## AN

# OLD ENGLISH 

# grammar and exercise book 

WITH

INFLECTIONS, SYNTAX, SELECTIONS FOR READING, AND GLOSSARY

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Boston<br>ALLYN AND BACON<br>1896

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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 AngloSaxon 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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Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, September, 1896.

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# OLD ENGLISH GRAMMAR AND EXERCISE BOOK. 



## PART I.

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, ${ }^{1}$ commonly known as the period of full

[^0]inflections. E.g. stān-as, stones; car-u, care; will-a, will; bind-an, to bind; help-ađ ( $=$ 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 four ${ }^{1}$ 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 Alfric (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](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 Wiclif 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 IndoEuropean) 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: för, he went, for, for ; gōd, good, god, God; mān, crime, man, man.
Long vowels and diphthongs:
$\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ as in father: stān, $a$ stone
$\bar{\mp}$ as in man (prolonged): slǣpan, to sleep.
$\overline{\mathbf{e}}$ as in they: hēr, here.
$\mathbf{i}$ as in machine : min, mine
$\bar{\delta}$ as in note (pure, not diphthongal) : bōc, book.
$\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ as in rule: tūn, town.
$\overline{\mathbf{y}}$ as in German grün, or English green (with lips rounded): ${ }^{1}$ brÿd, 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 ( $\overline{\boldsymbol{m}}$ is not a diphthong proper) are $\overline{\mathrm{e} o}$, ie , and $\overline{\mathrm{e}}$. The sound of ēo is approximately reproduced in mayor ( $=m \tilde{a}-u h)$; that of $\bar{i}$ in the dissyllabic pronunciation of fear $(=f \bar{e}-u h) . \quad$ But éa $=\bar{x}-u h . \quad$ This diphthong is hardly to be distinguished from ea in pear, bear, etc., as pronounced in the southern section of the United States ( $=b c e-u h, p c e-u h)$.
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
$\mathbf{e}, \varepsilon$ as in let: stelan, to steal, sęttan, to set.
i as in sit: hit, it.

- as in broad (but shorter): god, God.

Q as in not: lqmb, lamb.
$\mathbf{u}$ as in full: sunu, son.
y as in miller (with lips rounded): gylden, golden.

[^2]Note. - The symbol $\varepsilon$ is known as umlaut-e (§58). It stands for Germanic $a$, while $\mathbf{e}$ (without the cedilla) represents Germanic $e$. The symbol $Q$ is employed only before $\mathbf{m}$ and $\mathbf{n}$. It, too, represents Germanic a. But Alfred writes manig or monig, many; lamb or lomb, lamb; hand or 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 $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ and p , no consistent distinction being made between them. In the works of Alfred, $\boldsymbol{\pm}$ (capital, $\boxplus$ ) is the more common : đās, those; đæt, that; binde丈, he binds.

The consonant c had the hard sound of $k$, the latter symbol being rare in West Saxon : cyning, king; cwēn, queen; cüð, known. When followed by a palatal vowel sound, - $e, i, \infty, e a, e o$, long or short, - a vanishing $y$ sound was doubtless interposed ( $c f$. dialectic $k^{y} i n d$ for kind). In Modern English the combination has passed into ch: cealc, chalk; cīdan, to chide; l̄̄ee, leech; cild, child; cēowan, to chew. This change ( $c>c h$ ) is known as Palatalization. The letter g, pronounced as in Modern English gun, has also a palatal value before the palatal vowels ( $c f$. dialectic $g^{y} i r l$ for $g i r l$ ).

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

[^3]Initial $\mathbf{h}$ is sounded as in Modern English: habban, to have; hālga, saint. When closing a syllable it has the sound of German ch: slöh, he slew; hēah, high; đurh, through.
9. An important distinction is that between voiced (or sonant) and voiceless (or surd) consonants. ${ }^{1}$ In Old English they are as follows:

| Voioed | Voloeless |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\mathbf{g}$ | $\mathbf{h}, \mathbf{c}$ |
| $\mathbf{d}$ | $\mathbf{t}$ |
| $\mathbf{d}, \mathbf{p}$ (as in though) | $\mathbf{d}, \mathbf{p}$ (as in thin) |
| $\mathbf{b}$ | $\mathbf{p}$ |
| $\mathbf{f}(=\mathrm{v})$ | $\mathbf{f}$ |
| $\mathbf{s}(=\mathrm{z})$ | $\mathbf{s}$ |

It is evident, therefore, that $\delta(p), f$, and s have double values in Old English. If voiced, they are equivalent to $t h$ (in though), $v$, and $z$. Otherwise, they are pronounced as th (in thin), $f$ (in $f$ in), and $s$ (in sin). The syllabic environment will usually compel the student to give these letters their proper values. When occurring between vowels, they are always voiced : ö屯er, other; ofer, over; rīsan, to rise.

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

[^4]ends in a voiceless consonant, the $\mathbf{d}$ is unvoiced, or assimilated, to $\mathbf{t}$ : sęttan, to set, sętte (but tręddan, to tread, has trędde); slǣ叩an, to sleep, slळ̈æte ; dręncan, to drench, dręncte; 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 ( $=o v-n$ ), battle ( $=b$ oet-l); ( $c f$. 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. $C f$. weak and strong $m y$ 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; đū, thou; sca-can, to shake; dæ-ges, by day. A closed syllable ends in one or more consonants: đing, thing; gōd, good; glæd, glad.
(3) A syllable is long ( $\alpha$ ) 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: ${ }^{1}$ cræft, strength; heard, hard; lib-ban, to live; feal-lan,

[^5]to fall．Otherwise，the syllable is short：あe，which； be－ran，to bear；むæt，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；hळ्æl゙， health；slळ̈pte，slept；l̄̄dde，led．

## Accentuation．

11．The accent in Old English falls usually on the radical syllable，never on the inflectional ending： bringan，to bring；stānas，stones；bérende，bearing；fdelnes， idleness；fréondscipe，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；фnd－giet，intelligence；sóð－fæst，truthful； god－cund，divine；éall－unga，entirely；blïe－līce，blithely． But be－hăt，promise；ge－béd，prayer；ge－féalīc，joyous； be－sб́ne，immediately．

Compound verbs，however，have the stress on the radical syllable ：for－gíefan，to forgive；of－linnan，to cease； ā－cn⿳亠口冋an，to know；wiđ̀－stọ́ndan，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 ；cóntract（noun），contráct（verb）； ábstinence，abstaín ；pérfume（noun），perfúme（verb）．

## CHAPTER III.

## Inflections.

## Cases.

12. There are five cases in Old English: the nominative, the genitive, the dative, the accusative, and the instrumental. ${ }^{1}$ 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 mūð, the mouth, illustrates the several cases (the article being, for the present, gratuitously added in the Modern English equivalents) :

[^6]Singular.
N. mū̃ = the mouth.
G. müđ-es ${ }^{1}=$ of the mouth ( $=$ the mouth's).
D. mū̃-e=to or for the mouth.
A. $\mathbf{m} \overline{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{~ = ~ t h e ~ m o u t h ~}$
I. mṻe = with or by means of the mouth.

## Plural.

$\mathbf{m u ̄}$ 家-as $=$ the mouths.
$\mathbf{m u ̄}$ - $\mathbf{a}=$ of the mouths.
( = the mouths').
mūð-um = to or for the mouths.
müd-as = the mouths.
mū̃-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 mūð, 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, sē for the masculine, sēo for the feminine, and đæt for the neuter : sē mū̃, sēo tunge, đæt ēage $=$ the mouth, the tongue, the eye.

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-

[^7]ern English goodness, and gerundial forms in -ing: seeing 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 $\mathbf{a}, \overline{\mathbf{o}}, \mathbf{i}$, or $\mathbf{u}$. Hence there are but four subdivisions of the Vowel Declension : a-stems, $\bar{o}$-stems, $\mathbf{i}$-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 $\mathbf{n}$ (cf. Latin homin-em, ration-em, Greek moı $\mu \notin \nu-a$ ). 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, o-stem, $\mathbf{i}$-stem, $\mathbf{u}$-stem, or n -stem ; hut 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):
I. Strong or Vowel Declensions


Note. - "It will be seen that if Old English ēage, 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 ahp-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 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{gathered} \text { I } \\ \text { Bītan, to bite : } \end{gathered}$ |  |  |  |
| Ic bit-e, $I$ bite or shall bite. ${ }^{1}$ | $\underset{\text { bit. }}{\text { Ic }} \text {. }$ | Wē bit-on, we bit. | Ic hæbbe ge ${ }^{2}$-biten, I have bitten. |
| II |  |  |  |
| Ic bēod-e, I bid or shall bid. | Ic bēad, $I$ bade. | Wē bud-on, we bade. | Ic hæbbe ge-boden, I have bidden. |

[^8]| Present | Pret Sing | Pret Plur | Past Participle |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| III <br> Bindan, to bind: |  |  |  |
| Ic bind-e, $I$ bind or shall bind. | Ic bend, $I$ bound | Wē bund-on, we bound. | Ic hæbbe ge-bunden, I have bound. |
| Beran, to bear: |  |  |  |
| Ic ber-e, $I$ bear or shall bear. | Ic bær, $I$ bove | Wē bæ̈r-on, we bore. | Ic hæbbe ge-boren, I have lorne. |
| V |  |  |  |
| Metan, to measure: |  |  |  |
| Ic met-e, I measure or shall measure. VI | Ic mæt, $I$ measured. | Wē mǣt-on, we measured. | Ic hæbbe ge-meten, I have measured |
| Faran, to go : |  |  |  |
| Ic far-e, $I$ go or shall go. | Ic fōr, $I$ went. | Wē fōr-on, we went. | Ic eom ${ }^{1}$ ge-far-en, I have (am) gone. |
|  |  |  |  |
| Feallan, to fall: |  |  |  |
| Ic feall-e, $I$ fall or shall fall. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Ic fēoll, } I \\ & \text { fell. } \end{aligned}$ | 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: ob-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 Englısh ge-wær), as $e$ in enough (Old English ge-nōh), and as $i$ in handiwork (Old English hand-ge-weorc).
${ }^{1}$ 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, slept.

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:

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 ceqn $I$ can, Ic cūðe $I$ could; Ic mōt $I$ must, Ic mōste $I$

[^9] 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 PreteritPresent Verbs. The present tense of each of them is in origin a preterit, in function a present. $O f$. 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, 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 biđ micle l̄̄ssa ponne öđre hwalas, That whale is much smaller than other whales; Ond 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 pā then, ponne then, and pø̄r there: Đ̄̄ fōr hē, Then went he; Đonne ærnađ hȳ ealle tōweard $\mathbf{p \overline { æ } m}$ fēo, Then gallop they all toward the property; ac pळ्ær biơ medo genōh, but there is mead enough.

Inversion is employed (b) in interrogative sentences: Lufast đ̄̄ mē? Lovest thou me? and (c) in imperative sentences: Cume đīn 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: ${ }^{1}$ Đonne cymeđ sē man sē pæt swiftoste hors hafad, Then comes the man that has the swiftest horse (literally, that the swiftest horse has); Ne mētte hē $\bar{æ} \mathrm{r}$ nān gebūn land, sippan hē frọm his āgnum hām fōr, 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.

[^10]The following sentence illustrates both orders: $\mathbf{H} \overline{\bar{y}}$ genāmon Ioseph, qnd hine gesealdon cīpemonnum, qnd hȳ hine gesealdon in Egypta lqna, 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); Đū 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 gārsecges igland, Britain is an island of the ocean (literally, ocean's island); Swilce hit is eac berende on węcga örum, Likewise it is also rich in ores of metals (literally, metals' ores); Cyninga cyning, King of kings (literally, Kings' king); Gē witon Godes rīces gerȳne, $Y e$ 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; $\boldsymbol{\epsilon t} \mathbf{t}$ ð̄̄ra strø̄ta eqndum, At the ends of the streets (literally, At the streets' ends); For ealra đ̄inra hālgena 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 : pā bearn pāra Aðdeniensa, The children of the Athenians. It may separate an adjective and a noun : Ān ly tel s̄̄̄s 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 mqnegum Godes gifum, With many God-gifts = 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." ${ }^{1}$
[^11]
## (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 Englisi | 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 | 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.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { nā }=n o ; \text { stān }=\text { stone } ; \text { bān }= \\
& \text { bone } ; \text { rād=road } ; \overline{\text { āc }=o a k ;} ; \\
& \text { hāl }=\text { whole } ; \text { hām }=h o m e ; \\
& \text { sāwan }=\text { to sow ; gāst }= \\
& \text { ghost }
\end{aligned}
$$

$\overline{\mathbf{a}} \quad o(\text { as in } n o)^{1}$

[^12]| Oid English． | Modern English |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| e | $e($ as in $h e)$ | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{h} \overline{\mathbf{e}}=h e ; \mathbf{w} \overline{\mathbf{e}}=w e ; \dot{\mathbf{\delta}} \overline{\mathbf{e}}=\text { thee } ; \\ \mathbf{m e}=\text { me }, \mathbf{g} \overline{\mathbf{e}}=y e ; \mathbf{h e ̄}=h e e l ; \\ \mathbf{w e ̄ r i g}=\text { weary } ; \text { gelēfan }=\text { to } \\ \text { believe } ; \text { gēs }=\text { geese } . \end{array}\right.$ |
| $\mathbf{i}(\overline{\mathbf{y}})$ | $i(y)($ as in mine） |  $=$ wire； $\mathbf{m y} \mathbf{y}=$ mice ； $\mathbf{r i z m}=$ rime（wrongly spelt rhyme）； $\mathbf{l y} \mathbf{y}=l i c e ; \mathbf{b} \overline{\mathbf{1}}=b y ; \mathbf{s c i n a n}=$ to shine；stīg rāp＝sty－rope （shortened to stirrup，stīgan meaning to mount）． |
| \％ | $o$（as in do） | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{d} \overline{\bar{o}}=I d o ; \text { tō }=\text { too, to } ; \text { gōs }= \\ \text { goose } ; \text { tōせ }=\text { tooth }, \text { mōna }= \\ \text { moon } ; \text { dōm }=\text { doom } ; \text { mōd }= \\ \text { mood } ; \text { wōgian }=\text { to woo } ; \\ \text { slōh }=I \text { slew. } . \end{array}\right.$ |
| $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ | ou（ow）（as in thou） | 安 $\overline{\mathrm{u}}=t h o u ; ~ f \overline{\mathrm{u}}=$ foul ；hūs $=$ house； $\mathbf{n} \overline{\mathbf{u}}=$ now； $\mathbf{h} \overline{\mathbf{u}}=$ how； tūn＝town；ūre $=o u r$ ；$\overline{\text { unt }}=$ out ；hlūd＝loud ；đ̈̄̄send＝ thousand． |
| $\overline{\boldsymbol{X}}, \overline{\mathbf{e}} \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{e} \mathbf{o}$ | $e a(\mathrm{as} \mathrm{in} \operatorname{sea}$ ） | ```\(\overline{\boldsymbol{\varnothing}}: \mathbf{s} \overline{\boldsymbol{\varnothing}}=s e a ; \mathbf{m} \overline{\boldsymbol{®}} \mathbf{l}=\) meal \(;\) d戸्ælan = to deal; clæ̈ne = clean; grædig = greedy. ēa : ēare =ear; ēast =east; drēam = dream, gēar = year; bēatan = to beat. ēo: đ̈rēo = three; drēorig = dreary; sēo \(=\) she; \(\mathbf{h r e ̄ o d}=\) 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." ${ }^{1}$ 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 associationgroup 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.

[^13]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 coud or coude) is due to association with would and should, in each of which $l$ belongs by etymological right.
(b) He need not (for $H e$ 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 $H e$ 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 selfexplaining ]
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 mư̄̃, mouth; see fiscere, fisherman; sē hwæl, whale; sē mearh, horse; sē finger, finger:

| Sing. N. A. | mūð <br> mūð-es | fiscer-e <br> fiscer-es | hwæl <br> hwæl-es | mearh <br> mēar-es | finger <br> fingr-es |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| D.I. | mūð-e | fiscer-e | hwæl-e | mēar-e | fingr-e |
| Plur. N.A. | mūð-as | fiscer-as | hwal-as | mēar-as | fingr-as |
| $G$. | ¢\%-a | fiscer-a | hwal-a | mēar | fingr-a |
| D.I. | mū「-um | fiscer-um | hwal-um | mēar-um | fingr- |

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; ${ }^{1}$ (3) that $\mathbf{h}$, preceded by $\mathbf{r}$ (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, đæt $^{\text {® }}=$ 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 $\mathbf{u}$ 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 $=a b i z^{u} m$ ), 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 dæt in its demonstrative sense. Professor Victor Henry (Comparative Grammar of English and German, § 160,3) sees a survival of dative plural demonstrative đ̄̄m in such an expression as in them days. It seems more probable, however, that them so used has followed the lead of

| Sing．N． | Masculine． sē | Feminine． sēo | Neuter． <br> ॠæt |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $G$ ． | 犭æs | ૪æ̈re | ðæs |
| D． | ઈǣm（ （ām） | 欠æ̈re |  |
| $A$ ． | ¢one | ¢ā | ðæt |
| $I$. | ¢ $\bar{y}$ ，¢on | － | ¢у，¢on |
|  |  | All Genders． |  |
| ur．N．A． |  | ¢а̄ |  |
| $G$ ． |  | 欠āra |  |
| D． |  |  |  |

29. 

Vocabulary．${ }^{1}$
sē bōcere，scribe［bōc］．
sē cyning，king
sē dæg，day．
sē ęnde，end．
sē ęngel，angel［angelus］
sē frēodōm，freedom．
sē fugol（G．sometimes fugles）， bird［fowl］．
sē gār，spear［gore，gar－fish］．
sē heofon，heaven．
sē hierde，herdsman［shep－herd］． ond（and），and sē sęcg，man，warrior． sē seolh，seal sē stān，stone． sē wealh，foreigner，Welshman ［wal－nut］． sē weall，wall． sē wīsdōm，wisdom． sē wulf，wolf．
30.

Exercises．
I．1．Đāra wulfa mūðas．2．Đæs fisceres fingras．3．Đāra Wēala cyninge．4．Đ̄̄m ęnglum ônd ðð̄m 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 đ＂ळ्ære byrig，at the town）； and $\begin{gathered}\text { あæm survives in the－ten of Attenborough，the word borough having }\end{gathered}$ 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 ęnde．6．Đ̄̄m bōcerum ond $\begin{array}{r}\text { ǣm sęcgum } \\ \text { Øæs cyninges．}\end{array}$ 7．Đ̄̄m sēole ơnd $\delta \overline{\nexists m}$ fuglum．8．Đā stānas qQ 9．Hwala ônd mēara．10．Đāra ęngla wīsdōm．11．Đæs cyninges bōceres frēodōm．12．Đāra hierda fuglum．13．$Đ \bar{y}$ stāne．14．Đ戸̄m wealle．

II．1．For the horses and the seals．2．For the Welsh－ men＇s freedom．3．Of the king＇s birds．4．By the wis－ dom of men and angels $\quad 5$ ．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 $\boldsymbol{a}$－Stems．

31．The neuter nouns of the a－Declension differ from the masculines only in the N．A．plural．

32．Paradigms of đæt hof，court，dwelling ；đæt bearn， child；đæt bān，bone ；đæt rīce，kingdom；đæt spere， spear；むæt werod，band of men；むæt tungol，star：
Sing $N A$ ．hof bearn bān lic－e sper－e werod tungol G．hof－es bearn－es bān－es ric－es sper－es werod－es tungl－es
$D I$ hof－e bearn－e bān－e ric－e sper－e werod－e tungl－e
Plur．$N A$ ．hof－u bearn bạan ric－u sper－u werod tungl－u
$G$ hof－a bearn－a bān－a ricca 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 short ${ }^{2}$ (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. đū hæfst (hafast), thou hast, or wilt have.
3. hē, hēo, hit hæf'̛̀ (hafađ'), he, she, it has, or will have.

Plur. 1. wē habbad', we have, or shall have.
2. gē habbad', ye have, or will have.
3. hīe habba屯́, they have, or will have.

## Preterit.

Sing. 1. Ic hæfde, I had.
2. đū hæfdest, thou hadst.
3. hē, hēo, hit hæfde, he, she, it had.

Plur. 1. wē hæfdon, we had
2. gē hæfdon, ye had.
3. hīe hæfdon, they had

[^14]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 $\mathbf{n}$ for $\mathbf{h}$ ．
35.

むæt dæl，dale．
あæt dēor，animal［deer ${ }^{1}$ ］．
あæt dor，door．
むæt fæt，vessel［vat］．
むæt fy r, fire．
むæt gēar，year．
むæt geoc，yoke．
むæt geset，habitation［set－ tlement］．
đæt hēafod，head．

Vocabulary．
đæt hūs，house．
むæt līc，body［lich－gate］．
あæt lim，limb．
on（with dat）in
むæt spor，track．
đæt wæ్pen，weapon．
むæt wìf，wife，woman．
むæt wïte，punishment．
むæt word，word．
36.

Exercises．
I．1．Hē hafað ðæs cyninges bearn．2．Đā Wēalas hab－ bað ðā speru．3．Đā wīf habbað ðāra sęcga wǣpnu．4．Đ̄̄ hæfst ðone fugol ọnd 犭æt hūs ðæs hierdes．5．Hæf ${ }^{2}$ hēo ðā fatu ${ }^{3}$ ？6．Hæfde hē ðæs wīfes līc on ðæ̈em hofe？7．Hē næfde ðæs wīfes līc；hē hæfde ðæs dēores hēafod．8．Hæfð
 on ð $\begin{aligned} æ ̄ m \\ \text { hūse．10．Gē habbað̀ frēodōm．}\end{aligned}$

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

[^15]the heads of the wolves. 7. He and she have the king's houses. 8. Have not (= Nabbaঠ) the children the warrior's weapons?

## CHAPTER VIII.

## The o-Declension.

37. The $\mathbf{0}$-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 o-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 rōd leornung sāwol
G. gief-e wund-e rōd-e leornung-a (e) sāwl-e
D.I. gief-e wund-e rōd-e leornung-a (e) sāwl-e
A. gief-e wund-e rōd-e leornung-a (e) sāwl-e

Plur. N.A. gief-a wund-a rōd-a leornung-a sāwl-a G. gief-a wund-a rōd-a leornung-a sāwl-a D.I gief-um wund-um 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 bēon (wesan), to be:
Present (first form). Present (second form). Preterit.

Sing. 1. Ic eom
2. 8ū eart
3. hè is

Plur. 1. wē
2. gē $\sin d$ (on), sint
3. hie

1. Ic bēom
2. $\gamma \overline{\mathrm{u}}$ bist
3. hē bǐ̌
$\left.\begin{array}{ll}\text { 1. } & w e \bar{~} \\ \text { 2. } & \text { gē } \\ \text { 3. } & \text { hīe }\end{array}\right\}$ bēor
4. Ic wæs
5. $\begin{aligned} \\ \text { ü } \\ w \bar{x} r e ~\end{aligned}$
6. hē wæs
7. wē
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { 2. } g \bar{e} \\ \text { 3. hiè }\end{array}\right\} w \overline{\not r r o n}$

Note 1.-The forms bēom, 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 MnE. are.

Note 2.-Fusion with ne gives neom and nis for the present; næs, n̄̄re, n्̄æron 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 dæt is frequently employed in this construction: Đæt wæ్æon eall Finnas, They were all Fins; Đæt sind englas, They are angels; $\mathbf{\boxplus \overline { æ }} \mathbf{t} \mathbf{w} \bar{\not} r o n ~ e q n g l a ~ g a ̄ s t a s, ~$ 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, đ̄ū hit eart. See § 21, (1), Note 1.
41.
sēo brycg, bridge.
sēo costnung, temptation.
sēo cwalu, death [quail, quell]. sēo fōr, journey [faran].
sēo frōfor, consolation, comfort.

Vocabulary.
sēo geoguđ, youth. sēo glöf, glove. sēo hälignes ${ }^{1}$ holiness. sēo heall, hall. hēr, here.
${ }^{1}$ All words ending in -nes double the -s before adding the case endings.
$\mathbf{h w a}, w h o$ ？
hw̄̄r，where？
sēo lufu，love．
sēo mearc，boundary［mark， marches ${ }^{1}$ ］．
sēo mēd，meed，reward．

```
sēo mildheortnes, mild-hearted-
    ness, mercy
sēo stōw, place [stow away].
丈戸口, there
sēo \earf, need.
sẽo wylf, she wolf.
```


## 42.

Exercises．
I．1．Hwǣr is ðǣre brycge ęnde？2．Hēr sind ðāra rīca mearca．3．Hwā hæfð pā glōfa？4．Đǣr bī̀ ðǣm cyninge frōfre ðearf．5．Sēo wund is on ðǣre wylfe hēafde．6．Wē habbað costnunga．7．Hīe nǣron on ðळ̄re healle．8．Ic hit neom．9．Đæt wǣron Wēalas．10．Đæt sind ðæs wīfes 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）．

[^16]
## (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 | 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 đā Engle, Angles; đā Norđymbre, Northumbrians; đā lēode, people:

Plur. N A. Engle
G. Engla
D.I Englum

| Norðymbre | lēode |
| :--- | :--- |
| Norðymbra | lēoda |
| Norðymbrum | lēodum |

(b) Feminine i-Stems.
48. The short stems (fręm-u) conform entirely to the declension of short $\overline{0}$-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 sēo fręm-u, benefit; sēo cwēn, woman, queen [quean]; seo wyrt, root [wort]:

Sing. N. freqm-u
G. fręm-e
D.I fręm-e
A. freqm-e

Plur. N.A. fręm-a
G. frem-a
D.I. frequ-um
cwēn
cwēn-e
cwēn-e
cwēn
cwēn-e (a)
cwēn-a
cwēn-um
wyrt
wyrt-e
wyrt-e
wyrt
wyrt-e (a)
wyrt-a
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 OE. long stems to final -u: cf. N.A. plural hof-u, but bearn, bān; N singular gief-u, but wund, rōd; N singular fręm-u, but cwēn, wyrt; N.A. singular sun-u, dur-u, but feld, hoqnd.

## (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 sēo dur-u, door ; sēo hǫnd, hand:

| Sing. N.A. | dur-u | hqnd |
| ---: | :--- | :--- |
| G. | dur-a | hqnd-a |
| D.I. | dur-a | hqnd-a |
| Plur. N.A. | dur-a | hęnd-a |
| G. | dur-a | hend-a |
| D.I. | dur-um | hend-um |

53. Paradigm of the Third Personal Pronoun, hē, hēo, hit $=h e$, she, it $:$

Masculine. Feminine. Neuter.
Sing. N. hē
hēo
hit
G. his
D. him
hiere
his
A. hine, hiene
hiere
him
hīe
hit
All Genders.
Plur. N.A.
hie
$G$.
D.
hiera
him
54.
(i-Stems.)
sē cierr, turn, time [char, chare, chore].
sēo dळ्æd, deed.
sē $\mathbf{d} \overline{\boldsymbol{m}} \mathbf{l}$, part [a great deal].
đ̄ā Dęne, Danes.
sē frēondscipe, friendship.
sēo hȳd, skin, hide.
đ̄ā lọndlēode, natives.
đ̄ā Mierce, Mercians.
đā Rōmware, Romans.
Vocabulary.
đā Seaxe, S'axons. sē stęde, place [in-stead of].
(u-Stems.)
sēo flōr, floor
sēo nosu, nose.
sē sumor ( $G$. sumeres, $D$. sumera), summer. sē winter ( $G$ wintres, $D$. wintra), winter.
sē wudu, wood, forest.
Note. - The numerous masculine nouns ending in -hād, - cildhād (childhood), wifhād (womanhood), - belong to the $\mathbf{u}$-stems historically ; but they have all passed over to the a-Declension.

## 55.

Exercises．
I．1．Đā Seaxe habbað ðæs dēores hȳd on $犭 \overline{\not x m}$ wuda． 2．Hwā hæfð̀ ðā giefa？3．Đā Mierce hīe ${ }^{1}$ habbad． 4．Hwär is $犭 æ s$ Wēales fugol？5．Đā Dęne hiene hab－ bað．6．Hwǣr sindon hiera winas？7．Hīe sindon on ðæs cyninges wuda．8．Đa Rōmware ond $\partial \bar{a}$ Seaxe hæf－
 wintra，ond on $\quad \overline{\not x m}$ feldum on sumera．10．Hw $\bar{x} r$ is ðæs hofes duru？11．Hēo ${ }^{2}$（ $=$ 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．${ }^{2} \quad$ ．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：
$\left.\begin{array}{rlr}\text { Sing．} 1 . & \text {－e } & \text { Plur．} 1 . \\ 2 . & \text {－est } & 2 . \\ 3 . & \text {－eठ } & 3 .\end{array}\right\}$－aむ

[^17]
## $i$-Umlaut.

58. The $2 d$ and $3 d$ singular endings were originally not -est and -e丈, but -is and -ið ; and the $\mathbf{i}$ 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 $\mathbf{j}(=y)$, 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. ${ }^{1}$ The changes produced were these :


## 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

[^18]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 $2 d$ and $3 d$ singular ：

Sing．1．Icrfeall－e（ fall $^{2}$
2．猫 feall－est
3．hē feall－eð
Plur．1．wē
2．gē feall－að cēos－ǎ bīd－a＇

## The Present Indicative with $i$－Umlaut and Contraction．

60．The 2 d and 3 d persons singular are distin－ guished from the other forms of the present indicative in Early West Saxon by（1）i－unlaut of the vowel of the stem，（2）syncope of the vowel of the ending，giv－ ing－st and－丈 for－est and－e丈，and（3）contraction of －st and－d 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 2 d and 3 d singular indicative of such verbs as（1）stqndan（＝standan），to stand，（2）cuman， to come，（3）grōwan，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) stęnd-, ${ }^{1}$ (2) cym-, (3) grēw-, (4) brȳc-, (5) bl्̄æw-, (6) fiell-, (7) hīew-, (8) wierp-, and (9) cies-.

If the unchanged stem contains the vowel $\mathbf{e}$, this is changed in the 2 d and 3 d singular to $\mathbf{i}$ (ie): cweđan to say, stem cwiot-; beran to bear, stem bier-. But this mutation ${ }^{2}$ 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 $\mathbf{e}$ 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 -む are added directly to the umlauted stem, there will frequently result such a massing of consonants as almost to defy pronunciation: cwid-st, thou sayest; stęnd-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 :

[^19](1) If the stem ends in a double consonant, one of the consonants is dropped:

1. feall-e ( $I$ fall)
2. winn-e ( $I$ fight)
3. swimm-e (I swim)
4. fiel-st
5. win-st
6. swim-st
7. fiel-\%
8. win- $\delta$
9. swim- $\%$
(2) If the stem ends in - $\mathbf{\delta}$, this is dropped:
10. cweð-e (I say)
11. weor'-e (I become)
12. cwi-st
13. wier-st
14. cwi-ð
15. wier- 8
(3) If the stem ends in -d , this is changed to -t. The -ه of the ending is then also changed to -t, and usually absorbed. Thus the stem of the 2 d singular serves as stem and ending for the 3d singular:
16. stond-e (= stand-e) (I stand)
17. stęnt-st
18. stęnt
19. bidd-e (I abide)
20. bit-st
21. bīt (-t)
22. bind-e (I bind)
23. bint-st
24. bint
25. rīd-e (I ride)
26. rīt-st
27. rīt (-t)
(4) If the stem ends already in -t, the endings are added as in (3), -ه being again changed to -t and absorbed :
28. brēot-e (I break)
29. feoht-e (I fight)
30. bit-e (I bite)
31. briet-st
32. fieht-st
33. bit-st
34. briet ( -t )
35. fieht
36. bit (-t)
(5) If the stem ends in -s, this is dropped before -st (to avoid -sst), but is retained before - $\delta$, the latter being changed to -t. Thus the 2d and 3d singulars are identical: ${ }^{1}$
[^20]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. Đā wîf cēosad dā giefa. 3. Đū stęntst on đæ̈m hūse. 4. Hē wierpð đæt w̄̄̄pen 5. Sē sęcg
 7. Ic stọnde hēr, ọnd $\begin{aligned} & \text { ū steqntst } \\ & \text { ǣr. } 8 \text {. "Ic hit eom," cwið }\end{aligned}$ hē. 9. Hīe berað ðæs wulfes bān. 10. Hē hīe bint, ọnd ic hine binde. 11. Ne rītst $\delta \bar{u}$ ?
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 ${ }^{1}$ 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

[^21]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 eage, eye and eare, ear. The masculines end in -a, the feminines and neuters in -e.
64. Paradigms of (a) sē hunta, hunter; (b) sēo tunge, tongue ; (c) đææ ēage, eye:

| Sing $N$. | hunt-a | tung-e | ēag-e |
| ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $G . D I$. | hunt-an | tung-an | ēag-an |
| A. | hunt-an | tung-an | ēag-e |
| Plur $N . A$ | hunt-an | tung-an | èag-an |
| $G$. | hunt-ena | tung-ena | ēag-ena |
| $D I$. | hunt-um | tung-um | ēag-um |

65. 

sē adesa, hatchet, adze.
$\boldsymbol{s e} \overline{\text { æemetta, leisure [empt-iness]. }}$ sē bqna (bana), murderer [bane] sēo cirice, church [Scotch kirk]
sē cnapa (later, cnafa), boy
[knave]
sē cuma, stranger [comer]
むæt ēare, ear
sēo eorðe, earth.
sē gefēra, companion [co-farer]. sē guma, man [bride-groom ${ }^{1}$ ] sēo heorte, lowart.

## Vocabulary.

[^22]gescieppan, to create [shape, |scęすðan (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].
wiðstondan (-standan) (with dat ), to withstand.
wrītan, to write.

## 66.

## Exercises.

I. 1. Sē scēowyrhta brȳč his $\overline{\not m m e t t a n . ~ 2 . ~ Đ a ̄ ~ g u m a n ~}$ biddað ðǣm cnapan ðæs adesan. 3. Hwā is sē cuma? 4 Hielpst $\partial \bar{u}$ 狂m bọnan? 5. Ic him ne helpe. 6. Đā bearn scęððað ðæs bǫnan ēagum ǫnd ēarum. 7. Sē cuma cwielð on خæَre cirican. 8 Sē hunta wiðstęnt ðǣm wulfum. 9. Đā oxan berað ðæs cnapan gefēran. 10. Sē mōna ọnd ðā tunglu sind on $\chi \overline{\nexists m}$ heofonum. 11. Đā huntan healdað
 werod scęððað ðæs cyninges feldum.
II. 1. Who will bind the mouths of the oxen? 2. Who 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 $\quad 7$. 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.

[^23]
## 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 mǫn (man) sē tōð (tooth) sēo cū (cow) Plur. N.A. fēt męn tēð cy

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 weak stems ; Burns in The Twa Dogs uses kye

No umlaut is possible in sēo niht (night) and sē mōnađ̈ (month), plural niht and mōnađ (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 brōðor sēo mōdor sēo dohtor sēo swuster (father) (brother) (mother) (daughter) (sister) D. fæder brēðer mēder dęhter 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 $\mathbf{i}$. Cf. Lat. dative singular patri, frātri, mātri, sorori (<*sosori), and Greek $\theta v \gamma a r \rho i$.
(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)
$D$ frīend fiend
Plur. N.A. frīend fïend
Note. - Mn.E. friend and fiend are interesting analogical spellings. When s had been added by analogy to the O.E plurals frīend 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 müठ (§ 26), except those ending in -a, which are declined like hunta (§ 64):

Sing. N.A mūð hunta
G. mūðes 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. hof
$G$ hofes
D I. hofe
Plur. N A. hofu
G. hofa
D.I. hofum
bearn
bearnes
bearne
bearn
bearna
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 |
| ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| G. | giefe | wunde | tunge |
| D.I. | giefe | wunde | tungan |
| A. | giefe | wunde | tungan |
| Plur $N . A$ | giefa | wunda | tungan |
| $G$ | giefa | wunda | tungena |
| D.I. | giefum | wundum | tungum |

## 70.

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

Note.- $-\mathrm{E} \mathrm{mqn}(\operatorname{man})$ 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, twêlf cȳpan fulle, And there were takien up of fragments that remained there twelve baskets full, but more literally, And one (or they) took the fragments, etc.; Ond Hæstenes wîf qnd his suna twēgen mqn brōhte tō đǣm cyninge, And Hosten's wife and his two sons were brought to the king.
71.

Exercises.
I. 1. Mọn hine hǣt Ælfred. 2. Uton faran on סæt scip. 3. God is cyninga cyning ônd hlāforda hlāford. 4. Sē eorl ne giefł giefa his fīend. 5. Ic næs mid his frīend. 6. Sēo mōdor færð mid hiere dęhter on ðā burg. 7. Fintst ðū ðæs
bōceres bēc? 8. Hē bint ealle (all) ðā dēor būtan $ð \overline{æ ̄ m}$ wulfum. 9. Đū eart Crīst, Godes sunu. 10. "Uton bindan ðæs bọnan fēt," cwið 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, $I$; đ̄̄ , thou. For hē, hēo, hit, sẹe § 53.

Sing. $N$. ic

$$
\gamma \bar{u}
$$

G. min din
D. mē \%e
A. mē rē

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
G. ūser (ūre)
D. ūs
gē
A. u s
ēower
ēow
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！Sīe inc æfter incrum gelēa－ fan，Be it unto you according to your faith．

Note 2．－Mn．E．ye（ $<\boldsymbol{g} \overline{\mathbf{e}}$ ），the nominative proper，is fast being displaced by you（＜ēow），the old objective The distinction is pre－ served 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 đēs，đēos，đis，this．For the Definite Article as a demonstrative，meaning that，see § 28，Note 3.

|  | Masculine． | Feminine． | Neuter． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sing． | ¢0̄s | ＇rēos | 才is |
|  | ．Øisses | ¢isse | ¢isses |
|  | ．ðissum | わisse | ¢issum |
|  | ．Jisne | ¢ās | 才is |
|  | ．$\gamma \overline{\mathrm{y}} \mathrm{s}$ | － | ðȳs |

Plur．N．A． All Genders．欠ās ðissa ※issum
（3）The Interrogative Pronoun．
74．Paradigm of hwā，hwæt，who，what？

| Masculine |  | Neuter． |
| :---: | :--- | :--- |
| Sing． | hwā | hwæt |
| G． | hwæs | hwæs |
| D． | hwām | hwǣm |
| A． | hwone | hwæt |
| I． | - | hwy |

Nоте 1．－The derivative interrogatives，hwळ̄đer（＜＊hwā－ðer）， which of two？and hwilc（ $<^{*} \mathrm{hwa}$－līc），which？are declined as strong adjectives（§§ 79－82）．

Note 2．－The instrumental case of hwā 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 OE interrogatives? The change began in early West Saxon with hwæt used in indirect questions (Wülfing, l.c $\S 310, \beta): \mathbf{N} \bar{u}$ ic wāt eall hwæt đū woldest, Now I know all that thou desiredst. The direct question was, Hwæt woldest đū 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 đe, 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 đe ic hæbbe;
(2) Sē fugol đone ic hæbbe;
(3) Sē fugol đone むe (= the which) ic hæbbe.

Note - O.E ©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: đy ylcan dæge đe hī hine tō đææm āde beran wyllað, 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; đĩn, 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 $\overline{\boldsymbol{x}} \mathrm{l}$, each, every; ān, $a$, an, one; $\overline{\boldsymbol{x}} \mathrm{nig}$ (<ān-ig), any; nǣig (<ne-ǣnig), none; öðer, 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 $\overline{\boldsymbol{x} g}$, (3) by interposing the interrogative between swā... swā: (1) gehwā, each; gehwæđer, either; gehwilc, each; (2) $\overline{\boldsymbol{\aleph}} \mathrm{ghwā}$, each; $\overline{\boldsymbol{\Phi}} \mathrm{ghw}$ æðer, each; $\overline{\boldsymbol{X} g h w i l c, ~ e a c h ; ~(3) ~ s w a ̄ ~ h w a ̄ ~}$ swā, whosoever, swā hwæđer 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 see or đēs, the, that, or this; otherwise, the Strong Declension is employed: đā gōdan cyningas, the good kings; đēs gōda cyning, this good king; but gōde cyningas, good kings.

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

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pronoun: Dryhten, ælmihtiga God . . . ic bidde đē for ઠīnre 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: gōd, good; eald, old; lqng, long; swift, swift. They are declined as follows.
80. Paradigm of gōd, good:

| Masculine. |  | Feminine. | Neuter. |
| ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sing. N. | gōd | gōd | gōd |
| G. | gōdes | gōdre | gōdes |
| D. | gōdum | gōdre | gō̄um |
| A. | gōdne | gōde | gōd |
| I. | gōde | - | gōde |
| Plur. N.A | gōde | gōda | gōd |
| G. | gōdra | gōdra | gōdra |
| D.I. | gōdum | gōdum | gōdum |

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

| Masculine. $\text { Sing. N. }\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { glæd } \\ \text { til } \end{array}\right.$ | Feminine gladu tilu | Neuter glæd til |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Plur. N.A. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { glade } \\ \text { tile }\end{array}\right.$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { glada } \\ & \text { tila } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { gladu } \\ & \text { tilu } \end{aligned}$ |

(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;

$=$ place $)$, steadfast, sorg-full (sorg =sorrow), sorrowful, cyst-lēas (cyst $=$ worth), worthless, eorö-lic (eorð̈e $=$ earth), earthly; blōd-ig (blöd = 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 hälig, holy, blïde, blithe, berende, bearing, geboren, born, are thus inflected:
Sing. N. $\left\{\begin{array}{lll}\text { Masculine. } & \text { Feminine. } & \text { Neuter. } \\ \text { hālig } & \text { hālgu } & \text { hālig } \\ \text { bli̊ðe } & \text { blīðu } & \text { blïðe } \\ \text { berende } & \text { berendu } & \text { berende } \\ \text { geboren } & \text { geborenu } & \text { geboren }\end{array}\right.$
Plur. N.A. $\left\{\begin{array}{lll}\text { hālge } & \text { hālga } & \text { hālgu } \\ \text { blīðe } & \text { blīða } & \text { blīðu } \\ \text { berende } & \text { berenda } & \text { berendu } \\ \text { geborene } & \text { geborena } & \text { geborenu }\end{array}\right.$

## (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.
84. Sing $N$. gōda
G. gödan
D.I gōdan
A. gödan

Plur. N.A
$G$.
D.I

Feminine. Neuter
gōde gōde
gōdan gōdan
gōdan gōdan
gōdan gōde

All Genders
gōdan
gōdra (gödena)
gōdum
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.

dēad, dead.
eall, all.
hāl, ${ }^{1}$ whole, hale.
heard, hard.
むæt hors, horse.
lēof, dear [as lief].
lȳtel, little
micel, great, large.
mpnig, many
niman, to take [nimble, numb]. nīme, new.
rīce, rich, powerful

Vocabulary.
söð, true [sooth-sayer].
stælwierðe, ${ }^{2}$ serviceable [stalwart]
swïde, very
sē tūn, town, village.
sē đegn, servant, thane, warrior.
あæt đing, thing
sē weg, way
wīs, wise
wiđ (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 $\overline{\text { c̄lcum }}$ ðegne mǫniga giefa. 3. Đēs wīsa cyning hæfð mǫnige micele tūnas on his rīce 4. N̄̄nig mơn is wīs on eallum dingum $\quad 5 . \mathrm{Đ}_{\bar{y}}$ ilcan dæge (§ 98, (2)) mọn fọnd (found) ðone ðegn ðe mīnes wines bēc hæfde. 6. Ealle $\partial \bar{a}$ sęcgas $\partial \bar{a}$ de swift hors habbałt rīdał wił̀ done 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 خone de ic on mīnum hǫndum hæbbe is swīðe heard. 9. Hīe scęððað ðǣm ealdum horsum. 10. Uton niman ðās tilan giefa ônd 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 tō)? 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 (ēac) 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. ān

2 twēgen [twain]
3. 犭rie

These numerals are inflected adjectives. Ān, one, an, $a$, being a long stemmed monosyllable, is declined like gōd (§ 80). The weak form, āna, means alone.

Twēgen and đrie, which have no singular, are thus declined:

Masc. Fem Neut. Masc Fem Neut.

90.

Group II.
4. fēower
5. fif
6. siex
7. seofon
8. eahta
9. nigon
10. tien
11. ęndlefan

These words are used chiefly as uninflected adjectives: on gewitscipe đrēora oppe fēower bisceopa, on testimony of three or four bishops; on siex dagum, in six days; ān n̄̈̈dre あe hæfde nigon hēafdu, a serpent which had nine heads; æðeling eahtatīene wintra, a prince of eighteen winters.
91.

Group III

20 twēntig
21. ān Qnd twēntig
30. Ђritig
40. fēowertig

50 fïftig
60 siextig
70. hundseofontig
12. twęlf

14. fēowertiene
15. fïftīene
16. siextiene

17 seofontīene
18 eahtatiene
19. nigontiene 91.
80. hundeahtatig

90 hundnigontig
100 hund
200. twā hund
1000. ðūsend
2000. twā ðūsend

All these numbers are employed as neuter singular nouns, and are followed by the genitive plural: Næfde hē pēah mā đonne twēntig hrȳđ̈đra, and twēntig scēapa, and
twēntig swȳna, He did not have, however, more than twenty (of) cattle, and twenty (of) sheep, and twenty (of) swine; Hīe hæfdon hundeahtatig scipa, They had eighty ships; twā hund mīla brād, two hundred miles broad; đǣr w̄̄ron seofon hund gūðfanena genumen, there were seven hundred standards captured; ān đūsend mqnna, a thousand men; Hannibales folces wæs twā ðūsend ofslagen, Of Hannibal's men there were two thousand slain; Hīe ācuron ęalefan đūsend 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 lqng, long: đæt is đrītiges mīla lqng, that is thirty miles long; Hē wæs đrītiges geara eald, He was thirty years old (2) The second is employed after mid: mid twळ̄m hunde scipa, with two hundred ships, mid đrīm hunde ṃ̣nna, with three hundred men, Đ戸̄̈r wearđ . . . Regulus gefangen mid $\mathbf{V}$ hunde mqnna, 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 s״̄de pæt hē syxa sum ofslōge 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 Wüling's citations shows that Alfred occasionally uses the forms in -tig (1) as adjectives with plual 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, $\overline{\not r e s t a, ~ f y r s t a ~}$
2. ōðer, æfterra
3. 先idda
4. fēorða
5. fïfta
6. siexta
7. seofoða
8. eahtoða

9 nigoða
10. tēoða
11. eqndlefta
12. twęlfta
13. ð̌rēotēoða
14. fēowertēoða
15. fïftēoða etc.
20. twēntigo $\begin{aligned} \text { a }\end{aligned}$
21. ān Qud twēntigoða

30 ðrītigoða
etc.

Note.-There are no Ordinals corresponding to hund and đ̄ūsend.
With the exception of öder ( $(77$ ), 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 éndađ sēo ǣreste bōc, qnd onginneđ sēo öđer, Here the first book ends, and the second begins; đy fiftan dæge, on the fifth day; on đ̄̄m tēođan gēare hiera gewinnes, on the tenth year of their strife; Hēo wæs twęlfte, She was twelfth; sē wæs fēorđa frqm Agusto, He was fourth from Augustus.

## CHAPTER XVI.

Adverbs, Prepositions, and Conjunctions.
Adverbs.
93. (1) Adverbs are formed by adding -e or -līee to the corresponding adjectives: söð, true; söðe or sōðlīce, truly; earmī̄c, wretched; earmlīce, wretchedly; wīd,
wide; wīde, widely; micel, great; micle (micele), greatly, much.
(2) The terminations -e and -lice are replaced in some adverbs by -unga or -inga: eallunga, entirely; fø̄ringa, 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 OE. -unga.
(3) The genitive case is frequently used adverbially: sū巴eweardes, southwards; ealles, altogether, entirely; dæges, by day; nihtes, by night; đæs, from that time, afterwards. Cf. hys (= his) weges in Đonne rīdeđ छ̄lc 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: hwīlum, at times, sometimes [whilom]; stundum (stund $=$ period), from time to time; miclum, greatly. Especially common is the suffix -m厄्ळlum ( $m \bar{\varnothing} \mathbf{l}=$ time [meal]), preserved adverbially in Mn.E. piecemeal: dropmळ̄lum, drop by drop; styccemǣlum $($ stycce $=$ piece $)$, piecemeal, here and there.
(5) The suffix -an usually denotes motion from:

(6) The adverb rihte (riht = right, straight) denotes motion toward in norðrihte, northward, due north; ēastrihte, due east; süðrihte, 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. from (fram), from,by.
æt, at mid, with
be (bī), by, near, about
betwēonan (betuh), between
būtan (būton), except.
for, for.
of, of, from
tō,to.
tōforan, before.
tōweard, toward.
```

(2) The following prepositions require the accusative:

```
geond, throughout.
ofer, over, upon.
#urh, through.
ymbe, about, around
oむ, until,up to.
```

(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 wid, 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 eastan，east of be sūđan，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 pro－ noun that they introduce；but by their adverbial nature they are sometimes drawn in front of the verb：And him wæs mycel męnegu tō gegaderod，And there was gath－ ered unto him a great multitude．In relative clauses introduced by de，the preceding position is very com－ mon：sēo scīr ．．．đe hē on būde，the district，．．． which he dwelt in（＝which he in－habited）；Hē wæs swȳ̄e spēdig man on đ̄̄m $\overline{\text { ®xh }}$ tum đe hiera spēđa on bēođ， He was a very rich man in those possessions which their riches consist in；nȳhst đ̄̄m tūne đe sē dēada man on lī̃， nearest the town that the dead man lies in．

## Conjunctions．

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

（2）The correlative conjunctions are：

| $\overline{\text { ®g }}$ ¢er ge | ．ge， | both |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| モ®đer | ōđer | either． |
| ơđせe． | oむせ |  |

\(\left.$$
\begin{array}{l}\text { nē . . . . . . . . . nē, } \\
\text { sam . . . . . . . . sam, }\end{array}
$$ \begin{array}{l}neither . . . . . nor. <br>

whether . . . . . or.\end{array}\right]\)| the . . . . . . . the. |
| :--- |

## 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
rice, rich
smæl, narrow
brād, broad
swift, swift

| Comparative. <br> earmra | earmost |
| :---: | :---: |
| rīcra | rīcost |
| smæılra | smalost |
| brādra (brædra) | brādost |
| swiftra | swiftost |

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

Positive. Comparative. Superlative.
eald, old
loqng, long
strqng, strong
geong, young
hēah, high
ieldra
lęngra
stręngra
giengra
hierra
ieldest
lengest
stręngest
giengest
hiehst
(3) The following adjectives are compared irregularly :
$\quad$ Positive
gōd，good
lȳtel，little，small
micel，great，much
yfel，bad

Comparative
bętra
1モ̄sa
māra
wiersa

Superlative
bętst
læ̈st
mæ̈st
wierst
（4）The positive is sometimes supplied by an adverb：

Positive
feor，far
nēah，near
$\overline{\boldsymbol{\Phi} \mathbf{r}}$ ，before

Comparative．
fierra
nearra
戸̈ra，former

Superlative．
fierrest
nīehst
$\overline{\text { æ̈rest，}}$ first
（5）The comparatives all follow the Weak Declen－ sion．The superlatives，when preceded by the definite article，are weak；but when used predicatively they are frequently strong：sē l̄̄sta dळ̄æl，the least part； Đonne cymeđす sē man sē đæt swiftoste hors hafađ tō đळَm
 that has the swiftest horse to the first part and to the largest．But，むæt bȳne land is ēasteweard brādost（not brādoste），the cultivated land is broadest eastward；and （hit）biđ̛ ealra wyrta mæ्〒t，and it is largest of all herbs；
 him gyldad，But their income is greatest in the tribute that the Fins pay them．
（6）The comparative is usually followed by đonne and the nominative case：sē hwæl biđ micle l̄̄ssa đonne öðre hwalas，That whale is much smaller than other whales；Đā wunda đæs mōdes bēođ dīgelran đonne đā wunda đæs līchaman，The wounds of the mind are more secret than the wounds of the body．

But when đonne is omitted，the comparative is fol－ lowed by the dative：Ūre Ālīesend，đe mära is qnd
mǣ̈ra eallum gesceaftum, Our Redeemer, who is greater and more glorious than all created things; nē ongeat hē nō hiene selfne bętran ōđrum gōdum m@nnum, 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
swiöe, very, severely $\overline{\boldsymbol{m}} \mathbf{r}$, before
norあ, northwards
geornor
swiơor, more
$\overline{\boldsymbol{x}} \mathrm{ror}$, formerly
norðor
geornost
swïठost, most, chiefly
戸̈rest, first
norð̈mest ${ }^{1}$
(2) The comparatives of a few adverbs may be found by dropping -ra of the corresponding adjective form :

| Positive. | Comparative. | Superlative. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| leqge, long | lęng | lęngest |
| micle, much | mā | mæ̈st |
| wel, well | bęt | bętst |

## Expressions of Time.

98. (1) Duration of time and extent of space are usually expressed by the accusative case: Ealle dã hwille đe đæt līc biđ inne, All the time that the body is within; twēgen dagas, for two days; ealne weg, all the way, always.

[^24]（2）Time when is more often expressed by the instrumental case when no preposition is used ：あ $\bar{y}$ ilcan dæge，the same day；ळ्खlce gēare，each year；đ̄̄ gēare， that year；$\overline{\nexists l c e ~ d æ g e, ~ e a c h ~ d a y . ~}$
（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 millum，in five miles；on đissum gēare，in this year；on đǣm tīman，in those times．Sometimes by the genitive without a pre－ ceding preposition：đ̄̄s gēares，in that year．
99. Vocabulary．

あæt gefylce［folc］，troop，division． むæt lqnd（land），land sēo mīl，mile．
öðer ．．ō̈er，the one ．the other，the former ．．．the lat－ ter．
sé sige，victory．
sige ${ }^{1}$ habban，to win（the）vic－ tory
sprecan，to speak．
đæt swīn（swȳn），swine，hog． wēste，waste．
100.

Exercises．
I．1．Hē hæfð ðrēo swīðe swift hors．2．Ic hæbbe nigon－ tīene scēap ǫnd mā donne twēntig swīna．3．Sēo gōde cwēn cīest twā hund mọnna 4．Uton feohtan wið 犭ā Dęne mid ðrīm hunde scipa 5 Qnd hīe wǣron on tw̄̄m gefylcum： on ōðrum wæs ${ }^{2}$ Bāchsęcg ơnd Halfdęne ðā h $\bar{æ} \not \partial n a n ~ c y n i n g a s, ~$ ond on ōðrum wø̄ron Øā eorlas．6．Đū spricst sōðlīce．$_{\text {en }}$ 7．Đonne rīt $\overline{\ngtr l}$ mon his weges．8．Æfter monigum da－ gum，hæfde Ælfred cyning ${ }^{3}$ sige．9．Đis lọnd is wēste styccemǣlum． 10 Đēs feld is fîftiges mīla brād．11．Æl－

[^25] ge wīs ge gōd. 12. Đā hwalas, ðe ðū ymbe spricst, sind micle lǣssan ōðrum hwalum. 13. Hēo is ieldre ðonne hiere swuster, ac mīn brōðor is ieldra ðonne hēo. 14. Wē cumað tō 犭ळ̄m tūne ǣlce gēare. 15. Đā męn ðe ðã swiftostan hors hǣfdon w戸̄æron mid $\begin{array}{r}\text { æ̈m } \\ \text { Dęnum fēower dagas. }\end{array}$
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 ( $\mathbf{m a}$ ) 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. $\quad 9$. The richest men are not always ( $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ ) 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.
[^26]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 flöwan, 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, à, i, i.
Infinttive. Preterit Sing. Preterit Plur. Past Part.
Drīi-an drāf drif-on gedrif-en, to drive.

## Indicative.

Present
Sing. 1. Ic drif-e
2. $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ drî̀-st (drif-est)
3. hē drīf-ð (drīf-eð)

Plur. 1. wē
2. gē drifi-ǎ
3. hie

Preterit
Sing. 1. Ic dräf
2. $\gamma \bar{u}$ drif-e
3. hē dräf

Plur. 1. wē
2. gē drif-on
3. hīe

Imperative. Infinitive. Present Participle.
Sing. 2. drif
Plur. 1. driif-an
2. drif-a $\delta$
drif-an

Gerund.
tō drî́-anne (-enne)

## Subjunctive.

Present.
Sing 1. Ic
$\left.\begin{array}{ll}\text { 2. } & \text { रū } \\ 3 & \text { hē }\end{array}\right\}^{\text {drif-e }}$
Plur. 1. wē
$\left.\begin{array}{ll}\text { 2. } & \text { gē } \\ \text { 3. } & \text { hie }\end{array}\right\}$ drifi-en
Preterit.
Sing. 1 Ic
2. $\overline{\chi u}\}$ drif-e
3. hē

Plur. 1. wē
$\left.\begin{array}{ll}\text { 2. } & g \bar{e} \\ \text { 3. } & \text { hie }\end{array}\right\}$ drif-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 end ings, 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 2 d person of the preterit singular indicative, and in the singular and plural of the preterit subjunctive.
(4) That the stem of $t^{\top}$ ıe 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.
[^27]1．When used in independent clauses it denotes desire，command，or entreaty，and usually precedes its subject：Sīe Jīn nama gehālgod，Hallowed be Thy name； Ne swęrigen gè，Do not swear．

2．In dependent clauses it denotes uncertainty，pos－ sibility，or mere futurity．${ }^{1}$ Concessive clauses（intro－ duced by đēah，though）and temporal clauses（introduced
 other mood than the subjunctive．The subjunctive is also regularly used in Alfredian prose after verbs of saying，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 ${ }^{3}{ }^{3}$ ：đēah man āsętte twēgen f戸̄̄tels full ealađ ơđすe wæteres，though
 eall forhęrgod wळre，before it was all ravaged；Hē s̄̄de đæt Norđmanna land wळ̄re swȳðle lang and swȳðe smæl， He said that the Norwegians＇land was very long and very narrow．

[^28]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 đē, 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), l̄̄tan (to let, permit), and onginnan (to begin) are regularly followed by the Infinitive: Hine rīdan lyste, To ride pleased him; Hēt đā
 lȳtlingas tō mē cuman, Let the little ones come to me; đā 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: ${ }^{2}$ Him đā $\overline{\text { gyt }}$ 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: प̄t ēode sē sāwere his s्̄̄य tō sāwenne, Out went the sower his seed to sow.
(2) To expand or determine the meaning of a noun or adjective: Sȳmōn, ic hæbbe đē tō sęcgenne sum đing, Simon, I have something to say to thee; Hit is scqnalic ymb swelc tō sprecanne, It is shameful to speak about such things.

[^29](3) After bēon (wesan) to denote duty or necessity: Hwæt is nū mā ymbe dis tō sprecanne, What more is there now to say about this? ठonne is to geđ̨ncenne hwæt Crīst self cwæぁ, 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? ${ }^{1}$
${ }^{1}$ 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


Sing. 1. Ic cēas
2. ðū cur-e

Sing. 1. Ic
3 hē cēas
$\left.\begin{array}{ll}2 & \text { бū } \\ 3 & \text { hē }\end{array}\right\}$ cur-e
Plur. 1. wē
$\left.\begin{array}{ll}\text { 2. gē } \\ \text { 3. } & \text { hīe }\end{array}\right\}$ cur-on

Imperative. Infinitive. Present Participle.
Sing. 2. cēos
cēos-an
cēos-ende
Plur. 1. cēos-an
2. cēos-að

Gerund. Past Participle.
tō cēos-anne (-enne) gecor-en

[^30]
## 110. Class III: The "Bind" Conjugation.

Vowel Succession: $\left.\left.\begin{array}{l}\mathbf{i} \\ \mathbf{e}\end{array}\right\}, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{u}, \begin{array}{l}\mathbf{u} \\ \mathbf{o}\end{array}\right\}$.
The present stem ends in $\mathbf{m}, \mathbf{n}, \mathbf{l}, \mathbf{r}$, or $\mathbf{h},+$ one or more consonants:
$\mathbf{m}$ : belimp-an, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { belqmp } \\ \text { belamp }\end{array}\right\}$, belump-on, belump-en, to belong n: bind-an, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { bqnd } \\ \text { band }\end{array}\right\}$, bund-on, gebund-en, to bind.

1: help-an, healp, hulp-on, geholp-en, to help.
r: weorð-an, wearð, wurd-on, geword-en, to become.
h: gefeoht-an, gefeaht, gefuht-on, gefoht-en, to fight
Note 1.-If the present stem ends in a nasal ( $\mathbf{m}, \mathbf{n}$ ) + a consonant, the past participle retains the $\mathbf{u}$ of the pret plur ; but if the present stem ends in a liquid ( $\mathbf{l}, \mathbf{r}$ ) or $\mathbf{h},+$ a consonant, the past participle has o instead of $\mathbf{u}$.

Note 2.- Why do we not find *halp, *warð, and *faht in the pret. sing ? Because a before $\mathbf{l}, \mathbf{r}$, or $\mathbf{h},+$ a consonant, underwent "breaking" to ea. Breaking also changes every e followed by $\mathbf{r}$ or $\mathbf{h},+\mathbf{a}$ consonant, to eo: weorðan (<*werðan), feohtan (<*fehtan).

## 111. <br> Indicative. <br> Present.

Sing. 1. Ic bind-e
2 ऊū bintst (bind-est)
3. hē bint (bind-eð')

Plur. 1. wē
$\left.\begin{array}{ll}2 & \text { gē } \\ 3 & \text { hie }\end{array}\right\}$ bind-ar

Preterit
Sing. 1. Ic bond
2. ðū bund-e
3. hē bqnd

## Subjunctive

 Present.Sing 1. Ic
2. $\gamma \overline{\mathrm{u}}\}$ bind-e
3. hē
$\left.\begin{array}{rl}\text { Plur. 1. } & \text { wē } \\ \text { 2. } & \text { gē } \\ 3 & \text { hiee }\end{array}\right\}$ bind-en
Preterit.
Sing. 1. Ic
$\left.\begin{array}{ll}\text { 2. } & \text { ¿ū } \\ \text { 3. } & \text { hē }\end{array}\right\}$ bund-e

Preterit. Preterit
$\left.\begin{array}{rl}\text { Plur. } 1 & \text { wē } \\ 2 . & \text { gē } \\ 3 & \text { hie }\end{array}\right\}$ bund-on

Imperative. Infinitive
Sing. 2 bind
Plur. 1. bind-an
2. bind-ar
bind-an
Gerund. to bind-anne (-emne)

Plur. 1
$\left.\begin{array}{ll}1 & \text { wē } \\ 2 . & \text { gē } \\ 3 . & \text { hīe }\end{array}\right\}$ bund-en

Present Participle. bind-ende

Past Participle. gebund-en

## 112.

Vocabulary.
đæt gefeoht, fight, battle.
sēo geręcednes, narration [ręccan].
むæt gesceap, creation [scieppan].
sēo hęrgung (§ 39, (3)), harrying, plundering [hergian].
sē medu (medo) (§ 51), mead seèo meole, milk
see middangeard, world [middleyard].
sē munuc, monk [monachus].
sēo mȳre, mare [mearh]
hē s̄̄̈de, he said.
hīe sǣđon, they said
sēo spēd, riches [speed].
spēdig, rich, prosperous [speedy].
sēo tīd, time [tide].
unspēdig, poor.
sē westanwind, west-wind.
むæt wīn, wine.

| ārīsan, | ārās, | ārison, | ārisen, | to arise. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bīdan, | bād, | bidon, | gebiden, | toremain, expect <br> (with gen ) |

drēogan, ${ }^{1}$ drēag, drugon, gedrogen, to endure, suffer.
drincan, drqne, druncon, gedruncen, to drink.
findan, fqna, fundon, gefunden, to find
geswīcan
geswāc, geswicon, geswicen, to cease, cease from (with gen.)
iernan (yrnan), qm, urnon, geurnen, to run.
onginnan, ongqun, ongunnon, ongunnen, to begin.
rīdan, rād, ridon, geriden, to ride.
singan, song, sungon, gesungen, to sing
wrītan, wrāt, writon, gewriten, to write
${ }^{1} C f$. the Scotch "to dree one's weird" $=$ to endure one's fate.
113.

Exercises.
I. 1. After ðissum wordum, sē munuc wrāt ealle $\partial \bar{a}$ gerę-
 Dęne ðæs gefeohtes geswicen. 3. Cædmon sǫng ǣrest be middangeardes gesceape. 4. Sē cyning ond dā rīcostan męn drincað mȳran meole, ond $\delta a ̄$ unspēdigan drincað medu. 5. Qnd hē ārās qud sē wind geswāc. 6. Hīe sǣ̉don ðæt hīe刘r westwindes biden. 7. Hwæt is nū mā ymbe $\partial \bar{a} s ~ ð i n g ~$ tō sprecanne? 8. Đā sęcgas ongunnon geswīcan ðǣre hęrgunga. 9. Đā bēag ðæt lọnd ðær ēastryhte, oððe sēo s $\bar{\nsim}$ in on $\begin{aligned} \\ \text { lọnd. 10. Đās lọnd belimpað tō ðææm Ęnglum. }\end{aligned}$ 11. Đēah ðà Dęne ealne dæg gefuhten, gīet hæfde Alfred cyning sige. 12. Qnd ðæs (afterwards) ymbe ānne mōnað gefeaht Alfred cyning wið ealne סone hęre 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 (Đæs ymbe twēgen dagas), the plundering ceased. 4. The king said that he fought against all the army (hęre). 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, $\overline{\boldsymbol{\infty}}$, $\mathbf{o}$.
The present stem ends in $\mathbf{l}, \mathbf{r}$, or $\mathbf{m}$, no consonant following :

| l: hel-an, hæl, | h $\overline{\dddot{P}}-\mathrm{on}$, | gehol-en, to conceal. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| r: ber-an, bær, | b $\bar{æ} \mathrm{r}-\mathrm{on}$, | gebor-en, to bear. |

The two following verbs are slightly irregular:
$\mathrm{m}:\left\{\begin{array}{lll}\text { nim-an, nōm (nam) }, & \text { nōm-on(nām-on), } & \text { genum-en, to take } \\ \text { cum-an, } \mathrm{c}(\mathrm{w}) \overline{\mathrm{o} m}, & \mathrm{c}(\mathbf{w}) \overline{\mathrm{o} m} \mathrm{~m}-\mathrm{on}, & \text { gecum-en, to come. }\end{array}\right.$
115. Class V: The "Give" Conjugation.

Succession of Vowels: e (ie), æ, $\overline{\boldsymbol{x}}$, e.
The present stem ends in a single consonant, never a liquid or nasal:
met-an, mæt, m̄̄ton, gemet-en, to measure, mete gief-an, geaf, gēaf-on, gegief-en, to give

Note 1. - The palatal consonants, $\mathbf{g}, \mathbf{c}$, and sc, convert a following e into ie, æ into ea, and $\bar{æ}$ into ēa Hence giefan (<* ${ }^{\text {* }}$ gefan), geaf ( $<^{*}$ gæf), gēafon ( $<^{*}$ gǣfon), 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, bǣ-on, gebed-en, to ask for [bid]
licgan, læg, læ̈g-on, geleg en, to lie, extend.
sittan, sæt, sæ̈t-on, geset-en, to sit.

The original e reappears in the participial stems. It was changed to $\boldsymbol{i}$ 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 j followed.

## 116. Class VI: The "Shake" Conjugation.

Succession of Vowels: a, 厄̄, 厄̄, 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.


(1) hāt-an, hēt, hēt-on, gehāt-en, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { to call, name, } \\ \text { command. }\end{array}\right.$ l̄̄̄t-an, lēt, lēt-on, gel̄̄̄t-en, to let.
(2) feall-an, fēoll, fēoll-on, gefeall-en, to fall. heald-an, hēold, hēold-on, geheald-en, to hold. hēaw-an, hēow, hēow-on, gehēaw-en, to hew. grōw-an, grēow, grēow-on, gegrōw-en, to grow.

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 $+\mathbf{e}(c f$. Gk $\lambda \epsilon \in-\lambda o \iota \pi a$ and Lat. dë-di). Contraction then took place between the syllabic prefix and the root, the fusion resulting in $\overline{\text { e }}$ or $\overline{\text { eno : }}$ : the-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

I. đēon (<*̛̄̄̄han), đāh, đig-on, | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { geđig-en } \\ \text { geđung-en }\end{array}\right\}$, |
| :--- | to thrive.

II. tēon (<*tēohan), tēah, tug-on, getog-en, to draw, go
[tug].
V. sēon (<*sehwan), seah, sāw-on, gesew-en, to see.
VI. slēan (<*slahan), slōh, slōg-on, geslæg-en, to slay.
VII. fōn (<*fōhan), fēng, fēng-on, gefong-en, to seize
[fang].
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.
sēo モ̄ht, property, possession ${ }^{\text {on }}$ gehwæむre hqnd, on both [āgan].
aweg, away [on weg].
sēo fierd, English army [faran]. sē hęre, Danish army [hęrgian]. sēo sprēe, speech, language.


## 121.

Exercises.
 (one) sprēce. 2. Qnd hē cwæð: " Đis is an folc, ond ealle hīe sprecà̀ āne sprǣ̈ce." 3. On sumum stōwum wīngeardas grōwað. 4. Hē hēt dā nǣ̈dran ofslēan. 5. Đā Engle ābrǣcon ðone longan weall, ond sige nōmon. 6. Qnd ðæt sād grēow qud wēox. 7. Ic ne geseah خone mon sē ऐe 犭æs cnapan adesan stæl. 8. Hē wæs swȳðe spēdig man on $ð \overline{\nexists m}$ $\overline{\nexists h t u m ~ ð e ~ h i e r a ~ s p e ̄ d a ~ o n ~}{ }^{3}$ bēoð, خæt is, on wildrum. 9. Qnd ðæ̈r wearð (was) micel wælsliht on gehwæðre họnd. 10. Qnd æfter Xissum gefeohte, cōm Ælfred cyning mid his fierde, ond gefeaht wið ealne סone hęre, ond sige nōm. 11. Đēos burg hātte Æscesdūn (Ashdown). 12. Đ̄̄re cwēne līc læg
 lȳtel. 14. Qnd ðæs ðrēotīene dagas Ææred tō rīce fēng.
II. 1. The men stood in the ships and fought against the Danes. 2. Before the thanes came, the king rode away.

[^31]3 They said (s״̄̃don) 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 dictāre and breviāre came into O.E., they came as weak verbs, dihtian and brēfian.

## 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 sęcgan, 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 $\mathbf{i}$-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 $\mathbf{m m}$, $\mathbf{n n}$, ss, bb, cg (=gg), add -ede for the preterit, and -ed for the past participle, the double consonant being always made single :
ri: nęri-an, nęr-ede, genęr-ed, to save.
mm : fręmm-an, fręm-ede, gefręm-ed, to perform [frame].
nn: ذęnn-an, ذęn-ede, geđ̨ęn-ed, to 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. - Leqcgan, to lay, is the only one of these verbs that syncopates the e: lęcgan, lęgde (lēde), gelęgd (gelēd), instead of lęgede, gelęged.

Preterit and Past Participle in $-d e$ and $-\theta d$.
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 :
d $\bar{æ} 1-\mathrm{an}, \quad$ d $\bar{æ} 1-\mathrm{de}, \quad$ ged $\bar{æ} 1-\mathrm{ed}, \quad$ to deal out, divide [d $\bar{æ} 1]$.
dēm-an, dēm-de, gedēm-ed, to judge [dōm].
grēt-an, grēt-te, gegrēt-ed, to greet.
hīer-an, hīer-de, gehīer-ed, to hear

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: gegrett-ed $>$ *gegrët-d $>$ gegrēt $(\mathrm{t})$; gelæd-ed $>$ gelळd(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 $\mathbf{m m}, \mathbf{n n}, \mathbf{s s}, \mathbf{b b}$, and $\mathbf{c g}$ (§ 125):
sęnd-an, sęnd-e, gesęnd-ed, to send.
sętt-an, sęt-te, gesęt-ed, to set [sittan].
sigl-an, sigl-de, gesigl-ed, to sail.
spęnd-an, spęnd-e, gespęnd-ed, to spend.
trędd-an, tręd-de, getręd-ed, to tread
Note. - The participles frequently undergo syncope and contraction: gesęnded $>$ gesęnd; gesęted $>$ gesęt(t); gespęnded $>$ gespęnd; getręded $>$ getręd $(\mathrm{d})$

## 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 influ－ ence of a preceding voiceless consonant（§ 9，Note）， －ed is generally unvoiced to－te，and－a to－t．The most important of these verbs are as follows：

| bring－an， byc－gan， | brōh－te， boh－te， | gebrōh－t， <br> geboh－t， | to bring． to buy． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sēc－an， | sōh－te， | gesōh－t， | to seek． |
| sell－an， | seal－de， | geseal－d， | to give，sell． |
| $\overline{\text { enc－an，}}$ | tæh－te， | getæh－t， | to teach． |
| tęll－an， | teal－de， | geteal－d， | to count［tell］． |
| せęnc－an， | ¢ōh－te， | geđōh－t， | to think． |
| あync－an， | đūh－te， | geđ̌ū－t， | to seem［methinks］． |
| wyrc－an， | worh－te， | geworh－t， | to work |

Note．－Such of these verbs as have stems in cor $\boldsymbol{g}$ are frequently written with an inserted e：bycgean，sēcean，tæeean，etc．This e indicates that $\mathbf{c}$ and $\mathbf{g}$ 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： $\boldsymbol{t \overline { æ }} \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{e})$ an $>$ to teach； $\mathbf{r} \bar{æ} \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{e})$ an $>$ to reach； $\boldsymbol{s t r e ̨ c c}(\mathbf{e})$ an $>$ to stretch．Sēc（e）an gives beseech as well as seek See § 8.

## Conjugation of Class I．

129．Paradigms of nęrian，to save；fręmman，to per－ form；dæ्叩lan，to divide：

Indicative．
Present．
Sing．1．Ic nęrie
fręmme dǣle

3．hē nęreð
fręmest dālst
fręme ð d̄̄1̌
Plur．1．wē
2．gè nęriás
frẹmmar dǣlað
3．hīe

Preterit.

Sing 1. Ic nęrede
2. $\delta \mathrm{u}$ nęredest
3. hē nęrede

Plur. 1. wē $\left.\begin{array}{ll}2 & \text { gē } \\ 3 . & \text { hīe }\end{array}\right\}$ nęredon fręmedon $\quad$ dǣldon
fręmede
fręmedest
fręmede
dǣlde dǣldest dǣlde

Subjunctive.
Sing. 1. Ic
2. $\gamma \bar{u}$
3. hē

Present.

1. wē
2. gē
3. hie

Sing 1 Ic
2. 㹡 nęrede fręmede d $\begin{gathered}\text { lde }\end{gathered}$
3. hē

Plur. 1. wē
2. gē nęreden fręmeden dæ̈lden

3 hie
Imperative.
Sing. 2. nęre
Plur 1. nęrian
2. nęriað
fręme
d $\overline{\nexists l}$
fręmman
dǣlan
fręmmas
dǣlał

Infinitive.
nęrian
fręmman
dǣlan

Gerund.
tō nęrianne (-enne) tō fręmmanne (-enne) tō dǣlanne (-enne)

Present Participle.
nęriende fręmmende d̄̄lende

Past Participle.
genęred
gefręmed
gedǣled

Note．－The endings of the preterit present no difficulties；in the 2 d and 3 d singular present，however，the student will observe（ $\alpha$ ）that double consonants in the stem are made single：fręmest，fręmed （not＊fręmmest，＊fręmmeあ）；むęnest，סęneむ ；sętest（sętst），sęteठ （sętt）；fylst，fyld，from fyllan，to fill；（b）that syncope is the rule

 （ $<$ hiered）．Double consonants are also made single in the impera－ tive 2 d singular and in the past participle．Stems long by nature take no final－e in the imperative ：dळ̄І，hier，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－ōjan．Hence，the vowel of the stem was shielded from the influence of the $\mathbf{j}(=\mathbf{i})$ by the interposition of $\overline{\mathbf{o}}$ ．

## Conjugation of Class II．

131．Paradigm of lufian，to love：

## Indicative．

，Present．
Sing 1．Ic lufie
2．ऊū lufast
3．hē lufað
Plur．1．wē
2．gē $\}$ lufiað
3．hie

## Subjunctive．

Present．
Sing．1．Ic
2．㛚 3 ．hē $\}$ lufie
Plur．1．wē
2．gē \} lufien
3．hie

Preterit.
Sing 1 Ic lufode
2. ऊū lufodest
3. hē lufode

Plur. 1. wē
2. gē $\}$ lufedon (-odon)
3. hie

Preterit.
Sing. 1. Ic
$\left.\begin{array}{ll}2 . & \text { бū } \\ 3 & h e ̄\end{array}\right\}$ lufode
$\left.\begin{array}{rl}\text { Plur. 1. } & \text { wē } \\ 2 . & \text { gē } \\ \text { 3. } & \text { hiee }\end{array}\right\}$ lufeden (-oden)

Imperative.
Sing. 2 lufa
Plur. 1 lufian
2. lufiay

Infinitive.
lufian

## Gerund

tō lufianne (-enne)

Present Participle. lufiende

## Past Participle.

gelufod

Note. 1. - The -ie (-ien) occurring in the present must be pronounced as a dissyllable. The $y$-sound thus interposed between the $\mathbf{i}$ and $\mathbf{e}$ is frequently indicated by the letter $\mathbf{g}$ : lufie, or lufige; lufien, or lufigen. So also for ia: lufiad, or lufigaむ; 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 2 d and 3 d present indicative singular end in -ast and -ä, the imperative $2 d$ singular in -a:

| habb-an, | hæf-de | gehæf-d, | to have. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| libb-an, | lif-de | gelif-d, | to live. |
| sęcg-an | sǣ-e (sæg-de), | gesǣ (gesæg-d), | to say. |

## Conjugation of Class III.

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

## Indicative.

Present.

Sing. 1. Ic hæbbe

3. hē hæf' (hafað)
libbe
lifast
lifar
libbar
sęcgar
2. gē
3. hìe
habbar

Preterit.
Sing. 1. Ic hæfde
2. ðū hæfdest
3. hē hæfde

Plur. 1. wē
2. gē hæfdon
3. hie

## Subjunctive.

Sing. 1. Ic
2. 㹡

3 hē
Plur. 1. wē
2. gē hæbben
3. hie

Sing. 1. Ic
2. $\gamma \bar{u}$
3. hē
hæfde
Preterit.
lifde
sæ̈de

Plur. 1. wē
2. gē
3. hīe
hæfden
lifden
sǣden

## Imperative.

Sing. 2. hafa
Plur. 1. habban
2. habbar

Present.
hæbbe libbe sęcge
hæbbe libbe sęcge
s $\bar{æ} d e s t$
sæ̈de
sęcge

教

| lifde | $s \bar{æ} d e$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| lifdest | s $\bar{æ} d e s t$ |
| lifde | $s \overline{æ d e}$ |

lifdon sādon

Pas.
libben sęcgen
$\qquad$
sægst (sagast)
sægð (sagað)

## Infinitive.

habban libban sęcgan

## Gerund.

tō habbane (-enne) tō libbane (-enne) tō sęcganne (-enne)

## Present Participle.

hæbbende libbende sęcgende

Past Participle.
gehæfd
gelifd
gesǣ̄

## CHAPTER XXII.

Remaining Verbs; Verb-Phrases with habban, bēon, AND weorđan.

Anomalous Verbs. (See § 19.)
134. These are:

| bēon (wesan), | wæs, | w̄̄̄ron, | - | to be |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| willan, | wolde, | woldon, | ,- | to will, intend |
| dōn, | dyde, | dydon, | gedōn, | to do, cause |
| gān, | ēode, | ēodon, | gegān, | to go. |

Note. - In the original Indo-Germanic language, the first person of the present indicative singular ended in (1) $\overline{\mathbf{o}}$ or (2) $\mathrm{mi} \quad C f . \mathrm{Gk}$. $\lambda \dot{v}-\omega, \epsilon i-\mu i$, Lat $a m-\bar{o}, s u-m$ The Strong and Weak Conjugations of O E. are survivals of the ō-class. The four Anomalous Verbs mentioned above are the sole remains in O.E. of the mi-class. Note the surviving $\mathbf{m}$ in eom $I \mathrm{am}$, and dōm $I$ do (Northumbrian form). These mi-verbs are sometimes called non-Thematic to distinguish them from the Thematic or $\overline{0}$-verbs.

## Conjugation of Anomalous Verbs.

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

## Indicative.

Present.


## Subjunctive.

| Sing. 1. Ic | Present. |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2. $\delta \overline{\mathrm{u}}$ | sie | wille | do | gã |
| $3 \mathrm{hē}$ |  |  |  |  |
| Plur. 1. wē |  |  |  |  |
| 2. gē | sien | willen | don | gān |
| 3. hīe |  |  |  |  |

Note. - The preterit subjunctive of bēon is formed, of course, not from wæs, but from wāron. 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.
witan, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { wiste, } \\ \text { wisse, }\end{array}\right\}$ wiston, gewiten, to know [to wit, wot].
āgan, āhte, āhton, āgen (adj), to possess [owe].
cunnan, cūðe, cūðon, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { gecunnen, }\} \\ \text { cūð (adj), },\end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c}\text { to know, can } \text { [uncouth, } \\ \text { cunning]. }\end{array}\right.$


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 nōvi and oì $\delta a$, I know). Mn E. has gone further still: āhte and mōste, which had already suffered the loss of their old preterits ( $\overline{\mathbf{a} h}, \mathbf{m o} \mathrm{t}$ ), 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.

| Sing. 1 Ic wāt | āh | cqn (can) | dear | sceal | mæg | mōt |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2.ū wāst | āhst | çnst(canst) | dearst | scealt | meaht | mōst |
| 3. hē wāt | $\bar{a} h$ | cQn (can) | dear | sceal | mæg | mōt |

Plur. 1. wē
$\left.\begin{array}{l}2 \text { gē } \\ \text { 3. hīe }\end{array}\right\}$ witon āgon cunnon durron sculon magon mōton

## Subjunctive.

Sing. 1. Ic
Present
$\left.\begin{array}{l}2 \text { 文ū } \\ \text { 3. hē }\end{array}\right\}$ wite āge cunne durre scule(scyle) mæge mōte
Plur.1. wē
2 gē witen āgen cunnen durren sculen(scylen) mægen mōten 3. hie

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 2 d and 3 d ，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 com－ pulsion（＝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 đā earce，The Lord in－ structed Moses how he ought to bear the ark；产lc mann sceal be his andgietes mæ̈ðe ．．．sprecan むæt he spricさ，and dōn むæt ゆæt hē dē山，Every man must，according to the measure of his intel－ ligence，speak what he speaks，and do what he does．Its next most frequent use is to express（2）custom，the transition from the obliga－ tory to the customary being an easy one：Sē byrdesta sceall gyldan fïftȳne mearð̈es 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 むæs synfullan dēad，ac ic wille dæt 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 s戸đe đæt hē at sumum cirre wolde fan－ dian hū longe đæt land norðryhte læ̈æe，He said that he intended， at some time，to investigate how far that land extended northward．

## Verb－Phrases with habban，bēon（wesan），and weorðan．

> 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． $\begin{aligned} & \text { ū hæfst gedrifen }\end{aligned}$
3．hē hæfð gedrifen

Past Perfect．
Sing．1．Ic hæfde gedrifen
2 ऊū hæfdest gedrifen
3．hē hæfde gedrifen

Present Perfect
Plur


Past Perfect.
$\left.\begin{array}{rl}\text { Plur. 1. } & \text { wē } \\ 2 & \text { gē } \\ \text { 3. } & \text { hīe }\end{array}\right\}$ hæfdon gedrifen

The past participle is not usually inflected to agree with the direct object: Norð̈ymbre qna Eastengle hæfdon Alfrede cyninge ādas geseald (not gesealde, §82), The Northumbrians and East Anglians had given king Alfred oaths; qnd hæfdon miclne dळ̄l đāra 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 ơ あæt 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 pā hiera stemn gesętenne, but they had already served out (sat out) their military term.
139. If the verb is intransitive, and denotes a change of condition, a departure or arrival, bēon (wesan) usually replaces habban. The past participle, in such cases, partakes of the nature of an adjective, and generally agrees with the subject: Mīne welan pe ic io hæfde syndon ealle gewitene qnd gedrorene, $M y$ possessions which I once had are all departed and fallen away, wæ̈ron pā męn uppe on loqnde of āgāne, the men had gone up ashore; qnd pā ōpre wळَron hungre ācwolen, and the
others had perished of hunger; qnd êac sè micla hêre wæs $p \bar{a} p \overline{\not x} r$ tō 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 bēon (wesan). The participle remains uninflected: qnd hīe alle on ठone cyning wārun feohtende, and they all were fighting against the king; Symle hē biơ lōciende, nē slēpđ̃ hē nल̄fre, 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: wळ्æron pā ealle pā 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 bēon (wesan) or weorđan with a past participle. The participle agrees regularly with the subject: hīe wळ्æron benumene ळgđer ge pæs cēapes ge pæs cornes, they were deprived both of the cattle and the corn; hī bēơ āblende mid |  |
| :---: |
| æ̈m |
| piostrum heora scylda, they are blinded with the | darkness of their sins; and sē wælhrēowa Domiciānus on đām ylcan gēare wearđ ācweald, and the murderous Domitian was killed in the same year; qnd 円pelwulf aldormon wearð ofslægen, and Athelwulf, alderman, was slain.

Note 1. - To express agency, Mn E. employs by, rarely of; M.E. of, rarely by; O.E. froqm (fram), rarely of: Sē đe Godes bebodu
ne gecn戸̈æむ，ne bið hē oncnāwen from Gode，He who does not recognize God＇s commands，will not be recognized by God；Betwux pळ̄m wearð́ ofslagen Eadwine ．．．fram Brytta cyninge，Mean－ while，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 $H e$ 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．Vócabulary．
đ̄̄̄ Beormas，Permians．
đā Dęniscan，the Danish（men）， Danes．
đā Finnas，Fins．
むæt gewald，control［wealdan］． sēo sल，sea．
geflieman，gefliemde，gefliemed，to put to fight gestaðelian，gestaðelode， gewissian，gewissode， wīcian，wīcode，gewīcod，to dwell［wic＝village］．
143.

Exercises．
I．1．Qnd $\begin{array}{r} \\ \nsim r \\ \text { wæs micel wæl geslægen on gehwæpre }\end{array}$ họnd，ond Æpelwulf ealdormọn wearp ofslægen；ond pā Dęniscan āhton wælstōwe gewald．2．Qnd pæs ymb ānne mōnap gefeaht Ælfred cyning wip ealne pone hęre，ond hine gefliemde．3．Hē sǣde pēah pæt pæt land sīe swīpe lang norp pọnan． 4 pā Beormas hæfdon swīpe wel gebūd（§ 126， Note 2）hiera land．5．Ohthęre sǣ̄de pæt sēo scīr hātte （§ 117，Note 2）Hālgoland，pe hē on（§ 94，（5））būde．6．pā Finnas wīcedon be pǣre s̄̄．7．Dryhten，ælmihtiga（§ 78， Note）God，Wyrhta and Wealdend ealra gesceafta，ic bidde
ðē for đīnre miclan mildheortnesse ðæt $\partial \bar{u}$ mē gewissie tō dīnum willan; and gestaঠela mīn mōd tō dīnum willan and tō mīnre sāwle ðearfe. 8. pā sceolde hē $\begin{array}{r}\nexists r \\ \text { bīdan ryht- }\end{array}$ norpanwindes, for $犭 \bar{æ} m ~ p æ t ~ l a n d ~ b e ̄ a g ~ p \overline{æ r r ~ s u ̄ ð r y h t e, ~ o p p e ~ s e ̄ o ~}$
 bętre, gif ēow swā ðyncð, خæt wē ēac ðās bēc on ðæt ge $\begin{gathered}\text { ēode }\end{gathered}$ węnden 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? $\quad 3$. The men said that the shire which they lived in was called Halgoland. 4. All things were made (wyrcan) by God. $\quad 5$. 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 cuōm ${ }^{1}$ sē hęre tō Rēadingum on Westseaxe, 2 ond pæs ymb iii niht ridon ii eorlas ūp. pā gemētte hīe

[^32]1 Æpelwulf aldorman ${ }^{2}$ on Englafelda, ond him pār wip ge2 feaht, ond sige nam. pæs ymb iiii niht Apered cyning 3 ond Alfred his brōpur ${ }^{3}$ p̄̄̄r micle fierd tō Rēadingum 4 gelǣddon, ônd wip pone hęre gefuhton; ond p̄̄r wæs 5 micel wæl geslægen on gehwæpre họnd, ond Æpelwulf 6 aldormǫn wearp ofslægen; qud pā Dęniscan āhton wæl${ }^{7}$ stōwe gewald.
8 Qnd pæs ymb iiii niht gefeaht Æpered cyning ond 9 Ælfred his brōpur wip alne ${ }^{4}$ pone hęre on Æscesdūne. 10 Qnd hīe wǣrun ${ }^{5}$ on tw̄̄m gefylcum: on ōprum wæs 11 Bāchsęcg ônd Halfdęne pā h̄̄pnan cyningas, ond on 12 ōprum wāron pā eorlas Qnd pā gefeaht sē cyning 13 Æpered wip pāra cyninga getruman, ond p̄̄r wearp sē 14 cyning Bāgsęcg ofslægen; ond Alfred his brōpur wip 15 pāra eorla getruman, ond p̄̄er wearp Sidroc eorl ofslægen 16 sē alda, ${ }^{6}$ ond Sidroc eorl sē gioncga, ${ }^{7}$ ond $\overline{\text { Onsbearn eorl, }}$ 17 ǫnd Frǣna eorl, ond Hareld eorl; ond pā hęrgas ${ }^{8}$ bēgen 18 gefliemde, ond fela pūsenda ofslægenra, ond onfeohtende 19 wāron op niht.
20 Qnd pæs ymb xiiii niht gefeaht Æepered cyning ond 21 Alfred his brōtur wip pone hęre æt Basengum, ond p̄̄r 22 pā Dęniscan sige nāmon.
23 Qnd pæs ymb ii mōnap gefeaht Æpered cyning ond 24 Ælfred his brōpur wip pone hęre æt Męretūne, ond hīe ${ }_{25}$ wǣrrun on tuǣm ${ }^{9}$ gefylcium, ọnd hīe būtū gefliemdon, ond 26 lọnge on dæg sige āhton; ond p̄̄ær wearp micel wælsliht 27 on gehwæpere họnd; ọnd pā Dęniscan āhton wælstōwe

[^33]1 gewald; ond p̄̄̈r wearp Hēahmund bisceop ofslægen, 2 oqnd fela gōdra mọnna. Qnd æfter pissum gefeohte cuōm ${ }^{1}$ 3 micel sumorlida.
4 Qnd pæs ofer Eastron gefōr Apered cyning; qud hē 5 rīcsode v gēar; ơnd his līe līp æt Wīnburnan.
 r rīce. Qnd pæs ymb ānne mōnap gefeaht Ælfred cyning 8 wip alne ${ }^{4}$ pone hęre lȳtle werede ${ }^{10}$ æt Wiltūne, ônd hine 9 lǫnge on dæg gefiiemde, ọnd pā Dęniscan āhton wælstōwe ${ }_{10}$ gewald.
11 Qnd pæs gēares wurdon viiii folcgefeoht gefohten wip 12 pone hęre on pȳ cynerīce be sūpan Tęmese, būtan pām pe 13 him Ælfred pæs cyninges brōpur ond annlīpig aldormonn ${ }^{2}$ ond 14 cyninges pegnas oft rāde onridon pe mọn nā ne rīmde; 15 oqnd pæs geeares wārun ${ }^{5}$ ofslægene viiii eorlas ơnd ān cyning. ${ }_{16}$ Qnd py gēare nāmon Westseaxe frip wip pone herre.

Consult Glossary and Paradigms under Forms given below.
No note is made of such variants as $\mathbf{y}(\overline{\mathbf{y}})$ or $\mathbf{i}(\overline{\mathbf{i}})$ for $\mathbf{i e}(\overline{\mathbf{i}})$ See Glossary, under ie (ie); occurrences, also, of and for qnd, land for lqna, are found on almost every page of Early West Saxon. Such words should be sought for under the more common forms, qud, lqna.

| $1=\mathrm{cwo} \mathrm{m}$ | ${ }^{4}=$ ealne | $8=$ hęras |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $2=$ ealdorm@n. | ${ }^{5}=\mathrm{w} \bar{æ} \mathrm{r}$ \% . | $9=t w \bar{æ} \mathrm{~m}$ |
| $3=$ brōpor. | ${ }^{6}=$ 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 pām pe, etc., besides which, Alfred . . made raids against them (him), which were not counted. See §70, Note.

1 Dryhten, ælmihtiga God, Wyrhta and Wealdend ealra 2 gesceafta, ic bidde ðē for ðīnre miclan mildheortnesse,
 4 mægðhāde, and for Sancti Michaeles gehīersumnesse, and 5 for ealra đīnra hālgena lufan and hiera earnungum, ðæt 6 خū mē gewissie bęt ðonne ic āworhte tō $\partial \bar{e}$; and gewissa $\tau_{\text {mē tō }}$ ðīnum willan, and tō mīnre sāwle ðearfe, bęt đonne $s$ ic self cunne; and gestaðela mīn mōd to dīnum willan and 9 tō mīnre sāwle ðearfe; and gestranga mē wið ðæs dēofles 10 costnungum; and āfierr fram mē ðā fūlan gālnesse and $11 \bar{æ} l c e ~ u n r i h t w i ̄ s n e s s e ; ~ a n d ~ g e s c i e l d ~ m e ̄ ~ w i ð ~ m i ̄ n u m ~ w i ð e r-~$ 12 winnum, gesewenlīcum and ungesewenlīcum; and t̄̄厄c mē 13 dīnne willan tō wyrceanne; ðæt ic mæge ðē inweardlīce 14 lufian töforan ealluın ðingum, mid clǣnum geðance and
 16 and mīn Ālīesend, mīn Fultum, mīn Frōfor, mīn Trēow-
 $18 \overline{\mathrm{a}} \overline{\mathrm{a}} \overline{\mathrm{a}}$, tō worulde būtan $\bar{æ} g h w i l c u m$ ęnde. 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. Siè đ'ē 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（wīds $\overline{\boldsymbol{e}}$ ），passed through the Cattegat，and anchored at the Danish port of Haddeby（æt Hǣpum），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 Drau－ sensea ］

## Ohthere＇s First Voyage．

1 Ōhthęre sāde his hlāforde，Ælfrede cyninge，pæt hē 2 ealra Norðmǫnna norpmest būde．Hē cwæð pæt hē būde 3 on $p \overline{\not x} m$ lande norpweardum wip pā Wests $\bar{x}$ ．Hē s̄̄xde 4 pēah pæt pæt land sie swīpe lang norp ponan；ac hit is 5 eal wēste，būton on fēawum stōwun styccemālum wīciał ${ }_{6}$ Finnas，on huntode on wintra，ond on sumera on fiscape
 8 fandian hū lọnge pæt laud norpryhte lāge，oppe hwæðer
 10 norpryhte be p̄̄m lande：lēt him ealne weg pæt wēste 11 land on $犭 æ t$ stēorbord，q̧nd pā wīds̄̄̄ on 犭æt bæcbord prīe 12 dagas．pā wæs hē swā feor norb swā pā hwælhuntan ${ }_{13}$ firrest farap．pā fōr hē pā giet norpryhte swā feor swā 14 hē meahte on pēm ōprum prīm dagum gesiglan．pā bēag ${ }_{15}$ pæt land pēr éastryhte，oppe sēo s $\vec{x}$ in on 犭æt lọnd，hē 16 nysse hwæðer，būton hē wisse ðæt hē $犭 \overline{\dddot{r} r}$ bād westan－ 17 windes ond hwōn norpan，ond siglde $\partial \bar{a}$ ēast be lande 18 swā swā hē meahte on fēower dagum gesiglan．pā

 21 nysse hwæper．pā siglde hē ponan süðryhte be lande

1 swā swā hē męhte ${ }^{1}$ on fīf dagum gesiglan．Đā læg p̄̄̃ $2 \bar{a} n$ micel ēa ūp in on pæt land．pā cirdon hiee ūp in on 3 ðā ēa，for p $\overline{æ>m}$ hīe ne dorston forp bī pळ̄re ēa siglan for 4 unfripe ；for p冎m $犭 æ t$ land wæs eall gebūn on ōpre healfe 5 p̄̄re ēas．Ne mētte hē $\overline{\not r r}$ nān gebūn land，sippan hē 6 from his āgnum hām fōr；ac him wæs ealne weg wēste $r$ land on pæt stēorbord，būtan fiscerum ond fugelerum ond 8 huntum，ond pæt w̄̄æron eall Finnas；ond him wæs $\bar{a}$ 9 wīds戸̄ on 犭æt bæcbord pā Beormas hæfdon swīpe wel 10 gebūd hira land：ac hīe ne dorston p厄̄r on cuman．Ac 11 pāra Terfinna land wæs eal wēste，būton $\begin{array}{r}\text { ǣr } \\ h u n t a n\end{array}$ 12 gewīcodon，oppe fisceras，oppe fugeleras．
13 Fela spella him s̄̄don pā Beormas $\bar{æ} g p e r ~ g e ~ o f ~ h i e r a ~$ 14 āgnum lande ge of p̄̄m landum pe ymb hīe ūtan w $\bar{æ} r o n$ ； 15 ac hē nyste hwæt pæs sōpes wæs，for pēm hē hit self ne 16 geseah．pā Finnas，him pūhte，ond pā Beormas sprǣcon $1 r$ nēah ān gepēode．Swīpost hē fōr ðider，tō ēacan pæs 18 landes scēawunge，for p̄̄m horshwælum，for 洰m hīe 19 habbał̀ swīpe æpele bān on hiora ${ }^{2}$ tōpum－pā tē $h i \bar{e}$ brōh－ 20 ton sume p $\overline{\nexists m}$ cyninge－ond hiora hȳd bið swīðe gōd tō 21 sciprāpum．Sē hwæl bið micle l̄̄ssa ponne ōðre hwalas： 22 ne bið hē lęngra donne syfan ${ }^{3}$ ęlna lang；ac on his āgnum 23 lande is sē bętsta hwælhuntar：pā bēoð eahta and fēo－ 24 wertiges êlna lange，and pā mǣstan fīftiges ęlna lange； 25 pāra hē s̄̄̄de pæt hē syxa sum ofslōge syxtig on twām 26 dagum．

6．frọm his āgnum hām An adverbial dative singular with－ out an inflectional ending is found with hām，dæg，morgen，and $\overline{\boldsymbol{\dddot { P }}} \mathrm{fen}$ ．

8．Qnd bæt wæ̈ron See § 40，Note 3.
15 hwæt pæs sōpes wæs．Sweet errs in explaining sōpes as attracted into the genitive by pæs It is not a predicate adjective， but a partitive genitive after hwæt．

25．syxa sum．See § 91，Note 2.

1 Hē wæs swȳðe spēdig man on p̄̄m $\overline{\not x h} t u m$ pe heora ${ }^{2}$ 2 spēda on bēoð，pæt is，on wildrum．Hē hæfde pā gȳt，ðā 3 hē pone cyningc ${ }^{5}$ sōhte，tamra dēora unbebohtra syx hund． ${ }_{4}$ pā dēor hī hātað＇hrānas＇；pāra w̄̄æron syx stælhrānas； 5 ðā bēoð $s w y \bar{\gamma} ð e ~ d \bar{y} r e ~ m i d$ Finnum，for $犭 \bar{æ} m ~ h \bar{y}$ fōð pā 6 wildan hrānas mid．Hē wæs mid pǣ̈m fyrstum mannum ₹ on p̄̄æm lande：næfde hē pēah mā סonne twēntig hrȳðera， 8 and twēntig scēapa，and twēntig swȳna；and pæt lȳtle 9 pæt hē ęrede，hē ęrede mid horsan．${ }^{4}$ Ac hyra ār is mǣst 10 on p̄̄m gafole pe ðā Finnas him gyldað．〕æt gafol bið 11 on dēora fellum，and on fugela feðerum，and hwales bāne， 12 and on p̄̄m sciprāpum pe bēoð of hwæles hȳde geworht 13 and of sēoles． $\bar{A}$ ghwilc gylt be hys gebyrdum．Sē byrd－ 14 esta sceall gyldan fīftȳne mearðes fell，and fīf hrānes， 15 and ān beren fel，and tȳn ambra feðra，and berenne kyr－ 16 tel oððe yterenne，and twēgen sciprāpas； $\bar{\Phi} g p e r ~ s \bar{y}$ syxtig 17 ęlna lang，ōper sȳ of hwæles hȳde geworht，ōper of sīoles．${ }^{6}$ 18 Hē s̄̄̄de ðæt Norðmanna land wǣre swȳpe lang and
 $20 \mathrm{~m} æ \mathrm{~g}$ ，pæt līð wið $\gamma \overline{\mathrm{a}}$ s $\bar{æ}$ ；and pæt is pēah on sumum 21 stōwum swȳðe clūdig；and licgað wilde mōras wið ēastan 22 and wið ūpp on emnlange $p \overline{\nexists m}$ bȳnum lande．• On pēm 23 mōrum eardiað Finnas．And pæt bȳne land is ēaste－ 24 weard brādost，and symle swā norðor swā smælre．Ēaste－ 25 węrd ${ }^{7}$ hit mæg bīon ${ }^{8}$ syxtig mīla brād，oppe hwēne brēdre； 26 and middeweard prītig oððe brādre；and norðeweard hē $2 \tau$ cwæ丈＇，pळ̄r hit smalost w̄̄æe，pæt hit mihte bēon prēora 28 mīla brād tō p̄̄m mōre；and sē mōr syð̌pan，${ }^{9}$ on sumum

2．on bēoठ＇．See § 94，（5）．
19．Eal pæt his man．Pronominal genitives are not always pos－ sessive 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）．

1 stōwum, swā brād swā man mæg on twām wucum ofer2 fēran; and on sumum stōwưn swā brād swā man mæg 3 on syx dagum oferfēran.
4 Đonne is tōemnes p̄̄m lande sūðeweardum, on ōðre 5 healfe pæs mōres, Swēoland, op pæt land norðeweard; 6 and tōemnes pēm lande norðeweardum, Cwēna land. pā〒 Cwēnas hęrgiað hwīlum on ðā Norðmęn ofer ðone mōr, 8 hwīlum pā Norðmęn on lıȳ. And p̄̄er sint swīðe micle 9 męras fersce geond pā mōras; and berað pā Cwēnas hyra 10 scypu ofer land on $\partial \bar{a}$ męras, and panon hergià on $\partial \bar{a}$ ${ }_{11}$ Norðmęn; hy habbað swȳðe ly̆tle scypa and swȳðe 12 leohte.

| meahte, mihte. | ${ }^{4}=$ horsum | 7 = -weard. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $2=$ hiera. | $5=$ cyning. | $8=$ bēon. |
| ${ }^{3}=$ seofon. | ${ }^{6}=$ sēoles | 9 = siððan. |

## Ohthere's Second Voyage.

13 Ōhthęre s"̄æde pæt sīo ${ }^{1}$ scīr hātte Hālgoland, pe hē on 14 būde. Hē cwæð pæt nān man ne būde be norðan him. 15 ponne is ān port on süðeweardum pēm lande, pone man 16 hæ̈t Sciringeshēal. pyder hē cwæð pæt man ne mihte 17 geseglian on ānum mōnðe, gyf man on niht wīcode, and 18 ǣlce dæge hæfde ambyrne wind; and ealle $ð \bar{a}$ hwīle hē 19 sceal seglian be lande. And on pæt stēorbord him bið 20 ǣrest İraland, and ponne 犺 īgland pe synd betux İra21 lande and pissum lande. ponne is pis land, or hē cymð 22 tō Scirincgeshēale, and ealne weg on pæt 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, gōde, hālge, instead of hwatu, gōd, hālgu.

1 weg. Wið sūðan pone Sciringeshēal fylð swȳðe mycel 2 s $\bar{æ} \bar{u} p$ in on ðæt land; sēo is brādre ponne $\bar{\nexists} n i g$ man ofer 3 sēon mæge. And is Gotland on ōðre healfe ongēan, and 4 siððan Sillęnde. Sēo s $\bar{\nexists}$ lī̀ mænig ${ }^{2}$ hund mīla ūp in on 5 pæt land.
6 And of Sciringeshēale hē cwæð ðæt hē seglode on fīf 7 dagan ${ }^{3}$ tō p̄̄m porte pe mọn hæ̈æt æt H $\bar{æ} p u m$; sē stęnt 8 betuh Winedum, and Seaxum, and Angle, and hȳro in 9 on Dęne. Đā hē piderweard seglode fram Sciringes10 hēale, pā wæs him on pæt bæcbord Dęnamearc and on 11 pæt stēorbord wīds"्̄x prȳ dagas; and pā, twēgen dagas $\overline{\not r r}$ 12 hē tō Hǣpum cōme, him wæs on pæt stēorbord Gotland, 13 and Sillęnde, and īglanda fela. On p $\overline{\nexists m}$ landum eardo14 don Engle, $\bar{æ} r$ hī hider on land cōman. ${ }^{4}$ And hym wæs 15 斌 twēgen dagas on $犭 æ t$ bæcbord pā īgland pe in on 16 Dęnemearce hȳrað.

$$
{ }^{1}=\text { sēo } . \quad{ }^{2}=\text { mqnig } \quad{ }^{3}=\text { dagum } . \quad{ }^{4}=\text { cōmen } .
$$

## Wulfstan's Voyage.

17 Wulfstān sǣ̉de pæt hē gefōre of $\mathrm{H} \nsupseteq \searrow u m$, pæt hē wǣre 18 on Trūsō on syfan dagum and nihtum, pæt pæt scip wæs 19 ealne weg yrnende under segle. Weonoðland him wæs

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

14-15. wæs . . . pā 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.

1 on stēorbord, and on bæcbord him wæs Langaland, and 2 Lल̄̄land, and Falster, and Scōnēg; and pās land eall 3 hȳrað tō Dęnemearcan. And ponne Burgenda land wæs 4 ūs on bæcbord, and pā habbað him sylfe ${ }^{1}$ cyning. ponne 5 æfter Burgenda lande waxron ūs pās land, pā synd hātene $6 \overline{\nexists r e s t ~ B l e ̄ c i n g a-e ̄ g, ~ a n d ~ M e ̄ o r e, ~ a n d ~ E ̄ o w l a n d, ~ a n d ~ G o t l a n d ~}$ 7 on bæcbord; and pās land hȳrað tō Swēom. And Weo8 nodland,wæs ūs ealne weg on stēorbord of Wīslemūðan.
9 Sēo Wīsle is swȳðe mycel ēa, and hīo ${ }^{2}$ tōlī̀ Wītland and 10 Weonodland; and pæt Wītland belimper tō Estum ; and 11 sēo Wīsle lī̀ ūt of Weonodlande, and līð in Estmęre; 12 and sē Estmęre is hūru fīftēne ${ }^{3}$ mīla brād. ponne cymeð ${ }^{13}$ Ilfing ēastan in Estmęre of $\begin{gathered} \\ \nrightarrow m\end{gathered}$ męre, ðe Trūsō standeð 14 in stæðe; and cumað ūt samod in Estmęre, Ilfing ēastan 15 of Estlande, and Wīsle sūðan of Winodlande. And 16 ponne benimð Wīsle Ilfing hire naman, and ligeð of pexm
 18 mu йة.
19 pæt Estland is swȳðe mycel, and p̄̄æ bið swỹðe manig 20 burh, and on $\bar{\nsim} l c e r e ~ b y r i g ~ b i \delta ~ c y n i n g . ~ A n d ~ p \overline{æ r ~ b i ð ~}$ 21 swy ỳe mycel hunig, and fiscnaŕ; and sē cyning and pā 22 rīcostan męn drincał mȳran meolc, and pā unspēdigan 23 and pā pēowan drincað medo. ${ }^{4}$ p̄̄̄ bið swȳðe mycel 24 gewinn betwēonan him And ne bið ðǣr nǣnig ealo ${ }^{5}$ 25 gebrowen mid Estum, ac p戸̄r bið medo genōh. And pø̈r 26 is mid Estum סēaw, ponne p̄̄ær bið man dēad, pæt hē līð 27 inne unforbærned mid his māgum and frēondum mōnað, 28 ge hwīlum twēgen; and pā cyningas, and pā ōðre hēah29 ðungene męn, swā micle lęncg ${ }^{6}$ swā hī māran spēda 30 habbað, hwīlum healf gēar pæt hī bēoð unforbærned, and

[^34]1 licgað bufan eorðan on hyra hūsum. And ealle pā hwīle 2 pe pæt līc bið inne, p̄̄r sceal bēon gedrync and plega, 3 од ðone dæg pe hī hine forbærnað. Donne py ylcan dæge ${ }^{4}$ pe hī hine tō p̄̄m āde beran wyllað̆, ponne tōd $\bar{\propto} l a ð ~ h i ̄ ~$ 5 his feoh, pæt p $\overline{\not x} r$ tō lāfe bið æfter $p \overline{\not x m}$ gedrynce and $p \overline{\not x} m$ ${ }^{6}$ plegan, on fîf ờðe syx, hwȳlum on mā, swā swā pæes fēos $\tau$ andēfn bið. Ālęcgà hit ðonne forhwæga on ānre mīle 8 pone mēstan dēl fram p̄̄̄m tūne, ponne ōðerne, ðonne 9 pone priddan, op pe hyt eall ālēd bið on pāre ānre mīle; 10 and sceall bēon sē lǣsta d $\bar{x} l$ nȳhst $p \overline{e x m}$ tūne $\partial \mathrm{de}$ sē dēada 11 man on lī̀ ${ }^{\circ}$. Đonne sceolon ${ }^{7}$ bēon gesamnode ealle $\gamma \bar{a}$
 13 on fīf mīlum ờðe on syx mīlum fram pām fēo. ponne 14 ærnað̀ hy ealle tōweard p्̄खि fēo: ðonne cymeð sē man


 18 tūne pæt feoh geærneð. And ponne rīde $\overline{\text { æ̈lch }}$ hys weges $19 \mathrm{mid} \Varangle \overline{\mathrm{x}} \mathrm{m}$ fēo, and hyt mōtan ${ }^{8}$ habban eall; and for $\begin{aligned} \mathrm{y}\end{aligned}$ 20 pळ̄̄r bēờ pā swiftan hors ungefōge dy̆re. And ponne his ${ }^{21}$ gestrēon bēor pus eall āspęnded, ponne byrð man hine ūt, 22 and forbærneð mid his w̄̄pnum and hrægle ; and swīðost
2. sceal. See § 137, Note 2 (2).

7 Ālęcgá̛ hit Bosworth illustrates thus:

"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 hy forspęndað mid p̄̄m langan legere
2 pæs dēadan mannes inne, and pæs pe hy be p̄̄m wegum 3 ālęcgað, pe ðā fręmdan tō ærnað, and nimað. And pæt 4 is mid Estum pēaw pæt p̄̄ær sceal $\overline{æ>l c e s ~ g e ~ g e ̄ o d e s ~ m a n ~}$ 5 bēon forbærned; and gyf pār ${ }^{9}$ man ān bān findeð unfor6 bærned, hī hit sceolan ${ }^{7}$ miclum gebētan. And p̄̄r is mid $\tau$ Estum ān m̄̄gð pæt hī magon cyle gewyrcan ; and py 8 p̄̄r licgað pā dēadan męn swā lange, and ne fūliad, pæt 9 hy wyrcað̀ pone cyle him on. And pēah man āsętte 10 twēgen fätels full ealað oððe wæteres, hy gedōð pæt 11 ægper bið oferfroren, sam hit sy sumor sam winter.

| $1=$ selfe. | ${ }^{4}=$ medu. | $7=$ sculon. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $2=$ hēo. | $5=$ ealu | $8=$ mōton |
| $3=$ fīftiene | $6=$ lęng. | $9=$ d̄ær |

5-6. man . . . hī. Here the plural hī refers to the singular man. Cf p. 109, ll. 18-19, 戸̄lc . . 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 $\dot{\mathbf{\delta}}$ follows $\mathbf{t}$ ． The combination æ follows ad

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

## A．

$\overline{\mathbf{a}}$, 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亗戸м，after that，thereafter； æfter む戸m むe，after（conjunc－ tion）．
$\overline{\boldsymbol{æ}} \mathrm{ghwã}$（§ 77，Note），each，every． $\overline{\boldsymbol{æ} g h w i l c ~(§ ~ 77, ~ N o t e), ~ e a c h, ~ a n y ~}$ ægぜer（戸ghwæずer，āずer）（§77， Note），each，either；$\overline{\boldsymbol{\mp}}$ ger ．．． ōper ．．．ōper，either ．．．or ．．．or ；$\overline{\boldsymbol{x}} g$ ger ge ．．ge（§ 95， （2）），both ．．．and．
邓ht，f，property，possession．
$\overline{\boldsymbol{æ}} \mathrm{l} \mathrm{c}$（§77），each，every．
ælmihtig，almighty．
戸metta，m．，leisure．
モ̈nig（§ 77），any．
 fore（conjunction）．

戸̈resta（§ 96，（4）），first．
ærnan（§ 127），to ride，gallop ［iernan］．
Æscesdūn，f．，Ashdown（in Berk－ shire）
æt（§ 94，（1）），at．
æすele，noble，excellent．
æむeling，m．，a noble，prince．
\＃ठelwulfing，m．，son of Ethel－ wulf．
\＃\＃゙ered，m，Ethelred．
āfierran（§ 127），to remove［feor］．
āgan（§ 136），to own，possess， gain．
āgen，own［āgan］；dative singu－ lar＝āgnum．
āhton，see āgan．
ālęcgan（§ 125，Note），to lay down［licgan］．
ālēd，see ālęcgan．
Āliesend，m．，Redeemer［āliesan ＝to release，ransom］
ambor，m，measure，genitive plural＝ambra（§27，（4））．
ambyre，favorable．
ān（§ 89），one，an，$\alpha$ ．
andēfn，f．，proportion，amount．
Angel，n，Anglen（in Denmark）； dative singular $=$ Angle（§ 27， （4））．
ānlīpig，single，individual．
ār，f．，honor，property．
ārīsan（§ 102），to arise．
āsęttan（§ 127），to set，place．
āspęndan（§ 127），to spend，ex－ pend．
äd，m，oath．
äむer，see 戸्æむer．
aweg，away
āwyrcan（§ 128），to wor $\ddot{\text { en }}$ ，do， perform．

## B．

Bāchsęcg，m，Bagsac．
bæcbord，n．，larboard，left side of a ship．
bān，n．，bone．
Basengas，m．，plural，Basing（in Hantshire）
be（bī）（§ 94，（1）），by，about，near， along，according to；be norðan pळ̈m wēstenne（§ 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． bēon（§ 134），to be
Beormas，m，plural，Permians
beran（§ 114），to bear．
beren，of a bear．
bęt，see wel（§ 97，（2））．
bętsta，see gōd（§ 96，（3））．
betuh，（§ 94，（1）），between
betwēonan，（§ 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．
blī̀e，blithe，happy．
bōc（§ 68，（1），Note 1），f．，book．
bōcere，m．，scribe．
bona（bana），m．，murderer．
brād，broad．
brǣđra，see brād（§ 96，（1））．
bringan（§ 128），to bring．
brōhton，see bringan．
bröðor（brōすur）（§ 68，（2））， brother．
brūcan（§ 109，Note 1），to enjoy （§ 62，Note 1）．
brȳc＇す，see brūcan．
brycg，f，bridge．
būan（§ 126，Note 2），to dwell， cultivate
būde，see būan．
bufan，above（with dative and ac－ cusative）
būgan（§ 109，Note 1），to bend， turn
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．
būtū，both（＝both－two．The word is composed of the combined neuters of bëgen and twēgen，
but is masculine and feminine as well as neuter).
by̆n (§ 126, Note 2), cultivatecl byrde, of high rank, aristocratic. byrig, see burg. byrð, 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
oniht, 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 tribe
cwedan (§ 115), to say.
cwōm, see cuman.
cyle (ciele), m., cold [chill]; cyle gewyrcan, to produce cold, to freeze
cynerīce, n, kingdom.
cyning, m., king

## D.

d戸̄д, f, deed
dæg, m., day.
dæl, n , dale.
dǣІ, m, part, division.
dēad, dead.
Dęnamearc, see Dęnemearc.
Dęne (§47), m., plural, Danes.
Dęnemearc (Dęnemearce), f., Denmark, dative singular $=$ Dęnemearce (strong), Dęnemearcan (weak).
Dęnisc, Danish; đ̄ā Dęniscan, the Danes.
dēofol, m, n., devil; genitive singular = dēofles (§ 27, (4)).
dēor, n , wild animal.
dōn (§ 135), to do, cause.
dorston, see durran.
Dryhten, m., lord, the Lord.
durran (§ 137), to dare.
duru, f., door.
dȳre (diere), dear, costly.

## E.

ēa, f., river; genitive singular $=$ ēas; dative and accusative singular $=\overline{\text { ēa }}$
ēac, also
ēaca, $m$, addition [ēac]; tō èacan, in addition to (§ 94, (4)).
ēage, n , eye.
eahta, eight.
ealaむ, see ealu.
eald (§ 96, (2)), old
ealdormon, m, alderman, chief magistrate
eall (eal), all; ealne weg, all the way (§ 98, (1)).
ealu (§ 68), n, ale; genitive singular = ealaঠ.
eardian (§ 130), to dwell.
ēare, n., ear.
earm，poor．
earnung，f．，merit［earning］．
ēast，east．
ēastan（§ 93，（5）），from the east． ēasteweard，eastward．
ēastrihte（§ 93，（6）），eastward．
Eastron，plural，Easter
ēastryhte，see ēastrihte．
eln，f．，ell．
emnlọng（emnlang），equally long；on emnlange，along （§ 94，（4））．
ęnde，m，end．
ęngel， m ，angel．
Englafeld（§ 51），m．，Englefield （in Berkshire）．
Engle（§ 47），m．，plural，Angles． ēode，see gān．
eorl，m．，earl，chieftain．
eorðe，f．，earth．
ēow，see 岂ū．
Eowland，n．，Öland（an island in the Baltic Sea）
erian（§ 125），to plow．
Estland，n．，land of the Estas（on the eastern coast of the Baltic Sea）
Estmere，m．，Frische Haff．
Estum，m．，dative plural，the Estas
etan（§ 115），to eat
ętan（§ 127），to graze［etan］．

## F．

fæder（§ 68，（2）），m．，father．
fæt，n．，vessel
f̄̄セels，m．，vessel；accusative plural $=\mathbf{f} \overline{\text { モtels }}$ ．
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（§ 96，（4）），far．
fēowertig，forty ；genitive $=$ fēo－ wertiges（§ 91，Note 1）．
fersc，fresh．
feđer，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．
fiscaす（fiscnaむ），m．，fishing．
fiscere，m．，fisherman．
fiscnaむ＇，see fiscaむ．
folc，n，folk，people．
folcgefeoht， n ，battle，general engagement
fōn（§ 118），to seize，capture， take ；tō rīce fōn，to come to （ascend）the throne．
for（§ 94，（1）），for，on account of；for 丈æ̈m（むe），for あon （它e），because；for あ̄̄，there－ fore．
fōr，see faran．
forbærnan（§ 127），to burn．
forhwæga，about，at least．
forspęndan（§ 127），to squander． for＇゙，forth，forward．
Fræna，m，Frene．
fręmde，strange，foreign；あā
fremdan，the strangers．
frēodōm，m，freedom．
fri＇，m，n．，peace，security
frōfor，f．，consolation
from（fram）（§ 94，（1）），from， $b y$ ．
fugela，see fugol．
fugelere，m．，fowler．
fugol（fugel），m．，bird．
fūl，foul．
fūlian（§ 130），to grow foul，de－ compose
full，full（with genitive）．
fultum，m．，help．
fyld，see feallan
fyrst，chief，first．

## G．

gafol， n ，tax，tribute．
gālnes，f．，lust，impurity．
gān（§ 134），to go．
gār，m．，spear．
ge，and；see $\overline{\boldsymbol{x}}$ gずer
geærnan（§ 127），to gain by run－ ning［iernan］．
gear， n ，year．
gebētan（§ 126），to make amends for ［bōt＝remedy］．
gebrēowan（§ 109），to brew
gebrowen，see gebrēowan．
gebūd，see būan．
gebūn，see būan
gebyrd， n ，rank，social distinc－ tion．
gecnāwan（§ 117），to under－ stand
gedōn（§ 134），to do，cause．
gedrync， n ，drinking．
gefaran（§ 116），to go，die．
gefeaht，see gefeohtan．
gefeoht， n ，fight，battle．
gefeohtan（§ 110），to fight
geflieman（§ 126），to put to flight．
gefohten，see gefeohtan．
gefōr，see gefaran
gefuhton，see gefeohtan．
gefylce，n，troop，division；dative plural＝gefylcum，gefylcium．
gehiersumnes，f．，obedience．
gehwæðer（§ 77，Note），either， both．
gelædan（§ 126），to lead．
gemētan（§ 126），to meet．
genōh，enough．
genumen，see niman．
geoc，n．，yoke．
geond（§ 94，（2）），throughout．
geong（§ 96，（2）），young．
geręcednes，f，narration．
gesamnode，see gespmnian．
gesceaft，f，creature，creation
gesceap， n ，creation．
gescieldan（§ 127），to shield，de－ fend．
geseglian（§ 130），to sail．
gesēon（§ 118），to see
geset，n，habitation，seat
gesewenlīc，visible［past partici－ ple of sēon + līc．］
gesiglan（§ 127），to sail．
geslægen，see slēan（§ 118）
gesomnian（§ 130），to assemble．
gestað゙elian（§ 130），to establish， restore．
gestrangian（§ 130），to strengthen．
gestrēon，n，property
geswican（§ 102），to cease，cease from（with genitive）
getruma，m．，troop，division．
geđanc, $\mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}$, thought.
geđ̄ēode, n, language, tribe.
gewald (geweald), n, control, possession, power.
gewinn, n, strife.
gewissian (§ 130), to guide, direct
gewyrc(e) an (§ 128), to work, create, make, produce.
giefu, f, gift.
gīet ( $\mathrm{g} \overline{\mathrm{y}} \mathrm{t}$ ), 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;
3 d singular indicative $=\mathrm{gylt}$
gȳt, see gīet.

## H.

habban (§ 133), to have.
$\mathrm{h} \overline{\boldsymbol{x}} \mathrm{t}$, see hātan
h̄̄̈en, heathen
 ( $=$ Schleswig).
hāl, hale, whole.
Halfdęne, m, Halfdene.
hālga, m , saint.
Hālgolañ, n, Halgoland (in ancient Norway).
hālig, holy
hālignes, f, holiness
hām, m , home ; dative singular $=$ hāme, hām (p. 104, Note)
hand, see hqnd
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 $[$ hēah + past participle of đēon (§ 118)].
healdan (§ 117), to hold.
healf (adjective), half.
healf, f, half, side, shore.
heall, f, hall
heard, hard.
hēawan (§ 117), to hew, cut.
helan (§ 114), to conceal
helpan (§ 110), to help (with đative).
heofon, m., heaven.
heora (hiera), see hē.
heorte, f , heart.
hēr, here, in this year
hęre, m., Danish army.
hęrgian (§ 130), to raid, harry, ravage [hęre]
hęrgung, f, harrying, plundering.
hider, hither
hiera, see hē.
hīeran (hȳran) (§ 126), to hear, belong
hierde, m, shepherd
hira, see hē
hlăford, m, lord, master.
hof, n, court, abode.
hond (hand), f., hand, on gehwæずre hqnd, on both sides.
hors, n , horse
horshwæl, m., walrus.
hrægel, n, garment ; dative singular = hrægle
hrān, m, reindeer
hrÿðer, n., cattle.
hū, how.
hund，hundred．
hunig，n．，honey
hunta，m，hunter．
huntoむ（huntaむ），m．，hunting．
hūru，about
hūs，n．，house
hwā，hwæt（§ 74），who？what？
hwæl，m．，whale．
hwælhunta，m．，whale－fisher．
hwælhuntaむ＇，m．，whale－fishing．
$\mathbf{h w \varpi ̄ r , ~ w h e r e ? ~}$
hwæむ゙er，whether，which of the two？
hwēne，see hwōn．
hwil，f，while，time；ealle dā hwille むe，all the while that； hwīlum（instrumental plural）， sometimes．
hwōn， n ，a trifle；hwēne（in－ strumental singular），somewhat， a little．
$\mathbf{h y}$（hie），see hē．
hȳd，f．，hide，skin．
hyra（hiera），see hē．
hȳran，see hīeran．
hys（his），see hē．
hyt（hit），see hē．

## I．

ic（§ 72），$I$ ．
ieldra，see eald．
iernan（yrnan）（§ 112），to run．
īgland，see īglond
iglond，n．，island．
ilca（ylca），the same．
Ilfing，the Elbing．
in，in，into（with dative and accu－ sative）；in on（with accusa－ tive）；in on，to，toward
inne，within，inside
inweardlice，inwardly，fervently

Iraland， n ，Ireland（but in Oht－ here＇s Second Voyage，Iceland is doubtless meant）．

## K

kyrtel，m．，kirtle，coat．

## L．

læge，see licgan．
Læ̈land，n，Laaland（in Den－ mark）．
læ̈ssa，see lȳtel．
læ̈sta，see lȳtel．
$1 \bar{æ} \tan$（§ 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 lǫnge．
lęngra，see lǫng．
lēof，dear．
leoht，light
lēt，see læ̈tan．
līc， n ，body，corpse．
licgan（§ 115，Note 2），to lie， extend，flow， 8 d singular indi－ cative＝ligeせ，lī゙す．
līchama，m．，body．
lige ${ }^{\text {d }}$ ，see licgan．
$\lim , \mathrm{n}, \operatorname{limb}$
lï＇，see licgan
lof，m，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).
lȳtel (lītel) (§ 96, (3)), little, small.

## M.

mā, see micle.
māg, m, kinsman; dative plural $=$ māgum (§ 27, (2)).
mæge, see magan
mægむ, f, tribe.
mægđ̈hād, m., maidenhood, virginity.
m̄̄̄st, see micel.
magan (§ 137), to be able, may.
māgum, see m̄̄छ.
man, see mon.
māra, see micel.
meahte, see magan.
mearc, f., boundary.
mearh, m, horse.
mearð, m, marten.
medu, m., mead.
męn, see mp̨.
meolc, f., milk.
Mēore, Möre (in Sweden).
mere, m, lake, meer, sea
Meretūn, 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
mill, f, mile.
mildheortnes, f., mercy
$\min (\S 76), m y$, mine.
mōd, n, mind, mood
mōdor, f, mother.
mon (mqnn, man, mann) (§ 68), man, one, person, they (§ 70, Note)
mōna, m., moon.
mōnað (§ 68), Note 1), month; dative singular $=$ mōnđe.
monig (manig, mænig), many
mōnす̛́e, see mōnađ̛.
mōr, m, moor.
morgen, m, morning
mōtan (§ 137), may, must.
munuc, m, monk.
mūð, m., mouth.
mȳre, f., mare.

## N.

nā, not; nā ne, not (emphatic), not at all.
nabban (p 32, Note), not to have.
næ̈dre, f., serpent, adder.
næfde, see nabban
næ̈nig (§77), no one, none.
næ̈re, see bēon (§40, Note 2).
næs, see bēon (§40), Note 2)
nama, see nqma.
nāmon, see niman
ne, not
nē, nor; nē . . nē, neither . . . nor
nēah (§ 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).
nīwe, new
nqma, m., name.
norð（§ 97，（1）），north，in the north，northwards
norðan（§ 93），（5）），from the north；be norðan，see be．
norðeweard，northward．
Nor＇̛hymbre，m．pluıal，North－ umbrians
Norð゙manna，see Norð゙mpn．
Norðmę，see Norðmpn
norðmest，see norð．
Norðmpn（－man）（68，（1）），Nor－ wegian
norðor，see norð
norðryhte，northward．
nordweard，northward．
Norðweg，Norway．
nū，now．
nȳhst（nīehst），see nēah．
nysse，see nytan
nyste，see nytan．
nytan（nitan＜ne witan，§ 136）， not to know；3d singular preterit ＝nysse，nyste．

## 0

of（§ 94，（1）），of，from，concern－ ing
ofer（§94，（2）），over，across，after．
ofer（adverb），over，across
oferfēran（§ 126），to go over，trav－ erse．
oferfrēosan（§ 109），to freeze over
oferfroren，see oferfrēosan．
ofslægen，see ofslēan
ofslēan（§ 118），to slay．
ofslōge，see ofslēan．
on（§ 94，（3）），in，into，on，against， to，among，during；on fif ođð＇e syx，into five or six parts．
ond（and），and
onfeohtan（§ 110），to fight．
ongēan（adverb），just across，op－ posite
onginnan（§ 110），to begin．
onrīdan（§ 102），to ride against， make a raid on，
ơ＇（§ 94，（2）），until，as far as； oむむむ，until．
öðer，other，second；öðer ．．． öder，the one ．．．the other．
 ．．．or

## P．

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

## R．

rād，f，raid．
Rēadingas，m．，plural，Reading （in Berkshire）．
rice，rich，powerful，aristocratic． rïce，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．
s״̄d，n．，seed
s＂̄дe，see sęcgan．
sam ．．．sam，whether ．．．or．
samod，see spmod
sanct，m．，f，saint；genitive sin－ gular＝sanctæ（fem．），sancti （mase）［sanctus］．
sāwan（§ 117），to sow．
sāwol，f，soul；genitive singular $=$ sāwle（§ 39，Note）．
sceal，see sculan．
scēap，n．，sheep
scēawung，f．，seeing．
sceolde，see sculan．
scēowyrhta，m．，shoe－maker．
scęむずan（§116），to injure，scathe （with dative）．
scieppan（§ 116），to create．
Scieppend，m，Creator．
scīnan（§ 102），to shine．
scip（scyp），n．，ship．
sciprāp，m，ship－rope，cable．
scīr，f，shire，district．
Sciringeshēal，m．，Sciringeskeal （in Norway）．
Scōnēg，f，Slkaane（southern dis－ trict of the Scandinavian penin－ sula）．
sculan（§ 136 ；§ 137，Note 2）， shall，have to，ought．
scyp，see scip．
sē，sēo，đæt（§ 28 ；§ 28，Note 3）， the；that；he，she，it，who， which，that；むæs，from then， afterwards；ઠæs むe（p．110， 1 2），with what，丈̄̄ ．．むæt， （p．110，ll 7－8），for this reason ．．because．
Seaxe，m，plural，Saxons，Sax－ ony．
sēcan（§ 128），to seek，visit
sęcg，m．，man，warrior．
sęcgan（§ 132），to say，tell．
segel，m，n．，sail；dative singu－ lar $=$ segle.
seglian（§ 130），to sail．
self（sylf），self，himself（declined as strong or weak adjective）．
sęndan（§ 127），to send．
sēo，see sē
seofon（syfan），seven．
seolh， m ，seal；genitive singular
$=$ sēoles（§ 27，（3））．
sīe，see bēon
siex，six，syxa（siexa）sum，see
sum
siextig，sixty
sige， m ，victory．
siglan（§ 127），to sail．
Sillende，Zealand
sind，sint，sindon，see bēon．
singan（§ 110），to sing．
siðむむan，after that，afterwards， after．
slēan（§ 118），to slay．
smæl，narrow
smalost，see smæl
sōhte，see sēcan．
somod（samod），together．
sō⿱宀 ，true．
sōせ，n．，truth
söđlīce，truly．
spēd，f，possessions，success， riches［speed］．
spēdig，rich，prosperous．
spell，n，story，tale．
spere， n ，spear
spor， n ，track
spræ̈c，f，speech，language．
sprecan（§ 115），to speak
stælhrān，m．，decoy－reindeer．
stælwierðe，serviceable．
stæす，n．，shove．
stān，m．，stone，rock
standan，see stondan．
stęde， m ，place．
stelan（§ 114），to steal．
stęnt，see stǫndan．
stēorbord，n．，starboard，right side of a ship
stilnes，f．，stillness，quiet．
stondan（§ 116），to stand．

玉tōw， $\mathrm{f}, p l a c e$.
strang，see strqug
strqng（§ 96，（2）），strong．

sum（§91，Note 2），some，certain， a certain one；hē syxa sum， he with five others．
sumera，see sumor．
sumor，m．，summer，dative sin－ gular $=$ sumera
sumorlida，m．，summer－army．
sunne，f．，sun．
sunu， m ，son．
sūす，south，southwards
sūずan（§ 93，（5）），from the south， be sūずan，south of（§ 94，（4））． süðeweard，southwardd
sūđryhte，southward．
swā，so，as；swā swā，just $a s$ ， as far as；swā ．．．swā，the ．．．the，as ．．．as
Swēoland，n．，Sweden．
Swēom，m．，dative plural，the Swedes
swift（swyft），swift．
swīn（swȳn），n．，swine，hog．
swī̃e（swy̆すe），very
swī̀ost，chiefly，almost．
swuster（§ 68，（2）），f．，sister．
swyft，see swift
$\mathbf{s w y ̄ n , ~ s e e ~ s w i ̄ n ~}$
swy̆đ̛e，see swī̀e．
symle，always．
synd，see bēon．
syðずan，see siơずan
syx，see siex．
syxtig，see siextig．

## T．

tācen，n．，sign，token ；dative sin－ gular $=$ tācne $(\S 33$, Note $)$.
tæcan（§128），to teach．
tam，tame
Temes，f．，the Thames．
Terfinna，m．，genitive plural，the
Terfins．
tēす，see tō̃．
tīen（ $\mathrm{ty} \mathbf{n}$ ），ten
til，good．
tīma， m ，time．
tō（§ 94，（1）），to，for．
tōdǣlan（§ 126），to divide．
tōemnes（tō emnes）（§ 94，（4））， along，alongside．
tōforan（§ 94，（1）），before．
tōhopa，m，hope．
tōlicgan（§ 115，Note 2），to sepa－ rate，lie between；3d singular indicative $=$ tōlī̆．
tōlī̀，see tōlicgan．
tō̈（§ 68，（1）），m，tooth．
tōweard（§ 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．
tȳn，see tīen

## Đ

đ̄̄，then，when ；宅 ．．．then
đ̄̄，see sē

じæs，afterwards（see sē）．
むæt，that
岗ās，see 耑ēs
むe（§ 75），who，whom，which， that．

むēah，though，however
むearf，f，need，benefit．
むēaw，m，habit，custom．
むegn（むegen），m．，servant，thane， warrior．
Фēowa，m，servant．
đḕs（§ 73），this
dider，thither．
むiderweard，thitherward．
סin（§ 76），thine．
©ing， n ，thing．
đis，see đ̄̄s．
đissum，see むēs．
むonan，thence．
むone，see sē．
あonne，than，then，when；むonne ．．．©onne，when ．．．then．
Ørēora，see đrīe．
むridda，third．
đrīe（岩ry ）（§ 89），three．
đrīm，see đrīe．
むrītig，thirty．
đry
灾 $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$（§ 72），thou
むūhte，see むyncan．
ঠurh（§ 94，（2）），through．
むus，thus．
守ūsend，thousand
あ $\overline{\mathbf{y}}$ ，see $\mathbf{s e}$
あyder，see đider．
あyncan（§ 128），to seem，appear （impersonal）；mē すyncむ，me－ thinks，it seems to me；him完ūhte，it seemed to him．

## U．

unbeboht，unsold［bebycgan $=$ to sell］．
unforbærned，unburned．
unfri＇，m．，hostility
ungefōge，excessively．
ungesewenlic，invisible［past participle of sēon + lic］
unrihtwīsnes，f．，unrighteous－ ness．
unspēdig，poor．
ūp（ūpp），up．
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；wæl－ stōwe gewald，possession of the battle－field．
wæ̈pen，n．，weapon．
wæ̈re，see bēon．
wæs，see bēon
wæter，n．，water
wealdend，m．，wielder，lord， ruler．
wealh，m．，foreigner，Welshman．
weall，m，wall
wearあ，see weorð゙an．
weaxan（§ 117），to grow，wax
weg，m．，way；hys weges，see § 93，（3）．
wel（§ 97，（2）），well．
węndan（§ 127），to change， translate［windan］．
Weonodland（Weonoむland）， n．，Wendland
weorpan（§ 110），to throw．
weorð゙an（§ 110），to be，become．
werod，n．，army
wesan，see bēon．
Wesseaxe，m，plural，West Sax－ ons；genitive plural＝Wes－ seaxna．
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
wīds $\bar{æ}, \mathrm{f}$ ，open sea
wīf， n ，vife，woman．
wild，wild
wildor， 11 ，wild beast，reindeer； dative plual $=$ wildrum（§ 33， Note）
willa，m，will
willan（§ 134 ；§ 137，Note 3）， to will，intend
Wiltūn，m．，Wilton（in Wilt－ shire）
wīn， n ，wine．
Winburne，f，Wimborne（in Dor－ setshire）
wind，m，wind
wine，m，friend
Winedas，m．，pluıal，the Wends， the Wend country
wīngeard，m．，vineyard
winter， m ，winter；dative singu－ lar $=\mathrm{wintra}$
wīs，wise
wīsdōm，m．，voisdom．
Wisle，f，the Vistula
Wislemūđa，m，the mouth of the Vistula．
wisse，see witan
witan（§ 136），to know
wīte，n．，punishment
Wītland， n ，Witland（in Prus－ sia）
wiđ（§ 94，（3）），against，toward， wið ēastan and wiđ ūpp on emnlange む戸̄m bȳnum lande， toward the east，and upwards along the cultivated land
wiðerwinna，m，adversary．
wolde，see willan．
word，n．，word．
woruld，f，world；tō worulde būtan $\overline{\boldsymbol{æ}}$ ghwilcum ęnde，world without end
wrītan（§ 102），to write．
wucu，f．，week
wudu，m．，wood，forest．
wuldor，n，glory．
wulf，m，wolf．
wund，f．，wound
wurdon，see weorðan．
wylf，f，she wolf
wyllad，see willan
wyrc（e）an（§ 128），to work， make．
wyrhta，m．，worker，creator ［－wright］．

## $\mathbf{Y}$.

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

## II. GLOSSARY.

## MODERN ENGLISH - OLD ENGLISH.

## A

a, $\bar{a} n$ (§77).
abide, bīdan (§ 102), ābīdan.
about, be (§ 94, (1)), ymbe (§94,
(2) ) ; to write about, wrītan
be; to speak about (=of),
sprecan ymbe, about two days
afterwards, ১ces ymbe twēgen dagas
adder, $n \bar{x} d r e(\S 64)$.
afterwards, خces (§ 93, (3))
against, wit (§ 94, (3)), on (§94, (3)).

Alfred, Allfred (§ 26).
all, eall (§ 80).
also, ēac.
although, ঠēah (§ 105, 2)
always, $\bar{a}$; ealne weg (§ 98, (1)).
am, eom (§40).
an, see $\mathbf{a}$.
and, qnd (and).
angel, engel (§ 26).
animal, dēor (§ 32)
are, sind, sint, sindon (§ 40).
army, werod (§ 32); Danish
army, here (§ 26); English
army, fierd (§ 38).
art, eart (§40).
Ashdown, Ascesdün (§38)
ask, biddan (§ 65, Note 3 ; § 115, Note 2).
away, aweg.

## B.

battle-field, wcelstōw (§ 38).
be, bēon (§40); not to be, see § 40, Note 2.
bear, beran (§ 114).
because, for ঠ戸̄m (ঠe), for ঠon (みe).
become, weorðan (§ 110).
before (temporal conjunction),

begin, onginnan (§ 107, (1); § 110).
belong to, belimpan tō + dative (§ 110)
best, see good.
better, see good.
bind, bindan (§ 110).
bird, fugol (§ 26)
bite, bītan (§ 102).
body, līc (§ 32).
bone, $b \bar{a} n$ (§ 32).
book, $b \bar{o} c$ (§ 68).
both . . and, $\bar{x} g$ бer ge . . ge.
boundary, mearc (§ 38)
boy, cnapa (§ 64).
break, brēotan (§ 109), brecan, ābrecan (§ 114)
brother, bröðor (§ 68, (2)).
but, ac
by, from (fram) (§ 94, (1); § 141, Note 1).

## C

Cædmon, Ccedmon (§68,(1)). call, hātan (§ 117, (1))
cease, cease from, geswīcan (§ 102)
child, bearn (§ 32).
choose, cēosan (§ 109).
Christ, Crīst (§ 26)
church, cirice (§64).
come, cuman (§ 114)
comfort, fröfor (§ 38).
companion, getēra (§ 64).
consolation, frōfor (§ 38)
create, gescieppan (§ 116).

## D.

Danes, $D_{\ell}$ ne (§47)
day, dceg (§ 26)
dead, lēad (§ 80)
dear ( $=$ beloved), lēof (§ 80).
deed, $l \bar{x} d(\S 38)$
die, cwelan (§ 114 )
division (of troops), gefylce (§ 32), getruma (§ 64)
do, dön (§ 134)
door, clor (§ 32), duru (§ 52)
drink, drincan (§ 110)
during, on (§ 94, (3)) See also § 98
dwell in, būan on (§ 126, Note $2)$.

## E.

earl, eorl (§ 26)
enđure, drēogan (§ 109)
England, Englalpnd (§32).
enjoy, brūcan (§ 62, Note 1;
§ 109, Note 1).
every, $\overline{\mathscr{x}} l c$ (§77).
eye, ēage (§ 64).

## F.

father, fueder (§ 68, (2)).
field, fell (§51)
fight, feohtan, gefeohtan (§ 110)
find, findan (§ 110).
finger, finger (§ 26)
fire, $f \bar{y} r$ (§ 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, gloed (§ 81)
glove, $g l \bar{\rho} f(\S 38)$
go, $g \bar{a} n$ (§ 134), faran (§ 116).
God, God (§ 26).
good, $g \bar{o} d$ (§ 80)

## H.

Halgoland, Hālgoland (§ 32).
hall, heall (§ 38).
hand, hend (§52).
hard, heard (§ 80)
have, habban (§ 34); not to have, nabban (p 32, Note)
he, $h \bar{e}$ (§53).
head, hēafod (§ 32)
hear, hīeran (§ 126)
heaven, heofon (§ 26)
help, helpan (with dative) (§ 110)
herdsman, hierde (§ 26).
here, $h \bar{e} r$.
hither, hider.
hold, healdan (§ 1.17, (2))
holy, hālig (§ 82).
horse, mearh (\$26), hors (§ 32)
house, $h \bar{l} s$ (§ 32)

## I

I, ic (§ 72)
in, on (§ 94, (3))
indeed, sōdtice
injure, scȩðかan (with dative) (§ 116).
it, hit (§53).

## $\mathbf{K}$.

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

## L.

land, lqud (§ 32).
language, spr̄̄x (§ 38), geঠēode (§ 32).
large, micel (§ 82).
leisure, $\bar{x} m e t t a(§ 64)$.
let us, uton (with infinitive)
limb, $\lim$ (§ 32).
little, lÿtel (§ 82).
live in, büan on (§ 126, Note 2). lord, hläford (§ 26).
love, lufian (§ 131)
love (noun), lufu (§ 38).

## $\mathbf{M}$.

make, wyrcan (§ 128).
man, secg (§ 26), men (§ 68, (1)).
many, m@nig (§82)
mare, mȳre (§ 64)
mead, medu (§ 51)
Mercians, Mierce (§47).
milk, meolc (§ 38)
month, mōnaঠ (§ 68, (1), Note 1)
mouth, mū̀ (§ 26).
much, micel (§ 96, (3)), micle (§ 97, (2)).
murderer, b ${ }^{2} n a(\S 64)$.
my, $\operatorname{mīn}(\S 76)$.

## $\mathbf{N}$

natives, $l_{\varrho}$ ndlēode (§ 47).
nephew, nefa (§ 64).
new, mive (§ 82)
Northumbrians, Norסymbre
(§47).
not, ne

## 0

of, see about
on, on (§ 94, (3)), ofer (§ 94, (2)).
one, $\bar{a} n$ (§ 89); the one the other, $\overline{0}$ der . . ōder.
other, $\bar{o}$ ঠer (§77)
our, й•e (\$76).
ox, oxa (§ 64).

## P.

place, stōw (§ 38).
plundering, $h_{\imath} r g \imath n g$ (§ 38).
poor，earm（§ 80），unspēdig（§ 82）．
prosperous，spēdig（§ 82）．

## Q．

queen，cwēn（§ 49）．

## R．

reindeer，$h r a \bar{n}(\S 26)$ ．
remain，būdan（§ 102），ābūdan．
retain possession of the battle－
field，āgan walstōwe gewald．
rich，rīce（§ 82），spēdig（§ 82）
ride，rūdan（§ 102）．

## s．

say，cweð⿱亠𧘇（§ 115），seccgan （§ 133）．
scribe，böcere（§ 26）．
seal，seolh（§ 26）．
see，sēon（§ 118），gesëon
serpent，$n \overline{\mathscr{x}} d r e(\S 64)$ ．
servant，ðёova（§ 64），Əegn（§ 26）
shall，sculan（§ 136；§ 137，
Note 2）．
she，hēo（§53）
shepherd，hierde（§ 26）
ship，scip（§ 32）
shire，scīr（§ 38）
shoemaker，scēowyrhta（§ 64）．
side，on both sides，on gehweḋre hpnd
six，siex（§ 90）
slaughter，woxl（§ 32），woelsliht （§ 45）
small，lȳtel（§ 82）．
son，sunu（§51）．
soul，sãwol（§ 38）．
speak，sprecan（§ 115）．
spear，$g \bar{\alpha} r$（§ 26），spere（§ 32）．
stand，stpndan（§ 116）．
stone，stān（§ 26）．
stranger，wealh（§ 26），cuma （§ 64）．
suffer，drēogan（§ 109）．
sun，sunne（§ 64）．
swift，swift（§ 80）．

## т．

take，niman（§ 110）．
than，סonne（§ 96，（6））．
thane，गegn（§ 26）．
that（conjunction），סotet．
that（demonstrative），sē，sēo，市ct （§ 28）
that（relative），$\partial e(\S 75)$.
the，sē，sēo，ðcct（§ 28）．
then， $\bar{\partial} \bar{a}$ ，ðonne．
these，see this．
they，hīe（§ 53）．
thing，oing（§ 32）．
thirty，drītig．
this，ð̄ès，ð̄eos，ðis（§ 73）．
those，see that（demonstrative）
thou，$\delta \bar{u}(\S 72)$ ．
though，ঠēah（§ 105，2）．
three，ठriè（§ 89）．
throne，ascend the throne，tō rīce fōn
throw，weorpan（§ 110）．
to，$t \bar{o}(\S 94,(1))$ ．
tongue，tunge（§ 64）．
track，spor（§ 32）．
true，söठ（§ 80）．
truly，södlīce．
two，twëgen（§ 89）．

## v

very，swïðe．
vessel，fatt（§ 32）
victory，sige（§ 45）．

## w

wall, weall (§ 26)
warrior, secg (§ 26), eorl (§ 26). way, weg (§ 26).
weapon, wāpen (§ 32).
well, wel (§ 97, (2))
Welshman, Wealh (§26).
went, see go
westward, west, westrihte.
whale, hwocl (§ 26)
what? hwott (§ 74).
when, $\begin{array}{r} \\ \text {, } \\ \text {, ঠonne. }\end{array}$
where? $h w \bar{x} r$.
which, Je (§ 75).
who? hwā (§ 74).
who (relative), ঠe (§ 75)
whosoever, swā hwā swā (§77, Note).
will, willan (§ 134; § 137, Note 3).
Wilton, Wiltūn (§ 26)
win, see gain.
wine, win (§ 32)
wisdom, wīsdōm (§ 26).
wise, wīs (§80).
with, mid (§ 94, (1)) ; to fight with (= against), gefeohtan wio (§ 94, (3)).
withstand, widstondan (with dative) (§ 116).
wolf, wulf (§ 26), wylf (§ 38).
woman, wīf (§ 32).
word, word (§ 32)
worm, wyrm (§ 45).

## Y.

ye, $g \bar{e}(\S 72)$.
year, gēar (§ 32).
yoke, geoc (§ 32).
you, $\check{\bar{u}}$ (singular), $g \vec{e}$ (plural) (§ 72).
your, đīn (singular), ēower (plural) (§76).

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ 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 $+i s c$ ) became the general name for the language spoken.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ 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.

[^2]:    ${ }^{1}$ 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

[^3]:    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.

[^4]:    ${ }^{1}$ 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 $e n$, - 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.

[^5]:    ${ }^{1}$ 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. $\quad C f$. Modern English at all (=a-tall).

[^6]:    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.

[^7]:    ${ }^{1}$ 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?

[^8]:    ${ }^{1}$ Early West Saxon had no distinctive form for the future. The present was used both as present proper and as future $C f$. Modern English "I go home tomorrow," or "I am going home tomorrow" for "I shall go home tomorrow"

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

[^9]:    ${ }^{1}$ 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.

[^10]:    ${ }^{1}$ But in the Voyages of Ohthere and Wulfstan, in which the style is apparently more that of olal 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 bæt 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

[^11]:    ${ }^{1}$ 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."

[^12]:    ${ }^{1}$ But Old English ā preceded by w sometimes gives Modern English $o$ as in two $\mathbf{t w a}=t w o ; \mathbf{h w a}=w h o ; \mathbf{h w a ̄ m}=w h o m$.

[^13]:    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.

[^14]:    ${ }^{1}$ 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
    ${ }^{\mathbf{3}}$ See § 17, Note 1. Note that (as in hwæl, § 27, (2)) æ changes to a when the following syllable contains a: hæbbe, but hafast.

[^15]:    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）．${ }^{\mathbf{3}}$ See § 27，（2）．

[^16]:    ${ }^{1}$ As in warden of the marches．

[^17]:    ${ }^{1}$ See § 21，（1）
    ${ }_{2}$ Pronouns agree in gender with the nouns for which they stand． Hit，however，sometimes stands for inanimate things of both mascu－ line and feminine genders．See Wülfing（ $l c$ ．） I ，§ 238.

[^18]:    ${ }^{1}$ The palatal vowels and diphthongs were long or short $æ, \mathbf{e}, \mathbf{i}$, (ie), $\mathbf{y}$, ea, eo; the guttural vowels were long or short a, o, u.

[^19]:    ${ }^{1}$ The more common form for stems with a is æ rather than $\mathcal{\varepsilon}$ : 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.

[^20]:    ${ }^{1}$ This happens also when the infinitive stem ends in st:

[^21]:    ${ }^{1}$ Brūcan, to enjoy, takes the genitive case, not the accusative. It means "to have joy of anything."

[^22]:    ${ }^{1}$ 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

[^23]:    "I request you (dative) of a favor" (genitive). Cf. Cymbeline, III, 6,92 : "We'll mannerly demand thee of thy story."

[^24]:    ${ }^{1}$ This is really a double superlative, $\mathbf{m}$ being itself an old superlative suffix $C f$. 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.

[^25]:    ${ }^{1}$ Sige usually，but not invariably，precedes habban
    ${ }^{2}$ See p 100，note on gefeaht．
    ${ }^{3}$ The proper noun comes first in appositive expressions：7llfred cyning，Sidroc eorl，Hēahmund bisceop．

[^26]:    ${ }^{1}$ Lounsbury, English Language, Part II, § 241.

[^27]:    ${ }^{1}$ Usage sanctions mood, but the better spelling would be mode. It is from the Lat modus, whereas mood (=temper) is O.E. mōd.
    ${ }^{2}$ Gildersleeve's Latin Grammar, § 255.

[^28]:    ${ }^{1}$ Thus when Alfred writes that an event took place before the
     burh getimbrod wǣre＝before Rome were founded，but，æf－ ter むæ̈m むe Rōmeburh getimbrod wæs＝after Rome was founded．

    2 ＂By the time of $\mathbb{A l f r i c}$ ，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）．

[^29]:    ${ }^{1}$ 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

[^30]:    ${ }^{1}$ A few verbs of Class II have $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ instead of $\bar{e} o$ 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 $\dot{\delta}$, s, and $\mathbf{h}$ of strong verbs generally become $\mathbf{d}, \mathbf{r}$, and $\mathbf{g}$, respectively, in the preterit plural and past participle.

[^31]:    ${ }^{1}$ 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 $\mathbf{r}$ in the root.
    ${ }^{3}$ See § 94, (5).

[^32]:    * There is something inexpressibly touching in this clause from the great king's pen : gif wē $\gamma \bar{a}$ stilnesse habbað'. He is speaking of how much he hopes to do, by his translations, for the enlightenment of his people.

[^33]:    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 wæs.
    18. qnd fela pūsenda ofslægenra, and there were many thousands of slain (§91).

[^34]:    1-4. him . . . ūs. Note the characteristic change of person, the transition from indirect to direct discourse.

