ZEUSS'S "GRAMMATICA CELTICA."-No. 2.

BY JOHN O'DONOVAN, LL.D.

That the Irish writers began their etymological speculations at a very early period, is clear from glosses to the ancient Irish works called Agallamh an da Shuadh, Amhra Choluim Chille, Feilire Aenguis, the Senchus Mor, and the various Brehon Law tracts. The derivations proposed by these writers are, however, often visionary, and sometimes wild and false. The only writer among them who attempts to establish an etymological law is Cormac MacCuillenan, who, in his Sanasan, or Glossary, under the word fin (wine), observes that the Gael employs f for the u consonant of the Latin, "quamvis hoc non per singula currat," as fin for vinum, fis for visio, firt for virtus. He also remarks under the word cruinther (a priest), that where the Gael uses c, the Cambrian or Welshman has p; but he does not extend his law any further. This, however, shows a rational beginning, which ought to have produced a better result in the course of centuries. Cormac derives many Irish words from the Latin language which unquestionably are not borrowed from it, but only cognate with it, or derived from a common source. He also derives Irish words from Greek, where no affinity exists; as Teamhair (the Irish name for Tara, or any pleasant hill), from the Greek theoreo, conspicio, which is manifestly false. He likewise derives several Irish words from Hebrew, though it is now proved that we have borrowed no words from that or any other of the Semitic dialects. Keating informs us that words have been borrowed from all primitive languages to form the "Thebean" dialect of the Irish; but this he has from bardic tradition only.

It must be confessed, however, that no improvement had been made in the etymological science in Ireland down to the middle of the seventeenth century, when Michael O'Clery, a lay brother of the order of St. Francis, attempted to lay the foundation of an Irish etymological dictionary; but his means were small, and his powers crippled by the political troubles of his time (he died in 1643); and he only produced a small vocabulary of difficult or obsolete Irish words, which was printed at Louvain, in 1643. He expresses a hope, however, that his learned friends Boetius Roe MacEgan, Torna O'Mulconry, Melaghlin Moder O'Mulconry, and Peregrine O'Clery, would produce a more perfect and copious work. He remarks, in the preface to his vocabulary, that ancient Irish writers seldom attended to the rule of "Broad with a Broad and Slender with a Slender vowel," and that they seldom marked the aspirations of consonants, or the long quantities of vowels; that they often put consonants of the same class for each other, such as e for g, t for d; for instance, eloc for

^a Whenever an Irish word could be traced to a Latin etymon, it was considered satisfactorily explained.

Vol., VII.

clog, agut for agad, bec for beag, cotlat for codladh, art for ard; and that they also substituted as for ao, ai and oi for aoi, as Aedh for Aodh, cael for caol, and bai and boi for baoi; that the ancients wrote s for a, as die for dia, cie for cia, &c., and that they also wrote indifferently a, o, and u, one for the other, at the end of a word.

This work of O'Clery's was, however, far from approaching a perfect system of comparative etymology. The time had not yet arrived for such a science; and we find the able and classically erudite Peter Talbot, archbishop of Dublin in 1674, style him and his collaborateurs "ignorant men," [homines illiterati,] from whose performances little of truth can be collected or inferred. [Primat. Dublin, p. 42.]

The first man of the Celtic race who brought the etymological science to anything like a scientific standard was Edward Lhuyd. This writer gives it as his opinion that the roots of the Celtic language are better preserved in the Irish than in the Welsh tongue; and concludes that the Gaedhil of Ireland had inhabited all Britain before the ancestors of the Welsh took possessiou of it. He was the first really learned man that handled this subject with anything like etymological skill, and the first who drew the attention of the literati of Europe to Celtic studies, which he did in his Archæologia Britannica, published in the year 1707. His labours attracted the attention of the famous philosopher Leibnitz, who makes the following reference to their value and to the use that may be made of the Celtic dialects for illustrating European antiquities:—"Postremo ad perficiendum vel certè valdè promovendum literaturam Celticam, diligentius linguæ Hibernicæ studium adjungendum censeo, ut Lwydius egregiè facere cocpit. Ex Hibernicis vetustiorum adhuc Celtarum, Germanorumque, et, ut generaliter dicam, accolarum oceani Britannici cismarinorum antiquitates illustrantur." [Collect. Etymolog. vol. i., p. 153.]

To the excellent Lhuyd succeeded a number of visionary etymologists in Scotland, such as David Malcolme, and the two MacPhersons, whose etymological ignes fatui amused and deluded the world for many years, but which have been completely extinguished by the modern light of true etymology. Dr. O'Brien, R.C. Bishop of Cloyne, warmly took up Lhuyd's system, and willingly rejected all the early Irish traditions, to cling to the honour which the Irish derived from what Lhuyd attempted to prove, viz. that they had come from Gaul, and that, after possessing Great Britain so long as to have left the impress of their language upon that country, they afterwards passed over into Ireland, leaving a large portion of their population behind, which, merging in the Cambrians, ultimately lost their language. O'Brien's system, however, was not sufficiently scientific to withstand the test of true criticism; and his Irish-English dictionary, which was printed at Paris, in 1768, is now regarded as a work of little authority. He died at Cambray, in 1769.

The next etymologist who laboured in the same field was General Vallancey, who made Irish and Celtic literature the laughing-stock of the truly learned of Europe, by his false translations and his absurd and fanciful etymologies. O'Reilly, the last author of an Irish dictionary, had no

knowledge of even the classical languages, and, being totally incapable of any linguistic comparisons, must be regarded as a mere compiler. His work was principally drawn from Shaw's Gaelic Dictionary, interleaved and added to by the late William Haliday Esq.

The only writer, next after Lhuyd, who had treated of the Celtic dialects in a scientific manner was Dr. Prichard; but the new science of comparative philology was only in its infancy in his time, so that the greater part of his writings on this subject are now obsolete. Zeuss, with an ability and industry scarcely credible, has completed what Prichard only dreamed of, or saw in the dim distance, from his want of the clear lights of modern philological science.

These brief notices of our etymologists are necessary, to show how much all future Irish grammarians owe to the vast and true learning, and indefatigable industry of J. Caspar Zeuss, whose work, which was published at Leipsic, in the Latin language, in 1853, we now propose to examine, and who may be said to have sacrificed his life to his Celtic studies.

Zeuss commences his work by treating of the sounds of the Celtic dialects, their origin and laws. These separate themselves into two great divisions, namely, Irish and British, both of which agree in the main with the sounds of other cognate languages, but are evolved by modes and laws peculiar to themselves.

The letters, or signs used to represent these sounds, have been the Roman characters, since the time that the Christian religion passed from the Romans to the Gauls, Britons, and Irish. These Roman or Latin characters were employed by the Irish under modified forms from the fifth century; and, having passed to the Angles and Saxons through the teaching of the early Irish Christian missionaries, have received among the learned of Europe the name of Anglo-Saxon characters, or writing. Our author is, however, of opinion that, before these letters were received from the Romans, a peculiar mode of writing had been in use among the Celtic people, known by the name of Ogam. Of this fact evidence seems to be afforded by the name Ogmius, which was that of a God in the Gaulish language, and which has been preserved among the Irish to the present day in the word Ogam, designating a peculiar kind of ancient Irish writing, to be seen in ancient stone inscriptions, and also known to the writers of the German-Irish MSS. of the ninth century. Zeuss refers to his description of the St. Gall MS. for specimens of Ogam writing as early as the ninth century; and to O'Donovan's Irish Grammar | Introduction, pp. xxviii, xlvii], where it is said that the commonest kind of Ogam is called Ogham craobh, or virgular Ogam, because, if the whole combination of characters lying from left to right be raised upright, it will look like a craobh, or tree. But this kind, he observes, is rather linear, as the short lines, drawn in various numbers and in various directions to represent the several letters, adhere to a straight line serving as a basis; and these little chains of lines may have been compared by some one to the "chains" of the God Ogmius.

Concerning this god Ogmius, we find a curious account in Lucian, who says that he was pourrayed in the figure of Hercules, but strong only in speech and persuasion, being represented as an old man, drawing a crowd after him by chains of gold and amber extending from his tongue to the ears of his auditors, who willingly followed him. Lucian's words are as follows:—

"Hercules is called Ogmius by the Celtæ in their native language; but their representation of of the God is quite grotesque. By them he is represented as an extremely old man, with a bald pate, such hairs as remain being evidently grey, with a wrinkled skin reduced to a black colour, like the skin of those who work on the sea, &c. and in truth, he is anything but Hercules! He has, nevertheless, the armour of Hercules: he is clothed in the lion's skin, holds the club in his right hand, carries the quiver and exhibits the bended bow in his left, and is (in these particulars) altogether Hercules. For this old man draws after him a great crowd of the commonalty, who are afraid of him. There are cords of gold and amber extremely fine, like beautiful necklaces, binding these people to him. Cheerfully they follow him, rejoicing like labourers relieved from toil. The painter, not having a place to fasten the strings, on account of the club being in the right hand and the bow in the left, pierced the extremity of the tongue of the god, and fixed the strings to it, and has turned him smiling towards those who are led. A certain Celtic by-stander, a philosopher, I think, said, concerning these native peculiarities—'O, stranger, I will unfold unto you the mysteries of this picture . . . The Celtæ do not, like you Greeks, consider Hermes to be the Logos, but we consider Hercules to be it, because he is much more powerful than Hermes; and if he is represented as an old man, you must not wonder, for the Logos manifests its vigour only in ripe old age therefore, you must not be astonished if the old man Hercules, the Logos, draws after him those men in the crowd, who are attached to his tongue; nor if you see the connexion between the crowd and his tongue and on the whole, we suppose this Hercules to accomplish everything by the wisdom sprung from the Logos; and then words, which are his darts, are, I think, sharp and sure to hit the mark, and swift at wounding souls. At least you say that his words are winged.' Thus spoke the Celt."

It must be acknowledged, however, that the name of this Celtic god Ogmius has not been yet found in any of the Gaulish inscriptions.

From this passage, our author infers that Ogmius was the god of language and of wisdom among the Celtæ, by means of which qualities he became the conqueror of all, like Hercules. He thinks the Irish word Ogham is cognate with the Welsh of, (an element,) from which various words are derived, such as the adjective ofas (elementary), the substantive ofydd (a learned man, a philosopher), ofyddiaeth, (philosophy, science). To me, however, this seems very doubtful.

The Ogma of the Irish was one of the Tuatha De Danann colony, and flourished, according to O'Flaherty's corrected Irish Chronology, about A.M. 2764. He was the brother of a King Breas, son of Elathan, and the uncle of King Dagda, and "exceedingly well acquainted with letters and with magic." [Ogygia iii., 30]. The question of the origin and antiquity of the Ogham character

has not been yet fully discussed; but it is in safe hands, and the public will soon be put in possession of all that is known on the subject by the researches of the Rev. Dr. Graves, F.T.C.D. If we could rely on an assertion of O'Flaherty's [Ogygia], we might incline to believe that the Irish Druids had many written tracts in the time of St. Patrick, [432]; but his reference is too vague, and his authority too modern to be received in a question of such importance. His words are—"The Dananns are recorded to have been exceedingly well versed in letters and the magic arts; and the memory of Dagda, King of Ireland (A.M. 2804); of Ogma; of Etana, the poetess, the mother of King Delboeth; of Cairbre, the poet, son of the same Etana; of Dananna, daughter of King Delboeth, and who was his wife; of Brigit, the poetess, daughter of King Dagda; is yet preserved among the learned. Finally, Dudley Firbisse, hereditary professor of the antiquities of his country, mentions in a letter [to me] a fact collected from the monuments of his ancestors, that one hundred and eighty tracts [tractatus] of the doctrine of the Druids or Magi were condemned to the flames in the time of St. Patrick."

This fact, however, is not mentioned in any of the lives of St. Patrick as yet discovered, nor does any mention of it occur in any of Dudley Firbisse's writings, nor in any of the MSS. of his ancestors, which are known to the present writer; and even if it were found in any MS. of the MacFirbises of Lecan, since they became the historiographers of their race, it would not be sufficient to prove so important a fact, in the absence of any mention of it in the ancient lives of St. Patrick, in which it might be expected to be found if there were any foundation for its truth.

Among the Welsh, also, the ancient forms of the letters are somewhat similar to the Scandinavian Runes, and are suitable for being cut on wood or stone; such as the alphabet of Nemnivus, called Coelbren y beirdd, the "alphabet of the Bards," in contradistinction to which is placed Coelbren y menaich, the "alphabet of the monks," or Roman alphabet. The Irish bards also used figures like shrubs, or the small branches of trees, such as are the Scandinavian Runes; from which it is to be inferred that they formed their alphabet called Beth-luis-nion, giving the name of a tree or a shrub to each of the letters: as beith, the birch; luis, the mountain ash; nion, the ash, &c. But, as Zeuss remarks, the investigation of these subjects is more properly the province of palæography than of grammar.

It may be urged against the pagan antiquity of the Ogham characters in Ireland that Cæsar makes no mention of such letters having been used in his time by the Druids of Gaul or Britain, for he states expressly that they used the Greek characters; but, supposing that the Druids of Gaul

b "Postremo Dualdus Firbissius patriæ antiquitatum professor hæreditarius, ex majorum monumentis, literis datis refert, 180 Druidum seu Magorum disciplinæ tractatus S. Patricii tempore igni damnatos." Ogygia iii., 30, p. 219. It would appear from Cæsar, that the Druids of Gaul did not commit their doctrines to writing at all, and that the characters which they used on ordinary occasions were the Greek letters. If they ever used the Ogham, or any other characters of the same kind, Cæsar does not appear to have been acquainted with the fact.

concealed from Cæsar the alphabet in which they wrote their mysteries, it may be further arged that no characters resembling either Oghams or Runes have been discovered in any part of Celtic Gaul—not even in Bretagne, nor in any other purely Celtic district. The question then naturally arises, when were the Ogham characters first invented, and how long have they been in use in the British Islands? Were they first invented in these Islands, or adopted in imitation of the Runes of the northern nations, after the Roman alphabet had been received? These are some of the questions which Dr. Graves has to consider, and which, it is hoped, he will set at rest, in his forthcoming work on the origin of Ogham writing.

Zeuss next proceeds to analyse the sounds of the Irish and Welsh languages. In treating of this subject, he employs the term *infection* to express those changes which the Irish grammarians had expressed by *caelughadh*, and *leathnughadh*, as well as by *aspiration* and *elipsis*; but before entering on this subject, he treats separately of the single sounds of the vowels and consonants.

In the first chapter of his first book, he examines the natural classification of the Celtic vowels and their short sounds. He gives examples of the short sounds of the vowel A, as occurring in ancient Gaulish names, in the writings of the Latin poets. He considers it to be an undoubted fact that the vowels of Gaulish words were rendered by the Latin poets by the quantity in which they were heard from the mouth of the foreigner; because this appears from both the Irish and British languages still retaining the same quantities; and also, because many of the poets themselves were of Gaulish origin, or had a knowledge of the Gaulish language, such as Virgil, Catullus, Ausonius, and Sidonius: and he thinks that this general rule is not invalidated by any of the poetic licenses which occasionally occur, as when, for instance, Propertius [4, 10, 41] shortens the o of the Gaulish proper name Virdomarus, which both the Celtic languages make long; or when other poets are obliged by the metre to lengthen the short vowels e, o, in the names Arémorieus, Calèdonius, Mediólanum.

By various examples adduced from these poets, he establishes that the ancient Gaulish language had a short vowel a, but he does not attempt to prove any more. He does not determine whether it was a short and slender, as in the English word cat, or short and broad, as in the Irish cat, (like a in what) which are very distinct.

c By the various quotations which our author gives from the Roman poets, he proves nothing but that the ancient Celtic language had a vowel a short. He does not attempt to show in what situations it was short, i.e., in connection with what combination of consonants, or what kind of an a short it was. It is worthy of remark here, that the Irish word athair (father) has the first a short, as in the Latin pater; while in the word máthair (mother), it is long, as in the Latin mater: and that the Irish word ar (plough, tilled

land) has the a short, like the Latin verb arc. It would be curious to follow up this analogy by comparing generally the quantities of cognate Latin and Irish words. In the French language, not only has the t disappeared from the middle of pater and mater, but the vowels also have been "infected," and the present forms of père and mère are more infected than any known Irish words cognate with the Latin.

He next proceeds to exhibit, from the ancient German-Irish MSS., examples of Irish words which retain the original a short in its purity; as mag, a plain; magen, a place; carad, a friend; caradrad, friendship; cath, a battle; gab, rogab, he took; labar, labrad, speech; rann, a part. For each of these words he finds cognates in Gaulish proper names, many of which are probably correct; but we have not room in the present article even to glance at them. The reader can form an idea of his comparisons from the following note on the word mag, a plain—now magh; anglicised moy, in proper names of places in most parts of Ireland.—

"The word magus is found very frequently in Gaulish names of places compounded with proper names of men, as Casaromagus, Juliomagus, Drusomagus, Borbetomagus; or, with adjectives or substantives, as Novionagus, Nivomagus, Rigonagus. By the simple word mag is meant "a plain;" the monastery which is called Magh-lunga is interpreted "campus navis" [long, a ship, Bolland. Jun. 2, 237]. The plain which the Scoti call Magh-Sceithi is explained "plain of the shield" [Bolland, Jul. 5, 596]. In Welsh, on the other hand, the derivative maes (=mages, compare Magesis, now Mays, near Meran, in the life of St. Corbin, c. 11, 35) signifies a plain, but the simple ma signifies a place. The derivative magen is common to both languages, signifying place; in Irish, nach magen, "any place" [Ml, 2d 27c]; issin magen sin, "in that place" [Sg, 30b]. In the Welsh yman, "here, in this place," man = magen, according to the rule of the medial q [Mab. 264]. In Armoric, man frequently serves as a demonstrative. The simple substantive is of the feminine gender, in both languages; in Irish, maige rein, "of the plain Ren" [Ann. 4 Mast... O'Conor, 2, 123]; y pebyllua honno, "a place this for pitching tents;" here honno is the pronoun fem. [Mab. 3, 273]. It is doubtful whether to this may not belong the proper names in ancient inscriptions, Magiorix [Steiner 145], Magianus [Orelli 457], Magiatus [1987], Magiacus [4900], Magissius [1395], Magidius [Gruter, 983, 10], Magunus [Grut. 1012, 8], Magulla [912, 10], Magullinus [648, 2]. Except certainly magulus, in the compound Taximagulus [in Cæsar]. Conomagulus [Bolland. Mart. 1, 258], which in the more modern Welsh is mael, "a boy, or servant," and is to be compared with the Gothic magus, "a son, or boy," [and we may add to the Irish mace, The word mag, which is now always written with the g aspirated mag, mac, a son, a child. (or "infected," as Zeuss calls it), enters largely into topographical names throughout Ireland, and is usually anglicised Moy, and sometimes Ma, Mo, and even Muff.

Our author next proceeds to show the changes which this vowel undergoes by what he calls infection, when i follows (or e proceeding from an original i) either in inflection or derivation. The usual change is into ai in ancient Irish MSS., as clainde (of the race, of the children), nom. cland [Wb 5^a]; rainne (of the part) nom. rann, [Wb, Sg, fq]; cairimse (I love), [Wb, 5c 23^c]; baitsimse (I baptize), [Wb, 8^a]; baithis, (baptism), 12^a; claideb (a sword), 6^a; aimser (time), Wb, fq; bairgen, (bread, Welsh bara), [Wb, Ml, Sg].

He also finds the a infected into e and i, particularly in compound words, as erdire (celebrated),

erdaireigidir (he celebrates). From this infection, he concludes that the old Gaulish preposition ambi, and the Irish preposition imme (about), the b being assimilated, are identical.

The diphthong au represents another infection of the vowel a, which diphthong takes the place of the radical a when followed by u; as in baullu (members), rolaumur (glossed "audeo"), Wb 17*, for which rolomur Ml. 21*, whence also rolaimmemar, conlaimemmar (we dare), Wb 15* 17*. He adduces various examples from Wb, Sg, and Cr, to establish this fact, which he demonstrates conclusively. The reader should be here informed that au never occurs in modern Irish orthography, and that wherever it does occur in ancient MSS. it may be converted into modern orthography by changing it into u, ea, oi, or o long. The same rule will hold good with respect to the prefixes er, ir, and ur: for example, the ancient spellings aurdaire, erdaire, irdaire, urdaire, are now oirdheare; the ancient aurnaighte, irnaighte, are now written urnaighthe. The student should also bear in mind that the consonants o, p, t, are aspirated as regularly in the ancient as they are in the modern MSS., but that b, d, g, m, are never aspirated in ancient MSS., the reason of which will appear when we come to the chapter on infected consonants.

After having fully considered the various infections of a short, our author proceeds to consider the modern canon of Irish orthography, "Broad with broad, and slender with slender," which has been so rigidly adhered to in the modern Gaelic of Ireland and Scotland. The following are his words:—

"These forms of orthography are met with in our ancient MSS., but not according to the common rule and usage—sometimes indeed, not without cause, but partly through abuse. It is easy to perceive that in this abuse is to be sought the origin of that famous rule of the more modern Irish language, so peculiar to the Gaelic dialects of Ireland and North Britain, by which rule the modern spelling is so corrupted that it becomes a horror to a foreigner, and to the lover of pure orthography. Now, by this rule—which is called cóil re cóil, lethan re lethan, or as they write it now, caol re caol, leathan re leathan (i.e., slender before a slender, broad before a broad, i.e., let the vowels be so)-it is required that after vowels which, by infection, are particularly opposite to each other (viz., a, o, u, which are called broad or thick, on the one hand, and e, i, which are called slender or thin, on the other), if there follow in the next syllable opposite vowels, there must be inserted superfluous vowels of the same class. Therefore, they write Albanach (a Scotchman), suilibh (with eyes); but not firinnach (true), mathir (a mother), nathir (a snake), bardibh (to bards), dorsibh (to doors), which have to be written, according to this modern rule, firinneach, mathair, nathair, bardaibh, dorsaibh, with a superfluous a after a or o, and a superfluous e after i. There is also an anteposition of broad vowels, as in the adjective leathan (ancient Irish lethan) broad, the substantive rioghacht (a kingdom-from Irish righ, a king); and when in this way for the short e there arose the common orthography ea, and for the long i the frequent form io, there was here introduced before the slender vowel a further superfluity; as in the Scottish Gaelic, cealgair (a defrauder, read celgir), rioghaich (rule thou, read righich, as it may also be written)."

This modern rule of "Broad with broad and slender with slender," is not observed in any of the ancient Irish MSS., though various approaches to it are frequently to be seen in the oldest. It has been followed very strictly since about the middle of the sixteenth century. Almost all the writers of the last seventy years have condemned it as redundant, and subversive of the pure original orthography; but still, in all printed books it has been strictly adhered to in Ireland and Scotland.

This rule seems to have naturally grown out of the nature of the pronunciation of the Gaelic, in which every consonant, or combination of consonants, has a certain fixed broad or slender sound, according to the nature of the vowel with which it is connected. Take, for example, the word cealgair in the Scotch Gaelic, which our author considers so redundant in its orthography. In this word the consonants lg are remarkably broad, according to the present pronunciation; so that, according to our modern ideas of broad consonantal sounds, the spelling celgir could not represent them; nor could this sound be otherwise expressed than by employing a double set of consonants, and emancipating them altogether from the influence of the vowels. It should be remarked that the words anciently written delg, a thorn; celg, a sting; gell, a pledge; fell, treachery, and other similar words, are now written dealg, cealg, geall, feall, and correctly so, according to the modern pronunciation; and that in these the a is not only not redundant, but in some instances does not even convey a sufficiently broad sound for the Munster dialect. The a imparts a broad sound to the succeeding consonants which the slender vowel could not at all give to them. We must, therefore, either conclude that the ancient pronunciation of such words was different from the modern, or that the single vowel e had a two-fold influence; -namely, that it communicated a slender sound to the consonant going before it, and a broad sound to the consonant coming after it. If we reject the ea in these and other words of similar orthography in the modern language, we must reject the Munster pronunciation altogether, and introduce characters or marks to represent the broad and slender consonants. Thus in the words, min, meal; min, small; minn, a relic, these three distinct consonantal sounds could be represented by writing the slender n without any mark, and the broad n and nn with dots over them.

Our author next gives examples of Celtic e short, from the classical poets, but without establishing any rule or any fact except that the Celtic names had e short in the time of those writers. He goes on to give examples of e pure short in Irish words from Wb, as nem, heaven; nemed, a sanctuary; atrebat, they inhabit; breth, judgment; iress, faith; meldach, acceptable; nert, strength; delb, effigy. These words, however, are not considered now as exhibiting e short pure and intact; for their present sounds would not at all be represented by that letter, the consonants at the end being broad and thick, and requiring to be preceded by broad vowels. They are now written as follows—neamh, neimheadh, aitreabhat, breath, ireas, mealdach, neart, dealbh.

Now, if it be granted that the present pronunciation is correct, it will follow, as a matter of vol. vii.

course, that the ancient orthography was very imperfect, not only in its system of broad and slender sounds, but also in its system of aspiration.

Zeuss next proceeds to show instances of infected e in inflection or derivation, and finds that it becomes i, and sometimes ei, in position; as nem, heaven, gen. nime; breth, brithe, brithemnact, judgment; iress, gen. irisse, of faith; grientairisem, solstice; airchinnech, a chief; cenn, a head; aimser, time, gen. aimsire; ingen, a daughter, gen. ingine; sen, old, comp. siniu; toisech, first, comp. toisigiu; superl, toisigem. In position: geinte, "gentes;" esseirge, resurrection; creitme of faith, nom. cretem; meirddrechloc, "fornix." He finds, however, in Wb. the writing genti, mértrech, cretme; also, delbs, of an image; serbe, of bitterness; serce, deserce, of love; ferce, of anger: and on the other hand, ei sometimes occurs even out of position; for example, in the numeral deich, ten. In the same way, in position nothing changes the u of the internal inflection added to the vowel e of the root itself: d neurt, inneurt, dative of the substantive nert, strength; coindeulgg, from the subst. coindelgg, comparison. Out of position, however, the e passes into i: isintuisiulsin,* in that case, nom. tuisel, (Sg, 204*); hogiun, "ex ore," nom. gen; onchiunn, from the head, nom. cenn; dindriuth, from the course, nom. reth.

According to the modern orthography the above examples of pure and infected e short are now written as follows: neamh, heaven, gen. neimhe; breath, judgment, gen. breithe; breitheamhnacht, judicature; ireas, faith, gen. irise, by syncope irse; grian-tairiseamh, solstice; airchinneach, a chief; ceann, a head; aimser, time, gen. aimsire; inghean, a daughter, gen. inghine; sean, old, comp. sine; toiseach, beginning, comp. tuisce, sup. tuisce.

With respect to the rule of writing ei for simple e in position, it is always adhered to at present; but the ancient writers used simple e as frequently.

It should be here remarked that it is highly probable that in the earliest stage of the language the vowel e in such words as ferg, anger, delg, a thorn, celg, a sting, must have imparted a broad sound to the consonant or consonants following it; and that hence, when in the course of inflection a slender sound was required, even the ancients inserted an i. This mode of writing began very

• Isintuisiulsin = is in tuisiul sin. Here four distinct parts of speech are written as if they were one word. This might be done with some reason when giving a facsimile of the MS., but there is no necessity for crowding distinct words in this manner now, when paper is so plentiful. It is exactly like writing in English inthisverycase, or in Latin inhaccecausa. In the combination hogiun above given, the words are obscured by being amalgamated; as if one were to write in Latin "hexore," for ex ore; or in English, hymouth, or bywordofmouth. It is incorrect to jumble words together in this manner when there is no synthetic amalgamation, and where the words are grammatically separable, and

represent each a distinct part of speech. In such combinations, however, as hirrigi, (in the reign), hillaigniu, (in Leinster) there is a kind of synthetic amalgamation of the preposition with the substantive, which seems to warrant their union; but I am of opinion that it would be better to write hi rrigi, hi Llaigniu, keeping the preposition and the noun separate. The French do so, and we ought to adopt their method. The English, during the barbarous stages of their language, wrote thone, thother, afterwards th'one th'other; but in the nineteenth century these barbarisms are rejected, even in poetry, and all the words are written separately and in full.

early, as Zeuss himself shows; although it must be acknowledged that this *i* is redundant if considered in any other point of view than as attenuating the consonants which follow it. This affords a strong argument in favour of the modern mode of writing the nominatives fearg, dealg, cealg, and méar, féar, déar, instead of the ancient ferg, delg, celg; mér, fér, dér. We have as much reason for inserting these broad vowels as the English have for writing the words lead, speak, treat.

The student should constantly bear in mind that in the modern Irish orthography the quality of the sound of the consonants is defined by the vowel with which they are connected; and this must have been also the case in the ancient language, but, in consequence of the imperfection of the ancient orthography these sounds are often left uncertain. Unless, therefore, two sets of consonants be invented to represent, the one slender and the other broad sounds, these apparently redundant vowels cannot be dispensed with. Take for example the word anciently written fin, [wine]; if we allow the slender vowel i to exercise its attenuating influence upon the n, no one could now understand what the word means by its sound; but if we insert an o between the i and the n, we give the n a broad sound (and this is the only use of the o) which will at once convey the true sound. If we reject the o, we must mark the n by some symbol or sign to indicate broadness or thickness; as, by a dot placed above it.

Our author next goes on to show that the vowel e short is sometimes changed into o; as, from delb is formed dolbud, figment; however, it is very doubtful that dolbud is a grammatical modification of delb. He thinks also that e short becomes a long; of which he adduces as example the substantive brdth, judgment, occurring frequently in Wb. He fluds a cognate word in the Welsh braved, =brdt; and probably also in the ancient Gaulish names Bratispantium, and Mandubratius, in Cæsar, and Casibratius in Gaulish inscriptions, (Gruter 869,7). As an example of e short becoming e long, he instances the numeral dech, ten, which becomes long in the combinations en-dec, eleven, do-dec, twelve, tri-dec, thirteen. It is remarkable that the English ten becomes ten in similar combinations. He adds the Gaulish rheda, cognate with the old Irish reth,* to run. Finally he sees reason to believe that the e short becomes even o long; as in the substantive srdn, nose, if it be compared with the verb srennim, I snore.

- * From the ancient Irish root reth, which may be reduced to the primary forms red and ret, it does not appear to a certainty whether the original consonant is d or t. But, in the modern Welsh, rhedu, (to run), not rheddu, points out an original t, with which also the Armoric ret (running) agrees. Against this however it is to be noted that sometimes in the British a difference existed in the grades of the consonants. Among the Gaulish names in the Vindobon MS. we read as follows concerning the name of the river Rhodanus: "Roth violentum, dan et in Gallico et in Hebraco judicem; ideo hrodanus, judex violentus." The syllable an is doubt-
- \dagger The river Sileece in Fermanagh is locally believed to glide against the hill "rith a n-agaidh an aird." The eye is so deceived by the inclination of the ground that the stream appears to flow in

lessly a derivative; and of the "judex" therefore, nothing is to be here enquired. But the signification violentus, running rapidly, is not to be impugned when others are not badly explained in these ancient glosses. As the Rhodanus is called "violent, rapid," so the Arar is called "placid." It flows with incredible smoothness, so that it could not be judged by the eye in what direction it runs.+ (Caes. B. G. 1, 12). From the same root is derived the name of another river Arabo, and the Gaulish name of a man Arabius which occurs in inscriptions: in modern Welsh, araf is mild, placid.

an opposite direction from that in which it really does, and, contrary to streams in general, against the hill. This peculiarity is attributed to the curse of St. Nia.

By combining the preceding examples he obtains the formula of mutation delb, delb, breth, brdth, red, roth, réd, sren, sron; a series of sounds which is common and regular in the German dialects, as for example in the Gothic roots, grab, grib, gab, gab, gêb.

Our author next proceeds to give examples of i short in Gaulish names from the Latin poets, but without establishing any fact or rule, except that the Gaulish language had i short. * He then adduces Irish examples of i short, un-inflected by infection or composition; as in monosyllables, bithboo, ever-living, immortal; bithfotai, always long; bith, the world; fid, a tree; forling, inforling, the effect. Also before i, or o; inis, an island, gen. inse; cride, heart. As a is altered by i following it, so, vice versa, i is broken by a or o following it, u being next in the following syllable, and becomes e; as bith, the world, gen. betha; ith, corn, gen. etha, etho; fid, a tree, gen. fedo; rind, a constellation, gen. renda. Italia is therefore in Irish Etal, and Italida, Etaldai; and the adjective lethan, wide, accords with Litana the name of a wood in Gaulish Italy; and in the same manner the adjective Ægyptius is made in Irish aegeptacde in Wb. 30°. and philosophus, felsub, Wb. 27°. philosophia, fellsube, Wb. 30°.

Then follow examples of o short from the Latin poets, and of o short, pure, and uninfected in Irish words; as in the particles con, com, in compound words, such as condele, comparison; comacobar, concupiscence; cotecht, convention; and in nouns, particularly when a, o, or u follows, as mora, of the sea; montar, a family; molad, praise; accobar, desire; folus, evident; lobur, work. It is retained also in monosyllables, sometimes even when i follows, which however does not seem to be original i; as tol, will; trom, heavy; colinn, gen. colna, flesh. In position also o as well as e often remains intact, as torbe, utility; lobre, infirmity; forbe, firmness; duforbaithe, (gl. veneratur usque ad superiora); forbuide, (gl. intensivus); but this adjective is in Wb. very frequently written foirbthe; to which may be added doilbthid, foirggae, mointer, muinter.

The preceding examples would be written according to the modern Irish orthography as follows: coinnealg, comhacobhar, coiteacht, mara [not mora] muintear, moladh, accobhar, folus, lobhar, toil, trom, colann, [gen. colainne or colna]; torbha, lobhar, forbha, dofhorbhaithe, foirbhthe.

When he finds a Gaulish proper name resembling any Irish words, he takes occasion to compare them as he goes along; and in the above list he compares mora, of the sea, with Morini and Aremorici; montar, family, with Komontorios, the name of a Gaul mentioned by Pausanias; and folus, evident, he compares with Volusius, Volusiunus.

In these comparisons he is right according to the strict rules of modern philology; but such comparisons can never be considered as more than ingenious conjectures conducted according to the

* Among these examples he gives the name Virgilius from Tibullus, Martial, and Sidonius, and believes that this name is of Gaulish origin. He thinks that the correct form of it is Vergilius. He finds the root of it in Overgilia, a town

in Spain, and Vergobretus, an officer mentioned by Cæsar He does not compare it with the Irish proper name Firgil or Fergal with which it is obviously cognate; but he finds its root in the Irish ferg, anger; foirge, the sea.

rules of an uncertain science. The case would be different if we had original Gaulish compositions to compare with ancient Irish and Welsh ones; for then the parts of speech would be distinguishable by their various inflections and influences on each other in grammatical sequence. At present nothing remains to guide us but some proper names of men and places, and these not in the Gaulish orthography, but reduced to the Roman and Greek standard of orthography and prosody; so that we have only the classical refined forms of names which their writers considered almost unpronounceable—rudem hunc et incultum Transalpinæ sermonis horrorem. The Gaulish inscriptions alone have afforded any thing like sentences in the ancient language; but these have not yet been sufficiently understood to afford any fair specimens of ancient Celtic inflections. It is only now that they are likely to be brought under proper scrutiny and put into the crucible of scientific philology.

It is very remarkable by the bye, that the ancient Phenician, the ancient Celtic of Gaul, and the language of the Picts of Scotland have all passed away without leaving a single sentence to enable us to form an idea of their grammatical construction.

He next proceeds to point out the infections of o, which he finds from old Irish MSS. to be oi, and ui, examples of which are adduced from Sg., Ml., and Wb.; as foilsigud, manifestation, from folus; dina ibdoirsib,* dat. plur., from dorus, a door; doilbthia, figulus, cf. dolbud; mointer, muinter, family; tuile, gen. of tol, the will; uile, all, cf. the Arm. ol, the Welsh oll; buinne, a tube; colluinde, with bitterness, nom. luinde, cf. londas, indignation; sluindid, it means—subst. slond, signification. The substantive muir, the sea, is to be mentioned above all others as an example of infection occurring even in a monosyllable, the same as ai in flaith—flathi, (Slav. wladi, imm=ambi). That this infected form of muir came from the ancient mori is demonstrated by certain ancient Gaulish words compounded with it, as Moritasgus, Gallus Seno, (Cæs.), deus Moritasgus, (Inscrip. Orell. 2028,) Moridunum, a town of Britain; Morikambe eischusis, an estuary of Britain, (Ptol.); Morimarusa, —mortuum mare, (Plin.)

Zeuss next proceeds to give examples of Gaulish or British u short from the Latin poets, and then exhibits a list of Irish words, in which u short is preserved intact, which are not many. He finds it, however, in the following from the MS. Wb; in the particles su, well, du, bad, or ill; in compound words, as sualche, sualchi, benefacta; dualche, malefacta; suacaltmiche, suavity, i.e., good affability; sulbir, eloquent, from su and labar; which particles also appear in ancient Gaulish names, as Suessiones, Cæsar, Suanetes, Plin., Sucarus, Sucaria, Inscript. Grut. 742, 3, Suasa, Grut. 369 5; also, in certain monosyllabic nouns and derivatives, as mug, a slave, a boy; soïrmug, a freed slave; dub, ink, modern Irish and Gaelic of Scotland dubh, Welsh and Armor. du black, whence the name of the river Dubis; druth, a druid; bunad, gen. bunid, dat. bunad, origin.

This preserved u passes into its intermediate o, as the i into e in bith, betho, etal, felsub, if a,

*Doirsib is now pronounced doirsibh, the o long, though it is short in the nom. sing.

o, or u follows, as mug, gen moga, a slave. Hence, it is legitimate to compare the words domun, the world, domunde, worldly, with the ancient Gaulish names Dumnacus, Dumnorix, Dumnorigis, which do not differ in signification from the names Biturix, Bituriges, in Cæsar.

That the short u, however, is apt, even without the aforesaid cause, to pass into o, is shown by the frequent writing of the particles so, do, for su, du; and not only the forms crochad, crochto, crucifixion; rochrochsat, they crucified; crochte, crucified, in Wb., but even the nominative form itself croch, a cross, proves the same. Also, bolc, belly, bag; "Bulgas Galli sacculos scorteos appellant," cilorna, a pitcher, cf, Cilurnum, a town of Britain, Sg, 49.

He then sums up as follows:-

"If we distinguish this return of the short i and u into e and o, from the proper infection ai, ei, oi, of a, e, and o, as the proper infection is not i short, it is not to be expected in the u; and so we find, both in Wb. and in Camar. airde cruche, the sign of the cross; ticsal ar cruche, the taking up of our cross; cenel cruche, a kind of saffron; foditu cruche, the bearing of saffron; from croch, =cruch, which in Sg. 61^b is explained ainmm lubae, (gl. gummi, i.e., a kind of fruit,) for which is to be substituted the noun lub. It seems, however, introduced on account of the confusion with o, and its infection oi and ui. For it is not to be doubted that the substantive loth, (gl. coenum, gl, Lerna=Lat. lutum), gen. loithe paludis, (gl. Mesites, over which is written "nomen loithe infer," i.e., the name of an infernal pool, Sg, 127^a,) may be compared with the Gaulish names Lutetia, Luteva; and roithnech, serenus, with the name Ruteni, i.e., merry people.

"In other cases the infection ui is obvious, as cruind, round, Welsh crwn=crun, fem. cron; duine, a person, Welsh, dyn, from dun?; duille, a leaf, ancient Gaulish dula, in pempedoula (Diosc.) five-leaved, unless perhaps for this may be substituted done, dola, =folium.

"Of the interchange between o and u there are also ancient British examples, cf. u short, British; hence the form muntar, family, in Wb, 21c is not to be wondered at, instead of which montar, mointer, muinter, are more frequently written.

"From the foregoing examples, it appears that the evolution of the short vowels is generally made in a very simple manner—in such a manner, indeed, that two series have arisen opposite to each other and infecting each other mutually. The first series comprehends the vowels a, e, o, which, by infection from i, e, are made ai (sometimes e and i/e, ei (or i/e, oi (or ui/e). In the second series, e and e from e, e, e, e, e, are made e and e. The leaders of the infections, of which the first may be called the "proper infection," and the second, the "fraction," are e and e."

We have now surveyed one section of his chapter on orthography. It will convey to the reader a pretty fair idea of his method, which is the best that has been yet adopted by any writer on Celtic languages. We shall return to his work repeatedly, and point out fully to our readers what this great scholar has done not only for Celtic philology, but also for linguistic science generally.