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Baum Henry Kipling Doyle Henry Willis
Leslie Dumas Flaubert Nietzsche Turgenev Balzac
Stockton Vatsyayana Crane
Burroughs Verne
Curtis Tocqueville Gogol Vinci
Homer Tolstoy Whitman Gogol Busch
Darwin Thoreau Twain Plato Scott
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Kant Freud Jowett Stevenson Dickens Plato Scott
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**Society for Pure English Tract 4
The Pronunciation of English
Words Derived from the Latin**

John Sargeaunt

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ON THE PRONUNCIATION OF ENGLISH WORDS DERIVED FROM LATIN

[This paper may perhaps need a few words of introduction concerning the history of the pronunciation of Latin in England.

The Latin taught by Pope Gregory's missionaries to their English converts at the beginning of the seventh century was a living language. Its pronunciation, in the mouths of educated people when they spoke carefully, was still practically what it had been in the first century, with the following important exceptions. 1. The consonantal *u* was sounded like the *v* of modern English, 2. The *c* before front vowels (*e, i, o, æ, æ*), and the combinations *tĭ, cĭ* before vowels, were pronounced *ts*. 3. The *g* before front vowels had a sound closely resembling that of the Latin consonantal *i*. 4. The *s* between vowels was pronounced like our *s*. 5. The combinations *æ, œ* were no longer pronounced as diphthongs, but like the simple *e*. 6. The ancient vowel-quantities were preserved only in the penultima of polysyllables (where they determined the stress); in all other positions the original system of quantities had given place to a new system based mainly on rhythm. Of this system in detail we have little certain knowledge; but one of its features was that the vowel which ended the first syllable of a disyllabic was always long: *pāter, pātrēm, Dēus, pius, ĭter, ōvis, hūmus*.

Even so early as the beginning of the fifth century, St. Augustine tells us that the vowel-quantities, which it was necessary to learn in order to write verse correctly, were not observed in speech. The Latin-speaking schoolboy had to learn them in much the same fashion as did the English schoolboy of the nineteenth century.

It is interesting to observe that, while the English scholars of the tenth century pronounced their Latin in the manner which their ancestors had learned from the continental missionaries, the tradition of the ancient vowel-quantities [pg 4] still survived (to some extent at least) among their British neighbours, whose knowledge of Latin was an inheritance from the days of Roman rule. On this point the following passage from the preface to Ælfric's Latin Grammar (written for English schoolboys about A.D. 1000) is instructive: —

Miror ualde quare multi corripiunt sillabas in prosa quae in metro breues sunt, cum prosa absoluta sit a lege metri; sicut pronuntiant *pater* brittonice et *malus* et similia, quae in metro habentur breues. Mihi tamen uidetur melius inuocare Deum Patrem honorifice producta sillaba quam brittonice corripere, quia nec Deus arti grammaticae subiciendus est.

The British contagion of which Ælfric here complains had no permanent effect. For after the Norman Conquest English boys learned their Latin from teachers whose ordinary language was French. For a time, they were not usually taught to write or read English, but only French and Latin; so that the Englishmen who attempted to write their native language did so in a phonetic orthography on a French basis. The higher classes in England, all through the thirteenth century, had two native languages, English and French.

In the grammar schools, the Latin lessons were given in French; it was not till the middle of the fourteenth century that a bold educational reformer, John Cornwall, could venture to make English the vehicle of instruction. In reading Latin, the rhythmically-determined vowel-quantities of post-classical times were used; and the Roman letters were pronounced, first as they were in French, and afterwards as in English, but in the fourteenth century this made little difference.

In Chaucer's time, the other nations of Europe, no less than England, pronounced Latin after the fashion of their own vernaculars. When, subsequently, the phonetic values of the letters in the vernacular gradually changed, the Latin pronunciation altered likewise. Hence, in the end, the pronunciation of Latin has become different in different countries. A scholar born in Italy has great difficulty in following a Frenchman speaking Latin. He has greater difficulty in understanding an Englishman's Latin, because in English the changes in the sounds of the letters have been greater than in any other language. Every vowel-letter has several sounds, and the normal long sound of every [pg 5] vowel-letter has no resemblance whatever to its normal short sound. As in England the pronuncia-

tion of Latin developed insensibly along with that of the native tongue, it eventually became so peculiar that by comparison the 'continental pronunciation' may be regarded as uniform.

It is sometimes imagined that the modern English way of pronouncing Latin was a deliberate invention of the Protestant reformers. For this view there is no foundation in fact. It may be conceded that English ecclesiastics and scholars who had frequent occasion to converse in Latin with Italians would learn to pronounce it in the Italian way; and no doubt the Reformation must have operated to arrest the growing tendency to the Italianization of English Latin. But there is no evidence that before the Reformation the un-English pronunciation was taught in the schools. The grammar-school pronunciation of the early nineteenth century was the lineal descendant of the grammar-school pronunciation of the fourteenth century.

This traditional system of pronunciation is now rapidly becoming obsolete, and for very good reasons. But it is the basis of the pronunciation of the many classical derivatives in English; and therefore it is highly important that we should understand precisely what it was before it began to be sophisticated (as in our own early days) by sporadic and inconsistent attempts to restore the classical quantities. In the following paper Mr. Sargeaunt describes, with a minuteness not before attempted, the genuine English tradition of Latin pronunciation, and points out its significance as a factor in the development of modern English.

H.B.]

It seems not to be generally known that there is a real principle in the English pronunciation of words borrowed from Latin and Greek, whether directly or through French. In this matter the very knowledge of classical Latin, of its stresses and its quantities, still more perhaps an acquaintance with Greek, is apt to mislead. Some speakers seem to think that their scholarship will be doubted unless they say 'doctrínal' and 'scriptúral' and 'cinéma'. The object of this paper is to show by setting forth the principles consciously or unconsciously followed by our ancestors that such pronunciations are as erroneous as in the case of the ordinary man they are unnatural and pedantic. An exception for [pg 6] which there is a reason must

of course be accepted, but an exception for which reason is unsound is on every ground to be deprecated. Among other motives for preserving the traditional pronunciation must be reckoned the claim of poetry. Mark Pattison notes how a passage of Pope which deals with the Barrier Treaty loses much of its effect because we no longer stress the second syllable of 'barrier'. Pope's word is gone beyond recovery, but others which are threatened by false theories may yet be preserved.

The *New English Dictionary*, whose business it is to record facts, shows that in not a few common words there is at present much confusion and uncertainty concerning the right pronunciation. This applies mostly to the position of the stress or, as some prefer to call it, the accent, but in many cases it is true also of the quantity of the vowels. It is desirable to show that there is a principle in this matter, rules which have been naturally and unconsciously obeyed, because they harmonize with the genius of the English tongue.

For nearly three centuries from the Reformation to the Victorian era there was in this country a uniform pronunciation of Latin. It had its own definite principles, involving in some cases a disregard of the classical quantities though not of the classical stress or accent. It survives in borrowed words such as *aliās* and *stāmina*, in naturalized legal phrases, such as *Nīsī Prius* and *ōnus probandi*, and with some few changes in the Westminster Play. This pronunciation is now out of fashion, but, since its supersession does not justify a change in the pronunciation of words which have become part of our language, it will be well to begin with a formulation of its rules.

The rule of Latin stress was observed as it obtained in the time of Quintilian. In the earliest Latin the usage had been other, the stress coming as early in the word as was possible. Down to the days of Terence and probably somewhat later the old rule still held good of quadrisyllables with the scansion of *mūlīrēs* or *mūlīrēs*, but in other words had given way to the later Quintilian rule, that all words with a long unit as penultimate had the stress on the vowel in that unit, while words of more than two syllables with a short penultimate had the stress on the antepenultimate. I say 'unit' because here, as in scansion, what counts is not the syllable, but the vowel plus all the consonants that come between it and the next vowel. Thus *infé-*

rnus, where the [pg 7] penultimate vowel is short, no less than *suprémus*, where it is long, has the stress on the penultima. In *volucris*, where the penultimate unit was short, as it was in prose and could be in verse, the stress was on the *o*, but when *ucr* made a long unit the stress comes on the *u*, though of course the vowel remains short. In polysyllables there was a secondary stress on the alternate vowels. Ignorance of this usage has made a present-day critic falsely accuse Shakespeare of a false quantity in the line

Coriolánus in Coríoli.

It may be safely said that from the Reformation to the nineteenth century no Englishman pronounced the last word otherwise than I have written it. The author of the Pronouncing Dictionary attached to the 'Dictionary of Gardening' unfortunately instructs us to say *gládiolus* on the ground that the *i* is short. The ground alleged, though true, is irrelevant, and, although Terence would have pronounced it *gládiolus*, Quintilian, like Cicero, would have said *gladiolus*. Mr. Myles quotes Pliny for the word, but Pliny would no more have thought of saying *gládiolus* than we should now think of saying 'laboúr' except when we are reading Chaucer.

We need not here discuss the dubious exceptions to this rule, such as words with an enclitic attached, e.g. *primãque* in which some authorities put the stress on the vowel which precedes the enclitic, or such clipt words as 'illuc', where the stress may at one time have fallen on the last vowel. In any case no English word is concerned.

In very long words the due alternation of stressed and unstressed vowels was not easy to maintain. There was no difficulty in such a combination as *hónorificábilí* or as *tudínitátibús*, but with the halves put together there would be a tendency to say *hónorificabilitúdinitátibus*. Thus there ought not to be much difficulty in saying *Cónstantínopólítáni*, whether you keep the long antepenultima or shorten it after the English way; but he who forced the reluctant word to end an hexameter must have had 'Constantinóple' in his mind, and therefore said *Constántinópolisáni* with two false stresses. The result was an illicit lengthening of the second *o*. His other false quantity, the shortening of the second *i*, was due to the English

pronunciation, the influence of such words as 'metropolitan', and, as old schoolmasters used to put it, a neglect of the [pg 8] Gradus. Even when the stress falls on this antepenultimate *i*, it is short in English speech. Doubtless Milton shortened it in 'Areopagitica', just as English usage made him lengthen the initial vowel of the word.

Probably very few of the Englishmen who used the traditional pronunciation of Latin knew that they gave many different sounds to each of the symbols or letters. Words which have been transported bodily into English will provide examples under each head. It will be understood that in the traditional pronunciation of Latin these words were spoken exactly as they are spoken in the English of the present day. For the sake of simplicity it may be allowed us to ignore some distinctions rightly made by phoneticians. Thus the long initial vowel of *alias* is not really the same as the long initial vowel of *area*, but the two will be treated as identical. It will thus be possible to write of only three kinds of vowels, long, short, and obscure.

The letter or symbol *a* stood for two long sounds, heard in the first syllables of *alias* and of *larva*, for the short sound heard in the first syllable of *stamina*, and for the obscure sound heard in the last syllable of each of these last two words in English.

The letter *e* stood for the long sounds heard in *genus* and in *verbum*, for the short sound heard in *item*, and for the obscure sound heard in *cancer*. When it ended a word it had, if short, the sound of a short *i*, as in *pro lege*, *rege*, *grege*, as also in unstressed syllables in such words as *precentor* and *regalia*.

The letter *i* stood for the two long sounds heard in *minor* and in *circus* and for the short sound heard in *premium* and *incubus*.

The letter *o* stood for the two long sounds heard in *odium* and in *corpus*, for the short sound in *scrofula*, and for the obscure in *extempore*.

The two long sounds of *u* are heard in *rumor*, if that spelling may be allowed, and in the middle syllable of *laburnum*, the two short sounds in the first *u* of *incubus* and in the first *u* of *lustrum*, the obscure sound in the final syllables of these two words. Further the long sound was preceded except after *l* and *r* by a parasitic *y* as in

albumen and *incubus*. This parasitic *y* is perhaps not of very long standing. In some old families the tradition still compels such pronunciations as *moosic*.

The diphthongs *æ* and *œ* were merely *e*, while *au* and *eu* [pg 9] were sounded as in our *August* and *Euxine*. The two latter diphthongs stood alone in never being shortened even when they were unstressed and followed by two consonants. Thus men said *Eūstolia* and *Aūgustus*, while they said *Æschylus* and *Cēdipus*. Dryden and many others usually wrote the *Æ* as *E*. Thus Garrick in a letter commends an adaptation of 'Eschylus', and although Boswell reports him as asking Harris 'Pray, Sir, have you read Potter's *Æschylus*?' both the speaker and the reporter called the name *Eschylus*.

The letter *y* was treated as *i*.

The consonants were pronounced as in English words derived from Latin. Thus *c* before *e*, *i*, *y*, *æ*, and *œ* was *s*, as in *census*, *circus*, *Cyrus*, *Cæsar*, and *cælestial*, a spelling not classical and now out of use. Elsewhere *c* was *k*. Before the same vowels *g* was *j* (*dʒ*), as in *genus*, *gibbus*, *gyrus*. The sibilant was voiced or voiceless as in English words, the one in *rosaceus*, the other in *saliva*.

It will be seen that the Latin sounds were throughout frankly Anglicized. According to Burney a like principle was followed by Burke when he read French poetry aloud. He read it as though it were English. Thus on his lips the French word *comment* was pronounced as the English word *comment*.

The rule that overrode all others, though it has the exceptions given below, was that vowels and any other diphthongs than *au* and *eu*, if they were followed by two consonants, were pronounced short. Thus *a* in *magnus*, though long in classical Latin, was pronounced as in our 'magnitude', and *e* in *census*, in Greek transcription represented by η, was pronounced short, as it is when borrowed into English. So were the penultimate vowels in *villa*, *nullus*, *cæspes*.

This rule of shortening the vowel before two consonants held good even when in fact only one was pronounced, as in *nullus* and other words where a double consonant was written and in Italian pronounced.

Moreover, the parasitic *y* was treated as a consonant, hence our 'vācuum'.

In the penultima *qu* was treated as a single consonant, so that the vowel was pronounced long in *āquam, ēquam, inīquam, lōquor*. So it was after *o*, hence our 'collōquial'; but in earlier syllables than the penultima *qu* was treated as a double consonant, hence our 'subāqueous', 'equity', 'iniquity'.

[pg 10]

Exceptions.

1. When the former of the two consonants was *r* and the latter another consonant than *r*, as in the series represented by *larva, verbum, circus, corpus, laburnum*, the vowels are a separate class of long vowels, though not really recognized as such. Of course our ancestors and the Gradus marked them long because in verse the vowel with the two consonants makes a long unit.

2. A fully stressed vowel before a mute and *r*, or before *d* or *pl*, was pronounced long in the penultima. Latin examples are *labrum, Hebrum, librum, probrum, rubrum, acrem, cedrum, vafrum, agrum, pigrum, aprum, veprem, patrem, citrum, utrum, triplus, duplex, Cyclops*. Moreover, in other syllables than the penultima the vowel in the same combinations was pronounced long if the two following vowels had no consonant between them, as *patria, Hadria, acrius*. (Our 'triple' comes from *triplum* and is a duplicate of 'treble'. Perhaps the short vowel is due to its passage through French. Our 'citron' comes from *citronem*, in which *i* was short.)

3. The preposition and adverb *post* was pronounced with a long vowel both by itself and in composition with verbs, but its adjectives did not follow suit. Hence we say in English 'pōstpone', but 'pōsterior' and 'pōsthumous'.

Monosyllables ending in a vowel were pronounced long, those ending in a consonant short. Enclitics like *que* were no real exception as they formed part of the preceding word. There were, however, some real exceptions.

1. Pronouns ending in *-os*, as *hos, quos*. These followed *eos* and *illos*.

2. Words ending in *-es*, as *pes, res*.

3. Words ending in *r*, as *par, fer, vir, cor, fur*. These had that form of long vowel which we use in 'part', 'fertile', 'virtue', 'cordate', 'furtive'.

In disyllables the former vowel or diphthong, if followed by a single consonant, or by a mute and *r*, or by *cl* or *pl*, was pronounced long, a usage which according to Mr. Henry Bradley dates in spoken Latin from the fourth century. Examples are *apex, tenet, item, focus, pupa, Psyche, Cæsar, fœtus*. I believe that at first the only exceptions were *tibi, sibi, ibi, quibus, tribus*. In later days the imperfect and future of *sum* became exceptions. Here perhaps the short vowel arose from the hideous and wholly erroneous habit, happily never universal though still in some vogue, of reciting [pg 11] *erám, erás, erát*. There are actually schoolbooks which treat the verse *ictus*, the beat of the chanter's foot, as a word stress and prescribe *terra tribús scopulís*. I can say of these books only *Pereant ipsi, mutescant scriptores*, and do not mind using a post-classical word in order to say it.

In disyllables the former vowel or diphthong, if followed immediately by another vowel or diphthong, had the quality, and if emphatic also the quality, of a long vowel. The distinction was not recognized, and seems not to be generally acknowledged even now. We seem not to have borrowed many words which will illustrate this. We have however *fiat*, and *pius* was pronounced exactly as we pronounce 'pious', while for a diphthong we may quote Shelley,

Mid the mountains Euganean

I stood listening to the pæan.

English derivatives will show the long quality of the vowels in *aer, deus, coit, duo*. To these add *Graius*.

The rule of *apex* applies also to words of more than two syllables with long penultima, as *gravamen, arena, saliva, abdomen, acumen*. The rule of *aer* also holds good though it hardly has other instances than Greek names, as *Macháon, Ænéas, Thalía, Achelóus, Achæí*.

In words of more than two syllables with short penultima the vowel in the stressed antepenultima was pronounced short when there was a consonant between the two last vowels, and *i* and *y* were short even when no consonant stood in that place. Examples are *stamina*, *Sexagesima*, *minimum*, *modicum*, *tibia*, *Polybius*. But *u*, *au*, *eu* were, as usual, exceptions, as *tumulus*, *Aufidus*, *Eutyclus*. I believe that originally men said *Cæsarem*, as they certainly said *cæspitem* and *Cætulum*, as also *Cæsarea*, but here in familiar words the cases came to follow the nominative.

Exceptions to the rule were verb forms which had *āv*, *ēv*, *īv*, or *ōv* in the antepenultima, as *amāveram*, *defēverat*, *audivero*, *moveras*, and like forms from aorists with the penultima long, as *suaseram*, *egero*, *miserat*, *roseras*, and their compounds.

This rule was among the first to break down, and about the middle of the nineteenth century the Westminster Play began to observe the true quantities in the antepenultimate syllables. Thus in spite of 'consideration' boys said *sīdera*, and in spite of 'nōminal' they said *nōmina*, while they still said *sōlitus* and *rāpidus*.

[pg 12]

On the other hand the following rule, of which borrowed words provide many examples, still obtains in the Play. In words of more than two syllables any vowel in the antepenultima other than *i* or *y* was pronounced long if no consonant divided the two following vowels. Possibly the reason was that there was a synæresis of the two vowels, but I doubt this, for a parasitic *y* was treated as a consonant. Examples are *alias*, *genius*, *odium*, *junior*, *anæmia*, and on the other hand *filius*, *Lydia*. Compound verbs with a short prefix were exceptions, as *ōbeo*, *rēcreo*, whence our 'recreate'. A long prefix remained long as in *dēsino*. The only other exception that I can remember was *Phōloe*.

In polysyllables the general rule was that all vowels and diphthongs before the penultima other than *u*, when it bore a primary or secondary stress, and *au* and *eu* were pronounced short except where the 'alias' rule or the 'larva' rule applied. Thus we said *hērēditāritis*, *æquābilitas*, *imbēcillus*, *suspicionem*, but *fidūciarius*, *mēdiocritas*, *pārticipare*. I do not know why the popular voice now gives *Āriadne*, for our forefathers said *Āriadne* as they said *ārea*.

In very long words the alternation of stress and no-stress was insisted on. I remember a schoolmaster who took his degree at Oxford in the year 1827 reproofing a boy for saying *Álphesibæús* instead of *Alphesibæús*, and I suspect that Wordsworth meant no inverted stress in

Laódamía, that at Jove's command –

nor Landor in

Artémidóra, gods invisible –

though I hope that they did.

It is not to be thought that these rules were in any way arbitrary. So little was this so that, I believe, they were never even formulated. If examples with the quantities marked were ever given, they must have been for the use of foreigners settling in England. English boys did not want rules, and their teachers could not really have given them. The teachers did not understand that each vowel represented not two sounds only, a long and a short, but many more. This fact was no more understood by John Walker, the actor and lexicographer, who in 1798 published a *Key to the Classical Pronunciation of Greek and Latin proper names*. His general rule was wrong as a general rule, and so far as it agreed with facts it was useless. He says that [pg 13] when a vowel ends a syllable it is long, and when it does not it is short. Apart from the confusion of cause and effect there is the error of identifying for instance the *e* in *beatus* and the *e* in *habebat*. Moreover, Walker confounds the *u* in 'curfew', really long, with the short and otherwise different *u* in 'but'. The rule was useless as a guide, for it did not say whether *moneo* for instance was to be read as *ino-neo* or as *mon-eo*, and therefore whether the *o* was to be long or short. Even Walker's list is no exact guide. He gives for instance *Mō-na*, which is right, and *Mō-næses*, which is not. Now without going into the difference between long vowels and ordinary vowels, of which latter some are long in scansion and some short, it is clear that there is no identity. In fact *Mona*, has the long *o* of 'moan' and *Monæses* the ordinary *o* of 'monaster'. A boy at school

was not troubled by these matters. He had only two things to learn, first the quantity of the penultimate unit, second the fact that a final vowel was pronounced. When he knew these two things he gave the Latin word the sounds which it would have if it were an English word imported from the Latin. Thus he finds the word *civilitate*. I am not sure that he could find it, but that does not matter. He would know 'civility', and he learns that the penultima of the Latin word is long. Therefore he says *civilitātē*. Again he knows 'infinite' (I must be allowed to spell the word as it is pronounced except in corrupt quires). He finds that the penultima of *infinite* is long, and he therefore says *infinitivūs*. Again he knows 'irradiate', and finding that the penultima of *irradiabitur* is short he says *irradiābitūr*. It is true that some of these verb forms under the influence of their congeners came to have an exceptional pronunciation. Thus *irradiabit* led at last to *irradiābitur*, but I doubt whether this occurred before the nineteenth century. The word *dabitur*, almost naturalized by Luther's adage of *date et dabitur*, kept its short *a* down to the time when it regained it, in a slightly different form, by its Roman right; and *amāmini* and *monēmini* were unwavering in their use. Old people said *vāriābilis* long after the true quantities had asserted themselves, and the word as the specific name of a plant may be heard even now. Its first syllable of course follows what I shall call the 'alias' rule. We may still see this rule in other instances. All men say 'hippopótāmus', and even those who know that this *a* is short in Greek can say nothing but 'Mesopotāmia', unless indeed the word [pg 14] lose its blessed and comforting powers in a disyllabic abbreviation. When a country was named after Cecil Rhodes, where the *e* in the surname is mute, we all called it 'Rhodēsia'. Had it been named after a Newman, where the *a* is short or rather obscure, we should all have called it 'Newmānia', while, named after a Davis, it would certainly have been 'Davīsia'. The process of thought would in each case have been unconscious. A new example is 'aviation', whose first vowel has been instinctively lengthened.

Again, when the word 'telegram' was coined, some scholars objected to its formation and insisted upon 'telegrapheme', but the most obdurate Grecian did not propose to keep the long Greek vowel in the first syllable. When only the other day 'cinematograph' made its not wholly desirable appearance, it made no claim to a

long vowel in either of its two first syllables. Not till it was reasonably shortened into 'cinēma' did a Judge from the Bench make a lawless decree for a long second vowel, and even he left the *i* short though it is long in Greek.

Of course with the manner of speech the quantities had to be learnt separately. The task was not as difficult as some may think. To boys with a taste for making verses the thumbing of a Gradus (I hope that no one calls it a Grādus) was always a delightful occupation, and a quantity once learnt was seldom forgotten. It must be admitted that, as boys were forced to do verses, whether they could or not, there were always some who could read and yet forget.

Although these usages did not precede but followed the pronunciation of words already borrowed from Latin, we may use them to classify the changes of quantity. We shall see that although there are some exceptions for which it is difficult to give a reason, yet most of the exceptions fall under two classes. When words came to us through French, the pronunciation was often affected by the French form of the word. Thus the adjective 'present' would, if it had come direct from Latin, have had a long vowel in the first syllable. To an English ear 'prĕsent' seemed nearer than 'prĕsent' to the French 'présent'. The *N.E.D.* says that 'gladiator' comes straight from the Latin 'gladiatorem'. Surely in that case it would have had its first vowel long, as in 'radiator' and 'mediator'. In any case its pronunciation must have been affected by 'gladiateur'. The other class of exceptions consists of words deliberately introduced [pg 15] by writers at a late period. Thus 'adorable' began as a penman's word. Following 'inéxorable' and the like it should have been 'áadorable'. Actually it was formed by adding *-able* to 'adóre', like 'laughable'. It is now too stiff in the joints to think of a change, and must continue to figure with the other sins of the Restoration.

Before dealing with the words as classified by their formation, we may make short lists of typical words to show that for the pronunciation of English derivatives it is idle to refer to the classical quantities.

From *æ*: ědifice, ěmulate, cĕrulean, quĕstion.

From *æ*: ěconomy, ěcumenical, confĕderate.

From *ā*: donātive, nāatural, clāmour, āverse.

From *ā*: ālien, stātion, stāble, āmiable.

From *ē*: ēvident, Quadragēsima, plēnitude, sēgregate.

From *ĕ*: sēries, sēnile, gēnus, gēnius.

From *ī*: lascīvious, eradīcate, dīvidend, fīlial, suspīcion.

From *ī*: libel, mītre, sīlex.

From *ō*: ōrator, prōminent, prōmontory, sōlitude.

From *ō*: bōvine, lōcal, fōrum, collōquial.

From *ū*: figūrative, scriptūral, solūble.

From *ū*: nūmerous, Cūpid, allūvial, cerūlean.

The *N.E.D.* prefers the spelling 'œcumenical'; but Newman wrote naturally 'ecumenical', and so does Dr. J.B. Bury. Dublin scholarship has in this matter been markedly correct.

Classification of words according to their Latin stems.

In classification it seems simplest to take the words according to their Latin stems. We must, however, first deal with a class of adjectives borrowed bodily from the Latin nominative masculine with the insertion of a meaningless *o* before the final *-us*.¹ These of course follow the rules given above. In words of more than two syllables the antepenultimate and stressed vowel is shortened, as 'emulous' [pg 16] from *æmulus* and in 'frivolous' from *frivulus*, except where by the 'alias' rule it is long, as in 'egrègious' from *egrègius*. Words coined on this analogy also follow the rules. Thus 'glabrous' and 'fibrous' have the vowels long, as in the traditional pronunciation of *glabrum* and *fibrum*, where the vowels in classical Latin were short. The stressed *u* being always long we have 'lugübrious' and 'salübrious', the length being independent of the 'alias' rule. Some words ending in *-ous* are not of this class. Thus 'odorous' and 'clamorous' appear in Italian as *odoroso* and *clamoroso*. Milton has

Sonórous mettal blowing Martial sounds.

The Italian is *sonoro*, and our word was simply the Latin *sonorus* borrowed bodily at a somewhat late period. Hence the stress remains on the penultima. Skeat thought that the word would at last become 'sónorous'. It maybe hoped that Milton's line will save it from the effect of a false analogy.

In classifying by stems it will be well to add, where possible, words of Greek origin. Except in some late introductions Greek words, except when introduced bodily, have been treated as if they came through Latin, and some of the bodily introductions are in the same case. Thus 'anæsthetic' is spelt with the Latin diphthong and the Latin *c*. Even 'skeleton' had a *c* to start with, while the modern and wholly abominable 'kaleidoscope' is unprincipled on the face of it.

Stems ending in -ant and -ent. These are participles or words formed as such. Our words have shed a syllable, thus *regentem* has

become 'regent'. Disyllables follow the 'apex' rule and lengthen the first vowel, as 'agent', 'decent', 'potent'. Exceptions are 'clement' and 'present', perhaps under French influence. Words of more than two syllables with a single consonant before the termination throw the stress back and shorten a long penultima, as 'ignorant', 'president', 'confident', 'adjutant'. Where there are two heavy consonants, the stress remains on the penultima, as 'consultant', 'triumphant', even when one of the consonants is not pronounced, as 'reminiscent'. In some cases the Latinists seem to have deliberately altered the natural pronunciation. Thus Gower has 'ápparaúnt', but the word became 'appárent' before Shakespeare's time, and later introductions such as 'adherent' followed it. [pg 17] What right 'adjacent' has to its long vowel and penultimate stress I do not know, but it cannot be altered now.

Stems ending in -ato and -uto. These are mostly past participles, but many of them are used in English as verbs. It must be admitted that the disyllabic words are not wholly constant to a principle. Those verbs that come from *-latum* consistently stress the last vowel, as 'diláte', 'reláte', 'colláte'. So does 'create', because of one vowel following another. Of the rest all the words of any rank have the stress on the penultima, as 'vibráte', 'frustráte', 'mígrate', 'cástrate', 'púlsate', 'vácate'. Thus Pope has

The whisper, that to greatness still too near,
Perhaps, yet vibrates on his Sov'reign's ear,

and Shelley

Music, when soft voices die,
Vibrates in the memory.

There are, however, verbs of no literary account which in usage either vary in the stress or take it on the latter syllable. Such are 'locáte', 'oráte', 'negáte', 'placáte', and perhaps 'rotáte'. With most of these we could well dispense. 'Equate' is mainly a technical word. Dictionaries seem to prefer the stress on the ultima, but some at least of the early Victorian mathematicians said 'équate', and the