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## COMPARATIVE GRAMMAR

of the<br>SANSCRIT, ZEND,<br>GREEK, LATIN, LITHUANIAN, GOTHIC, GERMAN,<br>AND SCLAVONIC LANGUAGES.

BY
PROFESSOR F. BOPP.
translated from the german

## BY

EDW ARD B. EASTWICK, F.R.S., F.S.A., M.R.A.S.
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LONDON:
JOHN MURRAY, albemarle strebt.
1854.


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THE CHAIRMAN, THE DEPUTY CHAIRMAN, AND

## THE DIRECTORS

OF THE

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PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION.
the adoption of the Work as a Lecture Book at Oxford, and by the extensive use which Rawlinson and other eminent scholars have made of it in their researches.

It remains to be added, that while the Notes and Preface made by Professor Wilson, the former Editor, have been retained, I must be myself held responsible for the errors and defects, whatever they may be, of the present edition.

EDWARD B. EASTWICK.

## Hailrybury Collrar,

February, 1854.

## PREFACE

TO THE
SECOND EDITION.

In giving to the Public this Second Edition of the English Translation of Bopp's great work on Comparative Grammar, it is right to state that the version has been approved by Professor Bopp himself, and that it has been again very carefully compared with the original; so that numerous errors, which, from the great length of the work were perhaps hardly to be avoided in a first edition, have now been corrected. The appearance of the original, too, in parts, and at considerable intervals of time, led to some inconsistencies in the translation in the mode of expressing the value of certain letters; but care has been taken to rectify this defect, also, in the present edition. The Table of Contents is altogether new, and will be found to be very much more copious than the German.
Those who wish for an Introductory Notice before commencing the study of the Grammar, or who mean to content themselves with a general notion of what has been achieved by the Author, may refer to the "Edinburgh Review," No. CXCII. p. 298, and the "Calcutta Review," No. XXIV. p. 468. It will be there seen that this Work has created a new epoch in the science of Comparative Philology, and that it may be justly assigned a place in that department of study corresponding to that of "Newton's Principia in Mathematics, Bacon's Novum Organum in Mental Science, or Blumenbach in Physiology." The encomiums of the Reviewer have in fact been justified by

## PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION.

the adoption of the Work as a Lecture Book at Oxford, and by the extensive use which Rawlinson and other eminent scholars have made of it in their researches.

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EDWARD B. EASTWICK.

Hallrybury Collrar,
February, 1854.

## PREFACE

TO THE

## FIRST EDITION.

The study of Comparative Philology has of late years been cultivated in Germany, especially, with remarkable ability and proportionate success. The labours of Grimm, Роtt, Bopp, and other distinguished Scholars, have given a new character to this department of literature; and have substituted for the vague conjectures suggested by external and often accidental coincidences, elementary principles, based upon the prevailing analogies of articulate sounds and the grammatical structure of language.
But although the fact that a material advance has been made in the study of Comparative Philology is generally known, and some of the particulars have been communicated to the English public through a few works on Classical Literature, or in the pages of periodical criticism; yet the full extent of the progress which has been effected, and the steps by which it has been attained, are imperfectly appreciated in this country. The study of the German language is yet far from being extensively pursued; and the results which the German Philologers have developed, and the reasonings which have led to them, being accessible to those only who can consult the original writers, are withheld from many individuals of education and learning to whom the affinities of cultivated speech are objects of interest and inquiry. Translations of the works, in which the information they would gladly seek
for, is conveyed, are necessary to bring within their reach the materials that have been accumulated by German industry and erudition, for the illustration of the history of human speech.

Influenced by these considerations, Lord Francis Egerton was some time since induced to propose the translation of a work which occupies a prominent place in the literature of Comparative Philology on the Continent-the Vergleichende Grammatik of Professor Bopp of Berlin. In this work a new and remarkable class of affinities has been systematically and elaborately investigated. Taking as his standard the Sanskrit language, Professor Bopp has traced the analogies which associate with it and with each other-the Zend, Greek, Latin, Gothic, German, and Sclavonic tongues: and whatever may be thought of some of his arguments, he may be considered to have established beyond reasonable question a near relationship between the languages of nations separated by the intervention of centuries, and the distance of half the globe, by differences of physical formation and social institutions,-between the forms of speech current among the dark-complexioned natives of India and the fair-skinned races of ancient and modern Europe;-a relationship of which no suspicion existed fifty years ago, and which has been satisfactorily established only within a recent period, during which the Sanskrit language has been carefully studied, and the principles of alphabetical and syllabic modulation upon which its grammatical changes are founded, have been applied to its kindred forms of speech by the Philologers of Germany.

As the Vergleichende Grammatik of Professor Bopp is especially dedicated to a comprehensive comparison of languages, and exhibits, in some detail, the principles of the Sanskrit as the ground-work and connecting bond of the comparison, it was regarded as likely to offer most interest to the Philologers of this country, and to be one of

## $6^{D}$




































tion of the Vergleichende Grammatik. He has accordingly translated all those portions of the Comparative Grammar, the rendering of which was incompatible with the leisure of the Noble Lord with whom the design originated, who has borne a share in its execution, and who has taken a warm and liberal interest in its completion.
The Vergleichende Grammatik, originally published in separate Parts, has not yet reached its termination, In his first plan the author comprised the affinities of Sanskrit, Zend, Greek, Latin, Gothic, and its Teutonic descendants. To these, after the conclusion of the First Part, he added the Sclavonic. He has since extended his researches to the analogies of the Celtic and the Malay-Polynesian dialects, but has not yet incorporated the results with his general Grammar. The subjects already treated of are quite sufficient for the establishment of the principles of the comparison, and it is not proposed to follow him in his subsequent investigations. The first portions of the present Grammar comprise the doctrine of euphonic alphabetical changes, the comparative inflexions of Substantives and Adjectives, and the affinities of the Cardinal and Ordinal Numerals. The succeeding Parts contain the comparative formation and origin of the Pronouns and the Verbs: the latter subject is yet unfinished. The part of the translation now offered to the public stops with the chapter on the Numerals, but the remainder is completed, and will be published without delay. .

With respect to the translation, I may venture to affirm, although pretending to a very slender acquaintance with German, that it has been made with great scrupulousness and care, and that it has required no ordinary pains to render in English, with fidelity and perspicuity, the not unfrequently difficult and obscure style of the original.
H. H. WILSON.

Ootober, 1845.

## PREFACE.

I contemplate in this work a description of the comparative organization of the languages enumerated in the title page, comprehending all the features of their relationship, and an inquiry into their physical and mechanical laws, and the origin of the forms which distinguish their grammatical relations. One point alone I shall leave untouched, the secret of the roots, or the foundation of the nomenclature of the primary ideas. I shall not investigate, for example, why the root $i$ signifies " go" and not "stand"; why the combination of sounds stha or sta signifies "stand" and not "go." I shall attempt, apart from this, to follow out as it were the language in its stages of being and march of development; yet in such a manner that those who are predetermined not to recognise, as explained, that which they maintain to be inexplicable, may perhaps find less to offend them in this work than the avowal of such a general plan might lead them to expect. In the majority of cases the primary signification, and, with it, the primary source of the grammatical forms, spontaneously present themselves to observation in consequence of the extension of our horizon of language, and of the confronting of sisters of the same lingual stock separated for ages, but bearing indubitable features of their family connection. In the treatment, indeed, of our European tongues a new epoch could not fail to open upon us in the discovery of another region in the world of language, namely, the Sanskrit,* of which it has been demonstrated, that, in its

[^0]grammatical constitution, it stands in the most intimate relation to the Greek, the Latin, the Germanic, \&c. ; so that it has afforded, for the first time, a firm foundation for the comprehension of the grammatical connection between the two languages called the Classical, as well as of the relation of these two to the German, the Lithuanian, and Sclavonic. Who could have dreamed a century ago that a language would be brought to us from the far East, which should accompany, pari passî, nay, sometimes surpass, the Greek in all those perfections of form which have been hitherto considered the exclusive property of the latter, and be adapted throughout to adjust the perennial strife between the Greek dialects, by enabling us to determine where each of them has preserved the purest and the oldest forms?
The relations of the ancient Indian languages to their European kindred are, in part, so palpable as to be obvious to every one who casts a glance at them, even from a distance: in part, however, so concealed, so deeply implicated in the most secret passages of the organization of the language, that we are compelled to consider every language subjected to a comparison with it, as also the language itself, from new stations of observation, and to employ the highest powers of grammatical science and method in order to recognise and illustrate the original unity of the different grammars. The Semitic languages are of a more compact nature, and, putting out of sight lexicographical and syntactical features, extremely meagre in contrivance; they had little to part with, and of necessity have handed down to succeeding ages what they were endowed with at starting. The triconsonantal fabric of their roots (§. 107.), which distinguishes this race from others, was already of itself sufficient to designate the parentage of every individual of the family. The family bond, on the other hand, which embraces the Indo-European race of languages, is not indeed less universal, but, in most of its bearings, of a quality infinitely more refined. The members of this race inherited, from the period of their earliest youth,
endowments of exceeding richness, and, with the capability (§. 108.), the methods, also, of a system of unlimited composition and agglutination. Possessing much, they were able to bear the loss of much, and yet to retain their local life; and by multiplied losses, alterations, suppressions of sounds, conversions and displacements, the members of the common family are become" scarcely recognisable to each other It is at least a fact, that the relation of the Greek to the Latin, the most obvious and palpable, though never quite overlooked, has been, down to our time, grossly misunderstood; and that the Roman tongue, which, in a grammatical point of view, is associated with nothing but itself, or with what is of its own family, is even now usually regarded as a mixed language, because, in fact, it contains much which sounds heterogeneous to the Greek, although the elements from which these forms arose are not foreign to the Greek and other sister languages, as I have endeavoured partly to demonstrate in my "System of Conjugation." *

The close relationship between the Classical and Germanic languages has, with the exception of mere comparative lists of words, copious indeed, but destitute of principle and critical judgment, remained, down to the period of the appearance of the Asiatic intermediary, almost entirely unobserved, although the acquaintance of philologists with the Gothic dates now from a century and a half; and that language is so perfect in its Grammar and so clear in its affinities, that had it been earlier submitted to a rigorous and systematic process of comparison and anatomical investigation, the pervading relation

[^1]of itself, and, with it, of the entire Germanic stock, to the Greek and Roman, would necessarily have long since been unveiled, tracked through all its variations, and by this time been understood and recognised by every philologer.* For what is more important, or can be more earnestly desired by the cultivator of the classical languages, than their comparison with our mother tongue in her oldest and most perfect form? Since the Sanskrit has appeared above our horizon, that element can no longer be excluded from a really profound investigation of any province of language related to it; a fact, however, which sometimes escapes the notice of the most approved and circumspect labourers in this department. $\dagger$ We need

[^2]
## PREFACE.

not fear that that practical and profound research in utraque lingua, which is of most importance to the philologer can suffer prejudice by extension over too many languages; for the variety vanishes when the real identity is recognised and explained, and the false light of discrepancy is excluded. It is one thing, also, to learn a language, another to teach one, i.e. to describe its mechanism and organization. The learner may confine himself within the narrowest limits, and forbear to look beyond the language to be studied: the teacher's glance, on the contrary, must pass beyond the confined limits of one or two members of a family, and he must summon around him the representatives of the entire race, in order to infuse life, order, and organic mutual dependency into the mass of the languages spread before him. To attempt this appears to me the main requirement of the present period, and past centuries have been accumulating materials for the task.

The Zend Grammar could only be recovered by the process of a severe regular etymology, calculated to bring back the unknown to the known, the much to the little; for this remarkable language, which in many respects reaches beyond, and is an improvement on, the Sanskrit, and makes its theory more attainable, would appear to be no longer intelligible to the disciples of Zoroaster. Rask, who had the opportunity to satisfy himself on this head, says expressly (V. d. Hagen, p. 33) that its forgotten lore has yet to be rediscovered. I am also able, I believe, to demonstrate that the Pehlvi translator (tom. II. pp. 476, et seq.) of the Zend Vocabulary, edited by Anquetil, has frequently and entirely failed in conveying the grammatical sense of the Zend words which he translates. The work abounds with singular mistakes; and the distorted relation of Anquetil's French translation to the Zend expressions is usually to be ascribed to the mistakes in the Pehlvi interpretations of the Zend original. Almost all the oblique cases, by degrees, come to take rank as nominatives; the numbers, too, are sometimes mistaken. Further, we find forms
of cases produced by the Pehlvi translator as verbal persons, and next these also confounded with each other, or translated by abstract nouns.* Anquetil makes, as far as I know, no

* I give the Zend expressions according to the system of representation explained in $\S .30$., annexing the original characters, which are exhibited in type for the first time in this book, and which were lately cut at the order of the Royal Society of Literature by R. Gotzig, according to the excmplar of the lithographed M.S. of M. Burnouf. I give the Pehlvi words exactly according to Anquetil (II. 435.): GEg-WĢ ahmâkĕm, " $\eta_{\mu} \omega \hat{\nu}$, " P. rouman (cf. p. 502, roman, "nos"), A. "je," "moi;" uSJsser"s alubya, "bonis" (with dual termination, §.215.), P.avaêh, A. "bon,"
 Gqu"gu anhěm, "I was," or also "I am," P. djanounad, "he is," A. "il
 avaêshaǹm, "horum," P.varmouschan, "ii," A. "eux;" צpsus/גss baraiti, "fert," P, dadrouneschné, "the carrying" (eschné, in Pehlvi, forms abstract substantives), A. "il porte," "il execute," "porter;" $\mu \geqslant, \checkmark$ bits, " twice,"
 bus?" unquestionably a plural dative and ablative), P. dadrouneschné, "the
 tâcha, "eaque" (neut. §. 231.), P. zakedj, A. "ce", Џpare jatô, "the smitten" (ef. Sansk, hatas from han), P. maitouned, "he smites," A. "il frappe;" ponjuy janat, "he smote," P. maitouneschné, "the smiting," A. "frapper;" *) Gpus zanithra, "per genitorem," P. zarhounad, "gignit," A. "il engendre;" \{ीpos ṡtri, "femina," P. vakad, A. "femelle;" Gi? "stellarum," P. setaran, A. "les étoiles;" swpurgudd fra-dâtai, " to the given," or "especially given," P. feraz deheschné (nomen actionis), A. "donner abondamment;" Gx̃jubrone gaethanaim, "mundorum,"
 que," P. gäh, A, "lieu;" volvy nars, "of the man," P. guebna hamat advak, A. "un homme;" د准 nara, "two men," P. guebna hamat dou,
 rik hamat sè, A. "trois (ou plusieurs) femmes;" Ģujs) thryanm, "trium," P. sevin, A. " troisième;" دNGEENUG vahmèmcha, "praclarumque," P. náaeschné, "adoratio," A. "je fais néaesch;" دuExvls vahmäi, "preelaro," P néaeseh, konam, "adorationem facio," A. "je bénis
remark on the age of the Vocabulary to which I advert; while he ascribes to another, in which the Pehlvi is interpreted through the Persian, an antiquity of four centuries. The
et fais néuesch." I do not insist on translating the adjective u¢ful vahma by "praclarus," but I am certain of this, that vahmem and valimai are nothing else than the accusative and dative of the base valima; and that دuEsuly vahmai could be the first person of a verb is not to be thought possible for a moment. Anquetil, however, in the interlinear version of the beginning of the V.S. attempted by him, gives twoother evident dativescompounded with the particle xjp cha, "and," as the first person singular of the
 frasaśtayaế-cha (see §. 164.), by "placere cupio," "vota facio." One then sees, from the examples here adduced, the number of which Icould with ease greatly increase, that the Pehlvi Translator of the said Vocabulary has, no more than Anquetil, any grammatical acquaintance with the Zend language, and that both regarded it rather in the light of an idiom, poor in inflexions; so that, as in Pehlvi and Modern Persian, the grammatical power of the members of a sentence would be to be gathered rather from their position than from their terminations. And Anquetil expressly says (II. 415.): "La construction dans la langue Zende, semblable en cela uux autres îdiômes de TOrient, est astreinte à peu de regles (!). La formation des tems des Verbes y est à peu prìs la même que dans le Persan, plus trainante cependant, parce qu'elle est accompagnée de toutes les voyelles (!). How stands it, then, with the Sanskrit translation of the Jzeschne made from the Pehlvi more than three centuries before that of Anquetil. This question will, without doubt, be very soon answered by M. E. Burnouf, who has already supplied, and admirably illustrated (Nouv. Journ. Asiat., T. III. p. 321), two passages from the work in a very interesting extract from its Commentary on the V. S. These passages are, however, too short to permit of our grounding on them overbold inferences as to the whole; moreover, their contents are of such a nature that the inflexionless Pehlvi language could follow the Zend original almost verbatim. The one passage signifies, "I call upon, I magnify the excellent pure spell, and the excellent man, the pure and the strict, strong like Dámi (? cf. Sansk. upamana, "similarity;" and V.S., p. 423, dämôis drujô) Izet." It is, however, very surprising, and of evil omen, that Neriosengh, or his Pehlvi predecessor, takes the feminine genitive dahmayas as a plural genitive, since this expression is evidently, as Burnouf rightly remarks, only an epithet of afritôis. I abstain from speaking of the dubions expressions damöis upamanahe, and content my-
one in question cannot therefore be ascribed to any very late period. The necessity, indeed, of interpretation for the Zend must have been felt much sooner than for the Pehlvi, which remained much longer current among the Parsee tribes. It was therefore an admirable problem which had for its solution the bringing to light, in India, and, so to say, under the very eye of the Sanskrit, a sister language, no longer understood, and obscured by the rubbish of ages;-a problem of which the solution indeed has not hitherto been fully obtained, but beyond doubt will be. The first contribution to the knowledge of this language which can be relied on-that of Rask-namely, his treatise " On the age and authenticity of the Zend Language and the Zend-Avesta," published in 1826, and made generally accessible by V. d. Hagen's translation, deserves high honour as a first attempt. The Zend has to thank this able man (whose premature death we deeply deplore) for the more natural appearance which it has derived from his rectification of the value of its written characters. Of three words of different declensions he gives us the singular inflections, though with some sensible deficiencies, and those, too, just in the places where the Zend forms are of most interest, and where are some which display that independence of the Sanskṛit which Rask claims, perhaps in too high a degree, for the Zend; a language we are, however, unwilling to receive as a mere dialect of the Sanskrit, and to which we are compelled to ascribe an independent existence, resembling that of the Latin as compared with the Greek, or the Old Northern with the Gothic. For the rest, I refer the reader to my review of Rask's ànd Bohlen's treatises on the Zend in the Annual of Scientific Criticism for December 1831, as also to an earlier work (March 1831) on the able labours of E. Burnouf in this newly-

[^3]opened field. My observations, derived from the original texts edited by Burnouf in Paris, and by Olshausen in Hamburgh, already extend themselves, in these publications, over all parts of the Zend Grammar; and nothing therefore has remained for me here, but firther to establish, to complete, and to adjust the particulars in such a manner that the reader may be conducted on a course parallel with that of the known languages, with the greatest facility towards an acquaintance with the newly-discovered sister tongue. In order to obviate the difficulty and the labour which attend the introduction of the learner to the Zend and Sanskrit-difficulty sufficient to deter many, and to harass any one-I have appended to the original characters the pronunciation, laid down on a consistent method, or in places where, for reasons of space, one character alone is given, it is the Roman. This method is also perhaps the best for the gradual introduction of the reader to the knowledge of the original characters.

As in this work the languages it embraces are treated for their own sakes, i.e. as objects and not means of knowledge, and as I aim rather at giving a physiology of them than an introduction to their practical use, it has been in my power to omit many particulars which contribute nothing to the character of the whole; and I have gained thereby more space for the discussion of matters more important, and more intimately incorporated with the vital spirit of the language. By this process, and by the strict observance of a method which brings under one view all points mutually dependent and mutually explanatory, I have, as I flatter myself, succeeded in assembling under one group, and in a reasonable space, the leading incidents of many richly-endowed languages or grand dialects of an extinct original stock. Special care has been bestowed throughout on the German. This care was indispensable to one who, following Grimm's admirable work, aimed at applying to it the correction and adjustment that had become necessary in his theory of relations, the discovery of new affinities, or the more precise definition of those discovered, and to catch, with greater truth, at every step of grammatical progress, the
monitory voices of the Asiatic as well as the European sisterhood. It was necessary, also, to set aside many false appearances of affinity; as, for example, to deprive the $i$ in the Lithuanian geri of its supposed connection with the $i$ of Gothic, Greek, and Latin forms, such as gódai, $\dot{\alpha} \gamma \alpha \theta o t$, boni (see p. 251, Note $\dagger$, and compare Grimm I. 827.11); and to disconnect the Latin is of lupis (lupibus) from the Greek is of $\lambda$ úкотs ( $\lambda$ úкоь- $\sigma t$ ). As concerns the method followed in treating the subject of Germanic grammar, it is that of deducing all from the Gothic as the guiding star of the German, and explaining the latter simultaneously with the older languages and the Lithuanian. At the close of each lecture on the cases, a tabular view is given of the results obtained, in which every thing naturally depends on the most accurate distinction of the terminations from the base, which ought not, as usually happens, to be put forward capriciously, so that a portion of the base is drawn into the inflection, by which the division becomes not merely useless, but injurious, as productive of positive error. Where there is no real termination none should be appended for appearance sake: thus, for example, we give, §. 148, p. 164, the nominatives $\chi \omega \rho \alpha$, terra, giba, \&c., as without inflection cf. §.137. The division gib- $a$ would lead us to adopt the erroneous notion that $a$ is the termination, whereas it is only the abbreviation of the $\sigma$ (from the old $\alpha, \S .69$.) of the theme.* In certain instances it is extraordi-

[^4]narily difficult in languages not now thoroughly understood to hit on the right divisions, and to distinguish apparent terminations from true. I have never attempted to conceal these difficulties from the reader, but always to remove them from his path.

The High German, especially in its oldest period (from the eighth to the eleventh century), I have only mentioned in the general description of forms when it contributes something of importance. The juxta-position of it in its three main periods with the Gothic, grammatically explained at the close of each chapter, is sufficient, with a reference also to the treatise on sounds intended to prepare and facilitate my whole Graminar, after the model of my Sanskrit Grammar. Wherever, in addition, explanatory remarks are necessary, they are given. The second part will thus begin with the comparative view of the Germanic declensions, and 1 shall then proceed to the adjectives, in order to describe their formations of gender and degrees of comparison; from these to the pronouns.

As the peculiarities of inflection of the latter must have, for the most part, already been discussed in the doctrine of the universal formation of the cases, inasmuch as they are intimately connected and mutually illustrative, what will remain to be said on their behalf will claim the less space, and the main compass of the second division will remain for the verb. To the formation and comparison of words it is my intention to devote a separate work, which may be considered as a completion of its antecedent. In this latter the particles, conjunctions, and original prepositions, will find their place, being, I consider, partly offshoots of pronominal roots, and partly naked roots of

[^5]this class of words,* and which will, therefore, be treated in this point of view among the pronominal adjectives. $\dagger$ It is likely that a chasm in our literature, very prejudicial to inquiries of this kind, may be shortly filled up by a work ready for the press, and earnestly looked for by all friends of German and general philology, the Old High German Treasury of Graff. What we may expect from a work founded on a comprehensive examination of the MS. treasures of libraries national and foreign, as well as on a correction of printed materials, may be gathered from a survey of the amount contributed to knowledge in a specimen of the work, small, but happily selected, "The Old High German Prepositions."

[^6]Berlin, 1833.

## COMPARATIVE GRAMMAR.

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CHARACTERS AND SOUNDS.
Sanskrit writing distinguishes the long from their corresponding short vowels by particular characters, slightly differing from these latter in form. We distinguish the long vowels, and the diphthongs $e e$ and जो $o$, which spring from $i$ and $u$ united with an antecedent $a$, by a circumflex. The simple vowels are, first, the three, original and common to all languages, $a, i$, $u$, short and long; secondly, a vowel $r$, peculiar to the Sanskrit, which I distinguish by $r$, and its long sound by $\overline{\boldsymbol{r}}$. The short $r$ ( $\overline{\boldsymbol{T}}$ ) is pronounced like the consonant $r$ with a scarcely-distinguishable $i$, and in European texts is usually written ri ; the long $\bar{r}$ (चु) is scarcely to be distinguished from the union of an $r$ with a long $i$. Both vowels appear to me to be of later origin; and $r$ presents itself generally as a shortening of the syllable ar by suppression of the $a$, The long $\bar{r}$ (चु) is of much rarer occurrence. In declension it stands only for a lengthening of the $r$, where, according to the laws of the formation of cases, a short vowel at the end of the inflective base must be lengthened; and in the conjugation and formation of words, those roots to which grammarians assign a terminating चig $\bar{r}$ almost always substitute for this unoriginal vowel षर्ट $a r$, द् $i r$, ईं $\hat{i} r$, or, after labials, 险 $\hat{u}$. The last simple vowel of the Sanskrit writing belongs more to the grammarians [G. Ed.p.2.] than to the language: it is in character, as well as in pronunciation, an union of an रू $l$ with $r$ ( $\bar{\sigma}$ ), or, when lengthened, with च्f $\bar{r}$ (ल). We require no representative for this vowel, and shall not further advert to it.
2. Sanskrit possesses two kinds of diphthongs. In the one,
a short $a$ united with a following $i$ becomes $\mathbb{E} \ell$ (equivalent to the French ai), and with $u$ becomes क्षो $\sigma$ (equivalent to the French $a u$ ); so that neither of the united elements is heard, but both melt into a third sound. In the second kind, a long $a$ with a following $i$ becomes ऐ $a i$, and with $u$, षै $a u$, as in the German words waise, baum ; so that the two elements form indeed one syllable, but are both audible. In order, however, to fix the observation on the greater weight of the $a$ in this diphthong, we write $đ i$ for ऐ, and $đ u$ for खी. That in ए $\ell$ and झो $b$ a short, in ऐ $\bar{a} i$ and सी $d u$, a long $a$ is bound up, I infer from this, that where, in order to avoid a hiatus, the last element of a diphthong merges into its corresponding semi-vowel, out of ए $\ell$ and $\begin{aligned} & 6 \\ & 6\end{aligned}$ proceed the sounds सय् ay and खब् av (with short a), but out of ऐ $a i$ and شी $a u$ proceed $a y$ and $a v$. If, according to the rules of combination, a concluding wा $a$, with an $₹ i$, ई $\hat{i}$, or उ $u$, उ $\hat{u}$ of a following word, be contracted, like the short $a$, into ₹ $\hat{e}$ and बो $\theta$, but not into ऐ $đ i$ and क्षे $A u$, this, in my view, is to be understood as if the long $a$, before its combination with the initial vowel of the following word, had shortened itself. This should the less surprise us, as the long $a$ before a dissimilar vowel of an appended inflexion or a suffix entirely disappears; and, for example, ददा dada with उस् us makes neither ददोस् dadaus, nor ददोस् dados, but दनुस् dadus. The opinion I have already expressed on [G. Ed. p.8.] this point I have since found confirmed by the Zend; in which sw $A i$ always stands in the place
 support, also, of my theory, appears the fact, that a concluding $a$ (short or long) with a following $₹ \hat{e}$ or wो $\delta$, becomes ऐ $d i$ and बी $đ u$; of which it is to be understood, that the short $a$ contained in $\hat{e}$ and $\hat{b}$ merges with the antecedent $a$ into a long $a$, which then, with the $i$ of the diphthong $t$, becomes $\Delta i$, and with the $u$ of $\delta$, becomes $d u$. For example, ममित्र् mamaitat, from मम एतत् mama etat, is to be understood
as if the diphthong ₹ $e$ united its first element $a$ with the preceding $a$ into $a$, and with this, further united its last element (i) into ऐ $\begin{gathered}a \\ \text {. }\end{gathered}$
3. Among the simple vowels the old Indian alphabet is deficient in the designation of the Greek epsilon and omicron ( $\varepsilon$ and o), whose sounds, if they existed when the Sanskrit was a living language, yet could only have evolved themselves, subsequently to the fixing of its written character, out of the short $a$; for an alphabet which lends itself to the subtlest gradations of sound would assuredly not have neglected the difference between $\breve{a}$, $\breve{e}$, and $\breve{b}$, if the sounds had been forthcoming.* It is important here to observe, that in the oldest Germanic dialect, namely, the Gothic, the sounds and characters of the short $\varepsilon$ and $o$ are also wanting, and that either $a, i$, or $u$ corresponds, in that dialect, to our German short $e$. For example, fallha, "ich falte," "I fold;" giba, "ich gebe," "I give." In the Zend the Sanskrit ज $a$ remains usually $\boldsymbol{v} a$, or has changed itself, according to certain [G. Ed. p. 4.] rules, into $\& ~$ e. Thus, for example, before a concluding $m$ we always find $\varepsilon$ ĕ; compare the accusative $\xi \varepsilon$ 亿Gっ puthrĕ-m "filium" with पुन्त्् putra-m; and its genitive wers)/bso puthra-he with पुन्त्स putra-sya. In Greek the Sanskrit स $a$ becomes $\breve{\alpha}, \epsilon$, or $o$, without presenting any certain rules for the choice on each occasion between these three vowels; but the prevailing practice is, that in the terminations of nominal bases the Greek o answers to the Indian 주 $a$, except in the vocatives, where an $e$ is substituted. In the Latin, besides $\breve{a}, \breve{e}$, and $\check{o}, u$ also is employed, in the terminations of nouns of the second declension and of the first person plural, as also in some adverbial suffixes, to replace the Sanskrit 뿌 $a$.
4. As in the Greek the short Sanskrit $a$ is oftener replaced by $e$ or othan by a short $a$, so the long wr $a$ is oftener re-

[^7]presented by $\eta$ or $\omega$ than by a long alpha: and though in the Doric the long $\alpha$ has maintained itself in places where the ordinary dialect employs an $\eta$, no similar trace of the long $\bar{a}$ for $\omega$ is to be found. दथामि dadhämi "I place," becomes $\tau i \theta \eta \mu$; ददामि dadami, "I give," $\delta i \delta \omega \mu$; the dual termination ताम् tam answers to $\tau \eta \nu$, and only in the imperative to $\tau \omega \nu$ : on the other hand, the wाम $A m$ of the genitive plural is always represented by $\omega v$. Never, if we except peculiarities of dialect, does either $\eta$ or $\omega$ stand for the Indian diphthongs ए $\ell$ or $\begin{gathered}\boldsymbol{w} \\ \ell\end{gathered}$, formed by ₹ $i$ or an उ $u$ following a long $\hat{a}$ : for the first, the Greek substitutes $\epsilon t$ or ol (because for w $a$, and also for $\alpha, \varepsilon$ and $o$ are the substitutes), and for the last, $\epsilon v$ or ov. Thus, रमि êmi, "I go," becomes $\epsilon \hat{\mu} \mu$; पतेस् pates, " thou mayest fall," तíntors; बेद vedda, "I know," oi $\partial \alpha$; गो $g o$, mas. fem. " a bullock or heifer," مoû-s. From this dropping of the $i$ or $u$ in the Indian diphthongs $\varepsilon$ and $\theta$ it
[G. Ed. p. 5.] may happen that $\alpha, e$, or $o$, answer to these diphthongs; thus, एकतरस् elkataras, "one of two," becomes éкর́тepos; देशृ dêvri,* " brother-in-law," Latin, levir (nom. देवा dêva, accus. देवरम् devar-am), becomes $\delta \alpha \eta \eta_{\rho}\left(f r o m ~ \delta \alpha F \eta{ }_{\eta} \rho, \delta \alpha t-\right.$ Fท́p); देवस् deva-s, "God," Өeós; and the o in ßoós, ßoî, stands for $\beta o u-$ os, , $\beta o u-i$, the $u$ of which must have passed into $F$, and certainly did so at first, as is proved by the transition into the Latin bovis, bovi, and the Indian गधि gavi (locative) from $g(-i$.
5. In Latin we sometimes find the long $e$, which, however, may be shortened by the influence of the following consonant, arising from the mixture of $a$ and $i$, as in the abovementioned word levir, and in the subjunctive amêmus of. कामयेम kamayêma from kamaya-ỉma.
6. If we inquire after the greater or less relative weight of the vowels of different quality, I have discovered, by

[^8]various but sure appearances, which I shall further illustrate in my treatise on Forms, that in Sanskrit ख $a$ and सा $d$ are graver than the corresponding quantity of the vowel $i$; and this discovery is of the utmost importance for every Treatise on special as well as comparative Grammar. It leads us, in particular, to important discoveries with respect to the Germanic modification of vowels. In Latin, also, the $i$ may be considered as lighter than $a$, and generally takes the place of the latter when a root with an original $a$ would otherwise be burthened with a reduplication of sound. Hence, for example, abjicio for abjacio, tetigi for tetagi. I am compelled by this view to retract an earlier conjecture, that the $i$ in tetigi was produced by a virtue of assimilation in the termination $i$. I have also to relieve myself from my former theory, that the $e$ in words like inermis, imberbis, instead of [G. Ed. p. 6.] inarmis, imbarbis, springs from a retrospective power of assimilation in the following $i$, after the fashion of the modification of the vowel in German (Grimm, p. 80), and must place it in the same class with the $e$ in such forms as abjectus and tubicen. The Latin radical $a$, for instance, is subject to a double alteration, when the root is burthened with antecedent syllables or words: it becomes $i$ in open syllables, but $e$ if the vowel is pressed upon by a following consonant unattended by a vowel. Hence we have tubicen, abjectus, in contrast to tubicinis, abjicio ; and inermis, imberbis, not inirmis, imbirbis: on the contrary, inimicus, insipidus, not inemicus, insepidus. In connection with this stands the transition of the first or second declension into the third. As $u s$ is the masculine form for $a$, we ought to say inermus, imberbus; but inermis, imberbis, and other such forms, owe their origin to the lesser weight of the $i$. With the displacement of the accent, where it occurs, this change of the vowel has nothing to do; but the removal of the accent and the weakening of the vowel are nearly related, and are both occasioned by the composition. In the Lithuanian we find similar appearances; as, for ex-
ample, ponas " lord," at the end of compounds, is weakened into ponis, as rotponis, " councillor," Germ. rathsherr."
7. Sanskrit Grammar gives no certain indication of the relative weight of the $u$ with regard to the other original vowels. The $u$ is a vowel too decided and full of character to allow of its being exchanged in this language, in relief of its weight, for any other letter. It is the most obstinate of all, and admits of no exclusion from a terminating syllable, in cases where $a$ and $i$ admit suppression. Nor will it retire
[G. Ed. p. 7.] from a reduplicated syllable in cases where $a$ allows itself to be weakened down to $i$. Thus in Latin we have pupugi, tutudi; while $a$, in cases of repetition, is reduced to $i$ or $\check{e}$ (tttigi, fefelli, \&c.) In the Gothic, also, the $u$ may boast of its pertinacity: it remains firm as the terminating vowel of nominal bases where $a$ and $i$ have undergone suppression, and in no single case has it been extinguished or transmuted. No power, however, exists which will not yield at last to time; and thus in the High German, whose oldest records are nearly four centuries younger than Ulphilas, the $u$ has, in many cases, given way, or become in declension similar to $i$.
8. If, in the matter of the relative dignity of the vowels, we cast a glance at another race of languages, we find in Arabic the $u$ taking precedence in nobility, as having its place in the nominative, while the declension is governed by the change of the terminating vowel; $i$, on the contrary, shews itself to be the weakest vowel, by having its place in the genitive, the most dependent case of the Arabic, and one which cannot be separated from the governing word. $I$, also, is continually used in cases where the grammatical relation is expressed by a preposition. Compare, also, in the plural, the una of the nominative with the termination ina of the oblique cases. $A$ stands between the strong $u$ and the weaker $i$; and under the threefold change of vowels has its place in the accusative, which admits of more freedom than the genitive. In the
oblique cases, however, of nouns, and in the two-fold change of vowels, it stands opposed to the $u$ of the nominative, and in the dependent subjunctive of the verb to the $u$ of the independent indicative.
9. Between the vowels and the consonants, or at the close of the list of vowels, are commonly placed two signs, the sounds of which are rather to be considered as ap- [G. Ed. p.8.] pendages to, or modifications of, the preceding vowels, than as independent sounds, and take, also, no place in the alphabet of the Native Grammarians, inasmuch as they are considered neither as consonants nor vowels, but rather as complements to the latter. The first, which we distinguish by $\dot{n}$, is called Anuswâra, "echo;" and is, in fact, a thick nasal echo, which I think is best represented by the nasal $n$ at the end of a French syllable. The weakness of its expression is discernible in the fact that it does not, like a consonant, impede the euphonic influence of an $i$ or $u$ on a following s, (see Sanskryit Grammar, R. $101^{2}$ ). It has its place before semi-vowels (य् $y$, र् $r$, ल् $l$ व् $v$ ), sibilants, and $h$; and we might thence term it the nasal of the two last lists of consonants, and assign its alphabetical place between them. A concluding म $m$, followed by a consonant of the said two lists, passes into Anuswâra; for example, तस्याम् tasyâm, "in this," becomes तस्पं tasyan, with the French nasal pronunciation of the $n$, if such a word as रात्रै ratrâu, " in the night," come after. In connection with the स् $s$ of a verbal termination, a radical न् $n$ also passes into Anuswâra ; as, हंसि hanisi, "thou killest," from हन् han. Great confusion, however, has arisen from the circumstance that the Indian copyists allow themselves to express the unaltered concluding म् $m$, as well as all the nasal alterations, and, in the middle of words, each of the six nasal sounds (the proper Anuswâra included), by Anuswâra.* I have

[^9]endeavoured, in my Grammar, to remedy this confusion in the simple theory of Anuswâra. My predecessors in the treatment of Sanskrit Grammar make no distinction between the real and the supposititious Anuswâra. Colebrooke gives it, in
[G. Ed. p.9] general, the pronunciation of $n$, and calls it "a shortening of the nasal consonants at the end of a syllable," which leads to the error, that each of the nasal characters, even the concluding न् $n$, may be abbreviated into Anuswâra. Forster expresses it by the $n$ in the English word plinth; Carey and Yates by the English combination ng; Wilkins by $m$. All substitute it for the concluding म् of grammatical terminations : and as they give rules for the transition of the Anuswâra into म् or न्, the necessary consequence occurs, that we must write abhavan or abhavang, "I was;" dantan or dantany, " a tooth;" not abhavam, dantam. Colebrooke, on the other hand, expressing a Sanskrit inscription in Roman letters (Asiatic Transactions, Vol. VII.) gives the proper termination $m$, and before $t$, by a euphonic rule, $n$; but he maintains the original $m$ before sibilants and half vowels where Anuswâra is due; as viduişham śrímad, for विद्विपiं vidwiṣhan. On the other hand, F. von Schlegel and Frank write n, for the value of Anuswâra, in the place of $m$ in several grammatical terminations. The first, for example, gives danan, "a gift," for dânam; the second, ahan for aham, "I." A. W. von Schlegel gives rightly $m$ instead of a spurious or representative Anuswâra at the end of words; and makes, for example, the infinitive termination in tum, not in tun or tung. He nevertheless, on this important point of grammar, retains the erroneous opinion, that the Anuswâra is a variable nasal, which, before vowels, must of necessity pass into $m$ (Preface to the Bhag. Gita, p. xv.); while the direct converse is the fact, that the concluding $m$ is

[^10]the variable nasal, which, under certain conditions, passes into the proper Anuswâra; but before vowels is necessarily retained, both in writing and pronunciation. [G. Ed. p. 10.]
That Von Schlegel also still continues the original म् $m$ at the end of words as an euphonic alteration of the dead sound of Anuswâra appears from his mode of printing Sanskrit text, in which he makes no division between a concluding म् $m$ and the commencing vowel of the following word; while he does make a division after न् $n$, and thereby shews that he admits a division after terminating letters which remain unaffected by the influence of the letters which follow. If, however, we write तान् क्रवीत् tan abravit, "he said to them," we must also write ताम् सद्रवी़् tâm abravit, " he said to her ;" not तामद्रवीत् tamabravit, for the म of ताम् $A M$ is original, and not, as Von Schlegel thinks, begotten out of Anuswâra. The conjecture of C. Lassen (Ind. Bibl. Book III. p. 39), that the Anuswâra is to be understood, not as an after sound (Nachlaut), nor as an echo (Nachhall), but as a sound which regulates itself by that which follows-as it were the term Nachlaut, with the accent on laut*-appears to me highly improbable. Schlegel's nasalis mutabilis would indeed be justified by this view, and the imputation of error removed from the Indian Grammarians, to whom we willingly concede a knowledge of the value of the Sanskrit signs of sound, and whom we are unwilling to censure for designating a half sound as mutable, in a language whose termi-

[^11]nating sounds are almost always governed by the following words. It is true the half sound owes its being to the mutability of a concluding $m$, but is not mutable itself, since it never has an independent existence of its own at the end of any word: in the middle, however, of a radical syllable, as दंश् danंs, fहंस् hins, it is susceptible of expulsion, but not of alteration.
[G. Ed.p.11.] That the Indian Grammarians, however, consider the $m$ and not the $\dot{n}$ as the original but mutable letter in grammatical terminations, like सम् am, भ्याम् bhyäm, \&c., appears from the fact that they always write these terminations, where they give them separate, with the labial nasal, and not with Anuswâra. If it be objected that this is of no importance, as dependent on the caprice of the editor or copyist, we can adduce as a decisive proof of the just views of the Indian Grammarians in this respect, that when they range the declensions of words in the order of their terminating letters, the Pronouns इदम् idam, and किम् kim, in which they consider the $m$ as primitive, are treated when the turn comes of the labial nasal $m$, and together with प्रशाम् prásam, "quiet," from the root शम् śam. (LaghuKaumudî, p. 46.)
10.The deadened nasal, which is expressed in the Lithuanian by particular signs over the vowel which it follows, appears to be identical with the Sanskrit Anuswâra; and we write it in the same manner with $\dot{n}$. At the end of words it stands for the remainder of an ancient $m$, in the accusative singular for example; and the deadening of $n$ before $s$ into $\dot{n}$ presents

[^12]a remarkable accordance with the Sanskrit rule of euphony before mentioned. From laupsin-u, "I praise," therefore comes laupsinisu, "I shall praise;" as in Sanskrit हंस्यामि hanisyAmi, "I shall kill," from the root हन् han. In the Prâkrit, not only the म् $^{m}$, but the न् $n$, at the end of words, has always fallen into Anuswâra, without regard to the following letters. Thus we read in Chezy's edition of the Śakuntalâ, p. 70, भक्षष, which is certainly to be pronounced, not bhaavam, but bhaavan, for भगषन् bhagavan; [G. Ed. p.12.] कुषं kudhañ, for कुप्य kutham."
11. The second of the signs before mentioned is named Visarga, which signifies abandonment. It expresses a breathing, which is never primitive, but only appears at the end of words in the character of an euphonic alteration of ㅍ. $s$ and ₹ $r$. These two letters $(s, r)$ are very mutable at the end of words, and are changed into Visarga before a pause or the deadened letters of the guttural and labial classes (§. 12.). We write this sign $h$ to distinguish it from the true $\bar{Z} h$.
12. The proper consonants are classed in the Sanskrit alphabet according to the organs used in their pronunciation; and form, in this division, five classes. A sixth is formed by the semi-vowels, and a seventh by the sibilants and the E $h$. In the first five ranks of these consonants the single letters are so arranged, that the first are the surd or hard consonants, the thin (tenues), and their aspirates; next, the sonant or soft, the medials, and their aspirates, each class being completed by its nasal. The nasals belong, like the vowels and semi-vowels, to the sonants; the sibilants to the surd or hard. Every thin and every medial letter has its corresponding aspirate. The aspirates are pronounced, like their

[^13]respective non-aspirates, with a clearly audible $h$; thus, for example, प् $\dot{t h}$, not like the English $t h$; प् $\hat{p} h$, not $f$ or $\phi$; and $\boldsymbol{x}^{\boldsymbol{k}} \mathrm{k}$, not like the Greek $\boldsymbol{\chi}$.* In an etymological point of view it is important to observe that the aspirates of different organs are easily exchanged with each other; thus, भर् bhar, षर् dhar, (भृ bhri, чृ dhri, §. 1.) " to bear," "to hold," are perhaps originally identical. धूमझ् dhûma-s,
[G. Ed. p. 13.] "smoke," is, in Latin, fumu-s. In Greek, $\theta \alpha \dot{\alpha} \nu \omega$, as well as $\phi \hat{\varepsilon} v \omega$, is related to हन् han, from ४न् dhan, "to kill." The Gothic thliuhan is the German fiehen, Old High German vliuhan.
13. The first class is that of the gutturals, and includes the
 is pronounced like the German $n$ before gutturals, as in the words sinken, enge, so as to prepare for the following guttural. In the middle of words it is only found before gutturals; and, at the end, supplies the place of n् $m$ when the following word begins with a guttural. $\dagger$ We write it without the distinctive sign, as its guttural nature is easily recognised by the following consonant. The aspirates of this class are not of frequent use, either at the beginning or end of words. In some Greek words we find $\chi$ in the place
 кóv $\chi^{\circ}$, with s’ankha, "shell;" $\chi^{\alpha i v \omega, ~} \chi^{\alpha \nu \omega}$, with khan," to

[^14]dig." As regards the sonant aspirates, the v $g h$ of gharma, "heat" (in Greek $\theta$ ép $\mu \eta$ ), has passed into the aspiration of another organ; लयु laghu, "light," has laid aside the guttural in the Latin levis, and, in virtue of the $i$, changed the $u$ into $v$. The guttural has kept its place in the German leicht, the English light, and the Old High German lihti.
14. The second class is that of the palatals; and includes the sounds $c h$ and $j$, with their aspirates and nasal. We write च् ch, च् chh, ज $j^{*}$ 拥 $j h,^{*}$ अ $n$. This class is an offshoot from the preceding, and to be considered as a softening of it. It is only found before vowels and weak consonants (semivowels and nasals); and before strong consonants, and at the end of a word, generally retires into the class from which it springs. Thus, for example, the base [G. Ed. p. 14.] वाच väch, "speech," "voice" (cf. vox), makes, in the uninflected nominative, वाक् vak; in the instrumental and locative plurals, वारिभस् vag-bhis, वाध्यु vảkşhu. In the cognate languages we have to look for, in the place of the letters of this class, first, gutturals; next labials, on account of their mutual affinity ; thirdly, the sounds of $t$, as, according to pronunciation, the first element of the palatals is a $t$ or $d$; fourthly, sibilants, as being the last element in the letters of this class. Compare पचामि pachami, "I cook" (inf. paktum, part. pass. pakta), with coquo, $\pi \dot{\epsilon} \pi \omega$ ( $\pi$ ध́ $\pi \tau \omega, \pi$ é $\tau \tau \omega, \pi \dot{\epsilon} \sigma \sigma \omega$ ); चतुर् chatur, "four," nom. चत्वारम् chatiodras, with quatuor, тétrapes, té $\sigma \alpha \rho \epsilon s$, Gothic fidvor, Lithuanian ketturi; पष्बन् panchan, "five" (nom. accus. pancha), with quinque, $\pi$ ย́vтe, $\pi$ п́ $\mu \pi \varepsilon$, Gothic fimf, Lithuanian penki; राजन् rajan, " king," with rex, regis; राजत rajata, nom. rajatam, "silver" (from raj, "to shine"), with argentum, áp $\rho v \rho o s ;$ जानु janu, " knee," with genu, خóvv. With regard to the aspirates of this class, the chh, as an initial letter in some words, answers to sc, $\sigma \kappa$; बिन्मस chhind-

[^15]mas, " we cleave," रिमीि chhinadmi, " " I cleave," answers to the Latin scindo; काया chhayd, " shadow," to the Greek oxıd. As the terminating letter of a root chh answers, in प्रब्ड prachh, " to ask," to the Gothic $h$ in frah, "I or he asked," and to the German and Latin $g$ in frage, rogo, in case that the latter, as I suspect, is a modification of progo. The nasal of this class, for which we require no distinctive sign, as it only precedes palatals, deviates but slightly from the sound of the guttural $n$, and is pronounced nearly like $n j$.
15. The third class is called that of the linguals or cerebrals, and embraces a peculiar kind of sounds of $t$, together with its [G. Ed. p. 15.] nasal; a kind not original, but which has developed itself from the ordinary class of $t$ sounds. We distinguish them by a point under the letter, thus, द्य $t$, द् $t h$, ₹ $d$, ढ् $d h$, ए. $n$. In the Prâkrit this class has obtained great supremacy, and has frequently supplanted the ordinary $t$. We there find, for example, भोडु bhbdu, for भबतु bhavatu, "let it be;" and पढम padhama, for प्रयम prathama, "the first." With regard to the nasal, the substitution of य् for न् is nearly universal. The Indian Grammarians approach the Prâkrit nearer than the Sanskrit, when at the beginning of roots they use the same substitution. The practice, also, which we have condemned (§.9.), of using Anuswâra for na $m$, at the end of words, is more Prâkrit than Sanskrit. At the beginning of words these letters are seldom found in Sanskrit, but they are found as terminations to a certain number of roots; for example, we् at., "to go." They are pronounced by bending back the tongue against the roof of the mouth, by which a hollow sound is expressed, as if from the head.* The nasal of this class has sometimes overstepped the limits of its usual laws: it is found before vowels, which

[^16]is not the case with the nasals of the preceding classes ; yet never at the beginning of words.
16. The fourth class embraces the dentals, or the sounds which properly answer to the common $d$ and $t$, together with the common $n$, which belongs to them, त् $t$, च् $t h$, द् $d$, प्dh, न् $n$. Of the aspirates of this organ, we have to remark, that v् $t h$, in an etymological respect, never-at least in no instance of which we are aware-is represented in Greek by $\theta$, but always like the natural $t$, by $\tau$. On the other hand, थ् $d h$ does correspond to $\theta$, which also sometimes represents द् $d$. Thus the imperative ending fy $d h i$, in Greek becomes $\theta_{l}$; मधु madhu, " honey," " wine," is $\mu$ é $\theta_{v}$; दधामि dadhami, "I place," $\tau i \theta \eta \mu$; दुहितर् duhitar [G. Ed. p. 16.] (दुहितृ duhitri, §. 1.), "daughter," Өvरáтทp ; हार् dwâr, f. and dwara, neut. (nom. dwâram), " door," Өúpa; देव déva, Lithuan. diewas, "God," Өcós. With regard to the hard aspirate, compare the terminations $\tau \epsilon$ and $\tau o \nu$ with च tha and चस् thas, the former in the plaral, the second in the dual of the present and future ; $\sigma \tau \eta \dot{\eta} \omega$ with स्थास्यामि sthâsyami, "I shall stand"; ふ̈ $\sigma \tau$ éov with सस्थि asthi, " bone"; in the Latin, rota with रv ratha, "carriage"; and in the Gothic, the ending $t$, in the second person singular of the preterite, with tha; for example, vais-t, "thou knewest," with बेत्य velt-tha. From the beginning of words in the Sanskrit this aspirate is nearly excluded.
17. The interchange of $d$ and $l$ is well known. Upon it, among other instances, is founded the relation of lacryma to д̀́кк $\rho v$, ঠóккрv $\alpha$. In Sanskrit, also, an apparently original द $d$ often corresponds to the $l$ of cognate European languages; for example, दीप् dip, "to light," दीप dipa, " lamp," becomes $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \mu \pi \omega, \lambda \alpha \mu \pi \alpha ́ s ; ~ द े ह ~ d e h a, ~ " b o d y, " ~ G o t h i c ~ l e i k . ~$ On this relation also rests, as I have shewn elsewhere, the relation of our lf, Gothic lif, in elf, zwölf, Gothic tvalif, to दशन् daśan, ঠéka. As also the second consonant has undergone alteration, and has migrated from the gutturals into the
labials; and as, moreover, the number " ten," taken alone, is, in Gothic, taihun, in German zehn, its origin from lif was deeply concealed; and even the Lithuanian lika, which accompanies the simple numbers in their compounded forms from eleven to twenty, remained long under my notice without result. The fact, however, that one and the same word may, in the course of time, assume various forms for various objects, proved, as it is, by numberless examples, requires no further

[G. Ed. p. 17.] support. With respect to the affinityof $\lambda$ ikos in $\dot{\eta} \lambda i k o s, \& c$., and of the Gothic leiks in hveleiks, "like to whom?" to $\begin{gathered}\text { 玉 } \\ \text { drisa, Prâkrit f दिस disa, "like," I refer the reader }\end{gathered}$ to my Treatise on the Pronoun and its influence (Berlin, published by Dümmler); and only remark, in addition, that by this analogy of $\lambda i$ íкos, leiks, I was first led to that of lif to déкк; while the Lithuanian lika had not yet attracted my observation.
18. The labial class comes next, namely, प् $p$, फ् $p h$, व् $b$, भ् $b h$, ू $m$. The hard aspirate $p h$ is among the rarer letters; the most usual words in which it occurs are, मा phala, " fruit," मेन phêna," foam," and the forms which come from the root भुग्र् phull, "to burst, blow, bloom." The sonant aspirate भ् $b h$ belongs, together with ध् $d h$, to the most frequent of the aspirates. In the Greek and Latin, $\phi$ and $f$ are the letters which most frequently correspond to this从 $b h$, especially at the beginning of words; for example, भृ bhri, " to bear," fero, фép ; भू bhû, "to be," fu-i, фú-ш. भ $b h$ is also often represented by $b$ in Latin, especially in the middle of words. The $f$ of fero becomes $b$ in certain compounds which rank as simple words with a derivable suffix, as ber, brum, brium, in words like saluber, candelabrum, manubrium. Thus the $f$ of $f u$ appears as $b$ in the forms amabam, amabo, which I have recognised as compounds, and which will be hereafter explained. The dative and ablative termination plural भ्पस् blyas, becomes bus in Latin. The nasal of this class, म् $m$, is subject, at the end of a word, to several alterations, and only remains fast before a pause, a
vowel, or letters of its own class: it otherwise governs itself according to the nature of the following letters, and may pass, in this manner, into any of the four preceding nasals, and weakens itself into the softened nasal sound [G. Ed. p. 18.] of the proper Anuswâra, if followed by a semi-vowel, a sibilant, or ह $h$. $\quad M$ has also a full right to the name of a mutable nasal. It is, however, not beseeming, when, in editions of a text otherwise conspicuous for accuracy, we find म्, though protected in its original condition by a pause, or by the following letters, written as Anuswâra.
19. The semi-vowels follow next: य् $y$, र् $r$, लू $l$, व् $v$. We distinguish $y$ by the sound of our German $j$, or the English $y$ in the word year. As the Latin $j$ in English has the sound of a softened $g$, so in Prâkrit य् $y$ often passes into ज् $j$; and in Greek, upon this exchange of sound rests the relation of $\zeta \epsilon^{v} \gamma v v \mu u$, $\zeta v \gamma^{\prime} s$, \&ce, to the root युज् $y u j$, "to bind," and that of the verbs in $\alpha \mathfrak{\zeta} \omega$ to the Indian verbs in स्रयामि $a y a m i$; for $\zeta$ is $d s$, but the sound $d s c h$ is not to be looked for in the Greek. The relation of the Persian ${ }^{\text {javan, " young," to the }}$ Sanskrit Theme युवन् yuvan, Lat, juvenis, belongs to this place. By $v$ we here designate the sound of the German $w$ and English v. After consonants, as त्वाम् twâm, "thee," this letter takes the pronunciation of the English $w$. The occasional hardening of the $v$ into a guttural deserves mention here; thus, in Latin, vic-si (vixi), victum, spring from viv; and in facio I recognise the Sanskṛit causal भावयामि bhâv-ayda-mi, "I make to be," from the root मू bhî. The connection between fac-tus and fio is practically demonstrated. Refer back, in the Old and Modern Greek, to the occasional hardening of the Digamma into $\gamma$ (cf. C. G. Schmidt in the Berlin Jahrbuch, 1831, p. 613.). The voice cannot dwell on ब् $v$ or य् $y$; and these two letters are therefore, as in the Semitic languages, excluded from the end of words: [G. Ed. p. 19.] therefore the word fिव् div, "Heaven," forms its nominative, which ought to be div (divs being forbidden, see §. 94.),
from य्यो dyd. Nominal bases in $y$ do not exist. ₹ $r$ at the end of a word is subject to many alterations, and is interchangeable with स् $s$. In places where the concluding $s$, by favour of the following letter, is retained, ₹ $r$ becomes स् $s$; and, on the other hand, remains unaltered in places where स् $s$ becomes ₹् $r$, namely, before vowels and sonant consonants.

20 . The semi-vowels, by reason of their tractable and fluent nature, are easily interchanged. For instance, in the more recent Sanskṛit works ${ }^{-\quad} l$ often stands for ₹ $r . *$ We often, also, find in the cognate European languages $l$ for $\begin{gathered} \\ v\end{gathered}$. On this interchange is founded the relation of the Latin suffix lent (e.g. opulens), and of the Gothic laud(a)-s $\dagger$ (see §. 116.), in hvellauds, "quantus," svalauds, " tantus," samalauds, " just so much," to the Sanskrit बन्त् vant (in the strong case, §. 119.), in words like धनवन्त् dhanavant, "endowed with wealth," ताबन्त् tavant, "so much," याबन् yâvant, "how much." On the change between $v$ and $r$ is founded, as I believe, the relation of the Old High German pir-u-mes, "we are" (sing. pim, भवामि bhav-(a-mi), to भवामस् bhav-A-mas; as also that of scrir-$-u$-més, "we shriek," to थ्राबयामस् śrâv-ayâ-mas, "we make to hear" (§.109.); as also that of triusu, "I fall," from the [G. Ed. p. 20.] root trus, to the Sanskṛit खंस् dhwañs, "to fall;" $\ddagger$ and of the Cretan тpé "thee" from $\tau F E$ é, to the Sanskrit twa. The semi-vowel $l$ is also exchanged with the nasals; thus, अ्रन्यस् anya-s, "the other," becomes alius in Latin, and

[^17]Wमारस् antara-s, " the other," alter; वद् vad, " to speak," answers to the Gothic lath-on, "called," "invited," ga-lathón, "called together": wir dhma, "to blow," answers to flare. (s. 109.) Compare, also, balbus with $\beta \alpha \mu \beta \alpha i v \omega$.
21. The last class embraces the sibilants and $h:$ ₹ $s_{s}$ 포 $s h$, e 8 , and ㅎ․ $h$. The first sibilant is spoken with a slight aspiration, and usually written by the English sh.* It belongs to the palatal class, and thence supplies the place of the third or proper $\boldsymbol{s} \boldsymbol{s}$ when a hard palatal च् ch or छ् chh follows; for instance, रामश् घरति ramaś charati, instead of रामम् बरति râmas charati, "Râmas goes." In its origin, श् $s$ appears to have sprung from $k$; and in Greek and Latin we find $\kappa$ and $c$ regularly corresponding to the Sanskrit $\mathrm{F}^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$. The Gothic substitutes $h$ in pursuance of the law of change of sound; but the Lithuanian stands the nearest to the Sanskrit with reference to this letter, and has in its stead a sibilant compound $s z$, pronounced like sh. Compare decem, סéc $\alpha$, Gothic taihun, Lithuan. dészimtis, with दशन् daśan (nom. दश daśsa); canis, кúwv, Gothic hunds, Lithuan. szuo (gen. szuns), with गन् śwan (nom. मा śua, gen. झुनस् śunas, кuvós), "dog ;" ठа́крv, lacrima, aszara, f. with『ज्ञु aśru n. "tear;" equus (= ecvus), Lith. aszu'a f. " mare," with ₹ष्ब aśwa (nom. ₹ष्षस् aśwas), "horse;" szaha f. with इासा śakhd " bough." The Lith. szwenta-s, " holy," answers to the Zend up, and in the middle before strong consonants, श् $s$ is not allowed, although admitted as an euphonic substitute for a concluding स् $s$ before an initial hard palatal. Otherwise $ञ ा{ }^{\prime}$ usually falls back into the sound from which [G. Ed. p. 21.]
it appears to have originated, namely, $k$. In some roots, however, ग् ś passes into ट् $t$; for instance, तृश् dris', " seeing," and fिश् viś, "a man of the third caste," form, in the uninflected nominative, त्हा drik, बिद् vit. The second sibilant, च् sh, is pronounced like our sch, or sh in English, and

[^18]belongs to the lingual class. It often steps, according to certain rules into the place of स् $s$; thus, for instance, after क् $h$, स् $s$ never follows, but only $\overline{4} \stackrel{s}{ } h$; and the $\xi, \dot{x}$, in Greek and Latin, are regularly represented by $\mathrm{m} k s h$. Compare द⿸्षिया dakşhina, with dex-ter, סégios, Lithuanian désziné, "the right hand." Of the vowels, $i, u$, and $r i$, short or long, are averse from स् $\boldsymbol{s}$, to which $a$ and $a$ alone are inclined. After the first-named vowels, स् $s$ passes into प् ṣ̂; for instance, तनोपि tandṣhi, instead of तनोसि tandsi (extendis). As an initial, प् s. $h$ is extremely rare : the Indian grammarians, however, write the roots which, under certain circumstances, change म् $s$ into प् sh, from the first with a प् ssh. A word which really begins with प् ssh is षप् ṣ्haṣh, "six;" to which the Lith. szeszi, a plural nominative, answers most nearly, while other cognate languages indicate an original ordinary $s$. At the end of a word, and in the middle before other strong consonants, such as द $t$. ₹ $t h$, प् ṣ̂ is not permitted, but in most roots passes into क् $k$, but with some into च् $t$ : the number six, mentioned above, becomes, in the uninflected nominative, पद् shat.
22. The third sibilant is the ordinary $s$ of all languages, but which, at the end of Sanskrit words, holds a very insecure position, and by certain rules is subjected to transmutation into श् ${ }_{s}^{s}$, प् ṣh, र् $r,: a h$ or $\hbar$ Visarga (§. 11.), and $u$; and only remains unaltered before $t$ and $t h$. We write, for example, सूनुस् तरति sûnus tarati, " the son passes over," but तरति सूनु : tarati
[G. Ed. p. 22.] sûnuh, सूनुण् चरति sûnus' charati (it), मूनुर् भवति sûnur bhavati (est). This sensitiveness against a concluding स $s$ can only have arisen in the later period of the language, after its division; as in the cognate languages the concluding $s$ remains unaltered, or where it has been changed for $r$ does not return into its original form. Thus, in the decree against Timotheus (Maittaire, §. 383-4.) $\rho$ everywhere
 $\tau \alpha \iota \tau \alpha ̀ \rho \alpha \dot{\alpha} \kappa o \alpha ̀ \rho \tau \omega \hat{\nu} v e ́ \omega v$, \&c.* The Sanskrit could not endure .

[^19]$r$ before $t$. The Latin protects the $s$ usually at the end of words; but in the classical period generally sacrifices it, when between two vowels, to the $r$; for instance, genus, generis, for genesis; a contrast to forms found in Varro and Festus, such as plusima, fedesum, meliosem, majosibus, in which the $s$ evinces its original existence in the history of the language (see §. 127.). The accusative form arbosem, recorded by Festus, is more startling, for here $r$ is the original form, if, as I can hardly doubt, arbor, arbos, is related to the word of such frequent occurrence in the Zend-Avesta, su/im 7 ? urvara, "tree." This expression is not wanting in the Sanskrit, (उवेरा urvarâ;) but it signifies, according to Wilson, "fruitful land," and " land" in general.
23. ह् $h$ belongs to the letters which, in Sanskrit, are never admitted at the end of words, nor in the middle before strong consonants. In these places it passes, by certain rules, into己 $t$, इ $d$, 不 $k$, or ग् $g$. In Greek we often find $\chi$ in the place of the Sanskrit ह् $h$ : compare $\chi \epsilon \epsilon \mu \omega v$, hiems, with हिम hima, "snow," "rime;" $\chi$ aip with ढ़प्यामि hrişh- [G. Ed.p.23.] yâmi, gaudeo; $\chi \eta^{\prime \prime}$ with हंस hanisa, "goose;" $\chi^{\theta e ́ s, ~ h e r i, ~ w i t h ~}$ हास् hyas, "yesterday;" "ั०os with वह् vah, " to transport." We also find $\kappa$, $c$, for $h$ : compare кор $\delta i \alpha$, cor, Gothic hairto, with बद् hrid (n. दृय hridaya), "heart." We sometimes, but rarely, find the spiritus asper substituted for $h$; for instance, גipé $\omega$, हरामि harâmi, "I take away." The Lithuanian exlibits sometimes $s z$ for $h$; for instance, asz, " I ," for सहम् aham, szirdis f. "heart," for ढद् hrid. This letter stands sometimes in Sanskrit for a mutilation of other aspirated consonants, of which the aspiration alone has been suppressed ; thus, instead of the imperative ending fu dhi, we generally find $h i$; on which account the grammarians accept fह $h i$, and not fि $d h i$, as the original ending, and assume that hi passes into dhi, for euphonic reasons, after consonants. The root य्रह् grah, " to take," is written in the Vedas ग्रम् grabh, and answers thus more nearly to the German greifen, and the Persian giriftan.

We give here a general view of the Sanscrit characters, with their respective values.

VOWELS.
 anuswâra and visarga.

- in, : ali. consonants.

[G. Ed. p. 24.] The vowel characters given above are found only at the beginning of words; and in the middle or end of a word are supplied in the following manner : ख $a$ is left unexpressed, but is contained in every consonant which is not distinguished by a sign of rest ( $)$ or connected with another vowel. क $k$ is thus read $h a$; and $k$ by itself, or the absence of the $a$, is expressed by ㄸ.. $₹ i$, $\ddagger \hat{i}$, are expressed by $f, 7$, and the first of these two is placed before, the second after, the consonant to which it relates; for instance, foiki,
 under their consonants; as, कु lıu, कू $k \hat{u}$, कृं $k r i$, क्ष $k r \bar{i}$. For e $\dot{e}$ and $\dot{e} \dot{a} i$, ' and ${ }^{\circ}$ are placed over their consonants; as,
 which is here only a fulcrum; as, को kô, बी $k \hat{a} u$. The consonants without vowels, instead of appearing in their entire shapes, and with the sign of rest, are usually written so that their distinctive sign is connected with the following conso-
 matsya is written मस्स, not मत्स्य; for ज् + ज् we have $\overline{\text { I }}$; and for + घ् we have घ्

25. The Sanskrit letters are divided into hard or surd, and soft or sonant. Surd are, all the tenues, with their corresponding aspirates; and in fact, according to the order given above, the first two letters in each of the first five rows, also the three sibilants. Soft are, the medials, with their aspirates, the ह, the nasals, semi-vowels, and all vowels. Another division also appears to us convenient-that of the consonants into strong and weak; in which the nasals and semi-vowels come under the denomination of weak; the remaining consonants under that of the strong. The weak consonants and vowels exercise no influence, as initial letters of inflections and suffixes, in the formation of words, on the terminating [G. Ed. p. 25.] letters of a root; while they themselves are compelled to accommodate themselves to a following strong consonant.
26. With regard to the vowels, it is of consequence to direct the observation to two affections of them, of frequent occurrence in the development of forms of Sanskrit; of which the one is called Guna, or virtue; the other Vriddhi, increase or augmentation. My predecessors in grammatical inquiry have given no information as to the essence, but have only expounded the effects of these vowel alterations; and it was only in my critical labours upon Grimm's German Grammar* that I came upon the trace of the true nature and distinctive qualities of these affections, as also of the law by which Guna is usually produced and governed, and at the same time of its hitherto undetected existence in the Greek and Germanic, and, most conspicuously, in the Gothic. My views in this particular have since derived remarkable confirmation from the Zend, with relation to which I refer to §. 2., in which, as I flatter myself, I have dealt successfully with an apparent contradiction to my explanation. Guna consists in prefixing short $a$, and Vriddhi in prefixing a long one: in both, however, the $a$ melts into a diphthong with the primitive vowel,

[^20]according to certain euphonic laws. $₹ i$, namely, and $\ddagger$, melt with the ख $a$ of Guna into ए $\hat{e}$; उ $u$, उ $\hat{u}$, into सो $\delta$. These diphthongs, however, dissolve again before vowels into खय् ay and अय् $a v ;$ चृ $r i$ and चृ $r^{\bar{i}}$ become, in virtue of the action of Guna, स्र् ar; by that of Vṛiddhi, wार् $4 r$. As in Greek the
[G. Ed. p. 26.] short Sanskrit $a$ is frequently replaced by $\epsilon$; so we find the Guna here, when a radical t or $v$ is prolonged by prefixing an $\epsilon$. As in the Sanskrit the root ₹ $i$, "to go," forms, by the Guna modification, एमि ${ }^{2} m i($ from $a$-imi), "I go," in contrast to imas, "we go;" thus in Greek also we have $\epsilon \hat{\epsilon} \mu$ in contrast to $\tau \mu \varepsilon v$. As the root वुध् budh, in several tenses in the three numbers, rises, in virtue of Guna, into बोध $b \Delta d h$ (from baudh), for instance, बोधामि bodhâmi, "I know;" so in the Greek* the root $\phi v \gamma$ (é ${ }^{\prime \prime} \phi u \gamma \circ v$ ), in the present becomes $\phi e \dot{u} \gamma \omega$. In the Gothic, in the strong form of Grimm's sth and 9 th conjugations, the radical vowel, strengthened by $a$ in the singular of the preterite, stands in the same contrast to the $i$ and $u$ of the plural, as is the case in the corresponding tense of the Sanskrit. Compare baug, "I bent," in contrast to bugum, " we bent," with the Sanskrit form of the same signification, singular बुमोज bubhdja, plural बुभुजिम bubhujima, of the root भुज् bhuj; compare vait, "I know," in contrast with vitum, "we know," with the Sanskrit forms of the same signification, वेद veda (from vaïda), विदिम vidima, from the root विद् vid, "know," which, like the corresponding Gothic and Greek root, employs the terminations of the preterite with a present signification.
27. We have, however, the Sanskrit Guna in yet another form in the Gothic-a form which I have but lately discovered, but of which the historical connection with the Sanskrit modification appears to me not the less certain. I once thought that I had accounted in a different manner for the relation existing between biuga, "I bend," and its root

[^21]bug, and I conceived myself bound to ascribe-generally, in the present tense, to the prevalent $i$ of terminations a retro-active influence. It now, however, seems to me indisputable that Grimm's 8th and 9th conjugations of the [G. Ed. p.27.] first class correspond to my first Sanskrit conjugation (r. 326.); so that the Guna $a$ of the special tenses has been weakened to $\boldsymbol{i}$, while the monosyllabic preterite maintains the Guna vowel in the more important shape of $a$; just as in the 10th, 11th, and 12th conjugations, according to Grimm's division, the radical $a$, which has remained in the preterite singular, is, in the present and other tenses, weakened to $i$; so that, for instance, at, "I" and "he eat," corresponds to the root ซद् $a d$, "to eat;" but in the present, ita stands in place of the form wft admi, "I eat." *

28. The Zend possesses, besides the Sanskrit Guna, which has remained everywhere where it stands in Sanskrit, a vowel application peculiar to itself, which likewise consists in $\boldsymbol{x} a$, and which was first observed by M. E. Burnouf. $\dagger$ The vowels which admit this addition in the interior, but not at the end of words, are, first, the short $\lrcorner i,>u, \downarrow o$; $2 d l y$, the Guna diphthongs ro $\mathbb{E}$ and $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{c} \\ & \delta\end{aligned}$. The two latter are the most usually befriended by this addition, and to e takes it in all cases where the opportunity occurs, both as an initial letter, and even at the end of words wherever the dependent particle up cha, "and," is appended to it ; hence,
 мр que." Also where an é stands in two consecutive syllables, an $a$ is placed before each. Hence, for instance, aetaetibyb, from एतेव्पस् etebhyas. The only case in which, ex-

[^22]cepting at the actual end of the word, so ê remains without the preceding $s a$, is when it is produced by the influence of a $\boldsymbol{\mu} y$, out of $\boldsymbol{\omega} a$ or ג $a$. We say, indeed, [G. Ed. p. 28.] yaêibyd, "quibus," from येम्पस् yêbhyas; but not wasmow dyaele, but wismow dyêe, "I glorify," from the Sanskrit root, which has been lost, for the verb यश् yaś, from which comes यश् yááas, "glory." Yet we find, for دצ0.〔 yezi, "if" (cf. यदि yadi), sometimes, though perhaps erroneously, also sgrovec yadzi. The addition of the is a before $\underset{d}{d}$ is just as unlimited, but the occasion is far less frequent. Examples of it are, טגצ $a d z \sigma$, " strength," from
 cording to the fifth class, for wकृयोत् akrindt; "he spoke," from अबोत् abrot, which would be the regular form, instead of wद्रवीत् abravit (Gramm. Crit. r. 352.). We
 would be the form used were, in the Sanskrit adjunct tenses, as in the Greek, a mere nasal, and not wम् am, the suffix of the first person. The vowels,$i$ and , $u$ are much more sparing in their attraction of the $s a$ now in question: they refuse it always at the beginning of words, and in the middle before two consonants ; and if transferred from the end of a word to its middle, by an adventitious termination or word, they do not acquire the capacity of being wedded to an as a. We say, for example, GqGs imém, "this" (aceus.), not G\&Gse aimĕm ; N/มsorGug mithwana,
 " montibus," not cording to set rules, very frequently abstains from the $\omega a$;
 jw⿻>>>>>> urvan; on the contrary, ups)rupo tauruna, "young," from तरुय taruna. Where, however, the Sanskrit उ $u$ is replaced by ${ }^{\circ} 0^{\circ}$ ( $\$ .32$. ), an $\leadsto a$ is placed before it, as well at the beginuing as before two consonants; and in this case $b_{o}$ stands in this respect in the same category as $20 e$ and


हच् ruch; Gxaupgeverubxse saochantanim (lucentium) with शुच्यताम् śuchyatam; دpoobl aocta, " he spoke," with उन्त ukta, which I form, by theory, after the analogy of खध्षिप akshipta (Gram. Crit. r. 389.), leaving out the augment.
29. In the Vriddhi modification, the vowels $₹ i$, 炙 $i$, melt with the preceding सा $\hat{a}$ into ऐ $\hat{a} i$; उ $u$, ₹ $\hat{u}$, into सी $\hat{a} u$; चच $r i$, चू $r \bar{i}$, into सार् $\begin{aligned} & r \\ & \text { r. The simple vowel च } a \text {, as also the }\end{aligned}$ diphthongs ए $e$ and सो $o$, which would produce the same effect by Guna as by Vṛiddhi-for $a+a$, like $a+a$, makes $A$; $a+\hat{\epsilon}$, like $\hat{a}+\hat{\theta}$, makes $\hat{a} i ; a+6$, like $\hat{a}+\hat{0}$, makes $\hat{a} u$-are capable of only one higher modification, and reserve this one for cases where grammatical laws demand the highest step, namely, Vṛiddhi, and remain in the cases of Guna unaltered, unless extraordinary grounds of exception occur. It may be convenient here to give a connected summary of the results produced by Guna and Vŗiddhi.
Primitive Vowels, स $a$, का $\hat{A}$, ₹ $i$, ईे $\hat{\imath}$, उ $u$, उा $\hat{u}$, च्चृ $r i$ Guna............. एé, एé, खो $\delta$, को $\delta$, अर्ar,


Guna . . . . . बर् $a r$, ... ... ... ...
Vṛiddhi . . . . झार् $d r$ ऐ ऐ $a i, \ldots$ औी $d u$, ...
30. We now proceed to the exposition of the Zend writing, which, like the Semitic, proceeds from right to left, and towards the comprehension of which Rask has contributed valuable corrections, which give the language an appearance more natural and more in consonance with the Sanskrit than it assumed in the hands of former commentators, Anquetil's pronunciation having admitted much that was heterogeneous, especially in the vowels. We follow the order of the Sanskrit

[^23]alphabet in giving the corresponding value of each letter in [G. Ed. p. 30.] the Zend. The Sanskrit short $\boldsymbol{\pi} a$ has two, or rather three, representatives; the first is $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$, which Anquetil pronounces as $a$ or $e$, but Rask, certainly with truth, limits to $a$. The second is $\varepsilon$, which Rask pronounces like the short $a$ of the Danish, or like the short German $\ddot{a}$, as in Hände, or as a in cane in English, and $e$ in the French après. I consider this $\varepsilon$ as the shortest vowel, and write it e e. We often find it inserted between two consonants which form a double consonant in the Sanskrit; for instance, وصنو2 dadarěs’a (pret. redupl.), for the Sanskrit ददशे dadarśa, "he" or "I saw;" gaděmahí (V. S. p. 102), " we give," for the Vêda form द्रसि dadmasi. This shortest $\check{e}$ is also always appended to an originally terminating $r$. Thus, for in-
 " creator," $\varepsilon$ \} Sanskrit forms ॠन्तर् anlar, द्वात् dâtar, सर् swar, " heaven." It is worthy also of remark, that always before a final $6 m$, and generally before a final $\mathfrak{n}$, and frequently before an intermediate vowelless $w^{\mu} n$, the older $\boldsymbol{\pi} a$ becomes $\varepsilon$ é. Compare, for instance, $6 \varepsilon$ ใG้১ puthrě-m, "flium" with पुषम्
 fعp, pra-sentem, ab-sentem. This retro-active influence of the nasal reminds us of the shortening power of the Latin termination $m$; as, for instance, stĕm, stêmus (Sanskrit fिहेयम् tishthếy-am, निहेम tishthêma).
31. Anquetil entirely refuses to admit into his alphabet a letter differing but little from the $\varepsilon \check{e}$ above discussed, but yet distinct from it by rule in practice, namely, $£$, which Rask teaches us to pronounce like a long Danish $a$. We find this letter usually in connection with a following $>u$, and this vowel appears to admit, with the excep- [G. Ed. p. 31.] tion of the long $\omega A$, no vowel but this $\boldsymbol{q}$ before it. We write this $\xi e$ without the diacritic sign, inasmuch as we represent the $\boldsymbol{0}$, like the Sanskrit ₹, by é. Eu >६ corresponds etymo-
logically to the Sanskrit सो $\hat{6}$, or diphthong formed by w $a$ and $\mathbf{J} u$; thus, for example, the nominal bases in $u$, which in the Sanskrit genitive, by the influence of Guna, i.e. by the prefixing of a short $a$, make $0-s$, form, in Zend, $\omega>$ eqeus.
 from paśu, "pecus." And yet the Sanskrit $\delta$ does not universally become $e u$ in Zend, but often remains as it is, and specially in cases where it arises out of the termination as, by the solution of the $s$ into $u$. According to its pronunciation, >qeu would appear to be a diphthong, and to form but one syllable, as in our German words heute, Leute, \&c. The long $a($ a) is written $w$.

32. Short and long $i$ are represented, as are long and short $u$, by special characters, $s i,\{i,>u, \vec{v}$ : Anquetil, however, gives to the short $i$ the pronunciation $e$, and to the short $u$ ( $>$ ) that of $o$; while, according to Rask, only $\downarrow$ is pronounced as short $o$.* This short ofrequently holds the etymological place of the Sanskrit उ $u$, and never corresponds to any other Sanskrit vowel. For the diphthong *ौ $\begin{aligned} & \\ & u\end{aligned}$, in particular, we have generally the Zend $\varepsilon^{\omega} \pi 0$ : we yet find, sometimes, also sw $\alpha u$; for instance, دurwe gaus, " bos," is more frequent than $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ guce gaos, for the Sanscrit गौस्ष gaus.
33. The Sanskrit diphthong $\ell$, formed out of $a+i$, is represented by 70 , which, especially as a terminating letter, is also written $e$, and which we, as in Sanskrit, represent by e. We must here, however, observe, that the Sanskṛit ₹ $\hat{A}$ is not always preserved as $0 \ell$ in the Zend, but is sometimes replaced by $\langle\downarrow$, which appears to prevail particularly after a preceding ss $y$, especially at the end of [G. Ed. p.32.] words. The Vriddhi diphthong ऐ $\begin{aligned} & i \\ & \text { (out of } a+i \text { ) is always }\end{aligned}$ represented by $\alpha a i ; \sigma$, either by the equivalent $\downarrow$-for which we often find $\downarrow_{o}$ substituted by the neglect of copy-ists-or by the above-mentioned $\varsigma \subsetneq e u$, which, according to rule, before a terminating $\omega s$ replaces the Indian wो $\theta$;

[^24] For the Vriddhi diphthong बी $\notin u$ (out of $a+u$ ) we generally find $a 0$, for which there is a special character qu;

 nounced as diphthongs, i.e. as monosyllables.
34. Anuswâra and Visarga do not exist in Zend, unless we admit the nasal specified in §. 61. as answering to the sound of the Sanskrit Anuswâra. We proceed meanwhile, for the present, to the proper consonants. The first letter of the Sanskrit guttural class has divided itself into two characters bearing reference to different functions, $g$ and $\sigma$; of which the first, which we represent by $k$, only appears before vowels and $>v$; the other, which we write $c$, precedes especially consonants, excepting » $v$. Compare, for instance, 徏 kot,
 spost? lug karditi, " he made," a>> kva, "where," with को kd, का $k a$, किम् kim, सकृत् sakrit, करोति karoti, and च्व kwa: on the other hand, *Gvulur csathra, "king," with घच kshatra; spouser hicti, " pouring out" (V. S. p. 198), with fसिक्ति sikti (from सिच्sich). In what manner the pronunciation of this $\sigma c$ differs from that of the,$k$ can indeed hardly be defined with certainty: it is probably softer, weaker than that of the $g k$, which latter is fenced in by no strong consonants. Rask selects for it the character $q$, without observing that this letter prefers only to precede consonants, and in this position
[G. Ed. p. 33.] always corresponds to the Sanskryit का $k$. Burnouf considers $\sigma$ as an aspirate, and writes uevafarop takhmahe. He writes, on the other hand, the letter $\mathrm{m}^{0}$, which Rask treats as an aspirate, with $q$. Burnouf has not yet given his reason, which I think, however, I can guess, namely, that $\sigma c$ is found before $r$, which, according to Burnouf's just

[^25]remark, generally confers an aspirate upon a preceding consonant. I consider this reason, however, as insufficient; and think that $\sigma c$ stands before $r$, because, as we have before remarked, all consonants, $v$ excepted, only admit before them that modification of the $k$ sound which is expressed by $\sigma$. It would be impossible for ${ }^{r} r$, and the other letters of similar agency, to convey aspiration to the preceding hard guttural if ख् $k h$ be not extant in Zend; so that, for instance, the root खन् khan, " to dig," sounds gug kan in Zend. There are, however, some words in which ख् $k h$ is represented by ఠ. From खर khara, "ass," we find the accusative $6 £$ ?uar carém; and we find, also, the ख् $k h$ of सखि sakhi, "friend," replaced by $c$; the accusative, for instance, सखायम् sakhayam transformed into $\ddagger$ suadres hacaim. It may therefore remain a question whether $g k$ or $\sigma c$, in respect of their sounds, have the better right to be referred to ख् $k h$; but this much is certain, that व् $k$ before vowels and before व् $v$ is only represented by $g$ in Zend; before other consonants only by $\sigma$; which latter we shall, till better advised, continue to render by $c$.
35. Anquetil ascribes to $\sigma$ the value of $w$, and to both the pronunciation $k h$; while Rask considers the latter alone, by reason of the aspiration stroke which he recognises, as aspirated, and compares it to the Spanish $x$ and the Arabic $\dot{\tau}$, and our German ch. Burnouf renders [G. Ed. p. 34.] $\mathrm{m}^{\mathrm{c}}$ by $q$; and observes (1. c. p. 345) that the Sanskrit syllable से swa becomes $q a$ in Zend, namely, in सप्र swapna, "sleep," written, according to Burnouf, qafna, and in स् swa (suus), "his." We are inclined to add to these examples, sergue khanha, (nom.) accus. $6 \varepsilon$ €erguw khanhrěm, from ससा swasâ,
 rěno, " splendour," as related to खर् swar, "heaven," and मुर् sur, "to shine." We must, however, at the same time, remark, that स् sw does not universally become $\omega k h$, and that ख swa in particular, in an isolated position and with a possessive signification, much oftener appears in the shape of $\boldsymbol{\sim}>\mathrm{m}^{\text {h }}$ hea,
 view of its aspiration more on the fact, that in modern Persian it corresponds frequently to $\dot{\sim}$, our $c h$, than on the circumstance that Rask has marked it as aspirated. This modern Persian $\dot{\tau}$ is pronounced, indeed, at present, without aspiration, like an Italian $c$ before $a, o, u$; but its value in Arabic, and the choice of this letter, so powerfully aspirated in the Arabic to designate a special guttural sound, in true Persian words, seems to indicate an intrinsic stronger or milder aspiration. As $w^{k} k$ is derived from the Sanskrit स swa, it was not applied to replace the क $k$ before letters, which would without it produce an aspiration. It may also be here convenient to remember that either $u$ or $v(g)$ accompanies the Persian $\dot{\tau}$ when the latter replaces at the beginning of a [G. Ed. p. 35.] word the Sanskrit स $s w$. It is true that,$v$ is no longer sounded before long vowels, but it must originally have had its influence on the pronunciation, and cannot have been introduced into writing entirely without object, and for the mere employment of the copyist. Compare luخ khuda, "God," with सद्त swadatta, "self-given;" for which, in Zend, we have, under a more regular participial form (see Gramm. Crit. r. 608), N上גguw khadata*; which Anquetil, or his Pârsî teacher, always understands in the sense of, "given through God," deceived, probably, by the resemblance of sound to خ خ khudă; while Neriosengh properly translates it by सयन्दत्त swayandatta. The Persian $ا$ خ khuda is, however, as Burnouf correctly assumes, actually related to the Zend spowevow khadata, so as to have its name based in the idea, "created by itself," while in its form it has been mutilated of one syllable. In Sanskṛit we find both स्यू swabhû, "selfexistent," and also the more common सयम्भू swayambhû, as appellations of Brahma and Vishṇu. That, however, as has often been maintained, our word "God" is really related to

[^26]$1 \Delta$ khuda, and that its primal signification has thus been discovered through the Zend, we are forced still to doubt. We will here only call to mind that the Germanic forms, especially in the older dialects, in general approximate much more to the Sanskrit than to the modern Persian. स् siw, in particular, in the Gothic, either remains unaltered, or becomes $s l(\$ .20$.). The pronominal syllable ख swa exhibits itself in the Gothic as a pronominal adverb, sva (so) "thus;" and with an instrumental form, svĕ (wie) "how." The neuter substantive svés (Theme svésa) means Eigenthum, "property," as in Sanskrit the neuter ख swa. I know of no certain form in which a Germanic $g$ or $k$ corresponds to a Sanskṛit स् $s w$ or a Persian خ $\underset{\sim}{c} k$. To return, however, to the [G. Ed. p. 36.]
 with खप् swap; خواب kh(w)ab, "sleep," with साप swapa; نوانس kh(w)ändan, " to sing," with खन् swan, " to sound;"

 "heaven." In some words $\dot{\chi} k h$ corresponds to a Sanskrit $k$ before $r$, in which position the Zend loves an aspiration; in the modern Persian, however, a vowel intrudes between the guttural and the $r$; thus, خرامیین khiram-idan, " to proceed with pomp," corresponds to the Sanskrit क्रम् kram, "to go," "to step;" and خري山, khiridan, " to buy," to the Sanskrit equivalent root की $k r$ t. The Persian $\dot{\chi} k h$ answers to the Sanskrit aspirated ख् $k h$, in the word $\rangle$ خhar, "ass" (Sanskrit खर khara).
36. The guttural ग्, and its aspirate घ्, are represented by e $g$ and $q g h$. The Sanskrit च् $g h$ has, however, sometimes dismissed the aspiration in Zend; at least $N \notin \varepsilon$ ?Ne garěma, "heat" ( $\theta$ é $\rho \mu \eta$ and Wärme), answers to the Sanskrit घमे
 thraghna, "victorious," corresponds to the Sanskṛit म ghna at the end of compounds; for instance, in शत्तुम śatru-ghna, " enemy

fies, like the word so often used in the same sense pusun vĕréthra-zan, "killer of Vrritra," and proves a connection between the Zendish and Indian mythologies, which, however, in consequence of the obscuration of meanings in Zend, and the oblivion of the old Myths, now only exists in affinities of speech. "Killer of Vritra" is one of the most usual titles of honour of the prince of the lesser gods, or Indra, who, from his slaughter of the dæmon Vṛitra, of the race of the Dâ-
[G. Ed. p. 37.] nawas, bears this name.
We shall discuss the nasals apart in §. 60.
37. Of the Sanskrit palatals the Zend has only the tenuis; namely $\kappa c h(=$ च्) $)$, and the media, namely $\check{ } j(=$ ज्) : the aspirates are wanting, which is not surprising, as they are of rare occurrence in the Sanskrit. The following are examples: spossonap charaiti, "he goes," Sanskṛit चरति charati; بे ${ }^{2}$ worbup chathward, "four" (nom. plur. mase.) Sansk. चत्वारम्
 झोजस् Ojas, झोजो ©j0. It is, however, to be observed, that, while the Sanskrit ch remains, by rule, unaltered in Zend, the sonant $j$ is often replaced by other letters; and first, by $S z$; for instance, vpouys zata, "born," Sansk. ज्ञात jata; secondly, by eb $s h$; for instance, >jgeb shĕnu, "knee," Sansk. जानु janu.
38. The modification of the sounds of $t$, peculiar to the Sanskrit, contained in the third row of consonants, is wanting in the Zend. We pass, therefore, to the ordinary sounds of that letter, the dentals. These are, pot $(\pi), \sigma t h\left(\nabla_{)}, g d\right.$ ( $己$ ) $@^{d h}(\boldsymbol{Y})$, together with a $!(\mathcal{\sim})$, peculiar to the Zend, of which more hereafter. The $\rho t$ is like the guttural which we represent by $k(\mathrm{~g})$, in this respect, that its position is almost limited to one preceding vowels. Before ? $r$ and or $w$, and sometimes before ss $y$, in order to gratify the affection of the latter for an aspirate, the aspirated $\sigma$ th steps in. Thus, for instance, 6 quord thwaim signifies "thee," while the nominative is written $G, 90 t \hat{u}$, and the genitive

atars, makes, after rejection of the $a$ which preceded $r$, whow athre, "igni," prűtw athrat, " ab igne," \&c. If, however, the $t$ be protected by a preceding consonant, excepting $\dot{n}$, the succeeding semi-vowel is thereby de- [G. Ed. p. 38.] prived of its retro-active power. We find, for instance,

 from the root $j^{N G G} \operatorname{man}$. At the end of a word, and, which rarely occurs, before strong consonants, (\$. 25.) at the beginning also, and middle of a word, the Sanskrit $t(\pi)$ is represented by a special letter, namely, by $\uparrow$, which we, with Burnouf, write $t$, but formerly wrote with a simple $t$ undotted below, because no change is possible with por $\sigma$. Rask represents it by $t$, because he recognises the sign of aspiration. I am unable, however, to assent to the universal validity of this sign of Rask's, and I incline to rejecting the aspirate, as in Sanskrit, from the end of words. We should also remember that the diphthong $e$ is written $r 0$ as well as $๒$; the last, which prevails at the end of words, with a stroke similar to that which distinguishes our $\wp$ from $\rho$. Before consonants, for instance, in the word tkalsho, the sounding of th would be more precarious than that of $t$, in case this $t h$ did not somewhat partake of a sibilant sound. I think, however, that $\wp!$ has merely a feebler pronunciation than $\rho t$, and is, so to say, the last breathing of $t$; as, in Sanskrit, $s$ and $r$, at the end of words, are diluted to Visarga (§. 11.); and as त् $t$, in Prâkrit, and also in Greek, is, at the end of words, altogether suppressed.
39. $g$ is the ordinary $d$ द, and © according to Rask's just remark, its aspirate dh. This represents the Sanskrit घ् $d h$, for instance, in the imperative ending fि. The Zend, moreover, favours $@ d h$ for $g d$ in the middle of words between two vowels. We find, for instance, verug dâta, " given," but دqwo ve dadhami, Sanskrit ददामि dadâmi, "I give"; and rupue negus mazda-dhata, [G. Ed. p. 39.1


40. The labial class embraces the letters $\rho p, d f\lrcorner$,$b ,$ and the nasal of this organ $\in m$, of which more hereafter. $\sum^{0} p$ answers to the Sanskrit प् $p$, and is transformed into $\partial f$ by the retro-active aspirative power of a following $7 r$, $\omega s$, and $\boldsymbol{\rho} \boldsymbol{n}$; whence, for instance, the preposition $\bar{p} p r a$ (pro, $\pi \rho o ́$ ) becomes, in Zend, aJd fra; and the primitive words s ap, " water" (aqua, and perhaps àфpós ), وچ₹ kèrěp, " body," form in the nominative, udJu afs, udq) kĕrĕfs; on the other hand, in the accusative, Gqdu apëm,
 power which resides in $n$ of aspirating a $p$, compare $z_{j} d u p$ tıfnu, "burning," from the root dدp tap, with the derivative from the same root spsrossesowpa atapayêti," he shines" (See Vendidâd Sâde, p. 333), and the plural vjdدлس csafna, " nights," with the ablative singular csapardt (Vendidâd Sâde, p. 330), in which, even in the root, the interchange between $n$ and $r$ is observable, as the same takes place in the Sanskrit between बहन् ahan and बहर् ahar, "day." (Gramm. Crit. r. 228. annot.) Originallyi.e. standing for itself, and not proceeding from the $\rho p$ by the influence described- $d f$ is of very rare occurrence. In some instances known to me it corresponds to the Sanskrit भ् $b h$, which, however, for the most part, in the Zend has rejected the aspiration. In Anquetil's Vocabulary we find nâfo, " navel," which in Sanskrit is written नामि nâbhi; and in the fem. accus. plural, of frequent occurrence in the Zend-Avesta, $\omega_{\imath} \overbrace{0}$ ediev hufëdhrís, we recognise the Sanskrit सुभ्द्र subhadra " very fortunate," " very excellent," also a title of Vishnu.
41. We come now to the semi-vowels, and must, in order to follow the order of the Sanskrit alphabet, discuss $y$ in the
[G. Ed. p. 40.] next place, by which we express the sound of the German and Italian $j$, the English consonantal $y$. This
semi-vowel is written at the beginning of words by $\mu$ or工. and in the middle by the duplication of the $u \mathrm{~s}$, as in the Old High German we find $w$ expressed. This semi-vowel, and the vowels which correspond to it, si and $s i$, introduce into the preceding syllable an $\lrcorner i$; an interesting phenomenon, first observed by Burnouf (1. c. pp. 340, 341), and which in its principle is connected with the German vowel modification (§. 73.). We are obliged to ascribe a similar influence also to the diphthong ro $\ell$ where it stands at the end of a word. Frequent occasion for this presents itself in the dat. sing. and the third pers. pres. of the middle verb. For instance, ro suy naire, " homini," for 00 疗 nare, is frequent; but spros3sy naralcha, "hominique," is an exception. The vowels after which, by the attractive power of the letters
 as to which we must also observe, that $u$, in the case of a succeeding $i$, is lengthened. Examples are: uss@wng maidhya (मध्य madhya) " middle"; sys)soy nairya, " man"; spsum>ess bavaiti, " he is"; spawo gadhaiti, "he gives";
 "he makes"; sosgos stitidhi, "praise," instead of serpsu studhi, from the root >pos situ (सु); enssspo tuitrya, " the fourth," from चतुर् chatur, with the v cha suppressed *; xys)ewn ahuirya, an adjective, derived from whereahura. With regard to the influence of $s s y$ we must observe, that it does not mix up an $s i$ with a vowel immediately preceding, but only with one separated from it by one consonant; for if there be two, unless the first be $n$, the retroactive power of $y, i$, or $\hat{\imath}$, is neutralized; thus assti, not spsussti, stands for "he is "; on the other hand we
 Several other consonants also resist simply [G. Ed. p. 41.] this power of attraction; thus we have ssswerg dakhyu, not

[^27]
## [ซusą









 - рәхә s, лочұ
















 s! 7I «ssnघu!






 '? ¢\%?




دyro ya form, in the genitive, werrogo yê-he, instead of
 or at $y d$ of the fourth and tenth classes, in the present singular becomes roy $y$ ge. Compare 9 grosserdupau atapayémi, serosswdwp.u atadpayêhi, sposossasmp.w alapayeliti, with the Sanskrit जातापयामि dlapayami, जातापयसि aläpayasi, खातापयति atapayati. In the last syllable, sys ya before $G m$, according to rule, becomes $\{\hat{i}$; and after the same analogy, Go>> vam becomes $G 9$ um. We find, therefore, for instance, Gis sge tûirim, "quartum," from esssage tuii-


 understood, that the antecedent semi-vowel, after the suppression of the $a$, passes into its corresponding vowel, which, however, according to the rule of $\S .64$., must be a long one. The ss $y^{*}$, after its influence has transformed $s a$ into To e is often itself suppressed; thus we find Grosurongumbld frâdaêsaêm, "I shewed," from प्रादेश्यम् prâdéśayam, which

[^28]according to the rule of the tenth class, would be formed from दिश् dis'. The genitive termination स्य sya appears everywhere reduced into hé The semi-vowels $3 y$ and $» v$ are generally suppressed after preceding conso-
[G. Ed. p. 42.] nants*; and thus, also, the imperative ending स swa gives up its $w$.
43. In Sanskrit, य् $y$ is sometimes, for euphony, interposed between two vowels (Gram. Crit. rr. 271. 310. 311.); but this does not uniformly occur. In Zend, the interposition of $y$ between $>u, \boldsymbol{z} \hat{u}$ and a following $r \frac{\hat{e}}{}$, seems to amount to a law. Thus the Sanskrit ब्रुषे bruvé, "I say" (from zand ₹, Gram. Crit. r. 55.), becomes, in Zend, mríyé (§. 63.); and the neuter form छे due, " $t$ wo," after the vocalization of the $w$ into $u$, takes the form وysuye.
44. We have already remarked (§. 30.) with respect to $\eta r$, that at the end of a word an $\varepsilon \check{e}$ is always appended to it; for instance, $\varepsilon^{7}$ ªdataré, "Creator," "Giver";
 In the middle of a word, where an \&r $h$ is not introduced according to §. 48., the union of $1 r$ with a following consonant is mostly avoided; so, indeed, that to the originally vowelless $r$ an $\check{e}$ is appended: thence, for instance, dadarësa, from ददश̃ dadarsa, "vidi," "vidit"; or the $r$ is transposed, in the same manner as is usual in the Sanskrit for the avoidance of the union of $r$ with two following consonants. (Gram. Crit. r. $34^{\text {b }}$.) Hence, for instance,
 vanëm, from the theme
 dthaurun. (§. 28.) To this, also, pertains the fact that polysyllabic stems (or uninflected bases) in 2> ar, at the beginning of compounded forms, transpose this syllable into s) ra; and thus uthe athra, "fire," stands instead of

[^29]7.ugu âthar.* The combinations 3s? ry, [G. Ed. p.43.] \#>) urv, are only permitted where a vowel follows, and the combination $0 /$ /uars only as a termination, and in the middle of a word before $\rho t$; for instance, ass $)_{s, g}$ tilirya, "the fourth"; Nss ${ }^{2}$ sulc vairya, "strong"; jun>> urvan, "soul"

 but uos)Gup chathrus, "four times," for w $/$ Gup chatliurs, since here no a precedes the $r$ s.
45. It is worthy of remark, that in the Zend the $l$ is wanting, as in Chinese the $r$, while, nevertheless, it exists in the modern Persian, and shews itself in words which are not of Semitic origin. The Sanskṛit व् $v$ has three representatives in the Zend, 6 , », and $\omega$. The two first are so far distinguished from each otherin their use, that $G_{C}$ corresponds to the Sanskrit $v$ only at the beginning, and » only in the middle of words; for instance, Grow fuêm, "we," = बयम् vayam, *)>>p tava $($ tui $)=$ तब tava. This distinction, as Rask justly assumes, is only graphic. कo, which I, with Burnouf, render by $w$, most frequently occurs after $\sigma$ th, so that $\geqslant$ never accompanies an antecedent 6 th. On the other hand we find» much oftener than orafter the aspirated medials of this class. Perhaps the law here obtains that the $Q_{d} d h$, which, according to §. 39., stands for $g d($ द $)$, is only followed by 》, while an original ©dh, corresponding to a Sanskrit घ् dh, only appears in conjunction with or. Thus quッ@y dadhudo, "having created," "given," from the root wg dat, answers to the Sanskryit nom. दह्वान् dadwdn; while the accusative,
 seems to be identical with the Sanskrit wध्वानम् adhwinam, "viam." (Vend. Olsh. p. 18.) After other consonants than

[^30]$\sigma t h$ and $@ d h$, or $w$ appears not to be admitted, but only $\geqslant v$; on the other hand, of $w$ much prevails between two $i$ 's or $\lrcorner i$ and ss $y$, in which position » $v$ is not allowed.
[G. Ed. p. 44.] Thus we read in the Vendidâd (Olsh. p. 23),
 daiwis, "a worshipper of Daêva." uscoring daiwis however, as derived from daêva through the suffix $s i$, seems to me dubious, and I prefer the variation usmong dalvis. Or is it between $d$ and $i$ also that $\sigma w$ only can be allowed? Another instance is, לָנsow aiwy 6 , "aquis," as dative and ablative plural; an interesting form which long remained a mystery to me, but which I am now in condition to explain. It springs from the root $d_{\nu}$ ap, "water" in such a manner, that after suppression of the $p$,* the Sanskrit termination भ्यस् bhyas, which elsewhere, in the Zend, appears only as lysyd by has weakened itself to ${ }_{4}$ دjo $w y d$, and, according to $\S .41$., has introduced an $s i$ into the base. Another instance in which भ् $b h$ has weakened itself in the Zend into a semi-vowel, and obtained the form $\omega w$ in virtue of its position between two $s i$ 's, is the very common preposition scosss, aivi, for which, however, 0 , $a i b i$ is sometimes substituted. It may be appropriate here to remark that भ्: $b h$ appears in the Zend, in other company, in the enfeebled shape of $\geqslant v$. We find, namely, the base उभ ubha, " both," not only in the shape ג্s>) $u b a$, but also in that of $\omega \ggg$ aova (\$. 28.), the neuter dual form of which I think I recognise in the Vend. S.
 amesshe spénte, can hardly signify any thing else than "ambos $\dagger$ venerans Amschaspantos" (non conniventes Sanctos, see Nalus, vv. 25, 26.) Anquetil interprets (T. 3, p. 472.) orê, by "tous deux." We have still another position to mention, in which
[G. Ed. p. 45.] the semi-vowel of $w$ appears, namely, before $7 r$, in which connection the softer $w$ is more appro-

[^31]priate than the harder » $\boldsymbol{v}$. The only example of this case is the feminine .w"erss suruvrâ. "sword," "dagger," in which we believe we recognise the Sanskṛit शुभ śublira, "shining,"* As to the pronunciation of the or $w, \overrightarrow{\mathrm{I}}$ think, with Burnouf, that it accords with the English $w$, which also is akin to the Sanskrit च् $v$ after consonants. Rask reverses the powers, pronouncing the Zend of as the English v, and the letters 6 and $»$ as the English $w$.
46. I have not detected in the $v$ and $w$ a power of attraction similar to that which belongs to the ss $y$, as de-

 Sanskrit सवे sarwa, "all." I have, however, already elsewhere ascribed to the corresponding vowel $>u$ a power of attraction, howbeit sparingly exerted; in virtue of which, for instance, the base ju>>>0 Alarvan, "priests," in the weak cases (see §. 129.), after that pow van has contracted itself into $j^{\prime} u n$, by the influence of this $u$, also converts the $a$ of the preceding syllable into $u$; hence, for instance, in
 Sanskrit तहल taruna, "young," is, in Zend, vjp>p turuna or $\operatorname{sy} \ggg>\rho$ tauruna (§. 28.); and बसु vasu, "thing," "riches,"
[G. Ed. p. 46.] has, by the influence of the concluding $u$, converted itself into >
47. Burnouf was the first to remark on the fact, peculiar to the Zend, that the semi-vowels are fond of communicating an aspiration to a preceding consonant; and we (§. 40.) have ascribed a similar influence to $\mu s$ and $; n$, and find ourselves compelled to assign the same also to the

[^32]labial nasal, by which, for instance, the feminine participle Пग्मुषी jagmushî has changed itself to The dental medial is free from this influence, for we find

 medial is, however, exposed to this influence, as in the abovementioned instance of jaghmûshí. We have, on the other hand, adduced, in $\S$. 35 ., a limitation of this appearance. The aspirating virtue of the $د J$ is less potent than that of the $r r$ and $\sigma v$, and we find $y$ often preceded by the unaspirated $t$; for instance, in sitya, "the second," גנدpus) thritya, "the third": on the other hand, we have

48. In connection with the above rule stands the phenomenon, that before $r$, when followed by any consonant not a sibilant, an $h$ is usually placed; for instance ug ${ }^{1}$ burg malrka, "death," from the root lug mar (मृ mri, "to die";
 ( (वृष्ण irika.) The semi-vowel $y$ also, which only appears before vowels, sometimes attracts an ev $h$; thus, thivahyu, "through thee," corresponds to the Sauskrit त्बया turayn; and the wofd [G. Ed. p. 47.] csahyó adduced by Rask, stands for (1) csaya and comes from the root
49. We come now to the sibilants. The first, a palatal, pronounced in Sanskrit with a gentle aspiration, F, which we express by $s^{\prime}$ in Sanskrit, and $\dot{s}$ in Zend, is written $\omega$ in the latter. Its exact pronunciation is scarcely ascertainable. Anquetil assigns it that of the ordinary s. It in general occurs in those positions in which the Sanskrit in corresponding words has its झ् $s$; thus, for instance, daśu, " ten," sata, " hundred," paśs, "beast," are common to both languages. In this respect $u s \dot{s}$ has spread itself wider in Zend than in Sanskrit; that before several consonants,
namely, $\rho t, g k$, and $\rho n$, as well at the beginning as in the middle of words-in the latter place, however, only after $\Delta a, \mu d$, and $\gamma_{n} a \dot{n}$-it corresponds to the Sanskrit




 with mi snd, "to bathe." We might infer from this circumstance that $s \geqslant$ was pronounced as a simple $s$, yet it may have to do with a dialectical preference for the sound $s h$, as happens with the German $s$ in the Suabian dialect, and pretty universally at the beginning of words before $t$ and $p$. It is further to be remarked, that $s \omega$ occurs also at the end of words after $x^{\circ} a \dot{n}$. The occasion for this presents itself in the nom. sing. masc. of bases in pewnt.
50. The semi-vowel »v is regularly hardened into $\triangleleft p$



 is not corresponded to by a Sanskrit घ्यान śmanta, which must have originally been in use, and which the Lithuanian szanta-s indicates. From the Zend $\operatorname{suspa}$, the transition is easy to the Greek intos, which is less obvious in the case of the Indian as'sua.
51. For the Sanskrit lingual sibilant 玉् sh, the Zend supplies two letters, $u$ and 0 . The first, according to Rask, is pronounced like the ordinary $s$, and therefore like the Sanskrit dental $s$ ㅍ्; while has the sound of घ् $=s h$, and marks this by a stroke of aspiration. We therefore write it sh.* Rask observes that these two letters are often interchanged in MSS.; which he accounts for by the circumstance

[^33]that $\mu$ is used in the Pehlevi for $s h$, and that the Parsî copyists have been long better acquainted with the Pehlevi than the Zend. We find, also, in the Codex edited by Burnouf, $\mu$ almost everywhere corresponding to प् |  |
| :---: | . We recognise, however, from the text edited by Olshausen of a part of the Vendidâd, and the variations appended, that although in etymological respects $\omega$ as well as ${ }^{\mu}$ corresponds to the Sanskrit $\eta{ }_{s}$, the principal position of $\omega$ is before strong consonants (§.25.) and at the end of words; a position of much importance in the Zend, and which requires attention in the cases of other classes of letters. In this respect $\omega$ resembles, among the dentals, oc $t$, among the gutturals $\sigma c$, and among the nasals principally $w n$. At the end of words, indeed, $\mu s$ corresponds to the Sanskrit 叉् $s$, but yet

[G. Ed. p.49.] only after such letters as, in the middle of a word, would, according to Rule $101\left(^{(3}\right)$ of my Sanskrit Grammar, change an original स् $s$ into प् ṣ $h$; namely, after vowels other than $a$ and $\hat{a}$, and after the consonants $\sigma c$ and $\rho r$. Hence, for instance, the nominative cusposed paitis, "Lord,"
 "dæmon," from the theme y) y druj. On the other hand, "ruess baraǹs, "bearing," from p,wuless barant. In the
 stands after $a$; but it does not here replace a Sanskrit स् $s$, but the original प् ṣ̂h of पष् ṣhaṣ̆h. As evidence of the use of $\mu s$ for $\square$ the very usual superlative suffix spous ista (i.e. IGTos), corresponding to the Sanskrit ₹E iṣhtha. Other examples are vpuoung karsta, "ploughed," for कृष krishta. In the word دریدswue sayana "camp," u stands irregularly for $\omega \mathcal{\xi}$, which latter was to be anticipated from the Sanskrit शयन soyana (ef. saette, §. 54.) In the fem. numeral

[^34]प/2ausp tisard, "three" (Olsh. p. 26), the might seem questionable, for the Sanskrit form is तिस्त् tisras, and स् according to §. 53., becomes er $h$. The स्, however, is here in a position (after ; $i$ ) in which the Sanskrit favours the conversion of स् $s$ into प् ṣ̂ $h$; and on this rests the Zend form țeuvsp tisard. That it does not, however, stand as
 not to be ascribed to the original existence of $s a$, for

52. 0 stands for the Sanskrit च ss sh be- [G. Ed. p. 50] fore vowels and the semi-vowels $\lrcorner s y$ and $\geqslant v$; compare

 mashya, "man," with मनुष्य manushiya. Yet ${ }^{\mu}$ sh does not unite itself with an antecedent $\sigma c$; but for the Sanskṛit घ् $k s ̣ h$ we find almost everywhere in Olshausen's text, and
 csathra, "king," Sanskṛit स्नत kṣhatra, "a man of the warlike or royal caste." The word of frequent occurrence, NG it, 5 א, ground, reject, and prefer the variation given at p. 33, since $\omega_{0} s$ here is prolonged, as well by the preceding $c$ as by the following $n$. It is, however, worthy of remark, that the Sanskṛit ฆ hish in many Zend words abandons the guttural, and appears as sh. For instance, दधिए dakshina, " dexter," becomes ujsugug dashina (Lithuan. dészinè, "the right hand"), and wक्षि akṣhi, "eye," becomes ashi, which, however, seems only to occur at the end of possessive compounds (Bahuvrîhi):
53. w $h$ is never, in etymological respects, the representative of the Sanskrit हु $h$, but of the pure and dental sibilant स् s. Before vowels, semi-vowels, and $m$, in Zend, this letter invariably becomes $\varepsilon$, possibly because स् $s w$ (§. 35.) takes the shape $\omega k h$; while before $n$, and such consonants as cannot unite with a preceding $h$, (§. 49.) it is to be looked for in the shape of $3 \dot{\delta}$. The [G.Ed. p. 51.]
roots which begin with स्प् $s p$ and स्क्र $s p h$ have not yet been detected by me in the Zend；but I am convinced that स्पृश् spris＇s，for instance，＂to touch，＂could not begin other－ wise in Zend than with $d s s p$ ．Compare，for instance－

| zend． | sanskrit． |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wes ha，＂they，＂ | सा | sa． |
| upodeser hapta，＂seven，＂ | सด | sapta． |
| అ¢¢¢gnes hakërĕt，＂once，＂ | सकृत् | sakrit． |
| Sers ahi，＂thou art，＂ | स्रसि | asi |
| sugers ahmait，＂to this，＂ | स्षस्मे | asmâi． |
| ¢゙入入＞er hvarĕ，＂sun，＂ | सर् | swar， |
| ふ》サ＂hva，＂his，＂ | स | swa． |

The word N＂§ser hizva，＂tongue，＂from जिद्हा jihwa，deserves mention，because the sibilant quality of the ज्ञ $j$ is treated as स् $s$ ，and replaced by or $h$（§．58．）．

54．I do not remember to have met with an instance of the combination her $h r$ ；the Sanskṛit word सहस sahasra， ＂thousand，＂which might give occasion for it，has rejected the sibilant in the last syllable，and taken the shape w／3ugner hazanra．If，in the word nguose huska，＂dry，＂Sansk． शुप्क śuşlka，en replaces the Sansk．श् s＇，we must remember that the Latin siccus indicates a Sansk．स $s$ ，because $c$ regu－ larly answers to श् s．In many instances of Sanskrit roots beginning with स् $s$ ，the corresponding Zend form may be grounded on the change which is effected on an initial ${ }^{s} s$ by the influence of certain prepositions．（Gram．Crit，r．so．）
［G．Ed．p．52．］Thus I believe I have clearly ascertained the existence of the Sanskrit participle सिद्ध siddha，＂per－ fected，＂in the term of frequent occurrence in the Vendidâd $G$ Gpassum shdistém；after the analogy of upus）s irista， ＂deceased，＂from 6s）s irith（see §．99．）Olshausen notifies
 saisterm，frpsuswu shaistim，fieruswn shaistím，and G\＆eruswц shdistem．In all these forms，the long a pre－ sents a difficulty；for，according to $\$$ ． 28. ，fिy șidh would give the form ©wne shaidh；and this，with the suffix $t a$ ，
 shaistëm. What Anquetil (vol. II. p. 279) translates, Juste juge du monde qui existe par votre puissance, vous qui êtes la pureté même, quelle est la premiere chose qui plaise à cette terre (que nous habitons), et la rende fatorable, runs in the original (Olsh., p. 29, Burnouf, p. 137), وשבאpula
 Dâtarè gaêthanañm as̀tvaitinañm ashâuml kva paoirîm anhdo zĕmd shaistĕm? "Creator mundorum existentium, pure! ubi (quid) primum hujus terre perfectum (bonum?")
55. The nominative pronominal base सर sya (Gramm. Crit. r. 268), in the Veda dialect, is under the influence of the preceding word; and we see in Rosen's specimen, p. 6, this pronoun, when it follows the particle $5 u$, converted into ms shya, after the analogy of rule $101^{\circ}$ of my Grammar. I have detected a similar phenomenon in the Zend pronouns; for we find rov hé, "ejus," "ei," which is founded on a lost Sanskrit से sê (cf. से mê, "mei," " mihi," and ते t ${ }^{?}$, "tui," "tibi"), when it follows טسת yefzi, "if," taking the form (more correctly, perhaps, se shê); for instance, at p. 37 of Olshausen: while on the same page we find rovin yestzicha hé, (und uenn ihm,) [G. Ed. p. 53.] " and if to him." In the following page we find a similar phenomenon, if, as I can hardly doubt, read it with the variation), corresponds to the Sanskrit बसौ asau ("ille," "illa"): :
 akarsta (text, uner) Iugu adarsia), "For not this earth which lies long unploughed."

56a). An $e r h$ standing between $a$ or $a$ and a following vowel is usually preceded by a guttural nasal ( $3, n$ ); and this appendage seems indispensable-I remember, at least, no exception-in cases where the following vowel is $a, a$, or ĕ. We find, for instance, usumazayanha, "thou wast born"; while in the active the personal ending gi of the present admits no nasal; and we find, for
instance, תנת ahi, " thou art," sacsahi, " thou givest," not Uבישת anhi, bacsanhi.

56b). The termination as, which in Sanskrit only before sonant
 the latter together with the preceding $a$ into $\begin{aligned} & 6 \text { (compare the }\end{aligned}$ French au, from al): this ancient termination as appears in Zend, as also in Prâkrit and Pali, always under the shape of 0. On the other hand, the termination as, which in Sanskrit before all sonant letters entirely abandons the s, in Zend has never allowed the concluding sibilant entirely to expire, but everywhere preserves its fusion in the shape of $b_{o}$ (for
[G. Ed. p. 54.] u); and I consider myself thereby strongly supported in a conjecture I enounced before my acquaintance with Zend," that in Sanskrit the suppression of a terminating $s$ after $a$ had preceded the vocalization of this $s$ into $u$. It is remarkable that where, in Zend, as above observed, an $3 n$ precedes the $v i n$ which springs out of the $s$ of the syllable $A s$, or where, before the enclitic particle sur cha, the $s$ above mentioned is changed into $s s$, together with these substantial representatives of the $s$, its evaporation into $\downarrow o$ is also retained, and the sibilant thus appears in a double form, albeit torpid and evanescent. To illustrate this by some examples, the Sanskrit मास् mas," luna"an uninflected nominative, for the $s$ belongs to the rootreceives in Zend the form quG máo, in which o represents the Sanskrit $s$; मार्य más'-cha, "lunaque," gives us دpuguvg
 that in the two last examples the Sanskrit sibilant is represented by a vowel and a consonant. The analogy of mdonhĕm, "lunam," is followed in all similar instances; for example, for बास assa "fuit," we find vergeu aonha, and for जासाम्


[^35]57. Two sibilants remain to be mentioned, namely, $S$ and eb , of which the former was probably pronounced like the French $z$, and may therefore be replaced [G. Ed. p. 55.] by that letter. Etymologically this letter answers to the Sanskrit है $h$ for the most part, which never corresponds to the Zend ey $h$. Compare, for example,

SANSKRIT.
सहम् aham, "I,"
हस्त hasta, "hand,"

सहछ sahasra, "thousand," es/zugser hazanra.
हन्ति hanti, "he strikes," sp,wsus zainti.
वहति vahati, "he carries," sposugnvo vazaiti.
" bears,"
fि $h i$, " for,"
जिहा $̈$ ühwa, " tongue,"
महत् mahat, " great,"
महत् mahat, " great,"
$y z i$.
N")Ssev hizva, (\$. 53.)
प'Sug mazd (from mazas, ace. G६evzusug mazanhĕm.)
58. Sometimes $\leq z$ appears also in the place of the Sanskrit $\bar{F} j$; so that the sibilant portion of this letter, pronounced $d s c h$, is alone represented, and the $d$ sound suppressed (see §. 53.). Thus guyu yaz, "to adore," answers
 from the Sanskrit root जुष् $\mathfrak{j u s ̣ h}$, "to please or gratify." Thirdly, the Zend $z$ represents also the Sanskrit ग् $g$, which is easily accounted for by the relationship between $g$ and $j$. The Indian $g^{0}$, (accus. gdm,) bos and terra, has, in Zend, as also in Greek, clothed itself in two forms; the first
the Nouveau Journ. Asiatique, tom. iii. p. 342, speaking of the relation of mâonho to mananhô, without noticing the analogies which occur in cases of repetition, mâosh-cha, "lunaque," urvâraosh-cha, "arboresque," he says, " In mäonghô, there is perhaps this difference, that the ngh does not replace the Sanskrit $s$, for this letter has already become $o$ in consequence of a change of frequent occurrence which we have lately noticed.

$$
\text { E } 2
$$

signification has maintained itself in Zend, but in Greek


[G. Ed. p. 56.] For the signification "earth" the Greek has preserved the gattural, which in Zend is replaced by $z$. The nom. عus zato supposes an Indian form गास् gats, for गौस् gaus; in the accusative, Gxک zanm agrees, in respect of inflection, as closely as possible with गाम yâm and $\gamma_{\hat{\eta}} \mathrm{v}$.
59. eb is of less frequent use, and was probably pronounced like the French $j$ : we write it $z h$. It is observable, that as the French $j$ in many words corresponds to the Latin semi-vowel $j$, and derives from it its own developement, so also sometimes, in Zend, eb $\boldsymbol{z h}$ has arisen out of the Sanskrit ग् $y$. Thus, for instance, यूयम् yûyam, " you," (vos),
 sprung from the sound of the English $j$, and corresponds to
 Finally, it stands as a terminating letter in some prefixes, in the place of the Sanskrit dental स् $s$ after $i$ and $u$; thus, spsalvercbss nizhbaraiti, "he carries out"; $6 \varepsilon \rho \sigma$,
 dus-matém, "ill thought."
60. We have still to elucidate the nasals, which we have postponed till now, because for them a knowledge of the system of the other sounds is indispensable. We must first of all mention a difference from the Sanskrit, that in Zend every organ has not its particular nasal; but that here, in respect of $n$, two main distinctions are established, and that these mainly depend on the circumstance whether $n$ precedes a vowel or a consonant. In this manner $\rho$ and $\rightsquigarrow$ are so contrasted, that the first finds its place chiefly before whole and half vowels, and also at the end of words; the latter only
[G. Ed. p. 57.] in the middle of strong consonants. We
 دעת
 barayĕn, "they might bear"; essjus anya, "the other." Concerning the difference between $j$ and,$\mu$-a difference not recognised in European alphabets-it is probable that $w_{2}$, being always fenced in by strong consonants, must have had a duller and more suppressed sound than the freer $f$; and by reason of this weak and undecided character of its pronunciation, would appear to have applied itself more easily to every organ of the following letter.
61. Still feebler and more undecided than w, perhaps an equivalent to the Indian Anuswâra, we conjecture to have been the nasal $\gamma^{\prime}$, which is always involved with is $a$, and which seems from its form to have been a fusion of $\star$ and $j$. We find this letter, which we write añ, first, before sibilants, before ur $h$, like the Anuswâra, and before

 zanihyamâna, a part of the middle future of the root pus zan, " to beget," but, as it seems to me, with a passive signifieation (" qui nascetur." Vend. S. pp. 28 and 103.); wGqug munithra, " speech," from the root jusg man; 3jd "mouth," probably from the Sanskrit जप् jap, "to pray," §. 40., and with the nasal inserted. Secondly, before a terminating $\in m$ and $j n$. We have here to observe that the Sanskrit termination wाम् $\widehat{A}$ is always changed to $G_{\text {Kqu anm in Zend ; for intance, Gxove dadharim, "I gave," }}$ Sanskrit सददाम् adadam; Gxั/Nodud padhanaim, "pedum," Sans. पादानाम् padânam; and that the ter- [G. Ed. p. 58.] mination of the third person plural, सन् an, provided the $a$ do not pass into $\check{e}$, always appears as a double nasal $/ \gamma^{\circ}$ ann.*
62. For the nasal, which, according to §. 56., is placed as an euphonic addition before the $v h$, which springs from स् $s$, the Zend has two characters, 3 and $S$, to both which

[^36]Anquetil assigns the sound $n g$.* We write them $n$, in order to avoid giving the appearance of a $g$ preceded by a guttural $n$ to this guttural, which is only a nasal precursor of the following ev $h$. As to the difference in the use of these two letters, $弓$ always follows $a$ and $\lambda_{0} ; ~ S$, on the contrary, comes after $i$ and $e$, for which the occasion is rare. For instance, in the relative plural nom. evispo o yenhe, "qui," and in the fem. pron. genitives, as quevorsainhao, "hujus," which often occurs, but as often without $\Delta i$, and with $3!$. quergu anhao. What phonetic difference existed between 3 and $\delta$ we cannot venture to pronounce. Anquetil as we have seen, assigns the same pronunciation to each; while Rask compares $S$ with the Sanskrit palatal म् $n$, and illustrates its sound by that of the Spanish and Portuguese ñ.
63. The labial nasal $G m$ does not differ from the Sanskerit म्: it must, however, be remarked, that it sometimes takes the place of $b$. At least the root हू $b r u \hat{u}$, "speak," in
 mratt, "he spoke": in a similar manner is the Indian मुख mukha, " mouth," related to the Latin bucca; and not
[G. Ed. p. 59.] much otherwise the Latin mare to the Sanskc̣it वारि vari, "water." I consider, also, multus related to बहुल bahula, the Greek $\pi 0 \lambda \hat{u}_{\mathrm{s}}$, and the Gothic filu.
64. A concluding $6 m$ operates in a double manner on ${ }^{\text {a }}$ preceding vowel. It weakens (see §. 30.) the $s a$ to $\varepsilon \check{e}$; and, on the other hand, lengthens the vowels $i$ and $u$;
 "the body," from the bases sposud paiti, yjup tanu. In contradiction to this rule we find the vocative of frequent occurrence, Groupus ashdum, "pure." Here, however, $\rightarrow$ sw $d u$, as a diphthong, answers to the Sanskrit *ึ $đ u$, the last element of which is not capable of further lengthening

[^37]The form in question is a contraction of the theme ; תַMrgashavan; with an irregular conversion of the concluding $; n$ into $\in m$.
65. We give here a complete summary of the Zend characters.


Gutturals : $9 k$ (before vowels and $\geqslant v$ ), $\sigma c$ (principally before consonants), $\omega{ }^{k h}$ (from स् $s w$, before vowels and ssy); eg, qgh.

Dentals : $\rho t$ (before vowels and $s s y$ ), $\tau t$ (before consonants and at the end of words), $\sigma$ th (before whole and semi-vowels), $q$ d, © $d h$.
Labials : $d_{p}$, $d_{f}$ (the latter before vowels, semi-vowels, nasals, and $\mu(s), \Delta b$.
Semi-vowels: 工. $\mathcal{r}$, ss $y$ (the two [G. Ed. p. 60.] first initial, the last medial), $\eta_{,} J_{r}$ (the last only after $\left.d_{f}\right), \zeta_{s}, \geqslant v$ (the first initial, the last medial), of $w$.
Sibilants and $h: \omega \dot{s},{ }_{y} \sin , \mu s, ~ e b z h$ (or like the French $j$ ) $s z, w h$.
Nasals: $j^{n}$ (before vowels, semi-vowels, and at the end of words), $\mathrm{m}^{n}$ (before strong consonants), \% an (before sibilants, sy $h, \sigma_{t h}, \partial_{f}, G m$, and $\left.f n\right), 3 n$ (between $\star a$ or $\varepsilon u \pi 0$, and $\uplus h$, and between $a$ and $\left.r^{*}\right), \Omega n$ (between $s i$ or $v \in$, and $u$ ), $G m$.
Remark also the Compounds ere for wasah, and rery for puo st.
66. We refrain from treating specially of the Greek, Latin, and Lithuanian systems of sounds, but must here devote a closer consideration to the Germanic. The Gothic $a$, which, according to Grimm, is always short, answers

[^38]completely to the Sanskrit $a$; and the sounds of the Greek $\epsilon$ and o are wanting, in their character of degeneration from $a_{\text {, }}$ in Gothic as well as in Sanskrit. The ancient $a$ has not, however, always been retained in Gothic; but in radical syllables, as well as in terminations, has often been weakened to $i$, or has undergone suppression; often, also, by the influence of a following liquid, has been converted into $u$. Compare, for instance, sibun, "seven," with ससन् saptan; taihun, "ten," with दक्ष् daśan.
67. We believe ourselves authorized to lay down as a law, that $a$ in polysyllabic words before a terminating $s$ is everywhere weakened into $i$, or suppressed; but before a terminating th generally appears as $i$. A concluding wa in the Gothic either remains unaltered, or disappears: it never becomes $i$.
68. In the Old High German the Gothic a either remains
[G. Ed. p. 61.] unaltered, or is weakened to $e$, or is changed by the influence of a liquid to $u=$ perhaps $o$. According to this, the relation of the unorganic $e$ to the Gothic $a$ is the same as that of the Gothic $i$ (§. 66.) to va; compare, for instance, in the genitive of the bases in a षृक्षस्य prika-sya, Gothic rulfi-s, Old High German wolfe-s. In the dative plural wolfu-m stands to vulfa-m in the same relation as above ( $\$ .66$.), sibun to suptan. The precedence of a liquid has also, in Old High German, sometimes converted this $a$ into $u$ or $o$; compare plinte-mu(mo), coco, with the Gothic blindamma. Also after the German $j$ or $y$, which in Sanskrit (य् $y$ ) belongs as a semi-vowel to the same class as $r$, the Old High German seems to prefer $u$ to $a$; thence plintju, without $j$ also plintu, "cecca," as a fem. nom. sing., and neuter nom. acc. voc. plural ; plinta "cocam." The $u$ of the first person present, as kipu, "I give," Gothic giba, I ascribe to the influence of the dropped personal letter m. Respecting the degeneration of the original $a$ sound to $u$ compare also $\S$. 66. In the Old High German inseparable preposition ki (our German ge) $=$ Gothic ga, Sansk!̣it $\mathbf{R ~ s}^{\boldsymbol{s} \|}$ or सम् sam, we
liave an example in which the Gothic-Sanskrit $a$ has become $i$.

69, For the Sanskṛit wi $a$, the Gothic, which has no long $a$, almost always substitutes $\delta(\S .4$.), and this $\delta$, in cases of abbreviation, falls back into the short $a$. Thus, for instance, in Grimm's first fem. declension of the strong form, the nom. and accus. sing. $\sigma$ is softened to $a$, whence giba, gibd-s (§. 118.). Generally in the Gothic polysyllabic forms, the concluding wा $\hat{a}$ is shortened to $a$; and where $b$ stands at the termination, an originally succeeding consonant has been dropped; for instance, in the gen. plur. fem. $\sigma$ stands for साम् $\AA \mathrm{m}$. Sometimes, also, in the Gothic, $\hat{e}$ corresponds to the Sanskrit $\mathbb{A}$, as in the gen. plur. masc. and neuter. In the Old High German the Gothic $\theta$ either [G. Ed. p. 62.] remains $\theta$, as in the gen. plur., or divides itself into two short vowels ; and, according to differences of origin, into $o a$, $u a$, or $u o$; of which, in the Middle High German, uo prevails ; while in the Modern High German the two divided vowels are contracted into $\hat{u}$. For the Gothic $\hat{e}=$ जा $\hat{A}$, the Old, Middle, and Modern High German have preserved the old a, except in the gen. plural.
70. For $₹ i$ and $\ddagger$ the Gothic has $i$ and $e i$; which latter, as Grimm has sufficiently shewn, is everywhere to be considered as long $i$, and also in Old and Middle High German is so represented. We, together with Grimm, as in the case of the other vowels, designate its prolongation by a circumflex. In the Modern High German the long $i$ appears mostly as ei; compare, for instance, mein with the Gothic genitive meina, and the Old and Middle High German min. Sometimes a short $i$ is substituted, as in lich, answering to the Gothic leiks, "like," at the end of compounds. On the long $i$, in wir, "nos," Gothic veis, we can lay no stress, as we match the dat. sing. mir also with the Gothic mis. It is scarcely worth remarking that we usually, in writing, designate the elongation of the $i$ and other vowels by the addition of an $h$.
71. While the original wa has undergone many alterations in the Germanic languages, and has produced both $i$ and $u$, I have been able to detect no other alterations in $i$ and $\hat{i}$ than that $i$ is as often suppressed as $a$; but it never happens, unless some rare exceptions have escaped me, that $i$ is replaced by a heavier vowel $a$ or $u$.* We may lay
[G. Ed. p.63.] it down as a rule, that final $i$ has given way in German everywhere, as it has generally in Latin. Compare.

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SANSERIT. GREEK. LATIN. GOTHIC.
परि pari, \piepi, per, fair. ($. 82.)
उपरि upari, vं\pié\rho, super, ufar.
अस्ति asti, é\sigma\tauí, est, ist.
सन्ति santi, ėv\tauí, sunt, sind.
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72. Where a concluding $i$ occurs in Gothic and Old High German it is always a mutilation of the German $j$ (or $y$ ) together with the following vowel; so that $j$, after the suppression of this vowel, has vocalized itself. Thus the uninflected Gothic accus. hari, "exercitum," is a mutilation of harya.t The Sanskrit would require harya-m; and the Zend, after §̧. 42., meeting the Germanic half way, hari-m. Before a concluding $s$ also, in the Gothic, $₹ i$ is usually suppressed ; and the Gothic terminating syllable is, is mostly a weakening of as, §. 67. In Old High German, and still more in Middle and Modern High German, the Gothic $i$ has often degenerated into $e$, which, where it occurs in the accented syllable, is expressed in Grimm by ë. We retain this character. We have also to observe of the Gothic, that, in the old text, $i$

[^39]at the beginning of a syllable is distinguished by two dots above, which Grimm retains.
73. As in Zend (§.41.), by the attractive force of $i, i$, or $y$, an $i$ is introduced into the antecedent syllable ; so also, in Old High German, the corresponding sounds have obtained an assimilating power; and frequently an [G. Ed. p. 64.] $a$ of the preceding syllable is converted into $e$, without any power of prevention on the part of either a single or double consonant. Thus, for instance, we find from ast, "branch," the plural esti; from anst, "grace," the plural ensti; and from vallu, "I fall," the second and third persons vellis, vellit. This law, however, has not prevaded the Old High German universally : we find, for instance, arpi, "hereditas," not erpi; zahari, "lacryma," not zaheri.
74. In the Middle High German, the $e$, which springs from the older $i$, has both retained and extended the power of modification and assimilation; inasmuch as, with few limitations, (Grimm, p. 332,) not only every $a$ by its retrospective action becomes $e$, but generally, also, $a, u$, and $o$ are modified into $a, \ddot{u}$, and $\ddot{o} ; \sigma$ into $a$, and $u o$ into $u e$. Thus the plural geste, drate, brïche, köche, lane, gruese, from gast, drat, bruch, koch, lon, gruoz. On the other hand, in the Old High German, the $e$ which has degenerated from $i$ or $a$ obtains no such power; and we find in the genitive singular of the above words, gaste-s, drate-s, \&c., because the Old High German has already, in the declension of the masculine $i$ class, reduced to $e$ the $i$ belonging to the class, and which in Gothic remains unaltered.
75. The $e$ produced in Old and Middle High German by the modification of $a$, is retained in the Modern High German, in cases where the trace of the original vowel is either extinguished or scarcely felt; as, Ende, Engel, setzen, netzen, nennen, brennen; Goth. andi, aggilus, satyan, natyan, namnyan, brannyan. Where, however, the original vowel is distinctly opposed to the change, we place $\ddot{a}$, short or
[G. Ed. p. 65.] long, from short or long $a$; and in the same relation, $\ddot{u}$ from $u, \ddot{o}$ from $o$, $\ddot{u}$ from $a u$; for instance, Brände, Pfäle, Dünste, Flüge, Köche, Töne, Bäume, from Brand, Pfal, \&e.
76. For $\boldsymbol{\jmath} u$, उ $\hat{u}$, the Gothic has $u$, which is generally short. Among the few examples cited by Grimm, p. 41, of long $u$, we particularize the comparative sûtizd, the essential part of which corresponds to the Sansk. सादु swâdu, "sweet," ( $\dot{\eta} \delta \dot{v}-s$ ), and in which the long $u$ may stand as a compensation for the absence of the $w(v)$, which becomes vocalized. In Old High German it seems to me that pilam, "to dwell," and truen," to trust," correspond to the Sanskrit roots मू bhû, "to be," นू dhrî " to stand fast"-from which comes भुव dhruva, "fast," "constant," "certain" (Gramm. Crit, r. 51.)-with the Guna form of which (§. 26.) the Goth. bauan, trauan, is connected; cf. भबितुम् bhav-itum, " to be," अवितुम् dhrav-itum, "to stand fast." The Middle High German continues the Gothic Old High German $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$, but the Modern High German substitutes $a u$, whence bauen, trauen, Taube (Gothic didb).
77. As out of the Sanskrit उ $u$, in Zend, the sound of a short $\downarrow$ * has developed itself (§.32.), thus, also, the Gothic $u$ shews itself, in the more recent dialects, oftener in the form of $o$ than in its own. Thus have the Verbs in the Old and Middle High German (Grimm's 9th conjug.) preserved a radical $u$ in the plur. of the pret., but replaced it by $o$ in the passive part. Compare, for instance, bugum, "we bend," bugans, "bent," with Old High German pukumes, pokanêr, Middle High German bugen, bogen. The example adduced shews, also, the softening of the old $u$ to $e$, in unaccented syllabes, in Middle High German as in Modern High German; so that this unaccented $e$ may represent all original vowels- $a, i, u$; and we may lay it down as a rule, that all long and short vowels in the last syllable of poly-

[^40]syllabic words, are either worn away or softened down to a mute $e$.
78. For the diphthongs $\mathrm{E}^{e}(a+i)$ and [G. Ed. p. 66.] जो $6(a+u)$, the Gothic has $a i$ and $a u$, which are also monosyllabic, and were perhaps pronounced like ₹ $\mathbb{E}$ and $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$. Compare bavaima, "adificemus" with भवे bhavêma, "simus"; sunau-s, " of a son," with its equivalent सुनोस् sund-s. Where these Gothic diphthongs aiand au have maintained themselves unaltered in value, they then appear, in writing, as $\hat{\varepsilon}$ and $\boldsymbol{\delta},{ }^{*}$ which must be considered as contractions of $a+i$ and $a+u$; as in the Latin amémus, from amaimus (§. 5.); and as in the almost solitary case of bofs, the long o of which is the result of a contraction of $a+u$, whose latter element appears again before vowels in the independent shape of $v$ (bovis, bovem), while the first element $n$, in its degeneration, appears as ö (8. 3.). Compare,
\[

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { sanskhit. gothic. old hioh german. } \\
& \text { बरेम charêma (eamus), faraima, varêmês. } \\
& \text { चरेत charêta (eatis), faraith, varêt. } \\
& \text { तेग्यस tébhyas (his), thaim dem. }
\end{aligned}
$$
\]

79. In like manner, in all subjunctives, and in the pronominal declension in which the adjective bases in a take part, an Old High German é corresponds to the Sanskrit $\sum^{e}$ e and Gothic ai. The Middle High [G. Ed.p.67.]. German has shortened this d , as standing in an unaccented terminating syllable (iaren, varet). Besides this, the Middle High German has, in common with the Old High German,

[^41]preserved the diphthong $e$ where it stood in radical syllables under the protection of a following $u, r$ (out of the older $s$ ), or $h(c h)$, even in cases where one of these letters had been dropped, or where $u$ had vocalized itself into $v$ or $o$. (Grimm, pp. 90, 343). Compare,

MIDDLE

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
\text { Gothic. } & \text { OLD } & \text { MIDDLR } \\
\text { aiv, " evum," } & \text { High GERMAN. HIGH GERMAN. }
\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { aiv, " evum," } \\
& \text { snaivs, "nix," } \\
& \text { mais, " magis," } \\
& \text { laisy, " docere," } \\
& \text { laihv, " commodavit," }
\end{aligned}
$$

In the Modern High German this $e$ is partly preserved, partly replaced; for instance, mêr (mehr), Schne (Schnee), Sêle (Gothic saivala); but ich lieh, gedieh. (Grimm. p. 983.).
80. As the $\ell$ for the Gothic $a i$, so the $\sigma$ for $a u$, in the Old and Middle High German, is' favoured by certain consonants; and those which favour the 6 are the more numerous. They consist of the dentals (according to the Sanskrit division, §. 16.) $t, d, z$, together with their nasal and sibilant ( $n, s$ ); further, the semi-vowel $r$; and $h$, which, as a termination in Middle High German, becomes ch (See Grimm, pp. 94. 345). The roots, which in the Gothic admit the Guna modification of the radical $u$ by $a$, in the preterite singular, oppose to the Gothic $a u$, in Middle and Old High German, a double form; namely, $\delta$ under the condition above mentioned, and next ou, §. 34., in the absence
[G. Ed. p.68.] of the letter which protects 6. For instance, Old High German $z \delta h$, Middle High German zoch (traxi, traxit) Gothic tauh, Sanskrit दुदोह dud6ha (mulxi, mulsi,); but pouc, bouc, flexi, flexit, Gothic baug, Sanskrit बुभोज bu-bholja. The Modern High German exhibits the Gothic diphthong $a u$, either, like the Middle and Old High German, as 6 , and in a more extended degree, and subject to the modification of $\S .75$; or next, shortened to 0 ,
the particulars of which will be explained under the verb; or, thirdly, as au; for instance, daupya, "I baptize," hlaupa, "I run"; or, fourthly, as eu, §. 83.
81. As Ulfilas, in proper names, represents both $\epsilon$ and $\alpha \varepsilon$ by $a i$, and likewise $\circ$ and $\alpha \nu$ by $a u$ (Paitrus, Galeilaia, apaustaulus, Paulus ); and as, in the next place, not every Gothic $a i$ and $a u$ in the cognate dialects is represented in like manner, but in some cases the Gothic $a i$ is replaced in Old High German by a simple $i$ or $\ddot{e}$, and $a u$ by $u$ or $o$ (§.77.); but in the others, $a i$ is replaced by $\ell$, or ( $\S .85$.) by $e i$, and $a u$ by 0 or (§. 84.) ou; therefore Grimm deduces from these facts a double value of the diphthongs $a i$ and $a u$; one with the accent on the last element ( $a i, a i i$ ), another with the accent on the $a(a i, a u)$. We cannot, however, give implicit belief to this deduction of the acute author of the German system of sounds, and prefer assuming an equal value in all cases of the Gothic $a i$ and $a u$, although we might support Grimm's view by the fact, that, in Sanskrit, ए $\ell$, सो 0 , never replace his af and aú; but everywhere, where occasion occurs, do replace ai and áu. We think, however, that the difference is rather phonetic than etymological. As concerns the $a i$ and $a u$ in proper names, it may be accounted for, inasmuch as the Gothic was [G. Ed. p.69.] deficient in equivalents for these non-primitive vowels, which have degenerated from the original w $a$. Could Ulifias have looked back into the early ages of his language, and have recognised the original idenity of $\epsilon$ and $o$ with his $a$, he would perhaps have used the latter as their substitutes. From his point of sight, however, he embraced the ai and $a u$, probably because these mixed diphthongs passed with him as weaker than the long $e$ and $\sigma$, ejusdem generis, $=$ (*ा a). It is important here to observe, that in Greek also $\alpha t$ is felt as weaker than $\eta$ and $\omega$, as is proved by the fact that $\alpha \iota$ does not attract the accent towards itself ( $\tau \dot{\pi} \pi \tau о \mu \alpha \iota$ not tuntómat. The expression of the Greek $\alpha u$ and $\alpha v$ by
the Gothic ai and au requires the less justification, because even if $a i$ was pronounced like ए $\mathbb{C}$, and $a u$ like को $\delta$, yet the written character presents these diphthongs as a still perceptible fusion of $a$ with a following $i$ or $u$.
82. As to the other statement, namely, that not every Gothic $a i$ and $a u$ produces the same effect in the younger dialects, nor has the same foundation in the older Sanskṛit, it might be sufficient to observe upon one feature of dialect peculiar to the Gothic, that $h$ and $r$ do not content themselves with a pure preceding $i$, but require it to be affected by Guna (§.26.); thus, ai for $i$, and $a u$ for $u$; while other dialects exhibit the $i$ and $u$ before $h$ and $r$ in the same form as before every other consonant. The relation of the Gothic to their Sanskrit equivalents,

is not so to be understood as though an $i$ had been placed after the old $a$, but that, by the softening down of the $a$ to $i$ (§. 66.), the forms sihs, tihun, had been produced; out of which, afterwards, the Guna power arising from $h$ and $r$ had produced saihs, taihun, bairan. The High German has, however, remained at the earlier stage; for Old High German sëhs, (Anglo-Saxon, "six,") and tëhan or tëhun, \&ce., rest upon an earlier Gothic sihs, tihun. Thus, lohtar rests on an earlier Gothic duhtar, for the Guna form dauhtar, Sanskrit दुहितर् duhitar, ( दुहितृ duhitri, §. 1.) "daughter." Where the

Sanskrit ₹ $a$ has preserved itself in the Gothic unaltered, that is, not weakened to $i$, the occasion is absent for the development of the diphthong $a i$, since it is not the $a$ before $h$ and $r$ which demands a subsequent addition, but the $i$ which demands a precedent one ; compare ahtau, "eight," with खष्t aṣhṭdu.*
83. The alterations to which the simple vowels have been subjected appear again in the simple elements of the diphthongs, as well in the relation of the Gothic to the Sanskrit, as in that of the younger Germanic dialects to the Gothic. Thus the a element of the diphthong सो 6 shews itself often in the Gothic, and in certain places in a regular manner, as $i$ (§. 27.); and in the same places the $a$ contained in \& $e(a+i)$ becomes $i$, which, with the second element of the diphthong, generates a long $i$ (written as ei, §. 70.). The Gothic iu has either retained that form in Old High German, or has altered sometimes one, sometimes both of its constituents. Thus have arisen io, ëo. [G. Ed. p. 71.] There is a greater distance to be passed in Otfrid's theory of the substitution of $i a$ for $i u$, which cannot fail to surprise, as we know that a simple $u$ never becoms $a \cdot \dagger$ In Middle High German iu has either remained unaltered, or has been changed to $i e$, which is as old as the latest Old High German, as it is found in Notker. In Modern High German the substitution of $i e$ for the old $i u$ is that which princi-

[^42]pally prevails, in which, however, the $e$ is only visibly retained, for phonetically it is absorbed by the $i$. Compare ich biete with the Gothic biuda, giesse with giuta. Besides this form, we also find $e u$ in place of the old $i u$ or still older $a u$, in cases, namely, where $e$ can be accounted for as the result of a no longer perceptible modification (Grimm, p. 523, §. 75.); compare Leute with the Gothic laudeis, Old High German liuti, "people"; Heu, "hay," with Goth, havi, "grass." Usually, however, the Gothic has already aequired an iu in place of this $e u$, and the original $a u$ (which becomes $a v$ before vowels) is to be sought in the Sanskrit; for instance, Neune, "nine," Old High German niuni, Gothic niuneis, Sanskrit नवन् navan (as theme); neu, "new," Old High German niwi (indeclinable), Gothic nivi-s, Sanskrit नवस् nava-s. This $e$, however, is difficult to account for, in as far as it is connected with the Umlaut, because it corresponds to an $i$ in Middle and Old High German; and this vowel, of itself answering to an $i$ or $y$ in the following syllable, is capable of no alteration through their power of attraction. Long $u$ for $i u$, equivalent to a transposition of the diphthong, is found in lügen, "to lie," trügen, "to deceive," Middle High German liugen, triugen.
[G. Ed. p. 72.] 84. Where the a element of the Sanskrit wो 6 retains its existence in the Gothic, making au the equivalent of $\delta$, the Middle High German, and a part of the Old High German authorities, have $o u$ in the place of $a u$, although, as has been remarked in $\S .80$, under the influence of certain consonants 6 prevails. Compare Old High German pouc, Middle High German bouc, with the Gothic preterite baug, "flexi." The o of the High German ou has the same relation to the corresponding Gothic $a$ in $a u$, as the Greek $o$ in $\beta o u ̂ s$ bears to the Sanskrit w $a$, which undergoes a fusion with उ $u$ in the wो 6 of the cognate word गो $g 6$. The oldest Old High German authorities (GI. Hrab. Ker. Is.) have $a u$ for the ou of the later (Grimm. p. 99); and as,
under the conditions specified in $\S 8.80$., they also exhibit $\delta$, this tells in favour of Grimm's assumption, that $a u$ in the Gothic and oldest High German was pronounced like our German $a u$, and thus not like the Sanskṛit को $\theta$ (out of $a+u$ ). In this case, in the Gothic $a$, also, both the letters must have been sounded, and this diphthong must be only an etymological, and not a phonetic equivalent of the Sanskrit \& ${ }^{\text {e. }}$
85. In the Gothic diphthong ai the $a$ alone is susceptible of alteration, and appears in High German softened down to $e$, in the cases in which the $\ell$, contracted from $a i(\$ .78$.$) , does$ not occur. In Modern High German, however, ei, in pronunciation, $=a i$. Compare

| gothic. н | $\begin{aligned} & \text { old } \\ & \text { HICH GERMAN } \end{aligned}$ | MIDDLE HIGH GERMAN. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { MODRRN } \\ & \text { HIGH GERMAN. } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| haita, "voco," | heizu, | heize, | heiss |
| skaida, " separo," | ," skeidu, | scheide, | scheide. |

86. (1.) Let us now consider the consonants, preserving the Indian arrangement, and thus examining [G. Ed. p. 73.] the gutturals first. Of these, the Gothic has merely the lenuis and the medial ( $k, g$ ); and Ulfilas, in imitation of the Greek, places the latter as a nasal before gutturals; for instance, drigkan, " to drink"; briggan, " to bring"; tuggo, "tongue"; yuggs, "young"; gaggs, "a going" (subst.). For the compound $k v$ the old writing has a special character, which we, like Grimm, render by $q v$, although $q$ does not appear elsewhere, and $v$ also combines with $g$; so that $q v$ $(=k v)$ plainly bears the same relation to $g v$ that $k$ bears to $g$; compare sigqvan, "to sink," with siggvan, "to read," "to sing." $H$ also, in Gothic, willingly combines with $v$; and for this combination, also, the original text has a special character; compare saihvan, leihvan, with our sehen, leihen. In respect to $h$ by itself we have to observe that it often appears in relations in which the dentals place their th and the labials their $f$, so that in this case it takes the place of
$k h$, which is wanting in the Gothic. In this manner is aih related to aigum, "we have," as bauth to budum, and gaf to gêbum. Probably the pronunciation of the Gothic $h$ was not in all positions the same, but in terminations, and before $t$ and $s$, if not generally before consonants, corresponded to our ch. The High German has $c h$ as an aspirate of the $k$ : for this tenuis, however, either $k$ or $c$ stands in the older dialects, the use of which, in Middle High German, is so distinguished, that $c$ stands as a terminating letter, and in the middle of words before $t$, and $c h$ also stands for a double $k$. (Grimm, p. 422.) This distinction reminds us of the use of the Zend $\sigma c$ in contrast to $g k$, as also of the $\wp t$ in contrast to $\rho t$. ( $\$ \S .34 .38$.
(2.) The palatals and linguals are wanting in Gothic, as in Greek and Latin; the dentals are, in Gothic, $t, t h, d$,
[G. Ed. p. 74.] together with their nasal n. For the the Gothic alphabet has a special character. In the High German $z(=t s)$ fills the place of the aspiration of the $t$, so that the breathing is replaced by the sibilation. By the side of this $z$ in the Old High German, the old Gothic th also maintains its existence.* There are two species of $z$, which, in Middle High German, do not agree with each other. In the one, $t$ has the preponderance, in the other, $s$; and this latter is written by Isidor $z s$, and its reduplication $z s s$, while the reduplication of the former he writes $t z$. In the Modern High German the second species has only retained the sibilant, but in writing is distinguished, though not universally, from $s$ proper. Etymologically, both species of the Old and Middle High German $z$ fall under the same head, and correspond to the Gothic $t$.
(3.) The labials are, in Gothic, $p, f, b$, with their nasal

[^43]$m$. The High German supplies this organ, as the Sanskrit does all, with a double aspiration, a surd ( $f=$ 桋 $p h$ ) (see §. 25.) and a sonant, which is written $v$, and comes nearer to the Sanskrit म् bl. In Modern High German we perceive no longer any phonetic difference between $f$ and $v$; but in Middle High German $v$ shews itself in this manner softer than $f$, in that, first, at the end of words it is transformed into $f$, on the same principle by which, in such a position, the medials are converted into tenues; for instance, wolf not wolv, but genitive wolves; second, that in the middle before surd consonants it becomes $f$, hence zwelve becomes zwelfle, fünve becomes funfte, funfzic. At the beginning of words $f$ and $v$, in Middle High German, seem of equal signification, and their use in the MSS. is precarious, [G. Ed. p. 75.] but $v$ preponderates (Grimm, pp. 339, 400). It is the same in Old High German; yet Notker uses $f$ as the original primarily existing breathing-sound, and $v$ as the softer or sonant aspiration, and therefore employs the latter in cases where the preceding word concludes with one of those letters, which otherwise ( $(93$.) soften down a tenuis to its medial (Grimm, pp. 135, 136); for instance, demo vater, den vater, but not des vater but des fater. So far the rule is less stringent (observes Grimm), that in all cases $f$ may stand for $v$, but the converse does not hold. Many Old High German authorities abandon altogether the initiatory $v$, and write $f$ for it constantly, namely, Kero, Otfrid, Tatian. The aspiration of the $p$ is sometimes, in Old High German, also rendered by $p h$, but, in general, only at the beginning of words of foreign origin, phorta, phenning; in the middle, and at the end occasionally, in true Germanic forms, such as wërphan, warph, wurphumes, in Tatian; limphan in Otfrid and Tatian. According to Grimm, $p h$, in many cases, has had the mere sound of $f$. "In monumental inscriptions, however, which usually employ $f$, the $p h$ of many words had indisputably the sound of $p f$; for example, if Otfrid
writes kuphar, " cuprum," scepheri, "Creator," we are not to assume that these words were pronounced kufar, sceferi" (p. 132). In Middle High German the initial ph of foreign words of the Old High German has become of (Grimm, p. 326). In the middle and at the end we find $p f$, first, always after m, kampf, " pugna," tampf, " vapor," krempfen, " contrahere," in which case $p$ is an euphonic appendage to $f$, in order to facilitate a union with $m$. Secondly, in compounds with the inseparable prefix ent, which, before the labial aspirates, lays aside its $t$, or, as seems to me the sounder supposition, converts that letter, by assimilation, into the labial tenuis. Hence, for
[G. Ed. p. 76.] instance, enp-finden, later and more harmonious emp-finden, for ent-finden. Standing alone, nevertheless, it appears, in Middle High German, vinden, but $v$ does not combine with $p$, for after the surd $p(\$ .25$.$) the surd aspirate$ is necessary (see Grimm, p. 398). Thirdly, after short vowels the labial aspirates are apt to be preceded by their tenues, as well in the middle as at the end of words: just as in Sanskrit (Gramm. Crit. r. 88.) the palatal surd aspirate between a short and another vowel or semi-vowel is preceded by its tenuis; and, for instance, पृच्यति prichchhati is said for पृघ्चति prichhati. "interrogat," from the root पह्र prachh. In this light I view the Middle High German forms kopf, kropf, tropfe, klopfen, kripfen, kapfen (Grimm, p, 398). In the same words we sometimes find $f f$, as kaffen, schuffen. Here, also, $p$ has assimilated itself to the following $f$; for $f$, even though it be the aspirate of $p$, is not pronounced like the Sanskryit ए币 $p h$, that is, like $p$ with a clearly perceptible $h$; but the sounds $p$ and $h$ are compounded into a third simple sound lying between the two, which is therefore capable of reduplication, as in Greek $\phi$ unites itself with $\theta$, while $p h+$ th would be impossible.
(4.) The Sanskrit semi-vowels are represented in Gothic by $j(=y), r, l, v$; the same in High German ; only in Old High German Manuscripts the sound of the Indo-Gothic $v$
(our $w$ ) is most usually represented by $u u$, in Middle High German by $v v: j$ (or $y$ ) in both is written $i$. We agree with Grimm in using $j$ (or $y$ ) and $w$ for all periods of the High German. After an initial consonant in Old High German, the semi-vowel $w$ in most authorities is expressed by $u$; for instance, zuelif, "twelve," Gothic tvalif. As in the Sanskrit and Zend the semi-vowels $y$ and $v$ often arise out of the corresponding vowels $i$ and $u$, so also in the [G. Ed. p,77.]
Germanic; for instance, Gothic suniv-द, "filiorum," from the base sunu, with $u$ affected by Guna (iu, §. 27.). More usually, however, in the Germanic, the converse occurs, namely, that $y$ and $v$, at terminations and before consonants, have become vocalised (see §. 73.), and have only retained their original form before terminations beginning with a vowel; for if, for instance, thius, "servant," forms thivis in the genitive, we know, from the history of the word, that this $v$ has not sprung from the $u$ of the nominative, but that thius is a mutilation of thivas ( $\$$. 116.); so that after the lapse of the $a$ the preceding semi-vowel has become a whole one. In like manner is thivi, "maid-servant," a mutilation of the base thivyd (§. 120.), whose nominative, like the accusative, probably was thivya, for which, however, in the accusative, after the $v$ had become vocalized, thiuya was substituted.
(5.) Of the Sanskrit sibilants, the Germanic has only the last, namely, the pure dental स् s. Out of this, however, springs another, peculiar, at least in use, 'to the Gothic, which is written $z$, and had probably a softer pronunciation than $s$. This $z$ is most usually found between two vowels, as an euphonic alteration of $s$, but sometimes also between a vowel and $v, l$, or $n$; and between liquids ( $l, r, n$ ) and a vowel, $y$ or $n$, in some words also before $d$; finally, before the guttural medial, in the single instance, azg $\delta$, "ashes"; everywhere thus before sonants, and it must therefore itself be considered as a sonant sibilant (§. 25.), while
$s$ is the surd. It is remarkable, in a grammatical point of view, that a concluding $s$ before the enclitic particles ei and $u h$, and before the passive addition $a$, passes into $z$; hence, for instance, thizei "cujus," from this "hujus," thanzei "quos," from thans "hos," vileizuh "visne" from vileis "vis," haitaza " vocaris," from haitis " vocas," or rather from its earlier form [G. Ed. p.78.] haitas. The root slép, "to sleep," forms, by a reduplication, in the preterite, saizlep, "I or he slept." Other examples are, izvis, " vobis," "vos," razn "house," talzyan, "to teach," marzyan, " to provoke," fairzna, "heel." The High German loves the softening of $s$ into $r$, especially between two vowels (see §. 22.); but this change has not established itself as a pervading law, and does not extend over all parts of the Grammar. For instance, in Old High German, the final $s$ of several roots haş changed itself into $r$ before the preterite terminations which commence with a vowel; on the other hand, it has remained unaltered in the uninflected first and third pers. sing. indicative, and also before the vowels of the present. For example, from the root lus, comes liusu, "I lose," lds, "I or he lost," lurumès "we lost." While in these cases the termination takes $s$ under its protection, yet the $s$ of the nominative singular, where it has not been altogether dropped, is everywhere softened down to $r$; and, on the other hand, the concluding $s$ of the genitive has, down to our time, remained unaltered, and thus an organic difference has arisen between two cases originally distinguished by a similar suffix. For instance,

| aотнic. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { OLD } \\ & \text { mg oERMAN. } \end{aligned}$ | MODERN hogh german |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nominative . . blind'-s, | plintêer, | blinde-r. |
| Genitive . . . blindi-s, | plinte-s, | blinde-s. |

87. The Germanic tongues exhibit, in respect of consonants, a remarkable law of displacement, which has been first recognised and developed with great ability by Grimm. According to this law, the Gothic, and the other dialects,
with the exception of the High German, in relation to the Greek, Latin, and, with certain limits, also [G. Ed. p. 79.] to the Sanskrit and Zend, substitute aspirates for the original tenues, $h$ for $k$, $t h$ for $t$, and $f$ for $p$; tenues for medials, $t$ for $d, p$ for $b$, and $k$ for $g$; finally, medials for aspirates, $g$ for $\chi$ $d$ for $\theta$, and $b$ for $f$. The High German bears the same regular relation to the Gothic as the latter to the Greek, and substitutes its aspirates for the Gothic tenues and Greek medials; its tenues for the Gothic medials and Greek aspirates; and its medials for the Gothic aspirates and Greek tenues. Yet the Gothic labial and guttural medial exhibits itself unaltered in most of the Old High German authorities, as in the Middle and Modern High German; for instance, Gothic biuga, "flecto," Old High German biuga and piuka, Middle High German biuge, Modern High German biege. For the Gothic $f$, the Old High German substitutes $v$, especially as a first letter (§.86. 3.). In the $t$ sounds, $z$ in High German ( $=t_{s}$ ) replaces an aspirate. The Gothic has no aspiration of the $k$, and either replaces the Greek $\kappa$ by the simple aspiration $h$, in which case it sometimes coincides with the Sanskrit $\sum^{h} h$, or it falls to the level of the High German, and, in the middle or end of words, usually gives $g$ instead of $k$, the High German adhering, as regards the beginning of words, to the Gothic practice, and participating with that dialect in the use of the $h$. We give here Grimm's table, illustrating the law of these substitutions, p. 584.

| Greek $\ldots \ldots .$. | $P$ | $B$ | $F$ | $T$ | $D$ | $T h$ | $K$ | $G$ | $C h$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Gothic $\ldots \ldots .$. | $F$ | $P$ | $B$ | $T h$ | $T$ | $D$ |  | $K$ | $G$ |
| Old High German, | $B(V)$ | $F$ | $P$ | $D$ | $Z$ | $T$ | $G$ | $C h$ | $K$ |

[G. Ed. p. 80.]

| sansirit. | greer. | latts | сотніс. | $\begin{gathered} \text { OLD } \\ \text { HIGY GER } \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| पादस् padda-s, | moús, mod-ós | , pes, pedis, | fôtus, | uoz |
| षन्डन panchan, | $\pi \epsilon ́ \mu \pi e$, | quinque, | fimf, | vinf. |
| पूर्ण pûrna, | $\pi \lambda e ́ o s$, | plenus, | fulls, | vol. |
| पषतृ pitri, | $\pi \alpha т \eta \dot{\rho}$, | pater, | fadrein $\dagger$, | ar |
| उपरि upari, | ن́лép, | super, | ufar, | ubar |
|  |  | cannabis, |  | hanaf. |
| अज्ञ bhanj, |  | frangere, | brikan, | prëchan. |
| भुज् bhuj, |  | frui, fructus, | brakd | prâchôn. |
| भातृ bhratri |  | frater, | brothar, | pruoder. |
| भृ bhri, | ф'́f $\omega$, | fero, | baira, | piru. |
| * ${ }_{\text {che }}$ bhrû, | ó¢pús, |  |  | pravca. |
| बपाट厄 kapala, m.n., | $\kappa \epsilon \phi a \lambda \eta$, | caput, | haubith, | houpit. |
| $\cdots$ Tम् twam (nom.), | тí, |  | thu, | du |
| तम् tam (acc.), | tóv, | is-tum, | thano | dën. |
| ซयस् trayas (n.pl.), | трeis, | tres, | threis, | $\boldsymbol{d r i ̂}$. |
| मrर antara, | étepos, | alter, | antha | andar. |
| दम्म danta-m(acc.), | ódóvt-a, | dentem, | thuntu-s, | zand. |
| है dwau (n. du), | Súo, | duo, | tuai, | zuênê. |
| दषिया dakshina, | סekía, | dextra, | tuihsvo, | zësava. |
| उद्ध uda, | $\underline{v} \delta \omega \rho$, | unda, | vatb, | wazar |
| दुहितृ duh | 9uүátทp, | -• | dauhtar, | tohtar. |
| $\square^{\square} \overline{\text { ETR }}$ dwd | Súpa, | fores, | daur, | tor |
| मघु madhu, | $\mu c ́ \theta v$, |  |  | mët |
| 边 बन् śwan, | Kúwv, | canis, | hunths, | hund. |
| ${ }_{0}^{\infty}$ ढदय hridaya, | карdía, |  | hairto, | hërza. |
|  | öкоя, | oculus | augó, | oug |
| vत्रु astru, | ১ákpu, | lacrima, | tagr m., | zahar. |
| पश्यु paśu, |  | pecus, | faihu, | vihu. |

*The Sanskrit words here stand, where the termination is not scparated from the base, or the case not indicated, in their crude or simple form (theme); of the verb, we give only the bare root.

[^44]




－PyYps Lenlis


 ＊uvpund 亡．\＆h －s－qpod trejh

＊－$p y$ 宜里
？？uŋfiyṡ？


＂＇q马กnoq＂${ }^{6}$＇$n$ ynnzs ＂＇ч7．
 ＂วәมบุ＂，＇sfixy ＂องy，．＇？ㄱuәd
＂＇təұseux，，＂＇purqsnप，，＇spod
＂＇әq p［nom I ，＇＇nsnq

'nvinvahiti





| －up\％习 | ${ }^{9} 66 ?$ | ${ }^{\text {obul？}}$ |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\cdots \pm 78.2$. |  |  | ${ }_{5}{ }_{9,} \chi \chi$ | ＇spfiy 且最 |
| ＊suby | ＇suv6 | ＇ıวsup | rald |  |
| －ข？！？ |  | ${ }^{\text {s }}$＇sufivu | ＇Sovor，${ }^{\text {aral }}$ | ＇20qvu 住发 |
| －пฺ̣u¢ | ＇n？̣． | ＇пидб | ＇nnot | ＇nup！Els |
| ขุนทฯง | ＇？${ }^{\text {cher }}$ | ＇sпиаб | ＇Sonat | －？PD ！y ¢ |
| ＊ $\boldsymbol{\text {－}}$ ¢ | ＇uny | ＇ossou6 | ＇micrat | ＇ $\mathrm{pu} /$［ is |
| ＊ипүзz | ＇ипฯ？${ }^{\text {a }}$ | ＇иวววр | ＇0x9s | ＇upspp Lits |
| －inyวns | ＇puypas | ＇иәэоя | ＇Sodnxa | ＇punspms，Licfa |
| ＇кизอ нот | －онцо | －nhivz | －צงสบ๐ | －Lxixsevs |

Greek, and Latin. As, however, according to §. 47., certain consonants convey an aspiration to the letter which precedes them, this may occasion an accidental coincidence between the Zend and the Gothic; and both languages may, in like manner and in the same words, depart from the original tenuis. Compare,

[G. Ed. p. 83.] I pronounce this coincidence between the Gothic and the Zend aspirates accidental, because the causes of it are distinct; as, on the one side, the Gothic accords no aspirating influence to the letters $v$ and $r$ (truda, trauan, trimpan, tvai), and, in the examples given above, th and $f$ stand, only because, according to rule, Gothic aspirates are to be expected in the place of original tenues; on the other side, the Zend everywhere retains the original tenues, where the letters named in §. 47. do not exhibit an influence, which is unknown to the Gothic; so that, quite according to order, in by far the majority of forms which admit of comparison, either Gothic aspirates are met with in the place of Zend tenues, or, according to another appointment of the Germanic law of substitution, Gothic tenues in that of Zend medials. Compare,

[^45]CHARACTERS AND SOUNDS.

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сотніс.
    END.
thu, " thou,"
                                Gop tûm.
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fimf,
fulls, " full,"
fadrein, "parents,"
faths, " master,"
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GE)Nposse paitar-ĕm (patrem).
    unposed paiti-s.
faihu, "beast," űsused pas̀u-s.
faryith, " he wanders," spssoses charaiti.
fötu-s, " foot,"
fraihith, "he asks," spsumęqٍ pĕrĕsaiti.
ufar, "over,"
af. " from," Nus apa.
thai, " these,"
haas, "who,"
    tvai, " two,"
    taihun, " ten,"
    taihsv6, " right hand," syspusg dashina, "dexter."
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In the Sanskrit and Wend the sonant aspirates, not the surd, as in Greek, (Er $h$ too is sonant, see §. 25.) correspond, according to rule, to the Gothic medial: as, however, in the Rend the $b h$ is not found,,$b$ answers to the Gothic $b$.

- Compare,
gothic.
bairith, " he carries," sposulus baraiti,
विभति bibharti.

$b a i$, " both," $\quad$ iss) $u b a, \quad$ उौौ $u b h a u$ (n. ac.v. du.) brîkan, " to use," भुज् bhuj, " to eat."
 midya, "middling," uss@sug maidhya, मध्य madhya. bindan, "bind," ©-एल्यs bandh, बन्ध् bandh.

89. Violations of the law of displacement of sounds, both by persistence in the same original sound, or the substitution of irregular sounds, are frequent in the middle and at the end of
affinity with $t$ : ga-skafl(i)s, " creation," (from skap-an). The form $d i$ finds its place after vowels, but is able, where the vowel of the suffix falls away, i.e. in the nom. and accus. sing., to convert $d$ into $t h$, because $t h$ can, more easily than $d$, dispense with a following vowel, and is a favourite letter at the end of words and before consonants, though $d$ also is tolerated in such a position. Hence the root bud, "to bid," (pres. biuda, §. 27.) forms, in the uninflected condition of the pret., bauth, in the plur. bud-um; and the nominal base, mana-se-di, "world," (according to Grimm's well-founded interpretation, "seed, not seat, of man,") forms in the nom. and accus. mana-seths, mana-sêth, or mana-sêds, mana-sed, but in the dat. mana-sêdai not -sêthai. On the other hand, after liquids the suffix is usually $t h i$, and after $n, d i$ : the dental, however, once chosen, remains afterwards in every position, either without a vowel or before vowels; for instance, gabaurths, " birth," dat. gabaurthai; gafaurds, "gathering"
[G. Ed. p. 87.] (from far-yan, " to go"), gen. gafaurdais: gakunths, "esteem," gen. gakunthais ; gamunds, "memory," gen. gamundais ; gaqvumths, " meeting," dat. gaqvumthai, dat. plur. gaqvumthim. From the union with $m, d$ is excluded. On the whole, however, the law here discussed accords remarkably with a similar phenomenon in modern Persian, where the original $t$ of grammatical terminations and suffixes is maintained only after mute consonants, but after vowels and liquids is changed into $d$ : hence, for instance, girif-tan, "to take," bas-tan, " to bind," dash-tan, " to have," pukh-tan, "to cook": on the other hand, da-dan, "to give," bur-dan, "to bear," am-dan, "to come." I do not, therefore, hesitate to ${ }^{*}$ release the Germanic suffix $t i$, and all other suffixes originally commencing with $t$, from the general law of substitution of sounds, and to assign the lot of this $t$ entirely to the controul of the preceding letter. The Old High German, in the case of our suffix $t i$, as in that of other suffixes and terminations originally commencing with $t$, accords to the original $t$ a
tions, by an anomalous process, into $d$; after the same principle by which the $t h$ of the third person before the vowel increment of the passive is softened to $d$; so that $d a^{*}$, instead of tha, corresponds to the Greek тo, of étúntet-o, and to the Sanskrit त $t a$, of सभवत abhavata. The Old High German, on the other hand, has preserved the original $t$ in both participles: hapêntêr, hapetêr, Gothic habands, genitive habandins; habaiths, gen. habaidis.
90. Special notice is due to the fact, that in the middle of words under the protection of a preceding consonant, the old consonant often remains without displacement, sometimes because it chimes in well with the preceding sound, sometimes because, through regard for the preceding letters, alterations have been admitted other than those which the usual practice as to displacement would lead us to expect. Mute consonants (§. 25.), among which, in [G. Ed. p. 86.] the Germanic, the $h$ must be reckoned, where it is to be pronounced like our $c h$, protect a succeeding original $t$. Thus, सहै aṣhtâu, "eight," ókт由́, " octo," is in Goth. ahtau, in Old High German alito: नक्तम् nuktam (adverbial accusative), "night," vúg, vuктós, "nox," " noctis," is in Gothic nahts, Old High German naht. The liquids, on the other hand, like the vowels, which they approach nearest of all consonants, affect a $d$ or th after themselves. From these euphonic causes, for instance, the feminine suffix fn $t i$ in Sanskrit, in Greek $\sigma$ IS, as $\pi$ oin $\sigma$ IS, which designates abstract substantives, appears in Gothic in three forms, $t i, d i$, and $t h i$. The original form $t i$ shews itself after $f$, into which $p$ and $b$ mostly 'resolve themselves, and also after $s$ and $h$; for instance, anst(i)s (§. 117.), "grace," from the root an, Old High German unnan, "to be gracious," with the insertion of an euphonic $s$ : fralust(i)s, " loss," (from lus, pres. liusa): maht(i)s, "strength," (from magan): fra-gif(i)s," betrothment," (from gib, gaf), also fragibts, perhaps erroneously, as $b$ has little

[^46]affinity with $t: g a-s k a f(i) s$, " creation," (from skap-an). The form di finds its place after vowels, but is able, where the vowel of the suffix falls away, i.e. in the nom. and accus. sing., to convert $d$ into $t h$, because th can, more easily than $d$, dispense with a following vowel, and is a favourite letter at the end of words and before consonants, though $d$ also is tolerated in such a position. Hence the root bud, "to bid," (pres. biuda, §. 27.) forms, in the uninflected condition of the pret., bauth, in the plur. bud-um; and the nominal base, mana-se-di, "world," (according to Grimm's well-founded interpretation, "seed, not seat, of man,") forms in the nom. and accus. mana-seths, mana-seth, or mana-sêds, mana-sedd; but in the dat. mana-sêdai not -sethai. On the other hand, after liquids the suffix is usually $t h i$, and after $n, d i$ : the dental, however, once chosen, remains afterwards in every position, either without a vowel or before vowels; for instance, gabaurths, "birth," dat. gabaurthai; gafaurds, "gathering"
[G. Ed. p. 87.] (from far-yan, " to go"), gen. gafaurdais: gakunths, "esteem," gen. gakunthais ; gamunds, "memory," gen. gamundais ; gaqvumths, " meeting," dat. gaqvumthai, dat. plur. gaqvumthim. From the union with $m, d$ is excluded. On the whole, however, the law here discussed accords remarkably with a similar phenomenon in modern Persian, where the original $t$ of grammatical terminations and suffixes is maintained only after mute consonants, but after vowels and liquids is changed into $d$ : hence, for instance, girif-tan, "to take," bas-tan, " to bind," dâsh-tan, " to have," pukh-tan, "to cook": on the other hand, da-dan, "to give," bur-dan, "to bear," $a m$-dan, "to come." I do not, therefore, hesitate to release the Germanic suffix $t$, and all other suffixes originally commencing with $t$, from the general law of substitution of sounds, and to assign the lot of this $t$ entirely to the controul of the preceding letter. The Old High German, in the case of our suffix $t i$, as in that of other suffixes and terminations originally commencing with $t$, accords to the original $t$ a
far more extensive prevalence, than does the Gothic; inasmuch as it retains that letter, not only when protected by $s, h$, and $f$, but also after vowels and liquids-after $m$ an euphonic $f$ is inserted;-and the $t$ is only after $l$ changed into $d$. Hence, for instance, ans-t, "grace," hlouft, "course," mah-t, " might," sa-t, "seed," kipurt, " birth," var-t, " journey," mun-t, "protection," ki-wal-t, "force," scul-t, schuld, "guilt," chumft," arrival."
92. The law of substitution shews the greatest pertinacity at the beginning of words, and I have found it everywhere observed in the relation of the Gothic to the Greek and Latin. On the other hand, in some roots which are either deficient or disfigured in the Old European languages, but which are common to the Germanic and the Sanskrit, the Gothic stands on the same footing with [G. Ed. p. 88.7 the Sanskrit, especially in respect of initial medials. Thus, बन्ध् bandh, "to bind," is also band in Gothic, not pand; यर् grah, in the Vedas ग्रभ् grabh, "to take," "seize," is grip (pres. greipa with Guna, §. 27.) not krip; * to गा $g$ a and गम् gam, " to go," correspond gagga, " I go," and ga-tvo, " street ;" दह् dah, "to burn," is, in Old High German, dahan ( $\delta \alpha \omega \omega)$, " to burn," "to light." I can detect, however, no instance in which Gothic tenues correspond to Sanskrit as initial letters.

93(a). We return now to the Sanskrit, in order, with relation to the most essential laws of sound, to notice one adverted to in our theory of single letters; where it was said of several concurrent consonants that they were tolerated neither at the end of words, nor in the middle before strong consonants, and how their places were supplied in such situations. It is besides to be observed, that, properly, tenues alone can terminate a Sanskrit word; but medials, only before sonants, ( $\$ .25$,) may either be retained, if they originally terminate an inflective base, or take the place of a tenuis

[^47]or an aspirate, if these happen to precede sonants in a sentence. As examples, we select हरित् harit, (viridis), " green," बेदविद् velda-vid, "skilled in the Vêda," धनल़् dhanalabh, "acquiring wealth." These words are, according to §. 94., without a nominative sign. We find, also, खरित हरित् asti harit, "he is green," सस्ति वेदवित् asli veda-vit, सस्ति धनलप् asti dhana-lap; on the other hand, हरिद् स्षस्ति harid asti, वेदबिद् wस्ति vedavid asti, धनलय् wक्ति dhana-lab asti; also, हरिद् भवति harid bhavati, \&ce. With this Sanskrit law the Middle High [G. Ed. p. 89.] German is very nearly in accordance, which indeed tolerates aspirates at the end of words, contrary to the custom of the Sanskrit, only with a conversion of the sonant $v$ into the surd $f$, see §. 86. 3.; but, like the Sanskrit, and independent of the law of displacement explained in §. 87 ., supplies the place of medials at the end of words regularly by tenues. As, for example, in the genitives tages, eides, wibes, of which the nom. and accus, sing., deprived of the inflexion and the terminating vowel of the base, take the forms tac, (§. 86. 1.) eit, wîp. So also as to the verb; for instance, the roots trag, lad, grab, form, in the uninflected 1st and 3d pers. sing. pret., truoc, luot, gruop, plur. truogen, luoden, gruoben. Where, on the other hand, the tenuis or aspirate ( $v$ excepted) is radical, there no alteration of sound occurs in declension or in conjugation. For instanee, wort, gen. wortes, not wordes, as in Sansk. ददत् dadat, "the giver," gen. ददतस् dadalas, not दददम् dadadas, but वित् vit, "knowing," gen. बिद्स् vidas, from the base विद् vid. In Old High German different authorities of the language are at variance with respect to the strict observance of this law. Isidor is in accordance with it, insomuch that he converts $d$ at the end into $t$, and $g$ into $c$; for instance, wort, wordes; dac, dages. The Gothic excludes only the labial medials from terminations, but replaces them, not by tenues, but by aspirates. Hence gaf, "I gave," in contrast to gébum, and the accusatives hlaif, lauf, thiuf, opposed to the nominatives hlaibs, laubs, thiubs, gen. hlaihis, \&cc. The guttural and dental
medials $(g, d)$ are tolerated by the Gothic in terminations; yet even in these, in individual cases, a preference appears for the terminating aspirates. Compare bauth, "I or he offered," with budum, "we offered," from the root bud; haitad-a "nominatur" with haitith (§. 67.) "nominat; aih, "I have," "he has," with aigum, "we have."
[G. Ed. p. 90.] $93\left({ }^{\mathrm{b}}\right)$. In a sense also opposed to that of the above-mentioned Sanskryit law, we find, in Old High German, yet only in Notker, an euphonic relation between terminating and initial letters of two words which come together. (Grimm, pp. 130, 138, 181). As in Sanskrit the tenuis appears as an essential consonant, fit for the conclusion of a sentence, but exchangeable, under the influence of a word following in a sentence, for the medials; so with Notker the tenuis ranks as a true initial; stands therefore at the beginning of a sentence, and after strong consonants; but after vowels and the weakest consonants the liquid is turned into a medial. Thus, for instance, ih pin, "I am," but ih ne bin; ter dag, "the day," but tes tages; mit kote, " with God," but minan got, " my God."
94. Two consonants are no longer, in the existing condition of the Sanskrit, tolerated at the end of a word, but the latter of the two is rejected. This emasculation, which must date from an epoch subsequent to the division of the language, as this law is not recognised either by the Zend or by any of the European branches of the family, has had, in many respects, a disadvantageous operation on the Grammar, and has mutilated many forms of antiquity required by theory. In the High German we may view, as in some degree connected with this phenomenon, the circumstance that roots with double liquids- $l l, m m, n n, r r-$ in forms which are indeclinable (and before the consonants of inflexions) reject the latter of the pair. In the case, also, of terminations in double $h$ or $t$, one is rejected. Hence, for instance, from stihhu (pungo) ar-prittu (stringo), the 1st and 3d pers. pret. stah, ar-prat. In Middle High German,
in declensions in $c k$, $f f$, the last is rejected; for instance, $b o c$, gen. bockes; grif, griffes: $t z$ loses the $t$; for instance, schaz, schatzes.
95. Between a final न् $n$ and a suc- [G. Ed. p.91.] ceeding $t$ sound - as which the palatals also must be reckoned, for च् ch is equivalent to tsh-in the Sanskrit an euphonic sibilant is interposed, from the operation of the following $t$; and न्, by this sibilant, is converted, §. 9., into Anuswâra; for instance, wभवंस् तन्र abhavans tatra, (abhavan-$s$-tatra), "they were there." With this coincides the circumstance, that, in High German, between a radical $n$ and the $t$ of an affix, an $s$, in certain cases, is inserted; for instance, from the root ann, "to favour," comes, in Old High German, an-s-t, "thou favourest," on-s-ta or onda, "I favoured," an-s-t, "favour"; from prann comes prun-s-t, " ardour"; from chan is derived chun-s-t, " knowledge," our German Kunst, in which, as in Brunst and Gunst, (from gönnen, probably formed from the ann before noticed, and the preposite $g(e)$.) the euphonic $s$ has stood fast. The Gothic exhibits this phenomenon nowhere, perhaps, but in an-s-ts and allbrun-s-ts 'holocaustum.' In Old High German we find still an $s$ inserted after $r$, in the root tarr; hence, tar-s-t, "thou darest," tor-s-ta, I dared." (Cf. §.616. 2d Note.)
96. In Sanskrit the interposed euphonic s has extended itself further only among the prefixed prepositions, which generally enter into most intimate and facile connection with the following root. In this manner the euphonic $s$ steps in between the prepositions सम् sam, खब ava, परि pari, प्रति prati, and certain words which begin with क $k$. With this the Latin $s$ between $a b$ or $o b$ and $c, q$, and $p$, remarkably accords ${ }^{*}$,
[G. Ed. p. 92.] which $s, a b$ retains even in an isolated position, when the above-mentioned letters follow. To this we also refer the cosmittere of Festus, instead of committere

[^48](Schneider, p. 475), unless an original smitto, for mitto, is involved in this compound. In the Greek, $s$ shews an inclination for connection with $\tau, \theta$, and $\mu$, and precedes these letters as an euphonic link, especially after short vowels, in cases which require no special mention. In compounds like $\sigma \alpha \kappa e s-\pi \dot{\alpha} \lambda$ os I reckon the s, in opposition to the common theory, as belonging to the base of the first member (§.128.). We have yet to consider a case of the interpolation of an euphonic labial, which is common to the Old Latin and Germanic, and serves to facilitate the union of the labial nasal with a dental. The Latin places $p$ between $m$ and a following $t$ or $s$; the Gothic and Old High German $f$ between $m$ and $t$. Thus, sumpsi, prompsi, dempsi, sumptus, promptus, demptus ; Gothic andanum-f-ts, "acceptance"; Old High German chum-ft, "arrival." In Greek we find also the interpolation of an euphonic $\beta$ after $\mu$, of a $\delta$ after $\nu$, of a $\theta$ after $\sigma$, in order to facilitate the union of $\mu, \nu$, and $\sigma$ with $\rho$ and $\lambda$ ( $\mu \epsilon \sigma \eta \mu \beta \rho_{i}^{\prime} \alpha, \mu \dot{\epsilon} \mu \beta \lambda \epsilon \tau \alpha t$, $\dot{\alpha} v \partial ̀ \rho o ́ s, i \mu \alpha \dot{\alpha} \sigma \theta \lambda \eta$-see Buttman, p. 80); while the Modern Persian places an euphonic $d$ between the vowel of a prefixed preposition and that of the following word, as be-d-u, "to him."
97. The Greek affords few specimens of variability at the end of words, excepting from peculiarities of dialect, as the substitution of $\rho$ for $s$. The alteration of the $\nu$ in the article in old inscriptions, and in the prefixes $\sigma \dot{v} v, \dot{e} v$, and $\pi \dot{\alpha} \lambda \lambda v$, seems analogous to the changes which, according to §. 18., the terminating म $m$, in Sanskrit, undergoes in all cases, with reference to the letter which follows. [G. Ed. p. 93.] The concluding $\nu$ in Greek is also generally a derivative from $\mu$, and corresponds to this letter, which the Greek never admits as a termination in analogous forms of the Sanskrit, Zend, and Latin. N frequently springs from a final $s$; thus, for instance, $\mu e v$ (Doric $\mu e s$ ) and the dual tov answer to the Sanskrit personal terminations मस् mas, चस् thas, तस् t7s. I have found this explanation, which I have given elsewhere, of the origin of the $v$ from $s$
subsequently confirmed by the Prâkrit, in which, in like manner, the concluding $s$ of the instrumental termination plural भिस् bhis has passed into the dull $\dot{n}$ (Anuswâra, §. 9.), and हिं hin is said for bhis. An operation, which has a prejudicial effect on many Greek terminations, and disturbs the relation to cognate languages, is the suppression of the $t$ sound at the end of words, where, in Sanskrit, Zend, and Latin it plays an essential part. In respect of the vowels, it is also worthy of notice, that in Sanskrit, but not in Zend, at the meeting of vowel terminations and commencements, a hiatus is guarded against, either by the fusion of the two vowels, or, in cases where the vowel has a cognate semi-vowel at its command, by its transition into this latter, provided the vowel following be unlike. We find, for instance, सस्तीदम् astidam, "est hoc," and सस्त् सयम् asty ayam, "est hic." For the sake of clearness, and because the junction of two vowels might too often give the appearance of two or more words to one, I write in my most recent text सस्ती 'दम्, in order, by an apostrophe which I employ as a sign of fusion, to indicate that the vowel which appears wanting in the दम् dam is contained in the final vowel of the preceding word. We might, perhaps, still better write अस्ती "दम्, in order directly
[G. Ed. p. 94.] at the close of the first word to shew that its final vowel has arisen out of a contraction, and that the following word participates in it.*
98. We have now to consider the alterations in the middle of words, i.e. those of the final letters of the roots and nominal bases before grammatical endings, and we find, with respect to these, most life, strength, and consciousness in the Sanskrit; and this language is

[^49]placed on the highest point of antiquity, insomuch as the signification of every radical portion is still so strongly felt, that while it admits of moderate changes, for the avoiding of harshness, it never, if we except some 'vowel elisions, permits the radical sense to be obliterated, or rendered irrecognisable by concessions too great, or transitions too daring. Yet does the Sanskrit, more than any of its kindred, afford a field for the conflict of unsociable consonants, a conflict, however, which is honourably and strenuously maintained. The Vowels and weak consonants, (§. 25.) of grammatical endings and suffixes exert no influence over preceding consonants; but strong consonants, if surd (§. 25.), require a tenuis, and if sonant a medial, before them. Thus, त् $t$ and य् $t h$ allow only of क्र $k$, not ब्: $k h$, ग् $g$, घ् $g h$ preceding them; only त् $t$, not घ् $t h$, द् $d$, ध् $d h$; while on the other hand, ध् $d h$ allows only ग $g$, not क्त $k$, ख् $k h$, घ् $g h$; only द, $d$, not त् $t$, थ् $t h$, ध् $d h$; only ब् $b$, not प $p$, फ्ञ $p h$, भ् $b h$ to precede it. The [G. Ed. p. 95.] roots and the nominal bases have to regulate their final letters by this law; and the occasion frequently presents itself, since, in comparison with the cognate languages, a far greater proportion of the roots connect the personal terminations immediately with the root; and also among the case terminations there are many which begin with consonants (भ्याम् bhyâm, भिस् bhis, भ्यस् bhyas, सु $s u$ ). To cite instances, the root अद् $a d$, " to eat," forms सद्रि admi, "I eat "; but not अद्ससि $a d s i$ (for $s$ is surd), nor सद्ति $a d-t i$, सद्थ $a d-t h a$, but अ्रत्सि at-si, अ्रनि at-ti, अत्य at-tha: on the other hand, in the imperative, खद्वि $a d-d h i$, "eat." The base पद् $p a d$, "foot," forms, in the locative plural, पस्सु pat-su, not पद्सु pad-su; on the other hand, महत् mahat, " great," forms, in the instrumental plural, महद्विस् mahad-bhis not महत्भिस् mahat-bhis.
99. The Greek and Latin, as they have come down to us, have either altogether evaded this conflict of consonants, or exhibit, in most cases, with regard to the first of any two contiguous consonants, a disposition to surrender it, or
at least an indifference to its assistance towards the signification of the word, since they either abandon it altogether, or violently alter it, i.e. convey it beyond the limits of its proper organ. These two languages afford fewer occasions for harsh unions of consonants than the Sanskrit, principally because, with the exception of 'EZ and 'I $\Delta$ in Greek, and ES, FER, VEL, ED, in Latin, as è $\sigma$-тí, è $\sigma-\mu e ́ v, ~ \grave{e} \sigma-\tau \in ́$, ${ }_{i}^{\prime} \delta-\mu \epsilon v$, ${ }^{\prime} \sigma-\tau е$, est, estis, fer-t, fer-tis, vul-t, vul-tis, no root, terminated by a consonant, joins on its personal terminations, or any of them, without the aid of a connecting vowel. The Greek perf. pass. makes an exception, and requires euphonic alterations, which, in part, come within the natural limits recognised by the Sanskṛit, and, in part, overstep them.
[G. Ed. p. 96.] The gutturals and labials remain on the ancient footing, and before $\sigma$ and $\tau$ observe the Sanskrit law of sound cited in §. 98.; according to which $\kappa-\sigma(\xi), \kappa-\tau, \pi-\sigma$, $\pi-\tau$, are applied to roots ending in $\kappa, \gamma, \chi$, or $\pi, \beta, \phi$, because the surd $\sigma$ or $\tau$ suffers neither medials nor aspirates before it ; hence тéт $\rho \iota \pi-\sigma \alpha \iota$, тéт $\iota \pi-\tau \alpha \iota$, from TPIB, тéтик- $\sigma \alpha$, тéтuk$\tau \alpha \iota$, from TYX. The Greek, however, diverges from the Sanskrit in this, that $\mu$ does not leave the consonant which precedes it unaltered, but assimilates labials to itself, and converts the guttural, tenuis and aspirate into medials. For
 Sanskṛit principles, write (§.98.) тéти $\pi-\mu \alpha t$, тéт $\rho \iota \beta-\mu \alpha u, \pi \epsilon \pi \lambda \epsilon \kappa-$ $\mu \alpha \iota, \tau \in \tau \cup \chi-\mu \alpha u$. The $t$ sounds carry concession too far, and abandon the Sanskrit, or original principle, as regards the gutturals ; inasmuch as $\delta, \theta$, and $\zeta(\delta \sigma)$, instead of passing into $\tau$ before $\sigma$ and $\tau$, are extinguished before $\sigma$, and before $\tau$ and

 declension affords occasion for the alteration of consonants only through the $s$ of the nominative and the dative plural termination in $\sigma t$; and here the same principle holds good as in the case of the verb, and in the formation of words: $k h$ and $g$ become, as in Sanskrit, $k(\xi=\kappa-\varsigma)$, and $b$ and $p h$ become $p$.

The $t$ sounds, on the other hand, contrary to the Sanskrit, and in accordance with the enfeebled condition, in this respect, of the Greek, vanish entirely. We find $\pi$ oú-s for $\pi o ́ t-5$, $\pi o u-\sigma i ́ f o r ~ \pi o \tau-\sigma i$, which latter naturally and originally must have stood for $\pi \circ \delta-\sigma$, $\pi \circ \delta-\sigma$.
100. In Latin the principal occasion for the alteration of consonants presents itself before the $s$ of the perfect and the $t$ of the supine, or other verbal substantive or adjective (participles) beginning with $t$; and it is in [G. Ed. p. 97.] accordance with the Sanskrit law cited §. 98., and the original condition of the language, that the sonant guttural passes, before $s$ and $t$, into $c$, the sonant labial into $p$, as in rec-si (rexi), rectum from reg, scripsi, scriptum from scrib. It is also in accordance with the Sanskrit that $h$, as a sonant (§. 25.) and incompatible with a tenuis, becomes $c$ before $s$ and $t$; compare $v e c$-sit (vexit), with the word of like signification सबाध्रीत् $a-v a k k-s h i z t$. If of the two final consonants of a root the last vanishes before the $s$ of the perfect tense (mulsi from mulc and mulg, sparsi from sparg), this accords with the Sanskrit law of sounds, by which, of two terminating consonants of a nominal base, the last vanishes before consonants of the case terminations. $D$ ought to become $t$ before $s$; and then the form, so theoretically created, claut-sit from claud, would accord with the Sanskrit forms, such as सतौस्सीत् $a$-tâut-sit, "he tormented," from तुद् tud. Instead, however, of this, the $d$ allows itself to be extinguished; so, however, that, in compensation, a short vowel of the root is made long, as di-vi-si; or, which is less frequent, the $d$ assimilates itself to the following $s$, as cessi from ced. With roots in $t$, which are rarer, assimilation usually takes place, as con-cus-si from cut; on the other hand, $m i \bar{i}-s i$, not $m i s-s i$, for mit-si, from mit or milt. $B, m$, and $r$ also afford instances of assimilation in jus-si, pres-si, ges-si, us-si.* A third resource, for the avoidance

[^50]of an union, very natural, but not endurable in this weakened state of the language, $t s$, is the suppression of the latter of these two letters, which is also compensated by the lengthening of a short radical vowel; thus," sēdi from [G. Ed. p. 98.] sĕd, vīdi from vìd. I believe, at least, that these forms are not derivable from sedui, vidui, and I class them with forms like födi from föd, lēgi, for lec-si, from lëg, fugi, for fuc-si, from fŭg. To these probably also belong cāvi, fāvi, fōvi, for pāvi, vōvi, from č̌v, \&cc. A cavui, \&c. is hardly conceivable; cavi could never have had such an origin. I conjecture forms such as cau-si, fau-si, after the analogy of cautum, fautum; or moc-si (moxi), after the analogy of vic-si, con-nic-si. (§. 19.) Possibly a moc-si form might derive probability from the adverb mox, since the latter is probably derived from mov, as cito is from another root of motion. The $c$ of fluc-si, struc-si, (fluxi, \&c.) fluxum, structum, must, in the same manner, be considered as a hardening of $v$; and a $f l u-v o$, stru-vo, be presupposed, with regard to which it is to be remembered, that, in Sanskrit also, $u v$ often developes itself out of उ $u$ before vowels (Gram. Crit. r. $50 .{ }^{\text {b }}$ ); on which principle, out of $f u$, stru, before vowels, we might obtain fluv, struv, and thence before consonants fluc, struc. Thus, also, fructus out of fruv-or for fru-or. In cases of $t$ preceded by consonants, the suppression of $s$ is the rule, and ar-si for ard-i an exception. Prandi, frendi, pandi, verti, \&cc., are in contrast to ar-si and other forms, like $\mathrm{mu} / \mathrm{si}$ above mentioned, in their preserving the radical letter in preference to the auxiliary verb; and they accord in this with the Sanskrit rule of sound, by which the $s$ of अ्कतौत्सम् ataut-sam, सक्षेप्षम् akşhaip-sam, \&c., for the avoidance of hardness, is suppressed before strong consonants, and we find, for instance, अतीन्त ataut-ta, instead of स्रतौत्त atautsta. The perfects scidi, fidi, are rendered doubtful by their short vowel, and in their origin probably belong to the reduplicated preterites, their first syllable having

[^51]perished in the lapse of time: in other [G. Ed. p. 90.] respects, fídi, sčudi, correspond to tutŭdi, pupŭgi, not to speak of tetigi, thê $i$ of which latter is not original.
101. The suffixes employed in the formation of words and beginning with $t$, for the representation of which the supine may stand, deserve special consideration, in regard to the relations of sound generated by the conflict between $t$ and the preceding consonant. Arcording to the original law observed in the Sanskrit, a radical $t$ ought to remain unaltered before tum, and $d$ should pass into $t$; as, भेतुम् bheltum, "to cleave," from fिद् bhid. According to the degenerated practice of the Greek, a radical $d$ or $t$ before $t$ would becomes. Of this second gradation we find a remnant in comes-tus, comes-tura, analogous to es-t, es-tis, \&c. from edo: we find, however, no comes-tum, comes-tor, but in their place comesum, comesor. We might question whether, in comesum, the $s$ belonged to the root or to the suffix; whether the $d$ of $e d$, or the $t$ of tum, had been changed into $s$. The form com-es-tus might argue the radicality of the $s$; but it is hard to suppose that the language should have jumped at once from estus to ēsus, between which two an essus probably intervened, analogous to cessum, fissum, quassum, \&ce., while the $t$ of tum, tus, \&c., assimilated itself to the preceding s. Out of essum has arisen ésum, by the suppression of an s, probably the first; for where of a pair of consonants the one is removed, $\mathrm{it}^{*}$ is generally the first, ( $\epsilon i \mu i$ from $\dot{\epsilon} \sigma \mu i, \pi o-\sigma i$ from $\pi o \grave{\delta}-\sigma i$, possibly because, as in §. 100 ., an auxiliary verb is abandoned in preference to a letter of the main verb. After that the language had, through such forms as $\bar{e}$-sum, cä-sum, divi-sum, fis-sum, quas-sum, habituated itself to an $s$ in suffixes properly beginning with a $t, s$ might easily insinuate itself into forms where it did not owe its origin to assimilation. $C_{s}(x)$ is a [G. Ed. p. 100.] favourite combination; hence, fic-sum, nec-sum, \&c. for fictum, nec-tum. The liquids, $m$ excepted, evince special incli-
nation for a succeeding $s$, most of all the $r$; hence, ter-sum, mer-sum, cur-sum, par-sum, ver-sum, in contrast to par-tum, tor-tum; there are also cases in which $r$, by â conversion into $s$, accommodates itself to $t$, as in ges-tum, us-tum, tos-tum.* This answers to the Sanskrit obligatory conversion of a concluding $r$ into $s$ before an initial $t$; as, भातस् तारय माम् bhratus târaya mâm, "brother save me," instead of भातर् bhratar: on the other hand, in the middle of words $r$ remains unaltered before $t$; hence, for instance, भत्तुम् bhartum, not भसुम् bhastum, "to bear." $L$ exhibits in the Latin the forms fal-sum, pul-sum, vul-sum, in contrast to cul-tum; $n$ exhibits ten-tum, can-tum, opposed to man-sum. The other forms in $n$-sum, except cen-sum, have been muleted of a radical $d$, as ton-sum, pen-sum.
102. In the Germanic languages, $t$ alone gives occasion for an euphonic conversion of a preceding radical consonant; for instance, in the 2 d pers. sing. of the strong preterite, where, however, the $t$ in the Old High German is retained only in a few verbs, which associate a present signification with the form of the preterite. In the weak preterites, also, which spring from these verbs, the auxiliary $t$, where it remains unaltered, generates the same euphonic relations. We find in these forms the Germanic on the same footing as the Greek, in this respect, that it converts radical $t$ sounds ( $t, t h, d$, and in Old and Middle High German $z$ also) before a superadded $t$ into $s$. Hence, for instance, in
[G. Ed. p. 101.] Gothic maimais-t (abscidisti), for maimait-t, fai-fals-t (plicavisti), for fai-falth-t, ana-baus-t (imperasti), for ana-baud-t. In Old and Middle High German weis-t, "thou knowest," for weiz-t. The Gothic, in forming out of the root vit, in the weak preterite, vis-sa ("I knew"), instead of

[^52]vista, from vitta, resembles, in respect of assimilation, the Latin forms mentioned in $\S .101$., such as quas-sum for quastum, from quat-tum. The Old High German, however, which also adopts wis-sa, but from muoz makes not muos-sa, but muo-sa, corresponds, in the latter case, to such Latin forms, as ca-sum, clau-sum. The case is different in Old High German with those verbs of the first weak conjugation, which, having their syllables made long generally through two terminating consonants in the preterite, apply the $t$ of the auxiliary verb directly to the root. Here the transition of $t$ into $s$ does not occur, but $t, z$, and even $d$, remain unaltered; and only when another consonant precedes them $t$ and $d$ are extinguished, $z$ on the contrary remains; for instance, leit-ta, "duxı," ki-neiz-ta, "afflixi," ar-odd-ta, "vastavi," walz-ta, " volvi," liuh-ta, "luxi," for liuht-ta; hul-ta, "placavi," for huld-ta. Of double consonants one only is retained, and of $c h$ or cch only $h$; other consonantal combinations remain, however, undisturbed, as ran-ta, "cucurri," for rann-ta; wanh-ta, "vacillavi," for wanch-ta; dah-ta, " texi," for dacch-ta. The Middle High German follows essentially the same principles, only a simple radical $t$ gives way before the auxiliary verb, and thus lei-te is opposed to the Old High German leit-ta; on the other hand, in roots in $l d$ and $r d$ the $d$ may be maintained, and the $t$ of the auxiliary be surrendered-as dulde, "toleravi" -unless we admit a division of dul-de, and consider the $d$ as a softened $t$. The change of $g$ into $c(\S .98$.) is natural, but not universal; for instance, anc-te, "arctavn," for ang-te; but against this law $b$ remains unaltered. [G. Ed. p. 102.] Before the formative suffixes beginning with $t^{*}$, both in Gothic and High German, guttural and labial tenues and medials are changed into their aspirates, although the tenuis accord with a following $t$. Thus, for instance, in Gothic, vah-tvo,

[^53]" watch," from vak; sauh-t(i)s, " sickness," from suk; mah-t $(i) s$, " might," from mag; ga-skaf-t(i)s, " creation," from skap; fragif $t(i) s$, " betrothment," from gib, softened from gab; Old High German suht, maht, ki-skaft, " creature," $k i f t$, "gift." The dentals replace the aspirate th by the sibilant ( $s$ ), as is the case in Gothic before the pers. character $t$ of the preterite, as $t h$ cannot be combined with $t$. The formation of words, however, affords few examples of this kind: under this head comes our mast, related to the Gothic mats, "food," and matyan, " to eat." In Gothic, the 8 of blostreis, "worshipper," springs from the $t$ of blotan, "to worship": beist, "leaven," comes probably from beit (beitan, "to bite," Grimm, ii. p. 208). The Zend accords, in this respect, with the Germanic*, but still more with the Greek, in that it converts its $t$ sounds into $u s$, not only before $\rho t$, but also before $G m$; for instance, irista, "dead," from the root irith; uspess basta,
 in Modern Persian بسته bastah, from بنه band; sumusu aês̀ma, " wood," from द्३ idhma.
103. It is a violation of one of the most natural laws of sound, that, in Gothic, the medial $g$ does not universally pass into $k$ or $h(=c h)$, before the personal character $t$ of
[G. Ed. p. 103.] the pret., but generally is retained; and we find, for instance, $8 g-t$, "thou fearest," mag-t, " thou canst $\dagger^{n}$; and yet, before other inflections formed with $t$, the $g$ undergoes an euphonic transition into $h$, as for instance, ôh-ta, "I feared," mah-ts, " might."
104. When in Sanskrit, according to §. 98., the aspiration of a medial undergoes a necessary suppression, it falls back, under certain conditions and according to special laws, upon the initial consonant of the root, yet only upon a medial, or throws itself onward on the initial consonant of

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## OF THE ROOTS

[G. Ed. p. 105.] 105. There are in Sanskrit, and the languages which are akin to it, two classes of roots: from the one, which is by far the more numerous, spring verbs, and nouns (substantives and adjectives) which stand in fraternal connection with the verbs, not in the relation of descent from them, not begotten by them, but sprung from the same shoot with them. We term them, nevertheless, for the sake of distinction, and according to prevailing custom, Verbal Roots; and the verb, too, stands in close formal connection with them, because from many roots each person of the present is formed by simply adding the requisite personal termination. From the second class spring pronouns, all original prepositions, conjunctions, and particles: we name them Pronominal Roots, because they all express a pronominal idea, which, in the prepositions, conjunctions, and particles, lies more or less concealed. No simple pronouns can be carried back, either according to their meaning or their form, to any thing more general, but their declension-theme (or inflective base) is at the same time their root. The Indian Grammarians, however, derive all words, the pronouns included, from verbal roots, although the majority of pronominal bases, even in a formal respect, are opposed to such a derivation, because they, for the most part, end with $a$ : one, indeed, consists simply of $a$. Among
[G. Ed. p. 106.] the verbal roots, however, there is not a single one in $\check{a}$, although long $a$, and all other vowels, *ी au excepted, occur among the final letters of the verbal roots. Accidental external identity takes place between the verbal and pronominal roots; e.g. $\boldsymbol{i} i$ signifies, as a verbal root, " to go," as a pronominal root, " he," "this."
106. The verbal roots, like those of the pronouns, are
monosyllabic; and the polysyllabic forms represented by the grammarians as roots contain either a reduplicatesyllable, as जागृ jagri, "to wake," or a preposition which has grown up with the root, as क्षधीर् ava-dhir, "to despise "; or they have sprung from a noun, like कुमार् kumár, " to play," which I derive from बुमार kumara, "a boy." Except the law of their being monosyllabic, the Sanskrit roots are subjected to no further limitation, and their one-syllableness may present itself under all possible forms, in the shortest and most extended, as well as those of a middle degree. This free state of irrestriction was necessary, as the language was to contain within the limits of one-syllableness the whole body of fundamental ideas. The simple vowels and consonants were not sufficient : it was requisite to frame roots also where several consonants, combined in inseparable unity, became, as it were, simple sounds ; e.g. स्था stha, "to stand," a root in which the age of the co-existence of the $s$ and $t h$ is supported by the unanimous testimony of all the members of our race of languages. So also, in सन्द् skand, "to go," (Lat. scand-o) the age of the combination of consonants, both in the beginning and ending of the root, is certified by the agreement of the Latin with the Sanskrit. The proposition, that in the earliest period of language a simple vowel is sufficient to express a verbal idea, is supported by the remarkable concurrence of [G.Ed.p. 107.] nearly all the individuals of the Sanskrit family of languages in expressing the idea "to go" by the root $i$.
107. The nature and peculiarity of the Sanskrit verbal roots explains itself still more by comparison with those of the Semitic languages. These require, as far as we trace back their antiquity, three consonants, which, as I have already elsewhere shewn," express the fundamental

[^55]idea by themselves alone, without the aid of vowels; and although they may be momentarily compressed into one syllable, still, in this, the combination of the middle radical with the first or last cannot be recognised as original and belonging to the root, because it is only transitory, and chiefly depends on the mechanism of the construction of the word. Thus, in Hebrew, katal, "slain," in the fem., on account of the addition ah contracts itself to ktall (ktal-$-a h)$; while $k$ btell, "slaying," before the same addition, compresses itself in an opposite manner, and forms keblah. Neither $k t u t$, therefore, nor $k b l l$, can be regarded as the root; and just as little can it be looked for in ktôl, as the status constructus of the infinitive; for this is only a shortening of the absolute form katol, produced by a natural tendency to pass hastily to the word governed by the infinitive, which, as it were, has grown to it. In the imperative ktoll the abbreviation is not external, subject to mechanical conditions, but rather dynamic, and oceasioned by the hurry with which a command is usually enunciated. In the Semitic languages, in decided opposition to those of the Sanskrit family, the vowels belong, not to the root, but to the grammatical motion, the secondary ideas, and the mechanism of the construction of
[G. Ed. p. 108.] the word. By them, for example, is distinguished, in Arabic, katala, "he slew," from kutila, "he was slain"; and in Hebrew, kotel, "slaying," from katal, "slain." A Semitic root is unpronounceable, because, in giving it vowels, an advance is made to a special grammatical form, and it then no longer possesses the simple peculiarity of a root raised above all grammar. But in the Sanskrit family of languages, if its oldest state is consulted in the languages which have continued most pure, the root appears as a circumscribed nucleus, which is almost unalterable, and which surrounds itself with foreign syllables, whose origin we must investigate, and whose destination is, to express the secondary ideas of grammar which the root itself cannot express.

The vowel, with one or more consonants, and sometimes without any consonant whatever, belongs to the fundamental meaning: it can be lengthened to the highest degree, or raised by Guna or Vriddhi; and this lengthening or raising, and, more lately, the retention of an original $a$, opposed to its weakening to $i$ or change to $u(\$ \S .66 ., 67$.), belongs not to the denoting of grammatical relations, which require to be more clearly pointed out, but, as I imagine I can prove, only to the mechanism, the symmetry of construction.
108. As the Semitic roots, on account of their construction, possess the most surprising capacity for indicating the secondary ideas of grammar by the mere internal moulding of the root, of which they also make extensive use, while the Sanskrit roots, at the first grammatical movement, are compelled to assume external additions ; 'so must it appear strange, that F. von Schlegel,* while he [G. Ed. p. 109.] divides languages in general into two chief races, of which the one denotes the secondary intentions of meaning by an internal alteration of the sound of the root by inflexion, the other always by the addition of a word, which may by itself signify plurality, past time, what is to be in future, or other relative ideas of that kind, allots the Sanskrit and its sisters to the former race, and the Semitic languages to the second. "There may, indeed," he writes, p. 48, "arise an appearance of inflexion, when the annexed particles are melted down with the chief word so as to be no longer distinguishable; but where in a language, as in the Arabic, and in all which are connected with it, the first and most important relations, as those of the person to verbs, are denoted by the addition of particles which have a meaning for themselves individually, and the tendency to which suffixes shews itself deeply seated in the language, it may there be safely assumed that the same may have

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oceurred in other positions, where the annexation of particles of a foreign nature no longer admits of such clear discrimination: one may at least safely assume that the language, on the whole, belongs to this chief race, although in this single point, by admixture or artificial adornment, it has adopted another and a higher character." We must here preliminarily observe, that, in Sanskrit and the languages connected with it, the personal terminations of the verbs shew at least as great a similarity to isolated pronouns as in Arabic. How should any language, which expresses the pronominal relations of the verbs by syllables annexed either at the beginning or end of the word, in the choice of these syllables avoid, and not rather select, those which, in their isolated state, also express the corresponding
[G. Ed. p. 110.] pronominal ideas? By inflexion, F. von Schlegel understands the internal alteration of the sound of the root, or (p. 35) the internal modification of the root, which he (p. 48) opposes to addition from without. But when from $\delta o$ or $\delta \omega$, in Greek, comes $\delta \delta \partial \omega-\mu \mu, \delta \omega-\sigma \omega$, $\delta o-\theta \eta \sigma \dot{\mu} \mu \epsilon \theta$, what are the forms $\mu \omega, \sigma \omega$, $\theta \eta \sigma o ́ \mu \epsilon \theta \alpha$, but palpable external additions to the root, which is not at all internally altered, or only in the quantity of the vowel? If, then, by inflexion, an internal modification of the root is to be understood, the Sanskrit and Greek \&c. have in that case-except the reduplication, which is supplied by the elements of the root itself-scarce any inflexion at all to shew. If, however, $\theta \eta \sigma o ́ \mu e \theta \alpha$ is an external modification of the root $\delta 0$, simply because it is combined with it, touches it, with it expresses a whole; then the idea of sea and continent may be represented as an internal modification of the sea, and vice versa. P. 50, F. von Schlegel remarks: "In the Indian or Grecian language every root is truly that which the name says, and like a living germ; for since the ideas of relation are denoted by internal alteration, freer room is given for development, the fulness of which can be indefinitely
extended, and is, in fact, often wondrously rich. All, however, which in this manner proceeds from the simple root, still retains the stamp of its relationship, adheres to it, and thus reciprocally bears and supports itself." I find, however, the inference not established; for from the capability of expressing ideas of relation by internal alteration of the root, how can the capability be deduced of surrounding the (internally unalterable) root indefinitely, with foreign syllables externally added? What kind of stamp of relationship is there between $\mu, \sigma \omega, \theta \eta \sigma \delta \mu e \theta \alpha$, and the [G. Ed. p. 111.] roots to which these significative additions are appended? We therefore recognise in the inflexions of the Sanskrit family of languages no internal involutions of the root, but elements of themselves significative, and the tracing of the origin of which is the task of scientific grammar. But even if the origin of not a single one of these inflexions could be traced with certainty, still the principle of the formation of grammar, by external addition, would not, for that reason, be the less certain, because, at the first glance, in the majority of inflexions, one discovers at least so much, that they do not belong to the root, but have been added from without. A. W. von Schlegel, also, who, in essential points, assents to the above-mentioned division of languages,* gives us to understand, with regard to the so-called

* Nevertheless, in his work, "Observations sur la langue et la littérature provencales," p. 14, \&c., he gives three classes, viz. Les langues sans aucune structure grammaticale, les langues qui emploient des affixes, et les langues $d$ inflexions. Of the latter, he says: "Je pense, cependant, qu'il faut assigner le premier rang aux langues à inflexions. On pourroit les'appeler les langues organiques, parce qu'elles renferment un principe vivant de développement et d'accroissement, et qu'elles ont seules, si je puis m'exprimer ainsi, une végétation abondante et féconde. Le merveilleux artifice de ces langues est, de former une immense variété de mots, et de marquer la liaison des idées que ces mots désignent, moyennant un assez petit nombre de syllabes qui, considérées séparément, n'ont point de signi-
fication
inflexions, that they are not modifications of the root, but foreign additions, whose characteristic lies in this, that [G. Ed.p.112.] regarded, per se, they have no meaning. In the Semitic, the appended grammatical syllables or inflexions have no meaning, at least in so far that they do not, any more than in Sanskrit, occur isolated in a completely similar state. In Arabic, for instance, antum, and not tum, is said for "ye"; and in Sanskrit ma, ta, and not mi, ti, are the deelinable bases of the first and third person; and at-Ti, "he eats," has the same relation to $T A-m$, "him," that in Gothic $I T-a$, "I eat," has to the monosyllabic $A T$, "I ate." The reason for weakening the $a$ of the base to $i$ is probably, in the different cases of the two sister languages, the same, viz, the greater extent of the form of word with $i$ (comp. §. 6.) If, then, the division of languages made by F. von Schlegel is untenable, on the reasons on which it is founded, still there is much ingenuity in the thought of a natural history or classification of languages. We prefer, however, to present, with A. W. von Schlegel (1. c.), three classes, and distinguish them as follows: first, languages with monosyllabic roots, without the capability of composition, and hence without organism, without grammar. This class comprises Chinese, where all is hitherto bare root, and the grammatical categories, and secondary relations after the
fication, mais qui déterminent avec précision le sens du mot auquel elles sont jointes. En modifiant les lettres radicales, et en ajoutant aux racines des syllabes dérivatives, on forme de mots dérivés de diverses espèces, et des dérivés des dérivés. On compose des mots de plusieurs racines pour exprimer les idées complexes. Ensuite on décline les substantifs, les adjectifs, et les pronoms, par genres, par nombres, et par cas; on conjugue les verbes par voix, par modes, par temps, par nombres, et par personnes, en employant de même des désinences et quelquefois des augmens qui, séparément, ne signifient rien. Cette méthode procure l'avantage d'énoncer en un seul mot l'idée principale, souvent déjà très-modifiée et très-complexe, avec tout son cortége d'idées accessoires et de relations variables.


































I call the special tenses,* and to the part. pres., ) into ten classes, all of which we have re-discovered in the Zend also, and examples of which are given in the following paragraph.
[G. Ed. p. 114.] We shall here give the characteristics of the Sanskrit classes, aud compare with them those which correspond in the European sister languages.
(1.) The first and sixth class add wa $a$ to the root; and we reserve the discussion of the origin of this and other conjugational affixes for the disquisition on the verb. The point of difference between the first class of nearly 1000 roots (almost the half of the entire number) and the sixth class, which contains about 130 roots, lies in this, that the former raise the vowel of the root by Guna ( (§. 26.), while the latter retain it pure; e,g. बोधति bodhati, "he knows," from बुध् budh (1.); तुदति tudati, "he vexes" (comp. tundit), from तुद्धtud (6.) As ज $a$ has no Guna, $\dagger$ no discrimination can take place through this vowel between the classes 1 . and 6. : but nearly all the roots which belong to either, having w $a$ as the radical vowel, are reckoned in the first class. In Greek, $e$ (before nasals $o$, §. 3.) corresponds to the affix wa; and
 belong to the first class, because they have Guna (§. 26.); while, e.g. $\theta i \gamma-o-\mu e v, \theta \lambda i \beta-o-\mu e v, \& c$., fall under the sixth class.Il In Latin we recognise, in the third conjugation,

[^57]

which I would raise to the first, the cognate of the Sanskrit first and sixth class, since we regard the addition $i$ as a weakening of the old $a$ (§. 8.); and e.g. legimus has the same relation to $\lambda^{\prime} \hat{\gamma} \gamma-0-\mu \varepsilon v$, that the genitive ped-is has to mod-ós where the Sansḳit has likewise $a$ (पदस् [G.Ed.p.115.] pad-as). In leg-u-nt, from ley-a-nti, the old $a$, through the influence of the liquid, has become $u$ (Comp. §. 66.). In German, all the primitive (strong) verbs, with the exception of some remains of the fourth class (No.2.), stand in clear connection with the Sanskrit first class, which is here, for the first time, laid down in its full extent.* The $a$ which is added to the root has, in Gothict, before some personal terminations, remained unchanged; before others, according to §. 67., and as in Latin, been weakened to $i$; so, hait-a, "I am called," hait-i-s, hait-i-th, 2d pers. du. huit-a-ts; pl. hait-$a-m$, hait-i-th, hait-a-nd. The radical vowels $i$ and $u$ keep the Guna addition, as in Sanskrit, only that the $a$ which gives the Guna is here weakened to $i(\S .27$. ), which, with a radical $i$, is aggregated into a long $i$ (written ei, §. 70.): hence keina (=kina, from kiina), "I germinate," from KIN; biuga, "I bend," from BUG, Sanskrit भुज् bhuj, whence भुग्न bhugna, "bent." The diphthongs ai, aul, as in Sanskrit ₹ and जो (§. 2.), are incapable of any Guna; as are e ( $=$ wा, §. 69.) and a. The Sanskrit radical vowel $\begin{aligned} & \\ & a\end{aligned}$ has, however, in Gothic, experienced a threefold destiny. It has either remained unaltered in the special tenses, and is lengthened in the preterite, except in reduplicate roots (i.e. to $\delta$, see §. 69.)-

[^58]thus, e.g. far-i-th, "he wanders," answers to चरति charati [G. Ed. p.116.] (§. 14.), and for, "he wandered," to चचार chachara; or, secondly, the old $a$ shews itself in the special tenses weakened to $i$, but retained in the monosyllabic singular of the preterite: so that here the stronger $a$ (§. 8.) corresponds to the weaker $i$ in the same way that, in the first case, the $\sigma(=$ जा $a)$ does to the short $a$. The root सद् $a d$, " to eat," in Gothic, according to §. s7., forms $A T$; hence, in the present, ita; in the sing. pret., at, as-t, at. The third fate which befalls the $a$ of the root in Gothic is a complete extirpation, and compensation by the weaker $i$, which is treated like an original $i$, existing in the Sanskrit; i.e. in the special tenses it receives Guna by $i$, and in the pret. sing. by $a(\S .27$.$) , but in the pret. pl. it is preserved pure. To this$ class belongs the KIN, " to germinate," mentioned above, pres. keina, pret. sing. kain, pl. kin-um. The corresponding Sanskrit root is जन् jan, " to produce," " to be born" (see §. s7.): the same relation, too, has greipa, graip, gripum, from GRIP, "to seize," to ग्रभ् grablh (Vêda form): on the other hand, BIT, "to bite," (beita, bait, bitum), has an original $i$, which exists in Sanskrit (comp. भिद् bhid, "to cleave "); just so, VIT, " to know," Sanskrit fिद् vid.
(2.) The fourth class of Sanskrit roots adds to them the syllable य $y a$, and herein agrees with the special tenses of the passive; and from the roots which belong to it spring chiefly neuter verbs, as e.g. नश्यfित naśyati, "he perishes," Their number amounts altogether to about 130. The German has preserved one unmistakeable remnant of this class, in those strong verbs which again lay aside, in the preterite, the syllable $y a$ (weakened to $y i$ ), which is added to the root in the
 ucs-yain, "crescebant," Vendidâd S. p. 257), "cresco," vahs-yi-th, "crescit," pret. voths.

[^59](3.) The second, third, and seventh classes add the personal termination direct to the root; but in the cognate European languages, to facilitate the conjugation, these classes have mainly passed over to the first class; e.g. ed-i-mus, not ed-mus (as a remnant of the old construction es-t, es-tis), Gothic $i t-a-m$, Old High German iz-a-més not $i z-m e ́ s$, answering to the Sanskrit *स्मस् ad-mas. The second class, to which सद् $a d$ belongs, leaves the root without any characteristic addition, with Guna of the vowels capable of Guna before light terminations, which must be hereafter explained; hence, e.g. रमि êmi, corresponding to इमस् imas, from $\boldsymbol{\beta}^{i} i$ "to go," as in Greek $\varepsilon i \mu \mathrm{c}$ to ${ }^{\check{ }} \mu \mathrm{ev}$. It contains not more than about seventy roots, partly terminating in consonants, partly in vowels. In this and the third-class, the Greek exhibits roots, almost entirely ending in vowels, as the above mentioned ${ }^{\prime} \mathrm{I}, \Phi \AA, \mathrm{TN} \Omega\left(\gamma \nu \hat{\omega}-\theta_{t}\right), \Delta \Omega, \Sigma \mathrm{\Sigma TA}, \Theta \mathrm{H}, \Phi \Upsilon($ é $\phi v v), \Delta \Upsilon, \& c$. To the consonants the direct combination with the consonants of the termination has become too heavy, and 'EE alone (because of the facility of $\sigma \mu, \sigma \tau$ ) has remained in the Sanskrit second class, as the corresponding root in Latin, Lithuanian, and German. Hence, जस्ति asti, è $\bar{i} i$, Lithuan. esti, est, Gothic and High German ist. In the Latin there fall also to the second class, I, DA, STA, FLA, FA, and $N A$; and also in-quam, whence $Q U A$ weakened to $Q U I$, is the root, which, in Gothic, appears as QUAT, weakened to QUIT, with the accretion of a T. FER and VEL (VUL) have preserved some persons of the ancient construction.* [G. Ed. p. 118.] The third class is distinguished from the second by a syllable of reduplication in the special tenses, and has maintained itself under this form in Greek also, and Lithuanian. In

[^60]Sanskrit it comprehends about twenty roots; e.g. ददानि dadami, di $\delta \omega \mu$, Lithuanian dudu; दधामि dadhami, тi$i \eta \mu e$ (§. 16.); जर्जन्मि jajanmi, "I beget," comp. $\gamma^{i}-\gamma v-0-\mu \alpha t$. The seventh class, of about twenty-four roots, introduces, in the special tenses, a nasal into the root, which is extended before the light personal terminations to the syllable na; e.g. अभनसि bhinadmi, "I cleave," fिन्रस् bhindmas, "we cleave." The Latin has kept the weaker form of this nasalization, but has further added to the root the affix of the first class (p. 114 G . Ed.); hence findo, find-i-mus. From the Greek come to be here considered roots, like MA@, $\Lambda A B$, ©IF, in which the inserted nasal has been repeated further on in the word, with the prefixed $a$, and, like the Latin find-i-mus, is connected with the affix of the first class; thus, $\mu \alpha \nu \theta-\alpha^{\prime} v-0-\mu \epsilon v, \lambda a \mu \beta-\alpha \alpha^{\prime} \nu-0-\mu \varepsilon \nu$, $\theta \quad \gamma \gamma-\alpha \dot{\alpha} \nu-\sigma-\mu \epsilon \nu$.
(4.) The fifth class, of about thirty roots, has $n u$; and the eighth, with ten roots, which, excepting कृ kri, " to make," all terminate in न् $n$ or ए् $n$, has $u$ for its characteristic addition: the $u$, however, of these two classes is lengthened before the light terminations by Guna, which, in the corresponding Greek appended syllables, $v v$ and $v$, is supplied by lengthening the $v$; thus, e. $g$. $\delta \in i ́ \kappa \nu \bar{u} \mu$, $\delta \in i ́ \kappa \nu \bar{u} \mu \varepsilon v$, as in Sanskrit चाभोमि $a p$-n $\delta$-mi, " $a d-i p-i s-c o r, "$ धामुमस् ap-nu-mas, "adipiscinur." An example of the eighth class is $\pi$ न् tan, "to extend,"
 With the $\boldsymbol{\delta} u$, $v$, of the eighth class, is probably connected
[G. Ed. p. 119.] the $v$ in some Gothic strong verbs, where, however, it adheres so firmly to the root, that, in a German point of view, it must be regarded as a radical. Hence it is not dropped in the preterite, and receives, in the special tenses, like all strong verbs, the affix of the Sanskrit first class; e, g. saihva," "I see," sahv, "I saw."
(5.) The ninth class adds ना $n d$ to the root, which syllable, before heavy terminations, instead of being shortened

[^61]to न $n a$, replaces the heavy सा $a$ by the lighter ई $\hat{i}(\S .6$.$) ,$ and is thus weakened to नी $n$ t. E.g. from मृद् mrid, " to crush," (comp. mordeo) comes मृद्नामि mridnami, मृद्नीमस् mridnimas. In this is easily perceived the relationship with Greek formations in $\nu \eta \mu u(\nu \bar{\alpha} \mu u) \nu \bar{\alpha} \mu \epsilon v ;$ e.g. $\delta \dot{\alpha} \mu \nu \eta \mu \nu$, $\delta \dot{\alpha} \mu \nu \alpha-$ $\mu e v$. As $\breve{\alpha}, \epsilon$, and o, are originally one, formations like $\tau \in ́ \mu-\nu o-$ $\mu e v$ belong to this class, only that they have wandered into the more modern $\omega$-conjugation at a remote period of antiquity; for more lately $\nu \epsilon \omega$ would not have become $\nu \omega$ from $\nu \eta \mu$.
(6.) The tenth class adds wय aya to the root, but is distinguished from the other classes in this farther important point, that this affix is not limited to the special tenses: the final $a$ of स्षय aya is peculiar to them, but सय् ay extends, with very few exceptions, to all the other formations of the root. All causals, and many denominatives, follow this class, and, indeed, from every root a causal can be formed by the addition ब्रय् ay, which is always accompanied by Guna of the middle vowel of the root capable of Guna, or by Vriddhi of every radical final vowel and of a middle $a$ belonging to the root; e.g. वेदयति ved-aya-ti" he makes to know," from विद् vid; श्राबयति śrav-aya-ti, "he makes to hear," from ㄲुㅇ śru. We recognise, in German, the affix सय aya at least in two shapes : in the one [G. Ed. p. 120.] the first $a$, in the other the last, is lost, and in the latter case $y$ has become $i$; so that I have no longer any scruple in tracing back Grimm's first and third conjugation of the weak form to a common origin. According to all probability, however, the verbs with the affix 6 also (as Old High German manón, " to mention," "to make to think,") belong to this class, regarding which we will speak further under the verb. The Old High German gives $\bar{e}$ as the contraction of $a+i$, (see §. 78.), but retains its ê more firmly than the Gothic its $a i$, which, in several persons, sinks into a simple $a$. Compare Gothic haba, habam, haband, with Old High German hapem, hapémes, hapent. Very remarkable, however, is the concurrence of the Prâkrit with the Old High German and the Latin







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be looked for in those in $\alpha \omega, \epsilon \omega$, $\omega \omega$; in Latin, besides the 2d conjugation compared above, most verbs of the 1st and 4th also belong to this affinity. We shall recur to them when speaking of the verb.
$109^{\text {b }}$. In order to adduce single examples of the multiform construction of the roots, let us examine the order of the final letters; but we will select only such examples as are common to the Sanskrit and several sister languages. The greatest forbearance, however, is requisite, as an authenticated comparison of all that admits of comparison would easily swell to a book, which shall hereafter be devoted to this subject.*
(1.) Roots ending with a vowel :-
[G. Ed. p. 122.]
"There are, as has been already remarked (§. 105.), no roots in स $a$; but roots in wा $a$ are numerous. Thus mi $g a, \dagger$ "to go," contained in the Latin navi-ga-re; also, perhaps; in fati-gare, the first member of which belongs to fatiscor: fessus ; in Greek, $\beta i \beta \eta \mu$ answers to जगाfि jagatic and rests on the frequent interchange of gutturals and labials; Gothic ga-thvo, " a street," (see p. 102. G. Ed.); Zend spwe ga-tur, "a place," (nom. دuspue gatus ; Old High German ga-m, " I go," = जगामि ja-ga-mi; not therefore, as Grimm conjectures (p. 868), by syncope from gangu, but, with a more ancient and regular foundation, only with a suppression of the Sanskrit syllable of reduplication, introduced, therefore, from the third into the second class (see p. 117. G. Ed.), as in Latin, da-mus answering to $\delta i \delta o-\mu \epsilon v$. Thus, also, sid $(d-m$, sta-s, sta-t, in like manner, with suppressed reduplication, corresponds to $i-\sigma \tau \eta-\mu$ (for $\sigma i \sigma \tau \eta \mu \mu$ ), and to the Sanskrpit root स्था stha, which is irregularly inflected, तिपामि tiṣhṭhami, तिपसि tiṣhṭhasi, ति叉ति tiṣhṭhati, for tasthami, tasthasi, tasthati,

[^62]which will be more closely considered hereafter. The Latin, in root and inflexion, most resembles the Old High German : the Zend, however, in its ${ }^{6}$ wheresev histami* (for sistâmi, see §. 53.), appears in a genuine Greek dress. Observe, also, the عurerron 6, ? rathaetstao, "warrior," which occurs so often in the Zend-Avesta, properly "chariot stander," with $o$ for $s$ as the sign of the nominative. How, then, in Old High German, comes from STA the extended form of the root STANT, whence the present stantu, "I stand," and preterite stuont, "I or he stood"; for which the Gothic has standa, stoth? We will here only preliminarily remark, that we have observed in Zend also, in some roots terminating in $a$, an inclination to connect themselves with a $t$-sound. Thus we find, from wuju sina, "to wash," " to purify,"(Sansk. हा snd, "to bathe,") whence snata, "purified," in Vend. S. p. 233,

 nidaithyain, "deponant" (as Vendidâd S. pp. 205 and 206, fquscasugs rofes roguous huskè zĕmé nidaithyain, "in sicca terra deponant "): from the same root we find the imperative
[G. Ed. p. 123.] form, NG.uGuegs ni-da-thama, " depona-
 NGwGuvs $\ggg$ Ngsug ulsers kva naraim istitanañm tanúm barama Ahura mazda kva nidathàma, "Quo hominum mortuorum corpus feramus, ubi deponamus'q). Of the Germanic we will further remark, that the root मा ma," to measure" (cf. $\mu \dot{\epsilon}-\tau \rho o v)$, has connected itself with a $t$-sound, and forms, in Gothic, MAT, present mila (§. $109^{\mathrm{a}}$. 1.). $\quad$ ज्ञा ${ }^{\circ}$ jna, "to be acquainted with," "to know," TN $\Omega$, GNA (gnarus) Old High German CHNA (\$.87.); whence chnd-ta, "I knew," annexing the auxiliary verb direct, as in Latin (g)no-vi. To

[^63]the special form, जानामि $j \not a n a m i$, for ज्ञानामि $j n a-n \hat{n}-m i$, may belong the Gothic root KANN, Old High German CHANN (kann, chan, "I know," see §. 94., kunnum, chunnum, "we know," see §.66.). uमा ${ }^{1}$ dhma, "to blow," alters itself in the special forms to धम् dham, Latin $F L A$, according to the second class (§. 109ㅁ.) , Old High German PL $\bar{A}$ ( $\S \S .12 .20$.), whence pld-ta, "flavi." As in Sanskryit, from the above-mentioned धम् dham, comes the nominal base धमनी dhamant, "a vein"; so may the Gothic base BLOTHA (nom. ace. bloth, "blood") come here also under consideration. We pass on to roots in $i$, and have to remark that the root mentioned at p. 107. G. Ed., ₹ $i$, " to go," is not unknown in German. We find it in the Gothic imperative hir-i, "come here"; du. hir-yats; pl. hir-yith. I believe, too, that in the irregular preterite iddya, " "I went," the $i$ alone can be assumed as the root. In Zend occurs adososi-ti, "he goes" (from रति elli, according to \$§. 28. 4L.), Lithuan. ei-ti. fo्र ${ }^{5}$ s'ri, "to go," with the prep. उत् $u t$, "to raise itself"; hence, उब्तित uchchhrita, "raised," "high"; compare cre-sco, cre-vi (see §. 21.), Old High German SCRIT, " to step," with the addition of a $t$, as in the case of mat, from मा $m a$ : perhaps the Latin gradior, as well as cresco, might be here included, the Guna form of the vowel, as in च्रयति sray-a-ti, "he goes," being observed. feम smi, " to smile," Old High German SMIL ; मी prit, "to love," Zend „ Jd fri'(§. 47.), Goth. friyd, "I love" (§. 87.), compare प्रिय priya, " dear." भी ${ }^{3}$ bhi, "to fear," बिभेमि bibhe-mi. "I fear"; Lithuan. biyau; Gothic fiya, "I hate" (fiyais, fiyaith), fiyands, "foe"; Oid High German vî́m or fiém, "I hate" : the Greek $\phi e ́ \beta-o-\mu \alpha t$ answers to the Sanskrit reduplication of bibhémi; so that, contrary to the common rule, the aspirates have remained in the prefix, but in the base itself have become medials, and this has left only $\beta$ as the whole root, as in Sanskrit da-d-mas, "we give," for $d a-d d-m a s, \delta i-\delta o-\mu e s$. Perhaps, also, [G. Ed. p. 124.] ФI $\Delta$, фéciò $\mu \alpha u$, is to be referred to the roots in $i$, so that an
unorganic dental affix would be to be assumed. शी ${ }^{2} s \hat{i}$, "to lie," "to sleep," with irregular Guna in the middle; hence sé-te =кê-т $\alpha$. ही ${ }^{3} h r \imath$ i, "to be ashamed"; Old High German HRU, "to repent" (hriw-u, hrou, hru-umés, see p. 115. G. Ed.). Of roots in $u$, दुु ${ }^{1}$ dru, " to run," द्रवति drav-$a$-ti, "he runs" may furnish, through the Guna form, the Greek $\delta \rho \dot{\alpha}-\sigma \kappa \omega, \delta \iota-\delta \rho \alpha \dot{\alpha}-\sigma \kappa \omega$, which appears hence to derive its $\alpha$ with suppression of the digamma: the $\mu$ of $\delta \rho \dot{\rho} \mu \omega$, however, might pass as a hardening of the घ् $v$ (§. 63.), and $\delta \rho \varepsilon ́ \mu-o-\mu \varepsilon v, \delta \rho \varepsilon ́ \mu-\varepsilon-\tau \varepsilon$, \&ce, therefore represent most truly the forms drav-a-mas, drav-a-tha. 꺽 plu, "to go," "to swim," "to float" (ग्रव plava, " a ship"), Latin FLU. The Greek $\pi \lambda e ́ \omega, \pi \lambda o ́ \omega$ is again not to be so regarded as if the old $u$ had been corrupted to $e$ or $o$, but $\pi \lambda \hat{\epsilon}^{\prime}(F) \omega, \pi \lambda 0(F) \omega$ supply the place of the Guna form in plav-e (of the middle voice), 3d pers. plav-a-té : the future $\pi \lambda e ́ v \sigma \omega$, the $u$ having the Guna (§. 26.), answers to शोप्ये plo-shye ; Lithuan. plaukiu, "I swim," with a guttural added, as in Latin fluc-si from fluv (p. 98. G. Ed.). Old High German VLUZ, "to flow," pre-supposes the Gothic FLUT (§.87.); with the favourite dental addition, with which all final vowels are so commonly invested. घु 's sru, "to hear," KAY (\$§. 20., 21.), Gothic HLIU-MAN (nominative hliuma), "ear," as "hearer," with weakened Guna (§.27.); with regard to the $k l$ for śr, compare, also, clunis with श्रोगी śrönt, $f$. "hip.") Lithuan. klausau, "I hear." Perhaps erudio, as "to make hear," is to be referred to this class: the derivation from $e$ and rudis is little satisfactory. Anquetil introduces a Zend erodé, célebre, ( $\kappa \lambda$ vtós), which I have not yet found in the ori-
 s̀rávayêmi (Sansk. ग्राबयामि śrâvayami), "I speak," "recite" (V. S. p. 38). The Old High German, scrirumes, "we have exclaimed," gives SCRIR as the root, and rests probably on the form śráv (§.20.), with a thinning of the $a$ to $i(\S .66$.$) ;$ the present and sing. preterite, however, have lost the $r$ (scriu
for scriru, screi for screir), like the Greek $\kappa \lambda \dot{\eta}-\sigma \omega$, $\kappa \in \in \kappa \lambda \eta-\kappa \alpha$, \&c. The Latin clamo, however, has the same relation to wाय् śrív that mare has to erfe vari, "water" (§. 63.), and $\delta \rho \in \mu$ to द्रव् drav, from दु दु dru, " to run." ser $h u^{5}$, "to extol," " to glorify" (vمулsé hunûla, " he celebrated," V. S. p. 39.), is
 not like to regard as an irregular derivative from $\tilde{v} \delta \omega$. पू pu $\hat{u}^{1.9 .}$ "to purify," PUrus. This root is the verbal parent of the wind and fire, which are both represented as pure. पषन pavana (with Guna and ana [G. Ed. p. 125.] as suffix) is "the wind," and the corresponding Gothic $F \bar{O} N A$ (neut. nom. acc. fofn, see §. 116.) is "fire," which in Sanskrit is called पाषक pâv-a-ka, with Vriddhi and aka as suffix. The relation of $F \bar{O} N A$ to पषन pavana resembles that of the Latin malo from mavolo; the loss of the syllable व va is replaced by the lengthening of the $a$ (§. 69.). The Greek $\pi \hat{0} \rho$ and Old High German VIURA (nom. acc. viur), the latter with weakened Guna (§.27.), and $r a$ as suffix, both fall to the root, पू $p \hat{u} \overline{\mathrm{~g}}^{2} b r \hat{u}, "$ to speak," Zend $\hat{\jmath}$ ) $m r \hat{u}$ (e.g. $\operatorname{f}$ $\dot{\rho}(f(F) \omega$ rests on the Guna form ब्रषीमि brav-i-mi, and has, as often happens, lost the former of two initial consonants (cf. also $\dot{\rho} \in ́ \omega$, pevi $\omega$, and ruo, with छु sru, "to flow"). The Old High German SPRAH, or SPRAHH (sprihhu, "I speak," sprah, "I spoke") appears to have proceeded from 줄 $b r a v$, by hardening the च् $v$ (see §. 19.), and prefixing an $s$ akin to the $p$. $\mathscr{\alpha}$ bhû, "to be," Zend,$\quad b \hat{u}$, Lithuan. $B U$ (future basu, "I will be"), Latin FU, Greek $\boldsymbol{\Phi}$ r. Probably, also, BY, in $\pi \rho \epsilon \in \sigma-\beta v-s, \pi \rho \epsilon \sigma \beta u ́ t \eta s, \& c$. , is only another form of this root (cf. §. 18.); so that $\pi \rho e^{\prime}$ s would have to be regarded as a preposition from $\pi \rho o ́$ ( $\quad$ p $p r a$, essentially distinguished only by a euphonic $\Sigma$ (cf. §. 96.). Moreover, the base $\pi \rho \epsilon \in \sigma \beta \nu$ has a striking resemblance to प्रभु prabhu (excelsus, augustius), literally, "being before." In Old High German pim or bim corresponds to the

Sanskrit भवामि bhavami: more exact, however, is the correspondence in the plural of pir-u-més, pir-u-t, to bhav-d-mas, "sumus," bhav-a-tha, "estis" (see §. 19.). To this class belongs, also, $P \bar{U}$, "to dwell" ( $p \hat{u}$-ta, "I dwelt"), as the Sanskrit बस vas "to dwell," in German VAS, WAS, has become seyn. In Sanskṛit, too, from भू $b h \hat{u}$, "to be," comes the substantive bhav-ana "house," as place of being. The Gothic baua, "I build," may be regarded as the causal of the idea "to be," like the Latin facio (§. 19.): its conjugation answers also to भावयामि bhavayàmi, "I make to be," which, in Prâkrit, may sound bhavêmi, bhâvêsi, bhâveti (Gothic baua, bauais, bauait). See p. 121 G. Ed. Sanskṛit roots ending in diphthongs (ए $\hat{\ell}$, घो $\hat{b}$, ऐ $đ i$; there are no roots in बौ $d u$ ) follow in their formations, in many respects, the analogy of roots in wा $\alpha$. We abstain from adducing examples of them, as they also offer little occasion for comparison.
(2.) Roots terminating with a consonant. We shall give
[G. Ed. p. 126.] only a few examples, in which we compare roots with the same vowel, and proceed in the order, $a, i, u$. According to §. 1 . we do not allow the vowel च $r i$ and चृ. $r \bar{i}$ to belong to the root. Long radical vowels before a final consonant are rare; and the majority of them are probably not original.

The most numerous class of roots ending with a consonant has a medial स $a$. So वच्च ${ }^{1.2}$ vach, Zend Nuly vach (uporitw abcta, "dixit," Vend. S. p. 124), Greek EII for FEII (§. 14.), Latin VOC, Old High German, WAH, WAG (kiwahu, "mentionem facio," pret. ki-wuoh pl. ki wuogumess).
 prichchhämi, د千 and §. $109^{\circ} .1$..); the Latin ROG (rogo, interrogo) appears to be abbreviated from FROG. पत् ${ }^{1}$ pat, "to fall," "to fly,"

 "where birds fly, trees grow"). One sees clearly from this
that, in Greek, $\pi i \pi \tau \omega, \pi \epsilon \tau \alpha ́ \omega, \pi \epsilon \tau \dot{\alpha} о \mu \alpha \ell, \pi \in ́ т о \mu \alpha l, \pi \tau \hat{\eta} \mu$, \&ec. belong to a common root IET ; Latin PET, peto, im-peto, prapetes, penna by assimilation for pet-na. In Gothic FATH, or, with the vowel weakened, FITH, might be looked for. To the latter corresponds, according to §. 87 , , Old High German V$\ddot{E} D$, in vëd-ara, "feather," बद् ${ }^{1.10}$ vad, " to speak," Latin VAD, contained in vas, vad-is. From बद् vad proceeds the abbreviated form उद् $u d$, to which per-
 WAZ (var-wdzu "maledico"), with $z$ for $d$, according to §. 87 ., and the vowel of the base lengthened, as in बादयामि vadayami, according to the tenth class. सद्ध sad, "to sink, with the prep. fन $n i$, "to set oneself down"; Latin SED, SID, sido,
 (§. s7.), sila, "I sit" (p. 116 G. Ed.). सन् ${ }^{2}$ an, "to blow," "to breathe," सनिल anila, "wind," Gothic $A N$, usana, "I expire," ef. ăvemos, "animus." जन् ${ }^{3}$ jan, "to beget," Zend jus zan (§. 58.), دquysus zazdmi, " $\mathbf{F}$ beget," Sanskrit जजन्मि jajanmi, Greek IEN, Latin GEN ( $\gamma$ í $\gamma$ vo $\mu \alpha$, , үévos, gigno, genus), Gothic KIN, " to germinate," (p. 116 G. Ed.); kuni, "gender" (§. 66.). कर् ${ }^{8}$ kar (कृ kri), e.g. करोति karoti, "facit" : this root, in Zend, follows the fifth class; e.g.

 wan or garawan, "to prepare"; Latin creo, cura (cf. कुह kurü, "fac"), ceremonia, and with $p$ for $c$ ( $\$ 14$.$) , paro; Greek$ $\kappa \rho \alpha i v \omega$, $\kappa \rho \alpha \dot{\alpha}-\tau o s$; with $\pi, \pi \rho \alpha \sigma \sigma \sigma \omega, \pi \rho \alpha \kappa-\sigma \omega, \quad$ [G. Ed. p. 127.] $\pi \rho \alpha \hat{\gamma}-\mu \alpha$, where the guttural appears to be a hardening of the व् $v$ (§. 19.), e.g. of बुबेन्ति kurvanti, "faciunt" (from kur-u--anti). बहृं vah, "to drive," "to carry," Zend sul? vaz (\$. 57.), Latin VEH, Greek "Xos, "wagon," as bearer, carrier, for Fóरos. ण्यस् svas, "to breathe," ef. spiro, according to §§. 50. and 22. ग्रह ${ }^{0.10 .}$ grah, "to take": the original form, occurring in the Vedas, is ग्रथ् grabh. To this the Zend form belongs, according to the tenth class, and,
indeed, so that the $\boldsymbol{r} b \boldsymbol{l}$ appears before vowels as $\geqslant v$, but before $p t$ as $d p$. Thus we read in the Vend. S. p. 155:

 uzvarězyat yo narĕm agĕrĕptèm dgeurvayelte, ka hê as̀ti chitha?
"Purel si non dimittit, qui hominem captum capit (i. e. tenet), quanam ei est pana"?" In the European sister languages I believe I recognise this root in three forms: the Gothic GRIP has been already mentioned (p. 116 G. Ed.), likewise prehendo ( $\$ .92$. note): by changing the medials into their tenues, KAEII also seems to belong to this class, Gothic HLIF, "to steal," hiftus, "thief." Finally, also, in Greek, rpinos, rpípos, "the net," stands quite isolated, and appears to me to be related to the Indian गम् grabh, by changing the $a$ into $i$. $\quad \mathbb{T 世}^{2} A_{s,}$ " to sit," Greek 'H乏 a remnant of the second class, terminating in a consonant to be supplied at §. $109^{\circ}$. s.; $\hat{\eta} \sigma-\tau \alpha \iota$ answers exactly to जासेते $A_{8}-t e$ (middle voice), and hence $\cdot \hat{\eta} \mu \alpha \iota$ stands for $\hat{\eta} \sigma \mu \alpha \iota$, as $\varepsilon i \mu i$ for $\dot{\epsilon} \sigma \mu i($ San-
 or $\dagger$ ת nom. m. دهצ quently occurs. This Zend form prepares the way for the Old High German root PERAH, whence PERAH-TA $\ddagger$, nom. perah-t, "fulgidus." To this root belongs, also, our Pracht. The Greek language gives $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \mathbf{L E}$ (§. 20.) a cognate root, and thus [G. Ed. p. 128.] points to a Sanskrit short a for the long one. The cognate root in Latin is FLAG, flagro. fिद्द् ${ }^{7}$ chhid, "to cleave," SCID, scind-i-mus =chhindmas (§. 14.): EXIZ, perhaps also $\Sigma K I \Delta, \sigma x i \delta \nu \eta \mu$, \&c. belong to this place; the form is more genuine, and the ideas, too, of

[^64]clearing, dispersing, separating, are kindred ones. The Gothic SKAID, "to separate," if the relationship is certain, has a stiffened Guna, so that ai appears to belong to the root. According to $\$ .87$., however, the Gothic form should be SKAIT and the Old High German SKEIZ for SKEID. विद् ${ }^{2}$ vid, "to know," Zend Gothic $V I D$, Old High German, VIZ; in the Latin VID, and in $\epsilon \pi \% \omega$, "I see," the seeing is regarded as something, which " makes to know," and the conjugation of video is causal, according to p. 121 G. Ed. Thus, also, another root, signifying "to know," namely वुध् budh, has, in Zend, gained the meaning "to see."* According to the tenth class, and with the prep. ni, VID, in Zend, signifies "to summon" ( 56 rossucous>s nivaldhayelmi, "invoco," see §. 28.) In Gothic, VIT receives through the prep. in the meaning "to adore" (inveita, invait, invitum). दिश् ${ }^{6}$ dis, "to shew,"
 shewest" (Vend. S. p. 123), Greek $\Delta I K$, with Guna סeíkvvur, according to the fifth class; Latin DIC, in dico, as it were, "to point out," and dicis (dicis causa). In Gothic, the rule laid down in §. 87. requires the form TIH, and this root, combined with $g a$, signifies "to announce" ( $g a-$-teiha, gataih, ga-taihum, for ga-tihum, according to §. 82.). On the other hand, in taikus, "sign," the law for the transposition of letters is violated. जीय् ${ }^{1}$ jiv, "life;" Lithuanian gywa-s, "alive," gywenúu "I live," gywata "life;" Gothic QUIFA, nom. quivs, "alive"; Latin VIV, as it appears from QUIV, as bis from duis (Sansk. द्विस् dwis), viginti from tviginti. The Zend has dropped either the vowel or the $v$ of this root.
 and from sمsere hu-jiti. From $j t$, the root, would become, with Guna, jayâmi, on which rests the Greek $\zeta \alpha \dot{\alpha} \omega$, the $j$ having

[^65]fallen out (§. 14.); but pios also belongs to this root, and finds a medium of comparison with जीव् $\tilde{j} \hat{v}$, in the Latin vivo. Of roots with $u$, हच् ${ }^{1}$ ruch, "to shine," and हर् ${ }^{2}$ rud, " to weep," may serve as examples; the former, in Zend, is م山یN raoch, (\$8. 28. 32.), and follows the tenth class, e.g. sossogsunutwo
[G. Ed. p. 129.] raochayeiti, "splendet." In Latin correspond LUC, luc-s, luceo ( $\S .20$. ) and RUD : the Greek has, in both roots, replaced the $r$ by $l$, and presents, for comparison, $\Delta \Upsilon K$ ( $\alpha \mu \phi i \lambda u ́ \kappa \eta, \lambda u \kappa o ́ \phi \omega s$ ) and $\Lambda \Upsilon \mathbf{Z}$; to the former, $\lambda u^{\chi}{ }^{v o s}, \lambda u \chi$ $\nu$ vévo, \&c., has the same relation that, in Zend, uespdue tafnu-s, " burning," has to the root dxp tap (\$. 40.) We must assign $\lambda e u \kappa o ́ s$ also, with Guna, to the root $\Lambda$ YK. The Gothic gives $L U H$ for $L U K$, according to $\$ .87$, ; whence, with the original, or with weakened Guna (\$§. 26., 27.), spring forms like lauhmôni, "lightning," lauhatyan, " to lighten," liuhath, "light." Without Guna, and preserving the old smooth letter, stands lukarn (theme, lukarna, neut.), " lamp," rather isolated. A root corresponding to हर् rud is wanting in Gothic, but the Old High German has for it, quite regularly according to §§. 87 ., RUZ, " to weep" (riuzu, $r d z$ for rauz, according to §. 80., ruzumes). भूप्य ${ }^{1}$ bhûşh, "to adorn," is perhaps contained in the Latin or-no, with loss of the initial letter, as amo in relation to कामयामि kamayami, "I love." With regard to the $r$ for ${ }^{\text {n }}$ sis, advert to the relation of uro to उप् uṣh, "to burn," सेव् ${ }^{1}$ $\operatorname{sev}$, "to honour," मेथ् medh, "to think"(?). The latter cannot hitherto be quoted as a verb: it springs, however, from मेषम् medhas and मेधा médha, "understanding," unless it should be preferred to assume for these words a root midh, which, however, the Grammarians do not exhibit, The 'Gothic has, for comparison, MIT, whence mitt, "I think": the Greek furnishes an analogous word to sev, viz. $\mathbf{\Sigma E B}, \sigma_{\epsilon}^{\prime} \beta \omega$. (§. 4.)
110. From the monosyllabic roots proceed nouns, substantive and adjective, by the annexation of syllables,
which we should not, without examination, regard as not, per se, significative and, as it were, supernatural mystic beings; to a passive belief in whose undiscoverable nature we are not willing to surrender ourselves. It is more natural to suppose that they have or had meaning, and that the organism of language connects that which has a meaning with what is likewise significative. Why should not language denote accessory ideas, by accessory words appended to the root? Language, which possesses both sense and body, infuses sense and imparts form to every word. The object of nouns is to represent [G. Ed. p. 130.] persons or things, to which that which the abstract roet expresses adheres; and hence it is most natural to look for pronouns in the elements used in the formation of words, as the bearers of qualities, actions, and conditions, whieh the root expresses in abstracto. There appears, too, in reality, as we shall develope in the chapter on the pronouns, a complete* identity between the most important elements in the formation of words and some pronominal bases which are declined even in an isolated state. But it is not surprising that several of the elements of verbal formation, in the class of independent words, should not admit of more certain explanation; for these affixes have their origin in the most obscure and early epoch of language, and subsequently they have themselves lost all consciousness as to whence they have been taken, on which account the appended suffix does not always keep equal pace with the alterations which, in the course of time, occur in the corresponding isolated word; or it has been altered while the other remains unchanged. Still, in individual cases, we may remark the admirable exactitude with which the appended grammatical syllables have maintained them-

[^66]selves through thousands of years in an unaltered form; I say, we may remark this from the perfect accordance which exists between various individuals of the Sanskrit family of languages, although these languages have been removed, as it were, from each other's eyes since time immemorial, and every sister dialect has, since that removal, been left to its own fate and experience.
111. There are also pure radical words, i.e. those of which the theme, without suffix of derivation or personality, repreG. Ed. p. 131.] sents the naked root, which are then united in declension with the syllables which denote the relations of case. Except at the end of compounds, such radical words are, in Sanskrit, few in number, and are all feminine abstracts; as, भी bhi, "fear," भुष्प yudh, " contest," मुद् mud, "joy." In Greek and Latin the pure root is the most rare form of the word; but it does not always appear as an abstract
 $\nu \iota \phi$ (vín-s), leg (lec-s), pac (pac-s), duc (duc-s), pel-lic (pel-lec-s). In German, commencing even with the Gothic, no pure radical words exist, although, by reason of the abbreviation of the base of the word in the singular, many words have assumed that appearance; for from the abbreviation of these verbal bases, which has been constantly extending during the lapse of time, it is precisely the most modern dialects which appear to exhibit the greatest number of naked roots as nouns. (cf. §. 116.) Naked roots seem most generally used at the end of compounds, on account of the clogging of the preceding part of the word. According to this principle, in Sanskrit, every root can, in this position, designate the agent by itself; as, e.g. धर्मिब्् dharma-vid, "duty-knowing." In Latin, the use of these compounds is as frequent as in Sanskrit, only that, according to §. 6., a radical $a$ is weakened to $i$ or $e$; thus, carni-fic (fec-s), tubi-cin (cen). An example in Greek is $\chi \in \rho \nu \iota \beta$ (for -vit from $v \pi-\tau \omega)$. Sanskrit roots which end with short vowels,
as fi $j i$, " to conquer," are, in compounds of this kind, supported by the addition of a $t$, which so much the more appears to be a simple phonetic affix without signification, that these weakly-constructed roots appear to support themselves on an auxiliary $t$ before the gerundial suffix $y a$ also. Thus, e.g. सर्गोजत् svarga-jit, " conquering the heaven," विजित vi-jit-ya, " by conquering." In Latin I find [G. Ed. p. 132.] interesting analogies to these formations in IT and STIT, from the roots $I$ and STA, the latter weakened to STI according to §. 6. Thus, com-it (com-es), "goer with"; equ-it (equ-es), "goer on horseback"; al-it (al-es), "goer with wings"; super-stit (-stes), "standing by." The German has in this way supported throughout with a $t$ several roots terminating with a vowel, and hence given to this letter the character of radicalism, as above mentioned (p. 123 G. Ed.) in MAT, from मा $m A$, " to measure."

## FORMATION OF CASES.

112. The Indian Grammarians take up the declinable word in its primary form, i.e. in its state when destitute of all case-termination; and this bare form of the word is given also in dictionaries. In this we follow their example; and where we give Sanscrit and Zend nouns, they stand, unless it is otherwise specified, or the sign of case is separated from the base, in their primary form. The Indian Grammarians, however, did not arrive at their primary forms by the method of independent analysis, as it were by an anatomical dissection or chemical decomposition of the body of language; but were guided by the practical use of the language itself, which, at the beginning of compounds-and the art of composition is, in Sanscrit, just as necessary as that of conjugation or declensionrequires the pure primary form; naturally with reservation of the slight changes of the adjoining limits of sound, rendered necessary at times by the laws of euphony. As the primary form at the beginning of compounds can represent every relation of case, it is, as it were, the case general, or the most general of cases, which, in the unlimited use of compounds, occurs more frequently than any other. Nevertheless, the Sanskrit language does not everywhere remain true to the strict and logical principle usually
[G. Ed. p. 134.] followed in composition; and as if to vex the Grammarians, and put their logic to the test, it places as the first member of the compounds in the pronouns of the first and second person the ablative plural, and in those of the third person the nom. and acc. sing. of the neuter, instead of the true primary form. The Indian Grammarians, then, in
this point, have applied to the cases furnished to them by the language, and take the augmented अस्मत् asmat or खस्मट् asmad, "from us," युष्मत् yuşhmat or युप्मद् yuṣhmad, "from you," as the starting-point in the declension, or as the primary form, although in both pronominal forms only ब $a$ and यु $y u$ belong to the base, which, however, does not extend to the singular. That, however, in spite of this error, the Indian Grammarians understand how to decline the pronouns, and that they are not deficient in external rules for this purpose, is a matter of course. That the interrogative, in its declension, resembles bases in $a$, cannot escape any one who holds the neuter किम् kim for the original indeclinable form of the word. Pânini settles the matter here with a very laconic rule, when he says (edit. Calc, p. 969) faम: क: kimahk kah, i. e, $k a^{*}$ is substituted for kim. If this strange method were to be followed in Latin, and the neuter quid in like manner regarded as the theme, then, in order to get at the dative cu-i (after the analogy of fructui), one would have to say "quidis cus," or "quidi cus." In another place (p. 825), Pânini forms from idam, "this" (which in like manner has the honour of passing for a base) and kim, "what?" a copulative compound; and by इद⿸्द्किमोर् ईश्की idankimor iskki, the Grammarian teaches that the putative bases in [G. Ed. p. 135.] the formations under discussion substitute for themselves the forms $\hat{\imath}$ and $k t$.
113. The Sanskrit, and the languages akin to it, which in this respect have still kept upon the old footing, distinguish, besides the two natural genders, another-the neuter, which the Indian Grammarians call Klîva, i.e.eunuch; which appears to be a peculiarity of the San-

[^67]skrit, or most perfect family of languages. According to its original intention this gender had to represent inanimate nature, but it has not everywhere confined itself to these old limits: the language imparts life to what is inanimate, and, on the other hand, (according to the view then taken,) impairs the personality of what is by nature animate. The feminine in Sanskrit, both in the base and in the case-terminations, loves a luxurious fullness of form; and where it is distinguished from the other genders in the base or in the termination, it marks this distinction by broader, and more sonant vowels. The neuter, on the other hand, prefers the greatest conciseness, but distinguishes itself from the masculine, not in the base, but only, in the most conspicuous cases, in the nominative and its perfect counterpart the accusative; in the vocative also, when this is the same as the nominative.
114. Number, in Sanskrit and its sister languages, is distinguished, not by a particular affix denoting the number, but by the selection or modification of the case-syllable, so that, with the case-suffix, the number is at once known; e.g. bhyam, bhy 1 m , and bhyas are cognate syllables, and, among other relations, express that of the dative; the first in the singular (only in the pronoun of the 2 d person, तुष्य tubhyam, "to thee"), the second in the dual, the third in the plural. The dual, like the neuter, in course of time is the first to be lost with the weakening of the vitality [G. Ed. p. 136.]
of the view taken by the senses, or is more and more straitened in its use, and then replaced by the abstract plural expressive of infinite number. The Sanskrit possesses the dual most fully, both in the noun and in the verb, and employs it everywhere where its use could be expected. In the Zend, which otherwise approximates so closely to the Sanskrit, it is found very rarely in the verb, more frequently in the noun. The Pali has only as much left of it as the Latin, viz. a remnant of it in two words, which signify "two"
and "both"; in the Prakrit it is entirely wanting. Of the German languages, only the eldest dialect, the Gothic, possesses it, but merely in the verb; while, on the contrary, in the Hebrew (speaking here of the Semitic languages) it is retained only in the noun, in disadvantageous contrast with the Arabic, which, in many other respects also, is a more perfect language, and which maintains the dual in equal fulness in the verb also; while in the Syriac it has been almost entirely lost in the noun as well as in the verb.*
115. The case-terminations express the reciprocal relations of nouns, i.e. the relations of the persons spoken of, to one another, which principally and originally referred only to space, but from space were extended also to time and cause. According to their origin, they are, at least for the most part, pronouns, as will be more clearly developed hereafter. Whence could the exponents of the relations of space, which have grown up with the primary words into a whole, have better been taken, than from those words which express personality, with their inherent secondary idea of room, of that which is nearer or more distant, of that which is on this or that side? [G. Ed. p. 137.] As also in verbs the personal terminations, i.e. the pronominal suffixes-although, in the course of time, they are no longer recognised and felt to be that which, by their demonstrable origin, they imply and are-are replaced, or, if we may use the expression, commented on by the isolated pronouns prefixed to the verb; so, in the more sunken, insensible state of the language, the spiritually dead case-terminations are, in their signification of space, replaced, supported, or ex-

[^68]plained by prepositions, and in their personal signification by the article.
116. Before we describe the formation of cases in the order in which the Sanskrit Grammarians dispose them, it appears desirable to give the different final sounds of the nominal bases with which the case-suffixes unite themselves, as well as to point out the mode in which the cognate languages are in this respect related to one another. The three primary vowels $(a, i, u)$ occur in Sanskrit, both short and long, at the end of nominal bases; thus, ख $a$, ₹ $i$, उ $u$; जा $\hat{a}$, ई $\hat{i}$, ऊ $\hat{u}$. To the short $a$, always masculine or neuter, never feminine, $a$, corresponds in Zend and Lithuanian, and also in German, where, however, even in the Gothic (in Grimm's first strong declension), especially in substantives, it is only sparingly retained : in more modern dialects it is commonly supplanted by a more recent $u$ or e. In Greek, the corresponding termination is the of the second declension (e.g. in $\lambda$ óro-s): and $o$ was also the termination of the Latin noun in ancient times; but in the classic period, although sometimes retained, it was commonly changed to $u$ in the nom. and accus. sing. (of the second declension). An old $a$, however, is still left in cola, gena, cida, at the end of compounds, where, however, from the want of other analogies, it is used in declension similarly to the feminine
[G. Ed. p. 138.] originally long ; $a$, on which account the nominative is written, not colas, genas, cidas, but cola, \&ce. The Grecian masculines of the first declension in $\bar{a}-\mathrm{s}^{*}$ * with the $\eta$-s which has proceeded therefrom, must likewise, according to their origin, be compared with the Sanskrit masculine short $a$, to which, in regard of quality and preservation of the nominative sign, they have remained faithful, while the o of the second declension has preserved its old original brevity. Their identity with bases in 0 is excellently shewn by the genitive in ov, which does not at all

[^69]suit a theme in $\alpha$ or $\eta$; and further, from such compounds as $\mu \nu \rho \circ \pi \dot{\omega} \lambda \eta-s, \pi \alpha \iota \partial \partial \tau \rho i \beta \eta-s$, in which the vowel that has been added to the roots $\Pi \Omega \Lambda$ and TPIB supplies the place of the Sanskrit $a$ in similar compounds for which, in Greek, o usually stands.
117. To the short $i$, which occurs in the three genders, the same vowel corresponds in the cognate languages. In German it is to be looked for in Grimm's fourth strong declension, which I shall make the second; where, however, from the destructive alterations of time, it becomes nearly as hard as the $a$ of the first declension. In Latin, $i$ is interchanged with $e$; hence ${ }^{*}$ facile for facill, mare for mari, Sanskrit वारि väri, "water." In Greek, before vowels the $t$ is generally weakened to the unorganic $\epsilon$. The short $u$ also shews itself in Sanskrit in the three genders, as in Greek $v$, and $u$ in Gothic, where it distinguishes itself from the $a$ and $i$ in that it is retained as well before the $s$ of the nominative as in the uninflected accusative. In Latin the corresponding letter is the $u$ of the fourth declension.
118. The long vowels ( $a, i, a$ ) belong, in Sanskrit, principally to the feminine (see §. 113.), are never found in the neuter, and occur in the masculine very rarely. In Zend the long final $a$ has generally been shortened in polysyllabic words; as it has in Gothic, in which bases [G. Ed. p. 139.]
 and the $\sigma$ in the uninflected nom. and accus. sing. is shortened to $a$, with the exception of the monosyllabic forms $s \theta$, "she," "this," Sanskṛit सा sa, Zend há ; hvo, "which?" Sanskryit and Zend $k d$. The Latin, also, in the uninflected nom. and voc., has shortened the old feminine long $a$; but the Lithuanian has, in the nom., maintained the original length. In Greek, the Doric $\bar{\alpha}$ approaches most nearly to the Sanskrit feminine wा $a$, which the common dialect has sometimes preserved, sometimes shortened, sometimes transformed into $\eta$.
119. The long $i$ appears, in Sanskrit, most frequently as a characteristic addition in the formation of feminine bases, thus, the feminine base महती mahati (magna) springs from महत् mahat. The same holds good in Zend. Moreover, the feminine character $i$ has been preserved most strictly in Lithuanian, where, for example, in the part. pres. and fut. an $i$ is added to the old participial suffix ant, and esant-i, "the existing," bu -sent $-i$, "that that shall be," correspond to the Sanskrit सती sat-í (for asati or asanti), भविष्यन्ती bhav-i-şhyanti. In Greek and Latin this feminine long $i$ has become incapable of declension; and where it has still left traces, there a later unorganic affix has become the bearer of the case-terminations. This affix is, in Greek, either $\alpha$ or $\delta$; in Latin, $c$. Thus, $\dot{\eta} \delta e \hat{\alpha} \alpha$ corresponds to the Sanskrit साही swadwo-i, from खादु swadu, "sweet"; - $\tau \rho \iota \alpha,-\tau \rho \iota \delta, ~ e . g . ~ ठ \rho \chi \chi$ 门́ $\tau \rho \iota \alpha$,
 "genitress," to which the Latin genilrī-c-s, genitri-c-is, corresponds; while in the Greek $\boldsymbol{\gamma}^{\text {evéretipa, and similar forma- }}$ tions, the old feminine $i$ is forced back a syllable. This [G. Ed. p. 140.] analogy is followed by $\mu^{\prime} \hat{e}^{\lambda} \alpha \iota v \alpha$, тá $\lambda \alpha \iota v a$, тépetva, and substantive derivations, as тéктаıva, $\Lambda$ '́ккашәa. In $\theta_{e p \alpha ́ \pi} \pi \iota \nu \alpha, \lambda_{e ́ \alpha ı \nu \alpha,}$, the base of the primitive is, as in the
 assumed that the proper primitive in $v$ or $v \tau$ has been lost, or that these are formations of a different kind, and correspond to the rather isolated word in Sanskṛit इन्द्रारी $I n$ $d r a n t$, as the wife of Indra, as derived from इन्द्र Indra, is termed. The cases where the feminine $i$ is solely represented by $\alpha$ are essentially limited to feminine derivatives from forms in $v \tau$, where $\tau$ passes into $\sigma$ : the preceding $v$, however, is replaced by $v$ or $t$, or the mere lengthening of the preceding vowel, or it is assimilated to the $\sigma$ :
\[

$$
\begin{array}{lllll}
\text { hence, ov } \sigma-\alpha, & \text { ei } \sigma-\alpha, & \epsilon \sigma \sigma-\alpha, & \bar{\alpha} \sigma-\alpha * & \bar{v} \sigma-\alpha \\
\text { for } \quad \text { ov }-\alpha, & \epsilon v \tau-\alpha, & e v \tau-\alpha, & \alpha v \tau-\alpha, & v v \tau-\alpha .
\end{array}
$$
\]

[^70]To this analogy belong, moreover, the feminine substantives, like $\theta \dot{\alpha} \lambda \alpha \sigma \sigma \alpha, \beta \alpha \sigma i \lambda \lambda \iota \sigma \sigma \alpha, \mu e ́ \lambda \iota \sigma \sigma \alpha$, which J. Grimm (II, 328.) very correctly, in my opinion, compares with forms like $\chi \alpha \rho i-\varepsilon \sigma \sigma \alpha, \mu \epsilon \lambda \iota \tau o ́-\epsilon \sigma \sigma \alpha$, and explains the double $\sigma$ by gemination or assimilation. The feminine formations by a simple $\alpha$ instead of the original a are most corrupt, and, relatively, the most recent; and herein the Greek is not supported by any of the cognate languages. The Latin, its twin-sister, which otherwise runs parallel to it, leaves, in the part. pres. and other adjective bases terminating with a consonant, the feminine undistinguished from the masculine through all the cases, since it has no longer the power of declining the old $\bar{z}$.
120. The German, too, can no longer fully decline the old feminine $i$; and the Gothic, by a foreign affix, introduces it into the 6 declension, but in the singular of substantives shortens the syllable $y d$ in the [G. Ed. p. 141.] uninflected nominative and vocative to $i$, in the adjective to $y a$. More commonly, however, the old bases in $\hat{\imath}$ are introduced, by the frequently employed affix of an $n$, into the so-called weak declension; and as $i$ in Gothic is denoted by ei, so to the Sanskrit feminine participial bases in wन्नी anti, and to the fem. comparative bases in ईयसी रिyasí, correspond the forms ndein, izein, regarding the nominative of which refer to §. 142.
121. The long $u(\vec{u})$ appears, in Sanskrit, rather seldom at the end of primary forms, and is for the most part feminine. The words most in use are बधू vadhû, " a wife," भू bhû, "earth," च्यण्रू śwás rû, " mother-in-law" (socrus), मू bhrû, "eyebrow." To the latter corresponds ó $\phi \rho$ ús, likewise with the long $v$, the declension of which, however, is not different from that of the short $u$; while in Sanskrit the long $u$ is distinguished from the short feminine $u$ in the same way as $\hat{\}} \hat{i}$ from $₹ i$. But few monosyllabic primary forms end, in Sanskrit, with diphthongs, not any at all with ₹ $\hat{e}$; with ऐ $a i$ (from $\hat{a}+i$, see §. 2.) only रै rai, masc. "thing," "riches"; in
the nom. irregularly रास् $r \hat{a}-\mathrm{s}$ for रस् $r a ̂ i-s$. In this is recognised the Latin re-s. Still I do not believe that Latin bases in $\bar{e}$ should therefore be looked upon as corresponding to the Sanskrit ऐ $\notin i$; for, in the first place, the Latin $\bar{e}$ corresponds elsewhere to the Sanskrit ए $\hat{e}$ (from $\breve{a}+i$ ), never to $\Delta i$; secondly, the connection of the $\bar{e}$ of the fifth declension with the originally long $a$ of the first is not to be mistaken (to which it bears the same relation that the Ionic $\eta$ does to the Doric $\bar{\alpha}$ ), for many words with the same meaning belong to the A and E declension; and, for example, a suffix which is employed for the formation of abstracts from adjectives is sounded as well tiè as tia (planitie-s,
[G. Ed. p. 142.] planitia, canitie-s, canitia); and $\bar{e}-s$, and $i a$, in the formation of primitive and derivative words-like effigie-s, effigia, pauperie-s, pauperia-are clearly one and the same suffix, identical with the Sanskrit या $y$ a, which is used for the same purpose, and the Greek $i \alpha$, Ionic i $\eta$. Let us now consider the objections which are opposed to the original identity of the feminine $\bar{e}$ and $a$. The most weighty is the $s$ in the nom, sing. and pl.: $\bar{e}-s, \bar{e}-s$ for $\bar{e}, e i$, as musa, musce (musai), кєфа入 $\eta_{\text {, }}$ кєф $\propto \lambda \alpha i$. As regards the $s$ in the singular, it is, if the identity with the first declension be authentic, very remarkable; and forms like species, canities, seem to be true lingual patriarchs: for the Sanskrit, like the Zend, Greek, Gothic, Lithuanian, exhibits the absence of the nominative sign in the corresponding feminine bases in $a$. I have, however, never considered as original the abandonment of the nominative sign, and the complete equalization with the primary form in सुता suta, "daughter," and similar words, although it has appeared to me as losing itself very deeply in far-distant ages. The Latin, however, in some other points of Grammar, shews greater antiquity than the Sanskrit and Greek, as, for example (to confine the present instance to the nominative case), participial nominatives, like amans, legens, are better and
older forms than the Sanskrit and Greek, like तुदन् tudan, $\lambda^{\prime} \gamma \omega \nu$, $\tau_{\imath} \theta \in$ ís, because they have preserved the nominative $s$ together with the nasal, and therein stand on the same footing with Zend forms, like "noyses bavais, "being." I cannot, therefore, find, in the retention of the nominative sign in the fifth declension, any decisive argument against its original identity with the first. We will treat hereafter of the $s$ of the nominative plural. In the genitive singular the common form ei answers to deae (deai), the more rare, however, and better, in és to familias. Schneider searches, but fortunately without [G. Ed. p. 143.] success, for genitives like die-is: we require them as little, perhaps, as a familia-is, Let dies be written with Greek letters $\delta(\eta-s$, and then, perhaps, a die-is will be as little required as a $\delta \iota \kappa \eta$-os. Although a few bases of the third declension, by rejecting a consonant or an entire syllable, have passed into the fifth declension, we will not therefore infer that all bases in $e$ have arisen from such an abbreviation. If QUIET, after rejecting the $t$, could be declined according to the fifth declension, then must there necessarily have formerly been a fifth, i.e. there must have been bases in $\bar{e}$, otherwise from QUIET could only have come QUII (quies, quiis, like cades); i.e. in spite of the rejection of the $t$ it must have continued in the third declension. The connection between rê-s and the abovementioned Sanskyit रै rđi is, in my opinion, to be arrived at through the irregular nominative रास् $r \hat{a}-s$; and according to this re-s would be supported on an old $a$ : it answers to रास् $r \hat{a}-s$ as $r \bar{e}$-bus to राम्यस् ra-bhyas, and as in Greek $\gamma \hat{\eta}-\nu$ to the Sanskrit गाम् gam, "terram," which, in the remaining cases, has गो $g$ d for its base. In Lithuanian there are feminine primary forms in $e$ (Ruhig's third declension) which resemble the Greek $\eta$ in the suppression of the singular nominative sign, but in the nominative plural in e-s approach more closely the Latin in $\bar{e}$.
122. Primary forms in wो 6 are rare in Sanskrit: the only ones known to me are द्यो dy $\delta$, "heaven," and गो $g 6$ : the former is feminine, and properly proceeds from दिव् div (a radical word from दिव् div, "to shine ") by the vocalization of the व् $v$, after which the vowel $\ddagger i$ becomes its semi-vowel य् $y$. In the accusative the $\sigma$ bases change this diphthong into $a$. To the $\bar{a}$ thus obtained in द्याम् dyá-m, [G. Ed. p. 144.] गाम् $g a-m$, corresponds the Latin $e$ of die-m, the Greek $\eta$, Doric $\alpha$, of $\gamma \hat{\eta}-\nu, \gamma \hat{\alpha}-\nu$ : the Latin $e$, however, is rendered short by the influence of the final $m$ : the original language requires diē-m. In Sanskrit, also, from दिव् div, "to shine," are derived appellations of day; as on the other side, in Latin, those for the heaven-divum, sub divo, sub dio -viz. दिषा diva, as an adverb, "by day," and used as a primary form at the beginning of compounds; and also दिवस divasa, mase., and छु dyu, neuter (a contraction from div), which latter signifies both "day" and "heaven." To zु dyu answers, after rejecting the $d$ (as viginti for dviginti), the Latin $J u$ of Ju-piter, "heavens-lord or father": the oblique cases Jov-is, Jov-i, Jov-em answer better to the broader theme द्यो dyd, whence the dative द्येे dyav-e, and the locat. य्यवि dyav-i. The Djovis, moreover, furnished by Varro, deserves mention, as that which keeps most faithfully to the ancient form. The Grecian Zeús signifies, therefore, in accordance with its origin primarily, "heaven": I form its relation to घ्यो $d y \delta$ thus, that after dropping the द् $d$ the following semi-vowel य् $y$ became $\zeta(\$ .19$.$) . The oblique cases, on the contrary ( \Delta i o ́ s, \Delta i i, \& c c$.), belong to the Sanskrit eg dyu, and must originally have had a digamma, proceeding by the natural law of sound from $u$, after which change the semi-vowel $j$ must have become a vowel. $\Delta$ tós has the same relation to $\Delta i$ fós, that, in Latin, sub dio has to sub divo.
123. Let us now consider the second of the abovementioned primary forms in 6 , viz. गो $g 6$. It has several
meanings; but the most common are "bull," as masculine, and "cow" and "earth" as feminine. Both significations have in Zend, as in Greek, divided themselves into two forms. The Greek has preserved for the meaning "earth" the old guttural. With regard to the vowel, $\gamma \hat{\eta}, \gamma \hat{\alpha}$ follows the example of the Indian accusative, where, as has been already remarked, गाम् $g a m(\gamma \eta \nu)$ stands for $g \theta-m \quad$ [G. Ed. p. 145.] or gav-am. For the meaning "ox" the Greek has preserved the old diphthong-(for, for सो $\delta=a \times u$ may very well be expected, according to §.4., ou) - but has exchanged the guttural medials for labials, as, p. 122 G. Ed., $\beta i \not \beta \eta \mu$ for जगामि $j a g a m i$. The base BOY before vowels must originally have become BOF; thus, in the dative, $\beta$ FF- $i$ would answer to the Sanskrit locat. गवि gav-i, and the Latin dative bov-i; but in the present state of the language the middle digamma between two vowels has always been dropped; and there is not, as with the initial digamma, the medium of metre for replacing it in the oldest writings. Only theory and comparative grammar can decide here. The Latin has, in the word $b \bar{o}-s$, changed the vowels $(a+u)$-(which were originally of different kinds, but have been united into a diphthong)-into a homogeneous mass (cf. §. 4.), the nature of whose contraction, however, discloses itself before vowel inflexions, since the $u$-half of $B \bar{O}$ becomes $v$, and the short $a$ is resolved into the form of a short $o$; thus, bov-i answers to the Sanskrit locat. गवि gav-i. The Zend for the meaning "earth" has changed the guttural of the word under discussion into $z$, and gives in the nominative gus $z a a_{o}$ for not able to adduce other cases. For the meaning "ox" the guttural has remained in Zend, and the nominative is then iuswe gâu-s or ruwe gâo-s.
124. I know only two words in Sanskrit which terminate in खी $\hat{\text { बै नौ } n a u \text {, "ship," and ग्लौ } g l a u \text {, " moon": the former }}$ has navigated very far on the ocean of our wide province of
language, without, however, in Sanskrit, having arrived at a secure etymological haver. I believe नौ $n a ̂ u$ to be an abbreviation of snau (ef. $\dot{\rho} \epsilon ́ \omega, \dot{\rho} \in \dot{v} \omega$, ruo, with सु sru, p. 125 G. ed.), [G. Ed. p. 146.] and that it therefore proceeds from the root Eा snd, "to bathe," which originally, perhaps, may also have meant " to swim," and with which vá $\omega$, vé $\omega$, na-to, appear to be connected. नी nău would consequently be a radical word; and in regard to the vowel would stand for $n \AA$, according to the analogy of ददौ dadâu (dedi, dedit) for dada, from dadd-a. As $a$, according to §. 6., is a grave vowel, the Greek cannot represent the Sanskṛit Vṛiddhi-diphthong *ौ đu better than by $\alpha v$, while wो 6 (from short $a+u$ ) is commonly represented by ev or ov. Hence नौस् nâu-s and vav̂-s correspond as exactly as possible; the $v$ of NAY, however, like that of BOY, has maintained itself only before consonants; and the digamma, which replaces it, is lost before vowel inflexions; $\nu \hat{\eta}-\epsilon s, v \bar{\alpha}-\epsilon \varsigma$, are from $\nu \bar{\alpha} F-\epsilon s$ (Sansk. नावस् $n a v$-as), as $\beta o ́$ oes from $\beta \dot{\sigma} F-e s$. The Latin has given this word a foreign addition, and uses navi-s, navi-bus, for nau-s, nau-bus.* As the semi-vowel $v$ is easily hardened to a guttural (§. 19.), we have here also, for nau, nav-am, a sister form in our Nachen, Old High German nacchos "ship," gen. dat. nacchin.
125. We pass over to the consonants: of these, $n, t, s$, and $r$ appear in Sanskrit most frequently at the end of primary forms; all other consonants occur only in radical words, which are rare, and in some nominal bases of uncertain origin. We consider next the more rare or radical consonants. Of gutturals ( $k, k h, g, g h$ ) we find none at

[^71]the end of the nominal bases most in use; in Greek and Latin, on the contrary, they are of frequent occurrence; $c$ is in Latin both radical and derivative, [G. Ed. p. 147.] $g$ only radical-DUC, VORAC, EDAC, LEG. In Greek, $\kappa, \chi$, and $\gamma$ are only radical, or occur in words of unknown origin, as ФРІК, КОРАК, 'ONYX (Sanskrit nakha), ФАОГ. Of the palatals, ch and $j$ in Sanskrit occur most frequently in बाच् vach, " speech, voice" (VOC, 'On); राज् rđj, " king," the latter only at the end of compounds ; असृज् assij., "blood" (sanguis) : in Zend we have $u_{2}$ Ig $d r u j$, f., as name of an evil demon, probably from the Sanskrit root दूह druh, " to hate." Of the two classes of the $T$-sound, the first, or lingual ( $\mathcal{Z} t, \& e$. ), is not used at the end of nominal bases; and therefore the second, dental, or proper $T$-class, is so much the more frequently employed. Still द् $d$, v् $d h$, occur only in radical words, and therefore seldom; च th perhaps only in पथ् path, as the secondary theme of पधिन् pathin, "way"; nom. पन्थास् panthas, from पन्थस् panthas, which I think I again recognise in the Latin PONT, pons. Other examples are, wद् ad, " eating," at the end of compounds, and युप् $y u d h$, f., "strife." The letter त् $t$ is so much the more common, that several of the most frequently employed suffixes end with it, as that of the part. pres, in जत् at or सन्त् ant, Greek and Latin nt. The Greek, besides $\tau$, exhibits also $\delta$ and $\theta$ at the end of primary forms which are not radical; still KOPYO and 'OPNI® appear to me to be properly compounds, and to contain the roots $\Theta \mathrm{H}, \Theta \mathrm{E}$ (the vowel being dropped) as their last member; and according to this, KOPY $\Theta$ would properly mean "what is placed on the head"; so in Sanskrit, शरद् śarad, "autumn," "rainy season," which Grammarians explain by a suffix ad, in my opinion means nothing but "water giving," and contains the root दा $d a$, "to give," with a suppressed. 'OPNIQ finds in Greek itself no etymology : the Sanskrit offers for its explanation सरखि arani (according to the pronunciation of Bengal, oroni), "wood"; and if $\dot{b} \rho v t$ is con- [G. Ed. p. 148.]

nected therewith, we may refer to $\theta$ é $\omega$, " to run," in respect to the $\theta$ : "bird" therefore would derive its name from its going in the wood; while in Sanskrit, from its passage through the air, it is called, among other names, विहग viha-ga. Regarding the later origin of the $\delta$ in feminine bases in $\begin{aligned} & \\ & \text {, an account is given in §. 119.; that is to say, }\end{aligned}$ patronymics in io may be compared with Sanskrit ones in $i$, e.g. भैमी bhaimí, "the daughter of Bhîma. Probably, too, the $\delta$ in feminine patronymics in $\alpha \delta$ is a later addition; they spring, like those in $\delta$, not from their masculines, but directly from the primary word of the masculine, and, in my opinion, stand in sisterly, not in filial connection with them. In Latin, $d$ appears as a more modern affix in the base PECUD, which the Sanskrit, Zend, and Gothic terminate with $u$ (Sans.-Zend, pas̉u, Goth. faihu). In Gothic, primary forms with a final $T$-sound are chiefly limited to the part. pres., where the old $t$ appears changed into $d$, which remains without extraneous addition: there only, however, where the form stands substantively; otherwise, with the exception of the nominative, it is conducted by the affix an into a more current province of declension. The more modern German dialects under no circumstances leave the old $T$-sound without a foreign addition commixed with the base. In Lithuanian the participial suffix ant, in regard of the nom. sing. anis for ants, rests exactly upon the Latin and Zend step, which extends beyond the Sanskryit; but in most of the remaining cases the Lithuanian cannot decline any more consonants, i.e. cannot unite them with pure case terminations, but transports them always, by a more modern affix, into a vowel-declension; and, indeed, to the participial suffix ant is added the
[G. Ed. p. 149.] syllable $i a$, by the influence of which the $t$ experiences the euphonic transformation into ch $\left(=1 s c^{*}\right)$. The nasal of this dental $T$-class, viz. the

[^72]proper $n$, belongs to those consonants which occur most frequently at the end of nominal bases. In the German all the words of Grimm's weak declension like the Sanskṛit, and the masculine and feminine in Latin, reject in the nominative the $n$ of the base, and thereby have a vowel termination. The Lithuanian presents the same appearance in the nominative, but in most of the oblique cases adds to a base in in sometimes ia, sometimes a simple $i$.
126. Primary forms with a final labial, including the nasal ( $m$ ) of this organ, appear in Sanskrit only in naked roots, as the last member of compounds, and here, too, but seldom. In isolated use, however, we have स्षप् $a p$ (probably from the root wाप् ${ }^{a p}$, "to take in," "to comprehend"), "water," which is used only in the plural; in Zend, however, in the singular also.* In Greek and Latin, also, bases in $p, b, \phi$, are either evidently radical, or of unknown origin, with probably radical letters at the end; or in Latin they have suppressed, in the nominative, a vowel belonging to the base; and so, as in [G. Ed. p. 150.] German, the first and fourth strong declensions, according to Grimm, have only the appearance of a base terminating with a consonant. Of this kind is plebs, from plebis; to explain which it is not requisite to turn, with Voss, to the Greek $\pi \lambda \hat{\eta} \theta_{\text {os }}$ : one must keep to the Latin root PLE. The derivative bis, bēs, I explain like bus, bundus, bilis, bam,

[^73]bo (amabam, -bo), as from the root FU, " to be," which, like $F E R$, often changes the $B$ in its middle into $F$ (§.18.). Without appealing to the cognate languages, it is difficult, in Latin, to distinguish those bases which truly and originally terminate in a consonant from those which only appear to do so; for the declension in $i$ has clearly operated on the consonantal declension, and introduced an $i$ into different places in which it is impossible it could have stood originally. In the dative and ablative plural, the $i$ of forms like amantibus, vocibus, admits of being explained as a conjunctive vowel, for facilitating the affix; it is, however, in my opinion, more correct to say that the bases VOC, AMANT, \&c., because they could not unite with bus, have, in the present state of the Latin language, been lengthened to VOCI, AMANTI; so that we ought to divide voci-bus, amanti-bus, just as at §. 125. it was said of the Lithuanian, that in most cases it extends its participial bases in ant to anchia (euphonic for antia). This view of forms like amanti--bus is proved to be the more probable, in that in the genitive plural also before $u m$, as before the $a$ of neuters, an $i$ frequently finds its place, without its being possible to say that in amanti-um, amanti- $u$, the $i$ would be necessary to facilitate the annexation of the ending. On the other hand, juveni-s, cani-s, forming the genitives canu-m, juven-$-u m$, remind us of older bases in $n$; as in Sanskrit घ्वन् śwan, "a dog" (abbreviated शुन् śun), and युबन् yuvan, " young" (abbreviated यून्न yûn), in Greek $\kappa \dot{v} \omega \nu$, abbreviated [G. Ed. p. 151.] KYN, really close their theme with $n$. The German resembles the Latin in this point, that for the convenience of declension it has added an $i$ to several numerals, whose theme originally terminated with a consonant; thus, in Gothic, from FIDVŌRI (Sanskyit चतुर chatur, in the strong cases §. 129. चत्वार् chatwdr) comes the dative fidvôri-m. The themes सम्त् saptan, "seven," नबन् navan, "nine," दशन् dasan, " ten," by the addition of an $i$,
in Old High German mould themselves to SIBUNT, NIUNI, ZEHANI; which forms, at the same time, pass as masculine nominatives, as these cases, in Old High German, have lost the case-suffix $s$. The corresponding Gothic nominatives, if they occurred, would be sibunei-s, niunei-s, taihunei-s. More on this point hereafter.
127. Of the semi-vowels ( $y, r, l, v$ ), I have never found in Sanskṛit य् $y$ and लं $l$ at the end of bases, and व् $v$ only in the word दिय् div, before mentioned, which contracts itself in several cases to दो dyb and चु dyu. On the other hand, ₹ occurs very frequently, especially in words which are formed by the suffix तर् tar,* to which, in the cognate languages, likewise correspond bases in $r$. Moreover, $r$ in Latin appears frequently as an alteration of an original $s$, as, in the comparative suffix ior (Sansk!̣it ईंयस् íyas); and, further, as an abbreviation of ri-s, $r e$, as $l$ for $l i-s, l e$; or, in the second declension, as abbreviated from ru-s; as in Gothic, vair, "man," for vair(a)s, belongs to bases in $a$ (§. 116.). In Greek 'A $A$ appears as a consonantal base ; but in contrast with the [G. Ed. p. 152.] Sanskrit सहिल salila, " water," ${ }^{\circ} \lambda$-s appears abbreviated exactly in the same manner as $\mu \in ́ \gamma \alpha-\mathrm{s}$ from $\mu \in \gamma \alpha \lambda$ os.
128. Of the Sanskrit sibilants, the two first (श् ś, प् ṣ ), as also the $\mathcal{Z} h$, are found only in radical words, and therefore seldom; स् $s$, on the contrary, concludes some very common suffixes used in the formation of words, as सस् as, which forms principally neuters, e.g. तेचस् tejas, "splendour," "strength," from fिज् $t i j$, "to sharpen." The Greek appears to be without bases in $\mathbf{\Sigma}$; this, however, proceeds from the following reason, that this sibilant between two

[^74]vowels, especially in the last syllable, is usually rejected; hence, neuters like $\mu$ évos, $\gamma$ févos (from MENEL, renes, with change of the $\varepsilon$ into o), form in the genitive $\mu$ éveos, féveos, for $\mu$ évéos, خéveaos. The $s$ of the nominative, however, belongs, as I have already elsewhere remarked, to the base, and not to the case designation, as neuters have no $s$ in the nominative. In the dative plural, however, in the old epic language, the $\mathbf{\Sigma}$, as it did not stand between two vowels, maintained itself; hence $\tau \in \dot{\chi} \chi \in \sigma-\sigma t$, ö $\rho \in \sigma-\sigma t$; so likewise in compounds, like $\sigma \alpha \kappa$ és- $-\pi \alpha \lambda$ गos, $\tau \in \lambda e s-$ фópos, in which it would be wrong to assume the annexation of a $\Sigma$ to the vowel of the base. In $\gamma \hat{\rho} \rho \alpha{ }_{s}$, $\gamma \eta$ jp $\alpha$-os, for Mípa $\sigma$-os, after restoring the $\Sigma$ of the base, the form of word answers exactly to the Sanskrit जरस् jaras, "age," although the Indian form is not neuter, but feminine. In Lithuanian, another remarkable remnant of the Sanskrit suffixes terminating with $s$ has been preserved, viz. in the partic. perf., in the oblique cases of which us corresponds to the Sanskṛit उप् uṣh (euphonic for उम् us) of the weakest cases (§. 130.); still, in Lithuanian, on account of the abovenoticed incapacity for the declension of the consonants, the old $u s$ is conducted, as in other similar cases, by the subsequent addition of $i a, a$ or $i$, partly into the $a$, partly into the
[G. Ed. p. 153.] $i$ declension; and only the nominative and the vocative, which is the same with it, belong, in the singular, to the consonantal declension.
129. The Sanskrit and Zend have eight cases, viz, besides those which exist in Latin, an instrumental and a locative. These two cases exist also in Lithuanian; Ruhig calls the former the instrumental ablative, the latter the local ablative ; in Lithuanian, however, the proper abla-tive-which in Sanskrit expresses the relation "whence?"is wanting. With reference to the primary form, which in Sanskrit does not remain the same in all words, or
suffixes used in the formation of words through all the cases, a division of the cases into strong and weak is desirable for this language. The strong cases are the nominative, accusative, and vocative of the three numbers, with exception of the accusative plural, which, together with all the other cases, is weak. Where a double or triple formation of the primary form exists, there, with surprising regularity, the cases which have been designated as strong always exhibit the fullest form of the theme, which, from a comparison of languages, is proved to be the original one; while the other cases exhibit a weakened form of it, which appears also in the beginning of compounds, and hence is represented by the native Grammarians, according to §. 122 ., as the proper primary form. The pres. part. may serve as an example: it forms the strong cases with the suffix ant, but in the weak cases and in the beginning of compounds rejects $n$, which is retained by the cognate European languages, as also, for the most part, by Zend; so that सत् at is given as the suffix of this participle in preference to ख््न्त् ant. The root तुद् tud, "to vex," e.g. exhibits in the participle mentioned the form तुदन्त् $u$ --dant as the strong and original theme (cf. tundent-em). and तुदत् tudat as the weak theme; hence the masculine is declined,

> [G. Ed. p. 154.]
strong cases. weak cases.
Singular: Nom. Voc. तुदन् tudan Acc. तुदन्नम् tudantam Instr. $\quad . . .$. तुदता tudata. Dat. तुदते tudate.
Abl. ..... तुदतस् tudatas.
Gen. ..... तुदतस tudatas.
Loc.
तुदति tudati.
Dual : Nom. Ace. Voc. तुदन्ती tudantâu
Instr. Dat. Abl.
तुद्माम् tudadbhyâm. Gen. Loc.
strong cases．
weak cases．
Plural ：Nom．Voc．．．तुदमास् tuduntas

| Acc． | ．．．．．． | तुदतस् tudatas． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Instr． | －• • • • | तुद⿸⿻口丿乚丶⿴囗十 |
| Dat．Abl． | －．．．．． | तुदल्ञस् tudadbhyas． |
| Gen． | －••••• | तुदताम् tudatam． |
| Loc． | －••••• |  |

130．Where three formations of the primary form per－ vade the declension of a word or a suffix，the weakest form of the theme there occurs in those weak cases whose termina－ tions begin with a vowel，the middle form before those case－ suffixes which commence with a consonant．This rule makes a division of the cases into strong，weaker or middle，and weakest，desirable．（See Gramm．Crit．r．185．）

131．In suffixes used in the formation of words，which in Sanskrit separate into different forms，the Zend usually carries the strong form through all the cases；for instance，the part． pres．retains the nasal in most of the cases，which in Sanskrit
［G．Ed．p．155．］proceed from the weakened theme．Words， however，are not wanting which follow the theory of the Sanskrit gradations of form．Thus，the Sanskrit base घन् śwan，＂hound，＂which in the weakest cases is con－ tracted to शुन् śun，appears in Zend likewise in a double form，and presents the weak genitive sûn－$\hat{\delta}$ over against the strong nominative and accusative ṡpı̂，ṡpân－ĕm，San－ skrit घा s＇sá，घानम् śvanam（§．50．）．The base ap，＂water，＂ which，in Sanskrit，in the strong cases has a long a，but is not used in the singular，forms in the Zend the strong
 other hand，ap－d，＂of the water，＂ap－at，＂from the water，＂\＆c．＊

[^75]In the plural, where the Zend very frequently makes the nominative and accusative the same, confusion has, for this reason, crept in ; and the weak $\psi_{1 / j w}$ sûnd, "canes," is found for $\downarrow$ jueds spano in the nominative; and, on the
 as in the accusative.*
132. The Greek, in the declension of $\kappa \dot{u} \omega v$, has limited the strong form to the nom, and voc. sing.: in [G. Ed. p. 156.] some cognate words in $\rho$, however, in accordance with the Sanskrit, it has given the accusative also the strong form, in which the Gothic agrees with it. Compare $\pi \alpha \tau \eta \dot{\eta}, \pi \alpha \tau \in ́ p \alpha$, $\pi \alpha ́ \tau e \rho, \pi \alpha \tau \rho i$, with पिता pita, पितरम् pitaram, पितर् pitar, पिचि pilri (locat.); and the Gothic brothar, as nom., accus., and vocat., opposed to brothrs, " of the brother," brothr, "to the brother," with the Sanskrit भाता bhrata, भातरम् bhrataram, भातर् bhratar, dative भान्चे blrâtre, locat. भात्रि bhrâtri. According to the same principle in bases in $a n$, in Gothic, the $a$ in the genitive and dative sing. is weakened to $i(\S .140$.$) ; while$ the nominative, accus., and vocat. retain the original a; e.g. ahma, ahmin-s, ahmin, ahman, ahma, from AHMAN, "spirit" (\$. 140.).
133. As regards the mode of combining the final vowels of the primary forms with case-suffixes beginning with a vowel, we must first draw attention to a phenomenon, which is almost limited to the Sanskrit, and the dialects which

[^76]approximate most nearly to it, as Pâli and Prâkṛit, through which, to avoid a hiatus, and to maintain pure the vowels of the base and of the termination, a euphonic $n$ is introduced. This euphonic expedient cannot, in the extent in which it exists in Sanskrit, belong to the original state of the language; otherwise it would not be almost entirely lost in the cognate European dialects, and even in the Zend. We therefore regard it as a peculiarity of the dialect, which, after the period of the division of languages, became the prevailing one in India, and has raised itself to be the universal written language in that country. It is necessary here to remark, that the Vêda language did not use the euphonic $n$ so universally as the common Sanskrit; and together with एना êna, इना ind, ठना und, occur also wया ayd, इया iyd, क्या uyd. The euphonic $n$ is most frequently employed by the neuter [G. Ed. p. 157.] gender, less so by the masculine, and most rarely by the feminine : the latter limits its use to the plural genitive termination बाल् $a m$, in which place it is introduced by the Zend also, although not as indispensably requisite. And it is remarkable, that precisely in this place in Old High German, and other Old German dialects, an $n$ has been retained before the case-suffix; thus in Old High German, ah $\dot{-}-n-\hat{\delta}$, " aquarum," from the feminine theme $A H \bar{O}$ (nom. aha). Besides the use of the euphonic $n$, there is further to be remarked, in Sanskrit and Zend, the attachment of Guna to the vowels of the base ( $\$$. 26 .) in certain cases, to which also the Gothic presents analogies.

## SINGULAR.

> nominative.
134. Bases, of the masculine and feminine genders, ending with a vowel have, in the Sanskrit family of languages, (under the limitation of §. 137.) $s$ as nominative-suffix, which in Zend, after an a preceding it, always melts into $u$, and is then contracted with the $a$ to $\hat{\theta}$ (§. 2.), while this in Sanskrit
takes place only before sonant letters (§. 25.) Examples are given at §.148. I find the origin of this case-designation in the pronominal base स sa, "he," "this," fem. सा sa; and a convincing proof of this assertion is the fact, that the said pronoun does not extend beyond the limits of the nom. mase. and fem., but is replaced in the nom. neuter, and in the oblique cases of the masculine, by ता $t g$, and feminine ता $t a$ regarding which more hereafter.
135. The Gothic suppresses $a$ and $i$ be- [G. Ed. p. 158.] fore the case-suffix $s$, except in monosyllabic bases, where this suppression is impossible. Hva-s, "who?" $i$-s, "he," are used, but vulf-s, "wolf," gast-s, "stranger," for vulfa-s, gasti-s (ef hosti-s, according to §.87.). In masculine substantive bases in $j a(y a)$, however, the final vowel is retained, only weakened to $i$ (§. 66.); e.g. haryi-s, "army." If, however, as is generally the case, the final syllable is preceded by a long syllable, or by more than one, the $j i(y i)$ is contracted to $e i(=i, \S .70$.$) ; e.g. ondei-s, "end," raginei-s, "counsel,"$ for andyi-s, raginyi-s. This contraction extends also to the genitive, which is in like manner denoted by s. To the Gothic nominatives in yi-s correspond the Lithuanian, like Atpirktoyi-s, "Saviour," the $i$ of which has likewise arisen from an elder a. $\dagger$ I deduce this from the majority of the oblique cases, which agree with those of the $a$ bases. Where, however, in Lithuanian, a consonant precedes the final syllable $y a$, which is the more common case, there the $y$ is changed into the vowel $i$, and the following $i$, which had arisen from $a$, is suppressed: hence, yaunikki-s, "young man," for yaunikkyi-s from yaunikkya-s. Hereto correspond in Gothic all adjective bases in ya, $\ddagger$

[^77]as midi-s "the middle" (man), for midyi-s from midya-s, Sanskṛit मभ्षस् madhya-s, The Zend also, in the vocalization* of the syllable $y a$, presents a remarkable analogy to the Lithuanian and Gothic in contracting the syllable vyoua before a final $\in m$ regularly to $\imath i$, as also $w \zeta_{v a}$ to,$\vec{u}$ (§. 42.).
136. The High German has, up to our time, preserved the old nominative sign in the changed form of $r$; nevertheless, as early as in the Old High German, in pronouns and adjectives only, with a vowel termination of the base.
[G. Ed. p. 159.] The High German is, however, in this point, superior to the Gothic in fulness, that in its a basesto which belong all strong adjectives-it has not suppressed the vowel before the case-sign, but preserved it in the form of $e$, which, in Old High German-as it appears through the influence of the $r$-is long, but only in polysyllabic, not in monosyllabic forms. Thus, e.g. plint-etr, "cocus," completes the Gothic blind-s for blinda-s; as to the Gothic $i-s$, "he," corresponds i-r; Middle and New High German $e-r$. The Old Northern has likewise $r$ as the nominative sign, and, in fact, everywhere where, in Gothic, s stands. In the other dialects the nominative character is entirely lost.
137. Feminine Sanskryit bases in का $a$, and, with very few exceptions, polysyllables in $\ddagger \hat{i}$, together with खी stri, "wife," like the corresponding forms of the cognate languages, have lost the old nominative sign (with the exception of the Latin $\ell$ bases, see §. 121.), and give the pure base: the cognate languages do the same, the base having been weakened by the abbreviation of the final vowel. In Gothic, $\theta$ becomes a (§. 69.); only so, "this," and hwó "which?" remain unshortened, on account of their being monosyllabic, as in Zend wev $h a$ and $k a$; while in polysyllabic forms the

[^78]du $\hat{a}$ is shortened. In Zend, $\{\vec{i}$ also is shortened, even in the monosyllabic ? ? pos strí, " wife," see V. S. par. 136, (by Olshausen), p. 28, where we read upsjpos stri-cha, "feminaque"; whilst elsewhere the appended ups cha preserves the original length of the vowel. Here, too, the Zend nominatives in $\tau 0 \ell d$ deserve to be mentioned, which seem very
 in the Vendidâd occurs very often in relation to ques zâo, "earth," without my being able to remember that I have found another case from $r o j \varepsilon\} \varepsilon^{d}$ perered. But from the
 kanyd), which is of frequent occurrence, I find the accus. ${ }_{G x y J j 00}$ ganyanim (V. S. p. 420); this furnishes the proof that the $r e d$ in the nominative is generated by the euphonic influence of the suppressed ss $y$ (§. 42.). In ross 2 p,ums brâturye, "cousin," and ross 3 gop tûirye, "a relation in the fourth degree" (V. S. p. 380), the ss $y$ has remained; on the other hand, in rogussj nyake, "grandmother," the dropping of a ss $y$ must be again assumed. We cannot here refrain from conjecturing that the $\bar{e}$ also of the Latin fifth declension, as with very few exceptions it is everywhere preceded by an $i$, is likewise produced from $\bar{a}$ by the influence of this $i$; so that the Latin here stands in reversed relation to the Greek, where t rejects the combination with $\eta$, and preserves the original $\alpha$ ( oopí $\alpha$ ).
138. Bases of the masculine and feminine genders which terminate with a consonant, lose, in Sanskrit, according to §.94., the nominative sign $s$; and if two consonants terminate the base, then, according to the same law, the latter of these also is lost. Hence, विभत् bibhrat, for विभत्म् bibhrat-s, "the bearer"; तुदन् tudan, for तुदन्म्स् tudant-s "the vexer"; वाक् valk (from बाच् $v a ̂ c h, f$.), for वाष्य् $v a ̂ k-s ̧ h, ~ " s p e e c h . " ~$ The Zend, Greek, and Latin, in preserving the nominative sign after consonants, stand in an older position than the Sanskrit; Zend uddu af-s (for $\lambda p-s, \$ .40$. ), "water"
 "a demon." The Latin and Greek, where the final consonant of the base will not combine with the $s$ of the nominative, prefer abandoning a portion of the base, as $\chi$ dapts for $\chi{ }^{\dot{\alpha}} \rho \ell \tau-$ s, comes for comit-s (cf. § 6.). The Latin, Æólic, and Lithuanian agree remarkably with the Zend in this point,
[G. Ed. p. 181.] that $n t$, in combination with $s$, gives the form ns; thus amans, tetévs, Lith. sukanis (§. 10.), corre-
 (man).
139. A final $n$ after a short vowel is, in Sanskrit, no favourite combination of sound, although one not prohibited. It is expelled from the theme in the first member of a compound, e.g. राजपुष raja-putra, "king's son," for रानमुख rajan-putra; and it is rejected in the nominative also, and a preceding short vowel is lengthened in masculines; e.g. राशा raja, "king," from राजन् rajan, m. ; नाल nama, " name," from नामन् naman, n. ; צनी dhani, m., vfि dhani, n., from धनिन् dhanin, "rich." The Zend in this agrees exactly with the Sanskrit; but from the dislike to a long $a$ at the end, which has been before mentioned, omits the length-
 from juGqunp chashman, n. The Latin follows the Sanskrit in the suppression of the $n$ in the nominative, in the masculine, and feminine, but not in the neuter: sermo, sermon-is, actio, action-is; but nomen, not nome or nomo. The root can at the end of compounds, refrains from rejecting the $n$, probably in order not to weaken still more this weak radical syllable; thus tubi-cen, fidi-cen, os-cen (see §. 6.). Lien is an abbreviation of lieni-s; hence the retention of the $n$ is not surprising. Pecten stands rather isolated. In Sanskrit the naked roots also follow the principle of the rejection of $n$; हन् "slaying," "smiting," nom. हा ld, is, however, the only root in $n$ which I have
met with so used. च्चन् śwan " hound," nom. षात्र śua, which, in the weakest cases, contracts its theme to शुन् sun, is of obscure origin. The Latin has extended the base Шन् śwan, in the nominative, by an unorganic addition, to cani; so युवन् yuvan, "young," has become juveni (cf. §. 126.). As regards the opposition [G. Ed. p. 162.] between $o$ and $i$, by which, in several words-as homo, homin--is, arundo, arundin-is-the nominative is distinguished from the oblique cases, this o appears to me a stronger vowel,* which compensates for the loss of the $n$, and therefore is substituted for the weaker $i$; according to the same principle by which, in Sanskrit, the nom. धनी dhani, $\dagger$ comes from धनिन् dhanin; and, in Lithuanian, bases in en and un give, in the nominative, $\stackrel{\circ}{ }\left(=u_{0}\right)$ for $e$ or $u$. Thus, from the bases $A K M E N$, "stone," SZUN, " hound," come the nominatives $a k m \stackrel{\circ}{u}, s z u ̊$; as in Sanskrit, from the primary forms of the same signification, ऊडमन् aśman, चन् śwan, have arisen ws्रा aśmd and ष्वा s'od. It does not follow that homin-is has come from homon-is, $\ddagger$ because the old language had hemo, hemonis, for homo, hominis; but mon and min are cognate suffixes, signifying the same, and were originally one, and therefore may be simultaneously affixed to one and the same word.
140. The German language also rejects a final $n$ of the base in the nominative and in the neuter, in the accu-

[^79]sative also, like Sanskrit. In Gothic, in the masculine and neuter-where alone, in my opinion, the $n$ has an old and original position-an $a$ always precedes the $n$. There are, that is to say, only bases in an, none in in and $u n$; the latter termination is foreign to the Sanskrit also.
[G. Ed. p. 163.] The $a$, however, is weakened to $i$ in the genitive and dative (see §. 132.); while in Sanskrit, in these cases, as especially in the weakest cases (\$. 130.), it is entirely dropped.* Among masculine bases in an, in Gothic, exist several words, in which an is the whole derivative-suffix, and which therefore correspond to the Sansk. राजन् râj-an, "king," as "ruler." Thus $A H-A N$, "spirit," as "thinker" (ah-ya, "I think "), STAU-AN, "Judge" (stau-ya, "I judge"), whence the nominatives aha, staua. There are also, as in Sanskrit, some masculine formations in $\operatorname{man}$; as, $A H M A N$, "spirit," nom. ahma, with which perhaps the Sansk. सात्मन् atman, "soul," nom. सात्मा atma, is connected; in case this stands for ah-man, and comes from a lost root wiह् $a h$, "to think," $\dagger$ where it is to be remembered that also the root नह nah, " to bind," has, in several places, changed its $h$ into $t$. The Gothic MILH-MAN, nom. milh-ma, "cloud," appears to have sprung from the Sanskrit root mih, by the addition of an $l$, whence, remarkably enough, by the suffix $a$, and by exchanging the ह $h$ for च $g h$, arises the nominal base मेष mégha, "cloud." In Latin ming-o answers to fिह् mih, and in Greek $\delta-\mu \tau$ - $\epsilon \omega$; the meaning is in the three languages the same.
141. Neuter bases in $a n$, after rejecting the $n$, lengthen, in Gothic, the preceding $a$ to $\delta$, in the nominative, accusa-

[^80]tive, and vocative, which sound the same; [G. Ed. p. 164.] so that in these cases the Gothic neuter follows the theory of the strong cases (§.129.), which the Sanskrit neuter obeys only in the nom., accus., and vocat. plural, where, for example, चत्बारि chatwâr-i, "four," with a strong theme, is opposed to the weak cases like चतुर्भिस् chaturbhis (instr.), चतुभ्येस् chaturbhyas. The $a$, also, of neuter bases in $a n$ is lengthened in the nominative, accusative, and vocative plural in Sanskrit, and in Gothic ; and hence नामानि naman $i$, Gothic namon-a, run parallel to one another. However, in Gothic namn-a also exists, according to the theory of the Sanskrit weakest cases (§.130.), whence proceeds the plural genitive नास्माम् ndmn- $a_{m}$, "nominum"; while the Gothic namôn- $\ell$ has permitted itself to be led astray by the example of the strong cases, and would be better written namn-e or namin-ê.
142. In the feminine declension in German I can find no original bases in $n$, as also in Sanskṛit there exist no feminines in an or in; but feminine bases are first formed by the addition of the usual feminine character $\frac{\hat{z}}{\boldsymbol{i}}$; as, राज्ञी rajnî, "queen," from राजन् rajan; धनिनी dhaninî, " the rich" (fem.), from थनिन् dhanin, m. n. "rich." Gothic feminine substantive bases in $n$ exhibit, before this consonant, either an $6(=$ sा, §.69.) or ei: these are genuine feminine final vowels, to which the addition of an $n$ can have been only subsequently made. And already, at §. 120., a close connection of bases in ein $(=\hat{i} n)$ with the Sanskryit in $\ddagger \hat{\imath}$, and Lithuanian in $i$, has been pointed out. Most substantive bases in ein are feminine derivatives from masculineneuter adjective bases in $a$, under the same relation, excluding the modern $n$, as in Sanskrit that of सुन्दरी sundari,, "the fair" (woman), from सुन्दर sundara m. n. "beautiful." Gothic substantive bases in ein for the most part raise the adjective, whence they are derived, to an abstract;

[^81][G. Ed. p. 165:] e.g. MANAGEIN, "crowd, nom. managei, from the adjective base MANAGA (nominative masc. manag-s, neut. managa-ta); MIKILEIN, nom. mikilei, " greatness," from MIKILA (mikil-s, mikila-ta), "great." As to feminine bases in $\delta 0$, they have arisen from feminine bases in 0 ; and I have already observed that feminine adjective bases in on-as BLIND $\bar{O} N$, nom. blindo, gen. blindobn-s-must be derived, not from their masculine bases in an, but from the primitive feminine bases in $\delta$ (nom. $a$, Grimm's strong adjectives). Substantive bases with the genitive feminine in on presuppose older ones in $\boldsymbol{b}$; and correspond, where comparison is made with old languages connected in their bases, to Sanskrit feminines in $\alpha$, Greek in $\alpha, \eta$, Latin in $a$; and in these old languages never lead to bases with a final $n$. Thus, TUGGO$N$ (pronounced tungon), nom. tuggd, answers to the Latin lingua, and to the Sanskrit fिद्ध jihwoa, ( $=d s c h i h w a$, see §. 17.); and $D A U R \bar{O} N$, nom. daurd, to the Greek $\theta \dot{v} \rho \alpha ; V I D \bar{O} V \bar{O} N$, nom. vidốv, " widow," to the Sanskrit विधषा vidhava, "the without man" (from the prep. fि $v i$ and vष dhava, "man"), and the Latin vidua. It is true that, in MITATHYŌN, " measure," nom. mitathyd, the suffix thyon completely answers to the Latin tion, e.g. in ACTION; but here in Latin, too, the on is a later addition, as is evinced from the connection of $t i-o n$ with the Sanskrit suffix fr $t i$, of the same import, and Greek $\sigma t-5$ (old $\tau / 5$ ), Gothic ti, thi, di (see §̧. 91.). And in Gothic, together with the base MITATHY $\bar{O} N$ exists one signifying the same, MITATHI, nom. mitaths. In RATHỴŌN, nom. rathyd, "account," a relationship with RATION, at least in respect of the suffix, is only a seeming one; for in Gothic the word is
[G. Ed. p. 166.] to be divided thus, rath-yon : the th belongs; in the Gothic soil, to the root, whence the strong part. rath$a n(a)-s$ has been preserved. The suffix yon, of RATHYYON therefore corresponds to the Sanskrit $y \dot{d}$; e.g. in fिध्षा vid-yá. "knowledge." Of the same origin is GA-RIN-Ȳ̄N, nom. garunyd, " inundation."
143. If a few members of a great family of languages . have suffered a loss in one and the same place, this may be accident, and may be explained on the general ground, that all sounds, in all languages, especially when final, are subject to abrasion; but the concurrence of so many languages in a loss in one and the same place points to relationship, or to the high antiquity of such a loss ; and in the case before us, refers the rejection of an $n$ of the base in the nominative to a period before the migration of languages, and to the position of the original site of the human races, which were afterwards separated. It is surprising, therefore, that the Greek, in this respect, shews no agreement with its sisters ; and in its $\nu$ bases, according to the measure of the preceding vowel, abandons either merely the nominative sign, or the $v$ alone, never both together. It is a question whether this is a remnant of the oldest period of language, or whether the $v$ bases, carried away by the stream of analogies in the other consonantal declensions, and by the example of their own oblique cases, which do not permit the remembrance of the $\nu$ to be lost, again returned, at a comparatively later period, into the common and oldest path, after they had experienced a similar loss to the Sanskrit, Zend, \&e., by which we should be conducted to nominative forms like $\epsilon \dot{\delta} \partial \alpha i \mu \omega$, evi $\delta \alpha \mu \mu 0, \tau \in ́ \rho \eta$, $\tau$ тépe, тá̀ $\bar{\alpha}, \tau \alpha \dot{\alpha} \lambda a ̆ ?$ I do not venture to decide with positiveness on this point, but the latter view appears to be the more probable. It here deserves to be [G. Ed. p. 167.] remarked, that, in German, the $n$, which in Gothic, in the nominative, is always suppressed, has in more modern dialects made its way in many words from the oblique eases again into the nominative. So early as the Old High German this was the case; and, in fact, in feminine bases in in (Gothic ein, §. 70.), which, in the nominative, oppose to the Gothic ei the full base in: as guotlihhin, "glory" (see Grimm, p. 628). In our New High

German the phenomenon is worthy of notice, that many original $n$ bases of the masculine gender, through a confusion in the use of language, are, in the singular, treated as if they originally terminated in $n a$; i.e. as if they belonged to Grimm's first strong declension. Hence the $n$ makes its appearance in the nominative, and the genitive regains the sign $s$, which, indeed, in Gothic, is not wanting in the $n$ bases, but in High German was withdrawn from them more than a thousand years since. Thus, Brunnen, Brunnens, is used instead of the Old High German prunno, prunnin, and the Gothic brunna, brunnin-s. In some words, together with the restored $n$ there occurs in the nominative, also, the ancient form with $n$ suppressed, as Backe or Backen, Same or Samen; but the genitive has in these words also introduced the $s$ of the strong declension. Among neuters the word Herz deserves consideration. The base is, in Old High German, HERZAN, in Middle High German HERZEN; the nominatives are, herza, herze; the New German suppresses, together with the $n$ of Herzen, the vowel also, as is done by many masculine $n$ bases; as, e.g. Bär for Bäre. As this is not a transition into the strong declension, but rather a greater weakening of the weak nominative, the form Herzens, therefore, in the genitive, for an uninflected Herzen, is sur-
[G. Ed. p. 168.] prising. With this assumed or newly-restored inflection $s$ would be to be compared, in Greek, the nominative $\varsigma$, as of $\delta \in \lambda \phi i-s, \mu e ́ \lambda \alpha-\varsigma$; and with the $n$ of Brunnen for Brunne, the $\nu$ of $\delta \alpha i \mu \omega \nu$, $\tau \dot{\rho} p \eta \nu$; in case, as is rendered probable by the cognate languages, these old forms have been obtained from still older, as $\delta \in \lambda \phi^{i}, \mu e ́ \lambda \alpha, \delta \alpha i \mu \omega$, $\tau \in ́ \rho \eta$. by an unorganic retrogade step into the stronger declension.*

[^82]144. Bases in सर् $a r$ (चृ $r i$, §. 1.) in Sanskṛit reject the $r$ in the nominative, and, like those in न् $n$, lengthen the preceding vowel ; e.g. from पितर् pitar, "father," भात्र bhratar, " brother," मातर् mâtar, "mother," दुहितर् duhitar, " daughter," come पिता pita, भाता bhratta, माता mata, दुहिता duhita. The lengthening of the $a$ serves, I believe, as a compensation for the rejected $r$. As to the retention, however, through all the strong cases, excepting the vocative, of the long $a$ of the agent, which corresponds to Greek formations in $\tau \eta \rho, \tau \omega \rho$, and to Latin in $t o \bar{r}$, this takes place because, in all probability, in these words तार् târ, and not तर् tar, is the original form of the suffix; and this is also supported by the length of the suffix being retained in Greek and Latin through all the cases- $\tau \eta \rho, \tau \omega \rho$, tōr; only [G. Ed. p. 169.] that in Latin a final $r$, in polysyllabic words, shortens an originally long vowel. Compare

| sanskrit. |  | grerk. | atin. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. sing. | दाता data, | ঠoтйp, | dator, |
| Acc. sing. | दातारम् dâtarr-am, | סотท̂p- $\alpha$, | datōr-em, |
| N. A. V.dua | दातारी dâtâr-au, | ঠัтทิp-e, |  |
| Nom. Voc. | Tतारस datar-as, | ठотท̂p-es, | datorr | The Zend follows the analogy of the Sanskrit, both in the rejection of the $r$ in the nominative, and in the length

[^83]of the preceding $a$ of the noun agent, in the same places as in the Sanrkrit, with the exception of the nominative singular, where the long $a$, as always when final, is shortened; e.g.
 nian there are some interesting remains, but only of feminine bases in er, which drop this letter in the nominative, but in most of the oblique cases extend the old er base by the later addition of an $i$. Thus mote, "wife," dukte "daughter," answer to the abovementioned माता mata, eुfen duhita; and, in the plural, moter-ès, dukter-ès, to आातरस् matar-as, दुहितरस् duhitar-as. In the genitive singular I regard the form moter-s, dukter-s, as the elder and more genuine, and moteries, dukteries, as corruptions belonging to the $i$ bases. In the genitive plural the base has kept clear of this unorganic $i$; hence, moter- $\hat{\imath}$, dukter- $\mathbb{Q}$, not moteri- $\mathfrak{\imath}$, dukteri- $\hat{u}$. Besides the words just mentioned, the base SESSER, "sister," belongs to this place: it answers to the Sanskỵit सस्त swasar, nom. ससा swasa; but distinguishes itself in the nominative from mote and dukte, in that the e, after the analogy of bases in en, passes into $\mathfrak{u}$, thus sessů.
[G. Ed. p. 170.] 145. The German languages agree in their $r$ bases (to which but a few words belong denoting affinity) with the Greek and Latin in this point, that, contrary to the analogy just described, they retain the $r$ in the nominative.
 nom. देषा déva), frater, soror; so in Gothic, brothar, svistar, dauhtar ; in Old High German, vatar, pruodar, suëstar, tohtar. It is a question whether this $r$ in the nominative is a remnant of the original language, or, after being anciently suppressed, whether it has not again made its way in the actual condition of the language from the oblique cases into the nominative. I think the latter more probable; for the Sanskrit, Zend, and Lithuanian are three witnesses
for the antiquity of the suppression of the $r$; and the Greek words like $\pi \alpha \tau \dot{\eta} \rho, \mu \dot{\eta} \tau \eta \rho, \sigma \omega \tau \eta \eta_{\rho}, \dot{\rho} \eta \eta^{\prime} \omega \rho$, exhibit something peculiar and surprising in the consonantal declension, in that $\rho$ and $s$ not combining, they have not rather preferred giving up the base-consonant than the case-sign (as $\pi \alpha i 今, \pi o u ̂ s, \& c$.). It would appear that the form $\pi \eta s$ is of later origin, for this reason, that the $\rho$ having given place to the nominative $s$, the form $\tau \eta-s$, whence $\tau \eta \rho-o s$ should come, was, by an error of language, made to correspond to the $\eta$-s of the first declension. The want of a cognate form in Latin, as in Zend and Sanskrit, as also the, in other respects, cognate form and similarity of meaning
 for the spuriousness and comparative youth of the nouns of agency in $\tau \eta \zeta$.
146. Masculine and feminine primary forms in चस् as in Sanskrit lengthen the $a$ in the nominative singular. They are, for the most part, compounded, and contain, as the last member, a neuter substantive in चस् as, as दुर्मनस् durmanas, "evil-minded," from दुस् dus [G. Ed. p. 171.] (before sonant letters-§. 25.-दुर dur) and मनस् manas, " mind," whence the nom. masc. and fem. दुर्भेनास् durmands, neut. दुर्मनसस् durmanas. A remarkable agreement is here shewn by the Greek, in $\delta v \sigma \mu e v i ́ s, ~ \delta, ~ \dot{\eta}$ opposed to $\tau$ ò $\delta v \sigma \mu e v e ́ s . ~$ The स् $s$ of दुर्मनास् durmands, however. belongs, though unrecognised, to the base; and the nominative character is wanting, according to §. 94. In Greek, on the other hand, the $s$ of $\delta v \sigma \mu \epsilon v \eta^{\prime} s$ has the appearance of an inflexion, because the genitive, \&c., is not $\delta \nu \sigma \mu \in \nu \varepsilon ́ \sigma$-os, like the Sanskrit दुर्मेनसस् durmanas-as, but סuø $\mu \epsilon \nu$ éos. If, however, what was said at $\S .128$ is admitted, that the $\varsigma$ of $\mu$ évos belongs to the base, and $\mu e ́ v e o s$ is abbreviated from $\mu \in ́ v \varepsilon \sigma-o s$, then in the compound $\delta v \sigma \mu e v \eta^{\prime} s$ also, and all similar adjectives, a $\Sigma$ belonging to the base must be recognised, and the form סvouevécos must lie at the bottom of the genitive $\delta v \sigma \mu \in \nu$ éos. In the
nominative, therefore, either the $s$ belongs to the base, and then the agreement with दुमेनास् durmands would be complete; or the $s$ of the base has been dropped before the casesign s . The latter is, in my opinion, least probable; for the former is supported by the Latin also, where the forms which answer to the Sanskrit as bases are in the nom. masc. and fem. in like manner without the case-sign. Thus the Sanskrit comparative suffix is ईंयस् íyas-the last $a$ but one of which is lengthened in the strong cases, and invested with a dull nasal (Anuswâra, §. 9.)-in Latin, iōr, with the $s$ changed into $r$, which so frequently happens; and the nominative in both genders is without the case-sign: the originally long 0 , however, is shortened by the influence of the final $r$. In the neuter $u$ s corresponds to the Sanskrit wस् as, because $u$ is favourable to a final $s$, and prevents its transition into $r$; hence gravius has the same relation to the Sanskrit गरीयस् garíyas (irregular from गुह guru, "heavy,") as lupus to [G. Ed. p. 172.] यृकस् vrikas, only that the $s$ of the nominative character in the latter belongs in the former to the base. The final syllable urr, though short, must nevertheless be held, in Latin, as graver than $\breve{s}$ s, and hence gravior forms a similar antithesis to gravius that in Greek $\delta v \sigma \mu e v \eta^{\prime}$ does to סेv $\mu$ evés, and in Sanskrit दुदेनास् durmands to दुमेनस् durmanas.
147. In Lithuanian a nominative, which stands quite isolated, mènù ( $=$ mènuo), " moon" and "month," deserves here to be mentioned: it proceeds from the primary form MENES*, and, in regard to the suppression of the final consonant and the transformation of the preceding vowel, has the same relation to it that, as above (§. 139.), akmu has

[^84]to $A K M E N$, sessi to $\operatorname{SESSER}$ : in the oblique cases, also, the $s$ of the base again re-appears, but receives, as in the er and en bases, an unorganic increase: thus the genitive is menesio, whence MENESIA is the theme; as wilko, "lupi," from WILKA, nom. wilka-s.
148. In neuters, throughout the whole Sanskrit family of languages the nominative is identical with the accusative, which subject is treated of at $\S .152$. \&c. We here give a general view of the nominative formation, and select for the several terminations and gender of the primary forms, both for these cases and for all others which suit our purpose, the following examples: Sanskrit qृळ vrika, m. "wolf;" ब $k a$, " who ?" दान dana, n. "gift;" $\pi t a, ~ n . ~ " t h i s ; " ~ ज ि स ा ~ j i h w a, ~$ f. "tongue;" बा $k d$, "which ?" पीत pati, m. "lord," "husband;" प्रीfत priti,f. "love;" वारिvari, n. "water;" भविष्पन्टी bhaviģhyanti, "who is about to be;" सूनु sunu, m. " son;" [G. Ed. p. 173.] तनु tanu, f. " body;" मषु madhu, n. "honey," " wine;" बy vadhû, f. " wife;" गो gd, m. f. "bullock," " cow ;" नौ nau, f. "ship." Of the consonantal declension we select only such final consonants as occur most frequently, whether in single words or in entire classes of words: बाँ्य vach, f. " speech"*; भरम् bharant, in the weakened form, भरत् bharat (§. 129.) m . n. "bearing," "receiving," from भर् bhar (भृ bhri) cl. 1.; षालन् atman, m. "soul;" नामन् naman, n. "name ;" भातर् bhratar, m. "brother ;" दुfित् duhitar, f. "daughter;" दातर् datar, m. " giver;" बषस् vachas, n. " speech," Greek, 'ECEZ,
 m. "wolf;" g ka, m. "who ?" وavita, n. datum; vp ta, n. "this;"

[^85]
 " who will be ;" >دیدת pasiu, m. "tame animal;" যנטp tanu, f. "body ;" >ヘ्Nీ madhu, n. "wine;" Чe gd, m. f. "bullock," [G. Ed. p. 174.] "cow"*;
 barat, m. n. " bearing;" $\operatorname{sisiman,~m.~"heaven;"~}$ nâman (also

[^86]
## NOMINATIVE SINGULAR.

m. " brother;" Ine geg dughdhar, f. " daughter ;" Juppug
 "word." It is not requisite to give here examples in Greek and Latin: from Lithuanian and Gothic we select the bases, Lith. WILKA, Goth. VULFA, m. "wolf;" Lith. KA, Goth. HVA, m. "who ?" Lith. GERA, n. "good;" TA, n. "the;" Goth. DAURA, n. "gate," (Sanskṛit, द्वार dwâra, n.); THA, n. "this:" Lith. RANKA, f. "hand;" Goth, GIB $\bar{O}$, f. "gift" (§. 69.); HV $\overline{0}, \mathrm{f}$. " which ?"; Lith. PATI, m. "Lord "*; Goth. GASTI, m. "stranger;" I, m. "he," n. [G. Ed. p. 175.] "it;" Lith. AWI, f. "sheep," (Sansk. wfि avi, m. cf. ovis, öis); Goth. ANSTI, f."mercy;" Lith. Goth. SUNU, m. "son;" Goth. HANDU, f. "hand;" Lith. DARKU, n, "ugly;" Goth. FAIHU, n. "beast;" Lith. SUKANT, m.t " turning; Goth. FIYYAND, m. "foe;" Lith. AKMEN, m. "stone;" Goth. AHMAN, m. "spirit;" NAMAN, n. "name;" BRŌTHAR, m. "brother;" DAUHTAR, Lith. DUKTER, f. "daughter."


- In the comp, wiess-pati.s, "landlord"; isolated pat-s, "husband," with $i$ in the nominative suppressed, as is the case in Gothic in all bases in $i$. Compare the Zend spsud $\nu_{\imath}$, , vist-paiti, " lord of the region."
+ These and other bases ending with a consonant are given only in those cases which have remained free from a subsequent vowel addition.
$\ddagger$ Before the enclitic particle cha, as well here as in all other forms, the termination as, which otherwise becomes $\hat{6}\left(\zeta .56^{\circ}\right.$.), retains the same form which, in Sanskrit also, सस् as assumes before च् cha: hence is said
 And the appended cha preserves the otherwise shortened final vowel in its original length: hence wasu>erse jihvacha, "linguaque,"
 "fraterque" Even without the xjo at times the original length of the final vowel is found undiminished : the principle of abbreviation, however, remains adequately proved, and I therefore observe it everywhere in the terminations.

FORMATION OF CASES.

149. The character of the accusative is $m$ in Sanskrit, Zend, and Latin; in Greek $v$, for the sake of euphony. In Lithuanian the old $m$ has become still more weakened to

[^87]the dull re-echoing nasal, which in Sanskrit is called Anu-
[G. Ed. p. 177.] swâra, and which we, in both languages, express by $i \boldsymbol{i}$ (§. 10.). The German languages have, so early as the Gothic even, lost the accusative mark in substantives entirely, but in pronouns of the 3d person, as also in adjective bases ending with a vowel which follow their declension, they have hitherto retained it; still only in the masculine: the feminine nowhere exhibits an accusative character, and is, like its nominative, devoid of inflexion. The Gothic gives $n a$ instead of the old $m$; the High German, with more correctness, a simple $n$ : hence, Gothic blind-na, " ccecum," Old High German plinta-n, Middle and Modern High German blinde-n.
150. Primary forms terminating with a consonant prefix to the case-sign $m$ a short vowel, as otherwise the combination would be, in most cases, impossible: thus, in Sanskrit am, in Zend and Latin erm, appears as the accusative termination*: of the Greek $\alpha \nu$, which must originally have existed, the $\nu$ is, in the present condition of the language, lost: examples are given in §. 157 .
151. Monosyllabic words in $\hat{\imath}, \mathfrak{a}$, and $a u$ in Sanskrit, like consonantal bases, give $a m$ in place of the mere $m$, as the accusative termination, probably in order in this way to become polysyllabic. Thus, भी bhî, "fear," and नौ ndu, " ship," form, not blî-m and nâu-m, as the Greek $\nu \hat{a} v-\nu$ would

[^88][G. Ed. p. 178.] lead us to expect, but भियम् bliy-am, नाबम् $n a v$-am. With this agree the Greek themes in $\epsilon v$, since these give $e-\alpha$, from $\epsilon F-\alpha$, for $e v-\nu$; e.g. $\beta \alpha \sigma i \lambda \lambda^{\prime}(F) \alpha$, for $\beta \alpha \sigma i \lambda e v-v$. It is, however, wrong to regard the Latin em as the true, originally sole accusative termination, and for lupu-m, hora-m, fruc-tum, diem, to seek out an older form lupo-em, hora-em, fructu-em, die-em. That the simple nasal suffices to characterize the accusative, and that a precursory vowel was only added out of other necessary reasons, is proved by the history of our entire family of languages, and would be adequately established, without Sanskrit and Zend, by the Greek, Lithuanian, and Gothic. The Latin em in the accusative third declension is of a double kind: in one case the $e$ belongs to the base, and stands, as in innumerable cases, for $i$; so that $e-m$, of igne-m (Sanskrit wग्निम् agni-m), corresponds to the Indian $i-m$, Zend $i-m$, Greek $t-v$, Lithuanian $i-n$, Gothic $i$-na (from ina, "him"); but in the $e m$ of consonantal bases the $e$ answers to the Indian $a$, to which it corresponds in many other cases also.
152. The Sanskrit and Zend neuter bases in $a$, and those akin to them in Greek and Latin, as well as the two natural genders, give a nasal as the sign of the accusative, and introduce into the nominative also this character, which is less personal, less animated, and is hence appropriated to the accusative as well as to the nominative in the neuter : hence, Sansk. शयनम् śayana-m, Zend $\in$ gjussess sayanĕ- $m$, "a bed"; so in Latin and Greek, donu-m, $\delta \hat{\omega} \rho o-\nu$. All other bases, with but few exceptions, in Latin, remain in the nominative and accusative without any case character, and give the naked base, which in Latin, however, replaces a final $i$ by the cognate $e$; thus, mare for mari corre-
[G. Ed. p. 179.] sponds to the Sanskrit वारि vari, " water"; the Greek, like the Sanskrit and Zend, leaves the $\iota$ unchanged -io $\rho t-5$, î̀ $\rho t$, as in Sanskrit पुचिस् suchis, पुचि śuchi. The following are examples of neuter $u$ bases, which supply the
place both of nominative and accusative: in Sanskrit मyु madhu, " honey," "wine," सण्रु aśru, "tear," खादु swadu, "sweet"; in Zend sw
 length of this $u$ is unorganic, and has probably passed into the nominative, accusative, and vocative from the oblique cases, where the length is to be explained from the suppressed case terminations. With regard to the fact that final $u$ is always long in Latin, there is perhaps a reason always at hand for this length: in the ablative, for example, the length of the originally short $u$ is explicable as a compensation for the case sign which has been dropped, by which, too, the $\check{\circ}$ of the second declension becomes long. The original shortness of the $u$ of the fourth declension is perceivable from the dat. pl. $\breve{u}$-bus. The $\mathbf{\Sigma}$, in Greek words like févos, $\mu$ évos, eủzevés, has been already explained at §. 128. as belonging to the base: the same is the case with the Latin $e$ in neuters like genus, corpus, gravius : it is the other form of the $r$ of the oblique cases, like gener-is, corpor-is, gravior-is (see §̧. 127.); and corpus appears akin to the Sanskryit neuter of the same meaning, बपुस् vapus, gen. वपुपस् vapu-şh-as (see §. 19.), and would consequently have an $r$ too much, or the Sanskrit has lost one.* The $\mathbf{\Sigma}$ also of neuter bases in $\mathbf{T}$, in tetuфós, tépas, does not seem to me to be the case sign, but an exchange with $\mathbf{T}$, which is not admissible at the end, but is either rejected ( $\mu e ́ \lambda \lambda, \pi \rho \hat{\alpha} \gamma \mu \alpha$ ) or exchanged [G. Ed. p. 180.]


[^89]In Latin it is to be regarded as inconsistent with the spirit of the language, that most adjective bases ending with a consonant retain the nominative sign $s$ of the two natural genders in the neuter, and in this gender extend it also to the accusative, as if it belonged to the base, as capac-s felic-s, $\operatorname{soler}(t) s, \operatorname{aman}(t)$ s. In general, in Latin, in consonantal bases, the perception of the distinction of gender is very much blunted, as, contrary to the principle followed by the Sanskrit, Zend, Greek, and Gothic, the feminine is no longer distinguished from the masculine.
153. In Gothic substantives, as well neuter as masculine, the case sign $m$ is wanting, and hence neuter bases in $a$ stand on the same footing with the $i, u$, and consonantal bases of the cognate languages in that, in the nominative and accusative, they are devoid of all inflexion. Compare, with regard to the form of this case, $\operatorname{daur}(a)$ with $\overline{व ा र म ् ~}$ dwadram, which has the same meaning. In Gothic there are no neuter substantives in $i$; on the other hand, the
[G. Ed. p. 181.] substantive bases in $y a$, by suppression of the $a$ in the nominative and accusative singular (cf. §. 135.), gain in these cases the semblance of $i$ bases; e.g. from the base REIKYYA, "rich" (Sanskrit राज्य räjya, likewise neuter), comes, in the case mentioned, reiki, answering to the Sanskrit राज्यम् rajya-m. The want of neuter $i$ bases
subject in his valuable work on "On the Cases," p. 152, \&cc.; where also the $\rho$ of $\eta_{\eta \pi a \rho}$ and $\tilde{v}^{8} \omega \rho$ is explained as coming from T , through the intervention of $\Sigma$. The Sanskrit, however, appears to attribute a different origin to the $\rho$ of these forms. To यकृत yakrit "liver" (likewise nenter), corresponds both jecur and $\eta \pi a \rho$, through the common interchange between $k$ and $p$ : both owe to it their $\rho$, as $\eta \pi a r-o s$ does its $\tau$. "H $\pi a \tau-o s$ should be $\eta \pi a \rho \tau-o s$, Sanskrit यकृतस् yakrit-as. But the Sanskrit also in this word, in the weak cases, can give up the $r$, but then irregularly substitutes न् $n$ for त् $t$, e.g. gen. यक्नस् yalcn-as for यकनस् yakanas. With regard to the $\rho$ of $\bar{\delta} \delta \omega \rho$, compare उद्र udra, "water," in समुद्र sam-udra, "sea."
in German is the less surprising, that in the cognate Sanskrit, Zend, and Greek, the corresponding termination in the neuter is not very common. Of neuter $u$ roots the substantive declension has preserved only the single FAIHU, "beast." In Lithuanian the neuter in substantives is entirely lost, and has left traces only in pronouns and adjectives, where the latter relate to pronouns. Adjective bases in $u$, in this case, have their nominative and accusative singular in accordance with the cognate languages, without case sign; e.y. darkù, "ugly," corresponds as nominative and accusative neuter to the masculine nominative darkì-s, accusative darku- $\dot{n}$. This analogy, however, is followed in Lithuanian, by the adjective bases in $a$ also; and thus géra, "good," corresponds as nominative and accusative to the masculine forms géra-s, géra-n,** which are provided with the sign of the case.
[G. Ed. p. 182.] 154. It is a question whether the $m$, as the sign of the nominative and accusative neuter (it is excluded from the vocative in Sanskrit and Zend), was originally limited simply to the $a$ bases, and was not joined to the

[^90]$i$ and $u$ bases also; so that, in Sanskrit, for vairi we had originally vâri-m, for madhu, madhu-m? I should not wish to deny the original existence of such forms; for why should the $a$ bases alone have felt the necessity of not leaving the nominative and accusative neuter without a sign of relation or of personality? It is more probable that the $a$ bases adhered only the more firmly to the termination once assumed, because they are by far the most numerous, and could thus present a stronger opposition to the destructive influence of time by means of the greater force of their analogies; in the same way as the verb substantive, in like manner, on account of its frequent use, has allowed the old inflexion to pass less into oblivion, and in German has continued to our time several of the progeny of the oldest period; as, for instance, the nasal, as characteristic of the lst person in bi-n, Old High German pi-m Sans. अवाषि bhavâ-mi. In Sanskrit, one example of an $m$ as the nominative and accusative sign of an $i$ base is not wanting, although it stands quite isolated; and indeed this form occurs in the pronominal declension, which everywhere remains longest true to the traditions of bygone ages. I mean the interrogative form विम् $k i-m$, "what"? from the base fष $k i$, which may perhaps, in Sanskrit, have produced a ki-t, which is contained in the Latin qui-rl, and which I recognise again, also, in the enclitic बित् chit, weakened from fित् $k i-t$. Otherwise $i$ or $u$-bases of pronouns in the nominative accusative neuter do not occur; for बमु $a m u$, "that" (man), substitutes ॠदस् adas; and ₹ $i$, " this," combines with
[G. Ed. p. 183.] दम् dam (इदम् idam," this"). Concerning the original procedure of consonantal bases in the nominative and accusative neuters no explanation is afforded by the pronominal declension, as all primary forms of pronouns terminate in vowels, and, indeed, for the most part, in $a$.
155. Pronominal bases in $a$ in Sanskrit give $t$, in Zend $t$, as the inflexion of the nominative and accusative neuter. The

Gothic gives, as in the accusative masculine, $n a$ for $m$ or $n$, so here $t a$ for simple $t$; and transfers these, like other peculiarities of the pronominal declension, as in the other German dialects, also to the adjective $a$ bases; e.g. blinda-ta, "cocum," midya-ta, " medium." The High German gives, in the older period, $z$ instead of the Gothic $t$ (§. 87.), in the most modern period, s. The pronominal base $I$ (later $E$ ) follows in German, as in Latin, the analogy of the old a bases, and the Latin gives, as in the old ablative, $d$ instead of $t$. The Greek must abandon all $\boldsymbol{T}$ sounds at the end of words : the difference of the pronominal from the common $o$ declension consists, therefore, in this respect, merely in the absence of all inflexion. From this difference, however, and the testimony of the cognate languages, it is perceived that $\tau$ ó was originally sounded $\tau 0 \tau$ or $\tau 0 \delta$, for a $\tau o \nu$ would have remained unaltered, as in the masculine accusative. Perhaps we have a remnant of a neuter-inflexion $\tau$ in ö $\tau \tau$, so that we ought to divide ${ }^{\circ} \tau-\tau t$; and therefore the double $\tau$, in this form, would no more have a mere metrical foundation, than the double $\sigma$ (§. 128.) in öp $\epsilon \sigma-\sigma \iota$. (Buttmann, p. 85.)
156. We find the origin of the neuter case-sign $t$ in the pronominal base त $t a$, "he," " this," (Greek To, Goth, THA, \&c.); and a convincing proof of the correctness of this explanation is this, that तत् ta-t "it" "this," stands, in regard to the base, in the same contrast with स $s a$, "he," सा $s a$, "she," as $t$, as the neuter case-sign, does to [G. Ed. p. 184.] the nominative $s$ of masculine and feminine nouns (§. 134.). The $m$ of the accusative also is, I doubt not, of pronominal origin ; and it is remarkable that the compound pronouns $i-m a$, "this," and $a-m u$, "that," occur just as little as $t a$ in the nominative masculine and feminine; but the Sanskrit substitutes for the base $a m u$, in the nominative masculine and feminine singular the form as $\hat{d} u$, the $s$ of which, therefore, stands in the same relation to the $m$ of अमुम् amu-m, "illum," समुप्य amu-shya, "illius," and other oblique cases, as, among
the case-terminations, the sign of the masculine feminine nominative to the $m$ of the accusative and neuter nominative. Moreover, in Zend is used pafs imat, " this," (n.) (nom. accus.), but not imb, "this" (m.), but Grov aelm (from बयम् ayam), and qı $_{\text {I îm (from }}$ इयम् iyam), " this" (f.). Observe in Greek the pronominal base MI, which occurs only in the accusative, and, in regard to its vowel, has the same relation to $\boldsymbol{q} m a$ (in the compounded base इम $i-m a$ ) that fिम् $k i-m$ " what?" has to बस् ka.s " who "? The Gothic neut. termination $t a$ anwers, in respect to the transposition of sound (§. 87.), to the Latin $d$ (id, istud): this Latin d, however, seems to me a descent from the older $t$; as, e.g., the $b$ of $a b$ has proceeded from the $p$ of the cognate wa apa, $\dot{a} \pi o ́$; and in Zend the $d$ of $6 \varepsilon q w^{*} d$-děm, "him," is clearly only a weakening of the $t$ of $\pi t a$, up $t a . \dagger$
[G. Ed. p. 185.] 157. To the Sanskrit ta-t, mentioned above, Zend ta-t, Greek $\boldsymbol{\text { ód }}$, \&c., corresponds a Lithuanian tai, "the," as the nominative and accusative singular. I do not believe, however, that the $i$ which is here incorporated in the base $T A$

[^91]is any way connected with the neuter $t, d$, of the cognate languages: I should rather turn to a relationship with the $i$ demonstrative in the Greek (oútooí, éketvooi), and to the FI $i t$, which is, in like manner, used enclitically in the Vêdas-a petrified neuter, which is no longer conscious of any gender or case; and hence, in several cases, combining with masculine pronouns of the third person.* This $\bar{\xi}$. $i t$, is consequently the sister form of the Latin id and Gothic $i-t a$, which, in the Greek ékeivooí, has, perhaps only from necessity, dropped the $\tau$ or $\delta$, and which already, ere I was acquainted with the Vêda-dialect, I represented as a consistent part of the conjunctions 文त् chett (from cha+it), "if," and नेत् nêt ( $n a+i t$ ).
[G. Ed. p. 186.]
The words mentioned at $\S .148$. form in the accusative: SANSERIT. ZEND. GREER. LATIN. LITHUAN. GOTHIC.
m. vrika-m, věhrkè-m, $\lambda$ úкo-v, lupu-m, wilka-n, vulf'.
m. $k a-m$; $\quad k e ̆-m, \quad . . . \quad . . . \quad k a-n, \quad h w a-n a$.
n. dạna-m, dâtē-m, $\delta \hat{\omega} \rho o-v, ~ d o n u-m$, géra, daur'.
n. ta-t, ta-t, tó, is-tu-d, ta-i, tha-ta.
f. jihwd-m, hizva-inm, $\chi{ }^{\omega} \rho \alpha-\nu$, terram, ranka-n, giba.
f. $k \alpha-m, \quad k a-n m, \quad \ldots . \quad . . . \quad . ., \quad h v \delta . \dagger$

* Examples are given by Rosen in his Vêda Specimen, pp. 24, 25, which, though short, are in the highest degree interesting for Sanskrit and comparative Grammar ; as, सड्त् saït, "he," तनित् tamit, "him"; तयोरित् tayôrit, " of these two"; तस्माइ़्र् tasmâit, " to him"; षस्माइ्र्त् asmait, "to this" (m.). The Zend combines in the same way to e or $s i$ with the interrogative: ghase gand gasis "who"? occur frequently. Perhaps only one of the two modes of writing is correct. Cf. Gramm. Crit. Addend. to r. 270.
+ One would expect $h v \delta-n a$, or, with abbreviation of the base, $h v a-n a$, which would be the sane as the masculine. With regard to the lost casetermination, it may be observed, that, in general, the feminines are less constant in handing down the old inflexions. A charge which is incurred by the Sanskrit in the nominative, since it gives $k a \hat{a}$ for $k d-\delta^{*}$ (§. 137.), is incurred by the Gothic (for in this manner the corruption spreads) in the accusative also.

[^92]

- The feminine participial bases in $i$, mentioned at $\oint$. 119., remain free from foreign commixture only in the nominative and vocative singular: in all other cases, to the old $i$ is further added a more modern $a$; and the declension then follows RANKA exactly; only that in some cases, through the eaphonic influence of the $i$, and in analogy with the Zend and the Latin fifth declension ( $\$$. 187.), the added $a$ becomes, or may become, e : in the latter case the $i$ is suppressed, as l. c. $r o g$ gaine for kuinye ( ( $\delta .42$. ). Thus, from sukanti, "the tarning" (f.), sukusi, "the having turned" (f.), and suksenti, "the about to turn," Mielcke gives the accusatives sulcancseen (see. p. 138, Note) or sukancsiari, sukusen, and suksenczen or suksencsiam. And even if, according to Ruhig (by Mielcke, pp. 3, 4), the $i$ before $a, e, o, u$ is scarcely heard, it must not therefore, in this case, as well as in those there enumerated, be the less regarded as etymologically present, and it was originally pronounced so as to be fully andible. From the feminine, where the $i$, as Sanskrit grammar shews, has an original position, this vowel appears to have made its way, in Lithuanian participial bases, into the oblique cases of the masculine, and to be here invested with a short masculine $a$. The accusative sulianti-n, "t the turning" (masc.), is therefore to be regarded in the same light as yaunikki-n, from the theme $\boldsymbol{Y} A U N I K Y A$, i.e. it stands for sukantyi-in from sukantya $\dot{n}$, and hence
 and to the Gothic, like hari from the base HARYA (§. 135.).
+ See §. 122.



 ; 99 § ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$.






 ๗Sinคी






 'xyoad e se K iuo saradde pur 'unouoad s!̣ч moaj soiu! ids






## "GAILVG ‘TVLNコWユULSNI



and neut. genders; a final $\quad a$, however, is, as in several other cases, changed into $\mathbb{e}$ é; and the जnा $a$ of the casesuffix is shortened, as it appears to me, by the influence of this clog of the base; as वृषेया vrike-n-a, but wग्निना agni-$n-\hat{a}$, वारिया vâri-n-â, मूनुना sûnu-n- $\hat{a}$, मधुना madhu-n- $\hat{a}$, from ఫृळ vrika, \&c. The Vêdas, however, exhibit further remains of formations without the euphonic $n$, as समया swapnay-a for समेन swapnê-n-a from सम swapna, m. "sleep" (see §. 133.) ; ग्रया $u r u-y-a$ for उर्या $u r u-n-a$, from उह $u r u$, "great," with a euphonic य $y$ (§. 43.); प्रबाहवा prabahav-d, from प्रणाह prabahu, from बाहु bdhu, " arm," with the preposition [Ğ. Ed.p. 189.] प pra. The Vêda-form समया swapnaya, finds analogies in the common dialect in मया maya, " through me," and ल्बया twayd, " through thee," from the bases ma and twa, the $a$ of which in this case, as in the loc., passes into e. And from पf pati, m. "Lord," and यहि sakhi, m. " friend," the common dialect forms instrumentals without the interposition of न् $n$, viz. पत्या paty- $d$, सE्पा sakhy-a. Feminines never admit a euphonic $n$; but a. as before some other vowel terminations, passes into $\mathcal{P} \ell$, that is to say, $i$ is blended with it, and it is shortened to $\begin{aligned} \\ a\end{aligned}$; hence, fिइइया jihway- $d$ (from jihwe $+a$ ). The Zend follows in this the analogy of the Sanskrit.
159. As $\hat{\varepsilon}$ in Gothic, according to §. 69., just like 6 , represents win $a$, so the forms the, hve, which Grimm (pp. 790. and 798.) regards as instrumentals, from the demonstrative base THA and the interrogative HVA, correspond very remarkably to the Zend instrumentals, as we kha from the base ve kha. We must, however, place also soe in the class of genuine Zend instrumental forms, which have been correctly preserved: besides své from SVA is also,

[^93]in respect of its base, akin to dwe kha from kha (§. 35.). * The meaning of sve is "as" ( $\dot{s}$ ), and the $s \delta$, which has arisen in High German from sva or sve, means both "as" and "so," \&c. The case relations, however, which are expressed by "as" and "so" are genuine instrumentals. ${ }^{\dagger}$ [G. Ed. p. 190.] The Anglo-Saxon form for sve is $s v a$, in which the colouring of the Zend $w_{\mathrm{L}}$ kha is most truly preserved. The Gothic sva, "so," is, according to its form, only the abbreviation of sve, as $a$ is the short equivalent both of $\epsilon$ and of $\delta:$ through this abbreviation, however, sva has become identical with its theme, just as spas ana in Zend is, according to §. 15s., not distinguished from its theme.
160. $\ddagger$ As the dative in Gothic and in Old High German very frequently expresses the instrumental relation, and the termination also of the dative is identical with the Sanskrit-Zend instrumental character, shortened only, as in polysyllabic words in Zend, it may be proper here to describe at the same time the formation of the German dative. In a bases it is in Gothic, as in Zend, identical with the theme, and from VULFA comes vulfa, as sgleve vělirka from VEHRKA. Moreover, there are some other remarkable datives, which have preserved their due length, and answer to the monosyllabic instrumentals the, ve, sve, which have been already explained, viz. hvammeth, hvar-yamme-h, "cuique," and ainummé-hun, "ulli," for ainammé-

[^94]hun (§. 66.).* Bases in $i$ reject this vowel before the casesign; hence gast $-a$ for gasti-a: on the other hand, in the $u$ bases the termination is suppressed, and the base-vowel receives the Guna: hence sunau, which will have been pronounced originally su-nav-a ; so that, after suppressing the termination, the $v$ has again returned to its original vowel nature. The form sunav-a would answer to the Vêda form प्रबाहवा pra-bahav-a. In Zend, the bases which terminate with $s i$ and $>u$, both in the instrumental and before most
[G. Ed. p. 191.] of the other vowel terminations, assume Guna or not at pleasure. Thus we find in the Vend. S. p. 469, su>ngews bazav-a, "brachio," as analogous to प्रबाहवा pra--bahav- (§. 57.); on the other hand, p. 408, noob,eyus zanthwa
 "dust," we find, 1.c. p. 229, the form g/w ⿰亻 vod pañsnî, which Anquetil translates by "par cette poussiere"; and if the reading is correct, then paisnnu, in regard of the suppressed termination (compensation for which is made by lengthening the base vowel ), would answer to the Gothic sunau.
161. Bases ending with a consonant have lost, in German, the dative character: hence, in Gothic, fiyand, ahmin, brothr (§. 132.), for fiyand-a, ahmin-a, brothr-a. $\dagger$ All feminines, too, must be pronounced to have lost the dative sign, paradoxical as it may appear to assert that the Gothic gibai, "dono," and thizai, "huic," izai, "ei," do not contain any dative inflexion, while we formerly believed the ai of gibai to be connected with the Sanskryit feminine dative

[^95]character ऐ $4 i$. But as we have recognised in the masculine and neuter dative the Indo-Zend instrumental, we could not, except from the most urgent necessity, betake ourselves to the Sanskrit dative for explanation of the Gothic feminine dative. This necessity, however, does not exist, for, e.g., hveitai, "albae," from HVEITŌ from HVEITA, may be deduced from the instrumental श्षेतया swêlay- $\hat{a}$, " alba," from 户्वेता śwêla, by suppressing the termination, and changing the semi-vowel to a vowel in the same manner as, above, sunau from sunav-a, [G. Ed. p. 192.]
or as the fem. handau, "manui," from handav-a. Analogous with sunau, handau, are also the dative feminine $i$ bases; and, e.g., anstai, "gratia," has the same relation to its theme ANSTI that handau has to HANDU.
162. In Old High German the forms diu, hviu, correspond to the Gothic instrumentals the, hee; but authorities differ as to the mode of writing them, ${ }^{*}$ regarding which we shall say more under the pronouns. The form hiu, also, from a demonstrative base $H I$, has been preserved in the compound hiutu for hiu-tagu, " on this day," "to-day" (see Grimm, p. 794), although the meaning is here properly locative. The Gothic has for it the dative himma--daga. This termination $u$ has maintained itself also in substantive and adjective bases masc. neut. in $a$ and $i$, although it is only sparingly used, and principally after the preposition mit (see Graff, 1. c. pp. 110, 111); mit wortu, " with a word," from WORTA; mit cuatu, " with good," from CUATA ; mit kastu, " with a guest," from KASTI. It is here important to remark, that the instrumental in Sanskrit very frequently expresses, per se, the sociative relation. We cannot, however, for this reason look upon this $u$ case as generically different from the common dative, which, we have already remarked, is likewise of instrumental origin

[^96]









| 'D-. asv $^{\text {c }}$ | '?u -?ppd |  | 'v-fipd | ${ }^{*}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ? qq? $^{6}$ | 'pyuv.я | 'v-fivaz! | 'p-fivmy?! | 'J |
| - $\quad$ fina | 'nypm | ${ }^{\text {'py.ıy }}$ ¢ ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  | 'דI' |
| - тhlos | 'nvinvahati | -axaz | Huxysnys |  |

























164. In Sanskṛit and Zend, $\hat{e}$ is the sign of the dative, which, I have scarce any doubt, originally belongs to the demonstrative base $\hat{\text { e , whence the nom. सयम् ayam (from }}$ $\hat{e}+a m$ ), "this"; which, however, as it appears, is itself only an extension of the base w $a$, from which arise most of the cases of this pronoun ( $a-s m a i, a-s m d t, a-s \min , \& c$. .); and regarding which it is to be observed, that the common a bases, also, in Sanskrit in many cases extend this vowel to $\hat{e}$ by the admixture of an $i(\S .2$.). The dative sign consequently would, in its origin, be most intimately connected with the case, which, as (§.160.) was explained, denotes, in German, both the dative and instrumental relation, and occurs in Zend also with a dative signification.*

 gives a splendid danghter to those who have not had offspring." The lithographed Codex, however, gives the form arizaináitibis as three words,
[G. Ed. p. 195.] We have here further to remark, that in the pronoun of the 2 d person the affix म्पम् $^{\mathrm{b}}$ byam (from $b h i+a m$ ) in तुम्पम् tu-bhyam, " to thee," stands in evident relationship to the instrumental किस् bhis in the plural. The feminine bases in $\hat{u}, i, \hat{u}$, and, at will also, those in $i$ and $u$, prolong in Sanskṛit the dative termination ए $e$ to ऐ $a i$; with the final $a$ of the base an $i$ is blended; hence जिहाये $j i h w a ̂ y-d i$ from jivai-aid. On the other hand, $₹ i$ and $\overline{\text { उ }} u$ receive the Guna augment before ₹ $\hat{b}$, but not before the broader ऐ $\begin{aligned} & \\ & \text {; ; as सूनवे sûnav-e from sûnu. In Zend, femi- }\end{aligned}$ nine $\hat{a}$ and $\hat{i}$-bases, like the Sanskrit, have $\hat{a} i$ for their termination : however, hizvay- $4 i$ is not used, but sumsungser hizvay- $\hat{i}$, from the base hizvâ, as long vowels in the penultimate, in polysyllabic bases, are so frequently shortened. Bases in si have, in combination with the particle so cha, preserved the Sanskrit form most truly, and exhibit, without exception in this case, the form sprosesses ay-at-cha (see §. 28 ), e.g. uprosessurerong karstayaêcha, " and on account of the ploughing," "in order to plough" (Vend. S. p. 198),
[G. Ed. p. 196.] from karsle. Without cha, however, the form $r o \varepsilon e \hat{\theta}$ is almost the sole one that occurs, e.g. rogre This form, I doubt not, has arisen from rosse ay-民, by rejecting the semi-vowel, after which the preceding $s a$ has
 afrite, which sometimes occur, and are most corrupted, may

Hoss sposujug isx azi zanditi bis. Such separations in the middle of a word are, however, in this Codex, quite common. I entertain no doubt of the correctness of the length of the $a$, both of $z a$ and $n a i$; and I anticipate a variety azizanaitibis or-bis. Probably also csaêtô is to be read for esnitô. Anquetil translates: " O Hom , donnez à la femme, qui n's pas encore engendré, beaucoup d'enfans brillans." We will return to this passage hereafter; and we will here further remark that, at the same page of the Vend. S., the instr.
*Cf. p. 286 Note $\dagger$.
rest on errors in writing.* Bases in $u$ may take Guna; e.g. romverguls van-hav-e from serzuls vanhu, "pure"; or not, as ron(x) rathv-e from spon ratu, "great," "lord." The form without Guna is the more common. A euphonic ss $y$ also is found interposed between the base and the termination (§. 43.) e.g. rossyjup tanu-y-ê, "corpori."
165. Bases in w $a$ add to the case-sign $\hat{e}$ also an w $a$; but from ₹ $\mathcal{C}(=a+i)$ and $a$ is formed wय aya; and this, with the $a$ of the base, gives aya, thus वृकाय vrikaya, Hence may have arisen, by suppressing the final $a$, the Zendian sugłuç vowel must return to its vowel nature. It might, however, be assumed, that the Zend has never added an $a$ to the dative $\ell$, and that this is a later appearance in Sanskrit, which arose after the division of languages; for from $a+e$ is formed, quite regularly, $1 i$ (§. 2.). The Sanskrit forms also, from the particle kम sma, which is added to pronouns of the 3 d person, the dative सै smai; and thus, e.g. कसमे kasmäi, "to whom"? answers to the Zend swenve kahmai. The Sanskrit, in this case, abstains from adding the $\begin{array}{ll} \\ a\end{array}$, which is elsewhere appended to the dative ₹ $\ell$; since रम sma, already encumbered with the preceding principal pronoun, cannot admit any superfluity in its termination, and for this reason gives up its radi- [G. Ed. p. 197.] cal ㄸ $a$ before the termination इन् $i n$ in the locative case also, and forms $s m$-in for smen.
166. The particle स्म sma, mentioned in the preceding section, which introduces itself between the base and the termination, not only in the singular, but (and this, in fact, occurs in pronouns of the two first persons) in the plural also, if not separated from both-as I have first attempted to shew

[^97]in my Sanskrit Grammar-gives to the pronominal declension the appearance of greater peculiarity than it in fact possesses. As this particle recurs also in the cognate European languages, and there, as I have already elsewhere partly shewn, solves several enigmas of declension, we will therefore here, at its first appearance, pursue all its modifications and corruptions, as far as it is possible. In Zend, sma, according to §. 53 ., has been changed to hma; and also in Prâkrit and Pâli, in the plural of the two first persons, the $s$ has become $h$, and besides, by transposition of the two consonants, the syllable hma has been altered to mha; e.g. Prâkṛit सम्हे amhe, " we" (ă $\mu \mu \mathrm{es}$ ), Pâli सम्हाकम् amhakam, Zend $f \varepsilon g{ }^{2} \mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{z}}$ alimâkĕm, $\hat{\eta} \mu \hat{\omega} v$. From the PrâkritPâli $m h a$ we arrive at the Gothic nsa in $u-n s a-r a, \hat{\eta} \mu \hat{\omega} \nu$, $u$-nsi-s,* "nobis," "nos." In that the Gothic has left the sibilant unaltered, it stands on an older footing than the Pâli and Prâkrit; and on the other hand, by the change of $m$ into $n$, for more facile combination with the following $s$, it rests on a more modern stage. We cannot, therefore, any longer assume the ns of uns, "nos," to be
[G. Ed. p. 198.] the common accusative termination, as we have formerly done in unison with Grimmt-cf. vulfa-ns, gasti-ns, sunu-ns-and thence allow it, as though it had become a property of the base, to enter into some other cases, and connect it with new case-terminations. To this is opposed, also, the 2 d person, where izvis (i-zvi-s) stands in the accusative, and yet in essentials the two persons are identical in their declension; uns, "nobis," "nos," stands, therefore, for unsi-s (from unsa-s), and this has $s$ as the case-suffix, and $u$-nsa (weakened from $u$-nsi) as the compound base. And we

[^98]cannot, also, any longer regard the $u$ of unsa-ra, " nostri". \&c. as the vocalized $v$ of veis, "we," although the $i$ of izvara, "vestri," \&c. can be nothing else than the vocalized $y$ of yus, " your"; for in Sanskrit, also, the syllable गु $y u$ of ydyam, " ye," (§. 43.) goes through all the oblique cases, while in the lst person the $\boldsymbol{v}^{v}$ of वयम् vayam, "we," is limited to the nominative, but the oblique cases combine a base $\boldsymbol{m} a$ with the particle सम sma. This $a$, then, in Gothic, through the influence of the following liquid, has become $u$; hence, unsa-ra, \&c. for ans-ara (§. 66.).
167. As in Zend, the Sanskrit possessive 玉 swa shews itself* in very different forms in juxta-position with different letters, so I believe I can point out the particle wn sma in Gothic at least under four forms; namely, as nsa, zva, gka, and mma. The first has been already discussed; the second-zva, and in a weakened form zvioccurs in the pronoun of the 2 d person, in the place where the lst has nsa (nsi); and while in the cognate Asiatic languages (Sanskṛit, Zend, Pâli, Prâkṛit), as also in Greek and Lithuanian, the two pronouns run quite [G. Ed. p. 199.] parallel in the plural, since they both exhibit the interposed particle under discussion, either in its original form, or similarly modified, in Gothic a discrepancy has arisen between the two persons, in that the syllable sma has in them been doubly transformed. The form zva from sma rests, first, on the not surprising change of the $s$ into $z$ (§. 86. s.); secondly, on the very common change of $m$ and $v$ (§. 63.).
168. From the Gothic downwards, the particle sma has been still further corrupted in the German dialects, in the pronoun of the 2 d person, by the expulsion of the sibilant. The Old High German i-wa-r has nearly the same relation to the Gothic $i$ izva-ra that the Homeric genitive roío has

[^99]to the Sanskyit तस्य tasya, which is older than the Homeric form. Compare, without intervention of the Gothic, the Old High German i-wa-r, i-u, i-wi-h, with the Sanskrit
 thuanian $y \underline{u}-s u \hat{u}, y y \grave{u}-m u s, y \underline{u}-s$ : thus it would be regarded as settled, that the $w$ or $u$ belongs to the base, but is not the corrupted remainder of a far-extended intermediate pronoun; and it would be incorrect to divide $i w-a r$, $i w-i h, i u$, for $i$-wa-r, \&c. I, too, formerly entertained that erroneous opinion. A repeated examination, and the enlarged views since then obtained through the Zend, Prâkrit, and Pâli, leave me thoroughly convinced, that the Gothic intermediate syllable zva has not been lost in High German, but that one portion of it has been preserved even to our time (e-ue-r from i-zva-ra, e-u-ch from i-zvi-s, Old High German $i$-wi-h): on the other hand, the $u$ of the base $y u$ (y $y u$ ), as in Gothic so also in the oldest form of the High
[G. Ed. p.200.] German, is rejected in the oblique cases, both in the plural and in the dual*; and the Gothic i.zva-ra, Old High German $i$-wa-r, \&ce., stand for yu-zva-ra, yuu-wa-r. The Old Saxon, however, and Anglo-Saxon, like the Lithuanian, shew themselves, in respect to the preservation of the base, more complete than the Gothic, and carry the $u$, which in Anglo-Saxon has become $o$, through all the oblique cases: iu-we-r, ëo-ve-r, "vestri," \&c. If merely the two historical extremes of the forms here under dis-cussion-the Sanskrit and New German forms-be contrasted with one another, the assertion must appear very paradoxical, that euer and युष्माकम् yuṣhmalkam are connected, and, indeed, in such wise, that the $u$ of euer has nothing

[^100]in common with the $u$ of $य ु y u$, but finds its origin in the $m$ of the syllable स्म sma.
169. The distinction of the dual and plural in the oblique cases of the two first persons is not organic in German; for the two plural numbers are distinguished originally only by the case-terminations. These, however, in our pronouns are, in Gothic, the same; and the difference between the two plural numbers appears to lie in the base-ugka-ra, ${ }^{*}$ $\nu \omega ̂ i v$, unsa-ra, $\hat{\eta} \mu \omega \hat{\nu}$, igqva-ra, $\sigma \phi \hat{\omega} \bar{v}$, izva-ra, $\hat{\nu} \mu \hat{\omega} \nu$. But from a more close analysis of the forms in the two plural numbers, and from the light afforded us by the cognate Asiatic languages, it appears that the proper base is also identical in the two plural numbers; and it is only the particle sma combined with it which has become doubly corrupted, and then the one form has become fixed in the dual, the other in the plural. The former comes nearest to [G. Ed. p. 201.] the Prâkrit-Pâli form 听 $m h a$, and between $u-n s a-r a$ and $u$-gka-ra $(=u-n k a-r a)$ an intervening $u-n h a-r a$ or $u-m h a-r a$ must be assumed. At least I do not think that the old $s$ became $k$ at one spring, but that the latter is a hardened form of an earlier $h$, which has remained in the Prâkrit and Pâli, as in the singular nominative the $k$ of $i k$ has been developed from the $h$ of wहम् aham. The second person gives, in Gothic, $q v(=k v \S, 86.1$.) for $k$, while the other dialects leave the guttural the same form in both persons: Old High German, u-ncha-r, i-ncha-r; Old Slavonic, $u$-nke-r, i-nke-r; Anglo-Saxon, u-nce-r, i-nce-r. It would consequently appear proved that the dual and plural of the two first persons are not organically or originally different, but belong, as distortions and mutilations of different kinds, to one and the same original form; and that therefore these two pronouns have preserved the old dual just as little as

[^101]the other pronouns and all substantive and adjective declensions.
170. The fourth form in which रम sma appears in Gothic is that which I first remarked, and which I have brought forward already in the "Annals of Oriental Literature" (p. 16). What I have there said, that the datives singular, like thamma, imma, have arisen, by assimilation, from thasma, i-sma, I have since found remarkably confirmed by the Grammar of the Old Prussian published by Vater, a language which is nearly connected with the Lithuanian and Gothic, since here all pronouns of the third person have smu in the dative. Compare, e.g. antar-smu with the Gothic anthara-mma, "to the other": ku-smu with the Gothic hva-mma, "to whom?" We have also shewn in Greek, since then, a remnant of the appended pronoun सम sma similar to the Gothic, and which rests on assimilation,
[G. Ed. p. 202.] since we deduced the Æolic forms ${ }^{\alpha}-\mu \mu-\epsilon 5$, $\ddot{v}-\mu \mu-\varepsilon \varsigma, \& c$., from $\ddot{\alpha}-\sigma \mu \varepsilon-\varepsilon \varsigma, \dot{v}-\sigma \mu \epsilon-\epsilon \varsigma$, to which the common forms $\dot{\eta} \mu \in i \hat{s}, \dot{v} \mu e i ̂$, have the same relation that the Old High German de-mu has to the Gothic tha-mma, only that $\mathfrak{\eta} \mu e \hat{i}$, $\dot{v} \mu e \hat{i}$, in respect to the termination eis, are more perfect than the Eolic forms, since they have not lost the vowel of the particle $\sigma \mu \epsilon$, but have contracted $\mu e-e s$ to $\mu e i s$.
171. The Gothic datives in mma are, as follows from 8. 160., by origin, instrumentals,* although the particle sma in Sanskrit has not made its way into these cases, and e.g. तेन tenna, " through him," not tasména, or, according to the Zend principle (§. 158.), tasma (for tasmâ), is used ;-I say, according to the Zend principle; for though in this

[^102]language hma has entered into the instrumental masculine and neuter, this case in the base ta could only be newe tahma or aucusp tahma (from ta-hma-d). In the feminine, as we can sufficiently prove, the appended pronoun really occurs in the instrumental; and while e.g. from the masculine and neuter base ugus ana, "this" (m.), "this" (n.), we have found the instrumental of the same sound ujs ana not anahma, from the demonstrative base $\gtrsim a$ occurs rather often the feminine instrumental ussexu ahmy-a, from the fem. base sfen ahmí, increased by the appended pronoun.
172. The Sanskryit appended pronoun [G. Ed. p. 203.] सम sma should, in the feminine, form either स्सा $s m a$ or स्मी $s m i ́$ : on the latter is based the Zend form sE $h m i$ i, mentioned at $\S .171^{\circ}$. But in Sanskrit the feminine form स्मी $s m \ell^{i}$ has been preserved only in such a mutilated condition,* that before my acquaintance with the Zend I could not recognise it. From ta-smit must come the dative ta-smy-ai, the gen. and ablative $t a-s m y-d s$, and the locative $t a-s m y-d m$. These forms, by rejecting the $m$, have become abbreviated to तस्यै $t a-s y-a i$, तस्पास् $t a-s y-d s$, तस्याम् ta-sy- $-\alpha m$; and the same is the case with the feminine pronoun $s m \hat{\imath}$ in all similar compounds; so that the forms mentioned appear to have proceeded from the masculine and neuter genitive tasya, by the annexation of new case-terminations. This opinion was the more to be relied on, that in Gothic, also, the feminine forms thi-ziss, "hujus,"

[^103]thi-zai, "huic," might be deduced from the masculine genitive this, by the addition of the terminations bs and ai; and as, too, in Lithuanian, the whole of the oblique cases singular of the 1st and 2d person stand in close connection with the SanskritZend genitives मम mama, دjus mana, तब tava, دی»sp tava, and have the same as base. After discovering the Zend fe-
[G. Ed. p. 204.] minine pronominal forms in hmy-a in the instrumental and locative-in the latter for hmy-aim-the above-mentioned forms in Sanskrit cannot be regarded otherwise than as abbreviations of ta-smy-ai, \&c., as this is far more suited to the nature of the thing. The Gothic forms then, thizds, thizai, will be regarded as abbreviated, and must be divided into thi-z0-s, thi-zai. The masculine and neuter appended pronoun sma must, for instance, in Gothic give the feminine base $S M \bar{O}=$ सा sma, as BLIND $\bar{O}$, nom. blinda, "cocca," from $B L I N D A$, m. n. (nom. blind'-s, blinda-ta). SM $\bar{O}$, however, by the loss of the $m$, as experienced by the Sanskrit in the feminine, has become $S \bar{O}$; but the $s$, on account of its position between two vowels (according to §.86. s.), has become $\approx$. Therefore, thi-k $\delta-s^{*}$ has only $s$ as case-sign, and the dative thi-zai, like gibai in §. 161 ., is without case character. With the masculine and neuter genitive thi-s, therefore, thi-zo-s, thizai, have nothing in common but the demonstrative theme $T H A$, and the weakening of its $a$ to $i$ (§. 66.).
173. Gothic adjective bases in $a$ (Grimm's strong adjectives) which follow the pronominal declension, differ from it, however, in this point, that they do not weaken the final $a$ of the base before the appended pronoun to $i_{2}$ but extend it to ai, and form the feminine dative from the simple theme, according to the analogy of the substantives : $\dagger$ hence blindai-zó-s, blindai, not blindi-zo-s, blinuli-zai.

[^104]174. The Zend introduces our pronominal syllable sma in the form of hma also into the second, and probably into the first person too: we find repeatedly, in the locative, sENeor thwa-hm' -1 , instead of the Sanskrit [G. Ed. p. 205.] त्वयि tway-i, and hence deduce, in the 1st person, ma-him ${ }^{2}-\ell$, which we cannot quote as occurring. The Prâkrit, in this respect, follows the analogy of the Zend; and in the 2d person gives the form तुमस्सि tuma-smi'-i, "in thee," or, with assimilation, तुमम्मि tumammi, with तुमे tume (from tuma-i) and तइ taï; and ममस्मि mama-smi-i or ममस्मि mama-mmi, "in me," together with the simple मए maé and मझ maï.* Ought not, therefore, in German also, in the singular of the two first persons, a remnant of the pronominal syllable sma to be looked for? The $s$ in the Gothic mi-s, "to me," thu-s, "to thee," and si-s, " to himself," appears to me in no other way intelligible; for in our Indo-European family of languages there exists no $s$ as the suffix of the instrumental or dative. Of similar origin is the $s$ in the plural $u$-nsi-s, " nobis," "nos," $i$-zvi-s, "vobis," "vos"; and its appearance in two otherwise differently denoted cases cannot therefore be surprising, because this $s$ is neither the dative nor accusative character, but belongs to a syllable, which could be declined through all cases, but is here deprived of all case-sign. In $u-n s i-s, i-z v i-s$, therefore, the Sanskrit स्स sma is doubly contained, once as the base, and next as the apparent case-suffix. I am inclined, also, to affirm of the above-mentioned Prâkrit forms, $t u-m a-s m$ ' $i$, "in thee," and ma-ma-smi $\mathfrak{i}$, "in me," that they doubly contain the pronominal syllable sma, and that the middle syllable has dropped a preceding s. For there is no more favourite and facile combination in our class of languages than of a pronoun with a pronoun; and what is omitted by one dialect in this respect is often afterwards supplied by another more modern dialect.

- See Essai sur le Pali, by E. Burnouf and Lassen, pp. 173.175.
[G. Ed. p. 208.] 175. The $k$ in the Gothic accusatives mi-k, thu-k, si-k ( $m e, t e, s e$ ), may be deduced, as above, in $u$-gka-ra, $\nu$ wiviv, \&c., from $s$, by the hardening of an intervening $h$; so that $m i-s$ is altered to $m i-h$, and thence to $m i-k$; and therefore, in the singular, as also in the plural, the dative and accusative of the two first persons are, in their origin, identical. In Old High German and Anglo-Saxon our particle appears in the accusative singular and plural in the same form: Old High German mi-h " me," di-h, "thee," u-nsi-h, " us," i-ui-h, " you"; Anglo-Saxon me-c, " me," u-si-c, " us," the-c, "thee," eo-vi-c, "you": on the other hand, in the dative singular the old $s$ of the syllable sma has become $r$ in the High German, but has disappeared in the Old Saxon and Anglo-Saxon: Old High German mi-r, di-r; Old Saxon mi, thi; Anglo-Saxon me, the.

176. In Lithuanian सम sma appears in the same form as in the middle of the above-mentioned (§. 174.) Prâkrit forms; namely, with 8 dropped, as $m a$; and indeed, first, in the dative and locative sing. of the pronouns of the 3 d person and adjectives ; and, secondly, in the genitive dual of the two first persons: we cannot, however, refer to this the $m$, which the latter in some cases have in common with the substantive declension. The pronominal base $T A$, and the adjective base $G E R A$, form, in the dative, tá-mui, " to thee," gera-mui, " to the good" (shortened tám, gerám), and in the

- locative ta-mè, gera-mè ; and if -mui and -mè are compared with the corresponding cases of the substantive $a$ bases, it is easily seen that mui and mè have sprung from ma. The pronouns of the two first persons form, in the genitive dual, $m u-m \mathfrak{\imath}, y u-m \mathfrak{U}$, according to the analogy of poní, "of the two lords."

[^105]177. Lithuanian substantives have $i$ for [G. Ed. p.207.] the dative character, but $i$ bases have $e i^{*}$; a final $a$ before this $i$ passes into $u$; hence wilku-i. Although we must refuse a place in the locative to the dative $i$ of the Greek and Latin, still this Lithuanian dative character appears connected with the Indo-Zend $\mathbb{E}$, so that only the last element of this diphthong, which has grown out of $a+i$, has been left. For the Lithuanian has, besides the dative, also a real locative, which, indeed, in the $a$ bases corresponds exactly with the Sanskrit and Zend.
178. The nominal bases, Sanskrit, Zend, and Lithuanian, explained at §. 148., excepting the neuters ending with a vowel and pronouns, to the full declension of which we shall return hereafter, form in the dative:


[^106]|  | SANSERIT. <br> f. tanuv-e, | $\begin{gathered} \text { 2END. } \\ \tan u-y-\ell, * \end{gathered}$ | lithuanian. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\bigcirc$ | f. vadhw-di, |  |  |
| 困 | m. f. gav-e, | gav-é, | - . . |
| $\square$ | f. nutv-e, |  | -••• |
| ¢ | f. vâch-¢̇, | vach-ē, | -•• |
|  | m. bharat-E | barĕnt-E, | - . . |
|  | m. diman-e, | as̀main-ê, | -••• |
|  | n. nâmn-ê, $\ddagger$ | ndmain-ê, | -••• |
|  | m. bhrâtr-ê, | brdthr-ė, |  |
|  | f. duhitr-e, | dughdhĕr-e, $\dagger$ |  |
|  | m. ddtr-e, | dathr-¢, |  |
|  | n. rachas-ê, $\ddagger$ | vachanh-ê, |  |

* I give rosj>pup tanuye with euphonic $y$, because I have found this form frequently, which, however, cannot, for this reason, be considered as peculiar to the feminine; and, instead of it, also tanve and tanave may be regarded as equally correct. Cf. $\oint .43$., where, however, it is necessary to observe, that the insertion of a euphonic $J J y$ between $u$ and $\varepsilon$ is not everywhere necessary; and, for instance, in the dative is the more rare form.
 dughdhera, is placed there merely to avoid the harsh combination of three consonants. I deduce these forms from the plural genitive 6 亿o dughdhĕr-añm, for GXU) $q \geqslant g$ dughdhr-añm.
$\ddagger$ Respecting नाष्षे namne, for नामने namane, and so in the instrumental नाष्वा namna, for नाभना namanâ, see §. 140. In Zend, in this and similar words, I have not met with the rejection of the $a$ in the weakest cases ( $\wp .130$. ), bat examples of its retention, e.g. in the compound aoctô--nâman, whence the genitive aoctó-nâmanô (Vend. S. p. 4, and frequently). I consider the initial $a$ in this compound as the negation, without eaphonic $n$; forin all probability it means "having untold (countless) names."

 eared, ten thousand eyed." Cf. Anquetil II. 82. In words in van, on the other hand, $v a$ is rejected in the weakest cases, and then the $\geqslant v$ becomes $>u$ or $\downarrow$ o. Regarding the addition of the $s i$ in namaine, see §. 41.


## ABLATIVE.

179. The Ablative in Sanskrit has त् $t$ [G. Ed. p. 209.] for its character, regarding the origin of which there can no longer be any uncertainty, as soon as the influence of pronouns on the formation of cases has been recognised, as we are conducted at once to the demonstrative base $t a$, which already, in the neuter nominative, and accusative, has assumed the nature of a case-sign, and which we shall subsequently, under the verb, see receiving the function of a personal termination. This ablative character, however, has remained only in bases in w $a$, which is lengthened before it; a circumstance that induced the Indian Grammarians, who have been followed by the English, to represent ज्ञात् $\begin{gathered} \\ \\ t\end{gathered}$ as the ablative termination. It would therefore be to be assumed, that in वृकात् vrikat the $a$ of the base has been melted down with the $\hat{d}$ of the termination.*
180. M. E. Burnouf $\dagger$ has been the first [G. Ed. p. 210.] to bring home the ablative character to a class of words in Zend which had lost it in Sanskrit, and whence it can be satisfactorily inferred that a simple $t$, and not $d t$, is the true ablative character. We mean the declension in $u$, of which hereafter. As regards bases in $a$, which in Sanskrit alone have preserved the ablative, we have to observe, that in
[^107]Zend also the short vowel is lengthened, and thus vëhrkâ- $t$ answers to वृबात् verikd-t. Bases in $د i$ have dit in the ablative; whence may be inferred in Sanskrit ablatives like पतेत् paté-t, मीतेत् prite-t (§. 33.), which, by adding Guna to the final vowel, would agree with genitives in ê-s. The Zend-Avesta, as far as it is hitherto edited, nevertheless offers but few examples of such ablative forms in posub $1 i-t$ : I owe the first perception of them to the word posppapdius afrititit, "benediclione," in a passage of the Vendidâd," explained elsewhere, which recurs frequently. Examples of masculine bases are perhaps poدp rajoit zaratustrfit, "institutione zaratustricu" (V. S. p. 86), although otherwise ${ }^{\text {Onen }}$ ) raji, which I have not elsewhere met with, is a masculine: the adjective base zaratustri, however, belongs to the three genders. From stace gairi, " moun-
[G. Ed. p. 211.] tain," occurs the ablative poshlape gardit in the Yescht-Sâde. $\dagger$ Bases in $u$ have poce $a 0-\frac{t}{}{ }^{+}+$in the ablativell; and in no class of words, with the exception of

[^108]that in $a$, does the ablative more frequently occur, although these words are in number but five or six, the ablative use of which is very frequent; e.g. mpvergeug daonhadt, "creatione," from daonhu, in a passage explained elsewhere*
 tanadt "corpore," from sjup tanu. Bases ending with consonants are just as little able to annex the [G. Ed. p. 212.] ablative $\rho t$ without the intervention of another letter, as the accusative is to annex $m$ without an intermediate letter; and they have at as their termination, numerous examples of which occur ; e.g. powdes ap-at, "aqua"; pow Gdu athr-at,
 näonhan-at "naso"; prus? druj-a! "damone"; puws vis-at, "loco" (cf. vicus, according to §. 21.). Owing to the facile interchange of the es $a$ with su $a$, now $a t$ is sometimes erroneously written for pat ; thus, Vendidâd
 chant-at "lucente." Bases in $u$ sometimes follow the
by the Sanskrit form सब्रोत् abrôt, for which the irregular form सव्रबीत् abrav-it is used; and secondly, it answers to the 1st pers. mraôm (V. S. p. 123) ; thirdly, the Sanskrit खो $\hat{b}$ is, in Zend, never represented by $\mathrm{b}_{\boldsymbol{s}}$ $a o$, but by $\backslash \subset \hat{0}$, before which, according to $\delta .28$., another $\leadsto a$ is placed, hence $\bigcup_{\mu} a \hat{\delta}$ : on the other hand, $山_{\Delta} a o$ represents $u$, in accordance with §. 32 and $\S .28$. If, then, >suses pasu formed in the ablative nobususe pasaot, this would conduct us to a Sanskrit पशुत् paśu $t$; while from the
 garöi-t, and from the analogy, in other respects, with the genitive, the Guna forns, पशोत् pasoô-t must be deduced. Moreover, in the Vend. S. the ablative form polts â人-t actually occurs; for at p. 102 (upaes"
 spirit") occurs vanheaót, the ablative of vanhu; and the $\mathcal{q}^{e}$ preceding the $a$ is an error in orthography, and vanhaôt is the form intended: p. 245 occurs noب̣, Ne" U anhaôt, "mundo," from anhu.

- Gramm. Crit. Ø. 640. ann. 2.
consonantal declension in having $\mathfrak{\sim}$ at as the ablative ter－ mination instead of a mere $t$ ；just as in the genitive，besides a simple $s$ ，they exhibit also an $\theta$（from $a s, \S .56^{\text {b }}$ ．），although more rarely．Thus，for the above－mentioned pobajpuco tanaot，＂corpore，＂occurs also tanv－at（Vend．S．p．482）．＊ Feminine bases in $火$ a and $\leqslant i$ have powat in the ablative， as an analogous form to the feminine genitive termination सास् $d_{s}$ ，whence，in the Zend gu do；e．g．poussugeg $g$


［G．Ed．p．213．］barëthry－at，＂genitrice，＂from s？${ }^{3}$ दques barĕ－ thri．$\dagger$ The feminine bases also in $u$ ，and perhaps also those in $i$ ，may share this feminine termination pow at；thus， from zantu，＂begetting，＂comes the ablative zanthw－dt（cf． Gramm．Crit．§．640．Rem．2．）．Although，then，the ablative has been sufficiently shewn to belong to all declensions in Zend，and the ablative relation is also，for the most part， denoted by the actual ablative，still the genitive not un－ frequently occurs in the place of the ablative，and even adjectives in the genitive in construction with sub－ stantives in the ablative．Thus we read，Vend S．p．479，
 avanhạ！$\ddagger$ visat yat mázdayas̉notis，＂ex hac terrá quidem maz－ dayasnica．＂．

[^109]







 алв әм чэ!чм ч















 p[noo дә䒑ฆə s!





dropped an initial $s$, and may stand for smet, and so belong to the appended pronoun रू sma, explained in §. 165. \&c., corresponding with its ablative smât, to which it stands in the same relation that memor (for mesmor) does to स्मृ smri-from smar, §. 1.-"to remember." The combination of this syllable, then, with pronouns of the three persons, would require no excuse, for wम sma, as has been shewn, unites itself to all persons, though it must itself be regarded as a pronoun of the 3d person.* The conjunction sed, too, is certainly nothing but the ablative of the reflexive; and sed occurs twice in the S.C. de Bacch. as an evident pronoun, and, in fact, governed by inter;
[G. Ed. p. 215.] whence it may be assumed that inter can be used in construction with the ablative, or also that, in the old languages, the accusative is the same with the ablative: the latter view is confirmed by the accusative use of ted and med in Plautus.
$\dagger$ 183. In Sanskrit the ablative expresses distance from a place, the relation "whence;" and this is the true, original destination of this case, to which the Latin remained constant in the names of towns. From the relation "whence," however, the ablative is, in Sanskrit, transferred to the causal relation also; since that on account of which any thing is done is regarded as the place whence an action proceeds. In this manner the confines of the ablative and instrumental touch one another, and तेन têna (§. 158.) and तस्मात् tasmat, may both express "on account of which." In adverbial use the ablative spreads still further, and in some words denotes relations, which are otherwise foreign to the ablative. In Greek, adverbs in ws may be looked upon as sister forms of the Sanskrit ablative; so that $\omega$-s, from bases in 0 , would have the same relation to the Sanskrit

[^110]सात् a-t, from bases in $a$, that, e.g. $\delta i \hat{\omega} \omega \sigma$ has to ददाति dada-ti. Thus, $\dot{\delta} \mu \hat{\omega}-\mathrm{s}$ may be akin to the Sanskrit समात् samá-t, "from the similar," both in termination and in base. In Greek, the transition of the $T$ sounds into $s$ was requisite, if indeed they were not to be entirely suppressed *; and in §. 152. we have seen neuter bases in $\tau$, in the uninflected cases, preserve their final letter from being entirely lost by changing it into $s$. We deduce, therefore, [G. Ed, p. 216.] adverbs like $\dot{\delta} \mu \hat{\omega}-\varsigma$, oưT $\omega-\varsigma$, $\omega-\varsigma$, from $\dot{\delta} \mu \hat{\omega}-\tau$, ovit $\omega-\tau$, $\dot{\omega} \tau$ or $\dot{\delta} \mu \hat{\omega}-\delta$, \&c., and this is the only way of bringing these formations into comparison with the cognate languages; and it is not to be believed that the Greek has created for this adverbial relation an entirely peculiar form, any more than other case-terminations can be shewn to be peculiar to the Greek alone. The relation in adverbs in $\omega$-s is the same as that of Latin ablative forms like hoc modo, quo modo, raro, perpetuo. In bases ending with a consonant, os for or might be expected as the termination, in accordance with Zend ablatives like مొNjugrunvo chashman-at, " oculo"; but then the ablative adverbial termination would be identical with that of the genitive: this, and the preponderating analogy of adverbs from o bases, may have introduced forms like $\sigma \omega \phi \rho o v^{v}-\omega$, which, with respect to their termination, may be compared with Zend feminine ablatives like pouss $\int$ Gq?es barethry-dt. We must also, with reference to the irregular length of this adverbial termination, advert to the Attic genitives in ws for os. $\dagger$

[^111]
## THE GENITIVE.

[G. Ed. p. 217.] 184. In no case do the different members of the Sanskrit family of languages agree so fully as in the genitive singular ; only that in Latin the two first declensions, together with the fifth, as well as the two first persons of the pronouns, have lost their old termination, and have replaced it by that of the old locative. The Sanskrit terminations of the genitive are स् $s$, स्य $s y a$, अस् $a s$, and अास् $a_{s}$ : the three first are common to the three genders: $a$ is
member has a genuine ablative meaning; and as the division a $\dot{\alpha} p o-\delta i \tau \eta$ admits of no satisfactory explanation, one may rest satisfied with àppoर-irा. In Sanscrit, सभादिता abhrâditâ would mean "the female who proceeded from a cloud," for abira-t must become abhrad before ita ( $\$ .93^{2}$.); and in neuter verbs the otherwise passive participial suffix $t a$ has usually a past active meaning. Of this usage $\iota \tau \eta$, in $\grave{\alpha} \phi \rho o \delta-i \tau \eta$, might be a remnant, and this compound might mean, therefore, "She who arose, who sprang, from foam." The only difficulty here is the short vowel of o8 for $\omega \delta$. As regards the Sanskrit, here also the $s$ of the ablative may in most declensions rest on an exchange with an older $t$ (cf. p. 184 G. ed. Note); and, as the Zend gives us every reason to expect Sanskrit ablatives like jihwdy-at, pritê-t, sünô-t, bhavishyanty-ât, âtman-at ; so it will be most natural to refer the existing forms jihway- $\hat{s}$, prite-s, \&c., where they have an ablative meaning, to the exchange of $t$ with $s$, which is more or less in vogue according to the variety of dialects ; particularly as it is known, also, that, vice versa, according to certain laws, स् ${ }^{s}$ passes into त्, (Gramm. Crit. §. 100.). Consequently the identity between the genitive and ablative, in most declensions, would be only external, and the two cases would vary in their history; so that, e.g. jihouay-âs would be, in one sense, viz. in that of linguce, independent and original; and in another, that of linguâ, a corruption of jihwdy-at. At the time when Sanskrit and Zend were separated from one another, the retention of the original $t$ must have been the prevailing inclination, and, together with it, may also its change into $s$ have arisen, as the Zend also uses, at times, the genitive form with an ablative meaning (e.g. Vend. S. p. 177.).
principally confined to the consonantal bases,* and hence has the same relation to $s$ that, in the accusative, $a m$ has to $m$, and, in the Zend ablative, at has to $t$.
185. Before the genitive sign स् $s$ the [G. Ed. p. 218.] vowels $i$ and उ $u$ take Guna; and the Zend, and in a more limited degree, also the Lithuanian and Gothic, share this augment. All $u$ bases, for example, in Lithuanian and Gothic, prefix an $a$ to their final vowel : hence the Lithuanian sunaì-s and Gothic sunau-s correspond to the Sanskrit सूनोस् sûnoss (filii) from sunaus (§. 2.). In the $i$ bases in Gothic, Guna is restricted to the feminines; thus anstai-s, " gratia," answers to म्रीतेस् pritt-s. Respecting Lithuanian genitives of $i$ bases see §. 193. The High German has, from the earliest period, dropped the genitive sign in all feminines: in consonantal bases ( $\$ 5.125 .127$.) the sign of the genitive is wanting in the other genders also.
186. The form which the Sanskrit genitive termination after consonants assumes, as it were of necessity ( (§.94.), viz. as for $s$, has in Greek, in the form os, passed over also to the vowels $t$ and $v$ and diphthongs terminating in $v$; and genitives like $\pi о \rho \tau \epsilon 1-s$, $i \chi \theta \epsilon v-s$, which would be in accordance with §. 185. are unheard of; but $\pi$ ó $\rho \pi t-o \varsigma$, ' $\chi \theta \dot{u}$-os answer, like $\pi 0 \delta$-ós, to Sanskrit genitives of consonantal bases, as पदस् pad-as, "pedis," बाचस् vâch-as, "vocis." The Latin, on the other hand, answers more to the other sister languages, but is without Guna: so hosti-s is like the Gothic genitive gasti-s. In the $u$ bases (fourth declension) the lengthening of the $u$ may replace the Guna, or, more correctly, this class of words followed the Greek or consonantal principle, and the vowel dropped before $s$ was compensated for by

[^112]lengthening the $u$. The S. C. de Bacch. gives the genitive senatu-os in Grecian garb. Otherwise the termination is of consonantal bases is better derived from the Sanskrit wस् [G. Ed. p. 219.] as than from the Greek os, because the old Sanskrit $a$ in other places in Latin has been weakened to $i$, as frequently happens in Gothic (§§. 66.67.).
187. With regard to the senatu-os just mentioned, it is important to remark, that, in Zend also, the $u$ bases, instead of annexing a simple $s$ in the genitive, as mainyĕu-s, " of the spirit," from mainyu, may, after the manner of consonantal bases, add $\downarrow 6$ (from as, ef. p. 212,
 danheu-s "loci," from gevgug danhu. This kind of genitive occurs very frequently as a substitute for the locative, as also for the ablative (Vend. S. p. 177), more rarely with a genuine genitive meaning.*
188. Bases in $\boldsymbol{*} a$, and pronouns of the third person, of which only $a m u$ ends with a vowel other than $a$, have, in Sanskrit, the more full genitive sign स्य sya; hence, e.g. बृकस्य vrika-sya, " lupi," तस्प ta-sya, "hujus," \&ce,"झमुप्य amu-shya,

[^113]" illius," (§.21.) In Zend this termination [G. Ed. p. 220.] appears in the form of he, (§. 42.): hence, e.g. שֻׁvglever vĕhrkahé, "lupi," טerross s, م tûiryè-he, "quarti," for tûirya-he.
189. In Greek and Latin we have already, in another place, pointed out a remnant of the genitive termination स्य sya, and, in fact, precisely in places where it might be most expected. As bases in w $a$ correspond to the Greek bases in $o$, and as $\sigma$ in Greek at the furthest extremity of words between two vowels is generally dislodged, I do not entertain the smallest doubt that the old epic genitive termination in to is an abbreviation of $\sigma \iota 0$; and that e.g. in toio $=$ तस्य ta-sya, the first o belongs to the base, and only to to the case-sign. As regards, however, the loss of the $\sigma$ in toio, the Greek Grammar supplies us with another oio, where a $\Sigma$ is lost, the necessary and original existence of which no one - can doubt: $\dot{\varepsilon} \delta i \delta \partial \sigma o$, and the ancient position of the $\Sigma$ in the second person, testify for $\delta \delta \delta o \iota \sigma o$ instead of $\delta i \delta o \hat{o}$, as for è è $e$ $\boldsymbol{\gamma \in \sigma o}$ instead of è $\lambda$ é $\gamma o v$, just as the Indian तस्य $t a$-sya for to- $\sigma t 0$ instead of toio. In the common language the $i$, also, has been dropped after the $\sigma$, and the o of the termination, which has remained, has been contracted with that of the base to ov; hence тoũ from то-о. The Homeric form ao (Boрé $\alpha o$, Aiveiao) belongs likewise to this place, and stands for $\alpha-t 0$, and this for $\alpha-\sigma \iota \circ$ ( §̧.116.). The Latin has transposed our स्य sya to jus, with the change, which is so frequent, of the old $a$ before the final $s$ to $u$ (cf. वृकस् vrika-s, "lupu-s," युम्म्मस् yunjmas, jungimus); hence, hu jus, cu-jus, e-jus, illius for illi--jus, \&ce. I cannot, however, believe that the $i$ of the second declension is an abbreviation of oto, of which the $t$ alone has been retained;* for it is clear that lupi and [G. Ed. p.221.] lupe from lupai rest on the same principle; and if lupi proceeds from $\lambda$ úкooo, whence can lupai be derived, as the corresponding Greek feminines nowhere exhibit an aıo or $\eta \iota 0$ ?

* Hartung's Cases, p. 211.

190. In Lithuanian the genitives of the $a$ bases differ remarkably from those of the other declensions, and denote the case by $o$, in which vowel, at the same time, the final vowel of the base is contained; thus, wilko, "lupi," for wilka-s. It is probable that this $o(\bar{o})$ has arisen from $a-s$, according to a contraction similar to that in the Zend ( $\left(\$ .56^{6}\right.$.). In old Sclavonic, also, $o$ occurs, answering to the Sanskrit as ; and nebo, gen. nebese, corresponds to the Sanskrit नभस् nabhas. That, however, the Lithuanian has left the syllable as in the nominative unaltered, but in the genitive has contracted it to $o$, may induce the remark, that like corruptions do not always find entrance in like places, if they have not raised themselves to a pervading law. In this manner, in Gothic, the old $a$ has remained in the interrogative base $H V A$ in the nominative (hvas), but in the genitive hivi-s the weakening to $i$ has taken place; so that here, as in Lithuanian, only the more worthy powerful nominative has preserved the older more powerful form, and an unorganic difference has found its way into the two cases, which ought to be similar.
191. The Gothic has no more than the Lithuanian preserved a remnant of the more full genitive termination sya, and the Gothic $a$ bases, in this case, resemble the $i$ bases, because $a$ before final $s$ has, according to $\S .67$., become weakened to $i$; thus vulfi-s for vulfa-s; as also in Old Saxon the corresponding deelension exhibits $a-s$ together with $e-s$, although more rarely; thus, daga $-s$, " of the day,"
[G. Ed. p. 222.] answering to the Gothic dagi-s. The consonantal bases have, in Gothic, likewise a simple s for case-sign; hence, ahmin-s, fiyand-s, brothr-s (\$. 132.). The older sister dialects lead us to conjecture that originally an $a$, more lately an $i$, preceded this $s$-ahmin-as, fiyand-as, brothr-as,which, as in the nominative of the $a$ bases (vulf's for vulfa-s), has been suppressed. The Zend exhibits in the $r$ roots an agreement with the Gothic, and forms, e.g. $\mu \mathrm{m} \% \mathrm{sy}$ nar-s, " of
the man," not nar-d, probably on account of the nature of the $r$ bordering on that of a vowel, and of its facile combination with $s$.*
192. Feminines in Sanskrit have a fuller genitive termination in bases ending with a vowel, viz, as for simple $s$ (see §. 113.); and, in fact, so that the [G. Ed. p. 223.] short-ending bases in $₹ i$ and $\boldsymbol{\jmath} u$ may use at will either simple स् $s$ or ख्रास् $d s$; and instead of पीतेस् prite-s, तनोस् $\tan \hat{-}-s$, also प्रीव्यास् prity-as, तन्वास् $\tan w-a ̂ s$, occur. The long vowels का $\hat{d}$, ई $\hat{i}$, उ $\hat{u}, \uparrow$ have always सास् $d_{s}$; hence, निद्हायास् jihwdy-âs, भविप्यन्यास् bhavişhyanty-ds, च्वास् vadhw-ds. This termination स्लास् $d s$, is, in Zend, according to §. $56^{\text {b }}$., sounded đo; hence, عuدs, bushyainty-do. In bases in $\lrcorner i$ and $>u$ I have not met
 dughdhar-s-which cannot be quoted-and the probability that the corresponding Sanskrit forms are properly bhratur, duhitur, which cannot be gleaned from the Sanskrit alone, on account of $\oint .11$., and by reason of the elsewhere occurring euphonic interchange of $s$ and $r$. भातुर bhratur, and similar forms, would therefore stand for -urs, and this apparently for ars, through the influence of the liquids; and, according to $\S .94$. , they would have lost the genitive sign. The same is the case with the numeral adverb चतुर् chatur, "four times," for चतुस्से chaturs; for which the Zend, by transposing the $r$, gives دus feupo chathrus (\$.44.). The Indian Grammarians also, in the genitives under discussion, assume the absence of the genitive sign (Laghu-Kaumudi, p. 35). As, however, the Visarga, in क्रोघु krôshtu (from the theme क्रोष्हर krôshțtar or क्रोद्ट krôshtri, see §. 1.), may evidently stand as well for $s$ as for $r$; so in such donbtful cases it is of no consequence to which side the Indian Grammarians incline, where arguments are not found in the Sanskrit itself, or in the cognate languages, which either confirm or refute their statements. And it is impossible, if the Visarga, in भातु; bhrâtuhi, stands for $r$, that the preceding $u$ can be a transposition of the final letter of the base (चृत उत् ), for this cannot be both retained in the form of $r$, and yet changed into $u$ (ef. Colebrook, p. 55 , Rem.)
$\dagger$ Only the few monosyllabic words make an exception. (Gramm. Crit. §. 130.)
with this termination; together with

 European languages exhibit no stronger termination in the feminine than in the masculine and neuter; the Gothic, however, shews a disposition to greater fulness in the feminine genitive, inasmuch as the 6 bases preserve this vowel in contradistinction to the nominative and accusative; but the $i$ bases, as has been shewn above, attach Guna to this vowel, while the masculines do not strengthen it at all. Compare gibd-s with the uninflected and base-abbreviated nominative and accusative giba, and anstai-s with gasti-s. Respecting the pronominal and adjective genitives, as thi-zt-s, blindai$z \delta-s$, see $\S .172$. The Greek, also, in its feminine first declension preserves the original vowel length in words which have weakened the nominative and accusative- $\sigma \phi u ́ \rho \bar{\rho}$, Moúrns, [G. Ed. p. 224.] opposed to $\sigma \phi \hat{v} \rho \alpha_{a}, \sigma \phi \dot{v} \rho a ̆-\nu, \mu o \hat{\sigma} \sigma \check{v} .^{*}$ In Latin, also, $\bar{a}-s$, with the original length of the base escās, terräs, \&cc. stands opposed to escă, escă-m. It cannot be supposed that these genitives are borrowed from the Greek; they are exactly what might be expected to belong to a language that has $s$ for the genitive character. That, however, this form, which no doubt extended originally to all $a$ bases, gradually disappeared, leaving nothing but a few remains, and that the language availed itself of other helps, is in accordance with the usual fate of languages which continually lose more and more of their old herediditary possessions.
193. The Lithuanian, in its genitive rank-ds for rankâ-s,

[^114]resembles the Gothic; and in some other cases, also, replaces the feminine $\bar{a}$ by a long or short $o$. It is doubtful how the genitives of $i$ bases, like awies, are to be regarded. As they are, for the most part, feminine, and the few masculines may have followed the analogy of the prevailing gender, the division awi-és might be made; and this might be derived, through the assimilative force of the $i$, from awi-ds (cf. p. 174, note*), which would answer to the Sanskrit genitives like म्रीत्यास् prity-ds. If, however, it be compared with प्रीतेस् príles, and the $e$ of awiés be looked upon as Guna of the $i$ (§. 26.), then the reading awiés for awés is objectionable. Ruhig, indeed, in his Glossary, frequently leaves out the $i$, and gives ugnés, "of the fire," for ugnies; but in other cases, also, an $i$ is suppressed before the $e$ generated by its influence (p. 174, note ${ }^{*}$ ); and, e.g., all feminine bases in $y \bar{a}$ have, in the genitive, es for $i$-es or $y$ - $\ell s$, as giesme-s, for giesmyls, from GIESMY $\overline{\text { i }}$ (see p. 169, note). Therefore the division awiel-s might also be made, and it might be assumed that the $i$ bases have, in some cases, experienced an extension of the base, similar to those which were explained in the note, p. 174 (cf. §. 120.). This view appears to me the most correct, espe- [G. Ed. p. 225.] cially as in the vocative, also, awie answers to giesme for giesmye, or giesmie.
194. As regards the origin of the form through which, in the genitive, the thing designated is personified, with the secondary notion of the relation of space, the language in this case returns back to the same pronoun, whence, in §. 134., the nominative was derived. And there is a pronoun for the fuller termination also, viz. स्य sya, which occurs only in the Vêdas (cf. §. 55.), and the $s$ of which is replaced in the oblique cases likewise, as in the neuter, by $t$ (Gramm. Crit. §. 268.); so that स्य sya stands in the same relation to तम् tya-m and ला् tya-t that $\boldsymbol{\pi}$ sa does to तम् ta-m, ता् ta-t. It is evident, therefore, that in स्य sya, त्व tya, the bases $\mathbb{Z} s a$, $\pi t a$, are contained, with the vowel suppressed and united
with the relative base य ya. Here follows a general view of the genitive formation:*


* The meanings will be found in $\wp .148$.
$\dagger$ See §. 103.
$\ddagger$ See p. 163. Note $\ddagger$.
§ And לpos barató also may occur, according to the analogy of पpusc) tion of the nasal in the genitive, however, as in all other cascs, is the more common form, and can be abundantly quoted. For पpaceles baréntô,

 which is of constant recurrence as the usual epithet of agriculture

\|Vide $!$. 254. p. 302, Note $\ddagger$.



## THE LOCATIVE.

195. This case has, in Sanskrit and Zend,§ $i$ for its character, and in Greek and Latin\| has received the function of the dative, yet has not suffered its locative [G. Ed. p. 227.] signification to be lost; hence, $\Delta \omega \delta \hat{\omega} \nu \iota, M \alpha \rho \alpha \theta \hat{\omega} \nu \iota, \Sigma \alpha \lambda \alpha \mu i v \iota$, $\dot{\alpha} \gamma \rho \hat{\varphi}, ~$ оíко九, $\chi \alpha \mu \alpha i ́ ; ~ a n d, ~ t r a n s f e r r e d ~ t o ~ t i m e, ~ \tau \hat{\eta} \alpha \cup \tau \eta ̂ \eta ~ \eta ́ \mu e ́ \rho q, ~$ т $\hat{\eta} \alpha$ थंт $\hat{\nu} \nu u \kappa \tau i$. . So in Sanskrit, दिषसे divasé, "in the day;" निशि nisi, "in the night."
196. With w $a$ of the base preceding it, the locative $; i$ passes into $\mathbb{E} e^{(\S .2)}$ ), exactly as in Zend; but here, also, s) $\dot{\delta i}$ stands for $50 \hat{e}$ (§. 33.); so that in this the Zend approaches very closely to the Greek datives like oiko, $\mu o i$, and $\sigma o i$, in which $i$ has not yet become subscribed, or been replaced by the extinction of the base vowel. To the forms mentioned answers دלִJJesug maidhyoi, "in the middle.' One must be careful not to regard this and similar phenomena as shewing a more intimate connexion between Greek and Zend.
197. In Lithuanian, which language possesses a proper locative, bases in a correspond in this case in a remarkable manner with the Sanskrit and Zend, since they con-

[^115]tract this $a$ with the old locative $i$, which appears pure nowhere any more, to è; hence, diewè, "in God," from DIEWA, answers to देवे dêvê, worong daêve. The bases which terminate with other vowels employ, however, in Lithuanian, without exception, $y e$ as the locative termination, without any accent upon the $e$, a circumstance which must not be overlooked. This $e$ is, perhaps, only an unorganic echo, which has occasioned the change of the old locative $i$ into $y$, as, in Zend, the plural locative termination su, by adding an $a$, appears, for the most part, in the form of $\leadsto \ggg$
[G. Ed. p. 228.] shva, or swew hva. To the Lithuanian ye answers also, in old Sclavonic, a locative termination ye, for which several declensions have the original pure $i$; so that nebes-i, "in Heaven," and imen-i, "in the name," agree most strictly with the Sanskṛit नरसि nabhas-i and नामनि näman-i, from नसस् nabhas, नामन् nâman.
198. Masculine bases in $i$ and $u$, and, optionally, feminine bases also, have a different locative termination in Sanskrit, viz. बौ $\measuredangle u$, before which $\bar{\xi} i$ and $\overline{3} u$ are dropped; but in पति pati, "lord," and सरि sakhi, "friend," the $i$ has remained in its euphonic change to य $y$ : hence, पत्यौ paty-auu, सख्यो salkhy- $\hat{u} u$. If we consider the vocalization of the $s$ to $u$, shewn in $\S .56^{\mathrm{b}}$., and that, in all probability, in the dual,

 the circumstance that in the Vêdas the genitive occurs with a locative meaning (दद्धियायाम् dakshinayas, "in dextera," for दछ्षिएायाम् dakş̣hindyam, Pânini VII. 1. 39.); and, finally, the fact that, in Zend, masculines in $i$ and $u$ likewise employ genitive terminations with a locative signification; we shall be much disposed to recognise in this को $\begin{aligned} & u \\ & \text {, from }\end{aligned}$ जाम् $\begin{gathered}s \\ s\end{gathered}$, a sort of Attic or produced genitive termination.
199. In $u$ bases, instead of the locative the Zend usually employs the genitive termination $\begin{aligned} & \text { पे } \\ & 0\end{aligned}$ (from जस् as), while, in a genitive meaning, the form $\quad u>$ q eu-s is more common; thus we read, in the Vend. S. p. 337., senceros

hoe mundo quidem existente." This Zend termination $\sigma$ (from $a+u)$ has the same relation to the Sanskrit $\hat{a} u$ that a short $a$ has to a long $a$, and the two locative terminations are distinguished only by the quantity of the first member of the diphthong. On the other hand, we find in the feminine base »јлю tanu, " body," very often the genuine locative form $s \gg j u \rho \operatorname{tanv-i}$; and we do not doubt that, in Sanskrit also, originally the $u$ bases of the [G. Ed. p. 229.] three genders admitted in the locative the termination $i$ (सुन्वि sunw-i, तन्वि tanw-i, मध्वि madhw-i, or मधुनि madhu-n-i). Bases in s i employ, in the locative, the usual genitive termination Oi-s; thus, in the Vend. S. p. 234, ujug
 hac terra quidem mazdayasnica, which Anquetil renders by "dans le pays des mazdeiesnans." In pronouns, also, though they have a locative, the genitive sometimes occurs with
 ainhe vísê, "in this way," or "place," (cf. the feminine form

200. From the Zend and Sanskrit we have already been compelled to acknowledge a connexion between the genitive and locative; and as we have seen the locative replaced by the genitive, so must we, in Latin, recognise a replacing of the genitive by the locative. Through the formal agreement of the corresponding Latin and Sanskrit termi nation, and from the circumstance that the genitive occurs with a locative meaning only in the two first declensions (Rome, Corinthi, humi), not in the third or in the plural (ruri not ruris), M. Prof. Rosen was first induced to characterize the Latin genitive of the two first declensions as borrowed from the old locative; a view, the correctness of which I do not doubt, and which I have already corroborated elsewhere by the genitives of the two first persons, in which mei. $t u i$, agree most surprisingly with मयि mayi (from mé-i, §. 2.), "in me," व्वयि twayi (from twé-i). Or ought, perhaps, a double inflexion $i$ to be assumed as the sign of both a genitive and
a locative dative? Should Roma (from Romai), Corinth; be on one occasion genitives and on another locatives, and [G. Ed. p. 230.] in their different meaning be also of different origin? And where, then, would the origin of the genitive Roma be found, as that of the locative has been found already? Should mei, tui, be compared, not with afि
 Goth. meina, theina? As the cases, like their substitutes the prepositions, pass easily from one relation of space to another, and, to use the expression, the highest become the lowest, nothing appears to me more probable, than that, after the first declension had lost its $\bar{a}$-s, then the dative, according to its origin a locative, necessarily became substituted for the genitive also.* In the second declension the form $o-i$, which belongs to the dative locative, corresponding to the Greek $\omega$, ot-and of which examples still remain handed down to us (as populoi Romanoi)-has become doubly altered: either the vowel of the base alone, or only that
[G. Ed.p. 231.] of the termination, has been left, and the first form has fixed itself in the dative, and the latter in the

* The assumption that a rejected $s$ lies at the base of the genitives in $i$, $\boldsymbol{a e}(a-i)$ appears to me inadmissible, because in all other parts of Grammar -numerous as the forms with a finals otherwise are-this letter has in Roman defied all the assaults of time, and appears cverywhere where the cognate languages lead us to expect it: no terre for terras (acc. pl.), no lupi for lupos, no ame for amas, \&c. The question is not here that of an occasional suppression of the $s$ in old poets, before a consonant in the word following. The genitives in e-s and a-s occurring in inscriptions (pro-vincie-s, suc-s, see Struve, p. 7.) appear to be different modes of writing one and the same form, which corresponds to the Greek $\eta$-s for $\bar{a}-s$; and I would not therefore derive the common genitive sua-older form suaifrom suas with the $s$ dropped. The genitives in $u s$, given by Hartung (p. 161.) from inscriptions in Orelli (nomin-us, exercitu-us, Castor-us, \&c.), I am not surprised at, for this reason, that generally $u s$ is, in Latin, a favourite termination for षस् as; hence nomin-us has the same relation to नाष्षस् námn-as, that nomin_i-bus has to नामभ्पस náma'-bhyas, and lupus to சृष्त् vrika-s.
genitive, which is therefore similar to the nom. plural, where, in like manner, Romani stands for Romanoi. But the dative is not universally represented in Latin by a locative termination; for in the pronouns of the two first persons mihi answers to महीम् ma-hyam, from ma-blyam, and tibi to तुभ्पम् tu-bhyam; as, however, the league between the dative and locative had been once concluded, this truly dative termination occurs with a locative meaning (ibi, ubi), while vice versa, in Sanskrit, the locative very frequently supplies the place of the dative, which latter, however, is most usually expressed by the genitive, so that the proper dative is, for the most part, applied to denote the causal relation.

201. Pronouns of the 3d person have, in Sanskrit, इन् in instead of $i$ in the locative, and the w $a$ of the appended pronoun र्न sma is elided (see §. 165.); hence, तस्निन् tasm'in, "in him"; कस्मिन् kasm'in, "in whom ?" This $n$, which seems to me to be of later origin, as it were an $n$ è $ф \in \lambda \kappa u \sigma \pi \iota \kappa o ́ v$, does not extend to the two first persons, and is wanting in Zend also in those of the third; hence, sen ahmi, "in this." A's to the origin of the $i$ signifying the place or time of continuance, it is easily discovered as soon as $i$ is found as the root of a demonstrative; which, however, like the true form of all other pronominal roots, has escaped the Indian Grammarians.
202. Feminine bases ending with long simple vowels have, in Sanskryit, a peculiar locative termination; viz, साम् $a m$, in which, also, the feminines in short $i$ and $u$ may at will participate (cf. §. 192.); while the monosyllabic femi-
 common ₹ $i$; hence, fियाम् bhiy- $a m$ or fियि bhiy- $i$, "in fear," from मी blit.* In Zend this termi- [G. Ed. p. 232.]

[^116]nation $a m$ has become abbreviated to $a$ (cf. §. 214.); hence, UدSEAM yahmy-a, "in which," from reang yahmi' (cf. §. 172.). This termination appears, however, in Zend, to be less diffused than in Sanskrit, and not to be applicable to feminines in $s i$ and $>u$. The form tanui is clearly more genuine than the Sanskrit tandu, although from the earliest period, also, tanwam may have existed.
203. We here give a general view of the locative, and of the cases akin to it in Greek and Latin (see §. 148.):


[^117] || The rejection of the $a$ preceding the $r$ in the theme seems to me more probable than its retention. The $i$ of the termination is guaranteed by the other consonantal declension, which in this case we can abundantly enough exemplify. (Regarding dughdhër-i, see p. 194, Note $\dagger$ ). That in Sanskrit bhrâtar-i, duhitar-i, dâtar-i, are used instead of bhrâtri, \&c. is contrary

## vocative.

204. The vocative in the Sanskrit family of languages has either no case-sign at all, or is identical with the nominative: the former is the principle, the latter the practical corruption, and is limited in Sanskrit to monosyllabic bases terminating in a vowel: hence, भीस् bhí-s "fear !" as кi-s. A final $a$ of the nominal [G. Ed. p. 234.] bases remains, in Sanskrit and Zend, unchanged; in Lithuanian it is weakened to $e$; and the Greek and Latin also, in the uninflected vocative of the corresponding declension, prefer a short $e$ to $o$ or $u$, which, under the protection of the terminations, appears as the final letter of the base. We must avoid seeing in $\lambda \hat{\imath} \kappa \kappa$, lupĕ, case terminations: these forms have the same relation to घृक vrika that $\pi$ évee, quinque, have to पष्ष pancha; and the old $a$, which appears in $\lambda$ úkos as o, in lupus as $\breve{u}$, has assumed the form of $\check{e}$ without any letter following it. In Zend, the consonantal bases, when they have $s$ in the nominative, retain it in the vocative also; thus, in the present participle we have frequently found the form of the nominative in the sense of the vocative.
205. Bases in $i$ and $u$ have, in Sanskrit, Guna; neuters, however, have also the pure vowel: on the other hand,

[^118]polysyllabic feminines in $\hat{\imath}$ and $\hat{\imath}$ shorten this final vowel; while a final wा $a$, by the commixture of an $i$, becomes $\epsilon$ (§. 2.). The language, however, both by producing and shortening the final vowel, clearly aims at one and the same end, only by opposite ways; and this end, in fact, is a certain emphasis in the address. To the Guna form冈ो $\measuredangle$, from $a+u$, correspond remarkably the Gothic and Lithuanian; as sunau, sunaù, resembling the Sanskrit मूनो sûno,* Gothic feminine bases in $i$ do not occur in [G. Ed. p. 235.] Uliflas in the vocative: as, however, they, in other respects, run parallel to the $u$ bases, the vocative anstai, from ANSTI, might be expected as an analogous form to handau. The Lithuanian $i$ bases in the vocative extend their theme in the same manner as in the genitive (§. 193.); so that, properly, there is no vocative of this class of words, and awie answers to zwáke, giesme (Ruhig's third declension), for zwákie, giesmye. $\dagger$ Masculine bases, in Gothic, in i, like the masculine and neuter $a$ bases, have lost their final vowel in the vocative, just as in the accusative and nominative; hence vulf ${ }^{\prime}$, daur', gast'. In bases in $n$ the Gothic shares with the Latin the suppression of the final consonant, which has passed over from the nominative to the vocative; while only the Sanskṛit and Zend again introduce

[^119]into the vocative the nasal which had been dropped in the nominative. Adjectives in German, with respect to the vocative, have departed from the old path, and retain the case-sign of the nominative; hence Gothic blind's, "blind!" In Old Northern, substantives also follow this irregular use of the nominative sign. The Greek has preserved a tolerable number of its vocatives pure from the nominative sign, and in some classes of words uses the bare base, or that abbreviation of it which the laws of euphony or effeminacy rendered requisite; hence, $\tau \alpha \dot{\alpha} \lambda \alpha \nu$ op-
 for $\pi \alpha \iota \delta$ opposed to $\pi \alpha i \hat{s}$. In guttural and labial bases the language has not got free of the nominative sign in the vocative, because ks and $\pi s(\xi, \psi)$ are very favourite combinations, to which the alphabet also has paid homage by particular letters to represent them. Still the [G. Ed. p. 236.] vocative ắ $\nu \alpha$, together with ${ }_{\alpha} \nu \alpha \xi$, is remarkable, and has that sound which might be expected from a theme $\tilde{\alpha}^{\prime} \nu \alpha \kappa \tau^{\prime}$, to which, in its uninflected state, neither $\kappa \tau$, nor, conveniently, even the $\kappa$, could be left. "For the rest it is easy to imagine (says Buttmann, p. 180), that particularly such things as are not usually addressed, prefer, when they happen to be ad- dressed, to retain the form of the nominative, as $\boldsymbol{\omega} \pi 0$ û! !" The Latin has followed still farther the road of corruption in the vocative which was prepared by the Greek, and employs in its place the nominative universally, except in the masculine second declension. The substantive bases mentioned in §. 148. form, in the vocative,

[^120]
206. These three cases have, in Sanskrit, in the masculine and feminine, the termination *ौ $a u$, which probably arose from wास् ${ }^{\text {a }}$ by vocalization of the $s$ (cf. $\S \S .56^{\mathrm{b}}$. and 198.), and is therefore only a stronger form of the plural termination as. The dual, both in the cases mentioned and in the others, prefers the broadest terminations, because it is based on a more precise intention than the indefinite

[^121]plural, and needs, therefore, stronger emphasis, and more lively personification. Compare, also, in the neuter, the long $i$ of the dual with the short $i$ of the plural; as अण्रुखी aśrunî with अथूपि aśrûni.

207. While the Prâkrit and Pâli have lost [G. Ed. p. 238.] the dual, the Zend has retained it; still, however, so that instead of it the plural often occurs, and in the Vend. S., p. 203, pospusesss)jeb tu a schĕnubyas̀chit, "and as far as the knees," is used with a plural termination. In the verb the dual is still more rare; but here, however, it is not entirely lost, and many examples of it can be quoted in the V.S. ${ }^{*}$ The Sanskpit termination सी $\begin{gathered} \\ u \\ \text { occurs in the cor- }\end{gathered}$ responding places in Zend in the form of qu 00 , which, according to $\S .56^{\text {b }}$., stands at the same time for the Sanskrit termination सास् $\AA s$, and gives an emphatic proof that the Sanskrit dual termination *ी $\hat{a} u$ is nothing else than a corruption of wाम् $d s$, and, in fact, an occasional one which appears in grammar only once or twice (see §. 198.), while the example herein given by the Sanskrit has been raised to a general principle by the Zend. This principle becomes almost irrefragable matter of fact from the consideration that the Zend has even actually retained, in the dual, the sibilant before the particle up cha, and uses aos-cha, not ao-cha, as might have been expected if the dual termination *ौ $\begin{gathered}\text { un, in Sanskrit, were the original form, }\end{gathered}$ and not a corruption of जास ds. Thus we read in the
 toi ubae hurvaos'-cha amèrelat-dos̀-cha, "the two Haurvats and Amertats." $\dagger$ What Anquetil, in his Voca- [G. Ed. p. 239.]

[^122]bulary (p. 456), writes naerekeïdo, and renders by "deux femmes," can be nothing else than from the base ndirikayio is, however, evidently more genuine than ט.g.s.ang nairike; as, according to the Sanskrit principle (§. 213.), from a feminine base must have been formed nairika. From s suazu, Rask cites the form quyngus bazvad, "arms," without remarking that it is a dual: it clearly belongs, however, to this number, which was to be expected referring to the arms; and the nominative plural, Y"sues bazvd or Still, in the edited parts of the Zend-Avesta, examples are wanting of bazvdo, regarding the genuineness of which, however, $I$ have no doubt.
208. In the Vêda dialect, the termination जी $\hat{d} u$ occurs frequently abbreviated to $d$, so that the last element of the diphthong is suppressed. Several examples of this abbreviated form occur in Rosen's "Specimen"; as, vष्षिना aśvin- $\hat{a}$, " the two As'wins," from aśvin, and नरा nard, " two
[G. Ed. p. 240.] men," which can be derived both from nar

[^123](नृ nri) and from nara, but which more probably comes from nar. In Zend the abbreviated termination from $a_{u}$ is likewise employed, and, in fact, more copiously than the fuller termination; and we rejoice to see, in the Heaven of Ormuzd also, the twin pair called Indian, and celebrated for their youthful beauty. We read, namely, in Vend. S. p. 313,
 (muidhê), "Asvinosque juvenes veneramur," which Anquetil renders by "je fais Jzeschné à rexcellens toujours (subsistant"). The Sanskrit बषिना aśvind however, can, in Zend, give nothing but aspind or aspina (§. 50.): the former we owe here to the protecting particle up cha (see p. 175, Note $\ddagger$ G. Ed.). The plural yavan-6 (from yavanas), referring to the dual aspind, is worthy of remark, however (if the reading be correct), as it furnishes a new proof that, in the received condition of the Zend, the dual was near being lost: the verb being, for the most part, found in the plural when referring to nouns in the dual form.
209. From the Vêda termination $d$, and the short $a$,* which frequently stands for it in Zend, the transition is easy to the Greek $\epsilon$, as this vowel, at the end of words, is a favourite representative of the old $\breve{a}$; and, as above, in the vocative (§. 204.), 入úкe stood for वृब vrika, vglev̧ věhrka, so here, also, $\alpha \nu \delta \rho \alpha$ (with euphonic $\delta$ ) corresponds to the above-mentioned Vêda नरा nara, and Zend 3 ) though, according to §. 4., $\omega$ also very frequently stands for जा $\hat{a}$, still we must avoid regarding $\lambda u ́ \kappa \omega$ as the analogous form to वृका vrika, or however, the Lithuanian dual $\grave{u}$ of masculine [G. Ed. p. 241.] bases in $a$ (in the nominative) is connected with the Vêda and Zend dual termination spoken of, i. e. has proceeded from $\bar{a}, I$

[^124]have the less doubt, because in the other declensions the Lithuanian dual also agrees in this case most strictly with the Sanskrit, and the Lithuanian $u$ or ${ }^{\circ}\left(u_{0}\right)$ is, in some other places, equally the representative of an old $\hat{a}$ (see §. 162.); compare, dủmi, or dùdu, "I give," with ददामि dadámi; düsu, "I will give," with दास्यासि dasyâmi. And the monosyllabic pronominal bases also in $a$ sound in the dual $\boldsymbol{i}$; thus $t \stackrel{\circ}{u}=\pi \boldsymbol{t} \hat{a}, k \stackrel{\circ}{u}=k a$. We hold, therefore, the Vêda form चृषा vrika, the Zend ugheve? vëlrkd, and the Lithuanian wilkù, as identical in principle: we are, at least, much more inclined to this view of the matter than to the assumption that the $u$ of wilkù is the last portion of the Sanskrit diphthong *ौ $a u$, and that wilkù belongs to the form षृबौ vrikau. In the vocative the Lithuanian employs a shorter $u$, and the accent falls on the preceding syllable: thus wilku, opposed to wilku, in which respect may be compared $\pi \alpha ́ \tau \epsilon \rho$ opposed to $\pi \alpha \tau \eta े \rho$, and §. 205.
210. Masculine and feminine bases in $i$ and $u$ suppress, in Sanskrit, the dual case termination *ौ $a u$, and, in compensation, lengthen the final vowel of the base in its uninflected form ; thus, पती pati, from पीत pati; सूनू sûnû, from
 tioned in §. 207., is advantageously distinguished from these abbreviated forms. The curtailed form is not, however, wanting in Zend also, and is even the one most in use.


[G. Ed. p. 242.] fingers," we meet with the shortened form $>\varsigma\}$ § èreerzu, which is identical with the theme (Vend. S.

211. The Lithuanian, in its $i$ and $u$ bases, rests on the above-mentioned Sanskrit principle of the suppression of the termination and lengthening of the final vowel: hence, $a w i, ~ " t w o ~ s h e e p " ~(f e m),. ~ a n s w e r s ~ t o ~ w व ी ~ a v i ̂, ~ f r o m ~ ख ् य ि ~ a v i ~ ; ~$ and sunù, " two sons," to सूनू sûnû. On this principle rests
also the Greek dual of the two first declensions. If it be not desired entirely to remove the $\omega$ of $\lambda$ úk $\omega$ from a Grecian soil, and banish it completely to India, it may be allowed to seek its origin, not in the long $a$ of वृका vrika, but in the short o of the base, as the first declension has a long $\alpha$ in the dual, because its bases terminate with $\alpha$, although in the common dialect this letter is very frequently represented by $\eta$. Or may it, perhaps, have happened, that, in the dual $\alpha$ of the first declension an $t$ subscribed has been lost, and thus $\tau \alpha \dot{\alpha}$ for $\tau \hat{q}$ would correspond to the Sanskrit तो $t \hat{e}$ (from $t \hat{a}+i$ or $\hat{\imath}$ )? Be that as it may, still the dual has always the quality $\alpha$, because it is comprehended in the base, and the $\omega$ of $\lambda \hat{u} \kappa \omega$ may be regarded as merely the lengthening of the o of $\lambda \dot{u} \kappa o$; for it must be assumed, that if the Sanskrit $a$ bases had preserved the short $\alpha$ in Greek, and वृकस् vrika-s had become $\lambda$ úk $\alpha-s$, then the dual too would be $\lambda$ úк $\dot{\alpha}$, and not $\lambda u ́ \kappa \omega$.
212. Neuters have, in the Sanskrit dual, for the termination of the cases under discussion, not सी $₫ u$, but $\hat{\imath}$, as in the plural they have not as but short $i(\mathbf{3})$. A final $\boldsymbol{w} a$ of the base with this $\mathfrak{\xi} \hat{i}$ passes into ए $\hat{e}$ (§. 2.); hence, शते sate, "two hundred," from शतई śata-í: [G. Ed. p. 243.] other vowels interpose a euphonic $n$; hence, तालुनी tâlu-n-i, "two palates." In Zend I can quote the neuter dual only in the $a$ bases; as, for example, we frequently find upass saité (§. 41.), answering to the Sanskrit शाते saté; and u
 due sahasre.
213. The Greek has renounced a termination distinguishing the neuter from the two natural genders; but the Sanskṛit appears to have extended the neuter $\hat{\imath}$ mentioned above also to the feminine $\hat{a}$ bases. But the coincidence of the feminine form जिके j̈hwe, "two tongues," from जिहा j̈hwâ, with the neuter दाने dane, " two gifts," is, as the Zend instructs us, only external, and the two forms
meet in quite different ways, and have such a relation to one another, that in din $n$ é, from danna+i, a dual termination, and, in fact, the usual one of neuters, is actually contained; but in fिक्ह jihued the masculine-feminine termination $\hat{\Lambda} u$ (from is, §. 206.) is lost, but can, however, be again restored from the Zend form quesmgangang nairikay-do, "two women." I believe, that is to say, that निद्रे jihvee has arisen or been corrupted from निह्यो jihway-du* in such a manner, that after the termination has been dropped, the preceding semi-vowel has returned to its vowel nature, and has become a diphthong with the $\bar{d}$ of the base (see $\S .2$. and cf. p. 121 G. ed.). The dual jihue?, therefore, like the Gothic singular dative gibai (§. 161.) would have only an apparent termination, i.e. an extension of the base which originally accompanied the real case termination. In Zend, however, the abbreviated feminine dual form in toe likewise occurs (§. 207. Notet), and is, indeed, the prevalent one; but it is
[G. Ed. p. 244.] remarkable, and a fair and powerful confirmation of my assertion, that even this abbreviated form in 20 , where the appended particle up cha stands beside it, has preserved the case sign $\dot{s}$; and, as above,

 spĕnté, "and two Amshaspants" ("non-conniventesque sanctos," cf. खिम amişha and Nalus V. 25, 26. and see §. 50.). $\dagger$ The form $30 e_{s}$ is to be deduced from the full form
 ceding ay must have been contracted to $\mathfrak{e}$, just as (p. 121

[^125]G. Ed.) in Prâkṛit, एमि elmi has arisen from the Sanskrit सयामि ayami, by rejecting the $a$. We may support the derivation of जिहे jihwé from जिहयो jihway-du, by this circumstance, also, that in the Vêda dialect the feminine $i$ bases may lose the dual termination $\hat{A} u$, and then display the naked base; thus, in the scholia to Pânini, वाराही उपानही vââhí upanahau, " boar-leather shoes," for वाराबौ varahyau. It is very remarkable, that even this Vêda form, only one example of which can be quoted, can be referred to the Zend
 feminine dual substantives (e.g. Vend. S. p. 225.); and I infer that its theme ends with a long, not a short $i$, from the
 (Vend. S. pp. 99, 102).*
214. To the Sanskrit-Zend feminine dual [G. Ed. p. 245.] forms in \& answer the Lithuanian in ì, as rankì, from $R A N K \bar{A}$; so that of the diphthong ₹ $\ell$ only the last element is left. The Lithuanian forms the accusative dual, in contradistinction to the cognate languages, according to the analogy of the singular, by a ringing nasal, e.g. witkuin. The Latin has preserved only in duo and ambo a remnant of the dual corresponding to the Greek, which, however, in the oblique cases, is replaced by plural terminations. Here follows a general view of the nominative, accusative, and vocative dual (see §. 148.).

[^126]

* While consonantal bases occur in the dual both with a long and a short $a$, the $a$ bases, contrary to the practice otherwise adopted of shortening a final $\hat{A}$, exhibit in the nom. acc. dual, for the most part, the original long vowel. I deduce this, among other words, from the so-called Amshaspants, which, together with the feminine form noticed at $\delta .207$. Note $\dagger$., are found also as masculine ; e g. Vend. S. pp. 14. 30, 31, \&c.: : 山以
 hucsathrâ hudâonhô âyềé, "I glorify the two Amshaspants (non conniventesque sanctos) the good rulers, who created good." If amĕsha spĕnta and hucsathrâ were plural forms, the final $a$ would be short, or at least appear much more frequently short than long; while, on the contrary, these repeatedly recurring expressions, if I mistake not, have everywhere a long $a$, and only in the vocative a short $a$ (Vend. S. p. 67. Cf. §. 209.). That the epithet hudaonhô is in the plural cannot incur doubt, from the dual nature of the Amshasp (cf. S. 208.) : this resembles, to a certain degree, the use of adjective genitives referring to a substantive in the ablative, which was mentioned in 6 ، 180. We find, also, the forms ameshâo spěntâo (Vend. S. p. 313.), which indeed might also be feminine plural forms, but shew themselves only as masculine duals, in the same meaning as the so frequent ameshâ spéntâ. We find also, frequently, gssjusug ureusjeds spènista mainyû, "the two most holy spirits" (p. 80), through which the dual form in $a$ of bases in $a$ is likewise confirmed in the most unequivocal manner. The answer to the query, Whether generally only two Amshaspants are to be assumed? whether the genitive plural (ameshananm spentananm), and sometimes also the accusative plural, is only the representative of the dual, which is very uncertain and shaken in its use? whether under the name Amshaspants, perhaps, we should always understand the Genii Haurvat (Khordad) and

Amertat
























 өчา јо эן


| 230 |  | FORMATION OF CASES. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | sanskrit. <br> vach-1,* | zend. <br> vdch-a, | creek. оัँ $\pi$ - $\epsilon$, | hithuninan. . . . . |
| T ${ }^{\text {m }}$. | bharant-du, | barant-do, |  |  |
| 匠 | bharant-A, | barant-a, | фе́povt-e, | . . . |
| $\cdots \mathrm{m}$. | atmaln-du, $\dagger$ | as̀man-do, |  |  |
| \% | atmando, | aṡman-a, | daímov-є, | N. V. ákmen-u. |
| $\stackrel{-1}{n}^{\text {. }}$ | nimn-i, | ... | $\tau \alpha ́ \lambda \alpha \nu-є$, |  |
| m. | bhrdtar-au, | bratar-do, |  |  |
|  | bhratar-d | brdtar-a, | $\pi \alpha \tau \in ́ \rho-\epsilon$, |  |
| f. | duhitar-du, | dughdhar- |  |  |
|  | duhitar-a, | dughdhar-a |  |  |
| m. | datár-au, $\dagger$ | datar-ao, |  |  |
|  | daldr-á, | dâtár-a, | ठот $\hat{\eta} \rho-\varepsilon$, |  |
| n. | vachas-î, | .... |  |  |

## INSTRUMENTAL, DATIVE, ABLATIVE.

215. These three cases have in the Sanskrit and Zend dual a common termination; while in Greek the genitive has joined itself to the dative, and borrowed its termination from it. It is in Sanskrit भ्याम् bhyám, which in Zend has been
 the termination first persons, denotes the dative singular and plural, but in the singular of the first person has become abbreviated to सम् hyam (§. 23.). This abbreviation appears, however, [G. Ed. p.249.] to be very ancient, as the Latin agrees

* The Vèda duals in $a$ are as yet only cited in bases in $a, n$, and ar ( $\nabla, \wp .1$.$) ; however, the Zend leads us to expect their extension to the$ other consonantal declensions, as also the circumstance that, in other parts of grammar, in the Vêdas $a$ is occasionally found for au, and other diph. thongs; e.g. नाया nábhâ, as locative for नाजी nûbhâu, from नारि nûbhi, "navel."
$\dagger$ See the marginal note marked (*), p. 220.
remarkably with it ; and mi-hi corresponds to मझम् ma-hyam, as $t i$-bi does to तुभ्यम् $t u$-bhyam. In the second place, भ्पस् bhyas, which expresses the dative and ablative plural, is pronounced in Zend by 0 ( $8.56^{\mathrm{b}}$.), in Latin bus, suppressing the $y$, and with the usual change of as into us. The Lithuanian has mus for bus in the dative plural (§.63.): this more complete form has, however, remained only in the pronoun of the two first persons, where mu-mus, "nobis," $y u-m u s$, "vobis," are used as well as $m u-m$ 's, $y u-m$ 's; while in all other words we find simply $m s$ as the sign of the dative-wilka-ms, \&c. In the dual dative the Lithuanian has only the $m$ of the Sanskrit termination भ्वाम् bhyâm, as wilka- $m$. This $m$ is, however, not the final letter of bhyda, but the initial labial, $b$, in a nasal form (§̧. 63.)*: to me, at least, it appears improper to regard this dual termination otherwise than that of the cognate plural case; and I have no doubt of the identity of the $m$ of wilka- $m$, $\lambda$ úkorv, with that of wilka-ms (for wilka-mus), $\lambda$ úkots. According to this explanation, therefore, the German plural dative corresponds to the Lithuanian dual dative, vulfa-m, gasti-m, sunu-m. $\dagger$

216. A third form related to the dual ter- [G. Ed. p. 250.] mination भ्याम् bhyam is fिस् bhis, as sign of the instrumental plural. This termination which is in Zend $u, \sim \leq$ bis,

[^127](also yoss bis), has in Latin fixed itself in the dative and ablative,* which must together supply the place of the instrumental; while in Lithuanian, with the exchange of the labial medial for the nasal of this organ (§. 63.), mis is the property of the instrumental alone, so that puti-mis answers to पतिभिस् pati-bhis,
217. I have already elsewhere affirmed, that the Greek termination $\phi i, \phi(v$, is to be referred to this place, $t$ and what is there said may be introduced here also. If $\phi i v$, and not $\phi l$, be assumed to be the elder of the two forms, we may offer the conjecture that it has arisen from $\phi$ is, following the analogy of the change of $\mu \epsilon S$ into $\mu \varepsilon \nu$ in the 1st person plural, which corresponds to the Sanskrit mas and Latin mus $\ddagger$; $\phi$ s would correspond to the Sanskrit bhis and Latin bis, in nobis, vobis. Perhaps, also, there originally existed a difference between $\phi \iota$ and $\phi \iota \nu$ (which we find used indifferently for the singular and plural), in that the former may have belonged to the singular, the latter to the plural; and they may have had the same relation to one another that, in Latin, bi has to lis in tibi and vobis; and that, in Lithuanian, mi has to mis in akimi, "through the eye," and akimis, "through the eyes." It has escaped notice that the terminations $\phi t$ and
[G. Ed. p. 251.] $\phi \iota \nu$ belong principally to the dative : their locative and instrumental use- $\dot{\alpha} v t o ́ \phi \iota, ~ \theta i ́ p \eta \phi \iota, \beta i \eta \phi \iota-$ is explained by the fact, that the common dative also has assumed the sign of these relations. The strict genitive use of the termination $\phi, \phi \imath v$, may perhaps be altogether denied; for if prepositions, which are elsewhere used in construction with the

[^128]genitive, occur also with the case in $\phi t, \phi i v$, we are not compelled, on this account, to regard the latter as the genitive or representative of the genitive. In general, all prepositions, which are used in construction with the genitive, would, according to the sense, be better used with an ablative or a locative, if these cases were particularly represented in Greek. The suffix $\theta e v$ also, of genuine ablative signification, expressing separation from a place, is incorrectly considered to represent the genitive termination, where the latter, in the common dialect, has received the sign of the lost ablative. In ör $\sigma \varepsilon \delta \alpha \kappa \rho \cup o ́ \phi \nu \nu \pi i \mu \pi \lambda \alpha \nu \tau 0, \delta \alpha \kappa \rho v o ́ \phi \nu \nu$ would, in Sanskrit, be rendered by सण्युभिस् aśrubhis : the relation is entirely instrumental, and is not changed because the verb mentioned is more usually, though less suitably, used with the genitive. The same is the case with ö $\sigma \sigma \varepsilon \delta \alpha-$

 as locative "to Ilium." And in Od. XII. 45. ( $\pi 0 \lambda \lambda_{s} \delta{ }^{\circ}{ }^{\prime} \mu \phi \phi^{\prime}$
 upon $\dot{\sigma} \sigma \tau \epsilon \epsilon^{\prime} \phi \nu$ as the genitive, for it can be aptly rendered by ossibus. I know no passages besides where a genitive meaning could be given to forms in $\phi t$ and $\phi t v$. To the accusative, likewise, the form $\phi t, \phi v$, is foreign, and according to its origin does not suit it; nor does it appear in the train of prepositions, which elsewhere occur with the accusative, with the single exception of és eैvvض $\phi \iota v$ in Hesiod (cf. Buttmann, p. 205). As to the opinion [G. Ed. p. 252.] of the old Grammarians, that $\phi t, \phi(v$, may stand also in the nominative and vocative, and as to the impropriety of the $t$ subscribed before this termination in the dative singular of the first declension, we refer the reader to what Buttmann (p. 205) has rightly objected on this head.
218. The neuters in $\Sigma$, mentioned in §. 128., are nearly the only ones from bases ending with a consonant, which occur in combination with $\phi v, \phi v v$, in forms like ö $\chi$ ev- $\phi v$,
ö $\rho \epsilon \sigma-\phi l, \sigma \tau \dot{\eta} \theta \epsilon \sigma-\phi ı v$, which have been misunderstood, because the $\Sigma$ dropped before vowel terminations was not recognised as the property of the base. Of the other consonants, $v$ is the only one, and KOTMAIIDON the only $v$ base, which occurs in combination with $\phi \nu \nu$; and since $\mathbf{N}$ does not combine with $\Phi$ so readily as $\Sigma$, it assumes an auxiliary vowel o-коти入 $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\circ} \mathrm{o} v-0-\phi \iota \nu$-after the analogy of compound words like $\kappa v \nu-0-\theta \alpha \rho \sigma \eta \eta_{s}$. This example is followed, without the necessity for it however, by dóкри- $\delta \alpha к \rho v_{o ́ \phi ı \nu ; ~}^{\text {; }}$ while $\nu \alpha \hat{v}-\phi \nu v$, in an older point of view, resembles exactly the Sanskrit नीकिस् ndubhis; for in compounds, also, the base NAY keeps free from the conjunctive vowel $o$, on which account $\nu \alpha \dot{v} \sigma \tau \alpha \theta \mu o v$ may be compared with Sanskrit compounds like नौस्य nau-stha, " standing (being) in the ship."
219. But to return to the Sanskrit dual termination भ्वाम् bhydm, it is further to be remarked, that before it a final $a$ is lengthened; hence, षृबाम्पाम् vrikdbhyam for वृषक्याम् vrikabhyam. It hardly admits of any doubt, that this lengthening extended to the cognate plural termination भिस् bhis; and that hence, from षृक्ष vrika also vrikd-bhis would be found. The common dialect has, however, abbreviated this form to वृतैस् vrikais, which is easily derived from vrikabhis by rejecting the $b h$; for ऐ $a i$ is, according
[G.Ed.p.253.] to §. 2., $=\hat{a}+i$. This opinion, which 1 have before expressed,* I can now support by new arguments. In the first place, which did not then occur to me in discussing this question, the pronouns of the two first persons really form from their appended pronoun सम sma, sma-bhis; hence सस्माभिस् asmabhis, युप्माभिस् yuşmabhis; which forms stand in the same relation to the षृषानिस् vrikd-bhis, assumed by me, that the accusatives जस्मान् asman, झुष्मान् yuṣhmán, do to बकान् vrikân, "lupos." Secondly, the opinion

[^129]which I arrived at theoretically has, since then, been so far practically established by the Vêda dialect, that, in it, from a final w $a$ not $\hat{a}$-bhis but $e$-bhis, has been formed, according to the analogy of the dative and ablative, as वृकेम्यस् vrikebhyas; hence, कण्येभिस् aśvébhis, "per equos," from खण्व aśva. In the common dialect the pronominal form एभिस् é-bhis "per hos," answers to this Vêda form, which must properly be derived from the pronominal base w $a$, which generally plays the chief part in the declension of ददम् idam. Though, then, on one side, from the pronoun w $a$ springs the form रभिस् $e^{e}$-bhis; on the other side, from सस्म asma and युप्म yushma proceed the forms ख््म्माभिस् asmâbhis, युक्ताभिस् yushmabhis; and though the Vêda dialect, in its substantive and adjective bases in $a$, attaches itself to the former form, still no necessity hence arises for supposing the abbreviated ais to be based on an e-bhis,* as that could never lead to ais. Perhaps, however, abhis might become ebhis, either through the assimilative force of the $i$ of bhis, or through analogy to [G. Ed. p. 254.] the dative $\hat{A}$-bhyas, the $\hat{A}$ of which may, in like manner, owe its origin to the re-active influence of the य् $y . \dagger$
220. The Prâkrit has fully followed out the path commenced by the Vêda dialect, and changed into ए $\theta$ the $d$ of

[^130]asma-bhis, yushma-bhis, as also, in the locative plural, that of asmäsu, yuşhmâsu; hence wम्हेहिं amhe-hinं, तुम्हेहिं tumhe-hini, *्रम्हेसु amhésu, तुम्हेमु tumhésu. Moreover, in Prâkrit, all other $a$ bases, as well pronouns as substantives and adjectives, terminate the instrumental plural with एहिं $e$-hini ; and thus कुमुमेनें kusumê-hin, "floribus," (from kusuma,) answers to the Vêda कुसुमेमिम् kusumé-bhis. Before, however, the forms in एभिस् e -bhis, एहिं e -hiñ, had arisen, from *ाभिस् $\begin{aligned} & \text { abhis, by the }\end{aligned}$ change of $d$ into $\ell$, dis must have proceeded by means of rejection and contraction from that most early form. This form exists also in the oldest hymns of the Vêdas, together with that in एभिस् ebhis : thus, in Rosen, p. 14, यक्षैस् yajnais; pp. 15 and 21 स्रकैस् arkais. In Zend the abbreviated form ais is the only one that occurs, which it does, indeed, extremely often.
221. Before the dual termination sisss bya the Zend, in [G. Ed. p. 255.] its $a$ bases, differs from the Sanskryit in the - same way as the Zend and Prâkṛit do before the termination भिस् bhis, fिं hini; it employs, namely, $e$ for $a$ : but from vèhrke-bya, according to $\$ \$$. 28. 41. comes vëhrkaeibya.
 padhaeibya, "suis pedibus," = साभ्वाम् पादाभ्याम् swäbhyam padabhyam; Nssyonpossug zas̀taelibya (हस्ताम्याम्) " manibus." But in this case, also, the diphthong ए $\mathbb{E}$ is supplied by $\delta i(\$ .33$.$) ;$
 this form the lost nasal be restored, and it be assumed (of which I have no doubt) that the Greek dual termination $i v$ is an abbreviation of the Sanskṛit bhyäm;* then the Homeric forms


[^131]above mentioned; where, therefore, the first s would fall to the base, which it lengthens, the other to the termination. The third declension, by its forms like $\delta a \not \mu o ́ v$-otv, might give rise to the conjecture, that ov and not $\omega v$ is the true termination: the latter, however, is shewn to be so from the two first declensions, where $i v$ and not $o l v$ is attached to the final. vowel of the base (Moú $\sigma \alpha-\tau \nu, \lambda_{0}$ 'o- $-t \nu$ ). In the third, therefore, we explain the o before $\tau v$ in the same manner as, $\S .218$. before $\phi i v$ ( $\kappa o \tau v \lambda \eta \delta o v-\sigma-\phi \nu$ ); viz. as a conjunctive vowel, which has made its way from the bases which necessarily have it, i.e. from those terminating in a consonant into those which might dispense with it (into the bases in $t$ and $v$ ); as, in general, in the third declension the consonantal bases have given the tone, and have shewn the way to the vowels $s$ and $v$. It might, however, not [G. Ed. p. 256.] have beeu necessary for the conjunctive vowel o to make its appearance between consonants and the termination, as $\delta \alpha \iota \mu \nu-\iota \nu$ could very easily be uttered; but the o of $\delta \alpha \iota \mu$ óvorv comes evidently from a time when the $n$ was still preceded by the consonant, which the corresponding Sanskrit termination bhyâm leads us to expect; in all probability a $\phi$; thu s, $\delta \alpha \iota \mu{ }^{\prime} v-o-\tau \nu$, from $\delta \alpha \iota \mu o v-o-\phi c v_{.}^{*}$ We should have, therefore, here a different $\phi v$ from that which, in $\S$. 217., we endeavoured to explain from фis, fिस् bhis: the nasal in the dual $(\phi) \omega$ stands quite regularly for its predecessor $m$, as, in general, at the end of words. In order to present to our

[^132]view still more clearly how forms quite similar take root in the language as corruptions of preceding dissimilar forms, let the form étuntov be considered as the first person singular and third person plural; in one case from ётиттоц, in the other from étuптоит.

- 222. If the dual termination $\omega$ be explained as a contraction of bhyam, we shall have found, also, the origin of the dative plural termination $c v$, which appears to have been changed in this number in the pronouns of one gender as it were by accident ( $\tilde{\eta} \mu^{\prime}-\hat{\nu} v, \stackrel{\nu}{\nu} \mu^{\prime}-\hat{v} v, \sigma \phi^{\prime}-i v$, together with $\sigma \phi i-\sigma t)$. The Greek, however, in this respect, is guided or misled by the Sanskrit; or, more correctly, the distinction of the plural dative of the pronouns of one gender is very ancient, and the Sanskrit has in them भ्यम् bhyam as termination (खस्मभ्यम् asma-bhyam, "nobis," युप्पम्पम् yushma-bhyam, (G. Ed. p. 257.) "vobis"), opposed to the भ्वस् bhyas of all other words. From this bhyam, then, we arrive at $i v$ quite as easily, or more so, than from the dual termination bhyam (cf. §. 42.). As, however, म्यम् bhyam, and its abbreviated form सम् hyam, according to $\S .215$., has also its place in the singular dative of the pronouns of one gender, but occurs nowhere else; as, moreover, the Latin also, in the pronouns referred to, has maintained a genuine dative termination, and to the common $i$, which is borrowed from the locative, presents in contrast the termination bi or $h i$ (for bhi) ( $($. 200.) ; we can, therefore, in the singular $\tau v$ also of $\dot{\varepsilon} \mu^{\prime}-i v, \tau \in-\hat{i} v, \tau^{\prime}-i v, i v, \sigma \phi^{\prime}-i \hat{v}$, see nothing else than an abbreviation of r्यम् bhyam, a form which the Latin and Greek have shared in such a manner, that the former has retained the beginning and the latter the end. In the $i$ both coincide. ${ }^{*}$ The occasional accu-

[^133]sative use of this termination, in Theocritus, is to be explained from its original signification being no longer felt, and the exchange of its $v$ with that of the accusative thereby caused. On the other hand, we have inn $\mu i v$ and $v i v$ real accusatives, and should therefore divide them $\mu i-\nu, \nu i-\nu$; and not assume, with Buttmann (p. 296), a connection between this form and the dative -iv.

223. As to the origin of the case-suffixes [G. Ed. p. 258.] भिस् bhi-s, भ्पम् bhy-am, भ्पाम् bhy-am, and भ्पस् bhy-as, which begin with 䜣 bhy (from fि bhi), we must notice, first, their connection with the preposition wfor abhi, "to," "towards," "against," (whence सभितस् abli-tas, "at," cf. " apud"). However, in abhi itself bhi is clearly, in like manner, the termination, and the demonstrative $\begin{aligned} & \\ & a\end{aligned}$ the theme; so that this preposition, in respect to its termination, is to be regarded as a sister form to the Latin $t i-b i, s i-b i, i-b i, u-b i ; *$ just as another preposition, which springs from the pronominal base $a$, viz. सधि adhi, "over," finds analogous forms in the
 to the suffix fu dhi is $\vartheta d h a$, which has been retained in the common dialect only in the abbreviation ha, in i-ha, "here," and in the preposition sa-ha, "with"; but in the Vêda dialect exhibits the original form and more extended diffusion, and in the Zend, also, is found in several pro-
mination इन् in (§. 201.). In this view similar forms would be contrasted, exclusive of the length of the Greek $\omega$, which, according to my explanation, may pass as compensation for the $a$, which has been dropped. Still I lay less stress on the difference of quantity than on this, that it is precisely the pronouns of one gender in the Sanskrit, which exhibit in the locative not in but the common $i(\$ .201$.), but I attach still more weight to what has been snid above in support of my opinion.

* In Prâkŗit the termination fí hiin, which is connected with fि blii (cf. §.217.), unites also with other pronominal bases, for the formation of locative adverbs, as तहिं ta-hin, "there," वfिं ka-hiin, "where ?"
nominal bases with a locative signification; e.g. ven>s ava-dha, "here." In the Greek, compare $\theta \alpha$ of ${ }^{\prime} v \theta \alpha$, opposed to $\theta \varepsilon v$, from ${ }_{\epsilon}^{\epsilon} v \theta \varepsilon v, ~ \grave{\epsilon} \mu \in ́ \theta \varepsilon v, ~ \& c c$., from धस् dhas, for तस् tas, in ซभस् $a$-dhas, "beneath": in which formations y $d h$ stands as a permutation of $t$, and occurs in this way, also, in some other formations." Therefore dha, dhi, are to be derived from the demonstrative base $\pi \boldsymbol{t a}$; but it is more difficult to trace the origin of the fि bhi of wfa abhi (Greek $\dot{\alpha} \mu \phi i$ ). I suspect that an initial consonant has been
[G. Ed. p. 259.] dropped. As in Greek, also, фiv is used for $\sigma \phi^{\prime} v$, and as in Sanskrit fिश्शाति vińsati "twenty," is clearly an abbreviation of fíशति dwiňsati, and in Zend urs bi's, "twice," 2 دsposs bitya, "the second," is used for وdvîs,
 so fि bhi may be identical with the pronominal base $\mathrm{a}_{\mathrm{s}}$ swa or सि sui-whence the Greek $\sigma \phi \in i ̂ ̧, \sigma \phi^{i v}, \phi_{i} i v, \& c$. ; and so indeed, that after the $s$ has been dropped, the following semi-vowel has been strengthened or hardened, just as in the Zend $u$ changed sibilant might also be recognised in the aspiration of the भ् bh, as, in Prâkrit (§. 166.), zम sma has become - mha; and, (which comes still closer to the case before us), in
 should spring from $b+h$ is not entirely unknown; and in this way is to be explained the relation of भूयस् bhíyas, " more," to बहु bahu, " much," the a being rejected (Gramm. Crit. r. 251. Rem.).

224. The following will serve as a general view of the dual termination under discussion, in Sanskrit, Zend, Greek, and Lithuanian:-
[^134]
## sanskpit.

m. vrika-bhyam,
f. jühwâ-bhyâm, m. pati-bhyâm,
f. tanu-bhyám,
f. vag-bhyam, m. bharad-bhyâm,
m. Alma'-bhyâm. $\dagger$
$\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { zEND. } \\ \text { vĕhrkaẻi-bya, or } \\ \text { vĕhrkôi-bya, }\end{array}\right\} \lambda$ úko-ıv, $\quad$ wilka-m.
hizvâ-bya, $\quad \chi \omega \rho \alpha-t v, \quad$ ranko-m. paiti-bya, $\quad \pi \circ \sigma i-o-t v, \quad$ pati-m. tanu-bya, vâch-e-bya,* $\pi i \tau \dot{u}-0-t v$, ob $\pi-o-\hat{\imath} v$, baran'-bya, феро́vт-o- $1 \nu$, as̀ma'-bya, ठaııóv-o-tv,

- I deduce this form principally from the base $\mu \mathrm{b}_{\mathrm{N}} 9$ raoch, "light," which often occurs in the terminations beginning with $b$, and always interposes qeas conjunctive vowel-
 Bases in $) r$ interpose $\varepsilon \breve{e}$; those in $\rho t$, when a vowel precedes that
 bya, according to $\varsigma .38$.$) : on the other hand, the \rho t$ of $\rho, \frac{\omega}{5} n t$ is rejected; thus, V.S. p. 9. udJyjesqใ\& bĕrĕzĕn'-bya, "splendentibus," with , contrary to $\$ .60$. The form $\{$ wojls poses?s broat-byainm, "superciliis," also deserves notice, becanse in this solitary word the case termination appears unreduced ( $(\$ .61$.). The MS., however, as often as this word occurs, always divides the termination from the base (Vend. S.
 Grusss barvat byahm, probably for bravat byanm; so that it would seem that posins brvat is the ablative singular of a theme ,) $b$ rîu (Sansk. भू bhri). I have not found this word in any other case: it is not likely, however, that any thing but posys brvat or p,yusp/s brvant is its theme: in the latter case it would be a participial form, and would demonstrate, that instead of the last consonant of $n t$, the last but one also may be rejected. Or are we to regard brvat byaim as a form of that singular kind that unites with the termination of the ablative singular that of the dual, and thas $; \frac{2}{}$ bríu would still be the theme?
$+N$, in Sanskrit and Zend, is rejected before case terminations beginning with a consonant ; thus, in Greek, तiaipo- $\sigma$, and in Gothic ahma'-m.

[G. Ed. p.281.] 225. These two cases, in Sanskrit, have the common termination बोस् $\delta s$, which may be connected with the singular genitive termination. The following are examples: वृक्योस् urikay- $\delta s$, fिहलोम् jihway- $\begin{aligned} & \text { ss (cf. §. 15s.), }\end{aligned}$ पत्योस् paty- $\delta s$, तन्वोस् $\operatorname{tanw}-\delta s$, वाषोस् $v a c h-\delta s$, भाष्थोस् $b h r d t r-\delta s$, बषसोस् vachas-ôs. In Zend this termination seems to have disappeared, and to be replaced by the plural; likewise in Lithuanian, where, awy- $\hat{u}$ is both dual and plural genitive.


## PLURAL.

## NOMINATIVE, VOCATIVE.

226. Masculines and feminines have, in Sanskrit, जस् as for the termination of the nominative plural, with which, as in the cognate languages, the vocative is identical in all declensions. I consider this as to be an extended form of the singular nominative sign $s$; so that in this extension of the case-suffix lies a symbolical allusion to plurality: and the $s$, which is too personal for the neuter, is wanting in that gender, in the singular and dual, as well as in the plural. The three numbers, therefore, with regard to their masculine-feminine termination or personal designation, are related to one another, as it were, like positive, comparative, and superlative, and the highest degree belongs to the dual. In Zend बस् as has, according to §. $\mathbf{5 6}^{\text {b }}$.

[^135]become 6 or ssu as before the appended particles cha and chit; the Greek exhibits es, under the restriction of §. 228.; the Latin és,* with unorganic length of quantity through the influence of the $s$; the Lithuanian has es in bases in $r$ but elsewhere simple s. Thus the words दुहितर
 -es, correspond with one another.
227. The $a$ of the termination is melted [G. Ed. p. 262.] down with a preceding w $a$ of the base to $a$; thus, वृकास् vrikds, from vrika + as, corresponds to the Gothic vulfós, from VULFAas (§. 69.). In this concretion only, however, with the vowel of the base, the Gothic has preserved the full termination; but elsewhere, both with vowel and consonantal bases, the $s$ alone of the old as is left, as in general the termination as in Gothic polysyllabic forms has everywhere been weakened to is or $s$ (cf. $\$ \S .135 .191$.) : hence, sunyu-s, ahman-s, for suniv-as, ahman-as. And wा $a$, too, is contracted with the termination as to $d s$; hence, जिहास् juhwâs, for jilhwa-as. It cannot, however, be shewn with certainty, from what has been just said, that the Gothic gibbs, from $G I B \bar{O}$, has simple $s$ or as (contracted with the base vowel to $\hat{\theta}=\hat{a}$ ) for its case designation.
228. The masculine pronominal bases in a refuse, in Sanskrit, Zend, and Gothic, the full nominative designation, and in place of it extend the base by the addition of an $i$, which, according to §. 2., with the $a$ of the


[^136]hence, Sanskrit ते te, Zend we te, Gothic thai, "this," [G.Ed.p.263.] answering to the feminine form तास् $t d s$,
 (Doric for oi). In Greek and Latin, however, this $i$, which practically replaces the termination as (es, és), has not remained in the masculine pronominal bases in $o$ ( $=$ स $a$, §. 116.); but all other bases of the second, as of the first declension, have, in Greek and Latin, taken example from it; hence, $\lambda u ́ k o t, \chi \hat{\omega} \rho \alpha t$, for $\lambda u k o-\epsilon s, \chi \omega \rho \alpha-\varepsilon s$, lupi (from lupoi), terree (from terrai), for lupo-es, terra-es. The Latin fifth declension, although in its origin identical with the first (§. 121.), has preserved the old termination; hence, rēs from rē-ēs, as, in Sanskrit jihwads from jihwd̂-as. The Lithuanian has fixed narrower restrictions than the Greek and Latin on the misuse of the pronominal inflexion under discussion, or, to speak more correctly, want of inflexion: it gives, indeed, wilkai $=\lambda$ úkot, lupi, but not rankai, but rankos. Honour, therefore, to the Gothic! that in this respect it has not overstepped by one hair the old Sanskrit-Zend limits; for that the adjective $a$ bases, as they in general follow the pronominal declension, give also ai for $\delta_{s}$ (blindai "caci") is, therefore, no violation of the old law.
229. In Zend, in consonantal bases the dual termination \&w alo also (from क्षास् $đ s, \S .207$.) occurs with a plural signification; thus, frequently, suß

Crit. §. 271.) shews itself clearly through most of the oblique cases, as ami-byas, "illis," ami-sham, "illorum," to be the naked theme. The form which occurs in the Zend-Avesta upueqdusl vispeś-cha, "omnesque" (V. S. p. 49), considered as a contraction of vispay-ás-cha (cf. §. 244.), leads to the conjecture, that to ते $t \hat{e}$, and similar uninflected forms, the termination as also might attach itself; thus, तयस् tay-as. In Zend, the pronominal form in $\ell$ occurs, for the most part, in the accusative plural; and thus the abovementioned viśpes-cha l.c. stands probably as accusative, although, according to Anquetil's inaccurate translation, it might be regarded as the nominative.
raoch- $\hat{0} 0$, "luces," which forms cannot be regarded, perhaps, as regular plurals of bases in $a$; for I believe [G. Ed. p. 264.] I can guarantee that there exists no such base as supuwl? vacha and wnbsol raocha. The form ఫergew aonhd in a
 on that in the Vêdas, but which only occurs in the nominative, खासस् Asas (§. $56^{\mathrm{h}}$.); e.g. स्तोमासस् stômasas, "songs of praise," for स्लोमास् stomas, from स्सोम stôma.*
230. Bases in $i$ and $u$ have, in Sanskrit, Guna; hence पतयम् patay-as, सूनवस् sûnaw-as, for paty-as, sûnw-as. The Gothic also has preserved this Guna, but in its weakened form $i$ (§. 27.), which, before $u$, becomes $y$; hence, sunyu-s, "sons," (for suniu-s, from sunau-s,) a form which would be unintelligible without the Guna theory, which has been shewn to belong to the German. In $i$ bases the Guna $i$ is melted down with that of the base to long $i$ (written ei, §. 70.); hence, gastei-s, anstei-s, from GASTI, ANSTI (ef. p. 105.). The Zend employs Guna or not at pleasure ; hence $\begin{aligned} & \text { yspossud }\end{aligned}$

231. Neuters have, in Zend, as in the cognate European languages, a short $a$ for their termi- [G. Ed. p. 265.] nation $\ddagger$; perhaps the remains of the full as, which belongs to the natural genders, after the $s$, which is too per-

[^137]sonal for the dead speechless gender, has been dropped.
[G. Ed. p. 266.] This $a$ remains, then, in the accusative. The masculine and feminine have, in the same case, generally likewise as (Zend $\ddagger$ ¢ 0 , xpusus as̀cha). The
 *р, a) Jy nar-a, "homines;" sreves ast-a, "ossa." In nominal bases in $a$ the termination is melted down with the vowel of the base: the $\vec{a}$ so produced has, however, in the received condition of the language, according to a
has been dropped, and its loss either compensated by lengthening the final vowel, or not. We must therefore direct our attention to bases with a different termination than $a$, especially to such as terminate with a consonant. The examination of this sulject is, however, much embarrassed, in that the Zend, without regard to the gender of the singular, is prone, contrary to natural expectation, to make every noun neuter in the plural; an inclination which goes so far, that the numerons class of $a$ bases have hereby entirely lost the masculine nominative, and but sparingly exhibit the masculine accusative. When, e.g. mashya, "human being," is, in the plural nominative, likewise, mashya (with cha, mashyä-cha), here I am nevertheless convinced that this plural mashya, or mashya, is not an abbreviation of mashyan from maslyads ( $\rho$. $56 b$.), as in no other part of Zend Grammar $\mu a$ or ${ }^{\omega}$ a $a$ stands for wास् $a s$ : I am persuaded that this form belongs to the neuter. The replacing, however, of the plural masculine by neuters rests upon a deep internal feeling of the language; for in the plural number it is clear that gender and personality are far in the back ground. The personality of the individual is lost in the abstract infinite and inanimate plurality; and so far we can but praise the Zend for its evitation of gender in the plural. We must blame it, however, in this point, that it does not, in all places, bring the adjectives or pronouns into concord with the substantives to which they refer, and that in this respect it exhibits a downright confusion of gender, and a disorder which has very much impeded the inquiry into this subject. Thus, e.g. vípa anaghra-raochaoo (not raoch-a), "all lights which have had no beginning"; tisaró (fem.) sata or thrayó (mase.) sata, "three hundred"; chathuârố (masc.) Bata "four hundred." In general the numbers "three" and "four" appear to have lost the nenter; hence, also, thrayô csafn-a, "three nights," chathwáró csafn-a, "four nights": inVend. S. p. 237, on the other hand, stands tá nara ya, "those persons who . . . ." I divide thus nar-a
although
principle often quoted，been again shortened，and remains only in monosyllabic bases and before annexed particles． The Gothic and Zend，in this respect，stand［G．Ed．p．267．］ very remarkably upon one and the same footing；for tho， ＂h๔c，＂is used（for thad，§．69．），from THAa；hvó，＂quce，＂for HVAa ；but daura，from DAURA，as，in Zend，wo ta， ＂hac，＂山工．$y a$ ，＂que，＂opposed to uqu agha，＂peccata，＂ from agha．It cannot，therefore，be said of the Gothic that the $a$ of the base has been dropped before that of the termi－

[^138]nation, for it could not be dropped, because the base-vowel and termination have been, from the first, concrete. The old length of quantity might, however, be weakened: this is the fate of long vowels especially at the end of words. It cannot, therefore, be said of the Greek $\tau \grave{\alpha} \delta \hat{\omega} \rho \alpha$ and the Latin dona, that the $a$ entirely belongs to the termination, This $a$ is an old inheritance of the oldest date, from the time when the second declension, to use the expression, terminated its bases with $\breve{a}$. This $\breve{a}$ has since then become, in Greek, o or $e$ (§. 204.), in Latin, $u, \sigma$, or $e$, and has maintained its ancient quality only in the plural neuter, and the $\bar{a}$, which has grown out of $\breve{a}+\breve{a}$, has become shortened. This $\breve{a}$, however, in contrast with its offspring $\breve{u}, \breve{e}, \breve{u}$, may even pass for a more weighty ending, which unites base and termination, than if $\delta \omega \rho 0$ or $\delta \omega \rho \epsilon$, donŏ, doně, stood as the plural neuter.
232. Bases in $i$ and $u$ may, in Zend, suppress their final vowel before the termination, and $u$ may be suppressed and replaced by lengthening the base-vowel: thus we read in the Vend. S. pp. 46 and 48, s) 2 egara, "hills," from Dدave gairi (see p. 196, Note $\dagger$ ): on the other hand, p. 313, gairis (fem.). That which Anquetil (II. 268.) renders by "une action qui empêche de passer le pont, le péché contre nature," runs in the original (p. 119), w. NJJud sum
[G. Ed. p. 268.] i. e. "the sins which stop the bridge, the actions which ...."; and here it is evident that anápërětha stands for anapéréthw-a, for pěrětu means actually "bridge."*

[^139]But a final $u$ may also be retained, in the form of a semivowel, either pure or with Guna : the latter form I recognise in s>>p.jw. yaltava (Vend. S. p. 120; in Olshausen, p. 7), which can only be the plural accusative of spur, $y$ âtu, for it stands with vequagha, "peccata; and in the same page in Olshausen oceurs a derivative of $y d t u$ in the accu-
 cian," "gifted with magic" (according to Anquetil, magicien). I render, therefore, agha yatava literally by "the sins of sorcery" (Anquetil, "la magia très mauvaise"); and in An-
 regular plural genitive of our base $y d t u$, which means, therefore, "of the sorceries"; while Anquetil faultily gives it the meaning of the derivative (magiciens), and, according to his custom, takes this oblique case for a nominative. An example of a neuter plural form without Guna is at V.S.
 seven Indies" (Anq. II. p. 270). It has the epithet us-astur-a
 daus-astarĕm hĕndum, " to the ill-starred (?) [G. Fd. p. 269.] Indies." An example, in which the suppressed termination in a $u$ base is replaced by lengthening the final vowel, is the very frequently occurring gerlụ vôhû, "goods," from swl
233. The interrogative base ki (cf. quis, quid), which in Sanskrit forms only the singular nominative-accusative (neuter) किम् $k i-m$, but is elsewhere replaced by $k a$; whence, in Zend, ${ }^{\text {PN M }}$ ka-! " what ": this base, the use of which is very limited, forms in Zend the plural neuter gss gy-a*; and
 spog)fue neously thris amrata), "What are the words which are thrice said in the prayers (songs) ?" The masculine forms atte and yoi can here, according to Note at §. 231, occesion no difficulty. So also V. S. p. 85, גנدs gya
before

## FORMATION OF CASES.

this form is the more important, since we still require examples which can be relied upon, in which the $i$ of the base is not suppressed before the termination $a$ (above, gara for gairy-a), although it may with reason be conjectured, that, in accordance with the abovementioned hëndv-a and yatav-a, forms also like vairy-a or vairay-a, from vairi, were in use. As in Gothic, neuter substantive and adjective bases in $i$ are wanting, the numeral base THRI, "three," and the pronominal base $I$, "he," are very important for the neuter cases under discussion, in which they form thriy-a (thriya hunda, "three hundred") and iy-a, according to the principle of the Sanskrit monosyllabic forms, of which the $i$ sound has not passed into its simple semi-vowel, but into iy; thus, in Sanskrit, भिया bhiy- $\hat{d}$, from भी bhí.
234. The Sanskrit gives, in place of the Zend-European neuter $a$, an ₹ $i$, perhaps as the weakening of a former $a$
[G. Ed. p. 270.] (§. 6.); the final vowel of the base is lengthened, and between it and the case termination a euphonic $n$ is placed (§. 133.); hence दानानि danâ-n-i, बारीखिय väri-n-i,* मuूनि madhu-n-i. $\dagger$ The bases which terminate with a single consonant—न् $n$ and < $r$ being excepted-prefix to it a nasal,
 "which are the lords"?).

* According to a euphonic law (Gram. Crit. r. 84 ${ }^{\text {a }}$.), an न् $n$ following after $\boldsymbol{\tau} r$, and some other letters, is, under certain conditions, changed into या $\dot{n}$.
$\dagger$ In the Vêdas, the $n i$ in $a$ bases is frequently found suppressed; e.g. विश्वा visiowa, "omnia," from viśroa. In this way the Sanskrit is connected with the Zend vispa, vispa-cha: but perhaps this coincidence is only external; for as the Sanskrit nowhere uses a neuter termination $a$, विण्या viśwâ cannot well be deduced from vispa $a+a$, but can only be explained as an abbreviation of the $a-n i$, which likewise occurs in the Vêdas, as also पुरू purî, " multa," " magna," is used for पुरुरिए purị̂i (Rosen's Spec. pp.9,10).
and after $s$ and $n$ the preceding vowel is lengthened; hence बचांसि vachan-si, नामानि namann-i. Into relation with this $i$ might be brought the neuter inflexion of qua (quai) and he-c (haic) which stand in Latin very isolated; que is, however, still tolerably distant from the Sanskrit कानि $k d-n-i$, while it is nearly identical with the neuter dual के $k e$ from $k a+i$ (§.212.). Since, however, the antiquity of this dual termination is supported by the Zend, the plural form kani stands on the other side isolated, and its age is thereby rendered doubtful; as, moreover, the Latin, in the verb also, has introduced a termination originally dual into the plural*; [G. Ed.p. 271.] we cannot avoid recognising in the Latin plural que a remnant as true as possible of the Sanskrit dual के he.

235. We give here a general view of the formation of the plural nominative, and of the vocative, identical with it and the neuter accusative:

| ur. | zend. | aremb. | Latin. | Lithean. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| m | věhrkdon, | $\lambda$ 入́кo |  |  |  |
| m. te, | te, | тоí, | is $-t^{\prime} \hat{z}$, | tie, $\ddagger$ | thai. |
| n. dAnd-n-i, | data, | ठ̀ఱิpa | don |  |  |
| jihwals, | hizváo, | $\chi$ ¢̂pat, | terrae, | ankos, | gibôs. |

* The termination tis answers to चस् thas, Greek rov from ros, not to v tha or त ta, Greek re. With respect to the otherwise remarkable declension of qui, and of hic, which is akin to it, I would refer preliminarily to my treatise "On the Influence of Pronouns in the formation of Words" (by F. Dümmler), p. 2.


## + See §. 229.

$\ddagger$ This form belongs not to the base $T A(=\pi t a)$, whence, in the singular, ta-s, and nearly all the other cases; but to TIA, whence, through the influence of the $i$, tie has been developed (cf. p. 174, Note * and $\oint .193$.$) ; and whence, in the dative dual and plural, tie-m, tie-ms. The$ nominative plural is, however, without a case termination. The original form TIA corresponds to the Vêda स्प tya, mentioned in $\delta .194$. ; while the base स्प sya (ष्प shya, see §. 55.) is fully declined in Lithunnian in the form of SZIE, and in the plural nominative, likewise without inflexion,

is szie. From the pronominal declension the form ie (from ia) has found its way into the declension of the adjective also: so that the base GERA, "good," forms several cases from GERIE; viz. dat. du. gerie-m for gera-m, dat. pl. gerie-ms for gera-ms, and nom. pl. gerì for gerai. This geri appears to stand in most complete agreement with the Latin nominatives of the corresponding declension (bonī, lup $\bar{i}$ ); but the difference between the two languages is this, that the $i$ of boni (for bono-i) belongs to the termination, while geri is void of termination, and stands for gerie (analogous with tie), but this latter for gerie-i (cf. yaunikkie-i.)

* See p. 163, Note $\ddagger$.
$\dagger$ See p. 1078.
$\ddagger$ To this $k y-a$, from ki-a, cerresponds surprisingly the Latin qui-a (quianam, quiane), if, as I scarce donbt, it is a plural neuter, as quod is a singular neuter (cf. Max. Schmidt "De pron. Graco et Latino," p. 34). In the meaning "that," quia is clearly shewn to be an accusative: the meaning " because" is less apt for this case, and would be better expressed by an instrumental or an ablative; but in the singular quod we must be content to see the idea "because" expressed by an accusative. On the other hand, quo, among other meanings, signifies "whither," a genuine accusative signification in Sanskŗit grammar. Without the support of quod we might conjecture that an instrumental singular had been preserved in quia, after the analogy of eusspossed paity-a, for paiti.
§ We might expect gav- $\delta$, gava's-cha, "bovesque;" but we read ưse geus in the Vend. S. p. 253, L. 9, in combination with the pronominal
 Note, cannot surprise us.

























## "GAILVSOOOV GHL

| *... | $\cdots{ }^{\prime} \mathrm{D}$-ıəд ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |  | '2-supypna | 'UI |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| * . ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | $\cdots+$ + ${ }^{\text {c }}$ - Loppp | [ $29-$ dulog | * 0 -ıppp | 'sv-ıpppp | 'UI |
| . | 'sว-ıдр $n p+$ 'sว-ıрри | ' $53-d$ ¢ 20 Lin $\theta$ | * 0 -גDYpч $6 n p$ | 'sD-גD7!Yпр | 'J |
|  | ... +'sa-גpif | *Sэ-dэை 101 | *\%-1pppeq | 'sD-ıрррячq | 'UI |
| -р-ирихи | * 'D-uয̣uou | ${ }^{\prime} \mathrm{x}-120 \mathrm{Y}$ | 'p-uрupu | '?-uрири | U |
| -s-uричจ | $\cdots{ }^{\text {. }}$ + ${ }^{\text {sg-uоuılas }}$ | '53-torlyog | 'o-uvusp | 'sD-upuip | - 1 |
| *s-puivfiy |  | '53-L/10d ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ ¢ |  | 'sD-pupdmyq | '以 |
|  |  | '59-120 | -o-yวpa | 'sv-yppa | '3 |
|  | ... . . |  | . . . | 'sv-apu | ${ }^{\prime}$ |
| -DIBLOD | **vahitt *NLilt | - มงสบท | - ${ }^{\text {anaz }}$ | 'Lxẏxsmys |  |


sonants, and has lengthened, as it appears, in compensation for this, the final vowel of the base*; while the Greek
[G. Ed. p. 274.] $\lambda$ úkous has preserved the sibilant, but has permitted the $\nu$ to volatilize to $v . \dagger$ In fact, $\lambda u{ }^{\prime} 0-v s$ has the

 not, however, expect a $\pi \dot{\sigma} \sigma t-\nu s$, ' $\chi \not \theta^{i}-\nu s$, as the Greek makes the $\iota$ and $u$ bases in all parts similar to the bases which teriminate with a consonant, which, in Sanskrit, have as for a termination; hence पद्र् padas $=\pi$ ódas: and even in the most vigorous period of the language $n s$ could not have attached itself to a consonant preceding. This as for ns may be compared with

[^140]the Ionic $\alpha \tau \alpha \ell, \alpha \tau 0$, for $\nu \tau \alpha t, v \tau 0$, a form which has extended from the places where the vocalization of the $\nu$ was necessary, to those also where $\nu$ might be added ( $\pi \in \pi e i \theta a \tau \alpha$, , тeт $\alpha \dot{\alpha}-$
 $\kappa \in \in \kappa \lambda(v \tau \alpha u)$. This comparison with the 3 d person plural appears to me the more in point, as, in my opinion, the $n$ in the presupposed forms, like वृकंस् vrikañs, पतिंस् patins,入úkovs, has the same object that it has in the 3d person plural; viz. allusion to plurality by extending (nasalizing) the syllable preceding the sign of personality. The introduction of a nasal is an admixture which is least of all foreign, and comes nearest to the mere lengthening of an already existing vowel.
237. Feminine bases with a final vowel follow in Sanskrit the analogy of consonantal bases; but with the suppression of the $a, *$ thus $s$ for as or nis; they may perhaps, too, never have had $\dot{n}$, for else hence would have arisen, as in the masculine, a simple $n$ : to the [G. Ed. p. 276.]
we must remember that the abandonment of the $n$ before case terminations beginning with a consonant is a very old and therefore pre-Greek phenomenon, which is not to be accounted for in the Greek, and wherefore no compensation is to be required for the $\nu$, which has been dropped. But even if it were so, we must still be satisfied, if the demand for compensation for a lost $\nu$ remains unfulfilled in several places of grammar ; for there are two kinds of euphonic alteration in all languages: the one, which has acquired the force of a general law, makes its appearance under a similar form on each similar occasion, while the other only irregularly and occasionally shews itself.

* Monosyllabic bases only have preserved the $a$ as the case sign in the singular nominative ( (5.137.); hence, स्त्रियस् striy-as, "feminas," भुवस् bhuvas, "terras," from स्ती stri, भू bhû. There is scarce a doubt that this form originally extended to polysyllabic bases also; for besides the Greek, the Zend also partly evinces this ( $\$ .238$.), as also the circumstance that in the actual condition of the Sanskrit language the accusative plural shews, in general, an inclination to weaken itself, and thus contrast itself more submissively with the imperious nominative ( $(.129$.$) .$
feminine gender, too, the well-sounding Ionic $a$ is more suitable than $n$. In general, the Sanskrit feminines in other parts of grammar cast off the $n$, which is annexed by masculines and neuters (§. 133.). Moreover, the Gothic also, in feminine 0 bases, gives no ns, but it appears that thds $=\pi$ स्स tas (eas, has) is a pure dowry from the ancestral house; and when the feminine $i$ and $u$ bases in Gothic, by forms like $i$-ns, $u-n s$, assimilate themselves to the masculines, this may be regarded as a disguise of gender, or a deviation cnused by the example of the masculines. The consonant bases follow the example of the Indian, but have lost the $a$, as in the nominative (§. 227.); hence, fiyand-s, ahman-s, for fiyand-as, ahman-as.

238. Feminines with a short final vowel lengthen it, to compensate, as it appears, for the suppression of the a; thus प्रीतीस् priti-s is formed from prity-as, and तनूस् tanû-s from $\tan w$-as. The Greek certainly presents, in this respect, only a casual coincidence, through forms in is, $\hat{v}_{s}$, which, however, are not restricted to the feminine, and stand at the same time, in the nominative, for $t-\varepsilon s, u$-es. The Zend, like the Greek, follows in its $i$ and $u$ bases the

 Guna, paitay-d, pasav-6. In feminine bases in $i, u$, occur at times also the forms $\hat{\imath}-s, \hat{u}-s$, corresponding to the Sanskrit;
 èrèzî̂-s, "rectas," " "pontes."
239. Masculine bases in $\boldsymbol{\Delta} a$, where they are not replaced by the neuter(§. 231. Note), have, in the accusative, an (cf. §. 61.);
 mos" (Vend. S. p. 65.). The sibilant is retained before the
[G. Ed. p. 277.] particle up cha, and these forms can be copiously quoted; as,

[^141]

 run-anis-cha, " presbyterosque" (V. S. p. 65.), is remarkable, as there is no reason elsewhere to assume a theme athauruna; and this form would accordingly shew that consonantal bases also could assume the inflexion ns, with an unavoidable auxiliary vowel however; unless, indeed, we are to suppose that, in the perverted feeling of the language, it has been introduced by the preponderating analogy of the $a$ bases. More important, therefore, than this vpusy unanis-cha are the accusatives uesq)Ny nareus, "homines," and usępou s̊treus, "stellas," which occur very frequently; while from lup.w atar, "fire," we have found, not uuc̨ athr-eus, but ${ }_{9}^{\top}$ Uthr-0, in which it is to be remarked that atar distinguishes itself from other words in $r$ in this point also, that it forms, in the nominative singular, not
 to be explained? I believe in no other way but from won anis, by changing the $n$ into a vowel, as in [G. Ed. p. 278.] $\lambda$ órous; after which, according to §. 31., the $\rightsquigarrow a$ has become $q e$; the sibilant, however, which, after $\leadsto a$ and $\gamma \sim a n$, is $\omega \dot{\delta}$, must, after $>u$, appear as $\omega s$. We actually find, too,


[^142] mazdă ahurà ashaond, \&ce. "da quidem hominibus, magne Ahure ! puris."

240. As $a$ in Sanskrit occurs the most often of all letters as the termination of masculine bases, and we cannot mistake, in the history of our family of languages, the disposition in the sunken state of a language to introduce, by an unorganic addition, the more inconvenient consonantal declension into that of the vowels, I cannot therefore think that it admits of any doubt, that the New Persian plural termination $A n$, which is restricted to the designation of animate creatures, is identical with the Sanskrit *्ञान् $\begin{gathered} \\ n\end{gathered}$ in the masculine plural accusative : thus, .0. mines," answers to मत्पेन् martyan, " mortales," " homines.""
241. If, then; the termination ol an, applied to animate beings, belongs to a living being in the old language, the inanimate neuter will be fitted to give us information regarding that New Persian plural termination which is appended to the appellations of inanimate objects. A suffix, in the formation of words which is peculiarly the property of the neuter, is सस as (§. 128.), which is still more frequently used in Zend than in Sanskrit. In the plural, these Zend neuters form aṇa or ènha ( $\$ \S .56^{3} .235$.); and with this $h a$ is evidently connected the lengthened lo $h d$ in New Persian ; thus, lobg roz-ha, "days," answers to the Zend verzunutol raochanha, "lights." Many New Persian words have been compared with New German words,
[G. Ed. p. 279.] and often, too, correctly; but, except through the medium of the Sanskrit and Zend, it could not have been conjectured that our " $W$ örter" is, in respect to its termination, related to the New Persian hd. As, however, the High German has, from its earliest period, repeatedly changed $s$ into $r$, and $a$ into $i$ (later $e$ ), I have no
[^143]
## accusative plural．

doubt the ir－Middle and New High German er－which makes its appearance in the plural in many Old High Ger－ man neuters，is identical with the Sanskrit neuter suffix सस् as；e．g．hûsir，＂houses，＂chalpir，＂calves＂（cf．Grimm， pp． 622 and 631 ）．＊

242．Here follows a general view of the accusative for－ mation ：


[^144]

## THE INSTRUMENTAL.

[G. Ed. p. 281.] 243. The formation of this case, and what is connected with it, has been already explained in $\$ \S .215-224 . ;$ it is therefore sufficient to give here a comparison of the forms which correspond to one another in the cognate languages,
hacha skyaôthnd-varĕza atha bavainti pĕšô-tanva, "hac pro facti-peractione tum sunt verbera posteriori corpori inflicta" (Anquetil, Celui qui commet cette action sera coupable du tanafour). In regard to the anaperretha, mentioned at $\$ .232$., it is further to be noticed that the $\sigma$ th can only be occasioned by a or $w$ that has been dropped (§.47.), for the theme of the
 and 362 , twice).

* Irregularly from a theme गा $g^{a}$ (§.122.), for गवस् $g^{a v-a s . ~ T h e ~}$ Zend $\mu \mathrm{oswe}$ gáus (also $\mu$ gwe gâos), which often occurs, rests on the strengthened Sanskrit form गी gâu; so that in respect of the strong and weak cases (\$. 129.), the relation in this word is distorted. In the nominative, for instance, we should expect $\boldsymbol{\mu}\rangle \boldsymbol{J} \varrho$ gaus, and in the accusative ausę geus, rather than vice versa.
+ See p. 163, Note $\ddagger$.
$\ddagger$ See §. 129.
§ See §.127. Note and §. 249. Note $\ddagger$.
by which a summary view of the subject may be assisted. As the German, in its singular dative,* is identical with the Sanskrit-Zend instrumental, it is hence deducible that its character $m$ (for $b$ see §. 215.), in the dative plural, must rather be regarded as an abbreviation of निस् bhis than as belonging to the dative-ablative termination भ्पस् bhyas; although it approaches equally near to the two old terminations.



## THE DATIVE, ABLATIVE.

244. Mention has already been made of the suffix of these two cases in §. 215. Only the $s$ of the Latin bus has been left in the first, second, and (according to Nonius) occasionally, also, in the fourth declension; for the $i$ of lupī-s, terrī-s, specī-s (for speci-bus from specu-bus), must be allotted to the base. Lupi-s stands for lupo-bus, as evinced by ambo-bus, duo-bus. From o-bus (by lightening the final vowel of the base, $o, u$, from an original $a, \S .6$.), as oceurs in the beginning of compounds (multi-plex for multu-plex or multo-plex, of which hereafter), the language arrived at i-bus, (parvi-bus, amici-bus, dii-bus, cf. Hartung, p. 261). In the first declension $a$-bus has been retained with tolerable

[^145]frequency, but the middle step $i$-bus is wanting; yet the language has scarcely made the spring from $a$-bus at once to $\bar{i}-s$, but $a$-bus has weakened the $a$ of the base to $\eta$, which, to compensate for the $b u$ which has been dropped, has been lengthened; thus terri-s from terri-bus, for terra-bus, as [G. Ed. p. 283.] mālo from măvolo. Compare,

| crir. | zend. | Latin. | lithuanian. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| m. vrike-bhyas, | věhrkaêi-byo, | lupī-s. | vilka-m(u)s.* |
| f. jihwd-bhyas, | hizva-byd, | terri-s, | ranko-m(u)s. |
| m. pati-bhyas, | paiti-byd, | hosti-bus, |  |
| f. priti-bhyas, | afriti-byd, | messi-bus, | awi-m(u)s. |
| m. bhavishyanti- | ,büshyainti- |  |  |
| m. sûnu-bhyas, | pasu-byd, | pecu-bus, $\ddagger$ | sunu-m(u)s, |
| f. vâg-bhyas, | vách-e-byd, | voc-i-bus. |  |
| m. bharad-bhyas, | barěn-byd, § | ferent-i-bus |  |
| m. âtma'-bhyas, | asima'-byd, | sermon-i |  |
| m. bhrâtri-bhyas, | bratar-ě-byd, | fratr-i-bu |  |

## THE GENITIVE.

245. The genitive plural in Sanskrit, in substantives and adjectives, has the termination ल्षाम् $a m$, in the Zend anim, according to §. 61. The Greek $\omega \nu$ bears the same relation to the original form of the termination that $\dot{\varepsilon} \delta \partial \omega \nu$ does to सददाम् adadam (§§. 4. 10.). The Latin has, as usual,

[^146]preserved the labial final nasal in its original form, but by its influence has shortened the preceding vowel; hence, ped-um ( $=$ pad- $-\hat{m}$ ), the $u$ of which supplies the place of a short $a$, as in lupum = वृकम् vrikam, $\lambda$ úкo-v.* [G.Ed. p. 284.] The German, like the Lithuanian, has dropped the final nasal. In Gothic, however, the wit $a$, which has been left, shews itself under two forms, and thereby an unorganic difference has been introduced between the feminine genitive termination and that of the masculine-neuter; since the fuller $\sigma$ has remained only to the feminine $\theta$ and $n$ bases.
246. Bases ending with a vowel, with the exception, partly necessary and partly arbitrary, of monosyllables, place, in Sanskrit, a euphonic $n$ between the termination and the base, the final vowel of which, if short, is lengthened. This interposition appears to be pristine, since the Zend partakes of it, although in a more limited degree; for instance, in all bases in $x a$ and
 respond very remarkably the genitives (which occur in Old High German, Old Saxon, and Anglo-Saxon, in the

[^147]corresponding class of words) in $0-n-\theta, e-n-a$; hence, Old High German këp $b-n-b$, Old Saxon gëbd-n-b, Anglo-Saxon gife-n-a.
247. We find the bases in short and long $i$, in Zend, if [G. Ed. p. 285.] polysyllabic, only with euphonic $n$ : on the other hand the monosyllabic $i$ bases annex the termination direct, either attaching Guna to the final vowel, or keeping it pure; thus, thry-anm or thray-anm, "trium," from thri; vay-aim, "avium," from vi. Bases in > $u$ admit both of the annexing the termination direct and of the insertion of the euphonic $n$; but I find from the masculine swsod pas̀u only pas̀v-arim : on the other hand, I have found from feminine bases like sjue tanu, "body," >sدy, nas̀u, " corpse" (cf. vékus according to §. 21.), hitherto only u-n-anim. With Guna Gquysusev pasav-anim would serve as a prototype for the Gothic suniv- $\hat{E}$ with Guna weakened (§. 27.).
248. Pronouns of the third person have, in Sanskrit, साम् sam. for खाम् $\hat{a m}$; and this may be the original and formerly universal form of the case-suffix, so that $a m$ would properly be only the termination of the termination, and the $s$ connected with the genitive singular would be the chief person. If this is the case, the abbreviation of this termination in substantives and adjectives must still be recognised as very ancient; for the Gothic, which in the plural nominative restricts itself so rigorously to the old limits (§. 228.), gives to the sibilant, in the genitive also, no wider scope; hence thi-ze (§. 86. s.) $=t e$-sham (for tesäm, according to §. 21.) "horum"; thi-zo =ta-sim, "harum." Here the $a$, like the 6 of the base THA, TH $\bar{O}$, appears weakened to $i(\S .66$.$) : on the other hand, the ad-$ jective $a$ and 0 bases, which follow the pronominal declension, have ai-ze, ai-zt; and blindai-ze, "cæcorum" (for blinda-ze), answers exactly to the Sanskṛit तेषाम् te-sh $h a m$

* Cf. Old Pruss.an son, e.g. in stei-son, " $\tau \omega \nu$."

－ampas mory amps＇ampos mory amı 7 zq ＇am－






















 ．

| $\underline{+}$ | ＇$n-2$ yun． | ＇untipuld | ＇ 1 ¢－20dm $\chi$ |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| pz－？${ }^{2} 1$ | ＇ $\mathrm{p}-\mathrm{y}$ ？ |  | ${ }^{1} \mathrm{Ag}-1$ | ${ }^{\text {＇uıDy }}$－ 2 ² |  |
| ＊－$¢ 1 n a$ | $\left.{ }^{\prime} n-317\right]^{m}$ | ${ }^{\text {＇un．l－Qdn }}$ | ＇Am－xav |  | ${ }^{\prime}$ uฑ－u－py？ia＊ |
| －¢1HLOO | ＊nyahati | ＇NLVI | ＊มสรษอ | －anaz | anixsevs |







 sвч पвшルวท पю！

| f. | sanskerit. <br> tâ-sâm, | zend. A-onhanim,* | GREEK. $\tau \alpha \dot{\alpha}-\omega \nu$, | LATIN. istā-rum, | utivan. $t-\hat{u}$ | gothic. <br> thi-zd. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| m. | .tray-â-nâm, | thray-anm, | $\tau \rho t-\omega \hat{v}$, | tri-um | tri- 4 , | t. |
|  | prîti-n-âm, | afrîti-n-aṅm, | $\pi о \rho \tau i-\omega \nu$, | messi-um, | $a w i-4$, |  |
| m. | sûnâ-n-âm, | pass-aṅm, | ${ }^{\prime} \chi$ ¢ $\theta$ ט́- $\omega \nu$, | реси-um, | sun'- 4 , | miv-e. |
| * | $\tan \hat{u}-n-1{ }^{\text {a }}$, | tanu-n-anim, | $\pi \iota T \dot{v}-\omega \nu$, | socru-um, |  | handiv-1 |
| $\stackrel{\text { r }}{ }$ | $g a v-d m$, | gav-aṅm, | $\beta o(F) \hat{\omega} v$, | bov-um, |  |  |
| f. | nâ-vâm, |  | $\nu \alpha(F)-\omega\rangle$, |  |  |  |
| f. | vâch-âm, | vâch-anm, | ȯ $\pi-\hat{\omega} \nu$, | voc-um, |  |  |
| m | bharat-âm, | barĕnt-aim, $\dagger$ | феро́vт-с | ferenti-um, |  |  |
| m. | nan-ám, | asman-aṅm, | ठаıио́v- | rmon-u |  |  |
| m. | bhratriz-n-1n | râthr-anm, $\ddagger$ | $\pi \alpha \tau$ ¢́р- | fratr-um, |  |  |

[^148]
## LOCATIVE.

250. The character of the plural locative [G. Ed. p. 288.] is, in Sanskrit, सु $s u$, which is subject to be changed into चु shu (§. 21.), for which, in Zend, is found shu (§. 52.); while from सु $s u$, according to §. 53., has been formed ser $h u$. The more usual form for shu and $h u$ (for which, also, occur
 to a Sanskṛit सswa. This appears to me to be the original form of the termination; for nothing is more common in Sanskṛit than that the syllables व $w a$ and य $y a$ should free themselves from their vowel, and then change the semi-vowel into a vowel, as उन्त $u k t a$ is said for vakta (see also §. 42.). The supposition, therefore, of the Indian abbreviation of the termination is far more probable than that of a Zend extension of it by a lately-added $a$, especially as in no other case does a similar aftergrowth admit of being established. But if स swa is the original form of the termination, it is then identical with the reflective-possessive base स swa, of which more hereafter.* The same relation which, in Latin, si-bi has to su-bi (which might be conjectured from $s u-i$ ), or that ti-bi has to tu-bi, Sanskṛit तुभ्यम् $t u$-bhyam, the Greek dative-locative termination $\sigma t(\sigma \tau v)$ has to the Sanskrit सु su. $\dagger$

[^149][G. Ed. p. 289] 251. The bases in ख $a$ add to that vowel, as in many other cases, an $i$; but from $a+i$ is formed ₹ $e$ (§. 2.), to which the Greek ot corresponds; hence, $\lambda$ úkot- $\tau t=$ बृकेपु vrilit-shu. Hence the $t$ in Greek has also passed over to the bases in $\alpha-, \eta-$, either preserving its full value or subscribed, while in Sanskrit the च $a$ remains pure; hence; जिहासु jihwad-su, with which the locatives of names of towns best
 R. 7. and Hartung, p. 461.).*
252. Like the Gothic, the Lithuanian has an unorganic difference between the terminations which mark the case in the masculine and feminine in the genitive plural: the first has the sound of $s e$, and the latter of $s a$, with the original and more powerful $a$, which, in the masculine, has softened into $e$. The ending $s a$ is plainly from the swa, assumed above (p. 267, 1. 7.) to be the original form, from which it is made by rejecting the semi-vowel.
253. Here follows a general view of the Sanskrit, Zend, and Lithuanian plural locatives, with the Greek datives:-

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sanskpit. zend. utmuan. ereek.
    m. vrikê-şhu, vehrkaê-shva, vilků-se, \lambdaúкot-\sigmat.
Cof. jihwal-su, hizval-hva, ranko-sa, 0\lambdav\mu\piiä\sigmat, \chi\omegá\rho\alphal-\sigmal.
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%m. sûnu-shu, pas̀u-shva, dangĭ-se, i\chi\chió-\sigmat.
##gm.f. go-shu, .... .... \betaov-\sigmai.
它. nau-shu, .... .... vav-\sigmaí.
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[^150]| sanskpit. | zend. | Luthons. | gueze. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| f. valk-șhu, | vac-sva? |  | ${ }^{\circ} \pi$ - $\sigma$ i. |
| m.n.bharat-su, | brallar-ĕ-shva? |  | фépou-бt. |
| atma'su, | as̀ma'-hva,* |  | ठ $\alpha^{\prime} \mu^{\prime} 0^{\prime}-\sigma t$ |
| m. bhrâtri-shu, |  |  |  |
| n. vachas-su, | vachó-hva, $\ddagger$ |  | є̋ $\pi \epsilon \sigma-\sigma$. |

 ushan, and p. 500, N»שrలuGuy damahva, from juGug daman.
$\dagger$ The $a$ in this form is not, as is generally supposed, a conjunctive
 द्रक्ष्पामि drakshyami, "I will see," for दर्ष्यामि darkshyami (Sansk. Gramm.
 which, by preserving the original vowel, agrees with the Sanskrit base pitar better than marípa, marípes, \&c. The same applies to the dative ¿́ $\rho v a ́ \sigma \iota$, since the theme of d́ $\rho \nu \dot{o}_{s}$ has, as appears from the cognate word $\rho \eta \dot{\eta} \nu$, $\dot{a} \rho \dot{\eta} \nu, \dot{d} \hat{\rho} \rho \dot{\rho} \eta$, rejected a vowel between the $\rho$ and $\nu$, which again appears in the dative plural in the form of an $a$, and removed from its place. The whole REN appears to be a transposition of Ner, Sanskrit नर् nar
 is therefore etymologically identical with that of $\dot{d} \nu \delta \rho a ́ \sigma \iota$ (comp. Kühner's complete Greek Grammar, §.281. Rem. 2.) It is more difficult to give any accurate account of the $a$ of viáat: it is either the older and stronger form for the $\epsilon$ of viéru, or this word must have had, besides its three themes ('YIO, 'YI, 'YIEY), a fourth, YIAT, from which came viá $\sigma$ l, as $\gamma \dot{\text { biva }}$, from TONAT, the more prevailing co-theme of CONY, which latter agrees with जानु $j a n u$.
$\ddagger$ In the Vendidâd Sâde, p. 499, we find the analogous plural locatives
 the former by " au lever du soleil," and the latter by "à la nuit." It is impossihle to pronounce these forms aught but derivatives from themes in
 very frequently in various forms, spring from a theme in $2 v a r$, and the
 to that in Sanskrit, where सहन् ahan, "day," forms some cases from अह्टस् ahas (from which खहो ahô in सहोभिस् ahöbhis, \&cc.); and together
[G. Ed. p. 291.] "Remark.-From the bases in EV, to which in the dative evot ( = wस्सु $a s-s u$ ) properly belongs, this form appears to have imparted itself to other bases terminating
[G. Ed. p. 292.] differently, in which, for this case, an extension of the original theme by es is to be adopted; which, in its origin, is identical with the abovementioned (§. 241.) plural increase to the base by ir (from is and this, from as), in Old High German forms, as hatsir, "houses," chalpir "calves," which are the plural themes, with which the nominative, accusative, and vocative are identical, and from which, in the dative, by the addition of the ending for that case, arises $h u$ sirum, chalpirum; as, in Greek, кúvย $\sigma-\sigma t$, veкúe $\sigma t$, $\pi \alpha ́ v \tau \epsilon \sigma \sigma t$, juvaiker $\sigma t, \pi 0 \lambda i \epsilon \sigma \sigma l$, and others, from the unorganically increased themes KYNEX, NEK YEZ, \&ce., according to the ana$\operatorname{logy}$ of 'ELE E . From the doubled $\Sigma$ one may then be re-
 self be employed; as, for example, véкv- $\sigma \tau \iota$, for $\nu$ éк $v-\sigma \iota$. This,
with the theme सहस् exists another, खहर् ahar. The anomaly of the Sanskrpit "day" appears, in Zend, to have passed completely over to "night," as this latter word has also a theme in $n$, namely fudsuuar csapan, of which the genitive pl. Gavjduruar csafnanim-analogous with जह्नाम् ahnâm, "dierum" ( $(4.40$. relative to $d f$ for $\rho p$ )-is found in connection with the feminine numeral foulursp tisranm, "trium" (Vend.S. p. 246); for we read, 1. c. §. 163., aśnainmcha (= सहाइ्घ ahnâncha), csafananimcha (read csafnaimcha), "of days and nights." In Sanskrit, by the suffix स $a$, the form सहू ahna, derivative, but equal in its meaning, has arisen out of सहन् ahan, which, however, occurs only in compounds (as पूवॉह्न pûrvâhna, "the early part of the day"), and in the adverbial dative अह्नाय ahnaya, "soon," " immediately," which, therefore, it is not necessary to deduce from the root ${ }_{3} h n u$, with the a privative. The Zend, however, whose night-nomenclature, in this respect also, is not outstripped by the Sanskrit, produces, as it appears, by a similar mutation, sァd

in most important particulars, is adopted by Thiersch, §. 128., for the developement of the forms in $\epsilon \sigma \sigma t$; only that he withdraws from the neuter bases described in §. 128., as BEAEL, the $\Sigma$ which belongs to them, and, by a supposition, proved to be erroneous, BEAE is made the theme: and he divides
 assimilation, derives ö $\chi \mathrm{e}-\sigma \sigma_{t}$ from ${ }^{\circ} \chi \mathrm{e} \mathrm{e}-\sigma \phi t$; while, as I believe I have proved, the forms ${ }^{\circ} \chi \in \sigma-\phi t$ and ö $\chi e \sigma \sigma t$ rest on entirely different case-suffixes (§. 218.), and have only the base 'OXEE in common with one another. An assimilation, however, may be remarked in Yoúva $\sigma-\sigma t$, from youva $\tau-\sigma t$, so that the first letter has assimilated itself to the second, not the reverse. In ঠén $\alpha \sigma-\sigma l$ we shall leave it undecided whether the first $\Sigma$ be primitive, and $\triangle E D A \Sigma$ the theme (comp. $\gamma_{\hat{p} \rho a \varsigma, ~ § . ~ 128 .), ~ o r ~ w h e t h e r ~ i t ~ h a s ~ a r i s e n ~ o u t ~ o f ~} \tau$, and so $\triangle E D A T$ with TEPAT, KEPAT, belong to one class. If,
csapan, but that it is preceded (V.S. p. 163.) by the unequivocal adjective

 csafne, probably means "in this day," "in this night," with the locative adverb \# ${ }^{\text {US }}$ sthra, "here," in the sense of a locative demonstrative. To the theme vodrewar csafna, the plural of the same sound csafna, might also be assigned, which occurs 1. c. 09.330 .331 , and in several places elsewhere: vjן
 nuva csafna, "nine nights," if here csafna be not (as in $\$$. 231. Note $\ddagger$ it was considered to be) rather to be taken for the plural of juverulo c capan, as neuter, since, as has been before observed, the Zend uses the gender of the substantive with great laxity, especially in the plural. For the frequently-occurring ablative pow/wasucar csaparat, however, we cannot assume another theme csapara, but we must, if the reading be correct, admit that feminine consonantal roots in the ablative adopt also the broader ending, at for at.
however, in all these forms, we allow only $\sigma$ or $\sigma \omega$ to be the case-suffix, and all that precedes it is referred to the true or unorganic increase of the base, it can therewith not be denied that not even to Homer himself, in forms like énerat, not to mention unorganic forms like кívéat, did the entire evot present
[G. Ed. p. 293.] itself as pertaining to that which marked the case; for in the feeling of the speaker énevat could present itself, during that period of the language, only as what
 not ếreos, \&c., were used in declension. But different from what has been here adopted is the assumption of Hartung (p. 260, f.) and Kühner (1. c. \&. 255. R. 8.), in the most material points following Greg. Cor. Æol. §. 35., relative to the production of the Greek plural datives. Kühner says (1. c.) "The character of the dative plural is $\epsilon s$ (character of the plural) and cor iv (character of the dative singular), therefore, $\epsilon \sigma_{l}(v)$." I, however, think es not the character of number, but of the nominative plural, and connected with the nominative singular through its $\Sigma$ : a union of the plural nominative suffix with the singular dative is, to me, not to be imagined. If it were so, how could neuter nouns, to which $\epsilon$ s in the nominative is quite foreign, arrive, in the dative, at their identity of form with the natural sexes? It further deserves to be remarked, that, in Prâkrit, the locative ending सु $s u$ frequently assumes an Anuswâra, and so adapts itself, by the form सुं sun, for su, to the Greek, $\sigma \omega$, for $\sigma$.
254. After laying down the laws of the formation of a single case, it may serve to facilitate the general survey if examples are adduced of the most important classes of words in their connected declension. We pass over here from the Sanskrit, and go to the other languages in their order, according as they have, in the particular cases, most truly preserved their original form; and where one or other of them has departed entirely from the original
principle of formation, or by an unorganic increase to the base has entered the province of another declension, we there, in the place in question, exclude it from the comparison.

MASCULINE BASES IN $a$, GREEK IN $\boldsymbol{o}$, LATIN IN $\boldsymbol{u} \boldsymbol{u} \boldsymbol{o}$.
singular.
Nominative, Sanskṛit vrika-s, Lithuanian wilka-s, Zend vëhrk-0, with cha, vĕlrkas̀-cha, Greek $\lambda$ úko-s, Latin lupu-s, Gothic vulf's.**
Accusative, Sanskṛit, vrika-m, Lithua- [G. Ed. p. 294.] nian wilka-n, Zend vĕhrkĕ-m, Greek $\lambda$ úкo-v, - Latin lupu-m, Gothic vulff.

Instrumental, Sanskrit vrike-n-a, Zend vëhrka, Gothic Dat. vulfa, Lithuanian Instr. wilkù.
Dative, Sanskṛit vrikaya, Zend vĕhrkai, Lithuanian vilkui.
Ablative, Sanskrit vrikâ-t, Zend vëhrkd-t, Latin lup-o(d) (see §. 181.).
Genitive, Sanskṛit vrika-sya, Greek $\lambda$ úкo- $(\sigma) \stackrel{\circ}{ }$, Zend vĕhrka-hê, Gothic vulfi-s, Lithuanian wilkō.

* The meaning is, in all these languages, the same, and so is the theme in its first origin. The connection of the Lithuan. wilkas with vrikas rests on the very usual interchange of the semi-vowels $r$ and $l$; and this latter goes through the whole of the European sister languages. The Gothic vulfs shews, moreover, the equally common interchange of gutturals and labials, and follows the rule for the alteration of letters (Asp. for Tenuis, see §, 87.). In Latin the same thing takes place with regard to the supply of the guttural by the corresponding labial; but lupus is further altered through the loss of the initial letter $V$, as is the Greek $\lambda$ úкo-s: it may, however, be assumed, that this $v$ is introduced into the middle of the word in being vocalized into $u$. While therefore, in Li thuanian, in wilkas, $l$ and $k$ are united, they are, in Greek, separated by $v$.
$\dagger$ M. Reimnitz, whose pamphlet, "The System of Greek Declension" (Potsdam, 1831), had not been seen by me before I completed the preceding Part of this book, unfolds (l.c. p. 122 passim) the same views concerning

| Locative, [G. Ed. p. 295.] | Sanskrit vrike (from vrika+i), Zend vĕhrke (maidhydi, §. 196.), Lithuanian wilké, Greek Dat. $\lambda u ́ к \omega$ (oúkoı §. 195.) Latin Gen. lup'-i. |
| :---: | :---: |
| Vocative, | Sanskrit vrika, Zend vĕhrka, Lithuanian wilké, Greek $\lambda u ́ k e$, Latin lupe, Gothic vulff. <br> DUAL. |
| Nom.Ace.Voc. | Sanskrit vrikdu, Vêdic vrika, Zend vĕhrkd, Lith. Nom. willuù, Voc. wílku, Greek $\lambda$ ók $\omega$. |
| Instr. Dat.Abl. | Sanskṛit vrika-bhyam, Zend věhrkaêi-bya, Greek Dat. Gen. $\lambda$ úko-tv, Lithuanian Dat. wilka-m (see §. 215.). |
| Gen. Loc. | Sansk. vrikay-ds, Zend vĕhrkay- - (see Rem. 1.), Lithuanian wilkû. |
|  | plural |
| Nom. Voc. | Sanskṛit vrikas, Gothic vulfôs.* |
| Accusative, | Sanskrit vrikda-n, Zend věhrka-n, Goth. vulfa-ns, Greek $\lambda u ́ \kappa o-v s$ (from $\lambda u ́ \kappa о-\nu \varsigma, ~ § . ~ 236.), ~ L i t h u-~$ anian wilkùs, Latin lupö-s. |

the Greek owo and its connection with the Sanskrit $a$-sya which I have, without being aware of his concurrence, brought forward in $\S .189$. I have, however, in this respect, already stated my views in my pamphlet "On the Demonstrative and the Origin of Case" (in the Transactions of the Hist. Phil. Class of the Academy of Science of Berlin for the year 1826, p. 100. Here I have only further to observe, that the Greek adj $\delta \eta \mu \delta \sigma \sigma o s$, from the root $\triangle H M O$, is, in the suffix by which it is formed, probably connected with the genitive ending in the text; and is therefore remarkable with reference to the preservation of the $s$, which is lost in $8 \dot{\gamma} \mu o t o$. With regard to the origin of $\delta \eta \mu \sigma \sigma \sigma o s$ from the genitive, let reference be made to the Latin cujus, $a, u m$; and the identity of the Sanskrit suffix of words like मनुष्य manushya, "man," as a derivative from Manu, with the genitive ending ख्य shya for स्य sya, as in समुप्प amu-şhya, "illius."

- With reference to the Zend, see §. 231. Note $\ddagger$; and with regard to the Greek, Latin, and Lithuanian forms $\lambda$ úkot, lupi, wilkai, see §. 228.

Instrumental, Sanskrit vrikd-is* (from vrikd-bhis), Vêda vrike-bhis, Zend věhrka-is, Lithuanian wilka-is. Prâkrit dève-hinin (from dèva, "God," see §. 220.), Greek $\theta$ eó- $\phi v,+$ Gothic Dat. Instr. wulfa-m (§. 215).
Dat. Abl. Sanskṛit vrike-bhyas, Zend [G. Ed. p. 296.] vëhrkaêi-byd, Latin lupi-s (amici-bus \$. 244.), Lithuanian wilka-m(u)s (\$. 215.).
Genitive, Sanskṛit vrikik-n-dm, Zend vëhrka-n-anim, Greek $\lambda \dot{u} \kappa^{\prime}-\omega \nu$, Lithuanian rilk' $-\hat{u}$, Gothic wulf'- $\ell$, Latin lupō-rum (§. 248.),

[^151]
# Locative, Sanskrit vrikê-ṣhu, Zend věhrkaê-shva, Lithuanian wilkise, Greek Dat. $\lambda$ úkot- $\sigma$ t. 

NEUTER BASES IN $a$, GREEK $o$, LATIN $u$, $o$. singular.
Nom. Acc. Sanskrit dâna-m, Zend datĕ-m, Latin donu-m, Greek $\delta \hat{\omega} \rho o-v$, Lithuanian géra, Gothic daur'.
Vocative, Sanskrit dâna, Zend data, Gothic daur'.
The rest as the masculine,
DUAL.
Nom. Acc.Voc.Sanskṛit dâné (from dana $+\hat{i}$ ), Zend date .
The rest as the masculine.
[G. Ed. p. 297.]
PLURAL.
Nom. Acc.Voc. Sanskṛit dânâ-n-i, Vêdic dânâ, Zend dâta, Latin dona, Greek $\delta \hat{\varphi} \rho \alpha$, Gothic daura.

The rest as the masculine.
"Remark 1.-The Zend system of declension has received some valuable additions from the treatises pubblished by Burnouf since the appearance of the First Part of this book, which I must lay before my readers.* First a dual case, viz. the genitive-locative, which I imagined to be lost in the Zend, as I had searched for it alone in vain, and could supply all the other dual endings in tolerable copiousness. M. Burnouf supplies this (Yasna, Notes et éclaircissements, p. cxxis.) by the expressions susus sus प्ञevzu ubdyd anhvo which are to be twice found in V. S. p. 312, and on both occasions are rendered by Anquetil, whose

[^152]translation is in this place particularly confused, "dans ce monde." This translation might lead us astray so much the more easily, that might also be the singular genitive, which frequentiy occurs with a locative meaning. We await the elucidation which Neriosingh's Sanskrit translation will give of this passage; but, for the present, content ourselves with
 cording to that authority, corresponds with the Sanskrit उभयोस् ubhayos (amborum, in ambobus), with $\hat{b}$ for $a$, probably, according to Burnouf's acute conjecture, through the influence of the preceding $b$, and with the loss of the concluding s. I am the more inclined to assent to Burnouf's
 as I have been so fortunate as to find another example

 exercising the force of assimilation in question precedes the $a$-I mean the form ب̧suposas zastayd ( $=$ Sanskrit hastayds), "in the hands," from دpposess zasta, [G.Ed.p.298.] in a passage of the Jzeschne, which has perhaps not yet been

 which Anquetil (p. 192) translates by "Comment moi pur, mettrai-je le main sur le Daroudj?" It appears, however, that swus ashdi can as little be a nominative as yssuposiss zas̊tayd a singular accusative; and I believe I am not wrong in the following literal translation: "How can I give the (Dæmon) Drudj into the hands of the pure (into the power)?"
"Remark 2.-In the instrumental singular M. Burnouf admits the termination ana in bases in a (Yaçna, p. 98. passim), with $n$ introduced, for the sake of euphony,

[^153]according to the analogy of the Sanskrit ₹न Ena (§. 158.). He rests this, among other forms, on that of $\operatorname{djusfasosis}$ maesmana, "urina," a word which had often attracted my attention, and from which $I$, in like manner, would have deduced instrumentals in $a-n-a$ if I had not differed from Burnouf in the etymology of the same, as I make its theme terminate in $n$; and this word, which I remember to have seen only in the instrumental, I derive from the Sanskrit root fिह mih, "mingere," by a suffix मन् man, according to the analogy of vrih, " to grow," whose instrumental analogous with $u$ juguroug matèmana, occurs very frequently. M. Burnouf appears, on the other hand, to adopt a suffix ma in the word maésmana, in which we think we cannot agree with him as long as we cannot supply any cases which must indubitably belong to a theme in $a$. If, further, some words, which in their theme terminate in $\operatorname{as}$ ( $\grave{\text {, }}$, Sanskrit Wस् as), adopt ana in the instrumental form-M. Burnouf quotes, p. 100 note, درuysug
 my opinion, bases in a may be assigned as the origin of these forms, and they can be divided maza-na, \&cc, only in as far as such forms have been already proved to belong to undoubted bases in $a$. But now we prefer dividing them mazan-a, so that the letter $s$, with which these themes originally terminate, is interchanged with a nasal, just as,
[G. Ed. p. 209.] in Sanskrit, the words यकृत् yakrit, इकृत् sakrit change their $t$ for $n$ in the weak cases, and may substitute यबन् yakan. शबन् sakan; or as, in more remote analogy, the Greek, in the first person plural, has formed $\mu \in \nu$ from $\mu \in S$ (मस् mas, "mus"). Besides this, M. Burnouf cites also the interrogative instrumental gevana, "with what?" which is the only word that brings to my mind somewhat of conviction, and had struck my attention before, in passages

what offering shall I sacrifice?" (V. S. p. 481.) I have not, however, ventured to draw a grammatical deduction from this form, because the pronominal bases are prone to unite with one another, and because I believed I might assume that the same pronoun which is contained in स्र ana and रन ena forms also the last element of ujug kana, if from this base the instrumental only had been evolved or preserved, as has also occurred in the Sanskrit बन $a n a$ and एन $n a$ in but a few cases. For the rest, the Greek кeivos also appears connected with this ujug kana, if it is looked upon as a theme, with which the instrumental must agree in sound, for кeivos, if not directly of interrogative meaning, is still plainly connected with the old interrogative base (comp. कण्थन kaśshana, "whoever."). Under these circumstances I cannot yet admit of any instrumentals in $a-n-a$, especially as also the bases in $i$ and $u$ (in which the Sanskrit in the masculine and neuter likewise introduces a euphonic $n$ ) in the Zend, in words which we have noticed, have dispensed with a similar insertion ( $\$ .160$ ). In another place (Journal des Savans), M. Burnoufdeduces the frequently-occurring instrumental ashayd, "with purity," from the masculine theme sums asha; and there would be accordingly instrumental form, at present standing alone in the Zend, which I hesitate to acknowledge, although it would be analogous to the Vêdic form mentioned in §. 158., समया swapnayd, if one derives this, with the Indian grammarians, from a theme सम्र swapna. But if instrumental forms of this kind, in the Vêdas or in the Zend, are not to be produced in other undoubted instances as in the case of adjectives in construction with masculine or neuter substantives, nothing prevents the assumption, that the form सम्रया swapnaya belongs to a feminine theme सम्रा swapna, especially as the suffix न $n a$ occurs also in other abstracts in the feminine form ना $n a$, and therefore सर्रया swapnay $\downarrow$
may be explained according to the analogy of गृद्याय trishh[G. Ed. p. 300.] naya, " with thirst." In every case I think I may deduce the Zend theme دیטנس asha, as the Zend in general, in the substantive, passes readily from one sex to the other; and, for example, with a masculine base د才бfof mañthra, "a speech," occurs, also, a feminine w/Gxug mañthra.

" Remark 3.-For the genitive termination $\begin{aligned} & \text { UU } \\ & \text { he there }\end{aligned}$ also exists, as Burnouf has most satisfactorily proved, a form nearer to the Sanskrit sya, viz. Wy wha, which, although rather rare in comparison with the more corrupt form $h \ell$, is still sufficiently frequent in some chapters of the Jzeschne to satisfy one perfectly of its signification, according to the proofs given by Burnouf. I too had remarked words with the ending lusjev hyt, but in passages where Anquetil's translation was little adapted to bring to light the genitive nature of the same, which, besides, was very much obscured through its usual representative ưv hé, and was, moreover, concealed from me under the appearance of an instrumental form. However, the termination hyd-for which is sometimes found, also, Sanskrit स्य sya, and agrees with it so precisely according to rule, as far as the unorganic lengthening of the $a$, that a single passage, with the accurate translation of Neriosingh, who, in the passages hitherto edited, follows the original word by word, would have led us to it. Such a passage is given, although with a different aim, by Burnouf in his Yaçna (Notes, p. cxxxix.), which we here annex, as it is interesting in other respects, also, for grammar:-

 ashahya paourvyo kas̉nd kleng ṡtrencha daṭ adhvanèm. Neriosingh translates this passage word tor word, only that he renders kas̀nn, " which man?" (here properly not more.
than "who," for the idea of man is lost in the general signification of the whole,) not by वो ना $k d$ nâ, but simply, by को $k 0$, as follows : को जननेः fिता पुख्यस्म मथमं कः सूयूस्म तारकानाश ददी पद्वीम् $k d$ jananêti pild punyasya prathamain ${ }^{*}$ (tकल सद्वप्पापार्व्वर् कश् चक्रे kila sadvyâpa- [G. Ed. p. 301.] ratvan kaśs chakre, i. e. "boni originem quis fecit?") kahi suryasya tarakânàncha dadauu padavîm (किल मागेन् तेपाइ् को ददी kila mârgan teṣhann kd dadau, i.e. "viam ipsis quis dedit?"). We translate from the Zend, "Quis (qualis vir) creatione pater est puritatis (or puri) primus? quis (qualis vir) soli stellisque dedit viam ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ "The Zend expression worlows zanithwa, for which, in the lithographed codex, p. 351, is erroneously given ${ }^{2} \sigma_{\text {qus zanith }}$, is plainly the instrumental of ppuys zantu; which would correspond to the theme of a Sanskrit infinitive, जनुम् jantum, as the latter is feminine, and to which I have, in another place, referred the ablative poworbrys zanithwât (Gramm. Crit. p. 253.). This form is, besides, remarkable on this account, viz, that it is identical with the Sanskṛit instrumental gerund, which, from जन् jan, without a conjunctive vowel and without the euphonious suppression of the न् $n$, would sound जन्वा jantwe. With regard, however, to the length of the concluding $a$ of the Zend form, which is preserved contrary to the prevailing rule (see \$8. 118, 158. and 160. p. 191 G. Ed., where, however, Nov6rue, janithwa is to be read for zanthwa), I do not attach any particular importance to that, because in the chapter from which this passage is taken $a$, originally short, is repeatedly to be found lengthened. The Sanskryit जनने: jananefh, with which Neriosingh translates the Zend instrumental case, must be considered as an ablative, as this case often enters the department of the instrumental, and is also capable of expressing

[^154]the preposition "through" (for example, Nal. XII. 89.). Considered as a genitive, जनने: jananêi would not correspond with wort for the genitive of spewns zantu could only be uosge, zanteus, or, also, ఫִorb §. 187.), but in no case werb そo's zañthva. Add to this, also, that जननि janani is feminine, like the Zend sp,yng zantu, and पुए्पस्य punyasya, therefore, could no more pass as the epithet of जनने: jananelh than, in Zend, wsservinus ashahya could pass as the epithet of worlors zanithwa. I will, however, as concerns the Zend, lay no great stress on this circumstance, since in it the genders of the substantive are constantly ehanging. M. Burnouf, who looks upon जनने: jananêh as a genitive, and refers पुख्यस्म punyasya to it, according to this interpretation justly takes objection to the पुएखस्य punyasya, which does not agree with the gender of जननि janani, but he confirms, however, the reading expressly by the addition of a [G. Ed. p. 302.] sic. His translation runs, "Quel est le premier père de la creation pure? qui a montré leur route au soleil et aux astres." I look with anxiety for M. Burnouf's further explanation of this passage, but expect from him rather information of value in other respects, than to find that he has succeeded in making the forms जननेः jananêh and weo $\sigma$ रुs zanthwa pass for genitives. Anquetil's traditionary interpretation sounds, in this place, very strange, but does not contradiet my apprehension of worl the genitive ashalya pass for the nominative, and does not, therefore, throw any light on the meaning of the termination cusser hya; for, in the presumption that it was right, wsjerwashahy might, perhaps, have next been taken for an instrumental, and perhaps have been translated "father with purity." His translation is as follows: "Quel est le premier père pur* qui a engendré ? qui a donné

[^155]de lui même les astres qui ne sont pas a deux faces？＂The sun is here quite left out of the question；and it must be acknowledged，that，as far as relates to etymology，it is very much obscured in this passage；we might identify， with reference to the form of ewŋぁゃ kheny，this expression with the reflective pronoun vwo kha（as in kha－data，＂created of itself，＂which is often said of the stars，as of self－ ereated lights），and consider it as the epithet of xp，weq？ stren－cha；so that it would correspond as accusative plural to the Sanskrit खान् swân．It is here to be remarked，that in some chapters of the Jzeschne，ewng is repeatedly found instead of a simple nasal，and，indeed，without regard to the organ of the following initial letter．So we read，in the V．S．p．391，అ※ֻ̨）
 éneng．Anquetil，indeed，renders these expressions as singular nominatives，＂ce roi mechant，qui fait le mal，attaché à la mauvaise loi＂；but they，together with［G．Ed．p．303．］
 refer to the plural bpso＞e $\boldsymbol{y}$ g drégvato，and I have no doubt of their accusative nature：the whole passage，how－ ever，like many others in the Jzeschne，can be explained only with the help of Neriosingh＇s Sanskrit translation． We can but regret that the in other respects highly valuable elaborate exactitude of Burnouf＇s excellent Commentary leaves us no hope that he will come very soon to the elucidation of this and other passages，regarding which I am most curious．But to return to our ल⿺𠃊๕๘ kheng，
 translation is，however，little calculated to throw light on the connection of the passage referred to．
－The lithographed MS．has ewę） two words；the $a$ is，however，clearly only a conjunctive vowel，to unite the prefix g dush more conveniently with the following üб cs．
the $\rho^{k h}$ makes no difficulty in this expression, even in its acceptation for the sun, for which, commonly, ع) is found (the Sanskrit सर् suar, " heaven,"), as $\mathfrak{\rho} \boldsymbol{k h}$ is used very frequently for »ew $h v$ (see §. 35.); but we might here expect to find $\varepsilon^{2} u \underset{\sim}{c} k h a r e e^{\prime}$, and may suppose that the $e_{e}{ }^{\omega} n g$ has arisen out of $n$, and this letter out of $r$, as these liquids are easily interchanged, as is shewn in Sanskrit, by the connection of पहन् ahan, "day," with wह下 ahar, and, in the Zend, that of with 2nduviors csapar (I write it thas, and not E2vosuras csapare, designedly, see §. 44.). At all events I take еже६ழ kheng to be the accusative, if, indeed, it may not also be conjectured that the base lunve her may have entirely lost $^{\text {her }}$

 according to my opinion, is the accusative, and not, as one might expect from the Sanskrit translation, the genitive plural, which more frequently occurs in the form 6 gaxups staraim. Although, from this, be formed by contraction and combination with sp cha, I nevertheless prefer acknowledging in secondary form of so that the nasal, here vocalized to $u$, is there retained, but the sibilant has been removed (comp. §. 239.); especially as, in other places also, $d \hat{w}$ is found in construction with the accusative of the person, which has been given. In the Zend expression, $6 \varepsilon j u \gg \mathbb{N}$ adhuaneem, the Sanskrit अय्बानम् adhwanam cannot fail to be observed (comp. §. 45.); but in the lithographed MS. we have instead of this, $6 \varepsilon \varepsilon^{〔}$ un>s advânèm, which is easily seen to be an error. This false reading appears, nevertheless, to be an ancient one, and widely diffused; and upon this is founded Anquetil's, or rather his Pârsî teacher's, interpretation, which is strangely at variance with Neriosingh's exposition; "qui [G. Ed. p. 3C4.] ne sont pas a deux faces," so that $\boldsymbol{v} a$ is
taken for the well-known privative particle, $\lambda \geqslant>g d v a$ as the number two, and the last portion finds in the Sanskrit सानन Anana, "countenance," its corresponding syllable.
feminine bases in $a$, gothic $d$ (§. 118.).
Nominative, Sauskrit dharâ,* Greek $\chi$ ${ }^{\omega} \rho \bar{\alpha}$, Lithuanian rankì, Zend hizva, Gothic giba, Latin terra.
Accusative, Sansk. dharâ-m, Latin terram, Zend hizva-im, Greek $\chi{ }^{\omega} \rho \bar{\alpha}-\nu$, Lith. ranka-in, Goth. giba.
Instrumental, Sanskṛit dharay-â, Zend hizvay-a, Gothic Dat. Instr. gibai (§. 161.), Lithuanian rankà.
Dative, Sansk. dharây-ai, Zend hizvay-di, Lith. ranka-i.
Ablative, Zend hizvay-at, Latin terra(d).
Genitive, Sanskrit dharây-ds, Zend hizvay-do, Greek $\chi \chi^{\omega} \rho \bar{a}-s$, Latin terrā-s, Lithuanian rankì-s, Gothic gibd-s.
Locative, Sanskrit dhariy-dm (§. 202.), Zend hizvay-a, Lithuanian ranko-ye (§. 197.).
Vocative. Sanskṛit dhare, Zend hizvé (?), Greek $\chi \chi^{\omega} \rho \bar{\alpha}$, Latin terra, Lithuanian ranka, Gothic giba (?). dual.
Nom. Acc.Voc. Sanskrit dhare, Zend hizve (§. 213.), Lithuanian Nom. rankì, Voc. ránki.
Instr. Dat. Abl. Sanskrit dhara-bhyâm, Zend hizvâ-bya, † Greek Dat. Gen. $\chi{ }^{\dot{\omega}} \rho \alpha-t v$, Lith. Dat. ranko-m (§. 215.).
Gen. Loc. Sanskrit dharay-ds. [G. Ed. p. 305.]

[^156]
## FEMININE BASES IN $\boldsymbol{i}^{*}$

aingolar.
Nominative, Sanskrit prîti-s, Zend afrîti-s, Greek пóptı-s. Latin turri-s, Lithuanian avoi-s, Gothic anst'-s.
Accusative, Sanskrit prîti-m, Latin turri-m, Zend afritizm, Greek пópтı-v, Lithuanian ávi-j, Gothic anst'.
Instrumental, Sanskrit prîty-a, Zend afrîthy-a, Gothic Dat. Instr. anstai (without case suffix, see §. 161.)
Dative, Sanskrit prîtay-ê (or prîty-ai, §. 164.), Zend afrite-ê. ${ }^{\dagger}$
Ablative, Zend afrûtoi-t, Latin turri-(d).
Genitive, Sanskrit pritê-s (or only with the feminine termination príty-as), Gothic anstai-s, Zend afrîtdi-s, Greek mópтt-os, фúve-ws, Lat turri-s.
Locative, Sanskrit prit-du, (or with the feminine termination only prîty-âm).
Vocative, Sanskrit prîte, Zend afrîti, Greek rópтı.
DUAL
Nom. Acc.Voc. Sanskrit prîtî, Zend afrîtî(?), Lithuanian Nom. [G. Ed. p. 306.] aui, Voc. áwi.

[^157]Instr. Dat.Abl. Sanskrit prîti-bhyam, Zend afrûti-bya, Greek Gen. Dat. портi-o-ıv, Lithuanian Dat. áwi-m (§. 215.).
Gen. Loc. $\quad$ Sanskrit prîty-ds, Zend dfrîthy-b (?) (see p. 276. Rem. 1.).
plural.
Nom. Voc. Sanskrit prîtay-as, Zend afrîthy-d (with cha "and" afrîthy-as̀-cha), Greek mó $\boldsymbol{c}_{t}$-es, Latin turr'-ēs,* Gothic anstei-s, Lithuanian anry-s.
Accusative, Sanskrit prîti-s, Zend afrîti-s, Greek móprī-s, Gothic ansti-ns, Lithuanian awy-s.
Instrumental, Sanskrit prîti-bhis, Zend afrîti-bâs, Lithuanian awi-mis, Gothic Dat. Instr. ansti-m (§. 215.).
Dat. Abl. Sanskrit prîti-bhyas, Zend afrîti-byô, Latin tur-ri-bus, Lithuanian awi-m(u)s (§. 215.).
Genitive, Sanskrit prîtî-n-am, Zend afrûti-n-aim, Latin turri-um, Greek портi- $\omega \nu$, Lithuanian awi-u, Gothic anst'-e.
Locative, Sanskrit prîti-şhu, Zend afrîti-shva (or afrîti--shu), Lithuanian arvi-sa, Greek Dat. пópтı-бı. NEUTER BASES IN $\boldsymbol{i}$.
bingular.
Nom. Acc.Voc.Sanskrit vari, Zend vairi, Greek itpl, Latin mare.

The rest like the masculine.
dual.
Nom. Acc.Voc. Sanskrit vari-n-î.
The rest like the masculine.
plural.
Nom. Acc. Voc.Sanskrit vari-n-i, Zend [G. Ed. p. 80\%.] $v a r '-a$, Greek íd $\rho 1-\alpha$, Latin mari-a, Gothic thriy-a (from THRI, " three").

The rest like the masculine.

[^158]
## masculine bases in $u$.

singular.
Nominative, Sanskrit sûnu-s, Gothic sunu-s, Lithuanian sunì-s, Zend pasu-s, Latin pecu-s, Greek阝ótpu-s.
Accusative, Sanskrit sinnu-m, Latin pecu-m, Zend pasía-m, Greek $\beta$ órpu-v, Lithuanian sunu-n, Gothic sunu.
Instrumental, Sanskrit sinnu-n- $\begin{gathered}\text { (Vêda prabahav-a, from pra- }\end{gathered}$ bâhu, §. 158.), Zend pas̀r-a, Gothic Dat. Instr. sunau.
Dative, -Sanskrit sûnav-e, Zend pasivę, Lithuanian sunu-i.
Ablative, Zend pajas-t, Latin pecu-(d).
Genitive, Sanskrit sunc-s (from sunau-s), Gothic sunau-s, Lithuanian sunaì-s, Zend paseu-s or paśv-d (from pas̉v-as̀), Latin peci-s, Greek $\beta_{0}$ тpu-os.
Locative, $\quad$ Sanskrit sûn'-au.
Vocative Sanskrit sûnd (from sunau), Gothic sunau, Lithuanian sunaù, Zend pas̉u, Greek $\beta_{0}$ ópov.
dual.
Nom. Acc. Voc. Sanskrit sûnu, Zend pas̉̃, Lithuanian Nom. sunù, Voc. súnu.
Instr.Dat. Abl.Sanskrit sûnu-bhyam, Zend pas̉u-bya, Greek ßотрí-o-ıv, Lithuanian sunu-m (§. 215.)
Gen. Loc. Sanskrit sunnc-bs, Zend pas̉v-d (see p. 276. [G. Ed. p. 308.] Rem. 1.)

PLURAL.
Nom. Voc. Sanskrit sûnav-as, Greek Bótpu-es, Zend pas̀v-b (with cha, pas̉vaś-cha), Latin pecū-s, Gothic sunyu-s (for suniu-s, from sunau-s, §. 230.), Lithuanian sùnu-s.
Instrumental, Sanskrit sûnu-bhis, Zend paju-bís, Lithuanian sunu-mis, Gothic Dat. Instr. sunu-m (§. 215.).

Genitive, Sanskrit sû̀nu-n-am Zend pas̉v-añm, Latin pecu-um, Greek $\beta$ otpí- $\omega v$, Gothic suniv-ê, Lithuanian sun' $\hat{-} \hat{\text {. }}$
Locative, Sanskrit sûnu-ṣhu, Zend pas̀u-shva (or pas̉u--shu), Lithuanian sunů-se, Greek Dat. ßótpu-бו.

Remark.-Feminine bases in $u$ in Sanskrit differ in declension from the masculine, exactly as, p. 305 G . Ed, प्रोति prili f. differs from wr्नि agni m.

## NEUTER BASES IN $\boldsymbol{u}$.

singular.
Nom. Acc.Voc.Sanskrit madhu, Zend madhu, Greek $\mu$ é $\theta v$, Latin pecu, Gothic faihu.
The rest like the masculine.
dual.
Nom. Acc.Voc. Sanskrit madhu-n-î.
The rest like the masculine.
PLURAL.
Nom.Acc.Voc. Sanskrit madhû-n-i, Zend madhv-a, Greek $\mu e ́ \theta v-\alpha$, Latin pecu-a.
The rest like the masculine.
feminine bases in $\mathbf{\imath}$. [G. Ed. p. 309.]
Sanakrit. singounk. Zend.
Nom. narí, " woman," bhî-s, " fear," ndiri, " woman."

| Accus. nâî-m, bhiy-am, | náirî-m. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Instr. nary-a, | bhiy-a, | nairy-a. |

Dat. $\quad n a r y-d i \quad b h i y-e$, or $b h i y-d i, \quad n a i r y-d i$.
Abl. ndry-ds, bhiy-as or bhiy-ds, nadiry-at.
Gen. nâry-ds, bhiy-as or bhiy-ds, nadiry-du.
Loc. $\quad n a r y-\dot{A m}, \quad b h i y-i$ or $b h i y-a m, n d i r y-a$.
Voc. nàri, bhî-s, ndiri.

| Sanskrit. |  | $Z$ end. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| N.A. V. nûry-tu, | $b h i y-a ̂ u$, | nâirí(see§.213, p. 227.) |
| I. D. Ab. nârî-bhyảm, | bhî-bhyâm, | nâiri-bya. |
| Loc. nâry- $\mathrm{c}_{\text {s, }}$ | bhiy-ds, | nâiry-d ? |
|  | plurat. |  |
| N. V. nâry-âs, | bhiy-as, | nâiry-do. |
| Accus. nârî-s, | bhiy-as, | nairi-s. |
| Instr. nârí-bhis, | bhi-bhis, | nairi-bîs. |
| D. Abl. nârî-bhyas, | bhî-bhyas, | nairi-byd. |
| Gen. nârî-n-âm, | bhiy-dm, | nâirî-n-aṅm. |
| Loc. ndritşhu, | bhî-şhu, | nâiri-shva or -shu. |

"Remark.-By the side of the declension of monosyllabic feminine bases in $\hat{i}$, which may reject the terminations peculiar to the feminine alone, may be placed the Greek
[G. Ed. p. 310] Kís, and a remarkable similarity of inflexion will be observed, as Nom. bhit-s, $k \hat{i}-s$, Gen. bhiy-as, $\kappa i$ íós, Loc. Dat.bhiy-i, кǐ-i, Acc. strî-m, $\dagger \kappa i=-\nu$, Voc. bhî-s, кí-s. Plural: Nom.
 bhiy-as, кi-as, Voc. bhiy-as, кi-es. I consider, however, this coincidence as accidental, but, nevertheless, an accidental coincidence of that nature, that can only occur in languages which were originally really one: and undoubtedly the terminations, whose common sound appears so startling, are historically connected. As far, however, as concerns the theme, I believe, with Kühner (§. 287.), that the i of ki was not the original concluding radical letter of the word, but that a consonant has fallen out after the $\iota$. I would rather, however, leave the question as to this consonant undecided, than assume

[^159]that KIF is the true theme, and that the nominative was originally $\kappa ı F_{S}$; for if $\kappa t o{ }^{\prime}, ~ \kappa u i^{\prime}$, in the form in which they have been received, be analogous to $\Delta t$ ós, $\Delta t i$, from $\Delta t F$ ós, $\Delta t F^{\prime}$, still, to establish a theme KIF, a proof must be brought similar to that which really attaches to $\Delta$ rfi from its being found in inscriptions. And besides this, that which of itself is alone sufficient proof, the cognate Sanskrit word दिव् div, "heaven" (§. 122.) likewise attests a digamma. All ground for supposing a theme KIF is, however, wanting, for the long $t$ could, as in the Sanskrit भी $b h i$, and like the long $v$ in obфpús, be also the real final letter of the base, only that the long $\hat{i}$ in the Sanskrit, except in compounds (for example गतभी gata-bhỉ m.f., "void of fear," जलपी m.f., "water-drinking," see Gramm. Crit. §§.169.170.), concludes only the feminine themes. We will therefore seek elucidation regarding the Greek kis in another way, through the Sanskrit, and we find this, as it appears to me, through a like masculine base, which approximates closely to the $\kappa i=s$, as well in form as in meaning; namely, in कीट kitta, Nom. कीटस् kiṭa-s, "insect " "worm," which would lead us to expeet in the Greek кiтos, Acc. кïтоv, to which $\kappa i \bar{s}, \kappa i ̄ v$, bear the same relation as $\mu \in ́ \gamma \alpha s, \mu \in ́ \gamma \alpha v$, to the to be presupposed $\mu$ é $\gamma \propto \lambda$ os, $\mu \in ́ \gamma \nsim \lambda o v$. I do not consider it requisite to assume a theme MEFAT, although the Sanskrit महत् mahat, "great," might support it; but महत् mahat is a participial form, and its full and original form [G.Ed. p.311.] (§. 129.) is महन्त् mahant, Nom. masc. महान् mahan, which would correspond to the Greek $\mu \epsilon \gamma \omega \nu$."

## FEMININE BASES IN $\hat{u}, \bar{v}$.

singular.

Sanekrit

| Sanskrit. |  |  | Greek. <br> .... |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Abl. | vadhu-âs, | bhruv-as (or -its), |  |
| Gen. | vadhw-ds, | bhruv-as (or -ds), |  |
| Loc. | vadhu-âm. | bhrur-i (or -âm), |  |
| Voc. | vadhu, | bhrû-s, | ó¢¢ ${ }^{\text {ú. }}$ |
| dial. |  |  |  |
| N.Ac.V | . vadhw-au, | bhrut-du, | óфpú-¢. |
| J.D. Ab | vadhû-bhyàm. | bhrû-bhyâm. | ò $\phi \rho \chi^{\prime}-0-\imath \nu$. |
| G. L. | vadhw-8s, | bhrut-ds. |  |
| plural |  |  |  |
| N. V. | vadhw-as, | bhruv-as, |  |
| Accus. | vadh $\hat{-}$-s, | bhrut-us, | ó¢pú- ${ }^{\text {s }}$. |
| Instr. | vadhû-bhis, | bhra-bhis, |  |
| D. Abl. | vadhu-bhyas, | bhru-bhyas, |  |
| Gen. | vadh $\hat{-}-n-\hat{m}$, | bhrui-dm (or bhrû-n-Am), | ò $\phi \rho \nu^{\prime}-\omega \nu$. |
| Loc. | vadhû-ṣhu, | bhrû-ṣhu, |  |

Remark.-The identity of भू bhrû and 'OФPY* is [G. Ed. p. 312.] sufficient proof that the length of the $v$ is organic (comp. §. 121.), and it is not necessary, therefore, to suppose a theme OФPYF (comp. Kühner 8. 289.) so as to consider $\delta \phi \rho \nu^{\prime}$ s as coming from $\dot{\delta} \phi \rho u F s$, and the long $v$ as a compensation for the rejected $F$, as perhaps $\mu$ é $\overline{\lambda a s}$ from $\mu$ é $\lambda \alpha \nu s$. That, however, $F$ originally stood-for example, ó ópúfosbefore the terminations now commencing with a vowel, though at a time when the language had not a Grecian form is shewn by the Sanskrit bhruv-as; by which, at the same time, the shortening of the $u$ in this case is justified, for the Sanskrit

[^160]changes, that is to say in polysyllables, as well $v$ as $\hat{v}$, before vowel terminations, into a simple $v$; but in monosyllables, in order to avoid commencing with two consonants, or to gain a polysyllabic form, the semi-vowel has its corresponding short vowel placed before it, and thus is formed उद् $u v$ ( $\check{u} v$ ), as well from $u$ as from $\hat{u}$, as, under a similar condition, इय from $i$ and $\hat{\imath}$ : hence the two opposite forms, for example, vadhw-as (not vadhuv-as), "women," and bhruv-as (not bhrw-as), "the eyebrows;" as above, bhiy-as (not bhy-as), opposed to ndry-as (nariy-as). In the dative plural the short $v$ of $\dot{\delta} \phi \rho \dot{v}-\sigma \iota$ for $\dot{\delta} \phi \rho \hat{v}-\sigma \iota$ may be attributed to the effeminate habit of regularly shortening the $u$ before vowel terminations."

| bases in $a u(\vec{n})$, singular. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Sanskrit. | Greek. |
| Nominative, | nâu-s, | vaû-s. |
| Accusative, | nâtoum, | $\nu \alpha \hat{v}-\nu$. |
| Genitive,' | nat ${ }^{\text {-as, }}$ | $\nu \bar{\alpha}(F)$-ós. |
| Locative, | natwi, | $\nu \bar{u}(F)-i$. |
| Vocative, | natus, | $\nu \alpha \hat{u}-\frac{1}{*}$ |
|  | duat. | [G. Ed. p. 318.] |
| Nom. Acc. Voc. | nàv-au, | $\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\alpha}(F)-\varepsilon$. |
| Instr. Dat. Abl. | náu-bhydam, | $\nu \bar{\alpha}(F)=0-i \nu$. |
| Nominative, | $n d v-n s$, | $\nu \hat{\alpha}(\boldsymbol{F})-\epsilon s$. |
| Accusative, | ndv-as, | $\boldsymbol{\nu} \mathbf{\alpha}(\boldsymbol{F})$-as. |
| Genitive, | nav-am, |  |
| Locative, | nau-ṣhu, | Dat. vav-大i. |
| Vocative, | ndv-as, | $\nu \hat{\alpha}(\mathrm{F})-\epsilon \mathrm{s}$. |

"Remark.-I find no sufficient grounds, with Kühner, (l. c. 8.283.) to suppose that the base of the nominatives

[^161]in aus, eus, ous, originally terminated in $F$, so that in the case before us it would be requisite to suppose a theme NAF: for even if the vocalization of $F$ to $v$, in order to facilitate the junction with a consonant following, did not surprise us(forms like $v a F s, \nu \alpha F \sigma u$, could never occur); -still, on the other hand, the transition of the sound $v$ into its corresponding semi-vowel, in order to avoid the hiatus, is far more regular, and is required in the Sanskrit according to the common rules of euphony. We will not therefore differ from the Indian grammarians, by the assumption of a theme नाव् $n d v$ for नौ $n d u$, and गष् $g a v$ for गो $g d$ (bos); although, if there were adequate reasons for it, the practice of the Indian grammarians would not restrain us from laying down गव् gav and नाष् $n a v$ in the Sanskrit as the true themes, which maintained themselves in this form only before vowel terminations, but before consonants have allowed the $v$ to pass into a $u$, according to the analogy of the anomalous दि्् div, "heaven"; whence, for example, the instrumental plural धुfिस् dyu-blis for दिव्किस्स् div-bhis, which would be phonetically impossible (Gramm. Crit. §. 208.). The Latin navis cannot compel us to lay down a theme náv for the Sanskrit and Greek, for the Latin base has extended itself by an unorganic $i$, as śsuan, "dog," lengthened to cani; and therefore it exhibits in its declension nowhere $u$, but universally $v$.
[G. Ed. p. 314.] bases terminating with a consonant.

| singular. |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Thema, | Sanskrit. $V \overline{A C} C$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Zend. } \\ & V \bar{A} C H, \end{aligned}$ | Latin. $\nu \bar{U} C,$ | Greek. OII. |
| Nom. | vilk, | vic-s, | roc-s, |  |
| Accus. | vilch-am, | c.dch-ĕm | roc-em, | ön- . $^{\text {. }}$ |
| Instr. | rich-r, | vilch-a, |  |  |
| Dative, | vilch-ê, | vaich-é. |  |  |

[^162]|  | singular. |  |  | Greek. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Sanskrit. | Zend. | Latin. |  |
| Gen. | vich-as, | vuch-at, <br> v:lch-0. $\dagger$ | voc-e(d), voc-is, | ót-ós. |
| Loc. | vâch-i, | vich-i, | D. voc-i, | D. $\mathrm{o}^{\boldsymbol{\pi}-i}$ í |
| Voc. | vak, | $v .10-s$ ? | voc-s, | $\%^{\circ} \pi$-s. |
| N. Acc. V | pual. |  |  |  |
|  | V. vich-du, | vadch-do, |  |  |
|  | vach-a, $\ddagger$ | vach-a, | $\ldots$ | оัп-е. |
| I. D. Abl. | $v i g-b h y d m$, | ... |  |  |
| G. L. | vadh-os, | vâch-6? | .... |  |
|  |  | plural. |  |  |
| N. V. | vách-as, | vách- $0, \dagger$ | voc-e | ӧп-єs. |
| Accus. | vach-as, | vadh-0, $\dagger$ | vuc- | ön-as. |
| Instr. | vily-bhis, |  | ... |  |
| D. Abl. | valg-bhyas, |  | roc-i-bus, |  |
| Gen. | vach-am, | vach-anm | roc-um, |  |
| Loc. | $v a k$-shu, | vac-shva? | . . . | D. ${ }_{\text {or }} \pi-\sigma \boldsymbol{i}$. |

"Remark 1.-I leave the terminations in [G. Ed.p.315.] the Zend which commence with $b$ unnoticed, since, contrary to my former opinion (§. 224. Note ${ }^{*}$ ), I look on the $\xi^{e}$, in forms like junctive vowel; and therefore no longer attribute the said
 raochebis, and similar forms, have proceeded from bases in $\bigcup \theta\left(\right.$ from $a \dot{s} \S .56^{\circ}$.); so that I look upon the $q e$ as a corruption



[^163][G. Ed. p. 816.] I find, in the Prâkrit (Urvasi, by Lenz, p. 40.), जछोरीहे achharêhin for wछ्छोहिं achharohinं (Sanskrit apsa$r 6 b h i s)$; and if this form is genuine, then the $q e$, in forms like many interchanges between $q e$ and $s 0 e \begin{gathered}\text { occur, although in }\end{gathered}$ the case before us the $q e$ is very constantly written, and to ${ }^{3}$ has not yet been pointed out in its place. If it is further
 و $k e$ for g و $k \boldsymbol{d}$, "who ?" and in the pronoun of the 2 d person in the plural also ${ }^{\mathbf{q}}$, ve for the pronoun of the 1st person $q / n e$ for $\psi_{/} n \theta$; then we see the change of the $\downarrow 0$ with $\xi e$ is sufficiently ascertained, although it appears to be restricted to the end of words of a monosyllabic form; and in these the practice of writing the $\psi \theta$ is the prevailing one, while before termi-

Mach vacheiss, Y乌צG mazo, \&c., that the ' $\delta$ ( $a a^{\prime}$ ) is suppressed, and $\xi^{e} e$ then introduced as conjunctive vowel; or whether, before the $\hat{o}$ (from ais) only, the $\dot{i}$ has been rejected, and the preceding $a$ with an epenthetic $i$ anited with an $e$. In the former case I should not have been entirely wrong, from the analogy of raoch-e-bis, to deduce forms like vach-e-bis. I consider, however, the last view as the right one, only that I prefer letting the $\hat{b}$ from the pre-supposed original form, manô-lîs, ruochô.bî́, be changed in its whole force into $\S e$, rather than reduce it into its elements, and mix the first of the said elements ( $a$ ) with a conjoined $i$ : for the derivation of maneliss from manuiibîs from manalis, for manasbis, would extend to the Sanskrit form मनोभिस् manöbhis, which originally may have been manarlhis (manas-Uhis was never possible). But I believe that in the Zend the form ebis really preceded the form ôbis. M. Burnouf, in his review in the Journal des Sarans (in the separate impression, pp. 30, 31), calls attention to a form raghzhlyyo, for which is once found, in the Vend. Sâde, pp. 69 and 70, بُ once which,

 ЯК






























impossible for me to use) the locative that is to say, in the Vend. S. p. 173, where, for upsourvpuf

 acquaintance with which is again to be restored, oversights of this kind will, I trust, be excused in the first labourers; and if, for example, Rask gives to the word paiti the genitive paitdis, while, according to §. 180. p. 196, Note $\dagger$, patdis is to be written, still the form paitfis was, in its time, instructive in the main, and first taught me that the Sanskrit genitive termination $\boldsymbol{e}-\mathrm{s}$ corresponds to the form $\boldsymbol{0}$ is in the Zend. If, too, Rask has incorporated in his scheme of declensions the ablative paitdit (for patsit), this was indeed a new error, but also a new advantage for the Zend Grammar in its then state, and brought to light a new and important fact, which I believe I was the first to discover; namely this, that bases in $i$ form their ablative in $\delta i t$, for which the proofs in the Zend-Avesta, as much as I have of it, are neither numerous nor easily found. I make this remark because M. Burnouf, as it appears to me, speaks too unfavourably of such theoretic formations. As far as I am concerned, I believe I may assert that my communications regarding Zend Grammar are founded on careful reflection. I could not, however, perfectly conclude my considerations, and I am very ready to complete and adjust them through those of M. Burnouf. For in this book also, in regard to Zend Grammar, one must carefully distinguish the disquisitions given in the text from the general comparison added at the end of each rule regarding case. In the former I give only those Zend forms which I have seen, and I thence deduce theoretic laws: in the latter I seek to make the deductions from the inquiries pursued in the text evident in one select example. I am perfectly sure of the prevailing majority of the forms given in the tables, and cm produce abundant examples









 ае!!u!

























in the old way only in the singular, but in the plural are so corrupted, that, with the exception of the nominative and the vocative of similar sound, and the genitive, which at the same time supplies the place of the dative, they have extended the old base by an unorganic $a(=$ Greek 0 ), and have thus partly brought it from the Greek third declension into the second; and in the singular, also, most of the cases may, together with the old form, assume more recent forms, which have originated in the manner stated. In this manner, for example, the root चर् char, "to go," forms its participle present partly from the original base चरन्त् charant, or its corruption चरत् charat (see §. 129.), partly from the augmented theme चरन्त charanta, and in part also
[G. Ed.p.319.] arbitrarily from चरन्त् charant or चरन्त charanta, as follows (see Clough's Pâli Grammar, Colombo 1824, p. 25, and compare Burnouf's and Lassen's Essay, p. 112 et seq.):

Th. CHARANT, | sisoulas. |
| :---: |
| CHARANTA, |
| charanto, |$\quad$ CHARAT.

*The final न् $n$ is, as in the Prakrit ( $\wp .10$.), transmated into the Anuswâra, which I here express, as in the Sanskrit, by $n$.
$\dagger$ It might also be divided thus, charanta-m, and deduced from charanta.
$\ddagger$ Transposed, and with $h$ for $s$ (comp. §. 166.). These forms are derived from the medial pronoun sma mentioned in $\oint .166$., which, in the Pall also, has forced its way into the usual declension. The $t$, which was to have been expected, is, as generally happens at the end of a word, suppressed.
§ Charata is, according to appearance, identical with the instrumental,

| Th. <br> Gen. |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | CHARANT, | CHARANTA, charanta-ssu, | CHARAT, charat-d, |
| Loc. |  | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { charante, } \\ \text { or cl.laranta-smin }, \\ \text { or charanta-mhi, } \end{array}\right\}$ | charat-i, |
| Voc. | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { charañ, } \\ \text { or chara,* } \\ \text { or chard, } \end{array}\right\}$ | . . . . |  |
|  |  | plural. | [G. Ed. p. 320.] |
| Nom. |  | charanta, $\dagger$ |  |
| Acc. |  | charante, |  |
| Instr. |  | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { charantebhi, } \\ \text { or charantehi, }\end{array}\right\}$ |  |

Dat. like the Genitive.
Abl. like the Instrumental.

| Gen. | . . . | . . . | charat-am. |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Loc. | . . . | charantes-su, | . . . |
| Voc. charantb, | charanta, | . . . |  |

"If the Greek in its bases ending with a consonant had followed the declension-confusing example of the Pâli, one would have expected, for instance, from $\phi e ́ \rho \omega \nu$ a genitive $\phi$ époviov, dative фéfovtب; and in the plural indeed, фefóvt由v from
but is, in reality, corrupted from charat-at, analogons with Zend forms like ap-at (in $\varsigma .180$.) : the suppressed $t$ is replaced by the lengthening of the preceding vowel, as in achara, "he went," from acharat (Clough, p. 106.).

* If this form really belongs to a theme in $n t$, as 1 believe, it has sprung from the original form charain, by suppression of the concluding nasal (comp. Burnouf and Lassen, p. 89) ; and in chard this deficiency is replaced by lengthening the vowel.
$\dagger$ According to the usual declension ending with a consonant one would expect with charanta also charants, from the original theme charant; as, for example, gunavantô is used with gunavanta, "the virtuons'; the former from gunavant, the latter from gunavanta.

ФEPONT, but $\phi$ eportol, $\phi$ epoutous, $\phi \in p o v t o i s$, from $\Phi$ EPONTO. In this manner the form pepóvtorv in the dual, which has been lost in Pâli, would be clearly explained as derived from ФEPONTO; but even when standing isolated, фepóvroiv may be justly referred to a theme $\Phi$ EPONTO, as the first commencement of a corruption which was further pursued in the Pâli; and I prefer this view of the matter now to that laid down at §. 221. Both views, however, concur so far; and thus much of my opinion may be looked on as proved, that in $\phi$ epóviov, and all other dative-genitive forms of the third declension, the obelongs neither to the original theme, which lies at the root of all the other cases, nor to the true case-suffix.
[G. Ed. p. 321.] singular.
Sanskrit. Zend. Latin. Greek. Gothic.
N. bharan, barain-s, feren-s, фépwi, fiyand-s.* Ac. bharant-am, barent-ĕm, ferent-em, ф'́povt- $\alpha(\nu)$, fiyand. Ins. bharat-â, barënt-n, . . . . . . D. I.fỵand. D. bharat-é, barěnt-é, see Locat, see Loc. see Dat. Ab. see Gen. barant-at, ferent-e(d), . . .
G. bharat-as, barent-ô, $\dagger$ ferent-is, фéроvт-os, fyyand-is. $\ddagger$
L. Lharat-i, barĕnt-i, D. ferent-i, D. фépovt-ı,
V. bharan, barañ-s, feren-s, фépwv, fyyand.

[^164]| dual. |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sanshrit. |  | Zend. |  | reek. |
| N. Ac. Voc. bharant-du, |  |  |  |  |
| Vêdic, bharant-á,* |  |  |  |  |
| I. D. Abl. bharad-bhyam, Gen. Loc, bharat-ds, |  | baran-bya, $\dagger$ ¢ $\quad$ ¢єрóvтo-ıv. $\dagger$ |  |  |
|  |  | barat-69 (p. 276, R. 1.) |  |  |
|  |  | ural. | [G. | p. 322.] |
| Sanskrit. | Zend. | Latin. | Greek. | Gothic. |
| N. V. bharant-as, | barěnt-ô,§ | ferent-ēs, | фе́pout-es, | fiyand-s. |
| Acc. bharat-as, | barĕnt-8,§ | ferent-ēs. | фéport-as, | fiyand-s.ll |
| Instr. bharad-blis, | baran-bis, $\uparrow$ |  |  |  |
| D.Ab.bharad-bhyas, | baran-bydิ, | ferent-i-bus, |  |  |
| Gen. bharat-am, | barěnt-arim, | $\dagger$ ferenti-um, | фєро́vт-w | fyand-B, $\ddagger$ |
| Loc. bharut-su, |  |  | фе́pou-бl. | . Ed.p.323.] |

[^165]
"Aimunas-cha, "ceelique." $\dagger$ See p. 209, Rem. 2. $\ddagger$ See p. 241, Note $\dagger$.
 $G \&$ posd patrem (pathrĕm $\%$ ), contrary to the theory of the strong cases ( $\$ .129$.$) , for patarěm.$

| singular. |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sanskrit. | Zend. | Iatin. | Greek. | Gothic. |
| In. bhrattr-a, | $b r A t h r-a$, |  | . . D | t. brothr (see §. 132.). |
| 1 D. bhrâtr-ê, | brâthr-é, | see Loc. | see Loc. |  |
| Ab. see Gen. | brathr-at, | fratr-e(d), |  |  |
| G. bhrâtur, | brathr-d,* | fratr-is, | $\pi \alpha \tau \rho$-ós, | - brdthr-s (see §. 132.). |
| 1 L. bhratar-i, | $b r a t h r-i, \dagger$ | D. fratr-i, | $\pi \alpha \tau \rho-i$, |  |
| V. bhratar, | bratarě, $\ddagger$ | frater, | $\pi \dot{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\tau} \in \rho$, | brôthar. |


| Sanskrit. | Zend. | Greek. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| N. Acc. Voc. bhratar-au, Vêd. bhrâtar-a, | brâtar-ao or bratar-a, | $\pi \alpha \tau \in ́ p-\varepsilon$. |
| Inst. D. Ab. bhratri-bhyam. | bratar-ĕ-bya, | $\pi \alpha \tau$ ¢́po-ıv. |
| Gen. Loc. bhratr-ds, | brathr-0(?) | . . . . |


| pluraz. § |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Sanskrit. | Zend. | Latin. | Greek. |
| Nom. Voc. | bhrutar-as, | bratar-6, \|| | fratr-ēs, | татép-es. |
| Accus. | bhratrï-n, $\uparrow$ | $b r d t h r-e u s$ ?** | fratr-ès, | $\pi \alpha \tau \in ́ \rho$ - $\alpha$ S. |
| Instr. | bhrdilri-bhis, | bralar-ě-bîs, |  | [G. Ed. p. 325.] |
| Dat. Abl. | bhrátri-bhyas, | bratar-è-byd, | fratr-i-bus, |  |
| Genitive, | bhratrī-n-am, | brathr-ainm, $\dagger \dagger$ | fratr-um, | $\pi \alpha \tau e ́ \rho-\omega \nu$. |
| Locative, | bhratri-ṣhu, |  |  | тат $\alpha^{\text {d }}$ - $\sigma$. |

*Vide §. 194. p. 211, 1. 1. Note.
$\dagger$ See p. 216 Note $\| . \quad \ddagger$ See §. 44.
§ For the Gothic, which is here wanting, see p.253, Note $\ddagger$.
||
$\uparrow$ See §. 127. Note.
** Perhaps also brathr-ô, brathras-cha ("fratresque "), according to the analogy of athr-ठ, "ignes," from atar. See §. 239.
$\dagger \dagger$ See p. 266, Note $\dagger$.

SINGULAR.
Zend.
N. A. V. manas,

Instr.
manas-a,
Dat. manas-e,
Abl. see Gen.
Gen. manas-as,
Loc. manas-i,
mand.* mananh-a, $\uparrow$
mananh-e,
mananh-at,
mananh-d (mananhaś-cha),
manah-i,(see p. 316, G.ed.) D.

Greek.
Latin.
genus.
нévos,
see Loc
see Loc.
$\mu \dot{e} v e(\sigma)$-os, gener-is. $\mu \in ́ v e(\sigma)-t$, gener-i.

* Manaś-cha, "mensque," "mentemque."
+M . Burnouf remarks, in his review (in the separate impression, p. 11). that in this class of words the instrumental ending is generally long. I, in like manner, had remarked forms enough of this kind with a long $a$, but in passages where also many $a$ 's, originally short, appear to be lengthened at the termination, and which, therefore, I was not willing to bring into account: moreover, the cases could not be included, where, through the particle up cha, a preceding is $a$ is preserved in its original length. After deducting these two classes from forms in anha, the computation might perhaps turn out in favour of the short $a$ given above. I have, however, as yet not applied any closer reckoning: it wonld, however, surprise me if, on more exact calculation, but still in departure from the fate of other polysyllabic words ending with a shortened $a$, the advantage in this particular case should incline to the side of those words which retain the long vowel, which I would then gladly restore. No one will deny that the collation of MSS, is of great importance in deciding many grammatical and orthographical questions, although I believe I may assert that even a single lithographed MS. opens a rich field to inquiries and important grammatical observations : for although it is very full of errors, it nevertheless shews no systematic opposition to what is correct; and many expressions, passages, and turns recur so frequently, that, taken together, they can in a measure supply the place of a comparison of other MSS. For the rest I had at my command the edition of Olshausen of the three first chapters and part of the fourth of the Vendidàd, with the various readings attached to it, so that, through these means, I was not left entirely destitute of MSS.


The rest like the simple word.
doal
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { N.Ac.V.durmanas-dss, } \\ \text { Vêda, durmanas- } \text { d }_{\ddagger} \ddagger\end{array}\right\}$ dushmananh-a (?) $\quad \delta v \sigma \mu \epsilon \nu \epsilon ́(\sigma)-\epsilon$.
The rest like the simple word.
plural.
N. Voc. durmanas-as, dushmanaṇh-b (as̀-cha), $\delta v \sigma \mu \epsilon v \epsilon ́(\sigma)-\epsilon s$. Accus. durmanas-as, dushmananh-o (as-cha), $\delta \nu \sigma \mu \in \nu \in ́(\sigma)-\alpha s$.

The rest like the simple word.

* See p. 299, Rem. 2.
$\dagger$ See p. 245, Note $\ddagger$. It was, however, from an oversight that I, as was observed at p. 253, Note $\oint$. read in the Vendidâd Sâde, p. 127,
 considered the instrumental singular; then we should have in this passage, which recurs three times, the instramental in שפכשenha in both editions three times with a short $a$.
$\ddagger$ See p. 230, Note *.
singular, neuter.
$\begin{gathered}\text { Sanskrit. }\end{gathered} \quad \begin{gathered}\text { Zend. } \\ \text { Nom. Ac. V. } \\ \text { durmanas, } \\ \text { The rest like the simple word. }\end{gathered}$ $\begin{gathered}\text { Greck. } \\ \text { ova } \mu e v e ́ s . ~\end{gathered}$
" Remark.-It was remarked in §. 152. (comp. §. 146.), that the $\mathbf{\Sigma}$ in forms like $\mu$ évos, ev̉子evés, belongs to the base, and is not the nominative character; and that the $\Sigma$ in forms like $\tau \epsilon \tau u \not{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$ has come from $\tau$, and in like manner belongs to the theme. M. Reimnitz, who, in (p. 54, \&ce.) his pamphlet mentioned at p. 294, G. ed., agrees with this view, first given in my treatise "On some Demonstrative Bases," wishes to look upon the $\Sigma$ in the masculine $\tau$ ervoẃs as belonging to the base, and arising out of $\tau$; in which I cannot agree with him, as I, according to the view generally taken, consider the final letters of teтuфळ́s as marks of the nominative, before
[G.Ed.p.328.] which the final letter of the base is suppressed on account of the incompatible association of $\tau \sigma$ (comp. §. 99.), and replaced by lengthening the preceding vowel; as, for example, in $\mu$ é $\lambda \alpha s$ for $\mu$ é $\lambda \alpha \nu \bar{s}$. The Sanskrit has a few bases in $n$ which, differing from the ruling principle (see §. 139.), run parallel in the nominative to the Greek $\mu$ é $\lambda \bar{\alpha}_{S}$; thus, panthals, "the way," from panthan, accusative panthuin-am. Only in this panthas the lengthening of the $a$ can be less regarded as a compensation for the rejected $n$ than in the Greek, because it extends also to the other full cases (§.129.), with the exception of the vocative; but perhaps the lengthening of the $a$ has originally taken place only in the nominative, and has thence imparted itself, when the reason of this prolongation was no longer perceived, to those cases which otherwise stood upon an equal footing with the nominative. Thus one says महान् mahan, "great" (from the theme mahant, properly a participle present from मह् mah, " to grow "), with the vowel of the concluding syllable lengthened, according to the analogy of the Greek form, as $\lambda \epsilon$ ' $\gamma \omega v$. The Sanskrit word, however, retains the long vowel
also in the other strong cases (muhântam "magnum," mahantas " magni," mahantâu, " $\mu \in \gamma \alpha ́ \lambda \omega$ "), with the exception of the vocative; while the usual participles present leave the $a$ short in all the strong cases. In most exact accordance, however, with the Greek participle present stand the Sanskrit possessive adjectives, which are formed by the suffix vant (Greek $\epsilon v \tau$ for $\operatorname{Fev\tau }$, in $\mu$ e入ıróeis and others) and mant (in the weak cases vat, mat). These lengthen, that is to say the a only, in the nominative singular; so, for example, dhanavan, "dives"* (from dhana, "riches"), dhanavant-am, dhanavant-au, dhanavant-as, as $\lambda e ́ \gamma \omega \nu$, $\lambda e ́ \gamma o v \tau \alpha, \lambda e \gamma o ́ v \tau \omega, \lambda e \gamma o ́ v \tau e s$.


## OLD SCLAVONIC DECLENSION.t [G. Ed. p. 329.]

255. Before we enter upon the province of Sclavonic Grammar, we must endeavour to explain its system of sounds; and although it is not requisite to specify all the minutiæ of the subject, we must, nevertheless, bring into notice those parts which are indispensable to the understanding of the Grammar. It is therefore our principal object, in the following remarks, to exhibit the connection of the Old Sclavonic sounds with those of the elder languages, of which they are either the true trans-

[^166]missions, or corruptions more or less vitiated. We give therefore, for the first time, a history of the Sclavonic sounds, in which, however, as is natural, as far as their value is concerned, we have nothing new to bring forward; and in this respect follow only the teaching of native grammarians.

(a.)-The Old Sanskrit $\boxtimes a$ has so far experienced, in the Sclavonic, an exactly similarfate to that which has befallen it in the Greek, that it is most frequently supplied by $e$ or 0 $(\epsilon, o)$, which are always short: it very rarely remains $a$. In the interior of the bases, also, $\epsilon$ and $o$ are interchanged as in Greek; and as, for example, $\lambda$ óyos is related to $\lambda$ éfus, so, in the Old Sclavonic, is brod, "ferry," to bred $\mathfrak{\imath}$, "I wade through ;" voz, "carriage," to vezu, "I ride in a carriage." And as, in the Greek, the vocative $\lambda$ óre is related to the theme $\Lambda$ OГO, so is, in the Old Sclavonic, rabe, "O slave," to rabo, nominative rab, "a slave." The $o$ has more weight than $e$, but $a$ more than $o$; and hence $a$ corresponds most frequently to a Sanskrit $a$, so that, for instance, in the Old Sclavonic, forms in $a$ answer to the feminine bases in $\begin{aligned} & \text { at } \\ & \text { (comp. vdova, " widow," with }\end{aligned}$ fिध्वा vidhava), which, in the vocative, is in like manner abbreviated to $o$ (vdovo!), as above $o$ to $e$. As final vowel, also, of the first member of a compound, $a$ is weakened to o; for instance, vodo-pad, "waterfall," vodopolt, " water-drinker," for voda-; just as in the Greek Mougo-tpaф'is, Movao- $\boldsymbol{i}_{i} \lambda \eta s$, and similar compounds, which
[G. Ed. p. 330.] have shortened the feminine $\alpha$ or $\eta$ to o. Even if, therefore, $a$ is in the Old Sclavonic a short vowel, I nevertheless regard it, in respect to grammar, as the long $o$; so that in this the Old Sclavonic stands in a reversed relation to the Gothic, in which $a$ has shewn itself to us as the short of 0 , and, in case of abbreviation, $\delta$ would become $u$, exactly as in the Old Sclavonic a becomes o.
(b.) - $₹ i$ and $\ddagger \hat{\imath}$ both appear in the Old Sclavonic as $i$, and the difference of the quantity is removed, at least I
do not find that a longer or shorter $i$ is anywhere spoken of. Let schivi, "I live," be compared with जीवामि juvami ; sila, "virtue," with शील síla; and, on the other hand, vidyeti, " to see," with the root बिद् vid, "to know," to the Guna form of which, वेfि vedmi, the Old Sclavonic vyemy (abbreviated from vyedmy, infin. vyes-t for vyed-ti,) "I know," assimilates itself, so that vid and vyed in the Selavonic appear as two different roots. The short $₹ i$, however, appears frequently in the Old Sclavonic also in the corruption to $e(\epsilon)$, as in the Greek and the Old High German (§. 72.); that is to say, the bases in $i$ shew, in several cases, $e$ for $i$, and the numeral three ( $\boldsymbol{\sim}$ tri) appears frequently in composition in the form tre, e. g. trepûtye, "trivium." So, also, pâte-shiestvye, ósormopía from PUTTI (§.260.). The $i$ is also very frequently *suppressed, e.g. in the 3d person plural dadyat, " they give," Sanskṛit दद斤ि dadati; sutt, "they are," Sanskryit सभि santi. Where $i$ forms a diphthong with a vowel preceding it, it is marked in the old writing with a short mark, which we retain, e. g. bor̆, "strife."
(c). -उ $u$ and उ $\hat{u}$ have, in the Old Sclavonic, in the forms which are retained most correctly, both become $y . \dagger$ In this manner, for instance, by (infin. by-ti) answers to मू.

- The suppression here noticed of final $i$ refers to Dobrowsky's incorrect orthography. In point of fact, however, the final $i$ in Old Sclavonic has either been retained unaltered, or has become b $y$; e.g., that which $\mathrm{D}_{0}-$ browsky, 1. c., writes dadjat, "they give," sutt, "they are," should be corrected to ААд, АТb, dadainty, гать suinty. Regarding the nasalized vowels, see $\oint .783$. Remark.
$\dagger$ We express, as in Polish, the yery or dull $i$ by $y$, as, like the Greek $v$, where it is original it supplies the place of the old short or long $u$, It is pronounced in Russian, according to Reiff (by Gretsch II. p. 666.), as in the French oui, spoken very short and monosyllabically ; according to Heym, nearly like $\ddot{u}$, in union with a very short $i$ (Heym, p.5). This does not, however, remain the same in all positions of this letter (Reiff, 1. c.), and it sounds after consonants other than labials like a dull thick $i$ ("i sourd et etouffe").

Chû, "to be;" svehry," mother-in-law,"to vequeśsaírû; myshy. "mouse," to मूप mûṣha; syn, "son," to सूनु sûmu; chetyri, тé $\sigma \sigma \alpha \rho e s$, with चतुर chatur (in the theme), nominative masculine चत्वारस् chatuâras. The instances of $y$ for उ $u$ are, nevertheless, more rare than those where $y$ corresponds to the long उा $\hat{u}$; for the short $u$, as in the Old High German (§. 70.), has for the most part
[G. Ed. p. 331.] become $o$; and thus, for example, snocha, "daughter-in-law," answers to स्रुपा snuṣha; oba, "both," to उभा $u b h a ̈$ (Vêdic form), Zend 土us) $u b d$. Hence, also, the old $u$ declension has, in many cases, become similar to the $o$ declension, which, according to (a.), has arisen from w $a$; and, on the other side, o may also, but only in substantives, participate in those forms which belong only to the genuine $u$ declension: whence it is easily perceived that the genius of the language could not everywhere distinguish further the two kinds of $o$, in their history, indeed, far separated from one another, but phonetically identical.
(d).-Unorganic $y$, i. e. $y$ as representative of original vowels other than उ $u$ or $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \hat{u}$, is not uncommon in the grammar ; that is to say, the personal termination my (1st person plural), like the Latin mus, has arisen from the more ancient mas; and if the bases in a (for *ा $a$ ) have $y$ in the nominative plural (vdovy, " viduce"), still the $y$ here is so much the less to be looked upon as a case termination, as no account could be given of $y$ in this sense; and with bases in $y a$ the $a$ of the base is also really retained (volya, "voluntates"). But as the $y$ exerts the force of an Umlaut on an $o$ succeeding it, by which that vowel is changed to an $e$, so I think that to an $i$ following the $o$, without the intervention of another letter, the force of a reactive Umlaut must be ascribed, even if this force is not everywhere exerted, and that some $y$ 's must be declared to be the Uinlauts of $o$ : that is to say, as soon as so much has been re-
cognised in the Old Sclavonic adjectives, that their bases all end either in $o$ or $y o$ (changed by the Umlaut to $y e$ ), and are thus sister forms to the Greek, like ATA $\Theta 0$, 'ATIO; and of the Sanskṛit, as घ्वेत śwêta, "white," दिव्य divya, "heavenly ";-so soon, I say, as the abbreviation of the base in the masculine nominative has been recognised (nov, novus, for novo), then will it be no longer said with Dobrowsky (p. 318) that the definite adjectives are derived from the primitives (indefinite) by annexing, according to the measure of the final letter of the primitive, either $y \check{c}$ or $\ddot{u} . .^{*}$ If, however, I may trust that I have obtained an accurate knowledge of the organization of the Old Sclavonic grammar on any point, it is on this, that the affix in the nominative singular of definite adjectives consists not in $y \check{i}$ or $i \check{u}$, but in $i$ as a mutilation of yo from $y a$ (u $y a$ ), and in the feminine of $y a$ from $y a$ [G.Ed.p.332].
(या $y a$ ). This also appears to me subject to no manner of doubt, that if, for example, the compound word svyatyı comes from the word svyato, "holy," its acknowledged theme, the $y$ is a euphonic product from $o$, through the influence of the $i$ which is added to it. This $i$ has, in some cases, in which it has been dropped, still in a degree, in its euphonic operation, left its reflection, and thereby the proof of its former existence. Thus, for instance, svyaty-m, "per sanctum," from the older svyatyĭm, svyaty-ch, "sanctorum," and "in sanctis," from svyatyi-ch, corresponds to the indefinite forms svyato-m, svyatye-ch (for svyato-ch). $\dagger$ At times, through the said pronominal syllable $i$, the preceding $o$ may be changed at will into $y$

[^167]or not: thus the interrogative exhibits the forms kyi, "quis?" (Dobr. 500 and 343.), kyim, "per quem?" kyich, "in quibus, quorum?" kyim, "quibus?" kyimi, "per quos? with koŭ, koìm, koüch, koimi. The possessive pronouns allow no euphonic reaction at all to the demonstrative $i$, which forms the last member of them, and they always retain their radical $o$; e. g. mor̆, " meus," moim, "per meum," not my̆̌, my̆m. As to the definite form of the adjective bases in $y o$, which Dobrowsky forms through the addition of $i \boldsymbol{i}$, I have not the slightest doubt that here, also, a simple $i$ is the defining element, for the first $i$ is clearly the vocalization of the $y$ of the primitive base; so that therefore, for example, sinir "the blue," is to be divided, not into $\sin -\tilde{u}$, but into sini-i. The primitive adjective is sounded in the nominative which is deprived of all inflection and of the last vowel of the base-siny, the $y$ of which appears as $i$ in the nominative plural masculine, just as in the definite pronoun, sini, "corrulei," sinii, oi " carulei." In order, however, here fully to explain the nature and origin of the definite declension, and not hereafter to be compelled to repeat what is already settled, it may be stated that its pronominal defining addition is identical with the Sanskrit relative base य $y a$, which is most correctly preserved in the Lithuanian, in which language *ya signifies "he" ( $y a-m$, " to him," ya-mé, "in him"). The nominative yis, "he" (for yas), has given the $y$ an assimilating influence, as is the case with all bases in $y a$ ( $(\$ .135$.). The feminine, also, is pronounced in the nominative, through assimilation, $y i$ for $y a$; but the genitive yos, and all the other cases, are easily perceived through the declension of rankà, "hand," and giesme, "song," [G.Ed. p. 333.] from GİESMYA (p. 169, Note). The

[^168]Old Sclavonic has, in all the masculine bases ending with a vowel, suppressed this vowel in the nominative and accusative; and since the vowel has dropped from the Sanskrit-Lithuanian base $\boldsymbol{\text { t }} y a, y a$-which, according to $(a$.$) ,$ makes one expect $y o$ in the Old Sclavonic, from which, according to ( $n$. ), must be formed $y e^{*}$-the $y$ must be changed into a vowel; hence, $i$, "he," "him," which must, therefore, on no account be placed together with the Latin-Gothic is, from the base $i$. In the nominative singular masculine, however, this Sclavonic pronoun occurs in all the three genders, not isolated, but in union with the particle sche, which has preserved to it the old relative meaning: $i$-sche means as well "qui" as "quem"; ya-sche, "que"; y $\hat{1}$-sche, " quam"; and ye-sche " quod." Now as $i$ means "he," ya, "she," and $y e$, " it," I could not imagine how one could create the definitive adjective forms svyaty-i, svyata-ya, svyato-e (for svyatoye), accusative svyaty-i, svyat $\hat{-}$-y $\hat{l}$, svyato-e, in their opposition to the indefinites svyat(o), svyata, svyato, differently from Dobrowsky (p. 493), and perhaps other grammarians before him, have done, namely, by the addition of the pronoun here under discussion; $\dagger$ for this pronominal suffix supplies the place of the article of other languages ; and the Lithuanian language uses the same pronoun

* Hence in the genitive ye-go, dative ye-mut, loc. ye-m, the $e$ of which Dobrowsky wrongly ascribes to flexion, because he everywhere seeks the base in the nominative. However, the base ye has not fully maintained itself before all terminations beginning with a consonant, but become, in like manner, shortened to $i$ : in $i-m$, "per eum," and iis, $i-m i$ "per cos," i-ch, "eorum," " in iis," for ye-m, \&sc.
$\dagger$ What Grimm (by Wuk, p. xl.) remarks against this declaration has not convinced me; least of all can I, for the above reasons, concede to him that the $i$ of svyatyi has any thing to do with the $a$ of blinda, "the blind " (from blindan, §.140.); so that svyatyi would belong to the indefinite declension; and, on the other hand, svyat, contrary to the Sclavonic Grammarians, would be to be removed from the indefinite into the definite forms.
for the same object, i.e. equally in the emphatic, or, as it is also termed, definite declension of the adjective; and certainly so, that, through all cases, both the adjective which precedes and the pronoun which concludes are declined, while, in the Sclavonic, in most cases the pronoun only is provided with the inflexions of case, but in some
[G. Ed. p. 334.] it has utterly disappeared, and in others is still to be recognised in the $y$ for $o$ mentioned above.
(e.) -The Sanskrit diphthong ए ê I have found always rendered, in the Old Sclavonic, by ye, in similar forms; so that after weakening the ए $\mathcal{E}$, to compensate for this, the semi-vowel $y$ has made its appearance, to which, in this union, a particular legitimacy would be, according to (c.), to be ascribed. Let pyena, "foam," be compared with फेन phena; svyet "light," with w्षेत śvêta; vyemy, "I know," with बेद्मि velmi. The most important cases in the grammar wth ye corresponding to $\mathbb{e} \hat{e}$ are the dual case forms of the feminine and neuter, and those of the imperative, in accordance with the Sanskrit potential of the first conjugation.
$(f$.)-The Sanskrit diphthong *ो 6 (from $a+u$ ) is represented in the Old Sclavonic by $\hat{u}(8) ;{ }^{*}$ so that the first

[^169]element of the Indian diphthong has assimilated itself to the second, and, in conjunction with it, presents a similar long vowel, as, in the Greek $8(o v)$, two heterogeneous vowels, according to pronunciation, have united themselves in a similar measure. As, according to (a), the Indian short $a$ has, in the Sclavonic, mostly become short $o$, we must consider the first element in the diphthong $\hat{u}$ also (so we write the 8) to be $o$; and it becomes visible, too, in this form, when $\hat{u}$ is resolved before vowels into ov, (compare $\beta 0$ (F)ós from B甘, [G. Ed. p. 335.] §. 123.), while the Indian को $\theta$ becomes $a v$ before a vowel (गधि $g a v i=\beta o F i$, from गो $g \dot{\theta}$ ). Now as, in the Sanskrit, उ $u$, э $\hat{u}$, rise to $\delta$ through Guna (§. 26.), and st $\hat{\sigma}$-şhy $d m i$ appears as the future of stu, so in the Old Sclavonic, in like manner, $y(c y)$ is interchanged with $\hat{u}$; so that $b \vec{u}$ in $b u-d u$, "I shall be," must pass as the Guna-form of by (in byti, "to be"): but if a class of nouns, which in the nominative-accusative terminate in a consonant or in yerr (see $k$.), exhibit, in many oblique cases, the syllable $o v$ before vowel-endings, this $o v$ must neither be considered, with Dobrowsky, for an augment added to the base, nor can it be deduced from forms like synovi, "from a son" (Sanskrit सूनवे sûnav-e, from sûnu), synov-e, "sons" (मूनवस् sûnav-as), that syn, in the nominative-accusative, is an abbreviation of sym $\hat{2}$; and that therefore the yerr, when it is added to the form syn, is a representative or weak remainder of $t$ : but it is clear, from (c.), that syn, "filius," "filium," if its final vowel, in its most genuine form, had remained to it, would sound syny, from which synow is the Guna intensitive, the $o v$ of which has arisen from $\hat{u}$ through the influence

[^170]of the vowel following it, but has remained in the genitive plural also, after the ending has been dropped. Let synov, "filiorum," be compared with the Gothic suniv-ê (§. 247.) As, in the Sanskrit, the substantive bases in $u$ adopt the Guna form of the $u$ before the vowels of the derivative suffix, so it is very remarkable that, in the Old Sclavonic bases in $y$, also, this vowel appears before certain derivative suffixes in its Guna form ; e. g. domov-it from $\operatorname{dom}(D O M Y)$, " house "; binov-at, "debtor," from byn (BYNY ).* Derivative substantives and adjectives in ov, ev (theme ovo, evo, the latter for yovo, see $n$.), correspond to the Sansḳit in wa ava; as पारडsa pandadav-a (nominative as), "descendant of Pâṇdu "; जातेब ârtava, "seasonable," from चुतु ritu, " season": so, in Old Sclavonic, Adamov, "Adamite," from Adam (ADAMY) ; zarev for zaryev, "kingly," from zar (theme $Z A R Y Y$ ). For these formations, therefore, we must not, with Dobrowsky (322, 323), assume a suffix $o v$ or $e v$. but we must look upon the $o$ alone, which, in the nominative, is suppressed, as the derivative suffix (ADAMOV - O, ZAREV-O). Through the Vriddhi increase (§. 29.) the Old Sclavonic $y$ becomes $a v$, because $a$, according to ( $\alpha$. ), usually corresponds to wr $a$ : hence, from the root by, "to be," comes the causal baviti (infinitive), as in the

[G. Ed. p. 336.] Sanskṛit भावयितुम् bhavayitum. But though staviti occurs as the causal of sta, this form may have arisen in the perverted feeling of the language as an irregularly analogous word to baviti. In order, then, still more to establish, by a few other examples, the representation of the Indian सो $\hat{6}$ or सय् $a v$ by the Sclavonic $\hat{u}$, we find ûst, "mouth," correspond to ※ोष $\begin{aligned} & \text { șhṭha, "lip": sheut } \\ & \text { " }\end{aligned}$ "sinister" (theme SHUYYO), to सब्य savya; bûditi," to awake"-a causal, whose primitive bdyeti has entirely

[^171]lost the vowel of the root-to बोरयितुम् bodhayitum, also "to awake," from बुप् budh, " to know." Thus gûbiti is the causal of $g y b-n \hat{u}$ (1. P.), and studiti of styd-n $\hat{u}$ (Dobr. 360,361 .); while vyesiti is the causal of visyeti (see e.), as, in the Sanskrit, वेशयितुम् ves'sayitum, " to cause to enter," from विश् vis, "to go in."
(g.)-As the nasals* easily resolve themselves into $u$, so the second element of the diphthong $\hat{\psi}$ sometimes also supplies the place of a nasal in the cognate languages; e.g. rûka, "a hand," Lithuanian ranka ; puty, "a way," Sanskrit पन्थास panthas, id. Latin pons; goluby, "a dove," columba; gûsy, " a goose," हंस havisa. The Polish has preserved the old nasal in golamb, "a dove," gansie, "a gosling," gansior, "a gander," and in many similar cases. Hereby the $a$ in the accusative of bases in $a$ (from *ा $a$ ), which are for the most part feminine, is remarkably explained; compare vdovi from vdova, "a widow," with विधवाम् vidhavalm, "viduam." Therefore $v d o v u$ is to be derived from vdovo-m for vdova-m (see a.); so that the $a$ which is weakened to an $o$ is contracted with the nasal mark of the case to $\hat{u}$. This view is further supported by the consideration, that in Polish, also, the corresponding feminine declension marks the final vowel of the base with the same sign which, in the middle of a word, expresses a nasal, which is governed according to the organ of the following letter, but at the end, probably through a corruption of sound, is said to have an equal value with a ringing $h$. This nasalizing mark recurs also in the Polish verb, and, indeed, exactly in such a place where one had to expect a nasal, i.e. in the Ist person singular and 3d person plural; and thus, in Bandtke's second and third conjugation, the so marked e, e.g. in pieke, "I bake," supplies the place of the am of the first conjugation, as czytam, " I read."

[^172]The Old Sclavonic has, however, excepting some anomalous remains of an older formation, $\boldsymbol{a}$ in all the conjugations; and, according to what has been said, it admits of no doubt, that in the second part of this diphthong ( $o+\breve{u}$ ) the personal character $m$, and in the first part of the diphthong the conjunctive vowel, is retained. When therefore, in the 1st person, an o corresponds to the $e(e)$ of nes-e-shi, "thou carriest," nes-e-t, "he carries "[G. Ed. p. 337.] for nesû is for nes-o-ŭ for nes-o-m from nes-e-m-it must be assumed that the conjunctive vowel $e$, before its confluence with the $\breve{u}$, which has arisen out of $m$, has passed into $o$; as in Greek ov arises by the contraction of $\varepsilon$ and $o$, through the transition of $\varepsilon$ into $o$ and $o$ into $v$. The same relation is to be found in the Old Sclavonic in the 3 d person plural, where, corresponding to nes-e-m, " we carry," nes-e-te, " ye carry" (comp. $\lambda$ é $\gamma-\epsilon-\tau e$ ), the form nesent is expected, but in place of it occurs nesut in surprising accord with the Greek $\lambda$ é $}$ for $\lambda$ é $\lambda$ é 'ovtı. The Polish has, like the Bohemian, relinquished the character of the 3 d person in the plural, as well as for the most part in the singular, but everywhere retains, in the first, the old and more powerful $a$ (m), and marks this with the diacritical sign mentioned above, which, in the middle of a word, supplies the place of a nasal function; thus, sa, "they are," corresponds to the Sanskrit सन्ति santi, Sclavonic sut. The Bohemian has also, in many conjugations, retained the old conjunctive vowel $a$ in the 3d person plural, but, like the Sclavonic, permitted the $n$ to dissolve into a $u$; therefore, in wezau, "vehunt" (wez-e-me, "vehimus," wez-e-te, " vehitis"), the $u$ answers to the $n$ of वहन्ति vahanti, "vehunt," and the $u$ which, in Bohemian, is united with an $a$, is essentially different from that which stands alone; for the latter answers to the Old Sclavonic diphthong $\hat{u}(\mathrm{~g})$, but the former only to the latter portion of the $\hat{u}$, which, in the Old Sclavonic, never stands alone, at least never occurs as $\breve{u}$, but as $y$ (c).

If, then, through what has been said, the vocalization of the $\boldsymbol{m}$ or $\boldsymbol{n}$, which is of such frequent occurrence in the Sclavonic, has been shewn with sufficient clearness, it is remarkable that conversely, also, the latter portion of the $\hat{u}(z)$ has occasionally been hardened into a nasal; and thus buidic, "I will be," is in Polish bendéc (written bedede).
( $h$.) -In certain cases an old $\boldsymbol{a}$ ( $\boldsymbol{n}$ ) unorganically supplies the place of the Sclavonic $\boldsymbol{\pi}$, i.e. in the instrumental of pronouns without gender, and all feminines; thus, vdovoy- $\hat{\text {, }}$ " through the widow," answers to विंशवया vidha$v a y-\hat{a}$; and toboy- $\hat{u}$, "through thee," to न्वया turay- $\hat{a}$. Denominatives also, in $\hat{u} y \hat{\ell}$ (lst per. pres.), in the Old Sclavonic, correspond to the Sanskrit in षायामि áydmi, as झम्दायामि śabdayami, "I sound," from शब्द śabda, "a sound,"; बिरायामि chirdyami, "I hesitate," from fिर chira, "long": thus, in the Sclavonic, zielûyu, "I greet," "I kiss," from siel, (ZIELO), "healthy": vdovûŷ from vdova, " widow" (Dobr. p. 372.). Finally, words in $\mathrm{in}^{( }(\bar{U} N O)$ answer, as it appears, to the Sanskrit participles of the middle voice, in ana, as युघ्जान yurijana, "uniting," from युज् yuj; so in the Old Sclavonic, perinn; (PER $\overline{U N O})$, "Deus [G. Ed. p. 338.] tonans," from the root per, " to shake"; byegûn, " runner" ( $B Y E G \bar{U} N O$ ), from $B Y E G$ "to run" (Dobr. p. 289.).
(i.)-There are in the Sclavonic alphabet two marks, which by some are called littera aphona, but by Gretsch semivowels; I mean the so-called soft yer,* and the hard yerr. The former is represented by Gretsch as half $i$, and by his translator, Reiff (47), as answering to the tones 'mouilles' of French (compare Kopitar, p. 5); and thus schal", "sympathy," and ogon", "fire," are, in respecto the soft yer compared with the pronunciation of travail and cicogne. This yer, therefore, denotes a tone

[^173]which is rather to be called a $y$ than an $i^{*}$; and it may be said that in schal ${ }^{\mathrm{b}}$ and ogon ${ }^{b}$ one hears quite as mach of a $y$ as can be heard of this semi-vowel after a consonant preceding it. Hence we mark it with a $y$, and write the above words schaly, ogony, Old Sclavonic ogny. In the words, too, which end with it in the uninflected nominative and accusative singular, it occurs in several oblique cases as a distinct proper $y$, e.g. in zarya, "regis," zaryu, "regi," from zary, "rex," "regem." On the consonant which precedes it this yer has an influence which renders its pronunciation more mild, because its sound is somewhat broken by the $y$, which throws back its sound. Etymologically the yer-corresponds either to a final $i$ of the cognate languages, as in yesty, "he is " (चस्ति asti, é $\sigma \tau i$, Lithuanian esti), kosty, " bones" (खस्बि asthi), or in the nominative and accusative singular of masculine substantives and adjectives, to a $y$ ( य $y$ ), from which a vowel has dropped; for the theme of siny, "carruleus," concludes neither with $i$ nor with $y$, but with yo (euphonically ye, see $n$.); whose final vowel, suppressed in the nominative and accusative masculine, appears, however, in the feminine sinya, in its extension to $a$, while the neuter sine for sinye has rejected the $y$.
(k.)-The hard yerr is represented by Gretsch as a semi $o$, but by Reiff, more correctly in my opinion, it is compared to the French silent $e$ and the Hebrew schva: it is therefore, to use the expression, equivalent to "nothing"; and one cannot perceive of what vowel the small, still perhaps remaining vowel part of it is the residue. Consonants preceding it have a stronger and free pronunciation;
[G. Ed. p. 399.] and Kopitar (p. 5) tells us that they are pronounced before it sharp, and without echo, and that it is for this reason called the hard yerr, and not on account of its own pronunciation. We require, therefore, in the

[^174]Roman character, no substitute for this mark, and Dobrowsky also omits it at the end of words. Etymologically, however, this yerr always represents a suppressed mute vowel, only not always an o, nor, as Grimm conjectures (in his valuable Preface to Wuk's Servian Gramm. p. xxxiv) a u. Rather, each of the three short fundamental vowels-a (as represented also by $o, e$ ), $i$, $u$, (for which may stand $y, o$ ), 一is very frequently dropped at the end of words; and although the $i$ is seldom entirely suppressed, more generally throwing back its sound as $y$, nevertheless the vowel suppressed after the $m$ of rabo-m, "per servum," and in Russian replaced by yerr, is clearly, as we gather from the Lithuanian, an $i$.
(l.)-I* believe I may assert, that in the whole extent of the structure of the Sclavonic language, at least in all the conditions of its noun and verb, not a single final consonant occurs after which some termination, which, through the cognate languages can be pointed out as beginning with a vowel, has not been dropped. Thus, the base NEBES, "coelum," forms, in the genitive plural, likewise nebes, but the vanished termination is, in Sanskrit, wाम् $a_{m}$ (नभसाम् nabhasam, " coelorum "), Greek $\omega \nu$ ( $\nu \in \phi e ́(\sigma) \omega \nu$ ), Latin um, Gothic é. The real final consonants, however, which, in the truly-preserved elder dialects of the Indo-European family, stand as the foundation of the word, have utterly disappeared in Sclavonic polysyllables; e. g. from बस् as, $e s$ is formed, in the nominative plural, $e(e)$; and synov-e answers to forms like घूनबस् sûnav-as, ßótpu-єs.
( $m$.)-As far as regards the writing of those consonants which, in the Sclavonic alphabet, properly correspond to the Roman, we express the sound of the French $j$ (zivyete, in the Carniolan sh), as in Zend (§. 65.), by sch, that of our German sch (=, ) by sh as in Sanskrit,

* Cf. §. 783. Remark.
and also as, in Sanskrit, the tsch by ch: for the sound of the Greek $\zeta(=d s)$ we retain $\zeta$, and use $z$ for the sound of our German $z(=t s)$ : for $\chi$ we write ch. In regard to etymology, it is important to call attention to the relation of this letter to sibilants, by means of which snocha, "daughter-in-law," corresponds to the Sanskrit बुषा snuṣhá. Ch also, in declension and conjugation before certain vowels, passes into $s$
[G. Ed. p. 340.] (Dobr. pp. 39, 41), and in some cases into $s h$ (Dobr. 41.). Finally, in preterites like dach,"I gave," dachom, " we gave," the ch returns to the $s\left(\right.$ gi $\left._{\text {, }}, \Sigma\right)$ whence it has proceeded, in the cases where a personal ending beginning with a $t$ follows it; hence, daste, "ye gave," dasta, " ye two" and "they two gave." As the vowels exercise a multifarious influence in the transformation of gutturals preceding them, we will further remark that the ch under discussion maintains itself in the 3d person plural before $\boldsymbol{u}$, but before $a$ appears as $s h$; hence, dasha or duchú, "they gave."
(n.) - FFor the semi-vowel $y$ (घ् $y$ ) the Cyrillian alphabet gives the Greek 1 , excepting in the cases for which the inventor of the character has provided by particular letters set together according to their value, which, at the same time, express the $y$ with the following vowel; that is to say, $y a$ is never written by two letters. It would, however, for this reason, be wrong to assume a vowel ya, as this syllable, however it may be written, still always unites in itself two sounds. For ye, also,

[^175]Cyril has provided by a simple sign, and $y$ in is expressed by an $o$ in conjunction with an c. But $y$ often appears in Sclavonic as a dialectic addition before vowels foreign to the cognate languages. Compare yesmy, "I am," yam (for yadmy), "I eat," pyaty, "five," desyyaty, "ten," yedin, " one," with the corresponding Sanskrit forms, asmi, admi, panchan, daśan, adi (primus). An o which follows is, in accordance with similar forms which we have observed in the Zend and Lithuanian (§. 137. and p. 174, Note*), changed into $e$ through the influence of a $y$ preceding it. In like manner, in accordance with the Zend and Lithuanian, the $y$, after it has assimilated a vowel following it, has often itself disappeared, and has left behind only its effect, and thereby the proof of its former existence.*

* Dobrowsky does not express himself with sufficient clearness regarding this form, when he says (cap. II. §. iii.) that o after $y$ and liquid consonants is changed into e. According to this, one would believe that, besides $y$, certain other consonants had the power of changing an $a$ following them into e. Dobrowsky understands-which, however, as far as I know, he nowhere expressly says-under "consonce liquide," those which, in consequence of a following yer ( $y$ ), have retained a more flowing and softer pronunciation; while he calls the consonants wthout yer "consonce solide" (comp. 1.c. p. 267); so that no consonant is by nature and of itself alone liquid, but receives this quality through a following yer (a $y$ without a vowel). Thus, in Dobrowsky's second masculine declension, the consonants $r$, ch, and $\zeta$, in zary, "king," vrachy, "physician," and knyasy, "prince," are liquid. But as these words in the instrumental form zarem, brachem, knya̧em, Dobrowsky ascribes the e for o to the influence of a liquid consonant; while, according to my opinion, the consonants in these forms have no concern whatever in transforming ointo $e$, but for zarem, \&ce. zaryem must originally have stood. And as in this form the $y$ is the full semi-vowel, not entirely without a vowel sound, and therefore not the expression of the yer without a vowel which softens the consonant preceding it-as in the abbreviated nominative sary-so the $r$ also, in zaryem, was not liquid, and has not, according to my opinion, become liquid after the dropping of the semi-vowel; at least, I find it nowhere stated
[G. Ed. p. 341.] 256. We must now, in order to be able to compare the true case-suffixes of the Old Sclavonic with those of the cognate languages, first of all endeavour to ascertain the final letter of the kinds of base which occur, as they have for the most part been rubbed off in the singular nominative, whence it has appeared as if these letters, where they again present themselves in the oblique cases, either belonged to the case termination, or were an addition equally foreign to the base and to the termination, which has been termed "augment" by Dobrowsky. After becoming
[G. Ed. p. 342.] acquainted with the true base, the case terminations assume, in many points, an entirely different shape from what Dobrowsky has represented (p. 460), with whom we cannot concede to the neuter a nominative termination $o$ or $e$, but perhaps the advantage of having preserved, in preference to the masculine, the final vowel of the theme in this case. For the practical use of the language, and to keep simply within the limits of the Sclavonic language, all might, notwithstanding, be assumed as inflexion which is usually represented as such. It is not, however, here our object to consider those syllables as supplying the place of grammatical relations which present themselves to the feeling of the speakgr as such, but only those which may be so traced through the history of the language, and which, for thousands of years, have subsisted as Grammatical forms.

257. To the masculine and neuter bases in w $a$ correspond, in the Old Sclavonic as well as in Greek, bases in ${ }_{0}$,* which vowel has disappeared in the nominative and
stated that the $r$ and other consonants, in forms like zarem, knyasem, golübem, lebedem, are differently pronounced from what they are in pirom, vosom, lobom, adom, of Dobrowsky's first masc. declension. The difference in the two classes of words is only this, that the former have a $y$ for the last letter but one of their theme, which, by the power of assimilation, has changed the following o into $e$, which $e$, after the $y$ has been dropped, does not again become $o$.

* Dialectically the older $a$ has, in certain cases, maintained itself, as in
accusative singular: so the corresponding $a$ has disappeared in Gothic, except in the neuter (as Gothic blinda-ta, "ccecum," in contrast with blind'-s, "cæecus") : it has also maintained itself frequently in the beginning of compounds in the Gothic and Old Greek, where, according to the oldest principle, the naked theme is required; as, nov, "novus," appears in many compounds as novo (novo-grad, "newtown"), but is then not to be considered as the neuter novo, "novum," but as the common theme [G. Ed. p. 343.] of the masculine and neuter, in which as yet no difference of sex is pointed out. The clearest proof that the class of nouns under discussion corresponds to the Indian, Lithuanian, and Gothic nouns in $a$, is afforded by their feminine bases in $a$ (for सा $\begin{aligned} & \text { ) ; ; so that to the form rab (for rabo), "servant," }\end{aligned}$ corresponds a feminine raba, "a maid ": that is to say, all Old Sclavonic primitive adjectives, i.e. those with an indefinite declension, correspond to the Sanskrit in $a-s, a, a-m$, Greek $o-s, \eta(\alpha), o-v$, Latin $u-s, a, u-m$; much as one might be led astray by outward appearance to seek in the adjectives, which in the nominative masculine end in $y$ ( $y e r$ ), and in the neuter in $e$, as siny, "caruleus," syne, "coruleum," an analogy to Latin adjectives like miti-s, mite.

258. But I recognise in adjectives like that just mentioned, and in similarly-constituted substantives, as knyasy, "prince," more, "the sea," bases of such a nature as, without the euphonic form mentioned at $\S .255$. (n.), must have terminated in $y o$, whence $y e$; and hence, in the nominative masculine-according to the suppression of the final vowel of the base, $y$ in this case-and in the neuter $e$ retaining the vowel and dropping the $y$. These bases, therefore, correspond to the Indian in य $y a$, the Greek and Latin in

[^176] (nominative and accusative neuter), "heart," corresponds to the Sanskrit बदयम् hridaya-m, which is likewise neuter. The feminines, again, afford a practical proof of the justice of this theory, for the Selavonic bases in ya correspond to the Sanskrit feminine bases in या $y a$ Greek $\alpha$, , Latin $i a)$; and this form, in the uninflected nominative, stands opposed to the masculine termination $y$ and neuter $e$, as sinya, "carulea," to siny, "caruleus," and sine, "cceruleum."
[G. Ed. p. 344.] When an $i$ or other vowel precedes the last $y$ but one of the base, the $y$ in the nominative, and accusative masculine is changed into the vowel $\bar{i}$; as, nyetiir, "nepos ex sorore" (Dobrowsky, p. 282). The corresponding feminine form is iya, and the neuter $y e$, the $y$ of which has arisen from $i$ of the form iye, which is to be supposed the original, after dropping the last $y$ but one. To the Sanskrit सब्यस् savya-s, सब्या savya, सब्यम् savya-m (sinister, $a, u m$ ), correspond thus shuti, shuya, shide (compare Dobrowsky, p. 285).
259. The Old Sclavonic masculine and neuter bases in $y o_{\text {, }}$ * with their feminines in $y a$, are, according to their origin, of four kinds :-1. Those in which, as in SHU $Y O=$ सय्य savya, both the semi-vowel and the vowel following, from the earliest period of the language, belong to the base of the word; and this case is perhaps the most rare. 2. Such as originally end in $i$, to which an unorganic o has been added; as, in the Lithuanian, the bases in $i$, in many cases, change into the declension in ia (ie) (§. 193. and p. 174, Note *). To this class belongs MORYYO, nom. more, "the sea," the $e$ of which therefore differs widely from

[^177]the mare in Latin, corrupted from mari; so that the Sclavonic $y$, which again makes its appearance in the genitive morya, dative moryu, corresponds to the Latin $e$ spoken of. The Latin word must, however, in order to be classed with the Sclavonic, be pronounced in the nominative mariu-m. Neuter bases in $i$, without an unorganic augment, are entirely wanting in the Sclavonic. [G. Ed. p. 345.] Among the masculines of this class of words chervy, "a worm" (theme CHERVYO), answers to the Sansḳit कृमि krimi and the Latin VERMI, Old High German, WURMI; and §yaty (弓YАTYO), "gener," to the Sanskrit जाति jati, feminine, "familia," "genus," from जन् jan, "to be born."" The third kind of bases in $y_{o}$ is that where the unorganic $y$ precedes a final $o$, according to the euphonic disposition mentioned in §. 255. (n.). So gûsy (GUUSYO) corresponds to the Indian हंस hanisa, "goose" (§. 255. g.). In the fourth place there exist among bases in $y o$ the words in which the $y$ as well as the following vowel is an unorganic addition. Thus fnouns of agency in TARYO correspond to the Sanskrit in तर् $\operatorname{tar}$ ( $\overline{\text { Tr tri, }}$, in the strong cases तार् tar,) to the Latin in $t \circlearrowleft r$, and to the Greek in $\tau \eta \rho, \tau \omega \rho$; hence the nominatives my-tary, schi-tary, and 弓latary (Dobrowsky, p. 295), and, with $y$ for $a$, pas-tyry, "shepherd." Of this kind, also, are the nouns of agency in TELYO, the $l$ of which is clearly an interchange with $r$ (§. 20.), so that this suffix also conforms itself to the Sanskrit तर् tar ; hence the nominatives blago-dyetely, "beneficus," pye-tely, "a cock," from the root pye, "to sing," schately, " messor," spas-i-tely, " salvator." $\ddagger$

[^178]260. To the Sanskrit feminine bases in wr $d$ correspond as has been already remarked, Old Sclavonic in a. To
[G. Ed. p. 346.] this class of words, however, belong also some masculines, particularly proper names, which are then declined entirely as feminines, as in Latin nauta, cerlicola, \&ce. (§.116.), on which we will not here dwell further. Among the bases in $i$ there are, in Old Sclavonic, no neuters, and only a very small number of masculines - as in Lithuanian which Dobrowsky, p. 469, represents as anomalous, as though they were only irregulars of his second declension masculine: they are, however, in reality, foreign to it, for this very reason, that they end their theme with $i$, but the former with $y o$, and in part with $y y,(\$ \cdot 263$.). It is only in the nominative and accusative singular that these three classes of words, from various reasons, agree; and, gosty, "guest," from GOST1* (Gothic GASTI, Latin HOSTI) agrees with knya\{y, "prince," from KNY $A \zeta Y O$, and vrachy, "medicus," from VRACHY̧Y. The masculine bases originally ending with $n$-there are but a few of them-form most of their cases from a base augmented by $i$; KAMEN, "stone" (Sanskrit सइमन् aśman), is extended to KAMENI, and then follows GOSTI.
261. To the Sanskrit feminine bases in $\boldsymbol{\xi} i$ correspond numerous Old Sclavonic bases of a similar termination (Dobrowsky, decl. fem. iv.); that is to say, the Sclavonic agrees with the Sanskrit in the formation of feminine ab-

[^179]stracts in TI，as PA－MYA－TI，＂memory，＂nom．pamyaty， from the root $M A N$ ，as in Sanskrit मति mati（for manti）， ＂spirit，＂＂meaning，＂from मन् man，＂to think＂＊（compare memini）．These words weaken，indeed，in［G．Ed．p．347．］ the nominative and accusative，their $i$ to yer，but in no case overstep their original base by an unorganic addition；and hence they must not，on any account，be looked upon as of the same base with the majority of masculines terminating simi－ larly in the nominative and accusative singular．But Dobrowsky＇s third feminine declension is of a mixed nature （zerkovy，＂a church＂）：in this we recognise some words which have，by Guna，changed a Sanskrit final ₹ $\hat{u}$ to $o v$ ； and from this form several cases，as from a base ending with a consonant－e．g．zerkv－e，genitive singular and nominative plural－but so that the $o$ is suppressed before vowel termina－ tions．In some cases the theme extends itself by an un－ organic $i$ ，in others by $a$ ；and also before these exten－ sions of the base the $o$ of the syllable ov is suppressed $\dagger$ ； e．g．zerkviy－u，＂per ecclesiam，＂zerlvi，＂ecclesia，＂zerkvii，＂ ＂ecclesiarum，＂zerkva－m，＂ecclesiis，＂zerkva－ch，＂in ecclesiis，＂ zerkva－mi，＂per ecclesias．＂The dative locative zerkvi is doubtful，as this case could have no other sound than zerkvi，whether it come from ZERKOV or from ZERKVI．

[^180]Some words of this class have, in the nominative, $y$, and
 " sucrus" (§. 255. c.); others have, at will, ovy or vi, with o suppressed; hence zerkory or zerkvi.
262. Among bases in $u$ (Greek $v$ ) of the cognate languages, only masculines have maintained themselves in the Old Sclavonic. They, like the bases in o, suppress their final vowel in the nominative and accusative, but in the remaining cases this letter shews itself either with Guns changed to $o v$ or $\hat{u}$ ( $\S .255$. f.), or without Guna, as o (§. 255.c.); and in the latter form it appears also in the beginning of compound words as a naked theme. Hence it is more probable, that anciently for syn, "filius," "filium," stood syno rather than syny (§. 255.c.).* With this similar conformation of theme of the old bases in $a$ and $u$, it is not surprising that two kinds of bases, which in their origin are widely different, run very much into one another in the Sclavonic declension; and that, in the more modern dialects, these two declensions, which were originally so strictly separate, have fallen almost entirely into one.
263. As in the $o$ bases which have arisen from $a$, a $y$ preceding introduces a difference of declension, which we, in §. 258., have represented as purely euphonic, the same phenomenon makes its appearance also in the $y$ bases, by means of which their Guna form is articulated $e v$ (for yev) instead

[^181]of $o v .{ }^{*}$ If, however, with Dobrowsky, we di- [G. Ed. p. 349.] vide the Old Sclavonic masculines-with the exception of the bases in $i$, §. 260.-into two declensions, and in doing this desire, as is natural, to ground the division on the final letters of the bases, we must place knya?y, "prince" (nominative) of Dobrowsky's second declension in the first, and by the side of rab, "a servant": on the other hand, the words syn, "son," and dom, " a house," of Dobrowsky's first masculine declension must be transferred to the second declension as mutilated $y$ forms. Of the paradigma here given by Dobrowsky, vrachy, "medicus," adheres most strictly to the true $y$ declension, and, according to §.255. (n.), opposes $e v$ to the $o v$ of SYNY. On the other hand, words inflected like zary, "a king" (nominative), clearly form the nominative and genitive plural from bases in $i$; hence zary-e, "kings," zariu, " of kings," from ZARI; as gosty-e, "hospites," and gostii, "hospitum," from GOSTI. In the dative plural and instrumental singular the form zare-m is doubtful: in this and other words, also, of obscure origin, it remains uncertain whether the more contracted theme in $i$, or the more extended in $y y$, is the older; but it is certain that several old $i$ bases have migrated into this declension by an unorganic addition; for instance, ogny, "fire" (nom.), dative ognev-i, from $O G N Y Y$, agrees with the Sanskṛit खग्नि agni, Latin IGNI, Lithuanian UGNI. $\dagger$ It [G. Ed. p. 350.]

[^182]deserves here to be further remarked, that in the more modern dialects of the Sclavonic stock, the two masculine declensions here spoken of have been transfused almost entirely into one, which has taken several cases regularly from the old u declension, in which, however, from the point of view of the more recent dialects, e.g. in the genitive plural of the Polish and Carniolan, ov, ow, form an exception as a case termination. In the Old Sclavonic, also, rab (theme RABO), "a servant," may optionally form several cases from a theme RABY (for rabŭ); and for rab, "servorum," we may also have rabov: and in the nominative plural of this class of words we find also ov-e, according to the analogy of synove. On the other hand, the adjective masculine $o$ bases (the indefinites) of the $y$ declension have admitted no irregular trespassings any more than the pronouns.
264. Bases ending in a consonant are, under the limitation of §. 260., entirely foreign to the masculine: on the other hand, there are neuter bases in en, es, and at (yat), which are important for the system of declension, because the case suffix, commencing with a vowel, divides itself so much the more distinctly from the base ending with a consonant. The bases in en correspond to the Sanskrit in जन् an, and have preserved, too, in the uninflected nominative, accusative, and vocative, the old and more powerful $a$, but with the euphonic prefix of a $y$ (see §. 255. n.), and with the suppression of $n$ of the base (see §. 139.). All of them have an $m$ before the termination en; so that $m e n$ is to be considered as the full formative suffix of the word, which answers to the Sanskrit मन् man-e.g. in बर्मेन् karman neut., "deed"-and to the Latin men; that is to say, SFEMEN (nominative syemya, "seed," from the base sye) answers to the Latin se-men; and imen, "a name," is a mutilation of नामन् naman, "nomen." The bases in es answer to the Sanskrit neuter bases in as, as nebes,











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partly from MATER, e. g. mater-e, " matris," and matres ( $\mu \bar{\alpha} \tau \in ́ \rho-\epsilon \varsigma)$, partly from MATERI, e.g. matery, "mairem."
266. FIn order now to pass over to the formation of cases, the nominative and accusative have lost the casesigns $s$ and $m$, with the exception of the bases in $a$, which present in the diphthong $\hat{\pi}(8)$, a contraction of the vocalized nasal with the final vowel of the base shortened to $o$, (see §. 255. g.); hence vod,$~ " a q u a m$," from vodo-ŭ. The instrumental has, in the feminine, and the pronouns which have no gender preserved the genuine Sanskrit inflection; but it is to be remarked of the feminine bases in $i$ that they change this vowel before the termination $\mathbb{Q}$, (for $a$, see §. 255. h.), not into simple $y$, but into $i y$; so that in this respect the Old Sclavonic agrees more closely with the Pâli, which, in the corresponding class of words, changes the final $i$ before all the vowel endings into $i y$, than with the Sanskrit. Hence, let kostiy- $乞$, from KOSTI, " bones," be compared with the Pâli पीतिया pîtiy-a (from pîti, " joy"), for the Sanskrit म्रीत्या prîty- $\alpha$. Masculines and neuters have $m \dagger$ for their instrumental ending; and this is, I have no doubt, an abbreviation of the Lithuanian mi, and comes thereore from bi (§. 215.).
267. The dative has, in the singular, a common ending with the locative, and, in fact, the Old Sanskṛit $i$ (§. 195.); hence, imen- $i$, " in nomine," and " nomini"; synov-i, "filio," brachev-i, "medico" from SYNY and BRACHYY (§. 263.), with Guna. $\ddagger$ If the case-sign is suppressed, the preceding oo
[G. Ed. p. 353.] becomes $\mathfrak{u}$, and $e v$ (from yov) becomes $y \hat{u}$; hence, also, synu, "filio," with synov-i, and zaryu," regi," with

[^183]the $y$ bases, but prefer, however, the abbreviated form $\hat{u}$; hence rabu, from RABO, more rarely rabov-i. The o bases of the adjectives, and of these there are, in the masculine and nenter, only $o$ bases, and those of neuter substantives have alone the uninflected form in $\hat{u}$; hence, e.g. blayu, "bono," masc. neut.; sinyû, "carruleo," masc. neut.: slovu, "verbo," moryí, "mari": not blagov-i, sinev-i, slovov-i, morev-i. In masculine names of inanimate things this uninflected form in $\begin{aligned} & \text { extends itself also to the genitive }\end{aligned}$ and locative; hence domu, " of the house," "to" and "in the house ": but in the dative is also found domov-i, and in the locative domye.* The pronouns of the 3d person masculine and neuter-with exception of the reflexive-have in the dative, in like manner, the uninflected $\hat{u}$; for the form $m \hat{u}$ in $t o-m \hat{u}$, "to this," is clearly from the Sanskrit appended pronoun सम sma (§. 165. \&c.), which has extended itself in the cognate European languages so much, and under such different forms, and this, in the Old Sclavonic, would necessarily give the base SMO, from which, after dropping the $s$, would come the dative $m \hat{u}$, as rabu from RABO.
268. While the $o$ bases, as has been shewn above, have borrowed their dative from the $y$ declension, the $y$ bases appear, in the locative, to have intruded on the $o$ class; for synye answers to rabye, from RABO from RABA (§. 255. a.) ; but the ye of rabye is. according to §. 255. (e), clearly from the Sonskṛit ₹ $\ell$ of वृके vrike from वृक vrika, and answers to the Lithuanian wilke from [G. Ed. p. 354.] WILKA (§. 197.). As, however, in Lithuanian, from SUNU comes sunu-ye, so may also the Old Sclavonic synye require

[^184]to be divided into syn'-ye : and this is rendered the more probable, as the feminine $a$ bases, also, have in the locative ye for $a-y e$; hence $v o d$-ye, "in aqua," from VODA, answers to the Lithuanian ranko-ye (for ranka-ye) from ranka.* In bases in $i$, masculine and feminine, it might appear doubtful whether $i$, with which they end in the dative and locative-e.g. puti, "in the way," kosti, "in the bone"-is to be ascribed to the theme or to the inflection: as, however, in the genitive, (to which belongs an $i$, though not through any inflection), they have just the same sound, and otherwise never entirely give up the $i$ of the base, except in the instrumental plural, it is more natural to consider the forms putt, kosti, uninflected, just like domú, "in the house." We may also look upon the $i$ in the dative and locative of those bases, which have $y$ as the last letter but one, as nothing else than the vocalization of this $y$; the $i$, therefore, of knyaऍi, mori, brachi, voli, represents nothing else than the $y$ of the masculine bases KNYA广YO, VRACHYY, and of the neuter MORYO, and feminine VOLYO.
269. In the genitive the terminations $a s$, os, is, which in the cognate languages, are joined to bases ending with a ${ }^{\text {a }}$ consonant, must, according to $\S .255$. (l.), drop the $s$, but the
[G. Ed. p. 355.] vowel appears as $e$ in all the bases ending with a consonant (\$§. 260. 264.): hence imen-e, "of the name,"

[^185]answers to नाम्नस् namn-as, nomin-is; nebes-e, " of the heaven," to नभसस् nabhas-as, véфe( $\sigma$ )-os; muter-e to matr-is, $\mu \eta \tau \rho o$ s. The pronominal forms also follow this analogy : men-e, " mei," teb-e, "tui," seb-e, "sui," because, in the oblique singular cases, $M E N, T E B, S E B$ are their themes. We recognise the fuller Sanskrit genitive ending स्य sya in the pronominal genitive termination go, as to-go = तस्य ta-sya (§. 188.). This comparison might alone be sufficient in place of all proof; but, over and above, is to be remarked the easily adopted hardening of the semi-vowel $y$ to $g$ (comp. p. 121 G. ed.), and in the Prâkrit to ज्ञ $j$ (§. 19.); finally, let the high degree of improbability be considered, that the Sclavonic should have formed an entirely new genitive termination, foreign to all the cognate languages. Now, if the $g$ of the termination go is taken for a hardening from $y($ य् $y)$, then the Old Sclavonic has preserved exactly as much as the Greek of the termination sya; and go answers to the Greek io, and to-go, "hujus," to the Greek тo-io. As, however, in Sclavonic, the sibilants are easily interchanged with gutturals (see §. 255. m.), one might also conjecture the $g$ of $g o$ to be a corruption of the Sanskrit $s$ and the semi-vowel of स्य sya, which had been lost. This conjecture cannot entirely be put aside; but in any case, even in this supposition, the termination go remains connected with स्य sya and to. As, however, in the Old Sclavonic, $g$ is elsewhere exchanged only with $\zeta$ and sch (Dobr. p. 41), but not with $s$, in my opinion the derivation of $g$ from $y($ य् $y)$ is to be preferred to that from $s$.
270. The substantive and adjective (indefinite) o bases, in disadvantageous comparison with the pronouns which hold fast the old form, have lost the genitive termination go; but forit, in compensation for the lost termi- [G. Ed. p. 356.] nation, they have retained the old $a$ of the base, instead of, according to §. 255. (a.), weakening it to $o$; hence raba, "servi," nova (=Sanskṛit nava-sya) "novi." Now, although the $y$ bases
in the genitive end in $a$, the comparison of the form syna, "fliti" with the Lithuanian and Gothic sunak-s, sunau-s, and the Sanskrit sûnô-s (from stinau-s), teaches that the $a$ here is only a Guna element, but foreign to the proper base, as well as to the case-suffix, which, according to §. 255. (b.), must disappear.

271 . The feminine bases in $a$, with the exception of those which have a penultimate $y$, change that $a$ in the genitive into $y$; hence vody, "aqua," from VODA, but volya, "voluntatis," with unaltered base, from IOOLYA. I ascribe that $y$, as well as that in the nominative plural, to the euphonic influence of the $s$, which originally ends the form (sce §. 255. d.): this, however, does not obtain if a y precedes the $a$; hence volya, "voluntatis," is identical with the theme. On the other hand, the feminine pronominal bases in $a$ have preserved a remarkable agreement with the Sanskrit pronominal declension; for if ta, "this" (at the same time the theme), forms to-ya in the genitive, I do not doubt of the identity of the ending $y$ a with the Sanskrit syds (§. 172.), as in the word तस्साघ् tasyas, of the same import, for the final s must, according to \& 255. (l.), give way; but the $a$ of the Sclavonic ya directs us, according to §. 255. (a.), to an Indian षा $a_{\text {, }}$, just as the preceding o points to a short wa. The irregularity, therefore, in the shortening of the Sclavonic termination lies only in the dropping of the sibilant before $y$, as, in the Greek, toîo, from तस्प $t \imath$-sya, and in the $t o-g o$, for $t o-(s) y o$, mentioned in §. 269.
272. In the vocative, which in the cognate languages is without any case-suffix (§. 204.), $o$ is weakened to $e(\epsilon)$ and a to o (§. 255. a.); hence nove (from NOFO, "new"), for
[G. Ed. p. 357.] Sanskyit न区 nava, is identical with the Latin nŏvĕ, and answers to the Greek vé(F) $\epsilon$ : from VOD $A$, "water," comes vodo; but from $V O L Y Y$, according to §. 255. (n.), vole for volyo: and so from KNYAYYO, "prince," knyashe" for

[^186]knyǎye. Bases in $y y$ change their $y$ by Guna to $\hat{u}$ (§. 255.f.), in analogy with §. 205.; hence vrachya-more commonly, with $y$ suppressed, vrach $u$-"medice!" from VRACHYYY. On the other hand, $y$ bases without $y$ for their penultimate letter commonly omit the Guna, and weaken their final vowel, like the $o$ bases, to $e$; hence syne, "oh son!" more rarely synu (Dobr. p. 470), $=$ Gothic sunau, Lithuanian sunaù, Sanskrit $\sin 0$ from sunau.

## DUAL.

273. By preserving a dual, the Old Sclavonic surpasses the Gothic, in which this number is lost in the noun: it exceeds, in the same, the Lithuanian in the more true retention of the terminations, and it is richer than the Greek by one case. The agreement with the Sanskrit and Zend is not to be mistaken: let the comparison be made.


[^187][G. Ed. p. 358.] The Sanskrit ubhe, as neuter, comes, according to $\S .212$., from the theme $u b h a$, in union with the case-suffix $\hat{i}$; and the feminine ubhe is an abbreviation of $u b h a y-$ - $u$, and is therefore without a case termination (§. 212.). The Old Sclavonic, which runs parallel to the Sanskrit in both genders, and, according to §. 255. (l.), opposes ye to the Indian $\mathbb{\&}$ \&, no longer recognises the origin of this $y e$, and regards it entirely as a case-suffix before which the final vowel of the theme appears to be suppressed. Therefore, also, neuter bases ending in a consonant make ye their termination, if the imenye, "two names," given by Dobrowsky, p. 513, actually occurs, and is not a theoretic formation. In feminines, however, the termination $y e$ extends, exactly as in Sanskrit, only to bases in $a$ (for Sanskrit $\hat{4}$, §. 255.a.); but in such a manner, that those with $y$ as the last letter but one in the theme reject the termination $y e$, and vocalize the $y$ of the theme; hence dyevye, "two girls," from dyeva, but stȩ̧i, "two steps," from STE $S Y A$. The feminine bases in $i$, in the dual case under discussion, answer to the Sanskrit and Lithuanian forms mentioned at §. 210. 211., as pati, "two sirs," from पति pati; [G. Ed. p. 359.] $a w i$, "two sheep," from AWI; only that, according to $\S .255 . b$.), the $i$ in the Sclavonic is not lengthened; as dlani from DLANI (nominative singular

Zend oby or ay (see p. 277); but that occurs only in dvoy- $\hat{u}=$ Sanskrit dway-ôs, "of two," "in two" m. f. n., and in toy- $\hat{u}=$ Sanskrit tay- $\partial s$, " of these two," $m$.f.n. The genitives and locatives of the two first persons also rest on this principle, only retaining the older $a$-nayû, vayu. For the rest, however, the final vowel of the theme is rejected before the termination $\hat{u}$, as $s t \hat{t}-\hat{u}$ (Sanskr̦it shatuy- $\hat{b} s$ ) from STO, "a hundred," dyev- $\AA$ from DYEVA, "a girl"; and thus occurs, also, together with dvoyú, the syncopated form den̂. Although the Lithuanian generally does not drop the final $s$, still the $\hat{u}$ mentioned in $\oint .225$. may be identical with the Sclavonic $\hat{u}$; as in the Zend, also, in this termination the $s$ is often dropped.

$$
\infty \rightarrow \pi
$$

dlany), "vola manus." On the other hand, the maseuline $y$ bases do not follow this principle, but suppress the final vowel before the case-suffix $a$; hence syn'-a, "two sons," from SYNY.

## PLURAL.

274. In the plural, the masculine nominative termination $e(\varepsilon)$ for the most part answers to the Greek es, and, according to a universal rule of sounds, omits the $s$ (§. 255. l.); hence synov-e, "the sons," मूनबस् sûnav-as : compare Bótpu-es, kamen-e, "the stones," for सश्मानस् aśmann-as (§.21.); compare $\delta$ aí $\mu$ ov-es, gosty-e, "guests" (theme GOSTII, for the Gothic gastei-s, and Greek forms like $\pi$ ó́ $\tau-$ es. The bases in o take, as in Lithuanian do the corresponding bases in $a, i$ as their termination (see §. 22s.), but before this reject the $o$ of the base; hence rab' $-i$, "servants," for rabo-i (comp. $\lambda$ úko-t), as in Latin lup-ì for lupo-i. Neuters have $a$ for their ending, like the cognate dialects, with the exception of the Sanskrit with $i$ for $a$; nevertheless, slova, "verba," from SLOVO-as $\delta \hat{\omega} \rho \alpha$ from $\triangle \Omega P O$-answers to Vêdic forms like vand, "woods," from vana; and the same thing obtains which, §. 231. p. 267 G. ed., has been said of Gothic, Greek, and Latin, regarding the relation of the $a$ of the termination to the $o$ of the theme. As regards the bases ending in a consonant, let imen-a, "names," be compared with the Latin nomin-a and Gothic namon-a; nebes-a, "the heavens," with $\nu \in \phi e(\sigma)-\alpha$; and telyat-a, "calves," with Greek forms like $\sigma \dot{\omega} \mu \alpha \tau-\alpha$. Feminines, with the exception of the class of words in ov mentioned at $\S .261$., have lost the nominative ending; hence volya, "voluntates," is the same as the theme and the nominative singular; and [G. Ed. p. 360.] from KOSTI, "bones" (Sanskrit asthi, neuter) comes the nominative singular kosty, and the plural like the theme.
275. The accusative plural is, in feminine and neuter nouns, the same as the nominative, and therefore in the former
mostly without inflection, exactly as in the few masculine bases in $i$; hence gosti for the Gothic gasti-ns. Bases in $o$, without $y$ preceding, like RABO, change this $o$ into $y$, as raby, "servos"; at least I cannot believe that this $y$ is to be looked upon as the case-suffix; and I pronounce it to be the euphonic alteration of the $o$ of the base, through the influence of the consonant of the inflection which has been dropped (comp. §. 271.): as in Lithuanian, also, the corresponding class of words often changes the final vowel (a) of the base into $u$; hence wilkù-s, "lupos," answering to the Gothic vulfa-ns and Sanskrit vrikâ-n. But if the Old Sclavonic bases in $y$, of animate creatures, form owy in the accusative plural, and thus synovy, "filios," answers to the Lithuanian sunù-s (from SUNU), this very Lithuanian form, as well as the Gothic and Sanskrit sunu-ns, सूनून् sûnû-n, prove that the Sclavonic form is unorganic, and formed from an augmented theme SYNOVO, according to the analogy of raby. Bases in $y y$ in this case follow bases in $y_{o}$ (from $y a, \S .255$. a.), which, preserving the old $a$ sound, give $y a$, as in the genitive singular (see §̧. 270.); hence vrachya, "medicos," like knyǎya, "principes": but forms, also, like doschdevy, analogous with synovy, oceur, following the euphonic rule, $\$$. 255. (n.).
276. The view here given is the more incontrovertible, as in the dative, also, synovo-m, "fliis" (compare rabo-m), is clearly formed from a theme SYNOVO, increased by o, corresponding to the Lithuanian sunu-ms. This dative suffix $m$, for the Lithuanian $m s$ (from mus, §. 215.), according
[G.Ed. p. 361.] to §. 255. (1.), extends itself over all classes of words, and appears to be attached by a conjunctive vowel $e$ to bases terminating with a consonant; but, in fact, it is to be considered that these, in the cases mentioned as also in the locative (see §. 279.), pass over into the $i$ declension, as a final $i$, before the signs of case $m$ and $c h$, becomes $e$ : and a similar metaplasm occurs in the Lithuanian, and indeed, to a
much greater extent(§. 125. sub finem, comp. §. 126.); hence imene-m, imene-ch, from IMENI from IMEN, "names," as koste-m, koste-ch, from KOSTI, "bones."
277. Less general is the instrumental ending mi, answering, subject to the loss required by $\$ .255$. (l.), to the Lithuanian mis, Sanskrit bhis, and Zend bis. This termination $m i$ is, however, in masculine and neuter nouns for the most part lost (comp. Dobr. pp. 473 and 477); and is preserved principally, and indeed without exception, in feminines, as well as in a few masculine $i$ bases : a final $i$ of the base is, however, suppressed before the termination $m i$. Let kost'-mi be compared with खस्थिभिस् asthi-bhis, from स्सस्थि asthi, " bone "; vdova-mi with fवधवाभिस् vidhavabhis, from विधवा vidhava, " a widow." The instrumentals raby, synovy, are, like the accusatives of similar sound, uninflected (§. 275.); the $i$ of knyaそ̧i, vrachi, is the vocalization of the $y$ of the bases KYNAちYO, VRACHYYY, after the loss of the final vowel; and the $y$ of neuters terminating in a consonant, like imeny " per nomina," is to be explained by a transition into the $o$ declension, and is therefore analogous to raby, slavy, similarly to the o of the Greek dual forms like $\delta \alpha \iota \mu$ óvorv (p. 318 G. ed. Rem. 2.).
278. Dobrowsky (p. 461) represents $o v, y, \pi_{1}, e v, e n, y a t$, and es, as plural genitive terminations; but in reality the suffix of this case has entirely disappeared, and in bases in 0 , $a$, and $y$, has also carried away those final vowels with it, while bases in $i$ double that vowel; hence $\begin{array}{r}\text { r. } b \text {, [G.Ed. p. 362.] }\end{array}$ "servorum," from RABO; vod, " aquarum," from IODA; syn, " filiorum," from SYNY; kostiĭ, "ossium," from KOSTI; imen, "nominum," from IMEN ; nebes, " calorum," from NEBES. The $n$ and $s$ of imen, nebes, would, without the former protection of a following termination have been dropped, as in

- Sclavonic we have only a second generation of final consonants ; while the former, with the exception of a few monosyllabic forms, has, according to $\S .255$. (l.), disappeared.

279. The termination of the locative plural is ch throughout all classes of words, and has been already, at §. 255. (m.) recognised as identical with the Indian सु su, and therefore, also, with the Greek $\sigma_{t}$ : compare, also, the Zend vup kha, for the Sanskrit swa, in §. 35. Before this $k h$, o passes into $y e$, exactly as the corresponding Sanskrit w $a$ into ₹ é (see §. 255. e.); hence rabye-ch, "in servis," answers to चृकेयु vrike-shu, "in lupis." Bases in yoand those in $y y$ follow their analogy-suppress, however, before this $y e$, their preceding $y$, as in similar cases; hence knya弓ye-ch, "in principibus," not knya弓yy-ch from KNYA̧YO. A final $a$ remains unchanged; hence vdova-ch, "in viduis," answers to the Sanskrit vidhavá-su. For bases in $i$, and consonants, see §. 276.
280. For an easier survey of the results obtained for the Old Sclavonic case-formation, we give here, in order to bring under one point of view all the kinds of theme existing in Old Sclavonic, and to render their comparison with one another easy, the complete declension of the bases : RABO, m. "a servant," KNY $A \zeta Y O$, m. "a prince," SLOVO, n. "a word," MORYYO, n. "a sea" (Dobr. p. 476, §. 11.), VODA, f. "water," VOLYG, f. " will," GOSTI, m. "a guest," KOSTI, f. "a bone," SYNY, m. " a son," DOMY, m . "a house," VRACHYYY, m. "a physician," KAMEN, m.
[G. Ed, p. 363.] "a stone," IMEN, n. "a name," MATER, f. "a mother," NEBES, n. "heaven," TELYAT, n. "a calf." In

[^188]those forms of the following table in which a part of the word is not separated from the rest, thereby shewing itself to be the inflection, we recognise no inflection at all, i.e. no case-suffix; but we see therein only the bare base of the word, either complete or abbreviated; or also a modification of the base, through the alteration of the final letter, occasioned by the termination which has been dropped (compare §. 271.). In some cases which we present in the notes, base and termination have, however, been contracted into one letter, by which a division is rendered impossible. With respect to the dual, which cannot be proved to belong to all the words here given as specimens, we refer to §. 273.
variations in the declension, which require no particular explanation here (see, in Dobr. mravix, m. p. 468; ladiya, f. p. 478; and и̂chenye, n. p. 474. With regard to zary, "a king," see $\oint .263$ ).



[^189]${ }^{y}$ Comp. p. 304. The cases wanting come from KAMENI (sce §. 260.); whealso, kamene-m, kamene-ch (j. 260.) ; and whence, also, might be derived the dis and locative kamen-i, which I prefer, however, deriving from the original theme, as in MATER.
${ }^{11}$ Comp. §. 133. ${ }^{11}$ See §. 265. and comp. p. 305. ${ }^{12}$ Comp. p. 306. and §. 147.
${ }^{13}$ See j. $264 . \quad 14$ Dobr. p. 287.
${ }^{15}$ See §. 266.

${ }^{18} \mathrm{Or}$ rabovi, $\oint$. $267 . \quad 19 \mathrm{Sec}$-. 268.
${ }^{20}$ The $i$ may also be ascribed to the mark of case, and the dropping of the final kere of the base may be assomed ; but in the genitive of the same sound, the $i$ clearly bekef to the theme.
${ }^{21}$ See §. 270.
${ }^{27}$ See §. 271.
${ }^{2}$ More commonly vracha, and in the vocative, vrachû. Sec p. 347, Note.
24 See $\S .269 . \quad 25$ See $\S .268$. 3 Or syne.

## PLURAL.

| nom. voc. ${ }^{1}$ | Accus. ${ }^{3}$ | instr. ${ }^{5}$ |  | gen.: |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | o-m, |  | rabye-ch. |
| aSi, | knya̧ya, | asi, | yasem, | ya§ | yaSe- |
| slova, | slova, | slovy, | $0-$ | sloo', | vye-ch |
|  | morya, | mori, | more-m | mory | oryo-c. |
| vody, ${ }^{2}$ | $y$, | a- | voda-m | d', | da-ch |
| $y a$ | volya, | ya-mi | a-1 | voly', | nolya-ab. |
| ty-e, | go | gost'.mi, | gostem, | gostir, | ouste-ch |
| kosti, | knsti, | -mi | c-n | kostii, | koste-ch. |
| synov-e, | synow | synovy,4 | 00-m | sy | novye-ch |
| domov-e | domy | $m y$ | domo-m | domo | dom |
| achev.e, | vrachya, | vrachi, | vrache-m, | orache | wrache-ch. |
|  |  |  | kamene-m, |  | kamene-ch. |
|  | - ${ }_{\text {a }}$ |  |  | imen | imen |
|  |  | mater-mi, | materc-m, |  |  |
| nebes-a, |  |  | nebese-m, | nebe | nebesye-ch.' |
| celyat-a, | telyat-a, | celyaty, | celyatom, | telyat, | telyate-ch |

' See §. 274. $\quad{ }^{2}$ See §. $271 . \quad{ }^{3}$ See §. 275.
4 From SYNOVO, see §. 275 . In the locative occur also symovo-ch and synove-ch.
${ }^{5}$ See §. 277. ${ }^{6}$ See §. 276. TSee §. $278 . \quad{ }^{8}$ See . 279.
${ }^{5}$ One would expect rebese-ch; but in this case ech and yerh are froquently interchanged with one another, and the form yech appears to agree better with the preceding s (comp. Dobrowsky, p. 477).

## ADJECTIVES.

[G. Ed. p. 366.] 281. The declension of the adjective is not distinct from that of the substantive; and if some inflected forms, which in the Sanskrit and Zend belong only to the pronouns, have, in the cognate languages, emerged from the circle of the pronouns, and extended themselves further, they have not remained with the adjectives alone, but have extended themselves to the substantives also. As regards the Greek, Latin, and Sclavonic, we have already explained at §§. 228. 248, and 274. what has been introduced from pronominal declension in those languages into general declension: we will here only further remark that the appended syllable sma, in §. 165. \&c., which, in Sanskrit, characterises only the pronominal declension, may in the Pâli be combined also, in several cases, with masculine and neuter substantive and adjective bases, and indeed with all bases in $a, i$, and $u$, including those which, originally terminating in a consonant, pass by augment or apocope into the vowel declension; thus the ablative and locative singular of kêsa, "hair," is either simply kêsá (from kêsât, see p. 300), kêsê, or combined with sma or its variation mha, kêsa-smá, kêsa-mhâ, kêsa-smini, kêsa-mhi. In the Lithuanian, this syllable, after dropping the $s$, has, in the dative and locative singular, passed over to the adjective declension, without imparting itself to that of the substantive, and without giving to the adjective the licence of renouncing this appended syllable; as, géram, "bono," geramé, "in bono." According to this principle it would be possible, and such indeed was lately my intention,
to explain the agreement of the Gothic full adjective dative, as blindamma (from blindasma, §. 170.), with [G. Ed. p. 367.] pronominal datives like tha-mma, "to this," $i-m m a$, "to him"; but the examination of the Old Sclavonic declension, in which the indefinite adjectives remove themselves from all admixture of the pronominal declension, and run entirely parallel to the German strong substantive, not to the weak, has led me to the, to me, very important discovery, that Grimm's strong and Fulda's abstract-declension-form of adjectives diverges in not less than nine points from the strong substantives (i.e. those which terminate in the theme in a vowel), and approaches to the pronominal declension for no other reason than because, like the definite adjectives in the Sclavonic and Lithuanian, they are compounded with a pronoun, which naturally follows its own declension. As, then, the definite (so I now name the strong) adjectives are defined or personified by a pronoun incorporated with them, it is natural that this form of declension should be avoided, where the function of the inherent pronoun is discharged by a word which simply precedes it; thus we say guter, or der gute, not der guter, which would be opposed to the genius of our language; for it still lies in our perception that in guter a pronoun is contained, as we perceive pronouns in im, am, beim, although the pronoun is here no longer present in its original form, but has only left behind its case-termination. In comprehending, however, the definite adjective declension, the science of Grammar, which in many other points had raised itself far above the empirical perception of the language, was here still left far behind it; and we felt, in forms like guter, gutem, gute, more than we recognised, namely, a pronoun which still operated in spirit, although it was no longer bodily present. How acute, in this respect, our perception is, is proved by the fact that we place the definite form of the adjective beside the ein when deprived [G. Ed. p. 368.]
of its definitive pronominal element; but, in the oblique cases, beside the definite eines, einem, einen, the indefinite: ein grosses, eines grossen (not grosses), einem grossen (not grossem). In the accusative, grossen is at the same time definite and indefinite; but in the former case it is a bare theme, and therefore identical with the indefinite genitive and dative, which is likewise devoid of inflection; but in the latter case the $n$ evidently belongs to the inflection.
282. The pronominal base, which in Lithuanian and Old Sclavonic forms the definite declension, is, in its original form, $y a(=$ Sanskrit य $y a$, "which") ; and has, in the Lithuanian, maintained itself in this form in several cases (see below). In the Old Sclavonic, according to §. 255. (a.), yo must be formed from $y a$; and from yo again, according to §. 255. (n.), ye or $e$ : but the monosyllabic nature of the form has preserved it from the suppression of the $y$, which usually takes place in polysyllabic words. In some cases, however, the $y$ has vocalized itself to $i$ after the vowel has been dropped. It signifies in both languages "he"; but in Old Sclavonic has preserved, in union with sche, the old relative meaning ( $i$-sche, "which"). The complete declension of this pronoun is as follows :-

## SINGULAR.

LITHUANIAN.
old sclavonic.


[^190]Trand aq̧ woy posanoq





|  | nfinıab | ${ }^{\text {şısoda } 6}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |
| -2fizua | . . . | 'ofio.26 | 'องไุ!ฺuəワ |
| *งนเวุรuวนนว |  | 'uヵfiunaz | ${ }^{\text {a anged }}$ |
| -sไวs!̣จuว 6 |  |  |  |
| 'snsมู<a6 | 'unfinıa6 | 'upfiupua |  |
| - กิวขนว |  | +'şssola 6 |  |
| Tveata | Tvaa | -aviaonts |  |


 ецң pus ' $\hat{h}$ s!!








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'sanilogray

## FEMININE.

|  | singular. | doal. | plural. |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :--- |
| Nominative, | geroyi, | gerieyi, | gerosos, |
| Accusative, | geranyyen, | geriyini, | gerases. |
| Instrumental, | geraye, | $\ldots$. | geromsomis. |
| Dative, | geraiyei, | geromsom,* | geromsoms. |
| Genitive, | gerosiês, | geruyí, | gerúyu. |
| Locative, | geroyoye, | $\ldots$. | gerososa. |
| Vocative, | geroyi, | geriyi, | gerosos. | [G. Ed. p. 370.] 284. The Old Sclavonic, differing from the Lithuanian, declines only in some cases the adjective together with the appended pronoun, but in most cases the latter alone. While, however, in the Lithuanian the appended pronoun has lost its $y$ only in some cases, in the Old Sclavonic that pronoun has lost, in many more, not only the $y$ but also its vowel, and therefore the whole base. Thus the termination alone is left. For more convenient comparison we insert here, over against one another, the indefinite and definite declension: svyat (theme SVYYATO), "holy," may serve for example:

SINGULAR.

|  | masculing. |  | feminine. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Indef. | Def. | Indef. | Def. |
| Nomina | svyat, | svyaty-ǐ, ${ }^{1}$ | svyata. | svyata-ya. |
| Accusative, | svyat, | svyaty-ǐ, ${ }^{1}$ | svyutu, | svyata-yu. |
| strumental, | svyatom, | svyaty-m, ${ }^{1}$ | svyatoya, | svyato-yu. ${ }^{3}$ |
| ative | svyatu, | svyato-mu, | svyatye, | svyato-i. ${ }^{4}$ |
| aitive, | sv | svyata-go, | svyaty, | svyaty- |
| Locative, | svyatye, | svyato-m, ${ }^{2}$ | svyalye, | svyato-i. ${ }^{4}$ |

[^191]
## ADJECTIVES.

## PLURAL.

|  | mascurne. |  | remine. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Indef. | Def. | Indef. | Def. |  |
| Nominative, | svyati, | svyati- $i$, | svyaty, | svyaty-ya. |
| Accusative, | svyaty, | svyaty-ya, | svyaty, | svyaty-ya, |
| Instrumental, | svyaty, | svyaty-imi, | svyata-mi, | svyaty-imi. ${ }^{7}$ |
| Dative, | svyatom, | svyaty-imi, ${ }^{5}$ | svyata-m, | svyaty-im. ${ }^{7}$ |
| Genitive, | svyat, | svyaty-ich, | svyat, | svyaty-ich. |
| Locative, | svyalyech, | svyaty-ich, | svyata-ch, | svyaty-ich. ${ }^{7}$ |

SINGULAR.
neuter.
Indef. Def. Indef.
Nom. Accus. svyato, svyato-e, svyata,

PLURAL.

## Def.

 svyata-ya.The rest like the masculine.
${ }^{3}$ I give those forms which, according to Dobrowsky (p.302.), occur in the oldest MSS., in place of the more ordinary forms, which have lost the $i$ of the pronominal base: svyaty-mi, svyaty-m, svyaty-ch.
${ }^{6}$ Although in the pronominal declension the genitive plural is externally identical with the locative, we must nevertheless, in my opinion, separate the two cases, in respect to their origin. I find, however, the reason of their agreement in this, that the Sanskrit, which in this case is most exactly followed by the German and Sclavonic, in pronouns of the third person begins the plural genitive termination with a sibilant, Sanskrit sam, Gothic zé (for se, §.248.). This $s$, then, has, in Old Sclavonic, become $c h$, just like that of the locative characteristic सु ${ }^{s u}$ ( $\oint .279$.). The nasal of साम् sim must, according to rule, be lost ( $(5.255 . l$.) : the vowel, however, has, contrary to rule, followed it, as also in the ordinary declension the termination am has entirely disappeared ( $\$ .278$. ); and the same relation which imen, "nominum," has to the Gothic naman-e, tye-ch, "horum," has to thi-ze. This tye-ch, however, answers as genitive to the Sanskrit तेपाम् te-sham, and as locative to तेपु te-shu; ye being used in both cases for $\mathbb{\sum} \ell$, according to $\oint .255$. (e.)
${ }^{7}$ See Notes 5 and 6. The identity with the masculine and neuter forms arises from this, that the grave $a$ of the feminine adjective base is changed into the lighter $a$; and this again, as in the masculine neuter, is converted, according to $\oint$. 225. (d.), into $y$.
[G.Ed.p.371.] 285. As in the Sanskrit the preponderating majority of adjective bases end in the masculine and neuter in $a$, and in the feminine in $\hat{a}$; and as this class is, in the Old Sclavonic, only represented by bases in $o$, yo in the masculine and neuter (see §. 257.), and $a, y a$ in the feminine; it is not surprising that in German also, with the exception of a few in $u$ (of the comparative and participle present), all other adjective bases, in their original condition, end in $a$, feminine o for $\bar{a}(\S .69$.). It is, however, remarkable, and peculiar to the German, that its adjectives, in their indefinite condition, have all lengthened their theme
[G. Ed. p. 372.] by an unorganic $n$, and that in substantives the class of words in $n$ appears to be the most generally made use of, inasmuch as a large number of words, whose bases in Gothic terminate in a vowel, have, in the more modern dialects, permitted this to be increased by $n$. The reason, however, why the indefinite adjectives-not simply in part, and for the first time in the more modern dialects, but universally, and so early as in Gothic-have passed into the $n$ declension, is to be sought for in the obtuseness of the inflection of this class of words, which, according to §§. 139. 140., in common with the Sanskrit, Latin, and Greek, omits the nominative sign, and then, in variance from the older languages, dispenses also with the dative character, upon the loss of which, in Old High German, has followed, also, that of the genitive character. This absence of the animating and personifying mark of case might belong to the indefinite adjective, because it feels itself more exactly defined through the article which precedes it, or through another pronoun, than the definite adjective, the pronoun of which, jincorporated with it, has for the most part left behind only its case terminations. In the Lithuanian and Sclavonic, in which the article is wanting, and thereby an inducement further to weaken the declension of the indefinite adjectives, the latter stand on an
equal footing with Grimm's strong declension of substantives, i.e. they maintain themselves, without an unorganic consonantal augment, in the genuine, original limits of their base.
286. As the feminine, where it is not identical, as in adjective bases in $i$ in the Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin, with the theme of the masculine and neuter, is always, in the Indo-European family of languages, made to diverge through an extension or an addition to the end, it is important for German Grammar to remark-and I have already called attention to this point in another placethat the feminine of the German indefinite adjective, in variance from the principle which has been [G. Ed. p. 373.] just given, has not arisen from its masculine, but from an older form of the feminine; e.g. the primitive feminine $B L I N D A \mathrm{~m}$. n. "blind," has extended itself in the indefinite to $B L I N D A N$, and the primitive feminine $B L I N D \bar{O}$ to $B L I N$ $D \bar{O} N$ : one must not, therefore, derive the latter, although it is the feminine of BLINDAN m ., from this, as it is entirely foreign to the Indo-European family of languages to derive a feminine base through the lengthening of the last letter but one of the masculine and neuter. As far as regards the declension of BLINDAN m ., it follows precisely that of AHMAN (p. 322 G.ed.), and BLINDAN n., that of NAMAN (p. 176 G.ed. \&cc.); the fem. BLINDO$N$ differs from the masculine only by a more regular inflection, since its $\delta$ remains everywhere unchanged, while $a$, in the genitive and dative singular, is, according to $\S .132$. , weakened to $i$; therefore-

MASCULINE
Theme, BLINDAN.

## neuter.

BLINDAN.

Acc. blindan, blindan-s, blind ${ }^{2},^{2}$ blindon-a, ${ }^{2}$ blindOn, blindön-s.
Dat. blindin, ${ }^{1}$ blinda' $-m$, blindin, ${ }^{1}$ blinda' ${ }^{\prime}-m$, blindôn, blind ${ }^{\prime}$ ' $-m$,

${ }^{1}$ See $\S .140 . \quad{ }^{2}$ See $\S .141$. See §. 245.
287. In order, then, to examine the definite declension of adjectives in Gothic, we will, in the first place, for the purpose of bringing into view their agreement and discrepancy with substantives and simple pronouns, place by the side of each other the declension of the definite BLINDA $\mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}$, and BLIND $\bar{O} \mathrm{f}$., and that of VULFA m., "wolf," DAURA n., "a gate," GIBO$\overline{\mathrm{f}}$., a gift," and the interrogative
[G. Ed.p.374.] $H V A$ m. n., "who? " what ?" HVŌ f.; further, that of MID $\underset{Y}{ } A \mathrm{~m} . \mathrm{n}$. (medius), MID $\underset{\sim}{ } \overline{\mathrm{O}} \mathrm{f}$, by that of $H A R Y A$ m., "an army," BADYY $A$ n., "a bed," KUNTHȲ $\overline{\text { f., "news," }}$ and HVARY̧A m. n., "who ?" " what ?" HVARYŌ f.

## MASCULINE.

singular.
N. vulf's, blind's, hva-s, ${ }^{1} \quad$ vulfofs, ${ }^{2}$ blindai, hvui, ${ }^{3}$
A. vulf', blindana, hva-na, vulfa-ns, blindans, hea-ns.
D. vulfa, ${ }^{4}$ blindamma, hva-inma, ${ }^{5}$
G. vulfi-s, blindis, hvi-s, vulf' $\ell$, blindaizé, hvi-zé.
V. vulf', blind's, .... vulfoss, blindai,
N. haryi-s, ${ }^{6}$ midyis, ${ }^{7} \quad$ hvaryi-s, $\quad$ haryiss. ${ }^{2}$ midyai, hvaryai. ${ }^{3}$
A. hari, ${ }^{8}$ midyana, hvarya-na, harya-ns, midyjans, hvarya-ns. D. harya. midyamma, hvarya-mma, harya-m, midyaim, hvaryai-m. G. haryi-s, midyis, hvary-is, hary-e, midyaize, hvaryaize. V. hari, midyis, .... haryds, midyai, ....

| ${ }^{1}$ See $\oint .135$. | ${ }^{3}$ See $\oint .228$. | ${ }^{5}$ See $\oint .171$. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ${ }^{2}$ See $\oint .227$. | ${ }^{4}$ See $\oint .160$. |  |

${ }^{6}$ From harya-s, see §. 135.
${ }^{7}$ The nominative in adjective bases in $y a$ does not occur, unless perhaps in the fragments which have last appeared; and 1 have here formed it by annlogy with haryis and hvaryis. Grimm gives midis (I, 170.). If, 1. c., the form yis is considered as unorganic, and, in regard to midis, if its analogy with hardus is remembered, then Grimm is wrong in taking MIDI for the theme, as in reality HARDU is the theme of hardus. The true theme MIDFA occurs, however, in the comp. midya-sveipains, "deluge," and
answers

## ADJECTIVES.

## NEUTER.

singular.
plural.
N. A. V. daur', blindata, ${ }^{9}$ hva. ${ }^{9}$ daura, blinda, hvo.

The rest like the masculine.
N. A. V. badi, midyata, ${ }^{9}$ hvarya-ta, badya, midya, hvarya.

The rest like the masculine.

## FEMININE.

singular.
N. giba, blinda, hvó. gibols, ${ }^{2}$ blindoss, ${ }^{2}$ hvôs. ${ }^{2}$
A. giba, blinda, hvô. ${ }^{11}$ gibô-s, blindôs, hvós.
D. gibai, ${ }^{12}$ blindai, ${ }^{12}$ hvizai. ${ }^{13}$ gibô-m, blindaim, hvai-m.
G. gibô-s, blindaizôs, ${ }^{13}$ hvizô-s. ${ }^{13} \quad$ gib'-b, blindaizo,hvi-zô.
V. giba, blinda? .... gibôs, blindôs, ...
N. kunthi, ${ }^{14}$ midya, hvarya. kunthyôs, ${ }^{2}$ midyôs, ${ }^{2}$ hvaryos. ${ }^{2}$
A. kunthya, midya, hvarya. kunthyo-s, midyofs, hvaryo-s.
D. kunthyai, ${ }^{12}$ midyai, ${ }^{12}$ hvaryai. ${ }^{12}$ kunthyô-m, midyôm, hvaryo-m.
G. kunthyô-s, midyaizös, hvaryaizôs. ${ }^{13}$ kunthy-6, midy'ठ, hvary'0.
V. kunthi, midya. .... kunthyôs, midyôs, hvaryôs.
answers to the Sanskrit मध्य madhya. Formed from midya as theme, midyis would be clearly more organic than midis. Adjective $i$ bases, which could be referred to hardu-s as $u$ base, do not exist, but only substantive, as GASTI, nom. gasts.
${ }^{8}$ Compare Zend forms like $\left.G \backslash\right\rangle s y p$ tûirim, "quartum," from nss 7,90 tûirya (§. 42.).
${ }^{9}$ Hva, with suppressed termination, for hvata, Old High German huaz, see $\oint \S .155 .156$. ; for blindata also blind; and so for midyata also midi.
${ }^{10}$ The form hvô, which, like some others of this pronoun, cannot be shewn to occur, is, by Grimm, rightly formed by analogy from thot, "haec." Grimm here finds, as also in the accusative singular, the $\delta$ in opposition to the $a$ of blinda surprising: the reason of the deviation, however, is fixed by $\oint \oint .69 .137 .231$.
${ }^{11}$ See p. 173, Note $\dagger$. 12 See $\oint .161 . \quad 13$ §. 172.
${ }^{14}$ For kunthya, from kunthyô, by suppression of the final vowel of the base, which again appears in the accusative, but shortened to $a$ (see §.69.); but here, also, the final vowel can be dropped; hence kunthi as accusative. Luc. 1. 77.

If, then, it is asked which pronoun is contained in the German definite adjective, I answer, the same which, in Sclavonic
[G. Ed. p. 376.] and Lithuanian, renders the adjective definite, namely, the Indian relative $y a$ (य $y a$ ). This pronoun in German, indeed, in disadvantageous comparison with the Lithuanian and Sclavonic, does not occur isolated in its inflected state; but it is not uncommon in the history of languages, that a word has been lost in regard to its isolated use, and has been preserved only in composition with other words. It should be observed, too, that a demonstrative $i$ base must be acknowledged to belong to the Sanskrit, which, in Latin, is completely declined; in Gothic almost completely; but in Sanskrit, except the neuter nominative accusative idam, " this," has maintained itself only in derivative forms, as इति $i$-ti, इत्ययम् it-tham, " so," इयत् iy-ait, "so much," ईЕछश $\hat{i}$-driśa, " such." The case is the same in Gothic, with the pronominal base $y a$ : from this comes, in my opinion, the affirmative particle $y a$, as in other languages, also, affirmation is expressed by pronominal forms (i-tu, तथा ta-tha, "so," oütws), and further yabai, " if," analogous with ibai, "whether," ibaini, "lest"; as also, in Sanskrit, यदि yadi, "if," comes from the same base, and to this, as I now believe, the Greek ei-the semi-vowel being laid aside-has the same relation as in Prâkrit, in the 3d person singular present, ai, e.g. भमद्दbhamai, "he wanders" (Urvasi by Lenz, p. 63), has to the more usual vदि adi, for the Sanskrit wfत ati. In Prâkrit, too, जद jai (1. c. p. 63 on $j$ for $y$, see §. 19.), really occurs for yadi; so that in this conjunction, as in the 3d person of the present $\lambda$ é $\begin{gathered}\text { et } \\ \text { from } \\ \lambda\end{gathered}$ ' $\gamma \in \tau \iota$ ), the Greek runs parallel to the corruption of the Prâkrit. If, however, in ei the Sanskrit य् $y$ has disappeared, as in the Eolic $v_{\mu} \mu \epsilon s=$ Sanskrit yushme, it appears as $h$ in ós, which has nothing to do with the article $\dot{\delta}$, $\dot{\eta}$, where $h$ falls only to the nominative masculine and feminine, while in os it runs through all the cases, as
in Sanskrit the च् $y$ of यस् $y a-s$. To this [G. Ed. p. 377.] यम् yas, ós, in regard to the rough breathing, bears the same
 worship," "to sacrifice," यज्य yaiya, "to be worshiped;" טं $\sigma \mu$ iv to युप्य yudh, "to strive," युप्य yudhma, "strife" (comp. Pott, pp. 236. 252.). But to return to the Gothic $Y A$, let us further observe $y a h$, " "and," "also," with $h$ enclitic, of which hereafter, and $y u$, "now," $i$.e. "at this time," "already" (comp. Latin jam). It also clearly forms the last portion of hvar-yis (for yas), as, in the Sclavonic, this pronoun often unites itself with almost all others, and, for example, is contained in $k y-i$, "who?" although the interrogative base also occurs without this combination.
288. In Gothic definite adjectives the pronominal base Y $A$ shews itself most plainly in bases in $u$. Of these, indeed, there are but a few, which we annex below, $\dagger$ but a $y a$ shews itself in all the cases, and these in blinds differ from the substantive declension, to such an extent that before the $y$ the $u$ of the adjective is suppressed, as in Sanskrit before the comparative and superlative suffixes iyas, ishthha; e.g. laghiyas, "more light," layhişhtha, "most light," for laghv-iyas, laghv-ishtha from laghu; and as, even in Gothic, hard-izt, "more hard" (according to

* The $h$ may assimilate itself to the initial consonant of the following word, and thus may arise yag, yan, and yas, and in conjunction with the: yatthe, "or" (see Massmann's Gloss.).
$\dagger$ Aggvus, "narrow," aglus, "heavy," glaggvus," industrious," hardus, "hard," manvus, "ready," thaursus, "dry," thlaqvus, "tender," seithus, " late," filus, " much," and, probably, hnasques, "tender." Some occur only as adverbs, as glaggvu-ba, "industriously." In addition to the adverb filu, "much," since Grimm treated this subject the genitive filaus has been found (filaus mais, "for much more," see Massmann's Gloss,), which is the more gratifying, as the adjective $u$ bases had not yet been adduced in this case.
[G. Ed. p. 378.] Massmann, p. 48), for hardv-ixd? from HARDU. Hitherto, however, only the accusative singular masculine thaur's'yana, "siccum," manv'-yana, " paratum"; the accusative singular neuter manv'-yata; the dative plural hnasqu'-yaim are adduceable, if Grimm, as I doubt not, is right in ascribing to this word, which is not to be met with in any other case, a nominative hnasquus." Finally. also, the accusative plural masculine unmanvं-yans, $\dot{\alpha} \pi \alpha \rho \alpha-$
 different from vulfans. These examples, then, although few, furnish powerful proof; because, in the cases to be met with, they represent an entire class of words-viz the definite adjective in $u$-in such a manner, that not a single variety of form occurs. It may be proper to annex here the complete definite declension of MANVU, as it is either to be met with, or, according to the difference of cases, is, with more or less confidence, to be expected :MASCULINE. FEMININE.

|  | aular. | plural. | matuar. | plural. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | anvu-s, | (manv'-yni), | manvu-s, | ( $\boldsymbol{m a n v} v^{\prime}-\mathrm{y}^{\text {dss }}$ ). |
| Ac. | manv'-ya-na, | manv'-ya-ns, | (manv- ${ }^{\text {a }}$, ${ }^{\text {, }}$ | (manv-yds), |
|  | ( $m a n \dot{v}-y a-m m a)$ | ),manv'-yai-m | (manv-yai), | (mani'-yaim). |
|  | manvau-s, | (manv-yaizé) | (manv'-yaizos) | (manv - y yuizd. |
| [G. Ed. p. 379.] NEUTER. |  |  |  |  |
| Nom. Accus. manvoryanar $\begin{aligned} & \text { singular } \\ & \text { (man }\end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |

- I am the more inclined to agree with him, as a fow other adjective bases in $v u$ occur. Perlaps a eaphonic influence of the $v$ on the vowel which follows it is also at work; as at times one finds in the Prakrit a final
 So Urvasi, p. 72, Alu, talu, avaranu, for kala, tâla, avarana; p.71, manoharu for mañôara.
$\dagger$ Without inflection and pronom. manvu, as सादु svôdu, $\mathfrak{\eta} \delta \dot{v}$, Lithuanian darkù.


## ADJBCTIVES.

"Remark 1.-Grimm finds (I. 721.) the identity of the feminine with the masculine remarkable, since he, as it appears, looks upon $s$ as an originally mere masculine termination (comp. 1.c. 824, 825. 2. 3.). That, however, the feminine has equal claim to $s$ as the nominative character, and that it is entirely without inflection where this is wanting, I think I have shewn in \$§. 134.137. Adjective bases in $i$, which in the Gothic, as in the Lithuanian and Sclavonic, are wanting, end, in the Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin, in the nominative of both genders, in is; and only the neuter is devoid of inflection : compare शुचिस् suchi-s m. f., "clean,"
 Sanskrit, frequently leave, in like manner, the feminine base undistinguished from the masculine and neuter, and then end, according to §. 234., in the nominative in $u-s$; so pandu-s m. f., agrees with manvu-s above, and the neuter pandu with manvu. If two consonants do not precede the final उ $u$, as in pandu, the feminine base may, except in compound words, be lengthened by an $i$, which is particularly characteristic of this gender; and thus साही swddwi, " the sweet" (theme and nominative), answers to the Greek word $\eta \dot{\delta} \epsilon \hat{\alpha} \alpha$, which is lengthened by an unorganic $a$ ( (\$.119.), for $\dot{\eta} \delta F i \alpha$; and swâdu-s answers both as feminine and masculine nominative to the Gothic manvus. In the Sanskrit, also, a short $u$ in the feminine base may be lengthened, and thus the feminine of तनु $\operatorname{tanu}$, " thin," is either $\tan u$ or $\tan \hat{u}$, whence the nominative $\tan \hat{\imath}-s$; and $\tan w \hat{\imath}$, as substantive, means the "slender woman." The Lithuanian has adjective bases in $u$, as $s z w i e s u-s, m$. "light," "clear," (compare घ्वेत śsêta, " white,") which nevertheless, in several cases, replace the $u$ by $a$; as szwiesám dangui, "to the bright heaven": in some, too, they prefix an $i$ to the $a$, the assimilating power of which changes the $a$ into $e$ (comp. p. 169 Note); as, szwiesiems dangums, " to the bright heavens." The feminine is, in the nominative, szwiesi, the

## ADJECTIVES.

[G. Ed. p. 380.] final $i$ of which is evidently identical with the Sanskrit $\frac{\ddagger}{} \hat{\imath}$ in swadwi. In the oblique cases, however, an unorganic $a$ also is added to the Lithuanian $i$, as it has been in $\eta \dot{\partial e i \alpha}$ : this ia, however, becomes either by euphony, $e$ (comp. p. 174, Note *), e.g. accus. szwiesen, accus. plural szwiesès ; or it happens, and that, indeed, in the majority of cases that the $i$ is entirely suppressed, so that SZWIESA passes as the theme; as szwiesòs rankòs, "of the bright hand" (gen, szwiesai rankai (dat.). The $i$ of $i a$, however, appears, * as with the participles, to have communicated itself from the feminine to the masculine,
"Remark 2.-With the accusative manvyana which has been cited, the conjectured dative manvyamma is least doubtful. That Grimm should suggest forms like hardvamma, hardv-ana, arises from his regarding amma, ana, as the dative and accusative terminations of the pronoun and adjective; while, in fact, the terminations are simply mma and $n a$. When, therefore, HARDU, in the dative and accusative, without annexing a pronoun, follows nevertheless the pronominal declension, the cases mentioned must be written hardu-mma, hardu-na, analogous with tha-mma, tha-na, i-mma, i-na. If, however, contrary to all expectation, forms like hardvamma, hardvana, shew themselves, they must be deduced from hardu-ya-mma, hardu-ya-na; so that after suppressing the $y$, the preceding $u$, in the place in which it would be left, has passed into $v$. With regard to blindamma, blindana, blindata, it is doubtful whether they ought to be divided blind'-(y)amma, blind ${ }^{\prime}$-(y)ana, $b$ lind $^{2}-(y)$ ata, as analogous with $\operatorname{manv}(u)-y \operatorname{amma}, \operatorname{manv}(u)-$ $-y a n a, \operatorname{manv}(u)-y a t a$, or blinda-(ya)mma, \&c.: I have therefore left them, as also the corresponding forms from MIDYA, undivided. If the division blinda-mma, \&c. is made, nothing is left of the pronoun, as in the Old Sclavonic dative scyato-mû, and as in our expressions like beim, $a m$, im, except the case-termination, and the adjective base
has preserved its $a$. If, however, the division blind-amma, \&c. is made, to which I now give the preference, and which is also adopted by Grimm, though from a different point of view, then the pronoun has only lost its $y$, as in some cases of the Lithuanian definite, e.g. in geris-us for geris-yus (see p. 353); and with respect to the $y$ which has been dropped and the vowel which is left, blind'-amma would have the same relation to blind'-yamma as midums, "the middle man" (theme MIDUMA), to its Sanskrit cognate form of the same import, मभ्यम madhyama, whose relation to MIDUMA I thus trace-the latter has softened the first $a$ to $i$, and has changed the middle $a$, through the influence of the liquid, into $u$; and both, however, have, according to §. 66., suppressed the semi-vowel.
"Remark 3.-Although, in the accusative plural masculine, blindans is not different from vulfans, and the simple word BLINDA could not form aught but [G. Ed. p. 381.]. blinda-ns; nevertheless the word manv-yans, mentioned above, which is of the highest importance for the Grammar, as well as the circumstance that where any inflections peculiar to the pronoun admonish us of the existence of an inherent pronoun in the definite adjective, this inheritance really exists ;-these two reasons, I say, speak in favour of dividing thus, blind ${ }^{\prime}$-ans, and of deducing it from blind-yans. Just in the same manner the dative blindaim, both through the aim, which occurs elsewhere only in pronouns, as through the word hnasqu-yaim, mentioned above, declares itself to be an abbreviation of blind-yaim; but blindai proves itself only by its pronominal inflection (compare thai, hvai, Sanskrit ते $t \ell$, के $k \ell$ ) to be an abbreviation of blind ${ }^{-y} y a$.
"Remark 4.-In the Sanskrit, in some cases an $i$ blends itself with the final $a$, which, with the $a$ of the base, becomes $\ell$ : hence the instrumental plural of the Vêda dialect and of the Prâkrit, सण्वेकिस् aśsé-bhis from aśwa, कुसुमेनिं kusumé-hin from kusuma. To this $\hat{E}$ answers the ai in

Gothic pronominal datives like hvai-m, "quibus," tha-im, "his"; as the German dative, in accordance with its origin, is identical with the old instrumental. We were, however, compelled, before we had a reason for seeking the pronoun FA in the Gothic definite adjective, to give to the extension of the base in German a wider expansion by an $i$ which means nothing, than it has in the Sanskrit; while we have now every reason, where, in Gothic definites, an $i$ unsubstantiated by the oldest grammar shews itself, to re"cognise in the $i$ a remnant of the pronominal base $F A$, either as a vocalization of the $y$, which so often occurs in the Sclavonic (see p. 354), or the $i$ may be considered as an alteration of the $a$ of $Y A$, as in the Lithuanian geras-is for geras-yis, (p. 353). The latter view pleases me the better because it accords more closely with blind'-amma, blind'-ana, \&c., from blind'-yamma, blind'-yana. The vowel, then, which in blind'-amma, \&c., maintains itself in its original form, appears, in this view, as $i$ in the feminine singular genitive blindaizôs-which is to be divided blinda$i z \partial s$-from blinda-yizठs; and this $y i z \partial s$ is analogous with $h v i z \delta s$, thizds, from hvazds, thazds, = Sanskrit kasyds, tasyds (§. 172.). We must not require blind $0-i z \delta s$ - because $B L I N D \bar{O}$ is the feminine adjective base-for there is a reason for the thinning of the $\delta$, in the difficulty of placing the syllables together, and $a$ is the short of $a$ (§. 69.). For the rest, let it be considered, that in the Sclavonic the graver feminine $a$ before its union with the pronoun is weakened to the lighter masculine o (p. 354, Note 3.); and that a diphthong oi in the Gothic [G. Ed. p. 382.] is never admissible; on which account salbo, "I anoint," in the subjunctive suppresses the $i$, which belongs to this mood (salbos, salbo, for salbois, salboi). In the feminine dative one should expect blindaizai for blindai, which is simple, and answers to gibai, while the remaining German dialects are, in this case, compounded in the very
same manner : in Old High German the genitive is plintera, and the dative plinteru.* In the genitive plural masculine and neuter the ai in blindaize might be substantiated through the Sanskrit ₹ $e$ of the pronominal genitive, as तेपाम् tẹshăm, "horum"; and therefore the division blindai-ze or blind'-(y)aize should be made: as, however, the monosyllabic pronominal bases, in which one would rather expect a firm adherence to the old diphthong (comp. §. 137.), do not retain it, and thi-zé, " horum," hvi-zé, "quorum," as weakened forms of tha-ze, hva-ze, are used; and in the feminine
 I therefore prefer to substantiate in a different way the ai in blindaize m. n., and blindaizo f., than by the Sanskrit $\ell$ of $t \hat{t}-\mathrm{s} h \dot{d} m \mathrm{~m} . \mathrm{n}$. (f. $t a ̂-s a t m$ ), which, moreover, would not be applicable to the feminine form blindaizo ; and I do it, in fact, by the pronominal base $Y A$, so that blinda-ize blinda$i z 0$, is the division to be made according to the analogy of blinda-izos.
"Remark 5.-The nominative masculine and feminine has kept itself free, in Gothic, from union with the old relative base, and has remained resting upon the original, as received from the Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin. The masculine blinds, also, through the very characteristic and animated $s$ (see $\S .134$.) has cause to feel itself personified and defined determinately enough. Even if blinds could be looked upon as an abbreviation of blindeis (comp, altheis, "old," from the base $A L T H \mp A$, according to Massmann), or of blindais, to which the Old High German plinter would give authority, I should still believe that neither the one nor the other has existed in Gothic, as even the $u$ bases,

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like manvu-s above, which, in the oblique cases, shew so clearly the pronominal base $F A$, have not received it in the nominative singular of the personal genders. In Old High German, however, the pronoun spoken of has had time, in the space of almost four centuries which intervene between its oldest memorials and Ulfilas, to raise itself up from the oblique cases to the nominative; which was the more desirable, as the Old High German substantive declen-
[G. Ed. p. 383.] sion in the nominative masculine, in disadvantageous comparison with the Gothic, omits the mark of case. Plinter (the length of the $\ell$ is here rendered certain) is contracted from plinta-ir (for plinta-yir); for the Old High German $\hat{e}$ corresponds, according to §. 78., to the Gothic ai. In the feminine, therefore, the form plintyu, which occurs in the chief number of strict Old High German authorities, and those which, as Grimm remarks, are the oldest of all, has good substantiation, and corresponds very fitly to the masculine plinter ; and in the nominative and accusative plural and neuter the form plint-yu, with regard to the retaining the $y$ of the pronoun, is more genuine than the Gothic blind-a for blind-ya. The form plintyu, moreover, answers to feminine pronominal forms like dyu, "the" (f.), syu, "she," dësyu (dë-syu), "this"* (f.), and to the instrumental masculine and neuter $d y u$ (in the interrogative huiu), where all authorities concur in retaining the $i$ or $y$; while in the adjective, Otfrid, and, as Grimm remarks, here and there Isidore and Tatian, have $u$ for $y u$, For explanation,

[^193]however, of the pronominal forms which have been mentioned, it is important to consider, that in the Sanskrpit the pronominal base $t a$, or the sa which supplies its place in the nominative masculine and feminine, unites itself with the relative base य $y a$, by which the first pronoun loses its vowel. Compare, then-

SANSERIT.

| स्या sya ( $=$ sy $\hat{a}_{\text {, }}$ ) "hac," | syu, dyu, | ja. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| स्याम् ty ${ }^{\text {am, "hanc," }}$ | dya, | -yû. |
| स्ये tyê, "hi," | dye, | ti-i. |
| त्यास् tyâs, "ha," "has," | $d y d$, | ty-ya. |
| ल्यानि tyâni, "hac," | dyu, | ta-ya. |

Here, then, in a manner as remarkable as convincing, the relation is proved in which the Old High German forms mentioned stand to the Gothic st, thd, thai, [G. Ed. p. 384.] thos, thd : one must first transpose these into syd, thy 0, \&c., before they can pass as original forms for the Old High German. Our mother tongue, however, in the case before us, obtains more explanation through the Sclavonic, where the demonstrative base TO may indeed be simply inflected through all the cases: in several, however, which we have partly given above, it occurs also in union with YO. It is most probable, that in the Old High German the combination of the base of the article with the old relative pronoun has extended itself over all the cases of the three genders; for that it does not belong to the feminine alone is seen from the masculine and neuter instrumental form dyu ( $\left.d^{\prime}-y u\right)$, and from the dative plural, where together with dem occurs also dyem (diem), and, in Notker, always dien. According to this, I deduce the forms dër, dës, dëmu, \&c., from dyer, dyes (for dyis), dyemu (from dyamu); so that, after suppression of the vowel following the $y$, that letter has vocalized itself first to $i$ and thence to $\ddot{e}$. According to this, therefore, dës, and the Gothic genitive
this-s, would be, in their origin, just as different as in the accusative feminine $d y a$ and tho. In the neuter, on the other hand, daz-for dyaz, as Gothic blind'-ata for blind-yata-the vowel of the base $D \nvdash A$ is left, and the semivowel, which above had become ë (from i) has disappeared. Further support of my views regarding the difference of bases in the Gothic tha-na and the Old High German dë-n (I give the accusative intentionally) is furnished by the demonstrative dëser, which I explain as compounded, and as, in fact, a combination of the Sanskrit त् tya, mentioned at p. 383 G. ed., for taya, and स्य sya for sa-ya, the latter of which has a full declension in the Old Sclavonic, also, as a simple word. Dësér stands, therefore, for dya-säir ( $e=a i)$; and our Modern German dieser rests, in fact, upon a more perfect dialectic form than that which is preserved to us in the above dëser, namely, upon dya-sêr or dia-sér; referred to which the Isidorean dhëa-sa, mentioned by Grimm (I. 795.), at least in respect of the first syllable, no longer appears strange, for dhëa from dhia for dhya,* answers admirably to the Sanskryit त् tya, and the final syllable sa answers to the Sanskrit-Gothic nominative form sa (Greek $\dot{0}$ ), which has not the sign of case.
"Remark 6.-The adjective bases which from their first origin end in $y a$, as $M I D Y A=$ Sanskrit madhya, are less favourable to the retention of the $y$ of the definite pronoun; for to the feminine or plural neuter plint'-yu for plintu-yua a midy'-yu would be analogous, which, on account of the diff-
[G. Ed. p. 385.] culty of pronouncing it, does not occur, but may have originally existed in the form midya-yu, or mid-ya-ya; for the masculine nominative midyêr is from midya-ir for midya-yar, as, in Gothic, the feminine genitive-form midyaizốs from midya-yizds. If, however, according to this, even hvar-yaizos (from hvar-yayizoss) be used, and analogous

[^194]forms in several other cases, so that the base $Y A$ is therein doubled, we must recollect, that in the Lithuanian also the base $Y A$, besides its composition with adjectives, combines itself, also, with itself, for stronger personification; and, indeed, in such a manner, that it is then doubly declined, as $y i s-s a i$ (for $\left.y i s-y a i^{*}\right)$ ), 'he'; yo-yo, ' of him,' \&ce."
289. The participle present has, in Gothic, preserved only the nominative singular masculine of the definite declension, e.g. gibands, "giving," which may be deduced as well from a theme GIBAND, according to the analogy of fiyand-s (see p. 164), as from GIBANDA, according to the analogy of vulf'-s (§. 135.). The Pâli (see p. 300) and Old High German support the assumption of a theme GIBANDA, as an extension of the original GIBAND; whence, then, by a new addition, the indefinite theme GIBANDAN has arisen, as, above, BLINDAN from $B L I N D A$; and it is very probable that all unorganic $n$ bases have been preceded by an older with a vowel termination: for as all bases which terminate in a consonant ( $n d, r$, and $n . \S .125$.) are in their declension, with the exception of the nominative $n d-s$, alike obtuse; [G. Ed. p. 386.] so it would not be necessary for GIBAND, in order to belong, in the indefinite adjective, to a weak theme, or one with a blunted declension, to extend itself to gibandan (compare p. 302), unless for the sake of the nominative gibanda (see §. 140.).
290. In the Pâli, no feminine theme charantí has been formed from the unorganic theme charanta, mentioned at p. 319 G. ed.

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for the masculine and neuter form charanta has arisen from the necessity of passing from a class of declensions terminating in a consonant into one more convenient, terminating with a vowel in the theme. The Sanskrit, however, forms from bases terminating in a consonant the feminine theme by the addition of a vowel ( $i$, see §. 119.); e.g. from charant m., comes charanti, and there was therefore no reason in the Pâli to give also to the more recent form charanta a feminine theme charantâ. Here, again, the Gothic stands in remarkable accordance with the Pâli, for it has produced no feminine base $G I B A N D \bar{O}$ from the presupposed $G I B A N D A$; and therefore, also, the indefinite GIBANDAN has no feminine, $G I B A N D \bar{O} N$, nom. giband 0 , answering to it (as $B L I N D \bar{O} N$ to $B L I N D A N$ ); but the feminine form gibandei ( $e i=i, \S .70$.), which has arisen from the old theme GIBAND, in analogy with the Sanskrit charanti, has become GIBANDEIN, by the later addition of an $n$. Hence, according to §. 142., in the nominative gibandei must have arisen. It is not, however, right to regard this nominative as a production of the more recent theme, but as a transmission from the ancient period of the language, for it answers to the feminine Sanskrit nominative charantí (§. 137.), and to Lithuanian forms like sukanti, "the turning," for which a theme sukantin is nowise admissible. In Latin, bases in $i$ or $i$, originally feminine, must have arisen from adjective bases terminating with a consonant; thus FERENTI from FERENT (compare §. 119. genitri-c-s) : and this femisine $i$, as is the case in Lithuanian, as well with the participles (see p. 174, Note) as
[G. Ed. p. 387.] with the adjective bases in $u$ (p.363), has in some cases no longer remembered its original destination, and been imparted to the other genders : hence the ablatives in $i$ (for $i-d$ ), genitive plural in $i$-um, neuter plural in ia (ferenti(d), ferenti-um, ferenti-a); and hence is explained, what must otherwise appear very surprising, that the
participles, when standing as substantives, freely take this $i$, which is introduced into them from the feminine adjective (infante, sapiente).
"Remark.-In the yu of këpanlyu, the Old High German feminine of këpanter, I recognise the regular defining element, as above in plintyu, answering to the masculine plintér. On account of the participial feminines in $y u$, therefore, it is not requisite to presuppose masculines in yêr, according to the analogy of midyêr, midyu, midyaz, partly as këpentetr and këpantaz, incline, in none of their cases, to the declension of midyer, midyaz, and also as the derivative indefinite base in an has sprung from K ̈̈PANTA, and not from K $\mathrm{E} P A N T Y A$ : therefore m . këpanto ( $=$ Gothic gibanda), f. n. këpanta (=Gothic giband(). This only is peculiar to the Old High German participle present, in relation to other adjectives, that in its uninflected adverbial state it retains the defining pronominal base $\bar{Y} A$ in its contraction to $i$; therefore këpanti, "giving," not kepant, like plint. It is, however, to be observed, that there is far more frequent occasion to use this form divested of case terminations in the participle present, than in all other adjectives, as the definite form in $n d s$ in Gothic, in the nominative singular masculine, corresponds to it; and as it may be assumed, that here the $i$ supplies the place of the case termination, which has been laid aside; so that it is very often arbitrary whether the definite form of the participle, or the uninflected form in $i$, be given. So in Grimm's hymns (II. 2.), sustollens is rendered by the uninflected ufpurrenti, and baptizans by taufanter, although the reverse might just as well occur, or both participles might stand in the same form, whether that of the nominative or adverbial. As regards the Old Saxon forms mentioned by Grimm, namely, slapandyes or slápandeas, " dormientis," gnornondye, " marentes," buandyum, " habitantibus," they should, in my opinion, be rather adduced in

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its origin to the root तृ tri ( $\operatorname{tar}, \S, 1$.$) , "to [G. Ed. p. 389.]$ step beyond " "to place beyond" (e.g. "over a river"); hence, also, the substantive tara, "a float." In the Latin, as Lisch has acutely remarked, with this root are connected the preposition trans, and also terminus, as that which is overstepped, and probably also tra, in in-tra-re, penetra-re. The superlative suffix I derive, with Grimm (III. 583.), from that of the comparative, although I assume no theoretic necessity that the superlative must have been developed through the degree of the comparative. But tama, as a primitive, presents no satisfactory etymology. I formerly thought of the base तन् tan, "to extend," whence, also, taros could be explained; but then तम tama would be no regular formation, and I now prefer recognising in it an abbreviation of tarama, partly because the superlative suffix इ叉 iṣhṭa may be satisfactorily considered as derived from its comparative iyas, through the suffix tha, which, in the Greek, is contained in the form of $\tau 0$, as well in $\sigma$-тos as in $\tau \alpha$ tos, for taptos or $\tau \alpha \rho o \tau o s$. In this manner, therefore, is formed $\tau \alpha \pi \sigma-s$ and तमस् tama-s : they both contain the same primitive, abbreviated in a similar manner, but have taken a different derivative suffix, as in $\pi$ é $\mu \pi$-Tos contrasted with पघ्घम panchama, "the fifth": the vowel, however, is more truly retained in the derivative racos than in its base repos. In Latin, तमस् tama-s has become timu-s (optimus, intimus, extimus, ultimus); and, by the exchange of the $t$ with $s$, which is more usual in Greek than in Latin, simus; hence,
p. 43), and is analogous to the Sanskrit panthas, from panthan, mentioned at p. 308. More usually, however, ao in Zend nominatives stands in the place of the Sanskrit ân of the suffix vant and vâns; so that, in Zend, the sign of the nominative has taken the place of the Indian $n$, the said sign being $o$ for $s$, according, to $\oint .56^{b}$. In $\varepsilon \omega \gg v i o$, from बांस् $v a i n s$, the Zend $o$ may also be looked upon as belonging to the base (comp. Burnouf's Yaçna, Notes, p, exxviii. \&c.).
maximus (mac-simus) for mag-simus. However, the simus is generally preceded by the syllable is, which we will hereafter explain.
292. As in comparatives a relation between two, and in [G. Ed. p. 390]] superlatives a relation between many, lies at the bottom, it is natural that their suffixes should also be transferred to other words, whose chief notion is individualized through that of duality or plurality: thus they appear in pronouns, and कतरस् katara-s is "which of two persons?" and कतमस् katama-s, "which of more than two persons?" एकतरस् êkataras is "one of two persons," and êkatama-s, "one of more than two." It is hardly necessary to call attention to similar forms in Greek, as $\pi$ ótepos (for кóтeроs), ėка́тepos. In é̌кабтоs the superlative suffix ( $\sigma$ тos for $\iota \sigma \tau \circ S$ ) presents a different modification from that in êkatama-s, and expresses "the one of two persons," instead of "the one of many persons." In Latin and German, indeed, the suffix tara is not in use in genuine comparatives, but has maintained itself in pronouns in Latin in the form of TERU (ter, teru-m), and in Gothic in that of THARA; hence uter, neuter, alter; Gothic, hva-thar,* "which of two persons?" Old High German, [G. Ed. p. 391.] huëdar, which has remained to us in the adverb weder, as an abbreviation of the Middle High Ger-

[^196]man, combined with a particle of negation newëder. Anthar, also, our anderer, belongs here, and answers to the Sanskrit स्रन्तरस् antara-s, whose initial syllable is the same which in खन्य anya, "alius," has united itself with the relative base य $y a$. From this अन्य anya comes anyatara, "aller." If, however, क्षन्तर antara means, in general, "the other," the comparative suffix is here intended to denote the person following after, passing over this thing; so is, also, the Latin ceterus to be considered, from ce as demonstrative base (compare ci-s, ci-tra); and so, also, in Sanskrit, itara, "the other," comes from the demonstrative base $i$, as, in Latin, the adverb iterum from the same base."* In our German, also, wieder is the comparative suffix, and the whole rests, perhaps, on a pre-existing Old High German word huia-dar or huyadar, with a change of the interrogative meaning into the demonstrative, as in weder, ent--weder. The wie in wieder, therefore, should be regarded as, p. 370, die in dieser; and herein we may refer to the Isidoric dhëa-sa.
293. In prepositions, also, it cannot be surprising if one finds them invested with a comparative or superlative suffix, or if some of them occur merely with a comparative termination. For at the bottom of all genuine prepositions,

[^197]at least in their original sense, there exists a relation between [G. Ed. p. 392.] two opposite directions - thus, "over," "from," "before," "to," have the relations "under," "in," "towards," " from," as their counter-poles and points of comparison, as the right is opposed to the left; and is always expressed in Latin, also, with the comparative suffix, dexter (द⿸्धिय dakshina), sinister. As, however, the comparative nature of these formations is no longer recognised in the present condition of the Latin, the suffix ter admits of the further addition of the customary ior (dexterior, sinisterior, like exterior, interior); while the superlative timus has affixed itself to the core of the word (dextimus or -tumus, sinistimus). The prepositions which, in Latin, contain a comparative suffix, are inter, preter, propter, the adverbially-used subter, and probably, also, obiter (compare audacter, pariter).* To inter answers the Sanskrit ज्रन्नर् antar, "among," "between"; for which, however, a primitive an is wanting, as in Sanskrit the relation "in" is always expressed by the locative. Notwithstanding this, antar, in regard to its suffix, is an analogous word to प्रातर prâtar, "in the morning," from the preposition
[G. Ed. p. 393.] pra, "before," $\dagger$ with a lengthened $a$, as in the

[^198]Greek $\pi \rho \omega \hat{\imath}$ from $\pi \rho o$. For the relation "under," the Sanskṛit has the preposition सधस् adhas, which I have elsewhere explained as coming from the demonstrative base स $a^{\prime}$; from which, also, come अधर $a$-dhara and ज्ञधम, $a$-dhama, "the under one," or "the most under," to which inferus and infimus are akin, as fumus to थूमस् dhûma-s, "smoke," and, with a nasal prefixed, as in $\dot{\alpha} \mu \phi i$ in relation to wfि $a b h i$, and in ${ }_{\alpha} \mu \phi \omega$, "ambo," answering to उभी ubhauu, Old Sclavonic oba. The suffixes धर dhara and धम dhama are, in my opinion, only slightly-corrupted forms of the tara and tama mentioned in §. 291.; as also in म्रयम prathama, "the first," m . from pra, "before," the $T$ sound of the suffix is somewhat differently transposed. The suffix dhas of adhas, "beneath," however, has exactly the same relation to tas, in उतस् atas, "from here," as dhara, dhama, have to tara, tama; and therefore adhas, as a modification of atas, is, in respect to its suffix, a cognate form of subtus, intus. The usual intention of the suffix तस् tas, like that of the Latin tus, is to express distance from a place. In this, also, the Greek $\theta_{\varepsilon \nu}$ (from $\theta_{\text {es, comp. }}$ §. 217.) corresponds with it, which, in regard to its $T$ sound, rests on the form धस् dhas in सभस् adhas (§. 16.), as the latter also serves as the pattern of the Old Sclavonic suffix du, which only occurs in pronouns, and expresses the same relation as तस् tas, $\theta e v$, tus : e.g. ovo- $\hat{u d u}$, "hence,"* ono- $\hat{u} d \hat{d}$, "thence." The form $d u$, however, corresponds to the euphonic alteration, which a final as in the Sanskrit must suffer before [G. Ed. p. 394.] sonant letters (§. 25.), viz. that into $\theta$ (see §. 255. f.), which in Zend has become fixed (§. $56^{\mathrm{b}}$ ).
analogous word pratar from pra, with at, "to go." A relation, nevertheless, between anta, "end," and antar, "among," cannot perhaps be denied, as they agree in the idea of room. They are, however, if they are related, sister forms, and the latter is not an offshoot of the former.

- The demonstrative base OVO answers remarkably to the Zend u>>s ava, with o for $a$, according to §. 255. (a.).
"Remark.-Dobrowsky p. 451 gives $\mathbb{U d A}$ as the full form of the suffix, just as he also lays down a suffix didye, which forms adverbs of place, as kudye, "where?" on ddye, "there." As, however, the definitive pronoun, which has been treated of at p. 353, \&c., exists in these two adverbs, $\hat{u} d \hat{u}, \hat{u} d y e$, and forms, with sche, $\hat{u} d u ̂ s c h e, \hat{u} d y e s c h e$, for $y \hat{u} d \hat{u}$, \&c.; and as this pronoun is, in general, so frequently compounded with other adverbs, there is every reason to assume that it is also contained in ovo- $\hat{d} d \hat{u}$, ono- $\hat{u} d \hat{d}$, on'-idye, $t$ - $\hat{d} d y e$, and others. But how is the 4 itself in $u$-d $\mathfrak{u}, y \hat{u}-d y e$, to be explained? I cannot speak with confidence on this point ; but as, according to §. 255. (g.), in the last element of the diphthong $\hat{a}$ a vocalised nasal is sometimes recognised, yudû, yûdye, might be regarded as corruptions of yonda, yondye, and, in respect to their nasal, be compared with the Latin inde, unde, from $I, U$. Fûdye, yûdyû, might also have proceeded from the feminine accusative $y \tilde{u}$, which would again conduct us to a nasal (\$. 266.): this accusative would then stand as theme to the derivative adverb, as our preposition hinter, Old High German hintar, has arisen from hin, a petrified accusative, on which the Gothic lina-dag, "this day," "to day," throws light. Before the suffix dye, however, elder form de, occur also the pronouns in a simple form, as gdye, "where?" (more anciently kele, with the final vowel of the base $K O$ suppressed); $z d y e$ (older sde), "here"; idyesche, " where" (relative). As e (e), according to §. 255. (b.), frequently stands as the corruption of an older $i$, I recognise in the suffix $d e$ the Sanskrit fe dhi, from सfि adhi, "over," "upon" "towards," (from the demonstrative base $a$ ), which, in Greek, is far more widely diffused in the form of $\theta_{l}\left(\pi \delta_{0}^{\prime} \theta_{l}, \alpha \alpha^{\alpha} \lambda_{0} \theta_{l}\right)^{\prime \prime}$

294. In German, even more than in Latin, the prepositions shew themselves inclined to combine with the comparative suffix. To the Sanskrit सन्न्र् antar, Latin inter, mentioned above (at p. 392, G. ed.), corresponds our unter, Gothic
undar, with $u$ for the old $a$, according to §. 66.* If, however, the, in my opinion, incontrovertible original identity of the latter with the two former is recognised, [G. Ed. p. 395.] one must not, with Grimm (III. 260.), derive undar from the preposition und, "as far as," \&c., by a suffix ar, and so again divide the dar; for undar, $\dagger$ as transmitted from an ancient period of the language, was already formed, before the existence of a German dialect, and the abovementioned preposition has only to dispose itself according to the relations of sound mentioned in \$§.66.91. The matter is different with the Old High German af-tar, "after," for the primitive language, or languages, transmit to us only wप apa, á $\pi \delta$, "from"; to which, in the spirit of सन्त् antar, inter, subter, \&c., the old comparative suffix has first united itself upon German ground. In Gothic, aftra means "again," which I look upon as an abbreviation of aftara, as in Latin extra, intra, contra, and others, as feminine adjectives, from extera, \&c. In regard to the termination however, aftra, and similar forms in tra, thra, appear to me as datives, i.e. original instrumentals (\$. 160.), as also, in the Sanskrit, this case occurs as an adverb, e.g. in जन्नरेए antarêna, "between." Perhaps, also, the Sanskrit pronominal adverbs in tra, although they have a locative meaning, like यन्च yatra, "where," are to be regarded as instrumental forms, according to the principle of the Zend language ( (§. 158.), and of the gerund in य $y a$, (Gramm. Crit. §. 638. Rem.), so that their tra would be to be derived from तरा tara : compare forms like मनुष्तना manuṣha-tra, "inter homines" (Gramm. Crit.

[^199]§. 252, suff. trâ). As aftra is related to uftar, so is the Gothic vithra, "against," to the Old High German widar, our wider, the primitive of which is supplied by the Sanskrit through its
[G.Ed.p.396.] inseparable preposition fि vi, which expresses separation, distraction, e.g. in visrip, "to go from one another," "to disperse." Exactly similar is the Sanskrit fन $n i$, to which I was the first to prove the meaning "below" to belong," and whence comes the adjective नीच nîcha, "low" (Gramm. Crit. §. 111.), the base of our nieder, Old High Ger[G. Ed. p.397.] man ni-dar. $\dagger$ From hin-dar, Old High German hin-tar, comes our hin-ter which has already been discussed (p. 394, G. ed. compare Grimm. III. 177. e.). In the Old High German sun-dar, Gothic sun-drô, "seorsim," afterwards a preposition, our sondern, dar is, in like manner, clearly the comparative suffix, and the base appears to me, in spite of the difference of signi-

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(compare inmitten, "in the midst") and Anfang, "beginning," it attaches itself first to the prepositional ideas : therefore hinont, "this side," enont, "that side," would be the same as "at this end," "at that end." With regard to the comparative forms there is, further, the Old High German for-dar, fur-dir (" porro," " amplius"), our für-der to be mentioned, whence der vordere, vorderste.
[G. Ed. p. 398.] "Remark 1.-As we have endeavoured above to explain the Gothic af-tra and vithra as datives, I believe I can with still more confidence present the forms in thro or tard as remarkable remains of ablatives. Their meaning corresponds most exactly to that of the Sanskrit ablative, which expresses the withdrawing from a place, and to that of the Greek adverbs in $\theta e v$; thus hva-thro, "whence?" tha-thro, "thence," yain-thro, "hence," alya-thro, "from another quarter," inna-thr0, "from within," uta-thrô, "from without," af-tarô, " from behind," dala-thro, " from under," and some others, but only from pronouns, and, what is nearly the same, prepositions. I might, therefore, derive dalathrô, not from dal, "a valley," but suppose a connection with the Sanskrit wधर adhara, "the under person," with aphæresis of the $a$ and the very common exchange of the $r$ with $l$ (§. 20.). Perhaps, however, on the contrary, thal is so named from the notion of the part below. As to the ablative forms in taro, thrô, the $\hat{o}$ corresponds to the Sanskrit $a t$ (§. 179.), with 0 , according to rule, for ला $a$ (§. 69.), and apocope of the $t$; so that 6 has the same relation to the to-be-presupposed $\sigma t$ that in Greek oưtw has to oũт $\omega$ s, from oütct (\$. 183. Note * p. 201). Many other Gothic adverbs in $\hat{6}$, as sinteind, "always," sniumundo, "hastily," sprant $\delta$, " suddenly," thridyd, " thirdly," \&c., might then, although an ablative meaning does not appear more plainly in them than in the Latin perpetuo, cito, subito, tertio, and others, be rather considered as ablatives than as neuter accusatives of indefinite (Grimm's weak) forms ; so that thridyd would
answer to the Sanskrit ablative triitiyat, while the common Gothic declension extends the ordinal bases in $a$ by an unorganic $n$; thus THRIDFAN, nom. thridya. It must be further observed, that all unorganic adjective bases in an are, in general, only used where the adjective is rendered definite through a pronoun preceding it; that therefore the forms in 6 , which pass for adverbial, are, for the very reason that no pronoun precedes them, better assigned to the definite (strong) declension than to the indefinite; especially as most of them are only remains of an old adjective, which is no longer preserved in other cases, and, according to their formation, belong to a period where the indefinite adjective declension had not yet received the unorganic addition of an $n$. As to the translation of toùvavtiov, 2 Cor. ii. 7., by thata undaneitho, here of course andoneith is the neuter accusative; but the inducement for using the indefinite form is supplied by the article, and touvavtion could not be otherwise literally rendered. The case may be similar with 2 Cor. iv. 17 ., where Castiglione takes thata andavairtho for the [G. Ed. p. 399.] nominative, but Grimm for the adverbial accusative: as it would else be an unsuitable imitation of the Greek text; where tò does not belong to aútíka, but to è $\lambda \alpha \phi \rho o{ }^{\nu}$. In my opinion, however, it can in no case be inferred from these passages that the adverbs in $\delta$, without an article preceding them, belong to the same category. Moreover, also, andaneitho and andavairthd do not occur by themselves alone adverbially. As, then, thró has shewn itself to us to be an abbreviation of throt, it is a question whether the suppression of the $t$ by a universal law of sound was requisite, as in Greek, and in the Prâkrit, all $T$ sounds are rejected from the end of words, or changed into $\mathbf{\Sigma}$. It is certain that the $T$ sounds ( $t, t h, d$ ), which, in the actual condition of the Gothic, are finals, as far as we can follow their etymology, had originally a vowel after them, so that C C
they are final sounds of a second generation, comparable in that respect to the Sclavonic final consonants ( $(\mathbf{\xi}$. 255. l ). This holds good, for example, with regard to $t h, d$, in the 3 d person singular and plural, and the 2 d person plural $=$ Sanskrit fि $t i$, ख्नि anti, च tha or $\boldsymbol{\pi} t a$; and I explain the th or $d$, which, in pronominal bases, expresses direction to a place, as coming from the Sanskrit suffix v dha ( $\mathrm{E} h a$ ); which, in like manner, in pronouns expresses the locative relation. The passing over from the locative relation to the accusative, expressing the direction whither, cannot be surprising, as, even in Sanskrit, the common locative adverbs in tra, and the ablatives in tas, occur also with accusative meaning, i.e. expressing the direction to a place (see tatra in my Glossary). The Sanskṛit suffix v dha appears, in common language, abbreviated to $h a$, and is found, indeed, only in $i$-ha, "here," from the pronominal base $i$ and सह $s a-h a-$ in the Vedic dialect and Zend $s a-d h a-$ which I derive from the pronominal base sa. It ought, according to its origin, and consistently with the usual destination of the suffix dha, to mean "here or there": it has, however, become a preposition, which expresses "with." The adverb इह iha, "here," is, in Zend, vos idha," and fre-
[G. Ed. p. 400.] quently occurs in combination with oy na, "not"; so that voronj neêdhat means "nor," answering to nosly noit, "neither" (literally "not it," from na+it, §. 33.). From n>>s ava and supros aêla, "this" (mas.), comes nosn"s

* Vend. Sade, p. 368. several times: an>v/guld imañ idha vachó framrava, "haec hic verba enuntia," which Anquetil translates by "en prononçant bien ces paroles." In the same page also occurs repeatedly woy adha, with the same meaning, from the demonstrative base $a$, as in the Vêda's wy adha (Rosen's Sp. p. 10), without perceptible meaning.
$\dagger a+i$ makes $\hat{e}$, according to $\oint .2$.; and from nedha is formed, by \}.28., naedha.
avadha and veryores atta-dha (Vend. S. p. 164). To the Zend-Vêdic suffix dha corresponds most exactly the Greek
 $i$-dha, इह iha, are, with regard to their base, identical; ${ }_{\epsilon}^{\prime} \nu \theta \alpha$, therefore, is for ${ }^{\prime} \nu \theta \alpha$ from ${ }^{\prime \prime} \theta \alpha$ (comp. in, inde), as nasals are easily prefixed to another consonant, and thus $\dot{\alpha} \mu \phi \dot{c}^{\prime}$ answers to स्रभि abhi, ${ }^{\alpha} \mu \phi \omega$ to उभौ $u b h a u$, Old Sclavonic oba ;
 the Zend Nexuss avadha, whose theme ava has been contracted in the Greek to $\alpha \dot{v}$ (compare $\alpha \dot{v}-\theta l$ and $\alpha \dot{v}$-tós, the latter being combined with the article), but in the Old Sclavonic it is more correctly preserved in the form of OVO.* To the word इहस ihatya, " of this place," which is derived from इह iha through the suffix त्य tya, corresponds the Greek év $\theta$ ávios, with $\sigma$ from $\tau$; compare, with regard to the suffix, the Latin propitius from prope, and, in the Gothic, frama-thya, "a foreigner," through which the preposition fram shews itself to be an abbreviation of frama. As in the Sanskrit the suffix त्य tya belongs only to local adverbs and prepositions, so might also the Gothic ni-thyis, "cousin" (for ni-thyas, §. 135.), as propinquus, or one who stands somewhat lower in relationship than a brother, \&ce., $\dagger$ be derived from the [G. Ed. p. 401.]

[^201]ancient preposition $n i$, mentioned at p. 382, from which, in Sanskrit, nitya actually comes, but differently related, and with a signification answering less to the meaning of the preposition, namely, sempiternus. In consideration of the aspirates in Greek being easily interchanged, and, e.g. in the Doric, "OPNIX is said for "OPNIQ, one may also recognise in the syllable $\chi^{0}$, in forms like $\pi \alpha v \tau \alpha-\chi^{0}-\theta \epsilon v$, $\pi \alpha \nu \tau \alpha-\chi \dot{o}-\sigma \epsilon, \pi \circ \lambda \lambda \alpha \chi \sigma^{\circ} \sigma e$, and others, a cognate form of the suffix $\theta \alpha, d h a$, or of the corrupted ह $h a$ (comp. §. 23.). At the bottom of these forms lies, in my opinion, as the theme, the plural neuter, which need not be wondered at, as $\pi \dot{\alpha} v i \alpha \alpha$ and $\pi \circ \lambda \lambda \dot{\alpha}$ are also used as first members of compounds
 tity of its suffix with $\theta \alpha$, $d h a$, or $h a$, mean "everywhere"; whence may then be said $\pi \alpha \nu \tau \alpha \chi^{\circ}-\sigma \varepsilon$, "from everywhere," \&c., as we combine our locative adverbs wo and $d a$ with her and hin (woher, wohin); and in Greek, also, èкє̂̀ $\theta$, éкєíce, éкeî̀ev, which might literally mean in illic, versus illic, ab illic, as ékê̂ is a local adverb. Forms in $\chi^{o}$, however, are in a measure raised to themes capable of declension, though only for adverbs, and develope, also, case-forms, as $\pi \alpha v \tau \alpha \chi$ ov, $\pi \alpha \nu \tau \alpha \chi \hat{\imath}$ (old locative and dative), $\pi \alpha \nu \tau \alpha \chi \hat{\eta}$. The addition of new suffixes or terminations to those already existing, but which are obsolete, appears to me assuredly more natural than, as Buttmann supposes, the introduction of an unmeaning $\alpha \chi$ or even $\alpha \chi$ o, in which case we should have to divide $\pi \alpha \nu \tau-\alpha \chi^{\circ}-\theta e v$, \&ce. But as the $\chi{ }^{\circ}$ under discussion has arisen from $\theta \alpha, d h a$, I think I recognise in the $\chi^{\iota}$ of ${ }_{j} \chi^{l}$ a corruption of the suffix $\theta_{l}$, from fि $d h i$; in which respect might be compared ${ }^{\alpha} \gamma \chi^{\prime}$, as a sister form to

[^202]सधि adhi, "to," "towards," with a nasal introduced. As a third form in which the Vêdic-Zend suffix dha appears in Greek, I notice $\sigma e$, with $\sigma$ for $\theta$, घ् $d h$, as $\mu \epsilon \sigma o s$ from मध्य madhya, "midst," the $y$ of which has assimilated itself, in the form $\mu$ é $\sigma \sigma \sigma s$, to the $\sigma$. The suffix $\sigma e$, however, in that it is altered from its original intention to denote rest in a place, to the expression of motion to a place, answers to the Gothic th or $d$, whence we set out in this examination, in forms like hva-th, $\pi \dot{o}^{\prime}-\sigma \epsilon$, "whither?" also hvad-John xiii. 3. hvad gaggis, пô̂ úmáyeıs-yain-d, èкeî- $\epsilon$, alya-th, $\alpha_{\alpha} \lambda_{0}-\sigma e$. To the Zend idha, Greek ${ }^{\epsilon} v \theta \alpha$, corresponds $i-i h$; which, however, contrary to the original intention of the form, does not mean "thither," but is used as a con-junction-"but," "if," " then " ( 1 Cor. vii. 7.). To this class, also, belongs ath, which only occurs in combination with than -ath-than, "but," like ith-than; and it has [G. Ed. p. 402.] the Vêdic-Zend $a$-dha as prototype (§. 399.). Thad, in combination with the relative particle ei, which is probably connected with य $y a$, has preserved the original locative meaning together with the accusative, and thad-ei may be cited as "where" and "whither." The $d$ in these forms, answering to the Greek $\theta$, agrees with the rule for the transmutation of sounds (§. 87.); and it is to be observed that medials at the end of a word freely pass into aspirates-compare bauth, bu-dum (§.91.);-so that the Gothic $T$ sound of the suffix under discussion, after it has, in one direction, diverged from the Greek, has, in another, again approached it.
"Remark 2.-As we have above recognised ablatives in the formations in thro, tard, so we find in this comparative suffix, also, a remnant of the Sanskrit locative; in which, however, as in the adverbs in $t h, d$, the expression of repose in a place is changed into that of motion to a place-in hidre,', "hither," Mark xi. 3. Luke xiv. 21.; hva-dré, "whither?" John vii. 35. On the other hand, yaindré ac-

## ADJECTIVES.

tually occurs with a locative meaning; tharei leik, yaindrt
 Compare these forms with the Sanskrit, as, adhare, "in the lower," and the Lithuanian wilke (§. 197.). That, however, the Gothic $\ell$, which in the genitive plural masculine and neuter answers to the Sanskrit चा a (§. 69.), moreover corresponds to ए $\ell$, is proved by preterites like nêmum, 'we took,' answering to the singular nam; as, in Sanskrit, नेमिम nêmima, 'we bent ourselves,' answers to ननम nanama or ननाम nanama, 'I bent myself.' "
295. The superlative suffix तम tama occurs in the Gothic also in the form of TUMAN, nominative tuma, or, with $d$ for $t$ in prepositional derivations, either simply or in combination with the common superlative suffix ISTA; thus, of-tuma, "posterus," af-tumists, "postremus," hin-dumists, "extremus." If one considers the Indian suffix तम tama, to have suffered apocope of the $a$-as in Latin, also, timus appears abbreviated to tim in adverbs like viri-lim, caterva-tim, which I have already, in another place (Heidelb. Jahrb. 1818. p. 480), explained, together with forms like legi-timus, as superlatives-one may look for that tam in the Gothic cor-
[G. Ed. p. 403.] rupted to tana, after the analogy of the accusative masculine of pronouns, like tha-na $=$ तम् tam, тóv, hva-$-n a=$ कम् $k a-m$, " whom?"; and accordingly regard the prepositional derivations in tana, dana, as superlative forms; thus, Gothic af-tana, "behind"; hindana, répav, Old High German ni-dana, "under" (compare our hie-nieden, "here below." As, however, in Old High German there exist, also, formations in ana without a preceding $t$ sound (Grimm III. 203, \&ce.), it is a question whether innana "within," $u$ zana "abroad," forana shortened to forna "from the beginning," ferrana " $\pi o ́ \rho \rho \rho \rho \theta \theta e v, "$ rûmana "from a distance," hohana " íభó $\theta e v, "$ heimina "oíkoӨev,", have lost a $t$ or a $d$ preceding the $a$; or if they are formed after those in tana, dana, in the notion that the whole of the suffix consists merely of ana; or, finally, whether they rest on some other principle.

The preposition obar, " over," Gothic ufar, which answers to the Sanskrit उपरि upari, Greek vinép, has, in the same manner, an adverb obana, "above," corresponding to it.
296. In the Sanskrit the appellations of the quarters of the heavens come from prepositions in combination with the root सम्च् anch, "to go"; thus the east is denoted as "that which is before," by माश्य pranch, from प्र pra, "before"; the west as "that which is over against it ," by प्रत्यब् pratyanch, from प्रति prati, "opposite"; the south as "that below," by सबाश्व् avânch, from wa ava, "below"; and its opposite pole, the north, as "that above," is called उदघ् udanch, from उत्र ut, "up." Now it is remarkable that in German the names of the quarters of the world shew themselves through their terminations, Old High German tar and tana, or as they so frequently occur in prepositions, dar, dana, to be derivations from prepositions, though the nature of their origin has become obscure. The custom of the language disposes of the forms in $r$ and $n a$ in such a manner, that the former expresses the direction whither (Grimm. III. 205.), the latter the direction whence, which, however, was not, perhaps, the original intention of the terminations, both which seem adapted to express the same direction; the former comparatively, with a glance at [G. Ed. p. 404.] that which is opposite, the latter superlatively, in relation to all the quarters of the globe, as, p. 376, एकतर Ckatara, " one of two persons," but एकतम Clkatama, "one of many persons." The west may perhaps be most satisfactorily explained, and in fact, as being etymologically pointed out to be that which lies over against the east, as in Sanskrit. For this object we betake ourselves to the prepositional base wi, mentioned at p. 382, whence the comparative wi-dar. We do not, however, require to deduce wës-tar,*

[^203]"towards the west," wës-tana," from the west," from the derivative vidur; but we may keep to its base wi, with the assumption of a euphonic s; as in the Sanskrit, also, some prepositions terminating in vowels in certain combinations, and before consonants which are disposed to have an $s$ before them, assume this letter; e.g. pratishkaśa for pratikaśa; and as in Latin abs, os (for obs), from $a b$, ob (§.96.). But if it were preferred to deduce wëstar, wëstana, from the derivative widar, it would then be necessary to force the $d$ of derivation into the base, and, according to $\S .102$., change it into s. The east is more difficult of explanation than the west -Old High German Os $_{s}$-lar, "towards the east," $\mathrm{O}_{s}$-tana, "from the east,"-for several prepositions start up together that would gladly sustain this quarter of the heavens It is not necessary that the preposition after which the east is named should elsewhere, also, be received as a German preposition; for in this appellation a preposition might have incorporated itself, which, except in this case, is foreign to the practice of the German language.
[G. Ed. p. 405.] It may therefore be allowable for us, first of all, to turn to a preposition which, in the Indian language, is prefixed to the south, and, in the German, may have changed its position to the east; the more so, as, with prepositions, the principal point is always where one stands, and the direction to which one is turned; and one may, with perfect justice, turn that which is at the bottom to the uppermost, or to the front. In Zend, avo, which in Sanskrit signifies "below," exists as a pronoun, and means "this"; and as this pronoun is also proper to the Sclavonic ( OVO , nom. ov), and occurs in Greek as $a \dot{v}$, ( $\alpha \hat{v}-\theta$, $\alpha u ̉ \tau o ́ s$, see p. 387), it need not surprise us to find an obsolete remnant of this base in German, and that the east is taken as the side opposed to the west. Here it may be necessary to observe, that in Sanskrit the preposition ava, in like manner, annexes a euphonic $s$; from
avas, therefore, by suppressing the last $a$ but one, would arise (as in Greek $\alpha \hat{v}$ ) aus (different from our aus, Old High German $\hat{u}$, Gothic $\hat{u}$ t, in Sanskṛit उत् ut, "up "), and hence, according to §. 80 ., $\delta s$ : the old northern form is uustr, austan. The Latin aus-ter might then-to which Grimm has already alluded (Wiener Jahrb. B. 28. p. 32)be placed with more confidence beside the Old High German as a sister form, and led back by the hand of our comparative suffix to the preposition, which in Sanskrit has given its name to the south, bold as it at the first glance might appear, if we declared aus-ter and waाच् avânch (ava $+a n c h)$, "southern," to be related. The derivations from haurio, or aṽ $\omega$, certainly deserve less notice. As, however, the juxta-position of austar with the Latin auster and the Indian preposition ava, avas, is most suitable, we refrain from giving other prepositional modes in which one might arrive at the appellation of the east in German. As the most natural point of departure, we cannot place it in so subordinate a position to the west as to mark it out as "not west" ( $a$-ustar from $a-$ [G. Ed. p. 406.] -wëstar). We turn now to the south, in Old High German sun-dar, "towards the south," sundana, "from the south," the connection of which with the sundro, sundar, mentioned at p. 383, is not to be mistaken. The south, therefore, appeared to our ancestors as the remote distance, and the reason for the appellation of this quarter of the heavens being clearly in allusion to space, is a new guarantee for the prepositional derivation of the names for east and west, as also for the fact that the designation of the north, too, has subjected itself to a preposition, although it is still more veiled in obscurity than that of the three sister appellations. We cannot, however, omit calling attention to the Sanskrit preposition निस् nis, which signifies "out, without," and before sonant letters, to which $d$ belongs ( $\$$. 25.) according to a universal law of euphony, appears



































numbers above two, as that of order does to the superlatives, and hence the suffix तम tama occurs in ordinal numbers; e.g. विंशतितमस् viníati-tama-s, " the twentieth," wherefore $m a$, in forms like पब्बमस् pancha-ma-s, "the fifth," may be held to be an abbreviation of tama. To the form ish, contracted from hyas-euphonic for is-in Greek and Zend is, corresponds the Latin is, in the superlatives in is-simus, which I deduce through assimilation from is-timus (comp. §.101.); the simple is, however, which, viewed from Latin, is a contraction of $i \bar{o} s(\S .22$.$) , appears in the$ simple form in the adverb mag-is, which may be compared with $\mu$ evis in $\mu$ é $\gamma / \sigma$-Tos. In the strong cases (§.129.) the Indian comparative shews a broader form than the iyas above, namely, a long $a$ and a nasal preceding the $s$, thus ईैयांस् îydns (see §. 9.), This form, how- [G. Ed. p. 408.] ever, may originally have been current in all the cases, as the strong form in general ( $\$$. 129.), as is probable through the pervading long $\bar{o}$ in Latin, iōris, iöri, \&c., if one would not rather regard the length of the Latin $o$ as compensation for the rejected nasal: compare the old accusative mel-iösem, mentioned in §. 22., with Sanskrit forms like गरीयांसम् gar-íyäns-am (graviorem). The breadth of the suffix, which is still remarkable in the more contracted from lyas, may be the cause why the form of the positive is exposed to great reductions before it; so that not only final vowels are rejected, as generally before Taddhita suffixes* beginning with a vowel, but whole suffixes, together with the vowel preceding them, are suppressed (Gramm. Crit. §. 252.); e.g. from मतिमत् mati-mal, "intelligent," from mati, "understanding," comes mat-iyds; from balivat, " strong" ("gifted with strength,"

[^204]from bala+vat), bal-îyas; from kṣhipra, "quick" (from the base kṣhip, "to throw"), comes kshep-iyas; from kṣhudra, "insignificant," kṣhêd-îyas; from tripra, "satisfied," trap-tiyas; since with vowels capable of Guna the dropping of the suffix is compensated by strengthening the radical syllable by Guna, as in the Zend vaêdista; which Burnouf (Vahista, p. 22) deduces, as it appears to me, with equal correctness and acuteness from vîdvas (vîdvô, §. $56^{\text {b }}$., Sanskrit vidwas), "knowing." With respect to trapíyas, from tripra, let it be observed that ar, as Guna of $r i$, is easily transposed to $r a$ (Gramm. Crit. §. $34^{\mathrm{b}}$.) : compare
 p. 290, G. ed.). In a similar manner M. Ag. Benary explains the connection of variyas with uru "great," with which he rightly compares the Greek eủpús (Berl. Jahrb. 1834. I. [G. Ed. p. 409.] pp. 230, 231). But varíyas might also come from vara, "excellent," and uru might be an abbreviation of varu, which easily runs into one. To the superlative बरिध variṣ $h$ tha, which does not only mean latissimus but also optimus, the Greek ${ }^{\text {人posiotos (therefore Fápiotos) }}$ is without doubt akin, the connection of which with eúpús one could scarcely have conjectured without the Sanskrit. Remarkable, too, is the concurrence of the Greek with the Sanskrit in this point, that the former, like the latter, before the gradation suffix under discussion, disburthens itself of other more weighty suffixes (compare Burnouf's Vahista,

 others from kshipra; and I believe I can hence explain, according to the same principle, the lengthening of the vowel in $\mu \eta$ j́көтos, $\mu \hat{a} \sigma \sigma o v$, from $\mu \alpha \kappa \rho o ́ s$, on which principle also rests the Guna in analogous Sanskrit forms-namely, as a compensation for the suppression of the suffix. The case is the same with the lengthened vowel in forms like $\theta \hat{a} \sigma$ ovov, $\dot{a} \sigma \sigma o v$, where Buttmann (§. 67. Rem. 3. N. **) assumes that

## DEGREES OF COMPARISON.

the comparative , has fallen back and united itself with the $\alpha(\alpha)$; while, in my opinion, a different account is to be given of what has become of the , in forms like $\theta \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega \nu$, $\beta \rho \alpha \dot{\sigma} \sigma \omega \nu$ (§. 300.). The formation of $\mu$ é $\gamma$. $\sigma$ tos from $\mu$ é $\gamma \alpha \varsigma$, from $\mu \in ́ \gamma a \lambda o-s$, is similar to the origin, in Sanskrit, of बंहिध baihishththa, from bahula, " much"; from bahu, " much" comes bhûyishtha; and $\mu$ é $\gamma$-וбTos, in relation to MEГANO, has lost as much as banih-ishtha, compared with bahula, only that the Sanskrit positive base is compensated for the loss of $u l a$ by the addition of a nasal; which therefore, as Ag. Benary (1. c.) has very correctly remarked, rests on the same principle with the Guna in kshepishtha, \&cc.*
"Remark.-It will then, also, be necessary [G. Ed. p. 410.] -as Burnouf(Yaçna, p. 131) first pointed out, but afterwards (Vahista, p. 25), in my opinion, wrongly retracted-to explain the ए ê of śrêyas, "better," s'reéshṭha, " the best," as coming from the $i$ of śrí, "fortune," by Guna, instead of the common view, in which I formerly concurred, of substituting a useless śra as positive, and hence, by contraction with iyas, ishtha, forming śréyas, śréshtha. From śrí comes the derivative śrimat, "fortunate," from which I deduce śrel-yas, śrel-shtha, by the prescribed removal of the suffix, $t$ although one might

[^205]expect in the superlative śray-ish ṭha, euphonic for śrt-ishltha; and on this ground it is that Burnouf takes his objection But as in Greek ék é-бтos, ómó-बTos (see p. 376), in spite d the want of the $t$ of $\sigma$ tos, are nevertheless nothing else thin superlative forms, I do not see why, in certain cases, in Sanskrit, also, the suppression of an $i$ may not hold gool This happens, moreover, in sthe-sh tha from sthi-ra, "fast" sphê-shtha from sphi-ra, " swollen," and prê-shtha from priy-ch "dear." In the latter case, after removing the suffix a the preceding $y$, also, must retire, since priy is only s euphonic alteration of $\operatorname{pri}$ (Gramm. Crit. §. 51.) As to the derivation, however, of the meanings melior, optimus, from a positive with the meaning "fortunate," it may be further remarked, that, in Sanskrit, "fortune " and "splendour" are generally the fundamental notions for that which is good and excellent; hence, bhagavat, " the honourable," "the
[G. Ed. p. 411.] excellent," properly, "the man gifted with fortune "; for our besserer, bester, also Gothic bat-iza, bat-ists, are associated with a Sanskrit root denoting fortune (bhad, whence bhadra, "fortunate," "excellent"), which Pott was acute enough first to remark (Etymol. Inquiries, p. 245), who collates also botyan, "to use." The old $d$ gives, according to $\S .87$., in the Gothic $t$, and the Sanskrit ble becomes b. It might appear too daring if we made an attempt to refer melior also to this root ; but cognate words often assume the most estranged form through doubled transitions of sound, which, although doubled, are usual. It is very common for $d$ to become $l$ (\$. 17.), and also between labial medials and the nasal of this organ there prevails no unfrequent exchange
 belong to this class, and the $\tau$ be an unorganic addition, which is wanting in $\beta$ é $\lambda$-тepos, $\beta$ é $\lambda$ - $\tau \alpha \tau o \varsigma, ~ \beta e \lambda$ would then give the middle step between rद् bhad and mel. The ideal positive of $\beta e \lambda \tau i \omega \nu$, namely $\dot{\alpha} \gamma \alpha \theta$ ós, might be connected with सगाप agadha, " deep," with which, also, the Gothic goths (theme
goda) is to be compared, with $\delta$, according to rule, for wा $a$ (§. 69.), and medials for Greek aspirates, according to §. 87.
299. From the strong theme ईंयांस् iyanis, mentioned at §. 298., comes the nominative iydn, with the suppression of the final letter rendered necessary through §.94. The vocative has a short $a$, and sounds iyan. To fyan answers the Greek $\bar{i} \omega \nu$, and to the vocative iyan answers iov; to the neuter iyas (N. A. V.), identical with the weak theme, corresponds the Latin ius (§. 22.). The Greek, however, cannot become repossessed of the $s$, which is abandoned in Sanskrit in the nominative and vocative masculine for legitimate reasons, since it declines its comparative as though its theme terminated from the first with $\nu$; hence accusative $\bar{i} v-\alpha$ for the Sanskrit ईैयांसम् îyañs-am, Latin $i \bar{o} r-e m$ (iōs-em, §. 22.), genitive iov-os for îyas-as, iōr-is. However, one might, as Pott has already, I believe, noticed somewhere, reduce the contracted forms like $\beta$ हो $\lambda i \omega$, $\beta e \lambda t i o u s$, to an original io $\sigma \alpha$, ioves, io $\sigma \alpha$, corresponding to îyänsam, îyänsi (neuter plural), îyâns-as, îyas-as, the $\sigma$ of which, as is so common between two vowels, would be rejected.* On the other hand, $v$, except in [G. Ed. p. 412.] comparatives, on the presupposition that the contracted forms have rejected an $\nu$ and not $\sigma$, is suppressed only in a few
 others), which, however, the theoretic derivation of the comparative $\Sigma$ renders very embarrasing. We would therefore prefer giving up this, and assuming, that while the Sanskryit in the weak, i.e. in the majority of cases, has abandoned the former consonant of nis, the Greek, which was still less favourable to the $\nu \sigma$-, has given up the latter, as perhaps one may suppose in the oldest, as it were, preGrecian period, forms like $\beta$ e $\lambda \tau i o v \sigma \alpha$. It is, however, remarkable, that while all other European sister lan-

[^206]guages have only preserved the last element of comparative $n s$-the Latin in the form of $r$-and $w$ the Sanskrit also shews more indulgence for the $s t$ for the $n$, the Greek alone has preserved the na so that in the comparative it differs in this res] from all the other languages. Without the intervent of the Sanskrit and Zend it would be hardly possibls adduce from the European sister languages a cogr termination to the Greek i $\omega \nu$, iov; or if iör and ic $\omega \nu$ shc be compared, one would think rather of a permutation liquids,* than that after the Greek $\nu$ the prototype of Latin $r$, namely $\sigma$, has originally existed.
300. In Zend, the superlatives in urerus ista are m numerous than the corresponding ones in Sanskrit, and quire no authentication. With regard to their ther Burnouf has rendered important service, by his excell
[G. Ed. p. 413.] treatise on the Vahista; and his remarks also useful to us in Sanskrit Grammar. In form sp ista stands nearer to the Greek $\sigma \sigma 0-\mathrm{s}$ than the Indian iṣh and is completely identical with the Gothic ista, nom, is ( $\$ .135$.), as the Zend frequently exhibits $t$ for the Sans) aspirates. The comparative form which belongs to iste much more rare, but perhaps only on account of the wan occasion for its appearance in the authorities which have $b_{1}$ handed down to us, in which, also, the form in tara 1 only scantily be cited. An example of the comparat under discussion is the feminine occurs repeatedly, and to which I have already elsewh drawn attention. $\dagger$ It springs from the positive $b$ :

[^207] Still the above view of the case, which is also the one chosen by Burn
 and confirms, like other Zend forms, the theory which holds good for the Sanskrit, that other suffixes fall away before the exponents of the comparative and superlative relation under discussion. If yêh is compared with the Sanskrit feminine base $\hat{i} y a s i$, the loss of the $i$ shews itself, and then the $a$ has, through the power of assimilation of the $y(\S .42$.), become $\ell$, and $s$ has, according to $\S$. 53 ., become $h$. In the loss of the $i$ the Zend coincides with the Sanskrit forms like śre-yas, mentioned at p. 397, with which, also, bhu-yas, " more," and jyá-yas, "older," agree. Greek comparatives with a doubled $\sigma$ before $\omega v$, as креí $\sigma \sigma \omega v$, $\beta \rho \alpha ́ \sigma \sigma \omega v$, è $\lambda \alpha \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega v_{\text {, }}$ are based on this; which, according to a law of euphony very universally followed in Prâkrit, have assimilated the $y$ to the preceding consonant, as elsewhere $\alpha \lambda \lambda$ os [G. Ed. p. 414.] from $\dot{\alpha} \lambda y o s$, Gothic alya-, Latin aliu-s, Sanskrit anya, are explained (Demonstrative Bases, p. 20). In Prâkrit, in the assimilations which are extremely common in this dialect, the weaker consonant assimilates itself to the stronger, whether this precedes or follows it; thus anna, "the other," from anya, corresponds to the Greek ${ }_{\alpha} \lambda \lambda$ os; the Sanskṛit tasya, "hujus," becomes tassa; bhaviṣhyati, "he will be," becomes bhavissadi,* divya, "heavenly," divva; from

[^208]which it is clear that $v$ is stronger than $y$, as it also is more powerful than $r$; hence savva from sarva, "everyone." It is remarkable that the $i$ also of ili "thus" assimilates itself to the following $t$; hence, $t t$, which, in pronunciation, naturally leans upon the word preceding. Therefore one might thus also, without presupposition of a form $y \omega \nu$, establish the assimilation from $i \omega \nu$. As to the transition of the consonant of the positive base into $\sigma$ (крéro-$-\sigma \omega \nu, \beta \cdot \dot{\alpha} \sigma-\sigma \omega \nu, \beta \dot{\alpha} \sigma-\sigma \omega \nu, \mu \dot{\alpha} \sigma-\sigma \omega \nu$, $\dot{e} \lambda \alpha ́ \alpha-\sigma \omega \nu, \& e$.$) , to which$ the $y$ has assimilated, the transition of $\tau, \delta, \theta$, into $\sigma$ need least of all surprise us (see §. 99.); but with regard to the gutturals, the Old Sclavonic may be noticed, in which, besides what has been remarked in $\S .255$. (m.), $y, i$, and $e$ which latter comes very near the vowel combined with a $y$, and is frequently the remainder of the syllable yeexert an influence on a guttural preceding them, similar
[G. Ed. p.415.] to that which the comparative $y$ or t produces in Greek. Before the $i$, namely, of the nominative plural, and before $y_{e}$ in the dative and locative singular, as before $i$ and $y e$ of the imperative, ch becomes s; e.g. gryes-i from $g r y e c h$, as $\theta \dot{\alpha} \sigma-\sigma \omega \nu$ from $\theta \dot{\alpha} \sigma-y \omega \nu$, from $\tau \alpha \chi-; g$ becomes $\zeta$.
 from $\mu \epsilon \gamma^{-}, \dot{\lambda} \lambda \gamma^{-} ; k$ becomes $c h$, while in Greek $\kappa$ is modified in the same way as $\chi \quad \mathrm{On}$ account of the contracted nature of the $\zeta(=\delta \sigma)$ no assimilation takes place after it, but the $y$ entirely disappears, or, in $\mu \epsilon i \zeta \omega \nu$, is pressed into the interior of the word (comp. §. 119.), as in $\dot{\alpha} \mu e^{i} v \omega v, \chi$ eíp $\omega \nu$, which latter may be akin to the Sanskṛit wधर adhara, "the under (m)." consequently with aphæresis of the a (comp. §. 401.). With the superlative $\mu$ é $\gamma$ ( $\sigma$ тos compare the Zend sueressug mazista, where $S z$, according to $\$ .57$., answers to the Sanskpit $h$ of महत् mahat, "great"; while in the above serrosjunug masyêht, as in the positive masas̀ (euphonically mas̀o), s̀ stands irregularly for $z$, as if the Zend, by its permutation of consonants in this word, would vie with the Greek ; but
we find, Vend. S. p. 214, 广持vG mazyd, with $z$, which I hold
 vidvâo, "the more (literally greater) wise."
301. As in the Latin comparative a suffix has raised itself to universal currency, which in Sanskrit and Greek is only sparingly applied, but was, perhaps, originally, similarly with the form in tara, tepo-s, in universal use; so the German, the Sclavonic, and Lithuanian, in their degrees of comparison everywhere attach themselves to the more rare forms in Sanskrit and Greek; and indeed in the Gothic the suffix of the comparative shews itself in the same shortened form in which it appears in the Sanskrit, Zend, Greek, and Latin, in its combination with the superlative suffix (see §. 298. p. 395 \&cc.), namely, as is; and this most plainly in adverbs like mais, "more," whose con- [G. Ed. p. 416.] nection with comparatives in the Sanskrit, \&c., I first pointed out in the Berl. Jahrb. (May 1827, p. 742). We must divide, therefore, thus, $m a-i s$; and this word, as well in the base as in the termination, is identical with the Latin mag-is (comp. $\mu$ é $\boldsymbol{\gamma} / \sigma$-тos, p. 402); whence it is clear that the Gothic form has lost a guttural (compare ma-jor and mag-ior), which, in mikils, "great"-which has weakened the old $a$ to $i$-appears, according to the rule for the removal of letters (§. 87.), as $k$. Mais, therefore, far as it seems to be separated from it, is, in base and formation, related to the Zend maz-y $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ (from maz-yas'), which we have become acquainted with above (p. 415 G. ed.) in the sense of " more."
"Remark.-There are some other comparative adverbs in is, of which, the first time I treated of this subject, I was not in possession, and which Grimm has since (IIL 589, \&c.) represented as analogous to mais. He has however, afterwards, l. c. p. 88, agreed, with Fulda, in viewing hauhis, ג́vஸ́тepov, as the genitive of the positive hauhs, "high." Yet hauhis stands in exactly the same relation to hauhiza, "the higher," that mais does to maiza, "major." DD2

Compared with the Zend maz-y $\dot{\sigma}$ and Greek $\mu e i \zeta-\omega \nu$, one might believe the $z$ in maiza belonged to the positive base, particularly as the Old High German adds a second comparative suffix to its adverb mer, answering to the Gothic mais (mériro, 'major') because in mér no formal expression of the comparative relation was any longer felt. Raihtis, which Grimm wishes to leave under the forms which, III. p. 88, are considered as genitive, seems to me properly to signify potius, or our rechter; and 1 consider it, therefore, as a comparative, although the Old High German rëhtes, examined from the point of view of the Old High German, can only be a genitive, and the comparative adverb is rëltor. The comparative ga-raihtöza, 'justior,' which may be cited in Gothic, does not prevent the assumption that there may have been also in use a railitiza, as in all adjectives iza may just as well be expected as $\Delta z a$; for, together with the comparative adverb frum $0 z 0$, 'at first' (R. xi. 35), occurs the superlative frumists. Perhaps, however, the genius of the Old High German language has allowed itself to be deceived through the identity of the comparative suffix is with the genitive termination $i-s$; and taking some obsolete comparatives, which have been transmitted to it
[G. Ed. p. 417.] for genitives, left them the $s$, which, in evident comparatives, must pass into $r$; but is alsol still retained as $s$ in wirs, 'pejus.' I prefer to consider, also, allis, 'omnino,' as a comparative, in order entirely to exclude the Gothic apparent genitive adverbs from the class of adjectives. In the Old High German, together with alles, 'omnino,' exists alles, 'aliter,' which, according to its origin, is an essentially different word-through assimilation from alyes, as above (p. 414 G. ed.) $\alpha \lambda \lambda o s-i n$ which the comparative termination, in the Latin ali-ter and similar adverbs, is to be observed. The probability that these forms, which, to use the expression, are clothed as genitives, are, by their origin, comparatives, is still further increased thereby, that together with eines,
'semel,' and anderes, 'aliter,' there occur, also, forms in the guise of superlatives, namely, einest, 'once' (see Graff, p. 329), and anderest, 'again.' Some comparative adverbs of this sort omit, in Gothic, the $i$ of is; thus min-s, ' less' (compare minor, minus, for minior, minius), perhaps vair-s, 'worse,' which is raised anew into vairsiza, 'pejor,' and may be connected with the Sanskrit avara, 'posterus,' as above $\chi$ eip $\omega \nu$ was compared with सधर adhara; seith-s, 'amplius' (from seithu, 'late'); and probably, also, suns, 'statim,' and anaks, 'subito.' "
302. The comparative-suffix is required in Gothic, where the consonant $s$ is no longer capable of declension,* an unorganic addition, or otherwise the sibilant would have been necessarily suppressed. The language, however, preserved this letter, as its meaning was still too powerfully perceived, by the favourite addition an, which we have seen above, though without the same urgent necessity, joined to participial bases in $n d$ in their adjective state (§. 289.). As, then, $s$ comes to be inserted between two [G. Ed. p. 418.] vowels, it must, by §. 86. (5.), be changed into $z$ : hence the modern theme MAIZAN, from the original MAIS, which has remained unaltered in the adverb. The nominative masculine and neuter are, according to $\$ \S$. 140. 141., maiza, maizo. On the other hand the feminine base does not develope itself from the masculine and neuter base MAIZAN-as in general from the unorganic bases in an of the indefinite adjectives

[^209]no feminines arise-but to the original feminine base in $\hat{i}$, which exists in the Sanskrit and Zend, an $n$ is added, as in the participle present; thus MAIZEIN (ei=i, §.70.), from mais + ein, answers to the Zend feminine base of the same
 garìyas-î, from garîyas. The nominative maizei may then, according to §. 142., be deduced from MAIZEIN, or may be viewed as a continuation of the form in Zend and Sanskrit which, in the nominative, is identical with the theme (§. 137.) ; in which respect again the participle present (§. 290.) is to be compared. These two kinds of feminines, namely, of the said participle and the comparative, stand in Gothic very isolated; but the ground of their peculiarity, which Jacob Grimm, III. 566, calls still undiscovered (compare I. 756), appears to me, through what has been said, to be completely disclosed; and I have already declared my opinion [G. Ed. p. 419.] in this sense before.* The Old High German

[^210]has brought its feminine comparatives into the more usual path, and gives, as corresponding to the Gothic minnizei, "the lesser" (fem.), not minnirí, but minnira. The Gothic sibilant, however, was, in the High German comparatives, in the earliest period transmuted into $r$, whence, in this respect, minniro, minnira, has more resemblance to the Latin minor than to the Gothic minniza, minnizei.
303. The comparative suffix in the Gothic, besides is, $i z-a n$, exhibits also the form $\delta s, \Delta z-a n$ : it is, however, more rare; but in the Old High German has become so current, that there are more comparatives in it in 6 ro (nominative masculine), ora (nominative feminine and neuter), than in iro, ira, or ëro, ëru. The few forms in $\bar{O} Z A N$ which can be adduced in Gothic are, svinthdza, "fortior" (nominative masculine), frôdoza, "prudentior," frumdza, "prior," hlasoza, "hilarior," garaihtotza, "justior," framaldrdza, "provectior atate," usdaudoza, " sollicitior," unsvikunthdza, "inclurior" (Massmann, p. 47), and the ad-
 How, then, is the $\sigma$ in these forms to be explained, contrasted with the $i$ of $I S, I Z A N$ ? I believe only as coming from the long $a$ of the Sanskrit strong themes iydnis or yans (\$§. 299. 300.), with $\sigma$, according to rule, for बा $\hat{a}$ (§. 69.). If one starts from the latter [G. Ed. p. 420.] form, which, in the Zend, is the only one that can be adduced, then, beside the nasal, which is lost also in the Latin and in the weak cases in the Sanskrit, ydais has lost in the Gothic either the $a$ or the $y(=j)$, which, when the $a$ is suppressed, must be changed into a vowel. The Gothic $\delta s, d z$, and still more the Old High German $\delta r$, correspond, therefore, exactly to the Latin or in minor, $\min \theta r-i s$, for minior. There is reason to assume that, in the Gothic, originally $y$ and 6 existed in juxta-position to one another; and that for minniza, "the lesser," was used minnydza, and for frodoza, "the more intelligent," frodydza,

The forms which have lost the $y$ are represented in $L$ by minor, minus, and plus, and those with $\delta$ suppressed mag-is. One cannot, however, in Gothic, properly req any superlatives in $\bar{O} S T A$, nom. $6 s t-s$, corresponding to comparatives in $\delta \delta, \delta z$; because this degree in the $S$ skrit, Zend, Greek, and Latin always springs from form of the comparative, contracted to is, ish. It is, $h$ ever, quite regular, that, to the frumbza, " prior," correspo a frumists, "primus," not frumbsts. To the remain comparatives in $\delta z a$ the superlative is not yet adduc but in the more recent dialects the comparatives $h$ formed superlatives with 6, after their fashion; and tl in the Old High German, ost usually stands in the sul lative, where the comparative has $\begin{gathered} \\ r\end{gathered}$ : the Gothic furnis two examples of this confusion of the use of language lasivîsts, "infirmissimus" (1 Cor. xii. 22.), and armêsts, "mi rimus" (1 Cor. xv. 19.).
304. In the rejection of the final vowel of the positive $b$ before the suffixes of intensity the German agrees with cognate languages; hence sut'-iza, from SUTU*, "swee
[G. Ed. p. 421.] hard'-iza, from HARDU, "hard"; seil (thana-seiths, "amplius"), from SEITHU, " late "; as in Greek $\dot{\eta} \delta i(\omega \nu$ from ' $\mathrm{H} \Delta \mathrm{Y}$, and in the Sarskrit laghîyas fr layhu, "light." $\quad \underset{Y}{ } a$ is also rejected; hence spêd'-iza, fr SPEDYA, "late" (see p. 358, Note 7.); reik'-iza, fr $R E 1 K Y A$, "rich." One could not therefore regard the $\boldsymbol{\theta}$. forms like $f r d d \delta z a$, as merely a lengthening of the $a$ in $F R \bar{O}$. (8. 69.), as it would be completely contrary to the princi of these formations, not only not to suppress the final vo of the positive base, but even to lengthen it. The exi nation of the comparative $\boldsymbol{\delta}$ given at $\S .303$. remains theref the only one that can be relied upon.

[^211]305. In the Old Sclavonic, according to Dobrowsky, p. 332, \&c., the comparative is formed in three ways, namely,
(1) By masculine $\bar{u}$, feminine shi, neuter yee; as, anii, "the better (m.)"; Anshi, " the better (f.)"; Inyee, "the best (n.)," from a positive which has been lost, as batizn, melior, and $\dot{\alpha} \mu e^{i} v \omega \nu$; and it is perhaps connected in its base with the latter, so that $\alpha$ may have become $o$ ( $\S .255 . a$.), but $\mu, \breve{u}$, as frequently occurs with $n$; and this $\breve{u}$, with the preceding
 neuter mnyee, spring, in like manner, from a positive which has been lost. Bolii, "the greater," fem. bolshi, neuter bolyee, may be compared with the Sanskrit balíyann, "the stronger" (p. 396), fem. balíyasí, neuter balíyas. $\dagger$ For [G. Ed. p. 422.] boliĭ is also used bolyeri; and all the remaining comparatives which belong to this class have yeĭ for $i \check{u}$, and thus answer better to the neuter form yee. If, as appears to be the case, the form yeï is the genuine one, then ye answers to the Sanskrit yas of jyd-yas, bhti-yas, sre-yas, \&cc. (§. 300 .), and the loss of the $s$ is explained by $\delta .255$. (l.): the final $i$ of $y e-i$, however, is the definitive pronoun (§. 284.), for comparatives always follow, in the masculine and neuter, the definite declension. In the feminine in shi it is easy to recognise the Sanskryit si of iyas-i, or yas-i, and herewith also the Gothiczei (oblique theme ZE1N,

[^212]p. 418 G. ed.); that is to say, bol-shi, "the greater (fem.)," corresponds to the Sanskṛit बलीयसी baliyasi, "the stronger (f.)," and menshi, "the lesser," to the Gothic minn-izei. While, therefore, the Sclavonic masculine and neuter have lost the $s$ of the Sanskrit yas, the feminine has lost the ya of yas-i.* This feminine shi, also, in departure from (2) and (3), keeps free from the definite pronoun. There are some comparative adverbs in $e$, as the abbreviation of $y e(\S .255 . n$.), which in like manner dispense with the definite pronoun; thus, thed "better"; bole, "greater"-in Servian MSS. ûnye, bolye; [G. Ed. p. 423.] pache, "more," probably related to $\pi \alpha \chi$ ús, $\pi \hat{a} \sigma \sigma \omega \nu$; so that (which is very obscure) the final vowel of pache for pach-ye, for reasons which have been given before, is, in fact, identical with the Greek $\sigma o$ of $\pi \hat{a} \sigma-\sigma o v$, for $\pi \alpha \sigma-y o v$. The $c h$ of pache may, according to p. 415 G. ed., be regarded as a modification of $k$, as the first $\sigma$ of $\pi \bar{\alpha} \sigma \sigma o v$ has developed itself from $\chi$. Thus the $\zeta$ of dol $\zeta$-yee, "longer" (neuter and adverbial), as euphonic representative of the $g$ of dolg, dolga, dolgo (longus, $a, u m$ ), answers remarkably to the Greek $\zeta$ in $\mu e i \zeta \omega \nu$, $\dot{\delta} i \zeta \omega \nu$, for $\mu e i \gamma \omega \nu$, ó $\lambda i \gamma \omega \nu$. That, however, the positive dolg is connected with the Greek סo入ixós needs scarce to be mentioned. Somewhat more distant is the Sanskrit दीष्ष् dirgha-s, of the same meaning, in which the frequently-occurring interchange between $r$ and $l$ is

[^213]to be noticed (§.20.). The 1 of סondoos, however, shews itself, by the evidence of the Sclavonic and Sanskrit, to be an organic addition. Let garyee, "pejus," be compared with the Sanskrit gariyas, " gravius," from guru, "heavy "according to Burnouf's correct remark from garu, as this adjective is prononnced in Pâli-through the assimilating influence of the final $u$, to which the kindred Greek $\beta \alpha \rho v_{s}$ has permitted no euphonic reaction.
(2) The second, by far the most prevalent form of the Old Sclavonic comparative, is nominative masculine shiz, feminine shaya, neuter shee. The $i$ of shiü is the definitive pronoun, which, in the feminine, is $y a$, and in the neuter $e$ for $y e$ ( $\$ \S .282 .284$. ). After the loss, then, of this pronoun, there remains shi, sha, she; and these are abbreviations of shyo, shya, shye, as we have seen, p. 332, G. ed., the adjective base SINYYO (nominative siny), before its union with the defining $i$, contracted to $\operatorname{sini}(\operatorname{sini} i-x$, neuter sine-e for sinye-ye. The definite feminine of SINYO is sinya-ya; and as to the feminine comparatives not being shya-ya but sha-ya, this rests on the special ground that sibilants gladly free themselves from a following $y$, especially [G. Ed.p.424.] before $a$ (Dobrowsky, p. 12); so in the feminine nominatives dûsha, sûsha, chasha, for sûsya, \&c. (Dobr. p. 279). The relation of the comparative form under discussion to the Sanskryit यस् yas and Zend wass yas̀ (p. 401) is therefore to be taken thus, that the $y a$ which precedes the sibilant is suppressed, as in the above feminines in shi ; but for it, at the end, is added an unorganic YO, which corresponds to the Gothic-Lithuanian $Y A$ in the themes NIUY $A, N A U Y A$, "new," answering to नब nava, NOVU, NEO, Sclavonic NOVO. This adjunct YO has preserved the comparative sibilant in the masculine and neuter, which, in the first formation, must yield to the euphonic law, §. 255. (1.) Examples of this second formation are, in-shix, "the better ( $m$.)," feminine

## ADJECTIVES.

$\hat{u n}_{n-s h a y a}$, neuter $\hat{u}_{n}$-shee ; pâst-shiz from pâst, theme PUSTO, "desert." Hence it is clear that the final vowel of the positive base is rejected, as in all the cognate languages, however difficult the combination of the $t$ with sh. Even whole suffixes are rejected, in accordance with §. 298.; as, glâb-shüü from glûbok, "deep" (definite, glâboky-ĭ), sladshii from sladok, "sweet."*
(3) Masculine yěshiŭ, feminine yeĭshaya, neuter yeĭshee; but after $s c h, s h$, and $c h, a \check{ }$ stands for $y e \check{l}$ : and this air evidently stands only euphonically for yaŭ, since the said sibilants, as
[G. Ed. p. 425.] has been already remarked, gladly divest themselves of a following $y$ : hence blasch-aishü, "the better" (masculine), from blag (theme BLAGO), "good," $\dagger$ since $g$, through the influence of the $y$ following, gives way to a sibilant, which has subsequently absorbed the $y$; compare $\dot{\partial} \lambda i \zeta-\omega \nu$, for $\dot{\partial} \lambda i \gamma-i \omega \nu$, $\hat{\sigma}^{\prime} \lambda \gamma-y \omega \nu$ (p. 402): so tish-aishü, from tich (theme TICHO), "still," $\ddagger$ as in the Greek $\theta \dot{\alpha} \sigma-\sigma \omega \nu$ from taxús. As example of the form

[^214]with yĕ, yûn-yeisshiŭ, "junior," from yûn, may serve. Whence comes, then, the yeĭ or $a \breve{\imath}$ (for $y a \breve{\imath}$ ), which distinguishes this formation from the second? It might be supposed that to the first formation in yee, where, for example, also yûn-yei," "the younger (m.)," occurs, that of the second has also been added, as in Old High German mêrero, " the greater " (masculine), and in Gothic, probably, vairsiza, "the worse" (p. 405), are raised twice to the comparative degree; and as, in Persian, the superlatives in terin, in my opinion, contain, as their last element, the comparative ईयांस् $\hat{\text { indun }}$, which forms, in the nominative masculine, fyan, and from this could be easily contracted to in. In Persian the comparative is formed through ter; as, behter, "the better," whence behterin, "the best." Now it deserves remark, that in Old Sclavonic the formation before us frequently ocecurs with a superlative meaning, while in the more modern dialects the superlative relation is expressed through the comparative with nai, " more," prefixed (probably from maĭ $=$ Gothic mais, according to §. 225. l.). The only objection to this mode of explanation [G. Ed. p. 426.] is this, that the element of the first formation ye-亢 has not once laid aside the definitive pronoun $i$, which is foreign to the comparative; so that therefore in yûn-yeĭ-shiz the said pronoun would be contained twice. There is, however, another way of explaining this yěshuz̆ or (y)ăshiü, namely, as an exact transmission of the Sanskrit iyas or yas, from which the second formation has only preserved the sibilant; but the third, together with this letter, may have retained also that which preceded. Still, even in this method, the $i$ of yer, (y)ă̌, is embarrassing, if it be not assumed that it owes its origin to a transposition of the $i$ of $i y a$.
306. As to the remark made at p. 400, that among the European languages the Greek only has preserved the nasal, which the Sanskrit shews in the strong cases of the comparative suffix iydrs, I must here admit a limitation in
favour of the Lithuanian, which, exceeding in this point the Greek, continues not only the nasal,* but also the comparative sibilant through all the cases. For an example, gerésnis, "the better" (m.), may serve, with which we would compare the Sanskrit garíyänisam, " graviorem" (nominative garíydn). It may be, but it is not of much consequence to us, that gerêsnis and garíyäis (strong theme) are also connected in the positive base; so that, as according to p. 398, in Greek and Gothic goodness is measured by depth, in Lithuanian it is measured by weight. The Sanskrit comparative under discussion means, also, not only "heavier," or "very heavy," but also, according to Wilson, " highly venerable." In order, however, to analyze the Lithuanian gerésnis, we must observe that gerésnis stands for gerésnias, and the theme is clearly GERÉSNIA; hence genitive gerésnio, dative gerésniam; as géro, gerám, from géra-s.
[G. Ed. p. 427.] The termination ia, therefore-for which $y a$ might be expected, the $y$ of which, as it appears for the avoiding of a great accumulation of consonants, has been resolved into $i$-corresponds to the unorganic addition which we, p. 411, have observed in Sclavonic comparatives. We have now geresn remaining, which $\mathbf{I}$ regand as a metathesis from gerens,, through which we come very near the Sanskrit garíyans. - But we come still nearer to it through the observation, that, in Lithuanian, $e$ is often produced by the euphonic influence of a preceding $y$ or $i$ (§. 193). We believe, therefore, that here also we may explain gerésn as from geryasn (geryans), and further recall attention to the Zend serrossusug masyehzz ( $\$ .300$.).

* In the Lith. comparative adverbs like daugiaus, "more," maźans, "less," I regard the $u$ as the vocalization of the $n$; thus daugiaus from daugians, where ians=Skr. iyans of the strong cases.
$\dagger$ This has been already alluded to by Grimm (III. 635, Note *), who has, however, given the preference to another explanation, by which esnis is similarly arrived at with the Latin issimus.

The emphasis upon the $e$ of géresnis may be attibutable to the original length in the Sanskrit strong theme gariydus. Hence the astonishing accuracy may justly be celebrated with which the Lithuanian, even to the present day, continues to use the Sanskṛit comparative suffix iydris, or rather its more rare form preferred in Zend $y a \hat{n}$ s.
307. The Lithuanian superlative suffix is only another modification of the comparative. The nasal, that is to say, which in the latter is transposed, is, in the superlative, left in its original place: it is, however, as often happens, resolved into $u,{ }^{*}$ and to the $s$ which ends the theme in the Sanskṛit, which, in Lithuanian, is not declinable (§. 128.), is added $i a$ : hence GERAUSIA, the nominative of which, however, in departure from gerésnis, has dropped, not the $a$, but the $i$; thus gerausa-s, gen, gerausio, and, in the feminine, gerausa, gerausios ; in which forms, [G. Ed. p.428.] contrary to the principle which is very generally followed in the comparative and elsewhere, the $i$ has exercised no euphonic influence.
"Remark.-With respect to the Sanskr!it gradationsuffixes tara, tama, I have further to add, that they also occur in combination with the inseparable preposition उत् $u t$; hence ut-tara, 'the higher,' ut-tama, 'the highest,' as above (§. 295.) af-tuma, and in Latin ex-timus, in-timus. I think, however, I recognise the base of $u t$-tara, ut-tama, in the Greek ús of $\ddot{v} \sigma-\tau \in \rho o s, \ddot{v} \sigma-\tau \alpha \tau o s$, with the unorganic spir. asp., as in èкáтepos, corresponding to the Sansḳ̣it êkatara-s, and with $\sigma$ from $\tau$ (compare §. 99.), in which it is to be remarked that also in the Zend for ut-tara, ut-tama, according to §. 102., us-tara, us-tema, might be expected.

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## NUMERALS.

CARDINAL NUMBERS.
308. I. In the designation of the number one great difference prevails among the Indo-European languages, which springs from this, that this number is expressed by pronouns of the sd person, whose original abundance affords satisfactory explanation regarding the multiplicity of expressions for one. The Sanskrit êka, whose comparative we have recognised in the Greek éxárepos, is, in my opinion, the combination of the demonstrative base $\&$ of which hereafter, with the interrogative base ka, which also, in combination with api, "also" (nom. masc. kd ${ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$ ), signifies "whoever"; and even without this api, if an irterrogative expression precedes, as Bhagavad-Gîtâ, II. 21, कर्य स पुरष: पार्य बर्त घातयदि हनि बम् kathan sa purushak Partha kan ghatayati hanti kam, "How can this person, 0 Pârtha, cause one to be slain, (or)slay one?" The Zend
[G. Ed. p. 429.] aêva, is connected with the Sanskrit pronominal adverbs êva," "also," "only," \&cc, and êvam, "so," of which the latter is an accusative, and the former, perhaps, an instrumental, according to the principle of the Zend language (§. 158.). The Gothic ain's, theme AINA, our einer, is based on the Sanskrit defective pronoun enna (§. 72.) whence, among others, comes the accusative masculine éna-m, "this." To this pronominal base belongs, perhaps, also the Old Latin oinos, which occurs in the Scipionian epitaphs, from which the more modern unus may be deduced, through the usual transition of the old $\breve{u}$ into $u$, which latter is lengthened to make up for the $i$ suppressed. Still anus shews, also, a surprising resemblance to the Sanskrit una-s, which properly means "less," and is prefixed to the higher numerals in order to express diminution by one; as, unavinshati, "undeviyinti," anatrinshat, "undetriyinta." This inas could
not have appeared in Latin, more accurately retained than under the form of $\begin{aligned} & \text { inu-s, or, more anciently, ano-s. The }\end{aligned}$ Greek 'EN is founded, it is highly probable, in like manner, on the demonstrative base एन ena, and has lost its final vowel, as the Gothic $A I N A$, in the masculine nominative ains: with respect to the é for $\ell$ compare éxárepos. On the other hand, oios, " unicus," if it has arisen from oivos compare oinos), as $\mu$ ei $\zeta \omega$ from $\mu e i \zeta o v a$, has retained the Indian diphthong more truly, and has also preserved the final vowel of एन ena. If övos, the number one in dice, really has its name from the idea of unity, one might refer this word to the demonstrative base wन ana, Sclavonic ONO (nominative on, "that"), which also plays a part in the formation of words, where ov $\bar{\eta}$ corresponds to the Sanskrit suffix and (feminine of the masculine and neuter ana), if it is not to be referred to the medial participle in dina, as $\mu o v \eta$ to mâna. The Old Sclavonic, yedin, " one," is clearly connected with the Sanskṛit सादि $A d i$, "the first," with $y$ which has been prefixed according to $\S .255$. (n.): on the other hand, in the Lithuanian wiena-s, [G: Ed. p. 430.]
if it is connected with the Gothic AINA and Sanskpit एन ena, an unorganic $w$ has been prefixed. In regard to to the ie for ₹ $\ell$ compare, also, wies- $t$ e, "knowledge," with बेfि vedmi, "I know."
"Remark.-The German has some remarkable expressions, in which the number one lies very much concealed as to its form, and partly, too, as to its idea: they are, in Gothic, haihs, "one-eyed," hanfs, "one-handed," halts, "lame," and halbs, "half," In all these words the number one is expressed by $h a$; and in this syllable I recognise a corruption of the abovementioned Sanskrit क $k a$ for एक $\ell k a$, "one," which is founded on the universal rule for the mutation of consonants (§. 87.). It would be erroneous to refer here to the Zend ha-kerrĕt, " once " (Sanskp̣it सकृत् sakrit), as the Zend bu $h$
stands, without exception, for the Sanskrit स् $s$, to which the $h$ in Gothic never corresponds.* J. Grimm compares haihs with caccus (II. 316), not with the purpose of following out the origin of these cognate words, but in order to prove the transition of the tenuis into the aspirate; for the simple aspiration stands in Gothic instead of $k h$, which is wanting. These words are, however, so far connected, that, in both, the word eye is contained. It is only the question whether the one-eyed in Latin has also lost the other eye, and if the blind (cacus), in regard to etymology, has not preserved one eye left. This appears to me more probable than that the blind in Gothic should recover his sight, though but with one eye. The theme of haihs is HAIHA: one may, then, divide HAIHA into HA-IHA or into H-AIHA; thus the latter portion of this compound word is assuredly connected with the word खष्य akşha, "eye," in Sanskrit, which only occurs at the end of compounds; so that of the compounded \& kṣh only the first portion is left, while the Zend guss ashi, "eye"-which, in like manner, I have found only at the end of compound words, as €\{ఝuduuns>>uar csvas-ashîm, " the six-eyed "-has preserved the last element: the Latin ocus, however (the primitive base of oculus), preserves only the first like the Gothic. If in HAIHA the diphthong ai is left entirely to the share of the eye, we must assume that the $a$ is introduced through the euphonic influence of the $h(\S .82$.$) , and that AIHA stands for$ [G. Ed. p.431.] $I H A$, and this for $A H A$; as fimf from पष्ब pancha; fidvor from चत्वार् chatwarr. But if the $a$ of $H A 1 H A$ is allotted to the numeral, which appears to me more correct, then the $h$ in this word has not introduced any euphonic $a$, because, with the aid of the first member of the compound, the

[^216]disposition of the $h$ to $a i$ was already satisfied. We must further recall attention to the Latin cocles, in which, however, the notion of unity is evidently represented only by the $c$, for the o must be left to the ocles as a derivative from oculus : cøcus, however, if $e$ is the correct way of writing, and if the number one is contained therein, would spring from ca-icus; and the Indian $a$, therefore, is weakened, as in Gothic, to $i$, which, in Latin compounds, is the usual representative of an $a$ of the base (§. 6.). Let us now examine the one-handed. Its theme is, in Gothic, HAUFA, nominative abbreviated haufs; so that here, ns in a skein, two bases and a pronominal remnant, as mark of case, lie together. The numeral is here the most palpable element: it is more difficult to search out the hand. In the isolated state no theme nfa could be expected; but in compounds, and also in prefixed syllables of reduplication, a radical vowel is often rejected; as, in the Sanskrit जग्मिम jagmima, " we went," of the root गम् gam, only $g m$ is left; and in the Greek, $\pi i \pi \tau \omega$ for $\pi \imath \pi \in ́ \tau \omega$, ПЕТ, which corresponds to the Sanskrit पत् pat, "to fall," is abbreviated to $\pi \pi$. We shall, therefore, be compelled to assume that a vowel has fallen out between the $n$ and $f$ of $H A$-NFA. If it was an $i$ which was displaced, then NIFA might pass as a transposition of the Sanskrit पारिए pani, "hand," with $f$ for $p$, according to §. 87. In $H A-L T A$, "lame"-nominative halts-must ha again pass for a numeral, and ha-lta may originally signify " one-footed," for it is (Mark ix. 45.) opposed to the Gothic tvans foluns habandin, "having two feet," where it is said 'it is better for thee to enter into life with one foot, than having two feet to be cast into hell.' It is at least certain, that a language which had a word for one-footed would very fitly have applied it in this passage. If the last element, however, in HA-LTA means the foot, we must remember that, in Sanskrit, several appellations of this member are derived from roots which mean "to go." Now, there is, in
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Gothic, a root LITH, "to go," with an aspirated $t$, indeed; but in compounds the consonants do not always remain on the same grade which they adopt in the simple word;
[G. Ed. p. 432.] e.g. the $t$ of quatuor appears as $d$ in many derivatives and compounds, without this $d$ thereby dissembling its original identity with the $t$ of quatuor and बतुर् chatur. So, then, HA-LTA may stand for HA-LITHA ; and it may be remarked, that from the root LIT comes, also, lithus, "the limb," as that which is moveable. Before I pass on to the explanation of halb, I must mention that J. Grimm divides the pronoun selber, as it appears to me very properly, into two parts; so that the syllable si of the Gothic silba devolves on the reciprocal (sci-na, si-s, si-k). With respect to the last portion, he betakes himself to a verb liban, "to remain," and believes that silba may, perhaps, have the meaning of "that which remains in itself, enduring." Be this as it may, it is clear that halbs -the theme is HALBA-might be, with equal right, divided into two parts; and it appears to me, that, according to its origin, this word can have no better meaning than, perhaps, "containing a part"; so that the ideas one and a part, remnant, or something similar, may be therein expressed, and, according to the principle of the Sanskrit possessive compounds, the notion of the possessor must be supplied, as in the already explained hails, "having one eye." In the Gothic, also, laiba means "remnant." It scarcely needs remark, that hall is no original and simple iden, for which a peculiar simple word might be expected, framed to express it. The half is one part of the whole, and, in fact, equal to the absent part. The Latin dimidius is named after the middle through which the division went. The Zend has the expression effrovy naema, for halb, according to a euphonic law for nêma, which in Sanskrit, among other meanings, signifies "part": this is probably the secondary meaning, and the half, as part of the whole,
the original. If it is so, नेम nema appears to me a very ingenious designation for a half, for it is a regular contraction of न na, "not," and इम ima, "this or that "; and the demonstrative therefore points at the "this or that " portion of the whole excluded by the negative na. In Sanskrit, halb is termed, among other appellations, सामि sami, in which one recognises both the Latin semi and the Greek $\dot{\eta} \mu$; and the three languages agree in this also, that they use this word only without inflection at the beginning of compounds. As to its origin, सामि sami may be viewed as a regular derivative from सम sama, "equal," "similar," by a suffix $i$, by which the suppression of the final vowel, and widening of the initial vowel of the primitive, become necessary. If this explanation is well founded, [G. Ed. p. 433.] then in this designation of halb only one part of the whole, and, indeed, one equal to the deficient part, would be expressed, and the मामि sami would be placed as ëtepov over against the deficient ë́ éepov; and the Sanskrit and German supply each other's deficiencies, so that the former expresses the equality, the latter the unity, of the part; i.e. each of the two languages only semi-expresses the half. As to the relation, however, of the Greek ${ }_{\eta}^{\mu} \mu \sigma v_{s}$ to $\dot{\eta} \mu$, it follows from what has been already said-that the latter is not an abbreviation of the former, but the former is a derivation from the latter; and indeed I recognise in $\sigma v$ the Sanskrit possessive swa, "suus," which, remarkably enough, in Zend enters into combinations with numerals with the meaning
 chathru-shva, "a fourth part." In the accusative these

 very near to the Greek $\sigma \nu \nu$ of $\eta_{\mu}{ }^{\prime} / \sigma v v$. ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{H} \mu$ - $\sigma \nu S$ means therefore, "having one equal part," and the simple $\dot{\eta} \mu$ means only the equal. The Sanskrit designation of "the whole" deserves further to be mentioned, सकलम् sa-kala-s,
which, as signifying that which joins the parts and unites them, is opposed to the German halb as applying to one part, and in a measure furnishes a commentary and guarantee for the correctness of my view of the latter. The word सकल salala consists, though this is scarcely perceptible, of स sa, " with," and कला kald, "part," so that, if the latter is regarded in the dual relation-and the last member of a compound may express each of the three numbers-सकल sakala expresses that in which the two parts are together. Thus the word समय sum-agra, "full," is used especially in regard to the moon, as a body with points, i.e. that in which the two points touch one another. Transposed into Greek relations of sound sakala-s would give, perhaps, о́калоs, or о́келоз, or óкoخos; but from this the present ${ }^{\circ} \lambda$ os has rejected the middle syllallable, as is the case in kópos, koûpos, compared with कुमारस् kumâra-s, "a boy."
309. II. The theme of the declension is, in Sanskrit, duea, which is naturally inflected with dual terminations: the Gothic gives for it tva, according to $\S .87$., and inflects it, in the want of a dual, as plural, but after the manner of pronouns:
[G. Ed. p. 434.] nominative tvai, tvôs, tva; dative tvaim; accusative tvans, thvds, tva.* The Sanskrit displays in the dual

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old $v$ is, in the same way, resolved into the $u$, but the final vowel of the base is not abandoned: $\delta v^{\prime} \omega$ answers to the Vêdic masculine dwd (8. 208.); but in distinguishing the genders the Greek is surpassed by the Latin and the other European sister languages. The Lithuanian has du in the nominative masculine, and $d w i$ in the nominative feminine; with the closer explanation of which, and their dual declension, we will not here occupy ourselves further. It is, however, to be remarked of the Sanskrit numeral, that the $a$ of $d w a$ is, in the beginning of compounds, weakened to $i$ (compare §. 6.): hence $d w i$, which is represented by the native grammarians as the proper theme (comp. p. 102). The Greek, in which $\delta F /$ is inadmissible, gives in its stead $\delta_{l}$; hence, $\delta \delta_{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta}_{\tau} \tau \omega \rho=$ fिमातृ dwimatri (theme), "having two mothers." The Zend and Latin agree in the corruption of this dwi very remarkably, in this point, that they have both dropped the $d$ and have both hardened the $v$ to $b$; hence ugureruspavess bipaitistana, "with two nipples," like biceps, bidens, and others. From this abbreviated bi, comes, in both languages, also the adverb bis, "twice," in contrast to the Sanskrit duis and Greek $\delta i s$ : the Greek $\delta$ b, however, in compounds, cannot be regarded as an abbreviation of $\delta i s$, as is wont to be done. The German dialects, with exception of the Old High Ger-
[G. Ed. p. 436.] man, require, according to §. 87., tvi for dvi, as the initial member of compounds; this is furnished by the Anglo-Saxon in compound words like tvi-fele, "bipes," tvi-finger, "duos digitos longus," tvi-hive, "bicolor." The Old High German gives zui (=zwi) or qui; e.g. zui-beine, "bipes," qui-falt, "duplex" (Grimm III. 956.). The adverb zuiro, more fully zuiror, also quiro, "twice," belongs, according to its formation, but not without the intervention of another word, to the above $d w i s$, dis, bis; but it is clear, from the Old Northern tris-var, that ro has arisen from sva by apocope of the $a$ and vocalization of the $v$, perhaps more
anciently to $u$, and thence to $o(\$ .77$.$) as in dëo (also diu),$ "a servant," genitive diwe-s, from the base DIWA. Whence comes, however, the Old Northern svar, which occurs also in thrisvar, "thrice," and with which the English $c e$ in twice, thrice, is connected. I believe that the $s$, which precedes the var, is certainly identical with the $s$ of द्विस् dwis, סi's, and चिस् tris, тpis, but the annexed var corresponds to the Sanskrit substantive vadra, which signifies period and time; hence êkavara, "once" (see Haughton), and vâramvâram, "repeatedly." Hence comes the Persian bâr, e.g. badr-i, "once"; and as the original meaning of this word is "time," and we have already seen, in Persian, the transition of the $v$ into $b$, we may hence very satisfactorily explain the Latin ber in the names of months; and Septem-ber, therefore, is literally the seven-time, i.e. the seventh time-segment of the year. But to return to the Old Northern svar, in trisvar, thrisvar, which we must now divide into tris-var, thris-var, according to the explanation which has been given, the idea of time, is expressed therein twice, which is not surprising, as in the Old High German mériro, also mentioned above, the comparative suffix is twice contained, because it is no longer felt the first time, by the genius of the language, with sufficient clearness. As then, in Old High German, first the $r$, and more lately also the $o$ (from $v$ ), of $s$-var has been dropped, we see, in the Middle High [G. Ed. p. 437.] German drir, from dris, the form again returned into the original limits of the Sanskrit-Greek tris.
310. III. The theme is, in the Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, Lithuanian, and Old Sclavonic, TRI, whence in the Gothic, according to §. 87., THRI, and exactly the same in Zend, according to another law of sound (§. 47.). The declension of this base is, in most of the languages mentioned, perfectly regular: it is only to be remarked of the Gothic, in which, however, all the cases cannot be
adduced, that on account of the word being monosyllabic, the $i$ is not suppressed before vowel terminations, but becomes iy (compare the Pâli, §.226.): hence the genitive thriy-t, and nominative neuter thriy-a (§. 233.). Besides these, the dative thri-m and the accusative thri-ns may be cited. The Sanskrit forms the genitive from an extended theme traya, hence tray $\hat{\alpha}-n-\hat{d} m$; while the Zend thry-anim or thray-aim comes from the original base. Both languages, however, agree in this, that fotri, $\sqrt[2]{ } 6$ thri, is only a theme of the masculine and neuter; and although, according to its termination, it might quite as well be assigned to the feminine, nevertheless the feminine number has an appellation peculiar to it, which is rather different from tri, thri, of which the theme is tisar (fिसृ tisri, §. 1.), the $a$ of which, in the Sanskrit nominative, accusative, and vocative, is irregularly suppressed; hence तिस्टस tisras $\dagger$ for tisaras, Zend प̣/دasspo tisard.
[G. Ed. p. 438.] 311. IV. The Sanskrit feminine theme चतसर् chatasar (chatasri) follows the analogy of the tisar just mentioned; and the similarity between the two forms is so great that it appears, which is perhaps the fact, that the number three is contained in the fourth numeral; so that tisr-as would be a weakened form of tasr-as, and the cha prefixed to the number four would be identical with the particle, which means "and," and which, in other places, is attached to the end of the word. If one wished to press still farther into the deep mystery of the appellations of numbers, one might moot the question whether

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is introduced (\$.246.). In the Zend the strong theme is 2woskur chathwodr, according to §. 47.; hence, nom. masc. W/wortap chathwart; and the weak theme is, by trans-
 (accus. sing.), Vend. S. p. 248. For the Sanskrit genitive
 pp. 204 and 206, with $a$ inserted, 6 qupucishop chathrusanainm); but in the beginning of compound words it is more frequently found $\varepsilon$ /vortup chathware, so that the weakening consists merely in the shortening of the $a$, and, according to §.44., an $\check{e}$ is added to the $r$; as chatwaré paitistanyao, "of her with four teats" (gen. fem., Vend. S. p. 83). As to the European sister languages, one must expect, according to §. 14., for ch, gutturals and labials, hence, in Gothic fidvor, and aspirates for smooth letters, according to §. 87. This fidvir is based on the strong theme वतार् chatudr, but in the state of declension extends the theme by an unorganic $i$, hence dative fidvori-m, the only adduceable case. In Old Northern the nom. masc. is fidri-r.
[G. Ed. p. 440.] The original theme fidvor appears in the compound fidvor-tiguns, "forty" (accus.): on the other hand, fidur in fidur-dogs, "four days," is referable to the Indian weak theme chatur; whence, however, it should not be said that the weak theme of the German, Lithuanian, and Sclavonic has been brought from an Asiatic original site; for it was as easy for the Gothic, by suppressing the last vowel but one, to contract its fidvôr to fidur-like thiu-s, "servant," from thiva-s, gen. thivi-s-as for the Sanskrit to abbreviate chatwar to chatur. The Lithuanian theme follows the example of abbreviation in its interior, but extends the theme at the end; the masc. nom. is keturi, and the feminine keturios: $\operatorname{KETUR1} \bar{A}$ serves the latter as theme: the masculine keturi is analogous with geri, "the good" (see p. 251, Note $\ddagger$ ), and therefore has KETURJE, euphonic for KETURIA, as its base. The genitive and
accusative masculine keturi-u, keturi-s, proceed from the base KETURI. The Old Sclavonic gives CHETYRI as the masculine and feminine theme, and inflects the masculine like GOSTI, and the feminine like KOSTI (p. 349); hence nom. chetyry-e, chetyri, just as in the third numeral triy-e, "tri"; and the feminine form may, in both, represent also the masculine, and always supplies the neuter. But the collective chetvero, and the ordinal number chetverty- $-\boldsymbol{r}$, stand in closer agreement with the Indian strong theme चत्वार् chatwair: the Latin quatuor, also, which, in disadvantageous comparison with the cognate languages, has lost the capability of declension, and the Greek $\tau$ é $\sigma \sigma \alpha \rho-\epsilon s, \tau \in ́ \tau \tau \alpha \rho-\varepsilon s$, rest on the strong चत्वारस् chatıaras ; so that тérrapes, just like the Pâli form चन्तारो chattardo, has gained its last $t$ by assimilatson of the semi-vowel. The Prâkrit form, also, which I am not able to quote, will scarcely be other than chattard (comp. \&. 300 p. 414 G. ed.). With regard to the initial $\tau$ let reference be made to §. 14., by which this $\tau$ is accommo- [G. Ed. p. 441.] dated with the Æolic miaupes, which refers itself to the weak theme चतुर chatur. With the Zend transposition of the weak theme to chathru (p. 439 G.ed.), at the beginning of compounds, agrees surprisingly the Latin quadru, in quadrupes and other words. The adverbial $s$, by which fिस् $d$ wis, "twice," and निस् tris, Zend thris, "thrice," are formed, is, in the Sanskrit chatur, suppressed by the rule of sound mentioned in §. 94.; hence chatur, "four times," for chaturs. That thie latter has originally existed one learns from the Zend transposed form wus $)$ Gup chathrus. The Latin has already, in the number three, without being forced by a compulsory law, dropped the $s$, and hence ter and quater appear only as internal modifications of the cardinal numbers.
313. V. Sansk!̣it पबन् panchan, Zend jun,syes panchan, Lithuanian penki,* Greek $\pi \in ́ v \tau e$, たolic $\pi e ́ \mu \pi e$, Gothic
*This is the nominative masculine; the feminine is penkios, and holds
fimf,* Latin quinque, Old Sclavonic pycly. ${ }^{+}$The SanskritZend panchan is the theme, and the genders are not dis-
[G. Ed. p. 442.] tinguished in this and the following numbers; hence the nominative, accusative, and vocative have always singular neuter forms (therefore pancha, according to §. 139.) : the other cases shew plural terminations; as, geni-
 (Vend. S. p. 52). By this irregularity in the declension the Sanskrit and Zend prepare us in a measure for complete want of inflection in Greek and Latin. Moreover, it is remarkable that not one of the European languages will at all recognise the final nasal, while, nevertheless, that of saptan, navan, and dasan is found also in Gothic and Lithuanian; and in Lithuanian, also, that of सश्न् aşhtan, "eight" (aszlûni). The Greek has frequently preserved an old $\alpha$
the same relation to it that keturios does to keturi (p,428). The same obtains with the appellations of the numbers $6,7,8,9$, of which we give only the masculine.

* Ocears only uninflected: in the declined theme, the unorganic addition of an $i$ must be expected, as in FIDVORI; and as is also actually the case in Old High German in this number, and the appellations for the six to ten inclusive. In Gothic, however, occur also saihs, "six," sibun, "seven," ahtau, "eight," and taihun, "ten," only nninflected, and therefore without the unerganic $i$; but from niun, " nine," comes the genitive niun-象, which indeed might also have proceeded from a theme NIUN or NIUNA, but which I doubt not comes from NIUNI.
+ The theme is PYATI, and is inflected like KOSTI (p. 348), and with singular terminations; so that one has to look upon this numeral as a feminine collective, beside which the object numbered stands in apposition in like cases. The same obtains with the appellations for the numbers 6 to 10 inclusive. As to the formal relation of PYATI to panchan, we must observe, that of the latter, in Sclavonic, only the syllable $p a$ is represented by pya ( $(.225 . n$.); but $T I$ is a derivational suffix, as in SHESHTI, "six," DEVYATI, "nine," and DESYATI, "ten," and corresponds to the Sanskrit suffix $t i$ in the multiplied numbers viisati, "twenty," shashti, "sixty," \&e.
before a nasal originally there, while it has preferred weakening the same to $\epsilon$ before other consonants; hence
 and so én $\pi \alpha$, èvvé $\alpha$, סéкк : not $\pi \in ́ v \tau \alpha$, however, but $\pi e ́ v \tau e$. It might therefore well be assumed, that the nasal in IndoZend numerals is a later addition, but that cha is the particle signifying "and," which, in the number four, we have taken for the prefix (§. 311.). In Latin, also, quinque is, in regard to its termination, similar to words connected with the particle que, as in $\pi$ évet the enclitic $\tau \varepsilon$, which is akin to que and cha (see §. 14.) appears to be contained. . This being the case, I would prefer regarding pan in पब्य pancha as euphonic for pam, and the $m$ as a neuter case-sign; but the $p a$ which remains over as a pronoun, and indeed as identical with the $k a$ which occurs in the number one ( $\$ .308$ ), in regard to which one might advert to the [G. Ed. p. 443.] old Latin pidpid for quidquid, nôos for kôos, \&c. Five would, therefore, literally mean "and one," and in fact that one which is to be added to four.*
 anian szeszi, Old Sclavonic shesty (theme SHESHTI, p. 430, Note $\dagger$ ), Gothic saihs (see §. 82.), Latin sex, Greek $\begin{gathered}\text { E. } \\ \text {. One }\end{gathered}$ may justly suppose that the guttural which begins the Zend word has also existed in Sanskrit, for instance, स्षप्

[^219]$k s ̣ h a s ̣ h$, for $s ̣ h$ is otherwise not an initial syllable in Sanskrit, and also no original sound, but that sibilant which is only admissible with a preceding $k$ ( $(\mathbf{8} .21$.$) . In Latin, Greek,$ and German the guttural appears to be transposed, for sex is the transposition of xes.
315. VII. Sanskrit षमन् saptan, Zend juposer haptan, nominative and accusative सम sapta, updues hapta (see §. 313), Greek $\dot{\epsilon} \pi \tau \dot{\alpha}$, Latin septem, Lithuanian septyni, Old Sclavonic sedmy (theme SEDMI). The $m$ of septem and sedmy seems to me to have been introduced from the ordinal number, which is, in Sanskrit, saptama, nom. masc. saptama-s, and in Sclavonic sedmyi. The same holds good of the termination of osmy, "eight," and the Latin novem, decem, Sanskrit navama-s,
[G. Ed. p. 444.] "the ninth," dusama-s, " the tenth "; for it is not probable that the $n$ of the Sanskrit cardinal number has become $m$ in the abovementioned languages, as $m$ is very frequently corrupted to $n$, especially at the end of words, where, in Greek, this transition is necessary; while the reverse method of the $n$ to $m$ scarcely occurs anywhere.
316. VIII. Sanskrit wह्̃ aṣtan or wही aṣhtau; from the former the nominative and accusative ashta, from the latter
 Lithuanian aszlûni, Gothic ahtau, Greek öкт $\omega$, Latin octo, Old Sclavonic osmy (theme OSMI). The Sanskrit aṣhdu and the analogous öктш appear, as it were, in a dual dress (see §. 206.); nevertheless, asht $A u$ is, in my opinion, just as much as ashtan, a bare theme, and has perhaps proceeded from the latter form, which occurs only in Zend, by the resolution of the $n$ to $u$, which is so common (comp. p. 415, Note ), and the lengthening of the $a$; if it is not preferred to develope it from ashtas, according to the analogy of §. 206. From wही asht $t a u$ comes, by suppression of the last element of the diphthong, aşhtd -bhis, asshta-bhyas, ashth-sk, as $r d$-bhis, \&c., from radi, "thing," " riches," while aṣhtan, in the cases mentioned, forms regularly ashtabhis, ashta-
bhyas, aṣhtâsu (comp. p. 304). The genitive has only one form, namely, सषानाम् ashtandm. The strength of the $a u$ of ashtau is preserved, also, in the cognate languages, and
 in German forms as ahtowe-n, dative, according to Notker the cardinal number from ahtowi-m, from the theme AHTOWI. But if ashtadu were connected in its base with चतुर chatur, " four," there would be strong reason for considering the former form as the dual, expressing four twice, and for assuming that an unorganic corruption of a dual termination, which made its appearance in the earliest antiquity, has grown up with the theme.
317. IX. Sanskrit नबन् navan, Zend [G. Ed. p. 445.] fw>>y navan (nominative and accusative nava), Gothic niun -by contracting the $v a$ to $u$ and weakening the $a$ to $i$, as is so common, §. 66.-Latin novem (see §. 315.), Greek évvéa, Lithuanian dewyni, Old Sclavonic devyaty (theme DEVYATI). The last two appellations appear foreign to the system of the other sister languages: they are based, however, as I have already remarked in another place, on the facile interchange of a nasal with the organically corresponding medial on which, among others, rests the relation between Bpotós and मृतस् mritas, " mortuus." As regards the origin of this numeral term, there exists a close connection in respect of form with the expression for "new" (Sanskrit nava). That, however, a relation of ideas actually exists between the two designations, as Ag. Benary first acutely conjectured (Berl. Jahrb. 1832. ii. p. 50), appears to me likewise probable; for without recognising a dual in asshtuu, and without excluding the thumbs in reckoning by the fingers, the number nine can still only be thought of with reference to the earlier numbers, and as next to eight; and

[^220]nine, in contrast with eight or all the preceding numbere, is just as much a new number, as that which is new itself is always a something later and successive, a this corresponding to the old that. As a case in point, observe the Latin secundus from sequor. One must also admit that it would not be surprising if any former number whatever, excluding one, were named after the idea of that which is new, and that this origin is most intimately connected with the pronominal origin of other numerals.
[G. Ed. p. 446.] 318. X. Sanskrit दश्म dasan, Zend gaṡan (nominative and accusative das̀a), Greek סék Latin decem, Lithuanian deszimt, deszimi's and deszimtis (the twofirst indeclinable), Old Sclavonic desyaty (theme DES YATI, see §. 313. Note $\dagger$ ), Gothic taihun. Concerning the ai and $u$ of taihun, see §§. 66. and 82.: the consonants have obeyed the law of removal (§. 87.). The Greek, rather than the Sanskrit, therefore serves as prototype to the Gothic in regard to the second consonant; and we have laid down in §. 21. the Sanskrit झ् $s^{\prime}$ as a proportionably modern sound. If, then, in this corruption, the Lithuanian and Sclavonic agree with the Sanskrit, this may be so explained, that these languages, guided independently by the Sanskrit and Zend, but with the same euphonic feeling, have transformed an old guttural to a sibilant;* in which change of sound, however, the Sclavonic, in other cases, goes farther than the Sanskrit (comp. p. 415 G. ed.). If, however, we desire to base on historical tradition the peculiar coincidence with the Sanskrit and Zend in the case before us, and some others, we must arrive at this through the assumption that the Lithuanian and Sclavonic races at some period wandered from their original settlement in Asia, when corruptions

[^221]had already entered into the language, which did not exist at the time when the Greeks and Romans transplanted the Asiatic original language to Europe.
319. XI-XX. The smaller numbers are combined with the expression for ten : Sanskrit एकादशन् elkadaśan, घ्वादशन् dwâdaśan, जयोदश् न् trayodaśan, चतुदूशन् chaturdaśan, \&c.;

 каî̄єка; Latin undecim, duodecim, tredecim, quatuordecim; Lithuanian wienolika, dwylika, trylika, keturólika; Gothic ainlif (1 C. xv. 5.), tvalif, † fimflaihun, "fifteen "; Old Sclavonic chetyrinadesyaty, " fourteen," pyatynadesyaty, "fifteen," \&c.
"Remark.-Before the simple daśan (from dakan) had been changed in the Gothic into taihun, according to the

* These may be deduced from the ordinals aêvandaśa, dvadaśa (Vend. S. p. 120). So also chathrudasan, "fourteen," panchadasan, "fifteen," from chathrudasa, "the fourteenth," panchadasa, "the fifteenth." The nasal in aevandasa appears to have proceeded from $m$, and to be an accusative sign, for the whole stands I. c. in the accusative (aêvandaserm). By this, doubt is thrown on the aêvandasan given above, and perhaps aêvôdaṡan, or, according to the original principle of the compound, aévadakian might be expected. In one other passage, indeed, occurs the nominative of the ordinal aêvandas̉ó (1. c. p. 230) : it is, however, clearly a false reading, and the sense requires the accosative, as governed by spsçu jusudd frâsnaôiti, which Anquetil renders by a atteint; thus, Gع3دתg, posțujusuld aêvandaડ̆èm frâsnaóiti, " decimum attingit"; and in the following analogons constructions the ordinal number also stands always in the accusative. The form â̂vandašĕm, from aevamdašěm, is remarkable, also, in a phonetic respect, because elsewhere in Zend a final $m$ is not governed by the organ of the following letter.
+ I do not take the tva here, with Grimm (II.947.), for the neuter, but, according to the principle of genuine compounds, for the theme (compare §.112.), whence the nom, masc. tvai. Tva may also-and this appears to me more correct-be regarded, without the Gothic being conscious of the formation, precisely as the abbreviation of the Sanskrit $d w d$, which is a lengthening of the theme $d x a$, as $\hat{c k}$ from êka.

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comparatively recent law for the alteration of sounds (compare §. 82.), it may have happened that, through the very widely-diffused disposition for exchanging the $d$ with $l$, and through the not less common permutation between gutturals and labials-through which, among others, the relation of fidvor to the Lithuanian keturi and Latin quatuor becomes explicable-the daśan contained in ekd-daśnn "eleven," and dwod-daśan, "twelve" (from dakan), may have passed, in Gothic, into LIBI. Through the dative tva-libi-m, genitive tea-lib' $-\ell$, LIBI is preserved, in fact, as the true theme; so that each $a$ of dasan is weakened to $i$. The $f$ of
[G. Ed. p. 448.] the uninflected tvalif is, therefore, not to be explained according to §. 87., but according to §. $93^{\mathrm{n}}$.; and if the theme libi has not obeyed the law for the mutation of sounds, the objection, which has been raised by Graff (Old High German Thesaurus, p. 317) against my explanation, is removed by what has been remarked in §. 39., for we refer to fidvôr, not fithvôr. The Latin quadraginta, also, for quatraginta, and the Greek örסoos for
 noticed, in support of the proposition that the numeral formations in the choice of the degree of the organ of the consonants have not always remained in the customary path; and in cumbrous compounds the medials are more admissible than the smooth letters and aspirates.* To remove the objection which may be taken on the ground that LIBI is so very different from the form of taihun, we may remark, that, in French

[^222]also, the number ten, in compounds like on-ze, dou-ze, treize, is so remote from the expression of the simple ten, that one would hardly venture to pronounce the syllable ze to be akin, or originally identical with dix, if it were not historically certain that onze, douze, \&ce., have arisen from undecim, duodecim, and that therefore ze is a corruption of decim, as dix is a less vitiated form of decem. If, then, onze, douze, \&c., have assumed the appearance of uncompounded words through the great alteration of the expression for the number ten contained in them, the same holds good with regard to our eilf and zwölf, in which, perhaps, as in onze and douze, a connection with ein and zwei may be recognised, but none with zehn; and in the English eleven, also, the relation to one is entirely obliterated. But with regard to our using for thirteen, fourteen, \&c., not dreilf, vierlf, or similar forms in lf, but dreizehn, vierzehn, \&c., in which zehn is just as unaltered as the drei and vier, this arises from the Germans having forgotten the old IndoEuropean compounds for these numbers, and then having compacted the necessary expressions anew from the elements as they exist uncompounded. Nay, even [G. Ed. p. 449.] the Greek has reconstructed afresh, as well as it could, its numerals from thirteen upwards, after that the old more genuine compounds had fallen into disuse; but this has been done, I must say, in a clumsy, awkward fashion, by which the addition of a particle signifying and was found requisite in an attempt at extreme perspicuity, while év $\delta e \kappa \alpha$, $\delta \dot{\omega} \delta$ èк $\alpha$, move more freely, and are suited to the spirit of the ancient compounds. The literal meaning, too, of tрıбкаï̀кк (for $\tau \rho i \delta e \kappa \alpha$ ) is "thrice and ten," and the numeral adverb $\tau \rho i s$, instead of the bare theme $\tau \rho t$, is here just as much a mistake as the masculine plural nominative serves as a reproach to the тeढ $\sigma \alpha \rho \epsilon \sigma \kappa \alpha i \partial \epsilon \kappa \alpha$, and is inferior in purity to the Sanskrit chatur-daśan, not chatvaras-daśan (chatvâro-daśan). On the other hand, the Sanskrit, in the designation of the number
thirteen, commits a similar error, and awkwardly gives instead of tri-daśan, trayd-daśan-euphonic for trayas-dasanwhere the masculine plural nominative instead of the theme, which is adapted for all genders, is not well selected. The Latin tre-decim is therefore a more pure formation, as it dispenses with a case-sign in the first member of the compound : just so the Lithuanian try-lika, not trys-likn. This lika, which concludes the form, in all Lithuanian adding numerals (eleven to nineteen), exchanges the old d for $l$, as in German, and is therefore as far estranged from the simple deszimt's as the Gothic libi from taihun; partly, as the second consonant in lika has maintained itself in its oldest form received from the Greek, and has not become a sibilant; so that lika and סéк $\alpha$ resemble each other very closely. The Lithuanian lika, therefore, is derived, like the Gothic libi and the French ze in onze, douze. \&c., from the old compound which has been handed down, and cannot, therefore, be censured for its want of agreement with the simple number ten: it is no longer conscious of its meaning, and, like an inanimate corpse, is carried by the living inferior number. As, however, the smaller number in these compounds is still living, so that in the feeling of the speaker the numbers wieno-lika, dwy-lika, \&e., do not appear as independent simple designations of num-bers-as, perhaps, septyni $i$ is felt to be independent of each of the earlier numbers-so, naturally, in these compounds the first member has kept tolerably equal pace with the form which it shews in its isolated state; on which account wieno-lika, if it is regarded as an ancient compound from the time of the unity of language, or perhaps as derived from रकादशन् etked-daśan,
[G. Ed.p.450.] has nevertheless undergone, in its initial member, a renovation; as also in Gothic ainlif, in Greek évòcкa, in Latin undecim, have regulated their first member according to the form which is in force for the isolated number one. On the otherhand, $\delta \dot{\omega} \delta{ }^{2} \kappa \alpha \alpha$ is almost entirely the Sanskrit $d w d$-dasa
( $\omega$ for $\hat{\alpha}$, according to $\S .4$.), and is as similar to it as possible, as $v(F)$ in Greek cannot be pronounced after consonants, and in the first syllable, also, could not assimilate itself to the prece-
 could not be uttered. In Latin, duodecim has formed its first member exactly after the simple form: on the other hand, the French has paid no regard to the form in which the preceding number appears in its isolated state, but has left the composition entirely in the old form, only with the abbreviations which time has by degrees introduced. With reference to the isolated state of the smaller number, it would have been, perhaps, necessary in French to have said unze, deuze, troize, \&cc. After what has been stated, I think no one can any longer doubt, that in our eilf (elf) and zwölf, strange as it at the first glance may appear, a word is contained expressing the number ten, and identical in its origin with daśan, ঠéк $\alpha$, and zehn. If, however, the older LIBI, lif, and Lithuanian lika, be regarded without the suspicion arising, that in them corrupt though very common permutations of sounds may have preceded, then one would propose in Lithuanian a root lik, and in Gothic lif or lib (Gothic af-lifnan, " relinqui, superesse," laibos, "reliquie"), which both signify "to remain," and are also connected with each other and with the Greek $\lambda \in i \pi \omega$ ( $\operatorname{IIII}$ ). Grimm, who has recognised (II. 946) the original identity of our lif and the Lithuanian lika, has perhaps allowed himself to be led astray by Ruhig in the meaning of these expressions, and deduces the latter from likti, " linqui, remanere," the former from leiban, "manere." Ruhig, according to Mielcke, p. 58, holds lika for the 3d person plural, since he says, "Composition in the cardinal numbers from ten to twenty takes place by adding the 3 d person plural number present indicative lika (from likù s. liekmi); scil., the tenth remains undisturbed with the simple number, e.g. one, two, \&c.; which addition, however, in composition degenerates into a declinable noun of the feminine gender, according to which, also, the preceding
[G. Ed. p. 451.] simple number must be regulated."* The languages, however, do not proceed so pedantically; and if they hold any thing understood, as very commonly happens, they do not expressly state that any thing remains over to be expressed. It is certain, however, that the Sclavonic languages, in their expressions for eleven to twenty, do not keep back any thing to be understood, but form those expressions, after the loss of the old, no longer intelligible compounds, anew, with the annexed preposition na, "over"; e.g. in Old Sclavonic, where the numbers eleven, twelve, thirteen, no longer occur, chetyri-na-desyaty, "four over ten." The ordinal numbers for eleven and twelve are yedinyĭ-na-desyaty, " the first over ten," vtoryi-na-desyuty, " the second over ten." In the same manner proceeds the twin sister of the Lithuanian -accompanying it, but corrupted-the Lettish, in which veenpazmit signifies "eleven," as it appears to me, with contraction of the $d(e) s$ of desmit, "ten," to $x$, and overleaping the e. This procedure in Lettish has no doubt originated from the older lika being no longer intelligible. If it was to be so understood, as Ruhig has taken it, its form would be palpable, and the Lettians might have been satisfied with it. With reference to the composition of the numerals under discussion, there remains to be noticed a most remarkable coincidence of the Lithuanian and German with a Prâkrit dialect, which coincidence, when I formerly touched upon this

[^223]subject," was not yet known to me, and which has been since then observed by Lenz in his edition of Urvasi (p. 219). In this dialect, then, the number ten is pronounced simply दह daha-approaching closely to the Gothic taihun-but at the end of the compounds under notice raha: $r$ and $l$, however, are, according to §. 17., most intimately connected. Hitherto only, बारह varaha, "twelve," from हादश dwddaśa, and अट्ठारह $a t t ̣ h a r a h a, ~ " e i g h t e e n, " ~ f r o m ~ ब श ् श ा द श ~ a s ̣ h ~ t u d a s a, ~$ can be cited, but still from them it is probable that the other numerals too, which fall under this cate- [G. Ed. p. 452.] gory, have an $r$ for $d$, apparently to lighten the word loaded by the prefixing of lesser numbers, by exchanging the $d$ for a weak semi-vowel. Now it is a remarkable coincidence that if we were desirous of not seeing a mutation of letters in this raha we should be led to the root rah, "to leave," which is probably identical with the verb, to which recourse has been had for the explanation of the corresponding Lithuanian and German numeral forms. $\dagger$ I thought I had exhausted this subject, when I was led by other reasons to the Hindûstânî grammar, where I was agreeably surprised by perceiving that here, also, the number ten, in the designation of eleven, twelve, \&c., has taken another lighter form than in its simple state, in which it is pronounced das. $\ddagger$ But in the compounds under discussion this becomes rah, $\ddagger$ and, for example, barah,

[^224]"twelve," answers to the abovementioned Prâkrit बारह bataha, and, like this, has proceeded directly from the

- Sanskrit original form ज्ञाद duddaśa, without heeding the form of the simple do, "two," and das, "ten." It may be proper here to quote all the Hindûstânî compounds which belong to this subject, together with the corresponding Sanskrit words of which they are the corruptions. We annex, also, the number twenty, and nineteen which is related to it as being twenty less one, as also the simple lower numbers in Hindûstânî.
[G. Ed. p. 453.]
hindústini. sanskptr, nominative.

| êk | 1, | iga-rah, | 11, | êkidasa | 11. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| do | 2, | bit-rah | 12, | duâdaşa | 12. |
| tin | 3, | têrah | 13, | trayodaśa | 13. |
| char | 4, | chau-dah | 14,* | chaturdaśa | 14. |
| pânch | 5 , | pand-rah | 15, | panchddasśa | 15. |
| chhah | 6 | sob-lah | 16, $\dagger$ | shodaśa | 16. |
| sit | 7, | sat-rah | 17, | saptaduśa | 17. |
| a!h | 8, | athû-rah | 18, | aṣh ${ }^{\text {a }}$ daśa | 18. |
| nau | 9, | unnîs | 19, | unnviṅáati (' | "undeviginti") 19. |
| das | 10, | $b i s$ | 20, | vinşati | 20. |

320. XX-C. The idea of ten is expressed in Sanskrit
 $\dot{s a t a}$, or $s \rho t i$; and the words therewith compounded are substantives with singular terminations, with which, in Sanskrit, the thing numbered agrees in case, as in apposition, or is put, as in the Zend, in the genitive, as

[^225]*วu!̣nuas exoul sị pıaox























'areduop


in Lithuanian and Sclavonic, already contained in the simple deszimt's, deszimtis, Old Sclavonic desyaly. With regard, however, to the ten being expressed without abbreviation in the languages mentioned, in compounds, also-as in Lithuanian dwideszimti (or tis), "twenty," trysdészimti (or tis), "thirty," and in Old Sclavonic chetyridesyaty, " forty." pyatydesyaty, " fifty"-I do not consider
[G. Ed. p. 455.] this as a more true retention of the original form, but as a new formation. The Lithuanian, too, from forty upwards, separates the two numbers, and puts the former in the feminine plural, e.g. keturios deszimtis, "forty," penkios dessimtis, "fifty"; in which it is surprising that deszimtis, also, does not stand in the plural. The Gothic method in this numeral category is of comparatively recent date: it has lost, as in thirteen, \&c., the ancient compound, and gives, in the numbers under seventy (sixty does not occur), tigus, masculine, as the expression for ten, and declines this, and in twenty, thirty, the lesser number also, with regular plural terminations: hence the accusatives tvanstiguns, thrinstiguns, fidvörtiguns, fimftiguns, genitive thriyêtigvé. The substantive tiyus, however, is the etymological quaver to taihun, and LIBI: it is related to the former essentially, the aspirate having become a medial (see §. 89.), thus rendering the $a$, which, in taihun, is brought in by the rule of sound mentioned in $\S$. 82. , superfluous. Advert, also, to the Latin medials in ginti, ginta, contrasted with the Greek катו, коvт $\alpha$, which answer better to סéco. Tigu-s may be identical with the Sanskrit ordinal daśa, nominative masculine daśa-s, which occurs only in compounds, as duadaśa-s, "the twelfth." To this daśa-s, therefore, is related tigu-s in regard to its $u$, as fotu-s to pada-s, " a foot." In the numbers seventy, eighty, and ninety, ten is denoted by the neuter

[^226]substantive têhund (theme TEHUNDA, genitive têhundi-s); hence sibun-têhund, "seventy," ahtau-tehund, "eighty," niun-têhund, "ninety." The $\hat{e}$ of this TEHUNDA stands as the representative of the $a i$ of taihun, and I hold $D A$ to be the ordinal suffix, which has introduced into the common ordinals another unorganic $N$, or, according to Grimm, follows the weak declension; hence TAIHUNDAN, nominative taihunda, "decimus." Hereby, then, it becomes still more probable that the abovementioned tigus also is originally an ordinal number. In our New German this word has transformed itself to zig or ssig (dreissig), and is found also in siebenzig, achtzig, neunzig, Old High German sibunzog, ahtozog, niunzog, or -zoc, and zëhanzog (zoc), Gothic taihuntehund, "a hundred." The SanskritZend sata, "a hundred," which is a neuter substantivenominative शतम् śatam, $\ddagger$ gosss satĕm-in my opinion owes its designation to the number ten (daśan), whence it is formed by the suffix $t a$-the suppression of the final nasal is regular;-so that it is to be regarded as an abbreviation of daśata, as above, शति sáti, शत् sat, and the Zend upose sata for dasati, \&c. This abbreviation, however, which has given to the word the stamp of a primi- [G. Ed. p. 456.] tive expression specially created for the idea "a hundred," is proved to be of the highest antiquity by the consentaneous testimony of all the cognate languages, Greek катóv (éккто́v is, verbatim, "one hundred"), Latin centum, Lithuanian szimta-s (masculine), Old Sclavonic sto (at once theme and nominative and accusative neuter).* The Gothic hund and Old High German hunt (theme HUNDA, HUNTA) occur only in compounds, as tva-handa, thria-hunda, zuei-hunt, driu-hunt, where the lesser number is likewise inflected. That also शति śati, शत् 'sat, and the corresponding words

[^227]in the cognate languages, have in the earliest periods lost the initial syllable of the number ten, and with it the lingual remembrance of the same; and that in विंश्रति vin'sati, sposuss visaiti, eikatı, eikoot, viginti, the single elements have lain together undisturbed for thousands of years, affords a fresh proof of the agreement of the languages which have most faithfully preserved their ancient construction. I would not, however, wish to maintain that the loss of the $d$ of the number two in the above forms falls under the period of the unity of languages ; and that it may not have happened that each of the four individual languages, having become weary of the initial double consonant in a word already encumbered by composition, may have disburthened itself of the initial sound, as we have above seen the Latin and Zend, independently of each other, produce $b i s$ from dwis, and $b i$ from dwi, and as, in agreement with the abbreviation of विंशति viñśati, the Prâkrit dialect mentioned at p. 451 G.ed. has laid aside the $d$ in the number twelve also (vâraha for dudiraha). It is remarkable that the four oldest and most perfect languages of the Indo-European family in the category of numerals before us, have lost exactly as much of the number ten as the French in the forms for eleven, twelve, \&c.; and the ze of douze is therefore identical with the Sanskrit śa of विंशति viniśati. The Sanskrit and Zend, however, in a later corruption which is unsupported by the Greek and Latin, have caused the word dasati to be melted down to the derivation suffix $t i$, and this $t i$ corresponds to the French te of trente, yuarante, \&c. The numbers which have been thus far abbreviated begin, in Sanskrit and Zend, with sixty, पfि şhashtit (ṭi euphonic for ti), seros>>>uส csvasti. To the śati of विंश्रति vinisuti the Doric катו of eiкк兀t, while in the Latin ginti the smooth
[G. Ed. p. 457.] letter has sunk to a medial, as in ginta $=$ коут $\alpha$ of the higher numbers. In Sanskrit the $\dot{n}$ of vinisati,
trinśat, chatwârinsáat, is surprising, and one might imagine a transposition of the nasal, so that in the Latin ginti, ginta, centum, and in the Gothic HUNDA, "one hundred," it would stand in its proper place. For the rest, chatwadrinsat shews its relation to the neuter chatwâri (see §. 312.);

 opinion, plural neuter forms, with the termination lengthened in $\tau \rho i \bar{\alpha}$, and originally, also, in $\tau \epsilon \sigma \sigma \alpha \rho \alpha$, as the Ionic $\tau \epsilon \sigma \sigma \alpha \rho \dot{\eta} \kappa о \nu \tau \alpha$, Doric $\tau \epsilon \tau \rho \dot{\kappa \kappa о \nu \tau \alpha, * ~ L a t i n ~ q u a d r a g i n t a, ~ p r o v e . ~}$ These forms excite the conjecture, that, in Sanskrit, the introduction of the nasal may, contrary to the explanation attempted above, have the same object that, in Greek, the lengthening of the termination has, namely, an emphatic repetition of the prefixed number, which is also perceptible in the long $i$ of the Zend visaiti, as in the long $a$ of पद्चाशत् panchâsat, $G$ हpossumpresse panchâsatĕm from panchan (§. 318.), and to which again the length of $\pi e v \tau \eta \dot{j}<v \tau \alpha$, quinquaginta, runs parallel. The Zend chathwarĕ, in uposuçucoobup chathwarĕsata, "forty " (Vend. S. p. 380), is likewise stronger than cha-thru-sala, which might have been expected from §.312. As upsss sata is a neuter, to which, in Greek, катоу or коутоу would correspond, коута therefore, and the Latin ginta, are best explained as neuters in the plural, by which the neuter nature of $\tau \rho i \bar{\alpha}$ and $\tau \in \sigma \sigma \alpha \rho \alpha$ is still more authenticated. An auxiliary vowel, which merely facilitated the combination, and which might be assumed in $\left.\begin{array}{c}\xi \\ \eta \\ \kappa\end{array}\right)=\tau \tau \alpha$, would at least be very superfluous in the theme TPI; and it is much more probable that $\dot{\varepsilon} \xi \eta$, too, is a lengthened plural neuter. Compare $\dot{\epsilon} \xi \dot{\alpha}-\kappa \iota \varsigma, \dot{\epsilon} \xi \alpha \pi \lambda o \hat{S} s$, and the remarks on $\pi \alpha \dot{\nu} \tau \alpha$ and $\pi \circ \lambda \lambda \alpha \dot{\alpha}$, p. 401, G. ed.

[^228]
## ORDINAL NUMBERS.

321. While, in designating the number one, the greatest varietyobtains amongst the Indo-European languages, theyare [G. Ed. p. 458.] almost unanimous intheir designation of the first, which idea none of the languages here treated of derives from the corresponding cardinal number: Sanskrit म्रथमस् prathama-s (nom), Zend $\psi_{f q G J J d}$ frathĕmb (§. $56^{6}$.), Latin primu-s. Lithuanian prima-s, Gothic frum's (for fruma-s, §.135.), or indefinite fruma (theme FRUMAN, §. 140.), or, with newly-added superlative suffix, frumist $-s$, Old High German éristér, usually indefinite éristo (from the adverb êr, "before "), Greek $\pi \rho \hat{\omega}$ тos, Old Sclavonic pervy̌̌. मथम prothama, from the preposition pra, has been already discussed (p. 393 G. ed.); so the Greek $\pi \rho \hat{\omega}$ tos is derived from the corresponding preposition $\pi \rho o$, the lengthening of which to $\pi \rho \omega$ accords with the Sanskrit prâ in prätar, "in the morning" (see p. 392 G. ed.). The suffix TO is an abbreviation of the Sanskrit tuma or thama, which occurs even in Sanskrit in चतुर्पर् chatur-tha-s, "the fourth," and पष्स् șhash-tha-s, " the sixth," as also in Latin in the form of TU in quartus, quintus, sextus, while in Greek this abbreviation extends to all the
 In Lithuanian the corresponding $T A$ of four runs through all, but in such wise, that together with septintas, asztuntas, occur also sékmas, ászmas, which correspond to the Sanskrit सप्रमस् saptama-s, खघ्रमस् aṣhtama-s, in which the last portion of the superlative suffix tama or thama has remained; of which kind of division, also, पब्षमस् panchama-s, नवमस् navama-s, and दशमम् daśama-s, partake, which therefore complete, by their suffix, the tha of chaturtha, so that both united present the perfect word. The Zend agrees herein with the Sanskrit, only that its ఫGupodvev haptathd agrees more with septintas than with सत्रमम् saptima-s and seplimu-s ; and
that also beesd pug-dhd, "the fifth," belongs more to the European cognate languages, in which it comes nearest to the Lithuanian penk-ta-s. The Lithuanian, however, is more true to the original form, as its sister, the Zend, has softened two original smooth letters, as [G. Ed. p. 459.] in Greek, ö öסoos for öктоos; and, besides this, has aspirated the last, rejected the nasal (comp. p. 94, basta from bandh), and irregularly changed the $a$ to $u$, as in "ONYX, corresponding to the Sanskrit नख nakha, "a nail." In the numbers from eleven to twenty the superlative suffix, in Sanskrit and Zend, is abbreviated still more than in the simple दशू daśama, Nє६uNg dašĕma, and of all the derivational suffix only the $a$ is left, before which the $a$ of the primitive word must fall away, according to a universal principle for the derivation of words; as, द्वादश dwadaśa, sungreg dvadas̀a, " the twelfth"; चतुद्श chaturdaśa, (sugg ${ }^{\prime}$ Gup chathrudasa, "the fourteenth." The Latin appears to prove that this abbreviation is comparatively of recent date, and it goes beyond both the Asiatic sisters by its undecimus, duodecimus, not undecus, duodecus; but has, as it were, exhausted itself in the effort which the continuance of these heavier forms has cost it ; and has given up the analogous formations in the very place in which the German cardinal numbers have lost the old compound in lif: hence, tertius decimus for the lost tredecimus, \&c. An imitation, however, of the abbreviation which we have just remarked in the Sanskrit-Zend dasa is supplied by the Greek and Latin in the forms octav-us, oै ${ }^{\delta} \delta o(F)$-os, where, of the ordinal suffix, in like manner, only the final vowel is left : we might have expected ö oठo $\mu$ os, octomus. In the very remarkable coincidence which here exists between the said languages, it must seem strange that, in the remaining designations of the ordinal numbers, the Latin is a much truer colleague to its Asiatic sisters than to the Greek; and it preserves this character, also, in annexing, from twenty upwards, the full superlative suffix simu-s (from timu-s=तमस् tama-s); thus vicesimus or vige-
[G. Ed. p. 460.] simus, trigesimus, as in Sanskṛit vińsálitama-s, trinśsattama-s.* In Latin, however, the termination nti or nta of the primitives is rejected, and in compensation the preceding vowel is lengthened in the form of $\bar{e}$. Compare, in this respect, the comparative formations discussed in \$. 298. The Greek shews its more rare superlative suffix, corresponding to the Sanskrit $\xi^{8}$ ishhtha, in the ordinal numbers like
 $\pi$ óqтos. Here also, therefore, as in Latin, the $\tau \iota, \sigma \iota$, and $v \tau \alpha$ of the cardinal number are rejected. The German languages employ in like manner the superlative suffix in numbers from twenty upwards: hence, Old High German dri-zugठsto, "the thirtieth," for-zugosto, "the fortieth": but in the numbers from four to nineteen the TAN or DAN, in Gothic, corresponds, according to the measure of the preceding letter (§. 91.), to the suffix of the cognate languages, as in घतुथ्ष् chaturtha-s тétapтo-s. quartu-s, ketwir-ta-s. The $N$, however, is an unorganic addition, after the principle of the indefinite adjective declension (§. 285.), which is followed by the ordinal numbers, with the exception of 1 and 2 in the older dialects; while the New German has also introduced the definite-vierter, "fourth," fünfter, "fifth," \&c.; hence, Gothic FIMFTAN, nom. mase. fimfta. $\dagger$
[G.Ed. p. 461.] 322. From the weakened base fि $d w i$ "two" (p. 424), and from the fि tri, "three," contracted to तृ tri, the Sanskrit forms the ordinal numbers by a suffix liya; hence dui-tiya-s, trititya-s. This suffix is easily recognised in the Latin ter-

[^229]tius, as also in the Old Sclavonic tretiǐ, fem. tretiya, which, like all theordinal numbers, has only a definite declension, in which, however, the particular case occurs, that the defining element is brought with it direct from the East, while the tyǐ of chelwerlyı̆ and others, in which, in like manner, a connection with तीय tiya might be easily conjectured, is, in fact, connected with the च tha, TO, TU of चतुथे chaturtha, тéтגpтos. quartus, and has arisen from the indefinite theme in TO (comp. the collective chetvero, §. 312.), according to §. 255. (d.), although the simple word in most of the formations falling under this category no longer exists. The same relation, then, that chetvertyi, shesty̌, have to chaturtha-s, s.hashtha-s, sedmy̌̌, osmy̌̌, have to ससम saptama, सघ्रम aşhtama; and pervyi, " the first," to पूर्व pûrva, "the former ;" which expressions, in Sclavonic, remain only in combination with the pronominal base YO (§. 282.). The Zend has rejected the $i$ of the suffix tiya, and abbreviated dwi to $b i$; hence aspess bitya, aspos) 6 thritya, in which it is to be remarked that the $y$, which is thus by syncope united with the $t$ at a comparatively later period, has gained uo aspirating influence (§. 47.). To this Zend tya corresponds, by similar suppression of the middle i, the Gothic DYAN (from dya, §. 285.) in THRIDFAN, nom. masc. thridya, the $y$ of which in the Old High German dritto, has assimilated itself to the preceding $t$, in analogy with the Prâkrit forms and Greek comparatives, like $\theta \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \omega v$, крєí $\sigma \omega \omega$, крeít $\omega \omega$, mentioned at p. 402. Still closer, however, lies the comparison with oitcós, тpitтós
 their origin, one with the corresponding Sanskrit-Zend ordinal numbers; and, in respect of their reduplicated consonant, have the same relation thereto that the Old High German drillo has to the Gothic thriyda. Regarding tvaddye, "duorum," see p. 422, Note *: the place of the ordinal number is supplied by the pronoun anthar (see p. 377), Old High German andar, Middle High German ander. Our zweiler, however, is a new unorganic formation. The Old Sclavonic vtoryĭ (see §. 297.)
answers, in respect to its derivation, to the Greek $\delta$ evirepos, and, in abbreviation of the base, to the Zend bitya, only that it has lost also the $i$ of the Sanskrit dwi-tiya, in regard to which we have, in §. 297., adverted to the Zend \&funss b-yârē", " two years."
323. We give here a general view of the ordinal numbers in the feminine nominative singular, since in this case the agreement of all the languages strikes the eye more than in the nominative masculine. The Gothic forms which do not occur we give in parentheses, formed theoretically, and according to the Old High German.
[G. Ed. p. 463.] NOMINATIVE FEMININE.


* We should read thus 乌. 297. for byarě, as accusative singular (see Olshausen, Vend. S. 43).
${ }^{1}$ More usually paoirya, masc. paoiryô, by which the Sclavonic pervy亡े, pervaya, is, as it were, prepared.
${ }^{2}$ Also turiya, mase. turiya-s, on which is based the Zend tâarya, masc. tûiry $\hat{o}$. The suppression of the syllable cha might announce th looser connection of the same with the remaining portion of the wor and thereby support the conjecture expressed at $\S .311$.
${ }^{3}$ The $t$ of pyataya, masc. pyatyi, has nothing in common with the $t$ of the cardinal number pyaty; the proper primitive is pya (seep. 430 Note $\dagger$ ), whence PYATI by the suffix TI, and PYATO, fem. PYATA, by the suffix TO, fem. TA (see $\oint .322$.). The same holds good with regard to shestaya in relation to shesty, \&cc.
${ }^{4}$ By transposition and syncope from cstasta, as must be expected from the cardinal number мیw>>0హ csvas.
${ }^{5}$ Regarding the $d$ for $n$, see §. 317. "See §. 319, Note ", p. 435.
"Remark.-As the old $a$ of the preposition प pra has been weakened to $i$-as in quinque, answering to panchan -the Latin prima appears distinct from the preposition pro, and is decidedly not derived from a Roman soil, but is, as it were, the continuance of the Indian prathama, the middle syllable being cast out. A similar weakening of the vowel is exhibited in the Greek adverb $\pi \rho^{\prime}(v$, which is hereby, in like manner, brought into connection with the preposition $\pi \rho \rho^{\prime}$. In the comparative prior only the $p r$ of the preposition, which forms the base, is left, as the $i$ belongs to the comparative suffix. In Lithuanian the $m$ of the superlative formation has introduced itself also into the preposition pirm, 'before'; but the unaltered pra stands as prefix. To the same base, however, belongs also pri, 'by, before,' as well isolated as prefixed. The Gothic fruma shews the same relation to prathama that the Latin [G. Ed. p. 464.] and Lithuanian do: the $u$ of $f r u$ has arisen from $a$ through the influence of the liquid (§. 66.). In the cognate preposition fram, 'before, by,' \&ce., the original vowel has remained, and in this form, as in the Lithuanian pirm, the superlative $m$ is contained. On प्र pra is based, also, faur, ' before,' with transposition of the $u$ of fru-ma, and with a prefixed, according to $\S .82$.


## NUMERAL ADVERBS.

324. The adverbs which express the ideas "twice," "thrice," "four times," have been already discussed (p. 435, G. ed.). Let the following serve for a general view of them:-

| sanskprit. |  |  |  | OLD morthers. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $d$ | bis, |  | bis, | Ivis-2 |
| tris, | thris | тоis, | ter, | thris-var. |
| atur,* | chathru |  | quat |  |

[^230]The Greek forms in кıs like тeтра́кıs, $\pi \in \nu \tau \alpha ́ \alpha \iota s, \& c$. , in re gard to their suffix, do not belong to this class, but cıs answers to the Sanskrit sas (§. 21.), the a being weakened to $\boldsymbol{i}$; this sas, however, forms adverbs from words which express a great number, multitude or number, as śataśas, " by hundreds," sahastaśas, " by thousands," bahusas, " of many kinds," ganaśas, "in swarms." The original idea of the suffix in both languages is that of repetition, but e.g. sataśas is an indefinite repetition of a hundred, while in $\dot{\text { éккатогtákıs the repetition is strictly defined by the numeral. }}$ How stands it, then, with the Latin forms like quinquies, sexies, \&c.? I believe that in respect to their suffix they are connected neither with the forms in $s$ like dwis, dis, nor with
[G. Ed. p. 465.] those in kıs (śas), by suppression of the guttural ; but as toties, quoties, evidently belong to this class, which are also pronounced quotiens, totiens, this probably being the more genuine form, as in Greek, in a similar case, titévs is more genuine than titei's (\$. 138.), I therefore prefer bringing these forms in ens, es, into conjunction with the Sanskrit suffix vant (in the weak cases vat), which signifies, in pronominal bases, " much," but elsewhere, "gifted with," and the nominative of which is, in Zend, vañs, e.g. chvanis, "how much," for chivanis. This suffix has, in Sanskrit, in combination with the interrogative base $k i$, and the demonstrative base $i$, laid aside the $v$; hence kiy-ant, iy-ant-weak form kiyat, iyat-nominative masculine kiydn, iydn; this ant for vant answers therefore to the Greek ENT (nominative masculine ets), e.g. in $\mu \mathrm{e}$ ıtoóeıs, and also to the Latin ens, in totiens, quotiens, which indeed are, in form, masculine nominatives, but must also be considered as neuters, as in the participles, too, in $n t$, the masculine nominative has forced its way into the neuter. Now comes the question whether we ought to divide toti-ens quoti-ens, or tot-iens, quot-iens? In the former case tot, quot, would have preserved, in this combination, the $i$
which belongs to them, for they are based on the Sanskrit तfि tati, "so much," कति kati, " how much ";* and the ens in toti-ens would, according to that, express the "time," and toti, "so much." In the division tot-iens, however, we should have to assume that in iens, the abovementioned demonstrative इयन्त् iyant, " so much," is contained, but in such wise, that only the meaning of the suffix is still perceived. Under this supposition quinqu-ies [G. Ed.p.466.] would, accordingly, express "five-somuch" (times); in the former case, however, the $i$, as quinqui-es, octi-es, would have to pass as representative of the $e$ and $o$ of quinque, octo, and that of sexies as a conjunctive vowel, or as an accommodation to the prevailing analogy. In any case, however, the identity of the suffix ens, es, with the Sanskrit ant, from vant, is highly probable. The Sanskrit expresses the idea " times" from five upwards by kritrwas ; as, पन्चकृत्वस् panchakritwas, "five times." This kritwas comes from kerit, " making," which in salyrit, "once," is sufficient of itself: the annexed vas, however, might, by exchange of the $t$ for $s$ (compare §. 156. Note *), have arisen from vat, which should be given above as the weak theme for vant; as, tavat, "so much," yăvat, "how much" (rel.). With krit from kart (§. 1.) is clearly connected the Lithuanian karta-s, "time," a masculine substantive, which, like the defining number, is put in the accusative, in order to make up for the adverbs under discussion; e.g. wienain kartan, "once," dù kartù, "twice" (accusative du), tris kartùs, "three times." In Old Sclavonic the corresponding krat or kraty is not declined, and the former appears to be an abbrevia-

[^231]tion of the latter, for it cannot be brought into direct comparison with the Sanskrit gृत्र krit on account of §. 255. (l): kraty, however, is to be deduced from कृत्बस् kritwas, by suppression of the $v$. With regard to the $y$ for as compare §. 271.
325. Through the suffix $\% 1 / d h a$ the Sanskrit forms adverbs in sense and in form, corresponding to the Greek in $\chi \alpha$, which, therefore, have altered the $T$ sound of the suffix into a corresponding guttural, by the usual exchange of organ in aspirates, as in OPNIX for OPNIE, and in the forms mentioned at p. 401 G. ed. Compare,
[G. Ed. p. 467.]
\[

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { fिधा dwi-dhâ,* } & \delta^{\prime}-\chi \alpha . \\
\text { विधा tri-dhd, } & \text { т } \rho^{\prime}-\chi \alpha . \\
\text { षतुर्धा chatur-dha, } & \tau \varepsilon ́ \tau \rho \alpha-\chi \alpha . \\
\text { पष्षधा pancha-dhd, } & \pi \varepsilon ́ v \tau \alpha-\chi \alpha .
\end{array}
$$
\]

- "Divided into two parts," Sav. V. 108.

IVND OF VOL. 1.


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[^0]:    * Sainskrita signifies "adorned, completed, perfect"; in respect to language, "classic"; and is thus adapted to denote the entire family or race." It is compounded of the elements sam, "with," and krita (nom. kritas, krita, kritam), "made," with the insertion of a euphonic s (\$ई. 18. 96.).

[^1]:    * Frankfort, a. M. 1816. A translation of my English revision of this treatise ("Analytical Comparison of the Sanskrit, Greek, Latin and Teutonic Languages," in the "Annals of Oriental Literature," London 1820.) by Dr. Pacht is to be found in the second and third number of the second annual issue of Seebode's new Record of Philology and Pædagogical science. Grimm's masterly German Grammar was unfortunately unknown to me when I wrote the English revision, and I could then make use only of Hickes and Fulda for the old German dialects,

[^2]:    *Rask has been the first to supply a comprehensive view of the close relationship between the Germanic and the Classical Languages, in his meritorious prize treatise "On the Thracian Tribe of Languages," completed in 1814 and published in 1818, from which Vater gives an extract in his Comparative Tables. It cannot be alleged as a reproach against him that he did not profit by the Asiatic intermediary not then extensively known; but his deficiency in this respect shews itself the more sensibly, as we see throughout that he was in a condition to use it with intelligence. Under that deficiency, however, he almost everywhere halts halfway towards the truth. We have to thank him for the suggestion of the law of displacement of consonants, more acutely considered and fundamentally developed by Grimm ( $\$ .87$., and see Vater, §. 12.).

    + We refer the reader to the very weighty judgment of W. von. Humboldt on the indispensable necessity of the Sanskrit for the history and philosophy of language (Indische Bibl. I. 133). We may here borrow, also, from Grimm's preface to the second edition of his admirable Grammar, some words which are worthy of consideration (I. vi.): "As the too exalted position of the Latin and Greek serves not for all questions in German Grammar, where some words are of simpler and deeper sound, so however, according to A. W. Schlegel's excellent remark, the far more perfect Indian Grammar may, in these cases, supply the requisite corrections. The dialect which history demonstrates to be the oldest and least corrupted must, in the end, present the most profound rules for the general exposition of the race, and thus lead us on to the reformation, without the entire subversion of the rules hitherto discovered, of the more recent modes of speech."

[^3]:    self with having pointed out the possibility of another view of the construction, different from that which has been very profoundly discussed by Burnouf, and which is based on Neriosengh. The second passage signifies, "I call upon and magnify the stars, the moon, the sun, the eternal, self-created lights!"

[^4]:    * The simple maxim laid down elsewhere by me, and deducible only from the Sanskrit, that the Gothic $b$ is the long of $a$, and thereby when shortened nothing but $a$, as the latter lengthened can only become $\hat{\sigma}$, extends its influence over the whole grammar and construction of words, and explains, for example, how from dags, "day" (theme DAGA), may be derived, without change of vowel, dógs ( $D \bar{O} G A$ ), "daily "; for this derivation is absolutely the same as when in Sanskrit rajata, "argenteus," comes from räjata, "argentum," on which more hereafter. Generally speaking, and with few exceptions, the Indian system of vowels, pure from consonantal and other altering influences, is of extraordinary importance for the elucidation of the German grammar : on it principally rests my own theory of vowel change, which differs materially from that of Grimm, and which I explain by mechanical laws, with some modifications of my earlier defini-

[^5]:    tions, while with Grimm it has a dynamic signification. A comparison with the Greek and Latin vocalism, without a steady reference to the Sanskrit, is, in my opinion, for the German more confusing than enlightening, as the Gothic is generally more original in its vocal system, and at least more consistent than the Greek and Latin, which latter spends its whole wealth of vowels, although not without pervading rules, in $\begin{aligned} & \text { merely }\end{aligned}$ responding to a solitary Indian a (opptimus for septamas, quatuor for chatvar-as révoap-es, momordi fur mamarda).

[^6]:    * I refer the reader preliminarily to my two last treatises (Berlin, Ferd. Dümmler) "On Certain Demonstrative Bases, and their connection with various Prepositions and Conjunctions," and "On the Influence of Pronouns on the Formation of Words." Compare, also, C. Gott1, Schmidt's excellent tract "Quæst. Gramm. de Præpositionibus Gracis," and the review of the same, distinguished by acute observations, by A. Benary, in the Berlin Annual (May 1830). If we take the adverbs of place in their relation to the prepositions-and a near relation does exist-we shall find in close connection with the subject a remarkable treatise of the minister W. von Humboldt, "On the Affinity of the Adverbs of Place to the Prepositions in certain Languages." The Zend has many grammatical rules which were established without these discoveries, and have since been demonstrated by evidence of facts. Among them it was a satisfaction to me to find a word, nsed in Sanskrit only as a preposition (ava, "from,") in the Zend a perfect and declinable pronoun (§.172.). Next we find sa-cha, "isque," which in Sanskrit is only a pronoun, in its Zend shape
     the particle wo cha, "and," loses itself, like the cognate que in absque, in the general signification.
    "Remark.-What in §̧. 68. is said of the rise of the $u$ or o out of the older $a$ is so far to be corrected according to my later conviction, that nothing but a retroactive influence is to be ascribed to the liquids; and the $u$ and the $o$, in forms like plintemu (mo), plintyu, are to be exempted from the influence of the antecedent consonants."
    + The arrangement thus announced, as intended, has undergone, as will be seen, considerable modification.-Editor.
    F. BOPP.

[^7]:    * Grimm, Vol. i. p. 594; with whom I entirely concur in this matter; having long abandoned a contrary opinion, which I maintained in 1819 in the Annals of Oriental Literature.

[^8]:    * The original has devr, but, as observed in p. 1 , in European texts it is usual to write ṛi for चृ ; and the absence of any sign for the vowel sound is calculated to cause embarrassment: it seems advisable, therefore, to express च्च by ri--Editor.

[^9]:    - The practice is not unauthorized by rule. A final $\boldsymbol{म}$ is convertible to Anuswàra before any consonant (Pán. 8.3.23.); and a medial न or म is convertible

[^10]:    convertible to Anuswàra before any consonant except a semi-vowel or a nasal. ( $\mathrm{Ib}, 8,3.24$.) Such are the rules. In practice, the mutation of the final म is constant: that of the medial nasal is more variable, and in general the change occurs before the semi-vowels and sibilants.-Editor.

[^11]:    * This seems intended for an explanation, for Lassen has nothing like it. I have not found an etymological explanation of the term in any grammatical commentary ; but it may be doubted if the explanation of the text, or that given by Lassen, be correct. Anuswâra may indeed be termed sequens sonus; but by that is to be understood the final or closing sound of a syllable. Any other nasal may be used as the initial letter of a syllable; but the nasal Anuswâra is exclusively an "after" sound, or final. It is not even capable of blending, as it were, with a following vowel, like a final $n$ or $m$, as in tân-or tâmabravit. It is the legitimate representative of either of the other nasals when those are absolutely terminal,

[^12]:    terminal, and in pronunciation retains their respective sounds, according to the initial consonant of the following word. Again, with regard to its relation to the semi-vowels and sibilants, it may be regarded as appropriate to them merely in as far as neither of the other nasals is so considered. In this sense Anuswâra may be termed a subsidiary or supplemental sound, being prefixed with most propriety to those letters which, not being classed under either of the five series of sounds, have no rightful claim to the nasals severally comprehended within each respective series,-Editor.

[^13]:    * No native scholar would read these as bhaavani or kudhan, as the text affirms, bat bha-avam, kudham, agreeably to the final \& represented by Anuswara.-Editor.

[^14]:    * The original here adds-"We designate the aspirate by a comma, as $t^{\prime}, d^{\prime}, b^{\prime}$." The use of such a mark is, however, unsightly, and appears likely to cause occasional perplexity aud doubt. It seems therefore preferable to adhere to the usual mode of expressing the aspirated letters, as $d h, b h$, and the like. It is only necessary to remember that th and $p h$ are the letters $t$ and $p$ with an aspiration, and not the th and $f$ of the English alphabet-Editor.
    $\dagger$ A careful examination will perhaps shew that the several nasals of the Sanskrit alphabet are mere modifications of one sound, according to the manner in which that is affected by a succeeding letter; and that the modifications prevail equally in most languages, although it has not been thought necessary to provide them with distinct symbols.-Editor.

[^15]:    * The original has $g$ and $g$; but the appropriate symbols in English are $j$ and its aspirate.

[^16]:    * Here, also, it may be doubted if similar modifications of the dental sonnds are not discoverable in languages which do not express them by separate symbols. The $\boldsymbol{t}$ of the Italian tutto is the Sanskrit $\tau$.-Editor.

[^17]:    * It is scarcely correct to say "often," as the instances are rare: nor are they restricted to recent works. Menu has aślika for aśrika.-Ed.
    + Grimm (iii. p. 46) assumes an adjective lauds, "great;" which, as far as the Gothic at least is concerned, might be dispensed with, as it is of the greatest antiquity as a suffix, and does not appear alone as an adjective, even in the oldest periods.
    $\ddagger D h$, according to $\wp .16$., $=$ the Greek 9 ; and to the 9 , according to §. 87., corresponds the old High German $t$. The $u$ of trus, from the old $a$, may be produced by the influence of the $r$, or of the dropped nasal.

[^18]:    * More usually $\delta$; the $s h$ is reserved for the cerebral sibilant.-Editur.

[^19]:    - Cf. Hartung, p. 106.

[^20]:    * Berlin Journal, Feb. 1827, p. 254.

[^21]:    * Regarding Greek or as Guna of $\iota$, see $\oint .491$.; and as to Guna in Old Sclavonic and Lithuanian, sce \$§. 255.0 5, 741., 746.

[^22]:    - It would be difficalt to adduce a better instance of the phonetic deficiencies of our English alphabet than this sentence, in which I am forced to translate the present and past tenses of essen by the same characters. What foreign student could guess or remember that the one is pronounced eet, the other ett? The preterite "ate" is obsolete.-Translator.
    + N. Journ. Asiat., T. III. p. 327.

[^23]:    * According to original Grammars the Guna letters are $a, e, o$; the Vriddhi, $a, a i, a u$; the two first, $a$ and $a$, being severally substituted for the vowel sounds of $r i, l r i$, in combination with the semi-vowels $r$ and $l$, as $a r, a l, a r$, al.-Editor.

[^24]:    * But see §. 447. Note.

[^25]:    * $\mu \cup \begin{aligned} & \text { ôs, according to Burnouf, occurs occasionally as the termination }\end{aligned}$ of the genitive singular of the $u$-bases for the more common $\mu 0$ ) eus;
    

[^26]:    - This word comes from the root dha, "to place," not from da, "to give," see §. 637.

[^27]:    - Or more immediately from the Sanskrit ordinal तुर्य्ये turyya or तुरीय turiya, "fourth."-Editor.

[^28]:    ternal cause ; because I think I can shew that the Ablaut also is produced by the particular quality and condition of the termination. Whether, however, we seek for the radical vowel in the present or the preterite, the change is equally one quite different from that of the Indian Guna or $V_{\text {riddhi }}$, and in this respect, that it is a positive change ; while in Sanskrit the root vowel is not in fact changed, but only receives an increment, and that increment always one and the same, with which it diphthongizes itself, as in Greek, $t$ and $v$ with $\epsilon$, $\lambda_{\epsilon t \pi \omega}$, фevy凶. In respect of signification, likewise, there is a difference between the Indian Guna and Vriddhi and Germanic Ablaut; for the Ablaut has acquired for itself a significatory power for grammatical purposes, even if, as I conjecture, it did not originally possess such : the contrast between the present and the past seems to rest upon it, and there are indications that the latter is expressed by this change. In Sanskrit, Guna and Vriddhi present no indication of this significatory power, but, merely in the character of diphthongizing modifications, accompany those inflections which do signify grammatical relations."

    Further illustrations of these latter remarks are to be found in the Note 4, which Professor Bopp has appended to the above passage of the Vocalismus,-Trans.

    * Cf. p. 963, Note.

[^29]:    - But see § 721.

[^30]:    - By stamme, the author here evidently means the crude derivative words which serve as Stems or Bases to inflected words, or those in combination with inflectional terminations; thus Alhra for athar, forms athrava, athravaněm, not atharva, Atharvanam, \&c.-Editor.
    + The root corresponds to the Sanskrit dha, see §. 637.

[^31]:    * Compare, in this respect, सभ ablira, "cloud," for सख्भ ab-bhra, "water-bearing," and the Zend cupe)qsuu d-bĕreta, nom. "water-bearer."
    † Burnouf readsaöi (i.e. "over") and makesyaṡne, signify "reverence."

[^32]:    *The accusative fruO Oos so siucraim, appears in Olshausen, p. 13, with the variation Grodd $>$ s sufraim. ( (\$. 40.) Then we often find the instrumental assecos si suurya, for which, however, we must read asgaloriso uvraya, if suvorya be not derivable from a Theme \$oviss suteri, after the analogy of मुन्दरी sundari, from सुन्दर sundara. (Gramm. Crit. r. 270.)

[^33]:    * It is in this Translation given sh withont any mark. Ṣh denotes the Sansk. ष.

[^34]:    * I retain here the original $t$, since the theme of the word does not appear in use. $\rho t$ must otherwise have been changed for $p t$.

[^35]:    * Observations, rule 78 of the Latin edition of Sanskrit Grammar.
    $\dagger$ Burnouf is of a different opinion as to the matter in question, for in

[^36]:    * The termination $a n n$ from an belongs to the potential, precative, and subjunctive.

[^37]:    - Burnouf also writes the first of these ng. I have done the same in my reviews in the Journal of Lit. Crit.

[^38]:    * E.g. גO \%ugney hazanra, " n thousand."

[^39]:    - The Sanskrit पितृ pitri, "father," probably stands for पातृ pâtri, "ruler"; and the European languages have adhered to the true original. (Gramm. Crit. r. 178, Annot.)
    + In the text harja; but in order to shew more exactly the connection with the Sanscrit य $y$, vide §.68.1.12.; and as the $j$ is simply and universally pronounced $y$, the German $j$ will be represented by $y$ in this translation.

[^40]:    * Cf. §. 447. Note.

[^41]:    If, however, the Gothic diphthongs in question were not pronounced like their etymological equivalents $₹ \in$ and $\overline{\text { ®ो }} \hat{n}$, bat, as Grimm conceives, approximate to the Vriddhi-change (§. 26.) ऐे ai and ⿴囗 âu: in such case the High German $\mathcal{E}, \hat{o}$, as opposed to the Gothic ai, au, are not merely continuations of these Gothic diphthongs: but the pronunciation assigned by the Sanskrit to the union of $a$ with $i$ or $u$, must have been first introduced into the Germanic, under certain conditions, in the eighth century.

[^42]:    * Ahtau=ushtatu is perhaps the only case in which the Gothic au corresponds to the Sanskrit Vriddhi diphthong बौ $\hat{u}$; on the other hand, $a u$ often answers to खो $\hat{o}=(a+u)$.
    $\dagger$ There is yet another ia in Old High German, namely, that which Grimm (p. 103) very acutely represents as the result of a contraction, and formerly dissyllabic, to which, therefore, there is no counterpart diphthong in Gothic. The most important case will be discussed under the head of the verb, in preterites, such as hialt, "I held," Gothic haihald. After this analogy fiar, "four," (according to Otfrid), arose out of the Gothic fidvor, in this way, that, after the extrusion of the $d v$, the $\hat{o}$ passed into its corresponding short vowel.-Grimm, p. 193.

[^43]:    * Our Modern High German th is, according to Grimm (p. 525), inorganic, and to be rejected. "It is, neither in pronunciation nor origin, properly aspirated, and nothing but a mere tenuis."

[^44]:    t " Parents."

[^45]:    *Twê occurs as an uninflected genitive in Rosen's Veda-Specimen, p. 26, and may, like the mutilated ते $t \ell$, be also used as a dative.
    $\dagger$ "I bless," from the Sanskrit root prí, "to love," united with the prep. $a$.
    $\ddagger$ Ahva. The Sanskrit-Zend expression signifies "water"; and the Gothic form developes itself throngh the transition, of frequent occurrence, of $p$ to $k$, for which the law of substitution requires $h$ (see also aqua).

[^46]:    * $D a$ is an abbreviation of dai=G. $\tau a u$ Sansk, $t e$,s e e §. 466.

[^47]:    - The Latin prehendo is probably related to the Sanskrit root यह् grah, through the usual interchange between gutturals and labials.

[^48]:    - We scarcely think it necessary to defend ourselves for dividing, with Vossins, ob-solesco, rather than with Schneider (p. 571 ) obs-olesco.

[^49]:    - We cannot guide ourselves here by the original MSS., as these exhibit no separation of words, and entire verses are written together without interruption, as though they were only a series of senseless syllables, and not words of independent place and meaning. As we must depart from Indian practice, the more complete the more rational the separation.

[^50]:    - Compared with the Sanskrit, in which उप् uş̧ signifies "burn"; the sibilant must here pass for the original form.

[^51]:    * Cf. 8. 547., and for the whole f. cf. 68.547. 576. 570.

[^52]:    * The obvious relationship of torreo with тépropau, and तृष् trish from तर्प् tarsh, argues the derivation of the latter $r$ from s. Upon that of uro from उम् ush, see 8. 97.

[^53]:    * With the exception of the High German passive part. of the weaker form, which, in the adjunction of its $t$ to the root, follows the analogy of the pret. above described.

[^54]:    * Cf. the Sclavonic and Lithunnian, §. 457.
    $\dagger$ No other roots in $g$ in this person are to be found in Ulfilas.

[^55]:    * Trans. of the Hist. Phil. Class of the R. A. of Litt. of Berlin for the year 1824, p. 126, \&c.

[^56]:    * In his work on the language and wisdom of the Indians.

[^57]:    * In Greek, the present (indic. imper. and optat., the form of the Greek subjunct. is wanting in Sanskrit) and imperfect correspond to them; beyond which certain conjugation-signs do not extend. In German, the present of every mood corresponds.
    $\dagger$ The accent here distinguishes the 1st cl. from the 6th. e.g. for patati did it belong to the 6th. cl., we should have patáti.
    $\ddagger$ We give the plural, because the singular, on account of abbreviation, makes the thing less perspicuous,

    I| Sanskrit long vowels admit Guna only when they occur at the end of the root, but in the beginning and middle remain without admixture of the स्र $a$; so do short vowels before double consonants.

[^58]:    * I have already, in my Review of Grimm's Grammar, expressed the conjecture that the $a$ of forms like haita, haitant, haitaima, \&cc. does not lelong to the personal termination, but is identical with the $\boldsymbol{\square} a$ of the Sanskrit 1st and 6th classes; but I was not then clear regarding the Guna in the present in all roots with vowels capable of Guna. (See Ann. Reg. for Crit. of Litt., Book II. pp. 282 and 259.)
    $\dagger$ We make frequent mention of the Gothic alone as the trae startingpoint and light of German Grammar. The application to the lligh German will hereafter present itself.

[^59]:    * Occurs only with the prep, and, and with the meaning "to scold," but corresponds to the Old High German root BIZ, "to bite."

[^60]:    * Five roots of the second class introduce in Sanskrit, between the consonants of the root and the personal termination, an $₹ i$, as रोदिमि rôd-i$m i$, "I weep," from हद् rud. I can, however, no longer believe that the $i$ of the Latin third conjug, is connected with this $₹ i$, as there is scarce any doubt of its relationship with the s $a$ of the very copious first class.

[^61]:    * I now consider the $v$ of suihva and similar verls as purely euphonic, cf. ई. sti. and Latin forms like cogno, linquo, stinguo.

[^62]:    - Somewhat that pertains to this subject I have already put together very concisely at the end of my Sanscrit Glossary.
    $\dagger$ The attached cyphers denote the classes described in $\oint .109 \mathrm{~s}$,

[^63]:    * I believe I may deduce this form from the 3 d pers. pl. sp, eferuser histënti (cf, Ïravri) in the V. S. p. 183 : more on this head under the verb.

[^64]:    * Anquetil translates, "Si celui qui a commis ligucrefté ne reconnoit pas sa faute quelle sera sa punition."
    $\dagger$ Cf. p. 1281. Note *
    $\ddagger$ The $h$ (in the sense of $c h$ ) corresponding to the $j, \gamma$, accorils with §. 87., hut is moreover fivoured by the following $t$.

[^65]:    * Vide Gram. Crit, p. 328.

[^66]:    * I direct attention preliminarily to my treatise "On the Influence of Pronouns in the Formation of Words" (Berlin, by F. Dümmler).

[^67]:    * He forms, namely, from kim, regarded ns a base, kim-as, which in reality does not occur, and which has, for the sake of euphony, here become kimah.

[^68]:    * Regarding the character, the natural foundation, and the finer gradations in the use of the dual, and its diffusion into the different proviuces of language, we possess a talented inquiry, by W. von Hamboldt, in the Transactions of the Academy for the year 1827 ; and some which have been published by Dümmler.

[^69]:    - Cf. p. 1294. 1. 20. G. Ed.

[^70]:    * In Doric subsequent and original av $\sigma-a$.

[^71]:    * Thus in German an $i$ has been added to the above-merrtioned गो $g 6$, which, however, according to $\oint .117$., is suppressed, together with the case sign in Old High German; hence chuo, "cow," gen. chuoi, where the $i$ does not belong to the case designation, but to the here uninflected base.

[^72]:    * This sound is expressed by $c z$, as in Mielcke's edition of Ruhig's Grammar.

[^73]:    - The Latin adds an $a$ to this old consonantal base, and thus arises, according to the frequent interchange of $p$ with $q u$ (cf. quinque with पब्घन् panchan), aqua; on the other hand, am-nis rests on the form ap, as somnus for sopnus, and $\sigma \epsilon \mu \nu o ́ s$, for $\sigma \epsilon \beta \nu o ́ s$, in analogy with a Sanskrit euphonic law (Gramm, Crit. r. 58.). The Sanskrit has from the same root another neuter, जापस् apas, in which we recognise the Latin aquor, which therefore would not proceed from aquus, but is transferred from the waves, or the mirror of the sea, to other things of a similar nature. In Greek, áфpós appears to belong to the same origin.

[^74]:    * Bases in सर् ar in several cases, and in the primary form also at the beginning of compounds, contract the syllable सर् ar to चृ $r i$; and this चु $r i$ is regarded by the Grammarians as their proper final sound. (§.1.)

[^75]:    ＊This word occurs in the Codex of the V．S．，edited by Burnouf，very frequently，and mostly with that quantity of the initial $a$ which is required by the theory；so that where that is not the case it can only be impated to an error in writing．

[^76]:    * I have, however, found also 乌̧د ap $\delta$ in the accusative ; and am therefore in doubt, whether in this word, owing to the facile exchange of $\cdots a$ and $w a$, the confusion has not originated in mere graphical over-
     ros, dhatâo ashaonîs âytese, "aquas puras, optimas, ab Ormuzdo creatas, mundas celebro"; and प̣よد عusduş víspáo apô, "omnes aquas." On the other hand, in the page following: NpuNuGES Nowsesdes ewgs
     "has aquasque terrasque arboresque celelro."

[^77]:    * E.g. सुतो मम sutô mama, "filius meus," सुतस् तव sutas tava, "filius tuus" (S.22.).
    + Through the influence of the $y$, in accordance with a Zend law of euphony (§. 42.).
    $\ddagger$ Respecting the nom, e.g. of Gothic bases in ya, see p. 1309 G. Ed., Remark.

[^78]:    - I have used vocalization and vocalize to express the change of a semivowel to its corresponding vowel.-Trans.

[^79]:    * Although its quantity in the actual condition of the language is arbitrary, still it appears to have been originally long, and to imply a similar contrast to the Greek $\eta \nu, \epsilon \nu$-os; $\omega \nu$, ov-os. For the rest it has been already remarked, that between short vowels also exists a difference of gravity (§. 6.).
    $\dagger$ In bases in चन् $a n$ the lengthening extends to all the strong cases, with the exception of the vocat. sing.; thus, not merely राजा rája, "rex," but also राजानम् räjan-am, "regem;" राजानस् rajanas, "reges."
    $\ddagger$ I now prefer taking the $i$ of homin-is, \&c., as the weakening of the $o$ of homo. The relation resembles that of Gothic forms like ahmin-is, ahmin, to the nom and acc. ahma, ahman, which preserve the original vowel.

[^80]:    - In case two consonants do not precede the termination अन् an; e.g. खात्मनम् Atman-as, not Atmn-as, but नास्मस् namn-as, not naman-as, "nominis."
    + Perhaps identical with the actually-occurring खाहृ ah, "to speak," as मन् man, "to think," in Zend means also "to speak"; whence sobovg manthra, "speech," and in Gothic MUN-THA, nom. munths, "mouth" y. 66.).

[^81]:    * Vide p. 1083, Note.

[^82]:    *That, in Greek, the renunciation of $a \nu$ of the base is not entirely unknown may be here shewn by an interesting example. Several cardinal numbers in Sanskrit conclude their base with न् $n$; viz.
    panchan,

[^83]:    panchan, "five," saptan, "seven," ashtan with aşhtau, "eight," navan, "nine," daśan, "ten." These numerals are, indeed, used adjectively, when they are not governed by the gender of their substantive, but display always a neuter form, and indeed, which is surprising, in the nominative, accusative, and vocative sing. terminations, but in the other cases the suitable plural endings; e.g. पब्च राजानस pancha (not panchanas) rajaanas "quinque reges"; on the other hand, पब्बसु राजसु panchasu rajasu "in quinque regibus." To the nenter nominatives and accusative of the singular पष्च pancha, सक sapta, नव nava, and दश dasa-which rest on the regular suppression of the $n$-answer the Greek $\pi$ révet, énтá, èvía, déka, with the distinction that they have become quite indeclinable, and retain the old uninflected nominative through all the cases.

[^84]:    - The relation of this to मास् más, which signifies the same-from मास् $m a s$, "to measure," without a derivative suffix-is remarkable; for the interposed nasal syllable $n e$ answers to the Sanskrit न na in roots of the seventh class (see p. 118); and in this respect MENES bears the same relation to the Latin MENSI that 1, c. भिननि bhinadmi does to findo.

[^85]:    * Masculines and feminines in the consonantal declension agree in all cases: hence an exsmple of one of the two genders is sufficient. The only exception is the accusative plural of words denoting relationship in छर् $\operatorname{ar}$ ( $\overline{\mathrm{G}}, \S$. 114.), which form this case from the abbreviated theme in鳥ri.

[^86]:    * It has been remarked at $\wp .123$ of the cognate nom. عWs z\&o, "earth," accus. GXiS zainm, that I have only met with these two cases. The very common form $G \varepsilon \varsigma^{2 \beta m}$, which is found only in the other oblique cases, is nevertheless represented by Burnouf, in a very interesting article in the Journal des Savans (Aug. 1832), which I only met with after that page had been printed, as belonging to the same theme. I agree with him on this point at present, so much the rather as I believe
     zĕmi, " in terra," \&c. to the Sanskrit गवे gave', गवि gavi. I do not doubt, that is to say, that, in accordance with what has been remarked at $\oint .63$. and p.114, the Zend $G \boldsymbol{m}$ is to be regarded as nothing else than the hardening of the original $v$. The Indian गो $g \hat{\delta}$, before vowel terminations gav, would consequently have made itself almost anintelligible in the meaning "earth," in Zend, by a doable alteration; first by the transition of $g$ to $z$, in which $j$ mast be assumed as the middle step-in which e.g. GNט jam, "to go," from गम् gam, has remained; secondly, by the hardening of the $v$ to $m$. Advert, also, to the Greek $\delta \eta$, for $\gamma \eta$, in $\delta \eta \mu \dot{\eta} r \eta \rho$; since $\delta$ and $S \approx$, from $\bar{j} j$ ( $=d s c h$ ), have so divided themselves in the sound whence they have sprang, that the Greek has retained the $T$-sound, the Zend the sibilant.
    + I cannot quote the nominative of this word; bat it can only be
     2) Ig druj, "an evil demon," occurs very frequently the nom. uسっ7? druc-s. I have scarcely any doubt, ton, that what Anquetil, in his Vocabulary, writes vaikesch, and renders by "parler, cri," is the nominative of the said base; as Anquetil everywhere denotes $\sigma$ by $k h$, and $\mu \mathrm{my}$ sch.
    $\ddagger$ In the theme we drop, intentionally, the $\varepsilon$ ĕ required by $\S .44$, as it
     word; / 2 Upsede baratar also occurs, with is $a$ interposed.

[^87]:    - See the marginal note marked ( $\ddagger$ ) on the foregoing page.
    $\dagger$ Irregularly for गोस् $g \hat{0}$-s.
    : Or دیعسe grios, §. 33.

[^88]:    
     G-pulu vachim: and if these forms are genuine, which I scarcely doubt, they are to be thus explained-that the vowel which stands before $m$ is only a means of conjunction for appending the $m$; for this purpose, however, the Zend nses, besides the $\varepsilon^{\breve{e}}$ mentioned at $\oint .30$, not unfrequently
     and many similar forms; as quevGG skrit ठश्मस् uśmas (in the Vêdas उ₹

[^89]:    - Compare, in this respect, brachium, Bpaxiav, with बाहुस् bâhu-s, "arm"; frango, P̊भүvvu, with भनज्ञि bhanajmi, "I break," भम्नमस् bhanjmas, "we break."
    $\dagger$ With this view, which 1 have already developed in my treatise "On some Demonstrative Bases, and their connection with varions Prepositions and Conjunctions" (Berlin, by Dümmler), pp- 4-6, corresponds, as to the essential points, what Hartung has since said on this subject

[^90]:    * The e of nenter forms like dide, "great," from the base DIDYAnom. masc. didi-s for didya-s, as §. 135.* yaunikkis, "youngling"-I explain through the euphonic influence of the suppressed $y$. As also the feminine originally long $a$ is changed into $e$ by the same influence, so is the nominative and accusative neuter in such words identical with the nominative feminine, which is likewise, according to $\oint$. 137, devoid of inflexion; and dide therefore signifies also "magna," and answers, as feminine, very remarkably to the Zend nominatives explained at $\oint$. 137., as
     also, the feminine substantives in Ruhig's third declension, as far as they terminate in the nominative in $e$, as giesme, "song." As no masculine forms in is correspond to them, the discovery of the true nature of these words becomes more difficult; for the lost $y$ or $i$ has been preserved only in the genitive plural, where giesmy-ú is to be taken like rank-ú from ranka, i.e. the final vowel of the bases is suppressed before the termination, or has been melted down with it.

[^91]:    * The $\boldsymbol{a}$ of $a$ - $d^{\prime}=m$ is the preposition corresponding to the Sansk $a$.
    $\dagger$ See my treatise " On the Origin of the Cases" in the Trans. of the Berlin Academy for the year 1826. As $T$ in Greek easily becomes $\Sigma$ (but a final $\Sigma$ has in many parts of Grammar become $\nu$ ), Hartung founds on this, in the pamphlet before mentioned, p. 151, the acate conjecture of an original identity of neuters in $\nu(m)$ with those in $t$. We cannot, however, agree with him in this, because the $m$, on account of the origin which we ascribe to this case-sign, is as little surprising in the nominative of the neuter as in the accusative of the more animated genders; and besides, a greater antiquity is proved to belong to the neater $m$, through the Sanskrit and Zend, than probably the $\nu$ sounds can boast, which, in Greek, stand for an older $\Sigma$, as $\mu \in \nu$ for $\mu \in s$ (मस् mas), and in the dual rov, rov for घस् thas, तस् tas. What is wanting in the Greek, viz. a neuter inflexion s, appears, however, to be possessed by the Sanskrit ; and I am inclined to divide the form चदस् adas, "that" (nom. accus.) into a-da-s, and to explain it as a corruption of $a-d a-t$ (cf. Gramm. Crit. Addend. to r. 209.) ; but to regard the syllable $d a$ as weakened from $t a$, as in the Zend
     pronouns.

[^92]:    * Cf. §. 386. p. 544.

[^93]:    * The original has "Stämmen gen. masc. und fem.;" but genitives of nouns in $a$ do not take a euphonic $n$, nor do feminine nouns ending in short vowels use such an augment in the instrumental : here is no doubt some typographic error.-Editor.

[^94]:    * Grimm's conjectures regarding the forms sva and sve (III. 43.) appear to me untenable; and an explanation of these forms, without the intervention of the Sanskrit and Zend, is impossible. More regarding this at the pronouns.
    + If "as" is regarded as "through which means, in which manner or way," and "so" as "through this means, in this way," it is certain that among the eight cases of the Sanskrit language there is none which would be adapted in the relative and demonstrative to express "as" and "so."
    $\ddagger$ The German dat. sing. is, according to $\S .356$. Rem. 3 ., to be everywhere identified with the Sanskrit dative ; and so, too, the dat. pl the $m$ of which approaches as closely to the Sansk. blyas, Latin bus, Lith. mus, as the instrumental termination bhis, Lith. mis.

[^95]:    * Here the appended particle has preserved the original length of the termination, as is the case in Zend in all instrumentals, if they are combined with up cha, "and."
    + The Old High German form fatere (for fatera), "patri," proceeds, as do the genitive fatere-s, and the accusative fatera- $n$, from a theme FATERA, extended by $a$. The accusative fatera- $n$, however, is remarkable, because substantives, so early as in the Gothic, have lost the accusative sign, together with the final vowel of the base. In Old High German a few other substantives and proper names follow the analogy of FATERA.

[^96]:    * With reference to their use with various prepositions we refer our readers to Graff's excellent treatise, "The Old High German Prepositions," p. 181, \&cc.

[^97]:    * عp, ${ }^{2}$ ddiw afrite is undoubtedly incorrect: however, $\varepsilon e$ is often found erroneously for $t 0 e$ in other forms also.

[^98]:    * The $a$ being changed into $i$, according to r. 67 .
    $\dagger$ I. 813. "unsara appears to be derived from the accusative uns, as a so the dative unsis, which, with izwis, preserves a parallel sound to the dative singular." Cf. I. 813.34.

[^99]:    * See Ann. of Lit. Crit. March 1831, p. 376, \&c.

[^100]:    - So much the more remarkable is the $u$, which is still retained in the North Friesian dialect (Grimm, p. 814), where, e.g. yu-nke-r, yu-nk, in regard to the base, distinguishes itself advantageously from the Gothic i-gqva-ra, i-nqvi-s.

[^101]:    * It must not be overlooked, that here $g$ before $k$ only represents the nasal answering to $k$ (86, 1.).

[^102]:    * The difference between the forms the, hvê, explained at §. 159., and the datives tha-mma, hva-mma, consists first in this, that the latter express the case relation by the affixed particle, the former in the main base; secondly, in this, that thumma, hvamma, for thamme, hvammé, on account of their being polysyllabic, have not preserved the original length of the termination (cf. §. 137.)

[^103]:    * The Zend, too, has not everywhere so fully preserved the feminine $h m i ́$, as in the instr. $a$-l $m y-a$; but in the genitive, dative, and ablative has gone even farther than the Sanskrit in the demolition of this word, and has therein rejected not only the $m$ but also the $i$. The feminine
     also عuey tion of the lost $\lrcorner J y$ ( (§. 41.). From another demonstrative base we find the dative sues $z^{\prime} \ggg s$ ava-ngh-at, and more than once the ablative ァ出erzu>s ava-nh-At for ava-hmy-âi, ava-hmy-at.

[^104]:    * Cf. §. 356. Rem. 3. p. 501. last line but seven.
    $\dagger$ With respect to the extension of the $a$ to ai, compare the gen. pl. and Sanskrit forms, as te-bhyas, "iis," tesham, "eorum," for ta-bhyas, ta-sam.

[^105]:    * We have a remnant of a more perfect form of the particle aम sma in the locative interrogative form ka-mme, "where "? Sansk. वस्मिन् ka-smin,
    " in

[^106]:    "in whom," which, according to the common declension, would be कसमे kasme (from kasma-i). Compare the Gothic hvamma, "to whom?" for hvasma.

    * The form awiui, with awiei appears to admit of being explained as arising from the commixture of the final vowel of the $a$ bases.
    $\dagger$ The form पत्ये patye is, with respect to its want of Guna, irregular, and should be पतये patayê.

    I In combination with ipp cha we find in V.S., p. 473. apposjGsse paithyê-cha, and hence deduce for the instramental (p. 193 G. Ed.) the form paithya, while, according to §. 47., also paitya might be expected. From " haci, "friend," I find in V.S., p. 162, the instrumental assuotersion hacaya with Guna, after the analogy of the $د \ggg \mathrm{~S}_{\mathrm{N}}$ s baxava, mentionod at $\oint .160$.

[^107]:    * I have drawn attention already, in the first (German) edition of my Sanskrit Grammar, to the arbitrary and unfounded nature of this assumption ( 69.156 . and 264.) ; and I have deduced from the ablatives of the pronouns of the two first persons (mat, twat) that either at with short $a$, or, more correctly, a simple $t$, must be regarded as the ablative termination. This view I supported in the Latin edition of my Grammar, on the ground that in old Latin also a simple $d$ appears as the suffix of the ablative. But since then the justness of my opinion regarding the Sanskrit ablative has been still more emphatically confirmed by the Zend language, because the Zend stands in a closer and more evident connection with the Sanskrit than does the Latin.
    $\uparrow$ Nouveau Journal Asintique 1820, tom, III. 311.
    02

[^108]:    * See Gramm. Crit. add. ad r. 156.
    $\dagger$ What Anquetil III. 170. Rem. 4, writes guerofed can be nothing else than the ablative pastode garoit, for Anquetil generally expresses
     however, is treated in Zend as if gari was the original form, and the $i$ which precedes the $r$ was produced by the final $i$, as remarked by M. Burnouf in the article quoted at p. 173, and confirmed by the genitive usçlue garôis. That, however, which is remarked by M. Burnouf, 1. c. with respect to the genitive, and of which the Vend. S. p. 64. affords
     the ablative in ofit ; and the $i$, which, according to $\oint .41$., is adduced throagh the final $\lrcorner i$ of the base, is dropped again before this termination.
     mainyu.

    II Interchanges of $\downarrow 0$ and $\zeta \hat{\phi}$ are particularly common, owing to the slight difference of these letters. Thas, e.g. for pù 1 /G mraôt," "he spoke," occurs very frequently platg mraot; the former, however, is, as we can satisfactorily prove, the right reading; for, first, it is supported

[^109]:    ＊Burnouf writes tanavat，probably according to another Codex． I hold both forms to be correct，the rather as in the genitive，also，both tanv－仑̂ and tanav－仑̂ occur；and in general，before all terminations beginning with a vowel，both the simple form and that with Guna are possible．
    
     chathwarě－jangrô nishdarédairyạt barěthryaṭ hacha puthrěm，＂As a wolf， a four－footed animal，tears a child from its mother．＂This sentence is also important as an example of the intensive form（cf．Gramm．Crit． §．363．）The Codex，however，divides incorrectly nishdarě dairyatt．
    $\ddagger$ Regarding this form，see p．172．Rem．

[^110]:    * The redaplication in me-mor, from me-smor, would be of the kind used in Sanskrit, e.g. pasparśa, " he touched," of which hereafter.
    + Cf. the Gothic ablatives in $\hat{0}$, adduced in §. 294. Rem. 1. p. 384.

[^111]:     prepositions- ${ }^{\xi} \xi_{\omega}$, ävш, кáтш, \&c. It is here desirable to remark, that in Sanskrit, also, the ablative termination occurs in adverbs from prepositions, as स्रधस्तात् adhastat, "(from) beneath," पुरस्तात् purastat, "(from) before," \&c. (Gram. Crit. §. 652 p. p. 272.).

    + In compounds, remains of ablative forms may exist with the original $T$ sound retained. We will therefore observe, that in 'Aфpo8iry the first member

[^112]:     *ी âu ; e.g. rây-as, "rei," nâv-as, "navis "" and in neuters in § $i$ and $\boldsymbol{\jmath} u$, which, by the assumption of an euphonic न् $n$, assimilate to the consonantal declension in most cases.

[^113]:    - It might be assumed that as $\beta a \sigma \iota \lambda$ éos clearly stands for $\beta$ asìt́fos, Boós for $\beta o F$ ós, vāós for vāFós, (\$. 124.), so also ẫoreos would stand for ä̈ceFos, and that äoteos, therefore, should be compared with the Zend genitives with Guna, as ப̧>>ser zug danhav- $\hat{0}$. The $\epsilon$, therefore, in ägreos would not be a corrupted $v$ of the base, but the Guna vowel foreign to the base; but the $v$ of the base, which, according to the original law of sound, must become $F$ before vowels, is, like all other digammas in the actual condition of the language, suppressed. The $\epsilon$ is certainly a very heterogeneous vowel to the $v$, and the corruption of the latter to $\epsilon$, in the middle of a word, would be a greater violation of the old relations of sound than the rejection of a $v$ sound between two vowels. The corruption of $I$ to e e is less surprising, and occurs also in Old High German ( $\$ .72$. .). In Greek, also, a consonant $y$ is wanting, but cannot have been originally deficient; and therefore the question might be mooted whether also $\pi \delta \lambda \epsilon \omega s, \sigma \iota \nu a ́ \pi \epsilon \sigma s$ may not stand for pole-yós, sinape-yos.

[^114]:    * The Attic termination $\omega$ s is, perhaps, a perfect transmission of the Sanskrit धास् $a_{s}$; so that forms like $\pi \lambda^{\prime} \lambda_{\epsilon}-\omega s$ answer to प्रीतयास् prity-as. Although the Greek ws is not limited to the feminine, it is nevertheless excluded from the neuter (äवreos), and the preponderating number of ، bases are feminine.

[^115]:    * It would be better to read brâthr-ô, after the analogy of dâthr-ó, "creatoris." (Burnouf, "Yaģna," p. 363, Note).
    $\dagger$ The gen. of dúghdar is probably dughdër-ô (sec p. 194, Note $\dagger$ ).
    $\ddagger$ Sce p. 163, Note $\ddagger$.
    $\oint$ Few cases admit of being more abundantly quoted in Zend than the locative, with which, nevertheless, Rask appears to have been unacquainted at the time of publishing his treatise, as he does not give it in any of his three paradigms.

    II I now refer the Latin dative to the Sanskrit dative, rather than to the locative ; see p. 1227 G. Ed., Note $\dagger$.

[^116]:    * Perhaps the termination $A m$ is a corruption of the feminine genitive
     where it should be observed that in Pràkrit, as in Greek, a final $s$ has frequently become a nasal.

[^117]:    * See §. 196. † See §. 198. $\ddagger$ Or prity-âm. § Or tanw-dm.

[^118]:    to the theory of the weakest cases ( $(\mathbf{S} .130$.), to which in other respects the locative belongs. As, however, bases in सर् ar (चृ ri), with respect to the rejection and lengthening of the $a$, have a very great agreement with bases in an, it must here be further remarked, that these too, in the locative, do not strictly follow the suppression of the $a$ in the weakest cases, which is conditionally prescribed in $\oint .140$., but optionally retain the $a$, or reject it; so that with namn-i also nâman-i is used. With bratar-i, however, exists no bhratr-i, and the form pitr-i, given at $\oint .132$. is an oversight: the Greek $\pi a \tau \rho-i$ may therefore, with respect to the shortening of the base, be better compared with the dative pitr-e.

[^119]:    * The Zend can at will attach Guna to a final $>u$, or not; and we find
     mainyu, "spirit." On the other hand, we have found a final $s i$ only, without Guna; and indeed frequently sposse paiti, "lord." So Vend S.
     of the place!" The si between the preposition and the verb serves as a conjnuctive vowel, to assist the juncture of the words (cf. §. 150. Note).
    + It follows from this, and from §. 193., that ( $\wp .177$. ) I have incorrectly assumed ei as the termination in the dative. For áwi-ei, the division should be made thus, awie-i; and this is analogous with swáke-i, giesme-i, for awákie-i, giesmye-i.

[^120]:    * To this circumstance may also the re-introduction of the case-sign in the nenter be owing, while the Sanskrit employs the bare base. Moreover, this fact also may have co-operated towards the Greek more easily freeing itself in the vocative from the bare primary form, because it appears at the beginning of compounds much more rarely than in Sanskrit. (See §. 112.)

[^121]:    * See §. 44. $\quad$ S See §. 128.

[^122]:    * Ce. Gramm, Crit. Add. to r. 137.
    + Cf. Anquetil II. 175. The two Genii, which Anquetil writes Khordad and Amerdad, appear very frequently in the dual, also with the termination bya ( $\oint .212$.$) ; and where they occur with plural terminations,$ this may be ascribed to the disuse of the dual, and the possibility of replacing

[^123]:    replacing the dual in all cases by the plaral. Thus we read, 1. c. p. 211, haurvatat-ô and aměret-aś-cha as accusative, and with the fullest and perhaps sole correct reading of the theme. We will, however, not dwell on this point any longer here, but only remark, that haurvatat is very freguently abbreviated to haurvat, and the $a$ of amèrétat is often found shortened; whence, p. 104, עט haurvatbya, amérétatloyna, (see §. 38.); ; error. Undoubtedly, in the passage before us, for hurvaoicha, mast be read either haurvatäosccha, or haurvatatitdos'cha, or haurvatataoscha. Com-
    
     The two twin genii are feminine, and mean apparently, "Entireness" and "Immortality." The forms preceding them, therefore, toti and ubat, are likewise feminine ; the former for ते $t \hat{e}$ ( (§. 33.), the latter for उभे ubhe (cf. §. 28.). We must also regard the dual form mentioned at $\mathfrak{y} .40$. of the so-called Amschaspants not as neater, but as feminine.

[^124]:     amérětata, "the two Harvats and Amertats"; p. 136, and frequently, vivg giva nara, "two men." Cf. Gramm. Crit. Add. to r. 137.

[^125]:    * Cf. the dual genitive and locative निह्हयोस jihway-ôs.
    $\dagger$ The MS. has herc in the place of $\boldsymbol{0}$, although, as it appears, through an error. Cf. l. c. p. 88, and see $\$$. $\overline{\text { ol }}$.

[^126]:    * It is perhaps a participle of the reduplicated pret., according to the analogy of the Sanskṛit तोनिवस् ténivas, fem. तेनुपी tênushit (Gramm. Crit. §.603.) ; and indeed, from the root >>, tav, "' to be able," it may signify "powerful, strong." The $q e$ for $\% e \theta$ is explained by the influence of the $>v$. And ₹posyJJJup utayuiti also is an adjective feminine dual; but I am unable to quote examples of the other cases of this word, from which to learn whether $; i$ or $s i$ is its final vowel.

[^127]:    * On the facile transition of $v$ into $m$ (ef. p. 114) rests also, I doubt not, the connexion of the termination युवाम् ywvam, "ye two," साबाम् avam, "we two," with the common termination $\left\langle u\right.$, before vowels $\Delta v_{0}$ which in the pronouns spoken of has stiffened into $\hat{A} m$, and in this form has remained even before consonants. Whether the case is the same with the verbal third dual person ताम् tam shall be discussed hereafter.
    $\dagger$ Cf, Grimm, I. 828.17, where the identity of the Lithuanjan-German inflection $m$ with the $b$ (bh of the older languages) was first shewn. When, however, Grimm, 1.c., says of the Lithuanian that only the pronouns and adjectives have $m s$ in the dative plural, the substantives simply $m$, this is perhaps a mistake, or the plural is named insteed of the dual ; for Buhig gives ponams, "dominis," akims, "oculis," \&e.

[^128]:    * In the 1st and 2d pronoun (no-bis, vo-bis), where bis supplies the place of the bus which proceeds from भ्यस् bhyas.
    $\dagger$ Trans. Berlin Academy, 1826. Comparison of Sanskrit with its cognate languages, by Prof. Bopp. Essay III. p. 81.
    $\ddagger$ Olserve, also, that the Sanskrit instrumental termination blis has been, in l'rìkrit, corrupted to fí hin.

[^129]:    * Trans. Berlin Academy, 1820. Comparison of Sanskrit with its corgnate languages, by Prof. Bopp. Essay III. p. 79.

[^130]:    * From êbhis would come, after rejecting the bh, not ais, but ayis, for $\ell,=a+i$, cannot be combined with a following $i$ into a diphthong, or, as it is itself already a diphthong, into a triphthong.
    + I do not regard the Vêda नध्धेस् nadyâis, for नदीभिस् nadi-bhis, as an abbreviation of nadi-bhis (for after rejecting the bli, from naditis would be formed nadis), but as a very common instrumental, for which an extension of the base nadi to nadya is to be assumed. On the other hand, the Zend pronominal instrumental dis mentioned by Burnouf (Nouv. Journ. Asiat. III, 310.) may here be considered, which occurs frequently in the Jzeshne, and is probably an abbreviation of unssy dibis or H,T,Sy dibis, from a base di, the accusative of which GSy dim, "him," is often found with $i$ unlengthened, contrary to $\ell .64$. The connection of the base sy di with мノ $t a$ camnot, on this account, be disputed.

[^131]:    * By rejecting the labial, as in वृकैस् vrikâis from वृकाभिस् vrihâbhis, and by contracting the याम् $y \mathrm{a} m$ to w , as when, in Sanskrit, for yashita, ishta is said, from yaj, "to sacrifice," and in Zend $G_{8}$ im, "hace," for दूयम् iyam (see, also, §. 42.).

[^132]:    * The conjunctive vowel $o$, therefore, before the dual termination $u v$, has an origin exactly similar to that of the possessive suffix $\epsilon v$, which has been already elsewhere compared with the Sanskṛit बन्त् vant. Evr must therefore have been originally pronounced Fevt; and the conjunctive vowel, which the digamma made requisite or desirable before consonantal bases, and which, from thence, has extended itself to the whole third declension, has remained also after the digamma has been dropped, and thus $\pi v \rho-\sigma$-ets answers to $\pi v \rho o \hat{v}$, from $\pi v \rho-o-i v:$ on the other hand, rupó-ets to Túpouv (rupo-ï).

[^133]:    * A short time since, Max. Schmidt, in his excellent treatise "Commentatio de Pronomine Graeco et Latino" (p.77), endeavoured to connect the termination $\omega$ here treated of with the Sanskrit in a different way, by designating it as the sister form of the pronominal locative ter-
    mination

[^134]:    * Among others, in the 2d person plural of the middle q्वे dhue and ध्वम् dheam for बे tuce, रबम् twam.

[^135]:    * षर् ar before case terminations beginning with consonants is shortened to $\overline{\text { I }} \boldsymbol{r i}$ ( $\oint .127$.$) .$
    + Sce $\oint .56^{\mathrm{b}}$.

[^136]:    * Vide S. 797. p. 1078.
    + As स $a$ is lengthened in many other cases to $ए \theta$, and with this the case terminations are then first conjoined, there is good ground to assume that in ते tê, and similar forms, no case designation at all is contained, and that the pronouns, as purely words of personality, find themselves sufficiently personified in this case through themselves alone; as in the singular $s a$ is said for sas, in Sanskrit as in Gothic, and in Greek $\delta$ for ós; while in Latin, with is-te also ipse and ille are robbed of the nominative sign. This opinion is remarkably confirmed by the fact that जमी $a m i$ (Grimm.

[^137]:    * This form is, in my opinion, to be so regarded, as that, for greater emphasis, the termination as has been a second time appended to the termination, which had become concrete with the base.
    + The $i$, which, according to $\oint .41$., is blended with the base, remains in spite of the $a$ preceding the $y$.
    $\ddagger$ Simple as this point is, I have nevertheless found it very difficult to come to a firm conclusion regarding it, although, from the first, I have directed my attention towards it. Burnouf has already (Nouv. Journ. Asiat. III. 309, 310) given the plural neuter form, and instituted comparisons with the Gothic and Greek, \&ce. But from forms like hu-mata, "bene-cogitata," "hûcta," "bene-dicta," it cannot be perceived what the neuter plural termination properly is; because, setting out with the Sanskrit, we are tempted to assume that the true termination in these forms

[^138]:    although the form might also belong to a theme nara，which also occurs， but much less frequently than nar；whence also，elsewhere，the masculine nar－ô taê－cha，＂and those persons．＂From the theme vâch，＂word，＂ ＂speech，＂we find frequently vách－a（also，erroneously as it appears，
     vacha humata hâcta hvarè̛sta，＂verbabene－cogitata，bene－dicta，bene－peracta．＂ From ju＞＞visus ashavan，＂pure，＂occurs very often the neuter plural ashvana－a：as，however，the theme ashavan sometimes，too，although very rarely，extends itself unorganically to ashavana，this form proves less （though it be incorrect）that the neuter ashavan－a should be derived from the unorganic extremely rare ashavana，than from the genuine and most common ashavan，in the weak cases ashaun or ashaon．Participial forms， too，in nt are very common in the neuter plural；and I have never found any ground for assuming that the Zend，like the Pali and Old High Ger－ man，has extended the old participial theme by a vowel addition．In the Vend．S．，p．119，we find an accusative agha aiwishitâr－a，＂peccata corrumpentia（？）．＂Anquetil renders both expressions together by＂$l a$ corruption du caur＂（II．227．）；but probably aiwi－sitâra stands for －csitâra，and means literally＂the destroying＂（cf．fि kṣi，intrans．＂to be ruined＂）．So much is certain，that aiwi is a preposition（p．42），and tar is the suffix used in the formation of the word（ $(\$ .144$.$) ，which is in$ the strong cases târ ；and from this example it follows，as also from asha－ van－a，that where there are more forms of the theme than one，the Zend， like the Sanskrit（see Gramm．Crit．r．185．c．），forms the nominative，ac－ cusative，and vocative plural from the stronger theme．I refrain from ad－ ducing other examples for the remarkable and not to have been expected proposition，that the Zend，in variance from the Sanskrit，forms its plural neuters according to the principle of the Latin nomin－a，Greek tá入av－a， Gothic namôn－a or namn－a．

[^139]:    * Burnouf's MS. divides thus, anâ pěrětha, which is following Olshausen (p. 6), but with the various reading anápěrětha. I have no ground for assuming that in Zend there exists a preposition ana, "without," so that anat pĕrětha might mean "withont a bridge"; and that perrětu would, in the singular instrumental, form pĕrěthiva or pěrělava. I suppose, therefore, that pĕrëtu may be conjoined with the preposition $\hat{A}$, and then the negative an have been prefixed.

[^140]:    * Thus vrikan for vrikañs; as, षिद्धांस् vidwaris, whence the accusative विद्धांसम् vidwains-am, in the uninflected nominative बिद्धान् vidvedis, ("sapiens').
    $\dagger$ As the $\nu$ also passes into a (riecis for riقévs, Exolic túquas, $\mu e \lambda a u s$ for $\left.\operatorname{ru\psi a\nu }(\tau) s, \mu_{e} \lambda_{a v s}\right)$, Hartang (l. c p.263) is correct in explaining in this sense the $\iota$ in Æolic accusative forms like $\nu$ ó $\mu o t s$, rois $\sigma \tau \rho a \tau \eta \gamma o i s, ~ \& c . ~ A s ~$
     quoted by him, I believe that they have followed the analogy of the masculines, from which they sufficiently distinguish their gender by the a preceding the 1 ; we cannot, however, thence infer, that also the first and specially feminine declension had originally accusatives in $\nu \delta$, as neither has the Gothic in the corresponding declension an ns, nor does the Sanskrit exhibit an $n$ (see §.287., and cf. Rask in Vater's Tables of Comparison, p. 62).
    $\ddagger$ It cannot be said that rúntovaı proceeded from tintourot, a truly monstrous form, which never existed in Greek, while the rintrovt، before us answers to all the requirements of Greek Grammar, as to that of the whole base, since o-vtı corresponds to the Sansk. anti, Zend ĕnti, Goth. nt'; and from the singular $\tau t$ (Dor.), in the plaral nothing else than $u r t$ can be expected. Bat to arrive at ouvt from ovet it is not requisite to invent first so strange a form as ourat; for that ourc can become oval is proved by the circumstance that the latter has actually arisen from it, by the very usual transition of $T$ into $\Sigma$, and the not rare vocalization of the $N$ to $\boldsymbol{Y}$, as also in Sanskrit, in all probability, उस् us has arisen from $n \boldsymbol{n t}$ (cf. p. 172, Note*), of which more hereafter. But if in the dative plural, indeed, ov-बt has arisen from ovt- $\sigma$, not from ov- $\sigma t$ ( $\lambda$ éovot not $\delta a i \mu o v \sigma t$ ),

[^141]:    * Cf. Vèdic forms in ain.

[^142]:    * I formerly thought I could, through forms of this kind, quote the introduction of a euphonic $s$ in Zend, according to the analogy of 5.95. But if this introduction cannot be proved by cases, in which no ground exists for the assumption of an original sibilant, preserved merely by the particle up cha (cf. $89.56^{b}, 207.228$.), then the above examples are the more important, in order to supply a fresh proof that ins is the original designation of masculine plural accusatives of themes terminating with a
     hereafter) may be regarded as derived from a participial nominative. Other cases, which might suggest occasion to assume, in Zend, a euphonic s after $n$, have been nowhere met with by me.

[^143]:    * Thus in Spanish the whole plural has the termination of the Latin accusative.

[^144]:    ＊This ir，however，is treated in declension as if the theme originally terminated in $a$ ，and would thus，in Sanskrit，be asa．Hence，compared with the dative hûsiru－m（from hûsira－m，§．168．），the nom．accus．hûsir appears an abbreviation． Bu the relation of our ir to the Sanskrit as is not thereby disturbed，because in general，most of the original consonantal terminations in High German have received unorganic vowel additions． Cf．pp． 148 and 191，G．Ed．Note．More regarding this hereafter．
    $\dagger$ See p．175，G．Ed．Note．$\ddagger$ ．
    $\ddagger$ This form is further confirmed by $נ \gg j$ jupusuç pěsô－tanva，from pěsó－tanu，which signifies the hind part of the body（ $(.199$.$) ，but is also$ used in the sense of＂blow on the hinder part of the body＂；and in this manner it occurs in the 15th Fargard of the Vend．：גן⿰亻⿱丶⿻工二又⿴囗十
    

    $$
    \mathrm{s} 2
    $$

[^145]:    * Vide $¢ .160$. Note $\ddagger$
    † See $\$ \oint .56 \mathrm{~b}$, and 128 .

[^146]:    * Seé $\$ .215$.
    $\dagger$ The masculine $i$ bases pass in the plural, by an unorganic increment, into a different declension. And in the dual and dative singular, also, PATI had to be given up (Mielcke, p. 35, Rem. 1.).
    ; I have selected the masculine base PECU, which occurs only in a
     ried it through all the cases, and think, therefore, that I may here also give the original $u$-bus for the corruption $i$-bus.
    $\oint$ See $\S .224$. Note *, p. 241.

[^147]:    * Regarding the termination $i$-um in consonantal bases, and, vice versa, respecting um in places where $i$-um might have been expected, we refer the reader to $\oint$. 126. In adjectives the feminine character $\hat{\imath}$ mentioned in §. 119. may have had its effect, and may have passed over from the feminine to the other genders, according to the analogy of the Lithuanian (p.174. Note " §. 157.) : thus the $i$ of ferenti-um reminds us of the Sanskrit feminine भरन्ती bharanti. The same is the case with the $i$ of the neuter form ferenti-a; it is bequeathed by the deceased feminine theme FERENTI. On the other hand, contrary to the opinion preferred in §. 126., we must now regard the $i$ before bus (e.g. voc-i-bus) as a conjunctive vowel, like the $q e$ in the Zend vach-e-byô. Here it is to be observed that those consonantal bases, which admit neither $i$ - $a$ nor $i$-um, must nevertheless proceed before bus to annex an $i$. In the chapter apon the adjectives we shall recur to the feminine character $i$; and then treat also of the $i$ for $e$ in the singular ablative of the common dialect.

[^148]:    *This word often occurs, and corresponds to the Sanskrit सासाम् $\hat{A}$-sam "harum," "earum" ( $5.56{ }^{\text {b }}$ ) ; from wo ta, tâonhainm would be expected, which I am unable to quote. The compound (polysyllabic) pronominal bases shorten the last syllable but one; hence, Gxuerzupros at-tanhaǹm not aetãonhanm, as might be expected from एतासाम् etâ-sâm.
    
     frequently saochentain.
    $\ddagger$ This and the following genitives from bases in ar are clearly moregenuine, and are more nearly allied therefore to the cognate European languages than the corresponding ones in Sanskrit, which, in this case, has shortened ar to चric and has then treated it according to the analogy of vowels. From $7 x y$ nar frequently occurs nar-anm, with retention of the $a$, on account of the base being monosyllabic: on the other hand, Athr-aṅm from atar, "fire,"
     (Gramm, Crit, r. 255.). From 7 ¢@ Q >y dughdhar, we find the form dughdhěr-aìm (cf. p. 208, G. Ed. Note $\dagger$ ): the Codex has, however, dugděr-anm (p. 472, L. 2.). In general, in this word the readings dughdhar and dugdar are interchanged in various passages: the former, however, is the more common.

[^149]:     identical with $U \ggg \ggg P$ trishva, " the third part," since the pronoun in the latter compound denotes the idea of part.
    $\dagger$ Regarding the termination $w$ of the pronoun of the 1st and 2 d person see S. 222. From the Eolie form $\dot{d} \mu \mu \hat{\epsilon} \sigma v$, quoted by Hartung (p. 260) from Apoll., I cannot infer that $\omega \nu$ is an abbreviation of $\sigma \omega$ : if it were so, the $\nu$ also in inin would not adhere so firmly. It appears to me more suitable, therefore, to accord to the common declension an influence upon the transformation of the form of inflexion peculiar to the pronouns without gender, but of the highest antiquity ; an influence which has penetrated further in $\sigma \phi i \sigma \iota$ for $\sigma \phi i v$.

[^150]:    * The common termination ots, ats (ot-s, at-s), formed by curtailing $o t-\sigma t, a t-\sigma t$, and so brought into agreement of sound with the third declension, is here lost, through its apparent connection with the Sanskrit curtailed instrumental ending ऐस् Ais (§.219.), which had before required consideration, because the Greek dative is also used as the instrumental.
    + I have no authority for the locative of the Zend bases in $i$, but it can only be analogous to that of the bases in $u$, which can be referred to in copious instances.

[^151]:    - I take the liberty, in order to separate the base and the termination, to divide the diphthongs, as above in $\lambda v k o-v s$; therefore one must here pronounce vrikaiks, and in Lithuanian wilkais, not as trisyllables, but as dissyllables.
    $\dagger$ I have remarked at $\S$. 217., bat only as a conjecture, that the ending $\phi w$ in the plural is perhaps identical with the Sanskrit fिस् $b$ bis, and the thence-derived Prâkrit fहं liin, and the Latin bis in nobis, vobis; and I will not advance more than a conjecture here, also, in comparing $\theta_{\epsilon 6-\phi \omega}$ with deve-hin. This only is certain, that with the syllable fि bhi, which in Sanskrit, lies at the bottom of the case-forms fिस् bhis, म्यम् bhyam, and भ्याम् bhyam, as their common root (see $\S .215$. passim), the Greek $\phi_{6}$ and $\phi \boldsymbol{w}$ is also to be associated. I here willingly agree with M. Ag. Benary (Berl. Ann. July 1893, p. 51.), that $\phi \mathbf{\nu}$ might be formed from the
     reit, \&c. §. 222.). The third possible supposition would be the derivation from the nsual dative-ablative plural termination भ्पस् blyas; ngain with the corruption of $s$ to $\nu$, as in the 1st person plural $\mu e \nu$ from $\mu e s$, and in the 2 d and 3 d person rov, rov from थस् thas, तस् tas. The fourth possible case would be the derivation from the dual termination म्याम् bhyäm ( 9.215 .), and the changing this number of restricted plurality to that of unlimited plurality. I prefer, however, to consider $\phi_{\omega}\left(\phi_{t}\right)$ as from one of the multifarious terminations of the Sanskrit plaral belonging to all declensions; therefore, from fिस् bhis or म्यस् bhyas.

[^152]:    * First, a review of this Part in the Journal des Savans, which refers particularly to the Zend ; then the First Part of the First Volume of a Commentary on the Yaçna; lastly, a disquisition in the Nouveau Journal Asiatique, "Sur les mots Zends et Sanscrits Vahista et Vasichta, et sur quelques superlatifs en Zend,"

[^153]:    * The Codex has faultily suuvis asai and G̨̨u»?g drvjem.

[^154]:    * Perhaps the adverb मथनं prathamañ, "primum," is a corruption for प्रथम: prathamah, "primus," which answers to the original, and is to be expected from the sense.
    + Vide as to Ner Grys zavithea, p. 1244 G. ed.

[^155]:    - In other places (V.S. p. 385) Anquetil renders (p.137) the words

[^156]:    * Means "earth," and is probably connected with the Greek $\chi \dot{\omega} \rho a$, as aspirates are easily interchanged (Buttmann, $\oint .16$. Rem. 1.). The root is ขृ dhri (धर् dhar, §. 1.), "to hold," "carry;" whence, also, धारा dhârä, which, by reason of the long vowel of its root, approaches nearer the Greek $\chi^{\omega} \rho a(\zeta .4$.$) , although it does not signify earth.$
    + Without being able to quote this case in Zend bases in $a, I$ still have no doubt of the genuineness of the above form, since I can prove by other cognate case terminations: 1 . That the $a$ is not shortened; and 2 . also that an $i$ is not introduced into the theme by the assimilative power of the
     p. 308.) from wjee gĕnd "woman " (rvvi).

[^157]:    * It may be safficient to give here the cases of a Sanskrit masculine in ₹ $i$, which differ from the feminine paradigme : from agni, "fire," comes the instrumental singular agni-n-a-whilst from pati, " master," comes paty-a, and from sakhi, "friend," sakhy- $\alpha$ (see $\oint .158$.) -and in the accus. plural बग्नीन् agnî-n.
    $\dagger$ Differing from what is stated in $\wp$. 164. p. 196. G. Ed., it is now my
     the original form eusjupaddu afritaye, but is the contraction of $a$ and $y$; as, for instance, in the Prakrit fचनोमि chintemi, from fिनायामि chinta$y d m i$. $q e$ is here a weaker form of $d=\sum$, and is more properly used to represent the latter than another rowel. With regard to the Lithuanian, see p. 218, Note $\dagger$.

[^158]:    *Vide p. 1078 G. ed. as to twere-s and similar forms.

[^159]:    * Or bhi-n-atm, Further, the longer case-terminations, which belong to the feminine (see $\oint .164$. ), are added at will to the monosyllabic feminines in $\hat{i}, \hat{u}$; for example, together with bhiyê, bhruved, also bhiyâi, blruvâi.
    $\dagger$ Or, like the other monosyllabic words in i , with the termination am , striy-am.

[^160]:    * The o in ódpús is based on the peculiar disposition of the Greek to prefix a vowel to words which originally commenced with a consonant, to which I have already drawn attention in another place, and by which, among other things, the relation of ${ }^{\circ} \nu v \xi$, ${ }^{\circ} \nu 0 \mu a$, to नसस् nakha-s, नाम nama, is shewn.

[^161]:    * I give only the cases retained in the Greek.

[^162]:    * Sce Locative.

[^163]:    * Like the Genitive.
    $\dagger$ With cha, "and," vachas'-cha.
    $\ddagger$ See p. 230, Note*.
    § M. Burnouf, who has induced me, by his excellent pamphlet, cited at p. 276, on the Vahista (in the separate impression, p. 16, and following), to rectify my former views, leaves, p. 18 note, the question still undecided, whether forms like
    

[^164]:    * Feind, "foe," as " hater," sce §. 125. p. 138.
    $\dagger$ See p. 210. Note §; with cha, barentas-cha ("ferentisque").
    $\ddagger$ I imagined, p. 210, that I must, in this case, which before was not proved to exist in $N D$ bases, set đown fiyand-s as a mutilation of fyyand-is from fyand-as, according to the analogy of other bases terminating with a consonant (ahmin-s, brôthr-s, §. 101.); Grimm has (I. 1017.) conjectured friyóndis or friyônds from friy̧ôds. Since this, owing to the very valuable additions made by Massmann to our Gothic authorities, the genitive nasyandis of Nasyand ("preserver, "preserving") has come to light (see his Glossary, p. 153), by analogy with which I form fiyand-is.

[^165]:    * See p. 230, Note *
    + Or burěnbya. See p. 241 Note *, and p. 210. Note §.
    $\ddagger$ See p. 299. Rem. 2.
    § Barentas'-cha, "ferentesque." See p. 210 Note $\oint$.
    || This form, which, owing to an oversight, is omilted in p. 260, is found at Matth. 5. 44., and agrees with friỳónds, "amicos" ("amantes"), Matth. 6. 47. as generally with the declension of a root terminating with a consonant. Comp. Grimm (I. 1017.).

    IT See p. 241 Note *, and p. 210 Note §.
    ** The Gothic dative, which I would have used also as the instrumental ( $\oint .243$.), does not occur in roots ending in $n d$.
    $\dagger \dagger$ Or barant-añm. See p. 266 Note $\dagger$.
    I\# This case certainly cannot be proved in bases in nd; but may, however, be correctly deduced from the other bases ending with a consonant, and from the elder sister dialects. See §. 245.
    $\oint \oint$ I conjecture a transition into the $a$ declension (comp. p. 209 Rem. 2.), by suppressing the $n t$; thus, perhaps, baralshva (or -shu, or -shú, §. 250.), as Vend. S. p. 354 ; ; sû, from drĕgvat, in the strong cases ( $\$ .129$.$) drěgvant ; on the supposition$ that the reading is correct, except the false s. See $\S .52$.

[^166]:    * If, as has been remarked in another place, the suffix वन्त् vant has maintained itself in the Latin in the form lent (as opulents), it would not be surprising if the weak form बत् vat, without the interchange of $v$ with $l$, but with the weakening of the $a$ to $i$, had its representative in the Latin divit, which stands in the same relation to dhanavat, by passing over the middle syllable, as malo to mavolo.
    $\dagger$ It is stated by Professor Bopp, in the preface to the second published portion of this Grammar, commencing with the formation of cases in general, that it had not occurred to him to direct his attention at an earlier period to the Sclavonic tongues: having subsequently considered the subject, he found sufficient reason to include them in the same family of languages, and accordingly devotes to its principles of declension the supplementary section which follows.-Editor.

[^167]:    * Dobr. also himself, p. 493, considers simple $i$ or $i i$ as the definitive adjunct; but in considering, as he there does, blagyi as the confluence of blag and $i i$, he appears to look upon the $y$ as having arisen from the $i$ of the suffix, and not to acknowledge in it the final vowel of the simple adjective root.
    + In the oldest MSS., according to Dobr. p. 502, the more full forms $y \check{c h}, y \check{\mathrm{y}} \mathrm{m}, y \mathrm{yimi}$ occur in the plural, for $y m, y c h, y m i$

[^168]:    * Written $j a$ in the text. This passage furnishes a good reason for writing the Germanic $j$ by $y$, as has been done throughout this translation.

[^169]:    * Although this vowel may at times be pronounced short, still this much, at least, is certain, that, according to its origin and its definition, it is long. In Bohemian it appears in two forms, as $a u$ and $u$ : the former is pronounced $o u$, but the writing points to an older and different pronanciation, in which the $a$ was accurately preserved in its place: the $u$ is pronounced short, whence, however, it cannot be deduced that this short $u$ perhaps corresponds to the Sanskrit $उ$ and Greek $\breve{u}$, and that $a u$ is its intensitive or Guna; but, on the contrary, only the $u$ retained in the au corresponds to the Sanskrit उ $u$, and the $u$ which stands alone in Bohemian is a weakening of the $a u$; so that, from this, the concluding element $u$ alone is left : etymologically, that is to say, the Bohemian au, as also $u$, answers to the Sanskrit \&ो $\hat{\theta}$, and also to the Sclavonic $\hat{u}(8)$, only that the former is phonetically more exact, and without the loss brought about by time. Hence, also, usta (written vsta) "ora" corresponds to the Sanskrit सोष $\delta s$ sh $\dagger h a$, "the lip": more complete, however, is austne, "by word

[^170]:    of mouth"; and even for vsta is to be found austa (Dobr. Böhm. Lehrg. p.4.): ruka corresponds to the Lithuanian ranka, "hand"; and hus to the Sanskṛit हंस hañsa, "goose"; for which, according to p. 319.rauka, hausa was to have been expected. A distinction must here, according to $\S .783$. Remark q. v., be made between oy $\hat{u}$, and $\AA \tilde{\mathrm{h}}_{\text {. }}$

[^171]:    * Dobrowsky supports himself in these cases by calling ov a prefix (p. 329).

[^172]:    * Cf. §. 783. Remark.

[^173]:    * In the original jer, pronounced, however, yer ; and hence $y$ has been substituted for $\boldsymbol{j}$ in all that follows.-Editor.

[^174]:    * In the Carniolan dialect this sound has mostly disappeared; but where it has remained it is also written by a $y$; as, kony, "horse."

[^175]:    * Dobrowsky has, however, as $t$ appears to me, not perceived the irrefragable connection between the $c h$ of dach and the $s$ of daste, for he considers the $c h$ and ste, \&c. as personal terminations (pp. 201. 383.397); and hence he nowhere informs us that ch before $t$ passes into $s$. More on this sulject when we come to the verb.
    $\dagger$ The vowels mentioned here, preceded by $y$, are, with the exception of
     "five," must be pronounced panity (in the original character natb).

[^176]:    the Carniolan, before all inflections beginning with $m$ in the three numbers, as posla-m, "through the domestic," posla-ma "the two domestics." This word appears to be identical with पुच्च putra, "son," Persian pisar "son," "boy," "young man," and to owe its meaning to familiar address.

[^177]:    * Where I fix the theme, I leave the enphonic law contained in §. 255. ( $n$.) unregarded, and I give SERDZYO as the theme of serdse ("heart," nom. acc.), although the latter is no other than the theme modified according to that euphonic law, i.e. without inflection, as in the Sanskrit vâch is laid down as the theme, although eh cannot stand at the end of a word, but passes into $k$, as in the nominative valk, which is properly identical with the theme.

[^178]:    * $\zeta$ frequently answers to the Sanskrit ज् $j$, and for example ज्ञा $j n a ̂$, "to know," is in the Sclavonic §na (infinitive §nati).
    + But see p. 879. Note §. 647.
    $\ddagger$ As these words stand in analogy with the infinitive in $t i$, in so far that their suffix begins with a like consonant, Dobrowsky (pp. 292, 203) derives them from the infinitive, and allows them simply ely as suffix (as also simple ary for tary), as it has been the custom to derive also, in the Latin, tor and turus from the supine. However, it is certain

[^179]:    the suffixes TOR, TURU and the Sclavonic TARYO, TELYO, used to borrow their $t$ not at first from another syllable of formation so commencing. They form primitive words from the roots themselves, and not derivatives from other words.
    *Thus, also, P $\bar{U} T I$, "a way" (Sanskrit पथिन् pathin), and $L \bar{Y} \bar{U} I I, \mathrm{pl}$. num, nom. lyûdy-e, "people," Gothic LAUDI, nom. lauth, "a person," the $a u$ of which, according to $f .255$. ( $f$ ), is represented by $\hat{u}(8)$, and, according to§. 255 . ( m .), has gained a prefixed $y$. GOSPODI, "a master" (comp, पति pati, Lithuan: PATI and Gothic FADI) is in fact irregular, as it passes into several kinds of theme in its declension.

[^180]:    ＊Dobrowsky（p．355）imputes，in my opinion wrongly，the $n$ of po－ myanú，＂I remember，＂and some similar bases，to derivation，instead of supposing that the radical $n$ is suppressed before $t$ ，in analogy with the Sanskrit，and as，in Greek，rá⿱宀㠯 from TAN，Sanskrit तनिस् tati－s，＂a line＂ （as extended），for तन्तिस् tanti－s．
    $\dagger$ The example given by Dobrowsky，zerkovy，＂a church，＂nevertheless does not apply to monosyllables，as krovy，＂blood＂（Sanskrit क्रब्य kravya， neuter，＂flesh＂），nor to those polysyllables in which two consonants precede the syllable ov；for yatrvach and krvach wonld be equally imprac－ ticable（comp．Gretsch by Reiff，p．163）．Brovy，＂eyebrow，＂also appears to form all its cases from a theme BROVI，an extension of the Sanskrit भू blurû，feminine，by the addition of $i$ ，with a Guna of the ₹ $\hat{u}$ ．The nominative plural is hence lrovi（Dobrowsky，p．115），not brov－e．

[^181]:    * We term this class of words, nevertheless, bases in $y$; for although their final letter never occurs as $y$, still, according to $\oint .225$. ( $c$.), $y$ is the most legitimate, even if it be the most rare, representative of the Sanskrit उ $u$. But should it be wished to call them bases in $o$, they would not be distinguished from the order of words, which, according to $\oint 257$, bear this name with more right. The term $u$ bases would be appropriate only so far as here, under the $u$, might be understood, not the Old Sclavonic y (etymologically = 区ो $\delta$ ), but the Sanskrit $\overline{\boldsymbol{j}} u$ or the Latin $u$ of the fourth declension, which, in the Old Sclavonic, has no real existence.

[^182]:    * Without Guna, the final of the base is pronounced e for ye from yo ( $\$ .255 . n$.$) ; and hence, in the cases without Guna the \gamma y$ bases are just as little to be distinguished in their inflection from the yo bases, as, in the instrumental singular, syno-m (from the theme SYNY) from rabo-m (theme RABO). In the beginning of compound words, also, the $y y$ bases end like those in $y o$, with $e$ for ye.
    $\dagger$ As regards words inflected like mravir, the only proof which could bring them under the head of the $y$ bases is the vocative sing. mraviyua: that they, however, although they have borrowed this case from the $y$ declension, originally belong to the o declension, is proved by their feminine in iyja and neuters in iye or ye (Dobrowsky, p. 282).

[^183]:    * Cf. $\wp .783^{1}$.
    $\dagger$ For $m$, according to Dobrowsky, we should read mb my.
    $\ddagger$ Hence I am now disposed, contrary to $\$$. 177., to assume for the Lithuanian a common origin for the two cases, although in their received condition they are externally separated from one another, as is the case in Old Sclavonic, also, in several classes of words.

[^184]:    * Masculine names of inanimate things all follow the declension of dom (theme $D O M Y$ ), although very few among them, according to their origin, fall into the class of the old $\mathbf{3} u$, i.e. of the Latin fourth declension, but for the most part correspond to Sanskrit bases in w $a$.

[^185]:    * It must be allowed that here occurs the very weighty objection, that the feminine form rankoye in the Lithuanian, and vodye in the Sclavonic, might stand in connection with the Sanskrit wायाम् $A y a ̂ m$ in जिद्हायाम् jihway-am (§. 202.); so that, after dropping the $m$, as in the Zend ( $\wp .202$.), the preceding vowel, which in the Zend is already short, would, through the euphonic influence of the $y$, become $e$. As the bases in $i$ in the Lithuanian, down to a few exceptions, are feminine, so might also awige from avi-s, "a sheep," be divided into awiy-e, and compared with मत्याम् maty-âm, from mati or भियाम् bhiy-am from bhi (comp. in §.266. kostiny- $\hat{4}$, for kosty-û, from KOSTI).

[^186]:    * $\zeta$ hefore $e$ becomes sh.

[^187]:    * The ye, which precedes the termination ma, may be compared with the Sanskrit $\hat{e}$ in plural forms, ns वृकेम्पस् vrikebhyas : ye-ma, however, occurs in the Old Sclavonic only in dvye-ma, "duobus," "per duos," and some pronouns. The usual form of substantive $a$-bases before this ending is that with an unchanged $o$, as sto-ma, from sto, "a hundred"; and the final $a$ of feminine substantives also remains unchanged, as dyeva-ma, from DYEVA, " a girl."
    $\dagger$ The form $\hat{u}$, for the Sanskrit ending $\hat{\delta} s$, is, according to $\oint .255 .(f$. and (l.), necessary : the Zend certainly approaches the Old Sclavonic in casting away the $s$ voluntarily. The oy, which precedes the termination $\hat{4}$, clearly corresponds to the Sanskrit सय् ay (see $\$ .225$.) and the

    Zend

[^188]:    * The above examples are arranged according to their final letters, with the observation, however, that o represents an original short $a$, and hence precedes the $a$ for Sanskrit $a(\$ .225, a$.$) . All bases in t$ have a $y$ before the preceding $a$; this semi-vowel is, however, readily suppressed after sibilants ; hence ovcha for ovchya, Dobr. p. 475 ; and hence, also, from lizyo come (nom. lize) the genitive, dative, and nominative accusative plural liza, lizû, for lizya, lisyû. If in bases in yo, m. n., and in feminines in $y a$, an $i$ precedes the semi-vowel, this involves some apparent
    variations

[^189]:    
    ${ }^{5}$ Comp. p. $286 . \quad{ }^{6}$ Comp. p. $288 . \quad$ i See p.337, Note. See j. 2 m

[^190]:    * Occurs only as the relative in union with sche.

[^191]:    * See Note $\ddagger$ on preceding page.
    ${ }^{1}$ See $\S .255 . d$. $\quad{ }^{2}$ Or svatye- $m$, in which, as in the Lithuanian, the adjective is inflected at the same time.
    ${ }^{3}$ The indefinite and definite forms are here the same, for this reason, that svyato-yeyu, as the latter must originally have been written, has dropped the syllable ye. The adjective base svyata has weakened its $o$ to $a$ before the pronominal addition (§. 255. a.), just as in the dative and locative soyato-i, where an external identity with the indefinite form is not perceptible.

    4 Or svyatye-i. Comp. Note 2.

[^192]:    * The Gothic ai would lead us to expect e, and this, too, is given by Grimm. As, however, with Kero, the doubling of the vowel, and, with Notker, the circumflex is wanting, I adopt in preference a shortening of the $e$, or leave the quantity undecided.

[^193]:    * As in the Old High German $i$ and $j(y)$ are not distinguished in writing, it remains uncertain in many, if not in all cases, in what places of the memorials which have come down to us the sound $j$, and in what that of $i$ is intended; as even where the Gothic has a $j$, it may become $i$ in the Old High German. If, however, in the analogous adjective forms like plintju one reads $j$, which is supported by the Gothic (p 362), we must, in my opinion, leave it in the above forms also. Grimm writes diu, siu, but dusju $u_{\text {a }}$ and expresses, p. 791, his opinion regarding the $i$.

[^194]:    - $D, t h$, and $d h$ are interchanged according to different authorities.

[^195]:    * Ruhig (by Mielke, p. 68) wrongly gives $a i$ as the emphatic adjunct, as the doubling of the $s$ in tassai, szissai, yissai is clearly to be explained through the assimilative power of the $y$ (see p. 353 , Note $\dagger$ ). The termination ai answers to the neuter tai, mentioned at 8.157 ., for tat, which latter is contained in the compound tat-tai (comp. kok-tai, tok-tai). After two consonants, however, the $y$ is entirely dropped; hence e.g. kurs-ai, not kurs-sai.

[^196]:    * The Gothic resembles the Latin in withdrawing the sign of the nominative from its masculine bases in $r a$, as the latter does from its corresponding bases in ru. Hence, above, hvathar for hvathar(a)s, as alter for alterus; so also vair, "man," = Latin vir for viru-s. This suppression has, however, not extended itself universally in both languages. In the Gothic, as it appears, the $s$ is protected by the two preceding consonants; hence akrs, "a field" (comp. Grimm, p. 699) ; still the adjective nominatives gaurs, " mournful" (theme Gaura, comp. Sanskṛit थोर ghôra, "terrible"), and svers, "honoured," occur, where this cause is wanting, where, however, the preceding long vowel and the diphthong au may have operated. In vair, indeed, a diphthong precedes ; but the $a$ is here first introduced through the euphonic law 82. If, in Latin, in adjective bases in $r i$, only the masculine has predominantly given op the $s$, with the
    preceding

[^197]:    preceding $i$, while e.g. the feminine acris might have permitted its is to have been removed, just as well as the masculine, I can find the reason of this firm adherence of the feminine to the termination is only in the circumstance that the vowel $i$ particularly agrees with that gender, as it is in Sanskrit (although long), according to $\oint .119$., the true vowel of formation for the feminine base. In Gothic, the suppression of the nominative sign $s$ is universal in bases in $s a$ and $s i$, in order that, as the final vowel of the base is suppressed, two $s$ should not meet at the end of the word; hence e.g. the nominative drus, " a fall," from DRUSA; garuns, "a market," from GARUNSI, f.

    * I have traced back the comparative nature of this adverb, which Voss derives from iter, "the journey," for the first time in my Review of Forster's Sanskrit Grammar in the Heidelb. Jahrb. 1818. i. p. 479.

[^198]:    - I was of opinion, when I first treated this subject (Heidelb. Jahrb. 1818, p. 480), that ob-i-ter must be so divided, and $i$ looked upon as the vowel of conjunction. As, however, the preposition ob is connected with the Sanskrit खभि abhi, "to," "towards," the division obi-ter might also be made, and the original form of the preposition recognised in obi: observe the Sanskrit derivative सभितस् abhi-tas, "near," from abhi with the suffix tas. The common idea, however, that obiter is compounded of $o b$ and iter cannot entirely be disproved, partly as then obiter would be a similar compound to obviam.
    $\dagger$ Comp, $n i$, pari, prati, for $n i, \& c$. in certain compounds, Formations which do not quite follow the usual track, and are rendered intelligible by numerous analogies, are nevertheless frequently misunderstood by the Indian Grammarians. Thus Wilson, according to native authorities, derives ज्ञल्तर antar from anta, "end," with râ, "to arrive at," and the
    analogous

[^199]:    * Regarding dar and tar for thar, see §. 91.
    + Grimm however, also, at II. 121. \&ce., divides brôth-ar, vat-ar ("brother," "father"), although the many analogous words denoting relationship in the German and the cognate languages clearly prove the $T$ sound to belong to the derivative suffix (see Gramm. Crit. §.178. Rem.).

[^200]:    * It is usual to attribute to it the meaning "in," "into," which cannot in any way be supported.
    + Grimm assents to my opinion, which has been already expressed in another place, regarding the relationship of fि $n i$ and nidar (III, 258 , 259): he wishes, however, to divide thus nid-ar, and to suppose a Gothic verb nithan, nath, nethun, to which the Old High German ginada (our Gnade) may belong. Does, however, gi-nada really signify humilitas? It appears that only the meaning gratia can be proved to belong to it; and this is also given by Grimm, I. 617. and II. 235. gratia, humanitas, where he divides ki-na-da, which appears to me correct, and according to which $n d$ would be the root, and $d a$ the derivative suffix ; as in the etymologically clear ki-wâ-da, "afflatus," to which the Sanskrit gives वा wa, "to blow," as root, the Gothic gives vó (§.69.) (vaia, vaivô). To gi-nâ-$-d a$, indeed, the Sanskrit supplies no root $n a$, but perhaps nam, " to bend oneself," the $m$ of which, according to the laws of euphony, is suppressed before $t$, which does not produce Guna; as nata, " bent," nati, " bending," with the preposition sam, san-nati, which Wilson explains by "reverence," "obeisance," "reverential salutation.". As the Gothic inseparable preposition ga, Old High German gi or $k i$, is, as Grimm first acately remarked, identical with the Sanskrit sam, gi-na-da has much the same formation with san-na-ti: it would, however, still better agree with the feminine

[^201]:    * Before my acquaintance with the Zend, and deeper examination of the Sclavonic, I believed I could make out the Greek base av to agree with the Sanskrit amu, "ille," by casting out the $m$ (as koûpos with kumâra): now, however, צव ava and OVO have clearly nearer claims to take the Greek forms between them.
    + Terms of relationship often express the relation, of which they are the representatives, very remotely, but ingeniously. Thus नमृ naptri, "a grandson," is, I have no doubt, compounded of na, "not," and pitri, "father"; and "not-father" is regarded as a possessive compound, "not having as father," in relation to the grandfather, who is not the father of the grandson. In Latin it would be difficult to find the etymology of nepos (nepot-)-and the same may be said of our word neffe-without the aid of the word Vater, which is fully preserved from the Sanskrit. In tho

    $$
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    $$

    meaning

[^202]:    meaning of Neffe the negation of the relationship of father points to the uncle. The Indian Grammarians, according to Wilson, see in naptri the negation, but not the father, but the root pat, "to fall," and a Unâdi suffix tri.

[^203]:    * By writing we, Grimm marks the corraption of the $e$ from $i$, in which I readily agree with him.

[^204]:    * The Taddhita suffixes are those which form derivative words not primitives direct from the root itself.

[^205]:    * The Guna, however, in the gradation forms under discussion, might also be accounted for in a different way, namely, by bringing it into connection with the Vriddhi, which occurs before many other Taddhita suffixes, especially in patronymics, as वैवस्तत vaivaswata, from विवसत् vivaswat. On account of the great weight of the gradation suffixes fiyas, $i s ̧ l t h a$, which has given rise to the suppression of the suffix of the positive base, the initial vowel also of the same would accordingly be raised by the weaker Guna, instead of by the Vriddhi, as usual (\$.26.). Be that how it may, one must in any case have ground to assume an historic connection between the Grecian vowel-lengthening in $\mu \eta{ }_{\eta} \kappa \iota \sigma \tau o s$, Aā $\sigma \sigma \nu$, and others, and that of Sanskrit forms like kshépiyas, kshépishhtha.
    + If there existed, as in Zend, a brira, one might hence also derive the above gradations.

[^206]:    * Comp. p. 325 G. ed.

[^207]:    * Comp. §. 20.
    $\dagger$ Berl. Jahrb. 1831. I. p. 372. I then conceived this form to be $t$ arrived at, that the $y$ of the Sanskrit iyast had disappeared, as in the $g$ tive termination $h e$, from स्य sya; after which the $\mathfrak{i}$ mast have passed int

[^208]:    is simpler, and closer at hand, although the other cannot be shewn to be impossible; for it is certain that if the $y$ of fyas had disappeared in Zend, it would fall to the turn of the preceding $i$ to become $y$.
     attributive verbs. It may be allowed here preliminarily to mention another interesting Prâkrit form of the future, which consists in this, that the Sanskrit $s$ passes into $h$, but the syllable य $y a$ is contracted to $i$, herein agreeing with the Latin $i$ in eris, erit, amabis, amabit, \&c.; as, karihisi, "thou willst make," from karishyasi ; sahihimi, "I will endure," from sahishyâmi, instead of the medial form sahishyé (Urvasi, by Lenz. p. 59).

[^209]:    * A base in $s$, as the abovementioned mais, would not be distinguished from the theme in all the cases of the singular, as also in the nominative and accusative plural, as, of final double $s$, the latter must be rejected (comp. drus, "fall," for drus-s from drusa-s, §. 292. 1st Note). In the nominative and genitive singular, therefore, the form mais-s must have become mais; just as, in the nominative and accusative plural, where ahman-s comes from the theme ahman. The dative singular is, in bases ending in a consonant, without exception devoid of inflection; and so is the accusative, in substantives of every kind.

[^210]:    * Berl. Jahrb. May 1827, p. 743, \&c. Perhaps Grimm hat not yet, in the passage quoted above, become acquainted with my review of the two first parts of his Grammar ; since he afterwards (II. 650.) agrees with my view of the matter. I find, however, the comparison of the transition of the Gothic $s$ into $z$ with that of the Indian $\mathbb{R}^{s}$ into $\mathbb{Q}$. $s h$ inadnissible, as the two transitions rest upon cuphonic laws which are entirely distinct ; of which the one, which obtains in the Gothic (5. 86.5.), is jost as forcign to the Sanskrit, as the Sanskrit ( $\oint$. 21. and Gramm. Crit. 101 ${ }^{\circ}$ ) is to the Gothic. It is further to be observed, that, on account of the difference of these laws, the Sunskrit प् sh remains also in the superiatire. where the Gothic has always st, not zt. In respect to Greek, it mar here be further remarked, that Grimm, l. c. p.651, in that language, alse, admits an original $s$ in the comparative; which he, however, does not look for after the $\nu$ of $\iota \omega \nu$, as appears from $\oint$. 299., but before it ; so thas he wishes to divide thus $\mu \epsilon i-\zeta \omega \nu$, as an abbreviation of $\mu \epsilon \gamma i \zeta \omega \nu$; and regands the $\zeta$ not as a corruption of the $\gamma$, as Buttmann also assumes, but as a comparative character, as in the kindred Gothic ma-iza. The Greek $\omega \nu, o \nu$, would, according to this, appear identical with the unorganic Gothic an in MAIZAN; while we have assigned it, in §. 299., a legitimate foundation, by tracing it back to the Sanskrit dirs.

[^211]:    *The positive does not occur, but the Sanskrit swîdu-s and Greek íd lead us to expect a final $u$.

[^212]:    * The $a$ in $\alpha \mu \epsilon i \nu \omega \nu$ appears to me to be privative; so that $\mu \epsilon i \nu \omega \nu$ would seem to be a sister form to the Latin minor, Gothic minniza, Sclavonic $m n i i$; and ajéivev would properly signify "the not lesser," "the not more trifling." Perhaps this word is also inherent in omnis; so that $o$ for $a$ would be the negation, which, in Latin, appears as in; where it may be observed, that, in Sanskrit, $a$-sakrit, literally "not once," has taken the representation of the meaning "several times."
    + The positive velir, with $v$ for $b$ and $e$ for $o$, occurs only in this definite form (Dobr. p. 320) ; the primitive and indefinite form must be vel. With respect to the stronger $o$ corresponding to the weaker letter $e$ ( 9.255 . a.), bolii, in the positive, answers to the manner in which vowels are strengthened in Sanskrit, as mentioned at ¢. 298.

[^213]:    * It may be proper here to call remembrunce to the past gerund, properly a participle, which in the strong cases vâns, nom. mase, vân for vains, fem. ushi, neuter vat (for vas), corresponds to the Sanskrit of the reduplicated preterite in vas. The Old Sclavonic has here, in the nominative masculine, where the $s$ should stand at the end, lost this letter, according to $\$ .255$. (l.), as by-v, "qui fuit," but by-vshi, " quae fuit"; and in the masculine also, in preference to the comparative, the $s$ again appears in the oblique cases, because there, in the Sanskrit, after the $s$ follow terminations beginning with a vowel; so in rek-sh, "eum qui dixit," the sh corresponds to the Sanskrit vâns-am, as rurud-vâns-am, "eum qui ploraxit."

[^214]:    * I hold $k o$, whence in the nom. masc. $h$, for the suffix of the positive base, but the preceding $o$ for the final vowel of the lost primitive; and this a corresponds either to a Sanskrit $a$, according to $\oint .255$. (a.), or to an उ $u$, according to $\S .255$. (c.); for example, tano-k, "thin," theme TANOKO, corresponds to the Sanskrit tanu-s, "thin," Greek ravv; and slado-k to the Sanskrit swâdu-s, "sweet," with exchange of the $v$ for $L_{h}$ according to $\oint .20$. Thus the above slad-shir shews itself to be originally identical, as well in the suffix of the positive as of the other degrees with the Greek $\dot{\eta} \delta-i \omega \nu$ and Gothie sut-iza ( $(.304$.$) , far as the external diffe-$ rence may separate them; and to the Sclavonic is due, as to the truer preservation of the fundamental word, the preference above the Greek and Gothic, although, on account of the unexpected transition of the $v$ into $l$, the origin of the Sclavonic word is more difficult to recognise.
    $\dagger$ Dobrowsky says (p. 334) from blagyi (this is the definite, see §.284.) : it is, however, evident that the comparative has not arisen from the adjective compounded with a pronoun, but from the simple indefinite one.
    $\ddagger$ Compare the Sanskrit adverb tûshnim, "still, silent," and refer to §. 255. (m.).

[^215]:    * Comp. ©. 255. (g.) ; in addition to which it may be here further remarked, that in all probability the $u$ also in Gothic conjunctives like haitau, haihaityau, is of nasal origin.

[^216]:    - Connected, however, with this designation of "one," which is taken from the pronominal base sa (Greek $\delta$ ), may be the Greek $\dot{\alpha}$ in $\dot{\alpha}-\pi \lambda o \hat{v}^{s}$.

[^217]:    * One would expect tvô, on account of the form being monosyllabic ( $\$ .231$.$) . In the genitive masculine and nenter I should look for tvi-zl,$ after the analogy of thi-zê, "horum," from THA, or tvaize, according to the analogy of the definite adjectives ( $\$ .287$. p. 374 G. ed.), and according to the common declension $t v^{\circ}-\ell$ (p. 276). However, the form tvaddye occurs three times in the sense of duorum; whence it is clear that the genitive of the base TVA was no longer in use in the time of Ulfila. The form teaddy'belongs to a theme TVADDYA (as hary'-e from HARYA), and appears, from the ordinal number, which in Sanskrit is dwi-fiya for dwa-tiya, to have introduced itself into the cardinal number. From tvaddye, by rejecting both the $d$-of which one is, besides, superfluous-and by changing the $y$ into a vowel, we arrive at the Old High German zueib, according to Isid. zueiyo, as fior from fulvor;'also definite, zueierô, which, in Gothic, would be tvaddyaize. Grimm appears, on the other hand, to
    have

[^218]:    * With this extended theme one may compare the Old High German nominative masculine drie in Isidor, which belongs to a theme DRIA, with pronominal declension. The feminine driô, from the base DRI $\bar{O}$, of the same sound, presupposes in like manner a masculine and neuter theme DRIA.
    + In the accusative, tisras is more organic than तिसॄस् tisris, as it must stand according to the common rule (comp. §.242.).

[^219]:    * Ag. Benary, who likewise recognises in pancha the particle "and," seeks to compare the preceding syllable with pâni, "hand" (Berl. Jahrb. 1833. II. p. 49). If, however, a connection exists between the appellations of the hand and five, the former word might be named from the number of the fingers; as one might also venture an attempt to explain digitus and סákrvios with the number "ten," and our "finger," Gothic figgrs ( $=$ fingrs), theme FIGGRA, with fünf ( fimf) ; so that in this word no transition of the guttural organ into the labial has taken place. I do not think it probable that finger in named from fangen, "to seize"; also, as far as regards the Greek and Latin, the appellation of each single finger is more likely to be derived from the total number than from pointing ( $\delta \epsilon і к \nu \nu \mu$ ).

[^220]:    * Historical and Philological Transactions of the Academy of Letters for the year 1833, p. 168.

[^221]:    * But not universally, where, in Sanskrit, जा $\dot{s}$ is found; for aśman, "a stone," nom. aśmá, is, in Lithuanian, AKMEN, nom. akmů (ị. 139.), and in Old Schavonic KAMEN', nom. Kamy (§. 264.).

[^222]:    *The Anglo-Saxon endleofan, endlufan, compared with teelf, and the Old Friesian andlova with twilif, should not make us donbt, since the Anglo-Saxon eo corresponds to the Sanskrit a of daśan and Gotbic i of $l i f$, as in the relation of senfon (Old Friesian siugon) to the Sanstrit saptan, Gothic sibun. Let, then, the Old Friesian o of lora be regarded like that of siugon. To the Sanskrit chatwar, Gothic firivor, correspond the Anglo-Saxon feover, Old Fi iesian fiurer.

[^223]:    * Grimm's view is certainly much more natural, "ten and one over, two over." Only it would be to be expected, if the language wished to designate the numbers eleven and twelve as that which they contain more than ten, that they would have selected for combination with one and two a word which signifies "and over, or more," and not an exponent of the idea "to leave," "to remain." It would, moreover, be more adapted to the genias and custom of the later periods of the langaage, not to forget the number ten in the newly-formed compounds, like the Lettish and Sclavonic. J. Grimm, in his "History of the German Language," p. 246, agrees with my explanation of eilf, zwölf, and analogous forms in Lith. and Sclavonic.

[^224]:    * Influence of the Pronoun on the formation of Words, p.27; and Histor. Philol. Trans, of the Academy for the year 1833, p. 178, \&c.
    $\dagger$ The $a$ of rah has been weakened in the cognate languages to $i$; hence linquo, Lithuanian liku, Greek $\lambda \epsilon i \pi \omega$ ( $\overline{\text { ¿ }}$ ıтор), Gothic af-lif-na. In respect to the consonants, we refer the reader to 99.20 .23. : remark, also, the connection of the Lithuanian lakiz, "I lick," with the Sanskrit root lih, "to liek." Since writing this note, I have come to the conclusion that it is better to concur with Benfey, in assigning the Latin linquo, Greek $\lambda e$ írw, Gothic af-lif-na, to the Skr. root rich, from rik, "to lenve."
    $\ddagger$ The text has des and reh, but as these sounds are incorrect, I have altered them, as well as some other inaccuracies in the Hindustâni numerals which follow.-Translator.

[^225]:    * The retention of the $d$ is here clearly to be ascribed to the circumstance that the lesser number ends with $r$, although in the Hindûstann corruption this is no longer present. The Bengàli has assimilated the $r$ to the following $d$, hence châuddo; but, as a general rule, the Bengâli in these compounds changes the $d$ into $r$, and in all cases suppresses the Hindûstâní $h$; as egaro, "eleven," bâro, " twelve," têro, " thirteen."
    $\dagger$ This form merits particular notice, as, through its $l$ for the $r$ found elsewhere, it comes so near to the Lithuanian and German lika, lif. The Bengalì is sholo.

[^226]:    * Twenty and thirty do not occur.

[^227]:    * In Zend sita occurs frequently for sata, and just so in the numbers compounded therewith.

[^228]:    * The $\omega$ for $\bar{a}$ is explained by $\oint .4$. As to the suppression of the vowel before the $\rho$, тeт $\rho \omega$ answers to тeтpa in тeтрákis, тeт $\rho a \pi \lambda o u ̂ s$, which in like manner are based on plural neuter forms instead of the theme.

[^229]:    * However, this and the higher numbers may follow the analogy of elkadaśa-s, "the eleventh"; hence, also, vinisa, trinis- $a$, \&c. In Zend I am unable to quote the ordinal numbers from twenty upwards.
    + In compounds like fimftataihunda, "the fifteenth," the lesser number has either preserved the original theme while still free from the $n$, which was added more lately,-for the lesser number in these compounds does not partake of declension,-or fimfta is here the regular abbreviation of the theme FIMFTAN, since, as I have already elsewhere remarked (Berl. Ann. May 1827. p. 759), bases in $n$, in strict accordance with the Sanskrit, drop the $n$ in the beginning of compounds.

[^230]:    * According to §. 94. for chaturs.

[^231]:    * These are neuters, which, in common with the numerals पब्षन् panchan, "five," \&c. ( 5.313. ), have, in the nominative, accusative, and vocative, a singular form; in the other cases, plural terminations; while in Latin quot, tot, like quinque, \&c., have become completely indeclinable.

