives the Greek from Egyptian lope-ro-hunt, according to Keller, 215; but I am not able to find any such statement (see § 116 of his Manual); Wiedemann and Erman do not mention the word as borrowed from that language; on the other hand, see Brugsch, 'Aegyptologie,' 447: "Laby-rinth-os gelegen in der Nähe der Mündungstelle re-hn-t eines Kanals hn-t im Nomos von 'im-phwu."

16 Late-Latin canaba is discussed by F.arm. 966; Fag.M. 1, 228, and 2, 363-7; my 'Semitic glosses to Kluge,' 42, also Mém. 7, 56. — Stowasser's etymology of Lat. macellum and macellotae from Sem. \*\*\*ΔΦ (mīķētā or māķētā = δρύφακτος), pl. māķētā seems to me very plausible ('Dunkle Wörter,' II. 3-6). Also cf. F.arm. 1457.

## V.-CLOTHING AND ORNAMENTS.

Of the greatest interest in this class is χιτών, Ιοπίς κιθών, borrowed from the Phoen.-Hebr. מתנת (kětónet or kuttónet),1 or rather אותם (ketūnā, Budge). I believe that the form κιτών, which is said to belong to a Sicilian dialect, is the earliest form adopted by the Greeks (J.H.U.C. no. 81, 76).2 It also occurs in papyri (see K.Z. 31, 471). Wharton quotes Sicilian Μτρα for \*λίθρα, whence Latin lībra. According to Joseph. Antt. III. 7, 2, the ketonet was made of linen: γεθον το λίνον ήμεις καλουμεν, and Thucyd., I. 6, tells us that the oldest χιτῶνες were made of linen. From the same Aram. kětūnā we have (c)tuni(ca), sc. vestis = tunica.3—Two other nouns for clothing,  $\pi \epsilon \pi \lambda o_{S}$  and  $\phi \hat{a} \rho o_{S}$ , worn by women, are supposed by Helbig, p. 131, to have been borrowed from a non-I.-E., perhaps Semitic, nation, because the best πέπλοι were made by slaves in Sidon. Both are, however, I.-E. words.4 — Μανδύη (ή) (and μανδύας (ό)) is a late Greek word for 'woolen cloak,' usually explained as of Persian origin. Boch. H. i. 237, 20, 3.r. XXXVII., 3.a. 209, 8, derived it from Hebr. 70 (mad), 'carpet, garment.' — According to Helbig, 131 and 195, κεκρύφαλος, 'a woman's head-dress' (Homer), is also borrowed from a non-I.-E. tribe; and Fränkel, p. 164, says : "Eine Ableitung von קרקפתא, Schädel, Schale (gargaftā), ist פרקפל (gargafēl); damit ist wohl κεκρύφαλος

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Movers, II. 3, 97; Gutschmid, 'Kleine Schriften,' II. p. 6; Ewald, 'Hebr. Gram.'<sup>8</sup> 62; R. 207; X.a. 256, 12; BB. 1, 280, 284, and 299; Ries, 13; Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 485; *idem*. 'Waarenkunde,' 70, 87, and 118; Helbig, 115. On the other hand, see Pusey, *Daniel*, 515, below.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> On χιτών, κιθών, see KZ. 19, 22; Curtius, 'Studien,' 2, 50; G. Meyer<sup>2</sup>, § 206; G.G.Anz. 1884, 1016. On λίτρα: libra comp. M. Bréal, Mém. 6, 6, and bel. p. 84. <sup>8</sup> Bradke, 253; Stowasser, I. 6; Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 486; Keller, 90.

<sup>\* 11. 6, 289-295;</sup> also Helbig, 14 and 195; Ries, 14; Sonne, KZ. 10, 407; Fritzsche, 'Curtius Studien,' 6, 322. Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 472, compares Lat. pallium and connects both with pellis, O.H.G. fel. — On φᾶροs, see Fick, BB. 1, 244, and Bezzenberger's note, ibidem. Liddell and Scott, following Curt. 5 300, connects it with φέρω, as German 'Tracht' from 'tragen.' Studniczka, 'Beiträge zur Geschichte der Altgriech. Tracht' (1886), combines the Greek with Egyptian ρᾶᾶτ, 'linen.' The Egyptian word, however, occurs only in late texts, and is borrowed from the Hebr. THE (ρε̄'ēr), 'head gear' (Brugsch, ZDMG, 46, 110); Schrader², 485-6; Ries, 13-14.

identisch, wenn auch die Bedeutungen nicht ganz genau stimmen: das jüdische Wort wird als Schädelhaut erklärt." I consider this combination very improbable, and prefer to combine it with κορυφή (Lobeck, El. I. 165) or κρύπτω (Geo. Bühler, Orient und Occident, I. 337 ff.; and 'Curtius, Studien,' 6, 330). — Fürst, 'Glossarium graeco-hebraeum,' 129, derives Hebr. הוד (keter) from Greek κίδαρις, κίταρις; but the Greek is from the Semitic, and this perhaps from the Persian. 5 — Σάβανον, 'linen, cloth, towel' (Lat. sabanum), Arm. saüan, is from the Arabic sabanijiat, 'cloth, linen made in Saban,' near Bagdâd (Dozy, 'Diction. des vêtements,' 200; 3. arm. 1974). Uppenkamp referred the Greek to √shap.— Maνιάκης,6 'bracelet, collar, necklace' (Polyb. II. 31), and μανίακον, 'border of a robe,' are connected by Sophocles, 'Dictionary,' s.v., with Hebr. המניך (hamnīk, Dan. v. 7: המינכא). Gesenius, 'Wörterbuch', derives the Aram. from the Greek; so also Kautzsch, 'Aramäische Grammatik,' 119; while Benfey (3.a. 40, 11; 3.arm. 1420) refers it to Skt. \*sumanika.7 — 'Οθόνη, 'fine white linen, undergarments' (Homer, always plur.), is a much disputed word as regards its etymology.8 Benfey and Fick4, I. 129, refer it, doubtfully, to the  $\sqrt{vadh}$ , 'wind, bind.' Movers, II. 3, 319, was the first who derived it from the Sem. 1008 ('ēṭūn, Prov. vii. 16, 'fine linen from Egypt'); he is followed by R. 207, Hehn, Vaniček, Studniczka, Ries, etc.; Helbig too, 128, combines the Greek with this Semitic noun, and adds: "Doch die genaue Kenntniss welche die homerischen Dichter hinsichtlich der Herstellungsweise bekunden, zeigt dass solche Stoffe bereits unter ihren Augen in den ionischen Städten gear-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Bötticher, 'Arica,' 119 f.; J.z. 207, 21; J.zrm. 1003; BB. 1, 276, and 15, 97; Ries, 42; against a connection with Assyrian kudūru, see Proc. Am. Or. Soc., Oct., 1888, p. xcviii.

<sup>6</sup> Τοῦτό ἐστιν χρυσοῦν ψέλλιον ο φοροῦσι περί τὸν τράχηλον οί Γαλάται.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Pusey ('Daniel,' 459): hamnik is derived from the Skt. mani, 'jewel,' with a secondary derivative -ka; the Latin monile is a cognate word. See also Boch.

Ph. 488; H. Derenbourg, 'Mélanges Graux,' 240; Fick', I. 110; Jubainville, 210, rem. 4. Prellwitz, 190, adds O.H.G. mana = N.H.G. 'Mähne.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> //. 3, 141, and 18, 595; Od. 7, 107; later = sails. Helbig, 126 ff.

<sup>9</sup> See W. Stokes in Kuhn's Beiträge, 8, 352; Meister, 'Curt. Stud.' 4, 374-2 and Leo Meyer, KZ. 23, 60, comparing O.H.G. wat.

beitet wurden." Weise, in a review of Schrader's 'Waarenkunde,' 10 urges against the identification of γιακ and οθόνη. I) that yarn and thread  $(\partial\theta \dot{o}\nu\eta)$  are not the same as linen, cloth (110k), and 2) that the acknowledged Semitic loan-word ονος = []  $\vec{a}$  (' $\vec{a}$ t̄ $\vec{o}$ n = \* $\vec{a}$ σνος) gives us a hint what the Phoenician word would likely have been on Greek soil. But δθόνη in Homer may also mean linen, cloth, and ovos is not a Semitic word. 11 Schrader, 'Waarenkunde,' 192, and 'Urgeschichte'2, 485, speaks of Egypto-Semitic linen, mentioning Egyptian 'ēṭūn. M. Harkavy,12 too, derives the Hebrew from Egyptian aten, atennu, explaining both as 'disc, globe.' Wiedemann does not mention  $\partial\theta \dot{\partial}\nu\eta$  as from the Egyptian, nor does Erman (ZDMG. 46, 92-130). The form 1928 ('ēṭūn) is a Syriasmus for אַמון ('ĕṭūn); it is probably connected with the verb מוה, 'spin, twist' (= Assyrian tamū, tauū). 13 — Another word belonging to this class is μέταξα, μάταξα, <sup>14</sup> I) 'thread,' 2) 'cocoon of the silk-worm, (raw-)silk' = Aram. מטכסא (měṭaksā), which, according to Gesenius, 'Thesaurus,' 346, is a transposition of דמשק (dimašq). 15 Fleischer, in his additions to Levy's 'Chaldaisches Wörterbuch,' II. 568, says: 'Hellenistic μέταξα, Aram. κουδό, and Arab. midagsun, are from Dimasq.'16 Fränkel, 40, derives the Aram. from the Greek, whence it passed to the Arab. as dimasq for midags, perhaps with a popular leaning toward the name of the city Damascus; and on p. 288 he adds: "Since metaxa is Old-

<sup>10</sup> Zeitschrift für Völkerpsychologie, 17, 225-6.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> See below, c. IX.

<sup>12</sup> Journal Asiatique, March-April, 1870, 166 f.; see also BB. 1, 294.

<sup>18</sup> It is amusing to see the mistakes of the LXX. translators of Prov. vii. 16-17.

<sup>14</sup> Also μετάξιον, μέταξις, μέταξον, μέταξος.

<sup>16</sup> Gesenius, 'Wörterbuch'9, 192 a.

<sup>18</sup> Cf. Hitzig, ZDMG. 8, 213. Lagarde's etymology, 'Reliquiae,' XXXVII., is rejected by A. Müller, BB. 1, 292. See also §.r. 45, 153. PDD in Amos iii. 12, according to Ewald (G.G.Nachr. 1862, 372), Gesenius, Keil (Minor Prophets, I. 264), does not mean the city of Damascus, but damask; on the other hand, compare Pusey (Minor Prophets, I. 277, rem. 2). The text seems to be imperfect or corrupt (Stade's Zeitschrift, 3, 102). — Prellwitz's last source is Persian Māt-shin = China (but???), following Schrader, 'Waarenkunde'; this would be a case similar to that of σηρες (silk), from the Chinese (cf. Corean sir; Mandchu sirghe, etc.).

Latin (Waddington ad 'Edictum Diocletiani,' XVI. 86), there can be no connection with Damascus." Saalfeld, 687, however, states that metaxa occurs only in late Latin. G. Meyer (Lit. Centralblatt, 1893, no. 2, col. 49), reviewing Prellwitz's 'Etym. Wörterbuch,' says: "Die unter μέταξα angeführten orientalischen Wörter stammen gewiss aus dem Griechischen." On the whole it is best to remain satisfied with the cautious remarks of Jarm. 1481. — Equally doubtful are βύσσος and σινδών. Βύσσος (Theorr. and LXX.), 'fine yellowish flax, especially from India and Egypt, and linen made thereof.' 17 Σινδών βυσσίνη, 'fine linen bandage' used for mummy-cloths (Hdt. 2, 86), for dressing wounds (ibid. 7, 181). It was paid in Egypt as tribute (C.I.G. 4697, 18). In later Greek writers it means 'cotton' (Philostratus, 71; Pollux, 7, 76); it is different from κάνναβις and  $\lambda i \nu o \nu$  (Paus. 7, 76, 6); used of silk, which was supposed to be a kind of cotton. The adjective occurs in Aeschylus. According to Sayce it is the Egyptian bus, 'fine linen'; 18 but Erman, BB. 7, 337, denies the existence of such a word in Egyptian; and Wiedemann ('Hdt.'s Zweites Buch, 358), says: "Βύσσος ist weder das ägyptische Wort vat' noch das hebr. "> (baç)"; while R. 205, Schröder, 134, and G. Meyer<sup>2</sup>, 185, have  $\beta \dot{\nu} \sigma \sigma \sigma s = \text{Hebr. } b \bar{u} c^{19}$  The Egyptian word for byssus is šs, Coptic šens, whence Hebr. šēš ( $\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}$ , formed after  $\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v} = s\bar{e}s$ , 'white marble'), and perhaps Greek σινδών; X. arm. 80, 1193, too, derives the Greek from the Coptic, in which he is followed by Fränkel, 41.

<sup>17</sup> Latin byssus, byssoses; Ital. bisso; O.H.G. bissin, etc.

<sup>18</sup> So also O. Weise, BB. 7, 170, and Stein ad Hdt. 2, 86.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>19</sup> According to Stade, I. 373,  $b\bar{u}_{\ell}$  is an Aram. word; Northern Syria furnished the Phoenician merchants with  $b\bar{u}_{\ell}$ , says Canon Rawlinson, and Schrader, 'Waarenkunde,' believes that the fact that this word is used first by Ezekiel, who lived in Babylon, may point to its original home. The word seems to be Persian (ZDMG. 46, 234, no. 17). Also cf. Gesen. 'Wörterbuch''; Stade and Siegfried, 'Hebr. Wörterbuch.' Fürst, 'Hebrew and Chaldaic Lexicon,' 189, says: 'It is a genuine Semitic word, occurring in all the dialects'; Lag. 'Semitica,' I. 52; 'Symmicta,' II. 110; 'Arm. Stud.,' 421, has some remarks on the subject. Pusey, 'Daniel,' 515: 'Its etymology is Semitic = white, i.e. bleached.' Prellwitz, 'Wörterbuch,' considers it an I.-E. noun, comparing N.H.G. kaute.

II. 3, 319, combined the Greek with Hebr. (sādīn), a combination adopted by Sayce, 'Hibbert Lectures,' 138;20 Stade, I. 374, and Wiedemann, 'Hdt.'s Zweites Buch.' The Hebrew, again, is derived from the Assyrian sindhu (sintu), and this ultimately from Sind = Ίνδός (India); see also Weise, Lehnwörter, 183, rem. 1. — Κάρπασος, 'fine flax, linen' (Lat. carbasus). I.arm. 1148; Arm. kerpas, from Arab. DRDD (kirb'ās) = Skt. karpāsa; whence also Hebr. DD72 (karpās, Esth. i. 6), Pers. karbās.<sup>21</sup> Hehn derived the Greek from a reconstructed Phoenician word, while Schrader ('Waarenkunde,' 210) makes the Sanskrit equal to Arabic korsofal, korsuf, korsof; but this Arabic is, according to J. üb. 114, 1 = late Greek γοσσύπιον (gossypium), 'cotton'; so also O. Weise, Lehnwörter, 144; while Fränkel, 145, makes the Greek borrow it from the Arabic. — Nάκη, 'a wooly, hairy skin, goat skin' (Od. 14, 530); 'sheep's fleece'; later νάκος, τὸ (Latin nacae, whence nacca = fullo), is combined by Bochart, H. i. 419, with Syriac נקי (neqiō), 'sheep,' while in reality it belongs to Gothic snaga, 'garment' (Bezzenberger).22 — Σισύρα (Aristoph. Av. 121), 'a shaggy goat-skin, thick, rough outer garment,' is derived by \$.r. 43, 136, from Hebr. שעיר (sāʾir), 'shaggy, rough skinned.'23

<sup>29</sup> Sayce: "An ancient list of clothing mentions 3intu or 'muslin,' the sadin of the Old Testament,  $\sigma ir\delta \dot{\omega}r$  of the Greeks. That  $\sigma ir\delta \dot{\omega}r$  is merely 'the Indian cloth' has long been recognized; and the fact that it begins with a sibilant and not with a vowel, like our 'Indian,' proves that it must have come to the West by sea and not by land, where the original s would have become h in Persian mouths; supposing, of course, that Iranian tribes were already settled to the east of Babylon." Also of. Pusey, 'Daniel,' 516, no. 2.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>21</sup> KZ. 23. 9. Uppenkamp, 15, rem. 1, says: "Unbekannt ist die Heimat der Bezeichnung für Baumwolle, auch Leinwand" ( $\kappa 4\rho \beta \alpha \sigma \sigma s$ ); 3.r. 45, 153; R. 209; Saalfeld, 231; Weise, Lehnwörter, 183.

Eteller, 44, brings up again the long-rejected Arab. etymology of 'amuletum.' See my 'Semitic Glosses to Kluge's Wörterbuch,' 8-9; and A.J.P. XIII. 230.— Bochart, Ph. 484, derives Lat. mappa from Heb. The (mappar, for maiafdr, 'covering,' The The Late-Latin camisia (French-Engl. chemise, Ital. camicia) is from the Arab. qamīf, 'a shirt, a shift.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>28</sup> ¡Ain saepe in dentalem abiit (sic יְשְׁיֵּר: sāˈsīr est Σάτυρος) atque etiam in sibilantem (sāˈsīr etiam σισύρα, Aristoph. Av. 121).

#### VI. — UTENSILS AND FURNITURE.

 $K_i$ βωτός, 'wooden box, chest' = Hebr. ΠΩΠ (tē b̄ah). Clemens Alex. 241, 4, says: κιβωτὸς ἐκ τοῦ ἐβραϊκοῦ ὀνόματος θηβωθά (ΚΠΙΣΙΠ, τῖξοτα) καλουμένη. Geo. Hoffmann, ZDMG. 32, 748, writes: Syriac qībotā, plur. qībuātā, from Greek κιβωτός, and this again for \*τιβωτός, from ΠΙΞΊ (tēģōt).2 The Hebrew may have been borrowed from the Egyptian, where we have tebet, 'chest, coffin,' ZDMG. 46, 123. In the Cyprian dialect we have θίβωνος κιβωτός. B. ii. 324, connected  $\kappa i \beta \omega \tau \delta s$  with  $\kappa i \beta i \sigma i s$ , pouch, wallet  $(\pi \eta \rho a \cdot \mathbf{K} \dot{\nu} \pi \rho i o i)$ ; but κίβισις (Hes. Sc. 224)4 belongs to Hebr. 727, Ries, 42. The Aetolians use  $\kappa i \beta \beta a$  for  $\pi \eta \rho a$ . Whether this has any connection with Hebr. qāb (cf. Assyrian qabū, 'chest, box') I cannot say. — An important word is κάρταλος, 'basket' (LXX. and Philo). R. 206, derived it from Hebr. אגרטל ('agartal), Ezra i. 9. It is, however, more likely that the Hebrew ἄπαξ εἰρημένον is from the Greek or another Eastern language, than vice versa. The Hebrew has no etymology. W. Stokes combines the Greek with Irish certle and Lat. cartilago 6 (BB. 9, 88, and 16, 245). G. Meyer2, § 173; Curtius<sup>5</sup>, 144, and Fick<sup>4</sup>, I. 15 and 385, add κροτώνη, Skt. káta, 'wicker-work'; kṛnátti, cṛtánti, cṛttá, 'to bind, tie'  $(\sqrt{kart}, 'wind, twine')$ ; so also Siegismund, 'Studien,' 5, 148, while P. Kretschmer (KZ. 31, 393) calls in Skt. crtami, Fränkel, 77-8, de-Goth. haurds, Slav. krętaja, 'texture.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Rödiger in Gesen. 'Thesaurus'; Ewald, 'Hebr. Gram.' <sup>8</sup> § 47 c, p. 123; 3.r. XXXVII. Fleischer in 'Berichte der Königl. Sächsischen Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften,' 1866, p. 310.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See, however, A. Müller, BB. 1, 289; Bochart, H., explaining κιβωτός, mentions as a parallel \*κάχλη, whence κάλχη (murex, purple limpet), from the Aram. ΝΌΣΠ (tiἔtlā or taἔtlā); but cf. Curtius, 152; Fick, I. 437; and ZDMG. 46, 260.

 $<sup>^8</sup>$  KZ. 9, 304, where Schmidt wrongly explains  $\theta$ l $\beta$ ພros for  $\theta$ l $\beta$  $\eta$ ros. Also  $\theta$ l $\beta$  $\eta$  (הביבה) and  $\theta$ l $\beta$ s occur in LXX. ad Ex. 2, 3, where Aquila has κιβωτός.

<sup>4</sup> Also κίβησις, κύβεσις, and κυβυσία.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Those proposed in Fürst's 'Hebrew Lexicon' are all too fanciful; the \* is an 'aleph prostheticum, as shown by the corresponding forms in Arabic, Aram., and Syriac.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Another etymology for cartilago was advanced by Hempl in A.J.P. XII. 354-

rives Arabic qirtalatun from the Greek, and then continues: "Ob κάρταλλος selbst echt ist, ist allerdings noch eine andere Frage. Es würde wohl möglich sein, hier ein persisches (und dies würde zu stimmen) oder gar semitisches Fremdwort im Griechischen vorläge." — Of Semitic origin are κλωβός, κλουβός, 'cage, bird-cage,' also 'chamber, room' = Hebr. בלוב (kělūb), Amos viii. 2; Jer. v. 27; Syriac, 'the same.' Boch. H. i. 662, 53; G. 66; R. 207. The etymologies of Curtius, 585, and Vaniček, 1123, are not acceptable; nor do I agree with Prellwitz, 152. — The same is the case with σάκκος (σακκίον; Aristoph. also  $\sigma \acute{a}\kappa \tau a\varsigma$ ) 'sack' = Hebr.  $\supset w$  (saq), Lat. saccus, sacculus = 'Seckel.' G. J. Vossius, 'Etymologicum,' s.v., says: 'Saccus non a sago, sed a Graeco σάκκος, quod ipsum est non a σάττω, sed a Hebraeo שׁכּ,' According to Hehn it may be of Lydo-Phoenician origin. Schwally in Stade's Zeitschrift für die alttestamentliche Wissenschaft, XI. 173, writes: 'D' has no Semitic etymology. It is perhaps an Egyptian word.' But we also find it in Assyrian as šaqqu ša še'im = alluxappu, 'cornsack' (Delitzsch, 'Assyrisches Wörterbuch'), and Egyptian sq, 'mat made of rushes,' occurs only in late texts (ZDMG. 46, 119). — Ίγδις, 'mortar' (Solon, 38); also ἐγδίον (Geop. 12, 19, 5), and ἔγδη (ibid. 9, 26, 4), for \* $\mu i \gamma \delta \eta$ , is hardly else than a derivative of a verb לה (דקק = דקה). The form λίγδος shows that a consonant has been dropped in the beginning.  $\Lambda \acute{a}\rho \iota \sigma \sigma a$  also could be explained in the same manner and compared to Arabic maxrūsatu (חרושה, אַ.שָּ. אָה). On λίγδος see, on the other hand, Uppenkamp, p. 27, and Fröhde, BB. 3, 15, rem. 2. — Another noun of Semitic extraction, according to 3.7. 76, is ὅλμος, 1) 'a round stone,' 11. 11, 147; 2) 'a mortar,' Hes. Op. 425, Hdt. I, 200 = Hebr. הלמות (halmūt, Jud. v. 26), 'hammer, crusher.' Curtius<sup>5</sup>, 358; G. Meyer<sup>2</sup>, 10, and KZ. 23, 74, refer it to I.-E.  $\sqrt{\epsilon \lambda}$ . — Stowasser, I. 22, rem. 2, derives Lat. alapa and Greek κόλαφος, κολαπτήρ, 'hammer,' from the Hebr. בילפות (kēlappōt, Ps. lxxiv. 6). בילפות he tells us means 'hammer'; alap(a) stands for halap, and this for

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> See also R. 206, and Pauli in KZ. 18, 2.

kalap. The Vulgate 'in securi et ascia' shows that κόλαφος and alapa are the same. Thus also in this case are 'fist' (alapa) and 'hammer' (κ. λαφος) conceived as identical, the fist being a 'Naturhammer' (Stowasser). Alapa and κόλαφος mean 'a box on the ear, a cuff'; κολαπτήρ, 'chisel.' Fick<sup>3</sup>, I. 811; Curtius<sup>5</sup>, 166, and Vaniček, 1102, compare the Greek with the Latin scalpo, to which Vaniček, 1105, also refers Besides this, the Hebrew noun does not mean 'hammer,' but 'axe, broad-axe'; it is only the later Aramean קלפא (qulpā), which acquires the meaning 'cudgel.' LXX. translators render the Hebrew by λαξευτήριου, 'a chisel'; and the Vulgate by ascia, 'the same.' It is therefore not probable that the Greek and Latin should have been borrowed from the Semitic,8 especially as we have the corresponding forms in O.H.G. klaphon; M.H.G. klaffen; A.-S. clappian, Eng. 'to clap' (Kluge<sup>4</sup>, s.v. klabastern). — Lagarde's derivation of ράβδος, 'rod, staff' (Homer), 'whip' (Xen.), from Hebr. למד (lāmed), 'ox-goad, whip,' would be quite acceptable, if the word had not a good I.-E. etymology.9 As regards m and b, we know that the oldest Greek spelling of the letter L was λάβδα, whence also Coptic labda; and the change of  $\lambda$  to  $\rho^{10}$  is not of rare occurrence:  $\nu a \acute{\nu} \kappa \lambda a \rho o s$ and ναύκραρος; Elean χαλάδριοι and χαράδρα; Arabic ritl, from λίτρα (\$.π. 33, 2); 11 λίτρα, again, is said to be a Sicelo-Greek form of Lat. libra (see, however, p. 77); ayyelos and ἄγγαρος. — Nor do I believe that ἀξίνη, 'axe' (Homer), together with Aram. אוצינא, Ethiop.-Syr. xacçinā, are borrowed from the Assyrian xacinu, 'axe' (from  $\sqrt{xacin}$ , 'cut'), as

<sup>8</sup> With the same Hebrew noun kzlappot, Keller, 190 and 273, connects Κύκλωψ and Latin Cocles. But Curtius, Vaniček, Saalfeld, 550, and others refer Cocles to  $\sqrt{ska}$ , which appears in caecus, etc., and Möhl has lately given an I.-E. etymology for Κύκλωψ = Lith. kauti, O.H.G. houwan, from  $\sqrt{ku}$ , 'to forge,' Samoyedic kues, 'metal'; Κύκλωπες = Hasava (\*Kues-lava) = 'smiths' (Mém. 7, 412–14; see also M. D'Arbois de Jubainville, ibid. 3, 333; Havet, 6, 3; and KZ. 31, 355).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> See Curtius<sup>5</sup>, 351; Pott<sup>2</sup>, II. 2, 644; KZ. 14, 39; 15, 6; 22, 264; G. Meyer<sup>2</sup>, 162; and Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 405, rem.  $\sqrt{verb} = verp$ .

<sup>10</sup> E.g. Τίγρις, a Greek metathesis of Δικριδ, and this for Δικλιτ (cf. Assyrian Diglat and Hebr. אדלקל = xiddéqel).

<sup>11</sup> On the other hand, Keller, 105, says libra from Greek λίτρα.

Jensen, Zeitschrift für Assyriologie, VI. 350, following Fränkel, 87, would make us believe. It is true, that nothing wanders from nation to nation so easily as weapons and names of weapons (V. Hehn), but in this very case there is a good I.-E. etymon.<sup>12</sup> There must have been a connection between the Semitic nouns and Arm. kazin, 'axe' (cf. 3. arm. 1133). According to Hübschmann, ZDMG. 46, 241, no. 59, the Arm. is borrowed from the Semitic. Two other nouns, widely discussed, are  $\tilde{a}\rho\pi\eta$  and  $\pi\epsilon\lambda\epsilon\kappa\nu\varsigma$ . —"A $\rho\pi\eta$ , 'sickle' =  $\delta\rho\epsilon\pi a\nu\sigma\nu$ , is derived by Bochart, H. ii. 760, and J.p. VIII., from Hebr. חרב (héreb, sword, knife). A. Müller's main objection, BB. 1, 287, against  $\supset = \pi$ , could easily be overcome if, instead of אחר, we would take אחר, 'pluck, cut, harvest.' A sickle would be the instrument with which the corn is harzested.14 The Greek, however, has a good I.-E. etymology, and I prefer to combine it with Old-Latin sarpo, 'to prune'; Slav. srupu, 'sickle,' and O.H.G. sarf, 'sharp.' 15 With ἄρπη is connected ἄρπιξ · είδος ἀκάνθης · Κύπριοι (KZ. 9, 301; BB. 15, 70). — Πέλεκυς, 'axe' (Homer; cf. Helbig, 76, 251-6), is usually connected with Skt. paraçú, parçu, 'axe, hatchet.' 16 Semitists have combined it with Assyrian pilaqqu, Aram. בלקא (pilqā), deriving either the Greek from the Semitic (3.2. 49, 10; Delitzsch, 'Assyr. Studien,' 102; Beiträge zur Assyriologie, I. 171), or the Semitic from the Greek (Praetorius in 'Literaturblatt für Orientalische Philoloeie,' 1, 195). I believe that the agreement in meaning and sound is purely accidental. To consider the Greek word borrowed from the Semitic is impossible on account of the

<sup>12</sup> Cf. Latin ascia; Goth. aqizi (axe), Fick<sup>4</sup>, I. 349; G. Meyer<sup>2</sup>, 269, rem.; KZ. 24, 466; O.H.G. ach-us, f. (J. Schmidt, 'Indogermanischer Vocalismus,' II. 30, and 'Pluralbildungen,' 148).

<sup>18</sup> See also **3.** arm. 65, 975; **3** ag. **20**. 1, 228; and on Arm. harb, ZDMG. 46, ≥37, no. 40.

<sup>14</sup> In this case ἄρπη would have been formed after the analogy of ἄρπη, 'bird of prey,' VAPII, and ἀρπάζω. — Τ΄ (xārīf in Talmud = 'sharp, cutting').

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup> Curtius<sup>6</sup>, 163; 'Curt. Studien,' 2, 62; 5, 211 and 214; KZ. 2, 129; 4, 22; Eehn, 438; O. Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 410; G. Meyer<sup>2</sup>, §§ 196 and 220; Kluge, 'Wörterbuch,' 4 s.v. 'scharf'; Jubainville, 219, rem. 2.

KZ. 24, 243; 30, 199; G. Meyer?, §§ 95 and 183; O. Schrader², 326; Fick⁴,
 83; Curtius⁶, 164, √πλακ, 'beat'; Jubainville, 210, rem. 7.

Skt.; and the Semitic noun has a good derivation from בלק = פלק, 'cut, cut down, destroy.' 17 — I do not believe that σμέλη, 'knife for cutting or carving,' has any connection with Sem. Sem, 'cut, carve,' nor that  $\sigma \mu \hat{\imath} \lambda o s$  (=  $\mu \hat{\imath} \lambda o s$ ), 'taxus-tree' (Hoffmann, 'Griech. Dialekte,' I. 53, rem. 1), is borrowed from the Semitic;  $\sigma \mu i \lambda \eta$  belongs to Gothic gasmipon, 'to do, cause, accomplish'; aizasmipa, 'smith' (KZ. 29, 85; O. Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 287; G. Meyer<sup>2</sup>, 246). — 'Aβάθματα (Cyprian = στρέμματα), 'rope,' has been cleverly connected by Lewy (I.F. 1, 506, rem. 1) with Hebr. カコフ (jabot, Phoen. perhaps abat) + ματα. — Of σπόγγος, 'sponge,' Franz Delitzsch (Horae Hebr. et Talmud. in Guericke's Zeitschrift, 1878, 9), said: 'It seems to be borrowed from the Semitic'; but see Pott in KZ. 26, 189; Savelsberg, ibid. 21, 143, and especially W. Meyer-Lübke in 'Philolog. Abhandlungen H. Schweizer-Sidler dargebracht, p. 16, against Keller, 305, and Stowasser, I. 6, below. — Pusey, 'Daniel,' 517, following Bochart, H. i. 851, 68, has the following note on  $\lambda a \mu \pi ds$ : 'It seems to be connected with the Hebr. To (lappid), the mp replacing the pp of the Hebrew word.' Fürst, 'Hebrew Lexicon,' 751, quotes an imaginary Phoenician למפר (lampad), whence Greek λαμπάδες, λαμπάς, Latin lampas, and the verb λάμπω. So also H. Derenbourg, 'Mélanges Graux,' 241.18 — Μάρσιπος,  $\mu \acute{a} \rho \sigma \upsilon \pi o \varsigma$ , 'a bag, pouch' = Latin marsupium, from the dim. μαρσύπιον = βαλάντιον. 🐉 τ. 43, 136; 🕱 p. VIII. and 85, considers it a maf'il formation = ברנו, from לרנו (cf. ארנו, 'argās

17 Joh. Schmidt ('Urheimath der Indogermanen und das europäische Zahlensystem'), pp. 8–9 and 53, considers Latin raudus = Sumerian urud (copper) and πέλεκυς = Sumerian balag, Babylo-Assyrian pilaqqu, 'axe,' as indications of an early contact between the two great families. The so-called Sumerian forms, I believe, only existed in the fertile brains of the scribes of Assurbanipal. Assyrian erū, 'bronze,' I derive with Delitzsch from Sem. ΠΤΟ; Lagarde, I confess, also believed in the existence of a Sumerian urudu (literally = 'good bronze') = raudus = Cymric elydr = Arm. arokr (J. arm. 272; Jag. M. I, 88–90). On the other hand, I call attention to Bradke's careful discussion on pp. 100, 105, 175, of his 'Methode,' etc. It was Lagarde who first combined Armen. oski with Sumerian gwikin (gold); J. arm. 1735; Jag. M. I, 88; see I.F. I, 444.

18 See, however, Curtius<sup>5</sup>, 265; Fick<sup>4</sup>, I. 532; and A. H. Sayce in London *Academy*, 22d Oct., 1892, 366, col. a. 'Lappid," torch," has no Semitic etymology, while the Greek λαμπάς is, of course, connected with the root of λάμπω.'

= θυλάκιου) = μαργισος; this became μάρσικος, and, being considered an Ionic noun, was changed to μάρσιπος. 19— Mέσαβον, 'yoke, leathern strap,' by which the middle of the yoke was fastened to the pole, is connected by 3.r. XXXVIII., with Arabic 'açaba, 'ligare.' But see Müller, BB. 1, 273; Liddell and Scott, as well as Prellwitz, derive it from μέσος and Boûs. — Of agricultural implements I mention here vvis, 'ploughshare,' from Semitic "; cf. Arab. ma'anun (on which see Nöldeke, 'Persische Studien,' II. 40), Hebr. 'ēţ (= int), 'the same,' Jug. 2. 254, rem. 1; but cf. Fick, KZ. 22, 156, and BB. 2, 249, and 12, 163; Fick4, I. 554; Johansson, BB. 18, 38; G. Meyer<sup>2</sup>, 291; O. Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 417; and Solmsen, KZ. 29, 81. Sophus Bugge, BB. 3, 121, compared O.N. vangsni, Latin vomis. — Μάραγνα (= σμάραγνα), 'horsewhip,' Bochart connected with Syr. maragnā, 'the same,' Aram. margěnīn.20

#### VII. - VESSELS.

"Aγανα · σαγήνην, Κύπριοι, 'net,' may have some connection with Semitic [IR ('aggān), denoting a vessel of any kind. Schmidt, KZ. 9, 300, and 'Curt. Studien,' 4, 372, explain it as = \*σαγάνα with loss of initial  $\sigma$  (comparing  $i\gamma\alpha = \sigma\iota\omega\pi\alpha = \sigma i\gamma\alpha$ ). See also BB. 15, 54 and 73 = Hoffmann, 'Griech. Dialekte,' 1, 105; Meister, II. 247. On Arm. angan see T.a. 8, no. 8; F.arm. 112; Fag. II. 1, 222; and Hübschmann (ZDMG. 46, 233, 9). Bochart, H. 1, 507, derived from this Semitic noun also Greek  $\alpha\gamma\gamma\sigma$ , 'cup, vessel.'— "Aμβιξ, - $i\kappa\sigma$ ,

<sup>19</sup> From the same Semitic 'argās we have the Phrygian riscus, Bochart, H. i. 386, 66. Also the name of the town 'Εράγιζα (Ptolemy) is from this verb. In the LXX. it occurs as ἐργάβ and ἀργόζ.

<sup>20</sup> Amussis, 'rule, level,' Stowasser, II. 27, derives from the Hebr. 'ammāh, Constr. state 'ammāḥ, 'ell, cubit,' quoting a by-form emussitatus; I do not quite believe this, and prefer Weise's much better etymology from ἀμυξις, quietly appropriated by Wharton (Trans. Philol. Soc., London, 1888-90, II. 181). Nor do I agree with Keller's derivation (pp. 100 and 200 of his 'Volksetymologie').— Matta, 'a mat,' Keller compares with Hebr. Τας, miṭṭāḥ, 'bolster, litter' (but never = mat).— The palangae of Pliny, φάλαγγες of Hdt., φαλάγγια of Pollux, Bochart derives from Hebr. Τας (ρέιεξ), 'a staff, crutch.'

 $\dot{o}$ , 'cup, beaker,' also  $\ddot{a}\mu\beta\bar{\iota}\kappa\sigma$ ,  $-\sigma\nu$ ,  $\dot{o}$  = Lat. ambix, is considered by Fränkel, 65, rem. 3, as a loan-word, perhaps from the Arabic-Syriac אנביק, whence also alembic, lambicco, and alambique (3.n. 12, 22; 3.nrm. 57, 823). Curtius, 294, derives it from  $\tilde{a}\mu\beta\eta$ , Ionic for  $\tilde{a}\mu\beta\omega\nu$ ; see also Vaniček, 37.1— Bîκος, 'pitcher, beaker' (Hdt. 1, 194), perhaps = Hebr. בקבוק (baqbūq), 'the same,' 3.x. 212, 4; Stein ad Hdt. 1, 194; Rhedantz ad Xen. An. 1, 9, 25. From this also pichier (French), bicchiere (Italian), 'beaker and Becher.'  $^2$ —  $\Gamma a\beta a$ θόν πίναξ ιχθυηρός παρά Παφίοις τρυβλίον, 'a bowl.' Lewy, I.F. 1, 510, reads  $\gamma \alpha \beta \alpha \tau \delta \nu^8 = \text{Lat. gabata (Martial} =$ read for γάμβριον, Lewy), a synonyme of γαβατόν, from Sem. אמן, 'to sip in,' thus 'a drinking-vessel' (on Cyprian  $\zeta =$ Greek γ, see Meister, II. no. 60, 8). — Γαυλός, 'milk pitcher,' and γαῦλος, 'vessel, ship,' from Semitic 🕽 (Movers, II. 3, 158). Fränkel, 218, refers γαυλός to gullāh '(בולה), and γαῦλος to gōlāh (גולה). Sonny (Philologus, 48, 567) derives from

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Fleischer in Levy's 'Neuhebräisches Wörterbuch,' I. 277 b, derives the Syr.-Arabic from the Greek. G. Meyer considers the Greek as borrowed (*Lit. Centralblatt*, 1893, no. 2, col. 49.—Helbig, 271-2, suspects δλεισον = κυπέλλον, 'an embossed cup,' to be of Semitic origin. But see Fick', I. 123 and 538; Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 466; and Prellwitz, s.v.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The - $\iota$ - in  $\beta i \kappa o s$  originated from the analogy to the - $\iota$ - in  $\pi i \nu \omega$ , 'drink,' and the whole word was shaped after  $\beta i \kappa o s$ ,  $\beta i \kappa \iota o \nu$ , Latin vicia.

<sup>8</sup> Also  $\gamma \alpha \beta \beta \alpha \theta \hat{a}$ , John xix. 13 = Kndl, stat. emph. of Kdl,  $qabb\bar{a}$ , 'hill,'  $\gamma \alpha \beta \hat{a} = \beta ourbs$  (Joseph. Antt. 6, 8, 1);  $\gamma \dot{a} \beta os$ , 'sewer, drain' (dl, Kdl); and  $\gamma \dot{a} \beta \dot{e} r \dot{a} = \delta \xi \nu \beta \dot{a} \phi \dot{a} \dot{a} \dot{\eta} \tau o\iota \tau \rho \nu \beta \lambda \dot{a}$ .

<sup>4</sup> Compare Hebr. gol, gullah, 'oil-cruet.'

belong Γανλωνῖτις in Peraea, and Γαῦλος, island near Malta (= Melite = Semitic mělitāh, 'salvation, safety'). Lewy, 179, believes that this Γαῦλος was the Phaeacian ship, turned into stone. Also  $\Sigma_{\chi e \rho l \eta}$ , the island of the Phaeacians is derived from the Semitic ID (sāgār = ID), 'bolt, lock,' because here Odysseus found a place of refuge against the wrath of Poseidon. If so, why not also derive, with Bochart, the name of the Phaeacians from the Semitic = Arabic fāliq, plur. faṇāgat = 'eminent, noble'? They are called eὐδαίμονας καὶ ἰσοθέους. The Ancients (cf. Strabo, 44) considered Gaulos to have been the isle of Calypso ( $\sqrt{\kappa αλύπτω}$ , 'hide,' KZ. 27, 227). The real home of the nymph is Ogygia, 'Ωγυγίη νῆσος, derived by Lewy from Hebr. III ( $\hbar \bar{o}_{\bar{g}}\bar{c}_{\bar{g}}$  = forming a circle = 'Ωγύγης, whence the adjective ώγυγίη). Lewy has been anticipated by Müllenhoff, I. 61 and 498, as well as by Bochart, who derived even ωκεανός from Semitic III ( $\hbar \bar{o}_{\bar{g}}$ ), while Kiepert, 19, says: 'The universal sea

γαυλός with aphaeresis of γ also αὐλίς, αὐλών, whence Latin Sayce, Hdt. 3, 136, says: 'yaûlos was especially ula = olla. used of Phoenician merchant-ships (Hesych. s.v.; Scylax, Peripl. 54; Schol. on Ar. Birds, 572 and 598). The word nay be Semitic, and only accidentally of the same form as yauλίς = Skt. gōla, a globe-shaped water-jug.' Brugmann, "Curtius Studien,' 7, 305) refers both to I.-E.  $\sqrt{gar}$ , gur, curve, be round.' Fröhde, BB. 10, 298; Fick, ibid. 17, 32; Wörterbuch<sup>4</sup>, I. 36 and 406, has γαυλός = Skt. gōla (see also BB. 16, 246); while Bezzenberger, in BB. 4, 322, compares O.H.G. kiol, 'ship,' and not Skt. gola, "denn das neben einander von gula, Kugel, und guda, idem, zeigt dass gola aus goda entstand." — A noun of undoubted Semitic origin is κάδος, 'pail, jar,' Latin cadus = Hebr. 72 (kád); also καδίσκος and καδία · Σαλαμίνιοι ύδρίαν, 'water-jug.' 6 The Greek was returned to the Arabic as qādisun. According to Pusey, Daniel, 517, Semitic and Greek may be derived from Skt. ghada. — Κακκάβη, ή,7 and κάκκαβος, ό, 'a three-legged pot' = χύτρα, is, according to J.a. 50, rem. 2, from the Semitic,

to Lycian  $u\chi o\chi a$  in BB. 11, 132 (see also KZ. 25, 164, and 27, 478–9,  $\forall \gamma v\gamma$ , 'to hide'; Fick', I. 546). Speaking of Calypso, I will mention that Lewy believes this name to be the Greek rendering of  $\Lambda a\tau \dot{\omega}$  (Leto) from Sem.  $\dot{\partial}$  ( $l\bar{a}t\bar{a}h$ ), 'the hiding one.' Thus already Bochart, H. i. 1073, beg. Raumer even derived the name from  $\dot{\partial}$  ( $l\bar{a}ldd$ , 'bear').  $\Lambda \eta\tau \dot{\omega}$  (Aeolic  $\Lambda d\tau \omega v$ ), Latin Latona (BB. 5, 86; KZ. 30, 211), is, of course, not from  $\lambda d\theta \omega$  ( $\lambda av\theta dv o\mu au$ , as Pott, KZ. 26, 163, has it), but is = lada, 'wife, mistress,' a word found on the Karian inscriptions (see A.J. P. XIII. 233, and add KZ. 27, 369, and 29, 211, rem.).

is designated by a name not of Greek origin, viz. ωκεανός.' 'Υγύγης is compared

<sup>6</sup> J.üb. 104, rem. 2: <sup>6</sup> Σ (κάδος) came together with the red wine (M) to the Greeks from Phoenicia. In later times they also imported white wine from Asia Minor'; Jag. M. 2, 366; Baudissin, II. 28; Fränkel, 219. Armenian katsay is from Syriac qadsā, and this from κάδος (ZDMG. 46, 239, no. 51).

<sup>7</sup> There are two other nouns κακκάβη, 1) partridge (=  $\pi \epsilon \rho \delta \iota \xi$ ) = Arm. kaxaii = Syr. KΞρρ, J.a. 50, 9; J.arm. 1135; ZDMG. 46, 291, no. 60; G. Meyer, Lit. Centralblatt, 1893, no. 2, col. 49; an onomato-poetic formation, called so from the voice of the bird (Fritzsche in 'Curt. Studien,' 4, 283); 2) name for Carthage. Semitic etymologies have been proposed by Bochart; Schröder, 105; Meltzer, 470; 478, rem. 49; and Sonny, Philologius, 48, 559-62. Sonny suggests that from the form 'Ακκάβη, occurring by the side of κακκάβη, we might infer that the corresponding Phoenician word began with an "āiin, Ξρυ ('āqd\(\hat{b}\)), 'be high or hilly'; κακάβη = 'height, hill,' would be quite appropriate as a designation of the elevated ancient city.

perhaps a reduplicated form of  $\supset = \kappa \acute{a}\beta o_s$ . The Greek passed again to the Syriac as קקבי (qaqbā). Curtius, 465, and Vaniček, 454, refer it to I.-E.  $\sqrt{\pi \epsilon \kappa}$ . Latin caccabus is borrowed from the Greek. Against Keller's views on caccavum see G. Meyer, Lit. Centralblatt, 1892, 411-13, and Meyer-Lübke, in Zeitschr. f. öster. Gymn. 43, 325. — Κιβώριον (καὶ κιβούριον), 'a cup,' so called either from the material or the shape, is compared by Movers with Sem. בפור (kefor, Assyrian kaparu), 'cup, goblet.' Hesychius says: κιβώριον · Αἰγύπτιον ονομα ἐπὶ ποτηρίου (Athen. 2, 72, a; Diodor. 1, 34, 6; Strabo, 17, 823); but the word is not found in Egyptian (Wiedemann, 25-6).8 — Λαβρώνιος, 'wide, large bowl,' according to \$.a. 215, 17, a contraction from Bactrian *inavaravant*, "durch semitische Vermittelung den Griechen zugegangen, weshalb das t fehlt. לורון (lavrěvān) wurde wegen des doppelten Vorkommens von i stärker zusammengezogen." But better connect the Greek with  $\lambda a \beta \dot{\eta}$ ,  $\lambda a \mu \beta \dot{a} \nu \omega$ . —  $\Lambda \dot{a} \gamma \eta \nu \sigma s$ , 'a flagon' ( $\lambda \dot{a} \gamma \eta \nu a$ ), from Semitic-Egyptian i (log, older lag?), with the Syriac ending -ēnā (Nöldeke, 'Syr. Gramm.' § 132), Fränkel, 131. But the word is a good I.-E. noun. The Lat. lagoena, lagena, is derived by Wharton, p. 180, from \*λαγύνη ('which will be an Aeolic form of \*λαγώνη, lagona'); see also Weise, Lehnwörter, 36; Saalfeld, 605; Prellwitz, 173. Others consider the Greek λάγηνος from Lat. lagena for lagoena. From the same Hebr. word J.g. VIII. derives λεύγη, 'a milk-jar' (Hesych.); and Bochart, H. i. 549, 60, has λεκάνη, λακάνη, Lat. lagna from Aram. לכנא; see, however, Nöldeke, 'Persische Studien,' II. p. 381, and Fick4, I. 535. — Μαστός · ποτήριον (Cyprian), 'drinking-cup, wine-cup' (Athen. 11, 487, b), perhaps = Assyrian maštu, 'the same' (Hebr. mištéh), from šatū, 'to drink.' — Φάκος (Hippocr. and LXX.), 'a cruet, flask for oil' = Hebr. To (fak, properly 'anything hollowed out'). — " $T\rho\chi\eta$  ( $\tilde{\nu}\rho\chi\eta$ ), 'an earthen vessel for pickled fish,' and Lat. orca, are derived by Keller, 99 and 248, from the Semitic

 $<sup>^8</sup>$  Κύμβη· ποτήριον· Πάφιοι; κύββα, the same (Hesych.) = Lat. cumba, may have been borrowed from the Sem. qubbāh, 'a goblet, a cup'; also cf. κύβοι· Πάφιοι τὸ τρυβλίον.

רק ('aráq, Jer. x. 11).9 According to Lobeck, Paral. 34, the word is Aeolic. Lat. urceus is from Greek υρχη, and connected with urna > urcna, BB. 7, 64; see also W. Stokes, ibid. 11, 23; and on the relation between urceus and orca, especially Meyer-Lübke in 'Philol. Abh. Schweizer-Sidler dargebracht, p. 22.10

## VIII. - FOOD.

3. arm. 743, combines ὀπτάω, ὀπτέω, 'to cook,' with Sem. 'Ex (e.g. Assyrian ēpū, 'cook'). Egyptian àapa, 'cake,' is also borrowed from the Hebrew, according to Bondi, 27.1 Both are very doubtful etymologies; see Hübschmann, 'Arm. Stud.' 30, 103. — Έλφος · βούτυρον · Κύπριοι =  $\Box$  π (xéleb). 'fat,' Phoenician alfa; Bochart, H. i. 328, 60; Gesenius; Schröder, 86; Meister, 'Griech. Dialekte,' II. 208; also KZ. 9, 303, and 365; 22, 316. But the Greek is an I.-E. noun = Skt. sarpis; O.H.G. salbā; Goth. salbon; A.-S. sealfian, 'to anoint'; Albanian galp.2—Mávva, 1) = Hebr. 12 (man), G. 66; R. 206; and, 2) according to J. üb. 97, rem. 1, 5 = Hebr. מנחה (manhāh for minhāh), ὅπερ θυσίαν οἱ Ἑβραῖοι καλοῦσι (Theo-mostly of figs, but also of olives (παλαθίς, παλαθώδης), from Hebr. דבלה (děbēlāh, Aram. děběltā, 'fig-cake'), G. 66; the Greek was formed after the analogy of παλάσσω (Keller, 194, against BB. 1, 295). — According to Bochart, H. i. 506; πιμελή,

470, is  $\eta\theta\delta\nu\omega\nu$ , perhaps = heti, 'a vessel.'

<sup>9</sup> Jer. x. 11 is a ἄπ. λεγ., and may be corrupt for ΚΥΡΙΚ ('arkā) = Hebr. ΚΥΡΙΚ ('arça). See J. Halévy, Rev. des études juives, XI. (21), 69 ff. - Orca, from βρυγα (Keller, 249), was proposed more than 200 years ago by Bochart, H. ii. 588, who adds forda from φοράδα; sporta > σπυρίδα, on which see now Bréal, Mém. 7,139; taeda  $> \delta a i \delta a$ ; fera  $> \theta \eta \rho a$  or  $\phi \eta \rho a$ ; spelunca  $> \sigma \pi \eta \lambda \nu \gamma \gamma a$  (Keller, 305-6). 19 Latin culullus (Hor. Od. 1, 32) is derived by Fränkel, 170, from Arab. quilatun, 'wine-jar.' — An Egyptian word, according to Hellanicus ap. Athen. 11,

<sup>1</sup> Dem Hebräisch-Phoenizischen Sprachzweige angehörige Lehnwörter in hieroglyphischen und hieratischen Texten' (Leipzig, 1886).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> KZ. 22, 316; BB. 5, 166; O. Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 461, and KZ. 30, 478; Joh. Schmidt, Pluralbildung der Idg. Neutra,' 378; Fick4, I. 140.

'arvina,' is from Hebr. ( $\rho \bar{\imath} m \bar{a} h$ ), 'fat' (Job xv. 17, from DND); Curtius<sup>5</sup>, 276, refers it to  $\pi i \omega \nu$ , 'fat, ripe.' — Of Semitic origin is  $\chi a \nu \nu \bar{\omega} \nu \epsilon_s$  (or, better,  $\chi a \beta \bar{\omega} \nu \epsilon_s$ ,  $\chi a \nu \bar{\omega} \nu \epsilon_s$ , 'barley-cake' (LXX.) = Hebr. [I] (kauuān), R. 207, after G. 66;  $\chi a \nu \bar{\nu} \nu \nu$ , the spelling of Hesychius, is a mistake.<sup>8</sup>

## IX. - FOUR-FOOTED ANIMALS.

'Eλέφας, ό, in Homer only, 'ivory,' just as 'ebur' in Latin (Plaut. Mostell.); in Hdt. 3, 114 = 'elephant.' The word is derived by Sayce, 'Herodotus,' 3, 97, and Ries, p. 31-2, from the Assyrian al-ap, 'elephant' (?), probably from alapu (Hebr. Fire, 'elef, 'ox'); compare 'bos Luca' in Latin. Ries refers to Eb. Schrader's 'Cuneiform inscriptions and the Old Testament,' I. 187 (Engl. transl.). The Salmaneser Obelisk Epigr. III., mentioned there, speaks, among other tributes, of al-ap (nār) Sa-ki-e-ia (Hebraica, Vol. 5, 294); but alap can only be the construct state of alpu, 'ox,' and refers to the jack-ox, represented on the corresponding relief.\(^1\) It is now the accepted opinion that  $\epsilon \lambda \epsilon \phi as$  is a compound of  $\epsilon \lambda + \epsilon \phi as$ ,  $\epsilon \lambda = Arab$ . article al (hal),  $+ \epsilon \phi as = Skt$ . ibha, elephant (or Egyptian āb, ābu);\(^2\) but it has not yet been explained why

<sup>8</sup> Could σῖτος, pl. σῖτα (Homer, only singl.), which seems to have no I.-E. etymon, be connected with Assyrian šẽu, fem. še-a-tu, grain, corn? W. Stokes, KZ. 28, 65, quotes Old Irish sẽre, 'food,' as cognate with σῖτος. Gustav Meyer, 'Albanesische Studien,' III. 51, rem. 2, prints: "σῖτος und 'Weizen' sind dasselbe Wort. σῖτος ist ein Lehnwort aus einer Sprache, welche s- für idg. k'- hatte, steht für \*svītoς und ist ganz oder wesentlich gleich mit got. hvaiteis u.s.w., das zu got. hveits 'weiss,' ai. svetas gehört wie bret. gwiniz, 'Weizen' zu gwenn, 'weiss.' s(v)ītoς kann illyrisch sein," etc. — Κύλλαστις (Ionic κύλληστις), an Egyptian bread (Hdt. 2, 77), is the Egyptian kerešstā. — In Latin we have 'mamphula' panis Syriacae genus quoddam from Syriac manpulā (¶ag. M. 2, 359-60).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The Assyrian word for elephant is  $\bar{piru}$  (ideogr. = AM-SI), and ivory is  $\bar{sinni}$   $\bar{piri}$  (ideogr. = KA-AM-SI); the plur. fem. is  $\bar{pirate}$ ;  $\bar{piru}$  literally means 'the strong animal,' from  $\sqrt{100}$ , 'be strong, powerful.' A Sanskrit-Assyrian name,  $\bar{pilu}$ , 'elephant,' passed into the Persian as  $\bar{pil}$ , Armenian  $\phi i\lambda$  (Y. arm. 2294); Arab.-Syr. fil; see also Y.r. 50, 190.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. Pictet, Journal-Asiatique, 1843, Sept.-Oct., F. Böttcher, ZDMG. (1857), 539-40; also the literature quoted in Vaniček and Ries.

this word, above all others (Keller's etymology of ἀλέκτωρ being more than doubtful), should have preserved the Arabic article in all its purity. It is more than probable that the Phoenician traders would have assimilated the Arabic article, so as to make it like their own (ha, Schröder, p. 160), as they have done in many other cases. Schumann, p. 5, has shown that ivory was imported, not from Arabia, but from Punt in East Africa (= Greek 'Οπώνη, Ptol. 4, 7, 11, on the Sinus Barbaricus in Ethiopia, Brugsch, 'Aegyptologie,' 22-3). Egyptian we have  $\bar{a}b$ ,  $\bar{a}bu = 'ivory'$  and 'elephant'; in Skt. ibha, 'elephant.' It is possible that Hebr. šen-habbīm, literally 'the teeth of elephants' (LXX. οδόντες ελεφάντινοι) is connected with this Skt. ibha; Latin ebur, 'ivory,' seems to be derived from the Egyptian in its Coptic form e\(\beta\_{ov}\), \(\epsilon\beta\_{v}\), becoming ebur after the analogy of femur, robur, etc.3 There is no proof whatever that Greek ἐλέφας, 'ivory,' is from the Arab.-Skt. al-ibha; and I agree with D. H. Müller (KZ. 10, 267) and F. de Saussure (Mém. 3, 208) in considering ελέφας (notwithstanding its so-called Semitic appearance) as a genuine Greek word, from the  $\sqrt{a\lambda\phi}$  ( $\epsilon\lambda\epsilon\phi$ ), to which belong  $\dot{a}\lambda\phi\circ\dot{v}s$ . λευκούς (Hesychius); ἀλφός, ὁ, 'kind of leprosy in the face' (Hes. frg. 5),  $^4$  later  $\lambda \epsilon \dot{\nu} \kappa \eta$  (akin to albus). Ivory was called by the Greeks from its color, just as ἄλφιτον, 'farina,' etc. Thus  $\dot{\epsilon}\lambda\dot{\epsilon}\phi a\varsigma: \dot{a}\lambda\phi\dot{o}\varsigma = \dot{\epsilon}\rho\dot{\epsilon}\phi\omega: \check{o}\rho\phi\nu\eta = \dot{a}\lambda\epsilon\gamma\epsilon\iota\nu\dot{o}\varsigma: \check{a}\lambda\gamma\sigma\varsigma, etc.;$  $\epsilon \lambda \epsilon \phi a(\nu \tau)$ \$ being properly a partc. pres. of a verb  $*\epsilon \lambda \epsilon \phi \omega$ , 'be white.' 5 — Εριφος, 'young goat, kid,' is derived by Lagarde from the Syriac לרב (G.G.Abh. 1880: 'Über den Hebraeer Ephraims von Edessa,' 57, 10, and 31. 2, 356). But I cannot

<sup>\*</sup> Bos lūca is not a Lucanian cow, but, as Varro has it, lucas ab luce (Bücheler, \*\hein-Mus. 40, 149); cf. Horace: elephans albus. The first elephants seen by the Romans must therefore have been of a whitish color. This early Latin word \*\text{-as soon ousted by the Greek elephas and elephantus (from the Gen. ελέφαντος). The Hebr. \forall \end{arror} cocurs only in 1 Kings x. 22; 2 Chron. ix. 21. According Rödiger, 'Thesaurus,' 1454, and J. Halévy, Revue des études juives, II. 5, we have here an old mistake of the scribe for \forall \eta n u\eta-h\dots bn\overline{nm} n, 'ivory and ebony' \( \ell \eta \) Ezek. xxvii. 15).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Also αλφοπρόσωπος, 'white faced,' and αλφόρυγχος, 'with white snout.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> The late Greek δελφίνοs = Egyptian for έλέφαs may be from the Arabic <-1-fil after the Greek δελφίνοs, 'dolphin.'</p>

agree with the eminent linguist; έριφος is to be connected with Old-Irish heirpp (for eirb, erib).6 — Zayápiov (Byzantine = canis ferarum odorator) is the Arabic כלב ומארי (kalbu zagārijiun) = Albanian ζαγάρι (KZ. 11, 137), Turkish zagar (Jug. W. 2, 252 f.). — Iξαλος, 'bounding, darting' (Homer, an epithet of the wild goat or chamois), is combined by Gustav Meyer with Arab. 'aijil, 'iijal = 'chamois, deer' (Hebr. )-If the word is from the Semitic, I would rather derive it from ענל (lēgel), Assyrian agalu, which, as Jensen has shown, means 'swift-footed,' 'swift-foot,' not 'calf.' 8 - Κάμηλος, camelus, 6 'camel' (Aesch., Hdt.), is derived by all scholars from Semitic (gāmāl). According to Sayce, Hommel, and others, the animal came originally from Arabia, the Assyrian and other Semitic forms of the noun being borrowed Boch. H. i. 50, l. 57 and 75, l. 48, and Alex\_ from there. Pirie, 10 said long ago: (gāmál), 'to retribute,' gave rise among the Hebrews (or rather Arabians) to the word came on account of the revengeful disposition of that animal-3.üb. 20 and 49, says the same, and draws attention to the fact that the Greeks called it μνησίκακος. 11 The only point

<sup>7</sup> See O. Keller, *Thiere*, 333 f.; 'Volksetymologie,' 194, 226. Prellwitz, s.v. compares Old-Bactrian izaēna = 'made of animal skin.'

9 On Lat. camelus, see O. Weise, Lehnwörter, 101; Saalfeld, 47, etc.

<sup>6</sup> Fick in BB. 2, 341, no. 3; Wörterbuch<sup>4</sup>, I. 364; see also Kuhn und Schlei—cher's Beiträge, 8, 437–8. Legerlotz, KZ. 8, 52, combined έριφος = έραφος with πλαφος, but this is rather doubtful. Joh. Schmidt, 'Pluralbildungen der Indogerm—Neutra,' 173, quotes Umbrian eri-etu, Lat. ari-etem; Lith. éras (lamb); Old—Bulg. jarī-cī (goat), from \*črī-cī. Also see idem 'Vocalismus,' II. 297.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> I.-E. etymologies are found in KZ. 12, 319-20; 13, 19; 22, 208, no. 67; H – D. Müller, in BB. 13, 311, explains it as a compound of prothetic  $l + \xi a \lambda os$  (for  $\sigma \kappa a \lambda os$ ). Fick<sup>4</sup>, I. 346, compares al $\xi$ , both from  $\sqrt{aig}$ , 'to jump.'

<sup>10</sup> A dissertation on the Hebrew roots intended to point out their extensive influence on all known languages. Edinburgh, 1807.

<sup>11</sup> The Skt. kramēla, more frequently kramēlaka, appears to be merely popular transformation of the Semitic noun. I will add here, "um keinema Gerechten in die Hände zu fallen," that I am acquainted with J. M. Kaufmann's Programm: 'Semitische Bestandtheile und Anklänge in unsern indogermanischers Sprachen' (Dillingen, 1874-5), where is found on p. 13: "gamal, 'tragen' (!!) davon hebr. gamal, 'Kameel' (eigtl. der Träger), κάμηλος, etc.; damit hängt wohl zusammen καβάλλης, caballus, etc. Von der Form gimel=gamal, 'Kameel,' kommt der Name des Buchstabens g." This is one of the best specimens of Kaufmann's Programm.—On Egyptian k'amly see Brugsch, 'Aegyptologie,' 387.—

not yet cleared up is the  $\eta$  in the Greek instead of a (κάμηλος, Γαυ-γάμηλα = καμήλου οίκος, Strabo, 16, 737). At a comparatively much later time were borrowed ἀκάμαλα and γάμαλ (Hesych.). 12 On ulbandus = camel, see \$3. arm. 1760; Z.üb. 221; O. Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 385-6, and others. —  $K \alpha \rho$ , an Ionic name for sheep (Hesychius), is derived by Boch. H. i. 429, 22, and Pusey, Daniel, 516, from Semitic 72 (kar), 'the same'; but cf. G. Meyer<sup>2</sup>, s.v. — From Punt, the Opone of the Greeks, caravans brought the monkey  $(k\bar{u}f \text{ or } ki\bar{u})$  to Egypt, where it was called kafu, kāf. 18 Phoenician merchants exchanged this living freight for other merchandise, and imported it into Greece ( $\kappa \hat{\eta} \pi \sigma s$ ,  $\kappa \hat{\eta} \beta \sigma s$ ,  $\kappa \epsilon \hat{\iota} \beta \sigma s$ ), whence it passed to the Romans as 'cepus.' 14 The Greek noun does not occur in literature before Aristotle. Hebr. 키구 (qōf) can no longer be taken into consideration, since T. K. Cheyne (Expositor, 1891, June, p. 469) has compared this Hebrew with Assyrian kukupi (Egyptian κῦφι), 'perfumes.' Dümichen, Ed. Meyer. 15 and others, have derived the Egyptian from the Skt., but P. Kretschmer, KZ. 31, 287, says: it has no etymology in Sanskrit. Schumann's investigations, l.c. p. 5, would point to an East African language as the original source of this interesting word. I fully agree with Keller, Thiere, p. 325 f., that  $\kappa \hat{\eta} \pi o_{S}$  is anything but a genuine Greek word, but cannot assent to his ingenious etymology of kapi, κηπος, from Hebr.

Hehn, 203, stated 'that the camel was first introduced into Africa and Egypt as late as the third century of the Christian era, although that animal seems expressly made for the Lybian desert, and has opened that impenetrable region to foreign nations, their trade and their religion.' Against this statement of Hehn's, Houghton has brought forward direct evidence of the camel having been used as a beast of burden by the Egyptians in the time of Ptolemy Philadelphus (born B.C. 309), by calling attention to the statements of Strabo (Geograph. 17, 1,  $\S$  45, ed. Kramer), and to several extracts from Egyptian texts, in which the words  $kam\bar{a}dir$  and ka-dri (r=l cf. Hebr.  $g\bar{a}m\bar{a}l$ ) occur. The camel was known to, and used by, the Egyptians from comparatively early times. See Gen. xii. 16, and Ex. ix. 3 (*Proc. Soc. Bibl. Arch.* 12, 81-4).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> KZ. 31, 287.

<sup>18</sup> Erman, ZDMG. 46, no. 1, writes g'if.

<sup>14</sup> O. Weise, Lehnwörter, 102; Saalfeld, s.v.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup> Gesch. des Alterthums,' I. § 187; O. Schrader, 'Thier und Pflanzen-geographie,' 14 ff.

(kaf), 'hand,' thus meaning 'Handthier' = animal having hands (like a human being). 16 — Of the two words for 'lion,' λέων and λîs, the latter is, no doubt, connected with Hebr. ליש (lajiš), 'lion.' Λέων may perhaps be connected (with Lefmann, BB. 10, 301-3) with Skt. ravant, ravana, 'roarer.' 17 Compare the analogous Hebr. šáhal = 'roarer' and 'lion,' mentioned together with 'arįēh (Job iv. 10). See, however, Paul und Braune, Beiträge, 12, 209-10. Latin 'leo' is borrowed from the Greek, as leaena from \(\lambde{\epsilon}\)eava. There is no reason why the Greek should not have had two words for lion, one a foreign, and the other an I.-E. noun. Slav. livu and O.H.G. liwo, louwo, cannot have been borrowed from Greek-Latin λέων-leo, while A.-S. leo, O.H.G. lio, leono, leon, are from the Latin. The forms point to a common I.-E. root for λέων, while λîs does not appear to have any equivalent expressions in the other I.-E. languages. - "Ovos, 18 'ass, donkey' = Hebr. ארון ('ātōn), 'she-ass' (Benfey-Hehn, 110, 460); so also Vaniček and Curtius. In Greek literature the animal is first mentioned in frg. 97 of Archilochus, and as a domestic animal in Tyrtaeus, frg. 6 (Bergk<sup>3</sup>). \$3.2mm. 817, has conclusively shown that neither ovos nor Lat. 'asinus' can be derived from the Sem. 'aton (also see BB. 1, 290). This is adopted by O. Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 205, 384-5; KZ. 30, 478, no. 30; G. Meyer, I.F. 1, 319 ff., who believe that ovos and asinus are both from the same source, not yet known. also Lit. Centralbl. 1893, no. 2, col. 49. Sumero-Akkadian anšu, anši, I would not bring to the front until it has been

<sup>16</sup> Another Greek word for monkey, πίθηκος, occurs first in Archilochus. According to Zehetmayr, 'Lexicon etymologicum,' p. 17, it is abbreviated from \*καπίθηκος.

<sup>17</sup> Bochart, H. i. 61, l. 55; ii. 15; Winer, 'Realwörterbuch, II. 33; Pott<sup>2</sup>, II. 3, 1261 f. Against Sem. origin of λîs as well as λέων, see BB. 1, 290; Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 362 f.; Ries, 31; Savelsberg, KZ. 21, 123; F. Max Müller, 'Biographies of Words,' 113. I.-E. etymologies for λέων are found in all the books on Greek etymology and other works. Much literature is quoted in Vaniček, 843-4; KZ. 22, 353-5; J. Schmidt, 'Urheimath,' 10-11; Saalfeld, 620; and G. Meyer<sup>2</sup>, § 315. On O.H.G. *lēwo*, louwo, see Kluge<sup>4</sup>, 216; Kauffmann in *Paul und Braune*'s Beiträge, 12, 207-11.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>18</sup> Perhaps the oldest etymology is found in Ar. Birds, 221, δνος  $\ddot{\omega}v = \dot{o} νοσ \dot{\omega}v$ ; also  $d\pi'$   $\delta νου = d\pi \dot{o} νοῦ$ .

proved beyond doubt that there ever existed such a language. Greek 8005 I would rather connect with Lat. onus, 'burden' (KZ. 10, 400); thus = 'beast of burden.' 19 F. Max Müller. 'Biographies of Words,' 112, refers both ovos and asinus to the same root, from which we have Skt. asita, etc., expressing a dark-grayish color; 'why should not the donkey have been called the gray animal?' O. Weise, Rhein. Mus. 38, 545, derives asinus directly from the Phoenician without the mediation of the Greek; 20 on the other hand, Wharton (Trans. Phil. Soc., London, 1888-90, II. 189) combines asinus with a hypothetic \*ἄσινος (cf. ἄσιλλα, 'yoke,' Simonides, 163), which presupposes a Doric \*ativos from Hebr. 'aton, while ονος must be a different word. 21 — Μύκλος (μάχλος, μύχλος) is derived by Ludwig (see Keller, 197, rem.) from a Semitic word 'whose Arabic form is mukhlā.' See, however, G. Meyer in I.F. 1, 322 f., and Meyer-Lübke, Zeitschr. f. öster. Gymn. 43, 324; Prellwitz, 193, 207. Lagarde, Agathangelus, 142-3, believes that Il. 2, 851-2; 24, 277-8, and Anacreon, frg. 34, point to Mysia and Paphlagonia as the original home of the ήμίονοι, rather than Armenia (also J. arm. 865), while Bradke is in favor of Pontus. The original home of the donkey can naturally not be far from that of the ἡμίονος. — \*Ορυξ<sup>22</sup> = oryx, 'gazelle' (perhaps Hdt. 4, 192), in Libya and Egypt. According to Liddell and Scott<sup>7</sup>, it was so called from its Pointed horns. Pliny, H.N. 2, 107, calls it an Egyptian word, but Wiedemann and others have shown that this is not so.28 Z.üb. 131, derives it from the Sem. 日本 ('āráx),

<sup>19</sup> Fick<sup>4</sup>, I. 15, 368, "Lat. onus, δνος, hat mit Lat. asinus nichts zu thun; wol der (Last) träger, cf. φορτικός"; but see Pott<sup>2</sup>, III. 1035 f. M. Bréal, Mém. 7, 137, Considers Goth. asilus as borrowed from Lat. asinus. G. Meyer's arguments in I.F. 1, 319, have not convinced me, nor will they convince any Semitist, who is fully aware of the extreme difficulties that beset the so-called Akkadian-Sumerian Question, notwithstanding C. F. Lehmann's elaborate c. IV. in his Šama3-3um-zkin, Part I. (Leipzig, 1892).

<sup>2)</sup> See also Lehnwörter, 96; Zeitschrift für Völkerpsychologie, 17, 226.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>21</sup> On the early literature, see Vaniček, l.c. Solmsen, KZ. 29, 89, etc.

<sup>22</sup> There are two homonyms: 1. δρυξ, δρυγγος, 'pick-axe,' or any sharp iron tool For digging (from δρύσσω); 2. 'a great fish '= Lat. orca, on which see Keller, p. 249.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>28</sup> Weise, Lehnwörter, 105, quotes Egyptian *t-urik* from Geiger's 'Ursprung Ger Sprache,' I. 465.

'be quick, hasten, run,' whence also Assyr. turāxu, 'steenbock' (Delitzsch, 'Assyrian Grammar'). 'Όρυξ = ὀρυγ-ς = Some grammarians have compared δόρκας from όρυγ-ς. τρέχω, έδρακον, while it is commonly derived from δορκin δέδορκα (δέρκομαι), from its large bright eyes. G. Meyer (Lit. Centralbl. 1893, no. 2, col. 50) derives Coprás from the Celtic, but I would rather explain it as an Aeolic form. — I cannot endorse Keller's derivation of πάρδος, pardus, 'pard, leopard,' from the Sem. (bārōd), 'sprinkled, grisled' (Gen. xxxi. 10; Zech. vi. 3, 6), of which 'varia' (Pliny, 8, 17) is said to be the Latin translation. From this  $\pi \acute{a}\rho \delta o s$ Keller derives πάρδαλις (πόρδαλις), and by a popular etymology also πάνθηρ, whence Latin 'panthera.' The commonly accepted etymology from the Sanskrit was rejected by Keller; he overlooked, however, the great difficulty that there is no Semitic language in which this animal is called bārōd.28 If the word be from the Semitic, I would rather derive it from √775, 'be fierce, impetuous,' which would also explain the initial  $\pi$ . In his 'Volksetymologie,' 205-6, Keller appears to have again accepted the Skt. etymology of  $\pi \acute{a}\nu \theta \eta \rho$  (see my 'Semitic Glosses to Kluge's Wörterbuch,' 52-4). Toρις, πόρτις, 'young heifer, calf,' is connected with Sem. 🗖, 🗗 (par, pārāh), 'the same,' by Fürst, 'Lexikon,' and Paul Haupt in Beiträge zur Assyriologie, etc., I, II4, rem., 'because the Greek and German have no I.-E. etymon.' But they certainly have one; cf. Got. frasts, Arm. ordi (X.am. 1745 f.; Hübschmann, 'Arm. Stud.' 46, 232), Skt. prthuka-s, 'young animal'; perhaps also Lat. pullus > por-lus, etc.28 — Taûpos, Lat. 'taurus,' X. arm. 648, says: "kann

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>24</sup> Thiere des klassischen Alterthums, 387, 54. Long ago Fürst proposed the same derivation in his Hebrew Lexicon.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>25</sup> But this does not prove anything; varia (sc. avis) being used by the same writer (10, 29) to denote a species of mag-pie.

<sup>26</sup> The common Semitic name, found in all dialects, is מון; Assyrian nimru and namru, Hebr. nāmēr, Arab. namiru, etc., from the verb namaru, 'be savage, fierce,' the animal so-called because of its fierceness.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>27</sup> From the Semitic ¬¬D (péred), 'mule,' Stowasser, II. 26, derives Latin 'veredus' and its vulgar by-form 'burdo,' through the Greek βέραιδος, βέρηδος.

<sup>28</sup> Fröhde in BB. 17, 304; O. Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 378; Curtius<sup>5</sup>, 282; Prellwitz, 260.

die im aramäischen erhaltene ältere Form von Tiw (sōr) = taur nicht abschütteln." Pusey, Daniel, 516, has:  $\tau a \hat{\nu} \rho o s$  is unquestionably = Tiw (in Phoenician  $\theta \omega \rho$ ). This is one of the six nouns adduced by Hommel to prove the primitive neighborhood of the two great families. That the similarity of form in the Semitic and I.-E. names for the bull is only superficial, perhaps the result of gradual decay, has been amply shown by Joh. Schmidt, 'Urheimath der Indogermanen,' p. 7, no. 1. See also BB. 11, 70; P. Kretschmer in KZ. 31, 448; and Jubainville, p. 205, rem. 8.

### X = BIRDS.

'Αβαρταί · πτηναί · Κύπριοι ; cf. Hebr. ¬Σκ ('ēber), Aramean אררא ('dorā), 'wing, pinion'; the t of -tai is from the Aramean Kn- (tā) of the stat. emphaticus; Tak ('ābár) means literally 'be strong,' in the Hif'il, 'rise up, fly.'—'Αγόρ.  $\vec{\epsilon}$ ετός · Κύπριοι = Hebr. Τις ( $\bar{a}g\bar{u}r$ ), Bochart, H. i. 2 and 10; perhaps a bird of passage; cf. Arab. djara = dkara (Liib. 50 f.; Ing. 3. 31). Bochart, H. ii. 69, 68, derived from the same Semitic verb also γέρανος and 'grus.' — Αλετός, «ἰετός, 'eagle' (Hesych. αἰβετός), from Hebr. Δ" ('aitt), 'bird of prey.' Bochart, H. i. 920, 40; ii. 165, 3; Gesenius; Pusey, Daniel, 516: 'The Greeks may have transferred the generic name, which they may have learnt in Cyprus, to the eagle.' The etymology from αω is declared utterly unsatis-€actory by Lewy, 182. Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 366; Fick<sup>4</sup>, I. 358, and others, consider the dialectic form αἰβετός, i.e. αἰρετός, as a proof that the root is I.-E. Af, and Benfey has αἰετός >  $\mathbf{\alpha}$ -ει-γ-ετος = Skt. vi, bird; Greek οἰωνός. — 'Αλέκτωρ, the poetic form of ἀλεκτρυών, is derived by Keller from al (Semitic article) +  $k\acute{e}ter$  ( $\neg \Pi \exists$ ) =  $\kappa i\delta a\rho \iota s$ ,  $\kappa i\tau a\rho \iota s$  = 'the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>29</sup> Bochart, H. i. 604, l. 36; 277, l. 65; Ewald, 'Hebr. Gram.' § 48, p. 123, \*\*em. 1; F. Müller in Kuhn und Schleicher's Beiträge, 2, 491; Fleischer in Levy's \*Neuhebräisches Wörterbuch, '4, 680.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> On Semitic שורלם = Greek soft breathing compare 'Oδολλα $\mu=$  לורלם, the Adullamite, and others.

crowned bird.' Hehn, p. 241, says: 'In the religion of Zoroaster the dog and the cock were sacred animals.' We know that the bird was unknown to the early Egyptians; that the domestic fowl is aboriginal in India, and that it first migrated to the west with the Medo-Persian invaders. The civilized Semitic races cannot have been acquainted with the fowl, for it is nowhere mentioned in the Old Testament. This and other reasons speak very much against Keller's derivation.<sup>2</sup> No satisfactory etymology has yet been offered. — Γρῦψ, γρυπός, 'griffin,' is from the Semitic  $(k \tilde{e} r u \tilde{b})$ ;  $\gamma \rho \hat{v} \psi$  stands for  $\kappa \rho \hat{v} \beta$ -s, ZDMG. 32, 748; Delitzsch, 'Indo-germanisch-Semitische Wurzelverwandtschaft,' 106; Ed. Meyer, I. § 200; Ries, 41; Pietschmann, 176, rem. 4.8 - Κέπφος, a light sea-bird of the petrel-kind = Sem. אודער (šáxaf), 'sea-bird'; Bochart, H. ii. 264; R. 207. however, in BB. 1, 339, also 12, 161, connects the Greek with κόβαλος, "Gimpel," and κεμφάς έλαφος (Hesych.). Joh. Schmidt, 'Indogermanischer Vocalismus,' I. 115, says: κέπφος is a change of Salmasius and M. Schmidt for the MS. reading κεμφός (Hesych. s.v. ἀλάποδα). Κεμφός stands for older κεμπός κοῦφος, έλαφρὸς ἄνθρωπος. — Ταὧς, 'peacock,' is usually derived from the Tamil togai, Skt. cikhin, through the Hebr. tŭkkiijim (תכיים). The latter, however, according to T. K. Cheyne (Expositor, June, 1891, 469 f.), does not mean peacocks, but 'perfumes.' If so, one important link in the loose chain has gone. Lagarde, 'Baktrische Lexikographie,' 65, writes: '7aws is perhaps an old mistake for  $\pi a \hat{\omega} s$ , pavo, and nothing else than the older form of the Armenian haü (X. arm. 1268), which means ὄρνις, ὀρνίθιον · ἀλέκτωρ'; but see again, Hübschmann, 'Armen. Studien,' 38, 162; and Paul Horn, I.F. 2, 141. On Greek ταώς and Tataric ta'ug see Möhl, Mém. 7, 420, rem. 4.4—

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See also KZ. 29, 264.

<sup>8</sup> Such a metathesis of aspiration is not infrequent, e.g. Τίγριδ(οs) for Δικριδ, and this again for Δικλιτ; Θάψακος for Ταφσαχ, etc. (J.H.U.C. 81, pp. 75 ff.). Prellwitz, s.v. "so genannt nach dem krummen Schnabel oder den Krallen."

<sup>4</sup> Bochart, H. i. 66, 63; R. 207; Lenormant; Raumer, and others derive Lat. corvus, 'raven,' from Hebr. בשני (نَهَرِي), and turtur from לוֹנָי (tōr), or (tōr), see, however, Weise, Lehnwörter, 107; O. Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 365-6. \*Ißis, Weise tells

Hübschmann, ZDMG. 46, 248, no. 99, suggests the etymology of ψίττακος from NIDD (cf. Arab. babbagā). "Ist der Name mit dem Thier auf dem Seeweg über Babylonien nach Syrien, etc. gekommen?" Another derivation is given by O. Keller, 206.

#### XI. — OTHER ANIMALS.

Βάτραχος, βόρταχος, 'frog,' Hebr. ΣΤΙΣΙ (çĕfardē'a), Ewald, 'Hebr. Gram.' 8 280; Yag. W. 2, 356; βάρ-(βόρ-)ταχος, from the Aramean, which changes 2 to 3 or 2, and 5 to 3. Hübschmann, 'Arm. Stud.' 25, 76, has: Armenian gort = Lith. varté = Lett. varde (for varle?) = Greek βάτραχος = βόρταγος; see, however, J. arm. 519. The forms occurring in Greek are discussed in 'Curt. Studien,' I. b. 203, no. 14; **4.** 191, where W. Roscher refers to  $\sqrt{\beta \rho a}$ ,  $\beta a \rho$ , 'to cry'; see also KZ. 8, 45; 'Curt. Studien,' 5, 216; BB. 6, 211; 7, 82, and 326; G. Meyer<sup>2</sup>, 175; Fick<sup>4</sup>, I. 410: 'βάτραχος originally an onomatopoetic word.' Meister, 'Griech. Dialekte, II. 232, √βρῦχ, 'to roar,' Lat. rugire; rana rugiens = 'bullfrog.' F. de Saussure, Mém. 6, 78: βάτραχος is Clerived from  $\beta(\rho)$   $\alpha \tau \rho \alpha \chi \sigma s$ . Some have connected the Greek with Latin vatrax, vatricosus. — Regarding κροκόδειλος, crococlilus, F.r. X. rem. 2, writes: Hebr. 7272 (karkod), Is. liv. 12; Ezek. xxvii. 16; Chald. קרכדנא (kadkedūnā); Syr. קרכדנא (garkednā) = Lat. chalcedonius (3.τ. 53, 226), Greek καρχηδόνιος (cf. ZDMG. 46, 240, no. 56), quum Lexicographi syriaci cornu bestiae cuiusdam esse dicant quo cultrorum copuli induci soleant, non dubito quin indicum khadgadhenu sit, i.e. cultellus, rhinoceros femina, persicum karkadan (κροκόττας, Photius, Bibl. CCL., p. 456, A; καρτάζωνον, Aelian, N.A. XVI. 20), graecum κορκόδειλος vel κροκόδειλος; solent enim

us, is the Egyptian hib; so also is wedera, πελεκίνος, a water-bird of the pelican kind (Lehnwörter, 110) Egyptian, as the bird's home is Egypt; but Wiedemann, in his list of Egyptian words in Greek, does not mention them. — Χέννιον, 'a kind of quail, salted and eaten by the Egyptians' (Athen. IX. 393 c), is = chennu, 'fowl.' — Late Latin sacer (falcon), from Arabic çaqr (Jag. 38. II. 252), against Hehn, 486, whom Keller follows (p. 213); see also ZDMG. 46, 266, no. 64.



eadem vocabula alii aliis regionibus animalia designare; also see Vaniček, 145 f. Saussure, κροκόδειλος = κροκόδειρος (?). The Egyptian name for the crocodile, mentioned by Hdt. 2, 69, χάμψαι, is the Egyptian mesxu (or emsax).1— Two centuries ago Bochart, H. i. 1081, 40, derived χαμαιλέων from the Semitic (gāmāl), 'camel,' the chameleon having a hump like as a camel. This etymology has been revived by Keller, p. 196. But there is no Semitic language in which this animal is called gāmāl. — 'Αράχνη and Latin aranea are derived by Bochart, H. i. 70, 24, from the Hebrew ארג ('ārág'), 'spin, weave.' Ibid. 51, 62, he compares θύννος, a tunny fish (Hdt. I. 62), a large, long fish, with the Hebrew תנין (tannin), Arabic tinnin (from אחנין, 'to stretch, be extended'). Wharton follows him<sup>2</sup> ('Etyma Graeca,' s.v.). The accepted etymology is from  $\theta \dot{\nu} \nu \omega$ ,  $\theta \dot{\nu} \omega$ , because of its quick, darting motion. (See especially, P. Rhode: 'Thynnorum captura quanti fuerit apud veteres momenti' in Fleckeisen's Jahrbücher, 'Supplement Band,' XVIII. pp. Against a Semitic etymology speaks Lagarde's law, that in early Greek Semitic  $\Pi = \tau$ . —  $\sum \kappa \acute{o} \rho \pi \iota o \varsigma$ , says Bochart, H. ii. 634, is derived by some ἀπὸ τοῦ σκαιῶς ἔρπειν; others from σκορπίζειν τὸν ἰόν; he derives it from Semitic לקרב ('agrāb'), with prothesis of sigma. So also Ewald, 'Hebr. Gram.'8 280, who says: "בקרב hängt zusammen nicht blos mit dem Griechischen σκόρπιος, sondern auch mit dem deutschen Krabbe, Krebs, crab, Skt. carcada, Latin cancer." 8 — Tápiyos, 'dried or smoked fish,' is from the Armenian tarek, 3.a. 48, 3; 3.arm. 2205. On the other hand, Sophus Bugge, BB. 3, 100, compares O.N. dregg, Icelandic draugr, N.H.G. 'trocken,' Engl. 'dry,' with Greek

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> I. Rawlinson, 28, 29 a, mentions a nam-su-xu among the presents sent by the king of Egypt to the Assyrian king. J. Oppert compared it with Egyptian emsax (emsux). Hommel, 'Geschichte Babyloniens und Assyriens,' 533, rem. 6, reads tum-su-xa (= Egypt. emsax, Arabic timsax). See also Gutschmid, 'Kleine Schriften,' I. 72, and Wiedemann, 'Hdt's Zweites Buch,' 301.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Wharton, 'Etyma Graeca,' believes that  $\gamma\lambda\delta\nu$ s, shad, and  $\gamma\delta\delta$ os, hake, are from the Semitic, but see BB. 8, 108 ff.

<sup>8</sup> Some have identified with Semitic 'aqrāḥ the Latin carabus, whence κάραβος, Wölfflin's Archiv, 7, 287 (but see 'Curt. Studien,' 6, 296 and 341).

τάριχος. 4 — Βόμβυξ, 'silk worm,' from Βαμβύκη, city in Syria (Arabic Manbug = Mabug, Hitzig. ZDMG. 8, 211; Th. Nöldeke, GG. Nachr. 1876, no. 1), Latin vestis bombycina. Also cf. βάμβαξ, Turkish pambuk, 'cotton,' and \$.arm. 343.5 Καλαμίς · Κερυνήται δὲ τοὺς μικροὺς τέττιγας καλαμίνδας καλοῦσι. Perhaps to be connected with Assyrian kalmatu, 'vermin.' —  $\Sigma \dot{\eta} s =$  'moth' = Hebr. DD (sās), Is. li. 8; Bochart, H. ii. 615, 51; G. 66; R. 207; F. arm. 2262 (σεός for σεσός; σητός is a later formation). A. Müller, BB. 1. 297, takes exception to this comparison, and Fröhde, KZ. 22, 263, has σής to 'tinea' (a form like ara-nea) =  $\sigma a \rho \gamma \dot{a} \nu \eta$  to  $\tau a \rho \gamma \dot{a} \nu \eta$ . also ZDMG. 46, 257, no. 117. —  $\Sigma \eta \psi$ , 'a poisonous serpent' (Aristotle) = Hebr.  $\supseteq x$  (cdb), Arabic dabb; x.y. VIII., Latin seps, sepis. The nouns agree in form, but not in meaning. and I consider the comparison very precarious. An I.-E. etymology is offered by Vaniček, p. 991. - Of Egyptian words belonging to this chapter, I will mention appauls (Athen. VII. 312), 'a fish,' found in the sea and the Nile (cf. τὸ ἀβραμίδιον, Xenocr. 36), from Egyptian rem, 'fish' (Wiedemann).6

### XII. - VEGETABLE KINGDOM, HERBS, ETC.

"Αγρωστις, 'a grass that mules feed on' (Homer, Theocr.), From Sem. [7]  $(g\bar{a}r\acute{a}_{\ell}) = \sigma\chi i\zeta\omega$ , [31], 4, 373. - Βαρακίνη

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> The islands Ταριχεῖαι on the western coast of Carthage, known for the boundance of fish (Strabo, 17, 3; Pomp. Mela, 2. 7), are perhaps connected with τάριχος; f. Brugsch, 'Aegyptologie,' 32-3.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Prellwitz: βόμβυξ ad βομβέω (but ?).

 <sup>6 &</sup>quot;Αργολαι (Suidas) = 'aspides,' may be connected with Hebr. אדול (xargōl),
 coust,' etc. On Armenian xaragul, see ZDMG. 46, 237, no. 39.

<sup>1</sup> On Y = στ, see ἀλάβαστρος, διστός (?), στύραξ, Βοστρα = Βἔςῶτα; Μεστραίμ=

ΣΤΟΣ (Miçrajim). Σταδία, an old name for 'Pόδος (Strabo) = ΝΤΥ (desolata).

Note also the Arabic transcription of Latin stratum by cratum, castrum by qaçr.

P. Kretschmer, KZ. 31, 377, considers Στάγειρος to be of foreign origin. If it was a Semitic settlement like many other towns in the neighborhood, I would suggest Στάγειρος = ΤΤΟΥ (δῖτ ςἔινταλ) = 'small-town' (Y = στ; := γ).

The ἀγρωστις is the 'triticum repens,' according to the interpreters ad Theophr.

H.P. I. 6, 7. I should like here to call attention to Lagarde's note on ἄγρη

(Hesych.) =  $\tilde{a}\kappa a\nu\theta a$  = Hebr. ברכן (bargān), 'a kind of thorn or nettle.' —  $\Gamma \acute{a}\nu o_{S}$  ·  $\acute{\nu}\pi\grave{o}$  δè  $K\nu\pi\rho\acute{\iota}\omega\nu$   $\pi a\rho\acute{a}\delta\epsilon\iota\sigma o_{S}^{2}=$  Heb. (gan), 'garden.' — On ἔντυβος, from Latin intibus, intubus, and this from Arabic hindab, see my 'Semitic glosses to Kluge's Wörterbuch, 22-4.8 — Ζεραφοίς (Byzant.), 'seed of flax,' is the Syriac zara-pist (= NWD, flax). According to Dioscorides, 2, 125, it is ultimately an Egyptian word for Greek λίνον, linum, and Professor Erman, ZDMG. 46, p. 111, compares Egyptian ps-t, 'the same.' - Two other nouns belonging to a later period are ζιζάνιον and ζίζυφον. former is a weed that grows in wheat (Nov. Test.), Lat. zizanium (= lolium). Pott<sup>2</sup>, II. 1, 810, compared it hesitatingly with Persian zeyān. Fritzsche, 'Curt. Studien,' 6, 319, rem. 14, considers the first syllable in both nouns as a reduplication; ζι-ζυφ-ον, 'arbor cuius fructus vocantur ju-jub-ae,' is referred to ζυγόν = jugum (ibid. 325)<sup>4</sup>. Ζιζάνιον, however, is the Syriac  $||z|| = zinz\bar{a}n$  ( $\sqrt{|}|$ , 'it became dry'), thus = 'something which dries out' ("etwas austrocknendes"), Lag. 'Semitica,' I. 63; \$ üb. 101, 15. Ζίζυφος is from the Syriac zūzfā (Hoffmann, ZDMG. 32, 751). — Κασύτας,<sup>5</sup> 'dodder,' a parasitic plant. So Hesychius for the incorrect καδύτας of Pliny and Theophrastus. The Greek is from the Semitic אושם (kašuā), with article אושם (kašuětā).

(Homer, Od. 12, 329-332); he explains it as  $d + \gamma \rho d\omega = '$  not fit to eat,' literally, 'not to be grabbed at.' Compounds of this  $*\gamma \rho a\omega$  are  $\kappa \rho e d\gamma \rho a$ ,  $\pi \circ \delta d\gamma \rho a$ ,  $\chi e \iota \rho d\gamma \rho a$ , and especially  $\zeta \omega \gamma \rho e \iota \nu$  ('Baktrische Lexikographie,' 23-4).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The real etymology of παράδεισοs is given by Geo. Hoffmann, ZDMG. 32, 761, rem. 1. Sonne, KZ. 14, 15, and Weise, BB. 5, 91, add nothing new. Lagarde's treatment is found in his 'Abhandlungen,' 76, 1; 210–11; 'Aus dem Gelehrtenleben,' 9; 'Armen. Studien,' 1878; 'Mittheil,' 1, 237; B.r. 51, 201; see also Fränkel, 149. Hapáδεισοs goes back to the Persian plur, faradis, whose singl. is firdaus. Journ. Royal Asiat. Soc. 'New Ser.' XVIII. 541, has nothing of importance. Russell Martineau (A.J.P. XIII. 325) does not seem to be aware of Hoffmann's article, referred to.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> The Greek word for cichorium intybus is σέρις. From the Egyptian we have άγον (Diosc. 2, 159) = Egypt. dku.

<sup>4</sup> See also Fröhde, BB. 3, 25; Curt. 6 626. Fick 1. 399, and Prellwitz refer 5134rov ad Vgig, 'to live,' comparing German 'Quecke,' Lat. victus, 'living.'

The reading καδύτας, no doubt, arose through a confusion with Κάδυτις (Hdt.)
 Egypt. kazatu = Hebr. 'Azzāh, 'the strong one, fortress' = Gaza. Schröder,
 145, 2, takes Κάδυτις for κάδυστις = ΠΕΤ΄ (qĕqάst) = 'sancta,' i.e. urbs.

'Agathangelus,' 142, rem.; J. üb. 97 and 148; Jag. JL. 2, 358. - Κάμων is a kind of bind-weed (poetic). The form σκαμμωνία (Athen. I. 28, c) is the result of popular etymology, just as in the case of σμάραγδος and σμύρνα. The Greek is derived by P. Kretschmer, KZ. 29, 440, from Hebr. [2] (kammōn), Aram. kamōnā (ממונא), Phoen. χαμâν (= cummin). 'The usual combination of the Semitic word with κύμινον is not permissible, owing to the difference in the vocalization; while on the other hand, the difference in the meaning of σκαμωνία and Hebr. kammon is not strange in the case of plants, both being used as purgatives' (Kretschmer). But see below s.v. κύμινον.6 — Κέγχρος, Latin cicer = 'millet' (Hesiod), is derived by Lenormant from Hebr. הכב (kikkār), 'orbis, circulus,' but without foundation, except that Joseph. Antt. III. 6, 7, writes κιγχάρ for Hebr. ٦٥٥. O. Schrader², 424, confesses "κέγχρος ist mir dunkel"; see, however, KZ. 29, 446, rem. —  $K \dot{\epsilon} \lambda \nu \phi o_s$ , 'a sheath, case, pod, shell.' The  $\bar{\nu}$ renders connection with καλύπτω doubtful, and therefore X.arm. 1139, derives it from a Hebr. \*לופה (\*qělūfāh). Armenian kelev see now ZDMG. 46, 241, no. 61. Lagarde, also, rejects Walter's combination of the Greek with Latin elūbo (KZ. 12, 380; 'Curt. Stud.' 5, 138, 26). — Πράσον, "leek' = Aram.-Hebr. 275. 3.r. XXXVII.; 3.arm. 2380; Fleischer in Levy's 'Chaldäisches Wörterbuch,' I. 428, b. It was borrowed by the Ionians, brought to Athens, and there changed to πράσος, as κότερος to πότερος. P. Kretschmer, KZ. 31, 394, writes: 'The origin of the Greek word is thus far obscure; the name of the mountain  $\Pi a \rho$ ράσιον is perhaps connected with it.' I do not quite believe in the Semitic etymology of the Greek πράσον and Latin porrum, which, as A. Müller correctly observes, must have been borrowed from a form \*\pia\rho\sigma\rho\sigma\rho\nu\. Besides, there is the Old-Slavic prazu. The Greek πράσιον was later bor-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Σανιλούμ, mentioned by Diosc. 4. 168, as = Greek σκαμωνία is the Egyptian šenālu.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Fick, BB. 3. 162; G. Meyer<sup>2</sup>, 18; Saalfeld, 920; Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 428. Prellwitz, 262, compares also English 'furze.' On the Armenian form, borrowed from the Arab. Syr., see Hübschmann, in ZDMG. 46, 267, no. 75.—An Egyptian word for πράσιον is ἀστερόπη mentioned by Diosc. 3, 109.

rowed by the Arabic as afrāsiiiūn (Lag. 'Semitica,' I. 54).

— O. Weise, Rhein. Mus. 38, 544, suggested that σίλφιον and Latin sirpe,<sup>8</sup> as well as laser, go back to Semitic words, and O. Keller, p. 353, believes that the true African (Punic) form is represented by the Hebr. The (sirpād, Isa. lv. 13), 'a prickly plant' (urtica); Latin laserpitium for \*laser-sirpe = laserpe. But we do not know the exact meaning of the Hebrew noun. There is an Egyptian srpd (or srptī), apparently a water-plant, compared with the Hebrew. The Egyptian, however, is found only in late texts (ZDMG. 46, 119), and its meaning is not yet settled (see also KZ. 16, 360, rem.). — Φῦκος, Lat. fūcus, 1) 'sea-weed,' 2) 'paint, cosmetic' (Homer) = Hebr. Τι (ρūk), 'the same.' R. 205; Schröder, 134; ¾ ag. ¾ 3, 281, compares Hebr. Τι (ρυμāh, Gen. xlvi. 13); note also Pusey, Daniel, 516, 4.9

# XIII. - FRUITS AND TREES.

'Aμυγδάλη, 'almond'; ἀμυγδαλῆ, 'almond-tree' (ἔλαιον ἀμυγδάλινον, Xen. Anab. IV. 4, 13), Latin amygdala (Saalfeld, 59)  $^1 = \aleph$  ('ēm gĕdōlāh), i.e. '[the tree of] the great mother'; so Hehn, 294, 487–8. Movers, I. 578, 586, remarks: "'Aμυγδάλη is the Semitic name of the Phrygian Cybele, and means 'great mother'; in fact the wakeful tree (Heb. ઝāqēd), that is, the early blooming, the first to wake from the winter's sleep, sprang from the blood of the mother of the gods." Against this etymology of Movers and others,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> For \*sirpium (\*σιρφιον), after turpe, vile, etc.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Μνάσων (Theophr. H.P. 4, 9), a plant growing on the Nile, is probably the fruit ment'a, mentioned in the Papyrus Ebers.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Later amandola and amandula, as if from d + mandere, 'to munch' (BB. 5, 94), or amandus (Keller, 59); also amiddola (*Appendix* Probi) occurs.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> On the etymology of Cybele, see Geo. Meyer in BB. 10, 195, where the name is connected with Skt.  $\varsigma ubh$ ,  $\varsigma obhate$ , 'to shine.' Bochart, H. i. 369, 23, derived Cybele from  $\sqrt{12\pi}$  ( $sib\bar{e}l$ ) = 'parere,' i.e. mater deūm Phrygibus. Sonne, Philologus, 48, combines Semitic  $\frac{1}{2}$  ( $g\bar{e}b\bar{e}l$ ) and K b b e h a b p h p v h a (Hesychius), whence the name of the Phrygian goddess K v b e h h, whereof  $M h \tau h p$  'Opelh, shortened to 'Pelh, is the translation. On 'Pela see, however, F. xxm. 1911; KZ. 30,

Baudissin, II. 298, rem. 2, raised grave objections, showing that according to Arnobius it 'was not from the blood of the great mother, but on the grave of Ja, that the tree had sprung up.' Baudissin produced no new etymology, which it was reserved for Lewy, 186, no. 14, to give: 'A-μυγ-δάλ-η is a מנדי אל (magdī 'ēl), i.e. 'a precious gift of God,' an etymology by far better than has yet been proposed.8 — Βαλαύστιου, 1) 'flower of a wild pomegranate,' 2) 'unripe pomegranate' (Diosc.) = Syriac ל, 'the same,' Loew, 364, and Hehn, 474, note 53. —  $\Delta \acute{a} \kappa \tau \nu \lambda o_5$ , 'date, date-palm' = δάκλυτος, from the Phoenician diqlat, 'palm, palm-fruit' (Zag. 31. 2, 356; KZ. 5, 188; 8,398).4 Hesychius has the following gloss: Σοῦκλαι · φοινικοβάλανοι · Σουκλυβάλανοι, τὸ αὐτό · Φοίνικες; to which Movers, II. 3, 234-5, adds 'perhaps from dhoqel = sogel.' 5 A careful study of H. L. Fleischer's remarks to Levy's 'Neuhebräisches Wörterbuch,' I. 443, b, and above all of Nöldeke's excellent review of Th. Fischer's essay 'Die Dattelpalme,'6 in G.G.Anz. 1881, 1222-1231, has led me to adopt their view, rejecting a supposed Semitic etymology and considering the origin of the Greek as not quite certain. The specifically Arabic word for date-palm is maxl, an expression wanting in the other Semitic languages.

405, 409, and 416. Also Punic abila is connected with Δ23-Κύβελα, 'namque Abilam vocant gens Punicorum mons quod altus barbaro (= Latino) est.' Avienus, 'Or. mar.' 345. Omphale seems to have been another 'mater ingens' = Δ15, i.e. the 'magna mater,' which the Romans brought from Asia Minor, and whose son Sandan > Çamdan (Vç-m-d, 72%, 'to serve') is also found as Cimdan in the Himyarite inscriptions and in those of Arabia.

\* This so-called prothetic d- is found in many words, especially in proper names, from the Semitic, e.g. 'Αδράστεια, from ΓΟΤ (dōrešet, 'one who seeks Satisfaction, revenge,' in its early form \*dōrašt), = Nemesis; also 'one who takes care of another'; 'Απόλλων, δ 'Αμυκλαῖος > ¬⊃Ο (Enmann, 37, and Gruppe, 152); 'Αταβύριον, the highest peak on the island of Rhodes, an ancient colony of the Phoenicians, from Tabōr, i.e. 'height' (modern Atairo); 'Ατυμνος and Τύμνος, from Hebr. ΓΟΟ (\*tōmen, ground form tūmn, 'concealment'). Agadir in the Temashirht language = a fortified place = Γάδειρα, Phoenician Gādēr, Lat. Gades.

<sup>4</sup> Aram. אים (diqlā), Mishnic (diqel); רקלה (diqlāh), as name of a district, occurs in Gen. x. 27, and I Chron. i. 22.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Cf. Κασμίλος for κάδμιλος, etc.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Thre geographische Verbreitung und culturhistorische Bedeutung.' Ergänzungsheft, no. 64, zu 'Petermann's Mittheilungen,' Gotha, 1881, pp. 85. Q.

Pliny's statement, 13, 9, § 46, favors a connection between δάκτυλος, 'date-palm,' or rather 'date,' and δάκτυλος, 'finger,' because the oblong, finger-shaped dates were the first imported into Greece by Eastern merchants. On the Latin palma see my note in A.J.P. XIII. 228-229.7—"EBEVOS,8 'ebony wood, ebony-tree' (Hdt. 5, 95) = Hebr. הבנים (hobnim), Ezek. xxvii. 15; R. 205. The Latin hebenus still preserves the initial aspiration. The Hebrew hobnim itself was borrowed from the Egyptian, where we have hbni (heben).9 - Kávva, 'reed' (Aristoph.; κανών, Homer), with its many derivatives, is from the Sem. קנה (Hebr. ganeh), R. 206. See Vaniček, 'Fremdworter,' 21 f.; also my 'Semitic Glosses to Kluge's Worterbuch, pp. 36 and 41; Hehn, 229. — Κεράτιον, the fruit of the κερατέα, from the Aram. ΚΌΤΟ = Arab. garatun, 'shell of the Acacia.' Frankel, 200-201, remarks: "Dass die allgemeine Bedeutung Schote speciell die der Johannisbrotfrucht bezeichnet, ist nicht sehr auffallend, vergleiche Hebr. gāneh = Rohr, speciell Kanēl." But this is not so. Κεράτιον is originally the diminutive of κέρας, 'horn'; the fruit of the carob or locust tree (Arab. xarrūb, χαρρούβα, 3.üb. 111) was so called from its horn-like shape (Zeitschrift f. Völkerpsychologie, 13, 240). The name of the fruit, first known to the Greeks, was then transferred to the tree itself. the Greek the name passed to the Aram.-Arab., and thence to other nations (Hehn, 340). 10 — Κόττανον, 'a small fig'

 $<sup>^7</sup>$  A late name for palm-branch is βα $^1$ s, βα $^1$ ον (John xii. 13), from the Egyptian  $b\bar{a}$ , Coptic βη $^1$ . Hesych. has βα $^1$ s · βα $^1$ δος · Φοίνικος, καὶ βα $^1$ ον.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Later also ξβελος (Suidas). For other changes of ν to λ see s.v. νίτρον, c. XXI.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Zeitschrift f. ägypt. Sprache, 1886, 13; ZDMG. 46, 114. Brugsch, 'Aegyptologie,' 395 ("aus Aethiopien bezogen"). Lieblein, 'Handel und Schiffahrt auf dem rothen Meere in alten Zeiten' (Kristiania, 1886), 69. — Ezek. xxvii. 15 shows that ebony is not a product of Phoenicia or Palestine.

<sup>10</sup> Kόκκοs (Lat. coccum), 1) grain, seed, e.g. of pomegranates (Hom. Hymn. Cer. 373), and 2) the keremesberry, used to die scarlet, was imported into Greece from East-Africa, the land of Punt (espec. Zanzibar), Schumann, p. 6; §.r. 48, no. 175. Its etymology must be sought in the East-African languages. — Fürst, 'Lexicon,' 1260, col. a, and others, have even gone so far as to combine κέρας with Hebr. [7] (géren), 'horn.' (See also Uppenkamp, p. 10.) Sayce, on the other hand, observes that: 'Words like [7], compared with κέρας, are borrowed."

= Syr. [10] (qaṭīnō), also κοδώνεα, κυδώνεα (Athen. 9, 385, a, είδος συκών μικρών), Latin cottăna (also coctana, cotona, and cottona); κοδώνεα · σῦκα χειμερινὰ καὶ καρύων είδος · Περσικόν. 11 — Κύπρος, 'cyprus-tree,' 'Cyprus flower,' used to paint the nails, the henna of the Arabians (Diosc.) = Hebr. שבר (kōfer), R. 205; \$. ub. 231; Fleischer in Levy's 'Neuhebräisches Wörterbuch,' II. 207. Assyrian kupru shows that the u is older than the o. The flower yielded the έλαιον κύπρινον. Jag. 3. 2, 357, 8, writes: "Redet Theophrast (Estienne, 4, 2135) von κύπρος, so hat er von D noch die Urgestalt kupr gekannt." The existence of Assyrian kupru militates against R. Martineau's derivation of the Semitic from the Greek, 'called from Cyprus, where the flower grows' (A.J.P. XIII. 325), unless we admit that Assyrian kupru is also borrowed from the same Greek word. - Κύπειρον, 'sweet-smelling marsh plant' (Homer), also κύπειρος, κύπερος (Ries, 29) go back to the same Hebr. - Κυπάρισσος, Latin cupressus, 'cypress' (Hom.), has been a source of great discomfiture to etymologists. Renan, 206, compared it with Hebr. "D) (gōfer), 'a fir-tree' (?); B. II. 148, with Hebr. The (kōfer), 'pitch.' A. Müller, BB. 1, 290, preferred to connect it with , but is extremely puzzled over the termination -1000s, "pflegt doch ein solches nie in dieser Weise an ein semitisches Wort gehängt zu werden." Ries, p. 30, is very unsatisfactory. Lag. 'Baktrische Lexikographie,' 74; 'Semitica,' I. 54; 'Symmicta,' II. 92-4, has shown that ופרית in Gen. vi. 14, is shortened from נפרית (Gen. xix. 24; Isa. xxx. 33; xxxiv. 9) 12 at a time when the latter was considered by the Semites as a feminine adjective, which, however, it is not. ופרית is the same as the Bactrian vohūkereti (Vendidad) = 'pine wood,' and later = 'sulphur.' The wood was very light, and therefore used for the building

(Assyrian Grammar for comparative purposes, 14). See, however, G. Meyer<sup>2</sup>, 158; Joh. Schmidt, 'Urheimath,' 7, no. 2. One might, just as soon, follow Raumer, and identify κεφαλή and Sem. בל ; or ישני (ἐξίνταλ), Ezek. vii. 7, 'globe,' with σπεῖρα or σφαῖρα (Delitzsch, ad Isa. xxviii. 5).

<sup>11</sup> Bötticher, 'Arica'; Vaniček, 'Fremdwörter,' 28; KZ. 18, 5; Weise, Lehnwörter, 25 and 139; Saalfeld, 350; Semitic Glosses to Kluge's Wörterbuch, 57.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> Gen. vi. 14 should read בשרית קנים; see also Baudissin, II. 198, rem. 7.

of the ark. From this מפרית (gōfrīt) is derived the Greek κυπάρισσος (originally \*κυπρισσος, whence Latin cupressus).14 The word wandered from the Semitic countries into Greece. Crete may have served as the intermediate station; at least, the legend of the transformation of Cyparissos into a cypresstree points to it. — The βάρατον of Diodor. 2, 49, 'a species of juniper,' is the Hebr. מרוש, Aram. ברות (běrō $t = \kappa v \pi \acute{a}$ ρισσος). — Μύρτος, 'myrtle,' is from the Semitic according to Hehn, 473; but see Fick, BB. 5, 168. An Armenian moürt is mentioned by F. arm. 1531. — Πλάτανος, ή, Lat. platanus, the 'Oriental plane-tree,' from the Semitic דלב), Arabic dulb, late Persian dulb, dulbar, \$1. 37, no. 66; Lag. 'Semitica,' Pliny states that the tree was from the Orient. Hehn, 220, says: 'It is from a Phrygian, Lycian, or some other Iranian source, and not from the Semitic.' Pott2, IV. 267; BB. 18, 40, and others connect it with πλατύς, 'broad, giving shade,' which seems to me the most acceptable view. - 'Poιά (ρόα), 'pomegranate' (Hdt. Aristoph.), Lat. rhoeas, -ădis, and rhoea, ae (Saalfeld, 974) = Hebr. רמן (rimmōn), 'the same'; B. II. 372, after Bochart, Hierozoicon. Hehn, 180, and note 53 (p. 474), writes: 'Poiá is from the Semitic sphere of language and cultivation. The tree held so prominent a place in Syro-Phoenician worship, that the name of its fruit is the same as that of the sun-god: Hadad-Rimmon. 15 Cf. Hesych. ρίμβαι, large pomegranates.' With this view agree Baudissin, II. 208; Keller, 192; Ries, 28-9. And yet ροιά is not Semitic. The Cyprian form ρυδία, KZ. 9, 364,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>18</sup> For the same reason Alexander the Great used cypress-wood for ship-building (Arrian. VII. 19).

<sup>14</sup> See Weise, Lehnwörter, 134; Hehn, 212; BB. 1, 277; Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 288; Keller, 59.

<sup>16</sup> But Rimmon is not the sun-god, but the storm-god, his name meaning 'thunderer' = Assyrian Ramānu (for ramimānu, from ramāmu, 'howl, thunder'). He is the Addu or Daddu: Hadād of the Syrians. The Old Testamen Rimmōn (2 Kings v. 18) is a wrong Massoretic vocalization after the analogy o rimmōn, 'pomegranate.' The LXX. 'Pεμμάν shows still the Old Hebrew pronunciation of Rammān; also compare Hesych. 'Paμάs' ὁ ὑψιστος θεός, and Steph Byz. 'Paμάν. Pott (Techmer's Zeitschrift, 3, 250) says: "ροιά schliesst sich doc gleichfalls wohl irgendwie als rubea, robea den Wörtern für 'rot' mit Einbussedes letzten Konsonanten an."

rbids all connection with the Hebrew (3. arm. p. 190, ad 1655; B. 1, 296; G. Meyer<sup>2</sup>, 163). A good I.-E. etymology is und in Pott<sup>2</sup>, II. 1, 964; III. 1022; Fick<sup>8</sup>, I. 225. — Accordg to Bochart, the ροιά was called in Boeotia σίδα; this he rives from the Arabic sidra, 'pomegranate,' and connects ith it also the name of the town  $\Sigma i \delta \eta$ . —  $\Sigma \eta \sigma a \mu o \nu$ , fruit of e 'sesame-tree' (plural in Arist. Vespae) = Arab. sāsim or msim, plur. simāsim; Aram. šumšemā, šušmā, J. arm. 1713. leischer in Levy's 'Chald. Wörterbuch,' 578, col. a. — Σίκυς,  $\kappa \dot{\nu} \eta$ , 'cucumber' = Hebr. קשואה ( $qi \dot{s} \ddot{u} \dot{a} h$ ), צ.arm. 1975; 19. 11, 234; 2, 356 = "Die Umstellung des κισύη in σικύη ird zu der Zeit erfolgt sein als -σ- zwischen zwei Vocalen im riechischen zu schwinden begann; κιύη wäre zu abscheulich ewesen. Da -σσ- nicht hätte zu schwinden brauchen, beweist אנאים dass שואים nur masorethische Doppelung des ש hat; sū'īm passte nicht in das System von Tiberias." 16 Lenorant and Hitzig derived the Greek from מכן (paqqū'a), 'the Also see Hehn, p. 236. Joh. Schmidt, KZ. 25, 48; hansson, I.F. 2, 14 (cf. ibid. 149, rem.); and Fick4, I. 22 and .9, combine the Greek with the Old-Bulgarian tyky, which Kretschmer, KZ. 31, 335, declared impossible, favoring at e same time a Semitic etymology. — Συκάμινος, 'ficus comorus,' the Egyptian mulberry-tree = Hebr. igmāh), R. 206. The Greek is a hybrid of Hebr. šigmāh d Greek σῦκος, and denotes originally the Arabic gumeiza, sycomorus, ficus aegyptiaca.17 When people began apply this name also to the mulberry-tree, a distinction came necessary. A new word, συκύμορος, was coined for immeiza, and συκάμινος was reserved for the mulberry-tree Loch, 'Bäume und Sträucher'2, 74-6). Hehn's suggestion

<sup>16</sup> See also ZDMG. 11, 522; H. L. Fleischer in Levy's 'Chald. Wörterbuch,' 569. On σῦκον compare H. Graf zu Solms-Laubach, 'Die Herkunft, Domestican und Verbreitung des gewöhnlichen Feigenbaumes' (G.G.Abh. Vol. XXVIII., 81), and ¶αg. ∰. 1, 58 ff. Against σῦκον = ficus see Weise, Lehnwörter, 128, m. 1.

<sup>17</sup> This ought to have been taken into consideration by Ries, 28, below. B., 442, suggested that σῦκον was borrowed from the East, and appealed in proof συκάμινος. Hehn, 85, says: 'Its home is the Semitic Western Asia, Syria, and alestine. In the Odyssey it occurs only in late interpolated passages.'

(p. 291) that 'μόρον originated from συκόμορος' is rejected by Weise, 'Lehnworter,' 137, rem. 3, for the reason that  $\mu \delta \rho o \nu =$ μάρου occurs as early as Aesch. frg. 107, 224.18 Hehn also believes that both συκάμινος and συκόμορος were borrowed from Hebr. šiqmīm or šiqmõţ (plurals to šiqmāh), or rather from the corresponding forms used in Syria and Lower Egypt. The word συκάμινος, though not found in early Greek, must have been, at Aristotle's time, sufficiently known in Greece, to furnish the proverb of Rhet. III. 11, 15. — Nάρδος, Lat. nardus, 'the nard' = Hebr. (nērd), and this from Skt. nalada; Lassen (against Movers, II. 3, 102); Orient und Occident, III. 364; R. 209; BB. 1, 281: Löw, § 316; Yag. W. 2, 25 ff.; Pusey, Daniel, 514. — Κίτριον, κιτρέα, 'the citron tree, citron,' and κίτρον, the fruit of the κιτρέα, called also μῆλον Μηδικόν, is derived from the Latin citrium, and this is a derivative of citrus, cidrus. Cidrus is the Coptic Ketri or Ghitre, and the latter was borrowed from the Egyptian Dhar-it, the name of an acid fruit (Loret, 'Le cédratier dans l'antiquité,' Paris, 52 pp.). 19

# XIV. — FLOWERS.

'Aνεμώνη,¹ a plant, flower (Theophr.) = Hebr. [25] (naɨmān), literally 'pleasantness,' used of plants in Isa. xvii. 10, from a verb 25] (nāɨēm), 'be pleasant, sweet.' Liddell and Scott translate ἀνεμώνη by 'the wind flower,' evidently connecting it with ἄνεμος; so also Prellwitz, s.v.—'Αργεμώνη, 'agri-

<sup>18</sup> On μόρον, μῶρον = morum, see Fick, BB. 5, 168. Συκόμορος seems to be a hybrid formation from Hebr.  $3iqm\bar{o}t$  and \*μόρος.

<sup>19</sup> Lat. duracinus (Greek δοράκινον) and uva duracina are from the Semitic durāqīna, collective durāqīn, a name given in Damascus to the best kind of peaches. (Koch, 'Bäume und Sträucher,' XVII.; Keller, 232 ff.) — Lenormant and Renan also derived Latin taxus, taxo, from The (táxas, 'low, below'); but compare Slav. tisu, 'yew-tree,' and τόξον, 'bow.' — Κίκι, κίκινον = Hebr. [[7]] (qīqāiōn), 'castor-berry,' is of Egyptian origin (Brugsch, 'Aegyptologie,' 393).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Prefix α- we find also in ἄμωμον, ἄγρωστις, and see above (p. 106) α α αμυγδάλη. LXX. ἀματταρί = ΠΠΣΒ = σκοπός, 'mark, object,' Regn. I. 20, 2∞- Against Lagarde, see Löw, 151, rem. 1.

mony' = Hebr. ארגמן ('argāmān), 'purple-colored' (Lag. 'Semitica,' I. 32; \$. üb. 205, rem. 1).2 — Μαλάχη, μολόχη, 'mallow,' Latin malva = Hebr. מלוח (mallūax), a salt-plant, perhaps sea-purslain = Greek ἄλιμος; Benfey, O. Schrader and others. But see H. L. Fleischer's remarks in Levy's 'Wörterbuch,' II. 568, a, and Löw, §§ 190 and 308. Bochart, H. i. 870, 18, derives it from μαλάσσειν. Moλοκâς is a Corcyrean form (BB. 12, 3; KZ. 29, 410), which may perhaps explain μολόχη (G. Meyer 2 55). On Latin malva see KZ. 7, 164, 28, 164; Wölfflin's Archiv, 1, 591; O. Weise, Lehnwörter, 127, rem. 2, and Zeitschrift für Völkerpsychologie, 17, 224. According to Koch, 'Bäume und Sträucher' 2, 250, μαλάχη, malva, is connected with μαλακός, 'soft, tender'; also see Fick4, I. 109.8 — 'Pόδον, rosa, 'rose,' from Old-Persian varda, Armenian vard 4 (KZ. 10, 410; 23, 35). Hehn, 189, says: 'Greek ρόδον (older βρόδον) is originally an Iranic word; both name and plant came to Greece from Media by way of Armenia and Phrygia. If ρόδον were not a loan-word, its corresponding Armenian form should have a t.' Fick4, I. 555-6, refers the Greek to the I.-E. root vradia, 'stem, root'; cf. radix. Concerning Latin rosa Pott, KZ. 26, 140, writes: "Rosa ist den Griechen abgeborgtes ροδέα mit Assibilierung, wie Clausus statt Claudius, Italian orzo = orge (hordeum)"; also see Keller, 311-12, and Wharton, 'Latin Loan-words,' 181, where the latter remarks that: 'The rosegrowing district of Paestum was in Lucania, whose inhabitants, the Samnites, were an off-shoot of the Sabines, who assibilated δι into s.' In accordance with this Schrader's statements (p. 205) would have to be changed. Fick4, I. 556, derives

<sup>2 &</sup>quot;Das ω in ἀνεμώνη entspricht der Voraussetzung, da "Αζωτος (Symmicta, I. 121 = Ασδωδος = ΤΤΟΚ), 'Ασκαλών, Σιδών, ἀρραβών, κιννάμωμον, χιτών für altsemitisches und arabisches ā allesammt die palästinensische Trübung ō zeigen, und mindestens ἀρραβών, Σιδών sehr alt sind, letzteres weil es sich bei Homer findet, ersteres weil es noch ρρ und in der ersten Silbe ein a zeigt."

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Brugsch-Pasha compared Hebr. מלוו with Egyptian mnh, a plant, mentioned together with papyrus and lotus (ZDMG. 46, 111).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> From the Armenian we have Modern Persian gul, Aramean uardā (Talmud Ti, ZDMG. 43, 11), Coptic vert, ourt (Abel, 'Koptische Untersuchungen, 1, 208). Fleischer in Levy's 'Neuhebräisches Wörterbuch,' II. 446, col. b.

rosa from ροζâ, a dialectic form of ρροδέα, ροδη, while Weise, Lehnwörter, 21, does not believe in a connection between the Latin and Greek, referring the former to an I.-E. root (= vrodsa), and considering the latter as borrowed.<sup>5</sup> — Σοῦσον, 'lily' (Diosc. apud Athen.) = Hebr. [Ψ]Ψ (šūšán or rather šōšān), Bochart, H. i. 365, 25; R. 206; B.r. 54, 238; J. arm. 1712; J.a. 227, 11; Jag. J. 2, 15-17. The word originally meant 'lotus,' and is borrowed ultimately from the Egyptian sššn, at a time when this was pronounced in Coptic šōščn (ZDMG. 46, 117). Also compare Fick in Kuhn und Schleicher's Beiträge, 7, 374-5. In Latin we have susinus (from σούσινος), Pliny, 13, 11.6

#### XV. - SPICES.

'Aλόη (Plutarch; Diosc. 3, 25), Lat. aloē, is the softening of the Hebr. Δ΄ (ἄhālīm).¹ The Greeks may have learned the name on the spot. The Hebrew itself is adopted from the Skt. agaru, aguru, which, imported directly to Greece, gave rise to the doublet ἀγάλλοχον (Diosc. 1, 21), Lat. agallochum. — Αμιθα, 'a spice' (Bergk, 'Anacreon,' p. 249), is perhaps = Syriac Μα, Arm. 'amič (Κ. a. 12, 33; Κ. arm. 82), from Middle-Persian \*āmīč (ZDMG. 46, 233, 5). According to Liddell and Scott it is the same as ἄμης, -ητος, 'a kind of milk-cake' (Ar. Plut. 499). — Αμωμον (Ar. frg. 105), 'a spice plant,' Lat. amomum, a species of λιβανός, from the Aram. ΔΩΠ (ḥāmām); also ἀμωμίς, -ίδος, ἡ (Diosc.). The Greek form arose perhaps after the analogy of ἄ-μωμος, 'without blame, blameless.' 2— Βάλσαμον, Lat. balsamum,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> See also ZDMG. 7, 118, and 13, 390; F.a. 75, 6; F.arm. 2106; Fag. W. 2-23. Spiegel in 'Kuhn und Schleicher's *Beiträge*,' 1, 317, derives all from Skt—root vridh, 'to grow'; Löw, § 88; Koch, 'Bäume und Sträucher', 157; Baudis—sin, II. 220.

<sup>6</sup> Hübschmann, ZDMG. 46, 247, no. 91—

1) 'balsam tree' (=  $\beta \dot{a} \lambda \sigma a \mu o_s$ ), and 2) the 'fragrant resin' of the tree, from Hebr. DDD (besem), 'the same'; Movers,

II. 3, 226; R. 205; 3.x. 17, 8. The Greek returned later to the Semitic; cf. Arab. balsān and balasān (3. arm. 330). — Βδέλλα (Hesych.), βδέλλιον (Galen, Diosc.), a plant and a fragrant gum which exudes from it = Hebr. בדלה (bědólax);4

βδολχόν, and this from the Skt. madālaka (μάδελκον) or udūkhala (vel ulūkhala).6 The form βδέλλα is, of course, based on the analogy of βδέλλα, 'leech.' On Latin bedella see Weise, Lehnwörter, 40, and on bidellium Keller, 63. —  $\Gamma$ οίδ,  $\gamma$ ίδ = Hebr.  $\Box$   $(g\acute{a}g) = κόριον$ , κορίαννον, 'coriander'

(Lat. coriandrum, from a lost \*κορίανδρον), Diosc. 3, 64.8 In Latin we have git, gith, and gicti. - The Latin cera is derived by Weise from Greek κηρός (Doric καρός), which Brandt (Neue Jahrbücher für Philologie, 1878, p. 387) connects with Sem. The  $(h\bar{a}u\acute{a}r)$ , 'be white.'9 —  $Ka\sigma(\sigma)ia$ , Lat. casia, 'a spice of the nature of cinnamon,' but of inferior quality, brought from Arabia (Hdt. 2, 86; 3, 110) = Hebr. קציכה (qĕçī'āh), R. 207. This spice was imported by Phoenician merchants from Egypt, where it is called khisi-t. The

Egyptians, again, brought it from the land of Punt, 10 to which it was imported from Japan, where we have it under the form keï-chi (= 'branch of the cinnamon-tree'), or better

<sup>&</sup>quot;Iνδών; Diosc. 1, 14, αμωμον αρμένιον, μηδικόν, ποντικόν. Greek ω for Semitic a is quite frequent; see e.g. p. 113, note 2.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> From bāsām, 'be fragrant' (cf. Bisam) = Assyrian bašamu. See also ZDMG. €6, 258, no. 7.

<sup>4</sup> J.t. X. rem. 2; J.n. 20, 2.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> R. 209, after Lassen.

<sup>6</sup> Roth-Boethlingk, I. 921.

<sup>7</sup> Cf. βδάλλα. Uppenkamp, 29, derives all from the same root.

<sup>8</sup> J.n. 57, 10; J.nrm. 485; Schröder, 128, rem. 7; Hehn, 163; Weise, Rhein.

Museum, 38, 543. 9 But this is very improbable. Compare Lith. korj's (m), honey-comb, and

See J. arm. 1145; Weise, Lehnwörter, 180, rem. 4; Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 464. According to Wharton, 'Loan-words,' 173-4, 'Latin cera is cognate with, but not borrowed from, the Greek κηρός. The Doric καρός seems a figment.'

<sup>10</sup> Called 'the cinnamon country.' The Hebr. occurs only in Ps. xlv. 9, and Job xlii. 14 (as a proper name). The Egyptian is transcribed by Diosc. as  $\gamma l \zeta \varphi$ ; while Galen and Periplous (about 77 A.D.) mention 7151 and 7151, gizi. Schumann, p. 6 ff.

kei-shin ('heart of the cinnamon'). The Japanese itself is again borrowed from the Chinese kei-ši. The -t in the Egyptian represents the feminine suffix. A synonym of qĕçī'āh is the genuine Sem. ΤΡ (qiddāh), Exod. xxx. 24; Ez. xxvii. 19; Phoen. און (qiddō), whence Greek κιττω (Diosc. I. 12).11 — Hdt. 3, 111, speaking of the cinnamon (κιννάμωμον, cinnamomum), says that both the article and its name were imported into Greece from Phoenicia. Phoenician was probably identical with the Hebrew, which is קנמון (qinnāmōn), Bochart, Ph.; G. 66; R. 206. Nicander has the form  $\kappa i \nu \nu a \mu o \nu$  and Pliny  $\kappa i \nu a \mu o \nu = Latin cinnamun$ . Gesenius derives the Hebrew from a verb קנה = קנה. mann, too, considers it a good Semitic word, connecting it the Hebrew name was imported from Greece to Palestine, and that the word is probably of I.-E. origin (cf. also the Malayan kājiī mānīs). 18 — Κρόκος and κρόκου, the 'crocus, saffron, safran,' is borrowed from Hebr. DDD (karkom, Cant. iv. 14), 14 and this perhaps from the Skt. kunkuma (3.1. 45, 144; 3.a. 58, 10; 3.arm. 2389; B. II. 177). The word passed from the Semitic to the Greeks during or even before the Epic period. 16 A more original form than κροκωτός is \*κορκωτός, whence Latin corcota (Wharton, 189). According to Brug-

<sup>11</sup> A species or variety of the  $\kappa\alpha\sigma la$  is the  $\delta\chi\nu=V\Pi N$  ( $\bar{a}x\bar{u}$ ), Gen. xli. 2, 18; LXX. and Jesus Sirach,  $\delta\chi\epsilon\iota$ ,  $\delta\chi\iota$ . According to Jerome ad Isa. xix. 17, it is an Egyptian word, meaning 'omne quod in palude vireno nascitur'; cf. Egyptian  $\delta\chi\alpha\chi$ , 'sprout, flourish,' whence Demotic  $\delta ch\ell$ , 'calamus.' Bochart, H. i. 403—The Hebr.  $\Pi$  is derived from the verb  $\Pi$  ( $q\bar{a}ddd$ ), 'peel off, split off,' hence the 'rind' of a fragrant tree (Ex. xxx. 24).

<sup>12</sup> Found in the name of other products, imported from Southern Arabia, e.g. άφύσεμων (a variety of the cinnamon); cassamon (= casia), cardamon, etc.

<sup>18</sup> Κόμμι (Hdt. 2, 86, 96), Lat. cummis, 'mucilage' (gummi arabicum), i from the Egyptian kemai (Wiedemann, 26; Lieblein, 48, rem. 4).

<sup>14</sup> Arm. χτχοϋm; Pers. karkam; in Assyrian, karkuma (J. Oppert, cf. belowc. XXI. s.v. ηλεκτρον). See also ZDMG. 46, 254, no. 135.

<sup>16</sup> Hehn; Helbig, 149; Löw, 215-220; Ries, 29; Pusey, Daniel, 515, says κρόκοι is not from the Hebr. karkōm, which itself has no Semitic etymology. The Greek came from the Skt. kunkuma, it must have come through another the Semitic channel. The Sanskrit word has no etymology either (F. Max Müller The Sanskrit passed into Arabic as kamkām, whence Lat. cancamum (Plin. 12,98) and Late-Greek κάγκαμον.

mann, 'Curtius Studien,' 7, p. 292, no. 10, it is an I.-E. word. — Κύμινον, 'cummin' = Hebr. ממן (kammōn), R. 205; Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 431. In Assyrian we have kamanu. 16 — Λήδανον (Doric λάδανον), Hdt. 3, 107; Strabo, 16, 4, gum of the shrub ληδον, 'gum-mastich,' from Hebr. 💆 (lōt, older \*lāt), R. 206; KZ. 31, 286. The form λήδανον was probably borrowed from Arabic ladān or לאדן (lādan) (Hdt. 3, 112), Assyrian ladunu. The word may have belonged originally to the dialect of the Moabites and Ammonites, in whose regions the shrub is found in great abundance.<sup>17</sup> — Another gum, of like qualities, was the στύραξ, 'the Syrian resin storax,' Lat. storax, from the Sem.  $\nabla \mathbf{x}$  ( $\vec{ceri} = \vec{curi}$  or  $\vec{curu}$ ). The Greeks assimilated the Semitic loan-word to στύραξ, 'spike'; the Latinized storax proves that this favorite incense for sacrifices came early to Italy. — 'Pητίνη, 'gum, flowing gum,' Lat. resīna, is usually derived from the I.-E. √srē, 'flow' (ῥέω, ῥαίνω), Saalfeld, Prellwitz,19 while others combine it with the Syriac מון (rēṭin), a synonym of אבי flowing gum, from a verb רהש (rěhēt), 'flow.' Wharton (p. 189) derives Lat. resīna from an **Ionic** \* $\dot{\rho}\eta\tau\dot{\nu}\eta$ . Weise explains the s in the Latin noun as an analogical formation after 'residere.'20 'Pητίνη passed into Arabic as rātīnun, and then returned again to Greek as ραδινάκη (Fränkel, 41, against \$.π. 225, 26). — Λιβανός is the name of the tree from which the λιβανωτός, 'the frankincense,' is won. Λιβανός is from the Semitic \*ligan (),

16 Lat. cuminum, cyminum, and ciminum; O.H.G. chumin; Old Russian, Ajuminü; J.arm. 1780; J.üb. 89; Löw, p. 206; M. Derenbourg (Mélanges Graux, 242, rem. 1) writes: 'Bien entendu μας εκύμενν ne présente qu'une ressemblance accidentale'; see also above, c. XII. p. 105, s.v. κάμων. On Armemian caman compare Hübschmann (ZDMG. 46, 248, no. 97).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup> Cf. the proper name  $L\bar{o}t$ , ancestor of the Ammonites and Moabites. On the Latin forms see Keller, 63.

<sup>18</sup> Tag. 38. 1, 234, 384; 4, 373; Hehn, 318 f.; Koch; 'Bäume und Sträucher','
79 ff.; Hdt. 3, 107, says: στύρακα, την ές Ελληνας Φοίνικες έξάγουσι. J. Olshausen (Hermes, 14, 145-8) derived στύραξ from ἀστύραξ = "Αστυρα = ΠΠΠΕΝ
(Astarte), but the form "Αστυρα does not occur. On Σ = στ compare e.g. διστός
(but ?), άγρωστις, άλάβαστρος, etc. (p. 49 f., 103, note 1).

<sup>19</sup> Saalfeld, 969. On the Armenian form see ZDMG. 46, 265, no. 59.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>20</sup> BB. 5, 89; Lehnwörter, 29, 173-4; see also Pott, in BB. 8, 49: "s für & wegen eines nachmals unterdrückten i." — KZ. 30, 567.

\*lēbān), 'white,' plur. Γίε μαποξ) = λιβανωτ-ός, a collective name for the single grains of the incense. On the Egyptian forms see Brugsch, 'Aegyptologie,' 396. — Μάλθη, 'soft wax for covering writing tablets,' etc. (Latin malta, Italian malta, 'clay, loam'), is said to be borrowed from Hebr. Δ΄ (meleξ), 'mortar' (LXX. μίλτος), G. 66; R. 207; J.a. 256, II; Lagarde, 'Agathangelus,' 141, rem. 2. On the other hand, Pott², II. 3, 543; Schröder, 30, rem.; Curt. 326; and BB. I. 291, connect it with μαλάσσω, μαλακός. — Μύρρα, 'myrrh' (Sappho) = Τ΄ (mōr), or rather Κ΄ (murrā), R. 205. It is the product of the 'Balsamodendron myrrha,' which grows in Arabia and the Somâli country, and was called To from its bitter taste (T) = 'to be bitter'). The plant

בי From מלם in the meaning 'to save oneself, be saved,' is derived the name of the island Mellin (Malta) = 'place of safety, refuge' = מלימה (měliṭāh), καταφυγή (Bochart, Ph. 497); Kiepert, § 242, says: 'Melite, on account of its deep and sheltered harbour, was certainly one of the oldest Phoenician settlements in the West'; also cf. Lewy, Neue Jahrbücher, 1892, 180. But this would militate against Lagarde's law that in early Greek \(\mathbb{D}\) was represented by θ. Lewy, I.c. considers  $\Sigma \chi e \rho l \eta$  from  $\Box \Box \Box (= \Box \Box \Box)$ , to lock up, to keep safe), as a synonym of Meλίτη. Μελίτη was also an older name for Samothrake (Strabo, 10, 472); but Samothrake (Σάμος Θρηϊκίη, 11. 13, 13) must be a very old name, because Samo-, as well as Samos, the island, are connected with the Semitic המשני (Jamah), 'be high, elevated' (Helbig, 8; Ries, 49). The island consists entirely of the mighty crater of Saöke with a peak, 5500 feet in height. Gerard Croese (1704) had the idea that the family of Esau settled in Thrace, and thus the Greeks of that part had learned Hebrew. To prove this idea, he tells us that the name Thrace isfrom θρίξ, 'the hair,' and was not Esau a 'hairy man'? — From מלם, Keller, 190= and 225 ff., also derives the Greek 'Αμάλθεια = Rhea, the mother of the gods; while Lewy, l.c. 183, explains this name as = Sem. חמלח (\*xomáli, the groundform of xomélet), in the meaning of 'compassionate, merciful,' from ,' to have mercy upon,' ἀμάλθεια being originally an epithet of Rhea Cybele.

28 Also cf. μύρον (Archilochus, 31).

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exotic in Palestine as well as with us; the Phoenicians nported it from Egypt, and the Egyptians, again, brought ne gum and the young trees from the land of Punt.24 ayce (Hdt. 3, 107) combines σμύρνη with 🤼, and thinks  $\sigma$  was prefixed from a false assimilation to the name the city of Smyrna. Some scholars consider μύρρα (μύρον) ; well as σμύρνη (σμύρνα) as I.-E. nouns. 25 It is safest to parate the two words: μύρρα (μύρον) = Hebr. mör, Arabic urra, and σμύρνη (σμύρον) = 'schmiere,' O. H.G. smero, 'fat'; oth. smairpa.26 — Νέτωπον, 'oil of almonds' (Hippocr.), and τώπιον (Hesych.) are compared to Hebr. (něţōfāh), esin-trickling, used of the dropping of an aromatic resin.' he Hebrew is the name of a town or region, 'balsam or orax-place' (from a verb  $\neg \square = nataf$ , 'to drop, drip, flow'). ut the true Greek reading is μετώπιον (Diosc. 1, 71; Athen. , 688, an Egyptian designation of an ointment), perhaps Egyptiam met, an ointment, mentioned in the Papyrus bers.27 The Greek μετώπιον is shaped after the analogy μετώπιον, μέτωπον, 'forehead.' — "Υσσωπος (Theophr. and XX.) = Lat. hyssopus, 'an aromatic plant' = Hebr. □ zōb), R. 205; Larm. 794. The Oriental hyssop, however, a plant, different from ours, which is not found in Syria id Egypt; it was probably the caper plant. 28 — Χαλβάνη, at. galbanum 29 and chalbane, 'a gum' = Hebr. הלבנה elbenāh, Ex. xxx. 34), R. 205; BB. 1, 279 and 299; Löw, It is the resinous juice or gum of the Syrian 53-4.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>24</sup> Schumann, 5 a; F. srm. 75, quotes Armenian *smoür* and *smoürs* =  $\zeta \mu \nu \rho r a$ ; e also F. sib. 40 and 179.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>25</sup> Vaniček, KZ. 29, 85; 30, 85, and 440; G. Meyer<sup>2</sup>, 246: ' $\mu\nu\rho\rho$ a by the side  $\sigma\mu\nu\rho$ ra, where the original  $\sigma\mu$  is preserved.'

<sup>28</sup> So Schrader, KZ. 30, 477, and p. 463 of 'Sprachvergleichung und Urgehichte<sup>2</sup>.'—W. Smith, 'Latin Dictionary,' derives Latin amarus, 'bitter,' from e Hebr.  $m\bar{a}r\bar{a}h$ , with a prefixed; but the Latin belongs to Greek  $\omega\mu\delta$ s 'ick<sup>4</sup>, I. 17); cf. also G. 67.—An Egyptian word for myrrh is  $\beta\delta\lambda$ , on which e Wiedemann, p. 16.

<sup>27</sup> Wiedemann, 30; Fag. 38. 2, 357.—Pusey, Daniel, 515: 'νέτωπον seems lly accidentally connected with F[2].'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>28</sup> Cf. Stanley, 'Sinai and Palestine,' 21. On Agmenian zopay, Syriac zōpā, see DMG. 46, 236, 226.

<sup>29</sup> After galbus, galbanus.

umbelliferous plant.<sup>80</sup> — Μόσχος, 'animal perfume,' musk (Aëtius), is connected according to Passow; Liddell and Scott, Curt.<sup>5</sup> 593; Meringer, l.c. p. 37, with ὄσχος, ὄσχη. Σ.arm. 1527, connects it with Arab. misk, Pers. mušk, Skt. muška.

#### XVI. - COMMERCE.

'Aρραβών, 'earnest-money, pledge' = Hebr. [ITT] ('ērāḥōn for 'arraḥōn), from a verb TT ('ārāḥ), 'to exchange, pledge.' In Latin we have the forms arrhabo, arrah, arra (whence French 'arrhe'), and rhabo, rabo. Hesychius quotes ἄρρα πρόδομα καὶ μνῆστρον.¹— Among the names of vessels we have γαῦλος (see chapter VII.) and κέρκουρος, 'a swift vessel, a boat,' Latin cercurus, from the Arabic qūrqūr, 'navis longa,' Bochart, Ph. 463. Fränkel, 217, compares also Hebr. [CITT] (kirkārāh, fem. to kirkēr), used of the swift-running female camel, hence a dromedary (just as Greek δρομάς), Is. lxvi. 20. If the κέρκουρος was really an invention of the Cyprians, as Pliny, 7, 57, says, its name must have been coined by the Semitic settlers living on that island. Κέρκουροι are mentioned among the Carthaginian fleet (Appian, Pun. 75, 121).²

80 Koch, 'Bäume und Sträucher'2, 256 ff., derives Greek  $\lambda\omega\tau\delta s$ , 'the lotus,' from Hebr. 20 (lot); Brugmann, 'Curtius Studien,' 4, 153, no. 33, argues in favor of an I.-E. origin, and connects it with the  $\sqrt{\lambda}d_F = \text{frui}\ (\epsilon f.\ d\pi o \lambda a \omega \omega)$ ;  $\lambda\omega-\tau\delta-s$ , 'proprie esculentus.' According to Athen. 3, 73, it is an Egyptian word. Wiedemann, p. 28, and 'Hdt. II. Buch,' 375, says it has not yet been found in Egyptian literature; see, however, Fag. 20. 2, 21 ff., on Hdt. 2, 92, in his article on  $\lambda\epsilon l\rho\iota\omega_F$ , from Egyptian  $\rho\eta\rho\iota$ , which by dissimilation became  $\lambda\eta\rho\iota$ .

<sup>1</sup> G. 66; B. I. 101; **X.** πm. 2411; **X.** h. 188, rem. 1; 203, 12-37; **Xag. 26.** 1, 212; Fränkel, 190; Keller, 104. — It may be that αίπυλος καὶ κάπηλος παρὰ Κυπρίοις, is connected with Assyrian apalu, 'to exchange, return,' though Hoffmann, 'Griechische Dialekte,' I. 106, rem., derives it from \*αρι ('towards') + πέλομαι (έμπολή, πολέω), and O. Weise, Lehnwörter, 87, rem. 2, from √ραί, 'to guard, watch,' connecting it with Lat. opilio. — Κάπηλος, καπηλεύειν, stands too isolated in Greek to admit of any certain etymology. Raumer (I. Fortsetzung, p. 9) and others consider it to be borrowed from Semitic ¬□¬ (qāḥdl), Piēl qibbēl, 'receive, compensate.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> In Armenian we have kurkuray, 'vessel' (ZDMG. 46, 227 and 241). Brugmann, 'Curt. Studien,' 7, 291, no. 9, derives the Greek from the I.-E. √καρ, 'te be pointed, sharp.' Κέρκουρος · elδος πλοίου και ίχθύς. — From the Semitic קרקר

— From the Egyptian we have βâρις (Hdt. 2, 41 and 96; Diod. 1, 96), 'a flat-bottomed boat used in Egypt' = Egyptian barī-t, found even on the monuments of the XVIII. dynasty (Sayce); Latin baris, barca (no doubt for bari-ca), whence Italian barca, French barque, etc. See the discussion between Weise and Ad. Erman in BB. 7, 96, and 170 f.; A. Wiedemann, 'Hdt. II. Buch,' 387-8, and pp. 194, 253, and 609. — On ἄντλος, ἀντλεῖν, ἀντλίον H. L. Fleischer has the following important remark in Levy's 'Neuhebräisches Wörterbuch,' II. 569 f.: "Diese Begriffe kommen aus dem Morgenlande und sind, wie einige andere zunächst auf Schiffahrt und Seehandel bezügliche Wörter von den Phoeniziern zu den Griechen gekommen." Compare κίωι (naṭlā), 'vessel, pail,' etc., from 'Μ) (nāṭdāl), 'lift, draw.'

# XVII. - WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

"Akawa" in the meaning of 'a ten-foot rod' used in landsurveying (Lat. acna, acnua, BB. 16, 187), may be connected

we have the name of the island Κέρκυρα (Attic), Κόρκυρα (Doric) = Lat. Corcyra (Bochart, Ph. 463: Corcyraei = קרקר, olim Palaxes, i.e. eminentes = Arab. אורך, eminens). The modern 'Corfu' is from ol κορυθοί, the Peaks, names of the two citadels on the island. Johansson, KZ. 30, 414, rem., calls Κέρκυρα "ein dunkles Wort."—A 'navis longa' may also have been the Argo of the Argonauts, derived from the Semitic ארכה ('arkāh), 'long'; for  $\gamma = 3$ , cf. e.g. '\alpha\text{\(\alpha\text{kbar}\)} = "Ayβapos, and many others. Gerard Croese, of blessed memory, proved, as he thought, that all the heroes in the legend of the 'Search for the Golden Fleece' were Jews. Jason is a compound of p = -12 (ia)dc + cin), feed and to counsel'; Peleus, from אני + ארנות (pālds), 'weigh.' Argonaut, from אני + ארנות ('ārgēṇān+ 'ōni), 'the purple ship,' which goes to Europe (='ōr-'af)='the light of the face,' from Hellas (='ōr-'af)='the light of the face,' from Hellas (='ōr-'af)=' הלל din), and which, steered by the helmsman Tiphys (WDD, 'draw along'), on its journey passes the islands of Kume (קומה, 'arise') and Samos (=שמים, 'heaven'). Lauth ('Troias Epoche,' 1877) derived Danaos from Egypt. dun, 'surgere, germinare'; but see Gutschmid, 'Kleine Schriften,' I. 551 f.; the same writer also combined rήδυμος υπνος (Homer) with Egypt. net'em, 'dulus, suavis' (but see Gutschmid, I.c. 552). It must be added, however, that Jubainville, the uncomfortably learned French savant (I. 178), connects Danaos with Egypt. Tana.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Assimilated to the good Greek ἀκαινα, 'thorn, prick, stimulus,' Skt. dçan, dçna (KZ. 24, 449; 30, 350 and 413).

with the Hebr.  $\exists \exists \exists (q\bar{a}n\ell h)$ , 'a measuring stick, rod'  $(=\kappa \acute{a}\nu \eta,$ κάννη, κάννα), Assyrian ganū.<sup>2</sup> O. Weise, Lehnwörter, 218, rem. 3, derives the Greek from the Latin. — Βάδος (βάθος and  $\beta \dot{a} \tau o_{S}$ , also  $\beta a i \theta$ , LXX.), a measure = Hebr.  $\square \square$  (bdt); it was a measure of liquids, according to Joseph. Antt. 8, 2, 9 = 72 sextarii or  $8\frac{1}{2}$  gallons. —  $K\dot{\alpha}\beta$ os (LXX. and Geopon.) = Greek χοινιξ, from Hebr. Σρ (qáb), B. II. 157. The Hebrew may have been borrowed from the Egyptian qbt (\*qēbět), 'a pitcher, a measure.' The κάβος was ½ of a האם (sě'āh), which, in its Aramean form KIND (sāṭā'), passed over to the Greeks as σάτον.8 In Assyrian we have sūtu, and in Egyptian s'a, 'a measure of corn' (Brugsch, ZDMG. 46, 118). — Κόρος (Josephus) for κόρρος, from Hebr. 🗀 (kōr). - Πλάστιγξ, 'the scale of a balance,' is usually connected with the I.-E. √spal (Uppenkamp, 38), or √pela, pla (Prellwitz). Lagarde, 'Orientalia,' II. 38, derives it from the Sem. בלסת + suffix  $-\nu\gamma\gamma$ .  $^{5} - \Sigma \hat{a}\rho o s$ ,  $\sigma \omega \sigma \sigma o s$ , and  $\nu \hat{\eta}\rho o s$  are, of course, from the corresponding Assyrian words sar, šuššu, and nēru.6-Another measure is σάφιθα, for which compare Aram. ΥΕΨ, οἰνοπώλης, from a verb κου (šἔfā), 'he filtrated'; also cf. σαπάτιον, Lagarde, 'Symmicta,' II. 216. — From the Egyptian we have in, inion, 'a measure' = Egyptian hnw (hen), whence also Hebr. הין (hīn), R. 204; Brugsch (ZDMG. 46, 114). Against the identification of Greek iv and Hebr. 77 see Wiedemann, p. 23.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Hultzsch, 'Metrologie,' 385; A.J.P. IX. 421-2.—'Aχάνη, a measure = 45 μέδιμνοι, is considered by Wharton as Persian, while Bochart derived it from the Talmudic ΝΙΟ  $(k\bar{a}n\bar{a})$ , with the article  $\vec{n}$  ( $\hbar a$ ) prefixed.

<sup>8</sup> F.arm. 536; Fag. Mt. 2, 367.

<sup>4</sup> Lagarde, 'Orientalia,' II. 30-31, 'Symmicta,' II. 184; X.üb. 40.

<sup>5</sup> Cf. DDD (pėles), 'a balance,' Isa. xl. 12; Prov. xvi. 4.

<sup>6</sup> F. Delitzsch in Aegyptische Zeitschrift, 1878, 56-70; Joh. Schmidt, 'Urheimath der Indogermanen,' 43 ff.; on p. 46 he suggests that German 'Schock,' = 60, and Babylonian Jussu are connected etymologically.

# XVIII. - MONEY.

Γάζα, gaza, 'a treasure,' is borrowed from the Western Syriac. According to F.arm. 453, it was originally a Median word, which was transferred to the Persian and then to the Sanskrit, since neither Persian ganj, nor Skt. ganja, admit of a satisfactory etymology. 1 — Δαρείκος, a Daric, a Persian gold coin of the value of an Attic χρυσοῦς, is also of Semitic origin. In I Chron. xxix. 7, etc., we find 'adarkon (darkon with prothetic x), and another form darkemon appears in Ezra ii. 69. It was originally not a piece of money, but a measure (cf. 777), and afterwards applied to money. In the Assyrian inscriptions there occurs da-ri-ku in a contracttablet of the twelfth year of King Nabonidus (published in the Proc. Soc. Bibl. Arch., 5 Feb., 1884, p. 87). From the same Semitic noun, Fürst, Keller, 357, and others derive the Greek δραχμή, as a weight and a coin. J. Oppert (Journal asiatique, 1874, VII. series, vol. iv. p. 479) connects it with an Akkadian DARAG-MANA = 'le  $\frac{1}{60}$  de la mine.' (See, however, Delitzsch und Haupt, Beiträge zur Assyriologie, I. 496.) Δραχμή I take to be an I.-E. word.<sup>2</sup> Nöldeke, Persische Studien, II. p. 35, believes that Persian diram was perhaps borrowed directly from Greek  $\delta \rho a \chi \mu \eta' = drachm = drahm$ = diram. — Κόλλυβος (collybus), 'a small coin, small gold weight,' is borrowed, according to Lagarde, 'Orientalia,' II. 27, from Hebr. אור (xălōf); Julius Pollux, ζ, 170, mentions ὁ νῦν κόλλυβος ἀλλαγή. The Semitic noun belongs to a verb אדר, 'exchange, change.' The Greeks could not pronounce χόλλυφος, and changed it into κόλλυβος. — The most interesting word in this chapter is  $\mu a \mu(\mu) \hat{\omega} \nu$ ,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See also X.z. 27, 35, and 28, 3; Kautzsch, 'Aram. Gram.' 118 and 175; Pusey, *Daniel*, 515-16, contends for a Semitic etymology of γάζα. Keller's statements (p. 249 f.) have to be modified according to G. Meyer (*Lit. Central-blatt*, 1892, no. 12).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Cf. N. arm. 665; G. Meyer<sup>2</sup>, § 18; Hultzsch, 'Metrologie'<sup>2</sup>, 131; Brugmann, 'Curt. Studien,' 4, 104, νδρακ; Siegismund, ibid. 5, 154, no. 30 (δράσσομαι, δραχμή, δράγμα unde ducta sint, nondum satis constat). J. Oppert, l.c., derived also δβολότ, 'an obol,' used at Athens both as a weight and a coin = ½ part of a δραχμή, from the Assyrian aplus = 'weight'; see, however, Prellwitz, 217.

or rather  $\mu a \mu(\mu) \omega \nu \hat{a}_{5}$ , 'mammon,' from the Aram. (mā'mōn) and אמונא (mā'mōnā), for מצמון (ma'mōn), from Aram. ממן = Hebr. אומן (tāmán), 'conceal, hide, bury'; thus =  $matm\bar{o}n$  = 'a hidden, buried treasure.' M. Duval in the Revue des études juives, 1884, p. 143, explains the Aramean as a compound of  $m\bar{a}$   $(m\bar{a}) + m\bar{a}$   $(m\bar{a}n = m\bar{o}n)$  or  $m\bar{a}n$ in the sense of 'quidquid' (= Arabic mahmā). — The Hebrew mānéh (הוב) came to Greece through the medium of Phoenician traders in the form  $m \ell n \bar{a}$ ,  $m \ell n \bar{a}' \bar{a}$  (KID, KKID) =  $\mu \nu \hat{a}$ , μνέα, μνάα (= Latin mina). It also passed into Egyptian. — Another coin received by the Greeks from the Phoenicians is  $\sigma i\gamma \lambda o\varsigma$  ( $\sigma i\kappa \lambda o\varsigma$ ) = שׁכְּל (šiqlā), Hebr. שׁכְל (šeqel), of which στάτηρ is the Greek translation (Hultzsch, l.c. 132). found in Lycian in the form sexλe (BB. 12, 149). Σίγλος is better than σίκλος, because γ reproduces  $\triangleright$  more exactly than k does.4

### XIX. - WRITING.

"Aβαξ, -κος,  $\dot{o}^1$  (Lat. abax and abacus, from the Greek genitive  $\ddot{a}\beta\alpha\kappa o\varsigma$ , Keller, 80), 'a board for reckoning on,' is derived from the Semitic  $\beta \Delta \kappa$  (' $\bar{a}b\bar{a}q$ ), 'dust,' 'sand,' because the ancients, especially in the Orient, reckoned and figured in the dust. This explains also our Lord's custom of always writing in the dust (St. John viii. etc.).\(^2 - \Delta\epsilon\tau\epsilon\sigma\chi\) 'a writing tablet,' from Hebr.

<sup>\*</sup> Kag.M. 1, 229, against whom compare Geo. Hoffmann, 'Über einige Phönikische Inschriften,' p. 33. K.ub. 185; Kautzsch, 'Aram. Gramm.' 10 and 174; Nestle, 'Syriac Grammar'<sup>2</sup>, pref. xi. ad p. 27, rem. 1, says: 'Syriac DD = μαμμῶν seems to be a foreign word from Phoenician DD = money.'— Pinches (London Academy, 9 June, 1888, p. 399) derived the word from the Assyrian mimmu or memmu, 'anything, everything,' 'property,' 'wealth'; but see C. Bezod, ibid. 16 June, p. 446; also Fürst, Lexicon, 831; and Sayce, 'Records of the Past,' new series, vol. 3, 77.

<sup>4</sup> Fag.M. 2, 357.

 $<sup>^{1}</sup>$  Also dβ dκιον, dβ ακίσκος = tessera, tessella.

² gag.  $\mathfrak{B}$ . 1, 222; g.üḫ. 224, rem. 2, 2; and L. Geiger, 'Ursprung und Entwickelung der menschlichen Sprache und Vernunft' (1868), I. 295. Saalfeld, 'Tensaurus,' derives  $d\beta a\xi$  from the letters A, B,  $\Gamma$  = "eine mit Chiffern versehene und in Felder abgeteilte Tafel oder Tischplatte."

because it is like the wing of a door (Jer. xxxvi. 23). Compare Hdt. 8, 135, έν δέλτου πτυχαίς γράφειν (Β. II. 199; BB. 1, 287-8). I.-E. etymologies have been proposed by many scholars, e.g. Vanicek; Meister, 'Griechische Dialekte,' 2, 213; Fick<sup>4</sup>, I. 456; and Prellwitz, s.v. —  $B\dot{\nu}\beta\lambda o_5$ , also  $\beta\dot{\nu}\beta\lambda o_5$ (BB. 12, 60; G. Meyer<sup>2</sup>, 91) was the Egyptian papyrus, the outer coat of which was used for writing on, hence in the plur. 'leaves of byblus'; then also 'a paper, book.' explain  $\beta \dot{\nu} \beta \lambda_0$  we must first explain  $\pi \dot{\alpha} \pi \nu \rho_0$  (= paper), of which the former seems to be the Semitic designation.  $\Pi \acute{a}\pi \nu \rho o s$  is not a Greek word, but the Coptic *Pa-bour* (i.e. the writing material made in Būra).8 Papyrus being thus called after the name of a city where it was manufactured, I join those who derive βύβλος from the , mentioned in Ezek. xxvii. 9. The name of this famous Phoenician city. is not = Gebal (found in Ps. lxxxiii. 8, the Gabala of Strabo and Gebalene of Josephus), but Göbel (Phoenician Gübel, -Assyrian Gubla), whence Greek Bύβλος. Now, we know that Byblos was not only a centre of religious life and literature, but also a great emporium of the Phoenicians in their trade from Egypt to Greece and other countries; and I believe that from the name of this city is derived the Greek  $\beta i\beta \lambda o_5 - \beta i\beta \lambda o_5 = Latin$  littera for dittera is

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Jag. 33. 2, 260-61: "Konnten gewisse Salzsische und gewisse Turbanbinden Bürische heissen, weil sie aus Büra (bei Damiette in Egypten) stammten, so konnte auch das aus den Rohren des bei Büra gelegenen Menzale-sees gesertigte Schreibstoff als (Koptisch) Pa-bour (das Bürische) bezeichnet werden." Büra, near Damiette, was a well-known centre of paper-manusacturing. See also Löw, § 30. A similar case is that of the word βροντήσων, 'bronze,' from Brundisium, an important place for the manusacture of bronze-mirrors (Berthelot, Archiv für Anthropologie, XXI. 180); muslin from the city of Mosul.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> M...Jos. Halévy, in *Journal asiatique*, 1891, Vol. XVII. 241. — The LXX. translate the passage in Ezek. by οἱ πρεσβύτεροι βιβλίων. Change of λ to β occurs frequently.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> See Hehn, 232-3; Ries, 30; Wiedemann, 'Hdt.'s II. Buch,' 376 ff. Enmann's remarks to the contrary (p. 9) are of very little importance. Prellwitz, p. 47, simply states: 'an Egyptian loanword,' without producing proof for such an assertion. Byblos could also have been the main place whence the precious material was shipped to the western nations by the Phoenicians. We know that many articles of commerce have not been called after the name of the place where they were manufactured or produced, but after the place from which they

said to be the Greek διφθέρα (Keller, 119), an etymology claimed by M. Bréal<sup>6</sup> as his property, and declared utterly impossible by Gustav Meyer. Fürst ('Lexicon,' 308), Raumer, and others, went even a step further, deriving the Greek from an impossible Arabic daf- (dif-) tarun, which they combined with Hebr. דביר (debir), and explained as קרית ספר (qiriat-séfer) = book-town.8 —  $\Pi \epsilon \sigma \sigma \dot{\sigma} \varsigma$ , 'stone for playing games, draughtsman' = Aram. KD'D (pīsā), 'stone, tablet,' Arab. faccun.9 But this is very improbable. The Greek seems to be connected with the numeral πέντε (BB. 1, 296), and the Arabic faccun is borrowed from the Greek ψηφος (Lagarde-Fränkel, 59-60). On Latin pessus and pessum see Keller, 99. — Χαράσσω, 'engrave, write,' is said to have been borrowed from the Phoenician.<sup>10</sup> Concerning χάρτης, 'a leaf of paper,' R. 208, says, 'me parait sémitique (= מחרם).' So also Uppenkamp, p. 23. The Latin charta, from Greek χάρτης, returned later as χάρτα. Fränkel, p. 245, however, believes that the Aramean and Arabic forms are from the Greek; so also 3. arm. 2352. Prellwitz, 355, simply states, "ein ägyptisches Lehnwort"; but I have not yet heard of an Egyptologist making such a statement.11

were exported to other nations, e.g. caviar from Kafa (ΚΑΦΑ), the great emporium of Theodosia (Strabo), through the Italian caviale; also the German "russischer Thee" and "Englisches Gewürz," etc.

- 6 Revue critique, 28 March, 1892, no. 13.
- <sup>7</sup> Lit. Centralblatt, 1892, no. 12 (cols. 411-13).
- 8 Διφθέρα is derived by Fick<sup>4</sup>, I. 453, and others from δέφω, δέψω, Lat. depso. Compare, further, Mém. 7, 91, rem. 2. Littera is connected by Wharton with Latin littus, 'shore,' from the idea of cutting, not with διφθέραι, 'skins.' M. Bréal (Mém. 6, 2) derives littera from διφθέρα, which became 'lipterae' = literae. M. Havet, ibid. p. 115, has further remarks on the subject. Qiridi séfer does not mean 'book-town,' but 'frontier-city,' and děţir denotes 'a retreat, a remote town,' at the frontier of the country. On διφθέρα, see also Pott in Techmer's Zeitschrift, 2, 239 f.
- 9 Fleischer in Levy's 'Chald-Wörterbuch,' II. 527 b; Weise, Lehnwörter, 299, rem. 3.
- 17 Ewald. 'Hebr. Gramm.' § 49 c, p. 130, χαράττω: χαράσσω = ΓΓΠ: ΨΓΠ (Exod. xxxii. 16). But see Bezzenberger in BB. 12, 239, no. 4; A.J.P. III. 335; Geo. Hoffmann, 'Über einige Phönikische Inschristen,' p. 11.
- 11 Χαράσσω (√χαρακ) as well as χάρτης seem to be I.-E. words.—'Αλάβηὑπὸ δὲ Κυπρίων μαρίλη, 'coal-dust, soot, ink made therefrom,' might be connected.
  with Semitic √⊐⊅0, 'to cover something,' as coal-dust and ink serve to cover;
  F. de Saussure, however, derives the word from √άλφ, 'white' (Mém. 3, 208).

# XX. - MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS.

Strabo, X. 3, 17, says: 'Some musical instruments have Barbarian names, nablas, sambuke, barbitos, magadis, and many others.' In accordance with this we find, e.g. βάρβιτος, from Arab. barbat, 'a musical instrument of many strings.'1 - Γίγγρας, -ου, ό, and γίγγρος, 'a small Phoenician flute or fife,' of a shrill querulous tone (Pollux, Onomast. IV. 76), is probably the Phoenician עיערא ('ii'drā) or ערערא ('dominus,' a name of the Phoenician Adonis = אדון, Lat. gingrina, gingrire. Fick, BB. 7, 94, refers the Greek to Pamphylian ζειγαρά, Lett. dfindfinát. Γίγγρας and 'Aβωβάς 2 seem to have been originally epithets of Adonis in Phoenicia. His father was called Κινύρας, evidently from κινύρα (κιννύρα), borrowed from the Sem. לנור (kinnōr) = 'Cithara barbarica,' an instrument of ten strings (Josephus) of the shape of a delta (Isidorus Hispalensis); R. 207; J. arm. 1904 and 2371; Baudissin, II. 200, rem. 4; Ries, 40; ZDMG. 46, 153, no. 129. The Hebrew was also transferred to the Egyptian, where we have kniniwru. — According to Movers κύμβαλον, 'cymbal,' is from the Hebr.  $\supset (q\bar{o}b)$ , 'the same'; but it is much

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> J. arm. 365; Lane, 'Arabic Dictionary,' 1, 179. Fränkel, 284, however, states: "barbat kennen schon die Araber als fremd; sie suchen es allerdings aus dem Persischen zu erklären; βάρβυτον fehlt übrigens in den aramäischen Dialekten." Prellwitz compares βάρδιστος, Aeol. βάρμτος (Etym. Mag., 188, 21).

<sup>2&#</sup>x27; Αβωβάς (Hesych., Etym. Magn.) is used especially in Perga, from the Syriac 'aḇūbo, 'reed pipe,' 'aḇūbo (= ambūb > anbūb, from a verb ココ, nāḇdb), Assyrian ambūbu; Zabian and Maltese amboob. Compare the collegia ambubaiarum of Hor. Sat. I. 2, 1; 賽項.賽. 2, 360; Keller, 125.

<sup>&</sup>quot;The κινύρα seems to have been the same as the Greek λύρα. Κιθάρη is a compound of Persian ciar (four) + tar (side). Weise, on the other hand, combines the Greek with Lat. fides, from an I.-E. root ghidh (Lehnwörter, 288, rem. I, following Fick, BB. 5, 352). — Cf. John Akermark, 'Undersökningar ang'aende כיים och ביים och ב

better to combine it with Greek κύμβος, 'hollow vessel, basin.' To the same category belongs τύμπανον, which Bochart, H. i. 369, 23, and 548, 65; G. 66; Movers; Raumer (II. Fortsetzung, 13); Pusey, Daniel, 516, and others, derive from Hebr. An (tof), Arab. duf, whence Spanish Adufe. Professor Peter Jensen (of Marburg) thought that the prototype of all the Semitic and I.-E. forms was Assyrian tuppu, tuppanu, the m replacing in Greek the second p, and omitted in the form \(\tau\tilde{v}\pi\au\avov\), in order to connect the Pott<sup>2</sup>, V. 129; Siegismund, 'Curt. word with  $\tau \dot{\upsilon} \pi \tau \omega$ . Studien,' 5, 216; Gabler, KZ. 31, 280; Prellwitz, 330, connect it with τύπτω. — Another string instrument, μάγαδις, is derived by \$1. 14; \$1. XXXVIII. from Hebr. בחלת (maxălát), 'the same'; while Hamaker suggested name (maggát), contracted from מנות (manéget), from נון (nāgán, וון 'touch, strike, play'). — Of undoubted Semitic origin is= νάβλας (ναύλας), Lat. nablium and naulium, 'harp' = Hebr-(nébel, i.e. nábl, Aram. nablā). The Semitic was borrowed ultimately from the Egyptian, where we have nf or  $nfr.^5 - \Sigma a\mu β ύκη$ , Lat. sambūca = Aram. κοοο (sabbě $k\bar{a}$ ), σ 'a triangular instrument with four strings.' The Greeks themselves call it a 'Syriac invention' (Juba in Athen. IV. 175, d). — Σύριγξ, Lagarde, 'Orientalia,' 2, 38, explains as a participle of pro (šāráq), 'he whistled,' in its Old-Phoenician form. From σύριγξ the Greeks formed συρίττειν and συρίσδεν. Pusey, Daniel, 91 and 489, believes that Aram. mašrogītā (flute) has probably a common Sanskrit root with σύριγξ, but is a genuine Aramaic word, and M-Derenbourg (Mélanges Graux, 238) considers the Aramean a compromise between the Sem. שרכן and Greek σύριγξ, the

<sup>\*</sup>R. 207; J.R. 265, 25; Schröder, 31. I fail to see why Wharton explain the Hebrew as 'flute.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Brugsch, 'Aegyptologie,' 433; Lit. Centralblatt, 1892 (no. 6), col. 171 = ZDMG, 46, 112.

<sup>6</sup> Movers; H. Derenbourg, Mélanges Graux, 238; J.üb. 124, rem. 2; Pusey — Daniel, 91; KZ. 22, 372. — BB. 1, 297; Ries, 33; Kautzsch, 'Aram. Gram.' 119 — believe that the Aram. is from the Greek; but see Nöldeke in G.G.Anz, 1884 — p. 1022. The Latin sambucina, 'harpist,' i.e. \*sambuci-cina is formed after tibi-cina.

prefix and suffix being Semitic, while  $\tilde{s}r\tilde{o}qi = \sigma \tilde{v}\rho i\gamma \xi^{.7}$  G. 15 declares PW and  $\sigma v\rho i\zeta \epsilon i\nu$  to be onomatopoetic formations. Brugmann ('Curt. Stud.' 4, 156, rem.) claims I.-E. origin for the Greek, =  $\sigma_F \tilde{a}\rho i\gamma \xi$ , from  $\sqrt{svar}$  (cf. svar- $\bar{a}mi$ , 'sono, canto'). See also Joh. Schmidt, 'Indogerm. Vocalismus,' I. 24; Bezzenberger in BB. 13, 299; and Prellwitz, p. 3078.

#### XXI. - MINERALS.

Baûpaξ (Lat. borax) is from the Sem.-Hebr. אברית (bōr), ברית (borit), literally 'a cleansing,' salt of lye or alkali for washing = Pers. bora; the word occurs in Armenian as borak and in Arabic as baurag. The first occurrence of  $\beta \hat{\omega} \rho a \xi$  in Greek literature is in the LXX. translation of Prov. xxv. 20, a, where Lagarde corrects the textus receptus EΛKEI (= ελκει) into  $[B\Omega]PAKEI$ , the first syllable having been omitted by an early scribe. The LXX. ad Jer. ii. 22, translate the Hebrew by νίτρον (natron), which is also of Semitic origin = Hebr. נחר (néter for nitr), R. 206. It is a mineral alkali, a carbonate of soda. Our nitre is nitrate of potasia, salt-petre; the German natron is soda itself. The mineral was found chiefly near Memphis in Egypt, and the Hebrew may be borrowed from the Egyptian ntr, although the latter occurs only in late texts (Brugsch, ZDMG. 46, 113).2 Its use is fully described by Wiedemann in 'Herodot's Zweites Buch,' 357 f.8 In Greek we have two forms, νίτρον (Old Attic) and

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> On the suffix -γξ see A.J.P. XII. 27.

<sup>8</sup> Pusey, Daniel, 516, derives abλόs, 'flute,' from the Sem. אור (ḥālīl) = perforated,' 'pipe or flute.' — There is, of course, no connection between dλαλά (alala), 'loud cry, shout,' and Assyrian alalu, 'singing, shouting,' or δλολύζειν, ululare and ἐλείμ (סלכ), 'play, make noise.' Lat. jubilare, however, is from Hebr. אור (סַּפַבׁוּ), 'a cry of joy, joyful noise.' R. 207.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> J.p. 83; J.z. 21, 6; J.zrm. 410; Lag. 'Symmicta,' II. 34, 13. On the clifference between מור and ווון (אורףסי), see Winer, 'Biblisches Realwörter-buch,' s.v. 'Laugensalz.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Pott<sup>2</sup>, II. 1, 738; J.p. 83; BB. 1, 294.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Cf. also νιτρόω, 'to cleanse with νίτρον'; νιτρίτις (γη), etc. On the change of r to λ (and vice versa), see KZ. 8, 399; 20, 431; 21, 104; 29, 442-3; Cur-

λίτρον (Hdt. 2, 86, and Attic). Grassmann (KZ. 11, 44) derived  $\nu i\tau \rho o\nu$  from  $\nu i\pi \tau \rho o\nu =$  'washwater,' by dropping of  $\pi = \nu i \tau \rho o \nu$ . — "Ηλεκτρον and ήλεκτρος, I) amber, 2) a metallic substance compounded of four parts of gold and one part of silver. According to Lepsius ὁ ἤλεκτρος is = 'gold-silver' (cf. Soph. Antig. 1038); ή ήλεκτρος, 'amber ornament' (Odyss. 15, 460), and τὸ ἤλεκτρον = 'amber,' Hdt. 3, 115 (from Arabic anbar). 'Ο ήλεκτρος (i.e. Egyptian asem, 'ismu = Greek ἄσημος)<sup>4</sup> is combined by Pott<sup>2</sup>, II. 1, 384, with Skt. ā-rakha, 'reddish,' from  $-r\bar{a}\hat{g}$ , 'shine,' with  $\rho$  changed to  $\lambda$  for the sake of dissimilation (also ibid. III. 390; KZ. 21, 425). So also J. Schmidt ('Vocalismus,' II. 297), comparing in addition Arm. arek, 'ray, sunbeam,' and ηλέκτωρ, 'sun.' O. Schrader, 'Waarenkunde,' 84, has ἤλεκτρον for ἤλ-σεκρον = ἐλλεκρον = (Semitic article)  $al + \sigma \epsilon \kappa \rho \rho \nu$  (Scythian sacrum, Plin. 37, 2, 11, after the analogy of sacrum, the neuter of sacer) > Egypt sacal; Lat. sucus (sucinus). O. Weise (Zeitschrift für Völkerpsychologie, XVII. 225), following Hehn, 482, connects the Greek with ηλέκτωρ, ἀλέκτωρ, an epithet of the sun-god. Clemm, 'Curt. Studien,' 2, 58; G. Meyer<sup>2</sup>, § 95 Curtius<sup>5</sup>, 137; Fick<sup>4</sup>, I. 22, and Prellwitz follow Pott-Bochart, H. ii. 869, 48, was the first to propose a Semitic etymology; he says: 'עלוקת אורנא' (lalūgat 'ōrnā) = resin

tius, 450; Pusey, Daniel, 92; G. Meyer, 169; J.H.U.C. 81, p. 76.—Syriac lumā (for \*numa, from. Lat. nummus), ZDMG. 46, 237, no. 37, and many other instances.

<sup>\*</sup> J.üb. 221; Brugsch, 'Aegyptologie,' 400, but not identical with the λευκόs χρυσόs of the Greeks and Romans. On Egyptian asem = dσημοs, see J.π. 51, 15; Lag. 'Baktrische Lexikographie,' 13 f.; 'Symmicta,' II. 4; J.üb. 221; also G.G.Anz. 1879, 237; and again, Schrader<sup>3</sup>, 260; Hehn, 443, note 19, Bradke, 14 ff.; Ed. Meyer, I. § 188. Nöldeke, 'Persische Studien,' II. 45, writes: "Pehlevi D'DK from Greek dσημοs, 'ungemünzt,' das in PD'DK, 'ungeprägtes Silber' der Mischna und Tosesta noch deutlich vorliegt."

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> On sacal, σαχολ, cf. Bochart, H. ii. 869, 20. O. Weise, Rhein. Mus. 38, 543-4, compares sucinus with Sem. Jōham (DTW); also cf. Keller, 66, and Uppenkamp, 29. On the so-called Scythian sacrum, see, however, Valeton in Έλλάs, II. 43; and ibid. p. 44, against Hehn's combination of ἡλεκτρον and ἡλέκτωρ. Gutschmid, 'Kleine Schriften,' I. 55-6, says: 'Fraas discovered amberbeds on the Lebanon, and it is possible that the Phoenicians got the amber from mines in that region.' See further on this subject, Jubainville, 330 ff.

pini (Hebr. אבר pinus), unde fortasse ήλεκτρον pro sucino, quod esse pini resinam crediderint multi veterum, ut ex Plinio et Isidoro constat.' J. Oppert, Journal asiatique, 1857, Vol. IX. 192, rem., writes: " אוֹלקטורא = ארקטורא , attirant la paille"; cf. the Persian kahreban, meaning the same.6 great deal has been written by ancient and modern authors on the amber. According to Hdt. 3, 115, the ήλεκτρον came from the north, the mouth of the mythical river 'Hpidavo's (Hes. Theog. 338). The Greeks generally believed that the mineral came from certain Ἡλεκτρίδες νήσοι in the Adriatic gulf (see Valeton, Έλλάς, II. 40). Therefore Weise believes that 'Ηριδανός was the Sem. [iardēn], an old name for the river Po (Rhein. Mus. 38, 545); but see Kiepert, 219, note 1. Professor Jules Oppert (L'ambre jaune chez les Assyriens, Paris, 1880) considers 'Hpidavós to be the Vistula (Weichsel), and suggests the coast of the East Prussian sea as the locality whence amber was brought to the south by the Phoenicians and by the Assyrians. He is of the opinion that Assyrian caravans penetrated as far as the Baltic coasts, where they fished amber in the sea. He reaches this conclusion by a unique reading of I. Rawlinson, 28, col. 1, lines 13-15, containing the so-called hunting inscription of the Assyrian king Assur-naçīr-pal (885-860 B.C.). Oppert reads these lines as follows: ina tamāt kuççi xalpi-e-su dal-pi ina tamāt nipix kakkab sukunu kar-ku-ma eri içūdu = 'In stormy seas (i.e. the Persian gulf) merchants fished for pearls, in the seas of the culmination of the star Cynosura they fished for yellow copper' (i.e. amber); this latter part referring to the Baltic. The now universally accepted reading of these lines: ina umāt quççi xalpē šuripi ina umāt nipix kakkab mešrī ša kima eri içūdu = 'In the days of cold, snow, and hail, in the days of the rising of the Mešrī-star, which glows like as copper,' etc., proves Oppert's opinion to be a mere hypothe-Müllenhoff, I. 473, changed the Guttones mentioned by Pytheas in his account, preserved in Plin. H. N. 37, 3, 44, into Teutones. He is followed by Lohmeyer in his essay:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> See also Helbig, 15: "Der Bernsteinhandel war in den Händen der Phoenizier," and Ries, 25. On the other hand compare Valeton, Έλλάs, II. 29 f.

'Ist Preussen das Bernsteinland der Alten gewesen?' Königsberg, 1872; while Oppert opposes this change, because the Teutones are mentioned only a few lines below. D'Arbois de Jubainville, Revue celtique, XII. 13 f., also reads Gutones in both passages, but changes the 'Germaniae gens' into 'Scythiae gens.' Kothe, Fleckeisen's Jahrbücher, 1890, Vol. 141, 184-6, explains Guttones as the Γαῦται in Swedish Gothland. The locality, he says, where amber was discovered is not, as Müllenhoff believed, to be sought on the west coast of the peninsula of Jutland, but on the coast of the East Prussian sea (Samland, Tac. Germ. 45), whence amber was brought by ship by way of Abalus (Falster) of Pytheas, the Basileia of Timaeus (died about 256 B.C.), and Baunonia (Bornholm; so for Raunonia) to Holstein, and thence to Massilia, or by land to the mouth of the Po. This also explains why the Padus-Po was identified with the Eridanus (see Valeton, l.c. II. 27 ff.). Müllenhoff's change of Guttones to Teutones is supported by Olshausen in a paper, 'Der alte Bernsteinhandel der cimbrischen Halbinsel und seine Beziehungen zu den Goldfunden' (Verhandlungen der Berliner Gesellschaft für Anthropologie, 19 April, 1890, pp. 270-297, and 21 Feb. 1891, pp. 286-319). He believes that in earlier times (Herodotus, etc.) amber was imported from West Balticum, the mouth of the Albis (Elbe) or the Viadua (Oder), Jutland and Sweden; and that in the days of Tacitus the trade had shifted over to East Balticum (West and East Prussia). Virchow and Olshausen believe that the 'Holdavis is the Albis. The few specimens of ancient amber found in the East prove that the mineral did not play an important role in the Orient. — Another noun usually derived from the Assyro-Akkadian is κασσίτερος (καττίτερος, Lat. cassiteron. cassiterum) = tin.<sup>7</sup> O. Schrader in his various books derive the Greek from an Assyrian kasazatirra = Akkadian ik -KASDURU, and refers to Lenormant as his guide. Speaking of anaku (718), Lenormant says in the Transactions of the Soc. of Bibl. Archaeol. VI. 337: "Une glosse de II. Rawlinson, 7, 17, g donne comme synonyme accadien de an-na le

<sup>7</sup> On the Homeric use see Helbig, 196-7; on the later use, ibid. 226, 282, 305-

nom IT-KAS (BI)-DU-RU dans la seconde partie du quel, comme dans le kazazatirra, relevé par M. Oppert dans un texte assyrien et dans l'arabe gazdīr (קודיר) nous retrouvons le kastīra (sanscrit), le κασσίτερος (grec), qui ne sont probablement pas d'origine aryenne mais plutôt caucasienne."8 Lenormant refers to the gloss of II. Rawlinson, 7, 17, g-h, but here the Akkadian clearly reads NA-AG-GA (cf. Zeitschrift für Assyriologie, I. 14 = anaku), and the parallel text in V. Rawlinson, 39, 19, g-h, has NI-IG-GI = a-na-ku. shows that it is not always safe for non-assyriologists to rely on Lenormant's statements. The Skt. kastīra has no clear etymology; it is a late word and foreign to that language. 10 Jubainville, Mém. 3, 343, derives the Greek and the Sanskrit from the Sem. kastir (Aram. אמטירא, gastirā). Movers suggested that the Sanskrit was probably borrowed from the Greek, through the mediation of the Aramean. believed that tin was imported by the Phoenicians not only to Assyria (as Rawlinson thinks), but also to India, where the mineral was very scarce. 11 R. 299; Schlegel, Benfey, and Lassen, 'Indische Alterthumskunde<sup>2</sup>,' I. 281, state that the mineral is also called in Sanskrit yavaneshti, i.e. 'desired by the Western nations' (people of Javan, 'Iáoves). Sayce, on Hdt. 3, 115, writes: 'The word has been borrowed both by the Aryan and Semitic nations.' Some believe that the name, together with the metal, was imported from Farther India or the Indian Archipelago. The different names of this metal among the principal I.-E. nations seem to show that their ancestors did not yet know it. Slav. kositerü (masc.), 'tin,' is borrowed from the Greek-Latin. Windisch, in Curtius<sup>5</sup>, 665, rem., combines the Greek with Skt. kainsás, kāinsya, kāmsyam, "Messing, metallenes Gefäss, messingen," 12 while Pott<sup>2</sup>, II. 4, 355, derives it from Skt. kāçate, pf. cakāçe,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Ries, 22 ff., quotes Lenormant incorrectly.

<sup>9</sup> Also F.arm. 103.

<sup>10</sup> Cf. Germain Bapst, 'Études sur l'étain dans l'antiquité.' H. Kern ('Ελλάς, II. 85) believes the Sanskrit to be borrowed from the Greek.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> See also Gutschmid, 'Kleine Schriften,' II. 5; and Ascoli, 'Kritische Studien,' 373-4, note.

<sup>12</sup> Cf. also KZ. 29, 336.

'be visible, shine.' Roth and Böhtlingk believed the Skt. kastīra to be borrowed, but whence they do not say, and the Greek they consider a corruption from κατα σίδηρος =  $\sqrt{kds} + \sigma i\delta \eta \rho o s$ . The Latin word stagnum (stannum) is from the root  $stak(?) = \tau a \kappa (\tau \eta \kappa \omega)$ , 'to melt,' because tin was the metal which could easiest be melted. 18 Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 315, compares √stagh, whence Greek σταφ-ύλη, 'the plummet of a level.' — Μέταλλον, 'metal,' is derived by many scholars from the Greek μεταλλάω, 'to seek, dig for, look for,' 14 while others combine it with Sem.-Arab. ממל (máṭala, 'to forge').15 But there are two grave objections against the Semitic etymology of the Greek, viz.: 1) the stem occurs only in Arabic, and 2) to in early Greek is transcribed by  $\theta$  and not by  $\tau$ . Of course,  $\mu \dot{\epsilon} \tau a \lambda \lambda o \nu$  for  $\mu \dot{\epsilon} \theta a \lambda \lambda o \nu$  might be the result of popular analogy; but I do not believe it. I rather think that the Arabic is borrowed from the Greek, if one language must be the borrower. On the relation between μέταλλον and μεταλλάω see especially Kvičala, 'Berichte der phil.-histor. Klasse der Wiener Academie,' 1870, p. 89, rem. 3. — Μόλυβδος (plumbum) = Hebr. (bědīl, lead-alloy, plumbum nigrum, i.e. stannum), which is separated by smelting; R. 206; J. Oppert, Journal asiatique,

<sup>18</sup> O. Keller, Bursian's Jahresbericht, XLI. 370, and Berliner Philol. Wochenschrift, 1885, 31 Jan., no. 5, 146–9. On κασσίτεροs see also Meltzer, I. 422. On the Κασσιτερίδεs compare especially Gutschmid, 'Kleine Schriften,' II. 55, note 2 = 'Scilly islands'; and Unger, Rhein Mus. 38, 157–96, who holds that Κασσιτερίδεs and 'Αλβίων have properly nothing to do with the British Islands or any islands in British waters, but rather belong to islands much nearer Spain; so also Götz, 'Die Verkehrswege im Dienste des Welthandels' (1888), p. 108; cf., however, Kiepert, 281. S. Reinach (L'étain celtique in L'Anthropologie, 3, 274, and Bab. and Or. Record, VI. 132 ff.), says: 'Les tles Cassitérides sont les fles britanniques et désignent les fles lointaines insulae extimae; κασσίτερος est un mot d'origine celtique' (so also Hdt. 3, 115). Reinach derives κασσίτερος from Κασσιτερίδεs.

<sup>14</sup> Pott<sup>2</sup>, I. 754, rem.; H. L. Fleischer in Levy's 'Neuhebräisches Wörterbuch," III. 309 b; Fick, BB. 1, 335; Weise, BB. 5, 191, and Lehnwörter, 165, rem. 1; also Müller, BB. 1, 203; Büchsenschütz in 'Zeitschrift für das Gymnasialwesen," 1876, 248; Fick<sup>4</sup>, I. 512; Prellwitz = "Suchstelle" (Mine, Bergwerk); cf. Lettmeklet (kl for tl) = 'seek, examine' (BB. 9, 134).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup> Gesenius, 'Thesaurus,' followed by Lenormant-Renan; J. Oppert, *Yournal* asiatique, 1857, IX. 191; Hehn, 443; Keller, 191 f.

1857, IX. 191-2, "un participle de la racine בלבד = coaguler. être adhérent"; and Geo. Hoffmann (Stade's Zeitschrift für die Alttestamentlische Wissenschaft, 1883, p. 118) writes "בריל" μόλυβδος, μόλιβος, plumb-, haben denselben (iberischen) Ursprung."16 Renan, also, suggests a connection between μόλυβδος and plumbum, in which he is followed by Weise, Lehnwörter, 153, rem. 1; while G. Meyer<sup>2</sup>, 61, cautiously . remarks, "μόλυβος ist sowohl in seiner Herkunft wie in seinem Verhältnis zu lat. plumbum vollständig dunkel." Schrader's view is given above (chapter IV. s.v.  $\pi\lambda$ ίνθος). Pott, KZ. 26, 141, adds to plumbum M.H.G. b/l, gen. bliwes, and Möhl 17 connects the Greek with Prussian alwis (lead); Lith. alwas (tin) from Ostyakian lolpa. — Johansson, KZ. 30, 424, believes that  $\nu \dot{\alpha} \phi \theta a$  is a loan-word in Greek, without being able to say whence. Compare Persian naft, Arab. naft (X. arm. 1602), 18 which, according to Spiegel, are derived from the Zend √nap, 'be moist.'— Keller, 192 and 252, derives Lat. massa, Gr. μάζα, 'mass, lump,' from the Hebr. māsás (DDD), 'smelt, dissolve.' 19—The same writer combines ὀρύγη, ὀρυχή, Lat. arrugia, 'a digging, shaft,' with Hebr. לרונה ('arūgāh), 'a garden-bed, border-bed,' so called from the earth being raised.20 I fail to see how a noun, meaning garden-bed in one language, can be borrowed by another nation to designate 'a shaft.' — Σμύρις (σμίρις, Lat. smyris), 'emery-powder,' used by lapidaries for polishing (Diosc.) = Hebr. שמיר (šāmīr, ščmīr), diamond (literally 'thorn, point, diamond-point'), Bochart; G. 66; Lenormant, 327.21 — Χαλκός, 'copper,' is derived by J. Oppert from Hebr. חלק (xāláq), 'be smooth,' and χάλυψ, 'steel,' from

<sup>16</sup> See also Ries, 25.

<sup>17</sup> Mém. 7, 410-11; 434, rem. 1; also ef. M. Bréal, ibid. 6, 132 and 266.

<sup>18</sup> Also Lagarde, 'Aus dem deutschen Gelehrtenleben,' 9; E. Wilhelm, BB. ₹2, 104-6.

<sup>19</sup> The words evidently belong to the I.-E. √mag; μdζα for μάγγια. Cf. Church-Slav. maka, flour (G. Meyer², 47 and 197), and Old-Slav. mazati, 'smear,' KZ. 30, 407 and 417; also ibid. 29, 332, rem.

<sup>20</sup> From a verb JU (II.) intr. 'rise, ascend' (of steps, garden beds).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>21</sup> Cf. Assyr. Jemiru. It is better, however, to combine the Greek with Goth. smaipr (n.), 'fat,' etc.

הלב (hāláb), 'be shining.' Both nouns, however, appear to be of I.-E. origin. — Χρῦσός, 'gold' = Hebr. Της (xārūς, Assyr. xurāçu), 'the same'; also Phoen. פרת (ZDMG. 30, 137): R. 206. Some of the best scholars have contended for an I.-E. etymology of χρυσός. Thus Curtius, 204, derives it from  $\sqrt{\chi \rho \iota}$ , comparing Skt. chari, 'green, yellow'; Vaniček from √ghar, 'glow, desire'; also see Delbrück, 'Curtius Studien,' 1, b, 136; Siegismund, ibid. 5, 180; Weise, Zeitschrift für Völkerpsychologie, 17, 226. I. 418, refers the Greek to an I.-E.  $\sqrt{ghreudo}$  = 'to pound, crush';  $\chi \rho \nu \sigma \delta s = \chi \rho \nu \delta - \sigma \delta s = \text{Lat. rūdus, } \rho l. \text{ rūdera; rudis;}$ A.-S. griot, O.H.G. crioz, N.H.G. griess. Möhl, Mém. 7, 408: χρυσός for \*χρυτίος = Goth. gulps. J. Schmidt,28 too, speaks against the identification of χρυσός and γιτη; and last, but not least, F. Max Müller throws the great weight of his authority in favor of an I.-E. etymon in his 'Biographies of Words': 'Against χρυσός from xārūç is this to be said, that xārūç in Hebrew is only a poetic name for gold, the ordinary name being zahāb. As to xurāçu, I cannot tell whether it is a common name; 24 but whatever it be, why should the Greeks have rendered the sound of xārūç or xurāçu by χρυσός? we might as well identify Semitic xarūdu with gāruda, a name for gold in Sanskrit. Χρυσός is an Aryan word, and meant the yellow metal, and I do not think the similarity in sound, such as it is, between the Aryan word χρυσός and the Semitic xārūç at all surprising.' On the other hand, there can be cited many authorities who

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>22</sup> Journal asiatique, 1857, Vol. IX. 192. — For χαλκός compare Lith. geleži-s (iron); Old-Slav. želėzo (iron). — Brugmann, 'Curt. Stud.' 3, 311, refers the word to the I.-E. Vghar, 'shine, glow'; Prellwitz, BB. 15, 148, to Vghel-gh = Greek θελχ-τελχ, whence Τελχίνες, 'workers in metal.' See also A.J.P. III. 336; Bradke, 82; Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 280-7; Ries, 18 f.; Prellwitz, 354. — Χάλυψ is usually derived from the name of the Chalybes, famous for forging; Kiepert, 62; Bradke, 38; G. Meyer in I.F. I. 323.

<sup>28 &#</sup>x27;Urheimat der Indogermanen,' p. 8, in his criticism of Hommel's peculiarview, stated above in the introductory remarks (p. 44). In his 'Vocalismus,' II. 340 (1874), Schmidt wrote: "χρυσός kann aus \*χρυτιος entstanden seira und gehört dann zu got. gulþ, russ. zoloto, lett. fe'lts, skt. hāṭaka; kann aber auch semitischen Ursprungs sein, Hebr. "חרון"."

<sup>24</sup> It is the main word for gold in Assyrian.

rive the Greek from the Semitic. Beginning with Bochart, . i. 9, 61, we mention Renan, J. Oppert, Lagarde, Hehn 43), Benfey, Pott2 (I. 1, 141), Nöldeke (ZDMG. 33, 327, m. 1); A. Müller (BB. 1, 280, 299); Schrader<sup>1</sup>, 280, 299, and cond edition, 250-1, 263; Bradke, 3, 28, 72-7; Ries, 15 ff. am inclined to believe that χρυσός is borrowed from the emitic.25 The Greek stands almost alone among the I.-E. nguages, showing this word in the meaning of 'gold.' This ould prove that the metal was not common in the Protoryan period. We know that gold is not often mentioned early Greek as a metal (mineral), but rather as the aterial of which cups, vessels, ornaments, etc., were made, nich, to a great extent, were imported to Greece by e Phoenicians. Again, the fact that Mycenae is called λύχρυσος, points to a Semitic source of the metal's name, r Mycenae was undoubtedly a Semitic (Phoenician) settle-The Greek form may have originated in Cyprus ent. ee ZDMG. 30, 137), where the Assyrians had early settleents, bringing with them their usual word for the precious etal.28 Speaking of metals, I call attention here to P. adke's derivation of σίδηρος from the name of the city  $\delta_{\eta}$  (Σιδήνη) in the Pontus in the northern part of Asia inor. There was iron-ore in the immediate neighborhood. at the Greeks must have borrowed the word at a very rly period. This etymology is much better than the usual

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>25</sup> On γλουρός see Schmidt, 'Orient und Occident,' III. 383; **3**.arm. 497; adke, 73.

<sup>28</sup> Concerning χρυσός ἀπυρος, E. Glaser, in his interesting sketch of the history d geography of Arabia (Berlin, 1890), remarks on p. 377, 'that the name Ophir 1 'gold from Ophir') has nothing to do with the Maxritic a'fur (red, aurum tilum), because the latter was pronounced with 'Ain (V); Sprenger's identification of Ophir = ἀπυρος, denoting properly the color, not the place where the 18 st valued gold was found, has to be given up.' Sprenger maintains his view at χρυσός ἀπυρος (aurum apyron) is red gold (cf. Pliny's statement on 'dyed old'). It was a very costly species of reddish hue. The Hebrews misunder19 cod the word and took it for a proper name (ZDMG. 44, 501-20); ibid. 721-6. Laser contends for Ophir as a geographical name. On Ophir compare also

18 Ewald's remarks in G.G.Nachr. 1874, 421-37. On K. von Baer's Ophir = Islacca, see Gutschmid, 'Kleine Schriften,' II. 63, rem. 5, and ibid. p. 5, on assen's explanation of the word as = Abhīra on the lower Indus.

derivation, repeated also by Ries, 21 f.; it must have escaped S. Reinach, who in Bab. and Or. Record, VI. 132, writes: 'It seems probable that some day or other we shall add the Greek name for iron σίδηρος, by connecting it with some Anatolian town such as Σιδαρούς in Lycia, which possessed a temple of Hephaistos. — The Latin 'ferrum' (from \*fer-sum) is connected by F. Hommel 27 with Hebr. barzel (ברול, Assyrian barzillu), from Sumerian bargal, through Neo-Sumerian barjal. Hommel's view is accepted by Weise, Lehnwörter, 153, rem. 2, and O. Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 300; but Hebr. barzel is rather from the Egyptian pirdl (Lit. Centralblatt, 1892, no. 6, col. 171). Jubainville, 196, also derives 'ferrum' from the Phoenician, while Möhl, Mém. 7. 408-9, connects it with the Samoyedic word for iron; ferrum for \*fesrom. — Greek-Latin apyupos-argentum is derived by all scholars from the I.-E. \(\sigma raj, '\) shine'; cf. Skt. \(rajata \) In Assyrian we have carpu (silver),25 (Prellwitz, 30), etc. from which Hommel and Bradke (p. 16) derive the word 'silver-silber'; see, however, Joh. Schmidt, 'Urheimath,' p. 9-Hehn, 443, connects the word with the Homeric 'Αλύβη in. the Pontus (for Halybē, and this for Salybē?) οθεν ἀργύρου έστὶ γενέθλη Il. 2, 357). So also S. Reinach, in Bab. and Or. Record, VI. 132.29

#### XXII. - PRECIOUS STONES.

'Αλάβαστρος (ἀλάβαστρον, Lat. alabaster and alabastrum)—
'alabaster,' is properly an adjective derived from ἀλάβαστρα—

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>27</sup> Augsburger allgemeine Zeitung, 1881, no. 231 (Wissenschaftliche Beilage) = ZDMG. 44, 341, rem.

<sup>28</sup> From çarāpu, 'shine, be brilliant'; properly the shining (metal).

<sup>29</sup> Στιμμε ή els τὰ διματα χρήσιμος Αίγυπτίων μέν ἐστι φωνή (Eustath. ac. Od. ξ 92, p. 1761) = 'Antimony'; also στίμμι and στίμι, Lat. stimmi, stibium - 'sesqui-sulphurat of antimony,' whence a dark pigment was made with whick women especially in the East stained their eyelids (Diosc. 5, 99). The Greek i from the Coptic στημ, and this from the Egypt. ms-dm-t; Brugsch, 'Aegyptologie.' 405; Lieblein, p. 70; Blau, ZDMG. 25, 332, rem. 2; BB. 8, 62. According to Schumann, p. 5, b, it was imported from the land of Punt. —'Αρσενικόν, 'a yellow orpiment,' is derived by \$x. 41, no. 106; \$x. 47, 20; \$x. 107, from Arabic sarniq, Syriac [7]"; this from Persian zarni = Arm. sarik = orpiment.

which stands for Arabic al-baçrat (= stone of Baçra), a soft stone of whitish color (Hdt. 3, 20); furthermore a casket, a salve-box made of alabaster, especially for unguents.<sup>1</sup> form ἀλάβαστος (quoted as Attic) is evidently assimilated to the Greek  $\partial \Delta \phi \dot{\phi}_{S}^{2}$ —' $\Delta \mu \dot{\epsilon} \theta \nu \sigma \tau \sigma_{S}$  ( $\dot{\phi}$ ) and  $\partial \mu \dot{\epsilon} \theta \nu \sigma \sigma \nu$  ( $\tau \dot{\phi}$ ) is derived by Saalfeld, Prellwitz, and others from à (priv.) +  $\mu\epsilon\theta\dot{\nu}\omega$  = 'preventing drunkenness,' a power which the stone is supposed to have had. But Ing. II. 1, 236, gives the correct etymology from Arabic [jamsitun]. — Iaσπις is admitted by all to be from the Sem. ישפה (iٍāšēféh), G. 66; R. 206.—"Ovuž in the meaning of 'a gem, onyx-stone,' may be connected with the Assyrian unqu (ענק), 'ring,' the סיט , 'ring,' the being the gem used for such rings. O. Weise, Lenhwörter, 159, connects it with Egypt. anak. The Greek would be formed analogous to  $\delta \nu \nu \xi = \text{unguis}$ , 'claw, nail.' See, further, In ὄνυξ = Eth. 'unq Praetorius in Delitzsch and Haupt's Beiträge zur Assyriologie, I., and also Hommel, ZDMG. 47, 20. 3, p. 567. — Σάπφειρος is from Hebr. sappīr (המביר), and this from the Skt. canipriya, 'amatus a Saturno planeta,'8 R. 206; \$1.7. 48, 176; \$1.7. X. rem. 2. The Skt. marakata was borrowed independently by the Greeks as μάραγδος, which, influenced by σμάω, begot the by-form σμάραγδος (ζμάραγδος), Lat. smaragdus, and by the Semites (Hebrews), who wrote bārěkát for mārěkát, from analogy to Sem. ברק (bāráq), 'shine, glitter.' J. Oppert, Journal asiatique, 1851, Vol. I.

<sup>1</sup> F. arm. 1699; F. "b. 56, rem. 2; Lag. 'Symmicta,' II. 216; Blau, ZDMG. 25, 528. 'Αλάβαστρος is the same stone as Hebr. 3ε̄3 (WV), Persian 3i3a, Arm. 3i3, F. a. 83, 21.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> According to Prellwitz, the Greek is a compound of  $d(priv.) + \lambda \alpha \beta \eta$  ('handle'); de Saussure, Mém. 3, 208, says: 'perhaps from  $\sqrt{d}\lambda \phi$ , if indeed it is a Greek word at all.' According to Juba (apud Pliny, H. N. 37, 73), alabastrites is the Egyptian name of the stone, but this word is from the Greek.

<sup>8</sup> Cf. Aram. samfir, Syr. sappīlā. On the Armenian see ZDMG. 46, 246, no. 87; §.m. 3, 27; 44, 5; 72; §.mm. 786 and 1690; §.m. M. I. 231; §.mb. 90, rem. 1. On Greek  $\pi \phi$  for double D (with dagesh forte), see e.g. ZDMG. 32, 746. 4 §.t. X. rem. 2; Curtius<sup>5</sup>, 526; BB. I, 280-1; 7, 171; KZ. 30, 85 and 440. Against Keller, 192, and KZ. 29, 440, see my remarks in A.J.P. XIII. 234.— There are scholars who have explained  $\sigma \mu d\rho \alpha \gamma \delta \sigma$  as from Skt. sa  $(=\delta)+$  marakata. The interchange between  $\mu$  and  $\sigma \mu$  is very common in Greek;  $\sigma \mu d\rho \alpha \gamma \delta \sigma$  returned to the Aramean as TIDM, and passed thence also into Arabic (Fränkel, 61, and especially Nöldeke, 'Persische Studien,' II. 44).

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292, rem. 1, derived ζμάραγδος from the Old-Persian zmarakhta or zmaragda, 'having a greenish color.' — From the Sanskrit is also borrowed βήρυλλος, 'Beryll' = Skt. vāidūrya = vidura oriundus, 'the Vidurian stone.' The Aram. billōr (בלוד) is borrowed from the Greek.<sup>5</sup> — On 'nympharena' = a precious stone, gem (Pliny, 37, 10), Bochart, H. ii. 762, 22, says: 'Nympharena (lapis) urbis et gentis Persicae nomen habet, similis hippopotami dentibus. בין (nīt) vel יון (nīt) Chaldaeis erat dens exertus hippopotami, et Ariene vel Ariana gens Persica, a qua lapis ille niph-ariene dici potuit.' — Late-Greek θαρσίς, 'a precious stone,' is from the Hebr. עוברינון (taršīš), Armen. taršīš (ZDMG. 46, 237, no. 34).

#### XXIII. — MILITARY.

The most important words belonging to this class are λόγχη, μάχαιρα, ξίφος, and διστός. Λόγχη has been identified with Hebr. ロロコ (rōmax, Pre-Semitic \*rumux, Assyr. ri-im-xu, V. Rawlinson, 22, 75), by Bochart, Ph. 670; 3.g. VIII.; 3.ub-144; Jug. J. 1, 384. Schrader2, 329, is inclined to follow Lagarde, but thinks that the Greek could also be of I.-E.origin, λόγχη ('longa'), 'the long one,' i.e. μελίη (spear) -Weise, Lehnwörter, 82, says: 'Lancea, whence λόγχη, is from the northern nations (Gauls and Britons).' But the Latin lancea, whence Slav. lacta, 'spear,' is not an old word and can hardly be connected with λόγχη (Fick<sup>4</sup>, I. 532). The Old-Irish laigen (spear) mentioned by Windisch, 'Curtiuss-Studien,' 7, 379, forbids, once for all, a combination of λόγγγ XXXVII.; R. 207. The Hebrew occurs only in Gen. 49, 5 -The translation by Talmud and Jerome of מברה as 'sword rests on a wrong statement in the Midrash. According to others the Hebrew means 'machination, plan, cunning device." At any rate, it is not safe to derive Greek µáyaipa from a

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> F.t. X. rem. 2; F.n. 22, 5, no. 48; F.nrm. 396; Pott in ZDMG. 4, 274; A. Müller, BB. 1, 280.

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ἄπαξ λεγόμενον of disputed meaning (cf. ZDMG. 40, 731, rem. 1). M. Harkavay 1 considers the Hebrew as borrowed from the Egyptian  $\mu a \chi \epsilon \rho$ ,  $\mu a \chi \epsilon \rho a = \text{magazine.}^2 - \Xi i \phi \circ \varsigma$ , 'sword' = Aram. **XD'D** (saifan = saipan), 'the same.' So H. L. Fleischer in Levy's 'Chald. Wörterbuch,' II. 570, b; Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 329-30; Pott<sup>2</sup>, II. 369; F. Müller in Kuhn's Beiträge, II. 491; Savelsberg, KZ. 16, 7. The Semitic noun, again, is borrowed from the Egyptian sēfēt, 'sword,' from a verb sft, 'to slaughter,' ZDMG. 46, 119 ("Das sem. Wort ist entlehnt und zwar nicht vor dem neuen Reich, da es das auslautende t schon nicht mehr hat"). The majority of scholars, however, derive the word from an I.-E. root. So Pauli, KZ. 18, 11, from \skip, 'to split'; Brugmann, 'Curtius Studien,' 5, 231, √σκα, 'to hurt' (whence στνομαι, 'to harm'). Also compare Weise, Lehnwörter, 322, rem. 6; G. Meyer2, 249; Uppenkamp, 9. Wharton combines ξίφος with σκάπτω, and P. Kretschmer, KZ. 31, 414 and 438, with Skt. cas-t, cas-a-ti, 'he cuts, Slaughters,' çăs-tram, 'knife.' Prellwitz compares κεάζω. — 'Οιστός, 'arrow' = γΠ (ḥēς), Assyr. uccu, Jag.W. 1, 384; 2, 356. This etymology, like the preceding, is rather hazardous, and the usual I.-E. derivation is to be preferred.8—Some mouns of minor importance are κυρβασία, 'helmet,' Hdt. 7, הבלא = אלים (karþĕlā), from Assyrian karbaltu for karbaštu.⁴— Μαγγλάβιον (μαγκλάβιον), 'an instrument for punishment, rod, whip,' from Aramean מנלבא (maglěbā), 'the same.' 5— 

<sup>1</sup> Journal asiatique, 1870, March-April, 175.

On μάχαιρα see Pott², III. 1003; Ascoli, KZ. 17, 333; Kluge, ibid. 26, 91;
 Müller, BB. 1, 292, and W. Stokes, ibid. 18, 64, who quotes Irish machtaim,
 I slaughter,' as cognate with Greek μάχαιρα. Prellwitz, 193; Prof. Sayce says:

Possibly měķērōį in the Blessing of Jacob is another loan-word from the Greek, the Greek original being μάχωρα' (London, Academy, 22 October, 1892, p. 366).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See Pott<sup>2</sup>, II. 1, 417 f.; Neue Jahrbücher für Philologie, 1888, 512; Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 328; Fröhde, BB. 17, 305, connects it with √sidh.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Oppert, 'Mélanges Perses,' 17; Bötticher, 'Arica,' 20. Wiener Zeitschrist für die Kunde des Morgenlandes, IV. 127, rem. 2, prints: 'The Assyrian is from the Aramean'; in Beiträge zur Assyriologie und vergleichenden Semitischen Sprachwissenschast, I. 535, the Assyrian is translated by 'warrior's coat' ("Kriegsmantel").

From 5, Levy, 'Chald. Wörterbuch,' II. 567.

(safsīrā) = Persian šimsīr.6 — Νίγλα· τρόπαια παρὰ Πέρσαις (Hesych.) is perhaps a mistake for δίγλα, and to be connected with Assyrian diglu, 'banner, trophy,' from dagālu. — Parma (πάρμη), 'a small, round shield,' is derived by Bochart, Ph. 741-2, from Sem. [] (pārám); i.e. 'ab incidendo dictum est; Romanorum ancile.' — 'Ακινάκης (Lat. acīnacis) and κινάκη (Soph. frg. 899, D; Hdt. 7, 54, Περσικὸν ξίφος τὸν ἀκινάκην καλέουσι), may be connected with Assyrian kakku, 'weapon,' which P. Jensen derives from a verb kanaku. — Metellus, 'a mercenary, hired soldier,' is combined by Keller, 114-5, with אור (tālál), 'to protect' (?); cf. Neh. iii. 15 (= Heb. אור (tālál), 'to protect' (?); cf. Neh. iii. 15 (maççīl), participle of the Hif!īl of אור (nāçál) = 'protecting, protectors.' 7

#### XXIV. - WINE, ETC.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> S.r. 48, 177; F.z. 72-3; F.zrm. 1677, 1697, and 2030. According to ZDMG. 46, 250, no. 111, the Syriac is from the Greek, and the Greek from the Persian. On  $\Sigma 4\mu\psi c.\rho\alpha$  see F. Hitzig, Rhein. Mus. 8, 599.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> The following words from the Egyptian may be mentioned:  $d\sigma\mu d\chi$  (Hdt. 2, 30), 'standing on the left side of the king' (soldier). Wiedemann reads  $d\sigma\chi d\mu$ ; meaning unknown; see, however, Brugsch, 'Aegyptologie,' 221.—Two other words for Egyptian soldiers are said to be 'Ερμοτύβιες (Hdt. 2, 164; 9, 32); but no such word has yet been found in Egyptian; and καλάσιρις, for which compare above chapter IV. p. 76.

¹ According to Koch, 'Bäume und Sträucher³,' 246, άμπελος is a primitive ('uraltes') Greek word. Many I.-E. etymologies have been proposed, e.g. by Pott³, I. 579, and KZ. 6, 276 =  $d\mu\phi l$  (or  $d\nu d$ ) +  $\pi\ell\lambda\omega\mu\alpha$ ; Sonne, ibid. 12, 365, rem. I =  $d\nu d$  +  $\pi\ell\lambda\omega$ ; Liddell & Scott =  $d\mu\pi l$  (Aeol. for  $d\mu\phi l$ ) +  $\forall\epsilon\lambda$  ( $\ell\lambda l\sigma\sigma\omega$ , etc.). Angermann, Philologus, 48, 428, connects it with  $d\pi\tau\omega$ ,  $\forall\alpha\rho$ , 'to reach.' Bradke, 274 =  $d\gamma\kappa\nu\lambda\sigma$ , Germ. 'Anger'; cf. also Johansson, KZ. 30, 433 f., and Fröhde, BB. 14, 97; while Bugge, KZ. 20, 80, says ' $d\mu\pi\epsilon\lambda\sigma$ , vine, is connected with Lat. pampinus, for  $\pi d\mu\pi\epsilon\lambda\sigma$ . The initial  $\pi$  was dropped for the sake of dissimilation, as in  $l\pi\tau\alpha\mu\alpha\iota$  for  $\pi l\pi\tau\alpha\mu\alpha\iota$ ,  $\ell\psi\omega$  for  $\pi\ell\psi\omega$ .'

bōsēr (המב), properly δμφακες, 'unripe grapes'; \$.g. VIII.; **Tag. 31.** 2, 356. But **D** is never =  $\tau$  (BB. 1, 287).  $^2$  —  $\Gamma i \gamma a \rho \tau o \nu$ (olvos), 'grape-stone,' in the plur. also grapes, is connected with Aram. gargar (or gigartā = אור , 'kernel, stone.' Compare also Γίγαρτον, name of a Phoenician town, at the foot of Mount Libanus. Wine was brought to Greece by the Phoenicians.8 — Κάροινον (also καρύινον and κάρυνον), 'sweet wine,' Lat. carenum and caroenum, is from the Assyr. karanu, Aram. gĕrēnā (אָרוֹלָא).4— Νέκταρ, 'nectar,' is correctly explained by Movers, II. 3, 104, rem. 2, as jain ziqṭār ("ן נקטר), 'smoked wine or spiced wine' (murrhinum). Wine was smoked in the Orient (Arist. Meteorolog. 4, 10, 5; Ps. cxix. 83), and Galenus describes a smoke-room in which wine stood bottled in jars. I.-E. etymologies have been suggested by Fick, BB. 1, 62 (cf., however, Fick4, I. 575); Neue Jahrbücher für Philologie, 'Suppl. Band,' 8, 295; Bugge, 'Curtius Studien,' 4, 337; G. Meyer2, 246 (p. 325). Prellwitz proposes \*nec ('death,' cf. Lat. necem, Greek νέκυς) + tar (overcoming), thus = 'wine which overcometh death'! The Semitic etymology seems to be beyond doubt the correct one.<sup>5</sup> —  $\sum i \kappa \epsilon \rho a$  (for  $\sigma i \kappa a \rho a$ , which was considered a dialect-word),6 'intoxicating drink' = \\T \textstyr (\text{sekar}, Assyr. šikaru and šikru), Jag. M. 2, 357, and 3, 47. J. Olshausen,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> I.-E. etymologies are given in KZ. 1, 191, and BB. 7, 79; Bezzenberger, *ibid.* 2, 190, against whom see Fröhde, *ibid.* 10, 295-6. Fick<sup>4</sup>, I. 100, connects  $\beta b\tau \rho \nu s$  with the  $\sqrt{get}$ , 'to bind'; comparing Lat. botulus, 'sausage.' On Latin botronatum see Weise, *Lehnwörter*, p. 36. Bezzenberger's combination of  $\beta b\sigma \tau \rho \nu \chi o s$ , 'hair-lock, curls,' with  $\beta b\tau \rho \nu s$  seems to me very plausible. See below, s. $\nu$ ,  $\chi a t \tau \eta$ , p. 148 f.

<sup>\*</sup> Fleischer in Levy's 'Neuhebräisches Wörterbuch,' 1, 436, col. b; J. Halévy, 'Mélanges de critique et d'histoire,' 428. Prellwitz compares Lat. granum, Goth. kaurn; N.H.G. Korn and Kern.

<sup>4</sup> Eρwis, Sappho, apud Athen., II. 39, a; Lycophron, 5, 79, wine = Egyptian arp, Coptic ερw, whence the Greek (Wiedemann, 'Hdt.'s II. Buch,' 175). Ζθθος (zythus), according to Diod. 1, 34, 10; Pliny, N.H. 22, 164, is the Egyptian name for 'beer,' but the word has not yet been found in Egyptian, where beer is called hekt.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Neue Jahrbücher für Philologie, 1886, no. 37; Keller, 47 and 226; Herzog and Plitt, <sup>e</sup> Realencyclopaedie für protestantische Theologie, XIV. 714.

<sup>6</sup> Change of a and e is also found in lapos-lepos, "Αρτεμις and "Αρταμις, etc. (χ.ατικ. 722; Gruppe, 129, rem. 15).

KZ. 26, 547, derives the Greek from the Aram. (šikrā); see also Keller, 227. — One of the most difficult words is olvos, vinum, 'wine.' Many scholars have connected the Greek and Latin with the Skt. vēnas, 'dear,' an adjective of the soma-juice. R. 207, says: 'Quant à la ressemblance de " (jain) et de olvos, que les anciens philologues expliquaient par un passage des Sémites aux Grecs, elle doit, au contraire, s'expliquer par un passage des Ariens aux Sémites; l'origine sanscrite du nom du vin n'est pas douteuse.' Nor does F. Max Müller, 'Biographies of Words,' 114, believe in the derivation of olvos from the Semitic,8 nor in vinum from the Greek,9 though the German is borrowed from the Latin vinum, which he connects with vītis, vīmen, meaning originally a creeping or twining plant. M. Bréal, Mém. 7. 136, too, derives Goth. vein from Latin vinum. 'From the same root,' Max Müller continues, 'can olvos be derived without the slightest difficulty. Wine was known to the Aryas in its natural home, the neighborhood of Pontus and the Caspian Sea.' 10 G., 67, believed that there was no connection between the Greek and Semitic. \$\mathbb{Z}.\mathbb{a}. \mathbb{2}7; 72-77, and X.arm. 484, rem., discussing Arm. gini, wine, said: "Ich ver-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Kuhn in KZ. 1, 191-2; Pictet. Pott<sup>2</sup>, II. 2, 618, calls it the fruit of the vine = vitis, 'with which it is etymologically connected'; also Fick<sup>4</sup>, I. 548. Against the derivation of vinum and vitis from the same stem, see Bradke, 231 f.

<sup>8</sup> Nor A. Müller, BB. 1, 294, and Maurenbrecher, Neue Jahrbücher für Philologie, Vol. 145, p. 198.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> So also Curtius<sup>5</sup>, 391 and 551; Saalfeld, Philol. Rundschau, 1, 710; Weise, Lehnwörter, 32 and 127, rem. 9: 'vinum connected with vitis'; O. Schrader<sup>3</sup>, 466 ff.; Maurenbrecher, l.c. 197 f. In favor of vinum from olror (the Greek merchants sold olror not olros), see Helbig, 'Italiker in der Poebene,' 109 ff.; O. Keller, Neue Jahrbücher für Philologie, 1886, p. 264, and 'Volksetymologie,' 259-61, and the authors quoted ibid. on p. 260. Stolz, 'Lat. Gramm.' 163; Bradke, 232 and 274, rem. 1; G. Meyer<sup>2</sup>, 240, and KZ. 24, 233; also ibid. 22, 27, on the compounds of olro-; Leo Meyer, ibid. 23, 82, and J. Schmidt, 26, 352; A.J.P. X. 455, rem. 1.—Wharton, 'Latin Loan-words,' p. 177, believes that vinum and olros were borrowed independently from foreign sources.

<sup>10</sup> So Schrader<sup>2</sup>, 466-9; and *idem*, 'Thier und Pflanzengeographie,' 24 ff.; Bradke, 41 and 257 ff.; Hübschmann, 'Arm. Studien,' I. I, 25; "Arm. gini, Griech. olivos, Lat. vinum zeigt dass der Wein über Thrakien nach dem Westen gedrungen"; but Bartholomae doubts Armen. gini > olivos, on account of Lat. vinum. On γάνος = olivos see § 1. 15.

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mute vaina, das Original zu oivo, sei von Indocelten, und zwar nicht éranischen Indocelten vermutlich den Cypriern, zu den Hebräern und so zu den Arabern gekommen. wird damit der rote Wein sein wärend der weisse vermutlich mit einem ursprünglich lydischen Worte μώλος hiess. denke mir den Zusammenhang so, das der Opfertrank in Indien aus der asclepias acida etc. gewonnen wurde." This view of Lagarde's is quoted in Stade und Siegfried's 'Hebräisches Wörterbuch,' as late as 1892. The editors are apparently not aware of the fact that the great Orientalist had changed his views, and joined ranks with those who believe in the Semitic origin of the Greek olvos. 11 One of the first scholars who suggested the derivation of olvosvinum from the Semitic was Friedr. Müller, KZ. 70, 319. Hehn, 72, says: 'That wine reached the Greeks through the Semites we learn from the identity of name. 12 The course taken by civilization makes it extremely improbable that the Semites should have borrowed the word from the Aryans, that is from the Graeco-Italians, for the Iranians do not have it; the true home of the vine was the luxuriant country south of the Caspian Sea.' Professor Sayce (London, Academy, 22 Oct., 1892, p. 366) goes so far as to believe that the Semitic is from the Greek. He says: "The discovery of the name of a Yivana or 'Ionian' in the Tel-el-Amarna tablets, coupled with the fact that he was serving in 'the country of Tyre,' opens up the possibility of the introduction of Greek words into the language of Canaan at an early period. The Hebr. jajin or jain, 'wine,' there-Fore, no longer presents the same difficulties as heretofore. A. Müller has pointed out that, like the Ethiopic uein, it rnust have been borrowed from the Greek olvos, olvov, and not the Greek word from it. It is not found elsewhere in the Semitic languages; it has no Semitic etymology, and the vine is not a native of the countries to which the Semitic

<sup>11</sup> Jug. 33. 2, 356 and 366; J. üb. 104, rem. 2; F. Hommel, 'Die Namen der Säugethiere bei den Südsemiten,' 439, no. 79; J. Halévy, 'Mélanges de critique et d'histoire,' 428-9; Ries, 26-28; Keller, 259 f.

<sup>12</sup> Hebr. jain, Eth. and Arab. yain = Gr. olros = vinum.

populations belonged. According to the naturalists, it is a native rather of Armenia and the Balkans (cf. Thracian yavos and Armenian gini). The Hebrew word, however, can hardly have been borrowed from the Armenians, as the Vannic inscriptions have shown that the wine was called udulis in the old language of the country." Sayce's opinion that the Semitic word for wine is only found in Hebrew and Ethiopic is contradicted by P. Jensen, who shows that the Assyro—Babylonian, too, had the common word for wine, inu, comparing V. Rawlinson, 52, 64-65, a; II. Rawlinson, 25, 38, b and Delitzsch, 'Assyrische Lesestücke<sup>3</sup>,' p. 84, col. iv. I (ZDMG. 44, 705). Nor do I see how Sayce can write 'A. Müller has pointed out that the Semitic must hav been borrowed from the Greek.' 14

#### XXV. - VARIA.

Bάσανος, 'touchstone' (Theogn.), test, trial (Pindar), in later Greek also used metaphorically = [V] (bāšan), 'the country of Basan,' or rather = Skt. pāshāṇa, B. II. 65

18 A Semitic etymology for is proposed by Leyrer in Herzog and Plitt.

'Realencyclopaedie²,' XIV. 708, from a verb in (iāidn) = in (iāgdn), 'tread, mash': "Der Wein scheint vom Keltern benannt zu sein; auch DDD (iāsīs)

γλεῦκος, Joel i. 5, etc., der ungegorene Most hat den Namen vom Zertreten, Ausspressen (iāsds)."—Pusey, Daniel, 517, even derives μίσγω from Sem. (māsdē, 'mix wine'); 'such an operation might often occur in commerce'; but compare Lat. misceo, Skt. miçr, etc. (KZ. 26, 187); Greek μίγνυμ, O.H.G.

miskan (KZ. 21, 426), and Fick', I. 510. Martineau (A.J.P. XIII. 325), on the other hand, derives Hebr. In (mēzeg) of Song of Songs vii. 3 [2] = 'mixed wine,'

from the Greek μίσγειν (see also Löw, 90).

14 Müller (BB. I, 294) simply says: "Olvos, Wein, wird mit gleicher bestimmtheit im Griechischen und im Semitischen als Lehnwort bezeichnet; aus lezterem satze zieht Hehn die schönsten culturhistorischen folgerungen. Aber sprachlich ist die sache unmöglich, denn eine hebräischem [ (iain) arab. uain, ethiop. uein entsprechende [ wäre die einzige begriffswurzel in sämtlichen Semitischen nu sprachen, die mit [ anlautete, könnte also nur angesezt werden, wenn gar keine andere Möglichkeit der erklärung vorläge. Es ist also jedenfalls an einer indogermanischen festzuhalten, an welcher, habe ich hier nicht zu beurtheilen." This shows that Müller simply rejects the Semitic etymology of the Greek; without the however, advocating just the reverse, as Sayce believes.

according to I.r. XLVII. = √1∏31 (Egyptian bechen, Wiede-A. Müller, BB. 1, 287, rejects the Semitic mann, 17). derivation, but says nothing about a Sanskrit etymology (cf. Curtius<sup>6</sup>, 479, rem.; Vaniček, 'Fremwörter,' p. 5, bel.). — Δεκανός (late Greek), an astronomical term from Skt. drēshkāṇa, and this from Assyrian tariçānu (תורקו), 'l'enterprête' (J. Oppert, Zeitschrift für Keilschriftforschung, 1, 62, and Z. für Assyriologie, 6, 447-54; also Trans. Intern. Congr. Orient. at Florence, 1878, Vol. I. 233). According to Sophocles, 'Dictionary,' the Greek is from the Lat. decanus = 'constable, beadle,' and H. Kern (Ελλάς, 1, 186), says: 'The Skt. Drēkāna (!) is borrowed from the Greek δεκανός (about 500 A.D.). -  $E\lambda a\psi a = \delta\iota\dot{\epsilon}\phi\theta\epsilon\iota\rho a \cdot K\dot{\nu}\pi\rho\iota\sigma\iota$ , is perhaps from the Sem.-Assyrian elēpu (לכלק), 'collapse, be exhausted, go to ruin.' — Ζαλμάτιον (Cyprian) = Hebr. Δζ (çélem), 'picture, I.F. 1, 508-9. — Κάδαμος · τυφλός · Σαλαμίνιοι, perhaps connected with DD (kātám), 'be dense, dark.'— Kίβδηλος, 'spurious' = Aram. ברב , F.r. VIII. The adjective seems, however, to be a good I.-E. word. Cf. Clemm, 'Curtius Studien,' 3, 325; Fick4, I. 46 and 421, and Prellwitz, 147; also A. Müller, in BB. 1, 288. — Κολοβός, 'docked, clipped, stunted,' is compared with the Semitic by Lagarde, 'Praetermissa,' 20, 36; Lagarde, 'Orientalia,' II. (1880, p. 59), ad colobium from κολόβιον, while Pott<sup>2</sup>, II. 3, 156; G. Meyer<sup>2</sup>, 248 (Skt. kharbá-, karvá-, 'stunted, clipped'); Fick, BB. 6, 214 (Goth. halks, 'lowly, needy'), and Prellwitz, 156, maintain its I.-E. character. — Κύβος, from the Sem. ΣΣ, Jag. II. 2, 356. The v of the Greek was the representative of the Semitic  $\Sigma$ .<sup>2</sup> On the other hand, see Fränkel, 21, rem.

<sup>1 ·</sup> Básasos a Lydis ad Graecos pervenisse credo; nam lapidem lydium a Lydis nomen accepisse rationi consentaneum est. Radicem habemus [ΠΞ; plerumque de metallis examinandi adhibitam Jer. ix. 16; Zach. xiii. 9, unde βάσανον quasi examinatorem, et Indos et rem et vocabulum ex occidente accepisse censeo'; see also J.a. 274, 35; V and Π interchange not seldom (J.r. 38 f.). From the same stem perhaps also basalt. Pliny, H.N. 36, 7, derives the latter from the Hebrew word for iron (bárzel, ¬¬¬¬); see, however, Wiedemann, 17. On the Egyptian becken compare F. C. H. Wendel, 'Ueber die in altägyptischen Texten erwähnten Bau-& Edelsteine,' Leipzig, 1888, 17 ff.

<sup>2 &</sup>quot; Die מבוס zeigt, dass der κύβοι für die Religion eine Bedeutung hatte."

I and 60; Prellwitz, 167. —  $\Lambda \epsilon \pi \rho a$ , Lat. lepra, 'leprosy,' is perhaps the Sem. [Assyr. garābu; cf. gārēb, 'leper'). The Semitic was assimilated to λεπίς; X.üb. 42, rem. 2.8 Uppenkamp, 31, combines the Greek with Lat. lupus, from √slap; and Fick4, I. 536, from √lepo, 'peel off the skin.' — Μασχάλη, 'loud, riotous laughter' (Cratinus), may be connected with Hebr. שחל (šāhál), 'cry, make a noise, roar,' with the nominal prefix 2 (Löw, 292). It would then have been assimilated to  $\mu a \sigma \chi \dot{a} \lambda \eta$ , 'armpit.' —  $\Sigma \hat{\eta} \mu a$ , 'sign, name' = Hebr. DW (šēm), 'sign, name'; Movers, I. 292; Raumer, II. Fortsetzung, 28, and others. But compare Leo Meyer, in G.G. Nachr. 1890, 76 (and again G. Meyer, Alban. Studien, III. 52); KZ. 30, 481, no. 34; Fick4, I. 32 (= Lat. in-quam, in-quis); Prellwitz, 283. — Σκελετόν is derived by Uppenkamp, 32, from σκέλλω, 'make thin, dry.' P. Kretschmer, KZ. 31, 399, combines it with σκλη-ρό-ς. But Nöldeke, Mandean Grammar, 75, and Geo. Hoffmann, ZDMG. 32, 788, rem. 1, connect it with Syriac šěláddā = Assyr. šalamdu (for šalamtu, 'corpse,' from šalāmu, 'be complete, finished').4 — A hotly disputed word is υβρις, 'pride, wantonness.' Lagarde has always contended for a Semitic etymology, deriving it from עברה ('ēbrāh 'transgression, wantonness'); while most scholars combine it with Skt. ugra, 'powerful, mighty, violent,' and Zend. ughra, 'strong' (BB. 2, 155; but see KZ. 25, 307, rem.; BB. 2, 188; 8, 163; G. Meyer<sup>2</sup>, 193). I. 653; II. 2, 414, connects the Greek with  $\dot{\nu}\pi\dot{\epsilon}\rho$ , 'super,' thus = 'transgression,' with  $\beta$  for  $\pi$ ; S. Bugge, BB. 14, 62 f., with  $\beta \rho \hat{\imath} \theta \omega$ , for  $*\dot{\nu} - \mu \rho \hat{\imath}(\theta)$ . See also *ibid*. 16, 254; Johansson, KZ. 30, 451; and Zubaty, ibid. 31, 55, rem. - Χαίτη, 'hair-

<sup>8 &</sup>quot;Es wäre nur in der Ordnung, wenn eine vorzugsweise den Semiten eignende Krankheit von den Griechen mit dem semitischen Namen benannt worden wäre."

<sup>4</sup> Latin gabbariae, 'mummies,' Weise suspects to be of Oriental origin (*Lehnwörter*, 62). Augustinus, '*De diversis serm.*,' 130, c. 12, assigns it to the Egyptian; but see Wiedemann, 18. If the word is of foreign origin, it could well be connected with Sem.  $\Box\Box$   $(q\bar{a}bdr)$ , the terminus technicus for 'to bury.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> J.g. VIII.; Jag.M. 1, 81, and 2, 289: "Die υβρις ist ziemlich sicher ein Semitischer Begriff, den die Griechen durch das Erleben der στο kennen lernten." (But see BB. 1, 298-9.) "Τβρις, in this case, would have been assimilated to υβρίς, 'a night bird' (Stowasser, 1, 22, rem. 1).

lock' (whence Lat. saeta, see Havet, Mém. 6, 236), is combined by J.arm. 1347, with Aram. zēt (רות) and Coptic goit. The ultimate source he finds in Arm.  $ze\theta$ . According to Brugsch (ZDMG. 46, 123) Sem. איה, 'olive,' is from the Egypt. doit; but Lagarde, G.G. Nachr. 1889, p. 311 f.; Z.üb. 220, rem. 2, maintains that the Egyptian is likewise from the Armenian.<sup>6</sup> Prellwitz, 353, compares Skt. hā, jihīte, 'jump up, fly'; also yalos, Lat. haedus, and N.H.G. Geiss. -Χίμαιρα, originally the designation of a volcano, is from the Sem. אם (xāmár), 'bubble, swell,' assimilated, of course, to χίμαρος, χίμαιρα, 'goat.' - Χημεία (χημία) is not an I.-E. word, as is usually taught in the dictionaries, but borrowed from the Egyptian (Coptic) kam (chame), 'black';8 and also 'the art of the dark skinned Egyptians.' - Keller, 202, derives Lat. idus, edus, 'the ides,' from Greek eloos. But the Greek never has a meaning that would suggest a connection with the Latin. Bücheler, Rhein. Mus. 44, 327-8, says: Idus = 'Oscan eidus cannot be connected with Greek aiθειν, Lat. aedes; its etymology is obscure. The ending -us has a temporal signification.' Idus, the ides on the middle of the month, is = Etruscan itus (their alphabet having no d). It has been shown by Helbig, 21, etc., that the Phoenicians had intercourse and traded with the Etruscans much earlier than the Greeks; that they were the first nation that brought foreign customs to southern Etruria. The Semitic month begins toward the middle of the later Roman month; it was initiated by a festival called 'id, 'ed (Assyr. idu) = 'the beginning of the month, the month.' It has occurred to me that the Etruscan itu-s (idus) is from the Phoenician id, with the -us as a temporal suffix. There is at least more ground for such an etymology than for combining it with elbos.9 — K. Macke, Neue Jahrbücher, 137,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> See, however, ZDMG. 46, 243, no. 68.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Ed. Meyer, I. §§ 200 and 240; Keller, 190 and 219.

<sup>Whence 'al-chemy'; Bochart, H. i. 476, 11; Wiedemann, 'Hdt. II. Buch.'
β Brugsch, 'Aegyptologie,' 20-21; 406-7.
Hommel, 'Geschichte Babyloniens,' 323, rem. 1, derived χάος (Hesiod)</sup> 

Hommel, 'Geschichte Babyloniens,' 323, rem. 1, derived χάοι (Hesiod)
 Tom Babyl. xayyu (= xammu), 'vast, grand, and totality'; but see Jensen,
 Kosmologie der Babylonier,' p. 322. — There is, of course, no genetic connection

701 ff., believes that Dossennus, in Hor. Epist. II. 1, 173, 'quantus sit Dossennus edacibus in parasitis,' is borrowed from the Sem. [47] (dōšēn, partc. of dāšán, 'be fat, luxuriant'). In this passage of Horace its meaning would be = 'gourmand' or 'bon-vivant.' But Dossennus is mentioned as a proper name in Seneca, etc., and occurs also in the Latin inscriptions. Besides, some of the oldest MSS. of Horace read Dorsenus. Nor do I believe in Lat. omasum, 'the fat intestines of oxen, tripe,' from Hebr. 4071 (hōmeš), 'fat,' as Macke teaches, ibid. p. 708.

#### ADDITIONS.

- P. 40, rem. 17. On the I.-E. forms of 'six,' see also F. de Saussure, Mém. 7, 73 ff.
- P. 45, rem. 37. Add: Philippe Berger, 'Histoire de l'écriture dans l'antiquité,' II e édition, Paris, 1892, pp. 128-43.
- P. 59, rem. 23. Professor Gildersleeve (in a letter of Feb. 27, 1893) calls my attention to P. Kretschmer's etymology of Dionysus in 'Aus der Anomia,' p. 27, viz.: 'Διο-νυσ-; νύσὰ (Thracian) = νύμφη, κόρη, παρθένος, thus νύσος = κόρος; Διόνυσος = Διὸς παῖς.
- P. 104, rem. 2. Παράδεισος goes ultimately back to Zend pairidatza, from pairi =  $\pi \epsilon \rho i$  and  $d \ell z$ , 'heap,' 'a heaping around, circumvallation' (Spiegel).

between such words as γάργαρα, 'heaps,' and Sem. gargar (נורד), 'heap,' Assyr. agargaru, 'swarm' (BB. 9, 87, and 16, 258); nor between γαργαρεών, 'uvula, throat,' and Syr. איז, Heb. gargéret (נורנות), J.arm. 1171; Brugmann, 'Curtius Studien,' 7, 293; Pott, BB. 8, 48; Bücheler, Rhein. Mus. 39, 408; Fick', I. 35; nor between σάρξ (σύρξ), 'flesh,' and Sem. און (tārdq), 'be red, reddish' (Zech. i. 8; J.üb. 31); flesh being called thus from its reddish color. Mém. 3, 74, Uppenkamp, 33, and G. Meyer, Alban. Studien, III. 52 ( $\sqrt{tver}$ , prop. "Fleischstück"), give I.-E. etymologies. The relation between  $\tau$ άπης and Aram. DED, etc., is discussed by Th. Nöldeke (Persische Studien, II. 40).

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# III. — On the Equivalence of Rhythmical Bars and Metrical Feet.

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THE object of this paper is not to establish any positive results, but to contribute something towards clearing the way of needless obstacles to investigation.

To avoid numerous digressions, I shall make some preliminary observations regarding points that will arise during the discussion. Some of these remarks I shall have to make in dogmatic form, as the presentation of the evidence would require much space.

The word 'rhythm' is used in various ways by writers, ancient and modern. Some recent writers have created confusion by overlooking this fact, and assuming that the thing itself varied with the varying use of the word. Many have concluded that ancient rhythm is essentially different from modern. One author, Maximilien Kawczynski, even declares (Essai comparatif sur l'origine et l'histoire des rythmes, p. 33) that "rhythm is a discovery or rather an invention" ("le rythme a été une découverte ou plutôt une invention"). Conscious ρυθμοποιία was no doubt an invention, - a very primitive one, however, - but that the rhythmical sense is innate, and that this sense was often aroused and satisfied without conscious δυθμοποιία on the part of men, I must claim, does not need proof. But what is the Thythmical sense? How is the feeling for rhythm satisfied? What is rhythm objectively considered? (I shall omit all theorizing about nerve-waves from the ear to the brain, and confine myself to well-known facts.) Strange as it seems, there is much variety of opinion, much confusion, on this One would think that at least some common basis Subject.

could be found for all the notions of rhythm; that, for instance, all would agree that time has something to do with it; but no. We are told again and again that ancient rhythm was quantitative and modern rhythm accentual. This might be, and sometimes is, said in a correct sense; but close examination will often reveal the meaning to be that rhythm in the ancient languages resulted from some sort of a succession of long and short syllables, while in most modern languages, as in German and English, rhythm results from an analogous succession of accented and unaccented syllables, the perception of quantity or the time-element not entering even as a subordinate factor. Some deny absolutely that quantity has anything to do with modern rhythm as felt in poetry. Even those that admit the existence of quantity in modern languages differ widely from each other. are confident that all syllables are of the same length, while others maintain that only accented syllables are ever long. (I hope I may be permitted to ignore those who still persist in confounding quantity with quality.) Even Bulwer, in the Introduction to his Translation of Horace, p. xxxii, says: "In fact, as Dr. Kennedy has truly observed, the spondee is not attainable in our language, except by a very forced effort of pronunciation. That which passes current as an English spondee is really a trochee." But surely there is a sense of quantity in the modern ear; and, in my opinion, there are spondees in English. Let us consider Bulwer's remark. Apart from the fact that spondees may be made up by combining two words, it seems to me we have them also in the form of some compounds, such as 'breastplate,' 'firefly,' 'fireplace,' and some less conscious compounds, such as 'compounds,' 'household,' 'outside,' 'breastworks.' Simple spondaic words are, indeed, rare; but to say "There is no spondee in English" is like saying "There is no noun that rhymes with 'town'." 'Spondee' itself is a spondee; so is 'furlough,' 'gyrate,' etc. Compare 'furlough' with 'furrow.' deny that many words in English admit of wider modifications of quantity than were allowed in Latin or Greek; but a man must have an extreme view of the elasticity and compressibility of English words, who would undertake to reduce "Augur Apollo" and "Thou our chief — Caesar" to the same metrical form. The latter verse is one of the fruits of Bulwer's theory. (See Bulwer, Trans. Hor., pp. 48, 50.)

There are different kinds of rhythm, such, for instance, as the rhythm of acceleration heard in the drumming of a pheasant or the rocking of a somewhat unstable stack of saucers or plates; but the rhythm of music and poetry, both ancient and modern, not only depends on quantity, that is, time, but requires the recurrence of approximately equal The further we depart from absolute equality, the more defective is the rhythm. At what point the rhythmic effect ceases, I shall not undertake to say. It may be different with different persons. If the inequality ever steps beyond this limit, the rhythm is interrupted. If the new foot is one of a different structure and is repeated several times, we have a change of the time; if it is the same foot uttered more slowly or rapidly several times, it is a change of the tempo, or ἀγωγή. In the latter case the rhythm may be rendered continuous by a gradual acceleration or retardation in passing from one period to another; that is, the tempo may be changed gradually. But in the case of music or recitation accompanied by dance or march or any rhythmical movement, any appreciable inequality of feet or bars within the ame colon is out of the question. Moreover, there can be reasonable objection to using the scheme of this more exact rhythm in indicating the recitation toward which we re to approximate the ψιλη λέξις. Westphal says that Arisoxenus would have denied the propriety of indicating the netre of recited poetry by means of musical notes. Of course o. if Westphal means the notes of Greek music, for these .Iways indicate pitch, which we do not want, and never indiate quantity, which is the thing we do want; but let us Lope that Aristoxenus would not have objected to the use of modern notes without any staff.

The rhythm, then, of ancient and modern verse, as well so of music, is the same. The units, however, are marked a seemingly different way. The ρυθμοποιία of English

poetry differs from that of Greek for two reasons: first, quantity in Greek, though by no means so mathematically exact as is sometimes supposed, was more constant and uniform than in English; and, secondly, in Greek the loudness of a long syllable was more conspicuous than the musical elevation of an accented syllable and so was used to mark feet, whereas in English the accent is chiefly loudness and is usually combined with more or less prolongation, so that the accent marks the feet. I spoke of the loudness of long syllables in Greek, rather than the ictus. An artificial ictus could be needed only when a spondee replaced a dactyl, or a tribrach replaced a trochee, or some such substitution The question whether any ictus, or artificial stress of voice, was employed otherwise need not here be discussed. There is no mention of it in the works of Greek metricians or rhythmists. Some ancient writers, not without reason, excluded the spondee, as they excluded the pyrrhic, from the list of feet suited to continuous rhythm. Continuous spondaic rhythm may just as properly be regarded as a series of monosyllabic feet, which is a very monotonous sort of rhythm. Just as in Greek, then, a systematic succession of long and short syllables, so in English a systematic succession of accented and unaccented syllables constitutes a rhythmical series; but it is just as essential that the complex units marked by accents in English should be equal as that the corresponding units marked by stress or loudness should be equal in Greek.

When we sing, inasmuch as we proceed more slowly and dwell on the vowels, reducing the consonants to an inappreciable space of time, we are more conscious of the time occupied by the separate syllables or notes making up a bar than in ordinary recitation we are conscious of the time occupied by the individual syllables that compose a foot. This is true both of Greek (as attested by Aristoxenus) and of English. But it does not follow that we cannot *feel* the effect of the relative time of the syllables, nor that we cannot so utter a given group as to fill a given space of time. Even in singing and, as more frequently happens, in playing an instru-

ment, when we have a run of rapid notes, we can feel that we are giving each its correct time, although we cannot perceive distinctly the length of each, just as our auditory nerves can feel the effect of a more rapid or less rapid vibration of a sound-producing object, and we can with our voice make the number of vibrations per second required to produce a sound of a given pitch, although we have no conscious perception at all of the vibrations. course, is only an analogy, and it must not be urged too But, granted that in the case of \$\psi \lambda \lambda \hat{\xi} \lambda \delta \xi \sigma \text{vecannot}\$ consciously produce the exact theoretical ratio between the times of syllables, we must remember that the recitation of the ancients was in many cases in exact rhythm, the units being marked by instruments or movements of the body, and we are surely justifiable in trying in our ψιλή λέξις to approximate this exact rhythm, as when we read the trimeters of tragedy or the tetrameters of comedy, and in using analogous theoretical schemes even for the  $\psi \iota \lambda \dot{\eta}$ λέξις of the Greeks, as when we read the trimeters of comedy.

The views I have just expressed will, I am aware, be utterly rejected by some. After almost a lifetime of study, Westphal (Aristoxenus, p. 220) says: "Unser rhythmisches Gefühl ist schon befriedigt, wenn das Kolon oder die Periode eine gewisse Anzahl von Hebungen hören lässt: wie lange oder wie kurz die Stimme beim Aussprechen derselben verweilt, das irritirt uns nicht; wir gestatten gern und sehen gerade darin den Vorzug eines ausdrucksvollen Deklamirens, dass bei solchen Silben, welche für den logischen Zusammenhang besonders bedeutungsvoll sind, länger verweilt wird, einerlei ob durch längeres Aussprechen oder durch Pause. Und an welchen Stellen diese Pausen vorkommen, ob am Ende des Kolons oder innerhalb des Kolons und des Versfusses, ist uns einerlei." Then he shows that it is otherwise in singing. Now this variation of quantity of syllables and this introduction of pauses do undoubtedly render the declamation expressive, as he says; but is not the rhythm thereby rendered more defective? In the case of pauses indeed,

I believe we can, as it were, suspend the rhythmical sense and then resume it again; but on the whole all such devices of emphasis as those named seem to me to interfere with Consequently, in reciting poetry we depend the rhythm. chiefly upon the cadence in emphasizing the thought. pose there were no cola nor periods: could there not be any rhythm? It is a notorious fact that we can have rhythmical prose in both English and German, which would be impossible if the rhythm depended solely upon the number of the rhythmical accents. I have heard little girls reciting the multiplication table in perfect concert, making pauses to fill the place of the units when these were wanting; and I found that four uniform beats filled each bar or measure. These children had not been trained to recite in this way. Illustrations without end might be cited. In fact it seems to me that the rhythmical sense or sensation is the same in reciting as it is in singing. It should be remarked, however, that Westphal holds the rhythm of recited poetry in Greek to have differed from that of music in exactly the same way that he holds it does in German. This he attempts to show from Aristoxenus. For his arguments and the words of Aristoxenus, I must refer to the work just cited (especially pp. 220-225) and to Rossbach und Westphal, Theorie der Musischen Künste, Vol. I, pp. 42 ff., and III, init.

No one who has studied the fragments of Aristoxenus, or otherwise become acquainted with the nature and method of his investigations, will deny that everything he can be shown to have said regarding rhythm in Greek poetry and music must be accepted as final, unless it is positively self-contradictory or otherwise impossible. But, as every one knows, his work on rhythm is in a very fragmentary state. Under these circumstances the temptation is great to make the most of these fragments and draw from them as many even problematical inferences as possible; but the very opposite course is the only safe one to pursue. We must not assume that he teaches anything that is not plainly asserted or necessarily implied by his words. The chief object of this paper is to show that some of the doctrines ascribed to Aristoxenus are

not taught by him, and thereby to remove some obstacles that lie in the way of free and intelligent research.

We are now prepared to take up the practical part of our subject.

- 1. The use of τονή or παρέκτασις, that is, the prolongation of a single note or syllable into the time of a whole bar or foot, is rightly accepted by the interpreters of Aristoxenus, and calls for no discussion. Of course ἐπέκτασις, or the prolongation beyond the limits of a bar, no one would think of imitating in reading; and even in the case of παρέκτασις the rhythm of recitation may have sometimes departed from that of the same words as sung. Soph. Ant. 954, κελαιναί νᾶες ἐκφύγοιεν, was probably sung υμμουσομοί but would naturally be read  $\circ$   $\rightarrow$   $\rightarrow$   $\circ$   $\circ$   $\circ$  . The Greeks composed their lyric poetry to be sung; still they sometimes read it, so that a double problem confronts us: First, what was the Thythm of the music? and, secondly, how did the ancients read? Except in the case of ἐπέκτασις (see Schol. Ar. Ran. 1348) we should probably approach as near to what we conceive to have been the musical rhythm as the ear will tolerate. The effect of παρέκτασις of monosyllables or ultimæ, espe- cially ἐν καταλήξει, was not offensive, and was employed in recitation, for instance, in the elegiac hexameter. part of the time, if the sense allows, can be filled with a pause, as is attested for the verse just named.
- 2. When a dactylic form occurs among trochaic forms, the following means may be employed to equalize the feet: First, the dactyl may be left pure and the trochee prolonged either by change of  $\partial \gamma \omega \gamma \dot{\eta}$  or by  $\partial \kappa \tau a \sigma \iota s$  of the short ( $\sim >$ ), with change of  $\partial \gamma \omega \gamma \dot{\eta}$  or (in music) without it, or by making the long triseme ( $\sim \sim$ ). Secondly, the trochee may be left pure, and the dactyl shortened by  $\partial \gamma \omega \gamma \dot{\eta}$  (either the whole foot, or

the first two syllables, (3, 0), or placed under the form (3, 0), (3, 0), or the form (3, 0). The prolongation of the trochee, advocated by some (Lehrs, Brill, etc.)

even in trochaic (and iambic) rhythm, does not come within the scope of this paper except in connection with the dactylo-epitrites, which will presently receive brief attention. Of the different methods of shortening the dactyl into a triseme foot, the first named, the change of tempo, is the only one that Westphal now considers admissible in view of the teachings of Aristoxenus; and it is not my purpose to try to show that this was not the ancient method: I desire only to show that in the other two methods, especially the former ( $\sim \circ$ ), there is nothing positively conflicting with anything Aristoxenus teaches.

Let us first consider the so-called cyclic dactyl,  $\sim \circ$ . Two questions present themselves: First, does it belong, as Westphal maintains, only to recited poetry, or was it used also in singing? Secondly, what is its exact metrical form, or in other words, what time relation existed between its syllables?

The origin of the name and the authority for the existence of 'cyclic' feet, though familiar to all, must be stated here for reasons that will be apparent. Dionysius of Halicarnassus, De Comp. Verb. 17, while explaining the various feet, after describing the anapæst, says:  $\delta$  δ' ἀπὸ τῆς μακρᾶς ἀρχόμενος, λήγων δ' ἐς τὰς βραχείας, δάκτυλος μὲν καλεῖται, πάνυ δ' ἐστὶ σεμνός, καὶ εἰς κάλλος ἀρμονίας ἀξιολογώτατος, καὶ τό γε ἡρωϊκὸν μέτρον ἀπὸ τούτου κοσμεῖται ὡς ἐπὶ τὸ πολύ · παράδειγμα δ' αὐτοῦ τόδε ·

#### 'Ιλιόθεν με φέρων ἄνεμος Κικόνεσσι πέλασσεν.

οί μέντοι ρυθμικοί τούτου τοῦ ποδὸς τὴν μακρὰν βραχυτέραν εἶναί φασι πῆς τελείας, οὐκ ἔχοντες δὲ εἰπεῖν πόσφ, καλοῦσιν αὐτὴν ἄλογον. ἔτερον δὲ ἀντίστροφόν τινα τούτφ ρυθμόν, δς ἀπὸ τῶν βραχειῶν ἀρξάμενος ἐπὶ τὴν ἄλογον τελευτᾳ, τοῦτον χωρίσαντες ἀπὸ τῶν ἀναπαίστων κύκλον καλοῦσι, παράδειγμα αὐτοῦ φέροντες τοιόνδε:

#### κέχυται πόλις ὑψίπολις κατά γᾶν.

This is awkwardly expressed. Hermann understands it as referring to the dactyls of the heroic verse in general; but we must either refer it to all dactyls, or else limit it to the

holodactylic hexameters (not, however, denying its applicability to other verses). That Dionysius really had in mind the latter will presently appear. It will be observed that the two feet he describes would have been the forms > 0 and 0 > 0, and in the case of the latter the  $\delta\rho\sigma\iota\varsigma$  would be 0 < 0, and the  $\theta\epsilon\sigma\iota\varsigma$ . But in the same work, chap. 20, is an enumeration of the beauties of the holodactylic verse,

### αὐθις ἔπειτα πέδονδε κυλίνδετο λᾶας ἀναιδής,

where, among other things, we read: ἔπειθ' ἐπτακαίδεκα συλλαβῶν οὐσῶν ἐν τῷ στίχῳ, δέκα μέν εἰσι βραχεῖαι συλλαβαί, έπτὰ δὲ μόναι μακραὶ καὶ οὐδ' αὐταὶ (αὖται ?) τέλειοι . . . δ δὲ μάλιστα τῶν ἄλλων θαυμάζειν ἄξιον, ῥυθμὸς οὐδεὶς τῶν μακρών οὶ φύσιν ἔχουσι πίπτειν εἰς μέτρον ἡρῷον, οὕτε σπονδείος ούτε βακχείος, εγκαταμέμικται τῷ στίχφ πλὴν επὶ τῆς πελευτής, οι δ' άλλοι πάντες δάκτυλοι, και ούτοί γε παραδεδιωγμένας έχοντες τὰς ἀλόγους, ὥστε μὴ διαφέρειν ἐνίους τῶν τροχαίων. οὐδὲν δὴ τὸ ἀντιπρὰττόν ἐστιν εὕτροχον καὶ περι-Φερη καὶ καταρρέουσαν είναι την φράσιν έκ τοιούτων συγκεκροτημένην ρυθμών. This, too, is obscure. In Dionysius πούς and ρυθμός are synonymous. Here his remarks seem to imply that the shortening occurs only in the holodactylic verses. Moreover, though evious is not clear, we are certainly told either that some of the feet do not differ much From trochees, or that according to some the feet do not differ much from trochees.

In chapter 17 Hermann changed  $\kappa \dot{\nu} \kappa \lambda o \nu$  into  $\kappa \dot{\nu} \kappa \lambda i o \nu$  and transferred the name to the dactyls. Apel, who first discovered the significance of the passage, assumed a modification of the quantity of the first short, so that the irrational long and this short should form the  $\theta \dot{\epsilon} \sigma \iota s$ , "so that the foot should not differ much from a trochee."

Now Westphal holds that this foot, whatever was its exact form, was used only in recitation, whereas Apel had assumed that it was a musical bar. The former thinks there can be no reasonable doubt that the ultimate authority of Dionysius was Aristoxenus himself, and I believe he is right; but how can Westphal reconcile this view with what he claims were

the teachings of Aristoxenus concerning the unconsciousness of quantity in recitation? He says (R. W., I. p. 53) expressly: "Den Rythmus eines declamirten Hexameters durch Notenzeichen auszudrücken, dem würde sich Aristoxenus widersetzen. Hat doch nach ihm die continuirliche Bewegung der Stimme, das Sprechen, keine ἡρεμίαι, keine κατὰ τὸ πόσον γνώριμοι χρόνοι! Man vernimmt die sechs Hebungen des Hexameters, aber kann nicht mit den Fingern die Versfüsse als sechs gleich lange Hebungen und sechs gleich lange Senkungen taktiren." Then what could Aristoxenus mean by the τέλειαι when he says the μακραί differ from them in the holodactylic verse? How does he know they differ? Cf. also R. W., III, pp. 1-13, esp. p. 11.

Again, the cyclic anapaest mentioned must have been recited in the same way as the dactyl; if the one was merely declaimed, so was the other, and if the one was sung, so was the other. Now the example cited,  $\kappa \epsilon \chi \nu \tau a \iota \pi \delta \lambda \iota \varsigma \dot{\nu} \psi \iota \pi \sigma \lambda \iota \varsigma$   $\kappa a \tau \dot{a} \gamma \hat{a} \nu$ , does not belong to declaimed anapaests. The feet, indeed, form a dimeter, but the invariable caesura (masculine or feminine) is wanting.

Nothing can be safely inferred from the name κύκλιος. In the first place the MSS. have κύκλου, not κύκλιου. Since the foot is 'maimed' in a sense, χωλόν has been proposed. violent would be κυλλόν, and one might suspect a reference to this foot in Ar. Av. 1364, τί δεῦρο πόδα σὺ κυλλὸν ἀνὰ κύκλον κυκλείς; the words ανα κύκλον (cf. ανακυκλικός) could then refer to the anacyclic arrangement of vv. 1360, 1362, 00-00-00-1-00-00-00-00-00-00-At any rate, Cinesias was not lame (see the Scholia), and it is evident that reference is made to some peculiarity of his song and its rhythm and some dancing movement which he executed as he came up. But of course no conclusion can be drawn from such conjectures. In the second place, if we accept the adj. κύκλιος, it might, indeed, refer to the employment of the light anapaest by the song-twisting dithyrambic or cyclian poets; in which case it would be a musical foot, just as Cinesias was singing on the occasion referred to above (cf. 1367, παῦσαι μελωδών); but it would more probably refer to the fact that the foot was εὖτροχος καὶ περιφερῆς, just as we hear of ρυθμοὶ στρογγύλοι (Aristides, pp. 33, 98 M.), which move with undue rapidity. Christ (Griech. Met. p. 74) says that in Schol. Hephaest., p. 135 W., the choriambus formed from a light dactyl,  $\sim \circ$ , receives the name  $\pi όδα$  κύκλιον; but the Schol. here says nothing about a light dactyl, and the name may refer to the fact that the compound foot  $\circ$   $\circ$   $\circ$  reads ἀνὰ κύκλον, the same way forward and backward.

But even discarding all inferences drawn from the name, there seems to be no good reason for limiting the cyclic dactyl to spoken poetry. The assumption of some that in the classic period the hexameter was never sung is certainly erroneous. It is sufficient to refer to the exquisite scene in Ar. Pax. 1265-1304, where one boy persists in singing passages of Homer, and another sings an elegy of Archilochus.

The second question relates to the metrical form of the cyclic dactyl. Apel, who first called attention to the authority

For it, assumed that it varied between [ ] and 3 [...

The latter, adopted by Westphal, is not so easily produced as the former, and need not be given preference unless there is some serious objection to the former, adopted by J. H. H. Schmidt and many others. For purposes of reading, the question, it must be admitted, is rather theoretical than practical. It would require a very delicate ear to discover any difference between the extremes proposed by Apel. Still it may be worth while to show that the objections that have been made to the theoretical form, \( \), are not well founded.

An objection, which I have somewhere met, is that this form of foot conflicts with the doctrine of Aristoxenus, that the triple ratio is unrhythmical. But Aristoxenus, when he makes this statement, is speaking solely of the ratio between arsis and thesis, as any one may see by examining the passage. He is speaking of the λόγος ποδικός of the ποὺς τετράσημος. The ποικιλίαι of the χρόνοι ρυθμοποιίας ίδιοι,

of which he speaks, might very well include the cyclic dactyl under the form in question.

Another objection, raised by Westphal, is that the ratio of a long to a short in poetry that is sung is always as 2 to 1, according to Aristoxenus, - a rule which Westphal himself has been compelled to arbitrarily modify so as to make it applicable only to a long and a short immediately following The statement that the ratio is 2:1 is made by Ouintilian, Inst. ix. 4. 45, and it occurs also in the Paralambanomena of Psellus, § 1, under peculiar circumstances. He speaks of the syllable as having been considered the measure (smallest unit) of rhythm by the παλαιοὶ ρυθμικοί, and adds: ο δέ γε 'Αριστόξενος οὐκ ἔστι, φησί, μέτρον ή συλλαβή. παν γὰρ μέτρον αὐτό τε ώρισμένον ἐστὶ κατὰ τὸ ποσὸν καὶ πρὸς τὸ μετρούμενον ώρισμένως έχει. ή δε συλλαβή οὐκ έστι κατά τοῦτο ώρισμένη πρὸς τὸν ρυθμὸν ώς τὸ μέτρον πρὸς τὸ μετρούμενον, ή γάρ συλλαβή οὐκ ἀεὶ τὸν αὐτὸν χρόνον κατέχει, τὸ δὲ μέτρον ήρεμείν δεί κατά τὸ ποσὸν καθὸ μέτρον έστι και τὸ χρόνου μέτρον ώσαύτως κατά τὸ ἐν τῷ χρόνῷ ποσόν, ἡ δὲ συλλαβὴ χρόνου τινὸς μέτρον οὖσα οὐκ ήρεμεῖ κατὰ τὸν χρόνον, μεγέθη μεν γάρ χρόνων οὐκ ἀεὶ τὰ αὐτὰ κατέχουσιν αἱ συλλαβαί, λόγον μέντοι τὸν αὐτὸν ἀεὶ τῶν μεγεθῶν· ἡμισυ μὲν γάρ κατέχειν τὴν βραχείαν χρόνου, διπλασίαν δὲ τὴν  $\mu \alpha \kappa \rho \dot{\alpha} \nu$  — here the sentence breaks off. Westphal suspects that we have the substance of the incomplete sentence in Quintilian, l.c., "Longam esse duorum temporum, brevem unius, etiam pueri sciunt." This conjecture I shall not discuss. In the passage of Psellus, it is not certain that the author is quoting literally, and from λόγον μέντοι onward sounds very much like an addition of his own. believe that Aristoxenus is the author of those words, and no matter who is the author, the remark seems to me meaningless, unless it refers to change of ἀγωγή. But that it cannot refer to ἀγωγή, if it is a remark of Aristoxenus, follows from the fact that, according to that author, the χρόνος πρῶτος, the true unit of rhythm, may vary with the ἀγωγή, so that after all the χρόνος πρώτος and the short syllable would cover the same space of time under all circumstances, and it would be

a quibble to say that the one is the μέτρον, but the other is Westphal, who fully recognizes that the remark cannot refer to change of ἀγωγή, draws this conclusion: "Der von den Metrikern oft wiederholte Satz der rhythmici und musici, dass die Kürze nicht immer einzeitig, die Länge nicht immer zweizeitig sei, ist also auch ein Satz des musicus Aristoxenus." But he does not show how the quantity, apart from άγωγή, can vary and the ratio remain constant. Is it true that when a word contains one long that is longer than those another word, then any other long it may contain must also be longer by the same amount, and also its shorts must longer in the same proportion? That surely cannot be meant. If the remark referred to the spoken words of prose loose verse, the remark about ratio would be erroneous; if it refers to sung poetry or παρακαταλογή, it can apply with se se only to change of ἀγωγή, which would convict Aristoxen us of inconsistency if he were the author. The truth of the matter is, that if the remark has reference to singing ne, as is assumed, it is hard to see under any assumption at could be meant but change of ἀγωγή, since it is notous that the music regulates the varying quantity of prose or recited poetry.

Be all this as it may, and let it be granted that the remark made by Aristoxenus and that it does not refer to  $\partial \gamma \omega \gamma \dot{\eta}$ , it still leaves some other ratio than 2:1 possible in special cases; for Aristoxenus himself mentions other exceptions in the cir places, and might, even in the lost part of this passage, have mentioned this exception.

Another objection is the fact that the foot in question consists a syllable that is shorter than the χρόνος πρῶτος. Now istoxenus defines the χρόνος πρῶτος thus (§ 10): Καλείσθω δὲ πρῶτος μὲν τῶν χρόνων ὁ ὑπὸ μηδενὸς τῶν ῥυθμιζομένων δὲ τῶν διαιρεθῆναι, δίσημος δὲ ὁ δὶς τούτω καταμετρούμενος, τῶν διαιρεθῆναι κατὰ μηδένα τρόπον, μήτε δύο ξυλλαβαί, μήτε δύο σημεῖα, τοῦτον πρῶτον ἐροῦμεν χρόνον. The former passe admits of being interpreted in the light of the latter: the χρόνος πρῶτος cannot be divided into two parts. Another

remark is more difficult to reconcile (§ 11): δήλον ὅτι ἀναγκαιόν έστιν είναι τινας έλαχίστους χρόνους, έν οίς ο μελφδών θήσει των φθόγγων εκαστον. ό αὐτὸς δὲ λόγος καὶ περὶ των ξυλλαβών δήλον ὅτι καὶ περὶ τών σημείων. Το get a satisfactory sense Westphal reads τῶν χρόνων for χρόνους. we accept this, when we consider the explicit nature of the passage I cited just now (§ 12), and the fact that it immediately follows the one last named, and consider the further fact that we find mention of "syllabae breviores brevibus," and that, in any case, the cyclic dactyl is an irrational, hence an exceptional foot, we are justified in assuming that this may be a case in which a syllable occupies less time than the χρόνος πρώτος. An irrational and fractional short is distinctly mentioned by Bacchius (p. 24 M.), probably on the authority of Aristoxenus: τὸν δὲ ἀνὰ μέσον τῆς ἄρσεως καὶ τῆς θέσεως χρόνον οὐκ ἄξιον ἐπιζητεῖν, ὡς ὄντα τινὰ τῶν κατὰ μέρος • δι 🕿 γάρ την βραχύτητα λανθάνει και την δψιν και την άκοήν, κτέ-In practice this is what we really do with the middle syllable and Christ (p. 77) thinks it unwise to attempt anything defi-But when Brambach, who holds that the acceleration is due solely to ἀγωγή (Rhyth. und met. Untersuchungen. p. 170), says: "Die Uebersetzung in unsere Tactschrift ist daher streng genommen unmöglich," and, again, "Ganz falsch ist die allerdings bequemste Uebersetzung des Daktylus 5; denn sie hebt das Verhältness der ersten Kürze zur Länge auf, und es entsteht die ungriechische Tactfügung  $\frac{3}{16}$   $\frac{1}{16}$   $\frac{2}{16}$  mit dem unmöglichen Verhältnisse 3:1:2," he seems in the first passage to speak, perhaps, rather positively, and in the second to beg the question. Why is the relation 3:1:2 "impossible" or "ungriechisch"?

Next let us glance at the choreic dactyl,  $-\infty$ . For this there is no ancient testimony; but the structure of some verses renders its existence probable. The only objections to it are the disturbed relation of long to short (which has already been discussed) and Aristoxenus' definition of the  $\chi\rho\delta\nu\sigma\varsigma$   $\pi\rho\tilde{\omega}\tau\sigma\varsigma$ . But here the two shorts exceed a  $\chi\rho\delta\nu\sigma\varsigma$   $\pi\rho\tilde{\omega}\tau\sigma\varsigma$ , as they are equivalent to an irrational long; for the musical notes do not express the exact value.

Sometimes it is difficult which form of light dactyl is to be selected for theoretical representation. I am inclined to believe that in recited trochaic verses the tendency would be to employ the choreic dactyl, always, however, bearing the sense in mind. There is little doubt that any of the methods named, including the accelerated ἀγωγή, could be employed according to exigency. I wish, however, to direct attention to the fact that the corresponding πόδες ἀντίστροφοι, the light anapaests, of iambic rhythm, would not admit of the process known as "treating with anacrusis" if we in so doing introduce the cyclic dactyl; for in a verse like Soph. Ant. 11,  $\dot{\epsilon}\mu\dot{\rho}\dot{\iota}$   $\mu\dot{\epsilon}\nu$   $\dot{\rho}\dot{\nu}\delta\dot{\epsilon}\dot{\iota}$ s  $\mu\dot{\nu}\theta$ os, 'A $\nu\tau\iota\gamma\dot{\rho}\nu\eta$ ,  $\phi\dot{\iota}\lambda\omega\nu$ , would, with the ascending rhythm (alone recognized by the ancients) become \_\_| agreeable way; but the ancients, without sign of varying, pronounce such forms as -τυγόνη here, anapaests. objects to \_ w on the ground that it often leads to two irrational shorts where one irrational long is not allowed. objection is not insurmountable. While the essence of rhythm is time, as indicated by marked units, still loudness adds something to the rhythmic effect. A spondee in dactylics makes the movement appear slow, although it takes the same time as a dactyl. This is because the voice reaches a fuller compass on a long syllable than on a short, so that two shorts, though equal in length to one long, represent less sound. They are, so to speak, as long but not as broad. Hence it is clear that a choreic dactyl resembles a trochee more than does the irrational choree. So, mutatis mutandis, in the ascending rhythm. This fact was overlooked by Hephaestion when he pronounced the anapaests in even places aloyou, i.e. 'unreasonable,' not 'irrational.'

Just where the cyclic anapaests mentioned by Dionysius were used we do not know. If by ἀντίστροφος he means exactly reversed, the anapaest becomes  $\circ$   $\circ$ —, which some use in iambics. This implies a different scansion from that which we obtain by "treating with anacrusis" and introducing  $\circ$   $\circ$ . (It may be remarked, however, that Aristides (p. 39) mentions  $\circ$   $\circ$  and speaks of  $\circ$   $\circ$  as being κατ' ἀντιστρο-

φην τοῦ προτέρου, where the one is not exactly the reverse of the other; but the ancients always disregard the ictus in such matters.) I cannot say that  $\circ$   $\circ$ — is wrong. We must always remember that 'anacrusis' means 'Aufschlag' or 'Auftact' (that is, ἄρσις), invented by Hermann to express an idea of Bentley's apparently unknown to the ancients.

It would be interesting to know where the ancients would have drawn the line between  $\delta\rho\sigma\iota\varsigma$  and  $\theta\epsilon\sigma\iota\varsigma$  in  $\iota$ . The ictus clearly could not fall on the middle syllable. But the question is not resolved even for the cyclic dactyl; for as it is attested as occurring in the dactylic hexameter, some think that the irrational long was still the  $\theta\epsilon\sigma\iota\varsigma$ , and the short syllables the  $\delta\rho\sigma\iota\varsigma$ . As a matter of fact this is a purely theoretical question, and its answer does not affect the recitation.

3. We now take up the case where spondaic forms occur among triseme feet, and consider the irrational choree. Here Aristoxenus is very explicit. One would think, at first sight, that there was no possibility of misunderstanding him; but it seems to me, nevertheless, that he has been But let us first consider the various views. misunderstood. J. H. H. Schmidt, if I understand him, makes the irrational choree exactly equal in time to the pure trochee, the only difference being the more vigorous utterance of the irrational syllable than of the short. In this he virtually follows Apel. Boeckh, too, made the irrational choree exactly equal to the trochee, but maintained the ratio 2:13 instead of 2:1. He attempted to express such time values by numerals  $(\frac{1}{7}^2 + \frac{9}{7} = 3)$ , at which Hermann exclaimed "cui rite exsequendae ipse Apollo impar sit," as if it were anything but 2+1 accelerated by ἀγωγή.

Now let us examine Aristoxenus. His words are (§ 20): "Ωρισται δὲ τῶν ποδῶν ἔκαστος ήτοι λόγω τινὶ ἡ ἀλογία τοιαύτη, ήτις δύο λόγων γνωρίμων τῆ αἰσθήσει ἀνὰ μέσον ἔσται γένοιτο δ' αν τὸ εἰρημένον ὧδε καταφανές · εἰ λειφθείησαν δύο πόδες, ὁ μὲν ἴσον τὸ ἄνω τῷ κάτω ἔχων καὶ δίσημον ἐκάτερον, ὁ δὲ τὸ μὲν κάτω δίσημον, τὸ δὲ ἄνω ήμισυ, τρίτος δέ τις ληφθείη ποὺς παρὰ τούτους, τὴν μὲν βάσιν ἴσην αὖ τοῖς ἀμφοτέροις ἔχων, τὴν δὲ ἄρσιν μέσον μέγεθος ἔχουσαν τῶν

άρσεων. ὁ γὰρ τοιοῦτος ποὺς ἄλογον μὲν ἔξει τὸ ἄνω πρὸς τὸ κάτω· ἔσται δ' ἡ ἀλογία μεταξὺ δύο λόγων γνωρίμων τῷ αἰσθήσει, τοῦ τε ἴσου καὶ τοῦ διπλασίου. καλεῖται δ' οὖτος χορεῖος ἄλογος.

It appears to me hopeless to try to reconcile this with Schmidt's practice. The question may well be raised whether by μέσος, μέσον, μεταξύ, Aristoxenus really means 'exactly in the middle,' as Westphal understands. tration which A. draws from melody seems to indicate that such is really his meaning; but a close examination will show rather that he chose, for the sake of clearness, to describe a particular case, both as to the adopta and its analogue. Accordingly we read in Bacchius (p. 23): "Aloyos δὲ ποίος; — Ὁ τοῦ μὲν βραχέος μακρότερος, τοῦ δὲ μακροῦ έλάσσων ὑπάρχων · ὁπόσφ δέ ἐστιν ἐλάσσων ἡ μείζων διὰ τὸ λόγω είναι δυσαπόδοτον, έξ αὐτοῦ τοῦ συμβεβηκότος ἄλογος  $\dot{\epsilon}\kappa\lambda\dot{\eta}\theta\eta$ . (See also Dionysius on the cyclic dactyl.) Still we can never make it appear that the χρόνος ἄλογος can actually become equal to one of the limits between which it falls. But Westphal goes further, and says that these remarks of A. clearly disprove Boeckh's view, because the  $\theta \in \sigma$  or  $\beta \in \sigma$ of the irrational choree, according to A., is "equal to the diseme  $\theta \in \sigma \cup S$  of the rational spondee." This objection to Boeckh's method of equalizing bars has been accepted by able metricians, among them Brambach, and deserves a careful examination. If the Greeks actually allowed feet bearing the relation of 6:7 to stand side by side in the same colon, what right have we ever to insist upon a greater approximation than this to equality? In fact, why may we not admit the relation of 3:4 and mix true dactyls with true trochees? Let us see. Aristoxenus is here speaking of λόγος, 'ratio,' and that only. He says that each foot is determined either by some λόγος or such an ἀλογία as shall lie between (ἀνὰ μέσον) two λόγοι that can be perceived (that is, whose value can be definitely fixed by the senses). (We should have a right to ask him how he knows it lies in the middle (avà μέσον) unless it is itself τῶν γνωρίμων; but of this I have already spoken.) To a Greek the notion of a ratio lying between two ratios, or being an average between two ratios, was likely to be obscure. A ratio is not a quantity, nor a fraction, nor a number: it is a relation. So Aristoxenus undertakes to make the matter clear. For the purpose of illustration (observe his words) he makes the purely ideal assumption, "if two were taken," etc., then adds that such a foot will have its  $\tilde{a}\rho\sigma\iota\varsigma$  irrational with respect to its  $\theta\epsilon\sigma\iota\varsigma$ , i.e. the λόγος is ἄλογος, but does not say it will have an irrational ἄρσις as compared with the ἄρσεις of other feet. It is, therefore, evident that the true spondee and the true trochee, placed on each side of the irrational choree, are purely auxiliary and intended solely to make clear the meaning of ἀλογία. They do not and cannot both actually occur in the same series or colon with the irrational foot. could have a rational spondee, then an irrational choree, then a rational trochee, all in a series, we might as well despair. In my opinion, after the aboyía has been made clear, we are to remove the other two feet, just as we remove the wooden framework on which we have erected a stone arch.

It is very strange that Rossbach (Griech. Met., p. 430) should totally misconceive this matter. I have read and reread his remark; but no eye-rubbing elicits any but an erroneous meaning. He says: "Von dieser Boeckhschen Messung widerspricht zunächst die auf  $\frac{1}{7}^2 + \frac{9}{7}$  angegebene Grösse des Spondeus (irrationalen Trochäus) der Ueberlieferung des Aristoxenus; denn ihr zufolge sind die beiden Silben des irrationalen Trochäus genau einander gleich"; that is, according to the tradition of Aristoxenus "the two syllables of the irrational choree are exactly equal to each other." Westphal's  $2:2\frac{1}{2}$  (Aristox. p. 152) is a misprint.

4. Some remarks on the nature of  $\dot{a}\lambda o\gamma ia$  are called for, both in reference to the irrational choree and the cyclic dactyl. It may seem strange that there could be any question as to an exact definable ratio when two quantities are 'irrational'; and Westphal, who believes in the definite ratio  $2: \frac{1}{2}$ , that is, 4: 3, strangely says that 'irrational' in Aristoxenus means 'incommensurable.' The word does, indeed, sometimes have that meaning, but Aristoxenus ex-

tly warns us against misunderstanding, and gives an anation that seems to show that he was guarding us nst the mathematical interpretation. The Elements of lid had not yet appeared; but an Aristoxenus could not been ignorant of the nature of incommensurability. άλογον and the ρητὸν χρόνου μέγεθος, he says, have no ον κοινὸν ἔνρυθμον. This shows, by the way, that the tened short, which is a κοινὸν μέτρον, cannot be ἔνρυθμον; the analogy which he draws from the intervals of melody as to imply that this short, like an ἀμελφόδητον, has no rate existence. This seems to militate against the cyclic as it is inseparable from another element with which it es a χρόνος ποδικός; that is, it is a χρόνος ρυθμοποιίας In the second place, the analogy mentioned is in a upt passage, and besides, like all analogies, must not be This and most of the other seeming objections to

cannot be made against 📍 The latter seems to less natural; but it cannot be shown to be incorrect. object has been to show that  $\sim$  does not conflict 1 any unmistakable declaration of Aristoxenus, and that definition of irrationality does not force us to make \_> ger than  $- \circ$ . Other irrational feet, such as  $\langle \circ \rangle$ , do call for special discussion; only we must remember that forms assigned by Dionysius to the cyclic dactyl and paest themselves are  $> 0 \circ$  and  $0 \circ 0 >$ , and that there is other explicit testimony for triseme dactyls and anapaests. . It would require much time to discuss the dactylo-epies. Aristoxenus pronounces the ratio 3:4 (the λόγος ἐπί-Hence the compound foot,  $\_ \cup \_ \_$ , is '05) unrhythmical. lmissible. The theory of Boeckh, which makes a dactyl an epitrite equal, it is now needless to discuss. ory possesses the merit of making the seeming trochee , introduces the λόγος τριπλάσιος, and so has been emtically rejected. But Aristoxenus must be once more He tells us distinctly that he is speaking of

ουθμός συνεγής, 'continuous rhythm.' This term, according to Westphal, is applicable to a series of two or more units, and I see no reason to deny the correctness of his interpretation, though it is hardly demonstrated to be correct. Assuming it to be correct, we find \_ \_ \_ wrong, because the λόγος ἐπίτριτος is ἄρρυθμος in ρυθμὸς συνεχής, and  $\underline{\hspace{0.5cm}}$   $\underline{\hspace{0.5cm}}$   $\underline{\hspace{0.5cm}}$  is sometimes repeated in a series; but  $\bot \cup \bot \bot$  is not forbidden, because  $\sqsubseteq \bigcup$  is not repeated in a series. When the spondee is represented by a trochaic form, we cannot write  $\sqsubseteq \lor$ . Whether Schmidt in this case wrote his \_> (here an irrational spondee) out of respect for the law laid down by Aristoxenus, or because he saw an incongruity between \_ \_ and \_ \_ \_ □ ∪ as representatives of the same bar in the same situation, I am unable to say; but I think he proceeded entirely independently of Aristoxenus. Here, then, we seem to have the λόγος ἐπίτριτος alternating with the λόγος ἴσος, which is anal\_\_\_\_\_ ogous to \_ o \_ >, in which the λόγος διπλάσιος alternate with ἀλογία, approximating the λόγος ἐπίτριτος (arrhythmic It is true, we find no mention of a tetraseme trochee; but t would not Aristoxenus have called  $\bot \cup$  a dactyl, in whic  $\bot$ the χρόνοι ρυθμοποιίας ίδιου do not coincide with the χρόν ποδικοί, but one of them παραλλάσσει ἐπὶ τὸ μέγα (L. great than \_), and the other ἐπὶ τὸ μικρόν,  $\circ$  less than  $\circ$   $\circ$ ? See e Psellus, § 8. In modern music the ratio of 3: 1 in the δυθμ... ποιία frequently occurs in the ρυθμός ἴσος, as in "Auld Lar = g Syne," and the familiar tune "Perez." In singing such a bar as figure you will often hear the singer give his voice impulse when it reaches the end of one quarter. He fee that the second χρόνος ποδικός begins, although the fix-st χρόνος ρυθμοποιίας ίδιος is not exhausted. In my opini the best way to practically read the dactylo-epitrites is to duce the feet all to three γρόνοι πρῶτοι, \_ \ \_ > \ \ \ \

6. It has been asserted and insisted upon that the anciests knew nothing about equality of bars. Their silence is assumed as conclusive that bars in the same series were not necessarily equal. I have heard the demand made of those that use the ancient pronunciation of Latin, that they should produce an explicit statement that c never has the sound of s.

But who expects to find in an English grammar a statement that q never has the sound of z? The ancient Romans had never dreamed of anything but a hard c (kay). Now, how, if the Greeks never dreamed of rhythm with other than equal bars? Of course, in case of  $\mu\epsilon\tau a\beta o\lambda \acute{\eta}$ , which is fully provided for by the ancients, there is no real exception, as the rhythm is not continuous, but a change at every foot or two would not be change of rhythm; it would be no rhythm at all. If we continue the alternation of the same pair of unequal feet, there is, indeed, rhythm; but the rhythm is due to the fact that the two feet then become one compound foot.

Everything said about rhythm implies at least an approximation to equality. The χορεῖος ἄλογος, even if we admitted its inequality, would be an exception that proves a rule; for what is its raison d'être?

There are other cases than those I have enumerated, in which the question of equalizing the feet or bars arises; but it has not been my purpose to treat the whole subject, but to show that some objections to particular cases are not well founded, and I would not make the impression that I consider as correct all the theories that I have defended as being possible.

# IV. — English Words which hav Gaind or Lost an Initial Consonant by Attraction.

#### By CHARLES P. G. SCOTT.

It was the original purpose of this paper, first, to define the phenomenon here cald, in the lack of a more exact name, Attraction; secondly, to enumerate and classify the words affected by Attraction, partly to illustrate the phenomenon, but chiefly to exhibit and explain thereby the history of many words hitherto imperfectly exhibited, or of wholly unknown etymology; and, thirdly, to explain why Attraction has ultimately prevaild in some of the cases mentiond, and not in other cases apparently under like conditions. This last, indeed, was my primary motiv.

But the systematic treatment of the subject has reveald so many words and classes of words affected by Attraction, many of them hitherto not known to be so affected, that I am constraind to confine this paper to the most familiar classes, and to defer the exhibition of the other classes, the ultimate explanation of the phenomena, and the philological inferences involve, to a second paper.

By Attraction, as here used, is ment an apparently accidental or unintentional transfer of a final consonant of a word, most commonly the article an or some definitiv, to the beginning of the following word, or of an initial consonant to the end of the preceding word, usually the article a. A typical example of the first kind is an awl, taken as a nawl; of the second kind, a nauger, taken as an auger. The examples, duly classified, ar enumerated in this and the succeeding paper.

Of course there is no real "attraction" here, any more than in other instances of etymological or syntactical change conventionally so described; but the term wil serv, as suggesting a blind motion of the phonetic elements involvd. There is no exact name for the thing; but what it is, is clear. Considerd as a blind motion of the sounds, it is Attraction or Coalescence. Considerd as an act of the mind of the speaker, it is a misdivision of the elements of a phrase; an erroneous analysis of the constituent parts of a separable phrase; a missyllabification, or rather a misverbification, of a phrase, due, in nearly all cases, to variability in the article or definitiv. It is a blunder, but it is almost a creditable blunder; for it usually arises out of a desire to conform to analogy. The blunder lies in the choice of a wrong analogy. It arises and flourishes chiefly in provincial and colloquial speech, but in many cases it has become the rule in literary use, ousting the correct form of the word affected.

This paper is confined to cases in which words hav gaind or lost, temporarily or permanently, an initial n. There are six classes:

I. Cases involving the indefinit article an or a. There ar two divisions, A and B.

A. The first division comprises the cases in which a noun, or an adjectiv with its noun, beginning with a vowel or h, has gaind an initial n from the preceding article an. The final n of an coalesces with the following vowel, leaving the clipt article a, with the noun adornd, like Bottom, with an adscititious head.

I giv the words, literary and provincial, current and obsolete, in one alphabetic order, giving first the normal form, in its present spelling, and then showing the alteration it has sufferd; with proof quotations systematically added, chronological order. The quotations for the normal form ar markt (a); those for the alterd form (b). I hav been at great pains to ascertain and annex the dates. No quotation is complete without a date. But some of the seventeenth and eighteenth century ballads, and some of the nineteenth century poems, hav been left undated, owing to the difficulty of fixing the year without taking another year to fix it. Ballads shun dating, and few editors or publishers of second or later editions of nineteenth century works hav any notion of dates except that changing the date on the title-page is one way of making a "new edition." Nearly all the examples hav been taken directly from the original (printed) texts.

Words cited as examples, with definitions, hav been taken directly from the glossaries or dictionaries of the dates mentiond. When examples hav been taken at second hand, the source is indicated. I giv only a small part of the quotations I hav collected. The quotations ar given, as all quotations should be given, in the spelling of the original. My own spelling is improved according to the principles and rules recommended by the Philological Association.

- 1. Abbey, ME. abbay, abbaye, abbeye, etc., from OF. abaie, LL. abbatia. ME. an abbay appears as a nabbay.
  - (a) po bad he him an abbei.
    c 1305 St. Dunstan (Early Eng. Poems (1862), p. 39).
  - (b) Hec cenobium, a nabbay. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 719, l. 14).
- 2. Abece, absey, ME. abece, abyce, abicee, abcy, abse, also abc, OF. Dece, abc, L. a be ce, abc. We find an abse as a nabse.
  - (a) A bok . . . That men callyt an abece. a 1450 (?) Rel. Antiq. I. 63.

    Abey, hoc alphabetum i, hoc abcedarium ij. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 1.

    And then comes answer like an absey booke.
  - 1623 SHAKESPEARE, King John, i. 1. 196 (F<sup>1</sup>. p. 2).
    (b) Hoc alphabetum, a nabse. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. 2719, l. 40).
- 3. Abscess. An abscess is turnd into a nabscess. In provincial see the word is also taken as a plural, whence an assumed singular absy; and an \*absy is taken as a nabsy, a napsy. This \*absy seems to hav been considered also as a diminutiv; Middlesex folk av made a new original \*abs, or, with the aspirate, habs or haps.
  - (a) At different times I have heard the sentences, "My daughter has a habs in her jaw"; "My husband has a bad haps under his arm."
  - (b) Nabsy. An abscess. 1854 BAKER, Northampt. Gloss. ii. 44. 1857 WRIGHT.
    Napsy. An abscess. 1888 Lowsley, Berkshire Words (E.D.S.), p. 116.
    Nabscess, abscess. 1890 ROBERTSON, Gloss. Glouc. Dial. (E.D.S.), p. 101.

¹ The principal sources thus used ar: Jamieson (Jam.), Etym. Dict. of the Scottish Language, 2 vols., 1808; Supplement, 2 vols., 1825; ed. Longmuir, 1 vol., 866; ed. Longmuir and Donaldson, 4 vols., 1879–1882; Nares (N.), Glossary, 822; ed. Halliwell and Wright, 1857; Halliwell (H.), Dict. of Archaic and Provincial Words, 1847 (ed. 1878); Wright (Wr.), Dict. of Obsolete and Provincial English, 1857 (ed. 1886); Davies (D.), Supplementary Eng. Glossary, 881; Palmer (P.), Folk-Etymology, a Dict. of Corrupted Words, 1882; The Century Dictionary (C.D.), 1889–1891; The New English Dictionary (N.E.D.), 50 far as issued (A-Con, E-Eve), 1884–1891. The last two works hav been used but little, the purpose, in giving quotations, being to ad to the information given by the standard dictionaries and to correct errors therein.

4.	Acorn,	ME.	acorn,	acorun,	and	a	score	of	other	forms;	AS.
æcern	. ME.	an a	corn is	found as	a na	co	run.				

- (a) An acorne, hec glans.

  (b) Hec glans, -dis, a nacorun. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.2 716, l. 8).
- 5. Acre, formerly aker, ME. aker, AS. acer; ME. also acre, after OF. acre, ML. acra, from Eng. ME. an aker appears as a nakyre.
  - (a) Acra, . . . an aker of lond.

    c 1450 Lat.-Eng. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab. 561, l. 7).

    I have an aiker of good ley land,

    Which lyeth low by you sea strand.

    a 1800 The Elfin Knight (Child, Ballads, i. 129).
  - (b) Hec acra, a nakyre. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 737, l. 18).
- 6. Adze, adz, formerly ads, addice, addis, etc., dial. adge, edge, eatch, eitch, eetch; ME. adys, adese, AS. adese. We find an ads, an adge, taken as a nads, a nadge. So a nax for an ax (see Ax).
  - - 1580 TUSSER, Five Hundred Pointes (E.D.S.), p. 36— Nadge, An addice. 1828 [CARR], Craven Gloss. ii. 2—
- 7. Aghendole, aighendale, also ackendole, haughendole, haughendo corrupt provincial forms for what would be regularly \*eightendole or beightendeal, ME. ey3tyndele, an eighth part, namely of a coom, or other mesure. The application varies. An aghendole, an ackendole has become in local use a nackendole.
  - (a) Eyztyndele, mesure (eyhtyndyl, K. eyghtydell, J.W.), Satum.

    1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 137—

    She should yearely have one aghen-dole of meale . . .

    1613 POTT, Discoverie of Witches, p. 23 (in Lanc. Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 154)—
    Aighendale (s. a local word). A measure in Lancashire containing sever—
    quarts. 1775 ASH. (Whence in 1847 HALLIWELL.)

    (b) Nackendole. Eight pounds of meal. Lanc. It is supposed to be a kneading—
  - (b) Nackendole. Eight pounds of meal. Lanc. It is supposed to be a kneading—dole, the quantity usually taken for kneading at one time. Often pro—nounced aghendole. 1847 HALLIWELL—

Nackendole, or rather \*neightendele, appears to hav been further contracted, in the hurry of business, to nail, nale.

Nail of Beef, Sf. [Suffolk] eight pounds. 1692 COLES, Eng. Dick-Nail. Eight pounds, generally applied to articles of food. 1847 HALLIWELL-Nail. A weight of eight pounds.

1887 PARISH and SHAW, Dict. Kentish Dial. (E.D.S.), p. 106-Nail, nale, nal, s. A weight of 7 lbs., used for wool. 1887 DONALDSON, Suppl. to Jamieson's Scottish Dict., p. 171.

- 8. Aglet, ME. aglet, aglott, agglot, etc., from OF. aiguilette, etc. An aglet appears as a naglet.
  - (a) Agglot, or an aglet, to lace wyth alle. Acus, aculus (acula P.).
  - (b) Hoc mominlum, a naglott. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. 2734, l. 37).

    Thou mayest buy as much love for a naglet in the middle of Scotland as thou shalt winne by thy complaints.

1633 Dux Grammaticus. (P. p. 581.)

- 9. Ail, a pain, sickness, disease; compare early ME. eil, eile, eyle, injury, harm; ME\_eil, eile, eyle, AS. egle, painful. is probably the original form of a nail (nail2), given as a Scotch erm for "a particular pain in the forehead." I suppose a "nail" may be felt in other parts. It appears from the second quotation ★ hat a Scotch damsel named Mawkin had an "aill" in her "hairt," and "sum pairte" of it at length crept into Robin's. Mawkin's previous discourse indicates that there was no weakness in her foreead. Illi robur et aes triplex.
  - (a) The blake clot det lesse eile to ben eien. c 1230 Ancren Riwle, p. 50. Be that sum pairte of Mawkynis aill Outthrow his hairt cowd creip;

He fallowit hir fast thair till assaill, And till hir tuke gude keip.

c 1475 HENRYSON, Robene and Makyne, l. 77. (Donaldson, Suppl.) Ails, s. pl. Evils. 1875 ROBINSON, (b) Nail, s. A particular pain in the forehead. 1875 ROBINSON, Whithy Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 2. in the forehead. 1866 (and 1880) JAMIESON.

- 10. Ail2, a beard of grain; ME. eile, eyle, ei3le, AS. egl. An ail, ial. an oil, has become a nail, a noil.
  - (a) (1) Arista, ance an eyle.

c 1450 Lat.-Eng. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab. 9565, l. 34). Swift as the swallow, or that Greekish nymph

That seem'd to overfly the eyles of corn.
1590 PEELE, Polyhymnia (Wks. ed. Dyce), p. 571.

Ails, s. pl., beards of barley. 1876 GOWER, Surrey Provincialisms (E.D.S.), p. 80.

Also in various dialectal forms, hail, oil, hoil, ile, avel, havel; all usually in the plural.

- (2) Barley-hailes. The spears of barley. South. 1847 HALLIWELL, p. 143.
  (3) Oils. 1875 PARISH, Dict. Sussex Dialect; 1880 BRITTEN, Old
  Country and Farming Words (E.D.S.), p. 65. (P. p. 263.)
  (4) Hoils. The beard or stalk of barley or other corn.
  1887 PARISH and SHAW, Dict. Kentish Dial. (E.D.S.), p. 76.
  (5) Iles. Ails or beards of barley.
  1736 PEGGE, Alphabet of Kenticisms (repr. E.D.S.), p. 34;
  1887 PARISH and SHAW, Dict. Kentish Dial. (E.D.S.), p. 83.
  (6) Avel. The awn or beard of barley. East. 1847 HALLIWELL, p. 115.
  (7) Havel. As Avel.

In an ail, dial. an oil, taken as a nail, a noil, I find the origin of the hitherto unsolvd noil, now chiefly in the plural noils, as a technical term for 'short pieces or knots of wool broken off in the process of combing'; also 'pieces of waste silk,' the term for 'short refuse pieces from grain' being easily transferd to 'short refuse pieces from wool or silk.' This etymology is supported by comparing the other form nail, and the earliest forms, which hav hitherto been overlookt, with the forms of ail:

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(a) ail, aile, ayle, eile, eyle, ile, yle, oil, hoil.
(b) nail, nayle, nyle, nyl, noil, noyle.
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The following examples include the earliest I hav found.

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(b) nail,
(b) Nyle of wulle (nyl or wyl, S. nyle or wulle, H.). Nullipensa, plur.

1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 356.

[The variations show uncertainty on the part of the scribes, proving, as
   we should expect from the etymology here proposed, that the form was
   unfamiliar at that time.]
 Nayle of wolle [no French equivalent given].
                                                                1530 PALSGRAVE, p. 247.
No person shall put any noyles, thrums, &c., or other deceivable thing into any broad woolen cloth. 1621 Stat. Jac. I (cit. N. & Q. 6th Ser. x. 86).
New camnas of course nowells.
                                   Trelawny Papers (cit. N.&Q. 6th Ser. x. 86).
The wast was chiefly spun by old women, and that only from backings or
   nails, as they were not able to card the wool.
                  1791-1799 Statist. Acc. (Aberdeen) xix. 207.
                                                                               (Jam. 1808.)
                      Refuse of wool or flax, or what is left after dressing it.
Backings, s. pl.
                                                                            1808 Jamieson.
                                                                             1808 Jamieson.
Nails, s. pl. The refuse of wool.
Noils, coarse refuse locks of wool, fit for making mops.
                                                          1830 FORBY.
                                                                             (Way, p. 356.)
Noils. Coarse locks of wool. East. 1847 HALIWELL.
Noils. . . . the term is never applied to any kind of wool, in its natural
   state; but, in the process of combing, the short wool that will not pull out to any length, and is consequently left on the comb, after the slither
is drawn, is called Noils. 1854 BAKER, Northampt. Gloss. i. 61. Noils, coarse locks of wool; 'dag-locks.'
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1881 EVANS, Leic. Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 201. 11. Ailbourn, ailburn, formerly eylebourn, an intermittent brook or spring; originally supposed, as the quotations from Warkworth (1473) and the Gentleman's Magazine (1777) indicate, to betoken sickness or pestilence; from ail1+bourn, burn. See especially the

quotation from Warkworth. As an ail has become a nail, so an ail-

bourn has become a nailbourn. (a) There is a famous Eylebourn which rises in this parish [Petham], and sometimes runs but a little way before it falls into the ground.

1719 HARRIS, Hist. of Kent, p. 240. (Pegge.)

Kilburn [1659] saith that A.D. 1472 here (at Lewisham) newly broke out of the earth a great spring; by which I suppose he means an Eyle-

bourn, or Nailbourn, as the vulgar call it. 1719 Id. p. 179.

(b) Also in the same yere Womere watere ranne hugely, withe suche abun-1719 Id. p. 179. daunce of watere, that nevyr manne sawe it renne so moche afore this tyme. Womere is callede the woo watere: for Englyschmen, whonne

thei dyd fyrst inhabyde this lond, also sone as thei see this watere renne. thei knew wele it was a tokene of derthe, or of pestylence, or of grete batayle; wherfor thei callede it Womere; (for we as [is] in Englysche tonge woo, and mere is called watere, whiche signyfieth woo-watere;) for alle that tyme thei sawe it renne, thei knew welle that woo was comynge to Englonde. And this Wemere is vij. myle frome Sent Albons, at a place callede Markayate; and this Wemere ranne at every felde afore specifyede, and nevere so hugely as it dyd this yere, and ranne stylle to the xiij. day of June next yere folowynge. Also ther has ronne dyverse suche other wateres, that betokenethe lykewyse; one at Lavesham [Lewisham] in Kent, and another byside Canturbury called Naylborne, and another at Croydone in Suthsex [Surrey], and another vij, myle a thys syde the castelle of Dodley, in the place called Hungerevale; that whenne it betokenethe batayle it rennys foule and trouble watere; and whenne betokenythe derthe or pestylence it rennyth as clere as any 1473 WARKWORTH, Chronicle (Camden Soc.), p. 23. watere. 1719 HARRIS, Hist. of Kent, p. 179. [See above]. a torrent which flows only now and then, or once in a Nailbourn. A Nailbourn . few years. Now, when these torrents broke out, they were supposed to betoken famines, sicknesses, and deaths, chiefly I presume sicknesses; whence I conjecture there is a Crasis in the case, a Nailbourn being in fact an Ailbourn, as the forerunner of Ails or diseases. It is written, however, Eylebourn by Dr. Harris, p. 240, 23, 411, and so Philipot gives it, p. 42, which perhaps may be a corruption of *Ailbourn*; but as these desultory torrents often abound with small eels, it is possible they might take their names from thence, quasi Eelbournes. But there will still be a Crasis in Nailbourn. 1777 Gent. Mag., July, p. 321.
Nailburn. A kind of temporary brook or intermittent land-spring, very irregular in its visitation and duration. There are several nailburns in Kent. One may be mentioned below Barham Downs, which sometimes ceases to flow for two or three years, and then breaks out very copiously, and runs into the lesser Stour at Bridge. Warkworth, Chronicle, p. 24, gives a very curious account of these singular streams, and mentions one "byside Canturbury called Naylborne," which seems to be 1847 HALLIWELL. that above alluded to Nailbourn. An intermittent stream. . . . " Why! the nailbourn 's begun to run a'ready."

1887 PARISH and SHAW, Dict. of Kentish Dial. (E.D.S.), p. 106.

Az Alb, ME. albe, aube, awbe, from OF. aube, from L. alba.

Alba, anee an awbe. c 1450 Lat. Eng. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 562, l. 34).

Hec alba, a nawbe. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 721, l. 18).

And evere on that bare them had a nobe or elles a surples.

1554 MACHYN, Diary (Camden Soc.), p. 62.

dial. eller (ME. aller, ellyr, AS. alor, aler, alr), + tree. I find ME. are ellyrtre as a nellyrtre.

- (a) An Ellyrtre, alnus; alnicetum est locus vbi crescunt. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 113.
  Aulne, Aune. An Aller, or Alder tree. 1611 COTGRAVE.
- (b) Hec ulnus [read alnus], a nellyrtre.
  c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 716, l. 21).
- 14. Alp, a bullfinch; a provincial word found also in the forms (aupe, awpe), \*aub (awbe), olp, olf (olph), \*oup (owpe), ope,

and with the aspirate \*hope, hoop. An ope (an \*oup) has long been taken as a nope (a noup, a nowpe).

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(a) In many places were nyghtyngales alpes, fynches, and wodewales.

c 1400 Rom. of the Rose, l. 659.

Alpe, a bryde. Ficedula. 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 10.
      Ficedula, a wodewale or an alpe.
                                            Aedulla Gram. (Way, Prompt. Parv. p. 10.)
                                c 1460 Medulla Gram.
      Fecedula, an alpe.
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Be als just to awppis and owlis,

As unto pacokkis, papingais, or crennis.

1503 Dunbar, The Thrissil and the Rois, 18. (P. p. 176.)

The tatling Awbe doth please some fancie wel,
And some like best the Byrde as black as cole.

1576 GASCOIGNE, The Complaint of Philomene (ed. Arber, 1869), p. 88 Fraylezsllo, a bird with blacke feathers on the head, like linget, called o some, an Owpe. Also a little frier.

1623 MINSHEU, Dict. in Span. and Eng. p. 129 Alp, or Nope, s., a bulfinch. find since that it is used in other counties, almost generally all over England. 1691 RAY, Collection of Eng. Words (repr. E.D.S.), p. 77

An Alpe or Bullfinch. Rubicilla. 1693 Lingua Romana Dict. Luculentum Novum—
Alp or Olp. The bull-finch. Also Blood-alp, and Black-cap. Cock—
says Alp is a north country name for this bird.

1823 MOOR, Suffolk Words, p. —
The bull-finch, pronounced sometimes Ope. This interesting bird also called Nope, which see; and Alp. 1823 Moor, Suffilk Words, p. 25Nope. I am told that this is a Suffolk name of the bull-finch, but I neven heard it. We call it Alp or Olp, and by other names. See Alp.

1823 MOOR, Suffolk Words, p. 25\_ [Moor notes the change from an olp (" if pronounced ope, as it sometim is") to *a nope*; p. 255.] *Alp*, a bullfinch. 1875 NODAL and MILNER, Lanc. Gloss. p. 9-

Also with an aspiration, hoop; a different word and bird from the hoop, the hoopoe.

Rubicilla, a bull-finch, a hoop, and bull spink, a nope. 1667 MERRETT, Pinax, p. 176. (N.) 1825 JENNINGS, Somerset Gloss. p. 47. Hoop, s. A Bullfinch.

Hoop. The bullfinch: So called from the white mark on his neck. 1868 HUNTLEY, Gloss. of the Cotswold Dialect, p. 44. Hoop. The bullfinch. [Common.]

1890 ROBERTSON, Gloss. Glouc. Dial. (E.D.S.), p. 71.

### Also in composition:

- (1) Blood-alp. 1823 MOOR, Suffolk Words, p. 7. Blood-olph. A bullfinch. 1830 FORBY; 1847 HALLIWELL. (2) Green-olf.
- (2) Green-olf. A green grosbeak.
  1830 FORBY; 1847 HALLIWELL, p. 416 (s.v. greeney).
  (3) Cockhoop. A bull finch.
  1847 HALLIWELL; 1857 WRIGHT.

(b) The red sparrow [reed-sparrow?], the nope, the red-breast and the wren. 1613 DRAYTON, Polyolbion, xiii. p. 915. (N.) Chochepierre. A kind of Nowpe, or Bull-finch, that feeds most on the

1611 (and 1673) COTGRAVE. 1668 WILKINS, Real Character, p. 150. kernels of Cherristones. Bull-finch, Alpe, Nope. 1668 WILKINS, Real Character, p. 150.
Alp, Nope, Bulfinch, Sf. [Suffolk]. 1692 Col.ES, Eng. Dict.
A Nope, a bird. Rubicilla. 1693 Lingua Romana Dict. Luculentum Novum.

#### Also in composition:

Tom-noup. The titmouse. Salop.

1847 HALLIWELL.

- 15. Altar, ME. alter, auter, awter, etc., from OF. auter, alter, ME. an awtyr appears as a nawtyr.
  - (a) An Awtyr, ara . . . altare [etc.].(b) Ara, nawter. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 16.
  - c 1400 Metr. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab. 2626; printed "(a) nawter").
    - Hoc altare, a nawtyr. Hoc superaltare, a hye awtyr.
      c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. 2720, l. 14 and 15).
- 16. Altar-cloth, ME. auter-cloth, awtyr-cloth, etc. ME. an awtyrcloth is found written a nawtyr-cloth.
  - (a) An Awtyr cloth, linthium. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 16. (b) Hoc lurthium [read linthium], a nawtyrcloth.
    - A nauter cloth. 1558 Cornwall Church Acc. (Stratton). (Peacock, Manley and Corringham Gloss., E.D.S. 1889, p. 369.)
- 17. Ambry, dial. aumbry, aumry, ME. multiformly almry, aumbry, merie, almary, etc., from OF. almarie, armarie, etc., from L. arma-ME. an almry appears as a nalmry.
  - (a) Almery of mete kepynge, or a saue for mete. Cibutum.
  - 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 10.
    (b) Hoc armoriolum, a nalmry. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 726, l. 41).
- 18. Amite, ME. amyt, amyte, etc., from OF. amit, from L. amic-Zzis. ME. an amyt appears as a namyt.
  - (a) Thou schalt chaunge hem as an amyte. c 1382 WICLIF, Heb. i. 12. Hic amictus, A<sup>ce</sup> a amyte. c 1475 Pict. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 755, l. 24).
    (b) Hic amictus, a namyt. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 721, l. 19).
- 19. Anbury, also anberry and ambury, also angleberry, angleberry, anleberry, etc., a spongy wart on horses or oxen; also a disease of turnips. We find an anberry as a nanberry. So an anleberry is taken as a nannleberry.
  - (a) Moro . . . Also a Mulberie-tree. Also a wart [1659 wartle] in a horse called an Auburie [read Anburie]. 1598 (1611 and 1659) FLORIO. Selfo, a warte in a horse called an Auburie [read Anburie].
    - 1598 (and 1611) FLORIO. Selfo, a wart in horses which our Farriers call an Arburie [read Anburie.] 1659 FLORIO, ed. Torriano.
      - Hanbury. The disease to which growing turnips are subject, caused by insects; it shews itself in small globular excrescences on their skin. They in this state are said to have got the han-hury or anberry. It is,
      - I believe, the same that in the north is termed five-fingershand-berry, may be the term; though one does not see exactly why.
      - 1823 MOOR, Suffolk Words, p. 162.

        A disease in turnips; described under Hanbury, which see but this is, I believe, the more correct name for it. (etc.)
        1823 Moor, Suffolk Words, App. p. 504.
        1847 HALLIWELL; 1854 BAKER.

Anberry.

- Angleberry. A sore or kind of hang-nail under the animal. North.

  (b) Nanberry, a N. W. Lincolnshire word for an anberry A sore or kind of hang-nail under the claw or hoof of an 1847 HALLIWELL.
- 1882 PALMER, p. 581. Nannleberries. See anberry. 1847 HALLLIWELL
- 20. Anchor, formerly, and properly, anker, ME. anker, AS. ancor, ME. an anker appears as a nankyre. from L. ancora.
  - (a) Abouten his hals an anker god. c 1300 Havelok, 1. 670\_ An Ankyr of a schyppe, ancora.
  - cora. 1483 Cath. angl. p. 10. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 737, l. 33). (b) Hec ancora, a nankyre.
- 21. Andiron, ME. awndyren, awndyrn, aundyre, and a mob of other forms; from OF. andier. ME. an awndyrn appears as a nawndyrn.
  - (a) Awnderne (awndyryn K. awndyrn P.). Andena, ipoporgium.
  - 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 19. (b) Hoc ipopirgium, a nawndyrn. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. 728, 1.8).
- 22. Angnail, now commonly agnail, formerly also agnel; ME. agnayle, angnaile, AS. angnægl. An angnail, an agnail, is taken in provincial use as a nangnail, a nagnail.
  - (a) With the shell of a pomegarned, they purge away anguaylles and such hard swellinges.

    1568 TURNER, Herbal. (Wr. p. 39).

    Agnail, a point of detached skin on the back of the fingers and thumbs near the nail. 1881 Evans, Leic. Words (E.D.S.), p. 89. Angnail, Northamptoniensibus est Clavus pedum, gemursa, pterugium.
  - 1744 LYE, ed. Junius. (b) Nangnail. A hangnail. Var. dial. 1847 HALLIWELL. 1882 NODAL and MILNER, Lanc. Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 196. Nagnail. Nagnail, Nangnail, s. An ingrown nail on the toe; West of S. 1887 DONALDSON, Suppl. to Jamieson's Scottish Dict., p. 312.

Popular sophistication has turnd angnail also into angernail, and hangnail. Another form is thangnail (the angnail?) (Wr.). even wragnail:

Adriánes, cornes in the feet or toes, called of some wragnailes. 1623 MINSHEU, Dict. in Span. and Eng.

- 23. Ankle, ME. ancle, ankyl, anclowe, AS. ancleow, oncleow. ME. an ankyl becomes a nankyl.
  - (a) Hec cauilla, Ae ankylle. c 1425 Lat.-Eng. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab. 2637, l. 10). Hec cavilla, Ace a hankyl.
  - c 1475 Pictorial Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 751, l. 4). c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 678, l. 38). (b) Hec cavilla, a nankyle.
- 24. Anlace, ME. anlace, anlas, anelace, anelas, ML. anelacius. We find an anlas taken as a nanlas, an nanlas.
  - An anlas [var. anlaas, anelas], and a gipser al of silk, Heng at his gerdul, whit as morne mylk. (a) c 1386 CHAUCER, C. T. Prol. 1. 357.

Bot Arthur with ane anlace egerly smyttez, And hittez euer in the hulke up to be hiltez.

c 1440 Morte Arthure (E.E.T.S. 1865), l. 1148.

(b) Als scharpe as a thorn
An nanlas of stele.
c 1420 Anturs of Arther (Camden Soc. 1842), xxx. 13.

- 25. Antony grice, the same as Anthony pig, Tantony pig. We find an Antony grice taken in ME. as a nantyny gryce.
  - (b) And rene bou not fro hous to hous lyke a nantyny gryce.
    c 1450 The Good Wyf Wold a Pylgremage, l. 15 (E.E.T.S. 1869, p. 39).
- 26. Ape, ME. ape, AS. apa. In ME. an ape appears, early and coften, as a nape.
  - (a) Som tyme lyk a man or lyk an Ape [ver. an hape I ms.].

    c 1386 CHAUCER, Friar's Tale, l. 163. (Six-text, D. 1464.)

    Make them to lye and mowe like an ape.

    c 1485 Killing of the Children, l. 296 (Digby Myst., N.S.S. p. 12).

    Hec simia, A<sup>®</sup> a hape. c 1475 Pictorial Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 759, l. 24).

    Caparrone, a pugge, an ape, a munkie, a babuine, a gull, a ninnie, a mome, a sot.

    1598 FLORIO.

    Scimia, a munkie or an ape.
  - (b) Fra þan i tell him for a nape.

    c 1300 Cursor Mundi (Cotton MS.) (E.E.T.S.), l. 9017.

    Hec simea, Ae nape. c 1425 Lat.-Eng. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 639, l. 21).

    He lokis lurkand like an nape. c 1430 York Plays, xxix. l. 107 (p. 258).

    A napys mow men sayne he makes. c 1440 Boke of Curtasye. (Way, p. 346.)

    Hec simia, Acce a nappe. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 699, l. 40).

The form nape may seem to confirm a notion which is current in all the dictionaries. The word jackanapes, formerly often written jackanapes, is always referd, for the second element, to ape. Johnson (1755) explains it as "jack and ape," and so the rest until Skeat (1882), who endevors to giv a rational explanation of the second syllable. Jackanapes, he says, is "put for Jack o' apes, with the insertion of n in imitation of the ME. an (really equivalent to on), and for the avoiding of hiatus see (Morris, Hist. Outlines of Eng. Accidence, p. 195); so that the word meant 'a man who exhibited performing apes.'" But this alleged sense is not to be found; and, singular as it may seem, the word has no etymological connection at all with ape, with which it has always been associated in sense.

In its proper use the word was applied to an ape itself; meaning a performing ape, or an ape on exhibition. In this use it must hav existed before the year 1450, when it first emerges, in a satirical use, applied to a person (see below). The quotations for the meaning ape' which I hav found ar later. It is in keeping with the unlucky career of the word that in only two of these quotations (1611 Florio, and 1668 Wilkins) is the meaning 'ape' clear on the surface. In all

(Todd.)

the others it would be plausible, tho erroneous, to explain the word as referring to a person—'a fantastic fellow,' 'a buffoon or harlequin.'

He grins and he gapes, As it were Jack Napes.

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a 1529 SKELTON, Poems, p. 160. He played Jacke-a-napes, swearynge by his tenne bones.
  1543 BALE, Yet a Course at the Romish Foxe, fol. 92. (Todd.) The priest whe he goeth to masse. . . playeth out the rest vnder silence, with signes and profers, with noddyng, beckyng, and mowyng, as it were fack-an-apes. a 1536 TYNDALE, Works, p. 132. (Richardson.) For every priest maketh them of a sundry maner & many more madly then
      the gestures of jackanapes.
  a 1536 TYNDALE, Works, p. 283. (Richardson.)
Then steppeth forth Sir Laurence Loiterer, and he plays Jack monkey at
      the altar, with his turns and half turns, and a hundred toys more.
  a 1563 BALE (in Strype, Memorials, an. 1553). (Richardson.) If there be a bear or a bull to be baited in the afternoon, or a jackanape.
      to ride on horseback, the minister hurries the service over in a shameful
      manner, in order to be present at the show.
                           1572 CARTWRIGHT, Admonition to Parliament.
  Jacke-Napes, forsooth, did chase because I eate my slave the bat.
  1592 WARNER, Albion's England. (Wr. p. 598.) I believe he hath robb'd a jackanapes of his gesture; marke but his countenance; see how he mops, and how he mowes, and how he strains his
                                                 1606 RICHE, Faultes, &c., p. 7.
      lookes!
                                                                                                      (Latham.)
  Monina, a pretty pug or iakeanapes.

1611 FLORIO [not in ed. 1598; or iakeanapes omitted in ed. 1659].
  Like a come-a-lost jacanapes.
  1616 SHELDON, Miracles of Antichrist, p. 24. (Todd.) If I might buffet for my Loue, or bound my Horse for her fauours, I could
  lay on like a Butcher, and sit like a Iack an Apes, neuer off.

1623 SHAKESPEARE, Hen. V. v. 2. 145 (F<sup>1</sup> p. 93).

I will be like a Iacke-an-Apes also, to burne the Knight with my Taber.

1623 SHAKESPEARE, M. W. W. iv. 4. 67 (F<sup>1</sup> p. 56).
                    He that gallops his horse on Blackstone-edge
                        By chance may catch a fall;
                    My lord Mount Eagles bears be dead,
                       His jackanapes and all.
1661 Lancashire Song, l. 20, in Wit and Drollery (Ritson, Anc. Songs, p. 189).
  Clawed Beasts not rapacious . . . Man-like . . . bigger kind; either that
      which hath a short tail: or that which hath no tail
     I Baboon, Drill.
Ape, Jackanapes.
Lesser kind; having a long tail.
Monkey, Marmosit.
Sloth, Haut, Ay.
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The word came to be applied in contempt, like monkey, to a man or boy impertinent in speech, offensiv in manner, or ridiculous for finical or gaudy apparel; or in mere blind vituperation. It is so used in the earliest instance I hav found, in a satirical ballad of the middle of the fifteenth century.

> Jac Napes wolde one the see a maryner to ben, With his cloge and his cheyn, to seke more tresour.
>
> c 1450 On the Death of the Duke of Suffolk (Wright, Polit.
>
> Poems, 1861, ii. 232; Ritson, Ancient Songs, p. 56).

1668 WILKINS, Real Character, p. 158.

For Jac Napes soule Placebo and Dirige.
For Jac Nape soule Placebo and Dirige.
For Jac Nape soule, De profundis clamavi.
And in especial for Jac Napes, that euer was wyly, Id. 1. 8. Id. l. 16, 32, and 56.
Id. l. 24. For his soule Placebo and Dirige. Id. l. 47.

Ritson says, "We must be content to remain in the dark with respect to the origin or application of the nickname of Jac Nape (Jackanapes)," but the reference to the clog and chain — compare:

> pou art lyke an ape teyzed with a clogge c 1440 Boke of Curtasye (Babees Book, p. 302),

and the use of Nape alone in another line of the same poem —

That brought forthe confitebor, for alle this Napes reson (1. 26) -

make it clear that Jac Napes, Jac Nape is a mere term of vituperation, meaning in the author's mind, 'Jack Ape,' 'Jack Monkey.'

Down, Jack-an-apes, from thy feign'd royalty. 1599 MARSTON, Scourge of Villany, bk. iii. sat. 9. (Todd.) Next cometh fashions Jack-an-apes, A gull compos'd of pride,

That hath his goodness in good cloathes, And nothing good beside. 1611 ROWLANDS, Knave of Clubs. (Wr. p. 598.)

Cai. By-gar, me vill kill de Priest, for he speake for a lack-an-ape to Anne Page. 1623 SHAKESPEARE, M. W. W. ii. 3. 87 (Fl p. 48). Caius. You lack 'Nape: giue-a this Letter to Sir Hugh, by gar it is a shal-

lenge: I will cut his troat in the Parke and I will teach a scuruy Iack-a-

range: 1 will cut his troat in the Parke and I will teach a scuruy lack-a-nafe Priest to meddle, or make: — you may be gon.

1623 SHAKESPEARE, M.W.W. i. 4. 113 (F<sup>1</sup> p. 43).

That lacke-an-apes with scarfes [Parolles].

1623 SHAKESPEARE, All's Well, iii. 5. 88 (F<sup>1</sup> p. 243).

Vacke-an-Apes.

1623 SHAKESPEARE, Cymb. ii. 1. 4 (F<sup>1</sup> p. 375).

Sackanips. An affected puppyish young man. What is now called a Dandy. In my younger days we used to call these puppies macarana. Dandy. In my younger days we used to call these puppies macaronys.

1823 Moor, Suffolk Words, p. 182.

Jack-a-napes. A conceited coxcomb. 1854 BAKER, Northampt. Gloss. i. 353.

## Hence the attributiv use:

And then he showed how I suld have done, - and that I suld have held up my hand to my brow, as if the grandeur of the King and his horse-graith thegither had casten the glaiks in my een, and mair jackanape tricks I suld hae played.

1822 SCOTT, Fortunes of Nigel, iii. tricks I suld hae played.

The term became so familiar as to giv use to a variant Johnanapes, and even to a feminin Jane of dpes, the last showing clearly the belief that Jackanapes stood for \*Jack-of-apes.

Rol. If I were at leisure, I would make you shew tricks now.

Dund. Do I look like a Johnanapes?

1633 SHIRLEY, Bird in a Cage, ii. 1. (C.D.)

Poliph. But we shall want a woman. Grac. No, here's Jane of apes shall serve.

1624 MASSINGER, Bondman, iii. 3. (C.D.)

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Shakespeare makes Dr. Caius make it John Ape:

Cai. By-gar, you are de Coward: de Iack dog: Iohn Ape.
1623 SHAKESPEARE, M.W.W. iii. I. 85 (F1 p. 48).

I think the true form of the word is Fack-a-Napes or Fack a Napes; that is, Fack o' Napes. It means 'Jack of Naples,' or more generally 'Jack of Italy,' or 'Italian Jack.' Fack alone was a common term for an ape or monkey (we stil call almost any monkey Focko); and Fack a Napes, 'Jack of Naples' or 'Italy,' seems to hav arisen as a popular humorous term for the fantastic anthropoid  $(\vec{a}\nu\theta\rho\omega\pi\sigma\sigma s = "every man-jack" of them")$ , familiar to the gaping crowd, who saw in his gaudy dress and lively manners a similarity to the mountebanks, cantabanks, apewards, bearwards, and other 'Italian Jacks' of the day, and especially the very 'Italian Jack' who led the ape about - the apeward himself.

The proof of this etymology wil appear on considering the elements separately - Fack and anapes.

The word Fack was often used with reference to Italians. a curious coincidence that the American word Dago, etymologically the same as Fack, though originally applied to Portugese (Pg. Diego, Lat. Facobus), is now more commonly applied to the more numerous Italians.

Theyr Secretarye, called, as I remember, Jacques Geffray, an Italian. c 1596 SPENSER, Ireland, Globe ed., p. 656.

Mer. Come, come, thou art as hot a lacke in thy mood, as any in Italie. Zane, the name of John [1611 in some parts of Lombardy, but commonly vsed for] a sillie Iohn, a gull, a noddie. Vsed also for a simple vice, clowne, foole or simple fellowe in a plaie or comedie. 1598 FLORIO. Zannulo a sillie Iohn a core Iohn a fellow in the commonly a sillie Iohn a core Iohn a fellow in the core Iohn a fellow i

1598 FLORIO. 1598 FLORIO. Zannuolo, a sillie Iohn, a poore Iohn, a iacke.

The precise phrase anapes for a Napes, here supposed to exist in jackanapes, is recognized in another term fustian-anapes, properly written fustian a Napes.

His dooblet sleevez of black woorsted; upon them a payr of poynets of tawny chamblet, laced along the wreast wyth blu threeden points; a wealt toward the hand of fustian anapes.

1575 LANEHAM, Account of the Queen's Entertainment at Killingworth Castle. (Wr. p. 68.)

Vestis heteromalla lanea, ἐτερόμαλλος ἐσθής. De tripe, de chamois velouté. A garment of fustion anapes, of vellure, of tuft mockado. 1585 Nomenclator. (Wr. p. 68.)

[Wright explains Anapes as "cloth."]

Tripe: f. A Tripe; (Jn which sence it is most vsed plurally;) also, the bellie, or paunch; also, Valure, Irish Tuftaffata, Fustian an apes [1650 1611 COTGRAVE. Trip de velours. Valure, Mocke-veluet, Fustian an Apes. 1611 COTGRAVE.

= One of my neighbors . . . Set a-fire my fustian and apes breeches. a 1627 MIDDLETON, Works, iv. 425. (H.)

[... "Which the editor proposes to correct to Naples breeches. To mend the matter, we actually find apes' breeches set down in the index to the notes!" H. p. 59.]

Fustian an apes, tripe de velours. 1632 SHERWOOD (ed. 1650 and 1673).

Fustian anapes. 1662 Strange Man telling Fortunes to Englishmen. (H.)

That fustian anapes or an apes should be fustian a Napes, that is, Napes, 'of Naples,' is proved by the following quotations:

> Que null homme . . . use ne were en araie pur son corps . . . ascun fustian, bustian, ne fustian de Napuls.

> 1463 Act 3 Edw. IV. v. (N.E.D. s.v. A-napes.) Fuschan in appules. 1519 Inventory, quoted in Peacock, Church

> Furniture, p. 200. (P. p. 571.)
> Trippa, a kinde of tripe veluet that they make womes saddles with called 1598 FLORIO. fustian of Naples. Trippa, any kind of tripe. Also a kind of tripe veluet as our fustion of

> 1611 FLORIO. Naples. Trippa di velúto, tripe velvet, mock-beggers velvet, Fustian of Naples.

> 1659 FLORIO, ed. Torriano. Naples fustians tript, or velure plaine. 1660 Act 12 Chas. II. iv. (N.E.D.)

I suspect that the provincial word nailnapes, a gimlet (1847 Halliwell, 1854 Baker), was originally \*nail a Napes, 'nail o' Naples,' that is, a tool, like a twisted nail, imported from Naples or Italy, as swords were imported from Milan ("Milan steel"). A gimlet is also cald a rail-passer, where nail is used in a different way.

Italy was noted for its horses, and Lombardy, Apulia, and Naples ar mentiond especially:

> For it [this hors] so hy was, and so brood and long, So well proporcioned for to ben strong, Ryght as it were a stede of Lumbardye, Ther-with so horsly and so quik of ye, As it a gentil Poileys courser were.

c 1386 CHAUCER, Squire's Tale, 1. 191.

Cheval du Regne. A courser of Naples.

1611 COTGRAVE.

There is a recipe for Naples-bisket, quoted from an unnamed source, probably c 1675, in Wright, p. 693. These examples indicate that Naples was, like Rome, used with a general implication of "Italy'; as Paris often implies 'France.' I find the following late ME. forms of the name: Naples, Napels, Napells, Napuls, Napele, beside Napes as above.

Apes wer introduced into England from Italy, and wer often exhibited by Italians. An old political poem, mentioning "the commodites and nycetees of Venicyans and Florentynes, with there galees," says:

> The grete galees of Venees and Fflorence Be wel ladene with thynges of complacence, Alle spicerye and of grocers ware, Wyth swete wynes, alle manere of chaffare, Apes, and japes, and marmusettes taylede, Nifles, trifles, that litelle have avayled. 1436 The Libel of English Policy, 1. 348 (Wright, Polit. Poems, ii. 172).

The exhibitors or keepers, cald apewards, ar noticed in the fourteenth century.

'No,' quath an ape ward, 'for nout that I knowe.' 1362 LANGLAND, Piers Plowman, (A), vi. 119.

In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries apes wer kept in the wel-known Paris Garden and in other places, and allusions to their tricks, dress, and manners ar numerous.

In this lande I did see an ape plaie at ticke-tacke, and after at Irishe on the tables, with one of that lande. 1573 BULLEIN, Dialogue. (H. p. 873.)

When Fencers fees are like to apes rewards, A piece of breade, and therewithal a bobbe 1576 GASCOIGNE, The Steele Glas (ed. Arber), p. 80\_

The apes, monkeys, baboons, bavians, wer exhibited in fantastic dress:

An ape vvilbe an ape, by kinde as they say, Though that ye clad him all in purple array. 1589 [PUTTENHAM], Arte of Eng. Poesie (ed. Arber), p. 211 \_

A mockmask of baboons attired like fantastical travellers, in Neapolitars

suits and great ruffs, all horsed with asses.

1614 CHAPMAN, Maske of the Middle Temple and Lyncolnes Inn (p. 342, ed. Shepherd). (Littledale, in Two Noble Kinsmen, Notes, p. 144.)

Here we hav the very 'Jack of Naples,' in fantastic dress, sitting on an ass. Henry the Fifth says he could sit on his horse "like a Iack an Apes, neuer off" (see quot. above).

A jackanapes coat with silver buttons. a 1669 PEPYS, Diary. (Wr. p. 598.)

It is the gaudy or fantastic dress, indeed, that led to the use of jackanapes for a fop or pert dandy. Compare macaroni, also of Italian origin, in the quotation from Moor, above.

"Italian sports" of all kinds wer popular in the sixteenth century:

Al eyes behold, with eagre deepe desire, The Faulcon flye, the grehounde runne his course, The Bayted Bul, and Beare at stately stake,

These Enterluds, these newe Italian sportes.

1576 GASCOIGNE, The Steele Glas (ed. Arber), p. 59.

It is to be noted that Punchinello (with its short form Punch), pantaloon, harlequin, ar from the Italian; and Merry-Andrew is an Italian character.

Th' Italian Merry Andrews took their place, And quite debauch'd the Stage with lewd grimace. 1673 DRYDEN, Epil. to Univ. of Oxford, l. 11. (C.D.)

Monkey, which has supplanted ape as the popular generic term in English, is usually referd to an Italian origin, and monkeys ar to this day familiar accompaniments to the music which Italian genius accumulates by the "storage system" and turns on at pleasure if that be the word to use.

For the local reference in the phrase-name 'Jack of Naples' compare Fack of Dover, Fack of Paris, both applied to some kind of pie.

Many a Jakke of Dovere hastow sold, That hath ben twies hot and twies cold.

c 1386 CHAUCER, Cook's Tale, Prol. 1. 23.

Jack-of-Paris, s. An indifferent pie twice baked. Sir T. More. 1857 WRIGHT, p. 599.

- 27. Apple, ME. appel, appul, etc., AS. appel. ME. an appel, etc., appears as a nappelle, a napyll, a napylle, a napulle, etc.
  - 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 11.

(a) An Appylle, pomum [etc.].
(b) Hoc pomum, a nappylle. c 1450 I.
Hec pertica, the sterte of a napulle. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.2 715, l. 14).

c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. 2719, l. 7).

Hoc pomum, An∞ a nappelle. c 1475 Pictorial Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.2 790, l. 1).

Befoir his face ane naple hang also.
c 1475 HENRYSON, Orph. and Eur. l. 282.

(Donaldson, Suppl.) And in that towne of Napells he made a tower with iiij corners, and in the toppe he set a napyll upon a yron yarde, and no man culde pull away that apell without he brake it. . . . When he had made an ende he lette call it Napels.

1510 Virgilius, p. 31. (Thoms, Early Prose Rom., 1838, vol. ii.)

- 28. Apple-tree. ME. an appyltre grows into a nappyltre.
- (a) An Appylle tre, pomus, malus, pomulus, pomellus. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 11. (b) Hec pomus, a nappyltre. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. 2715, I. 13).
- 29. Ar, arr, a scar; ME. arre, erre, from Icel. örr, ör = Sw. Er = Dan. ar, a scar. ME. an erre appears as a nerre.
  - (a) If it hath a scar [var. wounde or an arre]. c 1388 WICLIF, Levit. xxii. 22.

    Ar. A scar; a pockmark. This word is extremely common in the North
    of England.

    1847 HALLIWELL. of England.

    1847 HALLIWELL.

    Arr, a scar left by a wound. "I'll gie thee an arr to carry to thy grave."

    1855 [ROBINSON], Whithy Gloss. p. 5.
  - (b) Hoc carecter, hoc cicatrix, a nerre. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. 2 680, 1. 1).
- 30. Arain, also aran, arran, arrian, a spider; ME. arayne, zanye, erane, erany, ireyne, eranye, irain, yreyn, etc., from OF. Zagne, araigne, iragne, L. aranea. We find ME. an erane written a nerane.
  - (a) Thou madest to flowen awei as an ireyne his soule.

c 1382 WICLIF, Ps. xxxviii. 12. Eranye, orspyde(r) [read or spyder], or spynnare. Aranea.

1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 140. An Erane (a spyder or an attercopp), Aranea, Araniola, Araneus.

1483 Cath. Angl. p. 116. Arain, a spider. 1691 RAY, North Country Words (E.D.S.), p. 30.

Sweep th' arrans down, till all be clean, neer lin,

Els he'l leauk all agye when he comes in. 1697 Yorkshire Dialogue, p. 59. (H. p. 77.)

Aran-web is a cobweb in Northumberland. 1847 HALLIWELL, p. 77.

(b) Aranea, nerane.
c 1425 LatEng. Vocab. (Way, Prompt. Parv. p. 140, note 2) — Hec arena, hec aranea, a nerane.
c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. <sup>2</sup> 706, l. 5)
31. Archdeacon, ME. archdekyn, arsdekyn, ersdeken, etc., ML
archidiaconus. ME. an arsdekyn is found as a narsdekyn.
(a) Hic archidiaconus, A. a arsdekyn.
c 1475 Pictorial Vocab. (Wright, Vocab. <sup>2</sup> 780, l. 1  An archedekyn, archidiaconus.  (b) Hic archidiaconus, a narsdekyn.  c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. <sup>2</sup> 680, l. 17
32. Archer, ME. archer, archere, OF. archer, archier, ML. a = 3.
carius, arcuarius. We find ME. an archer as a narcher.
(a) An archer uor bet he hedde y-lore ate geme, nom his boge, and ssat an heg a-ye god. 1340 MICHEL (tr.), Ayenbite of Inwyt. (E.E.T.S.), p. 45.  An archer, Architenens, arquites [etc.]. 1483 Cath. Angl., p. 32.  Somtyme I was an archere good,
A styffe and eke a stronge. c 1500 A Lytell Geste of Robyn Hode (Child, Ballads, v. 12
(b) Hic architenens, a narcher. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. 2687, 1. 38).  A narchar. a 1500 Ashmole MS. 48 (P. p. 56
33. Arm, ME. arm, AS. earm. ME. an arme appears as
narme.
(a) Brachium, an <sup>∞</sup> an arme.  c 1450 LatEng. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab. <sup>2</sup> 568, l. ≥).  (b) Hoc brachium, a narme. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. <sup>2</sup> 676, l. ≥).
34. Arm-hole. ME. an armhole appears as a narmehole.
(a) As Aries hath thin heued, & Taurus thy nekke & thy throte, Gemyni the armholes & thin armes. c 1391 CHAUCER, Astrolabe (E.E.T.S.), p. Armehoole. Acella, subyrcus. 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. (b) Hec acella, a narmehole. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. 2676, l. 25).
35. Arrow, ME. arow, arewe, arwe, etc., AS. earh. An arr
often became a narrow.
(a) With an arrowe on him slouh.
c 1330 MANNING, Hist. of Eng. (Langtoff's Chron.), p. 1 3.  An Arrowe, pilum, hasta, hastula, [etc.]. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 3.  (b) With that ther cam a narrowe [printed an arrowe].  a 1548 The Hunting of the Cheviot (Child, Ballads, vii. 3
A narow [printed an arow], that a cloth yarde was lang. a 1548 Id. (Child, Ballads, vii. 3
A narrowe. a 1500 Ashmole MS. 48. (P. p. 56
36. Arrow-case, ME. arrowcase, arowecaas, arewecaas, a quiver.
ME. an arowcase appears as a narowcase; a clear case of a narr
case.
(a) Take arewecaas [1382 quyuer] and a bow.
c 1388 Wiclif, Gen. xxvii. 3.

- (b) Pharatra [read pharetra] a narowcase. c 1400 Metr. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 624, l. 20).
  [A glossator adds: "Hic carichus i. est techa facta de corio, anglice bowcase."]
- 37. Arrow-shot. A sixteenth-century undertaker makes it a marow shott.
  - (b) A woman . . . was slayn . . . with a narow shott in the neke.

    1557 MACHYN, Diary (Camden Soc. 1848), p. 136.
- 38. Ash1, dial, esh, ME. asche, esche, AS. æsc, a tree, Fraxinus excelsior. ME. an esche appears as a nesche. Compare Nash from etten ashe (see ASH, II. A. 8).
  - (a) An Esche, fraxinus. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 117. Esch key, frute. Clava. 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 143.
  - (b) Hoc fraccinum, a kay of a nesche. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.2 716, l. 13).
  - 39. Ash-tree. ME. an eschetre appears as a neschetre.
  - (a) Esche, tre. Fractinus (fraxinus, P.). 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 143. (b) Hec fraccinus, a neschtre. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. 2716, l. 12).
- 40. Ash-cloth, a cloth for carrying ashes. I find an ash-cloth ken as a nash-cloth.
  - (a) (b) Charevastre: m. An Ash-cloth, Nash-cloth, or Buck-cloth. Terny comme vn charevastre. As pale as an Ash-cloth. 1611 COTGRAVE [ed. 1673 same, except cloath for cloth in every instance].

Neither ash-cloth nor nash-cloth is in the dictionaries. The New English Dictionary gives ashes-cloth, based on a late ME. example:

> They shalle have aysshes clothes . . . to fetch aysshes in from every mannes 1461-83 Ord. R. Househ. 85. (N.E.D.) chambres.

- 41. Ask-fise, askefise, also ask-fist, askefyste, one who blows the shes; a ME. term applied to a servant who made and kept the fire, and also as a term of reproach for a lazy fellow who sits all day by The fire. Compare Sw. "Askefis, qui cineribus oppedit" (1769 Ihre, 1-115); Dutch "Assche-vijster, One that sits alwayes on the hearth, hanging his head over the ashes" (1658 Hexham); "asch-vijster, Ciniflo, cinerarius" (1598 Kilian). We find an askfist taken as a askfyste.
  - (a) Askysye (askefise K. P. askefise H.). Ciniflo. 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 15. Ciniflo, an askfist or iren heter. a 1500 Add. MS. 24640 (Way, P.P. p. xxii).

    [Many other examples ar cited by Way, Il. cc.]
  - (b) Hic cimiflo, a naskkyste [read naskfyste].
    c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. 2684, l. 39).
  - 42. Asp1, dial. esp, ME. asp, aspe, espe, AS. \*asp, aspe, espe, also æps, a tree, Populus tremula. We find ME. an espe taken as a nespe.

- 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 117. (a) An Espe, tremulus.
- c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. 2 716, l. 20). (b) Hec tremulus, a nespe.
- 43. Ass, ME. ass, as, has, asse, AS. assa. We find an ass (with haspiration has) burdend as a nas, a nasse.
  - (a) Loo! bi lorde comys rydand on an asse.

c 1430 York Plays, xxv. l. 27 (p. 202). Hic asinus, hec asina, a has.

c 1475 Pictorial Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 757, l. 36). Hic onager, A<sup>cco</sup> a wyld has. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 700, l. 33).

(b) pe child he kest a-pon a nass [var. an asse, 3 mss.].
c 1300 Cursor Mundi (Cotton MS.) (E.E.T.S.), l. 3152. Hic asinus, Acce a nas. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. 2 699, l. 1).

To here of Wisdome thi neres be halfe defe,

Like a Nasse that lysteth upon an Harpe. a 1500 Hermes Bird (Ashmole, Theatr. Chem. p. 222). (P. p. 569.)

He can romy as a nasse in his cracche. a 1500 Harl. MS. 1002 (Wright, Vocab. 1 l. 151).

- 44. Assherd, ME. asseherd, ashard, a keeper of asses; from ass + herd, a keeper. I find ME. an ashard taken as a nashard; and the same word, assherd, ashard, reduced to azzard (compare gozzard for gooseherd, ME. gosherd; sheppard, shepard for shepherd; ME. swynard for swineherd, etc., see quot. b), has come, both as an azzard and as a nazzard, to be used as a term of contempt for an insignificant person, like gozzard, just cited, as used for 'a fool' (H.).
  - c 1450 Nominale. [See below, under b.] (a) An ashard. An Asse-heard, or keeper of Asses. 1659 RIDER, Dict. ed. Holyoke. Assard. A sneaking person; an insignificant fellow. North. 1847 HALLIWELL.

Hence azzardly, 'poor, ill-thriven' (H.). Compare nazzardly below.

Hic equinarius, a horsharde. (b) Hic vaccarius, a cowherd. Hic mulundinarius, a mulharde. Hic asinarius, a nashard. Hic bubulcus, a swynherde. Hic aucarius, a gosherd. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. 2 687, 1. 19-24).

The form nazzard, derived as above, being used in a deflected sense, lost connection with its original, and underwent many changes, nazard, nazart, with variant termination nazzald, nazold, nazzle. the form compare a nazznowl for an assnoll (No. 45). The changes -ard (-art) > -ald > -old > -le occur in other instances.

Some selfe-conceited nazold, and some jaundice-faced ideot. 1639 Optick Glasse of Humors, p. 160. (H. p. 572; Wr. p. 597.) Nazzle, or rather nassel, is only a miserable, vulgar contraction of an-assel, ab asellus; ab asinus; a young ass: — consequently Gr.

1783 LEMON, Eng. Etymology. [The Rev. George William Lemon allowd no petty obstacles to stand in the way of his demonstration that nearly all English words ar derived from the Greek.]

Nazzald, an insignificant lad. 1830 SCATCHERD. (H. p. 572.)
Nazart. A mean person; an ass. Derb. Sometimes nazzle.
1847 HALLIWELL.
Nazzle. A low, mean, insignificant, vulgar fellow.
1889 PEACOCK, Manley and Corringham Gloss. (E.D.S.), ii. 365.

Hence the adjectiv nazzardly, nazardly.

What! such a nazardly Pigwiggen
A little Hang-strings in a Biggin.
1734 COTTON, Burlesque upon Burlesque, p. 201. (D. p. 431; and H. p. 623.)

- 45. Ass-noll, used, like the synonymous ass-head (in Latimer, Shakespeare, etc.), for 'a fool.' I find an ass-noll only in the clialectical form of a nazznoll or a nazznowl. Compare azzard, razzard (No. 44). Our English ancestors wer much given to vituperation; and persons who, to speak vituperativly, wer wel qualified to play the part of the translated Bottom without being translated themselvs, wer fond of casting reflections, if not harder missils, at the 'nolls,' 'polls,' 'sconces,' 'skulls,' or 'head-pieces' of their neighbors. And the sober ass, who has never spoken except to rebuke impatience, was often brought in, to aid odious comparisons. All this has, of course, happily disappeard except where it stil prevails.
  - (b) Nazznowl or Nazzknoll, a stupid fellow. "You and nazznowl!"
    1855 [ROBINSON], Whithy Gloss. p. 116.
    Nazznowl, an imbecile. 1876 ROBINSON, Whithy Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 130.
- 46. Attercop, in provincial use also attercob, attercap, ettercap, a spider, fig. a peevish, il-natured person; ME. attercoppe, atturcoppe, attyrcoppe, etc., AS. attorcoppa, a spider, from attor, ātor (E. dial. atter, etter), poison, + coppa, probably also used alone as spider,' as in ME. copwebbe (now cobweb), spincoppe, a spiderweb (spyncoppe, Caxton, Game of the Chesse, p. 29), = Dutch spinnedop, a spider. I find an attercop, Sc. attercap, ettercap, in the form of a nattercap, a nettercap.
  - (a) An atturcoppe com out of the wow3, and bote hem by the nekkus alle thre.

    c 1330 (?) Lyf of St. Wenefride, in Pref. to Rob. de Brunne, p. cc. (Wr. p. 125).

    Ettercap, addercap, attercope,—a virulent, atrabilious person: Gl. Antiq. 1880 Jamieson, ii. 164.

    (b) Ather, or Natter-cap, s. The dragon-fly, Fife.

    Nettercap, s. A peevish, cross-tempered person, Clydes.

    1880 Jamieson, iii. 357.

The ME. attercoppe, probably by confusion with addre for naddre, an adder (see Nadder, I. B. 2), is also found as addurcop, adercop, edircop, whence modern dial. eddercop (H.), eddercop; and an edyrcop, an eddercap, appears as a nedyrcop, a neddercap.

- (a) Aranea, addurcop. c 1400 Metr. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 625, l. 14). Araneus, an adercop, or a spynner. c 1500 STANBRIDGE, Vocabula, sign. d ii. (Herttage, C.A. p. 116).
- (b) Hec aranea, a nedyrcopp.

  c 1475 Pictorial Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 766, l. 26).

  Neddarcap, neddercap, s. An ill-natured, cross-tempered person; generally applied to children.

  1880 JAMIESON, iii. 347.
- 47. Atterjack, a toad, from atter, poison (as in attercop), + jack, as used vaguely for 'creature.' Toads being void of venom and of jewels, wer therefore popularly believed to possess both. Atterjack is unrecorded, but it must hav existed, an atterjack being the original of a natterjack, a toad, a British name, especially of the walking toad or rush-toad. See C.D.
  - (b) Nalterjack [read natterjack]. A toad. Suffolk.

    1847 HALLIWELL, p. 570 [misplaced].

    Natterjack. A toad. Suffolk.

    1857 WRIGHT.
- 48. Attered, ME. attrid, AS. ge-attred, ge-attred, poisond, envenomd, from attor, ator, poison (see ATTERCOP, No. 46). Hence, in a personal use attered, 'venomous, acrid, ill-natured'; an attered person, taken as a nattered person, and so nattered in other connections. Compare nattery in the next entry.
  - (a) Archars with arows with attrid barbis. a 1500 MS. Ashmole 44, f. 42. (H. p. 108.) Atter'd, pp. 'Our cream's all atter'd,' i.e. curdled. Also, as the flesh is scabbed or mattered. See atter.
  - 1876 ROBINSON, Whitby Gloss. (E.D.S.) p. 7.

    (b) Nattered. Ill tempered. North. 1847 HALLIWELL.

    As she said of herself, she believed she grew more "nattered" as she grew older; but that she was conscious of her "natteredness" was a new thing. 1853 Mrs. GASKELL, Ruth xxix. (D. p. 430.)
- 49. Attery, ME. attry, attri, AS. attrig, ātrig, poisonous, from attor, ātor, poison (see 46, 47, 48). Attery, still extant in provincial use (Sc. atry, eterie, etrie, etc.), appears to hav been applied, like attered, to persons, with reference to temper, 'venomous, acrid, bitter, ill-temperd,' and an attery person, taken as a nattery person, gave rise to nattery (Sc. nyatterie, netterie, etc.) in other connections.
  - (a) Derof him brinneth siden
    Of dat attrie ding [an adder swallowd].

    c 1230 Bestiary, l. 316. (Old Eng. Misc., E.E.T.S., p. 10.)
    Liun of prude, neddre of attri onde, unicorne of wredde.

    c 1230 Ancren Riwle. (H. p. 957).
    Thanne cometh of ire attry anger.

    On face and hondis thei had gret nayles
    And grette hornes and atteryng [read attery?] taylys.

    c 1400 Tundale, p. 6. (H.

The kinde of the disease, as ye may gather out of that verse, was a pestilentious byle, — ane attrie [Eng. ed. matterie] kind of byle, stryking out in many heades or in many plukes; for so the nature of the word signifieth.

1591 BRUCE, Eleven Serm. fol. 1 b. (Jam. 1808.)

out in many heades or in many prince, signifieth.

1591 BRUCE, Eleven Serm. fol. 1 b. (Jam. 1000.)

An attery, or thwartover wench, i. An angry or crosse natur'd wench.

1639 JOHN SMYTH, Descr. Hund. of Berkeley (Robertson, Gloss. Gloue. Dial., E.D.S., p. 198).

Atry, attrie, adj. 1. Purulent. . 2. Stern, grim. 1808 JAMIESON.

Eterie, etrie, adj. 1. Keen; bitter; applied to weather. 2. Ill-humoured; ill-tempered. Roxb. 3. Hot-headed; fiery; having an angry look.

1866 JAMIESON.

Attery. Mattery or purulent. 1876 ROBINSON, Whithy Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 7. 1855 [ROBINSON], Whithy Gloss. p. 115.

Netterie, adj. Ill-tempered. Tweedd.

Natrie. matric edi. Ill.

Natrie, nyatrie, adj. Ill-tempered; crabbed. Aberd. Mearns.

1866 Jamieson. 1866 Jamieson. Nyatterie, nyatrie, adj. Ill-tempered; peevish. Aberd. From nattered and nattery, developt as above, has been formed a

remainstance natter, to chatter peevishly; and from this a participial adjective These forms ar parallel to norate, norating, from oration CSC e Oration, below). Quotations ar abundant.

> Natter, v. n. To chatter previshly. Roxb. Nyatter, Dumfr. Gall. Encycl. 1866 Jamieson. Nyatter, v. n. To chatter, Gall. 2. To speak in a grumbling and querulous manner, ibid. Aberd.
>
> Natterin, part. adj. Chattering in a fretful way.
>
> "Ha' a drop o' warm broth?" said Lisbeth, whose motherly feeling now got the better of her nattering habit.
>
> 1859 MARY ANN EVANS ("GEORGE ELIOT"), Adam Bede, iv. (D.)
>
> Nattering or Nattery, fretful; as one "always fishing in troubled waters."
>
> "Genning and Nattering the day two an end." grumbling the day through.

> 1855 ROBINSON, Whilby Gloss. p. 115. He's a natterin soart of a chap—they'll nobody ha' mich rest as is near 1882 NODAL and MILNER, Lanc. Gloss. (E.D.S.) p. 197.

The forms nattered, nattering, nattery, hav apparently affected \*\*\* Iled, irritated, so that it appears as nattled and in Lancashire as Palmer (p. 639), with the "no doubt" which is so often the Us her of error, says that nettled is "a more polite form of nattled, responding to Lancashire nattle."

- 50. Aunt, ME. aunte, awnte, from OF. ante, L. amita. ap pears as a naunt. Compare my naunt (III. A. 11).
  - (a) An Awnte, amita, matertera.
    (b) Hec ameta, hec matertera, a nawntt. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 16.
  - c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 690, l. 29). Hec Amita, Ace a naunte of ye fader syde. Hec matertera, a naunte of 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 428. ye moder syde.
  - 51. Aunter, ME. aunter, awntere, auntour, aventure, etc., from F. aventure. I find an awntere as a nawntere.

- (a) An aunter in erde I attle to schawe. (a) An aunter in erde 1 and to Schawe.

  c 1360 Syr Gawayne and the Green Knight (E.E.T.S.), l. 27—
  Aunters, adventures. Flowtersome aunters, high-flown deeds or notions—
  1875 ROBINSON, Whithy Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 7—
  (b) Sir Utere and syr Ewaynedyre, theis honourable knyghttez,
- Be a nawntere [so ms., but printed an awntere] of armes Joneke has nommene. c 1440 Morte Arthure (E.E.T.S. 1865), l. 1904.
- 52. Aup<sup>2</sup>, a wayward child; a provincial word, probably a variant of elf, through the forms auf, outh (compare alp, a bullfinch, with variants aup1, olp, olph, olf, oup, ope, nope, etc.: see No. 14). I think an aup may be the source of a nup, a fool (H.). Compare nauphead, a stupid person; also nupson, a fool, which may be compared with aups and hawps, other forms of aup2. For the change of the sound au to u, compare provincial English aup<sup>3</sup> (H.) for up.
  - (a) Aup. A wayward child. North. It is pronounced aups in Craven, but the word is not in general use in Yorkshire. 1847 HALLIWELL. 1847 HALLIWELL 1847 HALLIWELL Hawps. An awkward clown. North. Nup. A fool.
  - (b) Nup. 1847 HALLIWELL O, that I were so happy as to light on a nupson now.
    - 1616 B. Jonson, Every man in his Humour, iv. 4. Nupson. A cully, a fool. Nauphead. A stupid person. 1796 GROSE, Dict. Vulg. Tongue.
      - 1889 PEACOCK, Manley and Corringham Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 365.
- 53. Awl, formerly also aul, all; ME. aule, eawle (AS. awel, awul), oule, owel, owul (AS. āwel, āwul), el, ele (AS. āl), alle, al (AS. al, eal). We find an awl (an all, an al) early taken as a nawl (naul, nall, nal).
  - (a) pi bile is stif and scharp and hoked, Rigt so an owel bat is croked.
    - a 1250 Owl and Nightingale, 1. 79. Sibula [read subula], ance an ale.
  - c 1450 Lat. and Eng. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 611, l. 38).

    (b) He shal thril his eer with a nal [1382 an alle]. 1388 WICLIF, Ex. xxi. 6.

    Sibula, nalle.

    c 1400 Metr. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 628, l. 34). Nall for a souter, alesne. Nall maker, faisevr dalesnes.
    - 1530 PALSGRAVE, p. 247. A Aule, Subula . . . A naule, idem, quod Aule. 1570 LEVINS, Manip. 13, 1. 38, 43.

Hole bridle and saddle, whit leather and nall,

with collers and harneis, for thiller and all.

1580 Tusser, Fine Hundred Pointes (E.D.S.), 17, 4-Lance de S. Crespin. A Shoomakers nawle. 1611 COTGRAVE... His lingel and his naule.

1647 BEAUMONT AND FLETCHER, Woman pleased, iv. 1 1825 JENNINGS, Somerset Gloss. p. 56=
1881 Mrs. PARKER, Oxfordshire Words (E.D.S.), p. 9=
1891 CHOPE, Dial. of Hartland (E.D.S.), p. 6== '*Nawl*, s. An awl. Naul, an awl. Nale. An awl.

54. Awn, ME. awn, awne, awene, earlier agun, Icel. ögn, et ME. an awn occurs as a nawn.

- (a) An Awn of corne, arista, aristella diminutiuum. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 16. (b) Hec arista, a nawn. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 725, l. 33).
- 55. Ax, also in antiquated spelling axe; ME. ax, axe, ex, AS. ax, eax, Old North. acas. We find an ax taken as a nax.
  - (a) & an ax in his oper, a hoge & vn-mete.

    c 1360 Syr Gawayne and the Green Knight (E.E.T.S.), l. 208.

    Hec securis, a hax. c 1475 Pictorial Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 807, l. 17).

    An Axe, ascia, asciola, ascis [etc.]. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 16.

    (b) Hec securis, a nax. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 726, l. 35).
- 56. Axletree, ME. axeltre, axyltre, etc. ME. an axyltre is found as a naxyltre.
  - (a) Hec axis, Ance a exylletre.

c 1475 Pictorial Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 811, l. 30).

An Axylltre, Axis.

(b) Hec axis, a naxyltre.

c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 727, l. 26).

- 57. Ay, an egg, the original English term; ME. ay, ai, aye, aie, ey, eye, gey, gey, also aspirated hay, hey, hei; plural ayren, ayrenn, airen, ayryn, ayrene, eiren, eiren, eyren, eyrenn, eyrene, eyrone, eyrone
  - (a) Quan the dowe [dove] was an ey, than hadde it non bon.

    a 1300 (?) Gifts from Over Sea (Wright, Songs and Carols;
    Child, Ballads, viii. 271).

Afterward a flok of bryddis,
And a faucon heom amyddes.
An ay he laide, so he flegh,
That feol the kyng Phelip nygh.
c 1300 King Alisaunder, l. 556 (Weber, Metr. Rom. i. 28).
For the erthe y-likned may be
to an appel upon a tree,
The whiche in myddes hath a colke,
As hath an eye in myddes a yolke.
1340 (?) HAMPOLE, MS. Addit. 11305, b. 93. (H. p. 263.)

· As hath an eye in myddes a yolke.
c 1340 (?) HAMPOLE, MS. Addit. 11305, b. 93. (H. p. 263.)
[In another version we find an egge; H. p. 290, s.v. dalk.]
Unslekked lym, chalk, and gleyre of an ey [var. an aye, 1 ms.].
c 1386 CHAUCER, Canon's Yeoman's Preamble, l. 87. (Six-text, G. 806.)

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For the tithing of a ducke
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Or of an apple, or an aie.

Complaint of the Plowman, l. 809 (Polit. Poems, 1859, i. 330).

This brid [partriche] be a bank bildith his nest, And heipeth his heires, and hetith hem after.

1399 LANGLAND, Richard the Redeless, iii. 41.

[Read hepeth his heiren - plural eiren aspirated. Skeat alters to eires.] Ey (or egge, P.). Ovum. 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 136.

Hame, thyn skyn of an eye or oper lyke (skynne of an hay, S.). Membranula.

Hoc ovum, Ance a hey. Hoc albumen, Ance the whyte of the hey.

1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 224.

Hoc ovum, Ance a hey. Hoc albumen, Ance the whyte of the hey.

1475 Pictorial Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 789, l. 36).

[Neither ay nor ey in Cath. Angl. 1483.]

Aftur take the 3ey of an henne that is fayled when sche hath sete, and take a lytyl flaxe, and dip it in the glayre of that eye, and lay to the kancur.

2 1500 MS. (H. p. 952.)

#### Plural ayren, eyren, etc.:

pe uogel him uerreb blebeliche uram bannes huer me brekb his nest, and uram pannes huer me him benimb his eyren.
1340 MICHEL (tr.), Ayenbite of Inwyt (E.E.T.S.), p. 178.

Take swongene eyrene in bassyne clene,

And kreme of mylke, that is so schene.
c 1400 (?), MS. Sloane, 1986, p. 85. (H. p. 841.)

The Cok [peacock] his eyron and his briddes hateth.

c 1420 Palladius on Husbondrie (E.E.T.S.), i. 618. [Eyron occurs in l. 582, 632, 636, 672, 680, 708, 710, etc.]

The following well-known passage from Caxton, quoted here for its present pertinency, is of wider interest than eggs:

And certaynly our langage now used varyeth ferre from that whiche was used and spoken whan I was borne, for we Englysshemen ben borne under the domynacyon of the mone, which is never stedfaste, but ever waverynge, wexynge one season, and waneth and dyscreaseth another season; and that comyn Englysshe that is spoken in one shyre varyeth from another, insomoche that in my dayes happened that certayn marchaunts were in a shippe in Tamyse for to have sayled over the see into Zelande, and for lacke of wynde, thei taryed atte Forland, and wente to lande for to refreshe them. And one of theym, named Sheffelde, a lande for to refreshe them. And one of theym, named Sheffelde, a mercer, cam into an hows and axed for mete, and specyally he axyd after eggys; and the goode wyf answerde that she coude speke no Frenshe, and the marchaunt was angry, for he also coude speke no Frenshe, but wolde have hadde egges and she understode hym not; and then at laste another sayd that he would have eyren. Then the good wyf said that she understod hym wel. Loo, what shold a man in thyse dayes now wryte, egges or eyren? Certaynly it is harde to playse every man, bycause of dyversité and chaunge of langage.

1400 CANTON. Enevdos. (H. p. xxi.)

1490 CAXTON, Encydos. (H. p. xxi.)

The latest appearance of the word I find is in Palsgrave:

Eye or egge, œvf. 1530 PALSGRAVE, p. 216.

The word ay also occurs in several compounds which hav never before been collected:

(1) Ay-cake, an 'egg-cake'; ME. eykake. Cf. Icel. eggjakaka, omelet.

Isylkake, or chesekake, or eykake bakyne vnder askys. Flamicia. 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 266.

(2) Ay-shell, an eggshell; ME. ayschelle.

He fondith to creope, as Y ow telle, Ageyn in to the ay-schelle. c 1300 Kyng Alisaunder, l. 577 (Weber, Metr. Rom. i. 29).

(3) Ay-white, the white of an egg; ME. eyqwyt (AS. ages pat hwite, Saxon Leechdoms, iii. 74, etc.). Cf. Icel. eggja-hvita.

Eyqwyt. a 1500 (?). (H. p. 343; no reference.)

There is one compound involving the plural form of ay—the early ME. eire, AS.  $\bar{\alpha}gru$ ; namely—

(4) Eir-monger, a dealer in eggs.

Mi3te eirmonger nou fare so.

c 1305 St. Swithin, 69.

In the other compounds ay is the second element:

(5) Ant-ay, the egg of an ant.

Annt eyron yeve hem [fesanntes] eke.
c 1420 Palladius on Husbondrie (E.E.T.S.), i. 680.

(6) Goose-ay, the egg of a goose.

As greet as a gos eye [gosey, Wright; gose egg, B.]. c 1394 Pierce the Ploughman's Creed (ed. Skeat, E.E.T.S. 1867), l. 225.

(7) Gripe-ay, the egg of a 'gripe': a rarity much valued, and used as a drinking-cup. Probably it was really the egg of an ostrich.

Ciphus, vocatus a gryp ey, ligatus cum argento, et deaurato.

1419 Will of William Gascoigne, Lord Ch. Justice, in Testam.

Ebor. i. 303. (Way, Prompt. Parv. p. 213, note.)

The term was more common as two words, with the first element in the possessiv form, gripes ay:

And sigh the cuppe stonde aside Which made was of Gurmundes hed . . .

And was policed eke so clene
That no signe of the sculle was sene,

But as it were a gripes eye. c 1393 Gower, Conf. Am. i. 127.

Item, un coupe sait d'un gripesei garnisez d'argent endorrez, steant sur un pee de iij. kenettes [etc.].

1399 List of Crown Jewels delivered (Way, Prompt. Parv. p. 213, note).

In the same inventory are named six hanaps or drinking cups called gryppeshey. Kalend. of Exch. iii. 319, 330. WAY, Prompt. Parv. l.c.

The gripe was properly a vulture; but in the liberal ornithology of the middle ages it could also be a griffin, and lay eggs in that capacity, like a "cokadrille."

Ayren they [sc. the cokadrilles] leggith as a griffon.
c 1300 Kyng Alisaunder, l. 6602 (Weber, Metr. Rom. i. 272).

(8) Hen-ay, a hen's egg.

Men gatt . . . For a hen-ay penes unlevene. c 1325 Richard Coer de Lion, l. 2839 (Weber, Metr. Rom. ii. 110).

An ay (an aye, ey, eye) is found as a nay (naye, neye).

(b) Sayned bakon & somtyme a neye [var. an eye 2 mss., an ey 3 mss.] or tweye For sche was as it were a manere deye.
c 1386 CHAUCER, Nun's Priest's Tale (Lansd. ms.), l. 25. (Six-text, B. 4035) - pe two eyne of the byeryne was brighttere pane silver, The toper was 3alowere thene the 3olke of a naye.
c 1440 Morte Arthure (E.E.T.S. 1865), l. 3281.

Compare the like form nay in no nay for non ay. I giv two examples (see Ay, IV. 1).

The form nay, thus developt, has been noticed heretofore only slightly, as a passing accident of hand-writing. But it was more than a slip of the pen. It was establisht as an independent word, and was used as such in composition. And it survives to-day, unrecognized, in the word cockney, a word which has baffled all the etymologists from Minsheu to Murray.

Cockney, in the sixteenth century spelt usually cockney (1540 and later), but also cocknie (1594), cockneie (1573), cocknaie (1562), earlier coknie (1532), coknaye (1531), cocknaye (1530), coknay (1530), cokney (1521), was in the fifteenth century spelt cokenay (c 1500), coknay (1483), kokenay (c 1470), cokenay (c 1450, 1440), kokeney (1440), coknay (1440), and in the fourteenth century, when it arose, cockeneye (c 1400), cokeney (c 1393), cokenay (c 1386), cokeneye (c 1386), kokeney (c 1377), cokeney (c 1362).

In the fourteenth century it is found only in verse, and verse of a In the earliest passage (see below) it is a colloquial character. dissyllable, and should be, as it appears later, cokney or coknay, being formd from cok, cock, and nay, ney, egg. It means 'cock-egg.' It corresponds exactly (in Chaucer's three-syllable use even to the unoriginal connecting vowel) to the later cockaneg in Florio (see It corresponds also to the term cock's egg, stil EGG, No. 74). in provincial use in England for the same thing; and to the term rooster-egg, not enterd in the dictionaries, but in familiar use in parts of the United States. A cock-nay, cock-ney, cockaneg, cock's egg, rooster-egg, is a small imperfect egg, differing in size and usually in color and shape, from a normal egg of a hen. The popular notion about rooster-eggs is, or was in my school-days, that the produce roosters. (The matin bird is always cald a rooster in th-United States.) Boys just from the nursery sometimes thought, from

the name, that rooster-eggs wer laid by roosters. I find this oval eccentricity roundly asserted, and squarely denied, in solemn print:

'A Florida man owns a rooster that has laid an egg. This is not humorous,' says an exchange. No; it is simply untruthful.

1892 Puck's Library, Oct., p. 7.

I remember that boys used to extend the name rooster-egg to any small pointed egg; they wer favorits in the game of chance called "Picking eggs," wherein two eggs in the hands of two boys, wer knockt together, end to end. The boy whose egg proved the handlest, was then entitled to the broken egg.

Cockney then, ME. coknay or cokney, was a trivial term of rustic or pueril origin, applied to a small imperfect egg, and probably, like rooster-egg, to any small egg. This will enable us to understand the earliest quotations, which follow.

'I haue no peny,' quod Pers, 'poletes to bugge,
Nouther gees ne grys, bote twey grene cheeses.
And a fewe cruddes and craym, and a therf cake,
And a lof of benes and bren i-bake for my children.
And I sigge, bi my soule, I haue no salt bacon,
Ne no cokeneyes [kokeney B, cokeney C], bi Crist, colopus
[coloppes B, colhoppes C] to maken.'

1362 LANGLAND, Piers Plowman (A), vii. 267.

The next quotation is from a burlesque poem, describing a tournament of clowns and scullions, and the feast which followd:

At that fest were thei seruyd in a rich aray
[with a ryche aray, Harl. ms.];
Euery fyve and fyve had a cokeney [cokenay, Percy];
And so they sate in iolite al the long daye.

And so they sate in iolite al the long daye.

a 1500 Turnament of Totenham, st. xxvi. (ed. Wright, 1836 — Pickering; also Percy, Reliques, II. i. 4; Child, Ballads, viii. 115, etc. N.E.D. dates it a 1600: correct, but obviously too cautious).

The humor is in giving a "cokeney," or small egg, to every five, whereas in the knightly feasts there was a more liberal provision of more appetizing fare:

Ay two had disches twelue, Good ber & bry3t wyn bobe. c 1360 Syr Gawayne and the Green Knight (E.E.T.S.), l. 128.

As 1 cockney + 5 (=  $\frac{1}{5}$  of a small egg) is to 12 dishes + beer + wine + 2 (= 6 dishes with beer and wine galore); so was the tournament feast of Tottenham to the feast of Sir Gawain and his peers.

By hooke or crooke nought could I wyn there, men say
He that comth euery daie, shall haue a cocknaie.
He that comth now and then, shall haue a fat hen.
But I gat not so muche in comyng séelde when,
As a good hens fether, or a poore eg-shel.

1562 HEYWOOD, Proverbs and Epigrams (Spenser Soc., 1867), 36. (Also
Wright, Turn. Totenham, l.c., note; Piers Pl., Gloss. p. 580; etc.).

Wright got nearly at the meat of the matter when he inferd from the three passages cited that "a cockney was some kind of lean common meat of which the peasantry made collops" (Turnament Totenham, note). But the meat was in the eggs which went with the collops. What wer collops?

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Collope. Frixatura, carbonacium, carbinella. 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 88. Carbonella, ance a colhoppe.

c 1450 Lat.-Eng. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 570, l. ).

Frixa, ance a colhoppe, or a smache-cok. c 1450 Id. (Wright, 584, l. ).
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[Smache-cok, in modern form properly \*smatch-cock, a cock or bird that servs to giv a smatch or smack or taste — that is, a delic == te morsel — is, I think, the true source of the perverted spatchcock.]

Frixa. A colop, or a pece off flesch. c 1470 Medulla Gram. (Herrtage, C. A. p. 71483 Cath. Angl. p. 2.) A Collop, carbonella, frixa. Colloppe meate, œvf au larde. 1530 PALSGRAVE, p. 2 The coloppes cleaued faste to the fryenge pannes bottom for lacke of droppynge or butter. 1519 HORMAN, Vulgaria. (Herrtage, C. A. p. 7 Riblette: f. A collop or slice of bacon. Des œufs à la riblette. Egges collops; or, an Omelet or Pancake of egges, and slices of bacon mingl 2.) •nd ed, VE. and fried together. 1611 COTGRAS are. Estrelládos huévos, egs fried (without beating together) as when they s fried with collops or bacon. 1623 MINSHEU, Dict. in Span. and En Eggs and collops. Fried eggs and bacon. Var. dial. 1847 HALLIWEL

The existence of the term cock's egg since 1626, and probab from a much earlier date, is establisht by the entries in the Ne English Dictionary. It is parallel to the form cockaneg, which a true compound, cock + negg, and the proper substitute for cock-naas negg is the substitute for nay, and egg for ay. See under Eco below. Cocknay in strict use would hav been \*cock-ay, ME. \*cok-a\_ \*cok-ey; and indeed I suspect this very word, extended to mean an emerging in the provincial (Craven) form goggy, an egg (H.). F the change of \*cockay, \*cockey, to \*goggey, goggy, compare cockle wi coggle (Jam. 1808, etc.), cockly with coggly (Jam. 1808, etc.), cock" bones with gogsbones, gogsnouns (tho here another cause has operated cucking-stool with goging-stool (H.), etc. The use of the trivial for ⊾ se nay in composition at so early a period is in keeping with the in of the similar trivial form nye for eye, in pigsnye, ME. piggesnye, the same period, and in wall-nyed a few years later (see under below, No. 87).

From the sense of 'cock-egg,' or 'small egg,' the word past or er to the sense of a 'small, weak child,' 'a child treated with fools sh

indulgence,' and so 'a weak, spiritless fellow.' It is in this slang use that it appears in Chaucer:

And when this Iape is tald another day
I sal been halde a daf, a cokenay [var. cokeneye, Lansd. ms.]
I wil arise, and auntre it, by my fayth;
Vnhardy is vnseely, thus men sayth.

c 1386 CHAUCER, Reeve's Tale, l. 288. (Six-Text, A. 4209.)

The transfer may not seem obvious to many, but it is in keeping with the atmosphere of trivial humor in which the word cockney originated and in which it has always existed. It has never attaind dignity. I hav collected numerous examples for the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries; but they ar all for the deflected senses, and throw no additional light on the word. For the later development of the word, I refer to Dr. Murray's article in the New English Dictionary.

Dr. Murray was the first etymologist to recognize the egg in this celebrated mare's nest, but he has faild to discern the true form of the egg, and has mistaken the part the cock plays in the matter. He explains Langland's cokeney as coken ey, which, he thinks, means 'cocks' egg,' and which he supports by a fallacious German analogy. But even if his supposed genitiv plural existed and was used in the way he imagins ('cocks' egg, gallorum ovum'), it would not be \*coken, but \*cokken, AS. as if \*coccena. Dr. Murray is too good a honetician not to see this, if the notion wer propounded by an other tymologist, or by an American. But no such form as even \*cokken an be found; the plural of ME. cok, genitiv and nominativ, is okkes. Dr. Murray is also in error in saying that "ay, ey (ai) are regular ME. forms of egg," and that "ay(e)" is an "obsolete form of egg." Ay, ey, ar no more forms of egg than draw is a form of drag. To use Dr. Murray's own language, "nothing can be more certain .n phonetics than that "ey or ay "could not be" a "form" of egg.

Dr. Murray's mistakes ar rather unfortunate, as he prepared himself for his work by attacking an other eminent etymologist for making an other mistake about the same word. Few great philologists escape the frequent pain of seeing clearly the errors of other scholars. That they do not shrink from the added pain of correcting such errors, is greatly to their credit; but it is a risky benevolence. Professor Skeat, who in the "Glossarial Index" to the Specimen of Early English, Part II. 1879, edited by himself and Dr. Morris, came near to the truth by admitting, as "another interpretation" of the word as used by Langland, the definition "small cocks, lean fowls," preferd the inter-

pretation "cooks, scullions." This view is explaind at length in the "Errata and Addenda" Professor Skeat's Etymological Dictionary:

M.E. cokeney answers precisely to a F. coquiné, Low L. coquinatus, and I suspect that Mr. Wedgwood has practically solved this word by suggesting to me that it is founded on L. coquina, a kitchen. We might imagine coquinatus to have meant, as a term of reproach, a vagabond who hung about a kitchen of a large mansion for the sake of what he could get to eat, or a child brought up in the kitchen among servants. We may particularly note F. coquineau, 'a scoundrell, base varlett," Cot.; coquiner, 'to begge, to play the rogue'; coquinerie, 'beggery'; coquine, 'a beggar, poor sneak.' This suggests that the F. coquin is—connected with L. coquis, as to which Littré and Scheler seem agreed. I think we are now certainly on the right track, and may mark the word as (F., — L.). I would also suggest that the F. coquin, sb., was really due to the verb coquiner, which answers to Low L. coquinare, to cook, i.e. to serve in a kitchen. The transition in sense from 'serve in a kitchen' to 'beg in a kitchen' is very slight, and answers only too well—to what we know of human nature, and the filching habits of the lowest class of scullions, &c. Coquinatus might mean 'attached to a kitchen without any great violence being done to the word.

1882 SKEAT, Etym. Dict., Errata and Addenda, p. 785—

This view was emphatically repeated a few years later:

Cokeney, cook's assistant, scullion, inferior cook, 9. 309; Cokeneyes, pl. scullions, a. 7. 272. I have now no doubt at all that this difficult word— (whence mod. E. cockney) answers to an O.F. coquine [sic], = Low Lat—coquinatus, from coquinare, to cook, serve as a scullion, a derivative—of Lat. coquina. It is easily seen how coquinatus might mean either—(1) a person connected with the kitchen, as in M.E. cokeney, a scullion; (2) a child brought up in the kitchen, or pampered by servants, as in—E. cockney, often used in this sense; and (3) a hanger-on to the kitchen, or pilfering rogue, whence F. coquin, as in Cotgrave.

1886 SKEAT, Piers the Plowman, ii. 332, col. 2, ll. 40-56.—

The view exprest in this opinion of an eminent British etymologist, thus emphatically repeated, was mentiond, without approval, in an American work a few years later. Professor Skeat's name was not mentiond, for the reason that the etymology in question was not original with him. So far as L. coquina is concernd, he himself ascribes to Wedgwood; but it had been suggested earlier:

Cockney. The root of this word is doubtless the Latin coquina, a kitchen. 1860 ROBERT SULLIVAN, Dict. of Derivations, 9th ed. p. 71.

It is indeed involved in the notion that cockney originated from the French \*coquiné, or accoquiné, or coquin; and this etymology was suggested more than two hundred years ago by Dr. Thomas Henshaw, in Skinner's Etymologicon (1671). Dr. Henshaw thought it was a good etymology; for he himself says (he edited Skinner's work after Skinner's death), "Doct. Th. H. sagaciter, ut solet, deflectit a Fr. G. Accoquiné, Ignaviæ deditus."

But Dr. Murray, making himself ignorant of these things, was able to treat this ancient British error (surely a natural and excusable error), thus rehabilitated by Professor Skeat, as a new American invention, and under this convenient cover he opend his batteries on his fellow-Briton:

From the time of Minsheu, with his merry folk-etymology [of cockney] . . ., to the present year, etymologists and etymological quacks (the latter especially) have given forth their conjectures upon its derivation. The most recent of these is the assertion that the word represents an (imaginary) O.F. coquine, corresponding to an (imaginary) Med. Lat. coquinatus, taken in some such sense as 'a vagabond who hangs around the kitchen'; or 'a child brought up in the kitchen.'... Not to speak of the Latin or Old French absurdities involved.... Nothing can be more certain in phonetics than that cokenay, whatever it might be, could not be an O.F. \*coquiné.

1890 J. A. H. MURRAY, in London Academy, May 10, 1890.

He then proceeded to show how wrong and American all such notions ar.

Dr. Murray, with a solicitude for which Americans should be grateful, manifests in the same correctiv epistle a desire that no one shal even mention such opinions (I mean those of other etymologists) in dictionaries, without his previous sanction. "Especially important is this," he explains, "in America, where, in the absence of living English usage, the dictionary occupies a place of authority never conceded to it by educated Englishmen." But I am afraid the case is hopeless. If there wer any educated Americans, perhaps we might get along tolerably wel, even "in the absence of living English usage"; but "in the absence of" both, we ar in a parlous state Such Americans as hav been able to snatch a few hours from their pioneer tasks of fighting the wild Indian and hunting the wild buffalo, in order to read, by the dim flickering light of a pineknot, a little about the rudiments of language, hav hitherto supposed that they speak English, and "living English" at that - crude, of Course, and incorrect, and with an "American accent," but stil a kind of "living English," however different from the clear, delicate, sonorous, r-less, h-less English set forth by Dr. Murray, Dr. Sweet, and Other eminent British phoneticians as "living English usage." Americans wil be much disappointed to learn from Dr. Murray that <sup>14</sup> English" means the speech of London, and "living English" the speech of certain persons, "educated Englishmen," now living in or near London; in other words, of educated Cockneys. I suppose there may be a reservation in favor of educated Scotchmen, who, "if  $\bigcirc$  aught young" and careful to avoid pronouncing r and h, may be allowd admittance into the outer sanctum of "living English usage." But on this point Dr. Murray maintains the traditional reserv of a true-born Englishman.

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- 58. Ayword, a proverb, a by-word, supposed to be formd from ay, always, + word; meaning a word always or constantly used-An ayword appears also as a nayword. The earliest examples ar in Shakespeare.
  - (a) An ayroord, a byword, an object of common ridicule:

    For Monsieur Maluolio, let me alone with him: If I do not gull him int an ayword, and make him a common recreation, do not thinke I hau witte enough to lye straight in my bed: I know I can do it.
  - 1623 SHAKESPEARE, Twelfth Night, ii. 3. 144 (F1 p. 261) (b) A nayword, a countersign or watchword:

Qu. You must send her your Page, no remedie. Fal. Why, I will.

Qu. Nay, but doe so then; and looke you, hee may come and goe between you both: and in any case haue a nay-word, that you may know one anothers minde, and the Boy neuer neede to understand any thing.

1623 SHAKESPEARE, M. W. ii. 2. 129 (F1 p. 46)

The only other notices I find of the word ar the following, all bu one apparently based on Shakespeare's use, and not really provincial

A Nayword. This is a common expression for a by-word or proverb, an is probably a Crasis of an Aye-word; that is, a word, or saying, always and perpetually used, agreeable to the ancient use of Aye. If this be

and perpetually used, agreeable to the ancient use of Agr. It this on the meaning and original of it, it will be difficult to account for it.

1777 Gent. Mag., July, p. 321.

Nayword, a byeword, a laughing stock. 1830 FORBY, Vocab. of East Anglia Navword. A watchword. Also, a proverb, a bye-word. Shak.

1847 HALLIWELL Nayword. (1) A watch-word. (2) A proverb; a bye-word. word. (3) A 1857 WRIGHT negative.

For the last, as for the others, Wright givs no authority. I genuine, nayword, "a negative," is of course from nay, no, + word. It may rest on nayward in Shakespeare (W. T. ii. 1. 64).

- 59. Eager, early mod. E. eagre, aigre, aygre, ME. eger, egre, from OF. egre, aigre, F. aigre, from L. acer (acr-), sharp, bitter. In former E. use the word was often applied to persons in the sense of 'sharp, bitter,' as wel as 'severe, cruel, fierce.' In provincial useit seems to hav included the sense of 'mean, miserly'; hence are eager or aigre person, elliptically an eager, an aigre, now a neager, a neeger, a neeagur, a neigre, a nagre, a mean fellow, a miser: a local term of reproach. The noun use is parallel to that of an eddy (seebelow), a silly, an ancient, etc.
  - And sklendre wyves, fieble as in bataille, (a) Beth egre as is a tygre yond in Ynde. c 1386 CHAUCER, Clerks Tale, 1. 1142.

Egar, fiers or mody as a wild beest is, fel. Egernesse, bytternesse, aigrure-1530 PALSGRAVE, pp. 311, 216-Also cruell, seuere, eager, bitter. Acérbo, sowre, sharpe, tarte, vnripe. 1611 FLORIO-1828 [CARR], Craven Gloss. i. 5-

Aigre, Sour.

(b) Nagre, A niggardly person. 2. A negro, from Fr. negre, a negro. 1828 [CARR], Craven Gloss. ii. 2.

Neager. A term of reproach. North. 1847 HALLIWELL; 1857 WRIGHT.

Nagre. A miserly person [a miser, Wright]. North.

1847 HALLIWELL; 1857 WRIGHT.

Neigre, [Neeger, 1880,] s. A term of reproach, S. - Borrowed from F. 1866 JAMIESON.

Necagur, a negro; also, a contemptible fellow; a stingy niggard.
1877 Ross, STEAD, and HOLDERNESS, Holderness Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 99.

The etymology suggested in the last two quotations is, I think, erroneous. Neager, neeagur, a negro, is to be separated from neager, a miser, a stingy fellow. Negroes hav never been so familiar to provincial thought in Northern England or Scotland as to make the name a common term of reproach; and miserliness is the last fault of which they can be justly accused. Moreover, the modern form nagre is not one which the sixteenth century neger would naturally The dialectal neager, neeagur, ar forms parallel to nigger, being formerly neger, negar, negre, from sixteenth century F. negre, now nègre. Nigger is not, as is commonly supposed, a "corruption" of negro, but is a legitimate variant of neager, representing the older form neger, negre, from the French as given; while the English negro, like the French negre, was taken directly from the Spanish and Portuguese negro, a black man. Neither nigger nor negro is in

itself "a term of reproach," any more than white man or red man. The development in eager of the sense 'stingy' from the sense sharp, bitter,' is paralleld by the development of stingy itself from stinging, sharp, bitter,' to 'miserly.'

> An East Anglian says the 'air is stingy,' that is, nipping, biting, bitter. . . . Stingy is ill-tempered. 1876 R. MORRIS, On the Survival of Early Eng. Words (E.D.S.), p. 11.

- 60. Eagle, ME. egle, from OF. egle. ME. an egle takes one flight 🗪 🕿 a negle (neggle).
  - (a) As doth an egle whan him list to sore.

c 1386 CHAUCER, Squire's Tale, l. 123.

- An Egylle, aquila, aquilinus. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 112. (b) Hec aquila, Ae neggle. c 1425 Lat.-Eng. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab. 2640, l. 12).
- 61. Eam, ME. eme, em, AS. ēam, uncle. ME. an eme is often a neme. See also mine eam (III. 14).
  - (a) An Eme, Avunculus, patruus.
    (b) Hic avunculus, hic patruus, a neme. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 114.
  - c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.2 690, l. 27). Hic patruus, A neme of ye fader syde. Hic auunculus, Ance a neme of ye moder syde.

    1483 Cath. Angl. p. 428.
  - 62. Earl, the organ of hearing; ME. ere, eere, AS. ēare = L. auris. ME. an ere is often a nere. Compare Earwig, below.

(a) For whanne the schipmen lay an ere Unto the voyce in here avis They wene it be a paradis. c 1393 Gower, C. A. (H An Ere, Auris hominum est. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 116 (under E (b) Hec auris, A. nere. c 1425 Lat.-Eng. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab. 633, l. 1)

- A Nere, Auris, auricula. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 252 (under N 63. Ears, a spike of grain; ME. eer, er, AS. ēar = L. acus (acer-
- ME. an er grows into a ner. (a) Four-ten ers [var. eris, eres] stand o quete [var. whete]. The erthe by his owne worchynge maketh fruyt, first an erbe, afterward ful fruyt in the ere. c 1382 WICLIF, Mark iv. Hec spica, a ner. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 725, l. 34
  - (b) Hec spica, a ner.
    - 64. Earl, ME. erl, erle, AS. eorl. ME. an erle appears as a ner
    - (a) And ane erle bane in angerd answeres hym sone. c 1440 Morte Arthure (E.E.T.S. 1865), l. 161 An Erle, comes, comicellus. s. 1483 *Cath. Angl.* p. 1 c 1450 *Nominale* (Wright, *Vocab.*<sup>2</sup> 683, l. 18
    - (b) Hic comes, Ace nerle.
- 65. Earthdin, ME. erthedyn, erthdin, erddyn, AS. eorddyne, a earthquake. In early ME. an erthdin becomes a nerthdin.
  - (a) An erthe dyn, or an erthe quake, terremotus. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 11 Erddyn gret in Ytaly

And hugsum fell all suddanly.

c 1425 Wyntown, vii. 5. 175. (1808 Jam irden . . . thunder. In Fife there is a proverbial phrase denotic expedition, although the meaning of the allusion seems to be a mong those who use it: "The wark gaes on like yirdin." Yirden .

1880 JAMIESO

- (b) Thoru a nerth-din bat ber was. c 1300 Cursor Mundi (E.E.T.S.), l. 2091
- 66. Earthshrew, a shrew, shrew-mouse, Sorex vulgaris; also field-mouse, Mus silvaticus. The name of this little beast has unde gone so many transformations that I cannot find any example of t original form earth-shrew. There is erdshrew, which leads to har shrew (as if hard + shrew), and this to hardyshrew, hardishre (as if hardy + shrew), which in turn has been varied to hard mouse (is it not a field-mouse?), and in other ways to hardistre (because it doth inhabit the straw or stubble of the field), and harvest-row (for that the hay or straw of harvest lieth in row The shrew in all phases has been an interesting creature, and has interesting philological history. See Shrew<sup>1</sup>, C.D.
- (1) Earthshrew, dial. erdshrew. An erdshrew (\* erdshre \*er'srow) turns into a nursrow.

(a) Erd-shrew.(b) Nursrow, s. a field-mouse. Staff.

1607 TOPSELL. (H. p. 331 1857 WRIGI (2) Hardshrew.

Hardshrew, a kind of wild mouse.

1733 BAILEY.

(3) Hardishrew, hardy-shrew; also artishrew.

It resisteth the poison inflicted by the sting of the hardishrow, the sea dragon and scorpions. 1601 HOLLAND, tr. Pliny, vol. ii. p. 277. (P.) In Italy the hardy shrews are venomous in their biting. 1601 Id. viii. 58. Toporágno, a night-bat. Also the hardie-shrew [1598 a kinde of rat or mouse]. Hardishrew. A field mouse. Staff. Also called the hardistraw.

1847 HALLIWELL. Artishrew or Artistraw, sb. The harvest mouse.

1890 ROBERTSON, Gloss. Glouc. Dial. (E.D.S.), p. 4. (4) Hardistraw; also hartistraw, artistraw.

Hardistraw. 1847 HALLIWELL. Artistraw . . . Hartistraw. 1890 ROBERTSON, Gloss. Glouc. Dial. (E.D.S.), p. 4, p. 65.

**←** 5) Harvest-row.

Harvest-row. The shrew mouse. Wilts.

1847 HALLIWELL.

57. Earwig, ME. erwygge, erewygge, etc., AS. ēarwicga. This has undergone many changes due to popular etymology. They shown below. And it has yielded also to Attraction, an earwig oming a \*nearwig, which I take to be the source of the trans-Posed wignear. Wignear has been expanded by way of explanation ·into wigginear (wig-in-ear).

- (1) Earwig.
- Aurealis, an<sup>∞</sup> an erewygge. c 1450 Lat.-Eng. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.2 567, l. 3).

Auriolus, Anglice a zerwigge.

- a 1500 (?) Vocab., Harl. MS. 1002 (Way, p. 143, note; H. p. 952).

  b) Wigginear, var. of earwig . . . Wignear, i.q. Wigginear.

  1881 EVANS, Leic. Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 290.
- **∢**2) Earwike.

Earwike. An ear-wig. Somerset.

1847 HALLIWELL.

**(**3) Earwrig.

Ear-wrig, s. Earwig. This word ought to be spelled ear-wrig, as it is derived, doubtless, from wriggle. 1825 JENNINGS, Somerset Gloss. p. 36. Earwrig. An ear-wig. Somerset. 1847 HALLIWELL.

(4) Erriwig, arrawig, yerriwig.

Arrawig or Arrawiggle. Often aspirated [Hairy-wig!]. The Earwig. 1854 BAKER, Northampt. Gloss. i. 17.

Arrawig, s. an earwig. Northampt. 1857 WRIGHT. Yerriwig. An earwig. 1847 HALLIWELL West. Errewig (er as in errand), an ear-wig. 1881 Mrs. Parker, Oxfordshire Words, Suppl. (E.D.S.), p. 81. Erriwig. An earwig. 1888 Lowsley, Berkshire Words (E.D.S.), p. 78. 216

1857 WRIGHT

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to

- (5) Earwiggle, a diminutiv form, associated with wiggle. Arwygyll, worme. Aurealle (aurialis, P.). Erwygle (erewygyll, P.). Aurealis. 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 1
- (6) Erriwiggle. An erriwiggle, or arrawiggle, easily lends its to the rustic etymology of a narrow-wriggle; as if in allusion to the difficulty the insect encounters in striving to enter the strait gatethe ear, or to its supposed wanderings in the "wriggles" or wind passages of the ear:
  - rwig. 1823 Moor, Suffolk Words, p. 30; 1854 BAKER, Northampt. Gloss. i. 17; 1881 Ev. 315, Leic. Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 93. (a) Arrawiggle. The earwig.
  - 1847 HALLIWS EL. An ear-wig. East. Erriwiggle. (b) Narrow-wriggle. An ear-wig. East.

    Wriggle, s. Any narrow sinuous hole. 1825 JENNINGS, Somerset Gloss. p **-8**4. Wriggle. Any narrow winding hole. 1847 HALLIW E. ELL. Wont [-wriggle], or 'Oont-wriggle, the succession of small tumuli throup by the mole. 1868 HUNTLEY, Gloss. of the Cotswold Dial. p.

But an earwig, Forficula auricularis, cannot really "wriggle," a more than Aaron's rod before it became a serpent. The earwrather scuttles, struggles, "scriggles."

Skriggle. To struggle, to wriggle. "'A ketched an arrawiggle an skriggled an got awah." "A skrigglen eel." To me it seems a ve expressive word—it differs from both struggle and wriggle, being indeed a participant in both.

1823 Moor, Suffolk Words, p. 35

Eels and such slender vertebrates wriggle:

Wriggles, s. Sand eels. Norf.

68. Ebb, ME. ebbe, AS. ebba. An ebb appears as a neb.

- (a) After an ebbe of be flode.
- 1330 MANNING, Hist. of Eng. (Langtoft's Chron.), 106.

  (b) The [blank] day of March ther was never so lay a nebe, that men myght. stand in the mydes of Tames, and myght a gone from the brygys to the Belynggatt, for the tyd kept not ys course; the whyche was never sense. 1557 MACHYN, Diary (Camden Soc. 1848), p. 168-
- An ebb-tide is taken as a neb-tide; possibly con-69. Ebb-tide. fused with neap-tide.
  - (6) Bold ocean foames with spight, his neb-tides roare, His billows top and topmost high doe soare. 1638 Historie of Albino and Bellama. (N. p. 598. -

70. Eddy, an idiot; a provincial word, literally 'a silly,' from ME. edy, edi, once eddi, earlier eadi, AS. ēadig, happy, blessed, sil (in its original sense), primarily rich. The more regular mode form from AS. ēadig would be \*eady (î'di), which indeed is indicat by the form \*iddy involved in niddy, below, and also by the Cornia = adjectiv easy, idiotic, if that is \*eady altered to easy by association eath, easy, with the different words ease, easy.

Eadi art tu meiden bimong alle wummen.

c 1200 St. Marherete (E.E.T.S.), p. 20. Touward ted eadie londe of Jerusalem, bet he ham hefde bihoten.

c 1230 Ancren Riwle.

Heyl, levedy, se-stoerre bryht Godes moder, edy wyht, Mayden ever vurst and late.

Reliq. Antiq. ii. 228 (H. p. 723).

This adjective early died out, being displaced by seely (now silly) and happy. But as a noun it appears to survive in eddy, an idiot,—
that is, originally, a happy, blessed, innocent person; the development being parallel to that of seely (AS. sālig), happy, blessed, hence introcent, simple, foolish, silly—silly being just another form of seely.¹
That the form eddy is from AS. ēadig is confirmed by the parallel seconds to form audie, from the Icel. aubigr (= Goth. audags), cognate with AS. ēadig.

Eddy, n., a simpleton or an idiot, does not appear in the earlier dictionaries, tho the quotations presently to be cited indicate that use is old.

(a) An Eddy, or a Neddy, an idiot. 1826 WILBRAHAM, Cheshire Gloss. (Baker, Northampt. Gloss. 1854). Eddy. An idiot. Chesh. 1847 HALLIWELL. Audie. A careless or stupid fellow. Gl. Surv. Nairn. 1866 JAMIESON.

This eddy is certainly not directly connected with Edwin, the the **Potion** is an old one:

Non immerito secundum vestratum usurpationem, qui stultum vocant Edwinum, reputarer Eadwinus. Cited by J. C. Robertson, Materials for Hist. of Thomas Becket (1876), vol. i. (P. p. 582.)

The word may exist in the surnames *Eddy*, *Eddie*, and *Eadie*, and **Perha**ps, in part, in the Scotch given name *Edie*, tho that is usually **treated** as a diminutive of *Adam*.

An eddy has become in some places a neddy, also a niddy, a simpleton, fool, idiot. I find an early instance:

Noe. . . . Bot as have I blys,

[I] shall chastyse this.

Uxor. Yit may ye mys,

Nicholle Nedy!

Noe. I shalle make ye stille as stone, begynnar of blunder!

c 1450 Towneley Myst. p. 30.

The editor takes Nedy to mean 'needy,' but this does not suit the case. Noah was just about to enter the ark. It was full of meat.

A recent reviewer in the *Nation* criticizes Mr. Bradley, the editor of the second edition of Stratmann's *Middle English Dictionary*, for not identifying with selly, AS. sellic, rare; but silly has nothing to do with selly. The mon etymology from AS. sālig is quite correct. The proof is abundant.

He had no lack of goods, and was, besides, the proprietor of "t Inc greatest show on earth." Noah, in fact, had a good deal laid against a rainy day; and his wife, represented in the old plays as a sharp-tongued shrew, could not with any point call her venera spouse Nicol Needy, 'poverty-stricken Nicholas.' There would be point, no tartness, in that. She cald him Nicol Neddy, 'Nick Sil , 'Dick Simple,' 'Tom Fool.'

> How comes it (Youth) to pass, that you Who all the Deities subdue And at thy Pleasure canst make Neddies Of every God and every Goddess, Nay, even me dost so inflame.

1675 COTTON, Burlesque upon Burlesque, p. 245. (P. p. 58= [But I should read Noddies here. See NODDY, under HODDY, No. 100-An Eddy, or a Neddy, an idiot. 1.) 1826 WILBRAHAM, Cheshire Gloss. (1854 Baker Neddy, a simpleton; generally used reproachfully. "What a neddy y must be, to do that!" 1854 BAKER, Northampt. Gloss. ii. 4 40 Neddy . . . (2) A simpleton. Neddyish, silly. 1857 WRIGHT

The name neddy came to be transferd to a donkey, in which us neddy is now probably regarded as a familiar use of the diminuti personal name Neddy.

a donkey.

1814 PEGGE, Anecdotes of the Eng. Lang
A jackass. Var. dial.
1847 HALLIWELL. (Also 1857 Wright.
A nickname for a donkey.
1854 BAKER, Northampt. Gloss. p. 49 Neddy, a donkey. Neddy. A jackass. Var. dial. 49. or-Neddy, a donkey. L. [Latham], who gives no example, thinks it a corruption of an heady (animal); but more than one Christian name is bestowed on this animal; e.g., Cuddy, Dicky, Jack.

1881 DAVIES, Suppl. Gloss—n's

Neddy, Ned, s. A name for a donkey. "A tinker's neddy." W. Watson

Poems, p. 100. The term is common in London, and in various parts

of England as well. 1887 DONALDSON, Suppl. to Jamieson's Scottish Dict. p. 17= 3.

So an \*iddy, variant of eddy, has become a niddy.

1847 HALLIWELL. (Also 1857 Wright. - 184.) Niddy, a fool. Devon. Hence the compounds niddicock (niddy + cock as in hichcocnickycox (No. 93), nodcock (No. 98), nodgecock (No. 99), etc., an niddypoll (compare noddypoll, No. 102).

They were neuer such fond niddicockes as to offer anie man a rod to be D.) their own tailes. 1587 HOLINSHED, Chron. of Irel. p. 44. (C.D. Oh Chrysostome, thou . . . deservest to be stak'd, as well as buried in t **≠**he for open fields, for being such a goose, widgeon and niddecock, to dye love. 1654 GAYTON, Festivous Notes, p. 61. (! She was just such another niddecook [misprint?] as Joan Gutierez. Id. p. 27. What niddipol hare brayne would scorne this couenant? 1583 STANYHURST, Æn. iv. 110. ( ...)

71. Edge, ME. egge, rarely eg, AS. ecg. We find ME. an eg ent as a neg.

- (a) An Ege (Egge, A.), Acies, acumen. (b) Hoc acumen, hec acies, a neg.
  - 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 112.
- c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.2 735, l. 14).
- 72. Edget, also idget, idjit, a kind of harrow or horse-hoe; a provincial word, probably representing AS. egeőe, egiőe, egőe (= MD. egede = OHG. egida, G. egge), a harrow, a rake. The regular Mod. Eng. form from AS. egeòe, as indicated by the once-occurring ME. eyelle, would be \*aithe; the form edget indicates an early conformation with edge (which is, indeed, remotely related) and the termination -et. An edget, an idget, also appears as a nidget. (Compare \*\* idget² for an idget², an idiot, No. 115.)
  - (a) Erpica, egebe. Erpicarius, egebere.

c 1000 Lat.-AS. Glosses (Wright, Vocab.2 392, ll. 21, 22). And harowede in an hand-whyle al holy scripture, With to eythes [var. harwes, B] that thei hadden, an olde and a newe.

c 1393 LANGLAND, Piers Plowman (C), xxii. 272. 1875 PARISH, Dict. Sussex Dial. (P.) An implement used in the cultivation of Edget, a term of husbandry. hops. It is drawn by one horse, and passes between the rows to clean the ground. Called also idget and nidget.

1876 Gower, Surrey Provincialisms (E.D.S.), p. 88. fjit. A particular form of cultivator. It consists of a square frame, which carries 16 short tings (tines) having small triangular feet. It has no wheels, and is drawn from one corner. It is a modern imple-

ment, but I think it is only made by local smiths.

1891 CHOPE, Dial. of Hartland (E.D.S.), p. 52.

Nidget. Part of a plough. Kent.

Nidget. A horse hoe.

1875 PARISH, Dict. Sussex Dial. (P.)

Nidget, alias Edget or Idget, a horse-hoe used among the hops. 1876 GOWER, Surrey Provincialisms (E.D.S.), p. 97.

- 73. Eel, ME. ele, AS. āl. ME. an ele wriggles along as a nele.
- An ele (Eyle A), Anguilla, Anguillaris. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 113.
  A tod but and an eel. The Young Tamlane (Child, Ballads, ii. 122).

  Hec Anguilla, A<sup>e</sup> nele. c 1425 Lat.-Eng. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 641, l. 32).
  Hic anguilla, a nele. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 704, l. 28).
- 74. Egg, early Mod. Eng. also eg and egge, ME. egge, from Icel. etc., see under ay, No. 57. An egg hatches a negg.
  - It is far to byd hyte To an eg or it go. c 1450 Towneley Myst. p. 87. An eg (Egge A), ouum, oriculum, ouulum. 1843 Cath. Angl. p. 112.
    Vitello . . . the yolke of an eg. 1598 FLORIO.

    S) A child informed that he might have an egg for breakfast begs that he may
  - have "two neggs." 1882 PALMER, Folk Etym. p. 568.
  - Compare a nay for an ay (No. 57).
  - That negg or neg existed in the sixteenth century is proved by the Occurrence of the compound \*cock-negg, found in the form cockaneg.

Caccherelli, cacklings of hens. Also egs, as we say cockanegs. 1598 FLORIO. Cacherelli, hens-cackling. Also egges, as we say cockanegs. 1611 FLORIO. Caccherelli, hens caklings, by Met. new-laid eggs, Cockanegs. 1659 FLORIO, ed. Torriano.

As cockaneg is of special importance in proving the etymology of cockney (see No. 57), and as it occurs nowhere else than in this passage, the word and the passage call for special remark. Florio, in defining caccherelli as "cacklings of hens" or "hens-cackling," evidently derives it from the verb enterd just before:

Caccherare, to cackle as a hen.

1598 (and 1611) FLORIO.

But this is a mistake. Florio's entry must refer to the following quotation from Boccaccio:

Al piè del pesco trouerai cento cacherelli della gallina mia.

1353 BOCCACCIO, Decamerone, Nov. 61. ['At the foot of the peach-tree you wil find a hundred droppings of my hen,' i.e. a hundred eggs. Compare Duez, Dittionario Ital. & Francese, 1660, s.v. cacarello; Alberti, Dizionario Ital.-Francese, 1793, s.v. cacherello.]

Cacherelli as here used is simply a poor instance of the kind of taste which has given Boccaccio his popularity. The word is properly defined by Florio himself under another form:

Cacarelle, the trickles or dung of sheepe, goates, rats or conies. 1598 FLORIO.

By the phrase "as we say" Florio merely implies, according to his manner, that the expression is popular or trivial; and, in fact, cockaneg is a popular or childish form of \*cockneg, or, as it would now be spelt, \*cocknegg. The a is like the a in the analogous compound pinkanve (No. 87, 3), and in blackamoor. It is the unstable final e of the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries; sometimes real (radical or inflexiv), as in blacke moore (Florio), later blackamoor; sometimes spurious, as in cokenay; and now, when made medial by composition, either lost, and omitted in spelling, as in cockney, or, happening to be spelt in some instances a, retaind, because a is not regarded as "silent" - blackamoor, pinkanye, cockaneg, all obsolete or archaic forms. In some instances this -e becomes -i or -y; as in molde-warp, mouldiwarp (1578 Gascoigne), mouldywarp (1854 Baker, Northampt. Gloss.), moodiewarp, moudiwarp (1855 Yorkshire Gloss.), as against the regular modern form moldwarp (moldwarpe, 1623 Shakespeare, 1 Hen. IV. iii. 1, F1 p. 61; Spenser, Astrophel), mouldwarp.

75. Eke, also eek, eak, eake, Sc. eik, ME. eke, eche, AS. ēaca, an addition, increase; = Icel. auki, etc. I find a neak, a neik, in use for an eke (an eak, an eik). This is important, as being involve in the better known change of an ekename to a nekename, a nickname (see next). The ME. noun is most common in the adverbial phrases to eke, to eken (AS. to eacan), in addition, besides, generally contracted to teke, teken; and on eke, in addition, besides.

(a) The words scholle be ised Witheoute wane and eche. 1315 SHOREHAM, Poems, p. 10. Here chyn is chosen, and eyther cheke, Whit ynoh, ant rode on eke. a 1450 (?) Spec. Lyric Poetry (1842), p. 34. (M.)

Foure flowers here may scholers finde, that smelleth very sweete, Which Baret like a busie Bee (in tyring corps) thoughte meete To gather here into his Hyue, lo English, Latin, Greeke,

Lo French, with divers kindes of phrase, and sundrie sorts of eke. 1573 ED. G., To the Reader, in Baret's Alvearie, Pref. p. [viii].

Likely from them a great eke will be put to Traquair's process, which before was long and odious enough.

a 1662 BAILLIE, Letters (1775), i. 323. (1808 Jam.)

Eik, [cek 1880,] cke, s. An addition. 1808 (and 1880) JAMIESON.

Ekes, helps. 'They had all maks o' shifts and ckes,' all kinds of excuses and contrivances. 1876 ROBINSON, Whithy Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 60.

(b) Neik, Neak, s. and v. A form of eik, q.v.
1887 DONALDSON, Suppl. to Jamieson's Scottish Dict. p. 312.

The verb neak, neik, is not, of course, varied from eke, v., but the form is due to the noun eke. The verb nick, to nickname, is evolvd from nickname.

76. Ekename, a surname, added name, literally 'a name of addition.' They clepe us drunkards, and with swinish phrase Soil our addition. SHAKESPEARE, Hamlet, i. 4.

ME. ekename, ekname, is not found in AS. (where \*tonama, the Ource of the common ME. toname, probably existed), but was formd ME. from eke, eeke (AS. ēaca), an addition, + name (AS. nama), Compare Icel. auka-nafn, 'name of addition' (auka, gen. auki = AS. ēaca), also auknefn and auk-nefni, Sw. öknamn, ın. ögenavn.

Ekename in the middle of the fifteenth century began to giv way the alterd form, an ekename, an ekname, becoming a nekename, rekname, a necname, and ultimately a nickname; but ekename, ame, stil exists in provincial use.

c 1303 MANNING, Handlyng Synne, 1531. omen. 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 352. 3) 3eueb a man a vyle ekename. Neke name, or eke name. Agnomen. Agnomen, an ekename or a surename.

c 1470 Medulla Gram. (Way, p. 352, n.).

An Ekname, Agnomen, dicitur a specie vel accione, agnominacio.

63

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Uikname, s. Nickname; local pron. of ekename. Ork.
         Uikname, s. Nickname; local pron. of exerume.

1887 Donaldson, Suppl. to Jamieson's Scottish Dict. p. 249-
Ekname, sb. a nickname. People in North-East Derbyshire speak of 'are
ekname.'

1891 ADDY, Suppl. to Sheffield Gloss. p. 20-
1891 ADDY, Depart Part, p. 362-
   (b) Neke name, or eke name. Agnomen. 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 352.—
Agnomino, To calle nekename. c 1470 Medulla Gram. (Herrtage, p. 112)...
Nyckename, brocquart. 1530 PALSGRAVE, p. 248.—
         A proclamacion, in the whyche was commandement geven thatt we shuld
           give no necname wntoo the sacrament, as rownd Robin, or Jack in the box
                      a 1563 THOMAS HANCOCK, Autobiography, in Narratives of the Reformation (Camden Soc. 1861), p. 73.
         Cognome, a surname, a nickname.
                                                                                  1598 FLORIO _
   Hence the verb nickname, and the simple verb nick.
         In English Wad and not Ode, as some corrupters of the englishe tonge do
           nikename it.
                    1548 TURNER, Names of Herbes. (Britten and Holland, p. 358.)
         Titolare, to entitle, title, to surname, to nickname [1611 nickename]
                                                                                  1598 FLORIO - -
   77. Eldfather, dial. elfather, ME. eldfader, grandfather, father-
in-law, AS. ealdfader, grandfather. We find ME. an eldfader as
a neldfader.
   (a)
                               Ane knaiff child . .
                               That eftir his gude eldfadir was
                               Callit Robert.
                  1375 BARBOUR, Bruce (ed. Skeat) xiii. 694. (Also in Jam. 1808.)
         Myn eldefather Jhesus.
                          c 1382 Wiclif, Prolog. to Eccles. p. 123 (Herrtage, p. 113)—
1423 Wyntown, vii. 8, 230 (Jam. 1808)—
         Eldfadyre.
         Auld-father, s. A grandfather; a term used by some in the west of S.
                                                                              1866 Jamieson-
                                                                 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 137—
1483 Cath. Angl. p. 113—
         El(d)fadyr. Socer.
         An Eldfader, socer (socrus uxor eius).
                                    Cesar the eldfader -
                                    Hys maick Pompey.
                                            1553 DOUGIAS, Virgil, 195, 26 (1808 Jam.) –
1873 HARLAND, Gloss. of Words used in
Swaledale, Yorkshire (E.D.S.), p. 12-
c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab, 2689, 1.42)
         Elfather, father-in-law.
   (b) Hic avus, Acce a neld fadyre.
         Hic Abauus, ace A neld fadyr.
                                          lyr. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 428_
c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 691, l. 15)_
         Hic socer, a neldfadyre.
   78. Eldmother, dial. elmother, ME. eldmoder, grandmother, mother-
in-law, AS. ealdmodor, grandmother. We find also ME. an eldmoder
as a neldmoder, a noldmodyre.
   (a) His eldmoder.
                                         c 1300 Cursor Mundi (E.E.T.S. 1874), l. 1189-
                                             ocrus. 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 137-

c 1470 Medulla Gram. (Herrtage, p. 113)-

c 1470 Medulla Gram. (Herrtage, p. 113)-
         Eld modyr (elmoder K.P.). Socrus.
         Avia. An eld modere.
         Socrus.
                   An e(l)de modere.
         An Eldmoder, socrus.
                                                                     1483 Cath. Angl. p. 113-
         Eldmoder to ane hunder thar saw I Heccuba.
                                            1553 DOUGLAS, Virgil, 55, 43. (1808 Jam.)
er. 1692 Coles, Eng. Dict-
         El-mother, Cu., a Step-mother.
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Elmother, a stepmother. 1876 ROBINSON, Whitby Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 60-

(b) Hec ava, a nold modyre. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.2 689, l. 43). Hec Abaua, a A neld moder. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 428. Hec socrus, a noldmodyre. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. 691, l. 16).

29. Elf-bore, "a hole in a piece of wood, out of which a knot has dropped, or been driven; viewed by the superstitious as the operation the fairies" (1866 Jam.). Elf, ME. elf, alf, has variants aulf, awf, oaf, ouph, etc. (see OAF, No. 129). Hence elf-bore was Probably also once existent as \*auf-bore, and in the possessiv form esfes-bore, the last evidenced by the Scottish form auwis-bore ( am. 1866). An auwis-bore appears as a navus-, nawus-, nawvus-(Jam. 1866). Compare angus-bore, "a circular hole in a panel" am. 1866); for auger's-bore? see under Nauger, B. 6.

80. Ell, ME. eln, ellen, elne, AS. eln. We find an ell as a nell, E. an ellen as a nellen.

- (a) It wanted large an eln [var. elne, ellen] lenght.
- c 1300 Cursor Mundi (Trin. ms.) (E.E.T.S.), l. 8812.
  (b) Son [var. sone] of a nellen [var. an ellen, Trin. ms.; an elne, other mss.] heght bai ware,

bai stod ban still and wax na mare. c 1300 Cursor Mundi (Cotton ms.) (E.E.T.S.), l. 1419. A nell of fuschian. a 1600 in Archaologia, xxv. 507. (Peacock.)

- 81. Elsin, also elsen, elson, elsyn, elshin, elshon, alison, elishant, TE. elsyn (from Old Dutch elsene, aelsene, Dutch els), an awl. An sin is sometimes taken as a nelsin, and nelsin, assimilated to nail, is, I suppose, the source of nailsin, a gimlet. Compare nail-passer
  - and nail-napes (see No. 26), provincial names for 'gimlet' (H.). (a) Subula, an elsyn. c 1470 Medulla Gram. (Herttage, p. 114). An Elsyn, Acus, subula (fibula A). 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 114. Subula, a cordoners elsine.

1595 DUNCAN, Appendix Etymologiae (E.D.S. 1874). Hoo! Hoo! gar raise the Reid Souter and Ringan's Wat, Wi' a broad elshin and a wicker.

The Fray of Suport (Child, Ballads, vi. 119).

Nor hinds wi' elson and hemp lingle, Sit soleing shoon out o'er the lingle.

- a 1758 RAMSAY, Poems, II. 203. (C.D.) is of course a corruption of an elsin.

  1892 M. C. F. MORRIS, Yorkshire Folk-talk, Gloss., p. 301.

  1847 HALLIWELL. A shoemaker's awl. I have heard this word called nelsin, which Nailsin, a gimlet. Kennett.
- 82. Emperor, ME. emperour, enperower, etc., from OF. emperour. We find an emperour turnd into a nemperour.
  - (a) An Emp[er]our, cesar . . . imperator. Ewen as an enperower I am onored ay. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 114.
  - c 1485 Mary Magdalene, l. 933. (Digby Myst. (N.S.S.), p. 90.) (b) Hic imperator, a nemperour.
  - c 1475 Pictorial Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.2 781, 1. 28).

- 83. End, ME. ende, AS. ende. An end is often a nend, ME. a nende.
- (a) That dethe may make an ende of al my were

c 1374 CHAUCER, Tr. & Cr. v. 1393. If the justice mai you take, Your life were at an ende.

a 1550 Adam Bel (Child, Ballads, v. 130).

(b) Blibe sche was bat bataile was brou3t to a nende. c 1360 William of Palerne (E.E.T.S.), l. 3946. Whenne thys werre ys at A Nende.

a 1450 Sege of Rone, Egerton ms. (Percy Folio MS. iii. p. xliv.).

A fyre of sponys and lowe of gromis

Full soun woll be att a nende. c 1460-70 The Good Wyf Wold a Pylgremage, l. 83 (E.E.T.S. 1869, p. 41). Off this proses J make a nend.

a 1500 Lytell Thanke, l. 77. (Ritson, Anc. Songs, p. 81.) We [supposed] that the world where at a nend. 1561 MACHYN, Diary (Camden Soc.), p. 265.

Compare at pen ende, attan ende, atten ende, atte nende, etc. (II. A. 3).

- 84. Errand, ME. errand, erand, AS. arende. ME. an errand is
- sometimes a nerrand. (b) To send a nerrand [var. a message] for to ber. c 1300 Cursor Mundi (Cotton ms.) (E.E.T.S.), l. 3334. -
- 85. Eventide, ME. eventide, evyntyde. We find ME. an eventide falling into a neventide.
  - (a) On ark on an euyntyde houez be dowue.
  - c 1360 Cleanness, l. 485 (Early Eng. Allit. Poems, E.E.T.S. p. 52)-(b) And dernlik [var. priuili] he did pam bide, Till again a neuentide [var. an euentide, be euentide (2 mss.)].

    c 1300 Cursor Mundi (Cotton ms.) (E.E.T.S.), l. 2518—
- 86. Evet, effet, eft, enut, a lizard, ME. evete, AS. efete. The wor appears in modern English in more than ten different forms, belong ing to four types, evet, effet, eft, ewt, of which evet, effet, and ever appear also with the attracted n, evet and ewt also with an aspirate. and ewt also with an inserted l (yolt).
- (1) Evet, the regular form, speld also evvet, evat, with variants eavet, aivet, ebet; aspirated hevet. An evet appears also as a nevet.
  - (a) Lacerta, evete.
    - a 1200 Lat.-Eng. ("Semi-Saxon") Vocab. (Wright, Vocab. 2 544, 1.8). Evetis, and snakes, and paddokes brode,

That heom thoughte mete gode. c 1300 Kyng Alisaunder, l. 6126 (Weber, Metr. Rom. i. 253). a 1500 Nominale MS. (H. p. 445.) [Read heuete.]

Henete, a lizard. Evet or lizarde, which is a grene beast or worme. 1552 HULOET, Abecedarium.

An Euct, or lisard [1580 lizard]. Lacertus, vel lacerta. 1573 BARET, Alvearie, E. 321.

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Lampiro, a kind of lizard or euets.
                                                                                       1598 (and 1611) FLORIO.
1598 FLORIO.
                 Tarantello . . . a little est or euet.

Lizard, a little Beast like the Evet, but without poison.

1623 COCKERAM, Eng. Dict. (1658), Part III.
                 Eft . . . also [as] Evet [which is omitted].
                                                                      1692 (and 1717) Coles, Eng. Dict.
1825 JENNINGS, Somerset Gloss. p. 37.
                 Evet, s. A lizard.
Evet. A newt. West.
Evat. A newt. Somerset.
                 Evet, s.
                                                                                                  1847 HALLIWELL.
1847 HALLIWELL.
                 Newt. The water-lizard; a small amphibious reptile, generally found in stagnant waters, and sometimes in old walls. In Hertfordshire and
                    stagnant waters, and sometimes in old walls. In many other places it has the name of Est or Evvet.
                                                                     1854 BAKER, Northampt. Gloss. ii. 52.
                 The spittle or spawn of toads, evets, water-snakes and adders.
                                                                                      LANDOR, Works, III. 332.
                                              1881 SMITH, Isle of Wight Words (E.D.S.), p. 10. 1890 ROBERTSON, Gloss. Glouc. Dial. (E.D.S.), p. 45.
                 Evvet, the eft.
                 Evet. A newt.
Lacerta, vel lacertus, a liseard: a neuet.
                                                                                      1584 COOPER, Thesaurus.
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Effet (with surd for sonant); also, with varied termination, [1890 Robertson). An effet, taken as a neffet, and used in a stiv sense, appears to be the source of the Scotch neffit, nyeffit, et, a puny creature.

- Effet, an eft, a newt. 1736 PEGGE, Alph. of Kenticisms (E.D.S.), p. 27.

  Effet, a newt. Var. dial.

  Effut. An eft or newt. 1888 Lowsley, Berkshire Words (E.D.S.), p. 77.

  Neffit, s. A puny creature, a pigmy, S. pron. nyeffit.

  [With a false etymology (from neif, fist).]

  Nyaffet, s. A diminutive, conceited chatterer; Laird of Logan, p. 591.

  1887 Donaldson, Suppl. to Jamieson, p. 312.
  - S) Eft, contracted from effet. I do not find an eft taken as
  - Ther ben attercoppes, blodesoukers and eeftes that doon none harme.

    1387 TREVISA (tr.), Polychronicon (Caxton), p. 48. (Herttage, p. 116.)

    Lucertone, a great eft or lizard.

    Racogno, a Serpent called a Lizard or an Eft.

    Ragagno, Ragano, an efte, a lizard, a nute, an aspe [read aske].

    1598 FLORIO.

    Ramarro, an eft, a nute, an aske.

    1598 FLORIO.

Magrásio, an Eft, an Nute, an Aske. 1611 FLORIO [not in ed. 1598]. When you have remained as long as I have in this darkness your eyes will distinguish the smallest eft that crawls on the floor.

1819 SCOTT, Legend of Montrose, xiii.

Dewt (ewte, eute), contracted from evet; also aspirated \*hewt, hoit (H.); also with inserted l, dial. yolt (H.). For the contraction of evet to ewt compare that of eaves (ME. evese, AS. efese)

Spaldo, the ewes [1611 ewes] or penteise of a house, an out-butting baie windowe.

1598 FLORIO.

Stillecidio, the dropping of the ewes [1611 eawes] of the house, a little sinke or gutter.

1598 FLORIO.

An ewt (an ewte, an eute), early in the fifteenth century, began to take the form of a newt (a newte, a neute, a neut, a nute); and newt is now the prevalent form.

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(a) Ewte. c 1400 Maundevile. (H. p. 342.)
Newte, or ewte, wyrme. Lacertus. 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 355.
Ligáro, an Eft, au [read an] Eute, an Aske, a Lizard [ed. 1598: Liguro,
         an eft, a lizard, a nute or aske].
                                                                                          1611 FLORIO.
               Newt.
                                1890 ROBERTSON, Gloss. Glouc. Dial. (E.D.S.), p. 184.
(6)
               For rotyng of the croppe [of apples] the galle is boote
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To touch hem with of neutes grene.
c 1420 Palladius on Husbondrie (E.E.T.S.), iii. 864. Hec lacerta, A. newte. c 1425 Lat.-Eng. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab. 642, 1. 27). ertus. 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 355. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 706. l. 9). Newte or ewte, wyrme. Lacertus. Hec lacerta, a newtt.

Hec lacerta, A<sup>∞</sup> a newte.

c 1475 Pictorial Vocab. (Wright, Vocab. 2766, l. 22). 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 254 [under N; not enterd under E.]. A Newt, lacerta. Newte, a worme, lisarde. 1530 PALSGRAVE, p. 248. Gezo, a lizard or a newte. 1598 FLORIO.

Liguro, an eft, a lizard, a nute or aske [ed. 1611: Liguro, an Eft, au [read an] Eute, an Aske, a Lizard]. [read an] Eule, an Aske, a Lizard]. 1598 FLORIO. Lucertola, a lizard or newte, or eft [ed. 1611: a Lizard, an Eft, a Newl]. 1598 FLORIO.

Marasandola, a water-lizard or newte. 1598 (and 1611) FLORIO. Ragagno, Ragano, an efte, a lizard, a nute, an aspe [read aske].

1598 FLORIO. [Cited also under eft.]

Ramarro, an eft, a nute, an aske. 1598 FLORIO. Magrásio, an Eft, an Nute, an Aske. 1611 FLORIO [not in ed. 1598]. Legart: m. A newte or lizard. 1611 COTGRAVE. 1611 COTGRAVE.

Tassot: m. A newt or Aske. Eye of *Newt*, and Toe of Frogge, Wooll of Bat, and Tongue of Dogge.

1623 SHAKESPEARE, Macbeth iv. 1. (F<sup>1</sup> p. 143.)

Newts and blinde wormes do no wrong. 1623 SHAKESPEARE, M. N. D. ii. 2. (F1 p. 150.)

The blacke Toad, and Adder blew, The gilded Newt, and eyelesse venom'd Worme.

1623 SHAKESPEARE, Timon of Athens, iv. 3. (
Poore Tom, that eates the swimming Frog, the Toad, the Tod-pole (F1 p. 92.) Neut and the water. 1623 SHAKESPEARE, King Lear, iii. 4. (F1 p. 298.)

87. Eye<sup>1</sup>, the organ of sight; dialectal ee, early mod. Eng. also eie, iey, ME. eye, eie, ei, ye, yye, yee, ie, iey, iee, ee, i, eigh, eze, eyze, ehe, eghe, eyh, igh, y3e, etc., with aspiration hye, hie, hee, hy3e, pl. (a) eyne, eine, een, ene, ME. eyen, eyin, eyon, eien, ien, yen, ine, eyne, een, ene, yene, ain, ayn, eighen, eghne, eyhen, ei3yen, ey3en (printed eyzen, H. 68), eghene, ezenc, ezen, zezen, izen, yzen, yghen, yhen, with aspiration heyen, heyn, hegehen; (b) with double plural termination -(e)n-en, ME. enyn, ehnen, ezenen, ynon; (c) with triple plural termination, ME. hynone, hinene (y-n-on-e, i-n-en-e); (c) also without the plural -n, ME. e3e, he3e, etc.; (d) also with later plural termination -es, -s, ME. eyes, ees, yes, yees, yys, oes (Wr.), eizes. See also the plural forms nine, nines, under EyE, II. A. 16.

We find ME. an eye taken as a nye, a ne. (a) God may do, withowten lye,

Hys wylle in the twynkelyng of an ye.
a 1500 MS. Cantab. Ff. ii. 38, f. 240. (H. p. 944.)

So war we boith, in twynkling of ane Ee ...

1552 LYNDESAY, The Dreme (E.E.T.S.), 1. 161. 5) Hic oculus, hic talmus, Ao ne. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.2 675, l. 15).

Hic oculus, An anye. c 1475 Pictorial Vocab. (Wright, Vocab. 2747, l. 1).

:lopt from myn (mine) eye, etc. (see Eye, III. A. 6); also nine, s in up to the nine-s (see Eye, II. A. 16).

Ompare the other nye (my nye, thy nye, etc.), pl. nyne, nine, as

his nye from an eye exists in several compounds, birdsnye, pigsnye, mye1, pinknye2, pinknyed, wallnyed.

E) Birdsnye, pl. birdnies as singular, a delicate substitute for zye (see next). The taste for pigs in sentiment began to decline, ems, in the last quarter of the seventeenth century.

Dont talk to a body so: I cannot hold out if thou dost, my eyes will run over, poor fool, poor birdsnies, poor lambkin. 1681 OTWAY, Soldier's Fortune (Wr. p. 212).

2) Piganye, pigsny, pigsnie, pigs nie, pigsneye, pigsney, pigs-ney, - pigges nye, piggesnye, pigges-neyghe, lit. 'pig's eye,' a humorous a of endearment.

She was a prymerole, a piggesnye [var. pigges nye, pygges nye, piggis nye; also piggesneyghe]. c 1386 CHAUCER, Miller's Tale, l. 82 (Six-Text, A, 3268).

What & ye shalbe my pigges nye.

a 1529 SKELTON, Manerly Margery, l. 17. (Ritson, Anc. Songs, p. 101.)

Miso, mine own pigsnie, thou shalt hear news of Dametas. 1590 SIR P. SIDNEY, Arcadia.

Cucco, the bird called a cuckoo, and idle loytring gasing gull. . Vago, beautifull, faire, trim . . . comely, blithe, bonnie vnto the eie . . . also ones fauorite, minion, louer, seruant, pigs-ney [1611 omitted], wanton, darling, paramour or harts delight.

[Pigsneye occurs also under Pincia Pincia

[Pigsneye occurs also under Pincia, Pupo, Tata.]

Thou art, As I believe, the pigsney of his heart.

1630 MASSINGER, Picture, ii. 1. (C.D.)

And here you may see I have Even such an other,

Squeaking, gibbering, of everie degree

The player fooles deare darling pigsnie He calles himself his brother,

Come of the verie same familie. 1630 Tarleton's Horse-loade of Fooles. (H. p. 623.)

As soon as she close to him came, She spake and call'd him by his name,

Stroking him on the head, Pigsny, Quoth she, tell me who made it cry

1665 Homer a la Mode. (N2.)

The word is sometimes used for 'eye' simply, and is applied to the carnation pink (C.D.).

Shine upon me but benignly, With that one, and that other pigney.
1664 S. BUTLER, Hudibras, II. i.

(3) Pink-nyel, also pinkany, pl. pink-nyes, pinkanies, pinkie-nz etc., a small or narrow eye. Compare pink-nyed, below. For The middle vowel in pinkany, pinkie-nine, etc., see remark as to cocke neg under Egg, No. 74.

1575 LANEHAM, Letter from Kenilworth (Ballad Soc. p. Pink nyez. Pinkie nine. 1594 LODGE, Wounds of Civil War (Dodsley, Old P., viii Pinkany. 1599 Two Angrie Women of Abingdon, p. 68.

The normal form *pink-eye* is found also in use. See C.D.

(4) Pink-nye<sup>2</sup>, pinkney, pinkeney, that which has eyes of a ink or reddish color; applied to a pansy, and to a potato.

Pinkneys. Pink-eyes, a particular species of potatoe with red eyes or 1828 [CARR], Craven Gloss. ii 46.

Pinkeney-John. The heart's-ease, or small original garden pansy. cording to Evans [1848], in Leicestershire it is Pink o' my Johns.

1854 BAKER, Northampt. Gloss. ii.

(5) Pink-nyed, pinkanyed, small-eyed.

Pinck-an-ey'd. 1599 Soliman and Perseda, p. 274. (

The normal form pink-eyed is also found:

**1**: Gauzo, bleere-eied, pinck-eied, squint-eied, goggle-eyed, whal-eied [16-10. bleare-eyde, pink-eyde, gogle-eyde, whale eyde]. 1598 FLO 10. Lucinio, pink-eide [1611 pinck-eyde], or that hath little eyes. 1598 FLO 10. Pink-eyed. Small eyed. 1847 HALLIW

(6) Wall-nyed = wall-eyed, but applied to the horse's color.

Colours [sc. of horses] nowe to knowe attendeth ye: The baye is goode coloure, and broune purpure, The lyarde, and the white and browne is sure. The walnyed is goode, also the blake Is fyne colour, the falowe, and hert hued, The pomly gray for him I undertake, The gray, the goldenhered and the skued, And next hem in merite is dyvers hued Blacke, bay, and permyxt gray, mousdon also,
The fomy, spotty hue, and many moo.

c 1420 Palladius on Husbondrie (E.E.T.S.), iv. 804-

The editor in his marginal sketch-paraphrase illuminates walra Florio here by "walnied." It is to be taken, I think, as 'pie-bald.' defines gazzo as "a whal-eied horse" and "also a pie coloured horse", "a pide horse."

Gauzo, bleere-eied, pinck-eied, squint-eied, goggled-eied, whal-eied [ 1611 whale-eyed]. . . Gazzo, Gazo, a whal-eied horse, a squint or goggette.
eie. Also a pie coloured horse.

1508 FLORE 10. 1611 FLORE 10. Gázzo, as Gáuzo. Also a pide horse.

It might at first sight be supposed that goldney, goldny, the name of a fish, contains this particular ney, nye; and some dout has been felt as to the etymology. I find, however, the full form golden-eye applied to the fish (it is wel establisht as the name of a duck).

> Scaro, a fish that deuours all the small fishes he can come vnto, and cheweth like a beast: some take it to be the guilthead or goldenie. 1598 FLORIO.

> 1611 COTGRAVE. Sargon: m. The Gilthead or Goldeney. Goldney, goldny. . . . The goldenmaid, golden wrasse, gilthead, or conner, Crenilabrus melops, or C. tinca. 1889 C.D. 1889 C.D.

The nye in birdsnye, pigsnye, pinknye<sup>1</sup>, pinknye<sup>2</sup>, pinknyed, wallnyed, is to be pronounced long, or with a diphthong.

This early use (in Chaucer) of the rustical form nye in composition In Ips to confirm the explanation before given of cockney, which arose out the same time. See Ay, No. 57.

- 38. Eyelid, ME. eghelyd, yzelyd, etc. I find ME. an yelede taken a nyelede.
  - (a) & hit lyfte vp be y3e-lyddez. c 1360 Syr Gawayne and the Green Knight (E.E.T.S.), l. 446.
    - An Eghelyd, cilium, palpebra, palpando [read a palpando]. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 112.
  - √b) Hec palpebra, Ance a nyelede. c 1475 Pictorial Vocab. (Wright, Vocab. 747, l. 2).
- €9. Haggler, formerly hagler, a huckster, etc. It is possible that eggler, "one who goes about the country collecting eggs for sale" ( Fac.), was originally an 'aggler, an haggler, or an 'iggler, an higgler, eneral huckster whose business was reduced by popular etymology dealing in eggs (dial. aggs, and iggs). Otherwise we must explain Ler as egg + -l-er, after the supposed analogy of pedler, haggler, hiz gler, etc.
  - In 'aggler, an itinerant huckster, also a bungler, is probably the source of a noggler (for a \*naggler), as defined.
    - (a) Dorsers are peds, or panniers, carried on the backs of horses on which

haglers use to ride and carry their commodities.

1662 FULLER, Worthies, Dorsetshire. (C.D.)

Haggler. The upper servant of a farm. I. Wight.

Haggler. A bungler. (Prov. Eng.)

1890 C.D.

Higgler, a huxter or petty dealer owning a cart. The term is recognized in local directories. 1891 C. WORDSWORTH, Rutland Words (E.D.S.), p. 17.

This is the name formerly given to those people who travelled (b) A Nogler. the country with Sheffield wares; a practice now generally left off there, insomuch that the name itself is falling into oblivion, as the original of Noggler, a bungling person.

[Halliwell derives this from "noggle, to walk awkwardly," but the derivation is probably the other way, like peddle from peddler, pedler, pedlar, "burgle" from burglar, etc.] 90. Haterel, the nape of the neck; ME. haterel, haterelle, from OF. haterel, hasterel.

Hasterel: m. as Hastereau. Hastereau: m. The throat-peece or forepart of the neck, of a hog (belike fro the Wallons, by whom a mans throat or necke is thus tearmed;) also [etc.].

We find ME. an haterelle as a naterelle.

(a) An Haterelle, ceruix, ceruicula, diminutium, vertex.

1483 Cath. Angl. p. 178\_ Also fro the haterel of the croun To the soul of the foot ther down.

a 1500 (?) Ashmole MS. 41, f. 17. (H.)

(b) Nape of an hedde (or naterelle, infra). Occiput, cervix, vertex.

1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 351.

Naterelle, idem quod nape, supra.

Hic vertex, Anoe a natrelle.

c 1475 Pictorial Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 745, l. 14).

- or. Heaving, raising; applied, like raising itself, to yeast. I do not find any example of heaving in this sense, but an heaving, dial. an hewing, appears to be the source of a neaving, which I also find in the form newing. Compare ewes for eaves, under Ever, No. 86 (4).
  - (b) Neaving, yeast or barm. 1681 WORLIDGE, Dict. Rusticum. (P. p. 582.) Newing. Yeast, or barm. Essex. 1790 GROSE; also 1847 HALLIWELL
- 92. Heel-to, from heel, originally heeld, heeld, hield, ME. heldan, AS. heldan, hyldan, incline, lean, + to. Compare lean-to, a small building supported on one side by a larger building or by an alredy existing wall, a shed, a pentice; heeling, "ealin', a shed set against another building; a lean-to" (1875 Nodal and Milner, Lancashire Gloss. p. 114). I do not find heel-to, but an heel-to must be the original of a neel-to, a neal-too in Coles.
  - (b) Neal-too [1717 neel to], a deep bank or shore without showling.
    1692 Coles, Eng. Dict.
- 93. Heir, ME. heir, hair, hayre, eir, eyr, eire, eyre, air, ayre, OF. heir, eir, L. heres. ME. an ayre appears as a nayre.
  - (a) And Adames eyres beob parted on bre.

    c 1250 On Serving Christ, l. 27 (Old Eng. Misc., E.E.T.S., p. 91).
    & sothely sende to Sare a soun & an hayre.

    c 1360 Cleanness, l. 666 (Early Eng. Allit. Poems, E.E.T.S., p. 57).
    Hic heres, an are.

    c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. 2683, l. 31).
    An ayre, heres [etc.].

    Haeres, ane aire of land or geare.

    1595 DUNCAN, Appendix Etymologia (E.D.S. 1874).
  - (b) Eue for Abel thoght ful fair pat god had sent hir suilk an air [var. an nayre, an eir].

    c 1300 Cursor Mundi (Cott. ms., E.E.T.S.), l. 1211.

    This is a nayre, and a kny3t. c 1420 Anturs of Arther, xxvii. l. 11

    (Robson, Three Metr. Rom., Camden Soc., p. 13).

Herring. An 'erring becomes a nerring.

What 'ave you got there?" asked Mac. "A nerring!" said Benny.

a 1882 Froggy's Little Brother, p. 62. (P. p. 569.)

Hickon, Hickin. From Hick, ME. Hicke, Hikke, Hykke, ick, a familiar form of Richard, was formd the diminutive, Hickin, evidenced by the existing surnames Hickin, Hicken, Hickens, Higgin, Higgins, Hickinson, Higginson, and by the ted form Hichin existing in the surnames Hitchen, Hitchens, so (formerly Hychyns), Hitchinson.

on, Hickin, was probably applied, like the related Hichcock o. 96), to any simple fellow; hence, from an hickin we hav 1, a simple fellow. Compare nickycox, below.

Vickin, Nikey, or Nizey, a soft simple fellow; also a diminutive of Isaac.
1796 GROSE, Dict. Vulg. Tongue (also ed. Egan, 1823).
The last statement is not etymologically true as to Nickin.]
Vickin. A soft simple fellow.
1847 HALLIWELL.

Hichcock, Hitchcock, Hickcock, from Hich, Hitch (stil exista surname), Hick, + cock, familiarly used as a diminutiv (so ock, Wilcock, Hancock, and many other names). Hichcock is in Dicky, a diminutiv of Richard. It survives as a surname, ock, Hickcock, Hickok, Hickcox, Hickox.

"Some ca's me Jock, some ca's me John,
Some disma ken my name;
But whan I'm in the king's court,
Micheoch is my name."

"Mitcheoch is my name."

"Mitcheoch is my name."

"Mitcheoch is my name."

"If that is your name in the Latin tongue,
Earl Richard is your name!"

chard (B) (Kinloch, Anc. Scottish Ballads, p. 15; Child, Ballads, iii. 395).

"In some places they call me Jack, In other some they call me John; But when into the Queen's Court, Oh then Lithcock is my name."
"Lithcock! Lithcock!" the lady said,

"Lithcock! Lithcock!" the lady said, And oft she spelt it over again; "Lithcock! it's Latin," the lady said,

"Richard's the English of that name." 2rl Richard (A) (Motherwell, Minstrelsy, p. 377; Child, Ballads, iii. 269).

hcock and Lithcock in these two ballads ar plainly from one That source must hav been Hitchcock, Hichcock. Mitchd Lithcock ar in fact "Latin," that is, unintelligible in English;
in the original version the name was Hitchcock, Hichcock;
lichard's the English of that name."

1 being a common diminutiv name, with a touch of contempt,

noddy-poll and noddy-pate, as presently mentiond, to designate "a weak foolish fellow" (H.).

The original *Hoddy*, though retaind in these compounds (where, however, some confusion with other words must, perhaps, be allowd), and in the surnames *Hoddy*, *Oddy*, *Oddie*, seems to hav early disappeard from independent use, an hoddy being taken as a noddy, and noddy, by reason of its popular association with nod, becoming everywhere prevalent. It was a favorit vituperation in the century from Edward the Sixth to Cromwell the First.

(b) Few aftercrop much,
But nodies [1580 noddies] and such. 1573 TUSSER. (1854 Baker.)
Irus the begger, and Thersites the glorious noddie, whom Homer maketh mention of. 1589 [PUTTENHAM], Arte of Eng. Poesie (ed. Arber), p. 58.
Balordo, a foole, a noddie, a dizzard, an idiot, a giddie-head. 1598 FLORIO.
Caillette: m. A foole, ninnie, noddie, naturall. 1611 COTGRAVE.

The word is very frequent in Florio and Cotgrave.

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Noddy, Ninny, Sot. 1668 WILKINS, Real Character, p. 205.
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Hence *noddy* as an adjectiv, and as a verb, and the burlesque Latin-seeming forms *supernodical*, *supernoditie*.

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You present us with an inane nihil, a new directory of a noddy synod.

1648 British Bellman (Harl. Misc. vii. 627). (D.)

If such an asse be noddied for the nonce,

I say but this to helpe his idle fit,

Let him but thanke himselfe for lacke of wit.

1600 Breton, Pasquil's Fooles-cappe, p. 24. (D.)
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O supernodical foole! 1594 Taming of a Shrew, p. 828.
The subjects of his Supernoditie. 1622 BRETON, Strange Newes, p. 3. (D.)

The notion that *noddy* has something to do with *nod* is an old one but it must be rejected in favor of the etymology here proposed.

A Noddie, qui animi incertus est, & quouis suasu, impulsuq; huc illucmutat, & inclinat, because he noddes when he should speake. Vi. Foole, Dizard.

But a fool, reverend lexicographer, is one who speakes when he should nodde.

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Pro. But what said she?
Sp. I.
Pro. Nod-I, why that's noddy.
Sp. You mistooke Sir: I say she did nod;
And you aske me if she did nod, and I say I.
Pro. And that set together is noddy.

1623 SHAKESPEARE, T. G. V., i. I (F<sup>1</sup>. p. 2I).

[And more stuff of the same sort, which the author is pleased to attribute to "a quicke wit."]
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There is more to be said about *noddy*, and indeed about all the words in this region, but I must not enlarge.

104. Hoddy-peak, in 16th century hoddypeke, huddypeke; apparently from Hoddy + peak, taken in the sense of 'hed' or 'poll.' Compare hoddy-poll (No. 105). To an hoddypeak is due a noddypeak, which was commonly associated with nod. See above.

(a) Can he play well at the hoddypeke? a 1529 SKELTON, Magnificence, l. 1176.

He sayth, "thou huddypeke,

Thy lernynge is to lewde."

a 1529 SKELTON, Why come ye nat to courte? l. 326.

What, ye brainsicke fooles, ye hoddy-pekes, ye doddy-poules!
1562 (?) LATIMER, Sermons, fol. 44 b. (C.D.)

It is not clear whether the Scotch hudpik, hudpyke, "a miser" 

[ Jam.), has any relation to the above:

Catyvis, wrechis, and ockeraris,

Hud-pykis, hurdars and garderaris.

a 1530 DUNBAR, Bannatyne Poems, p. 28. (Jam. 1808.)

(" Hud-pykis are here conjoined with penurious wretches, hoarders, and usurers." Jam., note.)

Mayhew and Skeat explain hoddypeke, huddypeke, and hudpik, egether under huddy-peke:

Huddy-peke, sb., a hood-pick, one who thieves out of a man's hood, simpleton.
1888 MAYHEW AND SKEAT, Concise Dict. of Middle Eng., p. 118.

Of course there is no such word as "hood-pick" except as hudpik \( \int hudpyk \) may represent it.

(b) Gocciolone . . . a filthy nodie peake [1611 a noddy-peake], a sneaker, one dropt downe by chance.

1598 FLORIO.

Benet: m. A simple, plaine, doltish fellow; a noddipeake, a ninny-hammer, a pea-goose, a coxe, a sillie companion.

1611 COTGRAVE.

Woodcock slangams, ninnie-hammer, fly-catchers, noddie-peak simpletons.

1663 URQUHART, tr. Rabelais, I. xxv. (D.)

105. Hoddy-poll, a simpleton; from *Hoddy*, as above, + poll, hed. An hoddy-poll produces a noddy-poll, in early spelling noddi-pol, nodipol, nodypol.

(a) Wherat much I wonder
How such a hoddy poule
So boldly dare controule
And so malapertly withstand

The kynges owne hand.

a 1529 SKELTON, Why come ye nat to courte? (R.)

(b) A nody polle.

a 1529 SKELTON, Works, ed. Dyce, p. 142.

Or els so foolyshe, that a verye nodypoll nydyote myght be ashamed to say it.

1557 Sir T. More, Works, p. 709. (C.D.)

[Note the adjectiv use, and the association with nidiol, which owes its initial n to the same cause. See No. 120.]

Vix tandem sensi stolidus. I now at length hardly understand with much adoe, whorson nodipol that I am. 1641 Terence in English. (Wr.)

Very likely noddy-poll was thought to be 'noddy poll,' as if literally 'sleepy hed'; but this was too popular to be correct. poll compare noddypoop, a word hitherto overlookt. It ends like nincompoop, but begins earlier:

Tattamélle, a kind of sweete fruite. Also a noddiepoope, a gull, or a sot, 1598 FLORIO. a blab, a pratter [last sentence omitted in ed. 1611].

- 106. Homily, ME. homilie, from OF. homilie. An homily becomes in provincial use a nominy, meaning 'a set speech' or 'piece,' with variations, as the collected quotations show.

  - (a) An Homilie. Homilie. 1632 SHERWOOD, Eng.-French Dict. (1050).
     (b) Nominy, A speech, an oration. 2. Complimentary verses, addressed to a bride, immediately after the marriage ceremony, by the first boy in the bride a present in return. school, who expects from the bride a present in return.

1828 [CARR], Craven Gloss. ii. 12.

Nomine. A long speech. North. 1847 HALLIWELL. Nominy, a set speech or form of words; a prepared oration. 'He gets weel thruff his nominy' is said of a town-crier. 'He knaws his nominy as well as a chotch clerk.'

1877 Ross, Stead, and Holderness, Holderness Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 101. Nominy, a long, wordy, and tiresome speech.

1882 NODAL AND MILNER, Lanc. Gloss. p. 200.

How a homily, which is a sermon, came to mean "a long, wordy, and tiresome speech," I wil not stop to discover.

Nominy, a tale, story. It is generally joined with the word 'long,' as 'a long nominy.' It may originally have been a jocular name for a sermon, as the clergy of the Old Church used to begin their sermons with the invocation: "In nomine Patris," &c. — in a language the people would not understand. . . . I am told that in the early part of the present century the bounds of the parish of Sheffield were beaten, and that every time the ceremony took place a nominy was repeated to children, who were asked to remember the occasion. Nuts and sweet-meats were also given to the children in particular places in order that they might also given to the children in particular places, in order that they might remember what they had seen in their childhood, and could give testimony hereafter if required. In some parts of Derbyshire, the children, instead of receiving sweet-meats, were flogged.

1888 ADDY, Sheffield Gloss. p. 159.

Tominy. A doggerel rhyme, a jingle. I connect this word with Lar.

Nominy. A doggerel rhyme, a jingle. I connect this word with Lat.

Nomine, and group it with other ecclesiastical words that have been handed down from mediæval times; it is an example among many which shows how a word may degenerate. Ex. — A'e ya t'nomminy off? i.e.

do you know the rhyme by heart?

1892 M. C. F. MORRIS, Yorkshire Folk-talk, Gloss. p. 347.

Nominies or Formulas. The word nominy is still used to signify formula in Yorkshire and several northern counties.

1892 G. F. NORTHALL, Eng. Folk-Rhymes, p. 319. [The author givs 22 pages of "Nominies."]

The word has no dout degenerated; but not from Latin nomine. For the change of \*nomily to nominy, compare the opposit change, in provincial speech, of chimney to chimly, chimbly.

- 107. Horologue, ME. horologe, horlege, but commonly h-less, orloge, orlege, etc. We find an orloge keeping time as a norloge or a norlyge.
  - (a) Hoc orologium, Ace a horologe.

c 1475 Pictorial Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.2 756, l. 11). 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 188.

- An horlege, horologium [etc.]. 1483 (b) Hoc orilegium, a norlyge. Hic oronoscopus, a orlegge. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 721, l. 33). a 1500 Nominale MS. (H.) A norloge.
- 108. Horrible, ME. horrible, orrible, from OF. horrible, orrible. e ar told "a norrible tale."
  - (b) The song of "a norrible tale" popular some twenty-years ago. 1882 PALMER, Folk Etym. p. 570.
  - 100. Horrid. We hear of "a norrid bull-fight."

Mrs. Merton . . . now exclaimed, with all the vehemence of which her excitable nature was capable, "Where is that abominable wretch as dared to take my own darling boy out to a norrid bull-fight?" For though Mr. and Mrs. Merton were excessively wealthy people, yet long residence in the Island of Jamaica had done much for their letter "H," which, as it were, grew wild and luxuriantly among the flowers of speech which both Mr. and Mrs. Merton were in the habit of cultivating.

1882 F. C. BURNAND, New Hist. of Sandford and Merton, xiii.

- 110. Hospital, ME. hospitalle, from OF. hospitalle. We find ME. 🕶 🗪 hospitalle as a nospitalle.
  - (a) An Hospitalle, cenodochium [etc.]. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 190.
     Ospitale, an hospitall or a spittle. 1598 FLORIO.
     (b) Hoc hospitale, a nospitalle. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. 1719, l. 16).
- III. Hosteler, hostler, ostler, ME. hosteler, osteler, OF. hostelier. NIE. an hostyller appears as a nostyller.
  - (a) An Hosteler, vbi A osteler. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 190. In good fayth I wenyd yow had bene an hosteler verely.

    c 1485 Conversion of St. Paul, l. 96. (Digby Myst., N.S.S. 1882, p. 30.)

    (b) Hic hostiarius, a nostyller. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. 2687, l. 37).
- 112. Hour, ME. hour, howr, houre, earlier and properly without h, etc.) stil appears as a nour.
  - (a) pos laste on ure habbeb i-travailed.

a 1250 Old Kentish Sermons, in Old Eng. Misc. (E.E.T.S.), p. 34.

An vre [var. an our, on our, an hour].

c 1300 Cursor Mundi, Cott. ms. (E.E.T.S.), l. 488.

It was noht half an our of dai.

c 1325 Poem quoted in Eng. Metr. Hom. (ed. Small), p. xv. Withinne an oure of be nyst an entre bay hade.
c 1360 Cleanness, l. 1779. (Early Eng. Allit. Poems, E.E.T.S., p. 90.)

In be wyche ber is a brenyng wel [wheel] A bosand tyrnys an our about dob run.

c 1426 (?) AUDELAY, The xi Pains of Hell. (Old Eng. Misc., E.E.T.S., p. 212.)

(b) A nowar befor the none. C 1500 Hunting of the Cheviot. (Child, Ballads, vii. 39: see note, p. 36.)
Three quarters of a nour. 1699 (Sept. 13), Register of St. Andrew's,
Newcastle; in Burns, Parish Registers, p. 192. (P. p. 570.)
More [than] alff a nore. 1552 MACHYN, Diary (Camden Soc.), p. 29.
[It was the boast of a no Oxford guide that he could] do the alls, collidges

and principal hedifices in a nour and a naff. 1853 BRADLEY, Verdant Green, pt. i., ch. v. (P. p. 569.) In des 'bout half n'our, honey, bose un um wuz back in de new groun'

des like dey never heer'd er no well. 1881 J. C. HARRIS, Uncle Remus, p. 75.

- 113. Hub, a slang term for husband, more familiar in the diminutiv form hubby (C.D.). From an 'ub we get a nub.
  - How to die rich? (Don't tell your wife, (a) Mayhap she loves her hub) Just pile assurance on your life,
    Then — join a football club!
    1892 Quoted from "an insurance organ," in London Daily News.

(b) Nub. A husband. A cant term. 1847 HALLIWELL

- 114. Humble, also pronounced and formerly written umble, ME. humble, umble, OF. humble, umble. We find "an umble person" living in "a numble abode."
  - (a) Umble. a 1250 Old Kentish Sermons, in Old Eng. Misc. (E.E.T.S.), p. 30\_ Ther ben loveris of suche a sorte That faynen an umble porte.

1393 GOWER, C.A. (H. p. 638.)

Den Brer Rabbit talk mighty 'umble. 1881 J. C. HARRIS, Uncle Remus, p. 30.

- (b) "I am well aware that I am the umblest person going," said Uriah Heep, modestly; "let the other be where he may. My mother is likewise a very umble person. We live in a numble abode, Master Copperfield, but have much to be thankful for. My father's former calling was umble. He was a sexton." 1850 DICKENS, David Copperfield, xvi.
- 115. Hunch, a hump, a lump; an assibilated form of hunk, which is probably a free variant of hump (compare lunch with lump). Hunch and hunk ar homely words; literary examples ar comparativly few and recent. The primary sense appears to be 'a hump or protuberance'; but the commoner sense is 'a lump or thick piece,' especially of bred or cheese. An hunch grows into a nunch. Compare a nunk for an hunk (116).
  - (a) Hunch. A great hunch; a piece of bread. South.

1790 GROSE, Prov. Gloss. His wife brought out the cut loaf, and a piece of Wiltshire cheese, and I took them in hand, gave Richard a good hunch and took another for myself. а 1835 Совветт. (С.Д.) Hunch. A good big slice, or lump, of bread or meat.

1823 MOOR, Suffolk Words, p. 180.

Hunch. A lump of anything. Var. dial. 1847 HALLIWELL.

(b) Bever — Lunch — Nunsh — Nunshun. 1823 Moor, Suffolk Words, p. 28.

'Levener — Noonins — Nunsh — Lunsh — Nunshen — Bever — (whet, and bait, and snap, and snack, and snatch, altogether extra interpolations, need not be regularly reckoned) - and Foorzes.

1823 MOOR, Suffolk Words, p. 29.

The same, perhaps, as Lunch. Nuncheon and Luncheon are Nunch. 1823 MOOR, Suffolk Words, p. 257. old words.

A harnet zet in a hollur tree, A proper spiteful twoad was he; . . A bittle up thuck tree did clim, And scarnvully did look at him.

They quarreld; and a woodpecker settled the question for them in good lawyerly fashion, not forgetting his bil:

Just then a yuckel, passin' by, Was axed by them the cause to try: "Ha! ha! I zee how 'tis," zays he,
"They'll make a vamous nunch vor me." His bill was shearp, his stomach lear, Zo up a snapped the caddlin pair!

1847 The Harnet and the Bittle. (H. p. xxxi.)

unch, Nunchion. The intermediate refreshment between breakfast and dinner; corresponding with lunch and luncheon, and contradistinguished to the afternoon repast, called Four o'clock. Nunch, Nunchion. 1854 BAKER, Northampt. Gloss. ii. 67.

here is no room here to discuss the relation of nunch to nuncheon. They ar different in origin.

**≖ 36.** Hunk. An hunk becomes a nunk, speld nunc in Halliwell. See the preceding case.

← Hunk. Same as Hunch [viz. "a lump of anything. Var. dial."]

Hunk, sometimes Hunch. — A thick piece of bread, bacon, &c.
1888 Lowsley, Berkshire Words (E.D.S.).

Hunk, Hunch. - The same as Chunk. 1889 PEACOCK, Manley and Corringham Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 283.

∠ ≥ Nunc. A large lump or thick piece of anything. South.

Nunc, s. A thick lump. South.

1847 HALLIWELL. 1857 WRIGHT.

17. Huss, ME. husse, a dogfish.

Husse, a fysshe, rousette.

1530 PALSGRAVE, p. 233.
Rousette: f. A russetin apple; also, a little Dog-fish, whose ruddie skinne is powdered all ouer with black spots. — Rousset: m. A little ruddie 1611 COTGRAVE. Dog-fish.

In husse appears to be the same as the word meagerly enterd as Lisse, fisshe," in one edition (Pynson's, 1499) of the Promptorium vulorum (which see, p. 361). Apparently there is a third form, ke or husk; but this is uncertain:

Huske, fyshe (husk, fishe, K.H. husk of fyshe, S. P.). Squamus, C.F., squalus, Cath. 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 254.

 $\blacksquare$  18. I, the letter i. ME. an i (an y) is found written a ny.

(E.E.T.S.), st. 5.

Ca) Witt an O and an I [var. a I, st. 2, 6, 7, 8, etc.].

c 1460 The Good Wyf wold a Pylgremage (E.E.T.S.), st. 5.

c 1460 Id. st. 1.

The same refrain occurs in a manuscript cited by Halliwell under Saint John, p. 702; and in Political Poems, ed. Wright, i. 253, 268, etc.

- 119. Ickle, also iccle, dial. eccle, eecle, etc., an icicle, the second element of *icicle*, formerly *ise-ickle*, from ice + ickle. We find ME. an ykle written a nykle. The word has undergon many other transformations; as may be shown later.
  - (a) Ickle. An icicle.(b) A nykle.

1888 ADDY, Sheffield Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 116. a 1500 (?) Med. Ms. Cant. (Way, p. 259.)

- 120. Idiot, formerly also ideot, idiote, etc. This has produced three distinct forms with the adherent n, each with several variations.
- (1) Idiot, formerly ideot, ME. idiot, ydiot, idiote, idyote, ydyote, etc., from OF. idiote. An idiot appears as a nidiot.
  - pou sais to me as til a sott,

Haldes bou me for ani [read ane] idiot [var. wenyst bou I be a fole]?

c 1300 Cursor Mundi (Cott. ms.) (E.E.T.S.), l. 10456.

And wostow why? for thow were wont to chace At Love in scorne, and for despite him calle, 'Seinte Ydiot,' 'Lorde of thise fooles alle.'

c 1374 CHAUCER, Tr. & Cr. i. 908.

Idyote, neither fowle ne ryght wyce (idyote, halfe innocent, H.P., idyothe, nodyr fool, nober wyse, S.). Idiota. 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 258. I have knowne . . . many other learned men that haue bene very Idiots in

maner of any worldly pollicy that they had.

1581 STAFFORD, A Compendious or Brief Examination (N.S.S.), p. 21.

Ane Ideot preist Esay compaireth, plaine, Til ane dum dogge that can nocht byte nor bark.

1602 LYNDESAY, Thrie Estaits (E.E.T.S.), l. 3887.

(b) A verye nodypoll nydyote myght be ashamed to say it.

1557 SIR THOMAS MORE, Works, p. 709. He's such a nidiot as I nivver seed afore.

1877 PEACOCK, Lincolnshire Gloss. (P.) Nidiot. - An idiot.

1889 PEACOCK, Manley and Corringham Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 369.

- (2) With a little expansion idiot appears as idiwit, in Scottish brogue idiwut, and an idiwit takes on the candid appearance of a niddywit, a simpleton, in popular exegesis one who has only the 'wit' of a 'niddy,' niddy being one of the guises of our simple-minded young friend eddy (see No. 70).
  - (a) An idiwut.(b) Niddywit, s. a 1835 WILSON, Noctes Ambrosiana. (P.) A simpleton. Durh. 1857 WRIGHT.
- (3) Idiot is often reduced to two syllables, id'yot; it is then assibilated \*idjot, idget, \*ijjet, ijjit, dial. udgit, eejit. An idiot, pronounced thus an idyot, \*ijjet, ijjit, emerged in the seventeenth century as a nidget, speld also nigget, nigit, nigeot, the last apparently showing a consciousness of its relation to idiot, as then commonly speld ideot.
  - (a) Thou udgit, quo hoo, but wher dus hee dwel? 1847 A Lancashire Ballad, l. 11. (H. p. xxiii.)
    [Medicus Hibernicus loq.:] Ijjits! 1873 CHARLES READE, A Simpleton.

I note eejit in a "dialect" story in the Century Magazine, July, 1892. I am sensible that "dialect" stories ar often disappointing as sources >f dialect forms, but they can always be relied upon to supply exam->les of idiots.

(b) It [that is, the old word niding] signifieth, as it seemeth, no more than abject, base-minded, false-hearted, coward, or nidget.

1605 (?) CAMDEN, Remaines, p. 31. (N.) [The etymology here suggested is of course erroneous.]

This clean nigit was a foole,

Shapt in meane of all.

1608 ARMIN, Nest of Ninnies. Fear him not, mistress, 'tis a gentle nigret, you may play with him.

1653 MIDDLETON, The Changeling (Anc. Dr. iv. 267). (N.)

Nigon, Nigeon, Nigeon, an idiot, or fool.

1692 Coles, Eng. Dict.

[Nigon is a different word (C.L. s...), to serv as the "missing link."]

Nidget. A fool. A corruption of an idiot. [With quot. from The Change1854 BAKER, Northampt. Gloss. ii. 54.

The word nidget was easily associated with the French verb niger, trifle, and the nouns nigaud, nigeur, which Cotgrave translates by nidget.

> Nigaud: m. A fop, nidget, ideot; a doult, lobcock, vaine, trifling, or loyter-1611 COTGRAVE. ing fellow. Niger. To trifle; to play the fop, or nidget. 1611 COTGRAVE. Nigeries: f. Nidgeries, fopperies, fooleries, trifles, nifles, friulous bables. 1611 COTGRAVE.

> Nigeur: m. A nidget, fop, trifler. 1611 COTGRAVE.

- 121. Imper, one who imps or grafts; ME. imper, ymper, impare, An ymper became a nymper.
- (a) Impare, or graffere (gryffar, K.P.). Insertor, surculator.
  - 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 259. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. 2687, l. 5). (b) Hic plantator, a nymper.
- 122. Imposteme, later imposthume, properly aposteme, later apos-Imposteme seems to hav sufferd reduction to \*impost, an \*impost then emerging provincially as a numpost.
  - (a) An Apostem, Apostema.
    - 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 11. An Imposteme, Apostema. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 195.
      (b) Numpost. A deafness or disorder in the ear or head. "Numpost i' the
    - Numpost. A dealises of disorder in the ear of nead. "Numpost i' the hid." An impostume probably. 1823 Moor, Suffolk Words, p. 257. Numpost, an imposthume. This dreadful malady in the head must of course produce stupor. We should say, it makes a man "as num as a post." V. Num. 1830 Forby, Vocab. East Anglia, p. 236. Numpost. An imposthume. East. 1847 HALLIWELL. Also 1857 WRIGHT.
- 123. Inch, ME. inche, ynche, AS. ynce, ince. We find an inch as a ninch, ME. a nynche.
  - (a) Ane inche fro be elbowe he ochede it in sondyre.
    - c 1440 Morte Arthure (E.E.T.S. 1865), l. 4247.
    - Pollisium, ance an ynche. c 1450 Lat.-Eng. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab. 2 604, l. 1).

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- (b) Hoc pollicium, a nynche. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. 2680, l. 5).

  Ninch. An inch. "She wo'd n't sell më so much as a ninch of tappe."

  1889 PEACOCK, Manley and Corringham Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 370.
- 124. Irked, formerly also yrked, erked, perfect participle of irk, ME. irken, yrken, erken, vex, weary. An irked (erked, \*arked) man would probably appear sometimes as a \*nirked (\*nerked, narked) man. Hence the dial. narked, vext.
  - (a) Some in the flame their irked bodies cast.

    1557 SURREY, tr. Virgile, Æneis, bk. ii. (Richardson.)

    With his bald head he was so much yrked, that hee tooke it as a reproach unto himself if anyman els were either in bord or good earnest twitted therewith. 1606 HOLLAND, tr. Suetonius, p. 270. (Richardson.)

(b) Narked, p. pa. vexed, angry. He wor narked about it.
1888 ADDY, Sheffield Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 155.

The other form \*nerked is probably the source, through \*nerky, of the dialectal nerty. Compare pesky for \*pesty, nasty for nasky; also flirk and flirt, jerk and jert, perk and pert.

Nerty, adj. irascible, short-tempered. See narked. "A nerty sort of fellow." 1888 ADDY, Sheffield Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 156.

- to do or to 'beat,' or to a person hard to 'beat.' This word, which is not recognized in the standard dictionaries, appears also in the disguised form, an irker as a nirker, speld also nurker. Compare IRKED above and IRKING below.
  - (a) Irker, i.q. Nirker, q.v. 1881 EVANS, Leic. Words (E.D.S.), p. 176. (b) Nirker. The finishing stroke, the last blow. "That's a nirker."

1854 BAKER, Northampt. Gloss. ii. 58.

Nurker, a person who displays great skill or dexterity; anything of a superior quality.

1877 Ross, STEAD, and HOLDERNESS, Holderness Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 102. Nirker, a 'clencher'; a finishing stroke; a crowning effort. The word, I imagine, should be written, not 'a nirker' but 'an irker,' i.e. something that will irk or trouble any opponent to beat, a 'botherer.' 'That's a nirker!' is a phrase equally applicable when the ace of trumps iddown at whist, when a hunter clears a 'rattling bull-finch,' when a prize-fighter plants a straight blow between the eyes, or when Major Longbow relates his Eastern experiences.

1881 EVANS, Leic. Words (E.D.S.), p. 200.

- 126. Irking. This participial adjectiv, literally 'vexing,' parallel to the other participial adjectiv *irked*, is used, like *irker*, with reference to something which it would be 'hard to beat.' An irking thing appears as a nirking (nurking, nurkin) thing.
  - (b) Nurkin, surpassing; superlative. 'Mine's a nurkin watch; it becats chotch clock bi hauf-an-hoor a day.' 1877 Ross, STEAD, and HOLDERNESS, Holderness Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 102.

127. Island, properly iland, ME. iland, yland, eiland, etc., AS. ME. an eiland appears as a neiland. igland.

(a) Biloken hem and sen this fis, An eilond, he wenen it is.

c 1230 A Bestiary, l. 529. (Old Eng. Misc. E.E.T.S., 1872, p. 17.) An Eland, Mediampnis, mediampna (A.). 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 112. Isola, an ilande . . . Isolano, Isolare, an ilander of an iland. 1598 FLORIO.

(6) Cethegrande [whale] is a fis de moste dat in water is, dat tu wuldes seien get, Gef du it soge wan it flet Sat it were a neilond

dat sete one de se sond. c 1230 A Bestiary, l. 499. (Old Eng. Misc., E.E.T.S. 1872, p. 16.)

**■ 28.** Isle, properly ile, ME. ile, yle, from OF. ile, later isle. ME. are \_1-le is viewd as a nyle (misspeld nylle).

( a) & he let him lede in to an yle, vor to hele is wounde.

Oaf, an awkward blundering lout.

1297 ROBERT OF GLOUC. f. 67 b. An in an yle [var. ile] amydde the wilde see c 1385 CHAUCER, L. G. W. l. 2161. An Ile, jnsula. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 194. An yle that earst no ylande was.

1556 ROBINSON, tr. More's *Utopia* (ed. Arber), p. 166. c 1450 *Nominale* (Wright, *Vocab.*<sup>2</sup> 737, l. 11). (4) Hec insula, a nylle.

= 29. Oaf, dial. awf, auf, formerly aufe, auph, oph, ouph, olf, aulf, etc - ; a variant of elf, alf, ME. elf, alf, AS. ælf. I find an oaf taken as a noaf. Compare a nauwus-bore for an \*auves-bore. See elfbore (No. 79).

Though he be an ause, a ninny, a monster, a goos-cap.

1621 Burton, Anat. Mel. 1, 2, 4, 6. (Evans, Leic. Gloss. p. 203.)

And art thou such an oph to be vex'd at this?

1671 DRYDEN, Mock-Astrologer, ii. (Richardson.) Oaf. A fool; still in use. Oaf, a blockhead, an idiot. 1847 HALLIWELL. 1859 DICKINSON, Cumberland Gloss. p. 79. Oaf, a blocknead, an idiot.

1039 Dickness, Cambe Land.

Awf, an elf, an idiot, a changeling.

1875 Nodal and Milner, Lanc. Gloss. p. 18.

Oaf, a half-wit. Oafing, playing the fool. Oafish, ridiculous.

1876 Robinson, Whitby Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 134.

1877 Ross, STEAD, and HOLDERNESS, Holderness Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 102. Daf, vb. To play the fool . . . Olf, vb. Used of horseplay.
1890 ROBERTSON, Gloss. of Glouc. Dial. (E.D.S.), pp. 106, 107. *Oaf*, vb.

(b) Noaf, sb. An oaf, fool. 1890 ROBERTSON, Gloss. of Glouc. Dial. (E.D.S.), p. 104.

130. Oak, ME. oke, ooke, ake, ak, AS. āc. ME. an oke (ooke, ok, **ak**) grows into a noke (an noke, a nok, a nak).

(a) But so nyl noght an ooke when it is caste. c 1374 CHAUCER, Tr. & Cr. ii. 1389. Ruyd armes as an ake with rusclede sydes. c 1440 Morte Arthure (E.E.S.S. 1865), l. 1096. Betwixt an oke and a greene hollen.
a 1650 Marriage of Sir Gawaine, l. 55, and 102 (Percy Folio MS. i. 109) And as he neghet bi a noke,

The king sturenly him stroke. c 1420 Avowynge of King Arther (Robson, Three Metr. Rom.), p. 64

(6) Bothe the 3onge and lees He hongus on a noke.

c 1420 Id. p. 65

Hec quercus, -ci vel -cus, a nak.

c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.2 716, l. 7) My neb is netherit as a nok, I am bot ane Owle

c 1453 HOLLAND, Houlate, l. 57. (Donaldson, Supp. to Jamieson's Sc. Dict. p. 175.)

Ther may no man stonde hys stroke,

Thogh he were as stronge as an noke.
a 1500 MS. Cantab. Ff. ii. 38, f. 166. (H. p. 580.

For another species of noke, see II. A. 11.

- ME. an oke-appell, ake-apple, takes the form c 131. Oak-apple. a nake-appylle.
  - a 1475 Gl. Harl. 3388 (Sax. Leechdoms, iii. p. 340. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 5 (a) Oke-appell. *An Ake apylle*, galla. 1530 PALSGRAVE, p. 249 Oke apple, pomme de chesne. Gala, . . . an oke apple or galnut, which serueth to make inke with.
  - 1598 FLORIC
    (b) Hec galla, a nake-appylle. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. 2716, l. 9)
  - 132. Oar, ME. ore, are, ar, AS. ar. ME. an ore becomes a nore
  - (a) And sone dede he leyn in an ore. c 1300 Havelok, 1. 718
  - Some hente an oore and some a sprytt.

    a 1500 MS. Cantab. Ff. ii. 38, f. 55. (H. p. 788.

    Hic remus, a nore.

    c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 737, l. 30) (b) Hic remus, a nore.
- 133. Oath, ME. othe, athe, ath, AS. ap. The early ME. an atl appears also as a nath.
  - (a) (b) Bot bou sal suere me a nath [var. an abe, an ath, an oob] . . . pan suer a nath [var. bat abe; 2 mss. different] him Esau.
    c 1300 Cursor Mundi (Cotton ms.) (E.E.T.S.), l. 3542, 3548
- 134. Obly, a wafer, ME. obly, obley, oble, from OF. oublee (cf AS. oflate), from ML. oblata. ME. an obly, an oble, becomes a nobely, a noble.
  - (a) Obly or vbly (brede to sey wythe masse, infra). Nebula (adoria, infra). 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 361 Here xall to angylles desend In-to wyldyrnesse; and other to xall bryns an oble, opynly aperyng a loft In be clowddes. c 1485 Mary Magdalene, after l. 2019. (Digby Myst. N.S.S. p. 131.) Oblema, an obley. Nebula, a wafron.
  - 1500 Ortus Vocab. (Way, Pr. P. p. 361, note 2). (b) Hec osta, hic panis, a nobely. c 1475 Pictorial Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.2 754, 1. 6). Nebula, noble: vafra, wayfere. a 1500 (?) Roy. MS. 17 C. XVII. f. 26 (Way, Pr. P. p. 361, note 2)

135. Oinement, the word now displaced by ointment; ME. oinement, oynement, from OF. oignement. ME. an oynement becomes a novnement.

- a 1400 MS. (Wr. p. 667). 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 363. (a) Make theroff an oynement. Oynement, or onyment, infra. Unguentum.
- (b) A noynement anon sche made of so grete strengbe.
  c 1360 William of Palerne (E.E.T.S.), l. 136. For to make a noynement called nervalle. a 1500 MS. (H. p. 574).

**236.** Ointment, ME. ointement, oyntement. An ointment becomes 20intment, ME. a noyntement.

- (a) And an oyntment she broght. And an oyntment she broght. c 1450 Townley Myst. p. 178. I noynt with an oyntement, Je oynges, conjugat in "I anoynt." 1530 PALSGRAVE, p. 644.
- (b) Hec extremaunccio, a nentment. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. 2720, l. 20). Noynt your hand with my noyntement, and it wyll be hole by and by:

oygnez vostre main de cest oygnement, et elle sera guerye tantost. 1530 PALSGRAVE, p. 644.

1876 ROBINSON, Whithy Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 133.
1876 Id. p. 59. Nointment, ointment. Een nointment, eye-salve.

But noint, dial. nint, nient, to anoint, hence, humorously, to beat, an aphetic form of anoint.

37. Old, dial. auld, aud, awd, ould, owd, etc., ME. old, ould, ald, AS. eald. An old man is often a nold man; and so with other nouns.

(a) An oulde man sitteth at her knee. c 1430 (ms. 1592) Chester Plays, i. 167. An alde man, gerion; vbi alde; geronta, silicernus. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 6.
An alde wyfe, Anus, Anicula, vetula. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 6. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 6.

He hired an auld horse, and fee'd an auld man,

To carry her back to Northumberland.

a 1800 Provost's Dochter, l. 42 (Child, Ballads, iv. 293).

John Gildenmoth sais wit wisdom That he fand in a nald bok. **(**6)

c 1300 Cursor Mundi (Cotton ms.), fol. 63. (Wright, Chester Plays, i. 255.) Hic senior, hic decrepitus, a nald man.

c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.2 683, l. 37).

Hec anus, a nold wyff.

[See other examples under eldfather (No. 77), eldmother (No. 78).]

The xiij. day of Desember in the mornyng was by myse-fortune in sant Dunstones in est a nold man on [one] master Cottelle a talow-chandler, he fell downe in a treat does not nearly day why he had a none a rest of

he fell downe in a trape dore and pechyd hys hed a-pone a pesse of tymbur, and brust owtt hys braynes, for he was beldyng, so the trape dore was left open. 1559 HENRY MACHYN, Diary (Camden Soc., 1848), p. 219.

[Other examples on pp. 137, 164, 277.]

A nold mylne. a 1600 Monasticon Anglic. vol. iv. p. 520, i.

Manley and Corringham Gloss. p. 369.)
So that we have 'a nawd man,' an old man, and even occasionally 'two nawd men.'

1877 Ross, Stead, and Holderness, Holderness Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 5.

- 138. Onion, dial. inion, inyon, ingon, ME. on3on, on3one, oynon, hunyn, oingnun, etc., from OF. oignon. ME. an onzone is found as a nonzone.
  - Cepa, ane an oynon. c 1453 Lat.-Eng. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab. 2 572, l. 5). Hoc sepe, indeclinabile, a hunyn. (a) Cepa, ance an oynon.

c 1475 Pictorial Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.2 785, l. 40). Onzon, bilbus, cepa, cepe. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 260. 1668 WILKINS, Real Character, p. 74. Onyon.

Different people have different opinions, Some like apples, some like inions.

1887 Quoted in DONALDSON, Suppl. to Jamieson's Sc. Dict. p. 142.

c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.2 710, l. 26). (b) Hoc sepe, a nonzone.

139. Oosel or oozel, less properly speld (for the regular pronunciation) ousel, ouzel; ME. osel, etc., AS. osle. ME. an osul (a nosylle), appears also as a nosul, a nosylle.

- (a) Merula, an osill; auis. 1595 Duncan, Appendix Etymologia (E.D.S. 1874).
  (b) Nodosa, a nosul, avis est.

c 1450 Lat.-Eng. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.2 597, 1. 48). A Nosylle, quedam Auis, merulus, merula.

1483 Cath. Angl. p. 256 (under N).

- 140. Oration, a speech; in provincial use also public talk, rumor, noise, fuss, confusion, pother. An oration has become in provincial use a noration. Compare the change of an homily to a nominy, in like extended uses (see No. 106).
  - A public talk, a noisy rumour. One lately arraigned for theft, (a) Oration. said he intended to restore the goods that he pretended to have found - as he "expected there would be an oration about them, sune."
    - 1823 Moor, Suffolk Words, p. 260. Oration, A confused noise, an uproar. Thus a mother would say to her turbulent children, "for seur, barns, what an oration ye mak." It also frequently means a public report or rumour, as "this robbery hes maad a feaful oration i'th country." 1828 [CARR], Craven Gloss. i. 20. a feaful oration i'th country."

      Oration. Noise; uproar. Var. dial.

      Oration. A public talk, a noisy rumou 1847 HALLIWELL ration. A public talk, a noisy rumour. "The rogues would have been taken, if there had not been such an oration about it."

1854 BAKER, Northampt. Gloss. ii. 80.

A fuss, not necessarily expressed by words. "He makes such ion about everything." 1875 Parish, Dict. Sussex Dial. p. 82. Oration. an oration about everything."

1825 JENNINGS, Somerset Gloss. p. 57. (b) Noration, s. Rumour; clamour.

A great noration, A nâtion naise tha nawtice made, About the cost ta be defray'd

Vor the church's repairation. 1825 JENNINGS, The Churchwarden (Somerset Gloss. p. 137). Noration, a loud rumour, or, as it were, a roaring general publication of

what was meant to be kept secret. 1830 FORBY, Vocab. East Anglia, p. 235. nl. 1847 HALLIWELL. 1868 ATKINSON, *Cleveland Gloss*. Noration. Rumour, speech. Var. dial. Noration, a noise, rout, uproar. Noration. An unnecessary publication of any piece of news or a secret.

1875 PARISH, Dict. Sussex Dial. p. 80.

Noration. 'There seemed a great noration about it,' said a rustic to me, meaning an unnecessary discussion or piece of work. And of a certain rose, a gardener said to me, 'It made quite a noration when it first came out.'

1876 GOWER, Surrey Provincialisms (E.D.S.), p. 97.

Noration. A fuss; a row; a set out or disturbance by word or deed.

"What a noration there is over this here start, surelye!"

1887 Parish and Shaw, Dict. Kentish Dial. (E.D.S.), p. 108.

Noraaytion.—A long rambling account, as when a poor old woman, greatly interested in her troubles, relates them very fully.

1888 Lowsley, Berkshire Words (E.D.S.), p. 118.

Noration. Gossip. 1890 ROBERTSON, Gloss. of Glouc. Dial. (E.D.S.), p. 104.

## Hence the verb norate parallel to orate as related to oration

Norate . . . To talk officiously and fussily about other people's business. 1875 PARISH, Dict. Sussex Dial, p. 80.
Norating. Chattering, talking over the news of the town. "Don't stand

there norating." Probably a corruption of narrating. 1854 BAKER, Northampt. Gloss. ii. 62.

To norate, 'to rumor,' 'to spread by report,' is a vulgarism not uncommon in the South. . . . "Purty soon it was norated around that Ike was going to banter me for a rassel and shure enuff he did." Bill Arp. . . .
The word is probably a corruption of narrate, or possibly of orate.

1886 C. F. SMITH, On Southernisms, in Trans. Amer.

Phil. Assoc., vol. xvii. p. 40.

- 141. Orchard, ME. orchard, orcherd, orche3ard, AS. orcerd, orcyrd, ortgeard. An orchard spreds into a norchard.
  - (a) An Orcherd, pomerium, pomerium. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 260. To pley hyre in an horcherd syde. a 1500 MS. Ashmole, 61. (Wr. p. 990.)

(b) Hoc pomerium, a norchard. c 1475 Pictorial Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.2 810, 1. 5).

- 142. Ostrich, formerly also estridge; ME. ostrich, ostriche, ostrige, etc., from OF. ostruce, ostrusce, etc. In ME. an ostryche hides its hed, and appears as a nostryche.
  - (a) Fungus boletus et fungus dicitur ales. ¶ Hic docet autor quod fungus habet duas significationes. Nam fungus id est boletus: anglice paddokstole. Vel est quedam avis, anglice an ostrich: quia ut aliqui dicunt est illa qui comedit ferrum, i. ferreos claves: anglice horsenayles. a 1275 JOANNES DE GARLANDIA, Liber Æquivocorum Vocabularum. (Herrtage, C.A., p. 262.)

An Ostriche, fungus, strucio. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 262. (b) Hic struccio, a nostryche. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.2 701, l. 36).

- 143. Other, ME. other, oder, AS. oder, etc. An other appears in three visible forms, an other, a nother, another.
  - (a) An other, the original and proper form.

An other kinde he haueth.

c 1230 A Bestiary, l. 15. (Old Eng. Misc. E.E.T.S., 1872, p. 1.)
Or we, he said, an other Crist sal bide. c 1325 Eng. Metr. Hom. p. 34. c 1325 Eng. Metr. Hom. p. 34. An ober noyse.

c 1360 Syr Gawayne and the Green Knight (E.E.T.S.), l. 132. And thens to an other part procede.

c 1420 Palladius on Husbondrie (E.E.T.S.), i. 818.

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Ye have an other sorte of repetition.
1589 [PUTTENHAM], Arte of Eng. Poesie (ed. Arber), p. 210.
Harry's children of Leigh, never an one like an other.
                                                             1678 RAY, Proverbs, p. 85.
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(b) An other is also written a nother, a form very frequent from the 14th century down. Compare my nother for mine other (III. A. 10), and no nother for none other (IV. 2).

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And a noiber [var. a-nober, anober] hight Madan.
                           c 1300 Cursor Mundi (Cotton ms.) (E.E.T.S.), l. 3389.
     As hit had be a-nother wyghte. c 1369, CHAUCER, Dethe of Blaunche, l. 530.
                   Hym liketh best a daubed wough, and he
                   Wol have a wall of clay and stone, and stones
                   Withouten clay an other wol it be.
                  A nother with a diche aboute ygone is.
                                 c 1420 Palladius on Husbondrie (E.E.T.S.), i. 785_
     A whylle sche blewe, a nother scho sange.
                             c 1425 Thomas of Ersseldoune (Child, Ballads, i. 99)_
                                A nodyr foule full free
                               Owre messenger salle be.
                                                  c 1430 York Plays, ix. l. 235 (p. 52) -
     Here shall come a-nother devyll callyd mercury, with a fyeryng, commyng in hast, cryeng and roryng, and shal say as followyth.
                                     c 1485 The Conversion of St. Paul, after 1. 432.
(Digby Myst., N.S.S., 1882, p. 44.)
     And by thende of the yere all is forgoten, whiche is a nother occasyon of
                                                1489 Stat. Hen. VII. (Caxton), p. 19.
    One said to an nother takyng his arme.

1562 HEYWOOD, Proverbs and Epigrams (Spenser Soc.), p. 95.

When they be created by a Nother name in the right of there wif or mother.

c 1580 (?) A Book of Precedence (E.E.T.S., 1869), p. 19.
     [Other examples on pp. 14, 16, 17, 19.]
     Nother, A. - An other.
               1889 PEACOCK, Manley and Corringham Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 376.
     W'en dey done howdyin' en axin' atter one nudder fambly kunnexshun,
        Brer Wolf, he 'low, he did, dat der wuz sump'n wrong wid Brer Fox,
        and Brer Fox, he low'd der wern't.
     1881, J. C. HARRIS, Uncle Remus, p. 57.
He know Brer Rabbit wuz atter some projick er nudder, en he tuck'n
        crope off, he did, en watch 'im.
              1881 J. C. HARRIS, Uncle Remus, p. 73. [And similarly, passi:n.]
(c) Another, as if one word.
     pou has anober [var. a-nober] man[ne]s wijf.
     c 1300 Cursor Mundi (Cotton ms.) (E.E.T.S.), l. 2976.

Anothyr ermyte.
c 1325 Eng. Metr. Homilies (ed. Small), p. 71.
In anobre manere. 1340 MICHEL (tr.), Ayenbite of Inwyt (E.E.T.S.), p. 257.
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Another

1589 [PUTTENHAM], Arte of Eng. Poesie (ed. Arber), p. 60 (l. 11), 225 (l. 5), etc. [an other, p. 60 (l. 6, l. 34), 61 (l. 1, 2, 3), 225 (l. 10), etc.]. One while, this little boy he yode, Another while he ran.

Childe Maurice (Child, Ballads, iii. 314).

And so commonly written and printed another since the 17th century; without any real reason. Another ar the only two words,

of which an is one, so written together. It would be better to write them separately, as we write the other, each other, an eighth, an eleventh, etc.

- 144. Otter, ME. oter, otyr, AS. oter. ME. an oter (otyre) appears as a notyre.
  - (a) Lucterinus, anee an Otyr.
    - c 1450 Lat.-Eng. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 593, l. 40). Lutericius, an Oter. c 1450 Lat.-Eng. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 594, l. 10). Hic lutricius, a notyre. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 700, l. 16).
  - (b) Hic lutricius, a notyre.
- 145. Ounce, ME. ounce, from OF. unce, once, Lat. uncia. An e ance appears as a nounce, ME. a nouns, a nowns.
  - (a) Which that ne was nat but an ounce of weighte.
  - c 1386 CHAUCER, Canon's Yeoman's Tale, l. 355. Hec semiuncia, half a nouns. (b) Hec uncia, a nowns.
  - c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 714, l. 22). "A quarten o' teä fer my missis, an' a noonce o' Nounce. - An ounce.
    - bacca' fer my sen." 1889 PEACOCK, Manley and Corringham Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 376.
- 146. Outlaw, ME. outlawe, outelawe, outlay, etc., AS. ūtlaga. cordance with his irregular character, an outlaw appears in ME. as æ mowtlay — regardless of expense.
  - (a) Men clepen hym an Outlawe [var. an outlay] or a theef.

    c 1386 CHAUCER, Manciple's Tale, l. 130. (Six-Text, H. 234.)
    (b) Hic, hec exul, a nowtlay. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. 2694, l. 26).
- 147. Oven, dial. oon, oom, hoom, yoon, yewn, yown, ME. oven, AS. ofen. For the contraction of oven to oon, compare that of I find an oven as a noven, and an oon as a noon.
  - (a) Hic furnus. A. oven. c 1425 Lat.-Eng. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab. 2663, l. 30). ]. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 262. 1790 GROSE, Prov. Gloss., Suppl. An Owen, fornax, fornacula, furnus [etc.]. Oom. An oven. North. 1847 HALLIWELL. 1847 HALLIWELL. Oon. An oven. North. Hoom. An oven. Yorksh. Yoon. An oven. Var. dial. 1847 HALLIWELL.
  - Youn, Youn. An oven. "T' yewn isn't yat yit."

    1892 M. C. F. Morris, Yorkshire Folk Talk, Gloss., p. 401.
    Bake hem in a novyn. a 1500 MS. (Way, Prompt. Parv.; P. p. 569). (b) Bake hem in a novyn.
    - Noon, an oven. 1822 J. COLLIER ("TIM BOBBIN"), Lanc. Dialect, Gloss., p. 35. It begun t' be dark, un I'r beawt scoance [but sconce, i.e. without a lantern] in a strawnge country, five or suce mile fro whoam: so that I maundert ith' fields oboon two eawers, un cou'd na gawm where eh wur; for I moot os weel o bin in o noon. . . . It wur so fearfoo dark. 1822 Id. p. 12.
  - 148. Over, ME. over, AS. ofer, G. ufer, etc., shore, bank. word existing in modern English as an over (overs) and a nover. The regular modern form would be \*oover. The form over is probably due to association with the preposition over.

(a) pat standep on be seis ovre. a 1300 Havelok. (H. p. 776.) Overs, s. pl. The perpendicular edge, usually covered with grass, on the sides of salt-water rivers, is called overs. 1825 JENNINGS, Somerset Gloss. p. 58. (Also WRIGHT, p. 717).

(b) Nover. High land above a precipitous bank.

1875 PARISH, Dict. Sussex Dialect, p. 80.

149. Overword, contracted o'erword, Scotch owerword, ourword (Jam.), a word said over again, a refrain. An o'erword appears in the form of a norword.

Ay is the owrword of the gest,
Giff thame the pelf to part amang thame.
a 1530 DUNBAR, Maitland Poems, p. 104. (Jam. 1808.) (a) The Scotts they rade, the Scotts they ran, Sae starkly and sae steadilie,

And aye the *ower-word* o' the thrang Was — "Rise for branksome readilie!"

a 1700 Jamie Telfer of the Fair Dodhead (Child, Ballads, vi. 111).

The starling flew to his mother's window stane,

It whistled and it sang,
And aye the ower word o' the tune
Was — "Johnie tarries lang!"

Johnie of Breadislee (Child, Ballads, vi. 15; see also iv. 279, viii. 95).

And aye the o'erword of the spring Was Irvine's bairns are bonie a'.

a 1796 BURNS, Lines written at Loudon Manse.

Ower teunn, Ower word, words repeated at the end of a verse; a habitual saying. 1879 DICKINSON, Cumb. Gloss., Suppl. (E.D.S.), p. 130. With this for an overword-

But where are the snows of yester-year?

a 1882 D. G. ROSSETTI, tr. Francis Villon. (b) Norwood [Norword?], s. A nickname; a byword. Letc. 1857 WRIGHT. Nor-word, by-word or nick-name. 1881 EVANS, Letc. Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 202.

150. Owl, ME. owle, oule, ule, AS. ūle. An owl sometimes seeks

further obscurity as a nowl, ME. a nowle, a nowele.

An ule and one niztingale.

And al day after hidde hym as an Owle [var. houle, Camb. ms.].

c 1386 CHAUCER, Wife of Bath's Tale (Six-Text, D, 1081). (a) An ule and one niztingale. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 263.

An Oule, bubo, lucifuga, vlula.

Wayte nowe, he lokis like a brokke, (6) Were he in a bande for to bayte;

Or ellis like a nowele in a stok,

Full preualy his pray for to wayte.

c 1430 York Plays, xxix. l. 117 (p. 258).

Hec bubo, -is, Ae nowle. c 1425 Lat. Eng. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab. 2640, l. 28).

Hic bubo, Aeee a nowlle. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. 701, l. 37).

151. Ox, ME. ox, oxe, AS. oxa. ME. an ox, an oxe is found as a nox, a noxe.

His hert heldet vnhole he [Nebuchadnezzar] hoped non ober Bot a best hat he be, a bol ober an oxe.

c 1360 Cleanness, l. 1681 (Early Eng. Allit. Poems, E.E.T.S. p. 88).

An oxe l will take with me.

c 1430 (ms. 1592) Chester Plays, i. 107.

(b) Hic, hec bos, -vis, a nox.

c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. 9).

He can lowe as a noxe.

a 1500 Harl. ms. 1002 (Wright, Vocab. 1p. 151).

- 152. Oxbow, ME. oxbowe, oxebowe. I find ME. an oxbowe as a noxbowe.
  - (a) An Oxe bowe, Arquillus, columbar. An Oxe bowe, Arquillus, columbar. 1483 Cath Angl. p. 265. Oxe, a beest, bevf. Oxebowe that gothe about his necke, collier de bevf. 1530 PALSGRAVE, p. 250.
  - (b) Hic arquelus, a noxbowe. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. 2728, l. 11).
  - 153. Oxgang, ME. oxgang. An oxgang becomes a noxgang.
  - (a) My wyll ys that Jonett, my wyfe, have my chefe maner place and iiijor oxgange of lande langing therto. 1443 Will of Walter Gower, in Test. Ebor. ii. 89. (Herrtage, C.A. p. lii.)

    An Oxgange of lande, bovata.

    1483 Cath. Angl. p. 265.

    Mas de terre. On (read An) Oxegang, plow-land, or hide of land, containing about 20 acres; (and having a house belonging to it). 1611 COTGRAVE.
  - (b) Hec bovaga, a noxgang. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.2 737, l. 19).
  - 154. Oxhouse. ME. an oxhous appears once as a noxhows.
  - (b) Hoc bostare, a noxhows. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. 2727, l. 2).
- 155. Oyster, ME. oyster, oystur, oystre, eyster, oestre, from OF. istre, ouistre, etc.; M.E. also oster, ostyr, ostyre, ostre, from AS. ostre. A ME. scribe has opend an oyster (an ostyre) at one side: a nostyre.
  - (a) Quod he for many a muscle and many an oystre [var. oyster, oystere].
    c 1386 CHAUCER, Sumner's Tale, l. 392. (Six-Text, D. 2100.)
    An Ostyr, ostreum, peloris; ostreum quidam piscis qui in ostra latitat. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 262.
  - (b) Hoc ostrium, hec ostria, a nostyre. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.2 705, l. 10).
- 156. Ugly, formerly ougly, ME. ugly, ogli, uggely, from Icel. zeggligr. I find an early ME. instance of an ugly deed (an ogli dede) taken as a nogli dede.
  - (a) An ougly Fiend of hell.
  - (b) pai [Adam and Eve] thoght pat kynd him [Cain] mond for-bede
    To haf don suilk a nogli [var. an vncumly, a curced, a cursed] dede.

    c 1300 Cursor Mundi (Cotton ms.) (E.E.T.S.), l. 1105.
- 157. Umbank, a bank formd around a breach; from um-, ME. ≥m-, umbe-, AS. ymbe, around, + bank. Compare Sc. umbesege, zembeset (Jamieson). I assume an \*umbank to be the original of a numbank, a rare provincial word. Compare the Swaledale down-Sank and in-bank, downwards (1873 Harland).
  - (b) Num bank. When a breach happens in a bank, it is often impossible to make another bank on the exact spot where the old one stood; in that case, a circle of earth is made round the breach, which is called a case, a circle of earth is made round the breach, which is called a num bank. The act of doing this has acquired the name of numming, or nomming. "For making num bank 20 roods at 1° 3d."—Bottesford Moors Acc., 1812. "You knaw wheäre that gyme is at Mo'ton; well, when th' Trent bank brust, it wesh'd a grut hoäle, an' thaay'd it to nom roond afoore thaay could stop it."—East Butterwick, 1876.

    1889 PEACOCK, Manley and Corringham Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 377.

- 158. Umbersorrow, a curious Scottish word, of uncertain origin. An umbersorrow bairn appears sometimes as a numbersorrow bairn.
  - (a) (b) Umbersorrow, adj. I. Hardy, resisting disease, or the effects of severe weather. An umbersorrow bairn, a child that feels no bad effects from any kind of exposure, Border. It is sometimes corr. pron. numbersorrow.
     2. Rugged, of a surly disposition, Loth.; an oblique sense. [Ed. 1882 adds: 3. As signifying "weakly, delicate," Roxb.]
- 159. Urchin, in Burns hurchin, hurcheon, early mod. Eng. urchon, urchen, irchen, etc., ME. urchin, urchon, urchion, urchoun, irchon, irchen, yrchyn, erchon, also hurchon, hyrchon, from OF. ireçon, ereçon, heriçon, etc. I find ME. an urchon taken as a nurchon or a norchon.
  - (a) An Vrchon (Vrchion A.), ericius, erinacius.

    Irchen, a lyttel beest full of prickes, herisson.

    A tealier i' Crummil's time wur thrung pooin' turmits in his pingot, an' fund an urchon i' th' hadloont-reean.

1750 J. COLLIER. Works, p. 37. (Nodal and Milner, Lanc. Gloss.)

- (b) Hic erinacius, Ae nurchon.
  c 1425 Lat. Eng. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 643, l. 15).
  A norchon by the fyre rostyng a greyhownde.
  a 1500 Keliq. Antiq. i. 81. (Herrtage, C.A. p. 404.)
- 160. Yew-tree, formerly ewe-tree, eugh-tree, etc., ME. ewtre, ewetre. ME. an ewtre undergoes transformation into a newtre.
  - (a) An Ev tre (Ewetre A.), taxus; taxinus. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 118. If: m. An Yew, or Yew tree. 1611 COTGRAVE.
  - (b) Hec taxus, A<sup>e</sup> hawtre [read hewtre?], newtre.
    c 1425 Lat. Eng. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 646, l. 13).
- 161 (89a). Halfling, dial. halftin, hafflin, hafflin, a half-grown person, also a half-witted person; from half + -ling. For the first sense, see Jamieson and the Century Dictionary. In the second sense an halfling, an hafflin, has given rise to a nafflin, and a nafflin has been reduced to a nafflin. Nafflin being obscure, popular etymology has turned it into maffling, mafflin, as if meaning a 'maffling' or stammering person.
  - (a) Halfling. A person who is half-witted. Suth. 1866 and 1880 JAMIESON. Hafflin, a half wit. 1875 ROBINSON, Whithy Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 86. (b) Nafflin, the same as Mafflin.
    - Nafilm, the same as Maffilm.

      1781 HUDSON, Tour to the Caves, etc., Gloss. (repr. E.D.S. 1873), p. 9, col. 2.

      Maffilm, one almost an idiot. See Nafflin.

      1781 Id. p. 9, col. 1.

      Tis a burning sham to see him like a mafflin bezzling dawn strang liquors.

      1785 HUTTON, A Bran New Wark, l. 455 (repr. E.D.S., p. 203).

      Naffin. A simple person, one almost an idiot. North.

1790 GROSE, Prov. Gloss.

Maffling. A simpleton. North. 1847 HALLIWELL; 1857 WRIGHT.

Maff, Naftin [1878 Mafflin], a simple person.

1859 DICKINSON, Cumberland Gloss. p. 69.

Other cases of Attraction of this kind occur in imitations of the Cockney dialect. For example, "Jemmy Green, or the Cockney Beau," in The Universal Songster, 1825-27, i. 160, sings not only of "a nould ooman," "a norrid hould ooman," and "a norrible crowd" (locutions alredy illustrated, along with "a nour and a naff"—see 137, 108, 109, 112), but of "a norse" which he thought to be "a nunter"; and he tels how he, "a Ninglishman" in France, got into "a nell of a nobble." In the same learned work, which was illustrated by George and Robert Cruikshank and issued by Jones & Co. from the "Temple of the Muses" in Finsbury Square, we read of "the norse" (i. 364), "your norses" (i. 112, four times), "fine fat norses" (i. 112).

Some ME. cases of Attractions of this kind, and others of modern date, hav been omitted for lack of proof or for other reasons. Some cases of apparent Attraction, really due to conformation or other causes, hav also been ignored. I may mention as an example the Provincial "nauls, belongings" (Oxfordshire Words, Suppl., E.D.S., P. 91), which stands for nalls, and this for alls (one's alls, all one's belongings); being vaguely conformd to nawl, nall for an awl (No. 53), or else arising from an' all for and all.

- B. The second division comprises the cases in which a noun has lost its initial consonant owing to the influence of the article, namely: Cases involving the article a, originally an, before consonants as well as before vowels, with a noun beginning with n. The initial n coalesces with the preceding a (or in Middle English was merged with the n of the original article an), forming what is then regarded as the article an, and leaving the noun decapitated.
  - Nache-bone, natch-bone, rump-bone, from nache, natch, ME. nache, nage (from OF. nache, nage, from LL. natica), buttock, rump, + bone. Nache was rarely used in literary English, and soon disappeard except as in the compound, and in the dialectal form nace. The compound then underwent an extraordinary series of transformations, a nache-bone being taken as an ache-bone, and achebone being variously twisted in desperate efforts to giv meaning to what had become meaningless, namely, (1) ache-bone (ach-bone, late ME. hach-boon), also spelt aitch-bone; (2) H-bone, (3) each-bone, (4) edge-bone, and further (5) ash-bone, (6) isch-bone, ische-bone,

ich-bone, (7) ice-bone, ise-bone, (8) isel-bone, and other shapes, ev (9) haunch-bone, (10) hook-bone, and (11) ridge-bone.

The word is cleard up by Mr. Nicol (1878), and Dr. Muri (N.E.D. 1884, s.v. aitch-bone). I classify the forms, and ad sor evidence. In his list of forms Dr. Murray omits natch-bone, and g nage-bone and nache-bone without a quotation for either. I supla quotation for nache-bone. Nage-bone is probably theoretical.

```
1828 [CARR], Craven Gloss. ii.
(a) Nache-bone, Rump bone.
                                                                                                    1828 /d. ii
       Natch. See nache-bone.
                                              1822 KITCHINER, Cook's Oracle, 151. (N.E.]
1835 BOOTH. (1860 Worceste
       Natch-bone.
       Natch-bone.
(b) (1) Kerue vp the flesh ther vp to the hach-boon
      1486 Book of St. Alban's, f. 3 b. (N.E.]

Ach-bone, the same as 'an Ice-bone, i.e. a rump of beef, Norf.' Ray.

1736 PEGGE, Alphabet of Kenticisms (repr. E.D.S.), p.

Aitch-bone.

1810 Domest. Management. (N.E.]

Ach-bone.

a 1822 Prudent Housewife. (Kitchiner, in N.E.]

Aitch-bone. Pronounced H bone. The edge bone, so named perhaps fr its hatchet shape. "The H bone of beef."
                                                                     1823 MOOR, Suffolk IVords, p
                                                      Var. dial.
      Aitch-bone. The edge bone.
                                                           1847 HALLIWELL.
                                                                                          Also 1857 WRIG
      Aitch-bone. The extreme end of a rump of beef, cut obliquely; probabl corruption of edgebone. 1854 BAKER, Northampt. Gloss. i.
       Aitchbone, of beef; the extreme end of the rump, cut obliquely
                                                        1881 Evans, Leic. Words (E.D.S.), p. KITCHINER, Cook's Oracle, 151. (N.E.
                                             1822 KITCHINER, Cook's Oracle, 151. (N.E. 1823 MOOR, Suffolk Words, p
(2) H-bone.
       H-bone.
(3) Each-bone.
                                              c 1818 Young Woman's Companion.
                                                                                                          (N.E.
                                                      1822 KITCHINER, Cook's Oracle.
                                                                                                           (N.E.
       Each-bone.
                                 a 1822 HENDERSON, Cookery. (Kitchiner, in N.E. 1823 Moor, Suffolk Words, p. 6; 1847 HALLIWELL, c 1818 Young Woman's Companion. (N.E. c 1818 Young Woman's Companion. (N.E. a 1822 REYNOLDS, Cookery. (Kitchiner, in N.E.I 1576 Exp. Queen's Table. (N.E.)
(4) Edge-bone.
       The edge bone.
 5) Ash-bone.
 (6) Isch-bone.
       Ische-bone.
(7) Ise-bone.
       Ice-bone, a rump of beef.
                                              Norf.
                            1691 RAY, South and East-Country Words (E.D.S.), p. a rump of beef. 1692 Coles, Eng. D
      Ice-bone, Nf. a rump of beef.
Ice-bone, Ich-bone, Membrum bovis posticum.
                                                    1743 LYE, Additions to JUNIUS, Etym. An
                                                                                 1790 GROSE, Prov. Gla
       Ice-bone. A rump of beef. Norf.
       Ice-bone, a part of the rump of beef. Although it be provincial now, i
          nearer to the truth than either edge-bone or aitch-bone, which have be offered instead of it. The Greek loχιον had passed into the gothic, ε
          offered instead of it. 4 ne Oreck to Lucy had passed thence in due progression to us. 1830 FORBY, Vocab. East Anglia, p. 1 1847 HALLIWE
       Ice-bone. The edge bone of beef.
(8) Iselbon. An edge-bone of beef. See Arch. xiii. 371.
                                                                                            Still in use.
                                                                                             1847 HALLIWE
(9) Haunch-bone.
                                               1773 MRS. MASON, Ladies Assistant.
(10) Hook-bone.
(11) Ridge-bone.
                                                      a 1822 Mrs. M'IVER, Cookery.
1822 KITCHINER, Cook's Oracle.
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But the forms ice-bone, ise-bone, isch-bone, isel-bone properly repi sent a different word, ice-bone, ise-bone, ize-bone, izle-bone, the hi

bone; D. "is-been, isch-been, ijs-been, ischia, coxendix, os inferius circa nates; & os pubis, os pectinis" (1598 Kilian), "is-been ofte is A-been, the haunch" (1658 Hexham), LG. isben, whence G. eisbezzz. Sw. and Dan. isben, hip-bone.

Ize-bone, the huckle-bone, the coxa.

1703 THORESBY, Letter to Ray (Yorkshire Words) (E.D.S.), p. 102. Izle, an axle. Izle-bone, the axial-bone, where the hip-joints meet the 1876 ROBINSON, Whithy Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 102.

Nadder, dialectal nedder and nether, stil in provincial use, a serpent, adder. ME. nadder, nedder, neddir, neddire, neddyr, neddyre, nadere, neder, nedyr, nedere, nedyre, earlier naddre, neddre, AS. maddre. A nadder, a nedder, very early became an adder, an edder (addre, eddre, etc.), which has mightily prevaild over the original serpent. The dial. edder is also found as ether, etherd, hethere. A nadder was one of the first words that yielded to Attraction

An wirm is o werlde . . .

neddre is te name. c 1230 A Bestiary, l. 120 (Old Eng. Misc., E.E.T.S., p. 5). A nedder stert vte of be sand, And stanged Iam in be hand. c 1300 Cursor Mundi (Cotton ms.) (E.E.T.S.), l. 12527 The wonde swelth an aketh So doth the naddre stinge.

c 1315 SHOREHAM, Poems, p. 104.

Dragauncia, addyrworte ys an erbe pt som manne callib dragans ober serpentary his erbe is like to be colour of an nadder all sparklyd.

c 1400 (?) Gl. Sloane 5, fol. 13 b. (Saxon Leechdoms, iii. 339.) Eddyr, or Neddyr, wyrme. Serpens. Hec apaphsibena, a nedyr with ij. hedes. 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 135.

c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 707, l. 13). [Two heds, we ar told, ar better than one; but see to what a pass "ij.

hedes" brought the simple Amphibocha. J Hic serpens, a nedyre... Hic idrus, a watyrnedyre. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 705, l. 35, 37). hedes" brought the simple Amphisbæna!]

Hic serpens, alle maner naderes. Hic agguis, Aee a wateradder. Hic coluber, Aee a snake . . . Hic biceps, hic jaculus, a flyyn nedere.

c 1475 Pictorial Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 766, l. 5-14).

A Neddyr, Aspis, lacerta (serpens A.), stellio, basilliscus, cicadrillus (sergens A.)

pens, jdrus A.). pens, jdrus A.).

1483 Cath. Angl. p. 250.
This is probably the latest instance of this, the true form of the word";

Herrtage, note, l.c. But see below.]

Nedder. An adder. North. 1847 HALLIWELL. Also 1857 WRIGHT.

Nether, s. An adder. This in some counties is the invariable pron. a nether. 1866 JAMIESON.

(6) The smale addren of which we spaake.

c 1300 Kyng Alisaunder, l. 5310. (Weber, Metr. Rom. i. 220.) And [the devele] dede hym in an addre wede.

c 1315 SHOREHAM, Poems, p. 158. per is an eddre bet is y-hote ine latin aspis.

1340 MICHEL (tr.), Ayenbite of Inwyt (E.E.T.S.), p. 257.
For eddres, spirites, monstres, thyng of drede.

c 1420 Palladius on Husbondrie (E.E.T.S.), i. 935.

An manner of an edder is in thir place.

c 1430 [ms. 1592] Chester Plays, i. 26. Ralus, ano a fleyng addur.

c 1450 Lat.-Eng. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab. 2 606, 1. 43).

For that he begyled was Thrugh the edder and his wyfe.

c 1450 Towneley Myst. p. 72.

An addere crept forth of a bushe. a 1600 King Arthur's Death (Child, Ballads, i. 43).

And so an adder ever after, in literary use, tho in speech it is stil a nadder.

- 3. Nadder-stone. ME. a nederstone, a nedyrstonne, is now an adderstone.
  - (a) Hec pumes, Ace a nedyrstonne.
  - Hetherd-stone. That is, an adderstone; an ancient spindle-whorl.
    1889 PEACOCK, Manley and Corringham Charles (C.D.) (b) And the potent adder-stone.
- 4. Napron, obsolete or dialectal napern, nappern; ME. naperon, naprun, from OF. naperon. The word goes with napery, napet, napkin, the simplex being the obsolete nape, from OF. nape, nappe, a cloth, napkin. A napron, a napern, remains in provincial speech, but in general use has become an apron, dial. an apern, appern, appurn, apperon, yappern, yeppurn, heppern.
  - (a) Napet, or napekyñ. Napella, manupiarium (mapella, P.). . . Naprun 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 351. (or barmclothe, supra). Limas. A Napron (Napperone, A.), limas, & cetera; vbi A barme clathe.

1483 *Cath. Angl.* p. 249. 1530 Palsgrave, p. 179.

Tablier a femme, a womans naperne. A napron of worsted.

Anapron of worsten.

1569 Wills & Inventories (Surtees Soc.), ii. p. 305. (Herrtage, p. 249).

And put before his lap a napron white. 1596 Spenser, F. Q. V. v. 20.

Nappern, an apron. 1825 Brockett; 1847 Halliwell; 1857 Wright.

Nappern. An apron. An archaism. 1854 Baker, Northampt. Gloss. i. 44.

Napron, Naprin, Naperon. An apron. These forms represent the common pron. in West and South of S.

1887 DONALDSON, Suppl. to Jamieson, p. 172.

(b) Item all nappery ware, as kercherys, appurnys, blankytts, coverlets, and sych other.

1542 Richmondshire Wills (Surtees Soc. vol. xxvi.), p. 27. (Herrtage.) 1542 UDALL, tr. Erasmus, Apophtheyms. Aberen strings.

To thomas hynde yt was my prentice an apron.

1570 Wills & Inventories, iii. 327. (Herrtage, p. li.)
Otherwise it may be sayd to me that Adam and Eues apernes were the

gayest garmentes, because they were the first.

1589 [PUTTENHAM], Arte of Eng. Poesie (ed. Arber), p. 39.
pern. An apron. 1890 ROBERTSON, Gloss. Glouc. Dial. (E.D.S.), p. 4. Apern. An apron.

5. Nasturtium. In rustic use a nasturtium, following the luxuriant habit of the plant, has spred into an asturtium, and asturtium, seeming to begin with the indefinit article, appears as a sturtium. m told that a sturshon is common in Chester County, Pennsylia; a storshon is found in provincial English use.

- b) Storshon, the garden nasturtium.
  1858 SPURDENS, Suppl. to Vocab. East Anglia (repr. E.D.S.), p. 80.
- Nauger, formerly speld also nawger, dial. noger, noager, ME. (ger, nagere, contracted from earlier navegor, AS. navegār (Wright, ab.<sup>2</sup> 106, l. 16; 333, l. 36), earlier nafugār, nafogār, nabogār, vogaar, literally 'nave-spear,' from nafu, nave, hub (see Nave, .7), + gār, spear (piercer). The tool was so cald because of its in boring the hole in the nave or hub, to receiv the axle. It was cald a wimble (ME. wymble), and a piercer (ME. persour). nauger early became an auger, tho the form nauger stil remains provincial use.

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(a) Navegor.

Navegor.

1301 Inventory. (H. p. 572.)

Navegor.

1400 (?) Nominale MS. (H. p. 572.)

Terere, wymble (nauger).

1400 (?) Gloss. to Walter de Biblesworth (Wright, Vocab. 1 p. 170, l. 17).

With this axe that I beare,

This perscer and this nagere,

A hamer all in feare,

I have wonnan my meate . . . . . . As a symple carpentere.

1430 [ms. 1592] Chester Plays, i. 107.

One axe, a bill, iiij nagares, ij hatchettes, an ades.

a 1600 Quoted in Shaksperiana Genealogica (1869), p. 472. (Herrtage.)

They bore the trunk with a nawger, and then issueth out sweet potable liquor.

1650 Howell, Familiar Letters, ii. 54. (N.)

Noger, or Jumper. See Jumper or Borer.

1802 JOHN MAWE, Mineralogy of Derbyshire, Gloss. (E.D.S. 1874).

Nodgur, an auger.

1882 NODAL and MILNER, Lanc. Gloss. p. 201.
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We stil bore with a nauger, and call it a nauger, but we always ite it an auger.

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    (b) Terebrum, an augur or a Persour.
    c 1450 Lat.-Eng. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 616, l. 7).
    Agore. c 1500 Letters, ed. Ellis, Ser. iii. vol. i. p. 148. (Oliphant.)
    Tariere: f. An Augar. Tariere à boiste. A Wimble. . . Teriere: f.
    An Augur.
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Herein is to be found, I think, the explanation of certain forms herto obscure or unnoticed. A nauger's-bore is probably the ginal of (a) nangers bore, and this of (an) angus-bore, in the otations below. The n for u is apparently an original misreading: u.

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(a) Within and without,
This house round about . . .
Euerie nangers bore [naugers bore?]
An Angell before.
a 1550 (?) A Spell, quoted from Suffolk Garland (1818), in Northall,
Eng. Folk-Rhymes, p. 148.
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- 1523 FITZHERBERT, Husbandry, § 3, 12. (N.E.D.) 1607 SHAKESPEARE, Cor. iv. 6. F1 p. 24.) (b) An augurs bore. Into an Augors boare. 1607 SHAKESPEARE, Cor. iv. 6. F1 p. 24.)
  Angus-bore. A circular hole in a panel. V. Auwis-bore. 1866 JAMIESON.
- 7. Naught, also nought, a cipher or zero in arithmetic. A naught, misdivided, has produced an aught or ought, a form used even by many persons of education, partly, I think, because naught in other senses is passing out of spoken English.
  - (a) Zéro, a figure of nought [1611 naught, 1659 nought] in Arithmetike. 1598 FLORIO. Zéro, sound dséro, the figure nought in Arithmetick. 1659 TORRIANO, Brief Introd. to the Ital. Tongue. Nought, or Non, a cypher. 1876 Robinson, Whitby Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 133.

Aught, speld also ought, is in common use in England and the It is used in character by Dickens and Lowell. United States. the first instance Mr. Squeers, that eminent instructor in "bottinney" and "single-stick (if required)" is the speaker:

- (b) "At Midsummer," muttered Mr. Squeers, resuming his complaint, "I took down ten boys; ten twentys—two hundred pound. I go back at eight o'clock to-morrow morning, and have got only three—three oughts an ought, three twos six—sixty pound. What's come of all the oughts an ought, three twos six — sixty pound. boys? What's parents got into their heads?"
  - 1839 DICKENS, Nicholas Nickleby. "Three score and ten," said Chuffey, "ought and carry seven. Some men are so strong that they live to four score - four times ought's an ought, four times two's an eight — eighty.
    - 1843 DICKENS, Martin Chuzzlewit, xlx. Wy, into Bellers's we notched the votes down on three sticks;

'T wuz Birdofredum one, Cass *aught* and Taylor twenty-six. 1848 LOWELL, *Biglow Papers*, No. IX. 1. 62.

- Aught. The figure or sign 0. (Always.) The game "Naughts and crosses" is always called "Aughts and crosses." 1891 R. P. CHOPE, Dial. of Hartland (E.D.S.), p. 25.
- 8. Nave, ME. nave, nafe (late ME. also nathe, mod. dial. nathe, nath), AS. nafu. A nave appears in Scotch local use as an eave, and perhaps in a naveboard as an ave (see next).
  - Timpana, cartnave. c 1400 Metrical Vocab. (Wright, Vocab. 2628, l. 11). Nave of a quele (qwyl, S. whele, P.). Modius, et modiolus, timpanum, (a) Timpana, cartnave.
    - cantus, meditullium. 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 351. Hoc meditollium, a nar [read a nafe]. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.2 727, l. 28). Hoc meditulium, Ance a nafe.
  - c 1475 Pictorial Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 811, l. 31).
    (b) Eave, s. corr. of the nave of a cart or carriage wheel. Roxb. 1866 JAMIESON.
- 9. Nave-board, one of the boards or floats around the nave or central part of a mil-wheel; from nave + board. This is probably the original of the hitherto unexplaind aue-boords in Cotgrave; a

mave-board (-boord) being taken as an ave-boord. Compare other compounds of nave, namely, nave-box and nave-hole.

(b) Aubes: f. The short boordes which are set into th'outside of a water-mills wheele; we call them, ladles, or aue-boords [1650 and 1673 ave-boords].

1611 COTGRAVE. [Whence in Halliwell and Wright.]

I suppose the form aueboords in ed. 1611 is to be red, as in ed. **■**650 and 1673 it is printed, aveboords. But if the u in aueboords is a vowel, then it is to be red as if \*aweboords, which brings it into direct relation with the Scotch aw, awe, applied to such projections:

> The water falls upon the awes, or feathers of the tirl, at an inclination of between 40 and 45 degrees.
> 1791-99 UNST, Shetland, in Sinclair, Statist. Account of Scotland,

v. 191. (1808 Jamieson.)

Aws, awes of a mill-wheel, s. pl. The buckets or projections on the rim which receive the shock of the water as it falls.

1808 (and 1866) JAMIESON. Aws of a windmill. The sails or shafts on which the wind acts. Aberd. 1866 JAMIESON.

It seems probable that awes, aws, is short for \*awe-boards, aweor aue- standing for original ave- from a nave, as au- in auger for rauger, nawger stands for the same original (see Nauger above). Otherwise we should hav to explain aueboords in Cotgrave as originally \*aube-boords, from \*aube (from F. aubes as defined) + boord, now board.

- 10. Navy, ME. navy, navie, from OF. navie. We find ME. a mavy lookt upon as ane avy.
  - (a) A Navy of schyppis, classis, navigium.

    The kynge sent a navy of shyppys to the see. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 249.
  - 1502 Arnold's Chron. (1811), p. xlviii. (b) Ane avy of shippes tha spyed thame before. a 1500 (?) MS. Lansd. 208, f. 8. (H. p. 120.)
- 11. Neap, a turnip; spelt also neep, Scotch neip (Jam.), and with Shortened vowel nep; ME. nepe, also nape, AS. nap, from L. napus, whence also ultimately Eng. navew, and the second element of Zurnip, formerly turnep, turnepe (Turner, 1548), dial. tonnup, tonup, Zurmet, turmit, turmot, turmut, tormit, tarmit. Turnip is recorded in 1548 by Turner as an unfamiliar name: "I haue heard sume cal it in englishe a turnepe" (Names of Herbes, repr. E.D.S., p. 55). It was probably originally terræ napus, 'neap of the ground,' or \* navew of the field.' Compare Cotgrave's entry "Naveau, the Navew gentle, French Navew, long Rape (a sauorie root) . . .

Naveau blanc de jardin, th' ordinarie Rape, or Turnep" (1611). The same first element tur-, representing L. terræ, occurs in a word

hitherto unsolvd. I mean turmeric, formerly turmerick, sometimes turn-merick (Markham, 1676, in Nares), now meaning the rhizome of Cucuma longa or the plant itself, but formerly applied to Potentilla Tormentilla, "in englishe Tormentil or Tormerik" (Turner, as above, Tormentile and turmeric hav enough in common, in the characteristic root or rootstock, in its use in medicin, and as a dye, to make the name easily pass from one to the other. The original English form of the name I suppose to hav been \*termerite, \*terremerite, from F. terre-merite, now terre-mérite, or as N.L., terra merita (1671), corruptly talmental (1669 — Littré), turmeric. This must be from M.L. terræ meritum (an. 1251, 1319, 1336), terremeritum (an. 1263, 1311), terameritum (an. 1206), plural terræ meritum, terremerita, given by Du Cange as 'fruits of the earth,' 'produce of the ground.' The application of the term to a plant conspicuous for its root would be easy.

A neap taken as an \*eap is probably the source of the aspirated heap, a turnip. Perhaps Halliwell's "anape, apparently the name of an herb... mentioned in an old receipt in a MS. of the 15th century" (H. p. 58), is a nape, a turnip; or is it, like Jackanapes, a plant of Italian growth—a Napes, of Naples? See A. No. 26.

A wonder thing a man may often see two yere if neep in some lande sowen be, It wol be rape, and rape in sum land sowe Wol ther ayenne uppe into neepes grow.

Wol ther ayenne uppe into neepes growe.
c 1420 Palladius on Husbondrie (E.E.T.S.), viii. 25. (See also viii. 20-23.)

Hec rapa, a neppe. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 711, l. 4).

Tame nepis and parcely. 1502 Arnold's Chronicle (1811), p. 111.

Nepe, Heref., a navew or turnip. 1692 COLES, Eng. Dict.

(b) Heaps, turnips.

(b) Heaps, turnips.
1881 DICKINSON, Second Suppl. to Cumberland Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 109.

12. Near<sup>2</sup>, a kidney, speld also neer, Sc. neir, neire, Eng. dial. also nire, nyre (spelt by Moor nia, niyah); ME. nere, neere; from an unrecorded AS. form, or from the cognate Scandinavian form, Icel. nyra, Sw. njure, Dan. nyre, D. nier, G. niere, Gr. νεφρός, etc. The hitherto unnoticed form nire is probably from the Scandinavian, and near from the AS. The word has disappeard from current use, being displaced by the word kidney, which is in fact a compound of near<sup>2</sup>; kidney (ME. kidney, kydney, kedney, kidenei), being an alterd form of ME. kidnere, kydnere, kydneere, kidenere, kideneire, kydenere, from \*kid, supposed to represent quith, Eng. dial. kite, belly (AS. cwið, Icel. kviðr, etc.) + nere, kidney. But near is in provincial use in various forms: (a) near, nire (nia, niyah); also, a near being taken

as an ear, (b) ear, eer, eir (speld by Moor ayah, aiyah); also, (c) inear, innear, and inniards, forms apparently resting, in popular etymology, on in, or innard for inward; also, (d) in the plural, by a duplication of the plural suffix, nurses (for \*nerses, \*near-s-es), a new plural of nears taken as a collectiv noun designating a pair, and hence open to a new plural. Compare bodices, plural of bodice, original *bodies*, plural of *body*.

For in-lowed es my hert, And mi neres [reenys, Wiclif] are torned for un-quert.

c 1315 Early Eng. Psalter, Ps. lxxii. 21. (Herrtage.)

c 1450 (?) Nominale MS. (H.)

Ren, the neire. 1595 Duncan, Appendix Etymologia (E.D.S. 1874).

Near or neah . . . Niyah or Near. [See below.]

Near, the fat of the kidneys. . . . In Suffolk it is pronounced nyre.

1830 FORBY, Vocab. East Angl. p. 229.

(b) Near or Neah.

wear, the kidney.

Neer, the kidney.

Near or Neah. The same, I believe, as Aiyah, Ear, and Niyah, which see.

1823 Moor, Suffolk Words, p. 245.

Niyah or Near. Rhyming to fire and ear, the fat surrounding the kidney of a roast loin of veal, or mutton. Also the kidney itself. There are various ways of pronouncing these words.

various ways of pronouncing these words, Ayah, Ear, and Nia.

1823 Moor, Suffolk Words, p. 249.

Ear. The kidney, or its neighbouring fat; particularly of roast veal. It is also called Near, or Neah—Aiyah, and Niyah.

1823 Moor, Suffolk Words, p. 117.

Aiyah. The fat about the kidney of veal or mutton. It is also called Niyah, and sometimes Ear and Near. 1823 Moor, Suffolk Words, p. 6.

Ear. An animal's kidney. East. 1847 HALLIWELL. Also 1857 WRIGHT. Ear fat, Near fat, the fat surrounding the kidneys.

1859 DICKINSON, Cumb. Gloss. p. 34. rth. 1790 GROSE, Prov. Gloss. (c) Inear, or Near. The kidney. North. 1790 GROSE, Prov. Gloss.

Inear. The kidney. North. 1847 HALLIWELL.

Inear, the kidneys: perhaps from their supposed resemblance to the

shape of the ear. 1855 [ROBINSON], Whitby Gloss, p. 90.

Innear, a kidney. 1876 ROBINSON, Mid-Yorksh. Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 65.

Nurses, the kidneys. Lonsdale Gloss. (Peacock.) (P. p. 639.) (d) Nurses, the kidneys.

13. Neeld, ME. neld, nelde, a transposed form of needle, ME. redle, nedyl, AS. nædl. Compare dial. wordle, ME. wordle, a trans-Posed form of world. I find ME. a neld as an eld.

(a) Alle peos pinges . . . ne beop nout wurð a nelde.

c 1230 Ancren Riwle, p. 400. c 1400 Plowman's Tale, l. 728. Soche willers witte is not worth a nelde. 1881 Evans, Leic. Words (E.D.S.), p. 199. *Neeld*, a needle.

When alle mens corne was fayre in feld Then was myne not worth an eld [corrected to a neld in the "Addenda et Corrigenda," p. xix.].

c 1450 Townley Myst. p. 11.

14. Nest, ME. nest, AS. nest. In modern provincial use a nest is sometimes taken as an est. The very same word exists also as eyes (see below, No. 17); for nīdus, the Latin original of eyes, is cognate with nest.

(a) A Neste, nidus, nidulus, diminutiuum. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 253.

(b) Est, s. A corruption of Nest. Roxb. Hence, a bird-est, a bird's nest.

Hogg.

By leke or tarne, scho douchtna reste,

Nor bygge on the klofte hirre downe este. 1820 Hogg, Winter Evening Tales, ii. 71. (1880 Jam.)

1859 DICKINSON, Cumberland Gloss. p. 35-

Est. Nest.

15. Nettle, ME. nettle, nettylle, netle, AS. netele. A nettle loses

its hed, but not its sting, as an ettle.

(a) A nettylle, vrtica.

1483 Cath. Angl. p. 253.

Nettle out, dock in,
Dock remove the nettle sting.

1879 HENDERSON, Folklore of the Northern Counties, p. 26.

(b) Out ettle, in Dock,

Dock zhall ha' a new smock,

Ettle zhant ha' narrun.

Ettle zhant ha' narrun. 1842 AKERMAN, Wiltshire Gloss. p. 16. (Northall.)

Ettle. A nettle. West. 1868 Huntley, Gloss. of Cotswold Dialect, p. 38.

- 16. Nias, also nyas, niess, nyesse, niaise, from OF. niais; compare Pr. nizaic, niaic, It. nidiace, also nidaso, niaso, a young hawk taken in its nest; originally adjectivs, variously formd from L. nīdus, = E. nest. See Nie following, No. 17. A nias (nyas, niess, nyesse, niaise) came to be regarded and used as an ias (spelt yas, eyas, eyase, eyesse). The term was used alone and also as a part of several phrase-names.
- (1) A nias, a young hawk. Examples of a nias in the literal sense and not joind to hawk, or an other noun, ar rare. Compare the quotation from Cotgrave:

Niais: m. A neastling; a young bird taken out of a neast; hence, a youngling, nouice, cunnie, ninnie, fop, noddie, cockney, dotterell, peagoose; a simple, witlesse, and vnexperienced gull; also, as Niez [see quotation below].

1668 WHKENS Real Char. Alph Diet.

Niess, (Hawk). 1668 WILKINS, Real Char., Alph. Dict.

Hence, figurativly, a youngling, a foolish young fellow, a simpleton.

- (a) Laugh'd at, sweet bird! Is that the scruple? Come, come, Thou art

  a niaise.

  1616 B. Jonson, Devil is an ass (1641), i. 3.
- (b) Eyas.

  c 1450 Reliq. Antiq. i. 294. (Oliphant, i. 281.)—
  Couata, a couie of partridges, a beuie of phesants, a broode of chickens—
  an ayrie of haukes: or any birdes hatching or sitting, a nestfull, a layre—
  an eyas.

  Couáta, a couie of Partridges, a beuie of Fesants, a brood of Chickins, are
  ayrie of Hawkes, a nest-full, a lairie, an eyase, or any birdes hatching

ayrie of Hawkes, a nest-full, a lairie, an eyase, or any birdes hatching and sitting.

[Torriano, 1659, alters wording and omits "a lairie, an eyase."]

The first year of her trade she is an eyesse, scratches and cryes to draw on more affection.

a 1613 SIR THOMAS OVERBURY, Works, p. 82

But there is Sir an ayrie of Children, little Yases, that crie out on the top of question; and are most tyrannically clap't for 't.

Eyas. A young hawk; a falconer's term, not yet lost, derived from Eye.

1868 HUNTLEY, Cotswold Dialect, p. 38.

Nathaniel Field (first one of the little eyasses who competed with regular

actors, and then himself an actor and playwright).

1887 G. SAINTSBURY, Eliz. Lit. p. 426.

From the noun eyas, or from the compounds below, arises the attributiv use in "eyas wings":

> Ere flitting time could wag his eyas wings. About that mightie bound which doth embrace The willing spheres.

1596 SPENSER, Hymn of Heavenly Love, 1. 24.

The word also appears, probably it appeard first, as an adjectiv or as a noun in loose composition, in (2) a nias falcon, (3) a nias hawk, a transfer or translation of the French or Italian terms faucon niard, faucon niais (?), nidiace, or nidaso falcone (see the quotations from Cotgrave and Florio). We also find (4) a nias musket, and (5) a nias dragon. The first two appear also and usually, the third (No. 4) appears only, with the n attracted to the article: an ias falcon, hawk, musket, misspelt an eyas falcon, etc.

(2) A nias falcon, an eyas falcon.

(6)

- Niard, faulcon niard. A Nias Faulcon. 1611 [and 1673] COTGRAVE. Nidiáce falcóne, a Hawke taken yoong out of his nest, a Eyase-faulcon.
  1611 FLORIO [not in 1598; see quot. 1659 under eyas hawk].
- (3) A nias hawk, an eyas hawk; also a nias goshawk.
- (a) That no man, from the feast of Pasche nexte ensuinge, shoulde beare any

1 hat no man, from the feast of Pasche nexte ensuinge, shoulde beare any hauke of the breede of Englande, called an nyesse goshake, tasselle, laner, laneret, or faucon, upon peyne of forfeyture of such his havke to the kynge.

95 Stat. 11 Hen. VII. (Strutt, Manners and Customs, 1775, vol. iii. p. 126).

Niez, as niais [see quot. above]; Also a nias hawke [1673 hawk]; also, an airie of hawkes.

1611 [and 1673] COTGRAVE.

A Nias Hawke. G. Niáis. I. Nidaso, for a niase Hawke, or for a Nouice, a simple young one come late out of the nest.

1617 MINSHEU.

Nias Hawk (Fr. Niais) a Nestling or young Hawk; or any Hawk taken out of the Nest, before she prey'd for her self.

1674 BLOUNT. Glossographia. D. 433.

1674 BLOUNT, Glossographia, p. 433.

A nias Hawk. Accipiter apotrophus, rudis, recens a nido. 1693 Lingua Romana Dict.

> Like Eyas hauke up mounts unto the skies, His newly budded pineons to assay.

1590 SPENSER, F. Q. I. xi. 34. 1598 FLORIO. Niaso, an eyase hauke [1611 an eyase hawke]. 1598 FLO. Nidaso, an eyase hauke taken out of the nest [1611 an Eyase-hawke]. 1598 FLORIO.

Nidiace, Nidaso, Falcone, an Eyase hawke taken out of her nest or airey. 1659 FLORIO, ed. Torriano [see quot. under eyas falcon].

- (4) A nias musket; found only once, as (an) eyas musket.
- (b) M. Page. Here comes little Robin.

Mist. Ford. How now my Eyas-Musket, what newes with you? 1623 SHAKESPEARE, M. W. W. iii. 3. (F1 p. 50.)

- (5) The sense of merely 'young,' 'a young one,' not confined to birds ("nyas, a cub," Wright), appears in a nias dragon.
  - (a) Then like a nyas dragon on them fly, And in a trice devour them greedily.

1636 Fasciculus Florum. (Wr. p. 707.)

17. Nie, nye, ni, a nest, hence a brood; ME. \*nie, \*ny, from OF. ni (AF. nye, Kelham, 1779, p. 166); E. also nide, from F. nid; = Sp. It. nido, from L. nīdus (cf. It. nidio, from L. nīdulus, and Pg. ninho, from nidinho (Diez), or a deviant form also from nīdulus), a nest, = E. nest (see NEST above). It is especially applied to a nest or brood of pheasants:

> Primez: où cervez sont assemblé Un herde donque est appele, Des grues ensy un herde, Et des griuez sans h erde, Nye des fesauntez, coueye des perdriz, Dame des alowez, eipe des berbyz,

Soundre des porks et estatuyz,
Deueye [read Beueye?] des héronez et pipe des oscaux.
Quoted by Leo, Rectitudines, p. 40, n. 71, from Reiffenberg, Einleitung
zur Chronique rimée de Philippe Mouskes, I. p. xcv. sq.

Examples of nie in ME. or later ar rare; a nie came to be taken as an ie, and ie was generally misspeld eye.

(a) Nye (f. Nid), a nest. 1692 COLES, Eng. Dict. A catalogue of the most usual words, whose sound is the same, but their sense and orthography very different. Altar, for sacrifice. Alter, change . . . Nigh, near. Nid [read "Nie"? or "Nye, F. nid"?], a nest. Nye, a mans name. 1692 Coles, Eng. Dict., Pref.

pheasants. 1857 WRIGHT, p. 699. 1875 PARISH, Dict. Sussex Diat. p. 79. See also Eye. Nide, Broedsel. A nide of pheasants, Een broedsel faisanten. (A. N.) A brood of pheasants.

Nide, s. (A. N.) A proou of Ni. A broad of pheasants. - A brood of pheasants. 1888 LOWSLEY, Berkshire Words (E.D.S.), p. 117. of pheasants. 1888 Id. p. 78. Eye or Ni. — A brood of pheasants.

(b) They say a Bevie of Larkes, even as a covey of Partridge, or an eye of Pheasaunts. 1579 SPENSER, Shep. Cal., April, Glosse. Or, if you chance where an eye of tame pheasants

Or partridges are kept, see they be mine.

1647 FLETCHER, Beggar's Bush, ii. 1. (C.D.) Eye. A brood of pheasants. Var. dial.

1847 HALLIWELL. (Also 1857 Wright.) Eye, a brood of pheasants: Ey, an egg, German.

1868 HUNTLEY, Gloss. of Cotswold Dial. p. 38-Eye. A brood of pheasants.

1889 PEACOCK, Manley and Corringham Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 193-

The word was not confined to a brood of pheasants, as the Fletcher The Century Dictionary speaks of "an eye or quotation shows. shoal of fish."

- 18. Nisi prius. This detacht scrap of a Latin conditional sentence, whose history in English illustrates the great possibilities of law and language when allied to perplex the populace, took the first downward step when it gave way to rime — \* Nise-prise, nizy-prizy, niz-priz.
  - (a) Nizy-Prizy. Nisi Prius. Various. 1790 GROSE, Prov. Gloss. Suppl. 1839 HOLLOWAY, Gen. Dict. of Provincialisms. Nizy prizy. Niz-priz, a writ of nisi-prius. 1864 HOTTEN, Slang Dict.
- A \*nise-prise, a nizy-prizy, became an ise-prise, an izy-prizy, or, with a touch of aspiration, hizy-prizy.
  - (b) In the yeere 1509 the first of Henry the 8, Darby, Smith and Simson, ring-leaders of false inquests in London rode about the Citie with their faces to the horse tailes, and papers on their heads, and were set on the Pillorie in Cornehill, and after brought agains to Newgate, where they dyed for very shame, said Robert Fabian. A ring-leader of inquests, as I take it, is he, that making a gainfull occupation thereof, will appeare on Iseprises ere he be warned, or procure himself to be warned to come on by a tallis.

1618 STOW, Survay of London, ed. A[nthony] M[unday], p. 260.

Hizy prizy. A corruption of Nisi Prius, the name of a well known law assize.

1825 JENNINGS, Somerset Gloss. p. xvi. (Also 1828 [CARR], Craven Gloss. i. 228.)

Hizey Prizey, the court of Nisi Prius.

1825 BROCKETT, North Country Words, p. 97.

It underwent another transformation:

Izey-tizey. Uncertainty. Devon. 1847 HALLIWELL. (Also 1857 Wright.)

This is, of course, an allusion to the glorious uncertainty of the law. To the rural mind the law is "all a muddle." The writ of premunire, itself an etymological muddle (I. praemunire, fortify, muddled with praemonere, forewarn), has led to a similar perplexity. We find It early used in the sense of "a serious or awkward position; a predicament" (C.D.):

> If the law finds you with two wives at once, There's a shrewd premunire. 1656 MIDDLETON, MASSINGER, & ROWLEY, Old Law, v.

There is nothing left to prevent the rest; priminary, primminnerry.

I, seeing what a priminary I had by my ludness brought myself in, I

saw that it could not be avoided.

1680 Letter of Robert Young, in Harl. Misc. VI. 334. (D.)

Primminnerry. Perplexity—confusion—distress—derived, no doubt, somehow from premunire. 1823 MOOR, Suffolk Words, p. 293.

So the writ of certiorari, a piece of knock-down Latin, has past into sasarara, sassarara, sasserary, siserarara, sisserara, siserari, siserary (see C.D. s.v. siserary), an overwhelming assault.

A hard cruel blow. "'A gon em sich a siserara 'a the hidd." Siserara. I have fancied that this may be traced to the cruel act of the scriptural Jael on the unhappy Sisera, as related in Judges, iv. 21. 1823 MOOR, Suffolk Words, p. 351.

- 19. Noggerhead, a dialectal variant of loggerhead (perhaps simulating nog, a wooden pin). A noggerhead, with a slight variation, becomes an aggerhead; and a noggerheaded fellow, originally a loggerheaded fellow, becomes an aggerheaded fellow.
  - (a) Noggerhead. A blockhead [fool, Wr.]. Dorset. 1847 HALLIWELL; 1857 WRIGHT. You logger-headed and unpollisht groomes. 1623 SHAKESPEARE, T. S. iv. 1. 128 (F1 p. 221).
  - (b) Aggerheads, loggerheads. 1876 ROBINSON, Mid-Yorkshire Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 1.
    Aggerheads, loggerheads. "He's an aggerheaded fellow," means he is a dull stupid fellow. 1888 ADDY, Sheffield Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 2.
- 20. Noonmeat, the normal modern form of the ME. nonmete, nunmete, AS. nonmete, meat or food taken at noon, a midday lunch, generally taken, with true British freedom, early in the morning, or late in the afternoon. The ME. nonmete, nunmete, assimilated, exists provincially as nummet, with variants nimmet, neemit, nammet, nammut, and a nammet is more evenly divided as an ammet. True to picnic experiences, we also find a nammet, a country lunch, jumbled together, as anamet (H. p. 58), enamet (H. p. 333). Compare inear for near2 (No. 12 (c)).
  - (a) Nunmete. Merenda, antecenium. 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 360. Merenda, a none meete. c 1470 Medulla Gram. (Way, Pr. P. p. 360, note 3). A None mete, antecena, antecenum, merenda. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 257.

Merenda, breakefast, or noone meate. 1548 THOMAS, Ital. Gram. (Way, Pr. P. p. 360, note 3).

Merendar, to take the noonemeate, meridiari. Merienda, a noonemeate, merenda, prandium.

1591 PERCIVAL, Span. Dict. (Herrtage.)

Nummet, nunch, luncheon.

1814 Somerset Vocab. in Monthly Mag., Sept., p. 126 (Spec. Eng. Dial., E.D.S., p. 73).

Nummet, s. A short meal between breakfast and dinner; nunchion.

1825 JENNINGS, Somerset Gloss. p. 57.

Nummet. 1849 SOUTHEY, Common Place Book, i. 477. (Davies.)

Nammet. A luncheon. South. 1847 HALLIWELL. (Also 1857 Wright.)

Nammut, a luncheon eaten in the field about nine o'clock in the morning, excepting during harvest, and then at four in the afternoon.

1881 SMITH, Isle of Wight Words (E.D.S.), p. 22. 1890 CHOPE, Dial. of Hartland (E.D.S.), p. 60 Nammet. Lunch.

Hence in composition, a nammet-bag:

7an. What's got there you? Will: A blastnashun straddlebob craalun about in the nammut bag. 1847 Spec. of Isle of Wight Dial. (H. p. xxi.).

Picknickers being told that a nammut bag answers to a lunchbasket, wil be able to giv a shrewd guess as to what a blastnashun straddlebob is; others may need to be informd that a blastnashun straddlebob is a dumbledore, that is to say, a polyonymous lamellicorn coleopter, cald also a dorbeetle, a dorbug, a maybeetle, a maybug, a cockchafer, a Melolontha vulgaris. The dumbledore proper is Emerson's "burly dozing humblebee," in American prose always a bumblebee.

> When tha dumbledores hummin, craup out o' tha cob-wall, An, shakin ther whings, that vleed vooath an awa. 1825 JENNINGS, Good Bwye to thee, Cot (Somerset poem) in Dialects of West of England, p. 91.

In the Isle of Wight dialog, from which I hav quoted above, it appears that straddlebob is a term of extreme antiquity. Jan douted about straddlebob:

Straddlebob! Where ded'st leyarn to caal'n by that neyam?

The question was referd to the master; and he said —

Why a zed one neyam ez jest so vittun vorn as tother, and he louz a ben caald Straddlebob ever zunce the island was vust meyad.

1847 HALLIWELL, l.c.

Which is a reasonable ancienty.

- (b) Ammat. A luncheon before dinner. 1790 GROSE Prov. Gloss. Ammat. A luncheon. West. 1847 HALLIWELL. (Also 1857 Wright.)
- 21. Nouch, ME. nouche, nowche, a brooch, a pendant, from OF. nouche, nosche, nusche (ML. reflex nouchium), ML. nusca, nuxa. A nouch early became an ouch, Sc. uche, uch. It is now known, in its clipt form, only as an archaic word in the English Bible.
  - Monile, scutula. (a) Nowche. 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 359. Nowche. Monne, scuttua.

    A shete shalle be youre palle, siche lodys shalle be youre nowche.

    c 1450 Towneley Myst. p. 325. An nowche of gold with a gret poynted diamaunt set upon a rose enamellid white, and a nowche of gold in facion of a ragged staff.

    a 1483 Grant from Edward IV., in Paston Letters, ii. 33.

    (Herrtage, C. A., p. 263.)

    (b) An ouche [var. an ouch, a nouche] of gold.

    c 1386 CHAUCER, Wife of Bath's Preamble, l. 743 (Six-Text, D. 743).

    An ouche of sylver walewede theringe

An owche of sylver walewede therinne.

a 1500 (?) MS. Cott. Calig. A. ii. f. 113. (H. p. 914.)

Nor Ouche, Brooch or Agglet, but of Venice making or Millen.

1581 STAFFORD, Compendious or Brief Exam. (N.S.S.), p. 51.

Fermaglio, an ouch, or iewell, a pendant, namely a brooch.

1598 FLORIO.

And they wrought Onix stones inclosed in ouches of gold grauen, as signets are grauen, with the names of the children of Israel. 1611 BIBLE, Exodus, xxxix. 6. Bránche d'óro, ouches of gold. 1611 FLORIO [not in ed. 1598]. Bránca d'óro . . . an ouch or brooch of gold. 1659 FLORIO, ed. Torriano.

Nought, see 7, NAUGHT.

22. Nouthorn, the horn of a nout, that is, of an ox or a cow; a Northern Eng. term, also nowthorn, nolthorn, ME. nouthorne (as shown below), from nout (nowt, nolt), cattle, also an ox or a cow (from Icel. naut, cattle, parallel with Southern Eng. neat, ME. neet, net, AS. neat, cattle), + horn. Nout has been in Northern Eng. use for more than seven hundred years. I find it also in six compounds beside nouthorn; namely, nout-beast, nout-byre, nout-foot, nout-geld, nout-herd, nout-tath. See Catholicon Anglicum, 1483; Duncan, Appendix Etymologia, 1595; Jamieson, Scottish Dict., 1808 and 1880; Robinson, Whithy Gloss., 1876; etc.

Nouthorn has heretofore received scant recognition, being in all but two recorded instances, and these obscure, turnd into an outhorn, and this being explained as an original formation from out + horn.

The word appears undisguised in the following instances:

A lang kail-gully hang down by his side, (a) And a meikle nowt-horn to rout on had he. a 1776 Humble Beggar (Herd, Collection of Anc. and Mod. Scottisk Songs (1776), ii. 29. (1880 Jam. iii. 371.)).

Noll-horn, Nowl-horn, s. The horn of an ox or cow, used for collecting cattle, &c. . . Of a very cold day, it is proverbially said, "It's enough to pierce a nouthorn," S. 1880 JAMIESON, iii. 371.

In all the other instances a nouthorn is disguised as an outhorn, or as outhorn, outhorne, without the indefinit article. require individual notice.

(b) There was many an outhorne in Caerlel blowen [var. in Carlile was

blowne, P.],
And the belles bacward did they ryng [var. bells backward did ringe, P.].

a 1550 Adam Bel, Clym of the Cloughe, and Wyllyam of Cloudesle,
l. 345. (Child, Ballads, v. 144, from Ritson, Pieces of Anc. Pop. Poetry, p. 1; also in Percy, Reliques, i. 158; Percy Folio MS., iii. 89, l. 345, with variations as above noted.)

Prof. Child, in his glossary to the Ballads (iv. 319, ed. 1880), explains outhorne in this passage as "a horn blown to summon people to assist in capturing a fugitive." Percy explains it as "an old term signifying the calling forth of subjects to arms by the sound of a horn"; and refers to Coles and Bailey. I append the entries in Coles and Bailey:

Out-hest, Out-horn, evocatio subditorum ad militiam per edictum regis or per sonum cornu. 1708 Coles, Eng.-Lat. Dict. Out-hest, Out-horn, the Summoning of Subjects to Arms by the Sound of a Horn. 1733 BAILEY.

These entries ar based on earlier statements in Spelman and Skinner:

Outhest, idem quod Outhorn, ab AS. Hæse, Mandatum, & Out, q. d. Evocatio ad Militiam per Mandatum seu Edictum Regis.

1671 SKINNER, Etym. Angl.

Outhorn, Spelman citat ex Foedere Ælfredi & Guthruni RR. quod in impresso codice dicitur Edwardi & Guthruni. Videtur autem Convocatio Subditorum, seu Civium ad arma per sonum Cornu, ab Out & Horn.

1671 SKINNER, Etym. Angl.

But I do not find outhorn, or any AS. word like it, in the laws of Edward and Guthrum as printed (Lambard, 'Αρχαιονομία, ed. Whelock, 1644, p. 41-44; Thorpe, Ancient Laws, 1840, i. 166-177; Schmid, Die Gesetze der Angelsachsen, 1858, p. 118-126). Spelman's reference seems to be intended for outlaw, AS. ūtlah, which occurs in A murderer is to be 'outlaw'-"beo he the laws mentiond. ponne utlah, and his hente mid hearme [read hreame] ælc para pe riht wille"—"et capiat eum cum clamore," with hue and cry. (Whelock, p. 43; Thorpe, i. 170; Schmid, p. 122.) This brings in the notion of outhest, given by Skinner, Coles, and Bailey, as synonymous with outhorn, but a different word, representing ME. outhees, later owtis, outas, etc., outcry, hue and cry; in Anglo-Latin uthesium (Laws of William the Conqueror, I. iv. title: Thorpe, i. 469). outas2, in the Century Dictionary. The formation of this word is apparently from AS. ūt, ME. out, out, + AS. hæs, ME. hes, hees, E. hest, call, command. The latter element seems to hav been later confused with hue (AL. huesium, hutesium), in hue and cry.

These erroneous statements of Spelman, Skinner, Coles, and Bailey no dout rest on the medieval Scottish use of *outhorne* in legal documents:

Gif it happinnis the Schiref to persew fugitouris with the Kingis Horne as is foirsaid, and the countrie ryse not in his supporte, thay all or parte herand the Kingis Horne, or beand warnit be the Mairis, and followis not the outhorne, — ilk gentilman sall pay to the King vnforgeuin xl. s. and ilk yeman xx. s.

1426 Acts Ja. I. c. 109. Edit. 1566, c. 98. Edit. Murray. (1808 Jam.) That all maner of men, that has land or gudis, be reddy horsit and gerit, and efter the faculte of his landis and gudis, for the defence of the realme, at the commandement of the Kingis letters be bails or outhornis.

1456 Acts Ja. II. c. 62. Edit. 1566, c. 98. Murray. (1808 Jam.)

Fra I be semblit on my feit,
The outhorne is cryde;
Thay rais me all with ane rout,
And chasis me the toun about,
And cryis all with ane schout,
'O traytor full tryde!'
a 1586 Maitland Poems (1786), p. 198. (1808 Jam.)

T1892.

Jamieson (1808) defines the word in the second quotation as "1. The horn blown for summoning the lieges to attend the king in feir of were;" in the first quotation as "2. The horn blown by the king's mair or messenger, to summon the lieges to assist in pursuing a fugitive;" in the third, as "3. The 'horn of a sentinel or watchman to sound alarm,' Gl. Sibb.;" that is, he adopts the definition given in the glossary appended to Sibbald's Chronicle of Scottish Poetry (1802), with a qualification, "unless there be an allusion to the practice of proclaiming a man to be a rebel, and making him an outlaw, by putting him to the horn." (See Jamieson, s.v. horn; Century Dictionary, phrases at the horn, and to put to the horn, s.v. horn, n.)

I find two more quotations:

This is a great skorne and a false trane, Now wolf-hede and *out-horne* on the be tane! Vile fature!

c 1450 Towneley Myst. (Surtees Soc. 1836), p. 193. Tutivillus. Of these cursid forsworne and alle that here leyndes, Blaw, wolfes-hede and oute-horne, now namely my freyndes.

c 1450 Id. p. 321.

The editor defines outhorne in these passages as "an outlaw"; a definition repeated, without a reference to any passage, by Halliwell, and by Wright. But the "outhorne" was not an outlaw; and certainly the outhorne that was "blown in Carlisle" was not an outlaw. Of course an outlaw, when hard prest by his pursuers, might in one sense be "blown in Carlisle," or become "blown" before he had run very far from Carlisle; but this manner of speech was not in

The "outlaw" in these cases was the wolf's-head (wolfes-hede, wolf-hede). I giv a clearer example:

use at that time, even among the most desperate outlaws.

The were his bondemen sory and nothing glad, When Gamelyn her lord wolves-heed was cryed and maad. c 1400 Gamelyn, l. 700.

Wolf's-head, ME. wolfes-hede, wolves-heed, wolf-hede, in quotations above, earlier \*wolvesheved, wolfeshefod (in Skinner as wolferhefod), wluesheued, AS. \*wulfes heafod, was a figurativ term for the hed or person of an outlaw, who was to be pursued as if he wer a mere wolf or wild beast.

In the laws attributed to Edward the Confessor, if one breaks the peace of holy church, and does not submit to disciplin —

Ore suo utlagabit eum rex. Et si postea repertus fuerit, et teneri possit, vivus, regi reddatur, vel caput ipsius si se desenderit; lupinum enim caput geret a die utlagacionis sue, quod ab Anglis wluesheued nominatur. Et hec sententia communis est de omnibus utlagis.

a 1300 Leges Regis Edwardi Confessoris, vi. (Thorpe, Anc. Laws, i. 444.)

To "crye wolves-heed," to "blaw wolfes-hede and outhorne," to "take wolf-hede and outhorne on" a person, mean practically the same thing, namely, to raise the hue and cry on a person, to pursue him, crying "wolf's-head!" in one breth, and blowing a horn in the next. It is a medieval version of 'stop thief'—"thief! police!" - an excitedly brief assertion, followd by an excitedly brief call for help.

We thus see that *outhorne* need not be understood as having any reference to out, either 'being out,' or 'calling out,' or 'crying out.' reans a horn of some kind, but does not tel why it is blown. It is the context which enables us to infer that it is a horn blown to raise an alarm.

On etymological grounds the apparent formation, out + horn, is untenable. The word, if so formd, could mean only 'a horn that is Out,' that is, 'an outer horn,' as opposed to a possible inner horn. would then be parallel with the Icel. uthorn, an outer corner (from  $\bar{u}t$ , out, + horn, a horn, point, angle, corner).

I conclude that outhorne in all the passages cited, represents the original nouthorn; a nouthorn being taken as an outhorn, and then Popularly associated, in accordance with the apparent form, but in defiance of the real analogies of the language, with 'calling out.' Such is often the case with popular etymologies—they ar easy to believ, but hard to explain.

hav not found any other instances of nouthorn. The words of more familiar sound ar cowhorn = G. kuhhorn = Norw. kuhorn (Aasen, Norsk Ordbog, 1873, p. 395) = Dan. kohorn (Molbech, Dansk Ordbog, 1833, i. 591); and oxhorn = Dan. oxehorn (Molbe**ch**, ii. 161).

But when his steede saw the cows taile wagge,

And eke the blacke cowe-horne.

1596 King Edward IV. and the Tanner of Tamworth (Child, Ballads, viii. 29).

Be ready, when I give a signal, to strike naker, and blow trumpets, if we have any; if not, some cow-horns — anything for a noise.

1825 SCOTT, The Betrothed, v.

That is why "many a nouthorn was blown in Carlisle" and elsewhere, — "anything for a noise." The people, hearing the sour od of a horn, would of course rush out to see what was in the wind.

3. Number, ME. numbre, from OF. numbre, nombre, L. numerus. A zumber appears as an umber—a case of attraction six hundred years old.

(a) A Nowmber (A Nowmyr, A), calculus, numerus. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 256.
 (b) Þat suld be of a numbre [var. a numbre, a noumbre, an vmbre] hale And mani thusand haue in tale.

C 1300 Cursor Mundi (Cotton MS.), l. 419.
Umber. Number. Exm. 1790 GROSE, Prov. Gloss.
Umber. Number. "I've got my umber."

1823 MOOR, Suffolk Words, p. 457. Umber. Number. Var. dial. 1847 HALLIWELL.

- 24. Numpire, an umpire. Numpire would be the regular modern form of the ME. nompere, noumpere, nounpere, nounpere, nounpere, OF. nonpir, nonpair, ML. nonpar, 'the odd man,' literally 'not equal,' from non + par. In the last quarter of the 14th century a noumpere began to appear as an oumpere, an umpere, and noumpere died out before the end of the next century, an oumpere, umpere emerging as an umpire, an umpier.
  - (a) And nempned for a noumpere [c 1393 nompeyr C.] that no de-bat neore. c 1362 LANGLAND, Piers Plowman (A.), v. 181.
  - (b) And while thei stryuen thus, the apostil putte him bitwene as a mene, distruynge alle her questions, as a good noumpere [vmpere in other mss.].

    c 1382 WICLIF, Prol. 2 Romans, p. 302. (Herrtage, C. A. p. 263.)

    N(o)wmpere or owmpere (nowmpowre, or wompowre, S.). Arbiter, sequester.

    1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 360.

    An Ovmper (Ompar, A.), impar.

    1483 Cath. Angl. p. 263.

    Commesso, a committy or an arbitrator, an vmpier.

The umpire in a game of baseball is often cald, by those who attend that "sport," the *empire*, in unconscious tribute to his imperial sway. If his imperial sway is not satisfactory, they are apt to call him other names.

- 25. Nur, also nurr, nirr, and nor, norr, in provincial use, a ball, also the hed; a simplified spelling of knur, speld also knor, ultimately a variant of knar, speld also gnar, nar, narr, a knot, a knob; applied to a knot of wood, and so to a hard ball of wood used in hockey and similar games. It enters into the names of some games: Nurand-spell (H.), knur-and-spell (C. D.), also spell-and-knur, or elliptically knurspell, or with an ingenious geographical twist Northern spell, a kind of trap-ball; drab-and-norr, another kind of trap-ball. A nur is also used in doddart, which appears to be just our shinny. A nur or a norr is the original of the unexplaind an orr, in the same sense.
  - (a) Knor or Knurer [read Knurr]. A short stubbed, dwarfish man. Metaphor from a knot in a tree. In the South we use the diminutive knurle in the same sense.

    1790 GROSE, Frov. Gloss-Knur. A round hard piece of wood used in the game of knurspell-North.

    Knor. A dwarfish fellow. North.

    1847 HALLIWELL-1847 HALLIWELL-1847

Gnar, or Knur. . . . 2. Another name for the game of hockey, which it obviously receives from the stick, with which the game is played, having a gnar or knot at the end of it. 1854 BAKER, Northampt. Gloss. i. 279.

Knor or Gnar, a small ball of lignum vitæ for playing at cricket with, or a similar game which is called "Spell and Knor," the spell being the trap or tilt on the ground, from which the ball is struck by the "tribbit stick," or long-handled bat. See Tribbet Stick.

1855 [ROBINSON], Whithy Gloss. p. 98. Norr or Narr. See Knor or Gnar. 1855 *Id.* p. 120. Nurspell. A boy's game in Lincolnshire, somewhat similar to trap-ball. It is played with a kibble, a nur, and a spell. By striking the end of the spell with the kibble, the nur of course rises into the air, and the art of the game is to strike it with the kibble before it reaches the

He who drives it to the greatest distance wins the game.

1847 HALLIWELL Spell and Knor, a game so called. See Knor. It is known further South as Dab and Shell.

1855 Yorkshire Gloss. p. 164.

Drab-and-norr. A game very similar to trippit and coit. 1847 HALLIWELL.

Drab-and-norr, s. A game in the North, something like tip-cat. 1857 WRIGHT.

Nurr, the ball beaten to and fro in the game of bandy.

1882 NODAL and MILNER, Lanc. Gloss. p. 203.

Knur. (1) A hard wooden ball with which children play. (2) The head.

1889 PEACOCK, Manley and Corringham Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 307.

Nur-spell and Dandy. The game of hockey.

What sports and games could be comprised in the Olympic programme at Chicago? . . Scottish experts may be expected to make manifest to transatlantic eyes the national sports of curling, putting the stone and tossing the caber, to say nothing of the more occult diversion, popular in Lancashire and Yorkshire. of knurr-and-spell. in Lancashire and Yorkshire, of knurr-and-spell.

- 1892 London Telegraph, Oct. 1857 WRIGHT. (b) Orr, s. A ball of wood used in the game of doddart.
- 26. Nurled, also speld nerled, reduced nooled, stunted, dwarfish; an adjectiv associated with nurling, a dwarf (see next), both from zurl, knurl, a knot, a stunted person, a dwarf (H.); a word of many paths into which I can not now enter. A nurled person is sometimes treated as an urled person.
  - (a) Nerled. Ill-treated, as by a step-mother. North. 1790 GROSE, Prov. Gloss. Nerled, ill-treated: often applied to the conduct of a step-mother.
    1825 BROCKETT, North Country Words, p. 148.
  - Nooled, checked, curbed, broken-spirited.

    (b) Urled . . . 'to be urled' is spoken of such as do not grow.

    1691 RAY, North Country Words (E.D.S.), p. 71.

    Urled. To be stinted in their growth. Said of such as do not grow. 1790 GROSE, Prov. Gloss. (Also 1828 Craven Gloss.) Url't, ill-thriven; stunted in growth. 1878 DICKINSON, Cumb. Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 108. Urled (N. Lanc.), stunted. 1882 NODAL and MILNER, Lanc. Gloss. p. 275.
- 27. Nurling, a simplified spelling of knurling, dial. knurlin, nurlin, a stunted person, a dwarf; from knurl, nurl, a knot, a stunted person, a dwarf, as above, +-ing. A nurling, a nurlin, turns up as an urling, an urlin, sometimes an orling. Compare urled, above.

In Homer's craft Jock Milton thrives; Eschylus' pen Will Shakespeare drives; Wee Pope, the knurlin, till him rives Horatian fame.

a 1796 Burns, Poem on Pastoral Poetry.

(b) An urling, a little dwarfish person. In the South they call such knurles. 1691 RAY, North Country Words (E.D.S.), p. 71. (Also in 1790 GROSE, and 1828 Craven Gloss.)

Orling. A stinted child, or any ill-thriving young stock. North.

1790 GROSE, Prov. Gloss.

Urling or underling, a dwarf, a sickly child. 1855 [ROBINSON], Whitby Gloss. p. 185.

The implication that urling is a contraction of underling is, of course, only another instance in which the arrow of conjecture has flown wide on the wind.

Urlin, a dwarf or dwarfish thing. 1859 DICKINSON, Cumberland Gloss. p. 127. Words not heard from 1851 to 1891. . . . Orling, a stinted child. 1892 MORRIS, Yorkshire Folk-Talk, p. 76.

It may be noted here, with regard to nur for knur, nar for knar, nurling for knurling, that some other words with original kn- have come to be spelt with simple n-, either always or often; as nab, nap in some senses, nag, v., nick, nicknack, nob, nurl, etc. Of course it would be terrible to extend the principle, and spel knife, knock, \_\_ = knuckle, etc., in like manner, nife, nock, nuckle, etc.; for how in the world should we then discover their etymology, which, when the words ar speld with a k, is perfectly obvious to every schoolboy, an even to some learned men? Every one who has studied etymology by the method of rapid intuition knows that when you drop or change a single letter in a word, the whole etymology instantly vanishes, an can not be found again.

28. Nuthatch, also nuthack, a bird, Sitta Europæa: ME. nuthak nuttehake, nothak, notthache, notehach, nuthage, nothagge, etc. A nuthack has become an \*uthack, reduced to utic, yewtick, aspirate hutic. A nuthage has become an uthage. The application of the= = se Names of birds, especially of small birds whic h, because they ar small and quick in their motions, ar not so red = | identified, easily shift from one bird to another.

(a)	Nothak, byrde. Picus. Hic ficedula, a nuthage. c 1450 Non	1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 3	5
	Nucifragus, and a notehach.	ninate (Wilgit, Vocao. 702, 1.	
	c 1450 LatEng. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab. 598, l.		
	The nuthake with her notes newe.		- 1
	c 1475 The Squyr of Lowe Degre, 1	. 57. (Ritson, Metr. Rom. iii. 🖛 🗸	<b>-</b> - /
	Hic onux, Ace a nothak. c 1475 Pictors	ial Vocab. (Wright, Vocab.2 762, L 🗕 💄	r -)
	A Nutte hake, picus, corciscus.	1483 Cath. Angl. p. 25	<i>7</i> .
	_		

1500 Ortus Vocab. (Way, p. 359.) Picus, a nuthawke. Nothagge, a byrde, jaye.
(b) Hutic. The whinchat.
Utic, s. The whinchat. 1530 Palsgrave, p. 248. 1847 Halliwell. Salop. Leic. 1857 WRIGHT.
The whinchat is so called in Shropshire. Uthage. The chaffinch. 1847 HALLIWELL. Shropsh. Uthage, s. (1) The chaffinch. (2) The whinchat. 1857 WRIGHT. Utic, the whinchat . . . Yewtick, i.q. Utic. 1881 Evans, Leic. Words (E.D.S.), p. 283, 295.

Nyas. See 16, Nias.

Nye. See 17, NIE.

Similar to the words above explaind ar two cases in which words from the Greek, with initial an-, ar in popular use regarded as involving the article an or a, which is therefore separated from the rest of the word.

- 29. Anatomy, a skeleton; the human frame after it has sufferd anatomy — and wiring. Hence 'a living skeleton,' a lean hungerstricken wretch. Anatomy is popularly taken as an atomy (also otomy, ottamy, etc.), or as a natomy (also notomy, nottomy, nottamy, etc.).
  - (a) Anatomy (anatomie, anatomye):

Out of every corner of the woods and Glinnes they [the inhabitants of Munster] came creeping foorthe upon their handes, for theyr legges could not beare them; they looked like anatomyes of death, they spake like ghostes crying out of theyr graves.

c 1596 SPENSER, View of the Present State of Ireland. (Globe ed. p. 654.)

A meere Anatomie, a Mountebanke,

A thred-bare Iugler, and a Fortune-teller.

1623 SHAKESPEARE, C. E. v. 238 (F1 p. 98).

And rowze from sleepe that fell Anatomy [Death].
1623 SHAKESPEARE, King John, iii. 4, 40 (F1 p. 12).

Dol. Goodman death, goodman Bones. Host. Thou Anatomy, thou.

Dol. Come you thinne Thing;

Come you Rascall. 162 [The Globe ed. has atomy. 1623 SHAKESPEARE, 2 Hen. IV. v. 4, 33 (F1 p. 99).

[The Globe ed. has atomy.]
The female who sat behind this spectre exhibited also some symptoms of extenuation; but being a brave jolly dame naturally, famine had not been able to render her a spectacle so rueful as the anatomy behind 1825 Scott, The Betrothed, xxx. which she rode.

The transition to an atomy, a natomy, is wel shown in the following, where the real article an has been left out.

> The Egyptians had a custome . . . in the middest of their feasts to have brought before them Anatomie of a dead body dried. 1631 SIR R. BARCKLEY, Felicitie of Man, p. 30. (P.)

(b) An atomy (atamy, atomy, ottamy, etc.):

Thou atomy, thou. SHAKESPEARE, 2 Hen. IV. v. 4, 33. [Globe and Leopold edd.; see above.] I hear she's grown a mere otomy. 1738 SWIFT, Polite Conversation, i. (D.) Ottamy, a skeleton.
1828 [CARR], Craven Gloss. ii. 20; 1854 BAKER, Northampt. Gloss. ii. 81.

(c) A natomy (notomy, nottomy, notamie, nattamy, notomise, notomize, etc.). The first example seems to show the literal sense 'cutting up,' 'dissection':

[Certain persons whose names ar left blank] were hanged at [Tyb]orne, and on off them the sur[geons took] for a notyme in-to ther halle.

1561 MACHYN, Diary (Camden Soc.), p. 273. (So a notheme, p. 252.)

Nottamy, s. Corrupted from anatomy; but it means, very often, that state of the living body implied by the terms, mere skin and bone.

1825 JENNINGS, Somerset Gloss. p. xviii.

A skeleton. Wasted to a nottomy, i.e. mere skin and bone. Nottomy. 1854 BAKER, Northampt. Gloss. ii. 65. "As thin as a notomize." Corrupted from Anatomy. A Notomize, a skeleton or atomy. 1855 [ROBINSON], Whithy Gloss. p. 120.

Natomy, Notomy, a very thin person. 1881 MRS. PARKER, Oxfordshire Words, Suppl. (E.D.S.), p. 91.

- 30. Anemone, also speld anemony, the windflower, the beuty of the woods in May, is often taken as an emone or an emony (which is also transformd into an enemy), and as a nemony, nemmony, neminy.
  - 1668 WILKINS, Real Character, p. 95. (a) Anemony.
  - Anemone.

    (b) The common people call them emones.
    Our gardeners call them emonies.
    R. TURNER, Botany, p. 18. (P.) Our gardeners call them emonies.

    R. TURNER, Doluny, p. 20.
    TENNYSON, Northern Farmer, O.S., st. ix.

But this delicate little flower is not a very 'wild enemy.'

Neminies, the windflower. 1882 NODAL and MILNER, Lanc. Gloss. p. 199. Nemony. 1889 PEACOCK, Manley and Corringham Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 367.

31. Here might be mentiond the artificial blunder of one of Shakespeare's clowns, his profest "funny men"; (an) egma for enigma.

Ar. Some enigma, some riddle, come, thy Lenuoy begin. Clo. No egma, no riddle, no lenuoy, no salue, in thee male sir. 1623 SHAKESPEARE, Love's Labour's Lost, iii. 1 (F1 p. 128).

It should be observed that while the n of the article an is ver persistent before a word beginning with a vowel, whether it stand in its own place or moves over next to its noun, it does sometime actually drop out. Examples ar numerous in Middle English, an some modern dialects use a in all positions.

> And also a ermyte swylke lyue he lede. c 1325 Eng. Metr. Hom., ed. Small, p. 7 Our Lady tuk this chylde all warme, And layd it in a aungell arm, And bad hym ber this chyld right tyte Opon his halfe to a armyte. c 1325 Id. p. 168.

I have a errande to saye to thee. c 1430 (ms. 1592) Chester Plays, ii. 4. A abatyse (692, l. 13), a ancoryse (681, l. 25), a ankrys (692, l. 20), a e[m]prys (691, l. 31), a endyter (681, l. 36), a ermyte (681, l. 24), a uscher (681, l. 11), etc. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab.2).

My father's lord o' three castles, My mother she's lady ower three And there is nane to heir them all, No never a ane but me.

The Courteous Knight (Child, Ballads, vii. 275).

It ought also to be noted in connection with the attraction or **a** Chesion of the n of the article an, that in ME. the whole article, or a, is often found adhering. For an adherent, see another der other (A. 143). The following examples show a adherent:

> Allas † atenare mann of mi strenghe iwis me nere most,
>
> Ac ischend ie am ht amaide me hab to grounde ibrogt.
>
> c 1300 Seinte Margarete, l. 186 (E.E.T.S.), p. 29.
>
> c 1300 Id. l. 261. Allas † atendre maide me hab bus ouercome! Such afol dede. c 1300 Id. l. 304.

- C. The following word occurs with and without initial n, and probably belongs to one or the other of the preceding Classes; but the etymology is obscure, and the class has not Deen determind.
  - 1. Nuggin and Uggin, a lunch.

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Nuggin, a slight repast, a luncheon. S[hetland].

1866 EDMONSTON, Gloss. of Shetland and Orkney Words, p. 78.
Uggin, a lunch, a light repast. S[hetland].
1866 Id. p. 135.
Ugg, to take a slight repast. S[hetland].
1866 Id. p. 135.
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Edmonston derives nuggin from "Da. knogen, a little piece of meat, a morsel"; which I can not verify.

- D. I notice here certain cases in which a transfer of n has been supposed, erroneously, to hav taken place.
  - 1. Nag, a small horse.

```
N has intruded in a few words, as -
    Newt = an ewt.
    Nag = Dan. ög; O.-Sax. ehu (cf. Lat. equa).
                        1880 MORRIS, Outlines of Eng. Accidence, p. 72.
```

But no instance of the required Eng. original \*ag has been found. The word in ME. is nagge (c 1360 Destruction of Troy, E.E.T.S., l. 7727; 1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 350; etc.); MD. negghe (Junius, Kilian), D. negge. Moreover, Dan. ög is not a nag, but a work-horse, and is cognate with Sw. ök, Icel. eykr, a beast of labor, applied in Icel. to either horses or oxen. These forms can hav no connection with either Eng. nag, or OS. ehu, AS. eoh, Lat. equus, equa.

#### 2. Orange.

Orange. Etymologically we should say, instead of "an orange," a norange or narenge. See above, p. 264. 1882 PALMER, Folk-Etym. p. 585. An original n is lost in auger for nauger . . . adder for nadder, orange for norange, apron for napron, ouch for nouch.

1882 SKEAT, Etym. Dict. p. 386.

But this statement is not true of orange as an English word. As Skeat shows (p. 405) the original n (Pers. nāranj, etc.) was lost outside of English. The earliest Eng. forms ar orenge, oronge (1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 370, where see Way's note), from OF. orange, orenge. There is no Eng. \*norange on record. If found, it would be a \*norange for an orange (division A), not the original of an orange (division B).

## E. The following cases are uncertain.

## I. Nexile.

Here vndernethe me now a nexile I neuen, Whilke Ile sall be erthe now, all be at ones Erthe haly and helle, bis hegheste be heuen. c 1430 York Plays, Creation, l. 25, p. 2.

## Explaind in the glossary as follows:

Nexile (an exile), s. aisle, from Lat. axilla, a detached part of the structure of the world; here seems to be confounded with isle... Gloss. p. 546.

But no such form of the word now misspeld aisle, as exile, and no other form of it involving x or s, exists in ME., and the Latin axilla itself is found only as the supposed link between axis and  $\bar{a}la$ , the true original of the E. aisle, which is merely a piece of ecclesiastical cacography. The original form of the above passage was perhaps this:

Here vndernethe me now a newe ile I neuen, Whilke Ile sall be erthe now [etc.].

The phrase a newe ile as here used, involving a somewhat forced use of ile, would, if badly written, open the way for emendation, and the copyist might readily light upon a nexile, an exile, which would seem to express the remoteness and solitariness of the new-made world. The thought of the inhabited world as an exile was familiar =

Huanne he yede in-to be exil of bise wordle.

1340 MICHEL (tr.), Ayenbite of Inwyt (E.E.T.S.), p. 215.

## 2. Nugget.

Nugget. . . . Formerly spelt niggot . . . Niggot is supposed to be a corruption of ningot, which stands for ingot.

1882 SKEAT, Etym. Dict. p. 396. Other examples [of prefixt n] occur in nickname for ekename, and nugget, formerly nierot = ningot for ingot.

formerly niggot = ningot for ingot.

1882 Id. p. 386. (Similarly in 1887 Prin. Eng. Etym. 1st ser. p. 216.)

Nugget, a lump of metal, is the modern form of niggot (North's Plutarch), which is probably a corruption of a ningot, standing for an ingot.

1882 PALMER, Folk Etym. p. 584.

But the form niggot is not well establisht, the supposed form \*ningot has not been found, and the change from \*ningot to niggot (ng > gg) has no parallel in English, except that of angnail, agnail, where other causes ar concernd. And ingot has been in regular use from its first ppearance.

I hav found a few possible cases of Attraction of this class which memain obscure, and must therefore remain unmentiond. Son emparent cases of this kind really belong to other categories.

II. Cases involving the old dativ form then of the article the.

A. Cases in which the final n of the Middle English then, earlier than, Anglo-Saxon  $\sigma$ am,  $\sigma$ am,  $\sigma$ on, dativ singular or plural of the definit article or demonstrativ, has become attacht to the following word, leaving the article in the usual form the; namely, in the phrases at then . . ., to then . . ., for then . . . .

At then is assimilated to at ten, which is commonly written atten, and may be reduced to atte, then to at, and ultimately to a, or may be misdivided atte n-, the n- becoming the victim of a misplaced attachment. See the cases cited below. Compare the like assimilations in early ME. Tat te, Tet te, Tatte, for Tat Te, Tet tu for Tet Tu, Tet tin for Tet Tin; art tu, artu, later artow, for art Tu, etc. See, e.g., c 1200 St. Marherete (E.E.T.S.), p. 20, 21. It is to be noted, however, that atte in later ME. is often simply at misspeld; e.g. in "atte Te laste, tandem." (1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 17.)

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1. Ale, an alchouse. ME. at then ale, assimilated atten ale; taken as at the nale, atten ale. So to then ale, taken as to the nale.
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(a) Robin wule Gilot leden to ben [var. ban] ale,
And sitten per to-gederes and tellen heore tale.

a 1250 A Lutel Soth Sermun, l. 73. (Old Eng. Misc., E.E.T.S., p. 190.)

Bidders and beggers faste a-boute eoden,
Til heor bagges and heore balies weren bratful I-crommet;
Feyneden hem for heore foode, fou3ten atte alle [atte ale B, atten ale C].

c 1362 LANGLAND, Piers Plowman (A), prol. 40.
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(b) Thenne seten summe and songen atte ale [atte nale B, atten ale C].
c 1362 LANGLAND, Piers Plowman (A), vii. 108.

I am occupied eche day, haliday and other,
With ydel tales atte ale [atte nale C] and otherwhile in cherches.

c 1377 LANGLAND, Piers Plowman (B), v. 410.

And they were glade to fille for his purs,

And maken hym gret festes at the nale [var. atte nale].

c 1386 CHAUCER, Friar's Tale, 1. 50.

Chief chantours at the nale.
c 1400 Plowman's Tale, pt. 3, st. 22, v. 2. (Ritson, A. S. p. xxxiii.)

And thou goo to the nale,
As mery as a nyghtyngale.

c 1470 (?) MS. Harl. 4294. (Ritson, l.c.)

# And so at length nale appears in other positions:

"Both to the ale and wine."

And rather then they wyll not be as fine,
As who is finest, yea, as smoothe and slicke,
And after sit uppermost at the wine
Or nale, to make hard shift they wyll not sticke.
c 1568 Thynne, Debate between Pride and Lowliness (Shak. Soc.), p. 53Nale. An ale-house. "Where's Bill? He's gone to nale.
1890 ROBERTSON, Gloss. Gloue. Dial. (E.D.S.), p. 101.

But ale also appears in its proper form, with the n of then dropt. See the examples from Langland above, and the following:

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When thei have wroght an oure ore two,

Anone to the ale thei wylle go.

a 1500 (?) MS. Ashmole, 61, f. 25. (H. p. 40, and 317.)

"What, when lords goe with ther feires," shee said,
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Marriage of Sir Gawaine (Child, Ballads, i. 37).

Lau. . . . If thou wilt goe with me to the Ale-house: if not, thou art an Hebrew, a Iew, and not worth the name of a Christian.

Spec. Why?

Lau. Because thou hast not so much charity in thee as to goe to the Ale

Lau. Because thou hast not so much charity in thee as to goe to the Ale with a Christian: Wilt thou goe?

1623 SHAKESPEARE, T. G. V. ii. 5. 61 (F<sup>1</sup> p. 27).

To this cause we owe the modern form of several English surnames beginning with n. If John, or Richard, or William, or Walter lived at or near an ale-house, or at a stile or a gate or the end of a street, or at, or in a holt or wood or orchard, or at, or under a conspicuous tree, an ash, elm, oak, or other, or a group of oaks, these permanent

landmarks served to identify to the rural mind, the otherwise uncertain or transitory John, or Richard, or William, or Walter, and John as then Ashe, John atten Ashe, John atten Nash, John at Nash, Fohn at Nash, or John at then Okes, John atten Okes, John atten Nokes, John at Nokes, and their descendants thus John, William, George, Henry, Tribulation, and Preserved Nash or Nokes, unto endless generations; while the original locativ ash-tree or oak-tree has fallen under the ax, or perhaps lingers on, in venerable age, in some English village, the unconscious eponym of a numerous race which, wandering from its ancient home, literally knows not its family tree.

I mention the surnames of this class groupt, and then in the alfabetic order of the original noun. First, surnames referring to conspicuous localities in the village; and here first, of course, the drinking-place.

- 2. Ale, an alehouse. The case is identical with that mentiond refore, in a more general connection. Fohn at then ale, Fohn atten ele, Fohn at nale, Fohn a' Nale. I find mention of Fohn Nail and Thomas Naile (Bardsley, p. 578), Robert Naile (Lowndes).
- 3. End. The end of a street, especially of the one street of a illage, is a conspicuous place, and very convenient in directing trangers. A man living there, named John, would be known by is neighbors as John at then Ende, John atten Ende, and so we ear of John attee Nende, and later of Christopher Nend. A more efinit location of John appears in John attounsend, now John lownsend. We find also Henry ate Tunesende, Adam ate Tunesende, Alice ate Tunishende, Walter atte Towneshende (Bardsley). ence our modern Townshends with an h. So William atte Stretesnd, John ate Bruge-ende, and other "end" men (Bardsley).
  - 4. Oven. The village bakery was a place of much resort, and the ter's oven, sometimes called an ovenhouse (c 1425 Lat.-Eng. Vocab., Wright, Vocab.<sup>2</sup> 670, l. 22), a landmark. We find Thomas attevene (Bardsley). Compare a noven, a noon, for an oven, an oon 1. 147).

wood, grove, or orchard near a man's dwelling-place, makes it vicuous to the eye and memory of the country round. Hence the surname Atwood (Richard ate-wode, Adam Atte-wood, etc.),

which does not involv our adherent n, and the surnames Nolt and Norchard, which do involv it.

- 5. Holt, a wood. John at then holte, John atten Holt, John atte nolt, John a Nolt, and so Nolt. The preposition and article hav also fallen out entirely, leaving the simple form Holt.
- 6. Orchard. We find Robert atte Norchard, Richard Atenorchard. We also find Richard atte Orcheyerd, and so the simple Orchard.

A single conspicuous tree, or a clump of trees of the same kind, was a very common means of locating and surnaming the medieval Englishman. Besides the surnames Alder, Ash or Ashe, Elm, Elms, or Elmes, Oak, Oaks, or Oakes, from which the original preposition and article hav entirely disappeard, we find parallel forms with the initial n, the last relic of the lost article.

- 7. Alder, dial. aller, eller (see I. A. 11). We find Alice Attendire and later the surnames Nalder and Nelder.
- 8. Ash. The records mention William atte Nasche, Pagan atte Nash, Sarra atten Eshe. Hence the modern Nash. In some cases atten ash was reduced to atte ash, and finally emerged as the surname Tash.
- 9. Asp, dialectal aps, esp, eps, the asp-tree or poplar; now commonly in the originally adjectiv form aspen. There is or was a farm in the Isle of Wight called Apse (H.). It seems probable that ME. atten apse has given rise to this name of a farm, and to the surname Nabbs, Nabbes, and perhaps also Nabb. For the form \*abs for aps, involved in the surnames, compare the dialectal haps for habs as developt from abscess (see I. A. 3). To the form eps is to be referd the surname Epps.
- ro. Elm. Some one living at then elmes, 'at the Elms,' was the ancestor of Mr. Nelmes, and Mr. Nelms, of whom I find various mention.
- ar Oak. This sturdy Briton has a numerous posterity. There ar Oak, Oake, and Holyoake, speld also Holyoke; Oaks, also speld Oakes. There ar also Snook and Snooks, in whose unlovely-seeming names we behold the just fate of those who cut down Seven Oaks. Mr. Sevenoaks, who has spared the shades of his ancestors, stil livs unvisited by Nemesis; but his place in Kent, Sevenoaks, pronounced Sunnuck by the natives (Halliwell, p. xxi.), slopes toward the humble

house of Snooks. In all these the original preposition and article hav disappeard. John atten oke, Richard attenok, Richard atte Noke, William atte Noke, living near one oak, and John atten okes, John atte Nokes, John a Nokes, living near several oaks, ar the fathers of such as answer to the name of Noke or Noak, Nokes or Noakes. John a Nokes was once so numerous that his name became generic for a simple rustic:

John a Nokes was driving his cart toward Croydon, and by the way fell asleepe therein. Meane time a good fellow came by and stole away his two horses, and went faire away with them. In the end he awaking and missing them, said, Either I am John a Nokes, or I am not John a Nokes. If I am John a Nokes, then I have lost two good horses, and if I be not John a Nokes, then I have found a cart.

1614 COPLEY, Wits, Fits, and Fancies. (N.)
The Lords should undoubtedly have considered themselves as bound by
this opinion. That they knew Oates to be the worst of men was nothing
to the purpose. To them, sitting as a court of justice, he ought to have
been merely a John of Styles, or a John of Nokes.

1859 MACAULAY, Hist. Eng. vol. v. ch. xiv.

But there never was a  $\mathcal{F}ohn$  of Nokes nor yet a  $\mathcal{F}ohn$  of Styles in the locativ sense. The preposition is a for at; easily confused, of course, with a for o or o' for of. Both of these surnames ar illustrated in the following line and its variations:

For sum tyme I seruede Simme atte noke [var. Symme atte stile, B, Symme at the style, C]. c 1362 LANGLAND, Piers Plowman (A), v. 115.

I notice on an English map a place cald *The Noke* near *The Holt*, in Hertfordshire, a few miles southwest of St. Albans.

12. Hole. There is another word of natural location to be noticed. A farm at then Hole, that is, in a little vale, or den, or dene, came to be cald thun Hole and finally the Knoll—a remarkable case of elevation. Notes and Queries, 5th Series, ii. 197. (P. p. 570.)

There is an other class of locativ surnames, derived from tavern signs and similar directiv emblems. Ins wer often named from the signs set up before them; and thus cocks, crows, cranes, swans, eagles, rams, goats, and other fearful wild fowl, depicted with a broad brush or chiseld with a free hand, servd to locate and surname "Hugh atte Cokke," "Thomas atte Ram," "John atte Gote," and other worthies otherwise mononymous. And not only birds and beasts, but hats, pots, hammers, axes, and other forms of applied art, did supernominal service.

A few cases, involving words with an initial vowel, come within the range of Attraction.

- 13. Ax. We find an ax, the Sign of the Ax, used to mark the location of a church opposit thereto, and becoming a part of its name—the church of St. Mary at then Axe, atten Axe, at Naxe, or in the normal modern form, St. Mary at the Axe.
  - (a) Mary on the Hil, diocis London, patron Page of Dortford in Kent, gentilman . . . Mary at Ax, diocis London, patron priores of Seynt Helyns.

    1502 Arnold's Chron. (1811), p. 251.

In Saint Mary streete had ye (of old time) a Parish Church of Saint Mary the Virgine, Saint Visula, and the 11000. Virgins, which Church was commonly called S. Mary at the Axe, of the signe of an Axe oueragainst the East end thereof, or Saint Marie Pellipara, of a plot of ground lying on the North side thereof pertayning to the Skinners in London. This Parish about the yeere 1565, was vnited to the Parish Church of S. Andrew Vndershaft, and so was S. Mary at the Axe suppressed, and letten out to bee a warehouse for a Marchant.

(b) The names and nombre of the perishe chirches in London. Seint Mary at the Bowe . . . Mary at the Hil, Mary at Naxe.

c 1502 Arnold's Chronicle (1811), p. 76.

And the same sign of the ax, variously located, has given name to the family of Nax.

- 14. Eagle. To some ancient host atten Egle are due the modern surnames Neagle, Naigle, and, in part, Nagle. Eagle also exists as a surname. We read of "Gilbert de la Hegle" (Bardsley, Eng. Surnames).
- 15. Ox. Some "John atten Oxe," of whom I find no record, was probably the ancestor of Mr. Nox, whom I find mentiond in Bowditch's Suffolk Surnames.
- 16. Eye. In the same phrase to then, involved in to then ale, etc., above, I find the explanation of the idiomatic expression, to the nines, in such phrases as 'drest up to the nines,' 'to paint, hit off, touch off, something, to the nines.' To the nines stands for earlier to the nine, nine being a disguised plural made obvious to the popular perception by adding the familiar plural sign -s. To the nine stands for to then ine, where ine (ME. ine, ien, yen, eyne, eyen, etc.) is the old plural of eye (see Eye, I. A. 87), and then the old dativ plural of the (ME. then, earlier than, tham, AS. pam). The phrase means 'to the eyes.' The proofs I hav found of the early use ar scant, but sufficient. The phrase to be eyghne is found in ME. in the literal sense:

Huke nebbyde as a hawke, and a hore berde,
And herede to be hole eyghne with hyngande browes.

c 1440 Morte Arthure (E.E.T.S., 1865), l. 1082.

[Hole is 'hollow'; compare:
Hyr enyn wer holket and holle.

Hyr enyn wer holket and holle. c 1420 Anturs of Arthur, ix. (Robson, Three Metr. Rom., Camden Soc. p. 5).]

plight.

I find the very phrase up to the ine (eine), in the literal sense, but having the emphatic tone of the usual phrase up to the nines, in the sixteenth century. The wife of Auchtermuchty left her goodman at home to tend house and take care of the children. He found it no fun:

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(a) The first [bairn] that he gat in his armis,
    It was all dirt up to the eine.
    "The devill cut of thair handes," quoth he,
    "That tild you all so fow this strene" [thestreen for yestreen].
    a 1600 The Wyf of Auchtermuchty (Child, Ballads, viii. 120).
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Instances of the attracted form emerge much later.

(b) Thou paints auld Nature to the nines, In thy sweet Caledonian lines. a 1796 BURNS, Poem on Pastoral Poetry.

He's such a funny man, and touches off the Londoners to the nines.

1821 GALT, Ayrshire Legatee, viii. (D.)

Gibbs hits aff a simple scene o' nature to the nines.

a 1843 WILSON, Noctes Ambrosiana, i. 315. (P. p. 257.)

A blacked up 'is butes, an' a sheaved an' a drest Proper up to the noines in his new Soonday-best.

1856 Leicester Journal, Aug. 1, quoted in Evans, Leic. Words (E.D.S., 1881), p. 35.

Nine, nines, s. Perfection; to the nines, up to the nines, to perfection, to the uttermost, in the grandest style; West of S.

1887 DONALDSON, Suppl. to Jamieson.

Nines. A man or woman extravagantly dressed is said to be "dressed up

to't nines."

1888 ADDY, Sheffield Gloss. p. 158.

Charles Reade uses the true form to the nine, but I suppose by misprint, or in accordance with one of his theories. He may hav thought of nine as next to the perfection of ten.

He then put his hand in his pockets, and produced four beautiful sets of handcuffs, bran new, polished to the nine.

1858 CHARLES READE, Never Too Late to Mend, lxv. (D.)

The modern form of the phrase, up to the eyes, is familiar enough. It is parallel with up to the ears. A person may be "up to the eyes" or "up to the ears" in work, in det, in love, or some other unlucky

He can, without hurting his conscience, praise the Spanish poor women up to their eyes.

1877 H. J. Rose, Among the Spanish People, i. 13. (P. p. 257.)

Palmer says that the West Cornwall folk hav the phrase "dressed up for the nones," that they use *nines* for *nones* or *nonce*, and that "this is no doubt the real origin." But this is no dout an error. Of course *nines* in this phrase does not mean "perfection," as Donaldson defines it. It means just "eyes."

The final -n of the ME. dativ then appears in another instance, where the original construction was different from that involved in cases before treated.

17. Once. ME. ones, anes, anes, AS. anes, anes, of one, gen. of ān, one; used in ME. as an adverb, 'once,' and with a preposition as if a noun: at ones, at once; for ones, for once. So, for than, forthan, for thon, AS. for pam, for pon, for that, for this, therefor, therefore; for than anes, later for then anes, for then ones, literally 'for that, once,' 'for that (occasion or purpose) in particular,' hence 'designedly.' It thus comes to mean 'for this one occasion,' but the once is not used exactly as in the modern colloquial phrase for this once, meaning 'for this one time.' With misdivision the phrase became for the nones, and with excrescent -t (as in against, amongst, anenst, etc.), for the nonest; and hence the modern phrase for the nonce, where nonce is commonly regarded as a noun, and so defined.

For the original form, compare the similar ME. phrase for than one, where one is the adverb (AS.  $\bar{a}ne$ ,  $\bar{a}ne$ ), with the adverbial suffix -e instead of the other adverbial (genitiv) suffix -es.

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Anon so hi sege the monekes came, hi gonne to singe ymone
Agen hem with gret melodie as hit were for than one.
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c 1300 St. Brandan, p. 17. This holi man makede loudere song as hit for than one were.

c 1300 St. Brandan, p. 21.

Compare also the ME. phrase at this ones:

Wyl 3e halde bis hes [erroneously corrected "hes[t]"] here at bys one3! c 1360 Syr Gawayne and the Green Knight (E.E.T.S.), l. 1090.

The origin and meaning of for the nonce hav been so little understood that a considerable number of quotations is necessary to illustrate the phrase fully. I hav collected a considerable number, but space permits only a few.

(a) A wlech bead iwlaht for ben anes in forte beadien.

(b) Forr be naness.

c 1200 St. Juliana (E.E.T.S.), p. 71 c 1205 ORM, Ormulum, l. 7160

I kan a noble tale for the nones [var. nonys].

c 1386 CHAUCER, Miller's Prol. 1. 18

Who now most may bere on his bak at ons

Off cloth and furrour, hath a fressh renoun; He is 'A lusty man' clepyd for the nones.

c 1400 Occleve, Of Pridd & of Waste Clothynge, etc. (E.E.T.S., 1869, p. 107). Uxor. I swelt.

Outt, thefys, fro my wonys!

Ye com to rob us for the nonys. c 1450 Towneley Myst. p. 112. Take and put a welowe stoke in a forowe y-made in the erthe for the nonys, and lett hym growe then above.

a 1450 (?) Porkington MS. (Wr. p. 474.)
He fayned or made himselfe sicke for the nonis, deditâ operâ. He delayeth the matter for the nonys, de industriâ. It is false mater deuysed for the nonys, dedita opera conficta.

1519 HORMAN, Vulgaria. (Way, Pr. P. p. 174.) He is a popte fole, or a starke fole, for the nonys, homo fatuitate monstra-1519 Id.

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For the nonest, de mesmes.
                                                                      1530 PALSGRAVE, p. 835.
For the nones, a propos. A escient. 1530 1d. p. 865.
You are a cooke for the nones, wyll you sethe these roches or haue you
  scaled them: vous estez vng cuysinier de mesmes, voulez vous cuire
ces guerdons auant que les escalier. 1530 Id. p. 699.
This dagger is sharpenned for the nones: ce poignart est affillé teut a
  esciant.
                                                                                  1530 Id. p. 701.
Though we have not expresse mention in Scripture, against such laying
   out of the haire in thussockes and tufts, yet we have in Scripture
   expresse mention de tortis crinibus, of writhen haire that is for the nonce
   forced to curle.
                                                            1552 LATIMER, Sermons. (N.)
For the nonest, I forbare to allege the learneder sort, lest the unlearned
  should say, they could no skill on such books.
                                     1563 PILKINGTON, Works (Parker Soc.), p. 644.
There be also other like Epigrammes that were sent vsually for new
  here be also other like Epigrammes that were sent vsually for new yeares giftes or to be Printed or put vpon their banketting dishes of suger plate . . . and were made for the nonce.

1589 [PUTTENHAM], Arte of Eng. Poesie (ed. Arber), p. 72.
As when we make our speach or writinges of sundry languages vsing some Italian word, or French, or Spanish, or Dutch, or Scottish, not for the
nonce, or for any purpose (which were in part excusable) but ignorantly and affectedly.

1589 Id. p. 259. [Similarly on p. 267, twice.]

Apruoua, for the nonce, contending, striuing, vpon proofe. Also to the
                                                                                       1598 FLORIO.
  vtmost.
Our vizards wee will change after wee leave them; and sirrah, I have
   Cases of Buckram for the nonce, to immaske our noted outward garments.
1623 SHAKESPEARE, 1 Henry IV. 1. 2 (F1 p. 50).
      Oud women, loitering for the nonce, [Note: "For the Purpose."]
      Stood praising the fine weather.
                           1806 BLOOMFIELD, The Horkey (Wild Flowers, p. 46).
Noonce. Purposely, — designedly, — for the purpose; generally in a bad sense. "'A did it for the noonce" or maliciously. It is archaic, but not
   used exclusively in a bad sense, as in Suffolk. .
                                                        1823 MOOR, Suffolk Words, p. 253.
We giv the oo a full open sound — and variously pronounce the word
We giv the 00 a 1011 open.

noonce, noones, and noonst.

Nonce. Purpose, occasion. "It'll serve for the nonce." Moor and Forby both state that it is always used offensively; not so with us.

1854 BAKER, Northampt. Gloss. ii. 61.
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But nonce does not mean "purpose, occasion."

- B. Case in which an initial n of a word following the has been transferrd to the; by confusion with the cases above.
- 1. Numbles, ME. numbles, nombles, nombles, nomblys, noumbles, nowmbelys, nowmbelys, nowmbles, the entrails of a deer or other animal. The ME. numbles, nombles, denoting a passiv object, occurd chiefly in the objectiv, and especially in the dativ (for the numbles, to the numbles, etc.); and being preceded by the, which was in the dativ plural earlier then, it became entangled in the confusion which permitted to then ale to be taken as to the nale (II. A. 1), to then ine as to the nine (II. A. 16), etc.,

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and so for the numbles, to the numbles, etc., came to be understood as for then umbles, to then umbles, etc., and so later the umbles, and finally umbles or humbles in any position. It might be supposed, and it has been said, that the loss of n in umbles was due to the influence of the indefinit article a; but the word was never actually used in the singular. The only instances of a singular which I find (nowmel, a variant reading in the Prompt. Parv., 1440, and a umblye, c 1475—see below) ar evidently artificial, the latter due to conformity with the glosses a long (lung) before and flank following.

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(a) & pat pay neme for pe noumbles bi nome as I trow.
                     c 1360 Syr Gawayne and the Green Knight (E.E.T.S.), l. 1347.
      Take the noumbles of calf, swyne, or of shepe.
      c 1390 Forme of Cury, p. 6. (P. p. 183.)

Nowmelys of a beest (nowmbelys, K. nowmel, H.). Burbalia, plur. vel burbia.

1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 360.
      burbia.

pe nownbils (Nowmyllis, A) of a dere; burbilia, pepinum.

1483 Cath. Angl. p. 256
      Then dress the numbles first.
                                                                                1486 Book of St. Albans
                                 Then he fette to Lytell Johan
                                  The numbles of a doo.
                          c 1500 A Lytell Geste of Robyn Hode (Child, Ballads, v. 74)
       Noumbles of a dere or beest, entrailles.
                                                                                1530 PALSGRAVE, p. 248
      Nombles d' vn cerf. The numbles of a Stag.
                                                                                            1611 COTGRAVE
Numbles.

1692 Coles; 1733 Balley; etc.

(b) Tispatum, an will miles. c 1450 Lat.-Eng. Vocab. (Wright, Vocab. 2616, l. 33

Hoc burburium, ownlys. c 1450 Nominale (Wright, Vocab. 2678, l. 15

Hic pulmo, Aee a long. Hoc burbulum, Aee a umblye. Hec elia, Aee flank. c 1475 Pictorial Vocab. (Wright, Vocab. 2751, l. 19-21
      The hombuls of the dow.
      a 1500 (?) Brynging in the Bores Hede. (P. p. 18 Lacy. What have you fit for breakfast? . . .

Mar. Butter and cheese, and umbles of a deer.

1594 GREENE, Friar Bacon and Friar Bungay, sub fin. (P. p. 18
      Ventresca, an oxe-midrif, a calues pluck, a sheepes gather, a hogs hastl-
          the ombels [1611 vmbles] of a deare.
                                                                                                1598 FLOR .
                                                                  1671 SKINNER; 1733 BAILE
1733 BAILEY; 1847 HALLIWE
       Humbles.
       Limbles.
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Hence *umble-pie*, a pie made of the umbles of a deer; for white the old books of cookery give receipts" (Nares).

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Mrs. Turner . . . did bring us an umble-pie hot.
16— PEPYS, Diary, ii. 266.
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This umble-pie was also offerd in the form of humble-pie; assist the mild wit which feignd that to "eat humble-pie" was to become "humble" and to "eat one's words." And indeed there be pi the eating of which, it is said, doth soon induce humility of spirit.

- III. Cases involving mine or thine.
- A. Cases in which the final -n of mine (ME. min, myn) or thine (ME. thin, thyn) has become attacht to the following noun.
- 1. Agate, formerly agot, aggot, agget, etc., ME. agate, also achate. In an isolated case mine agate cup is written my nagget cupp.
  - a 1592 (?) Unton Inventories, p. 32. (P. p. 581.) (b) My nagget cupp.
- 2. Ancestor, ME. ancestre, aunsestre, beside ancessour, auncessour, etc., ancetre, auncetre, etc. (mod. dial. anceter, anster). ME. myn or thyn auncestres, auncetres, etc., appear sometimes as my or thy naze neestres, etc.
  - (2) Al were it that myne auncestres [var. myn ancestres] were rude. c 1386 CHAUCER, Wife of Bath's Tale, l. 316. (Six-Text, D, 1172.) Myne ancestres ware emperours. c 1440 Morte Arthure (E.E.T.S., 1865), l. 276.

Myne aunsetters knyghtes have be. c 1500 (?) Robin Hood, i. 10. (H. p. 112.)

- As han al thin aunceteres or thow were bi-geten.
- c 1360 William of Palerne (E.E.T.S.), l. 5133.
  Of thyne auncestres [var. bin or bine ancestres] for here heigh bountee.
- c 1386 CHAUCER, Wife of Bath's Tale, l. 304. (Six-Text, D, 1160.)

  (8) [My or thy] nawynsetres.

  Monastic Letters, p. 51. (Wright, p. 694.) (See H. p. 112.)
- 3. Arm, ME. arme, AS. earm. ME. myn (thyn) armes is sometimes my (thy) narmes.
  - (a) Myn armes, my lymmes, ar stark for eld. c 1450 Towneley Myst. p. 154. And yf bou will ought ese thyn arme.
    - c 1430 York Plays, xviii. l. 197, p. 144. (d) Leue lord, mi lemman, lacche me in bi narmes. c 1360 William of Palerne (E.E.T.S.), l. 666.
- 4. Ear<sup>1</sup>, ME. ere, AS. ēare; see I. 58. In ME. myn or thyn ere (eres) is often written my or thy nere (neres).
  - (a) Myn erez.

c 1360 Cleanness, l. 689 (Early Eng. Allit. Poems, E.E.T.S., p. 58).

The stevyn of angelle voce it smote

c 1450 Towneley Myst. p. 82. And rang now in myn ere. What speke ye here in myn eeres? c 1450 Towneley Myst. p. 94.
The name of her sounded so sweete in mine eare.

Willow, Willow, Willow (Child, Ballads, iv. 239).

- (6) Sone als be voyce of bine haylsing
- Moght myn neres entre and be. c 1430 York Plays, xii. l. 213, p. 1co.
- (a) Ayther has thou no wytt, Or els ar thyne eres dytt. c 1450 Towneley Myst. p. 194. To opyn beyn erys to bi son In humanyte.
- c 1485 Mary Magdalene, l. 905. (Digby Myst., N.S.S., p. 89.) (b) Helde bi nere to me and libe. c 1315 Early Eng. Psalter, Ps. xxx. 3. (Herrtage, p. 252.)

(b)

5. Errand, ME. errand, etc. (see I. A. No. 77).	In	ME.	myn
or thyn errand may appear as my or thy nerrand.			
(a) To wone any quhyle in his won, hit watz not myn ernde.			
c 1360 Syr Gawayne and the Green Knight (I	E.E.7	r.s.), 1	. 257.

(b) For be bis well sal i ha bide
Quat o mi nerrand [var. myne errande, mine erand, myn eronde] mai
be tide. c 1300 Cursor Mundi (Cotton ms.) (E.E.T.S.), l. 3274.

6. Eye, ME. eye, e3e, ee, ye, etc., pl. eyen, e3en, een, yen, etc. (see I. A. 80). Mine (myn, myne) or thine (thyn, thyne) eye (eyes, eyne, een, etc.), often appears my or thy nye (nyes, nyne, neen, etc.), a use extending to recent times.

(a) Thou schalt na moore, thurgh thy flaterye,

Do me to synge and wynke with myn eye [var. myn ye, myne ey3e].

c 1386 CHAUCER, Nun's Priest's Tale, l. 609. (Six-Text, B, l. 4620.) Was never so sorowfulle a syghte seyne with myne eghene!

c 1440 Morte Arthure (E.E.T.S., 1865), l. 3986

Myn èes are woren bothe marke and blynde. c 1450 Towneley Myst. p. 154 Myn vnstabill delinge is euer in myn ee. c 1485 Burial of Christ (Resurr.), l. 1228. (Digby Myst., N.S.S., p. 212. And salt teris distellyng frome myne Eine. 1552 LYNDESAY, Testament of the Papyngo (E.E.T.S.), l. 18636.

I regarded not my comelynes in the May-moone of my youth, and yet now is stand prinking me in the glasse, when the crowes foote is grower vnder mine eye. 1576 GASCOIGNE, The Steele Glas, Epis. Dedicatorie (ed. Arber), p. 4 (6) pi frut i se be for mi nei [var. my ney, myn eye, myn eze], Nou rek i neuer quen i dei. fallyng don to me. 1486 The Revelation of the Monk of Evesham (ed. Arb 1196, p. 31. (P. p. 257.) Ah, Nan, steek th' winderboard and mack it dark; My neen are varra sair, they stoun and wark.

1697 A Yorkshire Dialogue, p. 49. (H. p. 8

(a) pin ezen beob col-blake and brode. a 1250 Owl and Nightingale, l. 75. Fleand turn bou noght bin ei [var. bine eye, bin eze, bi ey].

c 1300 Cursor Mundi (Cotton ms.) (E.E.T.S.), l. 11. Heve up thyn eyen, man, maystow not se?

c 1374 CHAUCER, Tr. & Cr., v. = 59.

Alas thyn een as cristalle clere.

1394 CHAUGER, 17. 36 (7., v. 23, 25, 25)

1450 Towneley Myst. p. 224.

Thou hangmon, quo hoo, Ile poo out thin een.

1847 A Lancashire Ballad, l. 36. (H. p. 25)

This wyccud worldis vanyte.

c 1400 (?) MS. Cantab. Ff. 48, f. 1. (H. p. 584.)

And wash thou thi nynon with that water.

c 1420 Chron. Vilodun. p. 77. (H. p. 584.)

Tide contract Francisco sin sin star See I. A. 96 M.F.

7. Heir, early mod. Eng. also air, aire, etc. See I. A. 86. ME. myn or thyn ayr (ayre, eire, etc.) appears as my or thy nere.

Turn thi nye, that thou not se

- (a) (b) "Min air [var. myne ayre, mi ayr, myn eire] þan wald i þat he war Sin þou me gaue na noper barn."
   "Nay," said vr lauerd, "i sal him warn pat he pi nere [var. pine ayre, pin ayr, pin eire] sal noght be."

  c 1300 Cursor Mundi (Cotton ms.) (E.E.T.S.), l. 2562.
- 8. Ingle, a favorit. Mine ingle gave rise to my ningle; common in the seventeenth century plays. Sometimes mingle (H.). Probably an ingle occurs as a ningle, putting ningle also in the class involving the indefinit article (I. A.); but I have not found a ningle.

Well, Tom, giue me thy fist, we are friends, you shall be mine ingle—I love you. 1608 ROWLEY (and FORD), Witch of Edmonton, iii. 2.

- 9. Ore, ME. ore, are, AS. ar, grace, favor. ME. thyn ore, thin ære, as used in deprecation, occurs also as thi nare.
  - (a) Lemman, thy grace, and, sweete bryd, thyn oore [var. byn, bin, bine ore].

    a 1386 CHAUCER, Miller's Tale, l. 540. (Six-Text, A, 3726.)
    - They schall cry & syke sore, And say "lord, mercy, thyn ore!"
  - a 1400 (?) Hymns to the Virgin, etc. (E.E.T.S.), p. 119. (C.D.) (6)
  - "Lauerd," said Abraham, "bi nare [var. bin are, 2 mss.], Sal bou bine auin sua-gat for-fare?" c 1300 Cursor Mundi (Cotton ms.) (E.E.T.S.), l. 2749.

Swete Ysonde thi nare, Thou preye tha king for me.
c 1320 Sir Tristram (Sc. Text Soc.), l. 2135. (Donaldson, Suppl., p. 312.)

[Jamieson, 1808, prints thinare, and give the quotation under "thinare, s.,"
defined in a note as "probably an intercessor. A.S. thingere." This defined in a note as "probably an intercessor, A.S. hingere." This error is repeated in the edition of 1880, with the addition of a formal definition, "Prob., advocate, intercessor."]

The knightes that in Calais were Come to Sir Edward sare wepeand, In kirtell one and swerd in hand, And cried, "Sir Edward, thine are;

Do now, lord, bi law of land, Thy will with us for evermare." 1352 MINOT, Songs on Edward's Wars. (Wright, Polit. Poems, 1859, I. 82.) [Wright mistakes this, and prints it "Sir Edward, thine [we] are."]

- 10. Other. See I. A. 130. ME. myn other is sometimes written my nother.
- (6) For seppe i knowe pat mi si3t is seruaunt to mi hert, & alle my nother wolnk wittes to wirchen his hest. c 1350 William of Palerne (E.E.T.S.), l. 467.

On him spild I my spere And myculle of my nothir gere.

c 1420 Avowynge of King Arthur, iii. 10. (Robson, Three Metr. Rom., Camden Soc., p. 58.)

11. Own, dialectal awn, ain, etc., ME. owen, awen, auen, azen, AS. agen. Mine own, ME. myn owen, myn awen, Scotch myne ain, tc., appears as my nown, my none, my nawn, my nain, etc. So zine own, thy nown. And so nown before his and other words.

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(1) Mine own, my nown.
(a) Al sal be at myn auen [var. myne awen, mine aun, myn owne] weild.
c 1300 Cursor Mundi (Cotton ms.) (E.E.T.S.), l. 462.
Of my hous, & my home, & myn owen nome.
c 1360 Syr Gawayne and the Green Knight (E.E.T.S.), l. 408.
       Forgeve it me, myn owene swete herte.
                                                                c 1374 CHAUCER, Tr. & Cr. iii. 1183.
                                                                   c 1430 York Plays, xii. 197 (p. 100).
c 1430 York Plays, xii. 202 (p. 100).
       Elyzabeth, myn awne cosyne.
       Myne aughen cosyne so dere.
       I am uttirly vndone in myne awene landes.
       C 1440 Morte Arthure (E.E.T.S., 1865), l. 3967.

It is myn own dere son.

C 1450 Towneley Myst. p. 148.

Myn owne dere love, I see the proue that ye be kynde and trewe.

C 1502 Notte-browne Mayde, l. 157. (Arnold's Chronicle, repr. 1811, p. 203; Child, Ballads, iv. 156.)

My tongue is mine oin two Thomas cald.
       My tongue is mine ain, true Thomas said.
                                                      Thomas the Rhymer (Child, Ballads, i. 112).
       Well, then - I am not free to say that maybe I might not just slip into the
           King's hand a wee bit sifflication of mine ain.
                                                                      1822 SCOTT, Fortunes of Nigel, iii.
(b) "Is he comun," he sayd, "my nowun true fere?"
c 1420 Sir Amadace, lviii. 1. (Robson, Three Metr. Rom., Camden Soc., p. 50.)
                            This is to me a perles pyne
                            To see myn nawe dere childe bus boune.
                                                                      c 1430 York Plays, x. 239 (p. 63)
       Than shall ye have my love, my nawen hony swett.
                     a 1500 The Pryorys and her Thre Wooyrs, l. 67. (R. Jamiesor Pop. Ballads, 1806, i. 256.)
                                        My none gentyl Volontyn,
                                        Good Tomas the frere.
                                               a 1500 (?) MS. Harl. 1735, f. 48. (H. p. 907
       Cō hom' agayn', cō hom' agayne,

Mi nowne swet hart, com home agayne.

a 1500 (?) MS. Roy. Libr. 17 B. XLIII. (Ritson, Anc. Songs, p. lvi. = I conna thwole hur t' meh nown broother under o ginny, sed I.

1750 J. Collier ("Tim Bobbin"), Lanc. Dial. (1822), p. Aft, whan I sang o' Peggy's jet-black een,

Or play'd the charms o' my nain bonny Jean.

1788 Picken, Poems, p. 19. (1880 Jam. iii. 33
(2) Thine own, thy nown.
(a) pou art god, & alle gowdez ar graypely byn owen.
c 1360 Patience, l. 286. (E. E. Allit. Poems, E.E.T.S., p. 1 
It es thyn awene skathe. c 1440 Morte Arthure (E.E.T.S., 1865), l. 18
        And he schalle be thyn own fere
                                                      MS. Cantab. Ff. ii. 38, f. 241. (H. p. 95.
        Thyn awn pepill, bi awn flokke.
c 1485 Burial of Christ, l. 401. (Digby Myst., N.S.S., p. 181
 (b) As alle thi none hit ware.
                                     Camden Soc. p. 51.)
               Thowe wenes for thi wightenez the werlde es thy nowene,
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c 1420 Sir Amadace, lx. 9. (Robson, Three Metr. Ron

I salle wayte at thyne honnde, wy, be my trowthe.
c 1440 Morte Arthure (E.E.T.S., 1865), l. 1806.

(3) His nown, her nown, etc.

Be his nowne white sonne. 1566 UDALL, Ralph Roister Doister (Arber), p. 12.

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His Naunt Margary o Grinfilt, ot pleck where his nown moother coom fro. 1750 J. Collier ("Tim Bobbin"), Lanc. Dial. (1822), p. 13.
            There into th' hands of her nowne daddy
            Having deliver'd her, thus sayd he.
                                            1665 Homer a la Mode. (N2.)
  Troth, and ye hae guessed it," said Francie; "Jeest a cusin o' his nain, Miss Eveline Neville, as they suld hae ca'd her."
His nyawn, his own. Angus.
                                               1816 SCOTT, Antiquary, xxix.
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Here belongs the Highlanders' her nainsell, a circumlocution for I. It is used in burlesque with reference to a Highlander.

> Hur skipt about, hur leapt about,

c 1689 The Battle of Killicrankie (July 27, 1689). (Child, Ballads, vii. 154, 155.) Fu' bald can tell how hernainsell

Was ne'er sae pra before, man.

1745 ADAM SKRIVING, The Battle of Tranent-Muir, or of Preston Pans.

(Child, Ballads, vii. 173.)

Her nainsel.

p 1745 Author's Address to All in General. (Quoted by Scott, Pref. to Waverly, 3rd ed., 1814, p. xxxix.)

Her nainsell has eaten the town pread at the Cross o' Glasgow.

1818 Scott, Rob Roy, xxviii. "If her nainsell be hammer-man hersell, her nainsell may make her nain harness," replied Henry. "And so her nainsell would, and never fash you for the matter, but"... [etc.] 1828 Scott, Fair Maid of Perth, xxxiii.

This divisible mine or thine has affected the form of several house-

- hold words which I group together. 12. Aunt, formerly also awnt, dial. ont, oant, ME. aunt, awnt, aunte, awnte, OF. ante. Mine aunt was often my naunt, thine aunt, thy naunt, and so naunt, dial. nont, noant, came to be used in other positions.
  - (1) Mine aunt, my naunt.
  - Elezabethe, myn awnt dere, My lefe I take at you here. (a)
  - c 1450 Towneley Myst. p. 82. a 1500 MARG. PASTON, in Paston Letters, iii. 78. (b) My nawnte. A will, dated 1553, among other bequests mentions: "Also to my nawnt Bygott an old angell of golde." The old angel, I need not say, refers to

the coin, not the aunt. 1875 BARDSLEY, Eng. Surnames, 2d ed., p. 112.

Mr. Bardsley, by the way, is not only jocular himself, but givs cause for jocularity in others. In the same volume (p. 448) he says:

Queen Elizabeth had more obsequious adulation uttered to her face, and possessed more stomach for it, than any other royal person who ever sat upon or laid claim to a crown.

"Vneasie lyes the Head that weares a Crowne." Shakespeare says so, and no one who has tried to sleep with a crown on his hed wil deny his assertion. We now hav another fact added to our store of knowledge. Uneasy sits the "royal person" who "sits upon a crown."

Eigh, so seys meh noant Margit, un o meeny o folk.

1750 J. COLLIER ("TIM BOBBIN"), Lanc. Dial. (1882), p. 12.
Well, my naunt speaks truth in her old saw.

1823 SCOTT, Peveril of the Peak, xxvii.

- (2) Thine aunt, thy naunt.
- (a) (b) Ho is euen hyn aunt

  Arhurez half suster . . .

  perfore I ebe be, habel, to com to by naunt.

  c 1360 Syr Gawayne and the Green Knight (E.E.T.S.), l. 2464 and 2467.
- (3) Hence our naunt, his naunt, her naunt, and naunt without any possessiv.

Our old Naunt Ellesmere will else give me but cold comfort when I come home.

1823 SCOTT, Peveril of the Peak, xxv.

Proo naunt, your mare puts, i.e. pushes.

1678 RAY, Proverbs, p. 79.

"Naunt," he said in dismay, "I doubt it is true what she says."...

"Nay, naunt, I shall not be slack."

1823 SCOTT, Peveril of the Peak, xxv. [So elsewhere.]

Nânt, s. Aunt.

1825 JENNINGS, Somerset Gloss. p. 56.

Coom, fy, fy, naunt Grace, coom, fy, an a doon.

1847 A Lancashire Ballad, l. 41 (also 45). (H. p. xxiii.)

Nont or Noant, sb. Aunt. 1888 Addy, Sheffield Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 160.

Naunt, sb. Aunt. Phelp gives Naint.

1890 ROBERTSON, Gloss. of Gloue. Dial. (E.D.S.), p. 102.

- 13. Uncle. With mine aunt, thine aunt, goes mine uncle, thine uncle; with my naunt, thy naunt, my nuncle, thy nuncle. So nuncle (formerly also nunkle, nunckle), in other positions, common in Shakespeare, and stil existent in rural use. The urban use of my uncle is familiar to us all—in the newspapers of course. As uncle is in negro use abbreviated in address to unk, so we find nunck, nunkle, familiarly abbreviated in address to nunc, nunk (H. p. xxvii.).
  - (1) Mine uncle, my nuncle.

I wol, quod she, myn uncle lief and dere.

c 1374 CHAUCER, Tr. & Cr. iii. 645.

"Why, uncle myn," quod she, "who tolde hym this?"

c 1374 CHAUCER, Tr. & Cr. iii. 842.

Nowe, as you are mine unkle deare.

a 1700 King Arthur's Death (Child, Ballads, i. 41).

(2) Thine uncle, thy nuncle.

For all the Treasure that thine Vnckle owes.

1623 SHAKESPEARE, King John, iv. 1 (F<sup>1</sup> p. 14)-

(3) Hence nuncle without a possessiv.

How now Nunckle? . . . Marke it Nuncle . . . Nunckle, giue me an egge . . I haue vsed it, Nunckle . . . Pry'thy nunckle keepe a Schoolemaster . . I would not be thee nunckle . . . For you know, Nunckle . . . 1623 SHAKESPEARE, King Lear, i. 4 (F¹ p. 288). Kinred, nuncles and couzins.

1630 JOHN TAYLOR, Workes. Nuncle, s. An uncle. To nuncle, to cheat.

vancie, s. An unicie. 10 nuncie, to cheat.
1825 JENNINGS, Somerset Gloss. p. 57.
Nuncle, uncle. "Nuncle an naunt."

1876 ROBINSON, Whilby Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 134.
Nuncle. 1888 ADDY, Sheffield Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 161; 1890 ROBERTSON,
Gloss. of Glouc. Dial. (E.D.S.), p. 105; etc.

- 14. Eam, the original English term for 'uncle,' stil existent in provincial use, undergoes the same change. Mine eam (ME. myneme) becomes my neam (ME. my neme); thine eam (ME. thyn eme) becomes thy neam (ME. thy neme). In provincial use eam also means a friend, gossip, crony.
  - (1) Mine eam, my neam.
  - (a) Bot for as much as 3e ar myn em, I am only to prayse.

    c 1360 Syr Gawayne and the Green Knight (E.E.T.S.), l. 356.

    Eam, an unkle, Bor. This term in the North is familiarly applied to a gossip, and indeed to any friend or neighbor; so is the word unkle in Worcestershire and adjoining parts, where mine unkle, or my nunkle is a common appellation as mine eam in the North.

    a 1728 KENNETT, MS. Land. 1033. (Way, p. 139.)
  - Eam, or eeam, "mine eam," my uncle, friend, gossip.

    1855 [ROBINSON], Whithy Gloss. p. 51.

    (b) He ys my neme, y schalle the honge.
  - a 1500 (?) MS. Cantab. Ff. ii. 38, f. 151. (H.)
  - (2) Thine eam, thy neam.
  - (a) Sou dest ase [be] techet satanas bin em.

    c 1258 Seinte Maregrete, l. 127 (E.E.T.S., p. 38).

    pe dyvll of hell was bi emme.

    c 1485 Mary Magdalene, l. 1172. (Digby Myst., N.S.S., p. 100.)

    [Rebecca loq.:] To my brother, and thyn eme,

    That dwellys besyde Jordan streme.

c 1450 Towneley Myst. p. 44. Foreshowe the treasons of thy wretched eame.

1600 FAIRFAX, tr. Tasso, iv. 49.

(b) Tua doghters o Laban hi nem [var. hine eme, hin eme, hin eeme].

c 1300 Cursor Mundi (Cotton ms.) (E.E.T.S.), l. 3789.

Lo! Childe, he seid, this is thy neme.

a 1500 (?) MS. Cantab. Ff. v. 48, f. 69. (H.)

The same change has produced a series of familiar forms of children's names beginning originally with a vowel.

15. Ann or Anne, formerly also An, ME. Anne, from OF. Anne, Latin Anna. Ann, cald by her father or mother mine Ann, and by their gossips thine Ann, came to be my Nan, thy Nan, and so our Nan, her Nan, and Nan without a possessiv. So the diminutive

Annie, Nannie. Nan, Nannie, ar distinct from Nancy, with which they hav been confused. See Annis, the next word. The name Ann, Anne (OF. Anne, Lat. Anna) is derived from the name of Saint Anne, that is, Anna, the supposed mother of the virgin Mary, and Anna the prophetess. Douglas, in his translation of the Æneid, uses An with reference to Dido's sister Anna. All represent the Hebrew or Phenician Hannah.

There is a notion current among some persons that Anne should be pronounced in two syllables, An'ne. This is of course an error. Anne is merely an archaic spelling of Ann, which is itself an archaic spelling of An, which is common in the sixteenth century and later, and is the right modern form of the ME. Anne. Ann (An) is the shortest full form of an English name, in present use. But it is not much in use. The prettier Annie, the fair Anna, is preferd. Who could sing "Ann Laurie"?

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(a) And the womman was cald dam Anne.
                                             c 1325 Eng. Metr. Homilies, ed. Small, p. 156.
                                                       c 1430 [ms. 1592] Chester Plays, i. 191.
      Dame Anne.
      Her sister An, sprettes almaist for drede . .
     I513 DOUGLAS, Eneados, iv. 123, l. 45. (Herrtage.)

Anne Page [ii. 1, p. 39, etc.] . . . Anne [iii. 4, p. 51, etc.] . . . Mistris

Anne [iii. 4, p. 51] . . . It is not An Page [v. 5, p. 60].

1623 SHAKESPEARE, M. W. W. (F<sup>1</sup> p. 39, etc.).

Lytill Nanne.

1451-58 York Wills. (Oliphant, i. 288.)

Nanna, a word that women vse to still their children with, as we say lullable. Also the name Nanne.
(b) Lytill Nanne.
                                                                                              1598 FLORIO.
                       Also the name Nanne.
       [But the Italian Nanna has nothing to do with the English name Nanne.]
      Farewell gentle Mistris: farewell Nan.
                                          1623 SHAKESPEARE, M. W. W. iii. 4 (F1 p. 52).

1623 Id. iv. 4 (F1 p. 56).
      Mist. Page. My Nan shall be the Queene of all the Fairies, finely attired in a robe of white.
               That silke will I go buy, and in that time
      Shall M. Slender steale my Nan away
                                                                               1623 Id. iv. 4 (F1 p. 56).
             sweet Nan. 1623 Id. iii. 4 (F<sup>1</sup> p. 52), and iv. 6 (F<sup>1</sup> p. 57). Deare sister Anne, what dreames me thus molest?
      My sweet Nan.
             I'll tell thee (Nan) . .
                                                        1632 VICARS, tr. Virgil, bk. iv. (p. 87).
      But he call'd for the Lady Nan.
                                   1660 O Anthony, l. 12. (Ritson, Anc. Songs, p. 270.)
      And to the Lady Nan of Bullin.
                                                                                  1660 Id. 1. 31, p. 271.
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16. Annis, speld also Annice, Annes, the older form of the name Agnes; ME. Annis, Annys, Annyce, Anneys, from OF. Anis (Cotgrave), F. Agnès, Sp. Ines, Pg. Inez, It. Agnese, G. Agnes, from LL. Agnes, the name of a favorit saint. The name Annis, Annes, reverted to the Latin spelling Agnes, and is now pronounced with the g sounded. There is a mediate provincial form Angnes. The dictionaries say that Agnes is pronounced Ag'nēz (ag'nts), implying that it is a Latin word pronounced according to the so-cald "English

method" of pronouncing Latin; but Agnes, as an English name, is, like Moses, Latin only in seeming, and is pronounced in English fashion, Ag'nes (ag'ness), in termination like Mo'ses (mo'zess). the girls I ever knew named Agnes wer cald Ag'ness. The pronunciation Ag'nez is one of the pernicious results of book-learning.

Annis, Annice, has also in part taken the form Annie, as if a diminutiv of Ann. So Nannie (see above).

(a) Annys, proper name (Anneys, P., Annyce, P.). Agnes.
1440 Prompt. Parv. p. 11.

Annes, the wyff of John Heth.

1556 HENRY MACHYN, Diary (Camden Soc.), p. 105. 1550 HENRY MACHYN, Diary (Cammen Soc.), p. 105.
The iiij day of January at nyght was serten feyres [seen] in Fynsbere feyld . . . and in gardens by mony men, and yt was sene at Damanes Cler and mo places. [Note: Dame Agnes Clare.] 1557 Id. p. 123.

Annis Foster . . An Albright . . Annis Snod.

1559 BRYCE, Register (Farr, Select Poetry, Parker Soc., i. 165).

Somewhat North from Holy-well is one other Well, curbed square with

stone, and is called Dame Annis the cleare, and not far from it, but somewhat west, is also one other cleare water, called Perilous Pond.

1618 Stow, Survay of London, ed. A.M., p. 18.

Anis: f. Annis, or Nanne (a proper name for a woman).

1611 (and 1673) COTGRAVE. Angnes. - Agnes, a form often found in 17th century parish registers, and sometimes, though rarely, heard in conversation.

1889 PEACOCK, Manley and Corringham Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 12.

As the quotation from Cotgrave indicates, and the following quotations confirm, the name of Annis or Agnes was often confused with Anne or Annie.

The unfortunate maiden's name, according to Buchan (Gleanings, p. 197), "was Annie, or Agnes (which are synonymous in some parts of Scot-[This is a note to Andrew Lammie, where the heroin is "bonny Annie." See also quotation from Jamieson, below.]

Mine Annis, thine Annis, became my Nannis, my Nanse (Nance), thy Nannis, thy Nanse (Nance); and Nanse, Nance, Nanze, with the usual diminutiv, became Nansie, also speld Nancie, and now usually Nancy. With the disappearance of the form Annis, the connection of Nancy with Agnes was forgotten, and it came to be regarded as a diminutiv of Ann or Anna; and so all the dictionaries (So  $\mathcal{F}ack$  is regarded, and given, as a familiar form of  $\mathcal{F}ohn$ , whereas it is really another form of Jake, Jack being an old French, and Fake a modern English, abbreviation of Facob.)

(b) Lady Nancie [var. Nanciebel, p. 162, 163] died on Tuesday's nicht.

Lord Lovel (Child, Ballads, ii. 164). An' drink his health in auld Nanse Tinnock's. 1786 BURNS, Author's Earnest Cry and Prayer. Naething could resist my Nancy. a 1796 Burns, Farewell to Nancy. And it will be your best way, for thers sure news come frae Londoun that him they ca' Bang, or Byng, or what is't, has bang'd the French ships and the new king aff the coast however; sae ye had best bide content wi' auld Nanse [Queen Anne] for want of a better Queen.

1816 Scott, Black Dwarf, xvii.

Nancy, s. A name for Agnes, S.; although some view it as belonging to Anne. Nannie and Nanze are undoubtedly for Agnes, S.

1866 Jamieson.

Nan, Nannie, Nance, Nance, Nanze. Names substituted for Agnes, S.; although some view the first two as belonging to Anne. Nannie and Nanze are undoubtedly for Agnes, S.

1880 Jamieson, iii. 341.

Nannie, Nanny. A familiar name for Agnes. V. Nan.

Nance, or Nan, Ann; gen. If the person is old, Naan: [Nanny] is employed. 1876 ROBINSON, Mid-Yorkshire Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 88.

For the development of Nancy, diminutiv of Nance, Nanse, a contracted form of Nannis, Annis, compare the similar development of Alsey, Ailsey, Ailsie, Ailcy, Elsie, Elsey, Elcy, diminutiv of Alse, Alce, Ailse, Else, contracted forms of Alice, ME. Alice, Alyce, Alys, Alis, Ales. In Betsy (and Tetsy) the termination -sy is due to conformation, the regular diminutiv of Bet, Beth, for Elizabeth, being Betty.

- 17. Ed. In the same way Ed, the abbreviated form of Edward, Edwin, Edmund, was cald mine Ed, thine Ed, then my Ned, thy Ned, and so became Ned to everybody.
  - (b) Ned.

    1567 HARMAN, Caveal, p. 79.

    No abuse (Ned) in the world: honest Ned none. . . . No abuse (Hal:)

    none (Ned) none.

    1623 SHAKESPEARE, 2 Henry IV. ii. 4 (F<sup>1</sup> p. 84).

In the vernacular we "raise Ned" as wel as Cain and Ebenezer.

It'll break up the Union, this talk about freedom, An' your fact'ry gals (soon ez we split) 'll make head, An' gittin' some Miss chief or other to lead 'em, 'll go to work raisin' promiscuous Ned.

1848 LOWELL, Biglow Papers, No. V. p. 186.

Hence the diminutiv *Neddy*, which has nothing to do with *neddy*, a fool, a donkey. See I. A. 70.

Neddy, that was wont to make
Such great feasting at the wake.
1772 Browne, Shepherd's Pipe (Wr. p. 223).

- 18. \*Ell. So \*Ell, \*Elle, the unrecorded abbreviation of Ellen, Ellin, dial. Illin, Eelin, also Helen, Hellen, Elinor, Ellinor, Elenor, Eleanor, Elnor, Elnor, came as mine \*Ell, thine \*Ell, then my Nell, thy Nell, to be Nell without a possessiv. And so Nellie, Nelly.
  - (a) Alienora, proprium nomen mulieris (helena A). 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 7. Alianore, his wyff. a 1500 Paston Letters, i. 144. (Herrtage.) Queen Hellen shee did excell. Robin Hood and Maid Marian (Child, Ballads, v. 372).

[Helen McGregor, also cald] Ellen.
Illin, Eelin, Eleanor. 1859
Elnor. — Eleanor. 1888 Lowsl 1818 SCOTT, Rob Roy, xxxiv. 1859 DICKINSON, Cumberland Gloss. p. 56. 1888 Lowsley, Berkshire Words (E.D.S.), p. 78.

(6) And Nelle with hir nyfyls of crisp and of sylke, Tent welle youre twyfyls your nek abowte as mylke.

c 1450 Towneley Myst. p. 313.

And we vse the like termes by way of pleasant familiaritie, and as it were for a Courtly maner of speach with our egalls or inferiours, as to call a young Gentlewoman Mall for Mary, Nell for Elner: Iack for Iohn, Robin for Robert: or any other like affected termes spoken of pleasure.

1589 PUTTENHAM, Arte of English Poesy (ed. Arber), p. 228.

And freckeled Nel, that never faild her master. 1634 FLETCHER (and SHAKESPEARE), Two Noble Kinsmen, iii. 5. 27.

> O say you sae to me, Nelly i And does my Nelly say sae?

Lizie Lindsay (Child, Ballads, iv. 65).

Nell, Nelly, s. Abbrev. of Helen, S.

1866 JAMIESON.

- 19. Eps. So the Scotch Eps, Epps, diminutiv Eppie, the shortend form of Elspeth, Elspet, Elspat, which is itself a shortend form of Elizabeth, has become Neps.
  - (a) How brent's your brow, my Lady Elspat? a 1806 Lady Elspat (Child, Ballads, iv. 308). Elspat McTavish [the name of the "Highland widow"].

1827 SCOTT, Highland Widow.

To steal awa' Eppie Morrie.

a 1824 Eppie Morrie (Child, Ballads, vi. 260). 1814 SCOTT, Waverly, lxvii. Eppie. Heaven Almighty forbid that Epps Ainslie should gie ony sick gentleman

1824 SCOTT, Redgauntlet, iv. cauld well-water, and him in a fever. The abbrev. of Elspeth or Elizabeth. Ramsay. 1866 JAMIESON.

- In like manner \*OU, the unrecorded abbreviation of Oliver (I hav herd the diminutiv Ollie), has come to be Noll (nomen regibus timendum).
  - (a) Oliver, oliuerus, nomen proprium. 1483 Cath. Angl. p. 259.
  - Old Noll shall from the Shades descend, And teach the Wiggs obedience, E'er I for George's race contend, Or forfeit my allegiance.

c 1748 The Loyal Resolution, in Eng. Jacobite Songs, ed. Grosart, 1877, p. 21.

- 21. Ursula, contracted Ursley, and then probably reduced in baby speech to \*Ursey, \*Ussey, \*Utty, hence Nutty, either by the process above described (the name was once quite common), or by mere Conformity (see next).
  - (a) Dame Ursula . . . Dame Ursley as they called her.

1822 Scott, Fortunes of Nigel, viii.
(b) Nutty, a term of endearment; also a nickname for Ursula. 1857 WRIGHT.

By conformity with the preceding names thus initiald with N-, Tather than by the original process (for the names to be cited do not

appear to hav been in familiar household use in the ME. period), the names of Abraham and Isaac, Ambrose and Antony, Esther or Hester, hav been similarly alterd.

- 22. Abe, short for Abraham or Abram, appears also as Nab.
- (b) Nab, a by-name for Abraham. 1822 "TIM BOBBIN," Lanc. Dial. Gloss. p. 35. Hal o' Nabs, q. Henry of Abraham's. 1822 Id. p. 34.
- 23. Ambrose, diminutiv Amby. Hence Namby. Ambrose Phillips wrote some pretty things which Henry Carey and Mr. Pope did not like. They therefore cald him out of his name, Namby, and, using the contemptuous reduplication seen in niminy-piminy, nippertytipperty, etc., Namby-Pamby, which name came to be applied adjectivly to poems childishly pretty.

(a) When William Timmes, Ambrose, and Drake . . .
 1559 BRYCE, Register (Farr, Select Poetry, Parker Soc., i. 166)
 (b) Namby-Pamby, or a Panegyric on the New Versification [title].

1729 HENRY CAREY, Poems on Several Occasions (3d ed.), p. 55
[This poem is mentioned by Halliwell (Popular Rhymes and Nursers
Tales, 5th ed., p. 144) as "a very curious ballad written about the year 1720."]

Namby Pamby's double mild, Once a man, and twice a child Now my Namby Pamby's found Sitting on the Friar's ground.

1729 Id. (Quoted by Halliwell, I.c.)

And Namby-Pamby be preferr'd for wit.

1729 POPE, Dunciad, iii. 322 [surreptitious edition].

Lo! Ambrose Phillips is preferr'd for wit.

1729 Id. iii. 326 [acknowledged editions].

The pieces that please best are those for which Pope and Pope's adherents.

procured him the name of *Namby-Pamby*, the poems of short lines, by which he paid his court to all ages and characters—from Walpole, 'the steerer of the realm,' to Miss Pulteney in the nursery. The numbers are smooth and sprightly, and the diction is seldom faulty. They are not loaded up with much thought; yet if they had been written by Addison, they would have had admirers. Little things are not valued but when they are not valued but when they are done by those who can do greater.

1781 JOHNSON, Lives of the Poets: Ambrose Phillips.

- 24. Antony, contracted Ant'ny, Anty. Hence Nanty.
- (a) Nettlebed Anty, Peter Tom Willy, Peed Jack.

1876 ROBINSON, Mid-Yorkshire Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. ix.

**(b)** Nanty Panty, Jack-a-Dandy, Stole a piece of sugar-candy.

1729 HENRY CAREY, Poems on Several Occasions. [Quoted by Halliwell: see under No. 23.]

The above is associated with various nursery rimes, but Nanty finds its

source in Antony.]
"And now," said Trumbull, again, "I pray you to tell me by what name I am to name you to Nanty (which is Antony) Ewart? 1824 SCOTT, Redgauntlet, xiv.

- At the same time he introduced Mr. Antony, or Nanty Ewart, whose person, though he was a good deal flustered with liquor, was different from what Fairford expected. 1824 Id. xiv.
- 25. Etty, Ettie, a familiar form of Esther, and Hetty, Hettie, also used as a familiar form of Esther (the properly belonging to Hester, the aspirated form of Esther), appear also as Netty, Nettie. All the forms Etty, Ettie, Hetty, Hettie, with Etta and Hetta, ar also used as diminutive of Henrietta. Hettie is also used, I am told, as a diminutive of Mehetabel, Mehitable - which do seem to call for diminution. Nettie has also been used as a diminutiv of Annette, and, in one instance within my knowledge, of Fanet.
  - (a) The judge spoke: "Hester Sorrel." . . . The blood rushed to Hetty's face.
    1859 MARY ANN EVANS ("George Eliot"), Adam Bede, xliv.
    (b) Netty. Esther. 1876 ROBINSON, Whithy Gloss. (E.D.S.), p. 131.

  - 26. Ike, Ikey, diminutiv of Isaac, appears also as Nikey.
  - a) Ike. Isaac. 1859 DICKINSON, Cumberland Gloss. p. 56.
  - (b) Nikey, a diminutiv of Isaac.

1796 GROSE, Dict. Vulgar Tongue. [See under HICKON, No. 95.]

This explanation of the names Nan, Nancy, Ned, Nell, Noll, etc., is, I believ, new. The n is usually explaind as merely "prosthetic," 'or as if "prefixt" by a conscious act. Mr. Oliphant, for example, says:

It is curious that an n is often prefixed to shortened names in English, as Ned, Nan, Noll, for Edward, Anne, and Oliver. 1886 OLIPHANT, The New English, i. 199.

- B. I find two instances in which initial n after mine or thine is lost.
- 1. Nation. My nation, pronounced dialectally my netion (compare nurretion for narration, observetion for observation, etc., Gloss. of Glouc. Dial., E.D.S., p. 206, 208), appears to hav been taken as mine \*ation, dialectally pronounced etion:
  - (a) [Captain Fluellen and Captain Mackmorris loq.:] [Captain Fluench and Welch. Captaine Mackmorrice, I thinke, looke you, vince, where is not many of your Nation.

    Irish. Of my Nation? What ish my Nation? Ish a Villaine, and a Basterd, and a Knaue, and a Rascall. What ish my Nation? Who talkes of my Nation? 1623 SHAKESPEARE, I Hen. V. ii. (Sic in F¹ p. 78).

    Nashun or Nation... one's own town or neighborhood. A lad was lately hired out of the parish of Alderton near the sea; and for the first time crossed the intervening heath, of several miles in extent, to enter his service at Woodbridge. The boy, under a strong feeling of nostalgia, was wretched: and to the enquiries of his fellow servants could only say, "I fare to be out of my nashun,"—the first syllable long and modulated.

    1823 Moor, Suffolk Words, p. 244.

Moor notes that *native*, pronounced *na-tive'*, is also "used pretty much as *Nashun*." The "long and modulated" pronunciation of the first syllable opens the way to \*netion.

(b)

Bat thus in counting my etion
I need na mak sic din,
For it's well kent Achilles was
My father's brither sin.

1785 Poems in the Buchan Dialect, p. 4 (1808 Jamieson).

Jamieson enters "Etion, s. Kindred, lineage, S.B.," and suggests a connection with "Isl. Su. G. aett, ett, family," etc. Like many others before and since, Jamieson was not strong in etymology, but he was violent.

- 2. Nevening, ME. nevening, also nemning, nemnunge, nemmunge, AS. nemnung, naming. ME. thin nevening appears as thin evening.
  - (b) Wel bruc bu bin evening. a 1300 King Horn (E.E.T.S.), l. 206.

The following examples show how my and thy, myn and thyn, would alternate in the same line:

Alas! my covetyse, myn ylle wille, and myn ire.

c 1450 Towneley Myst. p. 306.

Ferre fro thi garth, thyne orchard, and thi vynes.

c 1420 Palladius on Husbondrie (E.E.T.S.), i. 1003.

- IV. Cases in which the final -n of none (ME. non) has become attacht to the following noun.
- 1. Ay, an egg. ME. ay, ey, ei3, etc. See I.A. 54. In ME. non ay (eye, ei3) appears as no (naie, nay nei3).
  - (a) (b) pan fond he nest and no neiz, for nouzt was ber leued.

    c 1360 William of Palerne (E.E.T.S.), l. 8z.

    And after token her cours and wenten her way,

    Tho fond be scherreue nyst, but none eye [var. non ay, noon eye, noon ay, non aye, no naie].

    c 1400 Gamelyn, l. 609. (Six-Text.)

The form here is obviously influenced by the alliteration, which is especially suited to the proverb. 'The bird had flown.'

- 2. Other. None other (ME. non other) is often found divided as no nother, from early ME. to modern times. Compare a nother for an other (I. A. 143), and my nother for myn other (III. A. 10).
  - (a) Ne canne [read can he] dan non oder.

    c 1230 A Bestiary, l. 658. (Old Eng. Misc. (E.E.T.S.), p. 21.)
    pam likes now nan ober [var. non ober, noon ober, na ober] gle.

    c 1300 Cursor Mundi (Cotton ms.) (E.E.T.S.), l. 54.

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And hat mai be nanoher [var. nan eoher, nan oher, noon ohere] wis.
                                                              c 1300 Id. l. 2887.
                     And now is here none other gate
                    Bot Godes howse and hevens yate.
                                                   c 1450 Towneley Myst. p. 46.
    That noo cordewener nor none other to his use sholde ocupye the mysterie
      of a tanner while he occupyed the mysterie of a cordewener. .
                                           1489 Stat. Hen. VII. (Caxton), p. 5.
                    I have none other, sayd the knyght,
                    The sothe for to say.
                  c 1500 A Lytell Geste of Robyn Hode (Child, Ballads, v. 56).
    VVhen baylifes strain none other things but strays.
                          1576 GASCOIGNE, The Steele Glas (ed. Arber.), p. 80.
(b) Min air þan wald i þat he war,
    Sin bou me gaue no nober [var. nane ober, non ober, noon ober] barn.
c 1300 Cursor Mundi (Cotton ms.) (E.E.T.S.), l. 2562.
    "And, fader, es þar nanoþer [var. non oþer, nan oþer, noon oþere]?"
                                                               c 1300 Id. l. 3755.
                      "Her es na nober bing," said he,
                      "Bot godds hus and heuen entre."
                                                               c 1300 Id. l. 3801.
    Seppe no noper nel be but nedes to wende.
                                c 1350 William of Palerne (E.E.T.S.), l. 1679.
    Sir, I tolde you trouth, trist yee no noother.
                                          c 1375 Alisaunder (E.E.T.S.), l. 489.
                       No mai ther go no nother gile
               To bring that traitour doun? c 1420 Amis and Amiloun, l. 950 (Weber, Metr. Rom. ii. 409).
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V. Case involving the conditional conjunction an, if. is reduced to nif; very common in provincial use.

Josua also, though he were no nother than a civil magistrate. . .

- (a) No, no, my heart will burst, and if [mod. edd. an if] I speake.

  1623 SHAKESPEARE, 3 Hen. VI. v. 5 (F1 p. 171).

  (b) Nif tha beest a Zend to Vield wi tha Drenking or ort, to tha Voaken. 1746 Exmoor Scolding, l. 196 (E.D.S.), p. 46.

Nif he'd a pumple voot bezide,

An a brumstick vor'n to zit ascride. 1825 JENNINGS, Somerset Gloss. p. 118.

An nif zaw be tha'll please to hear

A'll gee zum moor another year.

Nif. If.

1825 *Id*. p. 178. Somerset. 1847 HALLIWELL. (For examples see p. xxvii, xxviii, etc.)

1564 JEWEL, Apology (Parker Soc.), p. 98.

But there is another nif or nyf, a ME. contraction of ne if, if not, unless, except.

> Ofte hit roled on-rounde & rered on ende, Nyf oure Lorde had ben her lodez-mon, hem had lumpen harde. c 1360 Early Eng. Allit. Poems (E.E.T.S.), l. 423.

Gret perile bi-twene hern stod, Nif mare of hir knyght mynne. c 1360 Syr Gawayne and the Green Knight (E.E.T.S.), L 1768.

## VI. Case involving the preposition in (an, on, en-).

In aunter, an aunter, on aunter, also in aunters; also written as one word, inaunter, inanter, enaunter, enanter, anaunter, ananter, anawnters, anantres, ananthers, enanthers, anauntrins; also with the preposition dropt, aventure, awnter, aunters, anters, anthers, aunterens; all meaning 'peradventure,' 'in case that,' 'for fear that,' being parallel to peraunter, paraunter, a brief form of peraventure, now peradventure. We find in provincial use nanterscase, 'in case that,' a beautiful combination of in anters and in case.

Ac aventure for the fyght, (a) This victorie is the y-dyght.

c 1300 Kyng Alisaunder, l. 3922. (Weber, Metr. Rom. i. 162.)

So I seid, anaunter whanne my enemys be to glade over me.

Psalms and Prayers: Ms. Hunt. f. 38, vo. (Wr. p. 130.)

For longe durst he not abyde, Inaunter if men woll seyne.

c 1393 GOWER, C.A. f. 48. (Wr.)

Anger nould let him speake to the tree,

Enaunter his rage mought cooled bee.

1579 SPENSER, Shep. Cal., Feb.

Anauntrins. Peradventure, if so be. Northumb. 1790 GROSE, Prov. Gloss. Ananters, Anauntrins. If so be. 1828 [CARR], Craven Gloss. i. 8.
Ananters he does lick us, and naabody knaws how an arrow may glent, he'll tuck up aw our Volunteers be ther gallowses, i' iv'ry tree he comes at, thou'll see 'em flackerin' about like flay-craws. 1828 Id. ii. 299.

Ananthers, Anthers, or Enanthers, lest, or for fear. "I'll take my cloak, ananthers it should rain." 1855 [ROBINSON], Whithy Gloss. p. 4.

1847 HALLIWELL (b) Nanterscase. In case that. North.

VII. Besides the preceding classes, involving a transfer of a radical n, there is a number of words in which final n, formativ or inflexiv, casually goes over to the following word.

> I sai a selkoube sigt mi-self gister neue [printed gifter neue], Wel wibinne ni3t as i went in be gardyn.

c 1360 William of Palerne (E.E.T.S.), l. 2160. [Read gistern eue, 'yestern eve.']

Prestis seien nyze masse.

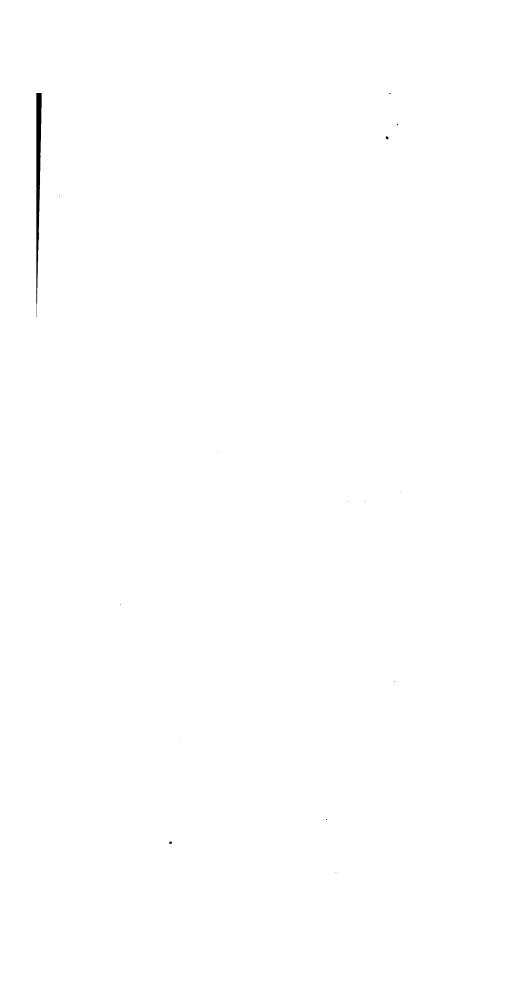
a 1384 WICLIF, Unprinted Works (E.E.T.S.), p. 336. [Read seien hyge masse, 'say high mass.' The initial n may be a mere scribal error, a repetition of the preceding n.]

It wil be noticed that in some cases the final n spreds, or undergoes gemination, retaining its place as final, and also taking a place as initial. Examples ar an nape (I. A. 24), an nute (I. A. 86), myn neres (III. A. 4), myn nawe (III. A. 11). This occurs also with other continuants. The opposit change, the reduction of two like consonants adjacent, final and initial, appears in an nadder, a nadder, an adder; an numpire, a numpire, an umpire, etc. These facts hav a bearing on other, more occult, cases of Attraction, which I must adjourn unto another day.



## APPENDIX.

- I. Proceedings of Twenty-fourth Annual Session, Char-LOTTESVILLE, Va., 1892.
- II. TREASURER'S REPORT (p. v).
- III. LIST OF OFFICERS AND MEMBERS (p. lxiv).
- IV. Constitution of the Association (p. lxxvi).
- V. Publications of the Association (p. lxxviii).



# MEMBERS IN ATTENDANCE AT THE TWENTY-FOURTH ANNUAL SESSION (CHARLOTTESVILLE).

William R. Abbot, Bellvue, Virginia. Sidney G. Ashmore, Union University, Schenectady, N. Y. W. M. Black, Western Maryland College, Westminster, Md. A. L. Bondurant, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass. Edward Capps, University of Chicago. Edward B. Clapp, Yale University, New Haven, Conn. Hermann Collitz, Bryn Mawr College, Bryn Mawr, Pa. Mortimer Lamson Earle, Barnard College, New York City. Herman L. Ebeling, Miami University, Oxford, O. Herbert C. Elmer, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y. Edwin W. Fay, University of Texas, Austin. James M. Garnett, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, Va. Basil L. Gildersleeve, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md. Wilber J. Greer, Miami University, Oxford, O. William Gardner Hale, University of Chicago. J. Leslie Hall, College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, Va. Samuel Hart, Trinity College, Hartford, Conn. Addison Hogue, University of Mississippi, University, Miss. D. C. Holmes, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md. M. W. Humphreys, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, Va. John B. Kieffer, Franklin and Marshall College, Lancaster, Pa. G. Lodge, Bryn Mawr College, Bryn Mawr, Pa. Francis A. March, Lafayette College, Easton, Pa. C. W. E. Miller, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md. Frank G. Moore, Yale University, New Haven, Conn. John Pollard, Richmond College, Richmond, Va. W. S. Scarborough, Wilberforce University, University, O. C. P. G. Scott, New York City. M. S. Slaughter, Iowa College, Grinnell, Ia. C. F. Smith, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn. Richard M. Smith, Randolph-Macon College, Ashland, Va. W. O. Sproull, University of Cincinnati, O. J. R. S. Sterrett, Amherst College, Amherst, Mass. Guy V. Thomson, Yale University, New Haven, Conn. J. H. Wright, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

[Total, 35.]



# AMERICAN PHILOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION.

CHARLOTTESVILLE, VA., Tuesday, July 12, 1892.

The Twenty-Fourth Annual Session was called to order at 4 P.M., in the University Library, by Professor Samuel Hart, of Trinity College, Hartford, President of the Association.

In the absence from the country of the Secretary, Professor Herbert Weir Smyth, Professor Edward B. Clapp, of Yale University, who had been appointed temporary Secretary, presented the following report:—

1. The Executive Committee had elected as members of the Associa-

William R. Abbot, Principal of Bellevue School, Bellvue, Bedford Co., Va.

Charles D. Adams, Professor of Greek, Drury College, Springfield, Mo.

Eben Alexander, Professor of Greek, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, N. C.

Thomas L. Angell, Professor of Modern Languages, Bates College, Lewiston, Me. H. B. Arbuckle, Instructor in Latin and Greek, Hampden-Sidney College, Hampden-Sidney, Va.

George E. Barber, Professor of Latin, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Neb.

E. C. Benson, Professor of Latin, Kenyon College, Gambier, O.

Hiram H. Bice, Professor of Greek, Blackburn University, Carlinville, Ill.

W. M. Black, Assistant Professor of Latin, Western Maryland College, Westminster, Md.

Robert Emory Blackwell, Professor of English and French, Randolph-Macon College, Ashland, Va.

Daniel Bonbright, Professor of Latin, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.

A. L. Bondurant, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

Mariana Brown, Professor of Latin, Earlham College, Richmond, Ind.

Carleton L. Brownson, Instructor in Latin and Greek, Yale University, New Haven, Conn.

John L. Buchanan, Professor of Latin, Randolph-Macon College, Ashland, Va. George Woodbury Bunnell, Professor of Greek, University of California, Berke ley, Cal.

Isaac B. Burgess, The Morgan Park Academy, Morgan Park, Ill.

James Chalmers, Associate Professor of English, Ohio State University, Columbus, O.

Henry Leland Chapman, Professor of English Literature, Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Me.

Milton E. Churchill, Professor of Greek, Illinois College, Jacksonville, Ill.

Willard K. Clement, Instructor in Latin and Greek, Lake Forest University, Lake Forest, Ill.

Francis A. Cobb, Boston University, Boston, Mass.

E. W. Coy, Principal Hughes High School, Cincinnati, O.

J. Bascom Crenshaw, Assistant Professor in Latin and Modern Languages, Randolph-Macon College, Ashland, Va.

Robert Warner Crowell, Professor of Greek and Latin, Lincoln University, Lincoln, Ill.

C. N. Curtis, Professor of Greek, Iowa Wesleyan University, Mount Pleasant, Ia. M. Grant Daniell, Principal of Chauncy-Hall School, Boston, Mass.

Heman A. Dearborn, Professor of Latin, Tufts College, College Hill, Mass.

Robert Walker Deering, Ph.D., Professor of Germanic Languages and Literature, Western Reserve University (College for Women), Cleveland, O.

Herman L. Ebeling, Professor of Greek, Miami University, Oxford, O.

A. F. Fleet, Professor of Greek and Comparative Philology, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.

Felix Flügel, Professor of English, Leland Stanford Jr. University, Palo Alto, Cal. William G. Frost, Professor of Greek, Oberlin College, Oberlin, O.

William S. Graves, Professor of Latin and French Languages, Davidson College, N. C.

Wilber J. Greer, Miami University, Oxford, O.

Karl P. Harrington, Professor of Latin, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, N. C.

Carter Johns Harris, Professor of Latin, The Washington and Lee University, Lexington, Va.

James A. Harrison, Professor of Modern Languages and English, The Washington and Lee University, Lexington, Va.

Charles S. Hebermann, Professor of Latin, University of the City of New York.

George L. Hendricksen, Professor of Latin, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis. David H. Holmes, Fellow in Greek and Sanskrit, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.

James K. Hosmer, Professor of English and German Literature, Washington University, St. Louis, Mo.

William A. Houghton, Professor of Latin, Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Me.

A. A. Howard, Professor of Latin, University of California, Cal.

Ray Greene Huling, New Bedford, Mass.

Rev. A. J. Huntington, Professor of Greek, Columbian University, Washington, D.C. Charles R. Jacob, Professor of Modern Languages, Drury College, Springfield, Mo. J. Haywode Jennings, Professor of Latin, Princeton Academy, Princeton, West Va. Charles W. Kent, Professor of English and German, University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

Charles Knapp, Ph.D., Instructor in Latin, Barnard College, New York City.

Walter Lefevre, Assistant Professor of Philosophy, University of Texas, Austin, Tex. Alonzo Linn, Professor of Greek, Washington and Jefferson College, Washington, Pa.

Lee Davis Lodge, Professor of French and Latin, Columbian University, Washington, D. C.

W. G. Manly, Professor of Latin, Denison University, Granville, O.

Edward Dudley Marsh, 165 Huntington Avenue, Boston, Mass.

Frank Stuart McGowan, Instructor in German, Adelbert College, Cleveland, O.

J. C. Metcalf, Professor of Greek, Soule College, Murfreesboro, Tenn.

C. W. E. Miller, Ph.D., Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.

Walter Miller, Professor of Latin, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.

Charles M. Moss, Professor of Greek, Wesleyan University, Bloomington, Ill.

J. S. Murray, Jr., Professor of Latin, University of South Carolina, Columbia, S. C.

Wilfred P. Mustard, Professor of Latin, Colorado College, Colorado Springs, Col.

Dr. Hanns Oertel, Instructor in German, Yale University, New Haven, Conn.

John Pollard, Professor of English, Richmond College, Richmond, Va.

Rev. E. L. Paton, Professor of Greek, University of South Carolina, Columbia,

N. C.

Judson C. Pattengill, Principal of the High School, Ann Arbor, Mich.
Emma Maud Perkins, Associate Professor of Latin, Western Reserve University
(College for Women), Cleveland, O.

William E. Peters, Professor of Latin, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, Va. Dr. R. S. Radford, Instructor in Latin and Greek, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, Va.

H. W. Rolfe, Lecturer in Latin, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.
Charles John Rose, Professor of German and French, Hobart College, Geneva, N. Y.

Mary A. Shute, Assistant in Greek, Smith College, Northampton, Mass. Frank Smalley, Professor of Latin, Syracuse University, Syracuse, N. Y. Kirby Smith, Associate in Latin, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md. Lewis Stuart, Professor of Latin, Lake Forest University, Lake Forest, Ill. Marguerite Sweet, Instructor in English, Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y. Guy Van G. Thompson, Instructor in Latin, Yale University, New Haven, Conn. A. H. Tolman, Professor of English Literature, Ripon College, Ripon, Wis. George W. Waite, Superintendent of Schools, Oberlin, O.

Edward L. Walter, Professor of Romance Language and Literature, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.

Andrew McCorrie Warren, Instructor in Modern Languages, Brown University, Providence, R. I.

George H. White, Oberlin College, Oberlin, O.

James Jones White, Professor of Greek, The Washington and Lee University, Lexington, Va.

Henry C. Whiting, Professor of Latin, Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pa.

B. L. Wiggins, Professor of Latin, University of the South, Sewanee, Tenn.

Henry D. Wild, Professor of Latin, Olivet College, Olivet, Mich.

- W. H. Williams, Professor of Sanskrit and Shemitic Languages, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.
- 2. The Transactions and Proceedings for 1891 (Vol. XXII) were issued together in March of the present year. Separate copies of the Proceedings may be obtained of the Secretary.

The report of the Treasurer of the Association, Professor Herbert Weir Smyth, for the fiscal year ending June 25, 1892, was then pre-

sented by the temporary Secretary. The summary of accounts for 1891-92 is as follows:—

RECEIPTS.	
Balance from 1890-91	\$1126.0
Fees and Arrears	
Sales of Transactions	
Sale of old plates	
Dividends Central New England & Western R. R 6.00	
Interest on Deposits 20.00	
Total receipts for the year	1163.
•	\$2289.
EXPENDITURES.	
Transactions and Proceedings (Vol. XXII) \$572.01	
Postage	
Expressage	
Clerk Hire	
Job Printing	
Stationery	
Binding 4.50	
Incidental 1.85	
Total expenditures for the year	\$63 <b>6</b> - <del>9</del> 4
Balance June 25, 1892	1652
	\$2289 - 16

The Chair appointed as a Committee to audit the Treasure report, Professors J. H. Wright and Addison Hogue.

At 5 P.M., the reading of papers was begun. At this time the were about thirty persons present. At subsequent meetings the next meeting the next meeting

1. Chronological Order of Plato's Dialogues, by Professor W. Scarborough, of Wilberforce University.

An attempt at a logical and chronological classification of the writings of Plato is by no means new. Diogenes quotes from Aristophanes of Byzanti mam, the first possibly to make this attempt, and gives us his divisions into trilogic as follows:—

1. The Republic, Timaeus, Critias; 2. The Laws, Minos, Epinomis; 3. The Theatetus, Euthyphron, Apology; 4. The Sophist, Politicus, Cratylus; 5. The Criton, Phaedon, Letters.

The remainder of the dialogues is left unclassified. Aristophanes failed in many important particulars. He ignored the internal evidence, drawn from the dialogues themselves, and utterly disregarded any scientific arrangement whate ver, as a careful study of the Platonic writings will show. The genuine and the spurious were alike classified by him.

Thrasylus, two centuries later, made little or no improvement over his predecessor, though Grote regards his catalogue of thirty-five dialogues as reasonably "trustworthy."

The fact that the genuineness of many of the Platonic writings has long been a matter of dispute puts out of the question, in a measure at least, tangible evidence as to a definite order of these dialogues. If, however, an attempt must be made, the only reliable evidence attainable must come from Plato himself. It must be internal rather than external. In the absence of dates there will have to be a close study of style, structure, syntax, grammatical relations, and usage, and the results compared with the language of the times in which the dialogues were issued.

Socher questioned the genuineness of the Sophist and the Politicus on the ground that they lacked the general characteristics of Plato's style. Schaarschmidt took substantially the same position. Similar objections were raised against the authenticity of the Laws.

In a paper in the Bibliotheca Platonica, Professor Campbell of St. Andrews University makes the statement that he has established the genuineness of the Sophist and the Politicus, and has assigned them their place in the order of Platonic composition. He adopted the group system. He collected the traits and characteristics common to a group—say, for example, the Philebus, Sophist, and Politicus, and arranged them according to their homogeneity. In this way the entire list could have been gone over and the chronological order established, approximately at least.

I find that many of the formulae and particles said to be exclusively confined to Platonic usage are employed by Euripides, Aeschylus, Aristophanes, and other tragic and comic writers.

The formulae and idiomatic expressions referred to by Dittenberger and other German critics, may be taken as simply marking the contrast between the Republic, the Phaedrus, the Theatetus, and the earlier dialogues.

The occurrence of  $\tau l$   $\mu \eta \nu$  in some and its omission in other Platonic dialogues prove nothing as to their scientific order. Even the Platonic mannerisms in themselves are of little value. As an example, we take  $\pi \epsilon \rho$  as a suffix to such adverbial forms as  $\mu \epsilon \chi \rho_l$ ,  $\delta \pi \eta$ ,  $\delta \sigma \alpha \chi \eta$ ,  $\delta \pi \sigma \omega_l$ ,  $\delta \pi \sigma \sigma \omega_l$  =  $\mu \epsilon \chi \rho_l \pi \epsilon \rho$ ,  $\delta \pi \eta \pi \epsilon \rho$ ,  $\delta \sigma \alpha \chi \eta \pi \epsilon \rho$ ,  $\delta \pi \sigma \omega_l \pi \epsilon \rho$ , common in Plato, yet  $\delta \pi \eta \pi \epsilon \rho$  is found in Sophocles:

'Αλλ' ή μὲν ἡμῶν μοῖρ' ὅπηπερ εἰσ', ἴτω, Ο. Τ. 1458.

 $\delta\pi\eta\pi\epsilon\rho=\delta\pi\omega\pi\epsilon\rho$ , sometimes with little or no change of meaning:

"Αλλ' είμι κάγὼ κεῖσ' δποιπερ ἃν σθένω, Αj. 810.

 $\tau\hat{\psi}$  bert seems to have been supplanted in several instances by brtws, which is a Platonism, pure and simple. Dr. Schanz pointed out this fact a few years ago.  $\sigma\chi\epsilon\delta\delta\sigma$  without  $\tau\iota$  is regarded by Campbell and others as a Euripidean idiom, and yet similar examples are to be found in Homer, Pindar, Herodotus, Demosthenes, and with verbs of knowing in Sophocles and others.

According to Professor Campbell, whom I regard as high Platonic authority,  $\tau \hat{\psi}$   $\delta r\tau_i$  occurs but once in the Sophist, and not at all in the Politicus, Philebus, Timaeus, and Crito.  $\delta r\tau \omega_i$  is found in the Sophist 21 times; Politicus, 11 times; Philebus, 15; Timaeus, 8; Laws, 50; etc.

With a knowledge of what the earlier and later style of Plato actually was, it would not be difficult, it seems to me, to establish in part, if not fully, the chronological order of these works, provided we adopt Professor Campbell's suggestion and study the dialogues themselves.

2. Aristotle's Criticism of the Spartan Constitution, by Professor E. G. Sihler, of the University of the City of New York.

One of the chief benefactions to be expected from the discovery of Aristotle's 'Aθηναίων πολιτεία should be the renewed study of Aristotle's Politics, although the direct parallels between the two works have been exhaustively traced even now by Mr. Kenyon and his collaborators. For indeed all the factors of political life are so tersely stated, all the principles of the science so firmly grasped, that the progress of human history since has chiefly furnished new proof of A.'s penetration and new stores of material to illustrate his propositions. Cf. Zeller III, 2 p. 104 sq. Grote's essay on the Politics (Aristotle, 1883) is unsatisfactory in many ways.

Passing on to the probable date of the work, the author considered Christ's argumentation (which largely is based on the argumentum a silentio) (Gesch. d. Gr. Lit.<sup>2</sup> p. 416), defective. A definite element, at least of computation, is offered by the allusion to one of the herald-ships of Athens, the *Ammonias* (Kenyon,<sup>8</sup> p. 158); although Boeckh set the giving of that name not earlier than 322 (cf. *Rich. Shute* "on the History of the Process by which the Aristotelian writings arrived at their present form," Oxf. 1888, p. 22). It seems rather difficult to assume that Aristotle had formally completed the 158 "Constitutions" (or "foundations") of the canon of Diogenes Laertius before he began to compose the abstraction of these concrete elements, but that, perhaps, he used the latter as a "continually open note-book," as Shute not inaptly calls the πολιτείαι (p. 72).

One of the striking features of the *Politics*, in a historical sense, is the slender rôle played by Athens, in the references, compared with Sparta. The searching and condemnatory sketch of the final or extreme type of Democracy ( $\delta \epsilon \sigma \chi a ros \delta \eta \mu o s$ ) is unmistakably directed at Athens VI, vulgo (IV), 4, p. 1292 a, I sqq, although the philosopher refrains from naming it. But he deals quite differently with Sparta, whose distinctive institutional peculiarities (II, 9) are submitted to detailed and systematic criticism, severe and unfavorable throughout the chapter. The philosopher betrays here and there the conscious attitude of the iconoclast, and of a critic who challenges and defies the current of previous appreciation.

And still (II, 11 s.f.) he designates Sparta, Crete, and Carthage as the three states which justly enjoy a high reputation. In his own best state IX (vulgo VII) 10, some features of Spartan and Cretan institutions are incorporated, but he takes pains to advocate priority for Egypt and Italy respectively. The author of the paper sifted all references to Sparta, but no matter what pinch of eulogy or approbation might here and there crop out, the deep and strong undercurrent of condemnation was unmistakable. For Aristotle applied the verdict of what was to him contemporary history; the other decadence of Sparta after Leuctra was sufficient proof of the fundamental unsoundness of her institutions, while the

Chauvinism inbred by her onesided militarism was utterly unsympathetic to his philosophical ideals.

Evidently then Aristotle combats traditional appreciation and canonizing of Sparta as an ideal political organism, a view set forth, e.g., in Xenophon's essay, although the latter comes out strongly against Lysander and as a champion of Agesilaus and the royal prerogative. Plato's estimate of Sparta (Rep. III, 414, IV, 420, 422, 423, 425, 461 e, 467 ed) is familiar enough, as well as his conscious or unconscious incorporation or adaptation of many features of her institutions. But at the same time he does not forego (VII, 548) a moral estimate of the present decadence of Sparta from her former high estate.

Indeed, Aristotle and his teacher are not so far apart after all in this matter, although in the case of Aristotle the history of Greek politics had advanced farther, and his faculty of political judgment is unmistakably superior.

3. Alliteration in Lucretius, by Professor W. A. Merrill, Miami University.

Students of Lucretius have not failed to notice the great occurrence of alliterative vowels and consonants in the poem, and the editors have made many vague remarks on the subject. Munro, for instance (Lucr. II, p. 15), says, "they are to be counted by hundreds, nay thousands," but no one seems to have counted them, and to have found out exactly the number of occurrences and the several varieties. Zeuner's method of treating alliteration, having met with the approval of students of English, seemed to the writer to be more worthy of imitation than the methods of classical scholars. The treatment naturally was divided into two parts: Part I, formal alliteration; and Part II, the logical effect as adding to the sense; and the general question of accidental or intentional occurrence. Part II is not now offered.

#### PART I.

The inquiry into alliterative usages must be limited by arbitrary bounds, and the following principles were so adopted:—

- 1. Each verse is taken separately.
- Three or more initial letters are noticed (e.g. adventumque tuum tibi suavis
   daedala tellus, 1. 71); and word-initials only, not syllable-initials within the word.
- Count two initial letters only when two or more other initial letters occur
  in the same verse; e.g. at nunc nimirum frangendi finis, 1. 561.
- 4. Count h when another initial h occurs in the line, having the force of a consonant; otherwise h is disregarded and the following vowel may be paired with a similar vowel initial in the same line. Example of 1. hunc vexare hunc vincula, 3. 83; of 2. in intervallis haec aera, 2. 107.
  - 5. Diphthongs are arranged according to their first vowel.
- Initial vowels following elided m-syllables are disregarded. Example: cum immortalis, 3. 869.
- Initial vowels standing after elided vowels are disregarded; e.g. ille quoque ipse, 3. 1029.

Ther are in Lucretius 7415 lines in Munro's edition of 1886; subtracting 56

which are spurious, there remain 7359. 1783 of these are alliterative,  $24_{100}^{22}\%$  Nearly all the letters in the alphabet occur: a 245 times, b 2, c 395, d 87, e 185, f 102, g 9, h 13, i vowel 192, i consonant 2, l 47, m 193, n 230, o 29, p 373, q 211, r 93, s 375, t 124, u vowel 37, u consonant 144. P, s, and c lead, probably on account of the large number of Latin words beginning with these letters.

Threefold alliteration — scheme aaa occurs 508 times. Example: corpora constituunt — cetera, 2. 104.

- 4, scheme aaaa, occurs 49 times, of which the letter a is found 6 times, c 3, d 1, e 3, i 3, l 1, m 11, n 5, p 8, s 6, v 2. Example: multa modis multis moveri, I. 341.
- 5, scheme aaaaa, occurs 3 times (with p, e, and t each once). Example: non potuit pedibus qui pontum per vada possent, 1. 200.
- 6, scheme aaaaaa, occurs once: saepe solet scintilla suos se spargere in ignis, 4. 606.
- 2-2 admits of three schemes: aabb, abab, abba. Example of aabb: corpora se iungunt sed terras ac mare totum, 2. 728. This occurs 333 times. Abab: ut mare cum magni commorunt aequora venti, 2. 766, 319 times. Abba 310 times: cum quibus et quali positura contineantur, 2. 761. Total for 2-2, 962 times, more than any other form.
- 3-2 has 10 schemes; abaab occurs 24 times. Example: milibus e multis munitur eburno, 2. 538. Aabba is found 13 times, abbab 12, abbaa 11, aabab 23, aaabb 29, aabbb 10, abbba 12, ababb 15, ababa 15. Total occurrence of 3-2 164 times.
- 4-2 is used by Lucretius in five schemes: abaaba 2, ababaa 1, abbbab 1, abbaaa 1, aaabab 1; total 6 times. An example of abbaaa is 4. 394 cum permensa suo sunt caelum corpore claro.
- 5-2 occurs but once, with scheme abbbbab; idque sibi solum per se sapit id sibi gaudet, 3. 145.
- 2-2-2 occurs 68 times with 15 schemes: abcbac occurs 7 times, abcabc 8, abaccb 6, abbcac 5, aabccb 4, abbacc 8, aabbcc 3, aabcbc 1, abcbca 6, ababcc 5, abacbc 2, abccba 3, abbcca 3, abcacb 2, abccab 5. An example of abccba, a very pleasing variety, is 4. 905 multaque per trocleas et tympana pondere magno.
- 3-2-2 occurs 10 times with 9 schemes, one only abcaccb being found twice. The others are ababcca, abbcabc, abcbcba, abaccb, aabcbcc, aabcaccb, abbaccc, abcbaccc. Abbaccc is found in 6. 879 frigidus est etiam fons supra quem sita saepe.
- 4-3, scheme aabaabb occurs but once, 3. 852; et nunc nil ad nos de nobis attinet ante.
- 3-3 occurs 6 times: aaabbb and abaabb twice, the others once each, viz. ababba, abbaab. An example of aaabbb is 3. 794 quod quoniam nostro quoque constat corpore certum.

In two places in the poem there is a correspondence between the two closing words of two verses: in 2. 269 corde creari corresponds to procedere primum in 270; and in 6. 741 contraria cunctis corresponds to venere volantes, 742.

Au and o seem to correspond in 3. 12 0mnia nos itidem depascimur aures dicta; and also in 6. 408.

(In the complete paper every alliterative line is arranged under its proper scheme.)

At this point the following overture from the American Oriental Society was presented to the Association:—

PHILADELPHIA, PA., U.S.A., March, 1892.

DEAR SIR:

The undersigned were appointed a Committee, by the Directors of the American Oriental Society, to learn if it were practicable to open negotiations with other philological, archaeological, and ethnological societies, with a view to adopting a common time and place for meeting every other year. This biennial meeting would bring all these societies together, while still retaining their independent action, their present individuality, and their existing independence. A joint committee, representing them, say of one from each, could arrange the details of the meetings so that there would be no conflict between the time at which analogous papers were read and discussed by societies which cover similar ground. So that, for instance, the Sanskrit members of the American Oriental Society could hear both in that society and in the American Philological Society the papers on Sanskrit. If it seemed desirable, one joint meeting could be held of all the societies, at which an address could be read by a President elected by them — an arrangement which might have incidental value.

In the intervening years the societies would continue, as now, to hold their meetings in different places and at varying times, and would thus stimulate local interest in the studies they pursue and promote.

The societies which it is proposed to approach on this subject are in the order of establishment:—

The American Oriental Society, 1842.
The American Philological Association, 1869.
The Archaeological Institute of America, 1879.
The Anthropological Society, Washington, 1879.
The Society of Biblical Literature and Exegesis, 1880.
The Modern Language Association of America, 1883.
The American Folklore Society, 1888.
The American Dialect Society, 1889.

TALCOTT WILLIAMS.
PAUL HAUPT.
C. R. LANMAN.

After remarks by Professors Hale, March, Wright, Sproull, and Ashmore, the following resolution was offered by Professor Gildersleeve, and unanimously adopted:—

Resolved: That the American Philological Association cordially accept the overture of the American Oriental Society, and that the Executive Committee be authorized to make arrangements in concert with the other societies for a joint meeting.

Shortly after six o'clock the Association adjourned.

### EVENING SESSION.

The Association, with several residents of Charlottesville, assembled in the Public Hall at 8.15 P.M., to listen to the address of the President of the Association. The Association was welcomed to Charlottesville, and the speaker of the evening introduced, in a few felicitous remarks by Professor William M. Thornton, LL.D., chairman of the Faculty of the University.

4. The Debt of the Classical Scholar to the Community, by Protessor Samuel Hart, of Trinity College, Hartford.

The greatness of great men—at any rate the greatness of men who have been both great and useful—has consisted largely in their acting the part of mediators between the past and the future, holding to all that has proved itself of value, and commending it to the active and earnest workers in whose hands lie the destinies of institutions and of nations. Nowhere is this more true than in the history of sound learning; there have been no more true mediators between the past and the future than the universities of the civilized world. And perhaps there is no one of them all the foundation of which was professedly laid on principles so carefully studied and so wisely chosen as the University within the hospitable walls of which we are assembled. We look to it as, both in intention and in fact, a home of sound learning, conservative of the good which has come to its hand, and at the same time not afraid of any honest and healthy growth. It is an appropriate place for the consideration of the debt which the classical scholar of the present day and in our land owes to the community of which he is a member.

For a while after the revival of the letters in Europe, all learning was classical learning. The classic authors were read as if, with all their differences, they had been written but yesterday. The time called forth wonderful prodigies of grace and skill; and it was a prophetic time, a time of forthseeing and of foreseeing; it taught the men of that day, and it laid up treasures for us. The duty of the scholars of that day was plain, and they were faithful to it; with unwearied labor they toiled at their tasks, and they kept all their work up to the very highest standard.

To that spring-time succeeded a time when the study of the classic authors held by universal consent a necessary and an exalted place in all liberal studies and in all real education. Many changes took place in the way in which men looked at the requirements of scholarship and at the position of the literary man; but he was brave indeed who dared to doubt that part of the necessary foundation of all learning was a knowledge, and that a somewhat minute knowledge, of the classic writings of the Greeks and the Romans. The duty of the scholar then was to open the minds of others to great or noble or beautiful thoughts, couched in forms of gracefulness and strength, made attractive by the skill of men of extraordinary genius, and enforced upon the mind by the fact that they could not be appreciated unless they were carefully studied. And take it for all in all, the duty was well performed.

To-day classical studies are put on their defence and called upon to prove that they have a reason for claiming any time or attention at all. The reason for this change of position is found in the fact that the learning of our time has been in one way wonderfully widened, and in another way as wonderfully specialized and narrowed. There must be scholars to know each several thing well; but no scholar can know all things well. As in other matters, so also it is in the study of language: the horizon of the philological scholar has widened and is still widening; and the widening of the horizon has narrowed each man's special field of work. The world of learning is becoming more and more a republic; and the old aristocracy of classical studies are put on their defence and asked to give an apology for themselves. The duty of the classical scholar is, without complaint at the changed order of things, to maintain that the importance of the classics in the sphere of letters and of thought has not been materially diminished. He should do everything in his power for the advance of philological learning, and thus in the great realm of knowledge find something which he can make especially his own. And he ought to exert himself to help those for whom the line of labor anu (to some extent) of interest is outside of what we strictly call philology. There is little danger that the school and the university will be neglected in our day, but it may be that the college will find before long that scanty provision has been made for it. We must not forget that we owe a training in classical culture to men whose lives must be spent in the liberal professions or in influential positions in the world of business or of politics -a training which is suitable for that which they need and which does not load them with what they will never be able to use. If the advance of learning along other paths, if even the progress of our own studies in other than literary directions, leads us to neglect this, the community will certainly be the sufferer.

Classical scholars, and in general students and teachers of language are recognizing and paying in different ways the debt which they owe to the community; and the age in which we live is not lacking in esteem for anything which is serviceable or attractive or in any way real.

At the close of the address the Association adjourned, to meet at 9.30 A.M. on Wednesday.

# CHARLOTTESVILLE, Pa., July 13, 1892.

The Association was called to order at 9.30 A.M. by the Chair. Professor James M. Garnett, on behalf of the Local Committee, invited the Association to join in an excursion to Monticello at 5 P.M. The invitation was accepted. The following Committees were then appointed by the President:—

On time and place of meeting in 1893, Professors Hale, Ashmore, and Sterrett.

On officers for 1892-93, Professors Humphreys, C. F. Smith, and Kieffer.

The reading of papers was then resumed.

5. Dyer's Interpretation of Vitruvius on the Greek Stage, by Professor Edward Capps, of the University of Chicago.

The purpose of this paper is to show the weakness of the position of Mr. Louis Dyer in his attempt (Jour. Hell. Stud. Vol. XII) to reconcile the vexatious passage of Vitruvius (V. 8) on the Greek theatre with the results of the labors of Dr. Dörpfeld and his supporters. If such a reconciliation could be effected, the scholars who now refuse to accept Dörpfeld's theory of the Greek stage would find their main support shattered, and it would be regarded as an established fact that the plays of the great dramatists were presented in a theatre in which there was practically no stage. The importance of Dyer's attempt is therefore evident; and it is no less important that his attempt should be subjected to a thorough examination.

Beginning with the assumption that the earliest Italian scholars might be expected to understand Vitruvius better than the moderns, Dyer selects the work of the earliest scholar who offers an explanation of the passage - Jocundus, the eminent Florentine scholar and architect, who gives in his editions of 1511 and 1513 two figures accompanied by a key, from which we may derive his interpretation of the text. Where Jocundus is obscure, Dyer appeals to his pupil, J. C. Scaliger, who is assumed to have accepted his master's views regarding the theatre and the meaning of Vitruvius. Interpreting Vitruvius in the light of these helps, Dyer finds that the term proscenium in the phrase finitio proscenii was applied to the unused space lying between the scena-wall or green-room building and the decoration wall or finitio proscenii. The two accessory arcs are drawn to mark on the finitio proscenii the extremities of the pulpitum minore latitudine, or hoyesov - a temporary wooden platform which projected from the finitio proscenii and formed the platform for actors. When this type of theatre was modified to meet the requirements of the drama after the disappearance of the chorus, this pulpitum became larger and received the name proscenium, the unused space behind it now being called the scena. It is to this modified type of theatre to which Vitruvius refers in his chapter on the Roman theatre. The proscenii pulpitum which he mentions there is not the same as the proscenium, but "a small temporary stage built on the centre of the larger and permanent prosceniumstage. This is the invention of Vitruvius, who was inclined to suggest Greek improvements - "one of those refinements in practice not observed by his predecessors nor followed by his successors." It was not with this proscenii pulpitum that Vitruvius compared the Greek hoyesor, and not the Greek proscenium with the Roman proscenium, as Dörpfeld supposed, but the Greek pulpitum = λογείον with the Roman pulpitum = stage, which were in use so much alike as to suggest comparison, and Vitruvius makes only one mistake - he gives to the Greek λογεῖον the impossible height of from ten to twelve feet, possibly confounding it with the θεολογείον.

Such in outline is Dyer's explanation of the passage in Vitruvius as derived through the medium of Jocundus. If well grounded, it affords relief to the difficulties in two respects. It acquits Vitruvius of the stupid blunder with which Dörpfeld has charged him, viz. of so far misunderstanding the use of the stage buildings of the Greek theatres extant in his day as to confound the proscenium of the Greek theatre — the long narrow structure from ten to twelve feet in height

which served as the masked front or decoration wall—with the proscenium-stage of the Roman theatre, and to describe the former structure as the stage for actors. It also provides for a stage in the Greek theatre, for which we have the direct testimony of ancient antiquarians and scholars. Dyer, however, holds that the stage was a temporary wooden platform, thus accounting for the absence of remains of stage structures from which Dörpfeld argues so strongly against the existence of a stage, and so low as to be easily accessible, thus meeting the internal evidence of the plays themselves, which is strongly against a stage of any considerable height. On the other hand, it still attributes to Vitruvius the serious error, only less serious than that with which Dörpfeld charges him, of making the projecting  $\lambda o \gamma e i o r$  as high as the proscenium to which it was attached, and no very satisfactory explanation of this error is offered.

But the subtile and cleverly constructed theory of Dyer is built on weak foundations. In the first place, the presumption in favor of the scholars of the early Renaissance on the ground of their agreement on the meaning of this passage falls away when we learn that they were as much at variance as modern scholars. Jocundus (1511) differs essentially from Caesarianus (1521) and from Barbaro (1567). In view of this fact we must refuse to any ancient scholar a greater influence in this question than is warranted by the intrinsic merit of his views.

Furthermore, Dyer's interpretation does violence to the diagrams by means of which Jocundus aims to make clear his understanding of Vitruvius. In order to make out that Jocundus believed the purpose of the two accessory arcs to be to fix the position of the loyelor on the finitio proscenii, he is compelled to extend the arcs in the diagram until they touch the finitio proscenii at the desired place. Even if we should accept Dyer's explanation of the fact that Jocundus would thus be drawing the arcs from the right and left respectively when Vitruvius directs to draw first "from the left" and then "from the right" ("ab intervallo sinistro" and "ab intervallo dextro"), viz. that it was a teacher's device for the sake of making the directions of Vitruvius clearer to his pupils, by having them draw, taking the right centre, from the right, to the right side of the proscenium, instead of right, left, right, etc., we could not accept an explanation which requires that certain lines which, as he supposes, Jocundus intended should fulfil a certain object should be arbitrarily extended until they do fulfil that Object. If that object were in the Florentine architect's mind, he certainly would have made it clear in his figure. Besides, a measurement of the hoyefor in the second figure of Jocundus shows that it is more than 60 per cent longer than it would be if determined by the arcs as drawn by Dyer. This in itself is enough to overthrow Dyer's interpretation of the figures of Jocundus.

Dyer quotes Scaliger De Comoedia ac Tragoedia as an exponent of the views of Jocundus as to the meaning of proscenium as applied to the Greek theatre. That space on either side of the pulpitum reaching to the forward wall of the scena which was left vacant was called by the Greeks proscenium. Let no one opine that here were the sides of the scena." We need not puzzle ourselves as to the meaning of this strange definition, for the original passage runs as follows: "Id spatium quod utrinque a pulpito ad extremam scenam vacuum relinquabatur Graeci vocabant proscenium, ne quis existimet fuisse scenae latera." Though it is clear that Dyer does not translate this sentence correctly, it is not in point to discuss here its real meaning, for it is not found in the essay of Scaliger's cited,

nor in any work of Scaliger's, but in another essay in the same volume of Gronovius's Thesaurus (Vol. VIII, not III, as printed), assigned to no author but "ex optimis auctoribus collectus." We do, however, find in Scaliger's essay two definitions of proscenium: "Locus ante scenam, proscenium; in quo erant agentium discursiones" and "ante quos [porticus] proscenium apertum vidibatur in quo agebant (ut diximus) e scena egressi." According to Scaliger, therefore, the proscenium was not "a narrow, unused space in front of the scena," but an open space used by the actors. If we may transfer the pupil's views to the master, we have an explanation of the figures of Jocundus, though the purpose of the two arcs does not appear very clear. Jocundus himself was apparently not very well satisfied, for in one figure he marks two different parts as proscenium, and in his second edition omits altogether what Dyer understands to have been in his view the Greek proscenium. Dyer's explanation of the double proscenium in the first edition is weak in view of the fact of the change in the second edition; of this he offers no explanation, but refers to the fact that the key in the first edition, with its double proscenium, is restored in the third edition of 1523. But Jocundus died in 1515, and no change in the edition of 1523 can be cited on his authority.

We get no light from Joeundus, therefore, on the difficulties in Vitruvius. We must test Dyer's explanation by the words of Vitruvius himself. We are at once confronted by the meaning of *latitudo* in the phrase in the chapter on the Greek theatre, "minore latitudine pulpitum." Dyer does not discuss the word, but assumes, apparently, that it means "length," as Schönborn and Müller had done before him. But Wecklein has shown beyond possibility of doubt that *latitudo* can mean only width. Vitruvius means the same thing when he says that the Greek pulpitum is *minore latitudine* than the Roman as when he says that the Roman pulpitum is *latitus* than the Greek. That in the latter statement he refers to width is shown not only by the context, but also by the fact that in the same chapter he proceeds to give directions for the length, *longitudo*, of the scena.

The distinction which Dyer sees between the meaning of the term proscenium in the chapter on the Roman theatre and in the chapter on the Greek theatre, and, consequently, the difference between the pulpitum or proscenium in the = Roman theatre and the pulpitum or λογείον in the Greek, finds as little support in Vitruvius as we have found in Scaliger. The whole argument, so far as Vitruvius is concerned, is based on the phrase proscenii pulpitum in the description of of the Roman theatre. This he believes to mean "the platform belonging to, or or attached to, the proscenium," and not "the platform of the proscenium," i. "the proscenium" (cf. urbs Romae), as all scholars heretofore have taken it it. Though we nowhere else hear of such a projecting platform in the Roman theatreyet Dyer accounts for it here as an innovation of Vitruvius, who desired to impor cont such an improvement from the Greek theatre. If a theory which requires such an explanation needs refutation, a glance at the text will suffice to show that these two chapters on the theatre the terms proscenium, pulpitum, proscen - nii pulpitum, and horefor are interchangeable, excepting that the last is used only the Greek pulpitum. I shall quote only two passages to illustrate. Per centre parallelos linea ducatur, quae disiungat proscenii pulpitum et orchestrae region - aem. Ita latius factum fuerit pulpitum quam Graecorum (ch. 6). Ea regione de signatur finitio proscenii. . . . Ita . . . habent . . . Graeci . . . minore latitua - line pulpitum, quod λογείον appellant (ch. 8). There is here an exact parallel ism,

finitio proscenii in the second passage being substituted for linea quae disiungat proscenii pulpitum in the former. This line which separates the proscenii pulpitum from the orchestra, and which thus forms the forward boundary line of the proscenium, being farther from the rear boundary line in the Roman than in the Greek theatre, makes the pulpitum in the Roman theatre wider than the pulpitum or loyefor of the Greek.

Having shown that the essential part of Dyer's theory cannot be defended, it only remains to state that the purpose of the two accessory arcs is to widen the orchestra as it approaches the proscenium, giving it a horse-shoe shape for the benefit of the spectators who had their seats in the wings of the auditorium. The main argument against this is strongly maintained by A. Müller — that since Vitruvius does not specify what radius is to be used in drawing these arcs, we are obliged to use the radius of the original circle. But the evidence of the ruins is decisive, so that we need not adduce the weighty arguments of Wecklein to prove that the most reasonable interpretation of the text of Vitruvius leads us to this construction. Most of the ancient Greek theatres exhibit an orchestra of horse-shoe shape, the curvature of the two limbs varying according to the centres chosen for drawing them. In Epidaurus, as Dörpfeld has shown, these centres lie below the diameter and inside the circumference of the fundamental circle; the limbs begin to diverge from the original circle above the diameter. At Athens the limbs approach the proscenium in straight lines; Fabricius points out that the principle is the same as at Epidaurus, the centres lying at infinity. Now Vitruvius wished a more graceful orchestra than that at Athens, and it was difficult to give directions for fixing the centres for such an orchestra as at Epidaurus. He therefore gives the simplest practical working rule, viz. that the two centres should be at the ends of the diameter of the original circle. It was not necessary to specify the radius. Given the centres, any architect familiar with the shape of the best Greek theatres would draw the arcs correctly. Unless we deliberately ignore the knowledge which we possess concerning the ruins of Greek theatres, which Jocundus did not possess, we must thus explain what Perrault, from want of this knowledge, called "le mystère de ces trois cercles."

The writer believes with Dyer that there may have been in the classical Greek theatre a low wooden stage for actors in front of the proscenium or decoration wall. But there is certainly no evidence for such a stage in Vitruvius, and I see none in Jocundus. If Dörpfeld is right in denying the existence of a high stage, Vitruvius is wrong, and we are compelled to believe him guilty of the greater error of misunderstanding the purpose and use of the Greek proscenium than of the two lesser errors of attaching to the Roman proscenium a small projecting platform such as never existed (an invention, Dyer would call it), and of giving to the Greek  $\lambda o \gamma e i o r$  a height of ten feet when it could not possibly have been much more than two or three feet above the level of the orchestra.

6. Notes on the Subjunctive of Purpose in Relative Clauses in Attic Greek, by Dr. Mortimer Lamson Earle, of Barnard College.

The paper contained an examination of the idiom our fort ( $\mu\omega\iota$ ), or our  $\xi\chi\omega$ ,  $\delta s$  ( $\delta\sigma\tau\iota s$  or rel. adv.) and subj. (or opt. aft. secondary tense). The prototype of the Attic idiom was sought in Homeric Greek: cf. II. 21, 111 sqq., II. 19, 355-7,

Il. 6, 450 sqq., Il. 4, 164, Il. 21, 103 sq., Od. 6, 201 sqq., Il. 3, 459 sq., Od. 15, 310 sq., with Soph. Ai. 514 sq., Eur. H. F. 1245, Xen. Anab. 1. 7, 7, Eur. Or. 722 sq. (For other examples from Attic Greek, see Class. Rev. Vol. VI, pp. 93-5.) It was suggested that "the gradual obsolescence of the subjunctive which can be traced in Ionic and Attic Greek, in what Weber calls 'unvollständige Finalsätze' with  $\delta\pi\omega_s$ , seems to have gone hand in hand with a similar obsolescence in the kindred relative final-clauses" (i.e. relative in the more restricted sense). In this process the finite construction of the rel. clause may have been influenced by the use of the fut. particip. to express purpose after verbs of motion, a usage so extensive in Ionic Greek that in Hdt. viii-ix, which, according to my examination, contain not a single fut. rel. clause of purpose, and no certain instance of the ούκ έχω δ,τι constr. with (so-called) final subjunct., we find the fut. part. in all 17 times." — "In such a sweeping away of the subjunctive constr. we must seek an explanation of a survival as certain as the οὐκ ἔχω ὅ,τι (δ) constr. appears to be, examined from the point of view of historical syntax. It is here that Goodwin's remark is suggestive. If, instead of saying that the construction in question 'may be explained by the analogy of' the indirect deliberative, we say that it is to be explained from the essential nature of the subjunct., traced in its development in Homer, and found again, in perhaps still further development, in Attic Greek, as a survival, sometimes obscured and confused by the indirect deliberative, the similar form of which served to prevent it from sharing the fate of its companion relative clauses of purpose. If we put the case in this form (pointing out in our support the triple ambiguity of έχειν and the ambiguity of δστις), we shall, it seems to me, be as near the truth as we are likely to get in so subtle a matter."

[The writer did not make himself responsible for any particular theory of the original meaning of the Greek subjunctive. He does not, however, wish himself to be considered as favoring the putting on the same footing, though they may both for convenience' sake be classed as "final," such subjunctives as those which are discussed above, and the final subjunctive developed from the independent hortatory subjunctive. Cf. Eur. Suppl. 1232, with Soph. Antig. 1332 sq., 1184 sq.]

Remarks were made by Professors Ashmore and Hale, and in reply by Dr. Earle.

7. An Attempt to solve the Difficulties of Horace, Sat. I, 10, 21, with Notes on Related Questions, by Professor H. C. Elmer, of Cornell University.

O seri studiorum! quine putetis difficile et mirum, Rhodio quod Pitholeonti contigit?

This passage will be recognized as belonging to the satire in which Horace is discussing the merits of Lucilius. He has just suggested that perhaps the admirers of that author count it among his merits that he mingled Greek words with Latin. Horace then addresses himself to such critics with the words before us. The difficulty of the passage lies, of course, in the quine. It has been customary among grammarians and commentators to look upon this qui as the relative pronoura introducing a causal clause. But if qui is a relative, what is the meaning of the interrogative ne? This ne began to trouble grammarians at least as far back as

Priscian, who, manifestly in despair, calls it coniunctio nec interrogativa nec dubi-Latina sed confirmatina (Keil, p. 102, 1032 P). Of course no one would now accept such a theory. Another explanation, adopted by Orelli, Kiessling, and Others, holds that qui and ne in some way make the clause at one and the same time both causal and interrogative, and that the passage means: "O you block-Theads, who (i.e. since you) think - and can it be that you do think, etc.?" Wickham thinks ne merely adds a rhetorical emphasis - "what? when you think, etc.," but how he makes anything like sense out of such a rendering is itself a conundrum. Professor Greenough calls the passage "the despair of grammarians," but he suggests that qui may be indefinite, in which case it would mean "O you blockheads! can you have any idea, etc.?" But he has to admit that the expression would be a popular one, not appearing elsewhere in literature. Schütz seems to be about the only editor who has a view that he has given himself much trouble to defend. He thinks that ne really has nothing to do with the qui-clause, but that it is felt with the "seri studiorum," and that "O seri studiorum, quine putetis" really means "Are you blockheads, since you think, etc.?" Schütz adduces a long list of passages to support this view. Unfortunately, several of these presuppose as the true reading, one that is extremely doubtful. But let us admit them all and see how much testimony they give in his support. In the first place there is nothing in any of the passages to correspond with the interjection "O," which Schütz's explanation leaves without meaning. A few examples will give a perfectly fair idea of the character of these passages. Take, for instance, Plaut. Mil. 13. Artotrogus has just spoken of himself as a brave man. "Mars," he says, "would not dare to call himself so warlike as I." Pyrgopolinices, sur-Prised at such a boast from such a man, replies: Quemne ego seruaui in campis Gorgonidoniis, etc. ("what, the man whom I saved, i.e. who could not save himself, etc. — is it about such a man that you use such extravagant language?"). Similar to this is Mil. 973 Cupio hercle equidem, si illa uolt. Palaestrio thinks the word woll is not appropriate to the occasion, and he replies: Quaene cupiat (Reading?) "one who longs for it - about her do you use such a feeble expression as uolt"? Again take Most. 724: TRANIO. Sed, Simo, ita nunc uentus nauem deseruit. SIMO. Quid est? quo modo? TRANIO. Pessumo. Simo. Quaene subducta erat tuto in terra? Simo has not understood the drift of Tranio's words, and he asks this question in hope of getting more light: "What, one that had been hauled ashore in safety?" All the passages cited by Schütz are similar to these, so far as the bearing of ne is concerned. The clause introduced by ne is, in each case, called forth by some remark that has just preceded, and the drift of which has not been fully understood; and the feeling is "the one who (thing which) is, or does, so and so - is that the one you mean?" The only circumstances under which our passage would be at all parallel with those cited by Schütz would be produced by supposing O seri studiorum! said by one person, and the quine putetis by another ("because you think, etc., - is that why he calls you seri studiorum"?).

The only passage cited by any commentator that really favors the view that qui is a relative is one to be found in some editions of the Adelphoe of Terence (vs. 262), which Wickham, among others, calls to his support. Ctesipho asks Syrus where Aeschinus is. Syrus replies: "He's waiting for you at home. Why—what's the matter?" Ctesipho rejoins: "What's the matter? Why, it is by his

pains that I now live — the dear fellow! quin omnia sibi post putauit esse prae meo commodo."

But the reading quin in this passage is more than doubtful. The only manuscript authority for the quin is C and P, in which the n has been crossed out. The Bembinus (A) has n added by a later hand, but it was originally wanting, and the weighty authority of this manuscript is therefore against the reading. None of the other manuscripts have any trace of the n. Bentley adopted this reading, but, with the exception of Spengel, none of the more recent editors of importance have followed him. Dziatzko, for instance, writes qui quom omnia. Fleckeisen, Umpsenbach, and Wagner write qui ignominias sibi, which has the authority of the Bembinus. This reading, too, offers an easy explanation of the quin, as, in hurried pronunciation, qui ignominias siòi might well have been understood as quin omnia sibi. It is probable that neither Bentley nor Spengel would have had the courage to write quin in this passage, if it had not been supposed that this use of ne was supported by our quine putetis of Horace. At any rate it will be seen that the probabilities are decidedly against the reading quin and, without that support, our passage, if the qui is to be explained as a relative, will stand quite unparalleled by any passage in any author.

It seems to me that this passage admits of a perfectly clear explanation. Ne is clearly interrogative; qui cannot be explained in connection with it as a relative, without forming anomalies for which there are no parallels. It must, therefore, be the interrogative adverb here used in the sense of "why?" Macleane and Ritter, and one or two others, have suggested taking it in the sense of "how?" but this creates a difficulty in the use of the mode of putetis (i.e. makes it equal to putare potes); and no one has pressed this view. I wish to urge an explanation akin to this which seems to me to solve all the difficulties. Horace and writers after him not infrequently append ne to words already interrogative in meaning, e.g. uterne (Sat. 2. 2. 107); quone malo (Sat. 2. 3. 295); quantane (Sat. 2. 3. 317). The question is, why, and under what circumstances do these writers append ne to interrogative words? The answer to this question will have an important bearing upon our passage, and I therefore wish to consider the question somewhat in detail. The motive for this is commonly supposed to lie in a wish to intensify the interrogative idea by a heaping up of interrogative signs. But there is no such thing as an intensified interrogation. One question cannot be more interrogative than another. One question may be more emotional than another, but that does not concern us here, as ne asks a question in a perfectly simple and colorless manner, and furthermore the phenomenon of which we are speaking happens to occur chiefly in questions asked by those not under the influence of any excitement, or other strong feeling. Why, then, is ne thus appended to words already interrogative? It should be noticed, as I think it has not been, that ne is appended to interrogative words only when those words are such as frequently have also non-interrogative meanings.1 Of the words above

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Schmalz (Lat. Synt. § 158) seems to recognize numne in de n. deor. 1, 31, 88 and in Lael. 11, 36. But in the first of these passages numne may well be an error for minime (which some MSS. actually have), though it is true that minime would more easily come from numne than numne from minime. Numne in Lael. 11, 36 is still more doubtful. Hand (Tursellinus IV, 79) and Risschl (Opusc. 2, 248) were probably right in denying the Latinity of this form. Ritschl's opinion is especially significant when we notice that, some fifteen years before this part of his Opuscula was published, he himself had written numne in several passages of Plautus, e.g. Poen. 5, 2, 119; Trin. 922.

cited, for instance, weer is often an indefinite relative = "whichever," and is sometimes used in the sense of "either of two"; quo=not only "which?" "what?", but also "any"; quanta is not only an interrogative="how great?", but is also used as a correlative of tantus. It is never appended to words, for instance, like cur, that are always understood as soon as uttered. It seems clear then that ne is appended merely to avoid ambiguity—to show that in the particular instance in hand, the interrogative use is intended. On the supposition that this theory is correct, quine becomes perfectly intelligible: qui putetis would have been in danger of being mistaken for a causal relative clause. The ne is accordingly appended to indicate at the outset that we have the interrogative adverb.

It only remains now to examine the theory more closely and see how far the facts of the language will support it. It may be objected that this will then be the only instance of ne appended to the interrogative adverb qui. But so are quone and quantane the only instances (except one or two in Lucan, e.g. 7. 301) of ne appended to these interrogatives, and no one questions, or indeed can question. either of these instances. The only interrogative word to which ne is appended frequently enough to warrant any deduction from an examination of the instances is uter. It is to be regretted that our investigation is thus chiefly limited to a single word, but, even as it is, we shall be led to some pretty clear and, I think, satisfactory conclusions. We are at once struck by the fact that there is no certain instance of ne appended to uter (utrum 1) before about the time of Horace. This fact throws a flood of light when we find that it was not till about the time of Horace that uter came to be freely used in a sense other than interrogative. Before that time its non-interrogative use was confined almost exclusively to its combination with uolo and lubet (utrumuis, utrumlubet, etc.). Excepting such combinations, there are, throughout the entire ante-Ciceronian period, — and I include here the inscriptions and the fragments of authors, - only five instances 2 of uter used in a non-interrogative sense. Outside of Plautus, the use does not occur at all in that period. It was still so rare that it was never felt to be necessary to distinguish the interrogative by the use of ne, and it seems never to have been done in that period. As soon, however, as we reach Cicero, and especially the later productions of Cicero, we find a very different state of things. Uter is now very common in a non-interrogative sense. It does not occur in this sense in any of his productions prior to 69 B.C., and there are only five instances earlier than 55 B.C. (still excepting, as I do throughout the paper, its combination with uolo). But after that date it becomes very common. With the help of one of my students, I have collected the following instances from Cicero: Sest. 42, 92; Pis. 12, 27; Phil. 13, 19, 40 (twice); Inv. 1, 29, 45; 1, 45, 83; Att. 1, 11, 1; Div. in Caec. 14, 45; Verr. 2, 2, 61, 150; 2, 3, 45, 106; 2, 3, 14, 35 (three times); N. D. 1, 25, 70; Div. 2, 68, 141; 2, 56, 116; 2, 29, 62; Part. Or. 36, 123. These eighteen instances have been obtained by an examination of only eleven of Cicero's productions. It did not seem necessary for my present purpose to carry the search further. These examples suffice to establish my point that, when Horace began to write, uter, in addition to its interrogative use, had come to be freely used as a relative="whichever of the two." Horace himself has it

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Throughout this paper, I include the interrogative particle *utrum* in my statements regarding *uter*.

Plautus: Stichus 723; Amphitruo 225; Menaechmi 189; Persa 341; Aulularia 319.

in a non-interrogative sense at least three times (Sat. 2, 3, 180; 2, 5, 28; Epist. 2, 2, 199), or nearly as many times as in the whole ante-Ciceronian period. After Horace, it is very common in such a sense, e.g. Livy 21, 18, 13; 2, 27, 5; 31, 32, 5; 36, 1, 9; 8, 10, 8, etc. Now, beginning with Horace (and his example was followed by later writers), we find ne frequently appended to uter and utrum. The inference seems clear - it was appended merely to label the word as interrogative. An examination of the several instances confirms our inference. Of the seven cases in Horace,1 in which ne is appended to interrogative words, all but two of them are direct independent questions, where nothing has preceded that would necessarily suggest the interrogative character of the introductory word. In the other two cases, it would be most natural, though perhaps not absolutely necessary, to understand the word at once as an interrogative. In any case, the exceptions may be explained as an extension of the use. After the custom of appending ne had once been introduced, one should not be surprised to find the use overstepping its original bounds. Furthermore, in a good proportion of the cases in Horace where ne is not appended to uter (utrum), the uter (utrum) would naturally be felt at once as an interrogative, e.g. Sat. 1, 4, 16 Uideamus uter plus scribere possit; Epist. 2, 1, 55 Ambigitur uter sit prior; A. P. 470 Nec satis adparet, cur uersus factitet, utrum minxerit in patrios cineres, an, etc. The fact that this is not true in every case does not make against our theory, as it is always a matter of choice with an author whether he uses all possible means to make a word clear as soon as it is uttered or written, or whether he trusts the rest of the sentence to make it so.2

I would then explain qui as the interrogative adverb and translate: "O, you blockheads! Why should you think that, etc.," and would briefly summarize my positions as follows: (1) I can conceive of no other reason than the one I have indicated why an author should append ne to a word already interrogative. If the word would in any case be understood as interrogative, what possible motive could the writer have had in appending a colorless ne? (2) If ne is appended to avoid ambiguity, no more fitting place could be imagined than the present passage. As cur would not meet the metrical requirements, quine is used in its stead, the ne showing that qui is not the relative. (3) No other passage can be cited that favors taking qui with the ne appended as the relative. (4) I should translate "why should you think," instead of "how can you think," because the mode will then be strictly in accordance with Horace's usage elsewhere. Exact parallels will be found in Od. 3, 1, 46; 1, 47; Sat. 1, 1, 53; 4, 70; 2, 1, 41; A. P. 450, etc. On the other hand no clear parallels will be found in Horace, if indeed in any author, for putetis in the sense of putare potes in independent clauses. Such a use should be clearly distinguished from those in Od. 1, 6, 14 (for a key to this subjunctive, see Sat. 1, 9, 24 quis possit [instead of potest], "who would be able," surely not "who can be able,"); 13, 14; 24, 15; 29, 10; 4, 5, 25; Epod. 1, 15 (See Kiessling's note); 16, 17; and elsewhere. The nescias an of Od. 2, 4, 13, seems a nearer approach to this use, but even this might be taken as hortatory. "Feel sure that" (nescio an = "I feel pretty sure that"). This would be more in har-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Sat. 2, 2, 107; 2, 3, 251; 2, 3, 295; 2, 3, 317; 2, 6, 73; Epod. 1, 7; Sat. 1, 10, 21.

<sup>2</sup> There is reason to think that even Cicero sometimes used ne to avoid ambiguity, though the use is commonly said to occur first in Horace. See manuscript evidence for ntrumne, Cic-Inv. 1, 31, and for utrisne, Verr. 2, 3, 83, 191.

mony with the following, crede non illam tibi de scelesta plebe dilectam, than is the common interpretation (see Wickham's note). Horace, like other writers, expresses the can idea by the use of posse; e.g. Od. 3, 11, 13; 27, 58; Epod. 9, 14; Sat. 1, 3, 113; 4, 84; 4, 119; 8, 20; 10, 40; 10, 84; 2, 1, 79; 5, 34; 7, 80; 7, 104; Epist. 1, 1, 81. (5) No difficulty whatever is left by my interpretation. This will, to be sure, be the only instance known of ne appended to this particular interrogative; but so are quone and quantane the only instances (until Lucan) of ne appended to these words. No one questions either of these instances. Why should one question the quine of the present passage?

Remarks were made by Professors Hale, Ashmore, C. F. Smith, J. H. Wright, and Dr. F. G. Moore, and in reply by the author.

- 8. Etymological Notes, by Prof. Edwin W. Fay, of the University of Texas.
  - 1. The Treatment of Europ.-Armen. tr<sub>2</sub>°.

στέλλω, 'brail up,' 'tuck up': τελέθω, 'arise,' πέλομαι, 'revolve' (of years), - ελλω, 'rise': τλάω, 'lift,' 'bear.'

su-stul-it, ab-stulit: tollo, 'lift up,' tulit, su(b)latus.

tárati, 'cross the sky': tulayāmi, 'weigh.'
tirás, 'through,' 'past,' 'past by,' 'leaving out' ('except'?), 'aside from,' 'in
Secret from,' 'cross-wise': trans, 'over,' 'beyond,' clam, 'in secret from.'

 $\pi\lambda d\nu$ , \*beyond > \*more than > except.

 $\pi\lambda$ άγιος (?), 'cross-wise.' tirás +  $\sqrt{dha}$  = 'conquer,' 'overthrow,' 'conceal.'

clades <\*clamsdi-, 'overthrow,' clandestinus < clam + des + to + ino-, 'secret.'

πέλαγοs, 'wave': taramga, 'wave,' πλάζομαι, 'cause to waver' > 'deceive,' wander about' (a concrete 'waver').

strbhís, táras: ά-στήρ: stella: Armen. a-stλ, 'star.'

πλειάδες: otriones, groups of 'stars.'

celer: taras-, 'swift.'

celsus, 'elevated': Lith. kélti, 'raise,' kéltas, 'elevated.'

First the semasiological question was discussed. Sk. V car and its congeners < I.-E. V qel are seen to have no sense of 'rise,' and to connote only a leisurely, wandering motion. On the contrary, V tr is shown to mean 'rise,' 'move rapidly.' The fundamental sense was that of motion in a vertical, or any but a horizontal plane, — motion, not along the flat earth, but over mountains, then over rivers, diagonal motion through the air, cross-wise motion in general.

After the semasiological question, the phonetic was discussed. The intrinsic difficulty of the initial group tlo was asserted with a reference to Meyer's Organs of Speech, p. 326.\(^1\) The Latin and Lith. conversion of otlo into oclo was proof of it; so was the West-Germanic flo < plo < I.-E. tlo. Can we find evidence for a labial treatment in Greek? Aeolic  $\beta\lambda\hat{\eta}\rho$ , 'bait,' was again connected with  $\delta\ell\lambda\epsilon\alpha\rho$ , 'bait,' and with  $\delta\ell\lambda\epsilon\alpha$ , not with the V of  $\beta\ell\lambda\lambda\omega$ , I.-E. V gel, according to Brugmann, nor with O. H. G. querdar, 'bait,' according to Joh. Schmidt.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In Appleton's Science Series.

Greek τλάω is held not to prove the permanence of tlo in Greek, because τάλαντον, τάλας < tloo held τλο in place, and besides, έτλη, τέτλαμεν were capable of pronunciation as έτ-λη, τέτ-λαμεν.

The ptc.  $^{\circ}\pi\lambda\delta\mu\epsilon\rho\sigma$ s shows the Grk. treatment of  $\pi\lambda^{\circ}$ . Out of a stage  $\pi\lambda^{\circ}$  was generated a series  $\pi\epsilon\lambda^{\circ}$ ,  $\pi\epsilon\lambda^{\circ}$ .

πλάν, 'beyond,' 'except,' πλάγιος, 'aslant,' 'crosswise,' and πέλαγος (πλάζομαι) are members of this series; so is πλειάδες, to be later described.

For Latin and Lithuanian we have a stage tlo > clo, whence celo, colo. Latin clam, 'secretly,' 'beyond' (Anglice 'it is beyond me'), shows this stage; clādes, 'overthrow' < clans + di = Sk. odhi <  $\sqrt{dha}$ , of which examples are given. Sk. tiras +  $\sqrt{dha}$ , 'to overthrow,' 'defeat.' clandestinus < clam + odes = Sk. odhas <  $\sqrt{dha}$  + to + ino. Of the cel- grade celer, 'swift,' = Sk. taras, 'swift' is a probable example; celsus can also be derived in this way, and so Lith. kélti, kéltas.

Sk. turáti and the other forms in turo show the Sk. treatment of  $r_2$ ; i.e. turo is out of  $t_1$   $r_2$ .

Lat. trans calls for explanation. It was an isolated form, and not affected by a tel<sup>o</sup>, tol<sup>o</sup> series; so the r<sub>s</sub>, an r verging into Europ.-Armen. I was held in place by the t, not becoming cl. Lat. otriones, to be presently discussed, is another instance of such isolation.

The words for star meant originally 'riser,' and belonged to this root. They were held in place, because felt to be agent formations in oter. The derivative stella may show an l or derive from \*ster-la. Armen. a-st $\lambda$  shows in  $\lambda$  a tertium quid neither r nor l. With the explanation of a-st $\lambda$  here proposed, all the cases of  $\lambda$  in Armenian known to me are made to represent Europ. l, save in the combination  $\lambda b = \text{Europ.}$  \*bhr, where labial influence of bh is to be suspected.

 $\pi\lambda\epsilon\iota d\delta\epsilon$ s shows the phonetic change of  $tr_2$ 0 to  $\pi\lambda$ . Otriones is its congener,  $tr_2$  being held in place for the reason given for trans.

The text contains further a treatment of the semasiology of various Greek, Latin, and Sanskrit prepositions belonging to the V per-, to 'pass,' and touches upon the relations of the Aryan and Europ.-Armen. branches in regard of r and L

2. Splendidus and its congeners, with an explanation of vrddhi in Sanskrit.

Sk. prathitá, 'broadened,' 'glorious,' 'famous': splendidus, 'glorious,' 'shining': O. Ir. less, 'light.'

práthas, 'breadth': πλάτος, 'width': splendor.

πλαθος, 'breadth': planus, 'flat,' latus, 'broad': Lith. plesti, 'make broad,' Sk. prthu, 'broad': πλατύς, 'broad': Lith. platus, 'broad.'

ωμο-πλάται, 'shoulder-blades,' lătus 'side': O. Ir. less, 'hip,' 'haunch': O. Blg. plašti, 'mantle,' plešte, 'shoulder.'

In Lat. splendidus the transferred meaning of prathita, 'glorious,' 'famous,' appears not only in abstract but concrete signification = 'shining'; so in O. Ir. less = 'light.'

The  $\sqrt{\frac{p}{sp}}r_s$ ath belonged to the  $^8/_8$  series.  $\pi\lambda\hat{a}\theta$ os is not a hyperdorism, hyperaeolism (Cauer Del². 437. 18), but Doric  $\pi\lambda\hat{\eta}\theta$ os is a popular etymology from  $\pi\lambda\hat{\eta}\rho\eta s$ . Lith. plesti has suffered the same contamination. The notions of multitude and extent lie very near in language.

Lat. splendidus comes from \*splenditus by progressive assimilation. The vowel color derives from \*ré-splendidus. Sk. prathita was freely used in compo-

sition with prepositions. The large class of Lat. adjs. in idus, e.g. candidus, etc., show probably the same progressive assimilation.

Lat. lātus, 'broad,' is out of \*splātus, cf. liēn:  $\sigma\pi\lambda\eta'\nu$ ; stlāta, a 'ship of burden,' reported from Festus, is a derivative of  $\sqrt{\frac{t}{st}}er_1$ ; so is Umbrian Tlatie, = Latii, 'of the productive, fertile land.'

O. Blg. plešte, 'shoulder,' is explained by a confusion of gradation. I.-E.  $\frac{a}{4}$  > O. Blg.  $\frac{o}{a}$ ; I. E.  $\frac{o}{0}$  > O. Blg.  $\frac{o}{0}$ . The interchange was made over o.

An explanation of Sk. vrddhi is to be found in the same way. I.-E. an,  $\bar{a}n$ ,  $\bar{n}$  > Aryan an,  $\bar{a}n$ ,  $\bar{n}$ ; I. E. en, on,  $\bar{n}$  > Aryan an,  $\bar{n}$ ,  $\bar{n}$ ; the differing terms an,  $\bar{a}n$  in the two series were confused, mainly to the benefit of  $\bar{a}n$ .

The examples of vrddhi claimed for Latin have a simple explanation, olexi: Plego may have been patterned on traxi: traho, or better still olexi is a contamination of a pf. legi and an aorist \*lexi. In the Lat. perfect the 'pure perfect' sense was contributed, say, by the aorist lexi, which is the true perfect, so far as one exists, in Sanskrit, and the 'aorist' sense was contributed by the perf. legi. The knotive for contamination was the use of aorist and perfect side by side in narration.

O. Blg. aor. rĕχũ: rcka, 'speak,' may have been an analogy from proto-Baltic \*bada > boda: \*bāsū > basū. The opt. to reka is rīci <\*repqis; an opt. žīri <žrrois beside an aor. žρĕχũ would have led to an aor. rĕχũ, and the couplet reka, rĕχũ would lead to nesa: nĕsū.</li>

This discussion concludes with some remarks on the accent of the I.-E. perf. 1st and 3d sg. Out of babhája 1st sg.: babhája 3d sg. of the \$\frac{1}{4}\$ series, Sk. riréca 1st sg. is interpreted as \*riréica, riréca 3d sg. as \*riroica. Primeval accent conditions were doubtless \*(r')reícm 1st sg., \*ríroice 3d sg. In Grk. and Sk. the reduplicating syllable was felt to make the temporal distinction and was generalized, and so was the deflected grade extended from the 3d person throughout the singular. But in véda: \$\inc \text{coto} a \text{which had reached a present signification in the primeval speech the 1st pers. affected the 3d in regard of reduplication.

3.  $\pi \epsilon \rho \theta \omega$ , 'sack,' 'destroy,' 'kill': perdo, 'destroy': Sk.  $\forall$  spṛdh, 'strive in rivalry,' 'contend,' 'fight.'

The phonetic agreement in these words is perfect, once we recognize the group  $\frac{p_0}{sp_0}$ .

Sk. loc. plur. pṛtsu < pṛdh+su, 'in battles,' spṛdhi, 'in battle,' spṛdhás, 'enemies,' etc. Out of pṛtsú an Aryan V pṛt was won, seen in Sk. pṛtanā, 'battle,' Zend, V parəţ, 1) 'fight,' 2) 'hasten on,' which senses both derive from a fundamental 'contend in rivalry' (— battle or racing).

Sk. vi + √bhr, 'move to and fro,' 'brandish,' vi-bro, 1) 'shake,' 'brandish,'
 intrans. 'quiver,' 'tremble.'

The phonetics of the old connection of vibro with Sk.  $\forall$  vip, 'tremble,' is faulty. °brā- (in vibrare): fero:: $\tau\lambda\hat{a}:\tau\ell\lambda\omega$ . Lat. frequentatives all follow the ist cong.; all others to be sure on supine stems.

5. vi-nc-io: necto, 'bind'; perf. nexi, in composition vinxi, cf. reppuli <\*repepuli, surpui <\*sábrapui. The force of vi in composition is comparable to Eng. 'up' in 'tie up.' Sk. vi in vi-sanj, 'hang up,' 'suspend': sanj, 'hang,' is not very different. vincio, vincit are formed from vinxi as specio: spexi.

- 6. vivo: vic-si, victus. Eng. 'quick' shows the guttural also; Sk. jagát, 'living creature;' Grk. γlγαs, 'giant' (cf. Hom. μακρὰ βιβάs) are redupl. pres. ptcs.: I.-E. √gem., i.e. ge(?)gnnt. In Lat. a similar pr. ptc. would have given vivent. On the basis of the ptc. \*ge(?)gnt in early Latin a verb system was worked out with aor. \*ge(?)g+si > vig+si > vicsi. vivent-, 'moving,' 'living,' was contaminated with vivent, 'living' < I.-E. \*giv-nt.
- O. E. cwicu is a contaminated form out of \*cwiwu = Goth. qius, Lat. vivus, and \*cwicun\delta < I.-E. ge(?)gnt.
- 7. mīlia, 'one thousand':  $\chi t \lambda \iota a$ , 'a thousand': sa-hásr-am, 'one thousand;' mīlia  $< \min < \sup_{n} (h)$ flia  $< \sup_{n} t_n = \infty$

The two last etymologies have been printed in full in Am. Jr. Phil., xiii, p. 226 fg.; cf. also xiii, no. 52.

Remarks were made by Dr. Hermann Collitz.

9. The Origin and Later History of the Clause of Purpose in Latin, Greek, and Sanskrit, by Professor William Gardner Hale, of the University of Chicago.

Weber, dealing (Entwickelungsgeschichte der Absichtssaetse) with the purposeclauses with  $\omega_s$ , thinks that he sufficiently accounts for the frequent presence of  $\delta_{\nu}$ or  $\kappa_e$  by reminding us that  $\omega_s$  is the near relative of  $\delta_s$ , and that the  $\delta_s$ -clause of purpose takes  $\delta_{\nu}$  or  $\kappa_e$ . The explanation would suffice, if the phenomenon referred to were itself explained.

Delbrueck (Synt. Forsch. I.) regards the future force of the subjunctive as having been developed out of an earlier force in which it expressed the will of the speaker, the change being brought about through a fading away of the sharpness of the volitive feeling. The presence of dr or ne marks a given example as being future, not volitive. This canon he applies rigorously in the independent sentence; but when he comes to the relative clause of purpose, expressed regularly by dv or ke with the subjunctive, he treats it as a volitive construction, and accounts for the apparent anomaly on the ground that the force of the will is weakened in the dependent clause. But this is precisely the reason given before, in the independent sentence, for the passage of the volitive subjunctive into the subjunctive of futurity. His own doctrine, then, if fully carried out, should lead him to regard the mode in the Homeric relative clause of purpose as the subjunctive of futurity. Explained in this way, too, the clause would be brought into close relation to the Attic clause of purpose, which would then simply represent a slight step forward in the same direction of development; whereas on Delbrueck's theory a gulf is left between the two.

The mechanism of this anticipatory clause of purpose (as the clause with the subjunctive of futurity may be called) is a simple one. The main act is so chosen as to set in motion the subordinate act, which, under these circumstances, is counted upon (predicted). The result is a clear expression of adaptation of means to ends, as in the English sentence, "I will send you a plumber who will mend your pipes."

We pass now to our main question: What, so far as the evidence of Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin indicates, are the probabilities in regard to the original purpose-clause in the parent language?

The mode was presumably subjunctive, not indicative, for only Greek shows the future indicative as a regular construction in true purpose-clauses, — not Sanskrit or Latin, — and that, too, only in clauses with the relative pronoun.

Which subjunctive was this, the volitive or the anticipatory?

In Greek, the facts for the simple clause of purpose are as follows: The relative pronoun takes in Homer, with possibly one exception, the anticipatory subjunctive. Of the conjunctions,  $\delta\phi\rho\alpha$  takes the pure subjunctive (the subjunctive without  $\delta\nu$  or  $\kappa\epsilon$ ) that is, presumably, the volitive, in 171 out of 183 cases;  $\delta\nu\alpha$ , the pure subjunctive, in 93 cases out of 94; on the other hand,  $\omega$ 's has  $\delta\nu$  or  $\kappa\epsilon$  in 29 cases, the pure subjunctive in 12;  $\delta\pi\omega$ s occurs but once, and there pure (Weber, Entwickelungsgeschichte, Goodwin, Moods and Tenses, App. 111.).

It will be seen that the great majority of these purpose-clauses with conjunctions in Homer are introduced by  $\delta\phi\rho\alpha$  and  $\delta\tau\alpha$ . This makes it appear probable that the clauses with  $\omega$ s and  $\delta\tau\omega$ s were of later origin. Further, in the presumably earlier type, 264 cases out of 277 are without  $\delta\tau$  or  $\kappa\epsilon$ . The original mode of the clause of purpose with conjunctions in Greek would seem, then, to have been the volitive subjunctive, not the anticipatory.

What was the case with the clause of purpose introduced by the relative promoun? It is unlikely that clauses of purpose with the relative pronoun and clauses of purpose with the relative conjunction took from the beginning different constructions. It is more probable that they began at the same point, and that the one afterwards experienced a development which the other shared but slightly. Did they begin together as volitive constructions, or did they begin together as anticipatory constructions?

We have already inferred that the clause with conjunctions was originally volitive. The same is therefore to be inferred for the relative. Further than this, looking at the general drift of things in Greek once more, one sees clearly enough that it is a current moving from the anticipatory constructions toward the future indicative constructions (cf. the Homeric subjunctive with  $d\nu$  in relative purpose-clauses with the Attic future indicative; the Homeric subjunctive with  $d\nu$  in  $d\nu$  in volume after the voltage after verbs of planning with the Attic future indicative). The only place left in which to place the volitive construction in an historical scheme is therefore back of the anticipatory construction. We come again, then, to the probability that the volitive was the original construction in Greek. These considerations would make it likely also that the subjunctive clause in Sanskrit, which rarely gives any hint of an anticipatory force by passing over into the future indicative, is likewise volitive, and not anticipatory.

In Latin, the so-called subjunctive is a conglomerate form, now subjunctive, now optative. Is the mode in the construction of purpose a true subjunctive or an optative?

The potential optative would yield a clause of purpose corresponding closely to the English purpose-clause "which . . . may," "in order that . . . may." Such a potential clause of purpose does, to be sure, occur in Homer; but it is very rare (ws ke three times after primary tenses, w's dr twice). The simple relative—

the relative pronoun—likewise rarely (as in A 64) has the potential optative after a primary tense. Apparently, then, the optative construction is not an original one, but a variation on Greek soil. It is significant, too, that it occurs only with the particles which we regarded above as belonging to the later set of purpose-clauses, and with the relative clause, which likewise has already reached in Homer an unoriginal stage.

The potential being thus so very rare in Greek, it is probable that the Latin clause is either wholly, or at least almost wholly, of volitive origin and feeling. The sum total of the evidence, then, is that the mode of the clause of purpose in the parent speech, so far as we may generalize from Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin, was the volitive subjunctive.

This paper, which was discussed by Professor Gildersleeve, and in reply by Professor Hale, will appear in full in the *Classical Studies* of the University of Chicago.

10. The Equivalence of Metrical Feet, by Professor M. W. Humphreys, of the University of Virginia.

This paper is printed in full in the Transactions. Remarks were made by Professors Sproull, C. F. Smith, Hale, and R. E. Blackwell, and Drs. Scott, C. W. E. Miller, and Fay.

11. Note on the date of British Museum Papyrus, No. CXXXI ('Αθηναίων Πολιτεία), by Prof. J. H. Wright, of Harvard University.

Hitherto the date at which the MS. of the recently discovered Constitution of Athens was probably transcribed has been placed "at the end of the first century of our era or, at latest, the beginning of the second" (Kenyon). The writer aimed to give a reason for a date near 79 A.D., when the bailiff's accounts, which cover the recto, were written. He urged that these accounts had not lost their value at the time the transcript was made, and adduced two arguments in support of this supposition. (1) At the end of the first roll (verso), as originally written, stands a column and half of foreign matter (part of a commentary on Demosthenes's Midiana); the beginning of the accounts, with dates, etc., stands on the recto at this point. If the accounts had lost their value, this part of the papyrus, the writing upon which breaks the continuity of the Holitela, would undoubtedly have been cut off. (2) When the transcript of the Hoditela reached this part of the roll, a wide strip of papyrus was thereupon attached to the roll at this point; on it the broad Col. 12 was written. Now the under side of this affixed strip is blank, and is so placed that when the part of the Hoditela containing the first twelve columns is rolled up (i.e. the first roll) with the Holitela inside, it completely protects the outside, on which the accounts stand, from rubbing or other injury. This precaution would hardly have been taken if the accounts had lost their value. These considerations make a presumption in favor of a date near 79 A.D., rather than one in the second century, though they by no means establish the fact.

### AFTERNOON SESSION.

The Association was called to order at 3.30 P.M.

Professor J. H. Wright, on behalf of the Auditing Committee, reported that the Committee had examined the accounts of the Treasurer, compared them with the vouchers, and found them Correct. The Treasurer's report was according accepted, and placed On file.

The reading of papers was then resumed.

12. The Limitation of the Imperative in the Attic Orators, by Dr. C. W. E. Miller, of Johns Hopkins University.

An examination of the use of the imperative in the Attic orators, that was undertaken to ascertain the Greek feeling of the imperative, showed that the harsh tone attributed to the imperative by Hermogenes<sup>2</sup> gave rise to certain limitations as to the use of this mood. In the discussion of these limitations, the following order has been found convenient:—

- I. Limitations as to number and kind.
  - a. No. of imperatives in entire body of orators. Substitutes. Omission of imperative. Imperatives addressed to jury. Kinds of imperative. Mollifiers. Recurrence of same verb. Cumulation of imperative.
  - b. Variations in the different departments of Greek oratory.
  - c. Variations in authors.
  - d. Variations in individual speeches.
- II. As to form. Voice. Person, Positive and Negative. Tense.
- III. As to position.
  - a. Procemium.
  - b. Body of speech and epilogue.

I.

There are 2445 imperatives on the 2284 solid Teubner prose pages that remain of the Attic orators after deducting the fragments, the letters, all of Hyperides, and the Demosthenean collection of procemia.<sup>8</sup> Now while 2445 is a large num-

<sup>1</sup> This paper has been printed in full in the American Journal of Philology, XIII, p. 399 ff.

<sup>\*</sup> Spengel, Rh. Gr. II, p. 300, or Walz, III, p. 237: σχήματα δὲ τραχέα μάλιστα μὲν τὰ προστακτικά οἶον τῆς 'Αριστογείτονος κρίσεως ἀναμνησθέντες ἐγκαλύψασθε...κῶλα δὲ τραχέα τὰ βραχύτερα (hence also imperative forms) καὶ ἃ μηδὲ κῶλα, κόμματα δὲ καλεῖν ἄμεινον.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Of course  $\mu \dot{\eta}$  with the aor. subj. is included in this count, and interjectional  $\phi \epsilon \rho \epsilon$  is excluded from it. It may also be well to state that all doubtful imperatives as well as all such as are found in quotations, in laws, and in bracketed portions of the text, have been excluded from the count, and in ascertaining the number of the pages, one-half line or over has been counted as one full line, and less than one-half line, and all laws, and all bracketed portions of the text, have been rejected.

ber, the bulk of the orators is likewise large, and about one imperative per page 1 does not after all seem an inordinately large proportion.

But to appreciate more thoroughly the limitation as to number, it must be borne in mind that the imperative might have been used much more frequently. For we find in the orators scores of instances of substitutes for the imperative, each instance representing the avoidance of an imperative and bringing about a diminution in the number of occurrences. It is true, the object sought to be attained by the use of the substitute is the same as in the case of the imperative, but the appearance of wishing to lord it over one (ἐπιτάττειν) is removed and an appeal is made to the person, either directly or indirectly, from the point of view of mercy, kindness, justice, fairness, propriety, utility, moral obligation, absolute necessity, etc. The following are some of the actually occurring substitutes: δέομαι ὑμῶν, δεῖ, χρή, άξιος and δίκαιος used personally, ὁφείλω, προσήκει, είκος, αἰτοῦμαι, ἀξιῶ, ἄξιον, δίκαιον, συμφέρει, αἰσχρόν w. inf.: εἰκότως, δικαίως ἀν w. opt.; ἐάν with subjunctive or εἰ with optative; the verbal in -τέον and ἔργον with the genitive or the possessive pronoun followed by the infinitive.

To an entirely different sphere belong the us of the so-called imperative question and the imperative use of  $\delta\pi\omega$ s with the tuture indicative. These are not mollifying substitutes for the imperative.  $\delta\pi\omega$ s with the future indicative is undoubtedly colloquial, as the statistics given by Weber, Entwickelungsgeschichte der Absichtssätze, II, p. 123, plainly show, and it has no extended use in oratory. The imperative question, on the other hand, is used with some degree of freedom, but only by the later Attic orators, especially Dinarchus. Its tone varies all the way from mild astonishment to utter impatience and intense disgust, though Hermogenes, Walz, III, p. 237, who is probably not thinking of any but the harshest uses of this question, considers it second only to the imperative in degree of harshness. For the statistics of its use in the orators, see A. J. P. XIII, p. 404.

It was shown above that the number of the imperatives in the orators was considerably reduced by the use of mollifying substitutes, and from this fact alone it would appear highly probable that in many cases the imperative was simply omitted without being replaced by a substitute. But that such was the case is proved conclusively by the limitations as to the use of the actually occurring imperatives, as described in the following pages.

Before, however, passing on to the consideration of these limitations, it will be necessary, first of all, to distinguish between the imperatives addressed to the clerk of the court, the witnesses, the adversary, etc., and the imperatives addressed to the jury, etc. It is perfectly evident that the imperatives addressed to the clerk of the court, etc., do not enter prominently into the discussion. The clerk is the servant of the court, and there can be no harshness in addressing him in the imperative. So, likewise, an  $d\nu d\beta \eta \theta \iota$  or  $d\nu d\beta \eta \tau e$  addressed to the witness or witnesses is unobjectionable, and the same may be said of the imperatives directed to the adversary, for the adversary seems to have been a perfectly legitimate object upon which to vent one's wrath. Not so with the person or persons to whom the oration is addressed. It is they, above all, whose feelings must be consulted, and so it is only the imperatives addressed to them that are of primary

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> A comparison with Homer shows that in the first six books of the Iliad the number of imperatives is relatively about twice as great as in the orators.

importance in this discussion. Now of these imperatives, which, for the sake of convenience, have here been styled effective imperatives, there are only 1311.

In judging of the significance of this number, we must first of all bear in mind that not all imperatives are of the same degree of harshness. It may be read in every grammar that the imperative may be used to express a command, an exhortation, or an entreaty. Examples of the harshest of these classes are not found among the effective imperatives. Of the hortative, symbouleutic, and paraenetic imperatives, which constitute the second of the above-mentioned classes, we shall speak below. Suffice it for the present to say that the greater number of the effective imperatives in the orators belong to this class and that they vary in harshness according to the circumstances of the case. But a large number of the imperatives belong to the class of entreaty. When the imperative is used in an entreaty, it has, of course, lost almost all harshness of tone. Moreover, two or more of such imperatives are frequently used together, and even these are generally accompanied by some mollifying expression, so that the short, harsh colon that is characteristic of the imperative is avoided.

Though the tone of the delivery would as a general rule be sufficient to indicate the tone of the imperative, yet for fear that a mistake might be made as to the true tone of the imperative, such strong mollifying expressions as  $\delta \epsilon o \mu a \iota_{\iota} l \kappa \epsilon \tau e i \omega$ ,  $\delta \kappa \tau \iota \beta o \lambda \omega$ , or a combination of these words, are sometimes used, not to say anything of the frequent use of the phrase  $\delta \delta \kappa \delta \rho e s^2 \lambda \delta \rho \tau a \delta o s$ , which in connection with the imperative, has a certain mollifying effect upon the tone of the imperative. These mollifying expressions are not restricted to any of the common forms of the imperative, but they occur with the aorist and present, positive and negative. For examples, see A. J. P., l.c., p. 406.

Another point that is to be noted in this connection is the frequency with which many of the imperative forms are repeated. Constant recurrence would have a tendency to blunt the feeling of harshness on the part of the hearer. Especially noteworthy in this respect is the group of imperatives of the verbs  $\sigma \kappa \sigma \pi \epsilon \hat{\imath} \nu$ ,  $\sigma \kappa \epsilon \psi \alpha \sigma \theta \alpha \iota$ ,  $\epsilon \nu \theta \nu \mu \epsilon \hat{\imath} \sigma \theta \alpha \iota$ , and  $\lambda \sigma \gamma \ell \xi \epsilon \sigma \theta \alpha \iota$ . If we add to these weakest of hortative imperatives such closely related words as the imperatives of  $\theta \epsilon \omega \rho \epsilon \hat{\imath} \nu$ ,  $\theta \epsilon \hat{\alpha} \sigma \theta \alpha \iota$ ,  $\delta \rho \hat{\alpha} \nu$ ,  $\tau \nu \mu \ell \xi \epsilon \nu$ ,  $\delta \ell \epsilon \sigma \theta \alpha \iota$ ,  $\delta \gamma \gamma \epsilon \hat{\imath} \sigma \theta \alpha \iota$ , and a few others, we have disposed of about one-half of all the effective imperatives.

Before going on to the discussion of the variations in the use of the imperative in the different departments of Greek oratory, let us notice briefly two of its uses that seem to be a deliberate seeking after the imperative rather than an avoidance of it. The first use is the repetition of the same imperative by anadiplosis. The use of the imperative by anadiplosis would be governed by the general laws of anadiplosis. The tone is that of great excitement, extreme passion, or deep pathos. Hence there is little occasion for this use of the imperative in the orators. For the examples, see A. J. P., l.c., p. 407.

Essentially different is the repetition of  $\lambda \acute{\epsilon} \gamma \epsilon$  in such passages as Dem. 18, 37 δτι δ' οὖτω ταὖτ' ἔχει,  $\lambda \acute{\epsilon} \gamma \epsilon$  μοι τό τε τοῦ Καλλισθένους ψήφισμα καὶ τὴν ἐπιστολὴν τοῦ Φιλίππου ἔξ ὧν ἀμφοτέρων ἄπαντ' ἔσται φανερά.  $\lambda \acute{\epsilon} \gamma \epsilon$ . In this and similar cases the order to state the decree, law, etc., is issued to the clerk, but instead of allowing him to act in obedience to the order at once, the speaker goes on talking at greater or less length. Meanwhile the clerk is naturally waiting for the signal to start, which is eventually given by the  $\lambda \acute{\epsilon} \gamma \epsilon$ . Examples of this anaphoric

use of  $\lambda \ell \gamma e$  are common enough in Demosthenes, but none have been noted in the other orators, excepting Aeschines 2, 61, where  $\lambda \ell \gamma e$  resumes a preceding  $\pi \alpha \rho \alpha r \ell \gamma r \omega \theta \iota$ , and Din. 1, 52, where  $\lambda \ell \gamma e$  resumes  $\lambda \alpha \beta \ell$ . It must, however, be borne in mind that in the earliest five Attic orators, there is only a trace of the imperative form  $\lambda \ell \gamma e$ . There is a similar, but less common, anaphoric use of  $\ell r \ell \gamma r \omega \theta \iota$  and of  $\ell r \alpha \gamma \ell \gamma r \omega \alpha \kappa e$ , and this is not confined to Demosthenes. But here a future more commonly precedes, as in Isae. 3, 53  $\ell r \alpha \gamma r \omega \theta \iota m \alpha r \alpha \gamma \ell \gamma r \omega \alpha \kappa e$ ; less commonly the imperative, as in Isae. 3, 15  $\ell r \alpha \gamma r \omega \theta \iota m \alpha r \alpha \gamma \ell \gamma r \omega \alpha \kappa e$ . For further examples of the uses treated of in this section, see A. J. P., l.c., p. 408.

## b. Variations in the Departments.

Of the three great departments of Greek oratory, the epideictic is represented chiefly by Isocrates. On purely epideictic soil there is but little room for the imperative. The Greek eulogy, or its counterpart, the invective, usually remains true to its name. While there was every temptation for exhortation or for administering a bit of friendly advice, yet the narration of glorious deeds, the recounting of excellent qualities, formed the principal object of the encomium, and the paraenetic part, if not entirely wanting, receives but little space, the advice being given in an indirect way.

But the epideictic speech may be paraenetic or symbouleutic, and in such cases we may be at a loss as to how to classify. So the first eight speeches of Isocrates have all of them an epideictic stamp, and yet they are plainly paraenetic and symbouleutic. So the eparaes of Ps.-Dem. is largely paraenetic. We of course expect to find imperatives in a speech the main object of which is to give advice—a small number if the advice is given on one or two points only, a large number if a line of conduct is to be laid down. Accordingly, we find a very large number of imperatives in the first three speeches of Isocrates. But Isocrates even here betrays his gentlemanly spirit, his good judgment, and his refined taste for elegant expression by many a skilful evasion of an otherwise legitimate imperative.

For a study of the imperative in the purely symbouleutic speeches, Demosthenes is about the only orator to whom we can turn. The imperative, as we have seen in the previous section, has a perfectly legitimate place in the symbouleutic speech. The very name points to the imperative. But it must be remembered that public orators are really self-constituted advisers, and their own personal interest, as well as the public welfare, would make them desirous of having their advice meet with favor. So a certain amount of caution must be exercised as to the way in which the advice is offered, and, as a matter of fact, there are only 44 imperatives addressed to the jury, in every 100 pages of this kind of Demosthenean speech.

The third great class, that of the  $\lambda\delta\gamma$ 01 δικανικοί, remains. Here we must again divide into two classes, the public and the private. In the private orations the number of imperatives is very much below the average for all the orators, whereas in the public speeches the number is almost as much above. In the latter class the avowed interest of the speaker in the public welfare made the imperative excusable, and frequently the length of the speech gave ample time for gradually working upon the feelings of the audience, and when their passion was fully aroused, the orator might give vent to his. Cf. Cic. Orat. § 26 on Dem. 18. For a table showing in detail the variations in the use of the imperative in the different departments, see A. J. P., l.c., p. 409.

### c. VARIATIONS IN THE AUTHORS.

It is only after the above study of the relative frequency of the imperative in the different departments that we can thoroughly understand the figures for the different authors. Of course, other things, as for instance the average length of the orations, must also be taken into consideration, notably in the case of Lysias, but the department always remains a matter of paramount importance. To select two or three striking examples, Lysias is surpassed by only Aeschines and Dinarchus in the percentage of effective imperatives, but the vast bulk of Lysias consists of public judicial speeches, and in this department Lysias' figures are as low as those of Demosthenes. Isaeus' percentage, on the other hand, is lower than that of any other orator, and this is accounted for chiefly by the fact that all his speeches are private and of the class called κληρικοί. Lastly, nothing else than the large number of imperatives in the paraenetic speeches will explain Isocrates' 53 imperatives per 100 pages - a percentage that is the same as that of Lycurgus, and Lycurgus surely was not afraid of the imperative. The number of the imperatives in the epideictic and in the symbouleutic speeches of Isocrates is a minimum, and in the case of the private judicial speeches Isocrates uses fewer imperatives than any of the other orators. A table showing the variations for all the orators is given A. J. P., l.c., p. 413.

### d. VARIATIONS IN INDIVIDUAL SPEECHES.

The variations in the number of the imperatives of the individual speeches of the same author, or of the same department, depend on a variety of circumstances, and no definite rules can be laid down. In general it may be said that timidity is unfavorable to the use of the imperative, and so we might expect to find more imperatives used by the accuser than by the defendant. Furthermore, calmness is hardly compatible with the extensive use of the imperative, but a passionate or a pathetic speech would naturally abound in imperatives. Moreover, an awkward and inexperienced speaker might in his naīvetė use imperatives where a more experienced and clever speaker would avoid them; and, lastly, a short speech would in proportion contain more imperatives than a long one of the same kind. A table giving the lengths and the number of imperatives per 100 pages of all the orations of the Attic orators, excluding Hyperides, may be found A. J. P., l.c., p. 415.

11.

In the treatment of the limitation of the imperative in regard to form, very little need be said about voice and person. The imperative passive occurs but rarely, and then chiefly in the third person. There are only two or three instances of real passives of the second plural addressed to the judges.

As far as person is concerned, it is to be remarked that there are only 237 instances of the third person, and of these only a small number refer to the jury. In regard to the tone of imperatives of the third person, it would probably be safe to say that while, as a rule, such imperatives, because less direct, are less harsh than those of the second person, yet they were not used as mollifying substitutes.

Of very much greater importance is the question of the tone of the negative. The whole number of imperatives in the orators, as pointed out above, is 2445.

Of these the number of negatives is about 384, or a little less than 16 per cent. Of the effective imperatives, the number of negatives is 21 per cent. That this small proportion of prohibitions is not due to any greater inherent harshness of the negative command as compared with the positive, but simply to the fact that there was no occasion to use the negative more frequently, would appear from the use of the negative imperative in other authors (see A. J. P., l.c., p. 416 f.) and from the following considerations. 1 To the Greek mind there seems to have been no difference between command and prohibition. "τὸ γὰρ κελεῦσαι," says Protagoras, according to Aristotle, Poet., § 19, "ποιείν τι η μη επίταξις έστιν." In the same way, there is no difference to our mind. Whatever distinction is made is a logical one, and not one of tone. A positive imperative may, according to circumstances, be more harsh or less harsh than a negative imperative. To measure the effect of an imperative, three things must be taken into consideration, - the person who issues the command, the person to whom the command is directed, and the thing commanded. In the case of the person commanding, the most important item is the spirit that prompted the use of the imperative. If the tone was an imperious one, the imperative, whether positive or negative, meant that the command was to be executed simply because the master (would-be or real) so ordered it, and, as far as the person using it is concerned, is a harsh imperative. If the tone is simply hortative, the imperative is less harsh, and if suppliant entreaty characterizes the imperative, all harshness must be lost, so far as the speaker is concerned. In the case of the person to whom the command is issued, the most important point is again the spirit with which he receives the command. If his be a mind that will endure no imposition, if he be self-willed or of a rebellious spirit, or if he be a brute annoyed by even the most pitiful entreaty, every form of the imperative will be harsh. Lastly, other things being equal, a thing that is easy to do will be less disagreeable, if commanded, than a thing that is hard to do. The above remarks may be summed up as follows: Other things being equal, the negative is not harsher than the positive, and other things being unequal, the negative may be harsher than the positive, or the positive harsher than the negative. As far as the harshness of the form, apart from its meaning, is concerned, it seems that the negative, because less short, would be less harsh than the positive.

Intimately connected with the consideration of the negative is that of the use of the tenses. The rule for prohibitions in Attic Greek is to use  $\mu\eta$  with the present imperative, or  $\mu\eta$  with the aorist subjunctive, though, exceptionally,  $\mu\eta$  with the third person of the aorist imperative is found. This at once leads to the question as to why this curious distinction is made in the construction of positive and negative. Various answers have been given, but Delbrück seems to be about the only one that has attacked the problem from the historical side, and his results have been generally adopted. Now the writer agrees with Delbrück, Syntakt. Forsch. IV, p. 120, in thinking that the origin of  $\mu\eta$  with the aorist subjunctive is historical and not psychological, but he differs with him as to the manner of accounting for it on this basis. For a fuller discussion of this question, see A. J. P., l.c., p. 418 ff. Only the barest outlines can be given here. In the first place, it is there shown that the aorist imperative is certainly as old as the present imperative and probably anterior to it, so that the explanation that  $\mu\eta$  had early found its way

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See, however, Professor Humphreys' article on Negative Commands in Greek, Trans. Am. Phil. Assoc., 1876, p. 46 ff.

into the present imperative and that in the absence of the aorist imperative, it had to be combined with the aorist subjunctive to satisfy the demand for an aorist form of prohibition, cannot stand. Secondly, it is shown that the Greek  $\mu\eta$  with the aorist subjunctive must be traced back to the use of må with the aorist injunctive; for in spite of the loss of all the other uses of the injunctive and the virtually complete disappearance of the subjunctive, classical Sanskrit retained its må with the aorist injunctive, whereas the Greek merged the injunctive and the subjunctive, and må with the agrist injunctive became  $\mu\eta$  with the agrist subjunctive. In the third place, the rareness of  $\mu\eta$  with the agrist imperative is explained by the fact that originally the imperative was confined to the expression of positive commands, - a point that is also used by Delbrück, l.c., to explain the matter under consideration, — while må was confined to the injunctive. But the use of må  $(\mu \eta)$  was gradually extended, and so this negation is found in conjunction with the imperative and in some other constructions. As for Greek, un acquired full sway over the present and the perfect imperative, but so tenacious of life was må with the aorist injunctive and so vigorous was its growth on Greek soil in the form of  $\mu\eta$  with the aorist subjunctive, that by the side of it,  $\mu\eta$  with the aorist imperative could lead but a miserable existence.

Though the above theory of the development of  $\mu\eta$  with the aorist subjunctive accounts for this construction on a historical basis, yet it does not in the least militate against the greater mildness of  $\mu\eta$  with the aorist subjunctive as compared with other forms of the imperative. The fact that  $\mu\eta$  with the aorist subjunctive is a subjunctive construction, and the fact that it is generally a longer form than the present or the aorist imperative, would make it by nature a milder form than those imperative forms. But how far this natural mildness asserted itself in the practical needs the construction had to meet, is another question.  $\mu\eta$  with the second person of the aorist imperative does not exist in the orators, and the few instances of  $\mu\eta$  with the third person of the aorist imperative may, perhaps, most of them, be regarded as attempts at a more forcible mode of expression; but as for the relative harshness of  $\mu\eta$  with the present imperative and  $\mu\eta$  with the aorist subjunctive, the views of good authorities are so divergent that there is ample excuse for not attempting to give the exact degree of difference of tone between these two forms.

The difference of tone between the present imperative positive and the aorist positive is likewise not subject to any general rule, but is rather a matter of special conditions. It is true, there can be no doubt that some aorist forms are more disagreeable in sound than some presents, and the aoristic notion might make the aorist in some cases a more vigorous imperative than the present. But, on the other hand, there are some presents of a more disagreeable sound than the corresponding aorists; the present may by its weight constitute a more vigorous imperative than the aorist; and the aorist seems to have been the favorite form in prayers. Attention has already been called to the fact that all the four imperative forms—to wit, the present imperative, positive and negative, the aorist imperative positive, and  $\mu \eta$  with the aorist subjunctive—are found as imperatives of entreaty, and are found so marked by the use of  $\delta \ell o \mu a u$  or some similar expression. The relations of the tenses in mass also do not seem to indicate any greater harshness of one form as compared with the other. For, in the orators, the rela-

<sup>1</sup> Cf. Gildersleeve, Justin Martyr, p. 137.

tive proportion of present and agrist is the same for positive and negative commands (the word command being used to include exhortations and entreaties), and this proportion holds good not only for the whole number of imperative forms, but also for the effective imperatives. For the statistics in detail, see A. J. P., l.c., p. 425 ff.

TIT.

In the discussion of the limitation of the position of the imperative in the speech, the procemium is the part of the oration that first comes up for consideration. The three great objects of the procemium are summed up in the short sentence έργον προοιμίου εύνοια πρόσεξιε εύμάθεια,1 and of these the securing of the good-will is justly put first. There may be cases in which the good-will of the auditors may be a matter of no serious moment to the speaker, but in the vast majority of the orations that have come down to us from classical antiquity, it formed a matter of considerable importance, and sometimes of vital importance, and it is needless to say that to the rhetorical artist it must ever be an object of concern to make a good impression at the outset. Hence, while τραχυτής may sometimes be a convenient means of producing \*pooretis, and while it may occasionally be a short road to εὐμάθεια, yet in general everything harsh must be avoided at the beginning of the speech. That this was the feeling of the ancient speech-writers themselves and not simply a speculation of the rhetoricians is clearly proved by Demosthenes. In the celebrated procemium of the de corona, the orator distinctly states that he wishes to say nothing harsh at the beginning of the speech - ου βούλομαι δυσχερές είπεῖν ουδέν άρχόμενος τοῦ λόγου are his words. If it be true, then, that, as a rule, a good procemium should be characterized by the absence of harshness, it would follow that theoretically, at least, the imperative ought, as a rule, to be excluded from the procemium. An investigation of the extant procemia of the Attic orators shows that the theory is borne out by the facts. For of the 209 prooemia 2 examined, only 35,8 or about 17 per cent., contain imperatives. The 174 prooemia that contain no imperatives abound in mollifying substitutes, thus showing that the absence of the imperative is not due to the fact that there was no occasion for its use, but to the fact that it was avoided on account of its harshness of tone and form. One of the more common substitutes is the expression δέομαι or αlτοῦμαι with the infinitive. As this is a substitute for the imperative of entreaty, the question at once arises as to why even the imperative of entreaty, the mildest kind of the imperative, should as a rule be excluded from the procemium.

The whole matter becomes clear by considering it from a psychological point of view. The imperative, as has been pointed out above, may be used to express all manner of desire from the most suppliant entreaty to the most tyrannical command, but it is evident that the imperative, as such, when not attended by a mollifying expression, or when the mental attitude of the person using it is not known, must be harsh. Hence the orator would display very little tact if he were to use even what was intended as a *mild* imperative, at the beginning of the speech, for the audience knows nothing as yet of the mental attitude of the speaker, and the speaker does not know how his hearers feel toward him. They

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Anon. in Sp., Rh. Gr. I, p. 32x. <sup>2</sup> See A. J. P., l.c., p. 427, for the details.

<sup>3</sup> Ibid. p. 429 ff.

may be perfectly disinterested or positively prejudiced against him, and it would be but an act of prudence on his part to assume that they would be unprepared for a form that was capable of such harsh interpretation. The case is of course different when the orator and the audience are well acquainted and a matter affecting the welfare of the hearers is to be discussed. A well-known patriot might on such an occasion indulge in an imperative in the prooemium without giving offence, but even here, if the urgency of the case did not demand it as in the military harangues of Demosthenes at Pylos (Thuc. 4, 10) and Brasidas at Amphipolis (Thuc. 5, 9), he would hardly be guilty of using it at the very beginning, and as a matter of fact, if the 35 exceptional procemia referred to above be examined in this respect, it will be found that only three speeches, viz. Isoc. 5, Dem. 23, and Ps.-Dem. 49, begin with an imperative or rather with a prohibitive. Of these three speeches, Isoc. 5 is in reality a long letter, and the prohibitive is not an uncommon beginning for letters. In Dem. 23 μηδεις υμών νομίση reflects the inexperience of the speaker Euthycles, and in Ps.-Dem. 49, as well as in the other two speeches, the first object is to remove the strong prejudice existing in the minds of the audience.

With reference to the theory of the imperative in the body of the speech and in the epilogue, a few remarks will suffice. By the exercise of good judgment at the beginning of the speech, the orator will have secured the attention and the goodwill of the audience. At this stage, an ἀκούσατε, or an ἐνθυμεῖσθε, or a similar imperative may be used without offence. A skilful narrative may win for the speaker the full sympathy of the hearers, and he may multiply his σκέψασθε's etc., and when in the course of his arguments he has shown the justice of his cause and has kindled the wrath of the jury, he may indulge in one or more vigorous hortative imperatives, urging the jury to mete out the deserved punishment, or his imperatives may assume the milder form of a pathetic appeal for either mercy or revenge.

It follows from what has been said in the previous section, that the imperatives of such verbs as ἐνθυμεῖσθαι, σκοπεῖν, σκέψασθαι, θεωρεῖν, etc., are used principally in the argumentative parts of the speech, and the more effective imperatives are used in exhortations and appeals. Appeals and exhortations may be scattered throughout a long speech, but the place for which they are specially adapted is the epilogue. Hence the epilogue is the proper home of the imperative. Of course, there is a great deal of variation even here, for examples of which see l.c., p. 433.

With reference to the point from which this whole discussion started — the Greek feeling of the imperative — it may not be amiss, at the close of the investigation, to consider briefly the Protagorean criticism of Homer, referred to by Aristotle, Poet. § 19. Unfortunately, a full account of the reasons that called forth this criticism is not given. All we know is that, according to Aristotle, l.c., Protagoras found fault with the uffire deide of the first verse of the Iliad, on the ground that while Homer was laboring under the impression that he was praying to the Muse, he was in reality issuing a command. Now two ways of accounting for this criticism have been suggested. According to such men as F. A. Wolf, Susemihl, Bernhardy, and Lersch, Protagoras had just discovered the fact that the form that is grammatically termed the imperative is the proper form to use when a command

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See A. J. P., l.c., p. 428.

is to be expressed, and that the optative of the grammars is the proper form to use for the expression of a wish, but had overlooked the fact that the imperative might also express an entreaty. According to the other view, which credits the distinguished sophist with a little more sense - for it is to be supposed that Protagoras knew enough Greek to be aware of the fact that the imperative may be used in entreaties - Protagoras' division of all speech into εύχωλή, έρώτησις, ἀπόκρισις, and έντολή, is not a grammatical division, and Homer is blamed simply for beginning with an imperative. This seems to be the view of Düntzer and Spengel. Now it may perhaps never be possible to ascertain the real facts of the case, but the second explanation, when viewed in the light of the rule of Greek oratory to exclude the imperative from the beginning of the speech, certainly comes nearer the truth. Protagoras was more or less of a rhetorician. Why not then, according to the view suggested by Professor Gildersleeve, A. J. P. XIII, p. 399 f., foot-note, give Protagoras the benefit of the doubt, and look upon his criticism as proceeding from an oratorical or a rhetorical point of view? This certainly is the most satisfactory solution of the problem, and until valid proofs to the contrary are offered, it may be safe to maintain that to the mind of Protagoras, the terms εὐχωλή and ἐντολή are not synonymous with the later technical terms εὐκτική and προστακτική. The εύχωλ, and the έντολή are determined by the sense, and not by the form. It is Homer's rhetoric that is criticised, not his grammar.

In conclusion, the results of our study of the limitation of the imperative in the Attic orators may be summed up as follows: It may be roughly said that there are three kinds of imperatives, — imperatives expressing a command, hortative imperatives, and imperatives of entreaty. Of these three classes, the first, owing to its unmitigated harshness, is not represented among the number of the effective imperatives, whilst the use of the imperatives of the second class and even of the third, which is almost free from harshness, is permitted only under certain restrictions.

So far as the use of the positive and the negative, and so far as the use of the tenses is concerned, the greater harshness, whether real or imaginary, of one form as compared with another, seems to have given rise to no rhetorical limitations. For, on the one hand, the small number of prohibitions is due to the lack of occasion to use these forms more frequently, and on the other hand, not only is the proportion of aorist and present the same for commands and prohibitions, but  $\mu\eta$  with the aorist subjunctive, which is by nature adapted for the expression of a mild imperative, occurs less frequently than  $\mu\eta$  with the present imperative. As for the origin of  $\mu\eta$  with the aorist subjunctive, the writer agrees with Delbrück in thinking that it is not psychological but historical, though he differs with him as to the manner of accounting for it on this basis. According to the writer's view, this peculiar prohibitive expression must be traced back to the use of må with the aorist injunctive.

Though there are no limitations as to the form of the imperative, the other limitations as to its use are all the more strongly marked. In the first place, the numbers of the imperative are considerably reduced by the use of mollifying substitutes, even the imperative of entreaty being frequently replaced by  $\delta \epsilon \omega \omega \omega$  with the infinitive or some similar expression. In the second place, the constant recurrence of imperative forms of the same verb, and the varying usage of the departments, and of the authors, and of the individual speeches, show that the

imperative, when used, is used largely under stress of circumstances, and even then it is frequently attended by some unmistakable mollifying expression. Lastly, the distribution of the imperative in the speech was made in strict accordance with the views of the ancients as to the functions of the different parts of the oration. For the humble tone of the prooemium is marked by the complete absence of the imperative, the calm reflection of the argumentative parts is pictured by the mild hortative forms  $\epsilon \nu \theta \nu \mu e i \sigma \theta e$ ,  $\sigma \kappa \sigma \pi e i \tau e$ , and the like, and the passion or the pathos of the epilogue is marked by the presence of one or more vigorous hortative imperatives or by the use of one or more imperatives of entreaty.\(^1\) In fine, the whole investigation would appear to be a complete vindication of the views of the ancient rhetoricians. It justifies the doctrine of Hermogenes as to the harsh tone of the imperative and makes Protagoras' well-known criticism of Homer at least comprehensible.

Remarks were made by Professors March, Hale, and Fay and Mr. Holmes, and by Dr. Miller in reply.

13. Semitic Words in Greek and Latin, by Dr. W. Muss-Arnolt, of Johns Hopkins University.

In the absence of the author this paper was read by title only. It is printed in full in the Transactions.

14. Modal and Temporal Significance in the Latin *Oratio Obliqua*, by Dr. R. S. Radford, of the University of Virginia.

The paper, of which no abstract has been furnished by its author, was discussed with considerable interest by Professors Hale, Humphreys, Ashmore, and Gildersleeve, and by the author in reply. Before the discussion was concluded, it was found that the hour for the excursion to Monticello had arrived. The Association thereupon adjourned, after receiving from the Local Committee an invitation to visit the University Observatory at 8.10 P.M.

### EVENING SESSION.

The Association was called to order at 8.30 P.M., and the discussion of Dr. Radford's paper was concluded.

15. The Limits of Asseverative Effect, by Dr. R. S. Radford, of the University of Virginia.

No abstract of this paper has been received.

<sup>1</sup> Cf. Walz, Rh. Gr. VII, 1, p. 33 έργον ρήτορος, ως φησι Θεοδέκτης, προσιμιάσασθαι πρός εθνοιαν, διηγήσασθαι πρός πιθανότητα, πιστώσασθαι πρός πειθώ, επιλογίσασθαι πρός δργήν ή έλεον.

16. The Recent Emergence of a Preterit-Present in English, by Charles P. G. Scott, Esq., of New York.

A preterit present is a verb in the preterit form, with a present meaning: a verb of which the past form, preterit or perfect, originally expressing a past act or state, has cum to express merely the present result, the developt consequence, of the past act or state. Such verbs hav a considerable range in Anglo-Saxon and the other old Teutonic tungs, a range much restricted in modern speech.

The Anglo-Saxon preterits present, cald by Professor March "praeteritive presents" (A. S. Gram. p. 212), with their modern forms, if surviving, ar—

I mag, MAY, 2 be-neah, 3 an, on, own, 4 can, CAN, 5 geman, 6 secal, SHALL, 7 dear, DARE, 8 pearf, 9 āh (āhte), OWE (OUGHT), 10 wāt, WOT, 11 dēak (dugan), DOW, DO\*, 12 mōt (mōste), MOTE (MUST). Typical examples showing the development of a present meaning out of a preterit meaning, ar ic mæg, 'I hav grown,' hence 'I am strong,' 'I hav power,' 'I can,' now with a permissiv or contingent implication, 'I MAY'; and ic wāt, 'I hav seen,' hence 'I know,' I wot; cognate with the Greek perfect olδa, folδa, 'I hav seen,' 'I know.'

The preterit present which has recently emerged in English is have got (in modern spelling hav got), or in certain connections simply got, a perfect or preterit form with the present sense 'hav.'

The genesis is as follows: Get, meaning originally 'seize,' 'grasp,' passes into the meaning 'strive to procure,' and hence 'procure,' 'acquire,' and finally cums to express any act of which the result is 'having'—an act which quiesces into the result possession: I hav gotten or I hav got, that is, 'I hav striven to procure, and hav procured, and therefore hav in my present possession.'

As the words are used in critical English the assertion or implication of effort is obvious:

"The wantynge somtyme of a worde is nat of so great importance, for it may soone be gotten." — 1530 PALSGRAVE, p. 868.

"Quhow I his Sone had gottin in to plege." — 1552 LYNDESAY, Tragedie (E. E. T. S.), l. 210.

"The Frenche souldiours... do not cracke nor aduaunce themselfes to haue very often gotte the vpper hand and maistry of your new made and vnpractised souldiours."—1556, ROBINSON, tr. More's Utopia (ed. Arber), p. 40.

"To till it is a toyle, to grase some honest gaine,
But such as gotten is with great hazard and paine."

1589 [PUTTENHAM], Arte of Eng. Poesie (ed. Arber), p. 215.

"Of all the ornaments of knightly name,
With which whylome he gotten had great fame."

1596 SPENSER, F. Q. v. 5. st. xx.

"The fourth part of the lands that were gotten." — 1598 FLORIO, s.v. Falcidia.

"That 3e haue gotten my groat full sair I rew." — 1602 LYNDESAY, Thrie Estaits (E. E. T. S.), l. 2254.

"But where shall wisdome be found? and where is the place of vnderstanding?... It cannot bee gotten for gold, neither shall siluer be weighed for the price thereof."—1611 BIBLE, Job xxviii, 12, 15.

"Wealth gotten [ital. in A.V.] by vanitie [Sept. and Vulg. in haste] shalbe diminished: but he that gathereth by labour, shall increase."—1611 BIBLE, Prov. xiii, 11.

[Cruden givs 20 examples of gotten in the Bible.]

"Iacke Cade hath gotten London-bridge."—1623 SHAKESPEARE, 2 Hen. VI. iv. 4. (F<sup>1</sup>, p. 140.)

"I . . . . .

With much adoo at length haue gotten leaue

To looke vpon my (sometimes Royall) masters face."

1623 SHAKESPEARE, Rich. II. v. 5. (F<sup>1</sup>, p. 54.)

[Gotten occurs three other times in Shakespeare.] And so innumerably unto the present day.

But in many instances the implication of effort recedes, and the notion of action without definit aim at the result attaind, becums prominent. Sir Gawaine, for example, 'gets' a wife, much against his wil; but she 'chances' to be satisfactory:

"Well, cozen Gawaine, sayes Sir Kay, Thy chance is fallen arright;

For thou hast gotten one of the fairest maids

I euer saw with my sight."

The Marriage of Sir Gawaine. (CHILD, Ballads, i. 38.)

"She that has borrow'd young Tamlane

Has gotten a stately groom."

The Young Tamlane. (CHILD, Ballads, i. 124.)

"Quhair haue we gottin this gudly compangeoun?" — 1602 LYNDESAY, Thrie Estaits (E. E. T. S.), l. 1930.

"'Come, come,' exclaimed Oldbuck, 'what is the meaning of all this? Have we got Hiren here?'"—1816 Scott, Antiquary, xix.

[This rests on a version of Shakespeare (2 Hen. IV. ii. 4) where the accepted reading is not, as in the first folio (p. 83).]

"'I hae just getten t'wit on't,' [I have just been] let into the secret or sense of the affair; informed." — 1855 Yorkshire Gloss., p. 197.

At length the implication of effort in *I hav got*, *I've got*, disappears entirely. It vanishes; not with the violence of Catiline (abiit, excessit, evasit, erupit, he made off, he lit out, he sloped, he made a break), but gently, like a snowflake in the river; and the phrase is then entirely present. Examples ar abundant in current speech: 'I've got a cold'—I didn't strive to get it. 'I've got a letter from Bluing asking me to look over the manuscript of his new poem'—I havn't been yerning for this privilege. 'I've got a bil from my tailor'—I used no urgency to get him to send it.

So a man "in politics" might say, "I've got the collectorship," meaning simply that the office, according to the good old rule, has sought the man—and found him accidentally in the vicinity, surprised but receptiv. So, too, a statesman who has been "prominently mentiond" (by others, of course) as a candidate for the presidency, might say (this is purely a supposition), "I've got the delegates," meaning simply 'I hav the delegates—they ar all, to my surprise, spontaneously

in my favor—their gentle and unforced accord sits smiling to my heart.' No striving, no effort, no uncommon anxiety, in all this. And then after several things hav happend, he might say, or at least perceiv, in the neuter sense of the verb, 'I've got left,' meaning 'I am left.'

Examples of this use ar common in the productions of the pedestrian muse:

"The browne girl she has got houses and lands,
And fair Elinor she has got none."
a 1723 Lord Thomas and Fair Ellinor. (CHILD, Ballads, ii. 121.)

The same sad case recurs in another ballad, where has and has got ar used as identical in meaning:

"The nut-browne bride haes gowd and gear,
Fair Annet she has gat nane."
a 1765 Lord Thomas and Fair Annet. (CHILD, Ballads, ii. 126.)

Here ar some contributions from the provincial muse:

"Owld Molly Sannell axed Molly Dafter to gie her a drap o' barm one day. "I ha'n't a got narn!' says she; 'bezides, I do want un mezelf to bake wi'.'"—
1847, The Genuine Remains of William Little, a Wiltshire Man. (HALLIWELL, p. xxxii.)

It is obvious, after this, why William should exist only in the form of "genuine remains."

North and South meet in the next two quotations:

"Wenever an Amerikin distinguished politishin Begins to try et wut they call definin' his posishin, Wal, I, fer one, feel sure he aint gut nothin' to define; It's so nine cases out o' ten, but jest that tenth is mine."

1848 LOWELL, Biglow Papers, No. IX, l. 37.

"I aint got time, Brer Fox, sez Brer Rabbit, sezee, sorter mendin' his licks."—1881 J. C. HARRIS, Uncle Remus, p. 20.

I suspect, however, that Brer Rabbit really said, "I aint got no time." He was not troubled with small scruples.

The absence of intention is obvious when we talk of 'getting' an illness:

"This is some Monster of the Isle, with foure legs; who hath got (as I take it) an Ague." — 1623 SHAKESPEARE, Tempest, ii. 2. 168. (F¹ p. 9.)

"Fie, th'art a churle, ye haue got a humour there,

Does not become a man, 'tis much too blame."

1623 SHAKESPEARE, Timon, i. 2. 26. (F¹ p. 81.)

I find a bad case of this sort reported in a letter sent by a veterinary surgeon to a young Oxonian who had commissiond him to look at a horse for sale:

"SIR: I have examined the horse. The interesting family of quadrupeds to which he belongs is liable to a great number of diseases and injuries, hereditary, climatic, accidental, and I have no hesitation in stating that he has got most of them. He would be a very precious acquisition, as an object-lesson, in our veterinary college, but I do not feel justified in commending him to you with a view to use or recreation."

1892 DEAN HOLE, Memorics.

-aivgoto bied kould. hauz væt >? : haudidyu getit \? -ouai gotitframmai sista; sijkatit sitinonva dæmp graas. -ai wisaikadget ridavit. — 1885 Sweet, Elementarbuch des gesprochenen Englisch, p. 13.

This is the way Dr. Sweet elementarily instructs the Germans in the pronunciation of English. 'I've got a bad cold. How's that? How did you get it? Oh, I got it from my sister; she caught it sitting on the damp grass. I wish I could get rid of it.' Of course a cold that sits on the damp grass can easily be caught, even by a girl, if it be approacht quietly in the rear.

A very clear example of this effortless hav got appears in the famous British song which has given the name of "the Jingo party" to the advocates of a "spirited foreign policy."

"We don't want to fight, but, by Jingo! if we do,
We've got the ships, we've got the men, we've got the money, too!"

Surely the singers of this lyric did not take the precaution to procure and equip the ships, enlist the men, and raise the money, before they thus burst into song. No; they sang in the preterit present.

The guardian of the public peace at the Hudson River Railroad station in New York, in the evening of June 29, 1892, addrest the gentleman in charge of the Bureau of Information and Packages as follows: "Say, Bill, you aint got none of them books?" This interrogativ assertion is sumwhat defectiv in grammar, but we can clearly discern in it a preterit present in good working order. Aint is practically a mere negativ, and got a simple present of possession.

Hav, when followed not by an object-noun, but by an infinitiv with to, and expressing obligation or necessity, 'I hav to go,' is often turnd in colloquial English into hav got, and is then open to the same preterit present construction: 'I hav got to go,' 'I hav got to return to-night.'

"An' you 've gut to git up airly Ef you want to take in God."

1846 LOWELL, Biglow Papers, No. I, l. 39.

"In dis worril, lots er fokes is gotter [has (i.e. have) got to] suffer for udder fokes sins." — 1881 J. C. HARRIS, Uncle Remus, p. 80.

"Wait! Gimme room! . . . You gotter gimme room, and you gotter gimme time."

1881 Id. p. 143.

So with neuter uses of get. 'I've got tired,' 'I hav becum tired,' 'I am tired.' A man may say, 'I've got wel,' and be wel, without referring to, and indeed in spite of, his trying to 'get wel' by pouring bottle-stuff into his "system."

But this form hav got, with the auxiliary hav, tho that be reduced to its last consonant 'v (I've got), is not strictly a preterit present in form. It is a perfect present. There is a stil lower form, I got, reduced from I've got, and, mixt with the true preterit, I got, used in colloquial speech as a preterit present.

A man, a colloquial man, wil say to his children on his return in the evening, "I stopt at Guyler's, and got you sum candy." "Where is it?" cry the children. "I got it here," he says, taking the package from his overcoat pocket. This may not be good grammar, or good hygiene, either; but I take the facts as I find them, grammar, candy, and all. The second got may be considered a fusion of the reduced I've got, I' got, with the simple preterit I got.

So in questions. A boy wil say, "Billy, you got my ball?" This is reduced from "Billy, hav you got my ball?" the correct interrogation being of course "William, hav you my ball?"

A man on a train wil ask a newsboy, "Got a Herald?" Of course any man capable of buying the Herald to read wil also be liberal in his notions of grammar. "But Brer Wolf, he got mighty long head, and he sorter broach 'bout Brer Rabbit's kyar'ns on, kaze de way dat Brer Rabbit 'ceive Brer Fox done got to be de talk er de naberhood."—1881, J. C. HARRIS, Uncle Kemus, p. 58.

Here got, originally preterit or perfect, is present, and broach is preterit; done got is pluperfect.

The case here presented is slight in itself, and to sum may seem hardly worth the serious treatment I hav given it. But to the philologist every manifestation of human speech is of interest. No speech is utterd, even on a political platform, in a free silver convention, or in a Browning Club, without sum action of the human mind; and the human mind is the most interesting thing in the world.

The phenomenon I hav treated is a genuin growth of nature, and has a special interest as serving, with many other proofs that could be adduced, to show that the English language has not yet past, as many seem to think, out of its "formativ period." It is not merely in the mechanical putting together of new terms from the plunder of the Latin and Greek lexicons, in the boa-like bolting of foreign terms, that the English language manifests life. In spite of the enormous load of its vocabulary, largely accretion without growth; in spite of the merciless leveling and harrowing it has undergon for thirty generations of men; in spite of the strong bonds of correctness and conventionality which grammatical and literary censors hav forged around it, the English language stil contains within itself a spirit of invincible growth.

And this leads to an important etymological conclusion. No one who has ranged wide in the domain of English etymology can fail to hav noticed the great number of isolated words, which taken singly, refuse to yield any intelligible account of their origin. They cannot be laid at the door of Anglo-Saxon, or of Dutch, or of Scandinavian, or of Latin, or of Greek, or even at that last resort of desperate etymologists, the door of the Celtic tungs. The best that can be said, by conservativ etymologists, is "origin unknown," or "origin obscure"; and for many of them, I fear, that wil remain the sum of human knowledge til the very horn of doom. But take these words together, consider them as a class, see beneath their diversity of form and meaning the evidences of their growth in the same luxuriant soil of English colloquial and provincial speech, and I think it is a just conclusion that these unancient but unexplaind terms, with these marks of the soil, ar spontaneous English growths, twining among older growths indeed, but having their own roots; being in fact true nineteenth century, eighteenth century, seventeenth century, sixteenth century "roots." "Roots" hav no age, speech has no real decay; and the all-receiving English language, the "universal Pan" of speech, stil, "knit with the Graces and the Hours in dance, leads on the eternal Spring."

The paper and its conclusions, and the general use of got, gotten, wer discust by Professors March, Gildersleeve, Humphreys, Hale, Garnett, Ashmore, and Sproull, Dr. Hall, Dr. Earle, and others.

17. Heracleides of Clazomenae and Aristophanes, Ran. 140-142, by Professor J. H. Wright, of Harvard University.

After reviewing the literary tradition concerning both Heracleides of Clazomenae and the διωβελία (μισθός ἐκκλησιαστικός) the writer endeavored to trace a connexion between Heracleides's political activity (Aristot. 'Αθ. Πολ. c. 41) and the scene in the Frogs of Aristophanes where Dionysus exclaims ως μέγα δύνασθον πανταχοῦ τὰ δΰ ὁβολώ.

The Association then adjourned, to meet at 9.15 A.M. on Thursday.

CHARLOTTESVILLE, VA., July 14, 1892.

The meeting was called to order at 9.15 A.M. by the President.

The Committee on Time and Place of next Meeting reported, through Professor Ashmore, in favor of meeting at the University of Chicago on July 4 or July 11, 1893. The Association voted to adopt this report, but to authorize the Executive Committee to call the meeting at a different time and place, if necessary, in order to meet the other societies mentioned in the overture from the American Oriental Society (see Proceedings for Tuesday, July 12).

The Committee on Officers for 1892-93 reported through Professor Humphreys:

President, Professor William Gardner Hale, of the University of Chicago.

Vice-Presidents, Professor James M. Garnett, of the University of Virginia, and Professor J. H. Wright, of Harvard University,

Secretary, Professor Herbert Weir Smyth, of Bryn Mawr College.

Treasurer, Professor Herbert Weir Smyth, of Bryn Mawr College.

Additional members of the Executive Committee.

Professor B. L. Gildersleeve, of Johns Hopkins University.

Professor W. W. Goodwin, of Harvard University.

Professor Abby Leach, of Vassar College.

Professor F. A. March, of Lafayette College.

Professor W. D. Whitney, of Yale University.

The report was unanimously adopted. On motion of Professor J. H. Wright, the following resolution was unanimously adopted:—

The American Philological Association offers most cordial thanks -

To the Authorities of the University of Virginia for the use of the Public Hall and Library for the meetings of the Association;

To the Local Committee on Entertainment, and particularly to its efficient chairman, Professor Garnett, for their successful efforts to make at once agreeable and comfortable the sojourn of the members of the Association at the University;

To Mr. Jefferson Levy and the other gentlemen to whose courtesy and generosity the Association is indebted for the delightful excursion to Monticello on the afternoon of July 13, and to the Director of the Astronomical Observatory for his kind invitation extended to the members of the Association to visit the Observatory on the evening of the same day.

The reading of papers was then resumed.

18. Unciales Litterae, a Contribution to Latin Palaeography, by Professor W. O. Sproull, of the University of Cincinnati.

The object of this paper is to explain the words unciales litterae, which are found first in Jerome's preface to his translation of the book of Job from the Hebrew. He says Habeant qui volunt veteres libros vel in membranis purpureis auro argentoque descriptos vel uncialibus, ut vulgo aiunt, literis onera magis exarata quam codices, dummodo mihi meisque permittant pauperes habere schedulas et non tam pulchros codices quam emendatos.\(^1\) By veteres libros in this passage are meant not Hebrew or Greek manuscripts, but manuscripts of former biblical translations into Latin. Jerome had to contend with a strong conservatism of that day, which clung to the many old and very faulty Latin versions.\(^2\) In the preface to his translation of Job from the Greek he says: Tanta est enim vetustatis consuctudo ut etiam confessa plerisque vitia placeant dum magis pulchros habere malunt codices quam emendatos.\(^3\)

In a foot-note to the first quotation, it is stated on the authanity of Martianaeus that two or three MSS. have initialibus instead of uncialibus. This reading initialibus has found favor with some who explain the words as referring to MSS. adorned with large and very ornate initials. The two words uncialibus and initialibus could easily have been mistaken for each other by the copyists. However, the custom of decorating MSS. with elaborate initials did not prevail as early as Jerome's day. In the earliest MSS. no prominence was given to initial letters, later they were separated a little from the rest of the word, and afterwards they were enlarged sometimes in colors. At first only the initials of paragraphs were made prominent, then the first letter also of each page. The Vatican Vergil, No. 3256, of the fourth century, has large initials in red, blue, and green, but these would not increase scarcely at all either the cost or bulk of a MS, two things that Jerome condemns in these old books. Accordingly the reading initialibus cannot be adopted, concerning which Vallarsi says: Illud vero aperte mendosum est quod praeferunt quidam MSS. initialibus.

The explanation given to uncialibus litteris by nearly all palaeographists or writers on the subject, is that the words mean large letters referring only to the size and not at all to the shape of the letters, not necessarily designating in the least the script that is now called uncial. They derive the word from uncia, a twelfth, which is a division of measure. Vallarsi's comment is: Unciales quas

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Migne's ed. Patr. Lat., vol. 28, p. 1142. The inconsistencies in Latin orthography are unaltered.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Jerome Pref. in Evang., vol. 29, p. 558.

<sup>8</sup> Patr. Lat., vol. 29, p. 63.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Mabillon, the Benedictines. Of later date among the Germans, Gardthausen, Wattenbach, Blass; among the French, De Vainés, De Wailly, Delisle, Prou; among the Italians, Paoli, Carini. Thompson in Brit. Ency. under Palaeography says: "the etymology of the word is doubtful." Zangemeister (Ex. Cod. lat. lit., etc., pref. viii.) says the origin of the word is due to Hieronymi verbis male intellectis. Fabretti does not discuss the word.

vocat Hieronymus, Glossa in cod. Vaticano 135 exponit longas. Budaeus de asse lib. I illas vult pollicis crassitudine exaratas. Multo autem est verisimilius sic dictas certae magnitudinis literas quae ad unciae granditudinem proportione quadam accederent quarum specimen in antiquioribus nonnullis codicibus videre est. Eo pacto cubitales eas vulgo dicimus quae in lapidibus superne locandis et longius ab oculorum acie grandiores quasi ad cubiti speciem exaratas. Moreover, in the time of Charles the Great, Lupus of Ferrières wrote to Einhart (ep. 5): Scriptor regius Bertcaudus dicitur antiquarum litterarum dumtaxat carum quae maximae sunt et unciales a quibusdam existimantur habere mensuram descriptam.

In Jerome's day there were in vogue three kinds of script now called the capital, both square and rustic, the cursive, and the uncial. The cursive was the writing of business documents, the capital and the uncial were used for literary purposes. Jerome, in the passage quoted from his preface to Job, censures the extravagance and luxury of those who prefer old books written in gold and silver on purple parchment, or in a kind of script commonly called uncialibus litteris, which made them not only bulky but also very expensive, on account of the great amount of parchment used. Jerome elsewhere says: Inficiuntur membranae colore purpureo aurum liquescit in litteras gemmis codices vestiuntur et nudus ante foras eorum Christus emoritur.<sup>2</sup> There are extant two MSS. that come under Jerome's description; both are in uncial script and contain fragments of biblical translations into Latin before Jerome's. The one, Codex Vercellensis, was written by Eusebius, and belongs to the fourth century, the other, Codex Veronensis, also belongs to the fourth, or early part of the fifth, century.

A comparison of MSS, written in uncial with those written in capital script will show that the former were written with a lavish use of parchment not characterizing other MSS., thus greatly increasing the cost. The Vatican palimpsest of Cicero's De Republica is probably the oldest Latin MSS. on parchment, and belongs to the third, or early part of the fourth, century. Biblical MSS. of the same date would be designated as veteres libros by Jerome. This MS. is in uncial script of large characters, but not larger than those of the Vatican Vergil, No. 3256. On three sides there are wide margins and a broad space between the two columns. Each page has only thirty lines, or an average of about fifty-four words. The book of Job written in such a manner would make not only an unwieldy but also a most expensive work. The two MSS. of the Pre-Hieronymian Latin translation of the Bible (sometimes called the Itala), namely, the Vercellensis and the Veronensis Codex already referred to, are of a similar nature. The script, which is uncial, is in very narrow columns, sometimes a line contains but a single word, thus leaving a very wide margin. An examination of other early MSS. in uncial script will show the same manner of writing, with wide margins, narrow columns, and comparatively little text on a page; e.g. Verona palimpsest of Livy of the fourth century.8 On the other hand, MSS. in capital script, both square and rustic, are found to contain, as a rule, far more text to a page, relatively, than the MSS. in uncial script. The Medicean Vergil has twenty-nine lines, or an average of about one hundred and eighty-five words to a page; the Vatican Vergil, No. 3225,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Patr. Lat., vol. 28, p. 1142.

<sup>\*</sup> Ad. Eustoc. de Cust. Virg., vol. 28, p. 418.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Mommsen, Abh. d. Berl. Ak., 1868.

has twenty-one lines, or one hundred and forty words to a page. Comparisons may be made with the Turin palimpsest A. II2 of Cicero in Verrem, of the Vatican Vergil, No. 3256, also of the St. Gall Vergilian MSS., as well as with others.1 Gathering together the facts, we find that among the earliest classical Latin MSS. there is one kind in which there is an extravagant use of parchment. Moreover. the earliest codices (Vercellensis and Veronensis) containing biblical translations made before Jerome's, one of which certainly belongs to the fourth century, - and the same is probably true of the other, — are also written with an extravagant use of parchment. Remembering that these are written in uncial script, and that the early MSS. in capital script do not show such an extravagant use of parchment, we come to the conclusion that Jerome meant by uncialibus litteris, not large letters in general, but a distinct kind of writing; namely, that which is now called The fact that the size of the letters of the early MSS. in capital script is in some cases larger and in other cases smaller than the size of the letters of MSS. in uncial script, confirms the conclusion that Jerome did not primarily refer to the dimensions of the letters.

There remain two objections to be answered. The first is the letter of Lupus of Ferrières in which he mentions letters quae maximae sunt et unciales a quibus-dam existimantur. This need not mean majuscules in general (i.e. capitals and uncials), but may mean specifically uncial script, as one of several majuscule scripts, for the Carolinian reform included both minuscules as well as capital and uncial scripts.

The second objection is the etymology of the word unciales. In the palimpsest of Cicero, De Republica, we find seven letters (a, d, e, h, m, q, u,) peculiar to uncial script. No designation would describe them better than hook-shaped. This is so marked that it probably led, in or before the time of Jerome, to an incorrect association of the word unciales with uncus, a hook. Jerome's language would not be contrary to such an inference, for he says: uncialibus ut vulgo aiunt literis. Jerome would not hesitate to use a word that expressed his meaning, even if that meaning was contrary to its etymology; and he would no doubt justify himself as did Augustine in his Enarr, in Ps. 138, 20, Melius est reprehendant nos grammatici quam non intelligant populi.

19. Poetic Words in Thucydides, by Professor Charles Forster Smith, of Vanderbilt University.

This paper is a continuation of the one read at the meeting in 1891 on "Traces of Tragic Usage in Thucydides," which treated the poetic words found in Thucydides iii. Further investigation in all the books of Thucydides confirms the view then expressed, that the chief influence on Thucydides in the matter of elevated style was the language of Tragedy. Of the whole list of probably poetic words made out as the result of the investigation thus far there are found in Tragedy 173; in Homer, or Hesiod, or both, 67; in the Lyric poets, chiefly Pindar, 46; in Herodotus, or Hippocrates, or both, 76. It is possible, of course, that, as Thucydides and Tragedy have so much in common, we have here not so much really poetic words, as old Attic terms. This latter view is favored by the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In the paper as read, detailed comparisons of the dimensions of these different MSS, were given. They are omitted here for want of space.

large number of these words which are found in Plato and Xenophon, but opposed by the exceedingly small number (not half a dozen) found in Antiphon.

In considering the matter of style, and specially the question whether the presence of so many poetic words in Thucydides is due to the undeveloped state of Greek prose and the consequent absence of any well-defined line of separation between prose and poetic usage, it is instructive to note the parts of the work where most of the poetic terms occur. These are, of course, the speeches. Now the speeches in Thucydides cover only 114 of the 565 pages of Bekker's text, i.e. about one-fifth of the whole; but in this one-fifth occur two-fifths of all the poetic words found thus far. Indeed, of the words which seem to be most certainly poetic, one-half occur in the speeches and a few elevated passages, such as iii. 81, 82, 104; vii. 75, etc. In book v., where there is only one short speech of a single chapter and the Melian dialogue, and in book viii., which has no speeches, there are hardly any poetic words—in each book only seven or eight that seem to be certainly poetic. These facts would seem to indicate that Thucydides's poetic vocabulary was largely a matter of choice, and not owing mainly to the undeveloped state of Greek prose.

Still there seems to be evidence of a clear development of prose style and a more clearly marked departure from poetic usage during the long period occupied in the composition of the work. This is inferred on the following grounds. More than two-thirds of the poetic words of Thucydides are found in the first four books, and most of the remainder, as might have been expected, in the tragic recital of the failure of the Sicilian expedition as described in the wonderful prose of book vii. It is especially to be noted that book vi., which gives more space to speeches than any other except book i., has comparatively few poetic terms. Of the words which seem to be most certainly poetic 56 occur only in books i.—iv.; 19 are common to both i.—iv. and v.—viii.; 26 are confined to v.—viii. Counting every occurrence of each word, these terms are found in i.—iv. 130 times, in v.—viii. 77 times.

One other general remark may be made. Of the poetic terms thus far investigated 27 occur in Xenophon, 42 (mainly the same as the 27) in Plato; and 11 of the 27 or 42 occur in late writers. Besides these 11, other poetic terms to the number of 35 are found after Thucydides only in Dio Cassius, Dionysius Halicarnassus, Josephus, Plutarch, Lucian, and other late writers; i.e. 46 (11 + 35) survive in late Greek, mainly the result it would seem of imitation of Thucydides by late writers.

The following is an alphabetical list of the words discussed in this paper which seem to be most certainly poetic. For those discussed in the former paper see PROCEEDINGS for 1891.

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άβροδίαιτον, the (spread of) delicate habits, i. 6. 9 (Aesch., late writers). 
άγγελμα, message, vii. 74. 1 (Eur.). 
άδόκητος, unexpected, vi. 34. 42; 47. 11; vii. 29. 30; 43. 29 (ἀδοκήτως, iii. 45. 25; iv. 17. 15). (Trag., Hes., late writers.) 
alkia, suffering, misery, vii. 75. 34 (Trag. — as law phrase = assault, outrage). 
alév, life, lifetime, i. 70. 28 (Hom., Pind., Trag., Hdt., Xen.). 
άνηλοῦντο, dispatched themselves, iii. 81. 16; iv. 48. 17. Cf. ἀναλοῦντες σφᾶς, 
viii. 65. 11 (Trag.).
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avos, flower (of youth, of troops, etc.), iv. 133. 4 (Hom., Hes., Lyr., Trag.,
   Plat., Xen., Dio C.).
άπαράσσειν, to sweep off, vii. 63. 4. Cf. καταράσσειν, vii. 6. 15 (Hom., Trag.,
   Hdt., late writers).
άπονοστείν, to return, vii. 87. 26. Cf. υπονοστείν, iii. 89. 9 (Hom., Hes., Pind.,
   Eur., Hdt., Xen., late writers).
άποψυχείν, to expire, i. 134. 14 (Hom., Aesch., Soph., late writers).
άρωγά, serviceable, vii. 62. I (Hom., Pind., Trag., Plat. (1), late writers).
атекрартов, without proof, iv. 63. 1 (Pind., Aesch., Hdt., Plat. (1), late writers).
adxelv, to boast, ii. 39. 18 (Aesch., Eur., Hdt., Com. (rare), late writers).
αθχημα, a boast, ii. 62. 28; vii. 66. 15; 75. 37 (Pind., Soph., Eur., late writers).
άχθηδών, a burden, grief, ii. 37. 13; iv. 40. 7 (Aesch., Plat. (2), late writers).
βίβηλος, allowable to be trodden, profanus, iv. 97. 14 (Trag., late writers).
βόσκω, to feed (men), vii. 48. 33 (Trag., Ar., Hdt., Luc.).
γεγωνίσκειν, to cry aloud, proclaim, vii. 76. 5 (Aesch., Eur., Dio C.).
διαβάλλειν, to cross, vi. 30. 6; 44. 8 (Aesch., Eur., Hdt., late writers).
διαμάω, to clear away, cut through, iv. 26. 6 (Eur., late writers).
Spav, to do. Thuc. uses it 85 times. Aesch., Soph., Eur., Hom. (1). In Ar. and
   Plat. only of other early Attic authors.
δραστήριος, efficacious, ii. 63. 12 (Aesch., Eur., late writers).
δύσερως, love-sick, vi. 13. 6 (Eur., Theocr., Xen. (1), late writers).
ěkás, far, far off, i. 69. 23; 80. 9; viii. 94. 14; 104. 17 (Hom., Pind., Trag.,
   Theocr., Hdt.).
δξαπίνης, on a sudden, i. 50. 21; iii. 89. 20; iv. 36. 10; 111. 12; 115. 13; v.
   10. 33 (Hom., Alcae., Pind., Ar., Plat., Xen.).
έπάρχομαι, offer, begin with (the cups) again, iv. 120. I (Hom.).
emerήσιος, yearly, ii. 80. 26 (Hom., Callim.).
еткратестеров, superior, vi. 88. 10. (The adj. is Thucydidean and late. Hom.
   and Hesiod have adv.).
έπισπέρχειν, to urge on, iv. 12. 2. Cf. κατασπέρχειν, iv. 126. 33 (Hom., Aesch.,
   Ap. Rhod.).
άποτρύνειν, to stir up, to urge on, vi. 69. 17; vii. 25. 5 (Hom., Pind., Trag.,
   Hdt., late writers).
eddoyla, panegyric, ii. 42. 3 (Lyr., Eur., Plat.).
ήπιος, mild, kind, ii. 59. 13; vii. 77. 18; viii. 93. 66 (Hom., Hes., Trag., Ar.).
θάμβος, amazement, vi. 31. 44 (Hom., Pind., Trag., Ar., Plat.).
iévas, to send forth, utter (sounds), iii. 112. 14 (Hom., Trag., Hdt., Plat.).
καθύπερθε, from above, v. 59. 12 (Hom., Lyr., Trag., Hdt.).
Katalvelv, to approve of, iv. 122. 8 (Pind., Trag., Hdt.).
κατ' ἄκρας, from top to bottom, utterly, iv. 112. 9 (Hom., Trag., Plat.).
катеруацева, to finish, kill, iv. 85. 9; vi. 11. 1; 33. 21; 86. 9 (Soph., Eur.,
   Hdt., Xen. (1)).
κατήφεια, dejection, vii. 75. 25 (Hom., late writers).
κήδος, connexion by marriage, ii. 29. 3 (Trag., Hdt.).
кhéos, good report, glory, i. 10. 8; 25. 22; ii. 45. 10 (Hom., Pind., Trag., Hdt.,
   Plat., Xen.).
κλυδώνιον, a wave, a surging sea, ii. 84. 19 (Aesch., Eur.).
κόμπος, a boast, ii. 40. 3; 41. 5 (Trag., Hdt., Aeschin.).
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κομπείν, to boast, vi. 17. 19. Cf. ἐπικομπείν, iv. 126. 37; viii. 81. 19 (Pind.,
   Trag., Hdt.).
ктичов, din, vii. 75. 25 (Hom., Trag., Plat., Xen.).
λογάδες, picked, i. 62. 23, etc. (12 times in all) (Eur., Hdt., late writers).
μοχθείν, to toil, to be weary, i. 70. 28; ii. 39. 23 (Hom., Trag., Ar., Xen.).
μυχός, inmost recess, vii. 4. 21; 52. 11 (Hom., Hes., Pind., Trag., Hdt., Xen.).
ναυβάτης, a marine, i. 121. 10; vii. 75. 44; viii. 44. 3 (Trag., Hdt.).
ξυμφορά, an event, a hap, i. 140. 4, 9 (Trag., Ar., Hdt., Plat. (1)).
ξυνίστωρ, conscious, ii. 74. 10 (Trag., Anthol., Xen. (1), Plat. (1), late writers).
бина, еуе, ii. 11. 29 (Hom., Hes., Pind., Trag., Plat. (1), Xen. (1)).
ούπως, nohow, v. 15. 7 (Hom.).
όργή, disposition, i. 130. 11; 140. 3; iii. 82. 19; viii. 83. 16 (Hes., Lyr., Trag.,
   Ar., Plat. (1)).
όρρωδία, dread, ii. 83. 3; 89. 3. Cf. δρρωδείν, v. 32. 13; vi. 9. 8; 14. 4 (Eur., Hdt.).
ότι τάχος, as quickly as possible, vii. 42. 27 (Soph. (2). Cf. Hdt. ω's τάχος).
πανωλεθρία, utter destruction, vii. 87. 24. (The noun is Thucydidean, but the
   adj. is Tragic.)
παρίσχεν and παρασχήσει (impers.), i. 120. 18; iv. 85. 8; v. 14. 11; vi. 86. 22
   (Pind., Eur., Hdt.).
περισταδόν, standing round about, vii. 81. 24 (Hom., Eur., Hdt.).
TIGTOUN, to bind by oath, make trustworthy, iv. 88. 5 (Hom., Trag.).
Throwas, trusting in, ii. 89. 21; v. 14. 19; vi. 2. 38 (Hom., Hes., Pind., Trag.,
   Hdt.).
paxia, the beach, iv. 10. 7 (Aesch., Plut.).
poblov, the surge, iv. 10. 24 (Trag., Ap. Rhod., late writers).
peilpov, a stream, vii. 74. 10 (Hom., Pind., Trag., Hdt.).
piocerbas, compensate for, wipe out, v. 63. 11. Cf. Soph. O. R. 313. (The word
   in sense of save, rescue, esp. common in Hom., Hes., Trag., Hdt.)
σέβειν, venerari, ii. 53. 14 (Post-hom. and mostly Trag., also in Archil., Pind.,
   Plat.).
σμικρός, iv. 13. 19; vii. 75. 26; viii. 81. 11 (Acc. to Steph. the Trag. and Com.
   poets drop σ only metri vel euphoniae causa).
отнерна, seed, offspring, v. 16. 25 (an oracle) (Pind., Trag., Plat.).
ortopiou, bring down, tame, vi. 18. 22 (Aesch., Eur., Simon., late writers).
τρυχόμενοι, worn out, i. 126. 24. Cf. τρυχόω, iii. 93. 9; iv. 60. 13; viii. 28. 23;
   48. 11 (Hom., Hes., Lyr., Trag., Ar., Hippocr., Xen., late writers).
τάφος, burial, ii. 35. 6; 47. 1 (Hom., Hes., Soph., Eur., Plat.).
υμνείν, to sing, laud, ii. 42. 5 (Hes., Hom. Hymns, Pind., Trag., Plat., Xen., Lys.).
ὑπίρφρων, arrogant, ii. 62. 32 (Trag., Dio C.).
φειδώ, a sparing, vii. 81. 28 (Hom., Eur., late writers).
φερεγγυώτατος, best warrant for, viii. 68. 22 (Aesch., Soph., Hdt.).
χέρνιψ, water for hand-washing, iv. 97. 15 (Hom., Trag., Ar., Dem. (2)).
ως (=ουτως), iii. 37. 26. Cf. και ως, i. 44. 11; οὐδ ως, i. 132. 24 (Hom., Trag.,
   Hdt., Plat.).
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Remarks upon the paper were made by Professor Wright and Dr. Earle.

20. On English Nouns which have Gained or Lost an Initial Consonant by Attraction, by C. P. G. Scott, Esq., of New York City.

This paper, which elicited a large amount of discussion, is printed in full in the Transactions.

21. The Third Class of Weak Verbs in Primitive Teutonic, with Special Reference to its Development in Anglo-Saxon, by Miss Marguerite Sweet, of Bryn Mawr College.

In the absence of the author this paper was read by title only.

From the time of Grimm to the present day, scholars have been seeking for an explanation of the origin and structure of the Teutonic third weak conjugation. To account for the diphthong alone forms one of the most perplexing problems of Teutonic grammar. The Latin conjugation in ē is so closely allied to the Teutonic ai-conjugation as to suggest at once identity of origin; still the Teutonic diphthong cannot be the direct equivalent of the Latin vowel. It seems, moreover, doubtful whether ai held in the Primitive Teutonic third class the position of -o- in the second, of -j- in the first weak conjugation. In Anglo-Saxon, in Old Saxon, and in Old Norse, ai does not appear in the preferit, while in Gothic, Anglo-Saxon, and Old Saxon, ai is confined to the second and third persons singular and the second person plural. The condition of the inflexion, too, is no less perplexing than that of the stem-vowel. Gothic shows in the present an interchange of strong forms with forms in ai: the Saxon dialects have a corresponding interchange of -j- with -aj-forms. What is the significance for Primitive Teutonic of this mixture of forms, and which, Gothic or Anglo-Saxon, is nearer the primitive condition?

An historical review of the subject shows that the discussion from Bopp to Bartholomae has been guided by two assumptions; viz. (1) that the Latin ē-verb is the same as the Teutonic ai-verb; (2) that the -j- of Anglo- and Old Saxon is to be ascribed to primitive Teutonic. Professor Collitz alone, in his recent paper on the auslaut ai in Gothic, Old High German, and Old Saxon, denies the validity of these two assumptions. He proposes a solution of the problem which is based upon Gothic as representing the original inflexion.

The present paper will in no way touch upon the question of the origin of the ai-conjugation, but will admit the second important question; — what was the original form of the conjugation? For my purpose is to confine my attention to the third weak class as it exists in Teutonic, to give an historical treatment of the class and its development, hoping thereby to reconstruct the primitive ai-class and the primitive ai-inflexion.

#### I. - A. The Primitive Teutonic ai-verbs.

The following verbs may be ascribed without hesitation to Primitive Teutonic: —

	Goth.	OHG.	osax.	AgS.	ON.
1.	aistan;				æsta.
2.	arman;	armên ;	armon;	carmian;	
3.		bibên;	bibon;	bifian.	bifask.

	Goth.	OHG.	08ax.	Ag8.	ON.
4	fi(j)an;	flên ;		feon;	fjå.
5.		folgên;	folgon;	folgian.	
6.		frågen;	fragon.		
7.		fullen;	fullon;	fullian;	fulla.
8.		ginên ;		ginian;	gina.
9.	haban ;	habên;	hebbian;	hæbban;	hafa.
10.	háhan ;	hangên ;	hangon;	hangian ;	hanga.
11.	hatan ;	hazzên ;	haton;	hatian;	hata.
12.		hlinên ;	hlinon;	hlinian.	
13.		hogên ;	huggian;	hycg(e)an.	
14.		klebên;	clibon;	clifian ;	klifa.
15.	kunnan ;	kunnên ;	kunnon ;	kunnian.	
16.	liban ;	libên ;	libbian;	libban;	lifa.
17.	leikan ;	lscchên;	likon;	lician ;	lika.
18.	luban (lubains).				
19.	maurnan;	mornên ;	mornon;	murnde.	
20.	reiran.				
21.	rûnan ;				ryna.
22.		sagên ;	seggian;	secg(e)an;	segja.
23.	sifan.				
24.	silan.				
25.	slavan.				
26.	skaman ;	scamên ;		scamian;	skanıma.
27.	saurgan;	sorgên ;	sorgon;	sorgian.	
28.		swigên ;	swigon ;	swigian.	
29.	slaurran ;	storrên ;	<del></del>		styrra.
30.		zalėn;	talon;	talia <b>n</b> ;	tala.
31.	trauan;	trûên ;	trûon ;	truwian ;	trůa.
32.	þahan ;	dagên ;	thagon;		Þegja.
33.	þivan ;			þ <i>ćowian</i> .	
34.	þ <i>arban</i> ;	darbê <b>n</b> ;	tharbon;	þ <i>earfian</i> ;	Þarfa.
35.	þulan ;	dolên ;	tholon;	þolian ;	þ <i>ola</i> .
36.		wachên ;	wako <b>n</b> ;	wacian;	va <b>ka</b> .
37.	witan ;			witian.	
38.	wunan ;	wonên ;	wonon;	ายonian.	

To this list may be added certain other verbs which may have belonged originally to the ai-class, but whose present condition casts but little light upon their primitive form. These are: Goth. bauan; OHG. borgén; OHG. garahvén; OHG. hlosén; Goth. hveilan; Goth. vanan; Goth. veihan.

A consideration of this list of original ai-verbs brings out certain facts which are of importance for the light they throw upon the original character and function of the class.

(1) Of the thirty-eight verbs to be ascribed certainly to Primitive Teutonic, eight only are denominatives; viz., arman, fullén, leikan, rúnan, skaman, zalén, bivan, vunan.

(2) The following may be called Primitive Teutonic deverbatives; i.e. verbs co-existing with and derived from a strong verb:—

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ginên: from *ginan. (Cf. OHG, geinôn; AgS, ganan.)
klebên: from *klîban. (Cf. OHG, klīban; ON. clifa.)
klinên: from *hlînan. (Cf. OHG, hleinjan; ON. hleina.)
liban: from *liban. (Cf. Goth, ga-leiban.)
hdhan: from *hanhan. (Cf. Goth, hdhan, st. red. v'b.)
wachên: from *wacan wôc. (Cf. AgS, wacan; ON. p't part, vakinn.)
frágên: from *frihnan *frah. (Cf. Goth, fraihnan, etc.)
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To this list should be added the verbs vitan, parban, kunnan, developed in Primitive Teutonic from the corresponding preterit present verbs.

(3) There remain twenty non-derivatives; viz., aistan, bibên, fi(f)an, folgên, haban, hatan, hogên, luban, maurnan, reiran, sagên, sifan, silan, slavan, saurgan, swigên, staurran, trauan, bahan, bulan.

It is important to notice that where these non-derivative ai-verbs exist in the cognate languages, they are non-derivatives. aistan is in Greek αίδομαι (= \*ais-δομαι); bibên¹ = \*bhi-bhai-mi; reiran is original \*ri-rai-mi.¹ Sanskr. pî-yati is Teut. fi-j-an; Sanskr. çddati, Teut. hatan; Sanskr. lubhati, Teut. luban. Teut. bulan is Greek ἔτλην; Teut. sagên, Greek ἔννεπε, ἔν-σεπε (= Lat. in-sece).

Reconsider, now, the relation of the Teutonic ai-verbs with Latin verbs in ē. The number of Latin and Teutonic equivalents is in reality very small. There are only haban, habēre; luban, lubēre; silan, silēre; pahan, lacēre; witan, vidēre. Of these, vidēre is of little importance in evidence of the original identity of the two classes, inasmuch as witan is apparently a Teutonic derivative. A like development is seen in Teut. wacan, wachên, Lat. vegēre. The relation, too, of \*luban to lubhati is quite as significant as that of luban to lubēre. Furthermore, Primitive Teutonic ai-verbs are represented in Latin by other conjugations. E.g., gi-ên, hiāre; hlinên, in-clināre; hatan, cadēre; sagên, sequor.

The likeness of vocabulary noticeable in the Latin e-class and the Teutonic ai-class admits of ready explanation as the result of likeness in function. Identity of function and likeness in vocabulary are not sufficient to prove identity of origin.

- B. The treatment of the original ai-class in the different dialects.
- (a) With regard to the relative extent of the third weak class in the dialects, the state of the case is briefly this. Gothic and Norse are upon practically the same footing in their treatment of the class; in both dialects the verbs are few in number, and nearly all of them are neuters. Anglo-Saxon and Old Saxon have practically lost the inflexion, the primitive ai-verbs that have been retained, passing regularly into the δ-class. In Old High German alone has this class assumed any importance in the general process of verb development. There it appears as a large class, capable of indefinite growth.

The condition of the ai-verb in Anglo-Saxon is of particular interest. There the sole remnants of the class are habban, libban,  $s_{\xi}eg(e)an$ , hyeg(e)an. The other verbs classed by Sievers with these to form the third weak conjugation—viz.,  $\delta r \dot{e} ag(e)an$ ,  $sm \dot{e} ag(e)an$ ,  $f \dot{e} og(e)an$ ,  $fr \dot{e} og(e)an$ —do not, with the exception of  $f \dot{e} og(e)an$ , belong to the original ai-class. They may, moreover, be accounted

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Kluge KZ. XXVI.; also PBB. VIII. 343.

for regularly as contract verbs of the second class. Take, for example,  $fr\acute{e}og(e)an$ , which by the regular laws of contraction is thus derived. Goth.  $frij\acute{o}n = AgS$ .  $fr\acute{e}on$ . In accordance with regular Anglo-Saxon development  $fr\acute{e}on$  becomes  $fr\acute{e}og(e)an$ . Now, if this verb has in Anglo-Saxon the inflexion of habban,  $s_{i}cg(e)an$ , etc., there should be umlaut in the infinitive, the first person singular present indicative, etc. "The orig. inflex.," says Sievers, "is more clearly perceptible in Ps. than in WS." But the i of Ps. frigan is not necessarily the i-umlaut of WS.  $\acute{e}o$ . It is found not infrequently where umlaut is impossible, and can only be considered a dialectic treatment of  $\acute{e}o$  before g. For example, wriga is quoted for WS.  $wr\acute{e}on$ ; tih for  $t\acute{e}oh$ ; figu and ligende for  $fl\acute{e}ogu$  and  $fl\acute{e}ogende$ .

(b) Anglo- and Old Saxon, then, yielded the ai-inflexion in favor of the -ô-. Old High German, on the contrary, seized upon the central characteristic of the original conjugation as the basis of development for an important class. By emphasizing the passive nature of the class, Old High German pushed to its extreme the power of double formation, which may be seen already active in Primitive Teutonic. The ē- and -j-formations became active and passive counterparts, any adjective being capable of taking either form. E.g., blinden (from \*blindjan), to blind, blintên, to become blind; truoben, to disturb, truobên, to be disturbed; heftan, to bind, haftên, to be in bonds; etc.

In Anglo-Saxon and Old Saxon it is noticeable that the \( \delta\)-conjugation exercises, to a certain extent, the passive function belonging in Primitive Teutonic to the ai-class. The explanation of this fact can only be that, with the passage of the ai-verbs into the \( \delta\)-conjugation, the power of passive formation was transferred to the latter. E.g., earmian, yrman; bealdian, byldan; colian, colian; etc.

There is a marked contrast between the East and West Germanic in their treatment of the ai-inflexion. While in West Germanic the ai-inflexion was developed as the class of passive formation, in East Germanic a parallel development took place with the n-an inflexion. E.g., Goth. ga-batjan, to make use of, ga-batnan, to be of use; ga-blindnan, to be blind, ga-blindjan, to make blind; etc. In Norse the n-an class, as the ai-class in Anglo-Saxon, passed into the ô-inflexion, and thus the Norse ô-inflexion gained the power of passive formation.

- (c) The main points with regard to the inflexional condition of the ai-class in Teutonic may be thus summed up. Gothic and Old High German are upon practically the same footing; but at the same time Old High German has, instead of the strong forms of Gothic, regular forms in  $\bar{\mathbf{e}}$ : Old Norse agrees in the present system with Old High German, but has a preterit without connecting vowel. Anglo-Saxon and Old Saxon agree in the present system with Gothic, Old High German, and Old Norse in the form of the second and third singular present indicative: everywhere else in the present, j-forms occur. The Saxon preterit is the same as that of the Norse.
- II. Concerning the Primitive Teutonic inflexion of verbs of the third weak class.

The problem for discussion is represented in -

(a) Goth. haba; AgS. habbe; OSax. hebbiu. habais; hafast; habas, -es. habaib; hafa&; habad, -ed.

(b) Goth. habaida; OHG. habéta; OSax. habda; ON. hafði; AgS. hæfde.

The general opinion of scholars to-day is that we must infer for the Primitive Teutonic ai-inflexion a present having an interchange of j- and ai-forms, and a preterit without connecting vowel. But, it seems to me, that the view has been accepted upon evidence too slight, without giving due attention to the possibility of another explanation. The general condition of Gothic is so much older than that of the other dialects that, in case of variance in form among the dialects, the supposition must always be in favor of the antiquity of the Gothic, until the varying form has been proved the older.

What are the arguments adduced in proof of an original -j- in the conjugation? The condition of the corresponding class in Slavonic and Lithuanian furnishes the main support for the generally accepted opinion. In OSlav. sexda (= \*sedja), sêdiši, beside sêdêchu, sêdêti, sêdêtu; Lith. sêdzu (= \*sêdju), sêdi, beside sêdêjau, sèdésiu, sèdéti may be seen, it is argued, the original thematic and athematic conjugations which combined to form the inflexion of Goth. haban, liban, etc. But, whatever should be concluded from these data about the verb \*sêdjô in Letto-Slavic, it is difficult to see what bearing the result would have upon the question of the original ai-inflexion. Teut. \*sitjan is a strong verb like \*bidjan, without trace of relation with the Teutonic ai-class. Furthermore, Lithuanian is exceedingly untrustworthy with respect to the use of -j- in the verbs. Says Bremer: "The j-formations are so numerous in comparison with the other languages, that we may hardly avoid the conclusion that the j-inflexion has overstepped its original limits, and thus includes many verbs not originally belonging there. Not only numberless derived verbs have a-j- in the present; it is found also in the present of primary verbs." In short, Lithuanian in its verb system is as far from original as are the Saxon dialects.

Mahlow sees in hable (late habeie) of the Alemannian (Weinhold, Alem. Gr. 368 sq.), a trace of the old j-inflexion. These optative forms, however, may be readily explained as an effort to differentiate the optative from the present indicative,—perhaps as an effort toward the equalization of endings. The present optative endings -e, -es, -e belong, not only to weak j-verbs, but to all strong verbs as well. The Alemannian dialect has simply chosen to consider -e, -es, -e the general optative endings, irrespective of class stem.

Of far more importance in the discussion are the j-forms in Old Norse inflexion of hafa (pres. hef, hefe, hefr), segja, and hegja. Sievers (PBB. VIII. 93), by an ingenious method of comparison, arrives at an ideal inflexion for Norse, showing the ancient interchange of forms.

Infinitive. *hefja hafa	seg ja	begja
Pres. Ind. 1. hef hefi	seg segi	*beg begi
2. 3. *hafir <i>hefr</i>	*sagir segr	*bagir begr
pl. 1. *hefjom hofom	segjom	þegjom
2. hafið	*sagið segið	*bagið begið
3. *hefja <i>hafa</i>	segja	þegja

The weakness in Sievers' method is that, although it is possible by careful arrangement to form a model inflexion out of the material at hand, there is no evidence that such an inflexion ever existed. If it did, why have we not hefja? If there was originally \*hef \*hafir in the present, how shall we explain the consistent j-inflexion in the present of the three verbs? Assuming the original Norse

inflexion to have been \*hefja \*hef \*hafir, is there any explanation for the fully developed regular inflexion of Norse, which is in every respect the same as that of Gothic, except in the first singular present indicative? It is not possible to consider, hafa a development from \*hefja, waka from wekja, etc. To avoid this difficulty, Johansson resorts to the supposition of two original conjugations. This supposition makes the problem assume a form apparently simple. But there still remains to explain how two independent Primitive Teutonic conjugations should have developed as we find them in the dialects. Why does only the one appear in Gothic and in Old High German, while in the Saxon dialects the two are preserved in a curious mixed conjugation, and finally in Old Norse alone the two are kept independent?

It seems much simpler and more natural to consider the Norse j-forms a late development after the analogy of the j-class.

An important fact to be noticed in the Saxon and Anglo-Saxon ai-inflexion is the instability of umlaut. In Old Saxon inflexion hebbian and habbian occur; also second plural hebbiad and habbiad. No dialect of Anglo-Saxon gives habban with umlaut regularly. The form hebbe is found in the Durham Book, but in that Ms. the common form is habbe. The same irregularity is noticeable in  $s_{\xi \in \mathcal{G}}(\epsilon)an$ ,  $s_{\alpha \in \mathcal{G}}(\epsilon)an$ .

This irregularity in use of umlaut is very strong evidence that the Anglo-Saxon j-forms are of comparatively late development. And, adding this to the evidence furnished by the other dialects, I am unable, for myself, to avoid the conclusion that the original ai-conjugation at least did not contain an interchange of -j- and -ai- forms.

If we reject Anglo-Saxon as the original inflexion, the choice then lies between Gothic and Old High German. The regular inflexion of the latter are readily explained as the natural adoption of ai as the characteristic stem. On the other hand, the strong forms of the Gothic are inexplicable, save as remnants of an older condition. Anglo-Saxon, through hafu, sago, would seem to bear direct evidence to the antiquity of the Gothic inflexion.

The question arises, is there anything in the condition of the inflexion itself to account for the j-formation in Anglo-Saxon, and is there any connection between the Anglo-Saxon j-forms and those of Old Norse and Old High German? For Anglo-Saxon and Old Norse the explanation is simple: the point of agreement between the first and third classes is plainly in the preterit, which has the same form as that of the short-stemmed verbs of the j-class. Do not facts justify our assigning the same explanation to the OHG. hebis, hebit; segis, segit; libis, libit; libita, hebita? The pret. segita bears apparently the same relation to \*sagta, and libita to lipta, that hebita bears to hapta. Abundant evidence for such treatment of the preterit is found in verbs of the first class. E.g., zalta, zelita; ratta, retita; scutta, scutita; etc.

Such a view of the common development of j-forms in the ai-inflexion is conditioned by the antiquity of the Norse and Anglo-Saxon short preterit. Here Norse and West Germanic seem undoubtedly older than Gothic. ON. sagōi, hafōi, lifði, hugði; OHG. \*sagta (segita), hapta, hocta, frágta; AgS. sagde, hafde, lifde, hogde cannot be explained as new formations, nor could they have been developed by contraction from libaida, \*sagaida, \*hugaida, habaida. Goth. gahugds gives testimony to an original short preterit. Also OHG. dult (OSax. githila. AgS. geðyld) supplies the old short preterit of Goth. þulan, \*þulda = ON. þolda.

22. Differences in Versification between the Satires and Epistles of Horace, by Guy V. Thompson, of Yale University.

The statement is often made that the Epistles of Horace are written in more polished hexameters than are the Satires. The object of the following paper is to determine what grounds, if any, exist for this statement, so far as it may be done by an examination of the mechanism of the verse without regard to the question whether Horace purposely wrote his Satires in rougher rhythm. The Georgics of Vergil, considered the most finished of Latin hexameters, have been taken as a model. Of course this method of comparison is not to be applied too rigidly, but in cases where there is a marked difference between the Georgics and Horace's hexameters, and also a reasonable explanation of that difference, the figures for the Satires and Epistles will be significant.

As regards quantity, instances of variation from the normal usage are few, and will not be discussed here. The remaining points of comparison, then, may be divided into the following classes:—

- I. Proportion and position of dactyls and spondees.
- II. The caesura.
- III. The close of the verse.
- IV. Miscellaneous points.

#### I. DACTYLS AND SPONDEES.1

									Satires.	Epistles.	Georgics.
Dactyls .						•			42 %	44 %	43.9 %
Spondees									58 %	56 %	56.1 %
Dactylic	lin	es							48 cases	36 cases	49 cases
Spondaic	"									I case	4 cases
First foot	a	d٤	icty!	l					55 %	54.8 %	63 %
Second fo	oot	a	spo	n	dee	٠.			55.8	54.1	54-5
Third	66	66		"					62.1	60.7	61.1
Fourth	"	"		"					69.9	64	71.5

No striking differences occur in this class, the spondaic lines being so few as to furnish no basis for comparison. It is interesting here, however, to note the corresponding figures for Homer, — Dactyls 68.1 %, spondees 31.9 %, dactylic lines 17.6 % (Horace about 2 %), spondaic lines 4 %, first foot a dactyl 60.3 %, second a dactyl 59.6 %, third a dactyl 84.8 %, fourth a dactyl 61.8 %.

#### II. CAESURA.

The determination of the caesura being so largely a matter of individual opinion, absolute accuracy is not claimed for the following table in all respects, but consistency has been aimed at throughout the three bodies of text.

For convenience, the figures given in this class stand for so many in one thousand lines, the actual number of occurrences being, therefore, about twice as many, since the Satires number 2113 lines, the Epistles 1958, the Georgics 2189.

<sup>1</sup> The figures in this class mostly from Drobisch, Formen des lat. Hex.; Berichte der kon. sächs. Ges., 1868, p. 16 ff.

							Satires.	Epistles.	Georgics.
Pri	n. caesur	a other th	an m 3				24 I	254	266
m ;	3 wanting	<b>.</b>					113	131	121
No	word en	ding in 30	l foot .				28	26	27
Pri	n. caesur	a m 3 with	1 B. D.				68	45	22
"	"	m4.					113	104	144
**	"	m 2 and	m4.				61	79	95
"	"	m 2 and	B. D.			٠,	17	16	4
**	"	f3					48	53	23
f 4	subordin	ate caesur	a				2	6	2
Ca	esura bef	ore elision					8	12	24
(	" "	"	minus -	que	٠.		7	7	3.2-)

The lines in which m 3 is wanting are of course those which have f 3 either as principal or as subordinate caesura, and those in which no word ends in the third foot.

The differences in use of caesura are not striking excepting in the case of the tripartite line formed by masculine caesura of the second foot (m 2) with bucolic diaeresis (B. D.), and in the case of caesura before the enclitic -que.

The combination m 2 B. D., making a weak line, is hardly found in the Georgics at all, i.e. only ten times, while it is found thirty-one times in the Epistles, and thirty-seven times in the Satires.

The occurrence of caesura before elision, as in the line (Sat. I, 1, 35): -

quem struit haud ignara ac non incauta futuri,

eight, twelve, and twenty-four times in 1000 lines respectively in the Satires, Epistles, and Georgics would seem to show the Georgics faulty in this respect. But upon examination it is found that in many cases in the Satires and Epistles, and in the great majority of cases in the Georgics, the syllable following the caesura is -que, combined by elision with the following word. Removing these cases, we have remaining not quite half as many in the Georgics as in the Satires or Epistles. That it is right to remove them, that such a case was not regarded as a blemish, that a distinct pause was sometimes allowed between -que and the preceding word, is shown not only by the large number of such occurrences as compared with the remaining instances of caesura before elision, which number is much larger in the more carefully written verse, but also by the fact that most of the cases of hypermeter (five out of the seven) in the three bodies of verse under consideration have -que as the final and extra syllable. If, as is supposed, the elision of -que was total, the admission of such caesurae as the above is sufficiently accounted for.

Waltz (Variations, etc., p. 223) notices only one case of feminine caesura of the fourth foot, viz. Sat. I, 8, I. They are rare, but Sat. I, 3, IIO; II, 3, 295; 8, 17; Epistles I, 2, 3; 5, 6; 18, 2, 32, 40; II, 1, 34, 59; 2, 7; 3, 87; should be added to this.

Kiessling in his preface to the Satires, p. xviii, notices several cases of a preposition cut off from the verb with which it is compounded by a caesura. There are twelve lines in the Satires and sixteen in the Epistles, the thesis of whose third foot consists of such a preposition. But in all these lines the principal

caesura may be regarded as m 4 or m 2 and 4, excepting in the line (Sat. II, 3, 134):—

an tu reris eum occisa insanisse parente,

and Ep. II, 3, 87 and 377: -

cur ego si neque ignoroque poeta salutor? sic animis natum inventumque poema juvandis.

In the last two lines, in view of the occasional separation of -que from the preceding word, m 4 is no harder than m 3.

Two instances occur of a negative prefix (in) cut off from its adjective by a caesura. Sat. I, 3, 181, and Ep. II, 3, 263:—

vestrum praetor, is intestabilis et sacer esto; non quivis videt immodulata poemata judex.

Or perhaps it is better, especially in the latter, to regard these lines as without caesura.

#### III. CLOSE OF VERSE.

			Satires.	Epistles.	eorgics.
Monosyllabic endings			249	152	21
" preceded by polysyllables			111	69	8
" beginning new sentences			24	27	0
Dissyllabic endings " " "			117	68	9
Quadrisyllabic endings			30	6	5
Pentesyllabic "			21	10	3
Rhyme			<b>2</b> ·	1	3
Echoing lines			2	I	1
Hypermeter			. 2	0	. 5
Words broken by end of line			4.	4	1
Elision in sixth foot			31	19	7
Word and verse accent conflicting in fifth and si	xth	feet	142	90	12

In the above table the actual number of occurrences is given, without reduction to the basis of 1000 verses.

It will be seen at once that the most marked differences between the Satires, Epistles, and Georgics are found in the close of the verse. A monosyllabic word at the end of the line is not objectionable unless preceded by a word of more than one syllable. So few cases of rhyme, echoing lines, hypermeter, and broken words occur as to afford no basis of comparison. In the remaining points the Epistles are seen to be superior to the Satires, excepting in the case of monosyllabic finals beginning a new sentence, in which the Satires and Epistles are nearly equal, while the Georgics contain no instance of such final. The most striking point of difference is that of conflict between word- and verse-accent in the last two feet of the verse. Harmony in the last two, conflict in the first four, feet of the verse is the rule in Latin hexameter, less in the earlier poets, who perhaps followed the rule unconsciously; more in the later, who evidently aimed at such effect.

#### IV. MISCELLANEOUS POINTS.

In frequency of elision the Satires and Epistles differ greatly, the former having 922 cases, the latter 386. But Vergil does not avoid elision, the Georgies presenting 1068 cases, the Aeneid even a greater proportion. In the sixth foot, however, elision is avoided, as seen above.

The Satires furnish 56 cases in which the word- and verse-accent coincide throughout the line, as: —

Sat. I, 1, 57, plenior ut si quos delectet copia justo.

The Epistles present 39 cases, the Georgics 11.

Remarks upon the paper were made by Professors Humphreys, Ashmore, and J. L. Hall.

23: On the Narrative Use of Imperfect and Perfect in the Brāhmanas, by Professor W. D. Whitney, of Yale University.

In the absence of the author this paper was read by title only. It is printed in full in the Transactions.

24. The Pronunciation of Scientific Terms in English, by Professor F. A. March, of Lafayette College.

There ar reasons for regarding the technical terms of science and art in English as constituting a department of language so different from the common and literary speech as to be entitld to separate treatment in linguistic discussions.

It is plain that laws of unconscious action ar not supreme in this department. There is deliberate study and adoption not only of particular words, but of general principls on which classes of words shal be formd. It was suggested—(1) That the writn words should be recognized as the primary words in this department. The words ar made for the most part from Greek words which ar known to the makers only as book words, the pronunciation not being thought of, and it being expected and recognized that each scientist wil pronounce for himself, but must write correctly.

- (2) It would be wel to giv up the attempt to hav the vowel sounds conformd thruout to the analogy of literary English, and accept the common sounds of the continental vowels as givn in our scools.
- (3) It may be wel to giv up the attempt to accent compound words according to the quantity of penultimate syllabls, and accept the Germanic rule of accenting significant syllabls, dividing compounds so as to make their parts plain to the ear.

The paper was very generally discussed by the members of the Association.

- 25. Notes on Greek Grammar, by Professor M. W. Humphreys, of the University of Virginia.
  - I. A peculiar use of ori.
- P. Schmidt, in Schanz's Beiträge, cites examples from Homer, in which δτι or δ has the force of "that" in "What ails you that you do not eat?" He remarks that in Attic a participle is employed in such cases (τί παθὰν ούκ ἐσθίειs). O.

Riemann, reviewing Schmidt's work in the Revue de Philologie, xiv, p. 184, cites Soph. Ant. 161, and a similar use of ώs in Ar. Vesp. 266 f., and adds that he cannot say whether the usage occurs in Attic prose or not. His remark that these two Attic examples occur in *lyric* passages is calculated to mislead those who do not call an anapaestic system "lyric." An example of ώs not in lyric poetry can be obtained by correcting the punctuation in Ar. Nub. 325 f., and, possibly, in Soph. Phil. 914. But there is at least one example in Attic prose, in the very first sentence of Plato (Euthyph. 2 A), Tl reώτερον . . . γέγονεν, δτι σὐ . . . διατρίβεις περί τὴν βασιλέως στοάν;

2. The dative of measure or difference with merá, "after."

The examples cited in grammars are unsatisfactory. The dat is in reality construed with ὕστερον which, in the historians, seems to be invariably added. The only exception the writer has observed in Attic prose is Dem. xxxiii. 9, ού πολλῷ δὲ χρόνφ μετὰ ταῦτα (without ὕστερον).

- 3. Negatives in a negative sentence.
- a. Some of the grammars assume erroneously that οὖποτε, οὖπω, οὖπώποτε, μήποτε, etc., belong to the list of compound negatives that may be induced by a preceding οὐ οι μή; while in fact they are, and perhaps should be, written, οὖ ποτε, οὖ πω, οὖ πώ ποτε, etc. Of course οὐδέποτε (i.e. οὐδέ ποτε) and other combinations of οὐδέ belong to the list, because οὐδέ in these cases emphasizes just as it does with any part of speech. It is often erroneously inferred by students that οὐκέτι and μηκέτι belong to the list.
- b. Attention should be called to the fact that  $\mu\eta$  after verbs of fearing,  $\epsilon l \mu \eta = nisi$ , and  $(Ira, \delta\pi\omega s) \mu\eta$ , "lest," do not induce compound negatives after them.
- c. An investigation is needed of the question when the compound negative is used, and when not, in those cases where the sentence is plainly negative, and the subsequent pronoun or conjunction (\(\tau \text{ls}, \text{ \text{\$\pi al.}}\), etc.) unquestionably has a negative compound representative. For instances where the simple conjunction and the negative compound give different meanings, cf. Thuc. v. 18. The negative would be wrong in Xen. Cyrop. i. 6. 17; Isae. ii. 15; Luc. Dial. Mort. 25, 3; Aeschin. F. L. 42, 19. In Plat. I.ys. 217e, the compound negative has independent force.
  - 4. Ingressive second agrist.

In the Classical Review, v. 6, p. 249, Mr. Frank Carter speaks of a certain interpretation as violating "Prof. Gildersleeve's canon apud C. D. Morris on Thuc. i. 12. 3, that  $\ell\sigma\chi\sigma\nu$  is the only strong aorist used ingressively." Ib. p. 252 he defends this "canon" against seeming exceptions, and is inclined to deny ingressive force to  $\ell\sigma\chi\sigma\nu$  itself. Whatever be the force in the passage under discussion,  $\ell\sigma\chi\sigma\nu$  elsewhere is certainly sometimes ingressive, as Thuc. v. 17. 2.

But Professor Gildersleeve's so-called canon was only an incidental remark. His words are: "This is the only second aor, which appears to be used ingressively, the pres. which is 'process' of holding, connoting 'state.'" He certainly did not intend this to be a regulative canon. Each second aorist must be considered separately; and so we find another, ξκαμον, used ingressively, as in Xen. Hell. iii. 3. 1, 'Αγις αφικόμενος είς Δελφούς και την δεκάτην αποθύσας, πάλιν απιών ξκαμεν έν 'Ηραία, γέρων ήδη ών, και απηνέχθη είς Λακεδαίμονα ξτι ζών, έκεῖ δὲ ταχύ ἐτελεύτησεν. v. 3. 19, ἐβδομαῖος ἀφ' οῦ ξκαμεν ξξω τοῦ ἰεροῦ ἐτελεύτησεν. In these sentences νοσήσαι might have been used.

The paper was discussed by Professor Gildersleeve.

Professor J. H. Wright here referred to the improved financial condition of the Association, and moved that the Executive Committee be requested to consider and act upon the question of restoring the honorarium of the Secretary. The motion was carried without a dissenting voice. The Executive Committee voted that the salary of the Secretary should be \$250 for the year 1892-93.

Professor F. A. March, of Lafayette College, reported as Chairman of the Committee on Spelling Reform.

The Committee has not taken any official action during the year. The Century Dictionary has publisht in the last volume the list of amended spellings according to the rules jointly recommended by the Philological Society, of England, and the American Philological Association, with introductory remarks by Professor W. D. Whitney. This is the list publisht in the Transactions of this Association in 1886. There is a movement among the scientists connected with the United States departments at Washington to secure the organization of a government Board on the orthography of scientific terms, similar to the Board on Geographic Names appointed in 1890 by President Harrison. The chemists in the American Association for the advancement of science hav taken action toward a reform of their technical terms. Many petitions hav been presented to Congress for the adoption of some amended spellings, and hearings hav been had before the Committee on Education of the House of Representatives.

The report was accepted, and the Committee continued. It now consists of Messrs. March (Chairman), Child, Lounsbury, Price, Trumbull, and Whitney.

The following papers, which were announced in the circular issued before the meeting, were withdrawn by their authors:—

The Rhesus ascribed to Euripides, by Professor John C. Rolfe, of the University of Michigan.

The Time and Place of Greek Plays, by Professor Thomas D. Seymour, of Yale University.

Scythes and Cos, by Professor J. H. Wright, of Harvard University. After receiving an invitation to visit the Chapel and Museum of the University, the Association adjourned at 1 P.M.

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1892-93.

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This list has been corrected up to January, 1893; permanent addresses are given, as far as may be. Names where the residence is lest blank are either of members who are in Europe, or of those whose addresses are not known to the Secretary. The Secretary and the Publishers beg to be kept informed of all changes of address.

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#### CONSTITUTION

#### OF THE

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#### ARTICLE I. - NAME AND OBJECT.

- 1. This Society shall be known as "The American Philological Association."
- 2. Its object shall be the advancement and diffusion of philological knowledge.

#### ARTICLE II. - OFFICERS.

- 1. The officers shall be a President, two Vice-Presidents, a Secretary and Curator, and a Treasurer.
- 2. There shall be an Executive Committee of ten, composed of the above officers and five other members of the Association.
- 3. All the above officers shall be elected at the last session of each annual meeting.

#### ARTICLE III. - MEETINGS.

- 1. There shall be an annual meeting of the Association in the city of New York, or at such other place as at a preceding annual meeting shall be determined upon.
- 2. At the annual meeting, the Executive Committee shall present an annual report of the progress of the Association.
- 3. The general arrangements of the proceedings of the annual meeting shall be directed by the Executive Committee.
- 4. Special meetings may be held at the call of the Executive Committee, when and where they may decide.

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#### ARTICLE IV. - MEMBERS.

- 1. Any lover of philological studies may become a member of the Association by a vote of the Executive Committee and the payment of five dollars as initiation fee, which initiation fee shall be considered the first regular annual fee.
- 2. There shall be an annual fee of three dollars from each member, failure in payment of which for two years shall ipso facto cause the membership to cease.
- 3. Any person may become a life member of the Association by the payment of fifty dollars to its treasury, and by vote of the Executive Committee.

#### ARTICLE V. - SUNDRIES.

- 1. All papers intended to be read before the Association must be submitted to the Executive Committee before reading, and their decision regarding such papers shall be final.
- 2. Publications of the Association, of whatever kind, shall be made only under the authorization of the Executive Committee.

### ARTICLE VI. - AMENDMENTS.

Amendments to this Constitution may be made by a vote of two-thirds of those present at any regular meeting subsequent to that in which they have been proposed.

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