AN

OLD ENGLISH

GRAMMAR AND EXERCISE BOOK

WITH

INFLECTIONS, SYNTAX, SELECTIONS FOR READING, AND GLOSSARY

 \mathbf{BY}

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PREFACE.

The scope of this book is indicated in § 5. It is intended for beginners, and in writing it, these words of Sir Thomas Elyot have not been forgotten: "Grammer, beinge but an introduction to the understandinge of autors, if it be made to longe or exquisite to the lerner, it in a maner mortifieth his corage: And by that time he cometh to the most swete and pleasant redinge of olde autors, the sparkes of fervent desire of lernynge are extincte with the burdone of grammer, lyke as a lyttell fyre is sone quenched with a great heape of small stickes."— The Governour, Cap. X.

Only the essentials, therefore, are treated in this work, which is planned more as a foundation for the study of Modern English grammar, of historical English grammar, and of the principles of English etymology, than as a general introduction to Germanic philology.

The Exercises in translation will, it is believed, furnish all the drill necessary to enable the student to retain the forms and constructions given in the various chapters.

The Selections for Reading relate to the history and literature of King Alfred's day, and are sufficient to give the student a first-hand, though brief, acquaintance with the native style and idiom of Early West Saxon prose in its golden age. Most of the words and constructions contained in them will be already familiar to the student through their intentional employment in the Exercises.

For the inflectional portion of this grammar, recourse

has been had chiefly to Sievers' Abriss der angelsächsischen Grammatik (1895). Constant reference has been made also to the same author's earlier and larger Angelsächsische Grammatik, translated by Cook. A more sparing use has been made of Cosijn's Altwestsächsische Grammatik.

For syntax and illustrative sentences, Dr. J. E. Wülfing's Syntax in den Werken Alfreds des Grossen, Part I. (Bonn, 1894) has proved indispensable. Advance sheets of the second part of this great work lead one to believe that when completed the three parts will constitute the most important contribution to the study of English syntax that has yet been made. Old English sentences have also been cited from Sweet's Anglo-Saxon Reader, Bright's Anglo-Saxon Reader, and Cook's First Book in Old English.

The short chapter on the Order of Words has been condensed from my Order of Words in Anglo-Saxon Prose (Publications of the Modern Language Association of America, New Series, Vol. I, No. 2).

Though assuming sole responsibility for everything contained in this book, I take pleasure in acknowledging the kind and efficient assistance that has been so generously given me in its preparation. To none do I owe more than to Dr. J. E. Wülfing, of the University of Bonn; Prof. James A. Harrison, of the University of Virginia; Prof. W. S. Currell, of Washington and Lee University; Prof. J. Douglas Bruce, of Bryn Mawr College; and Prof. L. M. Harris, of the University of Indiana. They have each rendered material aid, not only in the tedious task of detecting typographical errors in the proof-sheets, but by the valuable criticisms and suggestions which they have made as this work was passing through the press.

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OLD ENGLISH GRAMMAR AND EXERCISE BOOK.

PART I.

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INTRODUCTION.

CHAPTER I.

HISTORY.

- 1. The history of the English language falls naturally into three periods; but these periods blend into one another so gradually that too much significance must not be attached to the exact dates which scholars, chiefly for convenience of treatment, have assigned as their limits. Our language, it is true, has undergone many and great changes; but its continuity has never been broken, and its individuality has never been lost.
- 2. The first of these periods is that of Old English, or Anglo-Saxon, commonly known as the period of full

¹ This unfortunate nomenclature is due to the term $Angli\ Saxones$, which Latin writers used as a designation for the English Saxons as distinguished from the continental or Old Saxons. But Alfred and Ælfric both use the term Englisc, not Anglo-Saxon. The Angles spread over Northumbria and Mercia, far outnumbering the other tribes. Thus Englisc (= Angel + isc) became the general name for the language spoken.

inflections. E.g. stān-as, stones; car-u, care; will-a, will; bind-an, to bind; help-aö(= ath), they help.

It extends from the arrival of the English in Great Britain to about one hundred years after the Norman Conquest. —from A.D. 449 to 1150; but there are no literary remains of the earlier centuries of this period. There were four¹ distinct dialects spoken at this time. These were the Northumbrian, spoken north of the river Humber; the Mercian, spoken in the midland region between the Humber and the Thames: the West Saxon, spoken south and west of the Thames: and the Kentish, spoken in the neighborhood of Canterbury. Of these dialects, Modern English is most nearly akin to the Mercian; but the best known of them is the West Saxon. It was in the West Saxon dialect that King Alfred (849-901) wrote and spoke. His writings belong to the period of Early West Saxon as distinguished from the period of Late West Saxon, the latter being best represented in the writings of Abbot Ælfric (955?-1025?).

3. The second period is that of MIDDLE ENGLISH, or the period of *leveled inflections*, the dominant vowel of the inflections being **e**. *E.g.* **ston-es**, **car-e**, **will-e**, **bind-en** (or **bind-e**), **help-eth**, each being, as in the earlier period, a dissyllable.

The Middle English period extends from A.D. 1150 to 1500. Its greatest representatives are Chaucer (1340–1400) in poetry and Wiclif (1324–1384) in prose. There were three prominent dialects during this period: the Northern, corresponding to the older Northumbrian; the Midland

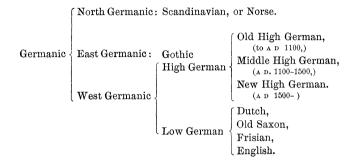
¹ As small as England is, there are six distinct dialects spoken in her borders to-day. Of these the Yorkshire dialect is, perhaps, the most peculiar. It preserves many Northumbrian survivals. See Tennyson's Northern Farmer.

(divided into East Midland and West Midland), corresponding to the Mercian; and the Southern, corresponding to the West Saxon and Kentish. London, situated in East Midland territory, had become the dominant speech center; and it was this East Midland dialect that both Chaucer and Wielif employed.

Note.—It is a great mistake to think that Chaucer shaped our language from crude materials. His influence was conservative, not plastic. The popularity of his works tended to crystalize and thus to perpetuate the forms of the East Midland dialect, but that dialect was ready to his hand before he began to write. The speech of London was, in Chaucer's time, a mixture of Southern and Midland forms, but the Southern forms (survivals of the West Saxon dialect) had already begun to fall away; and this they continued to do, so that "Chaucer's language," as Dr. Murray says, "is more Southern than standard English eventually became." See also Morsbach, Ueber den Ursprung der neuenglischen Schriftsprache (1888).

- 4. The last period is that of Modern English, or the period of lost inflections. E.g. stones, care, will, bind, help, each being a monosyllable. Modern English extends from A.D. 1500 to the present time. It has witnessed comparatively few grammatical changes, but the vocabulary of our language has been vastly increased by additions from the classical languages. Vowels, too, have shifted their values.
- 5. It is the object of this book to give an elementary knowledge of Early West Saxon prose, or the language of King Alfred. With this knowledge, it will not be difficult for the student to read Late West Saxon, or any other dialect of the Old English period. Such knowledge will also serve as the best introduction to the structure both of Middle English and of Modern English, besides laying a secure foundation for the scientific study of any other Germanic tongue.

Note. — The Germanic, or Teutonic, languages constitute a branch of the great Aryan, or Indo-Germanic (known also as the Indo-European) group. They are subdivided as follows:



CHAPTER II.

Sounds.

Vowels and Diphthongs.

6. The long vowels and diphthongs will in this book be designated by the macron (-). Vowel length should in every case be associated by the student with each word learned: quantity alone sometimes distinguishes words meaning wholly different things: for, he went, for, for; god, good, god, God; mān, crime, man, man.

Long vowels and diphthongs:

- $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ as in father: $\mathbf{st\bar{a}n}$, a stone
- æ as in man (prolonged): slæpan, to sleep.
- ē as in they: her, here.
- ī as in machine: mīn, mine
- ō as in note (pure, not diphthongal): bōc, book.

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- $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$ as in rule: $t\bar{\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{n}$, town.
- ȳ as in German grün, or English green (with lips rounded):1 bryd, bride.

The diphthongs, long and short, have the stress upon the first vowel. The second vowel is obscured, and represents approximately the sound of er in sooner, faster (= soon-uh, fast-uh). The long diphthongs ($\bar{\epsilon}$ is not a diphthong proper) are $\bar{\epsilon}$ o, $\bar{\iota}$ e, and $\bar{\epsilon}$ a. The sound of $\bar{\epsilon}$ o is approximately reproduced in mayor (= $m\bar{a}$ -uh); that of $\bar{\iota}$ e in the dissyllabic pronunciation of fear (= $f\bar{e}$ -uh). But $\bar{\epsilon}$ a = \bar{e} -uh. This diphthong is hardly to be distinguished from ea in pear, bear, etc., as pronounced in the southern section of the United States (= be-uh, pe-uh).

- 7. The short sounds are nothing more than the long vowels and diphthongs shortened; but the student must at once rid himself of the idea that Modern English red, for example, is the shortened form of reed, or that mat is the shortened form of mate. Pronounce these long sounds with increasing rapidity, and reed will approach rid, while mate will approach met. The Old English short vowel sounds are:
 - a as in artistic: habban, to have.
 - æ as in mankind : dæg, day
 - e, e as in let: stelan, to steal, settan, to set.
 - i as in sit: hit, it.
 - o as in broad (but shorter): god, God.
 - **Q** as in not: lqmb, lamb.
 - \mathbf{u} as in full: \mathbf{sunu} , son.
 - y as in miller (with lips rounded): gylden, golden.

¹ Vowels are said to be round, or rounded, when the lip-opening is rounded; that is, when the lips are thrust out and puckered as if

Note. — The symbol \mathbf{e} is known as umlaut - \mathbf{e} (§ 58). It stands for Germanic a, while \mathbf{e} (without the cedilla) represents Germanic e. The symbol \mathbf{e} is employed only before \mathbf{m} and \mathbf{n} . It, too, represents Germanic a. But Alfred writes \mathbf{manig} or \mathbf{monig} , many ; \mathbf{lamb} or \mathbf{lomb} , lamb ; \mathbf{hand} or \mathbf{hond} , hand , etc. The cedilla is an etymological sign added by modern grammarians.

Consonants.

8. There is little difference between the values of Old English consonants and those of Modern English. The following distinctions, however, require notice:

The digraph th is represented in Old English texts by \eth and \flat , no consistent distinction being made between them. In the works of Alfred, \eth (capital, \eth) is the more common: $\eth \bar{a}s$, those; $\eth \bar{\omega}t$, that; bindeð, he binds.

The consonant c had the hard sound of k, the latter symbol being rare in West Saxon: cyning, king; cwēn, queen; cūð, known. When followed by a palatal vowel sound, — e, i, e, ea, eo, long or short, — a vanishing y sound was doubtless interposed (cf. dialectic k^yind for kind). In Modern English the combination has passed into ch: cealc, chalk; cīdan, to chide; læce, leech; cild, child; cēowan, to chew. This change (c > ch) is known as Palatalization. The letter e, pronounced as in Modern English e, has also a palatal value before the palatal vowels (cf. dialectic e

The combination cg, which frequently stands for gg, had probably the sound of dge in Modern English edge: ecg, edge; seogan, to say; brycg, bridge.

preparing to pronounce w. Thus o and u are round vowels: add -ing to each, and phonetically you have added -wing. E.g. gowing, suwing.

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Initial h is sounded as in Modern English: habban, to have; hālga, saint. When closing a syllable it has the sound of German ch: slōh, he slew; hēah, high; ðurh, through.

9. An important distinction is that between voiced (or sonant) and voiceless (or surd) consonants. In Old English they are as follows:

VOICED	Voiceless
g	h, c
đ	t
ð, þ (as in though)	ð, þ (as in thin)
ъ	р
\mathbf{f} (= \mathbf{v})	f
$\mathbf{s} (= \mathbf{z})$	8

It is evident, therefore, that \eth (\flat), f, and g have double values in Old English. If voiced, they are equivalent to th (in though), v, and g. Otherwise, they are pronounced as th (in thin), f (in fin), and g (in gin). The syllabic environment will usually compel the student to give these letters their proper values. When occurring between vowels, they are always voiced: $\eth g$ er, ger, ger, ger, ger, ger, ger, ger, ger, ger.

Note. — The general rule in Old English, as in Modern English, is, that voiced consonants have a special affinity for other voiced consonants, and voiceless for voiceless. This is the law of Assimilation. Thus when de is added to form the preterit of a verb whose stem

¹ A little practice will enable the student to see the appropriateness of calling these consonants voiced and voiceless. Try to pronounce a voiced consonant, -d in den, for example, but without the assistance of en, — and there will be heard a gurgle, or vocal murmur. But in t, of ten, there is no sound at all, but only a feeling of tension in the organs.

ends in a voiceless consonant, the d is unvoiced, or assimilated, to t: settan, to set, sette (but treddan, to tread, has tredde); slæpan, to sleep, slæpte; drencan, to drench, drencte; cyssan, to kiss, cyste. See § 126, Note 1.

Syllables.

10. A syllable is usually a vowel, either alone or in combination with consonants, uttered with a single impulse of stress; but certain consonants may form syllables: oven (= ov-n), battle (= bxt-l); (cf. also the vulgar pronunciation of elm).

A syllable may be (1) weak or strong, (2) open or closed, (3) long or short.

- (1) A weak syllable receives a light stress. Its vowel sound is often different from that of the corresponding strong, or stressed, syllable. *Cf.* weak and strong *my* in "I want my lárge hat" and "I want mý hat."
- (2) An open syllable ends in a vowel or diphthong: dē-man, to deem; öū, thou; sca-can, to shake; dæ-ges, by day. A closed syllable ends in one or more consonants: öing, thing; gōd, good; glæd, glad.
- (3) A syllable is long (a) if it contains a long vowel or a long diphthong: drī-fan, to drive; lū-can, to lock; slæ-pan, to sleep; cēo-san, to choose; (b) if its vowel or diphthong is followed by more than one consonant: cræft, strength; heard, hard; lib-ban, to live; feal-lan,

¹ Taken separately, every syllable ending in a single consonant is long. It may be said, therefore, that all closed syllables are long; but in the natural flow of language, the single final consonant of a syllable so often blends with a following initial vowel, the syllable thus becoming open and short, that such syllables are not recognized as prevailingly long. *Cf.* Modern English $at\ all\ (= a\text{-}tall)$.

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to fall. Otherwise, the syllable is short: 5e, which; be-ran, to bear; 5et, that; gie-fan, to give.

Note 1.—A single consonant belongs to the following syllable: hā-lig, holy (not hāl-ig); wrī-tan, to write, fæ-der, father.

Note 2.—The student will notice that the syllable may be long and the vowel short; but the vowel cannot be long and the syllable short.

Note 3.—Old English short vowels, occurring in open syllables, have regularly become long in Modern English: we-fan, to weave; e-tan, to eat; ma-cian, to make; na-cod, naked, a-can, to ache; o-fer, over. And Old English long vowels, preceding two or more consonants, have generally been shortened: brēost, breast; hælö, health; slæpte, slept; lædde, led.

Accentuation.

11. The accent in Old English falls usually on the radical syllable, never on the inflectional ending: bringan, to bring; stanas, stones; beforede, bearing; idelnes, idleness; treondscipe, friendship.

But in the case of compound nouns, adjectives, and adverbs the first member of the compound (unless it be ge- or be-) receives the stronger stress: héofon-rīce, heaven-kingdom; ond-giet, intelligence; soo-fæst, truthful; god-cund, divine; éall-unga, entirely; blīde-līce, blithely. But be-hāt, promise; ge-béd, prayer; ge-féalīc, joyous; be-sone, immediately.

Compound verbs, however, have the stress on the radical syllable: for-giefan, to forgive; of-linnan, to cease; ā-cnāwan, to know; wið-stóndan, to withstand; on-sácan, to resist.

Note. — The tendency of nouns to take the stress on the prefix, while verbs retain it on the root, is exemplified in many Modern English words: préference, prefér; contract (noun), contract (verb); ábstinence, abstain; pérfume (noun), perfume (verb).

CHAPTER III.

Inflections.

Cases.

- 12. There are five cases in Old English: the nominative, the genitive, the dative, the accusative, and the instrumental. Each of them, except the nominative, may be governed by prepositions. When used without prepositions, they have, in general, the following functions:
- (a) The nominative, as in Modern English, is the case of the subject of a finite verb.
- (b) The genitive (the possessive case of Modern English) is the case of the possessor or source. It may be called the of case.
- (c) The dative is the case of the indirect object. It may be called the to or for case.
- (d) The accusative (the objective case of Modern English) is the case of the direct object.
- (e) The instrumental, which rarely differs from the dative in form, is the case of the means or the method. It may be called the with or by case.

The following paradigm of muð, the mouth, illustrates the several cases (the article being, for the present, gratuitously added in the Modern English equivalents):

¹ Most grammars add a sixth case, the vocative. But it seems best to consider the vocative as only a function of the nominative form.

Singular.

- N. $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{\tilde{u}}\mathbf{\tilde{o}} = the \ mouth.$
- G. $m\bar{u}\bar{o}$ -es $^1=of$ the mouth $(=the\ mouth$'s).
- D. $m\ddot{u}\ddot{o}-e=to$ or for the mouth.
- A. $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{\ddot{u}}\mathbf{\ddot{o}} = the \ mouth$
- I. $m\bar{u}\bar{\partial}e = with \text{ or } by \text{ means of}$ the mouth.

Plural.

 $m\bar{u}\ddot{o}$ -as = the mouths.

 $m\bar{u}\ddot{\partial}$ -a = of the mouths.

(= the mouths').

 $m\bar{u}\ddot{o}$ -um = to or for the mouths.

 $m\bar{u}\ddot{\sigma}$ -as = the mouths.

mūð-um = with or by means of the mouths.

Gender.

13. The gender of Old English nouns, unlike that of Modern English, depends partly on meaning and partly on form, or ending. Thus muö, mouth, is masculine; tunge, tongue, feminine; ēage, eye, neuter.

No very comprehensive rules, therefore, can be given; but the gender of every noun should be learned with its meaning. Gender will be indicated in the vocabularies by the different gender forms of the definite article, $s\bar{s}$ for the masculine, $s\bar{s}$ for the feminine, and $\eth s\bar{s}$ for the neuter: $s\bar{s}$ $s\bar{s}$ tunge, $\eth s\bar{s}$ $s\bar{s}$ $s\bar{s}$

All nouns ending in -dōm, -hād, -scipe, or -ere are masculine (cf. Modern English wisdom, childhood, friendship, worker). Masculine, also, are nouns ending in -a.

Those ending in -nes or -ung are feminine (cf. Mod-

¹ Of course our "apostrophe and s" (='s) comes from the Old English genitive ending -es The e is preserved in Wednesday (=Old English Wōdnes dæg) But at a very early period it was thought that John's book, for example, was a shortened form of John his book Thus Addison (Spectator, No. 135) declares 's a survival of his How, then, would he explain the s of his? And how would he dispose of Mary's book?

ern English goodness, and gerundial forms in -ing: see-ing is believing).

Thus sē wīsdōm, wisdom; sē cildhād, childhood; sē frēondscipe, friendship; sē fiscere, fisher(man); sē hunta, hunter; sēo gelīcnes, likeness; sēo leornung, learning.

Declensions.

14. There are two great systems of declension in Old English, the Vowel Declension and the Consonant Declension. A noun is said to belong to the Vowel Declension when the final letter of its stem is a vowel, this vowel being then known as the stem-characteristic; but if the stem-characteristic is a consonant, the noun belongs to the Consonant Declension. There might have been, therefore, as many subdivisions of the Vowel Declension in Old English as there were vowels, and as many subdivisions of the Consonant Declension as there were consonants. All Old English nouns, however, belonging to the Vowel Declension, ended their stems originally in a, ō, i, or u. Hence there are but four subdivisions of the Vowel Declension: a-stems, ō-stems, i-stems, and u-stems.

The Vowel Declension is commonly called the Strong Declension, and its nouns Strong Nouns.

Note.—The terms Strong and Weak were first used by Jacob Grimm (1785-1863) in the terminology of verbs, and thence transferred to nouns and adjectives. By a Strong Verb, Grimm meant one that could form its preterit out of its own resources; that is, without calling in the aid of an additional syllable: Modern English run, ran; find, found; but verbs of the Weak Conjugation had to borrow, as it were, an inflectional syllable: gain, gained; help, helped.

- 15. The stems of nouns belonging to the Consonant Declension ended, with but few exceptions, in the letter n (cf. Latin homin-em, ration-em, Greek ποιμέν-α). They are called, therefore, n-stems, the Declension itself being known as the n-Declension, or the Weak Declension. The nouns, also, are called Weak Nouns.
- 16. If every Old English noun had preserved the original Germanic stem-characteristic (or final letter of the stem), there would be no difficulty in deciding at once whether any given noun is an a-stem, ō-stem, i-stem, u-stem, or n-stem; but these final letters had, for the most part, either been dropped, or fused with the case-endings, long before the period of historic Old English. It is only, therefore, by a rigid comparison of the Germanic languages with one another, and with the other Aryan languages, that scholars are able to reconstruct a single Germanic language, in which the original stem-characteristics may be seen far better than in any one historic branch of the Germanic group (§ 5, Note).

This hypothetical language, which bears the same ancestral relation to the historic Germanic dialects that Latin bears to the Romance tongues, is known simply as Germanic (Gmc.), or as Primitive Germanic. Ability to reconstruct Germanic forms is not expected of the students of this book, but the following table should be examined as illustrating the basis of distinction among the several Old English declensions (O.E. = Old English, Mn.E. = Modern English):

	$(1) \text{ a-stems} \begin{cases} \text{Gmc} & staina-z, \\ \text{O E} & \text{stān,} \\ \text{Mn E. } stone \end{cases}$ $(2) \text{ $\tilde{\textbf{o}}$-stems} \begin{cases} \text{Gmc. } hall \tilde{\textbf{o}}, \\ \text{O.E. } \text{heall,} \end{cases}$
I. Strong or Vowel De-	Mn E. hall.
clensions	(2) $\bar{\mathbf{o}}$ -stems $\begin{cases} \operatorname{Gmc.} \ hall \bar{o}, \\ \operatorname{O.E.} \ \mathbf{heall}, \\ \operatorname{Mn E.} \ hall. \end{cases}$ (3) \mathbf{i} -stems $\begin{cases} \operatorname{Gmc.} \ b\bar{o}ni\text{-}z, \\ \operatorname{O E.} \ \mathbf{b\bar{e}n}, \\ \operatorname{Mn.E.} \ boon \end{cases}$ (6) $\operatorname{Gmc.} \ sunu\text{-}z, \end{cases}$
	(4) u -stems { O.E. sunu , Mn.E. son.
	$ \begin{array}{c} \text{(1) } \mathbf{n}\text{-stems} & \text{(Weak} \\ \text{Declension)} \end{array} \begin{cases} \begin{array}{c} \text{Gmc. } tung \~on-iz, \\ \text{O E. } \mathbf{tung-an,} \\ \text{Mn.E. } tongue-s. \end{array} $
II. Consonant Declensions	(2) Remnants of other Consonant Declensions $ (a) \begin{cases} Gmc. \ f\bar{o}t\text{-}iz, \\ O.E. \ f\bar{e}t, \\ Mn.E. \ feet \end{cases} $ $ (b) \begin{cases} Gmc. \ frij\bar{o}nd\text{-}iz, \\ O.E. \ fr\bar{e}nd, \\ Mn.E. \ friend, \\ Mn.E. \ friend\text{-}s. \end{cases} $ $ (c) \begin{cases} Gmc. \ br\bar{o}\bar{o}r\text{-}iz, \\ O.E. \ br\bar{o}\bar{o}r, \\ Mn.E. \ brother\text{-}s. \end{cases} $

Note.—"It will be seen that if Old English Eage, eye, is said to be an n-stem, what is meant is this, that at some former period the kernel of the word ended in -n, while, as far as the Old English language proper is concerned, all that is implied is that the word is inflected in a certain manner" (Jespersen, Progress in Language, § 109).

This is true of all Old English stems, whether Vowel or Consonant. The division, therefore, into a-stems, ō-stems, etc., is made in the interests of grammar as well as of philology.

Conjugations.

17. There are, likewise, two systems of conjugation in Old English: the Strong or Old Conjugation, and the Weak or New Conjugation.

The verbs of the Strong Conjugation (the so-called Irregular Verbs of Modern English) number about three hundred, of which not one hundred remain in Modern English (§ 101, Note). They form their preterit and frequently their past participle by changing the radical vowel of the present stem. This vowel change or modification is called ablaut (pronounced áhp-lowt): Modern English sing, sang, sung; rise, rose, risen. As the radical vowel of the preterit plural is often different from that of the preterit singular, there are four principal parts or tense stems in an Old English strong verb, instead of the three of Modern English. The four principal parts in the conjugation of a strong verb are (1) the present indicative, (2) the preterit indicative singular, (3) the preterit indicative plural, and (4) the past participle.

Strong verbs fall into seven groups, illustrated in the following table:

PRESENT	PRET SING PRET PLUR		PAST PARTICIPLE	
Bītan, to bite: Ic bīt-e, I bite or shall bite.	Ic bāt, I	Wē bit-on, we bit.	Ic hæbbe ge²-bit- en, I have bitten.	
Bēodan, to bid: Ic bēod-e, I bid or shall bid.	Ic bēad, I $bade$.	W ē bud-on, we bade.	Ic hæbbe ge-bod- en, I have bidden.	

¹ Early West Saxon had no distinctive form for the future. The present was used both as present proper and as future *Cf.* Modern English "I go home tomorrow," or "I am going home tomorrow" for "I shall go home tomorrow"

² The prefix **ge**- (Middle English y-), cognate with Latin co (con) and implying completeness of action, was not always used. It never

Present	PRET SING	PRET PLUR	PAST PARTICIPLE
Bindan, to bind: Ic bind-e, I bind or shall bind.	Ic bond, I	Wē bund-on, we bound.	Ic hæbbe ge-bund- en, I have bound.
Beran, to bear:			
Ic ber-e, I bear or shall bear.	Ic bær, I	Wē bær-on, we bore.	Ic hæbbe ge-bor- en, I have l orne.
Metan, to measure:	To most I	Wa mat on	To habbe so met
Ic met-e, I measure or shall measure.	Ic mæt, I measured.	we measured.	Ic hæbbe ge-met- en, I have meas- ured
Faran, to go:			
Ic far-e, I go or shall go.	Ic for, I went.	Wē fōr-on, we went.	Ic eom ¹ ge-far-en, I have (am) gone.
VII Feallan, to fall:			
Ic feall-e, I fall or shall fall.	Ic fēoll, I fell.	Wē fēoll-on, we fell.	Ic eom ¹ ge-feall-en, I have (am) fallen.

18. The verbs of the Weak Conjugation (the so-called Regular Verbs of Modern English) form their preterit

occurs in the past participles of compound verbs: **op-feallan**, to fall off, past participle **op-feallen** (not **op-gefeallen**). Milton errs in prefixing it to a present participle:

"What needs my Shakespeare, for his honour'd bones, The labour of an age in piled stones? Or that his hallow'd reliques should be hid Under a star-ypointing pyramid."

- Epitaph on William Shakespeare.

And Shakespeare misuses it in "Y-ravished," a preterit (*Pericles III*, *Prologue* 1. 35).

It survives in the archaic y-clept (Old English ge-clypod, called). It appears as a in aware (Old English ge-wær), as e in enough (Old English ge-nōh), and as i in handiwork (Old English hand-ge-weore).

¹ With intransitive verbs denoting *change of condition*, the Old English auxiliary is usually some form of *to be* rather than *to have*. See § 139.

and past participle by adding to the present stem a suffix 1 with d or t: Modern English love, loved; sleep, sleep.

The stem of the preterit plural is never different from the stem of the preterit singular; hence these verbs have only three distinctive tense-stems, or principal parts: viz., (1) the present indicative, (2) the preterit indicative, and (3) the past participle.

Weak verbs fall into three groups, illustrated in the following table:

Present	PRETERIT	PAST PARTICIPLE.
I Fremman, to perform:		
Ic fremm-e, I perform or shall perform.	Ic frem-ede, I per-	Ic hæbbe ge-frem-ed, I have performed.
II	y or moon	2 10000 Foly or moss.
Bodian, to proclaim: Ic bodi-e, I proclaim or shall proclaim.	Ic bod-ode, I pro-	Ic hæbbe ge-bod-od, I have proclaimed.
III Habban, to have:		
Ic hæbbe, I have or shall have	Ic hæf-de, I had	Ic hæbbe ge-hæf-d, I have had.

19. There remain a few verbs (chiefly the Auxiliary Verbs of Modern English) that do not belong entirely to either of the two conjugations mentioned. The most important of them are, Ic mæg I may, Ic mihte I might; Ic con I can, Ic cuöe I could; Ic most I must, Ic moste I

¹ The theory that *loved*, for example, is a fused form of *love-did* has been generally given up. The dental ending was doubtless an Indo-Germanic suffix, which became completely specialized only in the Teutonic languages.

must; Ic sceal I shall, Ic sceolde I should; Ic eom I am, Ic wæs I was; Ic wille I will, Ic wolde I would; Ic dō I do, Ic dyde I did; Ic gā I go, Ic ēode I went.

All but the last four of these are known as Preterit-Present Verbs. The present tense of each of them is in origin a preterit, in function a present. Cf. Modern English ought (= owed).

CHAPTER IV.

ORDER OF WORDS.

20. The order of words in Old English is more like that of Modern German than of Modern English. Yet it is only the Transposed order that the student will feel to be at all un-English; and the Transposed order, even before the period of the Norman Conquest, was fast yielding place to the Normal order.

The three divisions of order are (1) Normal, (2) Inverted, and (3) Transposed.

- (1) Normal order = subject + predicate. In Old English, the Normal order is found chiefly in independent clauses. The predicate is followed by its modifiers: Sē hwæl bið micle læssa þonne öðre hwalas, That whale is much smaller than other whales; Qnd hē geseah twā scipu, And he saw two ships.
- (2) Inverted order=predicate+subject. This order occurs also in independent clauses, and is employed (a) when some modifier of the predicate precedes the predicate, the subject being thrown behind. The

words most frequently causing Inversion in Old English prose are \$\bar{p}\bar{a}\$ then, \$\bar{p}\$onne then, and \$\bar{p}\bar{\text{e}}\bar{r}\$ there: \$\Dar{a}\$ for \$\bar{h}\bar{e}\$, Then went he; Donne &\text{erna\decorpta}\$ h\$\bar{y}\$ ealle toward \$\bar{p}\bar{\text{e}}\bar{m}\$ foo, Then gallop they all toward the property; ac \$\bar{p}\bar{\text{e}}\bar{r}\$ bid medo genoh, but there is mead enough.

Inversion is employed (b) in interrogative sentences: **Lufast &u mē?** Lovest thou me? and (c) in imperative sentences: **Cume &u rīce**, Thy kingdom come.

- (3) Transposed order=subject... predicate. That is, the predicate comes last in the sentence, being preceded by its modifiers. This is the order observed in dependent clauses: 1 Donne cymeð sē man sē þæt swiftoste hors hafað, Then comes the man that has the swiftest horse (literally, that the swiftest horse has); Ne mētte hē ær nān gebūn land, siþþan hē from his āgnum hām för, Nor did he before find any cultivated land, after he went from his own home (literally, after he from his own home went).
- **21.** Two other peculiarities in the order of words require a brief notice.
- (1) Pronominal datives and accusatives usually precede the predicate: Hē hine oferwann, He overcame him (literally, He him overcame); Dryhten him andwyrde, The Lord answered him. But substantival datives and accusatives, as in Modern English, follow the predicate.

¹ But in the Voyages of Ohthere and Wulfstan, in which the style is apparently more that of oral than of written discourse, the Normal is more frequent than the Transposed order in dependent clauses. In his other writings Alfred manifests a partiality for the Transposed order in dependent clauses, except in the case of substantival clauses introduced by pæt Such clauses show a marked tendency to revert to their Normal oratio recta order. The norm thus set by the indirect affirmative clause seems to have proved an important factor in the

The following sentence illustrates both orders: Hỹ genāmon Ioseph, ond hine gesealdon cīpemonnum, ond hỹ hine gesealdon in Ēgypta lond, They took Joseph, and sold him to merchants, and they sold him into Egypt (literally, They took Joseph, and him sold to merchants, and they him sold into Egyptians' land).

Note. —The same order prevails in the case of pronominal nominatives used as predicate nouns: Ic hit eom, It is I (literally, I it am); $\mathbf{D}\mathbf{\bar{u}}$ hit eart, It is thou (literally, Thou it art).

(2) The attributive genitive, whatever relationship it expresses, usually precedes the noun which it qualifies: Breoton is garsecges igland, Britain is an island of the ocean (literally, ocean's island); Swilce hit is eac berende on wecga orum, Likewise it is also rich in ores of metals (literally, metals' ores); Cyninga cyning, King of kings (literally, Kings' king); Ge witon Godes rices geryne, Ye know the mystery of the kingdom of God (literally, Ye know God's kingdom's mystery).

A preposition governing the word modified by the genitive, precedes the genitive: 1 On ealdra manna sægenum, In old men's sayings; Æt öæra stræta endum, At the ends of the streets (literally, At the streets' ends); For ealra öinra hälgena lufan, For all thy saints' love. See, also, § 94, (5).

ultimate disappearance of Transposition from dependent clauses. The influence of Norman French helped only to consummate forces that were already busily at work.

¹ The positions of the genitive are various. It frequently follows its noun: $p\bar{a}$ bearn $p\bar{a}$ ra Aðeniensa, The children of the Athenians. It may separate an adjective and a noun: \bar{A} n $l\bar{y}$ tel $s\bar{e}$ s earm, A little arm of (the) sea. The genitive may here be construed as an adjective, or part of a compound = A little sea-arm; Mid monegum Godes gifum, With many God-qifts = many divine gifts

CHAPTER V.

PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS.

- 22. In the study of Old English, the student must remember that he is dealing not with a foreign or isolated language but with the earlier forms of his own mother tongue. The study will prove profitable and stimulating in proportion as close and constant comparison is made of the old with the new. The guiding principles in such a comparison are reducible chiefly to two. These are (1) the regular operation of phonetic laws, resulting especially in certain Vowel Shiftings, and (2) the alterations in form and syntax that are produced by Analogy.
- (1) "The former of these is of physiological or natural origin, and is perfectly and inflexibly regular throughout the same period of the same language; and even though different languages show different phonetic habits and predilections, there is a strong general resemblance between the changes induced in one language and in another; many of the particular laws are true for many languages.
- (2) "The other principle is psychical, or mental, or artificial, introducing various more or less capricious changes that are supposed to be emendations; and its operation is, to some extent, uncertain and fitful." ¹

¹ Skeat, *Principles of English Etymology*, Second Series, § 342. But Jespersen, with Collitz and others, stoutly contests "the theory of sound laws and analogy sufficing between them to explain everything in linguistic development."

(1) Vowel-Shiftings.

- 23. It will prove an aid to the student in acquiring the inflections and vocabulary of Old English to note carefully the following shiftings that have taken place in the gradual growth of the Old English vowel system into that of Modern English.
- (1) As stated in § 3, the Old English inflectional vowels, which were all short and unaccented, weakened in early Middle English to e. This e in Modern English is frequently dropped:

OLD ENGLISH	MIDDLE ENGLISH	Modern English
stān-as	ston-es	stones
sun-u	sun-e	son
sun-a	sun-e	sons
ox-an	ox-en	oxen
swift-ra	$\operatorname{swift-er}$	swifter
swift-ost	swift-est	swiftest
lōc-ode	lok-ede	looked

(2) The Old English long vowels have shifted their phonetic values with such uniform regularity that it is possible in almost every case to infer the Modern English sound; but our spelling is so chaotic that while the student may infer the modern sound, he cannot always infer the modern symbol representing the sound.

OLD ENGLISH.	Modern English.	$\int \mathbf{n}\mathbf{\bar{a}} = no$; st $\mathbf{\bar{a}}\mathbf{n} = stone$; b $\mathbf{\bar{a}}\mathbf{n} = stone$
		bone; rād=road; āc=oak;
ā	o (as in no^{1}	$\{ \mathbf{h}\mathbf{\tilde{a}l} = whole ; \mathbf{h}\mathbf{\tilde{a}m} = home ; \}$
		sawan = to sow; gast =
		ghost

¹ But Old English $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ preceded by \mathbf{w} sometimes gives Modern English o as in two $tw\bar{\mathbf{a}} = two$; $hw\bar{\mathbf{a}} = who$; $hw\bar{\mathbf{a}} = whom$.

OLD ENGLISH.	Modern English	
ē	e (as in he)	hē = he; wē = we; öē = thee; mē = me, gē = ye; hēl = heel; wērig = weary; gelēfan = to believe; gēs = geese.
ī (ÿ)	i(y) (as in $mine$)	mīn = mine; ŏīn = thine; wīr = wire; mȳs = mice; rīm = rime (wrongly spelt rhyme); lȳs=lice; bī=by; scīnan= to shine; stīg rāp = sty-rope (shortened to stirrup, stīgan meaning to mount).
ō	o (as in do)	$\begin{cases} \mathbf{d\bar{o}} = I \ do; \ \mathbf{t\bar{o}} = too, \ to; \ \mathbf{g\bar{o}s} = \\ goose; \ \mathbf{t\bar{o}\bar{o}} = tooth, \ \mathbf{m\bar{o}na} = \\ moon; \ \mathbf{d\bar{o}m} = doom; \ \mathbf{m\bar{o}d} = \\ mood; \ \mathbf{w\bar{o}gian} = to \ woo; \\ \mathbf{sl\bar{o}h} = I \ slew. \end{cases}$
ū	ou (ow) (as in thou)	du=thou; ful = foul; hus =house; nu=now; hu=how;tun=town; ure=our; ut=out; hlud=loud; dusend=thousand.
æ, ēa, ēo	ea (as in sea)	æ: sæ = sea; mæl = meal; dælan = to deal; clæne = clean; grædig = greedy. ēa: ēare = ear; ēast = east; drēam = dream, gēar = year; bēatan = to beat. ēo: ŏrēo = three; drēorig = dreary; sēo = she; hrēod = reed; dēop = deep.

(2) Analogy.

24. But more important than vowel shifting is the great law of Analogy, for Analogy shapes not only words but constructions. It belongs, therefore, to

Etymology and to Syntax, since it influences both form and function. By this law, minorities tend to pass over to the side of the majorities. "The greater mass of cases exerts an assimilative influence upon the smaller." The effect of Analogy is to simplify and to regularize. "The main factor in getting rid of irregularities is group-influence, or Analogy—the influence exercised by the members of an association-group on one another. . . . Irregularity consists in partial isolation from an association-group through some formal difference."²

Under the influence of Analogy, entire declensions and conjugations have been swept away, leaving in Modern English not a trace of their former existence. There are in Old English, for example, five plural endings for nouns, -as, -a, -e, -u, and -an. No one could well have predicted ³ that -as (Middle English -es) would soon take the lead, and become the norm to which the other endings would eventually conform, for there were more an-plurals than as-plurals; but the asplurals were doubtless more often employed in everyday speech. Oxen (Old English oxan) is the sole pure survival of the hundreds of Old English an-plurals.

¹ Whitney, Life and Growth of Language, Chap. IV.

² Sweet, A New English Grammar, Part I, § 535.

 $^{^3}$ As Skeat says (§ 22, (2)), Analogy is "fitful." It enables us to explain many linguistic phenomena, but not to anticipate them The multiplication of books tends to check its influence by perpetuating the forms already in use. Thus Chaucer employed nine en-plurals, and his influence served for a time to check the further encroachment of the es-plurals. As soon as there is an acknowledged standard in any language, the operation of Analogy is fettered.

No group of feminine nouns in Old English had -es as the genitive singular ending; but by the close of the Middle English period all feminines formed their genitive singular in -es (or -s, Modern English 's) after the analogy of the Old English masculine and neuter nouns with es-genitives. The weak preterits in -ode have all been leveled under the ed-forms, and of the three hundred strong verbs in Old English more than two hundred have become weak.

These are not cases of derivation (as are the shifted vowels): Modern English -s in sons, for example, could not possibly be derived from Old English -a in suna, or Middle English -e in sune (§ 23, (1)). They are cases of replacement by Analogy.

A few minor examples will quicken the student's appreciation of the nature of the influence exercised by Analogy:

- (a) The intrusive l in could (Chaucer always wrote could or could) is due to association with would and should, in each of which l belongs by etymological right.
- (b) He need not (for He needs not) is due to the assimilative influence of the auxiliaries may, can, etc., which have never added -s for their third person singular (§ 137).
- (c) I am friends with him, in which friends is a crystalized form for on good terms, may be traced to the influence of such expressions as He and I are friends, They are friends, etc.
- (d) Such errors as are seen in runned, seed, gooses, badder, hisself, says I (usually coupled with says he)

are all analogical formations. Though not sanctioned by good usage, it is hardly right to call these forms the products of "false analogy." The grammar involved is false, because unsupported by literary usages and traditions; but the analogy on which these forms are built is no more false than the law of gravitation is false when it makes a dress sit unconventionally.

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY AND SYNTAX.

THE STRONG OR VOWEL DECLENSIONS OF NOUNS.

THE a-DECLENSION.

CHAPTER VI.

(a) Masculine a-Stems.

- [O.E., M.E , and Mn.E. will henceforth be used for Old English, Middle English, and Modern English. Other abbreviations employed are self-explaining]
- 25. The a-Declension, corresponding to the Second or o-Declension of Latin and Greek, contains only (a) masculine and (b) neuter nouns. To this declension belong most of the O.E. masculine and neuter nouns. At a very early period, many of the nouns belonging properly to the i- and u-Declensions began to pass over to the a-Declension. This declension may therefore be considered the normal declension for all masculine and neuter nouns belonging to the Strong Declension.
- 26. Paradigms of sē mūð, mouth; sē fiscere, fisher-man; sē hwæl, whale; sē mearh, horse; sē finger, finger:

Sing. $N.A.$	mūð	fiscer-e	hwæl	$_{ m mearh}$	\mathbf{finger}
G.	mūð-es	fiscer-es	hwæl-es	${ m m\bar{e}ar\text{-}es}$	$\operatorname{fingr-es}$
D.I.	mū̃ŏ-e	fiscer-e	hwel-e	${ m m\bar{e}ar} ext{-e}$	$\mathbf{fingr-e}$
Plur. N.A.	mūð-as	fiscer-as	hwal-as	mēar-as	$\operatorname{fingr-as}$
G.	mū̃ඊ−a	fiscer-a	hwal-a	${ m m\bar{e}ar} ext{-}a$	$\operatorname{fingr-a}$
D.I.	mūð-um	fiscer-um	hwal-um	${f mar{e}ar}$ -u ${f m}$	fingr-um

Note. — For meanings of the cases, see § 12 The dative and instrumental are alike in all nouns.

27. The student will observe (1) that nouns whose nominative ends in -e (fiscere) drop this letter before adding the case endings; (2) that æ before a consonant (hwæl) changes to a in the plural; (3) that h, preceded by r (mearh) or 1 (seolh, seal), is dropped before an inflectional vowel, the stem vowel being then lengthened by way of compensation; (4) that dissyllables (finger) having the first syllable long, generally syncopate the vowel of the second syllable before adding the case endings.²

28. Paradigm of the Definite Article 3 sē, sēo, $\eth = the$:

¹ Adjectives usually retain æ in closed syllables, changing it to a in open syllables: hwæt (active), glæd (glad), wær (wary) have G. hwates, glades, wares; D. hwatum, gladum, warum; but A. hwætne, glædne, wærne. Nouns, however, change to a only in open syllables followed by a guttural vowel, a or u The æ in the open syllables of the singular is doubtless due to the analogy of the N.A. singular, both being closed syllables.

² Cf. Mn.E. drizz'ling, rememb'ring, abysmal (abysm = abizum), sick'ning, in which the principle of syncopation is precisely the same.

³ This may mean four things: (1) The, (2) That (demonstrative), (3) He, she, it, (4) Who, which, that (relative pronoun). Mn E demonstrative that is, of course, the survival of O E. neuter öæt in its demonstrative sense. Professor Victor Henry (Comparative Grammar of English and German, § 160, 3) sees a survival of dative plural demonstrative öæm in such an expression as in them days. It seems more probable, however, that them so used has followed the lead of

	${\it Masculine}.$	Feminine.	Neuter.
Sing. N .	sē	sēo	ðæt
G.	ðæs	૪≅re	ďæs
D.	ðæm (ðām)	૪≅re	ðæm (ðām)
A.	Tone	бā	ďæt
I.	ŏӯ, ŏon		ðý, ðon
		All Genders.	
Plur. N.A.		бā	
G.		бāra	
D.		రజేm (రam)	

29. Vocabulary.¹

sē bōcere, $scribe$ [bōc].	sē hierde, herdsman [shep-herd].	
sē cyning, $king$	ond (and), and	
sē dæg, day.	sē sęcg, man, warrior.	
sē ęnde, end.	sē seolh, $seal$	
sē engel, angel [angelus]	sē stān, stone.	
së frëodom, $freedom$.	sē wealh, foreigner, Welshman	
sē fugol (G. sometimes fugles),	[wal-nut].	
bird [fowl].	sē weall, $wall$.	
sē gār, spear [gore, gar-fish].	sē wīsdōm, wisdom.	
sē heofon, heaven.	sē wulf, wolf.	

30. Exercises.

I. 1. Đāra wulfa mūðas.
2. Đæs fisceres fingras.
3. Đāra
Wēala cyninge.
4. Đēm englum ond ðēm hierdum
5. Đāra

this and these, that and those, in their double function of pronoun and adjective. There was doubtless some such evolution as, I saw them. Them what? Them boys.

An unquestioned survival of the dative singular feminine of the article is seen in the -ter of Atterbury (= æt ðære byrig, at the town); and ðæm survives in the -ten of Attenborough, the word borough having become an uninflected neuter. Skeat, Principles, First Series, § 185.

¹ The brackets contain etymological hints that may help the student to discern relationships otherwise overlooked. The genitive is given only when not perfectly regular.

- daga ende. 6. Đēm bōcerum ond ðēm secgum ðæs cyninges. 7. Đēm sēole ond ðēm fuglum. 8. Đā stānas ond ðā gāras. 9. Hwala ond mēara. 10. Đāra engla wīsdōm. 11. Đæs cyninges bōceres frēodōm. 12. Đāra hierda fuglum. 13. Đỹ stāne. 14. Đēm wealle.
- II. 1. For the horses and the seals. 2. For the Welshmen's freedom. 3. Of the king's birds. 4. By the wisdom of men and angels 5. With the spear and the stone. 6. The herdsman's seal and the warriors' spears. 7. To the king of heaven. 8. By means of the scribe's wisdom. 9. The whale's mouth and the foreigner's spear. 10. For the bird belonging to (= of) the king's scribe. 11. Of that finger.

CHAPTER VII.

(b) Neuter α-Stems.

- 31. The neuter nouns of the a-Declension differ from the masculines only in the N.A. plural.
- **32.** Paradigms of **5**æt hof, court, dwelling; **5**æt bearn, child; **5**æt bān, bone; **5**æt rīce, kingdom; **5**æt spere, spear; **5**æt werod, band of men; **5**æt tungol, star:
- Sing NA. hof bearn bān nīce spere werod tungol G. hof es bearn es bān es rīces speres werod es tungles
 - $D\ I$ hof-e bearn-e bān-e rīc-e sper-e werod-e tungl-e
- Plur. N A. hof-u bearn bān rīc-u sper-u werod tungl-u
 - G hof-a bearn-a bān-a rīc-a sper-a werod-a tungl-a
 - D I. hof-um bearn-um bān-um rīc-um sper-um werod-um tungl-um
- 33. The paradigms show (1) that monosyllables with short stems (hof) take -u in the N.A. plural; (2) that

monosyllables with long stems (bearn, bān) do not distinguish the N.A. plural from the N.A. singular; ¹ (3) that dissyllables in -e, whether the stem be long or short (rīce, spere), have -u in the N.A. plural; (4) that dissyllables ending in a consonant and having the first syllable short² (werod) do not usually distinguish the N.A. plural from the N.A. singular; (5) that dissyllables ending in a consonant and having the first syllable long (tungol) more frequently take -u in the N.A. plural.

Note. — Syncopation occurs as in the masculine a-stems See § 27, (4).

34. Present and Preterit Indicative of habban, to have:

PRESENT.

- Sing. 1. Ic hæbbe, I have, or shall have.3
 - 2. The hast (hafast), thou hast, or wilt have.
 - 3. hē, hēo, hit hæfð (hafað), he, she, it has, or will have.
- Plur. 1. wē habbað, we have, or shall have.
 - 2. gē habbað, ye have, or will have.
 - 3. hīe habbað, they have, or will have.

PRETERIT.

- Sing. 1. Ic hæfde, I had.
 - 2. Öü hæfdest, thou hadst.
 - 3. hē, hēo, hit hæfde, he, she, it had.
- Plur. 1. wē hæfdon, we had
 - 2. gē hæfdon, ye had.
 - 3. hie hæfdon, they had

¹ Note the many nouns in Mn.E. that are unchanged in the plural. These are either survivals of O.E. long stems, swine, sheep, deer, folk, or analogical forms, fish, trout, mackerel, salmon, etc.

² Dissyllables whose first syllable is a prefix are, of course, excluded. They follow the declension of their last member: gebed, prayer, gebedu, prayers; gefeoht, battle, gefeoht, battles

³ See § 17, Note 1. Note that (as in hwæl, § 27, (2)) æ changes to a when the following syllable contains a: hæbbe, but hafast.

Note.—The negative ne, not, which always precedes its verb, contracts with all the forms of habban. The negative loses its e, habban its h. Ne + habban = nabban; Ic ne hæbbe = Ic næbbe; Ic ne hæfde = Ic næfde, etc. The negative forms may be gotten, therefore, by simply substituting in each case n for h.

35.

VOCABULARY.

öæt dæl, dale.
öæt dēor, animal [deer 1].
öæt dor, door.
öæt fæt, vessel [vat].
öæt fÿr, fire.
öæt gēar, year.
öæt geoc, yoke.
öæt geset, habitation [settlement].
öæt hēafod, head.

öæt līc, body [lich-gate].
öæt lim, limb.
on (with dat) in
öæt spor, track.
öæt wæpen, weapon.
öæt wīf, wife, woman.
öæt wīte, punishment.
öæt word, word.

ðæt hūs, house.

36.

EXERCISES.

- I. 1. Hē hafað ðæs cyninges bearn. 2. Đā Wēalas habbað ðā speru. 3. Đā wif habbað ðāra secga wæpnu. 4. Đū hæfst ðone fugol ond ðæt hūs ðæs hierdes. 5. Hæfð hēo ðā fatu³? 6. Hæfde hē ðæs wifes līc on ðæm hofe? 7. Hē næfde ðæs wifes līc; hē hæfde ðæs dēores hēafod. 8. Hæfð sē cyning gesetu on ðæm dæle? 9. Sē bōcere hæfð ðā sēolas on ðæm hūse. 10. Gē habbað frēodōm.
- II. 1. They have yokes and spears. 2. We have not the vessels in the house. 3. He had fire in the vessel. 4. Did the woman have (= Had the woman) the children? 5. The animal has the body of the woman's child. 6. I shall have

¹ The old meaning survives in Shakespeare's "Rats and mice and such small deer," *King Lear*, III, 4, 144.

² See § 20, (2), (b).

³ See § 27, (2).

the heads of the wolves. 7. He and she have the king's houses. 8. Have not (= Nabbað) the children the warrior's weapons?

CHAPTER VIII.

THE 5-DECLENSION.

- 37. The 5-Declension, corresponding to the First or \bar{a} -Declension of Latin and Greek, contains only feminine nouns. Many feminine i-stems and u-stems soon passed over to this Declension. The 5-Declension may, therefore, be considered the normal declension for all strong feminine nouns.
- **38.** Paradigms of sēo giefu, gift; sēo wund, wound; sēo rōd, cross; sēo leornung, learning, sēo sāwol, soul:

Sing. N	gief-u	wund	$\mathbf{r} \bar{\mathbf{o}} \mathbf{d}$	leornung	sāwol
G.	gief-e	$\mathbf{wund}\text{-}\mathbf{e}$	${f r}ar{{f o}}{f d}{f -}{f e}$	leornung-a (e)	sāwl-e
D.I.	gief-e	wund-e	$r\bar{o}d-e$	leornung-a (e)	sāwl-e
A.	gief-e	wund-e	${f r\bar{o}d} ext{-e}$	leornung-a (e)	sāwl-e
Plur. N.A.	gief-a	wund-a	$r\bar{o}d$ -a	leornung-a	$\mathbf{s}\mathbf{\bar{a}}\mathbf{w}\mathbf{l}\mathbf{-a}$
G.	gief-a	wund-a	${f r}ar{{f o}}{f d}$ - ${f a}$	leornung-a	$s\bar{a}wl$ - a
D.I	gief-um	wund- η m	rōd-um	leornung-um	sāwl-um

39. Note (1) that monosyllables with short stems (giefu) take u in the nominative singular; (2) that monosyllables with long stems (wund, rōd) present the unchanged stem in the nominative singular; (3) that dissyllables are declined as monosyllables, except that abstract nouns in -ung prefer a to e in the singular.

Note. — Syncopation occurs as in masculine and neuter a-stems. See § 27, (4).

40. Present and Preterit Indicative of beon (wesan), to be:

PRESENT (first form).	PRESENT (second form).	PRETERIT.
Sing. 1. Ic eom	1. Ic bēom	1. Ic wæs
2. Šū eart	2. Tū bist	2. ởū wāre
3. hē is	3. hē bið	3. hē wæs
Plur. 1. wē	1. wē)	1. wē)
2. gē sind (on),	sint 2. gē } bēoඊ	2. gē wæron
3. hīe	3. hīe	3. hīe

Note 1.—The forms beom, bist, etc. are used chiefly as future tenses in O.E. They survive to-day only in dialects and in poetry. Farmer Dobson, for example, in Tennyson's *Promise of May*, uses be for all persons of the present indicative, both singular and plural; and there be is frequent in Shakespeare for there are. The Northern dialect employed aron as well as sindon and sind for the present plural; hence Mn E. are.

Note 2.—Fusion with ne gives neom and nis for the present; næs, nære, næron for the preterit.

Note 3.—The verb to be is followed by the nominative case, as in Mn.E.; but when the predicate noun is plural, and the subject a neuter pronoun in the singular, the verb agrees in number with the predicate noun. The neuter singular ðæt is frequently employed in this construction: Đæt wæron eall Finnas, They were all Fins; Đæt sind englas, They are angels; Đæt wæron engla gāstas, They were angels' spirits.

Notice, too, that O.E. writers do not say It is I, It is thou, but I it am, Thou it art: Ic hit eom, $\eth \bar{u}$ hit eart. See § 21, (1), Note 1.

41. Vocabulary.

sēo brycg, bridge.
sēo costnung, temptation.
sēo cwalu, death [quail, quell].
sēo fōr, journey [faran].
sēo frōfor, consolation, comfort.

sēo geoguð, youth. sēo glöf, ylove. sēo hālignes 1 holiness. sēo heall, hall. hēr, here.

¹ All words ending in **-nes** double the **-s** before adding the case endings.

hwā, who?
hwær, where?
sēo lufu, love.
sēo mearc, boundary [mark,
marches 1].
sēo mēd, meed, reward.

sēo mildheortnes, mild-heartedness, mercy
sēo stōw, place [stow away].
öær, there
sēo öearf, need.
sēo wylf, she wolf.

42. Exercises.

I. 1. Hwær is ðære brycge ende? 2. Her sind ðara rīca mearca. 3. Hwā hæfð þā glöfa? 4. Đær bīð ðæm cyninge fröfre ðearf. 5. Sēo wund is on ðære wylfe heafde. 6. Wē habbað costnunga. 7. Hīe næron on ðære healle. 8. Ic hit neom. 9. Đæt wæron Wēalas. 10. Đæt sind ðæs wifes bearn.

II. 1. We shall have the women's gloves. 2. Where is the place? 3. He will be in the hall. 4. Those (**Đæt**) were not the boundaries of the kingdom. 5. It was not I. 6. Ye are not the king's scribes. 7. The shepherd's words are full (full + gen.) of wisdom and comfort. 8. Where are the bodies of the children? 9. The gifts are not here. 10. Who has the seals and the birds?

CHAPTER IX.

THE i-DECLENSION AND THE u-DECLENSION.

The i-Declension.

43. The i-Declension, corresponding to the group of *i*-stems in the classical Third Declension, contains chiefly (a) masculine and (b) feminine nouns. The N.A. plural of these nouns ended originally in -e (from older i).

¹ As in warden of the marches.

(a) Masculine i-Stems.

- 44. These stems have almost completely gone over to the a-Declension, so that -as is more common than -e as the N.A. plural ending, whether the stem is long or short. The short stems all have -e in the N.A. singular.
 - 45. Paradigms of sē wyrm, worm; sē wine, friend.

$Sing. \ N.A.$	wyrm	$_{ m win-e}$
G.	wyrm-es	win-es
D.I.	wyrm-e	win-e
Plur. N.A	wyrm-as	win-as (e)
G	wyrm-a	win-a
D.I.	wyrm-um	win-um

Names of Peoples.

- **46.** The only **i**-stems that regularly retain -**e** of the N.A. plural are certain names of tribes or peoples used only in the plural.
- 47. Paradigms of čā Engle, Angles; čā Norčymbre, Northumbrians; čā lēode, people:

$Plur.\ N\ A.$	Engle	Norðymbre	lēode
G.	Engla	Nordymbra	lēoda
D.I	Englum	Norðymbrum	lēodum

(b) Feminine i-Stems.

48. The short stems (frem-u) conform entirely to the declension of short ō-stems; long stems (cwēn, wyrt) differ from long ō-stems in having no ending for the A. singular. They show, also, a preference for -e rather than -a in the N.A. plural.

49. Paradigms of seo frem-u, benefit; seo cwen, woman, queen [quean]; seo wyrt, root [wort]:

Sing. N .	fręm-u	cwēn	wyrt
G.	frem-e	cwēn-e	wyrt-e
D.I	frem-e	cwēn-e	wyrt-e
A.	frem-e	$cw\bar{e}n$	\mathbf{wyrt}
Plur. N.A.	fręm-a	cwēn-e (a)	wyrt-e (a)
G.	fręm-a	cwēn-a	wyrt-a
D.I.	frem-um	cwēn-um	wyrt-um

The u-Declension.

50. The u-Declension, corresponding to the group of u-stems in the classical Third Declension, contains no neuters, and but few (a) masculines and (b) feminines. The short-stemmed nouns of both genders (sun-u, dur-u) retain the final u of the N.A. singular, while the long stems (feld, hond) drop it. The influence of the masculine a-stems is most clearly seen in the long-stemmed masculines of the u-Declension (feld, feld-es, etc.).

Note — Note the general aversion of all O E. long stems to final -u: cf. N.A. plural hof-u, but bearn, bān; N singular gief-u, but wund, rōd; N singular frem-u, but cwēn, wyrt; N.A. singular sun-u, dur-u, but feld, hond.

(a) Masculine u-Stems.

51. Paradigms of sē sun-u, son; sē feld, field:

Sing. N.A.	sun-u	feld
G.	sun-a	feld-a (es)
D I .	sun-a	feld-a (e)
Plur. N.A	sun-a	feld-a (as)
G.	sun-a	feld-a
D I.	sun-um	feld-um

(b) Feminine u-Stems.

52. Paradigms of seo dur-u, door; seo hond, hand:

Sing. N.A.	dur-u	\mathbf{hond}
G.	dur-a	hond-a
D.I.	dur-a	hond-a
Plur. N.A.	dur-a	hond-a
G.	dur-a	hond-a
D.I.	dur-um	hond-un

53. Paradigm of the Third Personal Pronoun, $h\bar{e}$, $h\bar{e}o$, hit = he, she, it:

	Mc	asculine.	Feminine.	Neuter.
Sin	g. N.	hē	hēo	hit
	G.	his	hiere	$_{ m his}$
	D.	him	hiere	$_{ m him}$
	A.	hine, hiene	${f hf ie}$	hit
		£	Ill Genders.	
707	37 4		l. r.	

54.

VOCABULARY.

100111	C ZZZZZZ V
(i-Stems.)	ðā Seaxe, Saxons.
sē cierr, turn, time [char, chare,	Öā Seaxe, Saxons.sē stęde, place [in-stead of].
chore].	
sēo dæd, deed.	(u-Stems.)
sē dæl, part [a great deal].	sēo flōr, $floor$
ðā Dene, Danes.	sēo nosu, nose.
sē frēondscipe, friendship.	sē sumor (G . sumeres, D . su-
sēo hỹd, $skin,\ hide.$	mera), summer.
ðā londlēode, natives.	sē winter (G wintres, D . win-
ðā Mierce, Mercians.	${\sf tra}), {\it winter}.$
ðā Rōmware, Romans.	sē wudu, wood, forest.

Note. — The numerous masculine nouns ending in -hād, —cild-hād (childhood), wīfhād (womanhood), — belong to the u-stems historically; but they have all passed over to the a-Declension.

55. Exercises.

- I. 1. Đā Seaxe habbað ðæs dēcres hýd on ðæm wuda.

 2. Hwā hæfð ðā giefa?

 3. Đā Mierce hīe¹ habbað.

 4. Hwær is ðæs Wēales fugol?

 5. Đā Dene hiene habbað.

 6. Hwær sindon hiera winas?

 7. Hīe sindon on ðæs cyninges wuda.

 8. Đa Rōmware ond ðā Seaxe hæfdon ðā gāras ond ðā geocu.

 9. Hēo is on ðæm hūse on wintra, ond on ðæm feldum on sumera.

 10. Hwær is ðæs hofes duru?

 11. Hēo² (= sēo duru) nis hēr.
- II. 1. His friends have the bones of the seals and the bodies of the Danes. 2. Art thou the king's son? 3. Has she her gifts in her hands? 4. Here are the fields of the natives. 5. Who had the bird? 6. I had it.² 7. The child had the worm in his fingers. 8. The Mercians were here during (the) summer (on + dat.).

CHAPTER X.

PRESENT INDICATIVE ENDINGS OF STRONG VERBS.

- **56.** The unchanged stem of the present indicative may always be found by dropping -an of the infinitive: feall-an, to fall; cēos-an, to choose; bīd-an, to abide.
 - **57.** The personal endings are:

Sing. 1.	-е	$Plur. \ 1. \)$
2.	-est	$egin{aligned} Plur. \ 1. \ 2. \ \end{aligned}$ -aඊ
3.	-eð	3.

¹ See § **21**, (1)

² Pronouns agree in gender with the nouns for which they stand. **Hit**, however, sometimes stands for inanimate things of both masculine and feminine genders. See Wülfing ($l\ c$.) I, § 238.

i-Umlaut.

58. The 2d and 3d singular endings were originally not -est and -e δ , but -is and -i δ ; and the i of these older endings has left its traces upon almost every page of Early West Saxon literature. This i, though unaccented and soon displaced, exerted a powerful back influence upon the vowel of the preceding accented syllable. This influence, a form of regressive assimilation, is known as i-umlaut (pronounced obm-lowt). The vowel i or j = y, being itself a palatal, succeeded in palatalizing every guttural vowel that preceded it, and in imposing still more of the i-quality upon diphthongs that were already palatal. The changes produced were these:

```
a became e(x): menn (<*mann-iz), men.
ā
          æ
                  ænig (<*ān-ig), any
                  wyllen (<*wull-in), woollen.
u
          v
                  m\bar{y}s (<*m\bar{u}s-iz), mice
ũ
          Ÿ
                  dehter (<*dohtr-i), to or for the daughter.
     44
          ę
     44
          ē
                  f\bar{e}t (< *f\bar{o}t-iz), feet.
     44
          ie
                  wiex\ddot{o} (<*weax-i\ddot{o}), he grows (weaxan=to grow).
ea
ēа
     "
          īе
                  hīewð (< *hēaw-ið), he hews (hēawan=to hew).
     "
                  wiercan (< *weorc-jan), to work.
eo
     "
                  līehtan (< *lēoht-jan), to light
ēο
          īе
```

The Unchanged Present Indicative.

59. In the Northumbrian and Mercian dialects, as well as in the dialect of Late West Saxon, the 2d and 3d singular endings were usually joined to the present

¹ The palatal vowels and diphthongs were long or short æ, e, i, (ie), y, ea, eo; the guttural vowels were long or short a, o, u.

stem without modification either of the stem itself or of the personal endings. The complete absence of umlauted forms in the present indicative of Mn.E. is thus accounted for.

In Early West Saxon, however, such forms as the following are comparatively rare in the 2d and 3d singular:

Sing. 1	. Ic-feall-e (I fall)	cēos-e $(I choose)$	bid-e (I abide)
2	. ðū feall-est	cēos-est	bīd-est
3	. hē feall-e*ර	cēos-eð	bīd-e∛
	$ \left. \begin{array}{c} \text{we} \\ \text{ge} \\ \text{hie} \end{array} \right\} \text{feall-add} $	cēos-að	bīd-að

The Present Indicative with i-Umlaut and Contraction.

60. The 2d and 3d persons singular are distinguished from the other forms of the present indicative in Early West Saxon by (1) i-umlaut of the vowel of the stem, (2) syncope of the vowel of the ending, giving -st and -ð for -est and -eð, and (3) contraction of -st and -ð with the final consonant or consonants of the stem.

Contraction.

61. The changes produced by i-umlaut have been already discussed. By these changes, therefore, the stems of the 2d and 3d singular indicative of such verbs as (1) stondan (= standan), to stand, (2) cuman, to come, (3) growan, to grow, (4) brūcan, to enjoy, (5) blāwan, to blow, (6) feallan, to fall, (7) hēawan, to hew, (8) weorpan, to throw, and (9) cēosan, to choose,

become respectively (1) stend-, (2) cym-, (3) grew-, (4) bryc-, (5) blæw-, (6) fiell-, (7) hrew-, (8) wierp-, and (9) cres-.

If the unchanged stem contains the vowel e, this is changed in the 2d and 3d singular to i (ie): cweöan to say, stem cwiö-; beran to bear, stem bier. But this mutation had taken place long before the period of O.E., and belongs to the Germanic languages in general. It is best, however, to class the change of e to i or ie with the changes due to umlaut, since it occurs consistently in the 2d and 3d singular stems of Early West Saxon, and outlasted almost all of the umlaut forms proper.

If, now, the syncopated endings -st and -ō are added directly to the umlauted stem, there will frequently result such a massing of consonants as almost to defy pronunciation: cwiō-st, thou sayest; stend-st, thou standest, etc. Some sort of contraction, therefore, is demanded for the sake of euphony. The ear and eye will, by a little practice, become a sure guide in these contractions. The following rules, however, must be observed. They apply only to the 2d and 3d singular of the present indicative:

¹ The more common form for stems with a is æ rather than ę: faran, to go, 2d and 3d singular stem fær-; sacan, to contend, stem sæc-. Indeed, a changes to ę via æ (Cosijn, Altwestsächsische Grammatik, I, § 32).

² Umlaut is frequently called Mutation Metaphony is still another name for the same phenomenon. The term Metaphony has the advantage of easy adjectival formation (metaphonic). It was proposed by Professor Victor Henry (Comparative Grammar of English and German, Paris, 1894), but has not been naturalized.

(1) If the stem ends in a double consonant, one of the consonants is dropped:

1. feall-e (I fall) 1. winn-e (I fight)1. swimm-e (I swim) 2. fiel-st

2. win-st. 2. swim-st

3. win-8 3. fiel-8 3. swim-8

(2) If the stem ends in -ð, this is dropped:

1. cweő-e (*I say*) 1. weorð-e (I become)

2. cwi-st. 2. wier-st.

3. wier-8 3. cwi-8

(3) If the stem ends in -d, this is changed to -t. The -of the ending is then also changed to -t, and usually absorbed. Thus the stem of the 2d singular serves as stem and ending for the 3d singular:

1. stond-e (= stand-e) (I stand) 1. bind-e (I bind)

2. bint-st 2. stent-st

3. bint 3. stent

1. bīd-e (I abide) 1. rīd-e (I ride)

2. bīt-st 2. rīt-st

3. rīt (-t) 3. bīt (-t)

(4) If the stem ends already in -t, the endings are added as in (3), -8 being again changed to -t and absorbed:

1. brēot-e (I break) 1. feoht-e (*I fight*) 1. bit-e (*I bite*)

2. briet-st 2. fieht-st 2. bīt-st

3. fight 3. bit (-t) 3. briet (-t)

(5) If the stem ends in -s, this is dropped before -st (to avoid -sst), but is retained before -o, the latter being changed to -t. Thus the 2d and 3d singulars are identical:1

¹ This happens also when the infinitive stem ends in st:

¹ berst-e (*I burst*)

^{2.} bier-st

³ bierst.

 1. cēos-e (I choose)
 1 rīs-e (I rise)

 2. cīe-st
 2. rī-st

3. cīes-t 3. rīs-t

62. Exercises.

- I. 1. Sē cyning fielð. 2. Đã wīf cēosað ðā giefa. 3. Đũ stentst on ðām hūse. 4. Hē wierpð ðæt wæpen 5. Sē secg hīewð ðā līc. 6. Đæt sæd grēwð ond wiexð (*Mark* iv. 27). 7. Ic stonde hēr, ond ðū stentst ðær. 8. "Ic hit eom," cwið hē. 9. Hīe berað ðæs wulfes bān. 10. Hē hīe bint, ond ic hine binde. 11. Ne rītst ðū?
- II. 1. We shall bind him. 2. Who chooses the child's gifts? 3. "He was not here," says she. 4. Wilt thou remain in the hall? 5. The wolves are biting (= bite) the fishermen. 6. He enjoys the love of his children. 7. Do you enjoy (= Enjoyest thou) the consolation and friendship of the scribe? 8. Will he come? 9. I shall throw the spear, and thou wilt bear the weapons. 10. The king's son will become king. 11. The army (werod) is breaking the doors and walls of the house.

CHAPTER XI.

THE CONSONANT DECLENSIONS OF NOUNS.

The Weak or n-Declension.

63. The **n**-Declension contains almost all of the O.E. nouns belonging to the Consonant Declensions. The stem characteristic **n** has been preserved in the oblique

¹ Brūcan, to enjoy, takes the genitive case, not the accusative. It means "to have joy of anything."

cases, so that there is no difficulty in distinguishing n-stems from the preceding vowel stems.

The n-Declension includes (a) masculines, (b) feminines, and (c) neuters. The masculines far outnumber the feminines, and the neuters contain only \bar{e} age, eye and \bar{e} are, ear. The masculines end in -a, the feminines and neuters in -e.

64. Paradigms of (a) sē hunta, hunter; (b) sēo tunge, tongue; (c) öæt ēage, eye:

$Sing \ N.$	hunt-a	tung-e	$\bar{\mathrm{e}}\mathrm{ag-e}$
G.D~I.	hunt-an	tung-an	ēag-an
A.	hunt-an	tung-an	ēag-e
Plur N.A	hunt-an	tung-an	ēag-an
G.	hunt-ena	tung-ena	ēag-ena
DI.	hunt-um	tung-um	ēag-um

65.

VOCABULARY.

sē adesa, hatchet, adze.

sē æmetta, leisure [empt-iness].

sē bona (bana), murderer [bane]

sē cnapa (later, cnafa), boy

[knave]

sē cuma, stranger [comer]

ðæt ēare. ear

sēo eorðe, earth.

sē gefēra, companion [co-farer]. sē guma, man [bride-groom 1]

se guma, man [bride-groom

sēo heorte, heart.

sē mona, moon.

sēo nædre, adder [a nadder > an adder 2]

sē oxa, ox.

sē scēowyrhta, shoe-maker [shoe-wright]

sēo sunne, sun.

sē tēona, injury [teen].

biddan (with dat of person and gen. of thing 3), to request, ask for.

cwelan, to die [quail].

¹ The r is intrusive in -groom, as it is in cart-r-idge, part-r-idge, vag-r-ant, and hoa-r-se

² The n has been appropriated by the article. Cf. an apron (< a napron), an auger (< a nauger), an orange (< a norange), an umpire (< a numpire)

³ In Mn.E. we say "I request a favor of you"; but in O.E. it was

gescieppan, to create [shape, | sceddan (with dat.), to injure land-scape, friend-ship] giefan (with dat. of indirect object), to give. healdan, to hold. helpan (with dat), to help.

[scathe]. widstondan (-standan) (with dat), to withstand. wrītan, to write.

Exercises. 66.

I. 1. Sē scēowyrhta brycð his æmettan. 2. Đā guman biddað ðām cnapan ðæs adesan. 3. Hwā is sē cuma? 4 Hielpst ðū ðēm bonan? 5. Ic him ne helpe. 6. Đā bearn sceððað ðæs bonan ēagum ond ēarum. 7. Sē cuma 8 Sē hunta wiðstent ðæm wulfum. cwielð on ðære cirican. 9. Đā oxan berað ðæs cnapan geferan. 10. Sē mona ond ða tunglu sind on ðæm heofonum. 11. Đā huntan healdað ðære nædran tungan. 12. He hiere giefð ða giefa. 13. Ða werod sceddad dæs cyninges feldum.

II. 1. Who will bind the mouths of the oxen? gives him the gifts? 3. Thou art helping him, and I am injuring him. 4. The boy's companion is dying. 5. His nephew does not enjoy his leisure. 6. The adder's tongue injures the king's companion 7. The sun is the day's eye. 8 She asks the strangers for the spears. 9. The men's bodies are not here. 10 Is he not (Nis hē) the child's murderer? 11 Who creates the bodies and the souls of men? 12. Thou withstandest her. 13. He is not writing.

[&]quot;I request you (dative) of a favor" (genitive). Cf. Cymbeline, III, 6, 92: "We'll mannerly demand thee of thy story."

CHAPTER XII.

REMNANTS OF OTHER CONSONANT DECLENSIONS.

- 67. The nouns belonging here are chiefly masculines and feminines. Their stem ended in a consonant other than n. The most important of them may be divided as follows: (1) The foot Declension, (2) r-Stems, and (3) nd-Stems. These declensions are all characterized by the prevalence, wherever possible, of i-umlaut in certain cases, the case ending being then dropped.
- **68.** (1) The nouns belonging to the *foot* Declension exhibit umlaut most consistently in the N.A. plural. Sing. N.A. sē fōt (foot) sē mon (man) sē tōð (tooth) sēo cū (cow)

men

tēð

 $c\bar{v}$

Plur. N.A.

fēt

weak stems; Burns in The Twa Dogs uses kye

Note.—The dative singular usually has the same form as the N.A. plural Here belong also sēo bōc (book), sēo burg (borough), sēo gōs (goose), sēo lūs (louse), and sēo mūs (mouse), all with umlauted plurals. Mn.E. preserves only six of the foot Declension plurals: feet, men, teeth, geese, lice, and mice. The c in the last two is an artificial spelling, intended to preserve the sound of voiceless s. Mn.E kine (= cy-en) is a double plural formed after the analogy of

No umlaut is possible in seo niht (night) and se monaö (month), plural niht and monaö (preserved in Mn.E. twelvemonth and fortnight)

- (2) The r-Stems contain nouns expressing kinship, and exhibit umlaut of the dative singular.
- Sing. N.A. sē fæder sē brö δ or sēo modor sēo dohtor sēo swuster (father) (brother) (mother) (daughter) (sister)D. fæder brē δ er mēder dehter swyster
- Note. The N.A. plural is usually the same as the N.A. singular. These umlaut datives are all due to the presence of a former i. Cf. Lat. dative singular patri, frātri, mātri, sorori (<*sosori), and Greek $\theta\nu\gamma\alpha\tau\rho l$.

(3) The nd-Stems show umlaut both in the N.A. plural and in the dative singular:

 $Sing.\ N.A.$ sē frēond (friend) sē fēond (enemy) D. friend fiend $Plur.\ N.A.$ friend fiend

Note. — Mn.E. friend and fiend are interesting analogical spellings. When **s** had been added by analogy to the O.E plurals **friend** and **fiend**, thus giving the double plurals friends and fiends, a second singular was formed by dropping the **s**. Thus friend and fiend displaced the old singulars frend and fend, both of which occur in the M.E. Ormulum, written about the year 1200.

Summary of O.E. Declensions.

69. A brief, working summary of the O.E. system of declensions may now be made on the basis of gender.

All O.E. nouns are (1) masculine, (2) feminine, or (3) neuter.

(1) The masculines follow the declension of muö (§ 26), except those ending in -a, which are declined like hunta (§ 64):

Sing. N.A	mūð	hunta
G.	${f m}$ ū ${f f \delta}$ es	huntan
D.I.	mūðe	huntan
$Plur\ N\ A$	mūðas	huntan
G.	mūða	huntena
D.I.	mūðum	huntum

(2) The short-stemmed neuters follow the declension of hof (§ 32); the long-stemmed, that of bearn (§ 32):

Sing. N.A.	\mathbf{hof}	$_{ m bearn}$
$\it G$	hofes	bearnes
D I .	hofe	bearne
Plur. NA.	hofu	bearn
G.	hofa	bearna
D.I.	hofum	bearnum

(3) The feminines follow the declensions of giefu and wund (§ 38) (the only difference being in the N. singular), except those ending in -e, which follow the declension of tunge (§ 64):

Sing N .	giefu	wund	tunge
G.	\mathbf{giefe}	wunde	tungan
D.I.	giefe	wunde	tungan
A.	$_{ m giefe}$	\mathbf{wunde}	tungan
Plur N.A	giefa	wunda	tungan
G	giefa	\mathbf{wunda}	tungena
D.I.	giefum	\mathbf{wundum}	tungum

70.

Vocabulary.

ac, but.
būtan (with dat.), except, but,
without.
sē Crīst, Christ.
sē eorl, earl, alderman, warrior.
ðæt Englalond, England [Angles' land]
faran, to go [fare].

findan, to find.

sē God, God.

hātan, to call, name.

sē hlāford, lord [hlāf-weard].

mid (with dat.), with.

on (with acc.), on, against, into.

tō (with dat.), to.

uton (with infin.), let us.

Note.—O E mon (man) is frequently used in an indefinite sense for one, people, they It thus takes the place of a passive construction proper: And man nam pā gebrotu pe pār belifon, twelf cypan fulle, And there were taken up of fragments that remained there twelve baskets full, but more literally, And one (or they) took the fragments, etc.; Ond Hæstenes wif ond his suna twegen mon brothe to or other constructions.

71. Exercises.

I. 1. Mọn hine hāt Ælfred. 2. Uton faran on væt seip. 3. God is cyninga cyning ọnd hlāforda hlāford. 4. Sē eorl ne giefð giefa his fiend. 5. Ic næs mid his friend. 6. Sēo mödor færð mid hiere dehter on vā burg. 7. Fintst va væs

bōceres bēc? 8. Hē bint ealle (all) ðā dēor būtan ðæm wulfum. 9. Đū eart Crīst, Godes sunu. 10. "Uton bindan ðæs bonan fēt," ewið hē.

II. 1. Christ is the son of God. 2. Let us call him Cædmon. 3. He throws his spear against the door. 4. Thou art not the earl's brother. 5. He will go with his father to England, but I shall remain (abide) here. 6. Gifts are not given to murderers. 7. Who will find the tracks of the animals? 8. They ask their lord for his weapons (§ 65, Note 3).

CHAPTER XIII.

Pronouns.

(1) Personal Pronouns.

72. Paradigms of ic, I; $\eth \bar{\mathbf{u}}$, thou. For $h\bar{\mathbf{e}}$, $h\bar{\mathbf{e}}$ o, hit, see § 53.

Sing. N.	ic	∛ū
G.	mīn	ðīn
D.	${f m ilde{e}}$	*రē
A.	$m\bar{e}$	δē
Dual N.	wit (we two)	git (ye two)
G.	uncer (of us two)	incer (of you two)
D.	unc (to or for us two)	inc (to or for you two)
A.	unc (us two)	inc (you two)
Plur. N.	wē	gē
G.	ūser (ūre)	ēower
D.	ūs	ēow
A.	ūs	ēow

Note 1.— The dual number was soon absorbed by the plural. No relic of it now remains. But when two and only two are referred to, the dual is consistently used in O.E. An example occurs in the case

of the two blind men (Matthew ix. 27-31): Gemiltsa unc, Davīdes sunu! Pity us, (thou) Son of David! Sie inc æfter incrum gelēafan, Be it unto you according to your faith.

Note 2. — Mn.E. $ye \ (< g\bar{e})$, the nominative proper, is fast being displaced by $you \ (< \bar{e}ow)$, the old objective The distinction is preserved in the King James's version of the Bible: $Ye \ in \ me, \ and \ I \ in \ you \ (John \ xiv \ 20)$; but not in Shakespeare and later writers.

(2) Demonstrative Pronouns.

73. Paradigm of čes, čes, čis, this. For the Definite Article as a demonstrative, meaning that, see § 28, Note 3.

i	Masculine.	Feminine.	Neuter.	
Sing. N	రes	ზēos	ðis	
G.	disses	disse	fisses	
D.	ðissum	disse	dissum	
A.	disne	бās	ðis	
I.	ðÿs		ðīs	
		All Genders.		
Plur. N.A.		8ās		
G.		dissa		
D.		dissum		

(3) The Interrogative Pronoun.

74. Paradigm of hwā, hwæt, who, what?

Л	Iasculine	Neuter.
Sing. N.	hwā	hwæt
G.	hwæs	hwæs
D.	$hw\bar{e}m$	$hw\bar{\tilde{e}}m$
A.	hwone	hwæt
I.		$hw\bar{y}$

Note 1.—The derivative interrogatives, hwæder (<*hwā-der), which of two? and hwilc (<*hwā-līc), which? are declined as strong adjectives (§§ 79–82).

Note 2. — The instrumental case of $hw\bar{a}$ survives in Mn.E. $why = on\ what\ account$; the instrumental of the definite article is seen in the

adverbial the: The sooner, the better = by how much sooner, by so much better.

Note 3.—How were the Mn.E. relative pronouns, who and which, evolved from the O E interrogatives? The change began in early West Saxon with hwæt used in indirect questions (Wülfing, l.c $\S 310, \beta$): Nū ic wāt eall hwæt ðū woldest, Now I know all that thou desiredst. The direct question was, Hwæt woldest ðū? But the presence of eall shows that in Alfred's mind hwæt was, in the indirect form, more relative than interrogative.

(4) Relative Pronouns.

75. O.E. had no relative pronoun proper. It used instead (1) the Indeclinable Particle &, who, whom, which, that, (2) the Definite Article (§ 28), (3) the Definite Article with the Indeclinable Particle.

The forms of the Definite Article agree, of course, in gender and number with the antecedent, the case depending upon the construction. The bird which I have may, therefore, be expressed in three ways:

- (1) Sē fugol de ic hæbbe;
- (2) Sē fugol done ic hæbbe;
- (3) Sē fugol done de $(= the \ which)$ ic hæbbe.

Note — O.E \eth e agrees closely in construction with Mn E relative that: (1) Both are indeclinable (2) Both refer to animate or inanimate objects (3) Both may be used with phrasal value: $\eth \bar{v}$ ylcan dæge \eth e hī hine tō $\eth \bar{w}$ m āde beran wylla \bar{v} , On the same day that (= on which) they intend to bear him to the funeral pile. (4) Neither can be preceded by a preposition.

(5) Possessive Pronouns.

76. The Possessive Pronouns are mīn, mine; ỡīn, thine; ūre, our; ēower, your; [sīn, his, her, its]; uncer, belonging to us two; incer, belonging to you two. They

are declined as strong adjectives. The genitives of the Third Personal Pronoun, his, his, hiere, her, hiera, their, are indeclinable.

(6) Indefinite Pronouns.

77. These are ælc, each, every; ān, a, an, one; ænig (<ān-ig), any; nænig (<ne-ænig), none; ōðer, other; sum, one, a certain one; swilc, such. They are declined as strong adjectives.

Note. — O E. had three established methods of converting an interrogative pronoun into an indefinite: (1) By prefixing ge, (2) by prefixing æg, (3) by interposing the interrogative between swā... swā: (1) gehwā, each; gehwæðer, either; gehwilc, each; (2) æghwā, each; æghwæðer, each; æghwilc, each; (3) swā hwā swā, whosoever, swā hwæðer swā, whichsoever of two; swā hwilc swā, whosoever.

CHAPTER XIV.

ADJECTIVES, STRONG AND WEAK.

78. The declension of adjectives conforms in general to the declension of nouns, though a few pronominal inflections have influenced certain cases. Adjectives belong either to (1) the Strong Declension or to (2) the Weak Declension. The Weak Declension is employed when the adjective is preceded by sē or vēs, the, that, or this; otherwise, the Strong Declension is employed: variety of the strong Declension is employed: variety variety

Note. — The Weak Declension is also frequently used when the adjective is employed in direct address, or preceded by a possessive

pronoun: Dryhten, ælmihtiga God . . . ic bidde öe for öinre miclan mildheortnesse, Lord, almighty God, I pray thee, for thy great mercy.

(1) Strong Declension of Adjectives.

(a) Monosyllables.

- **79.** The strong adjectives are chiefly monosyllabic with long stems: god, good; eald, old; long, long; swift, swift. They are declined as follows.
 - 80. Paradigm of god, good:

A.	${\it f}$ as $culine.$	Feminine.	Neuter.
Sing. N.	$\mathbf{g}\mathbf{\bar{o}d}$	${f gar o d}$	$\mathbf{g}\mathbf{\bar{o}d}$
G.	$g\bar{o}des$	${ m g\bar{o}dre}$	${f gar odes}$
D.	$g\bar{o}dum$	${f gar o dre}$	gōdum
A.	${f gar o}{f d}{f n}{f e}$	${f gar o de}$	${f gar o d}$
I.	${f gar o de}$	-	${f gar o de}$
Plur. N.A	$g\bar{o}de$	${f gar o}{f d}{f a}$	$\mathbf{g}\mathbf{\bar{o}d}$
G.	$g\bar{o}dra$	${f gar o}{f d}{f r}{f a}$	${f gar o dra}$
D.I.	${f gar o}{f d}{f u}{f m}$	${f gar o}{f d}{f u}{f m}$	${ m g\bar{o}dum}$

81. If the stem is short, -u is retained as in giefu (\S 39, (1)) and hofu (\S 33, (1)). Thus glæd (\S 27, Note 1), glad, and til, useful, are inflected:

	${\it Masculine}.$	Feminine	Neuter.
Sina	$N. \left\{ egin{array}{l} ext{glæd} \ ext{til} \end{array} ight.$	gladu	$\mathbf{gl}\mathbf{ad}$
Bing.	til til	tilu	til
Plum M	$A. \left\{ egin{aligned} ext{glade} \ ext{tile} \end{aligned} ight.$	glada	gladu
1 tur. 1v.	tile	tila	$_{ m tilu}$

(b) Polysyllables.

82. Polysyllables follow the declension of short monosyllables. The most common terminations are -en, -en; -fæst, -fast; -full, -ful; -lēas, -less; -līc, -ly; -ig, -y: hæð-en (hæð=heath), heathen; stede-fæst (stede

= place), steadfast, sorg-full (sorg=sorrow), sorrowful, cyst-lēas (cyst=worth), worthless, eorö-līc (eoröe = earth), earthly; blōd-ig (blōd = blood), bloody. The present and past participles, when inflected and not as weak adjectives, may be classed with the polysyllabic adjectives, their inflection being the same.

Syncopation occurs as in a-stems (§ 27, (4)). Thus halig, holy, blide, blithe, berende, bearing, geboren, born, are thus inflected:

	Masculine.	Feminine.	Neuter.
	(hālig	hālgu	hālig
C/2 3.T	blīชe	blīðu	blīðe
Sing. IV.	berende	berendu	berende
Sing. N.	geboren	geborenu	geboren
	hālge	hālga	hālgu
D1 37 4	blīðe	blīða	blīðu
Pur. N.A.	berende	berenda	$\mathbf{berendu}$
Plur. N.A.	geborene	geborena	geborenu

(2) Weak Declension of Adjectives.

83. The Weak Declension of adjectives, whether monosyllabic or polysyllabic, does not differ from the Weak Declension of nouns, except that -ena of the genitive plural is usually replaced by -ra of the strong adjectives.

	Masculine.		Feminine.	Neuter
84 .	Sing N.	${f gar o da}$	${f gar o de}$	$\mathbf{g}ar{\mathbf{o}}\mathbf{d}\mathbf{e}$
	G.	${f gar o}{f dan}$	${f gar o}{f dan}$	$g\bar{o}dan$
	D.I	${f gar o}{f dan}$	${f gar odan}$	$g\bar{o}dan$
	A.	${f gar o dan}$	${f gar o}{f dan}$	${f gar ode}$
			All Genders	
1	Plur. N.A		${f g}ar{{f o}}{f dan}$	
	G.		gōdra (gōder	na)
	D.I		${f gar o}{f d}{f u}{f m}$	

85. Rule of Syntax.

Adjectives agree with their nouns in gender, number, and case; but participles, when used predicatively, may remain uninflected (§ 138, § 140).

86. Vocabulary.

dēad, dead.
eall, all.
hāl,¹ whole, hale.
heard, hard.
öæt hors, horse.
lēof, dear [as lief].
lÿtel, little
micel, great, large.
monig, many
niman, to take [nimble, numb].
nīwe, new.
rīce, rich, powerful

sōö, true [sooth-sayer].
stælwierðe,² serviceable [stalwart]
swīðe, very
sē tūn, town, village.
sē ðegn, servant, thane, warrior.
ðæt ðing, thing
sē weg, way
wīs, wise
wið (with acc.), against, in a hostile sense [with-stand].
sē ilca, the same [of that ilk].

87. Exercises.

I. 1. Đās scipu ne sind swīðe swift, ac hīe sind swīðe stælwierðu. 2. Sēo gōde cwēn giefð ælcum ðegne mọniga giefa. 3. Đēs wīsa cyning hæfð mọnige micele tūnas on his rīce 4. Nænig mọn is wīs on eallum ðingum 5. Đỹ ilcan dæge (§ 98, (2)) mọn fọnd (found) ðone ðegn ðe mīnes wines bēc hæfde. 6. Ealle ðā secgas ðā ðe swift hors habbað rīdað wið ðone bọnan. 7. Đīne fīend sind mīne

¹ Hālig, holy, contains, of course, the same root. "I find," says Carlyle, "that you could not get any better definition of what 'holy' really is than 'healthy — completely healthy."

² This word has been much discussed The older etymologists explained it as meaning worth stealing. A more improbable conjecture is that it means worth a stall or place. It is used of ships in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle As applied to men, Skeat thinks it meant good or worthy at stealing; but the etymology is still unsettled.

- frīend. 8. Sē micela stān ŏone ŏe ic on mīnum hondum hæbbe is swīŏe heard. 9. Hīe sceŏŏaŏ ŏæm ealdum horsum. 10. Uton niman ŏās tilan giefa ond hīe beran tō ūrum lēofum bearnum.
- II. 1. These holy men are wise and good. 2. Are the little children very dear to the servants (dat. without \$\tau_0)?

 3. Gifts are not given (§ 70, Note 1) to rich men. 4. All the horses that are in the king's fields are swift 5. These stones are very large and hard. 6. He takes the dead man's spear and fights against the large army. 7. This new house has many doors. 8. My ways are not your ways. 9. Whosoever chooses me, him I also (\(\bar{e}ac\)) choose. 10. Every man has many friends that are not wise.

CHAPTER XV.

NUMERALS.

88. Numerals are either (a) Cardinal, expressing pure number, one, two, three; or (b) Ordinal, expressing rank or succession, first, second, third.

(a) Cardinals.

89. The Cardinals fall into the three following syntactic groups:

GROUP I.

- 1. āi
- 2 twēgen [twain]
- 3. ŏrie

These numerals are inflected adjectives. An, one, an, a, being a long stemmed monosyllable, is declined like god (§ 80). The weak form, ana, means alone.

Twegen and örie, which have no singular, are thus declined:

	Masc.	Fem	Neut.	Masc	Fem	Neut.
${\it Plur.\ N\ A}$	twēgen	twā	twā (tū)	ðrīe	ъ́ге́о	ఠrēо
G.	$tw\bar{e}gra$	twēgra	$tw\bar{e}gra$	ðrēora	ðrēora	ŏrēora
n	twæm	$\mathrm{tw}\bar{\mathrm{e}}\mathrm{m}$	twām (twām)	ðrīm	ðrīm	ðrīm
D	(twām)	(twām)	(twām)			

Charre II

90.		GROUP II.			
	4.	fēower	1	2.	twęlf
	5.	fīf	1	3.	&rēotiene
	6.	siex	1	4.	$f\bar{e}owert\bar{i}ene$
	7.	seofon	1	5.	fīftīene
	8.	eahta	1	6.	siextīene
	9.	nigon	1	7	seofontiene
	10.	tīen	1	8	eahtatīene
	11.	endlefan	1	9.	nigontīene

These words are used chiefly as uninflected adjectives: on gewitscipe örēora oppe fēower bisceopa, on testimony of three or four bishops; on siex dagum, in six days; ān nædre öe hæfde nigon hēafdu, a serpent which had nine heads; æðeling eahtatīene wintra, a prince of eighteen winters.

91 .		GROUP III			
	20	twēntig	80.	hundeahtatig	
	21.	ān ond twēntig	90	hundnigontig	
	30.	ðrītig	100	hund	
	40.	fēowertig	200.	twā hund	
	50	fīftig	1000.	düsend	
	60	siextig	2000.	twā ŏūsend	
	70.	hundseofontig			

All these numbers are employed as neuter singular nouns, and are followed by the genitive plural: Næfde hē þēah mā öonne twēntig hrýðera, and twēntig scēapa, and

twēntig swyna, He did not have, however, more than twenty (of) cattle, and twenty (of) sheep, and twenty (of) swine; Hie hæfdon hundeahtatig scipa, They had eighty ships; twā hund mīla brād, two hundred miles broad; öær wæron seofon hund gūðfanena genumen, there were seven hundred standards captured; ān öūsend monna, a thousand men; Hannibales folces wæs twā öūsend ofslagen, Of Hannibal's men there were two thousand slain; Hie ācuron endlefan öūsend monna, They chose eleven thousand men.

Note 1. — Group III is rarely inflected. Almost the only inflectional endings that are added are (1) -es, a genitive singular termination for the numerals in -tig, and (2) -e, a dative singular for hund (1) The first is confined to adjectives expressing extent of space or time, as, eald, old; brād, broad; hēah, high; and long, long: öæt is örītiges mīla long, that is thirty miles long; Hē wæs örītiges gēara eald, He was thirty years old (2) The second is employed after mid: mid twæm hunde scipa, with two hundred ships, mid örīm hunde monna, with three hundred men, Đær wearð... Regulus gefangen mid V hunde monna, There was Regulus captured with five hundred men.

The statement made in nearly all the grammars that **hunde** occurs as a nominative and accusative plural is without foundation.

Note 2 — Many numerals, otherwise indeclinable, are used in the genitive plural with the indefinite pronoun sum, which then means one of a certain number. In this peculiar construction, the numeral always precedes sum: fēowera sum, one of four (= with three others); Hē sæde þæt hē syxa sum ofslöge syxtig, He said that he, with five others, slew sixty (whales); Hē wæs fēowertigra sum, He was one of forty.

Note 3 — These are the most common constructions with the Cardinals. The forms in -tig have only recently been investigated. A study of Wülfing's citations shows that Alfred occasionally uses the forms in -tig (1) as adjectives with plural inflections: mid XXXgum cyningum, with thirty kings; and (2) as nouns with plural inflections: æfter siextigum daga, after sixty days. But both constructions are rare.

(b) Ordinals.

92. The Ordinals, except the first two, are formed from the Cardinals. They are:

1.	forma, æresta, fyrsta	11.	ęndlefta
2.	ōðer, æfterra	12.	twęlfta
3.	Tridda	13.	ðrēotēo ða
4.	fēorða	14.	fēowertēoða
5.	fīfta	15.	fīftēoða
6.	siexta		etc.
7.	seofoða	20.	twēntigo 8a
8.	eahtoða	21.	ān ond twēntigoða
9	nigoða	30	ðrītigoða
10.	tēoða		etc.

Note.—There are no Ordinals corresponding to hund and dusend.

With the exception of ōðer (§ 77), all the Ordinals are declined as Weak Adjectives; the article, however, as in Mn.E., is frequently omitted: Brūtus wæs sē forma consul, Brutus was the first consul; Hēr endað sēo æreste bōc, ond onginneð sēo ōðer, Here the first book ends, and the second begins; ðỹ fiftan dæge, on the fifth day; on ðæm tēoðan gēare hiera gewinnes, on the tenth year of their strife; Hēo wæs twelfte, She was twelfth; Sē wæs fēorða from Agusto, He was fourth from Augustus.

CHAPTER XVI.

Adverbs, Prepositions, and Conjunctions.

Adverbs.

93. (1) Adverbs are formed by adding -e or -lice to the corresponding adjectives: soö, true; soöe or soölice, truly; earmlic, wretched; earmlice, wretchedly; wid,

wide; wide, widely; micel, great; micle (micele), greatly, much.

- (2) The terminations -e and -līce are replaced in some adverbs by -unga or -inga: eallunga, entirely; færinga, suddenly; grundlunga, from the ground, completely.
- Note 1.—The 1 is intrusive in the last adverb. In Mn.E. headlong, originally an adverb, we have not only a similar intrusive l, but the only survival of O E. -unga.
- (3) The genitive case is frequently used adverbially: sūðeweardes, southwards; ealles, altogether, entirely; dæges, by day; nihtes, by night; ðæs, from that time, afterwards. Cf. hys (= his) weges in Donne rīdeð ælc hys weges, Then rides each his way.
- Note 2.—The adverbial genitive is abundantly preserved in Mn E. Always, crossways, sideways, needs (= necessarily), sometimes, etc, are not plurals, but old genitive singulars The same construction is seen in of course, of a truth, of an evening, of old, of late, and similar phrases.
- (4) Dative and instrumental plurals may be used as adverbs: hwilum, at times, sometimes [whilom]; stundum (stund = period), from time to time; miclum, greatly. Especially common is the suffix -mælum (mæl = time [meal]), preserved adverbially in Mn.E. piecemeal: dropmælum, drop by drop; styccemælum (stycce=piece), piecemeal, here and there.
 - (5) The suffix -an usually denotes motion from:

hēr, here ðær, there. hwær, where? hider, hither. öider, thither. hwider, whither?

heonan, hence.

öqnan, thence.
hwqnan, whence?
noröan, from the north.
ēastan, from the east.
hindan, from behind.
feorran, from far.
ütan, from without.

(6) The adverb rihte (riht=right, straight) denotes motion toward in nordrihte, northward, due north; east-rihte, due east; südrihte, due south; westrihte, due west.

Prepositions.

- **94.** The nominative is the only case in O.E. that is never governed by a preposition. Of the other cases, the dative and accusative occur most frequently with prepositions.
- (1) The prepositions that are most frequently found with the dative are:

æfter, after.

æt, at

be (bī), by, near, about

betwēonan (betuh), between

būtan (būton), except.

for, for.

from (fram), from, by.

mid, with

of, of, from

tō, to.

būtan (būton), except.

tōforan, before.

tōweard, toward.

(2) The following prepositions require the accusative:

geond, throughout.

ofer, over, upon.

of, until, up to.

ofurh, through.

ymbe, about, around

- (3) The preposition on (rarely in), meaning into, is usually followed by the accusative; but meaning in, on, or during, it takes the dative or instrumental. The preposition wib, meaning toward, may be followed by the genitive, dative, or accusative; but meaning against, and implying motion or hostility, the accusative is more common.
- (4) The following phrases are used prepositionally with the dative:

be norðan, north of be ēastan, east of be sūðan, south of. be westan, west of. tō ēacan, in addition to
on emnlange (efn-lang = evenly
long), along
tō emnes, along

(5) Prepositions regularly precede the noun or pronoun that they introduce; but by their adverbial nature they are sometimes drawn in front of the verb: And him wæs mycel menegu to gegaderod, And there was gathered unto him a great multitude. In relative clauses introduced by öe, the preceding position is very common: sēo scīr . . . öe hē on būde, the district, . . . which he dwelt in (= which he in-habited); Hē wæs swyöe spēdig man on öæm æhtum öe hiera spēda on bēoö, He was a very rich man in those possessions which their riches consist in; nyhst öæm tūne öe sē dēada man on līö, nearest the town that the dead man lies in.

Conjunctions.

95. (1) The most frequently occurring conjunctions are:

for $\eth \bar{y}$, therefore. ac, but. ær, before, ere. gif, if būtan (būton), except that, unless. hwæder, whether ēac, also [eke] ond (and), and for ðæm oððe, orfor ðæm ðe, ðæt, that, so that because. for don, deah, though, however. for don de.

(2) The correlative conjunctions are:

```
      ægöer ge .
      . ge, both .
      . . . . and.

      ægöer .
      . ööer either .
      . . . . . . or.
```

nē nē,	$neither \dots nor.$
sam sam,	$whether \dots or.$
swā swā	the the.
ðā	when then

CHAPTER XVII.

Comparison of Adjectives and Adverbs.

Adjectives.

96. (1) Adjectives are regularly compared by adding -ra for the comparative, and -ost (rarely -est) for the superlative:

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
earm, poor	earmra	earmost
rīce, rich	rīcra	rīcost
smæl, narrow	smælra	smalost
brād, broad	brādra (brædra)	brādost
swift, swift	swiftra	swiftost

(2) Forms with i-umlaut usually have superlative in -est:

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
eald, old	ieldra	ieldest
long, long	lęngra	lęngest
strong, strong	stręngra	stręngest
geong, young	giengra	giengest
hēah, $high$	hīerra	hīehst

(3) The following adjectives are compared irregularly:

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
gōd, good	bętra	bętst
lÿtel, little, small	læssa	læst
micel, great, much	māra	mæst
yfel, bad	wiersa	wierst

(4) The positive is sometimes supplied by an adverb:

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
feor, far	fierra	fierrest
nēah, $near$	nēarra	nīehst
ær, before	$ar{f z}$ rra, $former$	$\mathbf{ar{ ext{ iny{e}rest}}}, extit{ iny{first}}$

- (5) The comparatives all follow the Weak Declension. The superlatives, when preceded by the definite article, are weak; but when used predicatively they are frequently strong: sē læsta dæl, the least part; Donne cymeð sē man sē ðæt swiftoste hors hafað tō ðæm ærestan dæle and tō ðæm mæstan, Then comes the man that has the swiftest horse to the first part and to the largest. But, ðæt byne land is ēasteweard brādost (not brādoste), the cultivated land is broadest eastward; and (hit) bið ealra wyrta mæst, and it is largest of all herbs; Ac hyra (= hiera) ār is mæst on ðæm gafole ðe ðā Finnas him gyldað, But their income is greatest in the tribute that the Fins pay them.
- (6) The comparative is usually followed by sonne and the nominative case: Sē hwæl bis micle læssa sonne osre hwalas, That whale is much smaller than other whales; Dā wunda sæs modes beos dīgelran sonne sā wunda sæs līchaman, The wounds of the mind are more secret than the wounds of the body.

But when **conne** is omitted, the comparative is followed by the dative: **Ure Aliesend**, **cond** mara is **ond**

mærra eallum gesceaftum, Our Redeemer, who is greater and more glorious than all created things; në ongeat hë nö hiene selfne betran öörum gödum monnum, nor did he consider himself better than other good men.

Adverbs.

97. (1) Adverbs are regularly compared by adding -or for the comparative and -ost (rarely -est) for the superlative:

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
georne, willingly	geornor	geornost
swīðe, very, severely	swīðor, $more$	swīðost, most, chiefly
ær, before	$\mathbf{\tilde{z}}$ ror, $formerly$	$m{ar{lpha}}{ m rest},{\it first}$
norð, northwards	norðor	${f norf ar mest}^1$

(2) The comparatives of a few adverbs may be found by dropping -ra of the corresponding adjective form:

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
longe, $long$	lęng	lęngest
micle, much	mã	mæst
wel, well	bęt	bętst

Expressions of Time.

98. (1) Duration of time and extent of space are usually expressed by the accusative case: Ealle öā hwīle öe öæt līc biổ inne, All the time that the body is within; twēgen dagas, for two days; ealne weg, all the way, always.

¹ This is really a double superlative, \mathbf{m} being itself an old superlative suffix Cf. Latin opti-m-us In Mn.E. northmost and hindmost, -m-est has been confused with -most, with which etymologically it has nothing to do.

- (2) Time when is more often expressed by the instrumental case when no preposition is used: ỡy ilcan dæge, the same day; 毫loe gēare, each year; ỡy gēare, that year; 毫loe dæge, each day.
- (3) Time or space within which is expressed by on and the dative: on sumera, in summer; on wintra, in winter; on fif dagum, in five days; on fif mīlum, in five miles; on dissum geare, in this year; on dem tīman, in those times. Sometimes by the genitive without a preceding preposition: des geares, in that year.

99. Vocabulary.

Öæt gefylce [folc], troop, division.se sige, victory.Öæt lǫnd (land), landsige labban, to win (the) victorysēo mīl, mile.toryÖöer . . . Ööer, the one other, the former . . . the latter.the latter.Öæt swīn (swÿn), swine, hog.wēste, waste.

100. Exercises.

I. 1. Hē hæfð ðrēo swīðe swift hors. 2. Ic hæbbe nigontīene scēap ond mā ðonne twēntig swīna. 3. Sēo gōde cwēn cīest twā hund monna 4. Uton feohtan wið ðā Dene mid ðrīm hunde scipa 5 Ond hīe wæron on twæm gefylcum: on ōðrum wæs² Bāchsecg ond Halfdene ðā hæðnan cyningas, ond on ōðrum wæron ðā eorlas. 6. Đū spricst sōðlīce. 7. Đonne rīt æle mon his weges. 8. Æfter monigum dagum, hæfde Ælfred cyning³ sige. 9. Đis lond is wēste styccemælum. 10 Đēs feld is fīftiges mīla brād. 11. Æl-

¹ Sige usually, but not invariably, precedes habban

² See p 100, note on gefeaht.

³ The proper noun comes first in appositive expressions: Ælfred cyning, Sidroc eorl, Hēahmund bisceop.

fred cyning hæfde mọnige friend, for væm ve hẽ wæs ægver ge wīs ge gōd. 12. Đã hwalas, ve vũ ymbe spricst, sind micle læssan ōvrum hwalum. 13. Hẽo is ieldre vonne hiere swuster, ac mīn brōvor is ieldra vonne hēo. 14. Wē cumav tō væm tūne ælce gēare. 15. Đã mẹn ve vã swiftostan hors hæfdon wæron mid væm Dęnum fēower dagas.

II. 1 Our army (werod) was in two divisions: one was large, the other was small. 2. The richest men in the kingdom have more (mā) than thirty ships. 3. He was much wiser than his brother. 4. He fights against the Northumbrians with two ships. 5. After three years King Alfred gained the victory. 6. Whosoever chooses these gifts, chooses well. 7. This man's son is both wiser and better than his father. 8. When the king rides, then ride his thanes also. 9. The richest men are not always (ā) the wisest men.

CHAPTER XVIII.

STRONG VERBS: CLASS I. (See § 17.)

Syntax of Moods.

101. Of the three hundred simple verbs belonging to the O.E. Strong Conjugation, it is estimated ¹ that seventy-eight have preserved their strong inflections in Mn.E., that eighty-eight have become weak, and that the remaining one hundred and thirty-four have entirely disappeared, their places being taken in most cases by verbs of Latin origin introduced through the Norman-French.

¹ Lounsbury, English Language, Part II, § 241.

Note.—Only the simple or primitive verbs, not the compound forms, are here taken into consideration. The proportionate loss, therefore, is really much greater. O E abounded in formative prefixes. "Thus from the Anglo-Saxon flowan, to flow, ten new compounds were formed by the addition of various prefixes, of which ten, only one, oferflowan, to overflow, survives with us. In a similar manner, from the verb sittan, to sit, thirteen new verbs were formed, of which not a single one is to be found to-day." Lounsbury, ib. Part I, p. 107.

102. Class I: The "Drive" Conjugation.

Vowel Succession: ī, ā, i, i.

Infinitive. Preterit Sing. Preterit Plur. Past Part.

Drīf-an drāf drif-on gedrif-en, to drive.

Ir	idicative.	Subj	ınctive.
	Present	PR	ESENT.
Sing. 1.	Ic drīf-e	Sing 1.	Ic)
2.	ðū drīf-st (drīf-est)	2.	უნ ∤ drīf-e
3.	hē drīf-ð (drīf-eð)	3	$\left\{ egin{array}{l} { m C} \\ { m N} { m ar u} \\ { m h} { m ar e} \end{array} \right\} { m d} { m r} { m i} { m f} { m -e}$
Plur. 1.	wē)	Plur. 1.	$\left. egin{array}{c} war{e} \ gar{e} \ har{i}e \end{array} ight\} drar{i}f en$
2.	gē drīf-að	2.	$gar{e}$ drīf-en
3.	$\left. egin{array}{l} \mathbf{w} ar{\mathbf{e}} \\ \mathbf{g} ar{\mathbf{e}} \\ \mathbf{h} ar{\mathbf{e}} \end{array} \right\} \mathbf{d} \mathbf{r} ar{\mathbf{i}} \mathbf{f} extbf{-a} oldsymbol{orange} $	3.	hīe
Pri	ETERIT	Pre	TERIT.
Sing. 1.	Ic drāf	Sing. 1	Ic)
2.	ซีนิ drif-e	2.	$\left\{ egin{array}{l} \operatorname{Ic} \\ \operatorname{orange} \\ \operatorname{har{e}} \end{array} \right\} \mathrm{drif}\text{-}\mathrm{e}$
3.	hē drāf	3.	hē
Plur. 1.	wē]	Plur.~1.	wē]
2.	gē drif-on	2.	$gar{e}$ drif-en
3.	gē drif-on hīe	3.	$\left. egin{array}{c} war{e} \\ gar{e} \\ har{i}e \end{array} ight\} drif-en$

Imp	erative.	Infinitive.	Present Participle.
Sing.~2.	drif	${f dr}$ if- ${f an}$	drīf-ende
Plur. 1.	drīf-an		
2.	drīf-að	Gerund.	Past Participle.
		tō drīf-anne (-enne)	$\operatorname{\mathbf{gedrif-en}}$

Tense Formation of Strong Verbs.

- 103. (1) It will be seen from the conjugation of drīfan that the present stem in all strong verbs is used throughout the present indicative, the present subjunctive, the imperative, the infinitive, the gerund, and the present participle. More than half of the endings, therefore, of the Strong Conjugation are added directly to the present stem.
- (2) That the preterit singular stem is used in only two forms of the verb, the 1st and 3d persons singular of the preterit indicative: Ic drāf, hē drāf.
- (3) That the preterit plural stem is used in the preterit plural indicative, in the 2d person of the preterit singular indicative, and in the singular and plural of the preterit subjunctive.
- (4) That the stem of the past participle (gedrif-) is used for no other form.

Syntax of the Verb.

- 104. The Indicative Mood 1 represents the predicate as a reality. It is used both in independent and in dependent clauses, its function in O.E. corresponding with its function in Mn.E.
- 105. The Subjunctive Mood represents the predicate as an idea.² It is of far more frequent occurrence in O.E. than in Mn.E.

¹ Usage sanctions mood, but the better spelling would be mode. It is from the Lat modus, whereas mood (= temper) is O.E. $m\bar{o}d$.

² Gildersleeve's Latin Grammar, § 255.

- 1. When used in independent clauses it denotes desire, command, or entreaty, and usually precedes its subject: Sie ŏin nama gehālgod, Hallowed be Thy name; Ne swerigen gē, Do not swear.
- 2. In dependent clauses it denotes uncertainty, possibility, or mere futurity. Concessive clauses (introduced by Jeah, though) and temporal clauses (introduced by ær, ær öæm öe, before) are rarely found with any other mood than the subjunctive. The subjunctive is also regularly used in Alfredian prose after verbs of saving, even when no suggestion of doubt or discredit attaches to the narration.² "Whether the statement refer to a fact or not, whether the subject-matter be vouched for by the reporter, as regards its objective reality and truth, the subjunctive does not tell. It simply represents a statement as reported "3: beah man äsette twegen fætels full ealað oð de wæteres, thoughone set two vessels full of ale or water; ær öæm öe hit eall forhergod wære, before it was all ravaged; Hē sæde ðæt Norðmanna land wære swyðe lang and swyðe smæl, He said that the Norwegians' land was very long and very narrow.

¹ Thus when Alfred writes that an event took place before the founding of Rome, he uses the subjunctive: ær öæm öe Rōmeburh getimbrod wære = before Rome were founded, but, æfter öæm öe Rōmeburh getimbrod wæs = after Rome was founded.

² "By the time of Ælfric, however, the levelling influence of the indicative [after verbs of saying] has made considerable progress."—Gorrell, *Indirect Discourse in Anglo-Saxon* (Dissertation, 1895), p 101

³ Hotz, On the Use of the Subjunctive Mood in Anglo-Saxon (Zürich, 1882).

- 106. The Imperative is the mood of command or intercession: Iōhannes, cum tō mē, John, come to me; And forgyf ūs ūre gyltas, And forgive us our trespasses; Ne drīf ūs fram ðē, Do not drive us from thee.
- 107. (1) The Infinitive and Participles are used chiefly in verb-phrases (§§ 138-141); but apart from this function, the Infinitive, being a neuter noun, may serve as the subject or direct object of a verb. Hātan (to command, bid), lætan (to let, permit), and onginnan (to begin) are regularly followed by the Infinitive: Hine rīdan lyste, To ride pleased him; Hēt öā bære settan, He bade set down the bier; Lætað öā lytlingas tō mē cuman, Let the little ones come to me; öā ongann hē sprecan, then began he to speak.
- (2) The Participles may be used independently in the dative absolute construction (an imitation of the Latin ablative absolute), usually for the expression of time: Him öā gyt sprecendum, While he was yet speaking; gefylledum dagum, the days having been fulfilled.

108. The Gerund, or Gerundial Infinitive, is used:

- (1) To express purpose: Ut eode se sawere his sæd to sawenne, Out went the sower his seed to sow.
- (2) To expand or determine the meaning of a noun or adjective: Symon, ic habbe of to secgenne sum oing, Simon, I have something to say to thee; Hit is scondlic ymb swelc to sprecanne, It is shameful to speak about such things.

¹ Not, *He commanded the bier to be set down*. The Mn.E passive in such sentences is a loss both in force and directness.

² Callaway, *The Absolute Participle in Anglo-Saxon* (Dissertation, 1889), p 19

(3) After beon (wesan) to denote duty or necessity: Hwæt is nū mā ymbe dis to sprecanne, What more is there now to say about this? donne is to gedencenne hwæt Crīst self cwæd, then it behooves to bethink what Christ himself said.

Note. —The Gerund is simply the dative case of the Infinitive after tō. It began very early to supplant the simple Infinitive; hence the use of to with the Infinitive in Mn.E. As late as the Elizabethan age the Gerund sometimes replaced the Infinitive even after the auxiliary verbs:

"Some pagan shore,

Where these two Christian armies might combine The blood of malice in a vein of league, And not to spend it so unneighbourly."

- King John, V, 2, 39.

When to lost the meaning of purpose and came to be considered as a merely formal prefix, for was used to supplement the purpose element: What went ye out for to see \mathcal{I}^1

¹ This is not the place to discuss the Gerund in Mn.E, the so-called "infinitive in -ing." The whole subject has been befogged for the lack of an accepted nomenclature, one that shall do violence neither to grammar nor to history.

CHAPTER XIX.

STRONG VERBS: CLASSES II AND III.

109. Class II: The "Choose" Conjugation.

Vowel Succession: ēo, ēa, u, o

Infinitive. 1 cēos-an,	_	PRET. PLUR ² cur-on,		en, to choose,
	Indicative.		Sub	unctive.
	PRESENT.		$\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{F}}$	ESENT.
Sing. 1.	Ic cēos-e	Sing	1 Ic)
2.	ซัน ciest (cēos-	est)	2 $\delta \bar{u}$	cēos-e
3.	hē ciest (cēos-	eg)	3. hē	J
Plur. 1.	wē)	Plur.	1. wē)
2.	gē cēos-að		2 gē	cēos-en
3.			3 hie	J
	Preterit.		Pr	ETERIT.
Sing. 1.	Ic cēas	Sing.	1. Ic)
•	ซีนี cur-e	v		cur-e
3	hē cēas		3 hē	J
Plur. 1.	wē)	Plur.	1 wē)
2.	gē cur-on		2. gē	cur-en
	hīe		3. hīe	!
_				
	nperative.			: Participle.
Sing. 2.	cēos	cēos-an	cē	os-ende
P lur. 1.	cēos-an	a	T. 4.3	D. 44.4.1.
2.	cēos-að	Gerund.		Participle.
	tō c	ēos-anne (-enne)	ge	cor-en

¹ A few verbs of Class II have $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$ instead of $\bar{\mathbf{eo}}$ in the infinitive: brūcan, brēac, brucon, gebrocen, to enjoy [brook]. būgan, bēag, bugon, gebogen, to bend, bow.

² By a law known as Grammatical Change, final \eth , \mathbf{s} , and \mathbf{h} of strong verbs generally become \mathbf{d} , \mathbf{r} , and \mathbf{g} , respectively, in the preterit plural and past participle.

110. Class III: The "Bind" Conjugation.

Vowel Succession:
$$\begin{bmatrix} i \\ e \end{bmatrix}$$
, a, u, $\begin{bmatrix} u \\ o \end{bmatrix}$.

The present stem ends in m, n, 1, r, or h, + one or more consonants:

 $\textbf{belimp-an, } \left\{ \begin{matrix} \textbf{belqmp} \\ \textbf{belamp} \end{matrix} \right\}, \ \textbf{belump-on, } \ \ \textbf{belump-en, } \ \ \textit{to belong}$ bond band band, bund-on, gebund-en, to bind. bind-an, n: hulp-on, geholp-en, to help. 1: help-an, healp, weorð-an, wearð, wurd-on, geword-en, to become. r: gefeoht-an, gefeaht, gefuht-on, gefoht-en. to fight h:

Note 1.—If the present stem ends in a nasal (m, n) + a consonant, the past participle retains the u of the pret plur; but if the present stem ends in a liquid (1, r) or h, + a consonant, the past participle has o instead of u.

Note 2.— Why do we not find *halp, *warö, and *faht in the pretsing? Because a before 1, r, or h, + a consonant, underwent "breaking" to ea. Breaking also changes every e followed by r or h, + a consonant, to eo: weoröan (<*weröan), feohtan (<*fehtan).

111.	Indicative.	Sub	junctive
	PRESENT.	P	RESENT.
Sing. 1	. Ic bind-e	Sing 1.	Ic)
2	ซีนิ bintst (bind-est)	2.	$\left. egin{array}{l} \operatorname{Ic} \\ \operatorname{\eth} ar{\mathbf{u}} \\ \operatorname{h} ar{\mathbf{e}} \end{array} \right\} \operatorname{bind-e}$
8	. hē bint (bind-eδ)	3.	hē J
Plur. 1	$ \left. \begin{array}{c} . & \text{w$\bar{\textbf{e}}$} \\ \text{g$\bar{\textbf{e}}$} \\ . & \text{h$\bar{\textbf{i}}$e} \end{array} \right\} \text{bind-a} \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \$	Plur. 1.	$\left. egin{array}{c} war{e} \\ gar{e} \\ har{1}e \end{array} \right\} bind-en$
2	gē bind-að	2.	gē bind-en
3	. hīe)	3	hīe J
	Preterit	PR	ETERIT.
Sing. 1	. Ic bond	Sing. 1.	Ic)
2	. ਰੱਧ bund-e	2.	$\left. egin{array}{l} \operatorname{Ic} \\ \operatorname{\Im} \bar{\mathbf{u}} \\ \operatorname{h} \bar{\mathbf{e}} \end{array} \right\} \operatorname{bund-} \mathbf{e}$
3	. hē bǫnd	3.	hē

	Pr	ETEI	RIT.			Pret	ERIT
Plur. 1	L	$\mathbf{w}\mathbf{\bar{e}}$)	Plur.			
2	2.	${ m g}ar{ m e}$	bund-on		2.	gē	bund-en
		${f hie}$			3.	hīe	

Imperative.	Infinitive	Present Participle
Sing. 2 bind	$\operatorname{bind-an}$	bind-ende
Plur. 1. bind-an 2. bind-að	Gerund. to bind-anne (-enne)	Past Participle.

112. Vocabulary.

sē munuc, monk [monachus]. öæt gefeoht, fight, battle. sēo gerecednes, narration [recsēo mỹre, mare [mearh] can]. hē sæde, he said. det gesceap, creation [sciephīe sædon, they said sēo spēd, riches [speed]. pan]. sēo hergung (\S 39, (3)), harrying, spēdig, rich, prosperous [speedy]. plundering [hergian]. sēo tīd, time [tide]. sē medu (medo) (§ 51), mead unspēdig, poor. sēo meolc, milk sē westanwind, west-wind. sē middangeard, world [middleðæt wīn, wine. yard].

ārīsan,	ārās,	ārison,	ārisen,	to	arise.
bīdan,	bād,	bidon,	gebiden,	to	remain, expect (with gen)
${f dr\bar{e}ogan},^1$	drēag,	drugon,	gedrogen,	to	endure, suffer.
drincan,	dronc,	druncon,	gedruncen,	to	drink.
findan,	fqnd,	fundon,	gefunden,	to.	find
geswīcan	geswāc,	geswicon,	geswicen,	to	cease, cease from (with gen.)
iernan (yrnan),	$\mathbf{qrn},$	urnon,	geurnen,	to	run.
onginnan,	ongǫnn,	ongunnon,	ongunnen,	to	begin.
rīđan,	rāđ,	ridon,	geriden,	to	ride.
singan,	song,	sungon,	gesungen,	to i	sing
wrītan,	\mathbf{w} rāt,	writon,	gewriten,	to t	write

¹ Cf. the Scotch "to dree one's weird" = to endure one's fate.

113. Exercises.

- I. 1. Æfter dissum wordum, sē munuc wrāt ealle da gere-2. Đā eorlas ridon ūp ær ðæm ðe ðā cednesse on anre bec. Dene væs gefeohtes geswicen. 3. Cædmon song ærest be middangeardes gesceape. 4. Sē cyning ond ðā rīcostan men drincað myran meolc, ond ða unspēdigan drincað medu. 5. Ond he ārās ond se wind geswāc. 6. Hie sædon væt hie ðær westwindes biden. 7. Hwæt is nu ma ymbe ðas ðing tō sprecanne? 8. Đā secgas ongunnon geswican ðære her-9. Đā bēag ðæt lond ðær ēastryhte, oððe sēo sæ gunga. 10. Đās lond belimpað tō ðām Englum. in on væt lond. 11. Đēah ởā Dene ealne dæg gefuhten, giet hæfde Ælfred 12. Ond væs (afterwards) ymbe ānne monav cyning sige. gefeaht Ælfred cyning wið ealne ðone here æt Wiltūne.
- II. 1. The most prosperous men drank mare's milk and wine, but the poor men drank mead. 2. I suffered many things before you began to help me (dat). 3. About two days afterwards (Des ymbe twegen dagas), the plundering ceased. 4. The king said that he fought against all the army (here). 5. Although the Danes remained one month (§ 98, (1)), they did not begin to fight. 6. These gifts belonged to my brother. 7. The earls were glad because their lord was (indicative) with them. 8. What did you find? 9. Then wrote he about (be) the wise man's deeds. 10. What more is there to endure?

CHAPTER XX.

STRONG VERBS: CLASSES IV, V, VI, AND VII. CONTRACT VERBS.

[The student can now complete the conjugation for himself (§ 103). Only the principal parts will be given]

114. Class IV: The "Bear" Conjugation.

Vowel Succession: e, æ, æ, o.

The present stem ends in 1, r, or m, no consonant following:

1: hel-an, hæl, hæl-on, gehol-en, to conceal.

r: ber-an, bær, bær-on, gebor-en, to bear.

The two following verbs are slightly irregular:

 $\mathbf{m}: \begin{cases} \mathbf{nim}\text{-an, } \mathbf{n\bar{o}m} \ (\mathbf{nam}), \ \mathbf{n\bar{o}m}\text{-on} \ (\mathbf{n\bar{a}m}\text{-on}), \ \mathbf{genum}\text{-en, } \mathit{to} \ \mathit{take} \\ \mathbf{cum}\text{-an, } \mathbf{c(w)\bar{o}m}, \quad \mathbf{c(w)\bar{o}m}\text{-on,} \quad \mathbf{gecum}\text{-en, } \mathit{to} \ \mathit{come}. \end{cases}$

115. Class V: The "Give" Conjugation.

Succession of Vowels: e (ie), æ, æ, e.

The present stem ends in a single consonant, never a liquid or nasal:

met-an, mæt, mæton, gemet-en, to measure, mete gief-an, geaf, gēaf-on, gegief-en, to give

Note 1.—The palatal consonants, g, c, and sc, convert a following e into ie, æ into ea, and æ into ēa Hence giefan (<*gefan), geaf (<*gæf), gēafon (<*gæfon), gegiefen (<*gegefen) This change is known as Palatalization See § 8.

Note 2.—The infinitives of the following important verbs are only apparently exceptional:

biddan, bæd, bæd-on, gebed-en, to ask for [bid] liogan, læg, læg-on, geleg en, to lie, extend. sittan. sæt. sæt-on, geset-en, to sit.

The original \mathbf{e} reappears in the participial stems. It was changed to \mathbf{i} in the present stems on account of a former -jan in the infinitive (bid-jan, etc.) See § 61. To the same cause is due the doubling of consonants in the infinitive. All simple consonants in O.E., with the exception of \mathbf{r} , were doubled after a short vowel, when an original \mathbf{j} followed.

116. Class VI: The "Shake" Conjugation.

Succession of Vowels: a, ō, ō, a.

scac-an, scōc; scōc-on, gescac-en, to shake far-an, fōr, fōr-on, gefar-en, to go [fare].

117. Class VII: The "Fall" Conjugation.

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{Vowel Succession: } \frac{\bar{\mathbf{a}}}{\bar{\mathbf{\varpi}}} \, \Big\}, \; \bar{\mathbf{e}}, \; \bar{\mathbf{e}}, \; \frac{\bar{\mathbf{a}}}{\bar{\mathbf{\varpi}}} \, \Big\}; \; \text{ or } \begin{array}{c} ea \\ \bar{\mathbf{e}}a \\ \bar{\mathbf{o}} \end{array} \Big\}, \; \bar{\mathbf{e}}o, \; \bar{\mathbf{e}}o, \; \frac{\bar{\mathbf{e}}a}{\bar{\mathbf{e}}a} \, \Big\}. \end{array}$$

- (1) hāt-an, hēt, hēt-on, gehāt-en, $\begin{cases} to \ call, \ name, \\ command. \end{cases}$ 1 $\overline{\epsilon}$ t-an, lēt, lēt-on, gel $\overline{\epsilon}$ t-en, $to \ let$.
- (2) feall-an, fēoll, fēoll-on, gefeall-en, to fall. heald-an, hēold, hēold-on, geheald-en, to hold. to hew. hēaw-an. hēow, hēow-on. gehēaw-en, grēow, grēow-on, gegrōw-en, to grow. grōw-an,

Note 1.—This class consists of the Reduplicating Verbs; that is, those verbs that originally formed their preterits not by internal vowel change (ablaut), but by prefixing to the present stem the initial consonant $+ \mathbf{e}$ (cf. Gk $\lambda \epsilon \cdot \lambda oin \pi a$ and Lat. $d\check{e} \cdot di$). Contraction then took place between the syllabic prefix and the root, the fusion resulting in $\bar{\mathbf{e}}$ or $\bar{\mathbf{e}}$ o: *he-hat > heht > hēt

Note 2.—A peculiar interest attaches to hātan: the forms hātte and hātton are the sole remains in O.E. of the original Germanic passive. They are used both as presents and as preterits: hātte = I am or was called, he is or was called No other verb in O E. could have a passive sense without calling in the aid of the verb to be (§ 141).

Contract Verbs.

118. The few Contract Verbs found in O.E. do not constitute a new class; they fall under Classes I, II, V, VI, and VII, already treated. The present stem ended originally in h. This was lost before -an of the infinitive, contraction and compensatory lengthening being the result. The following are the most important of these verbs:

Classes

$$egin{align*} ext{A. \"{d}{\bar{e}on}} & (< ext{"}{ar{d}{\bar{e}on}}), & {ar{d}{\bar{e}on}}, & {ar{d}{\bar{e}oon}}, & \{ ext{ge}{ar{d}{ge}{\bar{d}ung-en}} \}, \ to \ thrive. \ \end{aligned}$$

II. tēon (
$$<$$
*tēohan), tēah, tug-on, getog-en, to $draw$, go [tug].

$$\label{eq:V.seen} \mbox{V. seon } (< \mbox{*sehwan}), \mbox{ seah, saw-on, gesew-en,} \quad \mbox{\it to see.}$$

VI.
$$sl\bar{e}an$$
 ($<*slahan$), $sl\bar{o}h$, $sl\bar{o}g$ -on, $geslæg$ -en, to $slay$.

119. The Present Indicative of these verbs runs as follows (see rules of i-umlaut, § 58):

The other tenses and moods are regularly formed from the given stems.

120. Vocabulary.

sēo æht, property, possession on gehwæðre hond, on both [āgan]. sides. aweg, away [on weg]. sige niman (= sige habban), to sēo fierd, English army [faran]. win (the) victory sē here, Danish army [hergian]. sēo spræc, speech, language.

tō rīce fōn, to come to the throne.¹ | sē weall, wall, rampart.

ðæt wæl [Val-halla] | slaughter, | ðæt wildor, wild beast, reindeer.
sē wælsliht, | carnage | sē wīngeard, vineyard.

ābrecan, 2 ābræc, ābræcon, ābrocen, to break down. cwedan, cwæd, cwædon, gecweden, to say [quoth]. gesēon. geseah, gesāwon, gesewen, to see. grōwan, grēow, grēowon, gegrōwen, to grow. ofslēan. ofslöh, ofslögon, ofslægen, to slay sprecan, spræc, spræcon, gesprecen, to speak. stelan. stæl, stælon, gestolen. to steal. stōdon, gestonden, to stand. stondan, stōd. weaxan, weox, weoxon, geweaxen, to grow, increase [wax].

121. Exercises.

- I. 1. Æfter ðæm söðlīce (indeed) ealle men spræcon ane 2. Ond hē cwæð: "Dis is ān folc, ond ealle (one) spræce. hīe sprecað āne spræce." 3. On sumum stöwum wingeardas 4. Hē hēt ðā nædran ofslēan. 5. Đā Engle ābrægrōwað. con vone longan weall, ond sige nomon. 6. Ond væt sæd grēow ond wēox. 7. Ic ne geseah vone mon sē ve væs cnapan adesan stæl. 8. Hē wæs swyðe spēdig man on ðæm æhtum ðe hiera spēda on³ bēoð, ðæt is, on wildrum. 9. Ond ðær wearð (was) micel wælsliht on gehwæðre hond. 10. Ond æfter dissum gefechte, com Ælfred cyning mid his fierde, ond gefeaht wið ealne done here, ond sige nom. 11. Đēos burg hätte Æscesdun (Ashdown). 12. Đære cwēne līc læg on ðæm hūse. 13. Ond sē dæl ðe ðær aweg cōm wæs swyðe 14. Ond væs vrēotiene dagas Ævered to rice feng.
- II. 1. The men stood in the ships and fought against the Danes.2. Before the thanes came, the king rode away.

¹ Literally, to take to (the) kingdom Cf. "Have you anything to take to?" (Two Gentlemen of Verona, IV, 1, 42)

 $^{^2}$ Brecan belongs properly in Class V, but it has been drawn into Class IV possibly through the influence of the ${\bf r}$ in the root.

⁸ See § **94**, (5).

3 They said (sædon) that all the men spoke one language.
4. They bore the queen's body to Wilton. 5. Alfred gave many gifts to his army (dat. without tō) before he went away. 6. These men are called earls. 7. God sees all things. 8. The boy held the reindeer with (mid) his hands.
9. About six months afterwards, Alfred gained the victory, and came to the throne. 10. He said that there was very great slaughter on both sides.

CHAPTER XXI.

WEAK VERBS (§ 18).

122. The verbs belonging to the Weak Conjugation are generally of more recent origin than the strong verbs, being frequently formed from the roots of strong verbs. The Weak Conjugation was the growing conjugation in O.E. as it is in Mn.E. We instinctively put our newly coined or borrowed words into this conjugation (telegraphed, boycotted); and children, by the analogy of weak verbs, say runned for ran, seed for saw, teared for tore, drawed for drew, and growed for grew. So, for example, when Latin dictare and breviare came into O.E., they came as weak verbs, dihtian and brefian.

The Three Classes of Weak Verbs.

123. There is no difficulty in telling, from the infinitive alone, to which of the three classes a weak verb belongs. Class III has been so invaded by Class II

that but three important verbs remain to it: habban, to have; libban, to live; and secgan, to say. Distinction is to be made, therefore, only between Classes II and I. Class II contains the verbs with infinitive in -ian not preceded by r. Class I contains the remaining weak verbs; that is, those with infinitive in -r-ian and those with infinitive in -an (not -ian).

Class I

124. The preterit singular and past participle of Class I end in -ede and -ed, or -de and -ed respectively.

Note. — The infinitives of this class ended originally in -jan (=-ian). This accounts for the prevalence of i-umlaut in these verbs, and also for the large number of short-voweled stems ending in a double consonant (§ 115, Note 2). The weak verb is frequently the causative of the corresponding strong verb. In such cases, the root of the weak verb corresponds in form to the preterit singular of the strong verb: Mn E. drench (= to make drink), lay (= to make lie), rear (= to make rise), and set (= to make sit), are the umlauted forms of dronc (preterit singular of drincan), læg (preterit singular of licgan), rās (preterit singular of rīsan), and sæt (preterit singular of sittan).

Preterit and Past Participle in -ede and -ed.

125. Verbs with infinitive in -an preceded by ri- or the double consonants mm, nn, ss, bb, cg (= gg), add -ede for the preterit, and -ed for the past participle, the double consonant being always made single:

ri: neri-an, ner-ede, gener-ed, to save.

mm: fremm-an, frem-ede, gefrem-ed, to perform [frame].

 $\mathbf{nn}: \quad \eth \varrho \mathbf{nn\text{-}an}, \quad \ \eth \varrho \mathbf{n}\text{-}\mathbf{ede}, \quad \mathbf{ge} \eth \varrho \mathbf{n}\text{-}\mathbf{ed}, \quad \mathit{to} \ \mathit{extend}.$

ss: cnyss-an, cnys-ede, gecnys-ed, to beat.

bb: swębb-an, swęf-ede, geswęf-ed, to put to sleep cg: węcg-an, węg-ede, gewęg-ed, to agitate.

Note. — Lecgan, to lay, is the only one of these verbs that syncopates the e: lecgan, legde (lede), gelegd (geled), instead of legede, geleged.

Preterit and Past Participle in -de and -ed.

126. All the other verbs belonging to Class I add -de for the preterit and -ed for the past participle. This division includes, therefore, all stems long by nature:

gedæl-ed, to deal out, divide [dæl]. dæl-an. dæl-de, dēm-de, gedēm-ed. to judge [dom]. dēm-an. grēt-an, grēt-te, gegrēt-ed, to greet. hīer-an, hīer-de, gehier-ed, to hear to lead. læd-an. læd-de, gelæd-ed,

Note 1.—A preceding voiceless consonant (§ 9, Note) changes -de into -te: *grēt-de > grēt-te; *mēt-de > mēt-te; *īec-de > īec-te. Syncope and contraction are also frequent in the participles: gegrēt-ed > *gegrēt-d > gegrēt(t); gelæd-ed > gelæd(d)

Note 2.—**Būan**, to dwell, cultivate, has an admixture of strong forms in the past participle: **būan**, **būde**, **gebūd** (**bȳn**, **gebūn**). The present participle survives in Mn E. husband = house-dweller.

127. It includes, also, all stems long by position except those ending in mm, nn, ss, bb, and cg (§ 125):

send-e, gesend-ed, to send. send-an, sęt-te, to set [sittan]. geset-ed, sett-an, sigl-an. sigl-de, gesigl-ed, to sail. spend-an, spend-e, gespend-ed, to spend. to tread tredd-an, tred-de, getred-ed,

Note. — The participles frequently undergo syncope and contraction: gesended > gesend; geseted > geset(t); gespended > gespend; getreded > getred(d)

Irregular Verbs of Class I.

128. There are about twenty verbs belonging to Class I that are irregular in having no umlaut in the preterit and past participle. The preterit ends in -de, the past participle in -d; but, through the influence of a preceding voiceless consonant (§ 9, Note), -ed is generally unvoiced to -te, and -d to -t. The most important of these verbs are as follows:

bring-an,	brōh-te,	gebrōh-t,	to bring.
byc-gan,	boh-te,	geboh-t,	to buy.
sēc-an,	sōh-te,	gesõh-t,	to seek.
sęll-an,	seal-de,	geseal-d,	to give, sell.
tæc-an,	tæh-te,	getæh-t,	to teach.
tęll-an,	teal-de,	geteal-d,	to count [tell].
შęnc-an,	ðōh-te,	geðōh-t,	$to\ think.$
შync-an,	ðūh-te,	geðūh-t,	to seem [methinks].
wyrc-an,	worh-te,	geworh-t,	to work.

Note. — Such of these verbs as have stems in **c** or **g** are frequently written with an inserted **e**: **bycgean**, **sēcean**, **tæcean**, etc. This **e** indicates that **c** and **g** have palatal value; that is, are to be followed with a vanishing **y**-sound. In such cases, O.E. **c** usually passes into Mn.E. ch: **tæc(e)an** > to teach; **ræc(e)an** > to reach; **stręcc(e)an** > to stretch. **Sēc(e)an** gives beseech as well as seek. See § **8**.

Conjugation of Class I.

129. Paradigms of nerian, to save; fremman, to perform; dælan, to divide:

Indicative.

	I RESENT.				
Sing. 1.	Ic nęrie	fremme	dæle		
2.	ðū nerest	fręmest	$d\bar{æ}lst$		
3.	hē nęreð	fręmeð	dælð		
<i>Plur.</i> 1.	wē				
2.	gē neriað	fremmað	dælað		
3.	hīe				

notagy who symme.				
	Preti	ERIT.		
Sing 1.	Ic nerede	fremede	dælde	
2.	ðū neredest	fremedest	$d\bar{\mathbf{z}} l dest$	
3.	hē nerede	fremede	dælde	
Plur. 1.	wē)			
	gē nęredon	fremedon	$d\bar{\tilde{z}}ldon$	
3.		·		
	Subjun	ictive.		
G: 1	Dana			
Sing. 1.	10		dæle	
2. 3.	ðū herie	rremme	aæie	
Plur. 1.			1-1	
	gē herien	fremmen	dælen	
3.	,			
Sing 1	Ic PRETI	ERIT.		
2.	ซีนี ∤ nęrede	fremede	$\mathbf{d}\mathbf{\bar{z}}\mathbf{lde}$	
3.	hē			
Plur.~1.	wē)			
2.	gē nęreden	fremeden	$d\bar{f z}lden$	
3				
	Impera	ative.		
Sing.~2.	nęre	$_{ m freme}$	$d\bar{lpha}l$	
Plur 1.	nęrian	fremman	dælan	
2.	nęriað	fremmað	dælað	
	Infini	tive.		

nęrian fremman dælan

Gerund.

tō nęrianne (-enne) tō dælanne (-enne) tō fremmanne (-enne)

Present Participle.

nęriende fremmende $d\bar{z}$ lende

Past Participle.

genered gefremed gedæled Note. — The endings of the preterit present no difficulties; in the 2d and 3d singular present, however, the student will observe (a) that double consonants in the stem are made single: fremest, fremeo (not *fremmest, *fremmeo); oenest, oeneo; setest (setst), seteo (sett); fylst, fylo, from fyllan, to fill; (b) that syncope is the rule in stems long by nature: dælst (<dælest), dælo (<dæleo); dēmst (<dēmest), dēmo (<dēmeo); hīerst (<hīerest), hīero (<hīerest). Double consonants are also made single in the imperative 2d singular and in the past participle. Stems long by nature take no final -e in the imperative: dæl, hīer, dēm.

Class II.

130. The infinitive of verbs belonging to this class ends in -ian (not -r-ian), the preterit singular in -ode, the past participle in -od. The preterit plural usually has -edon, however, instead of -odon:

eard-ian	eard-ode,	geeard-od,	to dwell [eorðe].
luf-ian,	luf-ode,	geluf-od,	to love [lufu].
rīcs-ian,	rīcs-ode,	gerīcs-od,	to rule [rīce].
sealf-ian,	sealf-ode,	gesealf-od,	to anoint [salve].
segl-ian,	segl-ode,	gesegl-od,	to sail [segel].

Note. — These verbs have no trace of original umlaut, since their-ian was once - $\bar{\mathbf{o}}$ jan. Hence, the vowel of the stem was shielded from the influence of the \mathbf{j} (= \mathbf{i}) by the interposition of $\bar{\mathbf{o}}$.

Conjugation of Class II.

Subjunctive.

131. Paradigm of lufian, to love:

Indicative.

		•	
, Pre	ESENT.		SENT.
Sing 1.	Ic lufie	Sing. 1. 2.	Ic)
2.	ðū lufast	2.	უნ } lufie
3.	hē lufað	3.	hē J
Plur.~1.	wē)	Plur. 1.	wē)
2.	gē }lufiað	2.	$\left.\begin{array}{l} w\bar{e} \\ g\bar{e} \end{array}\right\}$ lufien
3.	hīe	3.	hīe

Роктирит

Preserve

	I REIERII.			I REIERII.	
Sing 1	Ic lufode	Sing.	1.	Ic)	
2.	ซีนี lufodest		2.	$\left\{ egin{array}{ll} \mathbf{\tilde{u}} \\ \mathbf{\tilde{n}} \end{array} \right\} \mathbf{lufode}$	
3.	hē lufode		3	hē)	
Plur. 1.	wē)	Plur.	1.	wē }	
2.	gē lufedon (-	odon)	2.	$\left. egin{array}{l} war{e} \\ gar{e} \\ har{i}e \end{array} \right\} lufeden \; (\hbox{-oden})$	
3.	hīe)		3.	hīe)	
Imperative.		Infinitive.		Present Participle.	
Sing. 2	lufa	lufian		lufiende	

Sing. 2 lufa lufian lufiende

Plur. 1 lufian
2. lufiað Gerund Past Participle.
tō lufianne (-enne) gelufod

Note. 1.—The -ie (-ien) occurring in the present must be pronounced as a dissyllable. The y-sound thus interposed between the i and e is frequently indicated by the letter g: lufie, or lufige; lufien, or lufigen. So also for ia: lufiao, or lufigao; lufian, or lufig(e)an.

Note 2. — In the preterit singular, -ade, -ude, and -ede are not infrequent for -ode.

Class III.

132. The few verbs belonging here show a blending of Classes I and II. Like certain verbs of Class I (§ 128), the preterit and past participle are formed by adding -de and -d; like Class II, the 2d and 3d present indicative singular end in -ast and -aö, the imperative 2d singular in -a:

habb-an, hæf-de gehæf-d, to have. libb-an, lif-de gelif-d, to live. secg-an sæd-e (sæg-de), gesæd (gesæg-d), to say.

Conjugation of Class III.

133. Paradigms of habban, to have; libban, to live; secgan, to say. Indicative

- ,	Indicati	.ve.			
Present.					
Sing. 1.	Ic hæbbe	libbe	secge		
2.	∛ū hæfst (hafast)	lifast	sægst (sagast)		
3.	hē hæfð (hafað)	lifað	sægð (sagað)		
Plur. 1	wē)				
2.	gē habbað	libbað	sęcgað		
3.	hīe				
	Preter	IT.			
Sing. 1.	Ic hæfde	lifde	$\mathbf{s}\mathbf{ar{ ilde{e}}}\mathbf{d}\mathbf{e}$		
2.	ðū hæfdest	lifdest	$s\bar{pprox} dest$		
3.	hē hæfde	lifde	$s\bar{pprox}de$		
Plur. 1.	wē)				
2.	gē hæfdon	lifdon	$s\bar{\varpi}don$		
3.	hīe				
Subjunctive.					
Sing. 1.	Ic) Presen	т.			
2.	ðū ∤hæbbe	libbe	sęcge		
3	hē ∫				
Plur. 1.	wē)				
2.	gē hæbben	libben	sęcgen		
3.	hĩe				
Sing. 1.	Ic) Preteri	ıt.			
2.		lifde	sæde		
3.	hē				
	*				

Imperative.

lifden sæden

$Sing.\ 2.$	hafa	lifa	saga
Plur.~1.	habban	libban	sęcgan
2.	habbað	libbað	secgað

Plur. 1. wē)

2. gē hæfden 3. hie

Infinitive.

habban

libban

secgan

Gerund.

tō habbane (-enne)

tō libbane (-enne)

tō secganne (-enne)

Present Participle.

hæhhende

libbende

secgende

Past Participle.

gehæfd

gelifd

gesæd

CHAPTER XXII.

REMAINING VERBS; VERB-PHRASES WITH habban, bēon, AND weorðan.

Anomalous Verbs. (See § 19.)

134. These are:

bēon (wesan), ____ to be wæs. wæron. willan, wolde. woldon. to will, intend _____ dōn. dvde. dvdon. gedön, to do, cause gān, ëode. ēodon. gegān, to go.

Note. — In the original Indo-Germanic language, the first person of the present indicative singular ended in (1) $\bar{\mathbf{o}}$ or (2) $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{i}$ Cf. Gk. $\lambda \dot{\nu} \cdot \omega$, $\epsilon l \cdot \mu l$, Lat $am \cdot \bar{o}$, $su \cdot m$ The Strong and Weak Conjugations of O E. are survivals of the $\bar{\mathbf{o}}$ -class. The four Anomalous Verbs mentioned above are the sole remains in O.E. of the $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{i}$ -class. Note the surviving \mathbf{m} in $\mathbf{e}\mathbf{o}\mathbf{m}$ I am, and $\mathbf{d}\bar{\mathbf{o}}\mathbf{m}$ I do (Northumbrian form). These $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{i}$ -verbs are sometimes called non-Thematic to distinguish them from the Thematic or $\bar{\mathbf{o}}$ -verbs.

Conjugation of Anomalous Verbs.

135. Only the present indicative and subjunctive are at all irregular:

Indicative.

		104410.		
	$P_{\mathbf{F}}$	RESENT.		
Sing. 1.	Ic eom (bēom)	wille	dō	$\mathbf{g}\mathbf{ar{a}}$
2.	ðū eart (bist)	wilt	$_{ m d\bar{e}st}$	$\mathbf{g}\mathbf{\bar{e}}\mathbf{s}\mathbf{t}$
3.	hē is (bið)	wille	dēð	g≅δ
Plur. 1. 2. 3.	$\left. egin{array}{c} war{e} \\ gar{e} \\ har{i}e \end{array} ight\} sind(on)$	willað	dō∜	gāð
		juncti ve .		
Sing. 1.	Ic) PR	RESENT.		
Sing. 1. 2. 3	ðū sie	wille	dō	gā
Plur. 1. 2. 3.	wē gē sien	\mathbf{willen}	dōn	gān

Note. — The preterit subjunctive of beon is formed, of course, not from wæs, but from wæron. See § 103, (3).

Preterit-Present Verbs. (See § 19.)

136. These verbs are called Preterit-Present because the present tense (indicative and subjunctive) of each of them is, in form, a strong preterit, the old present having been displaced by the new. They all have weak preterits. Most of the Mn.E. Auxiliary Verbs belong to this class.

```
dorste.
                   dorston.
                                       to dare
durran.
         sceolde.
                   sceoldon.
                                       shall
sculan,
                   meahton,
         meahte.
                                       to be able, may.
magan,
                   mihton.
         mihte.
                   möston.
                                       may, must.
         möste.
mōtan.
```

Note. - The change in meaning from preterit to present, with retention of the preterit form, is not uncommon in other languages. Several examples are found in Latin and Greek (cf. $n\bar{o}vi$ and $o\hat{i}\delta\alpha$, I know). Mn E. has gone further still: and moste, which had already suffered the loss of their old preterits (āh, mot), have been forced back again into the present (ought, must). Having exhausted, therefore, the only means of preterit formation known to Germanic. the strong and the weak, it is not likely that either ought or must will ever develop distinct preterit forms.

Conjugation of Preterit-Present Verbs.

137. The irregularities occur in the present indicative and subjunctive: Indicative

PRESENT.

Subjunctive.

Sing. 1. Ic
$$\frac{P_{\text{RESENT}}}{2 \text{ } 50}$$
 wite $\bar{\text{age}}$ cunne durre scule(scyle) mæge mōte $\frac{P_{\text{RESENT}}}{3 \text{ } 100}$ witen $\bar{\text{agen}}$ cunnen durren sculen(scylen) mægen mōten $\frac{P_{\text{RESENT}}}{3 \text{ } 100}$

Note 1 — Willan and sculan do not often connote simple futurity in Early West Saxon, yet they were fast drifting that way. The Mn.E. use of *shall* only with the 1st person and *will* only with the 2d and 3d, to express simple futurity, was wholly unknown even in Shakespeare's day. The elaborate distinctions drawn between these words by modern grammarians are not only cumbersome and foreign to the genius of English, but equally lacking in psychological basis.

Note 2.—Sculan originally implied the idea of (1) duty, or compulsion (=ought to, or must), and this conception lurks with more or less prominence in almost every function of sculan in O.E.: Dryhten bebēad Moyse hū hē sceolde beran öā earce, The Lord instructed Moses how he ought to bear the ark; Ælc mann sceal be his andgietes mæöe... sprecan öæt he spricö, and dōn öæt öæt hē dēö, Every man must, according to the measure of his intelligence, speak what he speaks, and do what he does. Its next most frequent use is to express (2) custom, the transition from the obligatory to the customary being an easy one: Sē byrdesta sceall gyldan fiftyne mearões fell, The man of highest rank pays fifteen marten skins.

Note 3.—Willan expressed originally (1) pure volition, and this is its most frequent use in O E. It may occur without the infinitive: Nylle ic öæs synfullan dēaö, ac ic wille öæt hē gecyrre and lybbe, I do not desire the sinner's death, but I desire that he return and live. The wish being father to the intention, willan soon came to express (2) purpose: Hē sæde öæt hē at sumum cirre wolde fandian hū longe öæt land noröryhte læge, He said that he intended, at some time, to investigate how far that land extended northward.

Verb-Phrases with habban, beon (wesan), and weordan.

Verb-Phrases in the Active Voice.

138. The present and preterit of habban, combined with a past participle, are used in O.E., as in Mn.E., to form the present perfect and past perfect tenses:

PRESENT PERFECT

Sing. 1. Ic hæbbe gedrifen

- 2. 👸 hæfst gedrifen
- 3. hē hæfð gedrifen

PAST PERFECT.

Sing. 1. Ic hæfde gedrifen

- 2 vä hæfdest gedrifen
- 3. hē hæfde gedrifen

PRESENT PERFECT			PAST PERFECT.			
Plur	1.	wē		Plur. 1.	wē `	
	2	$g\bar{e}$	habbað gedrifen	2	gē	hæfdon gedrifen
	3.	hīe		3.	hīe	

The past participle is not usually inflected to agree with the direct object: Noröymbre ond Eastengle hæfdon Ælfrede cyninge agas geseald (not gesealde, § 82), The Northumbrians and East Anglians had given king Alfred oaths; ond hæfdon michne dæl gara horsa freten (not fretenne), and (they) had devoured a large part of the horses.

Note. — Many sentences might be quoted in which the participle does agree with the direct object, but there seems to be no clear line of demarcation between them and the sentences just cited. Originally, the participle expressed a resultant state, and belonged in sense more to the object than to habban; but in Early West Saxon habban had already, in the majority of cases, become a pure auxiliary when used with the past participle. This is conclusively proved by the use of habban with intransitive verbs In such a clause, therefore, as oð oæt hīe hine ofslægenne hæfdon, there is no occasion to translate until they had him slain (= resultant state); the agreement here is more probably due to the proximity of ofslægenne to hine. So also ac hī hæfdon þā hiera stemn gesetenne, but they had already served out (sat out) their military term.

of condition, a departure or arrival, beon (wesan) usually replaces habban. The past participle, in such cases, partakes of the nature of an adjective, and generally agrees with the subject: Mine welan be ic io had syndon ealle gewitene and gedrorene, My possessions which I once had are all departed and fallen away, waron be men uppe on lande of again, the men had gone up ashore; and be observed and the

others had perished of hunger; and eac se micla here was pa pær to cumen, and also the large army had then arrived there.

140. A progressive present and preterit (not always, however, with distinctively progressive meanings) are formed by combining a present participle with the present and preterit of beon (wesan). The participle remains uninflected: ond hie alle on one cyning warun fechtende, and they all were fighting against the king; Symle he bio lociende, ne slæpo he næfre, He is always looking, nor does He ever sleep.

Note.—In most sentences of this sort, the subject is masculine (singular or plural); hence no inference can be made as to agreement, since -e is the participial ending for both numbers of the nominative masculine (§ 82). By analogy, therefore, the other genders usually conform in inflection to the masculine: wæron þā ealle þā dēoflu clypigende ānre stefne, then were all the devils crying with one voice.

Verb-Phrases in the Passive Voice.

141. Passive constructions are formed by combining beon (wesan) or weordan with a past participle. The participle agrees regularly with the subject: hie wæron benumene ægder ge pæs ceapes ge pæs cornes, they were deprived both of the cattle and the corn; hi beod ablende mid dæm plostrum heora scylda, they are blinded with the darkness of their sins; and se wælhreowa Domicianus on dam ylcan geare weard acweald, and the murderous Domitian was killed in the same year; ond æpelwulf aldormon weard ofslægen, and Æthelwulf, alderman, was slain.

Note 1. — To express agency, Mn E. employs by, rarely of; M.E. of, rarely by; O.E. from (fram), rarely of: Sē če Godes bebodu

ne gecnæwö, ne biö hē oncnāwen from Gode, He who does not recognize God's commands, will not be recognized by God; Betwux þæm wearö ofslagen Eadwine . . . fram Brytta cyninge, Meanwhile, Edwin was slain by the king of the Britons.

Note 2.—O.E had no progressive forms for the passive, and could not, therefore, distinguish between *He is being wounded* and *He is wounded*. It was not until more than a hundred years after. Shakespeare's death that *being* assumed this function. Weorðan, which originally denoted a passage from one state to another, was ultimately driven out by bēon (wesan), and survives now only in Woe worth (= be to).

142. VOCABULARY.

Öā Beormas, Permians.
Öā Deniscan, the Danish (men),
Danes.
Öā Finnas, Fins.
Öæt gewald, control [wealdan].
sēo sæ, sea.

sēo scīr, shire, district.
sēo wælstōw, battle-field.
āgan wælstōwe gewald, to
maintain possession of the
battle-field.
sē wealdend, ruler, wielder.

geflīeman, gefliemde, gefliemed. to put to flight gestaðelode, gestaðelian, gestaðelod, to establish, restore. gewissian, gewissode, gewissod, to quide, direct. wīcian. wīcode. gewicod, to $dwell \lceil \mathbf{wic} = \text{village} \rceil$.

143. Exercises.

I. 1. Qnd ðær wæs micel wæl geslægen on gehwæþre hond, ond Æþelwulf ealdormon wearþ ofslægen; ond þā Deniscan āhton wælstöwe gewald. 2. Qnd þæs ymb ānne mönaþ gefeaht Ælfred cyning wiþ ealne þone here, ond hine gefliemde. 3. He sæde þeah þæt þæt land sie swiþe lang norþ þonan. 4 þā Beormas hæfdon swiþe wel gebūd (§ 126, Note 2) hiera land. 5. Ohthere sæde þæt seo scir hatte (§ 117, Note 2) Hälgoland, þe he on (§ 94, (5)) būde. 6. þā Finnas wicedon be þære sæ. 7. Dryhten, ælmihtiga (§ 78, Note) God, Wyrhta and Wealdend ealra gesceafta, ic bidde

ðē for ðīnre miclan mildheortnesse ðæt ðū mē gewissie tō ðīnum willan; and gestaðela mīn mōd tō ðīnum willan and tō mīnre sāwle ðearfe.
8. Þā sceolde hē ðær bīdan ryhtnorþanwindes, for ðæm þæt land bēag þær sūðryhte, oþþe sēo sæ in on ðæt land, hē nysse hwæðer.
9. For ðy, mē ðyncð betre, gif ēow swā ðyncð, ðæt wē ēac ðās bēc on ðæt geðēode wenden ðe wē ealle gecnāwan mægen.

II. 1. When the king heard that, he went (= then went he) westward with his army to Ashdown. 2. Lovest thou me more than these? 3. The men said that the shire which they lived in was called Halgoland. 4. All things were made (wyrcan) by God. 5. They were fighting for two days with (= against) the Danes. 6. King Alfred fought with the Danes, and gained the victory; but the Danes retained possession of the battle-field. 7. These men dwelt in England before they came hither. 8. I have not seen the book of (ymbe) which you speak (sprecan).

PART III.

SELECTIONS FOR READING.

INTRODUCTORY.

I. The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle.

This famous work, a series of progressive annals by unknown hands, embraces a period extending from Cæsar's invasion of England to 1154. It is not known when or where these annals began to be recorded in English.

"The annals from the year 866—that of Ethelred's ascent of the throne—to the year 887 seem to be the work of one mind. Not a single year is passed over, and to several is granted considerable space, especially to the years 871, 878, and 885. The whole has gained a certain roundness and fulness, because the events—nearly all of them episodes in the ever-recurring conflict with the Danes—are taken in their connection, and the thread dropped in one year is resumed in the next. Not only is the style in itself concise; it has a sort of nervous severity and pithy rigor. The construction is often antiquated, and suggests at times the freedom of poetry; though this purely historical prose is far removed from poetry in profusion of language." (Ten Brink, Early Eng. Lit., I.)

II. The Translations of Alfred.

Alfred's reign (871–901) may be divided into four periods. The *first*, the period of Danish invasion, extends from 871 to

881; the *second*, the period of comparative quiet, from 881 to 893; the *third*, the period of renewed strife (beginning with the incursions of Hasting), from 893 to 897; the *fourth*, the period of peace, from 897 to 901. His literary work probably falls in the second period.*

The works translated by Alfred from Latin into the vernacular were (1) Consolation of Philosophy (De Consolatione Philosophiae) by Boëthius (475–525), (2) Compendious History of the World (Historiarum Libri VII) by Orosius (c. 418), (3) Ecclesiastical History of the English (Historia Ecclesiastica Anglorum) by Bede (672–735), and (4) Pastoral Care (De Cura Pastorali) by Pope Gregory the Great (540–604).

The chronological sequence of these works is wholly unknown. That given is supported by Turner, Arend, Morley, Grein, and Pauli Wülker argues for an exact reversal of this order According to Ten Brink, the order was more probably (1) Orosius, (2) Bede, (3) Boëthius, and (4) Pastoral Care. The most recent contribution to the subject is from Wülfing, who contends for (1) Bede, (2) Orosius, (3) Pastoral Care, and (4) Boëthius.

I. THE BATTLE OF ASHDOWN.

[From the Chronicle, Parker MS. The event and date are significant. The Danes had for the first time invaded Wessex Alfred's older brother, Ethelred, was king; but to Alfred belongs the glory of the victory at Ashdown (Berkshire). Asser (Life of Alfred) tells us that for a long time Ethelred remained praying in his tent, while Alfred and his followers went forth "like a wild boar against the hounds."]

1 871. Hēr cuōm¹ sē here tō Rēadingum on Westseaxe, 2 ond þæs ymb iii niht ridon ii eorlas ūp. Þā gemētte hīe

^{*} There is something inexpressibly touching in this clause from the great king's pen: gif wē oā stilnesse habbao. He is speaking of how much he hopes to do, by his translations, for the enlightenment of his people.

1 Æpelwulf aldorman² on Englafelda, ond him pær wip ge2 feaht, ond sige nam. Þæs ymb iiii niht Æpered cyning
3 ond Ælfred his bröþur³ þær micle fierd tö Rēadingum
4 gelæddon, ond wiþ þone here gefuhton; ond þær wæs
5 micel wæl geslægen on gehwæþre hond, ond Æpelwulf
6 aldormon wearþ ofslægen; ond þā Deniscan ähton wæl7 stöwe gewald.

s Qnd þæs ymb iiii niht gefeaht Æpered cyning ond 9Ælfred his bröpur wip alne 4 pone here on Æscesdüne. 10 Qnd hīe wærun 5 on twæm gefylcum: on öprum wæs 11 Bāchsecg ond Halfdene þā hæpnan cyningas, ond on 12 öprum wæron þā eorlas Qnd þā gefeaht sē cyning 18Æpered wip þāra cyninga getruman, ond þær wearþ sē 14 cyning Bāgsecg ofslægen; ond Ælfred his bröpur wip 15 þāra eorla getruman, ond þær wearþ Sidroc eorl ofslægen 16 sē alda,6 ond Sidroc eorl sē gioncga,7 ond Ōsbearn eorl, 17 ond Fræna eorl, ond Hareld eorl; ond þā hergas begen 18 gefliemde, ond fela þūsenda ofslægenra, ond onfeohtende 19 wæron op niht.

20 Qnd þæs ymb xiiii niht gefeaht Æþered cyning ond 21 Ælfred his bröður wiþ þone here æt Basengum, ond þær 22 þa Deniscan sige namon.

Qnd þæs ymb ii mōnaþ gefeaht Æþered cyning ond 24 Ælfred his brōþur wiþ þone here æt Meretūne, ond hīe 25 wærun on tuæm 9 gefylcium, ond hīe būtū geflīemdon, ond 26 longe on dæg sige āhton; ond þær wearþ micel wælsliht 27 on gehwæþere hond; ond þā Deniscan āhton wælstōwe

⁸ **gefeaht.** Notice that the singular is used. This is the more common construction in O.E. when a compound subject, composed of singular members, follows its predicate. Cf For thine is the kingdom, and the power, and the glory See also p. 107, note on wes.

^{18.} ond fela püsenda ofslægenra, and there were many thousands of slain (§ 91).

1 gewald; ond pær wearp Hēahmund bisceop ofslægen, 2 ond fela gödra monna. Ond æfter pissum gefeohte cuöm ¹ 3 micel sumorlida.

- 4 Qnd þæs ofer Eastron geför Æþered cyning; ond he 5 rīcsode v gēar; ond his līc līþ æt Winburnan.
- 6 pā fēng Ælfred Æþelwulfing his bröpur tō Wesseaxna 7 rīce. Qnd þæs ymb ānne mönaþ gefeaht Ælfred cyning 8 wiþ alne 4 þone here lytle werede 10 æt Wiltune, ond hine 9 longe on dæg gefliemde, ond þā Deniscan āhton wælstöwe 10 gewald.

Qnd þæs gēares wurdon viiii folcgefeoht gefohten wip 12 þone here on þý cynerīce be sūþan Temese, būtan þām þe 13 him Ælfred þæs cyninges bröpur ond ānlīpig aldormon² ond 14 cyninges þegnas oft rāde onridon þe mon nā ne rīmde; 15 ond þæs gēares wærun⁵ ofslægene viiii eorlas ond ān cyning. 16 Ond þý gēare nāmon Westseaxe friþ wiþ þone here.

CONSULT GLOSSARY AND PARADIGMS UNDER FORMS GIVEN BELOW.

No note is made of such variants as \mathbf{y} ($\mathbf{\bar{y}}$) or \mathbf{i} ($\mathbf{\bar{i}}$) for \mathbf{ie} ($\mathbf{\bar{ie}}$) See Glossary, under \mathbf{ie} ($\mathbf{\bar{ie}}$); occurrences, also, of and for ond, land for lond, are found on almost every page of Early West Saxon. Such words should be sought for under the more common forms, ond, lond.

 1 = cwōm 4 = ealne 8 = hçras 2 = ealdormǫn. 5 = wēron. 9 = twēm 3 = brōþor. 6 = ealda. 10 = werode. 7 = geonga

II. A PRAYER OF KING ALFRED.

[With this characteristic prayer, Alfred concludes his translation of Boëthius's Consolation of Philosophy Unfortunately, the only extant MS. (Bodleian 180) is Late West Saxon I follow, therefore, Prof A. S. Cook's normalization on an Early West Saxon basis. See Cook's First Book in Old English, p 163]

^{12.} būtan þām þe, etc., besides which, Alfred . . made raids against them (him), which were not counted. See § 70, Note.

Dryhten, ælmihtiga God, Wyrhta and Wealdend ealra 2 gesceafta, ic bidde ve for vinre miclan mildheortnesse, 3 and for være halgan rode tacne, and for Sanctæ Marian 4 mægðhāde, and for Sancti Michaeles gehiersumnesse, and 5 for ealra ðinra halgena lufan and hiera earnungum, ðæt 6 ðū mē gewissie bet ðonne ic āworhte tō ðē; and gewissa 7 mē tō ðīnum willan, and tō mīnre sāwle ðearfe, bet ðonne s ic self cunne; and gestavela mīn mod to vīnum willan and 9 tō mīnre sāwle čearfe; and gestranga mē wið čæs dēofles 10 costnungum; and afterr fram mē ða fulan galnesse and 11 ælce unrihtwisnesse; and gescield me wið minum wiðer-12 winnum, gesewenlīcum and ungesewenlīcum; and tāc mē 13 ðinne willan tō wyrceanne; ðæt ic mæge ðē inweardlice 14 lufian töforan eallum ðingum, mid clænum geðance and 15 mid clænum līchaman. For yon ye yū eart mīn Scieppend, 16 and min Āliesend, min Fultum, min Frofor, min Trēow-17 nes, and mīn Tōhopa. Sīe šē lof and wuldor nū and 18 ā ā ā, tō worulde būtan æghwilcum ende. Amen.

III. THE VOYAGES OF OHTHERE AND WULFSTAN.

[Lauderdale and Cottonian MSS | These voyages are an original insertion by Alfred into his translation of Orosius's Compendious History of the World

"They consist," says Ten Brink, "of a complete description of all the countries in which the Teutonic tongue prevailed at Alfred's time, and a full narrative of the travels of two voyagers, which the king wrote down from their own lips One of these, a Norwegian named Ohthere, had quite

^{3-4.} Marian . . . Michaeles O.E is inconsistent in the treatment of foreign names. They are sometimes naturalized, and sometimes retain in part their original inflections. Marian, an original accusative, is here used as a genitive; while Michaeles has the O.E. genitive ending

^{17.} **Sĩe ởē lof**. See § **105**, 1.

circumnavigated the coast of Scandinavia in his travels, and had even penetrated to the White Sea; the other, named Wulfstan, had sailed from Schleswig to Frische Haff The geographical and ethnographical details of both accounts are exceedingly interesting, and their style is attractive, clear, and concrete "

Ohthere made two voyages. Sailing first northward along the western coast of Norway, he rounded the North Cape, passed into the White Sea, and entered the Dwina River (ān micel ēa) On his second voyage he sailed southward along the western coast of Norway, entered the Skager Rack (wīdsæ), passed through the Cattegat, and anchored at the Danish port of Haddeby (æt Hæþum), modern Schleswig

Wulfstan sailed only in the Baltic Sea His voyage of seven days from Schleswig brought him to Drausen (**Trūsō**) on the shore of the Drausensea l

Ohthere's First Voyage.

Öhthere sæde his hlaforde, Ælfrede cyninge, þæt he 2 ealra Norðmonna norþmest būde. Hē cwæð þæt hē būde 3 on bām lande norbweardum wib bā Westsā. Hē sāde 4 beah bæt bæt land sie swibe lang norb bonan; ac hit is 5 eal wēste, būton on fēawum stōwum styccemælum wīciað 6 Finnas, on huntobe on wintra, ond on sumera on fiscape Hē sæde þæt hē æt sumum cirre wolde 7 be bære sæ. s fandian hū longe þæt land norþryhte læge, oppe hwæðer 9 ænig mon be norðan þæm westenne bude. Þa for he 10 norþryhte be þæm lande: lēt him ealne weg þæt wēste 11 land on ðæt stēorbord, ond þā widsæ on ðæt bæcbord þrie pā wæs hē swā feor norp swā pā hwælhuntan 13 firrest faraþ. Þā för hē þā gīet norþryhte swā feor swā 14 hē meahte on þæm öþrum þrím dagum gesiglan. Þā bēag 15 þæt land þær ēastryhte, oppe sēo sæ in on ðæt lond, hē 16 nysse hwæðer, būton hē wisse ðæt hē ðær bād westan-17 windes ond hwon norpan, ond siglde ða ēast be lande 18 swā swā hē meahte on fēower dagum gesiglan. 19 sceolde hē ðær bīdan ryhtnorþanwindes, for ðæm þæt 20 land bēag þær süþryhte, oppe sēo sæ in on ðæt land, hē 21 nysse hwæper. Þā siglde hē þonan sūðryhte be lande

1 swā swā hē mehte¹ on fīf dagum gesiglan. Đã læg pær 2 ān micel ēa ūp in on pæt land. Þā cirdon hīe ūp in on 3 ðā ēa, for pæm hīe ne dorston forp bī pære ēa siglan for 4 unfripe; for pæm ðæt land wæs eall gebūn on ōpre healfe 5 pære ēas. Ne mētte hē ær nān gebūn land, sippan hē 6 from his āgnum hām fōr; ac him wæs ealne weg wēste 7 land on pæt stēorbord, būtan fiscerum ond fugelerum ond 8 huntum, ond pæt wæron eall Finnas; ond him wæs ā 9 wīdsæ on ðæt bæcbord Þā Beormas hæfdon swīpe wel 10 gebūd hira land: ac hīe ne dorston pær on cuman. Ac 11 pāra Terfinna land wæs eal wēste, būton ðær huntan 12 gewīcodon, oppe fisceras, oppe fugeleras.

13 Fela spella him sædon på Beormas ægper ge of hiera 14 ågnum lande ge of pæm landum pe ymb hīe ūtan wæron; 15 ac hē nyste hwæt pæs sõpes wæs, for pæm hē hit self ne 16 geseah. På Finnas, him pūhte, ond på Beormas spræcon 17 nēah ān gepēode. Swīpost hē för vider, tō ēacan pæs 18 landes scēawunge, for pæm horshwælum, for væm hīe 19 habbav swīpe æpele bān on hiora tōpum—pā tēv hīe brōh-20 ton sume pæm cyninge—ond hiora hyd biv swīve gōd tō 21 sciprāpum. Sē hwæl biv micle læssa ponne ōvre hwalas: 22 ne biv hē lengra vonne syfan elna lang; ac on his āgnum 23 lande is sē betsta hwælhuntav: pā bēov eahta and fēo-24 wertiges elna lange, and pā mæstan fīftiges elna lange; 25 pāra hē sæde pæt hē syxa sum ofslōge syxtig on twām 26 dagum.

^{6.} from his agnum ham An adverbial dative singular without an inflectional ending is found with ham, dæg, morgen, and æfen.

^{8.} qnd þæt wæron See § 40, Note 3.

¹⁵ hwæt þæs söþes wæs. Sweet errs in explaining söþes as attracted into the genitive by þæs It is not a predicate adjective, but a partitive genitive after hwæt.

^{25.} syxa sum. See § 91, Note 2.

Hē wæs swyðe spēdig man on þēm ēhtum þe heora² 2 spēda on bēoð, þæt is, on wildrum. Hē hæfde þā gyt, ðā 3 hē pone cyningc⁵ söhte, tamra dēora unbebohtra syx hund. 4 þā dēor hī hātað 'hrānas'; þāra wæron syx stælhrānas; 5 ðā bēoð swyðe dyre mid Finnum, for ðæm hy föð þã 6 wildan hrānas mid. Hē wæs mid þēm fyrstum mannum 7 on pæm lande: næfde he peah ma donne twentig hrydera, s and twentig sceapa, and twentig swyna; and pet lytle 9 þæt he erede, he erede mid horsan. Ac hyra är is mæst 10 on pæm gafole pe ða Finnas him gyldað. Þæt gafol bið 11 on deora fellum, and on fugela federum, and hwales bane, 12 and on þæm sciprāpum þe bēoð of hwæles hyde geworht 13 and of sēoles. Æghwile gylt be hys gebyrdum. Sē byrd-14 esta sceall gyldan fiftyne meardes fell, and fif hranes, 15 and an beren fel, and tyn ambra feora, and berenne kyr-16 tel oððe yterenne, and twegen sciprapas; ægþer sy syxtig 17 elna lang, oper sy of hwæles hyde geworht, oper of sioles.6 Hē sæde ðæt Norðmanna land wære swyþe lang and 19 swyde smæl. Eal þæt his man āðer odde ettan odde erian 20 mæg, þæt līð wið ðā sæ; and þæt is þēah on sumum 21 stōwum swyðe clūdig; and licgað wilde moras wið eastan 22 and wið upp on emnlange þæm bynum lande. On þæm 23 mõrum eardiað Finnas. And þæt byne land is easte-24 weard brādost, and symle swā norðor swā smælre. Ēaste-25 werd hit mæg bion syxtig mila brad, oppe hwene brædre; 26 and middeweard prītig offe brādre; and norfeweard hē 27 cwæð, þær hit smalost wære, þæt hit mihte beon þreora 28 mīla brād tō þæm mōre; and sē mōr syðþan,9 on sumum

^{2.} on bēoð. See § 94, (5).

^{19.} Eal pæt his man. Pronominal genitives are not always possessive in O.E.; his is here the partitive genitive of hit, the succeeding relative pronoun being omitted: All that (portion) of it that may, either-of-the-two, either be grazed or plowed, etc. (§ 70, Note).

ı stōwum, swā brād swā man mæg on twām wucum ofer-2 fēran; and on sumum stōwum swā brād swā man mæg 3 on syx dagum oferfēran.

4 Đonne is tōemnes pēm lande sūðeweardum, on ōðre 5 healfe pæs mōres, Swēoland, op pæt land norðeweard; 6 and tōemnes pēm lande norðeweardum, Cwēna land. Þā 7 Cwēnas hergiað hwīlum on ðā Norðmen ofer ðone mōr, 8 hwīlum pā Norðmen on hȳ. And pēr sint swīðe micle 9 meras fersce geond pā mōras; and berað pā Cwēnas hyra 10 scypu ofer land on ðā meras, and panon hergiað on ðā 11 Norðmen; hȳ habbað swyðe lȳtle scypa and swyðe 12 leohte.

1 = meahte, mihte.4 = horsum7 = -weard.2 = hiera.5 = cyning.8 = bēon.3 = seofon.6 = sēoles9 = siððan.

Ohthere's Second Voyage.

Ōhthere sæde þæt sīo¹ scīr hātte Hālgoland, þe hē on 14 būde. Hē cwæð þæt nān man ne būde be norðan him. 15 þonne is ān port on sūðeweardum þæm lande, þone man 16 hæt Sciringeshēal. Þyder hē cwæð þæt man ne mihte 17 geseglian on ānum mōnðe, gyf man on niht wīcode, and 18 ælce dæge hæfde ambyrne wind; and ealle ðā hwīle hē 19 sceal seglian be lande. And on þæt stēorbord him bið 20 ærest Īraland, and þonne ðā īgland þe synd betux Īra-21 lande and þissum lande. Þonne is þis land, oð hē cymð 22 tō Scirincgeshēale, and ealne weg on þæt bæcbord Norð-

^{11-12.} scypa . . . leohte. These words exhibit inflections more frequent in Late than in Early West Saxon. The normal forms would be scypu, leoht; but in Late West Saxon the -u of short-stemmed neuters is generally replaced by -a; and the nominative accusative plural neuter of adjectives takes, by analogy, the masculine endings: hwate, gode, halge, instead of hwatu, god, halgu.

1 weg. Wið sūðan þone Sciringeshēal fylð swȳðe mycel 2 sæ ūp in on ðæt land; sēo is brādre þonne ænig man ofer 3 sēon mæge. And is Gotland on ōðre healfe ongēan, and 4 siððan Sillende. Sēo sæ līð mænig² hund mīla ūp in on 5 þæt land.

6 And of Sciringeshēale hē cwæð ðæt hē seglode on fīf 7 dagan³ tō þēm porte þe mọn hēt æt Hēpum; sē stent 8 betuh Winedum, and Seaxum, and Angle, and hṛrð in 9 on Dene. Đã hē þiderweard seglode fram Sciringes-10 hēale, þā wæs him on þæt bæcbord Denamearc and on 11 þæt stēorbord wīdsæ þrÿ dagas; and þā, twēgen dagas ær 12 hē tō Hēpum cōme, him wæs on þæt stēorbord Gotland, 13 and Sillende, and īglanda fela. On þēm landum eardo-14 don Engle, ær hī hider on land cōman. And hym wæs 15 ðā twēgen dagas on ðæt bæcbord þā īgland þe in on 16 Denemearce hyrað.

 $^{1}=s\bar{e}o.$ $^{2}=mqnig$ $^{3}=dagum.$ $^{4}=c\bar{o}men.$

Wulfstan's Voyage.

Wulfstān sēde þæt hē geföre of Hēðum, þæt hē wēre 18 on Trūsō on syfan dagum and nihtum, þæt þæt scip wæs 19 ealne weg yrnende under segle. Weonoðland him wæs

⁷ æt Hæpum. "This pleonastic use of æt with names of places occurs elsewhere in the older writings, as in the Chronicle (552), 'in þære stōwe þe is genemned æt Searobyrg,' where the æt has been erased by some later hand, showing that the idiom had become obsolete Cp. the German 'Gasthaus zur Krone,' Stamboul = es tam pólin" (Sweet) See, also, Atterbury, § 28, Note 3.

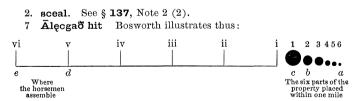
^{14-15.} wæs... þā īgland. The singular predicate is due again to inversion (p. 100, note on gefeaht). The construction is comparatively rare in O E., but frequent in Shakespeare and in the popular speech of to-day Cf There is, Here is, There has been, etc., with a (single) plural subject following.

on steorbord, and on become him was Langaland, and 2 Læland, and Falster, and Sconeg; and pas land eall 3 hvrað to Denemearcan. And ponne Burgenda land wæs 4 ūs on bæcbord, and þā habbað him sylfe¹ cyning. Þonne 5 æfter Burgenda lande wæron üs þās land, þā synd hātene 6 ærest Blēcinga-ēg, and Mēore, and Eowland, and Gotland 7 on bæcbord; and þās land hyrað to Sweom. And Weos nodland wæs üs ealne weg on stēorbord oð Wislemüðan. 9 Sēo Wīsle is swyöe mycel ēa, and hīo² tōlīð Wītland and 10 Weonodland; and pæt Witland belimped to Estum; and 11 sēo Wīsle līð ūt of Weonodlande, and līð in Estmere; 12 and sē Estmere is hūru fīftēne³ mīla brād. Þonne cymeð 13 Ilfing ēastan in Estmere of ðæm mere, ðe Trūsō standeð 14 in stæðe; and cumað ūt samod in Estmere, Ilfing ēastan 15 of Estlande, and Wisle suðan of Winodlande. 16 bonne benim Wisle Ilfing hire naman, and lige of pam 17 mere west and norð on sæ; for ðy hit man hæt Wīsle-18 mūða.

pæt Estland is swyöe mycel, and pær bið swyöe manig burh, and on ælcere byrig bið cyning. And pær bið swyöe mycel hunig, and fiscnað; and sē cyning and pā rrīcostan men drincað myran meolc, and pā unspēdigan and pā pēowan drincað medo. Pær bið swyðe mycel gewinn betwēonan him And ne bið ðær nænig ealo gebrowen mid Estum, ac pær bið medo genöh. And pær bið is mid Estum ðēaw, þonne pær bið man dēad, pæt hē līð rinne unforbærned mid his māgum and frēondum mōnað, ge hwīlum twēgen; and pā cyningas, and pā oðre hēah-yðungene men, swā micle lencg swā hī māran spēda habbað, hwīlum healf gēar pæt hī bēoð unforbærned, and

^{1-4.} him . . . ūs. Note the characteristic change of person, the transition from *indirect* to *direct discourse*.

ı licgað bufan eorðan on hyra hūsum. And ealle þā hwīle 2 be bæt līc bið inne, bær sceal beon gedrync and plega, s oð ðone dæg þe hī hine forbærnað. Þonne þy ylcan dæge 4 be hī hine tō bēm āde beran wyllað, bonne tōdēlað hī 5 his feoh, bæt bær to lafe bið æfter bæm gedrynce and bæm 6 plegan, on fīf oððe syx, hwylum on mā, swā swā þæs fēos Ālecgað hit ðonne forhwæga on ānre mīle 7 andēfn bið. s pone mæstan dæl fram pæm tune, ponne oðerne, donne 9 pone priddan, op pe hyt eall ālēd bið on pære anre mile; 10 and sceall beon se læsta dæl nyhst þæm tune ve se deada Đonne sceolon beon gesamnode ealle va 11 man on līð. 12 menn de swyftoste hors habbad on þæm lande, forhwæga 13 on fīf mīlum oððe on syx mīlum fram þæm fēo. Þonne 14 ærnað hv ealle toweard þæm feo: Jonne cymeð se man 15 sē þæt swiftoste hors hafað tō þæm ærestan dæle and tō 16 þæm mæstan, and swa ælc æfter öðrum, op hit bið eall 17 genumen; and sē nimð þone læstan dæl sē nyhst þæm is tune pæt feoh geærneð. And ponne rīdeð ælc hys weges 19 mid vām fēo, and hyt motan habban eall; and for vv 20 þær beoð þa swiftan hors ungeföge dyre. And þonne his 21 gestreon beoð þus eall aspended, þonne byrð man hine ūt, 22 and forbærneð mid his wæpnum and hrægle; and swīðost



"The horsemen assemble five or six miles from the property, at d or e, and run towards c; the man who has the swiftest horse, coming first to 1 or c, takes the first and largest part. The man who has the horse coming second takes part 2 or b, and so, in succession, till the least part, 6 or a, is taken,"

1 ealle hys spēda hỹ forspendað mid þæm langan legere 2 þæs dēadan mannes inne, and þæs þe hỹ be þæm wegum 3 ālecgað, þe ðā fremdan tō ærnað, and nimað. And þæt 4 is mid Estum þēaw þæt þær sceal ælces geðēodes man 5 bēon forbærned; and gyf þār 9 man ān bān findeð unfor-6 bærned, hī hit sceolan 7 miclum gebētan. And þær is mid 7 Estum ān mægð þæt hī magon cyle gewyrcan; and þỹ 8 þær licgað þā dēadan men swā lange, and ne fūliað, þæt 0 hỹ wyrcað þone cyle him on. And þēah man āsette 10 twēgen fætels full ealað oððe wæteres, hỹ gedōð þæt 11 ægþer bið oferfroren, sam hit sỹ sumor sam winter.

1 = selfe.	$^{4} = medu.$	$^{7} = \text{sculon}.$
$^2 = h\bar{e}o.$	$^{5}=\mathrm{ealu}$	$^8={ m m\bar{o}ton}$
$^{3} = fiftiene$	$^{6} = leng.$	$^{9}=\delta\bar{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{r}$

5-6. man...hī. Here the plural hī refers to the singular man. Cf p. 109, ll. 18-19, ælc...mōtan In Exodus xxxii, 24, we find "Whosoever hath any gold, let them break it off"; and Addison writes, "I do not mean that I think anyone to blame for taking due care of their health" The construction, though outlawed now, has been common in all periods of our language. Paul very sanely remarks (Principien der Sprachgeschichte, § 451) that "When a word is used as an indefinite [one, man, somebody, etc.] it is, strictly speaking, incapable of any distinction of number Since, however, in respect of the external form, a particular number has to be chosen, it is a matter of indifference which this is . Hence a change of numbers is common in the different languages"

I. GLOSSARY.

OLD ENGLISH - MODERN ENGLISH.

[The order of words is strictly alphabetical, except that \eth follows t. The combination æ follows ad

Gender is indicated by the abbreviations, m (= masculine), f. (= feminine), n. (= neuter), instead of the gender forms of the definite article.]

A.

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ā, ever, always, aye.
ābrecan (§ 120, Note 2), to break
  down, destroy.
ac, but.
ād, m., funeral pile
adesa, m., hatchet, adze
æfter (§ 94, (1)), after; æfter
  öæm, after that, thereafter;
  æfter öæm öe, after (conjunc-
  tion).
æghwā (§ 77, Note), each, every.
æghwilc (§ 77, Note), each, any
ægðer (æghwæðer, āðer) (§ 77,
  Note), each, either; ægþer . . .
  öper . . . öper, either . . . or
  \dots or; ægþer ge \dots ge (§ 95,
  (2)), both . . . and.
æht, f, property, possession.
ælc (§ 77), each, every.
ælmihtig, almighty.
æmetta, m., leisure.
ænig (§ 77), any.
ær, ere, before; ær ðæm ðe, be-
 fore (conjunction).
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\overline{\mathbf{e}}resta (§ 96, (4)), first.
ærnan (§ 127), to ride, gallop
  [iernan].
Æscesdün, f., Ashdown (in Berk-
æt (§ 94, (1)), at.
æðele, noble, excellent.
æðeling, m., a noble, prince.
Æðelwulfing, m., son of Ethel-
  wulf.
Æðered, m, Ethelred.
āfierran (\S 127), to remove \lceil feor\rceil.
āgan (§ 136), to own, possess.
  gain.
āgen, own [āgan]; dative singu-
  lar = \bar{a}gnum.
āhton, see āgan.
ālecgan (§ 125, Note), to lay
  down \lceil licgan \rceil.
ālēd, see ālecgan.
\bar{\mathbf{A}}līesend, m., Redeemer [ālīesan
  = to \ release, ransom
ambor, m, measure, genitive
  plural = ambra (§ 27, (4)).
ambyre, favorable.
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ān (§ 89), one, an, a.

andefn, f., proportion, amount. Angel, n , Anglen (in Denmark); dative singular = Angle (§ 27, (4)).ānlīpig, single, individual. ār, f., honor, property. ārīsan (§ 102), to arise. āsettan (§ 127), to set, place. āspendan (§ 127), to spend, expend. āð, m, oath. āðer, see ægðer. aweg, away āwyrcan (§ 128), to work, do, perform.

B.

Bāchsecg, m, Bagsac.

of a ship. bān, n., bone. Basengas, m., plural, Basing (in Hantshire) be (bī) (\S 94, (1)), by, about, near, along, according to; be norðan $\flat \bar{\mathbf{z}} \mathbf{m} \quad \mathbf{w} \bar{\mathbf{e}} \mathbf{s} \mathbf{t} \mathbf{e} \mathbf{n} \mathbf{n} \mathbf{e} \ (\S \ \mathbf{94}, \ (4)),$ north of the waste (desert). bēag, see būgan. bearn, n, child bēgen (declined like twēgen, § 89), both beginnan (§ 110), to begin. belimpan (§ 110), to belong. beniman (§ 114), to take, derive. beon (§ 134), to be Beormas, m , plural, Permians beran (§ 114), to bear. beren, of a bear. bet, see wel (\S 97, (2)). betsta, see god (§ 96, (3)). betuh, (§ 94, (1)), between between, (\S 94, (1)), between.

bī. see be. bīdan (§ 102), to expect, await (with genitive). biddan (§ 115, Note 2), to pray, request (§ 65, Note 3). bindan (§ 110), to bind. **bisceop**, m., bishop [episcopus]. Blēcinga-ēg, f, Blekingen. blīðe, blithe, happy. boc (§ 68, (1), Note 1), f., book. bōcere, m., scribe. bona (bana), m., murderer. brād, broad. brædra, see brād (§ 96, (1)). bringan (§ 128), to bring. bröhton, see bringan. brōðor (brōður) (§ 68, (2)), brother. bæcbord, n., larboard, left side brūcan (§ 109, Note 1), to enjoy (§ 62, Note 1). bryco, see brūcan. brycg, f, bridge. būan (§ 126, Note 2), to dwell, cultivatebūde, see būan. bufan, above (with dative and accusative) būgan (§ 109, Note 1), to bend, burg (§ 68, (1), Note), f., city, borough; dative singular = byrig Burgenda, m., genitive plural, of the Burgundians; Burgenda land, Bornholm. burh, see burg. būtan (būton) (§ 94, (1); § 95, (1)), except, except for, except that, unless, without. $\mathbf{b\bar{u}t\bar{u}}$, both (= both-two. The word is composed of the combined neuters of begen and twegen,

but is masculine and feminine as well as neuter).

byn (§ 126, Note 2), cultivated byrde, of high rank, aristocratic. byrig, see burg. byrö, see beran.

C.

cēosan (§ 109), to choose. cild, n., child. cirdon, see cirran. cirice, f, church. cirr (cierr), m, time, occasion. cirran (cierran) (§ 127), to turn, go. clæne, clean, pure. clūdig, rocky cnapa, m., boy eniht, m., warrior, knight. costnung, f., temptation. Crīst, m , Christ. cuma, m, stranger. cuman (§ 114), to come. cunnan (§ 137), to know, can. cunne, see cunnan. cwalu, f, death, murder cwelan (§ 114), to die. cwēn, f., queen. Cwēnas, m., plural, a Finnish tribecwedan (§ 115), to say. cwom, see cuman. cyle (ciele), m., cold [chill]; cyle gewyrcan, to produce cold, to freeze cynerice, n, kingdom. cyning, m., king

D.

dæd, f, deed dæg, m., day.

dæl, n, dale. dæl, m , part, division. dēad, dead. Denamearc, see Denemearc. Dene (§ 47), m., plural, Danes. Denemearc (Denemearce), f., Denmark, dative singular = Denemearce (strong), Denemearcan (weak). Denisc, Danish; da Deniscan, the Danes. dēofol, m, n., devil; genitive $singular = d\bar{e}ofles (\S 27, (4)).$ dēor, n , wild animal. don (§ 135), to do, cause. dorston, see durran. Dryhten, m., lord, the Lord. durran (§ 137), to dare. duru, f., door. dvre (diere), dear, costly.

E. ēa, f., river; genitive singular = ēas: dative and accusative sin $gular = \bar{e}a$ ēac, also ēaca, m, addition [ēac]; tō ēacan, in addition to (§ 94, (4)).ēage, n, eye. eahta, eight. ealað, see ealu. eald (§ 96, (2)), old ealdormon, m, alderman, chief magistrateeall (eal), all; ealne weg, all the way (§ 98, (1)). ealu (§ 68), n, ale; genitive $singular = eala \ddot{o}$.

eardian (§ 130), to dwell.

ēare, n., ear.

earm, poor. earnung, f., merit [earning]. ēast, east. $\bar{\mathbf{e}}$ astan (§ 93, (5)), from the east. ēasteweard, eastward. ēastrihte (\S 93, (6)), eastward. Eastron, plural, Easter ēastryhte, see ēastrihte. eln, f., ell. emnlong (emnlang), equally long; on emnlange, along $(\S 94, (4)).$ ende, m, end. engel, m, angel. Englafeld (§ 51), m., Englefield (in Berkshire). Engle (§ 47), m., plural, Angles. ēode, see gān. eorl, m., earl, chieftain. eorde, f., earth. ēow, see ðū. Eowland, n., Oland (an island in the Baltic Sea) erian (§ 125), to plow. Estland, n., land of the Estas (on the eastern coast of the Baltic Estmere, m., Frische Haff. Estum, m., dative plural, the Estas etan (§ 115), to eat

F.

fæder (§ 68, (2)), m., father.

fæt, n., vessel

ettan (§ 127), to graze [etan].

fætels, m., vessel; accusative
 plural = fætels.
Falster, Falster (island in the
 Baltic Sea).
fandian (§ 130), to try, investi gate [findan]

faran (§ 116), to go. feallan (§ 117), to fall, flow. fēawe, few. fela (indeclinable), many, much (with genitive). feld (§ 51), m., field. fell (fel), n., fell, skin, hide. fēng, see fōn. feoh, n., cattle, property [fee]; genitive and dative singular = fēos, fēo. feohtan (§ 110), to fight. fēond (§ 68, (3)), enemy, fiend. feor (\S 96, (4)), far. $f\bar{e}owertig$, forty; genitive = $f\bar{e}o$ wertiges (§ 91, Note 1). fersc, fresh. feder, f., feather fierd, f, English army. fif, five. fiftiene, fifteen. fiftig, fifty; genitive = fiftiges (§ 91, Note 1). findan (§ 110), to find. Finnas, m., plural, Fins firrest (fierrest), see feor. fiscað (fiscnað), m., fishing. fiscere, m., fisherman. fiscnað, see fiscað. folc, n, folk, people. folcgefeoht, n, battle, general engagementfon (§ 118), to seize, capture, take; to rice fon, to come to

for (§ 94, (1)), for, on account of; for ðæm (ðe), for ðon (ðe), because; for ðÿ, therefore.

fōr, see faran.

forbærnan (§ 127), to burn. forhwæga, about, at least.

(ascend) the throne.

forspendan (§ 127), to squander. forð, forth, forward. Fræna, m, Frene. fremde, strange, foreign; ờā fremdan, the strangers. frēodōm, m, freedom. frið, m , n., peace, security frofor, f., consolation from (fram) (§ 94, (1)), from, bu. fugela, see fugol. fugelere, m., fowler. fugol (fugel), m., bird. fūl, foul. fūlian (§ 130), to grow foul, decomposefull, full (with genitive). fultum, m., help. fylð, see feallan fyrst, chief, first.

G.

gafol, n, tax, tribute. gālnes, f., lust, impurity. gān (§ 134), to go. gār, m., spear. ge, and; see ægðer geærnan (§ 127), to gain by running [iernan].gēar, n , year. gebētan (§ 126), to make amends $for \lceil \mathbf{bot} = remedy \rceil$. gebrēowan (§ 109), to brew gebrowen, see gebrēowan. gebūd, see būan. gebün, see büan gebyrd, n, rank, social distincgecnāwan (§ 117), to understandgedon (§ 134), to do, cause.

gedrync, n, drinking. gefaran (§ 116), to go, die. gefeaht, see gefeohtan. gefeoht, n, fight, battle. gefeohtan (\S 110), to fight geflieman (§ 126), to put to flight. gefohten, see gefeohtan. geför, see gefaran gefuhton, see gefeohtan. gefylce, n, troop, division; dative plural = gefylcum, gefylcium. gehiersumnes, f., obedience. gehwæder (§ 77, Note), either, both. gelædan (§ 126), to lead. gemētan (\S 126), to meet. genōh, enough. genumen, see niman. geoc, n., yoke. geond (\S 94, (2)), throughout. geong (\S 96, (2)), young. gerecednes, f, narration. gesamnode, see gesomnian. gesceaft, f, creature, creation gesceap, n, creation. gescieldan (§ 127), to shield, defend. geseglian (§ 130), to sail. gesēon (§ 118), to see geset, n , habitation, seat gesewenlic, visible [past participle of seon + lic.gesiglan (§ 127), to sail. geslægen, see slēan (§ 118) gesomnian (§ 130), to assemble. gestaðelian (§ 130), to establish, restore. $gestrangian(\S 130)$, to strengthen. gestrēon, n , property geswican (§ 102), to cease, cease from (with genitive)

getruma, m., troop, division.

gedanc, m, n, thought. gedeode, n , language, tribe. gewald (geweald), n, control, possession, power. gewinn, n, strife. gewissian (§ 130), to guide, directgewyrc(e)an (§ 128), to work, create, make, produce. giefu, f, gift. gīet (gyt), yet, still. gif, if glæd, glad God, m, God. gōd, good Gotland, n, Jutland (in Ohthere's Second Voyage), Gothland (in Wulfstan's Voyage) grōwan (§ 117, (2)), to grow. guma, m, man gyf, see gif gyldan (gieldan) (§ 110), to pay; 3d singular indicative = gyltgvt, see giet.

H.

habban (§ 133), to have.
hæt, see hātan
hæðen, heathen
Hæðum (æt Hæðum), Haddeby
(= Schleswig).
hāl, hale, whole.
Halfdene, m, Halfdene.
hālga, m, saint.
Hālgoland, n, Halgoland (in ancient Norway).
hālig, holy
hālignes, f, holiness
hām, m, home; dative singular =
hāme, hām (p. 104, Note)
hand, see hond

hātan (§ 117, Note 2), to call, name, command hātte, see hātan. hē, hēo, hit (§ 53), he, she, it. hēafod, n, head hēahðungen, highly prosperous, aristocratic [heah + past participle of **ðēon** (§ **118**)]. healdan (§ 117), to hold. healf (adjective), half. healf, f, half, side, shore. heall, f, hall heard, hard. $h\bar{e}$ awan (§ 117), to hew, cut. helan (§ 114), to conceal helpan (§ 110), to help (with dative). heofon, m., heaven. heora (hiera), see hē. heorte, f, heart. hēr, here, in this year here, m., Danish army. hergian (§ 130), to raid, harry, ravage [here] hergung, f, harrying, plundering. hider, hither hiera, see hē. hīeran (h̄ȳran) (§ 126), to hear, belong hierde, m, shepherd hira, see hē hlāford, m, lord, master. hof, n, court, abode. hond (hand), f., hand, on gehwæðre hond, on both sides. hors, n, horse horshwæl, m., walrus. hrægel, n, garment; dative singular = hrægle hrān, m, reindeer hryder, n., cattle.

hū, how.

hund, hundred. hunig, n., honey hunta, m, hunter. huntoð (huntað), m., hunting. hūru, about hūs, n., house

hwā, hwæt (§ 74), who? what? hwæl, m., whale.

hwælhunta, m., whale-fisher. hwælhuntað, m., whale-fishing.

hwær, where?

hwæðer, whether, which of the two?

hwēne, see hwōn.

hwil, f, while, time; ealle öä hwile öe, all the while that; hwilum (instrumental plural), sometimes.

hwōn, n, a triffe; hwēne (instrumental singular), somewhat, a little.

h\bar{y} (h\bar{i}e), see h\bar{e}.
h\bar{y}d, f., hide, skin.
hyra (hiera), see h\bar{e}.
h\bar{y}ran, see h\bar{l}eran.
hys (his), see h\bar{e}.
hyt (hit), see h\bar{e}.

I.

ic (§ 72), I.
ieldra, see eald.
iernan (yrnan) (§ 112), to run.
īgland, see īglond
īglond, n., island.
ilca (ylca), the same.
Ilfing, the Elbing.
in, in, into (with dative and accusative); in on (with accusative); in on, to, toward
inne, within, inside
inweardlīce, inwardly, fervently

Īraland, n, Ireland (but in Ohthere's Second Voyage, Iceland is doubtless meant).

K

kyrtel, m., kirtle, coat.

L.

læge, see licgan.

Læland, n, Laaland (in Denmark).

læssa, see lÿtel.

læsta, see lÿtel.

lætan (§ 117), to let, leave.

lāf, f., remnant; tō lāfe, as a remnant, remaining.

land, see lond.

lang, see long.

Langaland, n., Langeland (in Denmark).

leger, n., lying in, illness [lic-gan].

lęng, see longe.

lengra, see long.

lēof, dear.

leoht, light

lēt, see lætan.

līc, n, body, corpse.

licgan (§ 115, Note 2), to lie, extend, flow, 3d singular indicative = ligeð, līð.

līchama, m., body.

ligeð, see licgan.

 \lim , n, limb

līð, see licgan

 $\textbf{lof,}\ m\ , \textit{praise, glory}$

lond (land), n., land, country.

long (lang) (§ 96, (2)), long.

longe (lange) (§ 97, (2)), long; longe on dæg, late in the day.

lufan, see lufu
lufian (§ 131), to love
lufu, f, love, dative singular =
lufan (weak form).
lytel (litel) (§ 96, (3)), little,
small.

M.

mā, see micle. mæg, m, kinsman; dative plural = māgum (§ 27, (2)). mæge, see magan mægð, f, tribe. mægðhād, m., maidenhood, virginity. mæst, see micel. magan (§ 137), to be able, may. māgum, see mæg. man, see mon. māra, see micel. meahte, see magan. mearc, f., boundary. mearh, m , horse. mearð, m, marten. medu, m., mead. men, see mon. meolc, f., milk. Mëore, Möre (in Sweden). mere, m , lake, meer, sea Meretun, m., Merton (in Surrey). micel (§ 96, (3)), great, large. micle (adverb), much miclum (§ 93, (4)), greatly. mid (§ 94, (1)), with, among, therewith. middangeard, m, world middeweard, midward, toward the middle Mierce, m., plural, Mercians. mihte, see magan mīl, f, mile.mildheortnes, f., mercy

mīn (§ 76), my, mine. mod, n, mind, mood mödor, f, mother. mon (monn, man, mann) (§ 68), man, one, person, they (§ 70, Note) mōna, m., moon. monao (§ 68), Note 1), month; dative singular = $m\bar{o}n\bar{d}e$. monig (manig, mænig), many monde, see monad. mōr, m , moor morgen, m, morning mōtan (§ 137), may, must. munuc, m, monk. mūð, m., mouth. myre, f., mare.

N. nā, not; nā ne, not (emphatic),

not at all. nabban (p. 32, Note), not to have. nædre, f., serpent, adder. næfde, see nabban nænig (§ 77), no one, none. nære, see bēon (§ 40, Note 2). næs, see bēon (§ 40), Note 2) nama, see noma. nāmon, see niman ne, not $n\bar{e}, nor; n\bar{e} \dots n\bar{e}, neither \dots$ nor $n\bar{e}ah (\S 96, (4)), near.$ nēar (adverb), nearly, almost nīehst, see nēah nigontiene, nineteen. **niht** (§ **68**, Note 1), night. niman (§ 114), to take, gain. nis, see bēon (§ 40, Note 2). niwe, newnoma, m., name.

norð (§ 97, (1)), north, in the onfeohtan (§ 110), to fight. north, northwards norðan (§ 93), (5)), from the north; be norðan, see be. norðeweard, northward. Nordhymbre, m. plural, Northumbrians Norðmanna, see Norðmon. Norðmen, see Norðmon norðmest, see norð. Noromon (-man) (68, (1)), Norwegian norðor, see norð norðryhte, northward. norðweard, northward. Norðweg, Norway. nū, now. nyhst (niehst), see neah. nysse, see nytan nyste, see nytan. nytan (nitan < ne witan, § 136),not to know; 3d singular preterit

0

= nysse, nyste.

of (§ 94, (1)), of, from, concerningofer $(\S 94, (2))$, over, across, after. ofer (adverb), over, across oferfēran (§ 126), to go over, travoferfrēosan (§ 109), to freeze overoferfroren, see oferfrēosan. ofslægen, see ofslēan ofslēan (§ 118), to slay. ofslöge, see ofslēan. on (\S 94, (3)), in, into, on, against, to, among, during; on fif odde syx, into five or six parts. ond (and), and

ongēan (adverb), just across, opposite onginnan (§ 110), to begin. onrīdan (§ 102), to ride against, make a raid on, oð (§ 94, (2)), until, as far as; oð ðe, until. öðer, other, second; öðer . . . öðer, the one . . . the other. oððe, or, oððe . . . oððe, either. . . or

P.

plega, m., play, festivity. port, m., port [portus].

R.

rād, f, raid. Rēadingas, m., plural, Reading (in Berkshire). rīce, rich, powerful, aristocratic. rīce, n., kingdom. rīcsian (§ 130), to rule. rīdan (§ 102), to ride rīman (§ 126), to count. rōd, f, cross, rood; rōde tācen, the sign of the cross Rōmware, m, plural, Romans ryhtnorðanwind, m., direct north wind.

S.

sæ, f., sea. sæd, n., seed sæde, see secgan. sam . . . sam, whether . . . or. samod, see somod sanct, m., f, saint; genitive singular = sanctæ (fem.), sancti(masc) [sanctus]. sāwan (§ 117), to sow.

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sāwol, f , soul; genitive singular |
                                    seofon (syfan), seven.
  = sāwle (§ 39, Note).
                                    seolh, m, seal; genitive singular
sceal, see sculan.
                                       = sēoles (§ 27, (3)).
scēap, n., sheep
                                    sīe, see bēon
                                    siex, six, syxa (siexa) sum, see
scēawung, f., seeing.
sceolde, see sculan.
scēowyrhta, m., shoe-maker.
                                    siextig, sixty
sceddan (§ 116), to injure, scathe
                                    sige, m, victory.
                                    siglan (§ 127), to sail.
  (with dative).
scieppan (§ 116), to create.
                                    Sillende, Zealand
Scieppend, m , Creator.
                                    sind, sint, sindon, see beon.
scīnan (§ 102), to shine.
                                    singan (§ 110), to sing.
scip (scyp), n., ship.
                                    siððan, after that, afterwards,
sciprāp, m, ship-rope, cable.
                                      after.
scīr, f , shire, district.
                                    slēan (§ 118), to slay.
Sciringeshēal, m., Sciringeskeal
                                    smæl, narrow
                                    smalost, see smæl
  (in Norway).
Sconeg, f, Skaane (southern dis-
                                    sõhte, see sēcan.
  trict of the Scandinavian penin-
                                    somod (samod), together.
                                    sōð, true.
sculan (§ 136; § 137, Note 2),
                                    soð, n., truth
                                    söölice, truly.
  shall, have to, ought.
scyp, see scip.
                                    spēd, f, possessions,
                                                               success.
sē, sēo, ðæt (§ 28; § 28, Note 3),
                                      riches [speed].
                                    spēdig, rich, prosperous.
  the; that; he, she, it, who,
  which, that; des, from then,
                                    spell, n, story, tale.
  afterwards; öæs öe (p. 110,
                                    spere, n, spear
                                    spor, n, track
  1 2), with what, \eth \bar{\mathbf{y}} ... \eth \mathbf{æt},
                                    spræc, f, speech, language.
  (p. 110, ll 7-8), for this reason
                                    sprecan (§ 115), to speak
  . . because.
                                    stælhrān, m., decoy-reindeer
Seaxe, m, plural, Saxons, Sax-
                                    stælwierðe, serviceable.
  ony.
sēcan (§ 128), to seek, visit
                                    stæð, n., shore.
                                    stān, m., stone, rock
secg, m., man, warrior.
                                    standan, see stondan.
secgan (§ 132), to say, tell.
segel, m, n., sail; dative singu-
                                    stede, m, place.
                                    stelan (§ 114), to steal.
  lar = segle.
seglian (§ 130), to sail.
                                    stent, see stondan.
self (sylf), self, himself (declined
                                    steorbord, n., starboard, right
                                      side of a ship
  as strong or weak adjective).
                                    stilnes, f., stillness, quiet.
sendan (§ 127), to send.
                                    stondan (§ 116), to stand.
sēo, see sē
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stōw, f, place. strang, see strong strong (§ 96, (2)), strong. styccemælum, here and there. sum (§ 91, Note 2), some, certain, a certain one; hē syxa sum, he with five others. sumera, see sumor. sumor, m., summer, dative singular = sumerasumorlida, m., summer-army. sunne, f., sun. sunu, m., son. sūð, south, southwards $\mathbf{s\bar{u}\ddot{o}an}$ (§ 93, (5)), from the south, be sūðan, south of (\S 94, (4)). sūðeweard, southward sūðrvhte, southward. swā, so, as; swā swā, just as, as far as; swā . . . swā, the . . . the. as . . . as Swēoland, n., Sweden. Sweom, m., dative plural, the Swedesswift (swyft), swift. swīn (swÿn), n., swine, hog. swīðe (swỹðe), very swidost, chiefly, almost. swuster (§ 68, (2)), f., sister. swyft, see swift swÿn, see swīn swyde, see swide. symle, always. synd, see bēon. syððan, see siððan

T.

syx, see siex.

syxtig, see siextig.

tācen, n., sign, token; dative singular = tācne (§ 33, Note).

tæcan (§ 128), to teach. tam, tame Temes, f., the Thames. Terfinna, m., genitive plural, the Terfins. tēð, see töð. tīen (tvn), ten til, good. tīma, m, time. tō (§ 94, (1)), to, for. tōdælan (§ 126), to divide. tōemnes (tō emnes) (§ 94, (4)), along, alongside. $t\bar{o}foran (\S 94, (1)), before.$ tōhopa, m., hope. tōlicgan (§ 115, Note 2), to separate, lie between; 3d singular $indicative = t\bar{o}l\bar{i}\bar{o}.$ tölið, see tölicgan. tōð (§ 68, (1)), m, tooth. toweard (§ 94, (1)), toward trēownes, f., trust. Trūsō, Drausen (a city on the Drausensea). tūn, m., town, village. tunge, f, tongue. tungol, n, star. twā, see twēgen twēgen (§ 89), two, twain. twēntig, twenty. tyn, see tien

ðā, then, when; ðā . . . ðā, when
 . . . then

ðā, see sē

ðær, there, where.

ðæs, afterwards (see sē).

ðæt, that

ðās, see ðēs

ðe (§ 75), who, whom, which,

that.

öēah, though, however dearf, f, need, benefit. ðēaw, m, habit, custom. degn (degen), m., servant, thane, warrior. čeowa, m, servant. ðēs (§ 73), this ðider, thither. diderweard, thitherward. ðin (§ 76), thine. **ðing**, n , thing. ðis, see ðēs. ðissum, see ðēs. öonan, thence. done, see sē. donne, than, then, when; donne . . . Jonne, when . . . then. ðrēora, see ðrīe. ðridda, third. ðrīe (ðrȳ) (§ 89), three. ðrīm, see ðrīe. Örītig, thirty. ðry, see ðrīe. ðū (§ 72), thou ðūhte, see ðyncan. ðurh (§ 94, (2)), through. ðus, thus. öüsend, thousand ðy, see sē öyder, see öider. dyncan (§ 128), to seem, appear (impersonal); mē ðyncð, methinks, it seems to me; him öuhte, it seemed to him.

U.

unbeboht, $unsold \lceil bebycgan =$ to sell]. unforbærned, unburned. unfriö, m., hostility

ungeföge, excessively.

ungesewenlic, invisible[past participle of seon + lic] unrihtwīsnes, f., unrighteousness. unspēdig, poor. **ū**р (**ū**рр), ир. ūre (§ 76), our. ūt, out. ūtan, from without, outside.

uton, let us (with infinitive). W. wæl, n., slaughter. wælsliht, m., slaughter. wælstōw, f., battle-field; wælstowe gewald, possession of the battle-field. wæpen, n., weapon. wære, see bēon. wæs. see bēon wæter, n., water wealdend, m., wielder,lord, ruler. wealh, m., foreigner, Welshman. weall, m. wall wearð, see weorðan. weaxan (\S 117), to grow, wax weg, m., way; hys weges, see § **93**, (3). wel (§ 97, (2)), well. wendan (§ 127), to change, translate [windan]. Weonodland (Weonoöland), n., Wendland weorpan (§ 110), to throw. weorðan (§ 110), to be, become. werod, n., army

wesan, see bēon.

Wesseaxe, m, plural, West Saxons; genitive plural = Wesseaxna.

west, west, westward westanwind, m, west wind wēste, waste. wēsten, n, waste, desert Westsæ, f., West sea (west of Norway). Westseaxe, m. plural, West Saxons, Wessex wīcian (§ 130), to dwell, lodge, sojourn wīdsæ, f, open sea wīf, n, wife, woman. wild, wild wildor, n, wild beast, reindeer; dative plural = wildrum (\S 33, Note) willa, m, will willan (§ 134; § 137, Note 3), to will, intend Wiltūn, m., Wilton (in Wiltshire) win, n, wine. Winburne, f, Wimborne (in Dorsetshire) wind, m, wind wine, m, friend Winedas, m., plural, the Wends, the Wend country

wingeard, m., vineyard

wīsdom, m., wisdom.

Wīsle, f, the Vistula

lar = wintra

wīs. wise

Vistula.

1

wisse, see witan

winter, m, winter; dative singu-

Wīslemūða, m, the mouth of the

wite, n., punishment Witland, n, Witland (in Pruswið (§ 94, (3)), against, toward, wið ēastan and wið üpp on emnlange ðæm bynum lande. toward the east, and upwards along the cultivated land wiðerwinna, m , adversary. wolde, see willan. word, n., word. woruld, f, world; to worulde būtan $\overline{\mathbf{e}}$ ghwilcum ende, worldwithout end wrītan (§ 102), to write. wucu, f., week wudu, m., wood, forest. wuldor, n, glory. wulf, m, wolf. wund, f., wound wurdon, see weordan. wylf, f , she wolf wyllað, see willan wyrc(e)an (§ 128), to work, make.wyrhta, m., worker, creator[-wright].

witan (§ 136), to know

Y.

ylca, see ilca
ymbe (ymb) (§ 94, (2)), about,
around, öæs ymb iiii niht,
about four nights afterwards.
yrnan, see iernan.
yteren, of an otter [otor].

GLOSSARY. TT.

MODERN ENGLISH - OLD ENGLISH.

Note 2).

ask, biddan (§ 65, Note 3; § 115, Α **a**, $\bar{a}n$ (§ **77**). abide, $b\bar{\imath}dan$ (§ 102), $\bar{a}b\bar{\imath}dan$. about, $be (\S 94, (1)), ymbe (\S 94,$ (2)); to write about, writanbe; to speak about (= of), sprecan ymbe, about two days afterwards, dæs ymbe twēgen dagasadder, $n\bar{x}dre$ (§ 64). afterwards, δas (§ 93, (3)) against, $wi\eth$ (§ 94, (3)), on (§ 94, (3)).Alfred, $\mathcal{E}lfred$ (§ 26). all, eall (§ 80). also, $\bar{e}ac$. although, $\delta \bar{e}ah$ (§ 105, 2) always, \bar{a} ; ealne weg (§ 98, (1)). am, eom (§ 40). an, see a. and, qnd (and). angel, engel (§ 26). animal, $d\bar{e}or$ (§ 32) are, sind, sint, sindon (§ 40). army, werod (§ 32); Danish army, here (§ 26); English army, fierd (§ 38). art, eart (§ 40).

Ashdown, Ascesdun (§ 38)

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away, aweg.
                  B.
battle-field, walstow (§ 38).
be, b\bar{e}on (§ 40); not to be, see
   § 40, Note 2.
bear, beran (§ 114).
because, for \delta \bar{x} m (\delta e), for \delta on
   (\eth e).
become, weorðan (§ 110).
before (temporal conjunction),
  \bar{x}r, \bar{x}r \delta\bar{x}m \delta e (§ 105, 2).
begin, onginnan (§ 107, (1);
  § 110).
belong to, belimpan t\tilde{o} + dative
  (§ 110)
best, see good.
better, see good.
bind, bindan (§ 110).
bird, fugol (§ 26)
bite, b\bar{\imath}tan (§ 102).
body, lic (§ 32).
bone, b\bar{a}n (§ 32).
book, b\bar{o}c (§ 68).
both . . . and, \bar{x}g\delta er ge .
boundary, mearc (§ 38)
boy, cnapa (§ 64).
```

break, brēotan (§ 109), brecan, ābrecan (§ 114) brother, brōðor (§ 68, (2)). but, ac by, from (fram) (§ 94, (1); § 141, Note 1).

C

Cædmon, Cædmǫn (§ 68, (1)). call, $h\bar{a}tan$ (§ 117, (1)) cease, cease from, $gesw\bar{u}can$ (§ 102) child, bearn (§ 32). choose, $c\bar{e}osan$ (§ 109). Christ, $Cr\bar{s}st$ (§ 26) church, cirice (§ 64). come, cuman (§ 114) comfort, $fr\bar{o}for$ (§ 38). companion, $gef\bar{e}ra$ (§ 64). consolation, $fr\bar{o}for$ (§ 38) create, gescieppan (§ 116).

D.

Danes, $Dene (\S 47)$ day, dæg (§ 26) dead, dēad (§ 80) dear (= beloved), $l\bar{e}of$ (§ 80). deed, $d\bar{x}d$ (§ 38) die, cwelan (§ 114) division (of troops), gefylce(§ **32**), getruma (§ **64**) do, dön (§ 134) door, dor (§ 32), duru (§ 52) drink, drincan (§ 110) See also **during**, on (\S **94**, (3)) § 98 dwell in, $b\bar{u}an$ on (§ 126, Note 2).

E.

earl, eorl (§ 26) endure, drēogan (§ 109) England, Englalond (§ 32). enjoy, brūcan (§ 62, Note 1; § 109, Note 1). every, ālc (§ 77). eye, ēage (§ 64).

F.

father, fieder (§ 68, (2)).
field, feld (§ 51)
fight, feohtan, gefeohtan (§ 110)
find, findan (§ 110).
finger, finger (§ 26)
fire, fÿr (§ 32)
fisherman, fiscere (§ 26)
foreigner, wealh (§ 26).
freedom, frēodōm (§ 26)
friend, wine (§ 45), frēond (§ 68, (3)).
friendship, frēondscipe (§ 45)
full, full (with genitive) (§ 80)

G

gain the victory, sige habban, sige niman gift, giefu (§ 38) give, giefan (with dative of indirect object) (§ 115) glad, glæd (§ 81) glove, glöf (§ 38) go, gān (§ 134), faran (§ 116). God, God (§ 26). good, göd (§ 80)

H.

Halgoland, $H\bar{a}lgoland$ (§ 32). hall, heall (§ 38).

hand, hond (§ 52). hard, heard (§ 80) have, habban (§ 34); not to have, nabban (p 32, Note) he, $h\bar{e}$ (§ 53). head, $h\bar{e}afod$ (§ 32) hear, $h\bar{\imath}eran$ (§ 126) heaven, heofon (§ 26) help, helpan (with dative) (§ 110) herdsman, hierde (§ 26). here, $h\bar{e}r$ hither, hider. hold, healdan (§ 117, (2)) holy, $h\bar{a}lig$ (§ 82). horse, mearh (\S 26), hors (\S 32) house, $h\bar{u}s$ (§ 32)

1

I, $ic (\S 72)$ in, $on (\S 94, (3))$ indeed, $s\ddot{o}\delta lice$ injure, $sce\eth an$ (with dative) $(\S 116)$. it, $hit (\S 53)$.

K.

king, cyning (§ 26). kingdom, rīce (§ 32), cynerīce (§ 32)

L.

land, lond (§ 32).
language, spr\(\bar{x}c\) (§ 38), ge\(\bar{\phi}\)\colonedee (§ 32).
large, micel (§ 82).
leisure, \(\bar{x}\)metta (§ 64).
let us, uton (with infinitive)
limb, lim (§ 32).
little, l\(\bar{y}\)tel (§ 82).
live in, b\(\bar{u}\)an on (§ 126, Note 2).
lord, h\(\bar{l}\)aford (§ 26).

love, lufian (§ 131) love (noun), lufu (§ 38).

M.

make, wyrcan (§ 128). man, $s_{\xi}cg$ (§ 26), $m_{\xi}n$ (§ 68, (1)). many, $m_{\xi}nig$ (§ 82) mare, $m_{\xi}nig$ (§ 64) mead, medu (§ 51) Mercians, Mierce (§ 47). milk, meole (§ 38) month, $m_{\xi}nig$ (§ 68, (1), Note 1) mouth, $m_{\xi}nig$ (§ 26). much, micel (§ 96, (3)), micle (§ 97, (2)). murderer, $b_{\xi}nig$ (§ 64). my, $m_{\xi}nig$ (§ 76).

N

natives, londleode (§ 47).

nephew, nefa (§ 64).

new, nīwe (§ 82)

Northumbrians, Norðymbre
 (§ 47).

not, ne

0

of, see about
on, on (§ 94, (3)), ofer (§ 94, (2)).
one, ān (§ 89); the one ...
the other, ōðer ... ōðer.
other, ōðer (§ 77)
our, ūre (§ 76).
ox, oxa (§ 64).

P.

place, $st\bar{o}w$ (§ 38). plundering, hergung (§ 38).

poor, earm (§ 80), $unsp\bar{e}dig$ (§ 82). prosperous, $sp\bar{e}dig$ (§ 82).

0.

queen, $cw\bar{e}n$ (§ 49).

R.

reindeer, $hr\bar{a}n$ (§ 26). remain, $b\bar{\imath}dan$ (§ 102), $\bar{a}b\bar{\imath}dan$. retain possession of the battlefield, $\bar{a}gan$ $welst\bar{\imath}we$ gewald. rich, $r\bar{\imath}ce$ (§ 82), $sp\bar{e}dig$ (§ 82) ride, $r\bar{\imath}dan$ (§ 102).

S.

say, cwedan (§ **115**), sęcgan (§ **133**). scribe, $b\bar{o}cere$ (§ 26). seal, seolh (§ 26). see, sēon (§ 118), gesēon serpent, $n\bar{x}dre$ (§ 64). $servant, \delta \bar{e}owa (\S 64), \delta egn (\S 26)$ shall, sculan (§ 136; § 137, Note 2). she, $h\bar{e}o$ (§ 53) shepherd, hierde (§ 26) **ship**, *scip* (§ **32**) shire, scir (§ 38) shoemaker, $sc\bar{e}owyrhta$ (§ 64). side, on both sides, on gehwæðre hqndsix, siex (§ 90) slaughter, wæl (§ 32), wælsliht (§ 45)small, $l\bar{y}tel$ (§ 82). son, sunu (§ 51). soul, $s\bar{a}wol$ (§ 38). speak, sprecan (§ 115). spear, $g\bar{a}r$ (§ 26), spere (§ 32).

stand, stondan (§ 116). stone, stān (§ 26). stranger, wealh (§ 26), cuma (§ 64). suffer, drēogan (§ 109). sun, sunne (§ 64). swift, swift (§ 80).

T.

take, niman (§ 110). than, $\delta onne$ (§ 96, (6)). thane, δegn (§ 26). that (conjunction), det. that (demonstrative), se, seo, det $(\S 28)$ that (relative), δe (§ 75). the, $s\bar{e}$, $s\bar{e}o$, δxet (§ 28). then, $\delta \bar{a}$, $\delta onne$. these, see this. they, hie (§ 53). thing, δing (§ 32). thirty, \(\partitig\). this, $\delta \bar{e}s$, $\delta \bar{e}os$, δis (§ 73). those, see that (demonstrative) thou, $\delta \bar{u}$ (§ 72). though, $\delta \bar{e}ah$ (§ 105, 2). three, $\delta r \bar{\imath} e$ (§ 89). throne, ascend the throne, $t\bar{o}$ rīce fon throw, weorpan (§ 110). to, $t\bar{o}$ (§ 94, (1)). tongue, tunge (§ 64). track, spor (§ 32). true, $s\bar{o}\delta$ (§ 80). truly, söðlīce. two, twēgen (§ 89).

V

very, swide. vessel, fat (§ 32) victory, sige (§ 45).

w

wall, weall (§ 26) warrior, secg (§ 26), eorl (§ 26). way, weg (§ 26). weapon, $w\bar{x}pen$ (§ 32). well, wel (§ 97, (2)) Welshman, Wealh (§ 26). went, see go westward, west, westrihte. whale, hw@l (§ 26) what? $hwat (\S 74)$. when, $\delta \bar{a}$, $\delta onne$. where? $hw\bar{x}r$. which, δe (§ 75). who? $hw\bar{a}$ (§ 74). who (relative), δe (§ 75) whosoever, $sw\bar{a} hw\bar{a} sw\bar{a}$ (§ 77, Note). will, willan (§ 134; 137, Note 3). Wilton, $Wilt\bar{u}n$ (§ 26) win, see gain.

wine, $w\bar{\imath}n$ (§ 32) wisdom, wisdom (§ 26). wise, wis (§ 80). with, mid (§ 94, (1)); to fight with (= against), gefeohtan $wi\delta$ (§ **94**, (3)). widstondan withstand, (with dative) (§ 116). wolf, wulf (§ 26), wylf (§ 38). woman, $w\bar{\imath}f$ (§ 32). word, word (§ 32) worm, wyrm (§ 45). Y. ye, $g\bar{e}$ (§ **72**). year, $g\bar{e}ar$ (§ 32). yoke, geoc (§ 32). you, $\delta \bar{u}$ (singular), $g\bar{e}$ (plural)

your, $\eth in$ (singular), $\bar{e}ower$ (plu-

(§ 72).

ral) (§ 76).

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